L. KNODEL

THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN & NORTHERN IRELAND

TEXTBOOK I

KIEV - 2019

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

Британский монарх является главой 15 независимых государств и главой их Содружества.

Форма правления – парламентарная монархия. Форма государственного устройства – квазиунитарное государство, где с конца XX века 3 из 4 составляющих стран (Шотландия, Северная Ирландия, Уэльс) обладают правами ограниченной автономии. Столица – город Лондон – один из крупнейших городов Европы и финансово-экономических центров мира.

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

ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Великобрита́ния, полная официальная форма — Соединённое Королевство Великобрита́нии и Се́верной Ирла́ндии (англ. *The United Kingdom of Great Britain & Northern Ireland*), — островное государство на северо-западе от континентальной Европы. В 1800 году Королевства Великобритания и Ирландия объединились, образовав Соединённое Королевство Великобритании и Ирландии, которое после отделения от него в 1922 году Ирландского Свободного государства стало именоваться Соединённым Королевством Великобритании и Северной Ирландии.

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Клавдий Птолемей в своем труде «Альмагест» (147-148 н. э.) называет больший остров «Большой Бретанией», а Ирландию называет «Малой Бретанией».

В своей более поздней работе «География» (150 г. н. э.) он называет эти острова «Альвион», «Иверниа» и «Мона» (остров Мэн), предполагают, что эти названия не были известны ему во время написания «Альмагеста». Название «Альбион», видимо, вышло из употребления через некоторое время после завоевания островов римлянами, остров стали называть «Великобританией».

После англосаксонского периода название «Британия» стало упоминаться только как исторический термин. Джефри Монмауз Великобританию называет «Большой Британнией», область в континентальной Европе, где селились кельтские переселенцы с Британских островов в V-VI веке.

Название «Великобритания» впервые было использовано официально в 1474 году, в письме с предложением о браке между Сесили дочери Эдуарда IV из Англии и Джеймсом, сыном Джеймса III из Шотландии, в котором сказано «этот благородный остров, называемый Великобританией». Официально это слово прозвучало опять в 1604 году, когда король Джеймс VI провозгласил себя «*Королём Великобритании, Франции и Ирландии*».

В английском языке акронимы *GB* и *GBR* используются в документах для обозначения Соединённого Королевства в международных организациях: Всемирный почтовый союз, спортивные команды, НАТО, Международная организация стандартизации, международные коды.

CHAPTER I. GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY
UNIT I. THE COMPOSITION OF GREAT BRITAIN

INTRODUCTION

The actual name of the sovereign state we are talking about is *The UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland* (UK). The UK is made up of the countries England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland. The confusion of the terms seems to revolve around the term "country" and the political powers that are perceived based on that word. While the four countries that make up the UK are considered separate in the minds of locals, and in certain sporting events, their powers for local law and control are devolved from the UK. Think of the 50 states of the USA, while each state has their own set of laws, they all are still under the power of the federal government.

In the case of the UK, it is somewhat similar, though certain responsibilities are also implied, like healthcare and education, that are delegated to three of the four countries. The responsibilities that are delegated differ from one country to the next.

England is the only country in which the UK does not devolve any powers and instead it is legislated directly by the UK government. When it comes to international politics, it is the sovereign nation of the UK that is recognized and not any of the four constituent countries.

The term "Great Britain" refers to the land mass that comprises England, Scotland, and Wales.

Something that aids in the confusion as to the difference between Great Britain and the UK is that the term is sometimes internationally used as a synonym for the UK.

The UK's Olympic team competes under the name "Great Britain" and the ISO (International Organization for Standardization) gives the UK the country codes of GB and GBR. This can be confusing given that the ISO codes England, Scotland, and Wales as subdivision countries of the UK but Northern Ireland as a subdivision province. If you're getting the impression that Northern Ireland is the red-headed stepchild of the UK, you may be right! (both figuratively and literally, if you believe the current statistics for redheaded populations that is).The confusion over the definition of these four countries, in reference to the UK, is further muddied up in sporting competitions. There are several international sporting events, like the commonwealth games, and football competitions, in which each of the four has their own team, and do not compete under a unified national team.

When competing under these conditions, their nations are referred to as "home nations".

Because each team is from a specific home country, it can lead some to think these countries have political autonomy as well. Given the inebriated thought processes attained during the enjoyment of these competitions, it's not too hard to understand where this drunken confusion comes from.

If you're curious when these unions between the countries that comprise the UK came about, it happened as follows: England and Wales were joined in 1536. Scotland and England were joined together in 1707, along with the previously joined Wales, to officially form the Kingdom of Great Britain. Ireland decided to join up in 1801, at which point the UK of Great Britain and Ireland was formed. In 1922, however, many of the Southern counties of Ireland decided to remove themselves from the union and the UK changed their name to the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. So in summary:

- Great Britain = England, Scotland, and Wales.
- UK = England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland (the full name is the "UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland").
- England = Just the part of the island that is England.

The "Union Jack", the flag of the UK was initially made by superimposing the Flag of England with the Flag of Scotland in 1606. When Ireland joined up in 1801, Saint Patrick's Flag was added to the composition. The first peoples of the UK were the Picts who inhabited Briton around 10,000 B.C.

Two centuries later, they were driven north to Scotland by the Celts who promptly took over.

The Romans then conquered in 45 A.D. and ruled for several more centuries. From around 600 A.D. to around 900 A. D. several peoples known as Angles, Saxons, and Jutes began to populate and govern the area. They became known as Anglo-Saxons. Then between 900 &1400 came the conquering Vikings, then Danish, and finally the Normans. After that, in 1485, Henry Tudor claimed the English crown and the rest of British rule is an incestuous line of Kings and Queens of the monarchy leading to that handsome Prince William Mountbatten-Windsor and his lovely wife Kate!

The UK ranks 28th on the Human Development Index. This index is a comparative statistic that measures countries "human development" based on factors like life expectancy, literacy, education, and standards of living, like income potential. Unfortunately for those Northern Ireland folks, their neighbors to the south who left the UK without them, living in the Republic of Ireland, rank 7th.

The top five countries on the Human Development Index are: 1 – Norway; 2 – Australia; 3 – Netherlands; 4 – USA and 5 – New Zealand. The bottom five countries for human development are Chad, Mozambique, Burundi, Niger, and The Democratic Republic of Congo. So based on these statistics, you can assume you lost the ovarian lottery if you were born in Africa somewhere!

The UK has 14 overseas territories and 3-crown dependencies that do not make up part of the UK itself. Crown dependencies differ from territories in that they are the possessions of "The Crown", and as such, sovereignty over them lies with the Queen (or King). The executive responsibilities for them are carried out by Her/His Majesty's Government. The 14 overseas territories are under the sovereignty of UK itself, and not solely the ruling monarch.

As of July 9, 2011, there are 195 independent sovereign states in the world. This includes independent Taiwan. So if you are Chinese, you might consider that there are only 194, but who is counting anyway? The last country to gain recognition as an independent state was the Republic of South Sudan in July of 2011.

The UK does not have a single judicial system; instead, it has three separate systems.

These systems are Northern Ireland law, Scots law, and English law. As you might expect, English law governs Wales as well. There are a few instances where there are laws that have jurisdiction throughout all of the UK, immigration law being one; further, employment law is recognized in the three countries of Great Britain proper. The UK has four separate educational systems, and four separate healthcare systems because of both being devolved to each separate country.

London is not only the capital of England, but is the capital of the UK. The capital of Scotland is Edinburgh. The capital of Wales is Cardiff. Finally, the capital of Northern Ireland is Belfast. The national anthem of the UK is "God Save the Queen", though the lyrics are changed to "God Save the King" when the ruling monarch is a man. One can only imagine the confusion and tumult at sporting events directly after the death of the ruling monarch where the gender of the heir is different from that of their predecessor and some people have heard of the death and others haven't.

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

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

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

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

COUNTRIES OF GREAT BRITAIN

The UK comprises four countries: England, Scotland and Wales (collectively make up Great Britain) and Northern Ireland (described as a country, province or region).

Within the UK, a unitary sovereign state, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales have gained a degree of autonomy through the process of devolution.

The UK Parliament and British Government deal with all *reserved matters* for Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales, but not in general matters that have been devolved to the Northern Ireland Assembly, Scottish Parliament and National Assembly for Wales. Additionally, devolution in Northern Ireland is conditional on co-operation between the Northern Ireland Executive and the Government of Ireland and the British Government consults with the Government of Ireland to reach agreement on some non-devolved matters for Northern Ireland. England, comprising the majority of the population and area of the UK, remains fully the responsibility of the UK Parliament centralised in London. England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales are not themselves listed in the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) list of countries.

However, the ISO list of the subdivisions of the UK, compiled by British Standards and the UK's Office for National Statistics, uses "country" to describe England, Scotland and Wales. Northern Ireland, in contrast, is described as a "province" in the same lists.

Each has separate national governing bodies for sports and compete separately in many international sporting competitions, including the Commonwealth Games. Northern Ireland also forms joint All-Island sporting bodies with the Republic of Ireland for most sports, including rugby union.
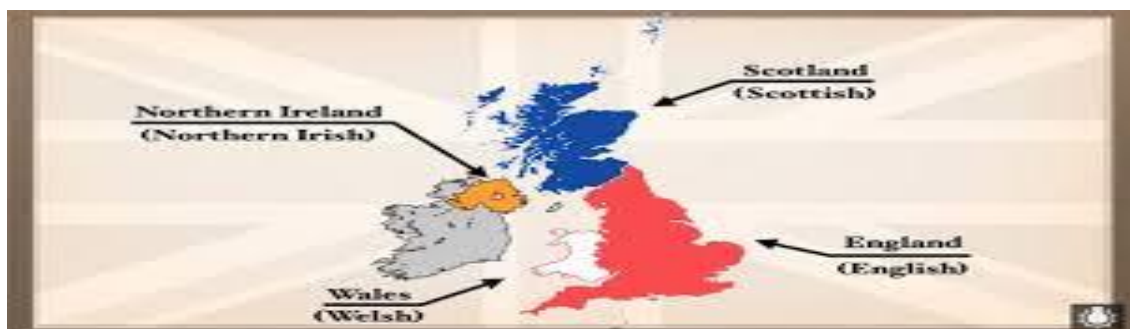
The Channel Islands and the Isle of Man are dependencies of the Crown and are not part of the UK. Similarly, the British overseas territories, remnants of the British Empire, are not part of the UK. Historically, from 1801, following the Acts of Union, until 1921 the whole island of Ireland was a country within the UK. It was split into two separate jurisdictions in 1921: Southern Ireland and Northern Ireland. Southern Ireland left the UK under the Irish Free State Constitution Act 1922.

Acts of Parliament

The Laws in Wales Acts 1535–1542 annexed the legal system of Wales to England to create the single entity commonly known for centuries simply as England, but later officially renamed England and Wales. Wales was described (in varying combinations) as the "country", "principality", and "dominion" of Wales. Outside Wales, England was not given a specific name or term.

The Laws in Wales Acts have subsequently been repealed.

The Acts of Union 1707 refer to both England and Scotland as a "part" of a united kingdom of Great Britain. The Acts of Union 1800 use "part" in the same way to refer to England and Scotland. However, they use the word "country" to describe Great Britain and Ireland respectively, when describing trade between them. The Government of Ireland Act 1920 described Great Britain, Southern Ireland and Northern Ireland as "countries" in provisions relating to taxation. The Northern Ireland Act 1998, which repealed the Government of Ireland Act 1920, does not use any term to describe Northern Ireland.

The Interpretation Act 1978 provides statutory definitions of the terms "England", "Wales" and the "UK", but neither that Act nor any other current statute defines "Scotland" or "Northern Ireland".

Use of the first three terms in other legislation is interpreted following the definitions in the 1978 Act. The definitions in the 1978 Act are listed below: "England" means, "subject to any alteration of boundaries under Part IV of the Local Government Act 1972, the area consisting of the counties established by section 1 of that Act, Greater London and the Isles of Scilly."

This definition applies from 1 April 1974. "UK" means "Great Britain & Northern Ireland." This definition applies from 12 April 1927.

"Wales" means the combined area of 13 historic counties, including Monmouthshire, re-formulated into 8 new counties under section 20 of the Local Government Act 1972, as originally enacted, but subject to any alteration made under section 73 of that Act.

In 1996 these 8 new counties were redistributed into the current 22 unitary authorities. In the Scotland Act 1998 there is no delineation of Scotland, with the definition in section 126 simply providing that Scotland includes "so much of the internal waters and territorial sea of the UK as are adjacent to Scotland".

The Parliamentary Voting System and Constituencies Act 2011 refers to England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland as "*parts*" of the UK in the following clause: "Each constituency shall be wholly in one of the four parts of the UK (England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland)."

The Royal Fine Art Commission's 1847 report on decorating the Palace of Westminster referred to "the nationality of the component parts of the UK" being represented by their four respective patron saints. "Regions": For purposes of NUTS 1 collection of statistical data in a format that is compatible with similar data that is collected elsewhere in the European Union, the UK has been divided into twelve regions of approximately equal size. Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are regions in their own right while England has been divided into nine regions.

The official term **rest of the UK** (RUK or rUK) is used in Scotland, for example in export statistics and in legislating for student funding. This term is used in the context of potential Scottish independence to mean the UK without Scotland. The alternative term *Home Nations* is sometimes used in sporting contexts and may include all of the island of Ireland.

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

Kandinsky - Great Britain mashup

THE BRITISH OVERSEAS TERRITORIES

The British (UK) Overseas Territories (BOTs) (UKOTs) are 14 territories under the jurisdiction and sovereignty of the UK. They are remnants of the British Empire that have not been granted independence or have voted to remain British territories.

These territories do not form part of the UK and, with the exception of Gibraltar, are not part of the European Union. Most of the permanently inhabited territories are internally self-governing, with the UK retaining responsibility for defence and foreign relations. Three are inhabited only by transitory population of military or scientific personnel. They all share the British monarch (Elizabeth II) as head of state. As of April 2018 the Minister responsible for the Territories excluding the Falkland Islands, Gibraltar and the Sovereign Base Areas on Cyprus, is Tariq Ahmad, Minister of State for the Commonwealth and the UN. The other three territories are the responsibility of Sir Alan Duncan MP, Minister of State for Europe and the Americas.

The term "British Overseas Territory" was introduced by the British Overseas Territories Act 2002, replacing the term *British Dependent Territory*, introduced by the British Nationality Act 1981. Prior to 1 January 1983, the territories were officially referred to as *British Crown Colonies*.

The Crown dependencies of Jersey, Guernsey, the Isle of Man are under the sovereignty of the British monarch, they are in a different constitutional relationship with the UK.

The British Overseas Territories and Crown Dependencies are themselves distinct from the Commonwealth realms, a group of 16 independent countries (including the UK) each having Elizabeth II as their reigning monarch, and from the Commonwealth of Nations, a voluntary association of 53 countries mostly with historic links to the British Empire (which also includes all Commonwealth realms). With the exceptions of the British Antarctic Territory and South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands (which host only officials and research station staff) and the British Indian Ocean Territory (used as a military base), the Territories retain permanent civilian populations.

Permanent residency for the approximately 7,000 civilians living in the Sovereign Base Areas of Akrotiri and Dhekelia is limited to citizens of the Republic of Cyprus.

Collectively, the Territories encompass a population of about 250,000 people and a land area of about 1,727,570 km² (667,020 mi²). The vast majority of this land area, 1,700,000 km² (660,000 mi²), constitutes the almost uninhabited British Antarctic Territory, while the largest territory by population, Bermuda, accounts for almost a quarter of the total BOT population.

At the other end of the scale, three territories have no civilian population; the Antarctic territory, the British Indian Ocean Territory (from which the Chagos Islanders were controversially removed) and South Georgia. Pitcairn Islands, settled by the survivors of the Mutiny on the Bounty, is the smallest settled territory with 49 inhabitants, while the smallest by land area is Gibraltar on the southern tip of the Iberian peninsula. The UK participates in the Antarctic Treaty System and, as part of a mutual agreement, the British Antarctic Territory is recognised by four of the six other sovereign nations making claims to Antarctic territory. St. George's town, in the Islands of Bermuda, or "The Somers Isles".

The colony was founded by the wrecking of the flagship of the Virginia Company in 1609.

The Company's charter was extended to include Bermuda in 1612, and it has remained a British colony ever since. Since the rebellion of Virginia, it has been the oldest-remaining British colony, and the town of St. George's is the oldest continuously inhabited British settlement in the New World. Early colonies, in the sense of English subjects residing in lands hitherto outside the control of the English government, were generally known as "Plantations". The first, unofficial, colony was Newfoundland, where English fishermen routinely set up seasonal camps in the 16th century. It is now a province of Canada known as Newfoundland and Labrador. It retains strong cultural ties with Britain. English colonisation of North America began officially in 1607 with the settlement of Jamestown, the first successful permanent colony in Virginia (North America).

Its offshoot, Bermuda, was settled inadvertently after the wrecking of the Virginia company's flagship there in 1609, with the Virginia Company's charter extended to officially include the archipelago in 1612. St. George's town, founded in Bermuda in that year, remains the oldest continuously inhabited British settlement in the New World (with some historians stating that – its formation predating the 1619 conversion of "James Fort" into "Jamestown" – St. George's was actually the first successful town the English established in the New World).

Bermuda & Bermudians have played important, sometimes pivotal, generally underestimated or unacknowledged roles in the shaping of the English and British trans-Atlantic Empires.

These include maritime commerce, settlement of the continent and of the West Indies, and the projection of naval power via the colony's privateers, among other areas.

The growth of the British Empire in the 19th century, to its territorial peak in the 1920s, saw Britain acquire nearly one quarter of the world's land mass, including territories with large indigenous populations in Asia and Africa. From the mid-nineteenth century to the early 20th century, the larger settler colonies – in Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa – first became self-governing colonies and then achieved independence in all matters except foreign policy, defence and trade.

Separate self-governing colonies federated to become Canada (in 1867), Australia (1901), South Africa (1910), Rhodesia (1965). These and other large self-governing colonies had become known as Dominions by the 1920s. The Dominions achieved almost full independence with the Statute of Westminster (1931). Through a process of decolonisation following the Second World War, most of the British colonies in Africa, Asia & the Caribbean gained independence. Some colonies became Commonwealth realms, retaining the British monarch as their own head of state.

Most former colonies and protectorates became member states of the Commonwealth of Nations, a non-political, voluntary association of equal members, comprising a population of around 2.2 bn people.

After the independence of Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) in Africa in 1980 and British Honduras (now Belize) in Central America in 1981, the last major colony that remained was Hong Kong, with a population of over 5 mln. With 1997 approaching, the UK and China negotiated the Sino-British Joint Declaration, which led to the whole of Hong Kong becoming a "special administrative region" of China in 1997, subject to various conditions intended to guarantee the preservation of Hong Kong's capitalist economy & its way of life under British rule for at least 50 years after the handover. George Town in the Cayman Islands has consequently become the largest city in the Overseas Territories.

In 2002, the British Parliament passed the British Overseas Territories Act 2002. This reclassified the UK's dependent territories as *overseas territories* and, with the exception of those people solely connected with the Sovereign Base Areas of Cyprus, restored full British citizenship to their inhabitants. The head of state in the overseas territories is the British monarch, Elizabeth II. The Queen's role in the territories is in her role as Queen of the UK, and not in right of each territory.

The Queen appoints a representative in each territory to exercise her executive power.

In territories with a permanent population, a Governor is appointed by the Queen on the advice of the British Government, usually a retired senior military officer, or a senior civil servant. In territories without a permanent population, a Commissioner is usually appointed to represent the Queen.

Exceptionally, in the oversea territory of Saint Helena, Ascension and Tristan da Cunha, an Administrator is appointed to be the Governor's representative in each of the two distant parts of the territory, namely Ascension Island and Tristan da Cunha. The role of the Governor is to act as the *de facto* head of state, and they are usually responsible for appointing the head of government, and senior political positions in the territory. The Governor is responsible for liaising with the UK Government, carrying out any ceremonial duties. A Commissioner has the same powers as a Governor, but acts as the head of government. All the overseas territories have their own system of government, and localised laws. The structure of the government appears to be closely correlated to the size and political development of the territory.

Territories	Government
British Antarctic Territory South Georgia & South Sandwich Islands	There is no native or permanent population; therefore there is no elected government. The Commissioner, supported by an Administrator, run the affairs of the territory.
British Indian Ocean Territory	There is no elected government, no native settled population. The Chagos Islanders forcibly evicted from the territory in 1971 – won a High Court Judgement allowing them to return, but then overridden by an Order in Council preventing it. The final appeal to the House of Lords was decided in the government's favour, exhausting the islanders' legal options in the UK at present.
Akrotiri & Dhekelia	There is no elected government. The Commander British Forces Cyprus acts as the territory's Administrator, with a Chief Officer responsible for day-to-day running of the civil government. As far as possible, there is convergence of laws with those of the Republic of Cyprus.
Pitcairn Islands	There are an elected Mayor & Island Council, who have the power to propose & administer local legislation. Their decisions are subject to approval by the Governor, who retains near-unlimited powers of plenary legislation on behalf of the UK Government.
Falkland Islands	The Government consists of an elected Legislative Assembly, with the Chief Executive & the Director of Corporate Resources as *ex officio* members.
Saint Helena, & Ascension Tristan da Cunha	The Government consists of an elected Legislative Council. The Governor is the head of government & leads the Executive Council, consisting of appointed members made up from the Legislative Council and two *ex-officio* members. Governance on Ascension Island & Tristan da Cunha is led by Administrators who are advised by elected Island Councils.
Anguilla British Virgin Islands Cayman Islands Montserrat	These territories have a House of Assembly, Legislative Assembly (Cayman Islands and Montserrat), with political parties. The Executive Council is usually called a cabinet and is led by a Premier or a Chief Minister (in Anguilla), who is the leader of the majority party in parliament. The Governor exercises less power over local affairs and deals mostly with foreign affairs and economic issues, while the elected government controls most "domestic" concerns.
Gibraltar	Under the Gibraltar Constitution Order 2006 which was approved in Gibraltar by a referendum, Gibraltar now has a Parliament. The Government of Gibraltar, headed by the Chief Minister, is elected. Defence, external affairs & internal security vest in the Governor.
Bermuda	Bermuda, settled in 1609, and self-governed since 1620, is the oldest and most populous of the Overseas Territories. The bicameral Parliament consists of a Senate & a House of Assembly, and most executive powers have been devolved to the head of government, known as the Premier.
Turks & Caicos Islands	The Turks and Caicos Islands adopted a new constitution effective 9 August 2006; their head of government now also has the title Premier, their legislature is called the House of Assembly, and their autonomy has been greatly increased.

LEGAL SYSTEM OF INDEPENDENCE TERRITORIES

Each overseas territory has its own legal system independent of the UK. The legal system is generally based on English common law, with some distinctions for local circumstances.

Each territory has its own attorney general, and court system. For the smaller territories, the UK may appoint a UK-based lawyer or judge to work on legal cases. This is particularly important for cases involving serious crimes and where it is impossible to find a jury who will not know the defendant in a small population island. The Pitcairn sexual assault trial of 2004 is an example of how the UK may choose to provide the legal framework for particular cases where the territory cannot do so alone.

A joint ministerial council of UK ministers, and the leaders of the Overseas Territories has been held annually since 2012 to provide representation between UK Government departments and Overseas Territory Governments. The Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) has the responsibility of looking after the interests of all overseas territories except the Sovereign Base Areas of Akrotiri and Dhekelia, which comes under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Defence. Within the FCO, the general responsibility for the territories is handled by the Overseas Territories Directorate. In 2012, the FCO published *The Overseas Territories: security, success and sustainability* which set out Britain's policy for the Overseas Territories, covering 6 main areas:

- Defence, security and safety of the territories and their people.
- Successful and resilient economies.
- Cherishing the environment.
- Making government work better.
- Vibrant and flourishing communities.
- Productive links with the wider world.

Britain and the overseas territories do not have diplomatic representations, although the governments of the overseas territories with indigenous populations all retain a representative office in London. The UK Overseas Territories Association (UKOTA) also represents the interests of the territories in London. The governments in both London and territories occasionally meet to mitigate or resolve disagreements over the process of governance in the territories and levels of autonomy.

Britain provides financial assistance to the overseas territories via the Department for International Development. Currently only Montserrat and Saint Helena receive budgetary aid (financial contribution to recurrent funding). Several specialist funds are made available by the UK, including:
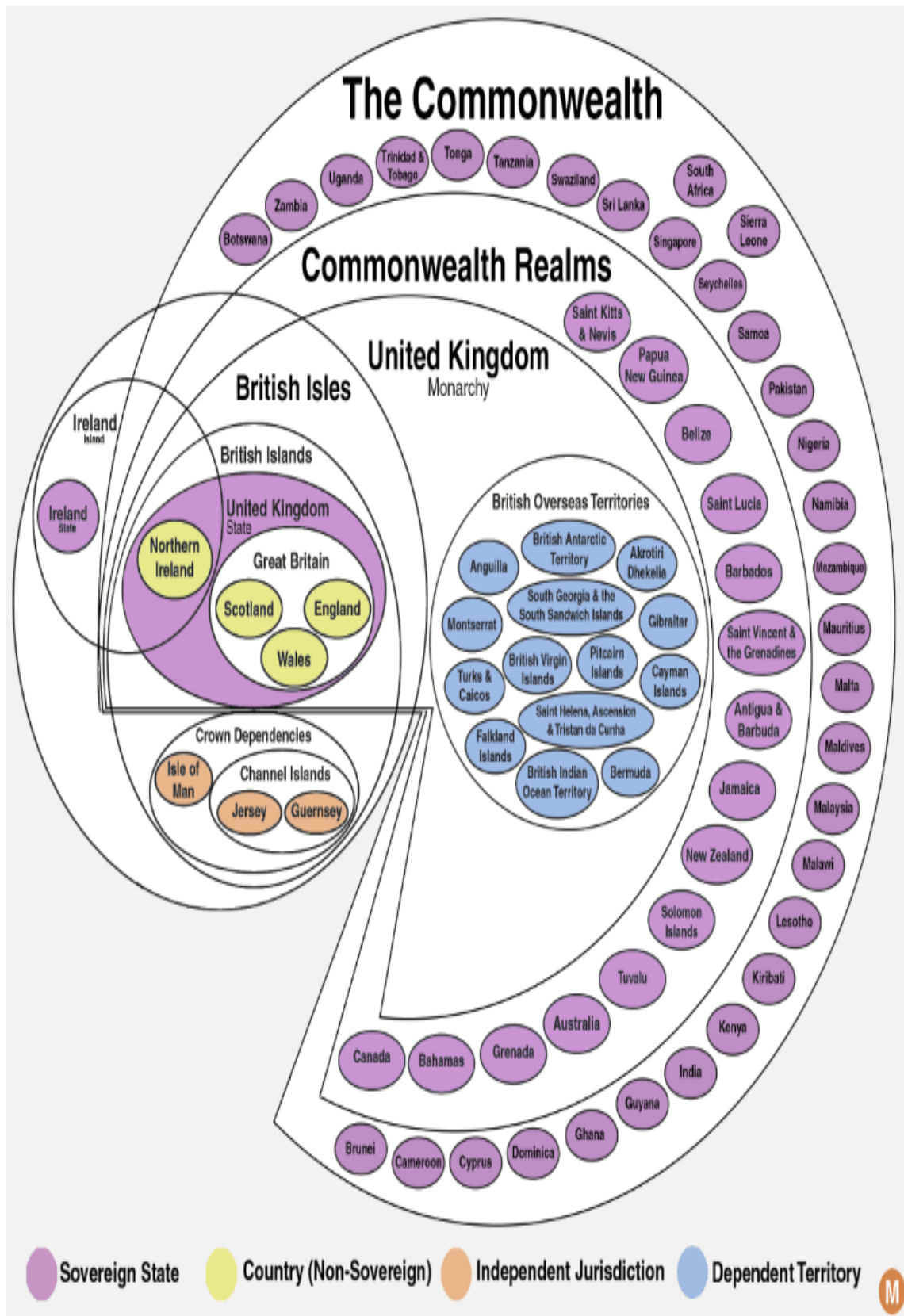
- The Good Government Fund which provides assistance on government administration;
- The Economic Diversification Programme Budget which aim to diversify and enhance the economic bases of the territories.

The territories have no official representation in the UK Parliament, but have informal representation through the All-Party Parliamentary Group, can petition the UK Government through the Direct gov.e-Petitions website. Only Gibraltar has representation in the European Parliament and it shares its Member with the region of South West England. Two national parties, UKIP and the Liberal Democrats, have endorsed calls for direct representation of overseas territories in the UK Parliament, as well as backbench members of the Conservative Party and Labour Party.

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

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

The Commonwealth

Commonwealth Realms

United Kingdom Monarchy

British Isles

British Islands

United Kingdom State

Great Britain

Ireland Island

Ireland State

Northern Ireland

Scotland

England

Wales

Crown Dependencies

Isle of Man

Channel Islands

Jersey

Guernsey

British Overseas Territories

Anguilla, British Antarctic Territory, Akrotiri Dhekelia, Montserrat, South Georgia & the South Sandwich Islands, Gibraltar, Turks & Caicos, British Virgin Islands, Pitcairn Islands, Cayman Islands, Falkland Islands, Saint Helena, Ascension & Tristan da Cunha, British Indian Ocean Territory, Bermuda

Botswana, Zambia, Uganda, Trinidad & Tobago, Tonga, Tanzania, Swaziland, Sri Lanka, South Africa, Singapore, Sierra Leone, Seychelles, Saint Kitts & Nevis, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Pakistan, Belize, Nigeria, Saint Lucia, Namibia, Barbados, Mozambique, Saint Vincent & the Grenadines, Mauritius, Antigua & Barbuda, Malta, Jamaica, Maldives, Malaysia, New Zealand, Malawi, Solomon Islands, Lesotho, Tuvalu, Kiribati, Kenya, Australia, India, Grenada, Guyana, Canada, Bahamas, Ghana, Brunei, Cameroon, Cyprus, Dominica

Sovereign State Country (Non-Sovereign) Independent Jurisdiction Dependent Territory

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12

Foreign affairs of the overseas territories are handled by the FCO in London. Some territories maintain diplomatic officers in nearby countries for trade and immigration purposes.

Several of the territories in the Americas maintain membership within the Organisation of Eastern Caribbean (States, the Development Bank, Disaster Emergency Management Agency, the Association of Caribbean States. The territories are members of the Commonwealth of Nations through the UK.

The inhabited territories compete in their own right at the Commonwealth Games, and three of the territories (Bermuda, the Cayman Islands and the British Virgin Islands) sent teams to the 2008 Summer Olympics.

Gibraltar is the only overseas territory that is part of the European Union (EU), although it is not part of the European Customs Union, the European Tax Policy, the European Statistics Zone or the Common Agriculture Policy. Gibraltar is not a member of the European Union in its own right.

The Sovereign Base Areas in Cyprus are not part of the European Union, but they are the only British overseas territory to use the euro as official currency. None of the other Overseas Territories are members of the EU, the main body of EU law does not apply and, although certain slices of EU law are applied to those territories as part of the EU's Association of Overseas Countries and Territories (OCT Association), they are not commonly enforceable in local courts. The OCT Association also provides overseas territories with structural funding for regeneration projects.

Since the return of full British citizenship to most "belongers" of overseas territories, the citizens of those territories hold concurrent European Union citizenship, giving them rights of free movement across all EU member states. Five nations dispute the UK's sovereignty in the overseas territories:

- British Antarctic Territory – Territory overlaps Antarctic claims made by Chile and Argentina.
- British Indian Ocean Territory – claimed by Mauritius and Seychelles.
- Falkland Islands – claimed by Argentina.
- Gibraltar – claimed by Spain.
- South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands – claimed by Argentina.

None of the overseas territories has its own nationality status, and most residents hold two forms of British nationality: British Overseas Territories citizenship (BOTC) and British citizenship.

Only the latter grants the right of abode in a specific country or territory, namely, the UK proper which includes its three Crown Dependencies. Individual overseas territories have legislative independence over immigration, and consequently, BOTC status does not automatically grant the right of abode in any of the territories, as it depends on the territory's immigration laws. A territory may issue belonger status to allow a person to reside in the territory that they have close links with.

The governors of the territories may also allow naturalization of non-BOTCs as BOTCs. From 1949 to 1983, the nationality status of Citizenship of UK & Colonies (CUKC) was shared by residents of the UK proper & residents of overseas territories, although most residents of overseas territories lost their automatic right to live in the UK after the ratification of Commonwealth Immigrants Act 1968 that year unless they were born in the UK proper or had a parent or a grandparent born in the UK.

In 1983, CUKC status of residents of overseas territories without the right of abode in the UK was replaced by British Dependent Territories citizenship (BDTC) in the newly minted British Nationality Act 1981, a status that does not come with it the right of abode in the UK or any overseas territory. For these residents, registration as full British citizens then required physical residence in the UK proper.

There were only two exceptions: Falkland Islanders, who were automatically granted British citizenship and was treated as a part of the UK proper through the enactment of British Nationality (Falkland Islands) Act 1983 due to the Falklands War with Argentina, and Gibraltarians who were given the special entitlement to be registered as British citizens upon request without further conditions because of its individual membership in the European Economic Area and the European Community.

5 years after the handover of Hong Kong to China in 1997, the British government amended the 1981 Act to give British citizenship without restrictions to all BDTCs except for those solely connected with Akrotiri and Dhekelia (whose residents held Cypriot citizenship). This restored the right of abode in the UK to residents of overseas territories after a 34-year hiatus from 1968 to 2002.

Defence of the Overseas Territories is the responsibility of the UK. Many of the overseas territories are used as military bases by the UK and its allies.

Ascension Island (part of Saint Helena, Ascension and Tristan da Cunha) – the Base known as RAF Ascension Island is used by both the Royal Air Force and the United States Air Force.

Bermuda – became the primary Royal Navy base in America, following US independence.

The Naval establishment included an admiralty, a dockyard, and a naval squadron.

A considerable military garrison was built up to protect it, and Bermuda, which the British Government came to see as a base, rather than as a colony, was known as *Fortress Bermuda*, and the *Gibraltar of the West* (Bermudians, like Gibraltarians, dub their territory "The Rock").

Canada and the USA also established bases in Bermuda during the Second World War, which were maintained through the Cold War. Four air bases were located in Bermuda during the Second World War (operated by the Royal Air Force, Royal Navy, US Navy, and US Army/Army Air Force).

Since 1995, the military force in Bermuda has been reduced to the local territorial battalion, the Royal Bermuda Regiment.

British Indian Ocean Territory – the island of Diego Garcia is home to a large naval base and airbase leased to the United States by the UK until 2036 (unless renewed). There are British forces in small numbers in the BIOT for administrative and immigration purposes.

Falkland Islands – the British Forces Falkland Islands includes commitments from the British Army, Royal Air Force and Royal Navy, along with the Falkland Islands Defence Force.

Gibraltar – British Forces Gibraltar includes a Royal Navy dockyard (used by NATO), RAF Gibraltar – used by the RAF and NATO and a local garrison – the Royal Gibraltar Regiment.

The Sovereign Base Areas of Akrotiri and Dhekelia in Cyprus – maintained as strategic British military bases in the eastern Mediterranean Sea.

Montserrat – the Royal Montserrat Defence Force, historically connected with the Irish Guards, is a body of twenty volunteers, whose duties are primarily ceremonial.

Saint Helena – it has been speculated that the new Saint Helena Airport might be used for military purposes but this has neither been confirmed nor denied.

Most of the languages other than English spoken in the territories contain a large degree of English, either as a root language, or in codeswitching, e.g. Llanito. They include:

- Llanito or Yanito & Spanish (Gibraltar).
- Cayman Creole (Cayman Islands).
- Turks-Caicos Creole (Turks & Caicos Islands).
- Pitkern (Pitcairn Islands).
- Greek and Turkish (Akrotiri & Dhekelia).

Forms of English:

- Bermudian English (Bermuda).
- Falkland Islands English.

Exercise 1. Test your knowledge quiz.

Which of the following are parts of the UK?

a) England b) Eire (Southern Ireland) c) Scotland d) Wales e) Northern Ireland (Ulster)

Which of the following is / are not part(s) of the UK?

a) The Isle of Man b) The Channel Isles

Which of the following is a completely independent republic?

a) Eire b) Scotland c) Ulster

The UK is … .

a) federation of states b) a unitary state c) an absolute monarchy d) a constitutional monarchy.

Key: 1 / a c, d, e; 2 / a, b; 3 / a; 4 / b.

Note on the text

The UK, the British Isles, or the Island of Great Britain are often referred to as Britain or England, but as you can see this is not usually strictly correct.

Exercise 2. Complete the sentences with the information from the text.

1. The UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is a constitutional monarchy and _____. 2. The British Islands are not constitutionally part of_____. 3. These islands are separate dependencies of the British_____. 4. The independent Kingdom of England and Scotland were first linked by personal union of the Crowns of_____. 5. The political unification of the two countries was only effected more than_____. 6. Great Britain was united with Ireland by the Act of Union of 1800, _____. 7. The Irish Treaty of 6 December 1921 gave Dominion Status to 26 Irish counties_____. 8. In 1937 the Irish Free State assumed a republican form of_____. 9. English law and Scots law are very different from each other in _____. 10. The separate evolution of the two legal systems has resulted in different_____. 11. Scots law has been greatly influenced by English_____. 12. Scots law is still based upon principles of Roman or Civil law and upon rules of Canon, _____. 13. There has been no assimilation of the legal system of the two_____. 14. A fusion of law has taken place between England and Wales, as_____. 15. The law of Northern Ireland is similar many essentials to English_____. 16. There has been no assimilation of the legal system of the two countries: _____. 17. The UK of Great Britain and Ireland existed from _____until _____.

Anguilla

Bermuda

British Antartic Territory

British Indian Ocean Territory

British Virgin Islands

Cayman Islands

Falkland Islands

Gibraltar

Montserrat

Pitcairn Islands

South Georgia & South Sandwich Islands

Turks & Caicos Islands

The **Isle of Man**, sometimes referred to simply as **Mann** is a self-governing British Crown dependency in the Irish Sea between Great Britain and Ireland. The head of state is Queen Elizabeth II, who holds the title of Lord of Mannand is represented by a lieutenant governor.

Defence is the responsibility of the UK. Insurance and online gambling generate 17% of GNP each, followed by information and communications technology and banking with 9% each.

The island was cut off from the surrounding islands around 8000 B.C., was colonised by sea and has been inhabited since some time before 6500 B.C.

The first residents were hunter-gatherers and fishermen. Examples of their tools are kept at the Manx Museum. The Neolithic Period marked the beginning of farming, and megalithic monuments began to appear. There were the local Ronaldsway and Bann cultures. The Manx language, a branch of the Gaelic languages, emerged.

During the Bronze Age, burial mounds became smaller. Bodies were put in stone-lined graves with ornamental containers. The Bronze Age burial mounds created long-lasting markers around the countryside. The ancient Romans knew of the island and called it *Insula Manavia* although it is uncertain whether they conquered the island. Around the 5th century A.D., large-scale migration from Ireland precipitated a process of Gaelicisation evidenced by Ogham inscriptions, giving rise to the Manx language, which is a Goidelic language closely related to Irish and Scottish Gaelic.

In 627, Edwin of Northumbria conquered the Isle of Man along with most of Mercia.

In the 9th century, Norsemenestablished the Kingdom of the Isles, which included the Isle of Man. Magnus III, King of Norway, was King of Mann and the Isles between 1099 and 1103.

Vikings arrived at the end of the 8th century. They established Tynwald and introduced many land divisions that still exist. In 1266 King Magnus VI of Norway ceded the islands to Scotland in the Treaty of Perth; but Scotland's rule over Mann did not become firmly established until 1275, when the Manx were defeated in the Battle of Ronaldsway, near Castletown.

In 1290 King Edward I of England sent Walter de Huntercombe to take possession of Mann. It remained in English hands until 1313, when Robert Bruce took it after besieging Castle Rushen for five weeks. A confused period followed when Mann was sometimes under English rule and sometimes Scottish, until 1346, when the Battle of Neville's Cross decided the long struggle between England and Scotland in England's favour. English rule was delegated to a series of lords and magnates.

In 1266, the island became part of Scotland under the Treaty of Perth, after being ruled by Norway.

After a period of alternating rule by the kings of Scotland and England, the island came under the feudal lordship of the English Crown in 1399. The lordship revested into the British Crown in 1765, but the island never became part of the 18th-century Kingdom of G. Britain and the present-day UK.

It retained its internal self-government. In 1881, the Isle of Man parliament, Tynwald, became the first national legislative body in the world to give women the right to vote in a general election, but this excluded married women. In 2016, the Isle of Man was awarded biosphere reserve status by UNESCO.

The Manx name of the Isle of Man is a Manx word meaning "island". The short form often used in English, Mann, is derived from the Manx *Mannin*, though sometimes the name is written as Man.

The earliest recorded Manx form of the name is *Manu* or *Mana*.

The oldest known reference to the island calls it *Mona*, in Latin (Julius Caesar, 54 B.C.); in the 1st century A.D. It is found in the Sagas of Icelanders as *Mön*.

In 1866, the Isle of Man obtained limited home rule, with partly democratic elections to the House of Keys, but an appointed Legislative Council. Since then, democratic government has been gradually extended. The Isle of Man is located in the middle of the northern Irish Sea, almost equidistant from England, Northern Ireland, Scotland (closest), and Wales (farthest). It is 52 km (32 mi) long and, at its widest point, 22 km (14 mi) wide. It has an area of around 572 **km²** (221 mi²).

Besides the island of Mann itself, the political unit of the Isle of Man includes some nearby small islands: the seasonally inhabited Calf of Man, Chicken Rock on which stands an unmanned lighthouse, St. Patrick's Isle and St Michael's Isle. The last two of these are connected to the main island by permanent roads/causeways.

Ranges of hills in the north and south are separated by a central valley. The northern plain, by contrast, is relatively flat, consisting mainly of deposits from glacial advances from western Scotland during colder times. There are more recently deposited shingle beaches at the northernmost point, the Point of Ayre. The island has one mountain higher than 600 m (2,000 ft), Snaefell, with a height of 620 m (2,034 ft). According to an old saying, from the summit one can see six kingdoms: those of Mann, Scotland, England, Ireland, Wales, and Heaven. Some versions add a 7th kingdom, that of the sea, or Neptune. The Isle of Man has a temperate oceanic climate. Average rainfall is higher than averaged over the territory of the British Isles, because the Isle of Man is far enough from Ireland for the prevailing southwesterly winds to accumulate moisture. Average rainfall is highest at Snaefell, where it is around 1,900 mm (75 in) a year. At lower levels it can be around 800 mm (31 in) a year.

Population

At the 2016 census, the Isle of Man was home to 83,314 people, of whom 26,997 resided in the island's capital, Douglas and 9,128 in the adjoining village of Onchan. The population decreased by 1.4% between the 2011 and 2016 censuses. By country of birth, those born in the Isle of Man were the largest group (49.8%), while those born in the UK were the next largest group at 40% (33.9% in England, 3% in Scotland, 2% in Northern Ireland and 1.1% in Wales), 1.8% in the Republic of Ireland and 0.75% in the Channel Islands. The remaining 8.5% were born elsewhere in the world, with 5% coming from EU countries (other than the UK & Ireland).

The UK is responsible for the island's defence & ultimately for good governance, for representing the island in international forums, while the island's own parliament and government have competence over all domestic matters. The island's parliament, Tynwald, is claimed to have been in continuous existence since 979 or earlier, purportedly making it the oldest continuously governing body in the world, though evidence supports a much later date. The Island's parliament, the Court of Tynwald, is one of the oldest in Europe. It consists of a Lieutenant Governor appointed by and representing the Crown, an Upper House (the Legislative Council) & a Lower House (the House of Keys).

The Tynwald passed laws concerning the government of the island in all respects and had control over its finances, but was subject to the approval of the Lord of Mann.

Tynwald legislates in domestic matters; the laws it adopts requiring ratification by the Queen in Council; the Home Secretary is responsible for advising the Privy Council whether to recommend that the Royal Assent be given.

In strict law, the UK Parliament has full power to pass laws applicable to the Isle of Man but, by constitutional convention, does not in the ordinary course legislate on the Island's domestic affairs, such as penal policy, without consent. This convention would be followed unless it was overridden by some other consideration, an example of which would be an international treaty obligation.

Tynwald is a bicameral or tricameral legislature, comprising the House of Keys (directly elected by universal suffrage with a voting age of 16 years) and the Legislative Council (consisting of indirectly elected and ex-officio members). These two bodies meet together in joint session as Tynwald Court.

The executive branch of government is the Council of Ministers, which is composed of members of the House of Keys. It is headed by the Chief Minister, currently (2017) Howard Quayle MHK. Vice-regal functions of the head of state are performed by a lieutenant governor. In various laws of the UK, "the UK" is defined to exclude the Isle of Man. Historically, the UK has taken care of its external and defence affairs, and retains paramount power to legislate for the Island.

In 2007, the Isle of Man and the UK signed an agreement that established frameworks for the development of the international identity of the Isle of Man. There is no separate Manx citizenship.

Citizenship is covered by UK law, and Manx people are classed as British citizens.

The Isle of Man holds neither membership nor associate membership of the European Union, lies outside the European Economic Area (EEA).There is a long history of relations and cultural exchange between the Isle of Man and Ireland. The Isle of Man's historic Manx Gaelic language (its modern revived variant) are closely related to both Scottish Gaelic & the Irish language, in 1947, Irish Taoiseach Éamon de Valera spearheaded efforts to save the dying Manx language.

Under British law, the Isle of Man is not part of the UK. However, the UK takes care of its external & defence affairs. There are no independent military forces on the Isle of Man, HMS *Ramsey* is affiliated with the town of the same name. From 1938 to 1955 there was the Manx Regiment of the British Territorial Army, which saw extensive action during the Second World War.

In 1779, the Manx Fencible Corps, a fencible regiment of three companies, was raised; it was disbanded in 1783 at the end of the American War of Independence. Later, the Royal Manx Fencibles was raised at the time of the French Revolutionary Wars and Napoleonic Wars.

There is no citizenship of the Isle of Man as such to speak of under the British Nationality Acts 1948 and 1981. The Passport Office, Isle of Man, Douglas, accepts and processes applications for the Lieutenant Governor of the Isle of Man, who in turn officially-speaking issues Isle of Man-issued British passport entitled *"British Islands – Isle of Man"*.

Isle of Man-issued British passports can presently be issued to any British citizen resident in the Isle of Man, to British citizens who have a qualifying close personal connection to the Isle of Man but are now resident either in the UK or in either one of the two other Crown Dependencies.

The Isle of Man is neither part of the European Union, nor has a special status, and thus did not take part in the 2016 referendum on the UK's EU membership. However, Protocol 3 of the UK's Act of Accession to the Treaty of Rome included the Isle of Man within the EU's customs area, allowing for trade in Manx goods without tariffs throughout the EU. As it is not part of the EU's internal market, there are still limitations on the movement of capital, services and labour.

EU citizens are entitled to travel and reside, but not work, in the island without restriction. British citizens with Manxman status are similarly restricted from working in the EU.

The effect of the UK leaving the European Union is uncertain. The UK has confirmed that the Crown Dependencies' position will be included in the Brexit negotiations.

The Isle of Man is not itself a member of the Commonwealth of Nations.

By virtue of its relationship with the UK, it takes part in several Commonwealth institutions, including the Commonwealth Parliamentary Association and the Commonwealth Games.

The Isle of Man is not apart of the UK but a dependency of the Crown with its own government, legislature and courts; its own administrative, fiscal and legal systems.

The Crown is ultimately responsible for the good government of the Island and acts in this respect through the Privy Council on the recommendation of Ministers of the UK Government in their capacity as Privy Counsellors. In that capacity, the Home Secretary is charged with prime responsibility for the Isle of Man affairs. Prior to October 1950 the UK Government regarded international treaties applicable to the UK as extending, in the absence of contrary provision to the Isle of Man.

Thereafter, they no longer so regarded such treaties unless there were an express inclusion and they treated the Island as a territory for whose international relations they were responsible.

In fact, by letter dated 23 October 1953 addressed to the Secretary-General of the Council of Europe, the Government of UK declared, in accordance with Article 63 of the Convention that the Convention should extend to a number of such territories, including the Isle of Man.

The Government of the Isle of Man has made calls for a more integrated relationship with the Commonwealth, including more direct representation and enhanced participation in Commonwealth organisations and meetings, including Commonwealth Heads of Government Meetings.

The Chief Minister of the Isle of Man has said: "A closer connection with the Commonwealth itself would be a welcome further development of the island's international relationships."

Most Manx politicians stand for election as independents rather than as representatives of political parties. Although political parties do exist, their influence is not nearly as strong as in the UK.

There are three political parties in the Isle of Man. The Liberal Vannin Party (established 2006) has two seats in the House of Keys; it promotes greater Manx independence and more accountability in government. The Manx Labour Party is the other: it held two seats in the Legislative Council until 28 February 2018 when it reduced to one seat. The Isle of Man Green Party was established in 2016 but currently only has representation on a local government level. A number of pressure groups exist on the island. Mec Vannin advocate the establishment of a sovereign republic.

The Positive Action Group campaign for three key elements to be introduced into the governance of the island: open accountable government, rigorous control of public finances, and a fairer society.

Local government on the Isle of Man is based partly on the island's 17 ancient parishes. There are two types of local authorities: a corporation for the Borough of Douglas, bodies of commissioners for the town districts of Castletown, Peel & Ramsey, the village districts of Kirk Michael, Onchan, Port Erin and Port St Mary, and the 14 "parish districts" (those parishes or parts of parishes which do not fall within the districts previously mentioned). Each of these districts also has its own body of commissioners.

Local authorities are under the supervision of the Isle of Man Government's Department of Local Government and the Environment (DOLGE).

The Isle of Man has designated more than 250 historic sites as registered buildings.

National origin groups

Manx (Norse-Celtic descent) – 15%.
British - 60% (50% English, 5% Scottish, 5% Welsh).
Irish – 10%. South African – 7%.
Australian – 5%.
Americn – 3%.a
Languages: Manx, English.

Religions

Anglican, Roman Catholic, Methodist, Baptist, Presbyterian, Religious Society of Friends, Jehovah's Witnesses, Pentecostalism, Atheism, Agnosticism.
The Church of England is the established church.

Exercise 1. Read the text and choose the correct variant.

1. The Isle of Man

a) belongs to the Queen.
b) is totally independent from the UK.
c) has some links with the UK, but mainly governs itself.
d) belongs to the UK.

2. Since 1950 international treaties applicable to the UK

a) are automatically applicable to the Isle of Man.
b) are never applicable to the Isle of Man.
c) are applicable to the Isle of Man if there is no provision to the contrary.
d) are only applicable to the Isle of Man if this is stated in the provision.

3. Domestic legislation for the Isle of Man is generally passed by

a) Tynwald – the Isle of Man Parliament.
b) the UK Parliament.
c) the Home Secretary and the Privy Council.
d) the Legislative Council. *Key: 1 c, 2 d, 3 a.*

Douglas – the capital of the Isle of Man.

UNIT II. PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY & CLIMATE

INTRODUCTION

Great Britain, known as Britain, is a large island in the North Atlantic Ocean off the northwest coast of continental Europe. With an area of 209,331 km² (80,823 mi²), Great Britain is the largest of the British Isles, the largest European island, and the 9th-largest island in the world.

The archipelago has been referred to by a single name for over 2000 years: the term "British Isles" derives from terms used by classical geographers to describe this island group.

By 50 B.C. Greek geographers were using equivalents of Prettanikē as a collective name for the British Isles. However, with the Roman conquest of Britain the Latin term Britannia was used for the island of Great Britain, and later Roman-occupied Britain south of Caledonia.The earliest known name for Great Britain is Albion or insula Albionum, from either the Latin albus meaning "white" (referring to the white cliffs of Dover, the first view of Britain from the continent) or the "island of the Albiones", first mentioned in the Massaliote Periplus in the 6th century B.C., and by Pytheas.

The oldest mention of terms related to Great Britain was by Aristotle (c. 384-322 B..C.), or possibly by Pseudo-Aristotle, in his text On the Universe. To quote his works, "There are two very large islands in it, called the British Isles, Albion and Ierne". Pliny the Elder (c. A.D. 23-79) in his Natural History records of Great Britain: "Its former name was Albion; but at a later period, all the islands, of which we shall just now briefly make mention, were included under the name of 'Britanniæ".

The name Britain descends from the Latin name for Britain, Britannia or Brittānia, the land of the Britons. Old French Bretaigne and Middle English Bretayne. The French form replaced the Old English Breoton. Britannia was used by the Romans from the 1st century B.C. for the British Isles taken together. It is derived from the travel writings of the Pytheas around 320 B.C., which described various islands in the North Atlantic as far north as Thule (probably Norway).

Marcian of Heraclea, in his Periplus maris exteri, described the island group as the Prettanic Isles. The peoples of these islands of Prettanike were called the Pretani. Priteni is the source of the Welsh language term *Britain*, which has the same source as the Goidelic term Cruithne used to refer to the early Brythonic-speaking inhabitants of Ireland. The latter were later called Picts or Caledonians

The Greco-Egyptian scientist Ptolemy referred to the larger island as Great Britain and to Ireland as little Britain in his work Almagest (147-148 A.D.). In his later work, Geography (c. 150 A.D.), he gave the islands the names Alwion, Iwernia, and Mona (the Isle of Man), suggesting these may have been the names of the individual islands not known to him at the time of writing Almagest.

The name Albion appears to have fallen out of use sometime after the Roman conquest of Britain, after which Britain became the more commonplace name for the island.

After the Anglo-Saxon period, Britain was used as a historical term only.

Geoffrey of Monmouth in his pseudohistorical Historia Regum Britanniae (c. 1136) refers to the island as Britannia major ("Greater Britain"), to distinguish it from Britannia minor ("Lesser Britain"), the continental region which approximates to modern Brittany, which had been settled in the 5th and 6th centuries by migrants from Britain. The term *Great Britain* was first used officially in 1474, in the instrument drawing up the proposal for a marriage between Cecily the daughter of Edward IV of England, and James the son of James III of Scotland, which described it as "this Nobill Isle, callit Gret Britanee". It was used again in 1604, when King James VI and I styled himself "King of Great Brittaine, France and Ireland". Great Britain refers geographically to the island of Great Britain, politically to England, Scotland and Wales in combination.

However, it is sometimes used loosely to refer to the whole of the UK. Similarly, Britain, can refer to either all islands in Great Britain, the largest island, or the political grouping of countries.

There is no clear distinction, even in government documents: the UK government yearbooks have used both Britain and UK. GB and GBR are used instead of UK in some international codes to refer to the UK, including the Universal Postal Union, international sports teams, NATO, the International Organization for Standardization country codes and international licence plate codes.

In 2011, the island had a population of about 61 mln people, making it the world's third-most populous island after Java in Indonesia and Honshu in Japan. The island of Ireland is situated to the west of it, and together these islands, along with over 1,000 smaller surrounding islands, form the British Isles archipelago. Most of England, Scotland, and Wales are on the island.

The term "Great Britain" often extends to include surrounding islands that form part of England, Scotland, and Wales, and is sometimes loosely applied to the UK as a whole.

The physical geography of the UK varies greatly. It includes the chalk cliffs of Kent and Dorset, the rolling hills and fields of southeast England, the granite cliffs of Cornwall, the mountains of Wales, the uplands of the Peak District and the Pennines, the lakes and mountains of Cumbria, the Scottish lowlands, highlands and islands, and the fields, lakes and mountains of Northern Ireland. The country can be roughly divided into highland and lowland along the Tees-Exe rivers line.

The overall geomorphology of the UK was shaped by the combined forces of tectonics and climate change, in particular glaciation. The exact centre of the island of Great Britain is disputed.

Depending upon how it is calculated it can be either Haltwhistle in Northumberland, or Dunsop Bridge in Lancashire. The geology of the UK is varied and complex. This gives rise to the wide variety of landscapes found across the UK. This variety, coupled with the early efforts of UK based scientists and geologists to understand it, has influenced the naming of many geological concepts, including many of the geological periods (the Ordovician period is named after the Ordovices, a people of early Britain; the Devonian period is named after the county of Devon in south-west England).

The oldest rocks in the UK are gneisses which date from at least 2,700 Ma ("Ma" means "Mas of years ago") in the Archaean Period, which are found in the far north west of Scotland and in the Hebrides, with a few small outcrops elsewhere. South of the gneisses are a complex mixture of rocks forming the North West Highlands and Grampian Highlands in Scotland, as well as the Connemara, Donegal and Mayo mountains of north Ireland.

These are essentially the remains of folded sedimentary rock, deposited over the gneiss, from 1,000 Ma, with a notable 7 km thick layer of Torridon Sandstone being deposited about 800 Ma, as well as the debris deposited by an ice sheet 670 Ma. The remains of ancient volcanic islands underlie much of central England with small outcrops visible in many places.

Around 600 Ma, the Cadomian Orogeny (mountain building period) caused the English and Welsh landscape to be transformed into a mountainous region, along with much of north west Europe.

The Welsh Skiddaw slate deposits formed at around 500 Ma, during the Ordovician Period.

At about this time, around 425 Ma, north Wales (and south Mayo in Ireland) experienced volcanic activity. The remains of these volcanoes are still visible, for example Rhobell Fwar, dating from 510 Ma. Large quantities of volcanic lava and ash known as the Borrowdale Volcanics covered both Wales and the Lake District, still seen in the form of mountains such as Helvellyn and Scafell Pike. In the Silurian Period, between 425 and 400 Ma, the Caledonian fold mountains formed (the Caledonian Orogeny), covering much of what is now the UK to perhaps 8,000 ft (2,500 m) thick. Volcanic ashes and lavas deposited during this period are still found in the Mendip Hills and in Pembrokeshire.

Volcanic deposits formed Ben Nevis in the Devonian Period. Sea levels varied considerably, with the coastline advancing and retreating from north to south across England, with the deposition of numerous sedimentary rock layers.

Great Britain lies on the European continental shelf, part of the Eurasian Plate. Situated off the north-west coast of continental Europe, it is separated from the mainland by the North Sea and by the English Channel, which narrows to 34 km (18 nmi; 21 mi) at the Straits of Dover. It stretches over about ten degrees of latitude on its longer, north-south axis and occupies an area of 209,331 km² (80,823 mi²), excluding the smaller surrounding islands.

The North Channel, Irish Sea, St George's Channel and Celtic Sea separate the island from the island of Ireland to its west. The island is physically connected with continental Europe via the Channel Tunnel, the longest undersea rail tunnel in the world, completed in 1993.

The island is marked by low, rolling countryside in the east and south, while hills and mountains predominate in the western and northern regions. It is surrounded by over 1,000 smaller islands and islets. The greatest distance between two points is 968.0 km (601 1/2 mi) (between Land's End, Cornwall and John o' Groats, Caithness), 838 mi (1,349 km) by road.

The English Channel is thought to have been created between 450,000 and 180,000 years ago by two catastrophic glacial lake outburst floods caused by the breaching of the Weald-Artois Anticline, a ridge that held back a large proglacial lake, now submerged under the North Sea.

Around 10,000 years ago, during the Devensian glaciation with its lower sea level, Great Britain was not an island, but an upland region of continental northwestern Europe, lying partially underneath the Eurasian ice sheet. The sea level was about 120 m (390 ft) lower than today, and the bed of the North Sea was dry and acted as a land bridge, now known as Doggerland, to the Continent.

It is generally thought that as sea levels gradually rose after the end of the last glacial period of the current ice age, Doggerland became submerged beneath the North Sea, cutting off what was previously the British peninsula from the European mainland by around 6500 B.C.

Great Britain has been subject to a variety of plate tectonic processes over a much-extended period of time. Changing latitude and sea levels have been important factors in the nature of sedimentary sequences, whilst successive continental collisions have affected its geological structure with major faulting and folding being a legacy of each orogeny (mountain-building period), often associated with volcanic activity and the metamorphism of existing rock sequences. Because of this eventful geological history, the island shows a rich variety of landscapes.

The oldest rocks in Great Britain are the Lewisian gneisses, metamorphic rocks found in the far north west of the island and in the Hebrides (with a few small outcrops elsewhere), which date from at least 2,700 Ma (Ma = mln years ago). South of the gneisses are a complex mixture of rocks forming the North West Highlands and Grampian Highlands in Scotland.

These are essentially the remains of folded sedimentary rocks that were deposited between 1,000 Ma and 670 Ma over the gneiss on what was then the floor of the Iapetus Ocean. Now the north of the island is rising because of the weight of Devensian ice being lifted. Southern and eastern Britain is sinking, generally estimated at 1 mm (1/25 inch) per year, with the London area sinking at double the speed partly due to the continuing compaction of the recent clay deposits.

The Old Red Sandstone of Devon gave the period its name, though deposits are found in many other places. During the Carboniferous Period, around 360 Ma, the UK was lying at the equator, covered by the warm shallow waters of the Rheic Ocean, during which time the Carboniferous limestone was deposited, still found in areas such as the Mendip Hills and the Pennines. The coal measures were formed at this time, in river deltas, swamps and rain forests.

Coal can be found in many areas of the UK, as far North as Sutherland and as far south as Kent, though it has largely been mined in the Midlands, northern England and Wales.

The Millstone Grits were formed. During the Permian and Triassic Periods, much of the UK was beneath shallow seas, leading to the deposition of sedimentary rocks such as shale, limestone, gravel, and marl. The seas finally receded to leave a flat desert with salt pans. At the beginning of the Jurassic Period, the UK was under-water again, leading to the deposition of sedimentary rocks.

They now underlie much of England from the Cleveland Hills of Yorkshire to the Jurassic Coast in Dorset, including clays, sandstones, and the oolitic limestone of the Cotswold Hills.

The burial of algae and bacteria below the mud of the sea floor during this time resulted in the formation of North Sea oil and natural gas. In the Cretaceous Period, much of the UK was again below the sea and chalk and flints were deposited over much of Great Britain. These are now notably exposed at the White Cliffs of Dover, and form Salisbury Plain, the Chiltern Hills, the South Downs and other similar features.

The last volcanic rocks in the UK were formed in the early Tertiary Period, between 63 and 52 Ma, with the major eruptions that formed the Antrim Plateau and the basaltic columns of the Giant's Causeway. Further sediments were deposited over southern England, including the London clay, while the English Channel consisted of mud flats and river deposited sands.
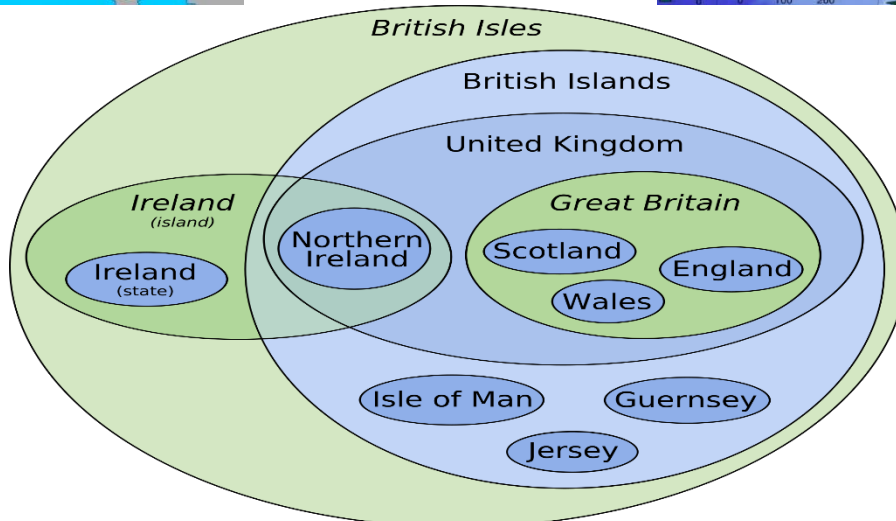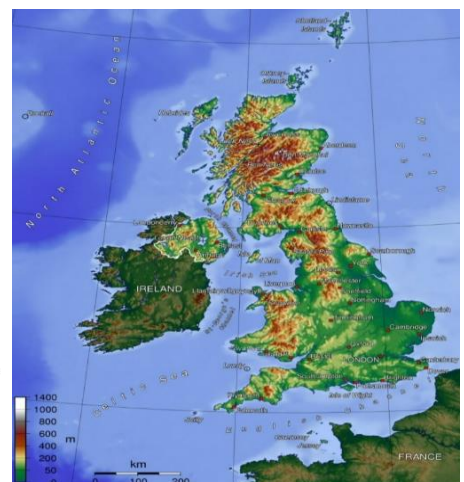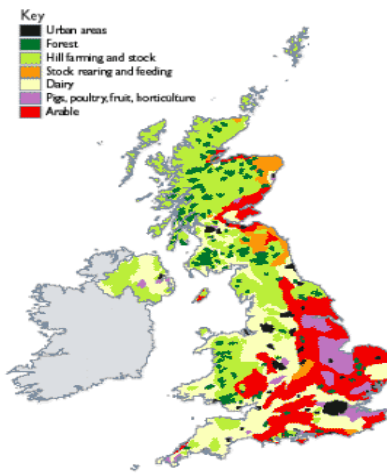
The major changes during the last few Ma years, during the Quaternary Period, have been brought about by several recent ice ages, leaving a legacy of U-shaped valleys in highland areas, and fertile (if often stoney) soil in southern England.
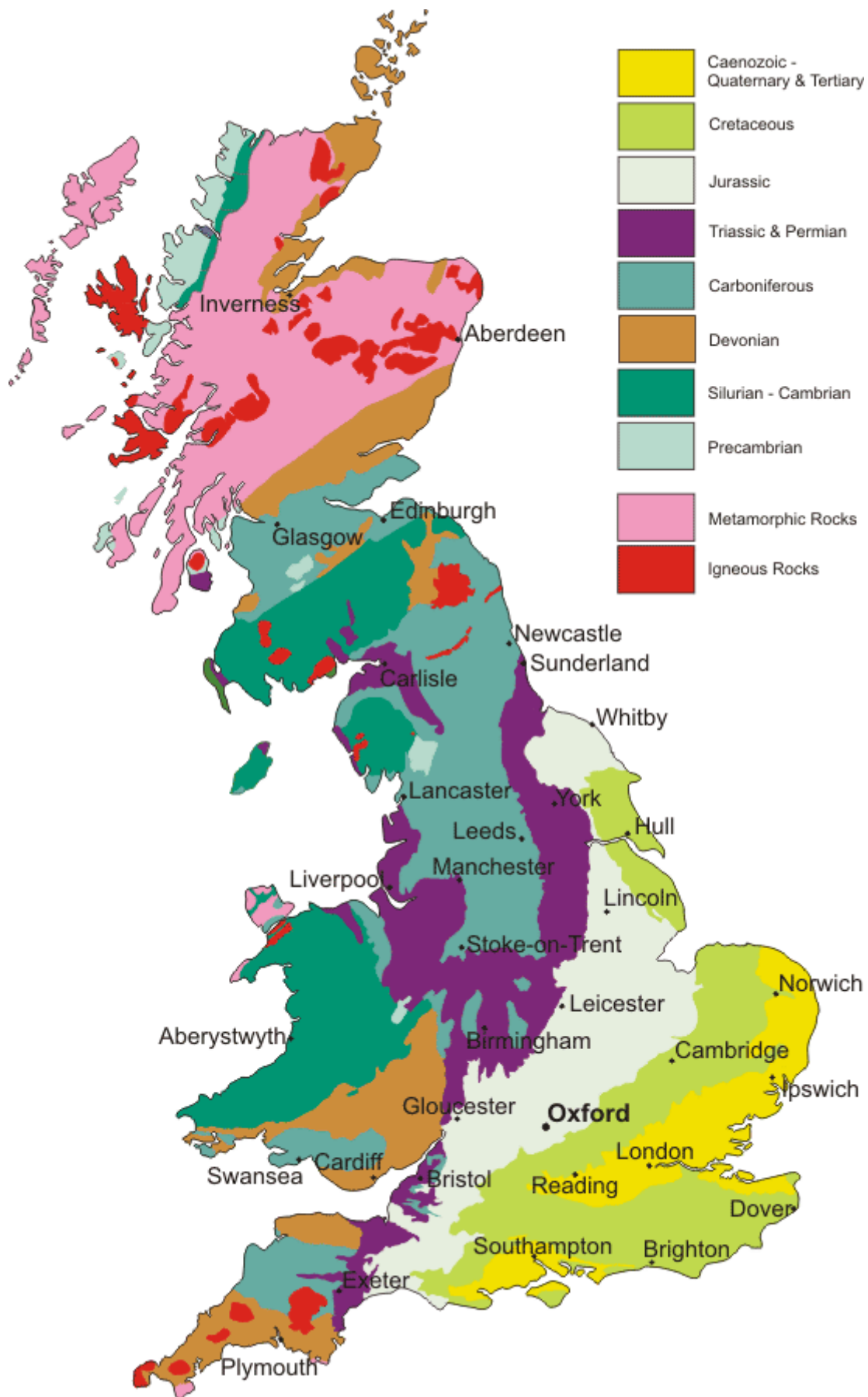
Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

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

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

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

Caenozoic - Quaternary & Tertiary
Cretaceous
Jurassic
Triassic & Permian
Carboniferous
Devonian
Silurian - Cambrian
Precambrian
Metamorphic Rocks
Igneous Rocks

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE UK

The UK is a sovereign state located off the north-western coast of continental Europe. With a total area of approximately 248,532 km² (95,960 mi²), the UK occupies the major part of the British Isles archipelago and includes the island of Great Britain, the north-eastern one-sixth of the island of Ireland and many smaller surrounding islands.

The mainland areas lie between latitudes 49°N and 59°N (the Shetland Islands reach to nearly 61°N), and longitudes 8°W to 2°E. The Royal Greenwich Observatory, in South East London, is the defining point of the Prime Meridian. The UK lies between the North Atlantic and the North Sea, and comes within 35 km (22 mi) of the north-west coast of France, from which it is separated by the English Channel. It shares a 499 km international land boundary with the Republic of Ireland.

The Channel Tunnel bored beneath the English Channel, now links the UK with France.

The total area of the UK according to the Office for National Statistics is 248,532 km² (95,960 mi²), comprising the island of Great Britain, the northeastern one-sixth of the island of Ireland (Northern Ireland) and many smaller islands. England is the largest country of the UK, at 132,938 km² (51,330 mi²) accounting for just over half the total area of the UK. Scotland at 80,239 km² (30,980 mi²) is second largest, accounting for about a third of the area of the UK. Wales and Northern Ireland are much smaller, covering 21,225 and 14,130 km² (8,200 & 5,460 mi²) respectively.

The area of the countries of the UK is set out in the table below. Information about the area of England, the largest country, is broken down by region.

The British Antarctic Territory, which covers an area of 1,709,400 km² is geographically the largest of the British Overseas Territories followed by the Falkland Islands which covers an area of 12,173 km². The remaining 12 overseas territories cover an area 5,997 km².

The physical geography of the UK varies greatly. England consists of mostly lowland terrain, with upland or mountainous terrain only found north-west of the Tees-Exe line. The upland areas include the Lake District, the Pennines, North York Moors, Exmoor and Dartmoor. The lowland areas are typically traversed by ranges of low hills, frequently composed of chalk, and flat plains. Scotland is the most mountainous country in the UK and its physical geography is distinguished by the Highland Boundary Fault which traverses the Scottish mainland from Helensburgh to Stonehaven.

The faultline separates the two distinctively different regions of the Highlands to the north and west, the Lowlands to the south and east. The Highlands are predominantly mountainous, containing the majority of Scotland's mountainous landscape, while the Lowlands contain flatter land, especially across the Central Lowlands, with upland & mountainous terrain located at the Southern Uplands.

Wales is mostly mountainous, south Wales is less mountainous than north and mid Wales. Northern Ireland consists of mostly hilly landscape and its geography includes the Mourne Mountains as well as Lough Neagh, at 388 km² (150 mi²), the largest body of water in the UK.

The overall geomorphology of the UK was shaped by a combination of forces including tectonics and climate change, in particular glaciation in northern and western areas. The tallest mountain in the UK (British Isles) is Ben Nevis, in the Grampian Mountains, Scotland. The longest river is the River Severn which flows from Wales into England. The largest lake by surface area is Lough Neagh in Northern Ireland, though Scotland's Loch Ness has the largest volume.

The geology of the UK is complex and diverse, a result of it being subject to a variety of plate tectonic processes over a very extended period of time. Changing latitude and sea levels have been important factors in the nature of sedimentary sequences, whilst successive continental collisions have affected its geological structure with major faulting and folding.

This is a legacy of each orogeny (mountain-building period), often associated with volcanic activity and the metamorphism of existing rock sequences. As a result of this eventful geological history, the UK shows a rich variety of landscapes.

Prehistoric Period

People who crossed over the land bridge from the European mainland first inhabited the island.

Human footprints have been found from over 800,000 years ago in Norfolk and traces of early humans have been found (at Boxgrove Quarry, Sussex) from some 500,000 years ago and modern humans from about 30,000 years ago. Until about 14,000 years ago, Great Britain was connected to Ireland, and as recently as 8,000 years ago, it retained a land connection to the continent, with an area of mostly low marshland joining it to what are now Denmark and the Netherlands.

In Cheddar Gorge, near Bristol, the remains of animal species native to mainland Europe such as antelopes, brown bears, and wild horses have been found alongside a human skeleton, "Cheddar Man", dated to about 7150 B.C. Thus, animals and humans must have moved between mainland Europe and Great Britain via a crossing. Great Britain became an island at the end of the last glacial period when sea levels rose due to the combination of melting glaciers and the subsequent isostatic rebound of the crust. Great Britain's Iron Age inhabitants are known as Britons; spoke Celtic languages.

Precambrian

The oldest rocks in the British Isles are the Lewisian gneisses, metamorphic rocks found in the far north west of Scotland and in the Hebrides (with a few small outcrops elsewhere), which date from at least 2,700 Ma. South and east of the gneisses are a complex mixture of rocks forming the North West Highlands and Grampian Highlands in Scotland.

These are essentially the remains of folded sedimentary rocks that were deposited between 1,000 Ma and 670 Ma over the gneiss on what was then the floor of the Iapetus Ocean.

Palaeozoic

At 520 Ma, what is now Great Britain was split between two continents; the north of Scotland was located on the continent of Laurentia at about 20° south of the equator, while the rest of the country was on the continent of Gondwana near the Antarctic Circle. In Gondwana, England and Wales were largely submerged under a shallow sea studded with volcanic islands. The remains of these islands underlie much of central England with small outcrops visible in many places.

About 500 Ma southern Britain, the east coast of North America and south-east Newfoundland broke away from Gondwana to form the continent of Avalonia, which by 440 Ma had drifted to about 30° south. During this period north Wales was subject to volcanic activity. The remains of these volcanoes are still visible, one example of which is Rhobell Fawr dating from 510 Ma. Large quantities of volcanic lava and ash known as the Borrowdale Volcanics covered the Lake District and this can still be seen in the form of mountains such as Helvellyn and Scafell Pike. Between 425 and 400 Ma Avalonia had joined with the continent of Baltica, and the combined landmass collided with Laurentia at about 20° south, joining the southern and northern halves of Great Britain together.

The resulting Caledonian Orogeny produced an Alpine-style mountain range in much of north and west Britain. The collision between continents continued during the Devonian period, producing uplift & subsequent erosion, resulting in the deposition of numerous sedimentary rock layers in lowlands & in Devon originated from these processes. Around 360 Ma Great Britain was lying at the equator, covered by the warm shallow waters of the Rheic Ocean, during which time the Carboniferous Limestone was deposited, as found in the Mendip Hills and the Peak District of Derbyshire.

Later, river deltas formed and the sediments deposited were colonised by swamps and rain forest. It was in this environment that the Coal Measures were formed, the source of the majority of Britain's extensive coal reserves. Around 280 Ma the Variscan orogeny mountain-building period occurred, again due to collision of continental plates, causing major deformation in south west England.

The general region of Variscan folding was south of an east–west line from south Pembrokeshire to Kent. Towards the end of this period granite was formed beneath the overlying rocks of Devon and Cornwall, now exposed at Dartmoor and Bodmin Moor.

By the end of the Carboniferous period the various continents of the Earth had fused to form the super-continent of Pangaea. Britain was located in the interior of Pangea where it was subject to a hot arid desert climate with frequent flash floods leaving deposits that formed beds of red sedimentary rock.

Mesozoic

As Pangaea drifted during the Triassic, Great Britain moved away from the equator until it was between 20° and 30° north. The remnants of the Variscan uplands in France to the south were eroded down, resulting in layers of the New Red Sandstone being deposited across central England.

Pangaea began to break up at the start of the Jurassic period. Sea levels rose and Britain drifted on the Eurasian Plate to between 31° & 40° north. Much Britain was under water again, and sedimentary rocks were deposited and can now be found underlying much of England from the Cleveland Hills of Yorkshire to the Jurassic Coast in Dorset. These include sandstones, oolitic limestone of the Cotswold Hills, greensands, corallian limestone of the Vale of White Horse and the Isle of Portland.

The burial of algae and bacteria below the mud of the sea floor during this time resulted in the formation of North Sea oil and natural gas. The modern continents having formed, the Cretaceous saw the formation of the Atlantic Ocean, gradually separating northern Scotland from North America.

The land underwent a series of uplifts to form a fertile plain. After 20 Ma years or so, the seas started to flood the land again until much of Britain was again below the sea, though sea levels frequently changed. Chalk and flints were deposited over much of Great Britain, now notably exposed at the White Cliffs of Dover and the Seven Sisters, and also forming Salisbury Plain.

Cenozoic

Between 63 and 52 Ma, the last volcanic rocks in Great Britain were formed. The major eruptions at this time produced the Antrim Plateau, the basaltic columns of the Giant's Causeway and Lundy Island in the Bristol Channel. The Alpine Orogeny that took place in Europe about 50 Ma, was responsible for the folding of strata in southern England, producing the London Basin syncline, the Weald-Artois Anticline to the south, the North Downs, South Downs and Chiltern Hills. During the period the North Sea formed, Britain was uplifted. Some of this uplift was along old lines of weakness left from the Caledonian and Variscan Orogenies long before. The uplifted areas were then eroded, and further sediments, such as the London Clay, were deposited over southern England.

The major changes during the last 2 Ma years were brought about by several recent ice ages.

The most severe was the Anglian Glaciation, with ice up to 1,000 m (3,300 ft) thick that reached as far south as London and Bristol. This took place between about 478,000 to 424,000 years ago, and was responsible for the diversion of the River Thames onto its present course. During the most recent Devensian glaciation, which ended a mere 10,000 years ago, the icesheet reached south to Wolverhampton and Cardiff. Among the features left behind by the ice are the fjords of the west coast of Scotland, the U-shaped valleys of the Lake District and erratics (blocks of rock) that have been transported from the Oslo region of Norway and deposited on the coast of Yorkshire.

Amongst the most significant geological features created during the last twelve thousand years are the peat deposits of Scotland, and of coastal and upland areas of England and Wales. At the present time Scotland is continuing to rise as a result of the weight of Devensian ice being lifted.

Southern & eastern England is sinking, estimated at 1 mm (1/25 inch) per year, with the London area sinking at double the speed partly due to the continuing compaction of the recent clay deposits.

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

№	Activity			
	Era	When	Where	Score

MOUNTAINS & HILLS & RIVERS & LAKES

The 10 tallest mountains in the UK are all found in Scotland. The highest peaks in each part of the UK are:

- **Scotland**: Ben Nevis, 1,345 m.
- **Wales**: Snowdon (Snowdonia), 1,085 m.
- **England**: Scafell Pike (Cumbrian Mountains), 978 m.
- **Northern Ireland**: Slieve Donard (Mourne Mountains), 852 m.

The ranges of mountains and hills in the UK include:

- **Scotland**: Cairngorms, Scottish Highlands, Southern Uplands, Grampian Mountains
- Monadhliath Mountains, Ochil Hills, Campsie Fells, Cuillin.
- **Wales**: Brecon Beacons, Cambrian Mountains, Snowdonia, Black Mountains, Preseli Hills.
- **England**: CheviotHills, Chilterns, Cotswolds, Dartmoor, Lincolnshire Wolds, Exmoor, Lake District, Malvern Hills, Mendip Hills, North Downs, Peak District, Pennines, South Downs, Shropshire Hills, Yorkshire Wolds.
- **Northern Ireland**: Mourne Mountains, Antrim Plateau, Sperrin Mountains.

The lowest point of the UK is in the Fens of East Anglia, in England, lies up to 4 m below sea.

Rivers & Lakes

The longest river in the UK is the River Severn (220 mi; 350 km) which flows through both Wales and England. The longest rivers in the UK contained wholly within each of its constituent nations are:

- England: River Thames (215 mi; 346 km).
- Scotland: River Tay (117 mi; 188 km).
- N. Ireland: River Bann (76 mi; 122 km).
- Wales: River Tywi (64 mi; 103 km).

The largest lakes (by surface area) in the UK by country are:

- **N. Ireland**: Lough Neagh (147.39 mi^2; 381.7 km^2).
- **Scotland**: Loch Lomond (27.46 mi^2; 71.1 km^2).
- **England**: Windermere (5.69 mi^2; 14.7 km^2).

The deepest lake in the UK is Loch Morar with a maximum depth of 309 m (Loch Ness is second at 228 m deep). The deepest lake in England is Wastwater achieves a depth of 79 m (259 ft).

Loch Ness is the UK's largest lake in terms of volume. As a result of its industrial history, the UK has an extensive system of canals, mostly built in the early years of the Industrial Revolution, before the rise of competition from the railways. The UK has numerous dams and reservoirs to store water for drinking and industry. The generation of hydroelectric power is rather limited, supplying less than 2% of British electricity, mainly from the Scottish Highlands.

The UK has a coastline which measures about 12,429 km. The heavy indentation of the coastline helps to ensure that no location is more than 125 km from tidal waters.

The UK claims jurisdiction over the continental shelf, as defined in continental shelf orders or in accordance with agreed upon boundaries, an exclusive fishing zone of 200 nmi (370.4 km; 230.2 mi), and territorial sea of 12 nmi (22.2 km; 13.8 mi).

The geology of the UK is such that there are many headlands along its coast. A list of headlands of the UK details many of them. In total, it is estimated that the UK is made up of over one thousand small islands, the majority located off the north and west coasts of Scotland. About 130 of these are inhabited according to the 2001 Census. The largest islands by country are Lewis and Harris in Scotland (841 mi^2), Wales' Anglesey (276 mi^2), the Isle of Wight in England (147.09 mi^2), and Rathlin Island in Northern Ireland (roughly 6 mi^2);

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

Exercise 2. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

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

Exercise 4. Write a small essay on the topic.

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

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

THE GEOLOGY OF ENGLAND

England comprises most of the central and southern two-thirds of the island of Great Britain, in addition to a number of small islands of which the largest is the Isle of Wight. England is bordered to the north by Scotland and to the west by Wales. It is closer to continental Europe than any other part of mainland Britain, divided from France only by a 33 km (21 mi) sea gap, the English Channel.

The 50 km (31 mi) Channel Tunnel, near Folkestone, directly links England to mainland Europe. The English/French border is halfway along the tunnel. Much of England consists of low hills and plains, with upland and mountainous terrain in the north and west.

Uplands in the north include the Pennines, an upland chain dividing east and west, the Lake District, containing the highest mountains in the country, the Cheviot Hills across the Anglo-Scottish border, the North York Moors near the North Sea. Uplands in the west include Dartmoor and Exmoor in the south west and the Shropshire Hills near Wales. The approximate dividing line between terrain types is often indicated by the Tees-Exe line.

To the south of that line, there are larger areas of flatter land, including East Anglia and the Fens, although hilly areas include the Cotswolds, the Chilterns, and the North and South Downs.

The largest natural harbour in England is at Poole, on the south-central coast. Some regard it as the second largest harbour in the world, after Sydney, Australia, although this fact is disputed.

The Geology of England is mainly sedimentary. The youngest rocks are in the south east, progressing in age in a north-westerly direction. The Tees-Exe line marks the division between younger, softer & low-lying rocks in the south east and older, harder, a higher relief in the north-west.

The geology of England is recognisable in the landscape of its counties; Cumbria, Kent and Norfolk all have very distinct and very different looks from each other. The geology of Northern England and Western England tends to be somewhat closer to that of its near neighbours, Wales and Scotland, with the geology of Southern England and Eastern England being more aligned with that found across the North Sea and English Channel in Northern France, Belgium, and the Netherlands.

London is, by far, the largest urban area in England and one of the largest and busiest cities in the world. Other cities, mainly in central and northern England, are of substantial size and influence.

The list of England's largest cities or urban areas is open to debate because, although the normal meaning of city is "a continuously built-up urban area", this can be hard to define, particularly because administrative areas in England often do not correspond with the limits of urban development, and many towns and cities have, over the centuries, grown to form complex urban agglomerations.

According to the ONS urban area populations for continuous built-up areas, these are the 15 largest conurbations (population figures from the 2001 census):

England is generally lower and flatter than the rest of the UK, but has two main divisions in its form – the lowland areas of the south, east, and midlands and the more rugged and upland areas of the north and west. East Anglia is the lowest area of England, having no high hills or mountains and hosting an area of the Fens, the lowest area of England. The highest area of England is the North West, which contains England's highest hills and mountains, including its highest – Scafell Pike.

In England, a mountain is officially defined as land over 600 metres, so most fall in Northern England. The longest river in England is the River Severn which has its source in Wales, enters England at its confluence with the River Vyrnwy and flows into the Bristol Channel. The longest river entirely within England is the River Thames which flows through the English and British capital, London. The Vale of York and The Fens host many of England's larger rivers.

England has 4,422 km (2,748 mi) of coastline, much less than the deeply indented Scottish coastline. The English coastline varies a great deal by the seas and regions it borders.

The North Sea coast of England is mainly flat and sandy with many dunes and is similar to coastlines across the sea in the Netherlands.

The English North Sea coast is an important area of bird life and is a habitat for many shore and wading birds. Along the English Channel, the South Coast builds up into steep, white cliffs at Dover, which are often seen as an iconic symbol of England and Britain.

The South Coast continues to the Isle of Wight, but eventually gives way to the Jurassic Coast of Dorset, a coastline rich in beauty, history and fossils.

Into Devon and Cornwall, the coastline becomes more rocky and steep, with numerous cliffs and tiny fishing villages along the coastline. This stretch of coastline stretches from Devon to Land's End in Cornwall, the westernmost part of mainland England. The coastline of Devon and Cornwall has similarities to that of Brittany in France directly opposite. Following the coastline northwards the coast remains much the same as in south Devon and Cornwall but is besides the Celtic Sea until it eventually reaches the Bristol Channel, an important shipping and docking area.

The English coastline re-emerges again in North West England. The coastline here is similar to the North Sea coast in that it is mainly flat and sandy, with the only notable cliffs along this stretch of coast being at St Bees Head in Cumbria. The English Irish Sea coast is an important area of estuaries & bird life, with Wirral being a peninsula bounded by two rivers, the River Dee & Mersey.

Liverpool and Merseyside are areas of high population and important industry along this coast, with tourist resorts of Southport and Blackpool being further to the north. The English Irish Sea coast hosts two important geographic areas, Morecambe Bay, a large bay, and the Furness and Walney Island areas. Further north into Cumbria the Sellafield Nuclear Power Station lies along this coast. The English section of the Irish Sea coast ends at the border with Scotland in the Solway Firth.

Seas bordering England are:
- North Sea.
- English Channel.
- Celtic Sea.
- Bristol Channel.
- Irish Sea.

Largest Lakes & Reservoirs

Although the largest nation within the UK, England is relatively absent of large lakes, with many of its former wetlands being drained throughout the Middle Ages. Most of its largest lakes lie within the aptly named *Lake District* in Cumbria, Northern England. The total land area of England is 132,938 km^2 (51,328 mi^2). Crops and fallow land accounts for 30% of the land area, grasses and rough grazing 36%, other agricultural land 5%, forest and woodland 8%, and urban development 21%.

Neighbouring Countries

England has two land borders: a 96 km (60 mi) border with Scotland that follows the Cheviot Hills and a 257 km (160 mi) border with Wales that loosely follows the route of Offa's Dyke. To the west, the Irish Sea separates England from Ireland and the Isle of Man; to the east, the North Sea separates England from Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands & Belgium and to the south, the English Channel separates England from France and the Channel Islands.

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

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

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

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

THE GEOGRAPHY OF SCOTLAND

The geography of Scotland is varied, from rural lowlands to unspoilt uplands, and from large cities to sparsely inhabited islands. Located in Northern Europe, Scotland comprises the northern one third of the island of Great Britain as well as 790 surrounding islands encompassing the major archipelagoes of the Shetland Islands, Orkney Islands and the Inner and Outer Hebrides.

Scotland's only land border is with England, which runs for 60 mi (97 km) in a northeasterly direction from the Solway Firth in the west to the North Sea on the east coast. Separated by the North Channel, the island of Ireland lies 13 mi (21 km) from Mull of Kintyre on the Scottish mainland. Norway is located 190 mi (310 km) to the northeast of Scotland across the North Sea. The Atlantic Ocean, which fringes the coastline of western and northern Scotland and its islands, influences the temperate, maritime climate of the country. Scotland contains the majority of mountainous terrain in the UK.

The topography of Scotland is distinguished by the Highland Boundary Fault – a geological rock fracture – which traverses the Scottish mainland from Helensburgh to Stonehaven.

The faultline separates two distinctively different physiographic regions; namely the Highlands to the north and west and the Lowlands to the south and east. The more rugged Highland region contains the majority of Scotland's mountainous terrain, including the highest peak, Ben Nevis. Lowland areas, in the southern part of Scotland, are flatter and home to most of the population, especially the narrow waist of land between the Firth of Clyde and the Firth of Forth known as the Central Belt.

Glasgow is the largest city in Scotland, although Edinburgh is the capital and political centre of the country. While the Lowlands are less elevated, upland and mountainous terrain is located across the Southern Uplands. An abundance of natural resources such as coal, iron and zinc contributed significantly to the industrial growth of Scotland during the 19th and early 20th centuries. Today, energy is a major component of Scotland's economy. Whilst Scotland is the largest producer of petroleum in the EU, the production potential of renewable energy has emerged as an important economic & environmental issue in recent years. The land area of Scotland is 30,981 mi² (80,240 km²), 32% of the area of the UK. The mainland of Scotland has 6,160 mi (9,910 km) of coastline.

The geomorphology of Scotland was formed by the action of tectonic plates, and subsequent erosion arising from glaciation. The major division of Scotland is the Highland Boundary Fault, which separates the land into 'highland' to the north and west, and 'lowland' to the south and east.

The Highlands of Scotland are largely mountainous, and form the highest ground in the UK: they are bisected by the Great Glen into the Grampian Mountains to the southeast and the Northwest Highlands. The Scottish Lowlands can be further subdivided into the Southern Uplands, an area of rolling farmland and high moorland, and the lowland farmland of the Central Belt and eastern Scotland.

Scotland has an incomparable variety of geology for an area of its size. The oldest rocks of Scotland are the Lewisian gneisses, which were formed in the Precambrian period, up to 3 bn years ago. They are among the oldest rocks in the world. During the Precambrian, the Torridonian sandstones and the Moine were laid down. Further sedimentary deposits were formed through the Cambrian period, some of which metamorphosed into the Dalradian series. The area which would become Scotland was at this time close to the south pole..During the Silurian period (439-409 Ma), the area which became Scotland was part of the continent of Laurentia. Across the Iapetus ocean to the south, was the continent of Baltica.

The two continents gradually collided, joining Scotland to the area which would become England and Europe. This event is known as the Caledonian Orogeny, and the Highland Boundary Fault marks this stitching together of continents. Silurian rocks form the Southern Uplands of Scotland, which was pushed up from the seabed during the collision. The highlands were pushed up as a result of this collision, and may have been as high as the modern-day Alps at this time.

The Old Red Sandstones were laid down in low-lying areas during this period. Volcanic activity occurred across Scotland as a result of the collision of the tectonic plates.

With volcanoes in southern Scotland, magma chambers in the north. Today they form the granite mountains such as the Cairngorms. During the Carboniferous period (363-290 Ma), Scotland lay close to the equator. Several changes in sea level occurred during this time.

The coal deposits of Lanarkshire, and further sedimentary deposits, date from this time.

More volcanic activity formed Arthur's Seat in Edinburgh, among other hills. By the Triassic, Scotland was a desert, the origin of large sandstone outcrops of the southwest.

Large deposits of Cretaceous rocks would have been laid down over Scotland, these have not survived erosion, as have the chalks of England. By the Tertiary period, the tectonic plates were again moving, separating into modern-day North America & Europe with the creation of the Atlantic Ocean.

The split occurred to the west of Scotland, leaving a chain of former volcanic sites through the Hebrides, including Skye and St. Kilda. This was the last period of rock formation in Scotland.

West: Corrachadh Mòr, Ardnamurchan (headland), Lochaber. It is often yet incorrectly stated that John o' Groats is the most northerly point of mainland Scotland. The pre-Union phrase "John o' Groats to Maidenkirk" was the Scottish equivalent of the British Land's End to John o' Groats.

The extreme points of Scotland, including outlying islands, are:

- **North**: Out Stack, north of Unst, Shetland Islands.
- **East:** Bound Skerry, Out Skerries, Shetland Islands.
- **South**: Mull of Galloway, Dumfries and Galloway.
- **West:** Either Rockall (annexed in 1972 to the former Inverness-shire), the international status of which is disputed, or Soay, St. Kilda, Western Isles.

The geographical centre of Scotland lies a few miles from the village of Newtonmore in Badenoch, far to the north of the modern population heartlands. The geographical centre of the mainland alone lies near the peak of Schiehallion. The total land area of Scotland is 8,023,947 ha. Grasses and rough grazing account for 67% of the land area, forest and woodland 17%, urban development 8%, crops and fallow 7%, and other agricultural land accounts for 2%.

Topography & Mountains & Hills

Scotland contains the most mountainous terrain in Great Britain. Much of the highest uplands lie to the north & west of the Highland Boundary Fault in the Northwest Highlands & Grampian ranges.

The jagged Cuillin, on the Isle of Skye, represents a major mountain range that is not located on the Scottish mainland. Located at the western end of the Grampian Mountains, at an altitude of 1,345 m (4,413 ft), Ben Nevis is the highest mountain in Scotland and Great Britain.

Ben Macdui and Braeriach are, respectively, the second and third tallest peaks in Scotland. Both are located in the Cairngorms, a mountain range in the eastern Highlands which is the highest upland area in Britain. In the south of Scotland lie the Southern Uplands, a vast, rolling mountain chain that is less rugged and more forested than the Highlands. Shorter than the Highlands, the tallest mountain in the range is Merrick, at 843 m (2,766 ft).

There are ranges of gentler, rolling hills even in the central lowlands of Scotland. Such ranges include the Ochil Hills, near Stirling, the Campsie Fells outside Glasgow, and the Lomond Hills in Fife. Mountains in Scotland are categorised by their height. Peaks over 3,000 ft (914.4 m) are known as Munros. There are 282 Munros in Scotland, all within the Highlands.

Corbetts are peaks with an altitude of between 2,500 and 3,000 ft (762.0 and 914.4 m), with a relative height of at least 500 ft (152.4 m). The classification of peaks in Scotland is kept under periodic review by the Scottish Mountaineering Club. Mainland Scotland has 6,160 mi (9,910 km) of coastline. Including the numerous islands, this increases to some 10,250 miles (16,500 km). The west coast in particular is heavily indented, with long promontories separated by fjordlike sea lochs. The east coast is more regular, with a series of large estuarine inlets, or firths, and long sandy beaches, for example at Aberdeen.

Much of the Scottish coastline consists of a machair formation, a dune pasture land formed as sea levels subsided. The east coast has several significant estuaries and other nature reserves including the Ythan Estuary and Fowlsheugh, which designated as Important Bird Areas.

Firths of Scotland include the Solway Firth, Firth of Clyde, Firth of Lorne on the west coast, the Cromarty Firth, Moray Firth, Firth of Tay, and Firth of Forth on the east coast.

The Pentland Firth is not an inlet, but the strait that separates the Orkney Isles from the mainland. Major sea lochs include Loch Fyne, Loch Long, Loch Ryan, Loch Linnhe, Loch Torridon, Loch Ewe, and on the Isle of Lewis, Loch Seaforth.

Islands

Scotland has some 790 islands, most of which are located off the northern and western coast of the country. The northern and western islands of Scotland can be found in three main groups.

Shetland, Orkney and the Hebrides which can be divided into the Inner Hebrides and the Outer Hebrides. Shetland and Orkney, together with Fair Isle & Stroma are referred to as the Northern Isles.

With a total land area of 860 mi² (2,200 km²) Lewis and Harris (referred to as two islands but actually just one) is the largest island surrounding Scotland. Many of these offshore islands are swept by strong tides, and the Corryvreckan tide race between Scarba and Jura is one of the largest whirlpools in the world. Other strong tides are to be found in the Pentland Firth between mainland Scotland and Orkney, and the *Grey Dog* between Scarba and Lunga. There are also numerous clusters of islands in the Firth of Forth and the Firth of Clyde and in freshwater lochs such as Loch Lomond and Loch Maree.

Outlying islands include St Kilda and Rockall the status of which is disputed.

Scotland's islands have a varied topography. Mull, Skye and Arran are noted for their mountainous terrain, whilst Tiree, Coll and most of the Shetland group are flat or low lying. Striking topographical differences can be seen within island groups themselves; in Orkney, the Island of Hoy is hillier and more rugged than surrounding islands and Harris is distinctive in being more mountainous than the islands of Lewis, North Uist, South Uist and Barra, in the Outer Hebrides. Islay's terrain is gentle and rolling. However, its neighbor Jura is mountainous and rugged. Rùm and Eigg display jagged terrain; nearby Canna and Muck are flatter. The watershed between river systems flowing west to the Atlantic Ocean and east into the North Sea is 745 mi (1,199 km) long. Freshwater bodies in Scotland are known as lochs, with the exception of the Lake of Menteith and one or two man-made "lakes". 90% of the standing fresh water volume of Great Britain lies within Scotland.

Loch Lomond is the largest freshwater body by area, although with a capacity of 1.78 mi³ (7.4 km³) Loch Ness is the most voluminous. The water in Loch Ness is nearly double that of all the lakes of England and Wales combined, and is by volume the largest lake in the British Isles.

Distances to other countries

Scotland's only land border is with England, and runs for 60 mi (97 km) between the basin of the River Tweed on the east coast and the Solway Firth in the west. The Atlantic Ocean borders the west coast and the North Sea is to the east. The island of Ireland lies only 19 mi (31 km) from the southwestern peninsula of Kintyre; Norway is 190 mi (310 km) to the east; the Faroes, 170 mi (270 km) to the north; and Iceland, 460 mi (740 km) to the northwest.

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

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

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

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF WALES

Wales (Welsh: *Cymru*) is a country that is part of the UK and is part of the island of Great Britain and offshore islands. It is bordered by England to its east, the Irish Sea to its north and west, and the Bristol Channel to its south. It has a total area of 2,064,100 ha (5,101,000 ac) and is about 170 mi (274 km) from north to south and at least 60 mi (97 km) wide. It has a number of offshore islands, by far the largest of which is Anglesey. The mainland coastline, including Anglesey, is about 1,680 mi (2,704 km) in length. As of 2014, Wales had a population of about 3,092,000; Cardiff is the capital and largest city and is situated in the urbanised area of South East Wales.

Wales has a complex geological history which has left it a largely mountainous country.

The coastal plain is narrow in the north and west of the country but wider in the south, where the Vale of Glamorgan has some of the best agricultural land.

Exploitation of the South Wales Coalfield during the Industrial Revolution resulted in the development of an urban economy in the South Wales Valleys, and the expansion of the port cities of Newport, Cardiff and Swansea for the export of coal.

The smaller North Wales Coalfield was also developed at this time, but elsewhere in the country, the landscape is rural and communities are small, the economy being largely dependent on agriculture & tourism. The climate is influenced by the proximity of the country to the Atlantic Ocean and the prevailing westerly winds; thus it tends to be mild, cloudy, wet and windy. Wales is located on the western side of central southern Great Britain. To the north & west is the Irish Sea, to the south is the Bristol Channel. The English counties of Cheshire, Shropshire, Herefordshire & Gloucesters lie to the east. Much of the border with England roughly follows the line of the ancient earthwork known as Offa's Dyke. The large island of Anglesey lies off the northwest coast, separated from mainland Wales by the Menai Strait, and there are a number of smaller islands.

Most of Wales is mountainous. Snowdonia in the northwest has the highest mountains, with Snowdon at 1,085 m (3,560 ft) being the highest peak. To the south of the main range lie the Arenig Group, Cadair Idris and the Berwyn Mountains. In the northeast of Wales, between the Clwyd Valley and the Dee Estuary, lies the Clwydian Range. The 14 peaks over 3,000 ft (914 m), all in Snowdonia, are known collectively as the Welsh 3000s. The Cambrian Mountains run from northeast to southwest and occupy most of the central part of the country. These are more rounded and undulating, clad in moorland and rough, tussocky grassland. In the south of the country are the Brecon Beacons in central Powys, the Black Mountains spread across parts of Powys and Monmouthshire in southeast Wales and, confusingly, Black Mountain, which lies further west on the border between Carmarthenshire and Powys.

The Welsh lowland zone consists of the north coastal plain, the island of Anglesey, part of the Llŷn Peninsula, a narrow strip of coast along Cardigan Bay, much of Pembrokeshire & southern Carmarthenshire, the Gower Peninsula and the Vale of Glamorgan.

The main rivers are the River Dee, part of which forms the boundary between Wales & England, the River Clwyd and the River Conwy, which all flow northwards into Liverpool Bay and the Irish Sea. Further round the coast, the Rivers Mawddach, Dovey, Rheidol, Ystwyth and Teifi flow westwards into Cardigan Bay, and the rivers Towy, Taff, Usk and Wye flow southwards into the Bristol Channel.

Parts of the River Severn form the boundary between Wales and England. The length of the coast of mainland Wales is about 1,370 mi (2,205 km), and adding to this the coasts of the Isle of Anglesey and Holy Island, the total is about 1,680 mi (2,704 km). Cardigan Bay is the largest bay in the country and Bala Lake the largest lake at 4.7 km^2 (1.8 mi^2).

Other large lakes include Llyn Trawsfynydd at 1.8 mi^2 (4.7 km^2), Lake Vyrnwy at 1.7 mi^2 (4.4 km^2), Llyn Brenig at 1.4 mi^2 (3.6 km^2), Llyn Celyn at 1.2 mi^2 (3.1 km^2) and Llyn Alaw at 1.2 mi^2 (3.1 km^2). Bala Lake lies in a glacial valley blocked by a terminal moraine.

But the other lakes are reservoirs created by impounding rivers, to provide drinking water, hydroelectric schemes or flood defences. The total terrestrial surface of Wales is 2,064,100 ha (5,101,000 ac). The area of land used for agriculture and forestry in the country in 2013 was 1,712,845 ha (4,232,530 ac). Of this 79,461 ha (196,350 ac) was used for arable cropping and fallow, 1,449 ha (3,580 ac) for horticulture, and 1,405,156 ha (3,472,220 ac) was used for grazing.

Woodland occupied 63,366 ha (156,580 ac) and 10,126 ha (25,020 ac) was unclassified land. In addition, there were 180,305 ha (445,540 ac) of common rough grazing, giving a total area of all the land used for agriculture purposes, including common land, of 1,739,863 ha (4,299,300 ac).

In order of area planted, the arable crops grown in Wales were: foods for stock-feeding, spring barley, wheat, maize, winter barley, other cereals for combining, oilseed rape, potatoes and other crops. The grassland was predominantly permanent pasture, with only 10% of the grassland being under five years old. Compared with other parts of the UK, Wales has the smallest percentage of arable land (6%), a considerably smaller area of rough grazing and hill land than Scotland (27% against 62%).

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

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

Exercise 3. Write a small essay on the topic.

Exercise 4. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF IRELAND

Ireland **is** an island in Northwestern Europe in the north Atlantic Ocean. The island lies on the European continental shelf, part of the Eurasian Plate. The island's main geographical features include low central plains surrounded by coastal mountains.

The highest peak is Carrauntoohil, which is 1,041 m (3,415 ft) above sea level.

The western coastline is rugged, with many islands, peninsulas, headlands and bays.

The island is bisected by the River Shannon, which at 360.5 km (224 mi) with a 102.1 km (63 mi) estuary is the longest river in Ireland and flows south from County Cavan in Ulsterto meet the Atlantic just south of Limerick. There are a number of sizeable lakes along Ireland's rivers, of which Lough Neagh is the largest. Politically, the island consists of the Republic of Ireland, with jurisdiction over about five-sixths of the island; and Northern Ireland, a constituent country (an unconfirmed "practical" exclave) of the UK, with jurisdiction over the remaining sixth. Located west of the island of Great Britain. It has a total area of 84,421 km^2 (32,595 mi²). It is separated from Great Britain by the Irish Sea and from mainland Europe by the Celtic Sea. Ireland and Great Britain, together with nearby islands, are known collectively as the British Isles; as the term British Isles is controversial in relation to Ireland, the alternative term 'Britain and Ireland' is increasingly preferred.

The geology of Ireland is diverse. Different regions contain rocks belonging to different geologic periods, dating as far back almost 2 bn years. The oldest known Irish rock is about 1.7 bn years old and is found on Inishtrahull Island off the north coast of Inishowen and on the mainland at Annagh Head on the Mullet Peninsula. The newer formations are the drumlins and glacial valleys as a result of the last ice age, and the sinkholes and cave formations in the limestone regions of Clare.

Ireland's geologic history covers everything from volcanism and tropical seas to the last glacial period. Ireland was formed in two distinct parts and slowly joined together, uniting about 440 Ma years ago. As a result of tectonics and the effect of ice, the sea level has risen and fallen. In every area of the country the rocks which formed can be seen as a result. Finally, the impact of the glaciers shaped the landscape seen today. This variation in the two areas along with the differences between volcanic areas and shallow seas gives Ireland a range of soils as well. There are wide bogs and free-draining brown earths. The mountains are granite, sandstone, limestone with karst areas, basalt formations.

Lion's share of Ireland has with most likelihood been above sea level during the last 60 Ma years. As such its landscapes have been shaped by erosion and weathering on land. Protracted erosion does also means most of the Paleogene and Neogene sediments have been eroded away or, as known in a few cases, buried by Quaternary deposits. Before the Quaternary glaciations affected Ireland the landscape had developed thick weathered regolith on the uplands and karst in the lowlands.

There have been some controversy regarding the origin of the planation surfaces found on Ireland. While some have argued for an origin in marine planation others regard these surfaces as peneplains formed by weathering and fluvial erosion.

Not only is their origin disputed but also their actual extent and the relative role of sea-level change and tectonics in their shaping. Most river systems in Ireland formed in the Cenozoic before the Quaternary glaciations. Rivers follow for most of their course structural features of the geology of Ireland. Marine erosion since the Miocene may have made Ireland's western coast retreat more than 100 km. Pre-Quaternary relief was more dramatic than today's glacier-smoothened landscapes.

Ireland consists of a mostly flat low-lying area in the midlands, ringed by mountain ranges such as the Macgillycuddy's Reeks, Comeragh, Blackstairs, Wicklow, Sperrin, Bluestack, Ox, Nephinbeg Mountains, the Mournes, Glens of Antrim, and the Twelve Bens/Maumturks group.

Some mountain ranges are further inland in the south of Ireland: the Galtee, Silvermine & Slieve Bloom Mountains. The highest peak Carrauntoohil, 1,038 m (3,405 ft) high, is in the Macgillycuddy's Reeks.

Rivers & Lakes

The main river in Ireland is the River Shannon. 360.5 km (224.0 mi) The longest river in Ireland, it separates the midlands of Ireland from the west of the island. The river develops into three lakes along its course, Lough Allen, Lough Ree, and Lough Derg. Of these, Lough Derg is the largest.

The River Shannon enters the Atlantic Ocean after Limerick city at the Shannon Estuary.

Other major rivers include the River Liffey, River Lee, River Blackwater, River Nore, River Suir, River Barrow, River Bann, River Foyle, River Erne, and River Boyne.

Lough Neagh, in Ulster, is the largest lake in Ireland and Britain. Other large lakes include Lough Erneand Lough Corrib. Killary Harbour forms a natural border between Galway and Mayo for 16 km.

Beginning with County Donegal, Lough Swilly separates one side of the Inishowen peninsula. Lough Foyle on the other side, is one of Ireland's larger inlets, situated between County Donegal and County Londonderry. Further round the coast is Belfast Lough, between County Antrim and County Down.

In County Down is Strangford Lough, actually an inlet partially separating the Ards peninsula from the mainland. Further down the coast, Carlingford Lough is situated between Down and County Louth.

Dublin Bay is the next sizeable inlet, while the eastern coast of Ireland is mostly uniform until Wexford Harbour at the mouth of the River Slaney. On the southern coast, Waterford Harbour is situated at the mouth of the River Suir, into which the other two of the Three Sisters (River Nore and River Barrow) flow. The next major inlet is Cork Harbour, at the mouth of the River Lee, in which Great Island is situated. Dunmanus Bay, Kenmare estuary and Dingle Bay are all inlets between the peninsulas of County Kerry. North of these is the Shannon Estuary. Between north County Clare and County Galway is Galway Bay. Clew Bay is located on the coast of County Mayo, south of Achill Island, while Broadhaven Bay, Blacksod Bay and Sruth Fada Conn bays are situated in northwest Connacht, in North Mayo. Killala Bay is on the northeast coast of Mayo. Donegal Bay is a major inlet between County Donegal and County Sligo.

Headlands

Malin Head is the most northerly point in Ireland, while Mizen Head is one of the most southern points, hence the term "Malin head to Mizen head" (or the reverse) is used for anything applying to the island of Ireland as a whole. Carnsore Point is another extreme point of Ireland, being the southeastern most point of Ireland. Further along the coast is Hook Head while the Old Head of Kinsale is one of many headlands along the south coast of Ireland. Loop Head is the headland at which County Clare comes to a point on the west coast of Ireland, with the Atlantic on the north, and further inland on the south, the Shannon estuary. Hag's Head is another headland further up Clare's north/western coastline, with the Cliffs of Moher along the coastline north of the point.

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

Ireland Country Profile

CLIMATE OF THE UK

The climate of the UK is generally temperate, although significant local variation occurs, particularly as a result of altitude and distance from the coast. In general the south of the country is warmer than the north, the west wetter than the east. Due to the warming influence of the Gulf Stream, the UK is significantly warmer than some other locations at similar latitude, such as Newfoundland.

The prevailing winds are southwesterly, from the North Atlantic Current.

More than 50% of the days are overcast. There are few natural hazards, there can be strong winds and floods, especially in winter. Average annual rainfall varies from over 3,000 mm (118.1 in) in the Scottish Highlands down to 553 mm (21.8 in) in Cambridge. The county of Essex is one of the driest in the UK, with an average annual rainfall of around 600 mm (23.6 in), although it typically rains on over 100 days per year. In some years rainfall in Essex can be below 450 mm (17.7 in), less than the average annual rainfall in Jerusalem and Beirut. The highest temperature recorded in the UK was 38.5 °C (101.3 °F) at Brogdale, near Faversham, in the county of Kent, on 10 August 2003.

The lowest was −27.2 °C (−17.0 °F) recorded at Braemar in the Grampian Mountains Scotland, on 11 February 1895 and 10 January 1982 and Altnaharra, also in Scotland, on 30 December 1995.

England has a temperate climate, with plentiful rainfall all year round. The seasons are quite variable in temperature, however temperatures rarely fall below −5 °C (23 °F) or rise above 30 °C (86 °F). The prevailing wind is from the south-west, bringing mild and wet weather to England regularly from the Atlantic Ocean. It is driest in the east and warmest in the south, which is closest to the European mainland. Snowfall can occur in winter & early spring, although it is not very common away from high ground.

England has warmer maximum and minimum temperatures throughout the year than the other countries of the UK, though Wales has milder minima from November to February, and Northern Ireland has warmer maxima from December to February. England is sunnier throughout the year, but unlike Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland, the sunniest month is July, totalling around 192.8 hours.

The highest temperature recorded in England is 38.5 °C (101.3 °F) on 10 August 2003 at Brogdale, near Faversham, in Kent. The lowest temperature recorded in England is −26.1 °C (−15.0 °F) on 10 January 1982 at Edgmond, near Shropshire. The climate of south-west England is rather distinct and somewhat milder than the rest of England, forming its own separate climate. Crops, flowers and plants can be grown much earlier in the south-west than in the rest of England and the UK.

England mainly lies within climatic zone 8, but the Pennines and Cumbrian Mountains lie in the colder zone 7 and southwest England, the Irish Sea coast, South coast and London lie in the warmer zone 9. A very small area, the Isles of Scilly lie in the warmest zone in the British Isles, zone 10 that is close to Sub-Tropical. Mild temperatures and evenly distributed rainfall, throughout the year, are characteristic of Scotland's temperate, maritime climate. The **climate of Scotland** is temperate and very changeable, but rarely extreme. Scotland is warmed by the North Atlantic Drift and given the northerly location of the country, experiences much milder conditions than areas on similar latitudes, such as Labrador in Canada – where icebergs are a common feature in winter.

Average temperatures are lower than in the rest of Great Britain, with the coldest ever UK temperature of −27.2 °C (−17.0 °F) recorded at Braemar in the Grampian Mountains, on 10 January 1982 and at Altnaharra, Highland, on 30 December 1995. Winter maxima average 5.0 to 5.7 °C (41.0 to 42.3 °F), with summer maxima averaging 14.9 to 16.9 °C (58.8 to 62.4 °F). Western coastal areas of Scotland are warmer than the east and inland areas, due to the influence of the Atlantic currents, and the colder surface temperatures of the North Sea; however, during rare hot spells, the west is cooler than the east. The highest temperature recorded was 32.9 °C (91.2 °F) at Greycrook in the Scottish Borders on 9 August 2003. Areas such as Inverewe Garden in the northwest and the Logan Botanic Garden in the southwest have warm enough microclimates to support palm trees.

Rainfall totals vary widely across Scotland – the western highlands of Scotland are one of the wettest places in the UK with annual rainfall up to 4,577 mm (180.2 in).

Due to the mountainous topography of the western Highlands, this type of precipitation is orographic in nature, with the warm, wet air forced to rise on contact with the mountainous coast, where it consequently, cools and condenses, forming clouds. In comparison, much of eastern Scotland receives less than 870 mm (34.3 in) annually; lying in the rain shadow of the western uplands. The town of Dunbar, east of Edinburgh, has an annual rainfall of merely 560.18 mm (22.05 in), less than Barcelona.

Snowfall is less common in the lowlands, but becomes more common with altitude. Parts of the Highlands have an average of 36 to 60 snow days per year, while some western coastal areas have between 0 and 6 days with snow a year. Scotland's snowiest spot is the Cairngorm mountain range.

The Hebridean island of Tiree received a total of 329 hours of sunshine in May 1946 and again in May 1975, the highest number of sunshine hours ever recorded in one month in Scotland.

On the longest day of the year there is no complete darkness over the northern isles of Scotland. Lerwick, in Shetland, has four hours more daylight at midsummer than London, although this is reversed in midwinter.[4] Annual average sunshine totals vary from as little as 711-1140 hours in the Highlands and the north-west up to 1471-1540 hours on the extreme eastern and south-western coasts. In common with the rest of the British Isles, wind prevails from the south-west, bringing warm, wet and unstable air from the Atlantic. The windiest areas of Scotland are in the north and west, with parts of the Outer Hebrides, Orkney and Shetland experiencing over 30 days with gales per year.

Vigorous Atlantic depressions, also known as European windstorms, are a common feature of the autumn and winter in Scotland.

Wales has a **maritime climate**, the predominant winds being southwesterlies and westerlies blowing in from the Atlantic Ocean. This means that the weather in Wales is in general mild, cloudy, wet and windy. The country's wide geographic variations cause localised differences in amounts of sunshine, rainfall and temperature. Rainfall in Wales varies widely, with the highest average annual totals in Snowdonia and the Brecon Beacons; the lowest near the coast and in the east, close to the English border. Throughout Wales, the winter months are significantly wetter than the summer ones. Snow is comparatively rare near sea level in Wales, but much more frequent over the hills, and the uplands experience harsher conditions in winter than the more low-lying parts.

The mean annual temperatures in Wales are about 11 °C (52 °F) on the coast and 9.5 °C (49 °F) in low-lying inland areas. It becomes cooler at higher altitudes, with a mean decrease in annual temperatures of approximately 0.5 °C (0.9 °F) for each 100 m (330 ft) of increased altitude.

Consequently, the higher parts of Snowdonia experience mean annual temperatures of 5 °C (41 °F). At nights, the coldest conditions occur when there is little wind and no cloud cover, especially when the ground is snow-clad; the lowest temperature recorded in Wales was in conditions of this sort at Rhayader on New Year's Day, 1940, when the temperature fell to −23.3 °C (−9.9 °F).

Occasionally, the coastal area of North Wales experiences some of the warmest winter conditions in the UK, with temperatures up to 18 °C (64 °F); these result from a Foehn wind, a south-westerly airflow warming up as it descends from the mountains of Snowdonia.

Rainfall in Wales is mostly as a result of the arrival of Atlantic low pressure systems and is heaviest between October and January over the whole country. The driest months are usually April, May and June, and Wales experiences fewer summer thunderstorms than England.

Rainfall varies across the country with the highest records being from the greatest elevations. Snowdonia experiences total annual rainfalls exceeding 3,000 mm (118 in) whereas coastal regions of Wales and the English border may have less than 1,000 mm (39 in). The combination of mountainous areas and Atlantic lows can produce large quantities of rain and sometimes results in flooding.

The amount of snowfall varies with altitude and enormously from year to year. In the lowlands, the number of days with lying snow may vary from 0 to 30, with an average of about 20 in Snowdonia.

Wales is one of the windier parts of the UK. The strongest winds are usually associated with Atlantic depressions; as one of these arrives, the winds usually start in the southwest, before veering to the west and then to the northwest as the system passes by.

The southwest of Pembrokeshire experiences the most gale-force winds. The highest wind speed ever recorded in Wales at a lowland site was gusts of 108 knots (200 km/h; 124 mph) at Rhoose, in the Vale of Glamorgan, on 28 October 1989.

The **climate of Ireland** is mild, moist and changeable with abundant rainfall and a lack of temperature extremes. Ireland's climate is defined as a temperate oceanic climate, or *Cfb* on the Köppen climate classification system, a classification it shares with most of northwest Europe.

The country receives generally warm summers and mild winters. It is considerably warmer than other areas at the same latitude on the other side of the Atlantic, such as in Newfoundland, because it lies downwind of the Atlantic Ocean. It is also warmer than maritime climates near the same latitude, such as the Pacific Northwest as a result of heat released by the Atlantic overturning circulation that includes the North Atlantic Currentand Gulf Stream. For comparison, Dublin is 9 °C warmer than St. John's in Newfoundland in winter and 4 °C warmer than Seattle in the Pacific Northwest in winter.

The influence of the North Atlantic Current ensures the coastline of Ireland remains ice-free throughout the winter. The climate in Ireland does not experience extreme weather, with tornadoes and similar weather features being rare. However, Ireland is prone to eastward moving cyclones which come in from the North atlantic. The prevailing wind comes from the southwest, breaking on the high mountains of the west coast. Rainfall is therefore a particularly prominent part of western Irish life, with Valentia Island, off the west coast of County Kerry, getting almost twice as much annual rainfall as Dublin on the east (1,400 mm or 55.1 in vs. 762 mm or 30.0 in).

January and February are the coldest months of the year, and mean daily air temperatures fall between 4 and 7 °C (39.2 & 44.6 °F) during these months. July and August are the warmest, with mean daily temperatures of 14 to 16 °C (57.2 to 60.8 °F), whilst mean daily maximums in July and August vary from 17 to 18 °C (62.6 to 64.4 °F) near the coast, to 19 to 20 °C (66.2 to 68.0 °F) inland.

The sunniest months are May and June, with an average of 5-7 hours sunshine per day.

Though extreme weather events in Ireland are comparatively rare when compared with other countries in the European Continent, they do occur. Atlantic depressions, occurring mainly in the months of December, January & February, can occasionally bring winds of up to 160 km/h or 99 mph to Western coastal counties; while the summer months, and particularly around late July/early August, thunderstorms can develop. The table shows mean climate figures for the Dublin Airport weather station over a 30-year period. Climate statistics based on the counties of Northern Ireland vary slightly but are not significantly different.

Ireland has 12,000 km² (4,633 mi²) of bogland, consisting of two distinct types, blanket bogs and raised bogs. Blanket bogs are the more widespread of the two types. They are essentially a product of human activity aided by the moist Irish climate.

Blanket bogs formed on sites where Neolithic farmers cleared trees for farming. As the land so cleared fell into disuse, the soil began to leach and become more acidic, producing a suitable environment for the growth of heather and rushes.

The debris from these plants accumulated and a layer of peat formed. One of the largest expanses of Atlantic blanket bog in Ireland is to be found in County Mayo. Raised bogs are most common in the Shannon basin. They formed when depressions left behind after the ice age filled with water to form lakes. Debris from reeds in these lakes formed a layer at the bottom of the water. This eventually choked the lakes and raised above the surface, forming raised bogs.
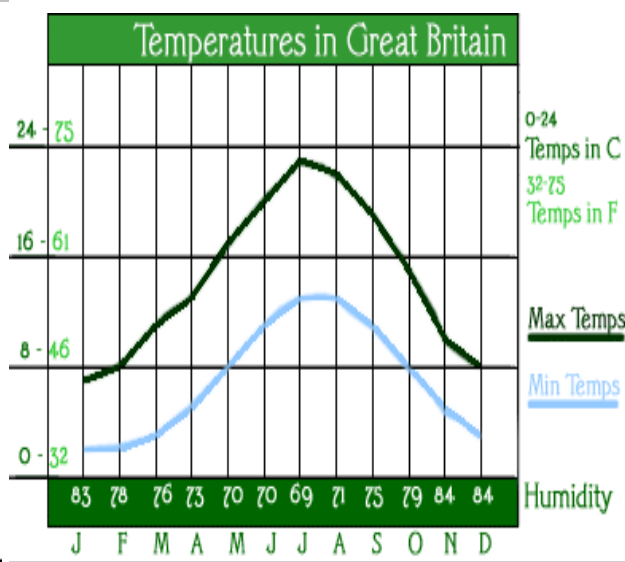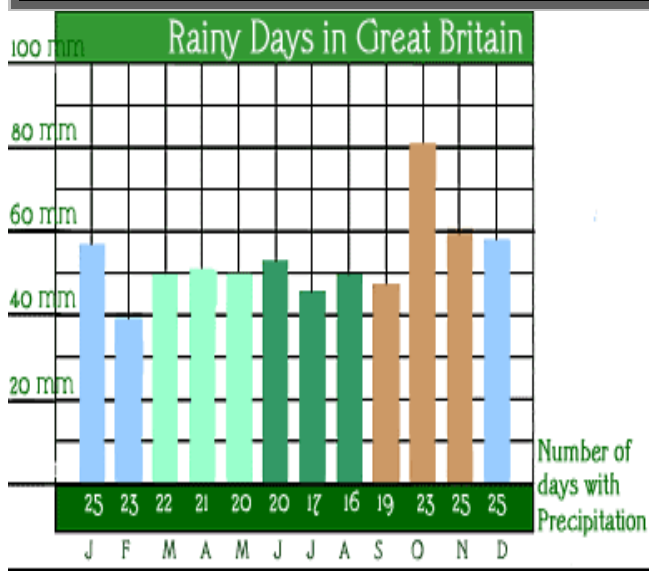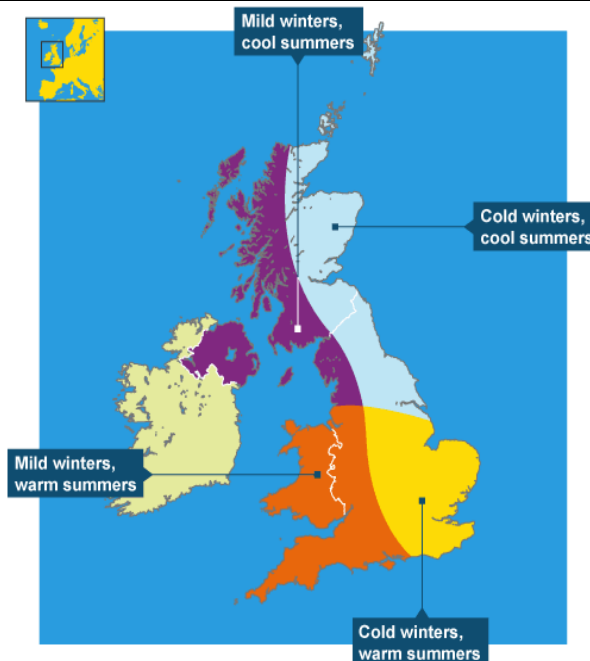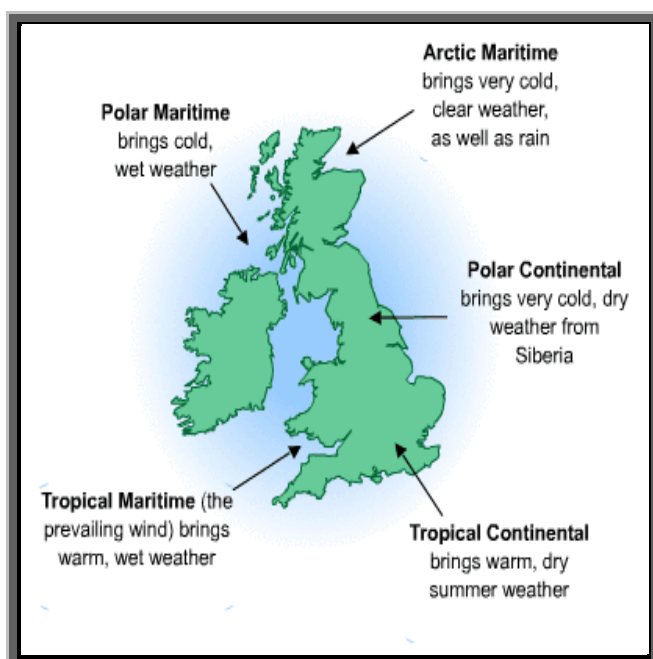
Since the 17th century, peat has been cut for fuel for domestic heating and cooking and it is called turf when so used. The process accelerated as commercial exploitation of bogs grew.
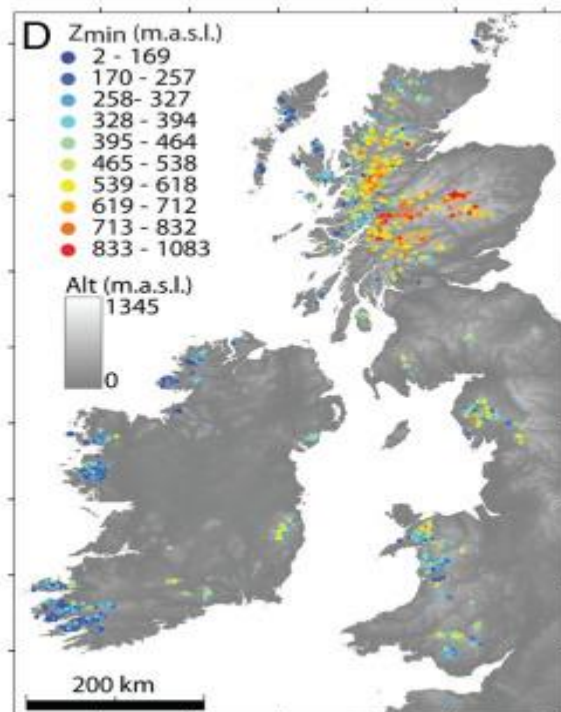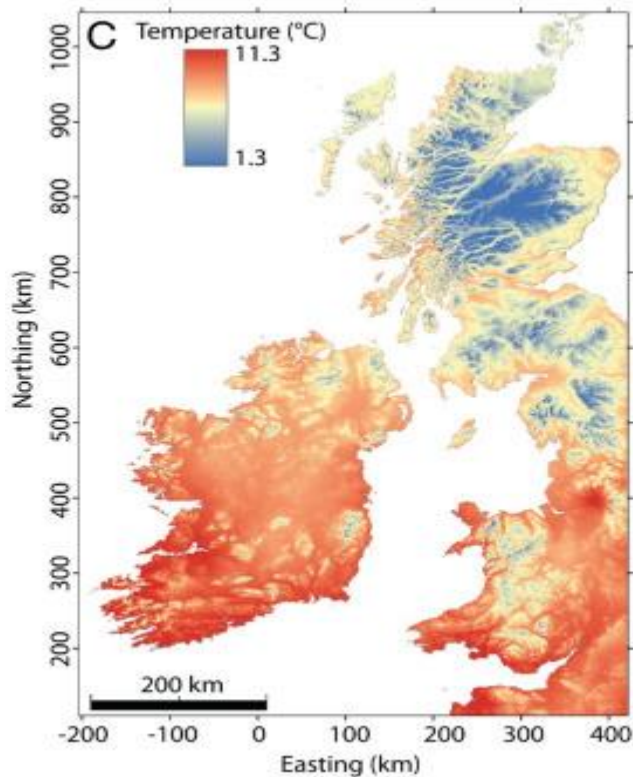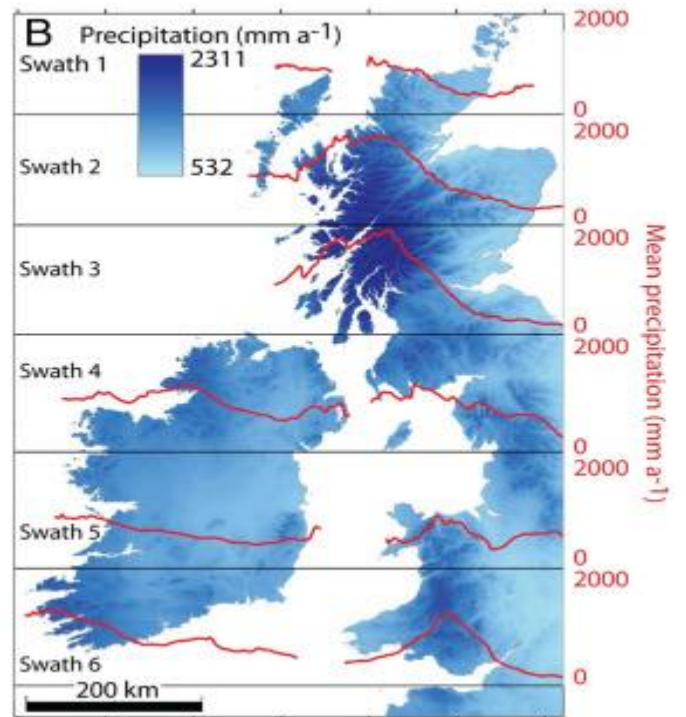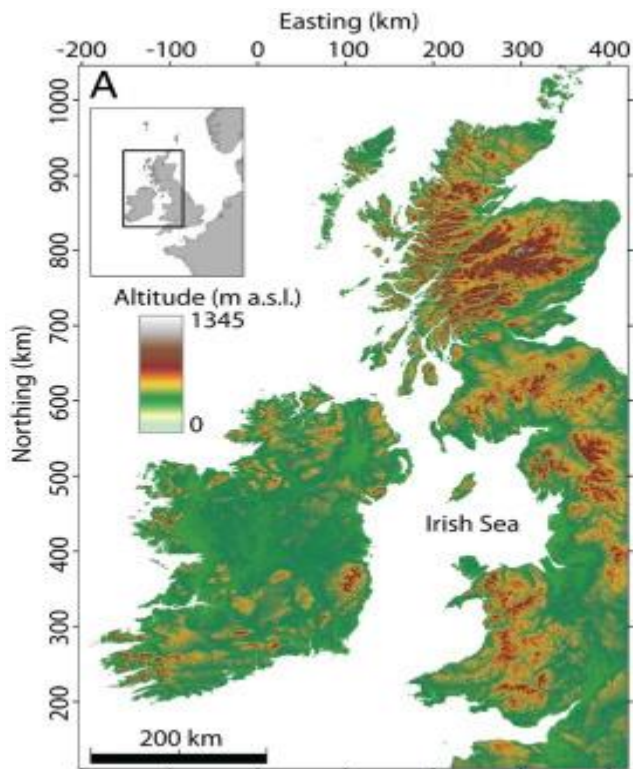
In the 1940s, machines for cutting turf were introduced and larger-scale exploitation became possible. In the Republic, this became the responsibility of a semi-state company called Bord na Móna. In addition to domestic uses, commercially extracted turf is used in a number of industries, especially electricity generation though peat is being combined with biomass for dual-firing electricity generation. In recent years, the high level of bog being destroyed by cutting has raised environmental concerns. The problem is particularly acute for raised bogs as they yield a higher-grade fuel than blanket bogs. Plans are now in place in both the Republic and Northern Ireland to conserve most of the remaining raised bogs on the island.

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

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

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

NATURAL RESOURCES

Historically, much of the UK was forested. Since prehistoric times, man has deforested much of the UK. Agriculture is intensive, highly mechanised, and efficient by European standards, producing about 60% of food needs with only 1% of the labour force. It contributes around 2% of GDP. Around two thirds of production is devoted to livestock, one third to arable crops.

In 1993, it was estimated that land use was:
- Arable land: 25%.
- Permanent crops: 0%.
- Permanent pastures: 46%.
- Forests and Woodland: 10%.
- Other: 19%.
- Irrigated: 1,080 km².

The UK has a variety of natural resources including:

Geological: coal, petroleum, natural gas, limestone, chalk, gypsum, silica, rock salt, china clay, iron ore, tin, silver, gold, lead.

Agricultural: arable land, wheat, barley, sheep.

The UK has large coal, natural gas, and oil reserves; primary energy production accounts for 10% of GDP, one of the highest shares of any industrial nation. Due to the island location of the UK, the country has great potential for generating electricity from wave power and tidal power, although these have not yet been exploited on a commercial basis.

England is one of the most densely populated countries/regions in the world, and the most densely populated major nation in Europe. The high population density (especially in the southeast of England) coupled with a changing climate, is likely to put extreme pressure on the UK's water resources in the future. The UK is reducing greenhouse gas emissions. It has met Kyoto Protocol target of a 12.5% reduction from 1990 levels and intends to meet the legally binding target of a 20% cut in emissions by 2010. By 2015, to recycle or compost at least 33% of household waste. Between 1998-99 and 1999-2000, household recycling increased from 8.8% to 10.3% respectively.

The UK is a party to many international agreements, including: Air Pollution, Air Pollution-Nitrogen Oxides, Air Pollution-Sulphur 94, Air Pollution-Volatile Organic Compounds, Antarctic-Environmental Protocol, Antarctic-Marine Living Resources, Antarctic Seals, Antarctic Treaty, Biodiversity, Climate Change, Climate Change-Kyoto Protocol, Desertification, Endangered Species, Environmental Modification, Hazardous Wastes, Law of the Sea, Marine Dumping, Marine Life Conservation, Nuclear Test Ban, Ozone Layer Protection, Ship Pollution, Tropical Timber 83, Tropical Timber 94, Wetlands and Whaling. The UK has signed, but not ratified, the international agreement on Air Pollution-Persistent Organic Pollutants.

Natural resouces of the South Wales Coalfield extends from parts of Pembrokeshire and Carmarthenshire in the west, to Blaenau Gwent and Torfaen in the east, the rather smaller North Wales Coalfield underlies parts of Flintshire and Denbighshire. Vast quantities of coal were mined in Wales during the Industrial Revolution and the earlier part of the 20th century, after which coal stocks dwindled and the remaining pits became uneconomical as foreign coal became available at low prices.

The last deep pit in Wales closed in 2008. Ironstone outcrops along the northern edge of the South Wales Coalfield were extensively worked for the production of iron and were important in the initiation of the Industrial Revolution in South Wales. Lead was mined at Pentre Halkyn in Flintshire during the Roman occupation of Britain and there were ore-bearing sites in Clwyd where lead, silver & zinc were mined in the upland areas of the Rivers Ystwyth and Rheidol. Manganese, titanium and numerous other minerals occur in various parts of Wales. Gold is found in southern Snowdonia & at Dolaucothi, Snowdonia had a flourishing copper industry from the early 1800s. Although exploited in the past, none of these minerals is mined on a commercial scale today.

Stone is quarried in various parts of Wales, and slate quarrying has been a major industry in North Wales. The Cilgwyn Quarry was being worked in the 12th century, but later Blaenau Ffestiniog became the centre of production. The Penrhyn Quarry is still producing slates, though at a reduced capacity compared to its heyday, the Llechwedd Slate Caverns have been converted into a visitor attraction.

Several of the railways that used to carry the slates to the ports have been restored as tourist attractions, including the Ffestiniog Railway and the Talyllyn Railway.

Wales has some potential for the onshore production of oil & gas. Shale gas may be obtained by fracking and there is methane in unmined coal seams that may be extractable. Another potential source of gas is the underground controlled combustion of coal seams to produce syngas, a mixture of hydrogen, methane and carbon monoxide. With its mountainous terrain & ample rainfall, water is one of Wales' most abundant resources. The country has many man-made reservoirs & supplies water to England as well as generating power through hydroelectric schemes.

The largest reservoirs, such as the Claerwen, are in the Elan Valley; other notable bodies of water include Lake Vyrnwy, Talybont Reservoir and Llyn Brianne. Some of these are popular resorts for outdoor activities such as sailing, kayaking, cycling, fishing and bird-watching.

Wind is another resource that Wales has in abundance. The Gwynt y Môr is one of several offshore wind farms off the coast of North Wales and Anglesey, and is the second largest such wind farm in the world. Other wind farms are found on inland, mostly upland sites, but there are none in the Snowdonia and Brecon Beacons national parks.

Natural resouces of Ireland: oil & natural gas & minerals

Offshore exploration for natural gas began in 1970. The first major discovery was the Kinsale Head gas field in 1971. Next was the smaller Ballycotton gas field in 1989, and the Corrib gas field in 1996. Exploitation of the Corrib project has yet to get off the ground because the controversial proposal to refine the gas onshore, rather than at sea has been met with widespread opposition. Gas from these fields is pumped ashore and used for both domestic and industrial purposes.

The Helvick oil field, estimated to contain over 28 Ma br (4,500,000 m^3) of oil, is a 2000 discovery.

Ireland is the largest European producer of zinc with three operating zinc-lead mines at Navan, Galmoy and Lisheen. Mineral deposits with actual or potential commercial value include gold, silver, gypsum, calcite, talc, dolomite, roofing slate, limestone aggregate, buildingstone, sand & gravel.

In May 2007 the Department of Communications, Marine & Natural Resources (now replaced by the Department of Communications, Energy & Natural Resources) reported that there may be volumes over 130 bn barrels (2.1×10^{10} m^3) of petroleum and 50 trn ft^3 (1,400 km^3) of natural gas in Irish waters – worth trillions of Euro, if true. The minimum 'guaranteed' amount of oil in the Irish Atlantic waters is 10 bn barrels (1.6×10^9 m^3). There are areas of petroleum and natural gas on shore, for example the Lough Allenbasin, with 9.4 trn ft^3 (270 km^3) of gas and 1.5 bn barrels (240,000,000 m^3) of oil. Already some fields are being exploited, such as the Spanish Point field, with 1.25 trn ft^3 (35 km^3) of gas and 206 Ma barrels (32,800,000 m^3) of oil. The Corrib Basin is quite large, while the Dunquin gas field contains 25 trn ft^3 (710 km^3) of natural gas and 4.13 bn barrels (657,000,000 m^3) of petroleum. In March 2012 the first commercial oil well was drilled 70 km off the Cork coast by Providence Resources. The Barryroe oil well is yielding 3500 barrels per day.

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

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Resouces	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

Animal diversity is modest, because of factors including the island's small land area, the relatively recent age of the habitats developed since the last glacial period and the island's physical separation from continental Europe, and the effects of seasonal variability.

Great Britain experienced early industrialisation and is subject to continuing urbanisation, which have contributed towards the overall loss of species. A DEFRA (Department for Environment, Food & Rural Affairs) study from 2006 suggested that 100 species have become extinct in the UK during the 20th century, about 100 times the background extinction rate. However, some species, such as the brown rat, red fox, and introduced grey squirrel, are well adapted to urban areas. The fauna is similar to that of northwestern continental Europe, although there are fewer species.

Rodents make up 40% of the mammal species. These include squirrels, mice, voles, rats & the recently reintroduced European beaver. There is an abundance of rabbits, hares, hedgehogs, shrews, moles and several species of bat. Carnivorous mammals include the fox, badger, otter, weasel, stoat and elusive wildcat. Various species of seal, whale and dolphin are found on or around British shores and coastlines. The largest land-based wild animals today are deer.

The red deer is the largest species, with roe deer and fallow deer prominent; the latter was introduced by the Normans. Sika deer and two more species of smaller deer, muntjac and Chinese water deer, have been introduced, muntjac becoming widespread in England and parts of Wales while Chinese water deer are restricted mainly to East Anglia. Habitat loss has affected many species.

Extinct large mammals include the brown bear, grey wolf and wild boar; the latter has had a limited reintroduction in recent times. Some of the larger mammals – wolf, bear, boar, and reindeer – are extinct, but red and roe deer are protected for sport. Common smaller mammals are foxes, hares, hedgehogs, rabbits, weasels, stoats, shrews, rats, and mice; otters are found in many rivers, and seals frequently appear along the coast. There are few reptiles and amphibians.

The survival of the wild mammals, amphibians, and reptiles of the UK depends on their ability to adapt to the changing environment and to protect themselves from attacks by their enemies, the most dangerous of whom are human. British mammals survive in a greater range of habitats than do amphibians or reptiles. Most of the formerly abundant larger mammals – such as boars, reindeer, wolves – have become extinct, but red deer survive in the Scottish Highlands and in Exmoor Forest and roe deer in the wooded areas of Scotland and southern England.

Smaller carnivores (badgers, otters, foxes, stoats, and weasels) thrive in most rural areas. Rodents (rats, squirrels, mice) and insectivores (hedgehogs, moles, shrews) are widely distributed. Rabbits are widespread, and their numbers are increasing. The other nocturnal vegetarian, the brown hare, lives in open lowland country, while the mountain hare is native to Scotland. Amphibians include three species of newt and five species of frogs and toads, while reptiles comprise three species of snakes, of which only the adder is venomous, and three species of lizards. There are no snakes in Northern Ireland.

In many respects the British Isles are an ornithologist's paradise. The islands lie at the focal point of a migratory network, and the coastal, farmland, and urban habitats for birds are diverse. Many species are sufficiently versatile to adapt to changing conditions, and it is estimated that suburban gardens have a higher bird density than any kind of woodland. The most common game birds are the wild pigeon, pheasant, and grouse. Most numerous are the sparrow, blackbird, chaffinch, and starling. The fauna is similar to that of northwestern continental Europe, although there are fewer species.

Some of the larger mammals – wolf, bear, boar, and reindeer – are extinct, but red and roe deer are protected for sport. Common smaller mammals are foxes, hares, hedgehogs, rabbits, weasels, stoats, shrews, rats, mice; otters are found in many rivers; seals frequently appear along the coast.

There are few reptiles and amphibians. Roughly 230 species of birds reside in the UK, and another 200 are migratory. Most numerous are the chaffinch, blackbird, sparrow, and starling.

The number of large birds is declining, however, except for game birds – pheasant, partridge, and red grouse – which are protected. With the reclamation of the marshlands, waterfowl are moving to the many bird sanctuaries. The rivers and lakes abound in salmon, trout, perch, pike, roach, dace, and grayling. There are more than 21,000 species of insects. The island of **Great Britain**, along with the rest of the archipelago known as the British Isles, has a largely temperate climate. It contains a relatively small fraction of the world's wildlife. The biota was severely diminished in the last Ice Age.

Shortly (in geological terms) thereafter was separated from the continent by the English Channel's formation. Since then, man has hunted the most dangerous forms (the wolf, the brown & wild boar) to extinction, domesticated forms such as the dog and the pig remain. The wild boar has subsequently been reintroduced as a meat animal. In most of Great Britain there is a temperate climate which receives high levels of precipitation and medium levels of sunlight. Further northwards, the climate becomes colder and coniferous forests appear replacing the largely deciduous forests of the south. There are a few variations in the generally temperate British climate, with some areas of subarctic conditions in areas such as the Scottish Highlands and Teesdale, and even sub-tropical in the Isles of Scilly.

The seasonal changes that occur across the archipelago mean that plants have to cope with many changes linked to levels of sunlight, rainfall and temperature, as well as the risk of snow and frost during the winter. Since the mid-18th century, Great Britain has gone through industrialisation & increasing urbanisation. A DEFRA study from 2006 suggested that 100 species have become extinct in the UK during the 20th century, about 100 times the background extinction rate.

This has had a major impact on indigenous animal populations. Song birds in particular are becoming scarcer and habitat loss has affected larger mammalian species. Some species have however adapted to the expanding urban environment, particularly the red fox, which is the most successful urban mammal after the brown rat, and other animals such as common wood pigeon.

Reptiles

Like many temperate areas, Great Britain exhibits a relative lack of snakes, with the European adder being the only venomous snake to be found there. The other notable snakes found in Great Britain are the grass snake & the smooth snake. Great Britain has three native breeds of lizards: slowworms, sand lizards and viviparous lizards. There are also turtles, such as leatherback turtles to be found in the Irish Sea, although these are rarely seen by the public. Other reptile species exist but are not native: aesculapian snake, wall lizard and the green lizard.

Birds

There is a wealth of birdlife, 583 species in total, of which 258 breed on the island or remain during winter. Because of its mild winters for its latitude, Great Britain hosts important numbers of many wintering species, particularly ducks, geese and swans.

Roughly, 230 species of birds reside in the UK, and another 200 are migratory.

Most numerous are the chaffinch, blackbird, sparrow, and starling. The number of large birds is declining except for game birds – pheasant, partridge, and red grouse, which are protected.

Other well-known bird species include the golden eagle, grey heron, kingfisher, pigeon, sparrow, pheasant, partridge, and various species of crow, finch, gull, aUK, grouse, owl and falcon.

There are six species of reptile on the island; three snakes & three lizards including the legless slowworm. The rivers and lakes abound in salmon, trout, perch, pike, roach, dace, and grayling.

There are more than 21,000 species of insects.

In general the avifauna of Britain is similar to that of Europe, consisting largely of Palaearctic species. As an island, it has fewer breeding species than continental Europe, with some species, like crested lark, breeding as close as northern France, yet unable to colonise Britain. The mild winters mean that many species that cannot cope with harsher conditions can winter in Britain that there is a large influx of wintering birds from the continent or beyond. There are about 250 species regularly recorded in Great Britain; others 300 that occur with varying degrees of rarity.

Mammals

Large mammals are not particularly numerous in Great Britain. Many of the bigger species, such as the grey wolf and the brown bear, were hunted to extinction many centuries ago. In recent times some of these large mammals have been tentatively reintroduced to some areas of mainland Britain.

The largest wild mammals that remain in Britain today are predominantly members of the deer family.

The red deer is the largest native mammal species, common throughout England, Scotland & Wales.

The other indigenous species is the roe deer. The common fallow deer is in fact not native to Britain, having been brought over from France by the Normans in the late 11th century.

It has become well-established. The sika deer is another small species of deer which is not indigenous, originating from Japan. It is widespread and expanding in Scotland from west to east, with a strong population in Peeblesshire. Bands of sika exist across the north and south of England though the species is absent in Wales. There are also several species of insectivore found in Britain.

The hedgehog is probably the most widely known as it is a regular visitor to urban gardens.

The mole is also widely recognised and its subterranean lifestyle causes much damage to garden lawns. Shrews are fairly common, and the smallest, the pygmy shrew, is one of the smallest mammals in the world. There are also seventeen species of bat found in Britain: the pipistrelle is the smallest and the most common. Rodents are numerous across Britain, particularly the brown rat which is by far the most abundant urban animal after humans. Some are becoming increasingly rare.

Habitat destruction has led to a decrease in the population of dormice and bank voles found in Britain. Due to the introduction of the North American grey squirrel, the red squirrel had become largely extinct in England and Wales, with the last populations existing in parts of North West England and on the Isle of Wight. Rabbits and brown hares were introduced in Roman times, while the indigenous mountain hare remains only in Scotland and a small re-introduced population in Derbyshire.

There are a variety of carnivores, especially from the weasel family (ranging in size from the weasel, stoat & European polecat to the badger, pine marten, recently introduced mink & semi-aquatic otter).

In the absence of the locally extinct wolf and brown bear the largest carnivores are the badger, red fox, the adaptability and opportunism of which has allowed it to proliferate in the urban environment; the Scottish wildcat whose elusiveness has caused some confusion over population numbers, and is believed to be highly endangered. Various species of seal and dolphin are found seasonally on British shores and coastlines, along with harbour porpoises, orcas, and many other sea mammals.

Fish

Marshland reclamation has displaced waterfowl to various bird sanctuaries. A continuous effort by ornithological organizations has promoted and encouraged research and conservation. It has led to the creation of bird refuges, sanctuaries, reserves. These developments, along with a more sympathetic and enlightened attitude, may help to redress some of the worst effects of environmental changes on bird life. Many British rivers, once renowned for their salmon, trout, roach, perch, pike, and grayling, have become polluted, and inland fisheries have consequently declined.

Freshwater fishing is now largely for recreation and sport. The Dogger Bank in the North Sea, one of the richest fishing grounds in the world, has provided excellent fishing for centuries. Other good waters for fishing lie in the Irish Sea and also off the western coast of Scotland. Chief offshore species are cod, haddock, whiting, mackerel, coalfish, turbot, herring, and plaice.

Great Britain has about forty species of native freshwater fish, of which the largest is the salmon.

The saltwater fish include some quite dangerous species such as sharks, though shark attacks are extremely rare in the archipelago.

The **fauna of Scotland** is generally typical of the northwest European part of the Palearctic ecozone, although several of the country's larger mammals were hunted to extinction in historic times & human activity has led to various species of wildlife being introduced. Scotland's diverse temperate environments support 62 species of wild mammals, including a population of wild cats, important numbers of grey & harbour seals and the most northerly colony of bottlenose dolphins in the world.

Many populations of moorland birds, including the black and red grouse live here, and the country has internationally significant nesting grounds for seabirds such as the northern gannet. The golden eagle has become a national icon, and white-tailed eagles and ospreys have recently re-colonised the land. The Scottish crossbill is the only endemic vertebrate species in the UK.

Scotland's seas are among the most biologically productive in the world; it is estimated that the total number of Scottish marine species exceeds 40,000. The Darwin Mounds are an important area of deep sea cold water coral reefs discovered in 1998. Inland, nearly 400 genetically distinct populations of Atlantic salmon live in Scottish rivers. Of the 42 species of fish found in the country's fresh waters, half have arrived by natural colonisation and half by human introduction.

Only 6 amphibians and 4 land reptiles are native to Scotland, but many species of invertebrates live there that are otherwise rare in the UK. An estimated 14,000 species of insect, including rare bees and butterflies protected by conservation action plans, inhabit Scotland. Climate change, especially its potential effects on mountain plateaus and marine life, threaten much of the fauna of Scotland.

Habitats

Scotland enjoys a diversity of temperate environments, incorporating deciduous and coniferous woodlands, and moorland, montane, estuarine, freshwater, oceanic, and tundra landscapes.

About 14% of Scotland is wooded, much of it in forestry plantations, but before humans cleared the land it supported much larger boreal Caledonian and broad-leaved forests. Although much reduced, significant remnants of the native Scots pine woodlands can be found. 17% of Scotland is covered by heather moorland and peatland. Caithness and Sutherland have one of the world's largest and most intact areas of blanket bog, which supports a distinctive wildlife community. 75% of Scotland's land is classed as agricultural (including some moorland) while urban areas account for around 3%.

The coastline is 11,803 km (7,334 mi) long; the number of islands with terrestrial vegetation is nearly 800, about 600 of them lying off the west coast. Scotland has more than 90% of the volume and 70% of the total surface area of fresh water in the UK. There are more than 30,000 freshwater lochs and 6,600 river systems. Under the auspices of the European Union's Habitats Directive, 244 sites in Scotland covering more than 8,750 km² (3,380 mi²) had been accepted by European Commission as Special Areas of Conservation (SAC). Scotland's seas are among the most biologically productive in the world and contain 40,000 or more species. 24 of the SACs are marine sites; a further 9 are coastal with marine and non-marine elements.

Mammals

Scotland was entirely covered in ice during the Pleistocene glaciations. As the post-glacial weather warmed and the ice retreated, mammals migrated through the landscape. However, the opening of the English Channel (as sea levels rose) prevented further migrations, so mainland Britain has only two-thirds of the species that reached Scandinavia. The Hebridean islands off Scotland's west coast have only half those of Britain. 62 species of mammal live wild in and around Scotland, including 13 species found in coastal waters. The populations of a third of the land mammal species are thought to be in decline due to factors including environmental pollution, habitat fragmentation, changes in agricultural practices, overgrazing, competition from introduced species.

No mammal species are unique to Scotland, the St. Kilda field mouse is an endemic subspecies of the wood mouse that reaches twice the size of its mainland cousins, and the Orkney vole or cuttick, found only in the Orkney archipelago, is a sub-species of the common vole. It may have been introduced by early settlers about 4,000 years ago. There are various notable domesticated Scottish mammal breeds including Highland Cattle, the Shetland Pony, Soay Sheep and Scottish Terrier.

Carnivores

The representation of the weasel family (Mustelidae) in Scotland is typical of Britain as a whole save that the polecat is absent and that Scotland is the UK's stronghold of the pine marten, although the purity of the latter breed is threatened by a release of American martens in northern England.

Scotland hosts the only populations of the Scottish wildcat in the British Isles with numbers estimated at between 400 and 2,000 animals, and of the red fox subspecies, a larger race than the more common and which has two distinct forms.

The wild cat is at risk due to the inadequacy of protective legislation and is now considered at serious risk of extinction. In 2013 it was announced that the island of Càrna is to provide a sanctuary and breeding station in order to protect the species. Exterminations of the population of feral American mink, which were brought to Britain for fur farms in the 1950s, have been undertaken under the auspices of the Hebridean Mink Project and the Scottish Mink Initiative, which hopes to create a mink-free zone in a large area stretching from Wester Ross to Tayside. Other than occasional vagrants, among the seals only the Phocidae, or earless seals, are represented. Two species, the grey seal and harbour or common seal, are present around the coast of Scotland in internationally important numbers.

Rodents & Insectivores & Lagomorphs

In 2002 the Scottish grey seal population was estimated at 120,600 adult animals, which is around 36% of the world population and more than 90% of the UK's. The Scottish population of the common seal is 29,700, about 90% of the UK and 36% of the European total.

75% of the UK's red squirrels are found in Scotland. This species faces threats that include competition from the introduced grey squirrel, and the 'Scottish Strategy for Red Squirrel Conservation' provides a framework for supporting its long-term conservation. Research in 2007 credited the growing population of pine martens with assisting this programme by preying selectively on the grey squirrels.

Scotland has no population of the edible or hazel dormouse, or of the yellow-necked mouse, and the harvest mouse's range is limited to the southern part of the country.

The St. Kilda mouse and Orkney vole are endemic, but otherwise population distributions are similar to the rest of mainland Britain. Colonies of black rats remain only on the island of Inchcolm in the Firth of Forth and on the Shiant Isles. Mainland insectivore populations are generally similar to the rest of Britain. Recent steps by Scottish Natural Heritage, the Scottish Executive and the Royal Society for the Protection of Birds to remove European hedgehogs from the Outer Hebrides, where their introduction has caused declines in internationally important breeding populations of wading seabird such as dunlin, ringed plover and redshank, has caused considerable controversy; hedgehog culls were halted in 2007.

The trapped animals are now relocated to the mainland. The programme has reduced this population; only two individuals were caught in 2007. Of the lagomorphs only hares and rabbits are represented in Scotland. The mountain hare is the only native member of the hare family and is the dominant species throughout most of upland Scotland.

The European hare and rabbit are both present, the latter having been brought to Britain by the Romans but not becoming widespread in Scotland until the 19th century.

Artiodactyls

Landseer's painting of a red deer stag, *Monarch of the Glen*, is one of the most notable images of Victorian Scotland. The species, a member of the biological order artiodactyla or "even-toed ungulates", is still 400,000 strong, its existence in the pure form is threatened by hybridisation with introduced deer.

Very much a hill-dwelling species in Scotland (in stature than its European forest-loving cousins), it is generally replaced by roe deer in lower-lying land. Although found elsewhere in the UK, no wild populations of Chinese water deer and no or very few Chinese muntjac exist in Scotland.

It has isolated populations of feral goats *Capra hircus* and feral sheep, such as the herd of 1,000 Soay sheep on St Kilda. Since 1952 a herd of semi-domesticated reindeer have lived in the Cairngorm National Park, the species having become extinct in Scotland after it was recorded as having been hunted in Orkney in the 12th century. Only 9 of the 16-17 bat species found elsewhere in Britain are present in Scotland. Widespread species are common and soprano pipistrelles, the brown long-eared bat, Daubenton's bat and Natterer's bat. Those with a more restricted distribution are the whiskered bat, noctule, Leisler's bat and Nathusius's pipistrelle. Absences include the greater and lesser horseshoe bat, the greater mouse-eared bat and Bechstein's bat. No bats reside on the Shetland Islands; the only records there are of migrants or vagrants. 21 species of cetacean have been recorded in Scottish waters within the last 100 years including Cuvier's beaked whale, killer whales, sperm whales, minke whales & common, white-beaked & Risso's dolphins. The Moray Firth colony of about 100 bottlenose dolphins is the most northerly in the world. As recent dramatic television coverage indicated, this species preys on harbour porpoises; a third of the porpoise carcasses examined by pathologists from 1992 to 2002 indicated that death resulted from dolphin attacks. However, conservationists expressed dismay that the UK government decided to allow oil and gas prospecting in the Moray Firth, putting these populations of cetaceans at risk. In response, the government have placed seismic surveys "on hold" during 2009 pending further research. The introduced marsupial, the red-necked wallaby, is confined to a colony on an island in Loch Lomond.

Extinctions & Reintroductions

During the Pleistocene interglacials, arctic animals that are no longer extant occupied Scotland, including the woolly rhinoceros, mammoth, polar bear, lemming, Arctic fox and the giant deer.

Other mammals that used to inhabit Scotland but became extinct in the wild during historic times include the Eurasian lynx, which lived in Britain until 1,500 years ago, the European brown bear, subspecies, which was taken to entertain the Roman circuses but died out in the 9th or 10th century, the elk, which lasted until about 1300. The wild boar and wild ox or urus died out in the subsequent two centuries, although the former's domesticated cousin, the grice, lasted until 1930 in Shetland.

The last known wolf was shot on Mackintosh land in Inverness-shire in 1743, and the walrus is now only an occasional vagrant. St. Kilda possessed an endemic subspecies of the house mouse. It became extinct in 1938, just 8 years after the evacuation of the native St. Kildans.

A joint project of the Royal Zoological Society of Scotland, the Scottish Wildlife Trust and Forestry Commission Scotland have successfully re-introduced the European beaver to the wild in Scotland using Norwegian stock. The species was found in the Highlands until the 15th century, then Scottish Government initially rejected the idea, a trial commenced in May 2009 in Knapdale. Separately, on Tayside, deliberate releases or escapes have led to up to 250 animals colonising the area.

Although it was initially planned to remove these unofficially reintroduced beavers, in March 2012 the Scottish Government reversed the decision to remove beavers from the Tay, pending the outcome of studies into the suitability of re-introduction. Following receipt of the results of the studies.

In November 2016 the Scottish Government announced that beavers could remain permanently, and would be given protected status as a native species within Scotland. Beavers will be allowed to extend their range naturally from Knapdale and along the River Tay to aid this process and improve the health and resilience of the population a further 28 beavers will be released between 2017 and 2020. By means of escapes or deliberate releases, wild boar have been re-introduced to several places in Scotland including a wide area of Lochaber and West Inverness-shire. Various other schemes are under consideration. The owner of the Alladale estate north of Inverness has expressed a desire to reintroduce wolves as part of a wilderness reserve, the first of its kind in Britain.

Seabirds

All but a few pairs of Britain's 600 golden eagles are found in Scotland as are most of the breeding peregrine falcons. Scotland's seas host almost half of the European Union's breeding seabirds including about half of the world's northern gannets and a third of the world's Manx shearwaters.

Four seabird species have more than 95% of their combined British and Irish population in Scotland, while a further fourteen species have more than half of their breeding population in Scottish colonies. St. Kilda, which is a World Heritage Site, is a seabird haven of great significance.

It has 60,000 northern gannets, amounting to 24% of the world population, 49,000 breeding pairs of Leach's storm petrel, up to 90% of the European population, 136,000 pairs of puffin & 67,000 northern fulmar pairs, about 30% and 13% of the respective UK totals.

The island of Mingulay also has a large seabird population and is an important breeding ground for razorbills, with 9,514 pairs, 6.3% of the European population. 60% of all breeding bonxies nest in Scotland, mostly in Orkney and Shetland, even though they did not arrive at all until the 18th century. Scotland is the breeding station for about 90% of the UK's Arctic terns, the majority of which make use of colonies in Orkney and Shetland. A similar percentage of the UK's tysties breed on Scottish islands including Unst, Mingulay and Iona. Scotland also hosts 1,000 pairs of Arctic skua and 21,000 breeding pairs of shag, 40% of the global population of the species. In excess of 130,000 birds inhabit Fowlsheugh nature reserve in Aberdeenshire at the peak of the breeding season, making it one of the largest seabird colonies in Britain. There are significant numbers of kittiwake, Atlantic puffin, razorbill, fulmar, herring gull and great black-backed gull. The Bass Rock in the Firth of Forth hosts upwards of 40,000 pairs of northern gannets and is the largest single rock gannetry in the world. The bird's scientific name *Morus bassanus*, derives from the rock.

Game Birds & Waders & Water Fowl

Red-listed western capercaillie and ptarmigan breed in Scotland and are absent elsewhere in the British Isles. The former became extinct in Scotland in 1785 but was successfully reintroduced from Swedish stock in 1837. There are significant populations of other Galliformes including blackcock and the famous red grouse. Common quail, grey partridge and pheasant are well-distributed, although the red-legged partridge is less so. A small colony of the introduced golden pheasant exists in the southwest. Among the waders, avocet, stone-curlew, little ringed plover and Kentish plover are absent, but most of the 100 or so pairs of dotterel in the UK spend their summers in Scotland as do all of the breeding whimbrel, greenshank and red-necked phalarope, (the latter two species breed in Ireland).

In summer the shallow lochs of the machair lands in the Uists and Benbecula provide for a remarkable variety of waders and ducks including shoveler and eider.

The rare Slavonian grebe and common scoter breed on a small number of lochs in Highland region. Goldeneye have colonised an area centred around the Cairngorms National Park since the 1970s, and about 100 pairs breed there. The majority of the roughly 25,000 whooper swans in the British Isles winter in Scotland and Ireland. About half of the 80,000 barnacle geese, which breed in Greenland, arrive on Islay for the winter, with further flocks wintering on other Scottish islands (Uists, Tiree, Colonsay) many thousands wintering in Ireland. Tens of thousands of pink-footed geese use the Montrose Basin as a winter roost in October and November as they do Loch Strathbeg and various lochs and reservoirs in Tayside and the Lothians. The amber-listed black and red-throated diver's freshwater breeding strongholds in the British Isles are in the north and west of Scotland. The fauna of Ireland comprises all the animal species inhabiting the island of Ireland and its surrounding waters.

Mammals

Only 26 land mammal species are native to Ireland, because it has been isolated from the European mainland (by rising sea levels after the Midlandian Ice Age), since about 14,000 B.C. Some species, such as the red fox, European hedgehog, stoat, otter, pygmy shrew, and badger are common.

Whereas others, like the Irish hare, red deer, and pine marten are less common and generally seen only in certain national parks and nature reserves around the island. Some introduced species have become thoroughly naturalised, e.g. the European rabbit, grey squirrel, bank vole and brown rat. In addition, 10 species of bat are found in Ireland.

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

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

Megafaunal Extinctions

In the Ice Age (warm spells), mammals: the woolly mammoth, wild horse, giant deer, brown bear, spotted hyena, Arcticlemming, Norwaylemming, Arcticfox, European beaver, Eurasian wolf, lynx, and reindeer flourished or migrated depending on the degree of coldness. The Irish brown bear was a genetically distinct brown bear from a lineage that had significant polar bear. The closest surviving brown bear is Ursus arctos middendorffi in Alaska.

Reptiles

Only one land reptile is native to the country, the viviparous lizard. It is common in national parks, particularly in the Wicklow Mountains. Slowworms are common in parts of The Burren area in County Clare, but they are not a native species and were probably introduced in the 1970s.

Five marine turtle species appear regularly off the west coast, the leatherback, green, hawsbill, loggerhead, Kemp's ridley, but they very rarely come ashore. Legend attributes the absence of snakes in Ireland to Saint Patrick, who is said to have banished them from the island, chasing them into the sea after they assailed him during a 40-day fast he was undertaking on top of a hill. In reality, no species of snake ever inhabited Ireland, due to it losing its land-bridge to Britain before snakes came north after the Ice Age.

Amphibians

Three amphibians are found in Ireland, the common European brown frog, the smooth newt, and the natterjack toad. There are questions over whether the frog is actually native to Ireland, with some historic accounts stating that the frog was introduced in the 18th century. The natterjack toad is only found in a few localised sites in County Kerry and western County Cork.

Birds

About 400 bird species have been recorded in Ireland. Many of these species are migratory.

There are Arctic birds, which come in the winter, and birds such as the swallow, which come from Africa in the summer to breed. Many birds which are common residents in Britain and continental Europe are rare or unusual in Ireland, examples include the tawny owl, willow tit, marsh tit, nuthatch, and all woodpecker species except the recently established great spotted woodpecker.

These are birds which do not move great distances and their absence may be due to Ireland's early isolation, but also Ireland's mild weather means early breeding and choice of best habitats which gives residents an advantage over visitors. Although Ireland has fewer breeding species than Britain and Continental Europe; there are important populations of species which are in decline elsewhere. Storm petrels (largest breeding numbers in the world), roseate tern, chough, and corncrake. Four species of bird have Irish subspecies. These are the coal tit, dipper, jay, and red grouse. The wren, robin, blackbird and common chaffinch are the most widespread species, occurring in 90% of the land area.

These & the rook, starling, great tit, blue tit are among the most numerous & commonly seen.

Over the period 1997-2007, populations of pigeons, warblers, tits, finches, and buntings have remained stable or shown an increase (massive declines during the 1970s). Kestrel, common swift, skylark, and mistle thrush have continued to decline due to changes in agricultural practices such as increased use of pesticides and fertiliser. Climate change has also played a role.

Ireland has a rich marine avifauna, with many large seabird colonies dotted around its coastline such as those on the Saltee Islands, Skellig Michael, and the Copeland Islands. Of note are golden eagles, recently reintroduced after decades of extinction and the red-necked phalarope.

South-eastern Wexford is an important site for birds – the north side of Wexford Harbour, the North Slob, is home to 10,000 Greenland white-fronted geese each winter (roughly one third of the entire world's population), while in the summer Lady's Island Lake is an important breeding site for terns, especially the roseate tern. Three quarters of the world population of pale bellied brent geese winter in Strangford Lough in County Down.

In 2001, the golden eagle was reintroduced into Glenveagh National Park after a 90-year absence from Ireland. A total of 46 golden eagles have been released in Ireland since 2001.

In 2007, the first golden eagle chick hatched in Ireland since re-introduction. In 2006, 30 red kite birds originally from Wales were released in the Wicklow Mountains. Six weeks later one was shot dead, it was found to have 8 shotgun pellets in it. The first red kite chick hatched in 2010.

In 2007, the white-tailed eagle returned to Ireland with six young birds being released in Killarney National Park after an absence of over 200 years from Ireland. Fifteen of these birds have been released in total. There are plans for the common crane to also return to Ireland in the future.

While the osprey and marsh harrier have slowly returned to Ireland naturally. Robin Redbreast is the national bird of the UK.

Fish

Ireland has 375 fish species in its coastal waters and 40 freshwater species in its rivers and lakes. Most of these are pelagic. There are many aquatic mammals too, such as bottlenose dolphins, killer whales, and harbour porpoises. Sea turtles are common off the western seaboard, and the walrus has been found around the Irish coasts, but is very rare with only a handful of sightings. The cool, temperate waters around Ireland contain a huge variety of marine invertebrates. Some of this diversity can be observed in tide pools. There are 24 species of cetaceans and five species of sea turtles have been recorded in Irish waters. The giant squid has been recorded on five occasions.

The Porcupine Abyssal Plain which has an average depth of 4,774 m is on the continental margin southwest of Ireland. It is the habitat for many deep sea fish and was first investigated in the summers of 1868 and 1869 by Charles Wyville Thomsons H.M.S. *Porcupine* expedition.

Other notable fish include the basking shark, ocean sunfish, conger eel, hagfish, boarfish, large-eyed large-eyed rabbitfish, lumpsucker, cuckoo wrasse, and the thresher shark. In a study of the marine fauna of the Celtic Sea based on 61 beam trawl catches, the common dragonet and the hermit crab *Pagurus prideaux* were the most ubiquitous species.

Faunal Diversity of Wales

The terrestrial habitats of Wales support a rich variety of flora and fauna and includes many species found in Britain and species unique to Wales. ... Seals, dolphins, sharks, jellyfish, crabs and lobsters are all found around the Welsh coast. Around Cadigan Bay and Pembrokeshire coast, minke and pilot whales are common in the summer while fin and killer whales are rare.

Bottlenose dolphins are common and Risso's dolphin and Atlantic white-sided dolphin are rare. Whales, grey seals, basking sharks and sunfish can be seen.

Mammals

Roe deer and fallow deer are the two largest mammal species in Wales. Roe deer are found in central and northern Wales. Fallow deer are found in rural and semiurban areas of Wales.

The European polecat can be found in both urban and country environments. Found in the same area is the red fox, one of the most common mammals in Wales. The red deer, one of five native deer species, is the biggest non-marine mammal in Wales. Fallow, muntjac roe and sika deer can also be found. Polecats and pine martens are very rarely seen. Other mammals include badgers, foxes, hares, hedgehogs, ottersrabbits, stoats, weasels, red squirrels, and 13 species of bat.

About 420 species of birds have been found in Wales. Red kites and ospreys are a "signature Montagu's harrier, a rare species in Britain, has several nesting places in Wales. Red grouse, once a common species, has reduced population dramatically due to human hunting. Red grouse can be found at the extreme north part of Wales. King eider is heavily hunted for its feathers. Dippers, choughs, puffins, plovers, guillemots, razorbills, whimbrel, short-earedowls, plovers and Manx shearwaters are common. Adders, common lizards and grass snakes have been recorded. The biodiversity of Wales refers to the wide variety of ecosystems, living organisms, and the genetic makeups found in Wales. Wales is a predominantly mountainous peninsula located between England and the Irish Sea, covering 8,023 mi². It has terrestrial habitats and many protected areas rich in biodiversity, including three national parks and five Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty (AONB).

The national parks include: Snowdonia, Pembrokeshire Coast and Brecon Beacons. AONB include: Anglesey, Clwydian Range, Gower Peninsula, Llŷn Peninsula and Wye Valley, which is partially in England. Wales has many locations categorised as Site of Special Scientific Interest, Special Area of Conservation, Special Protection Area and Local nature reserve.

There are many zoos and gardens, including the National Botanic Garden of Wales. On the coast, a great diversity of species such as seals, dolphins, sharks, jellyfish, crabs and lobsters can be found.

There are seabird colonies on the islands near the coast.

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

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Fauna	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

The island of Great Britain is comparatively small, but is has a surprisingly various landscape.
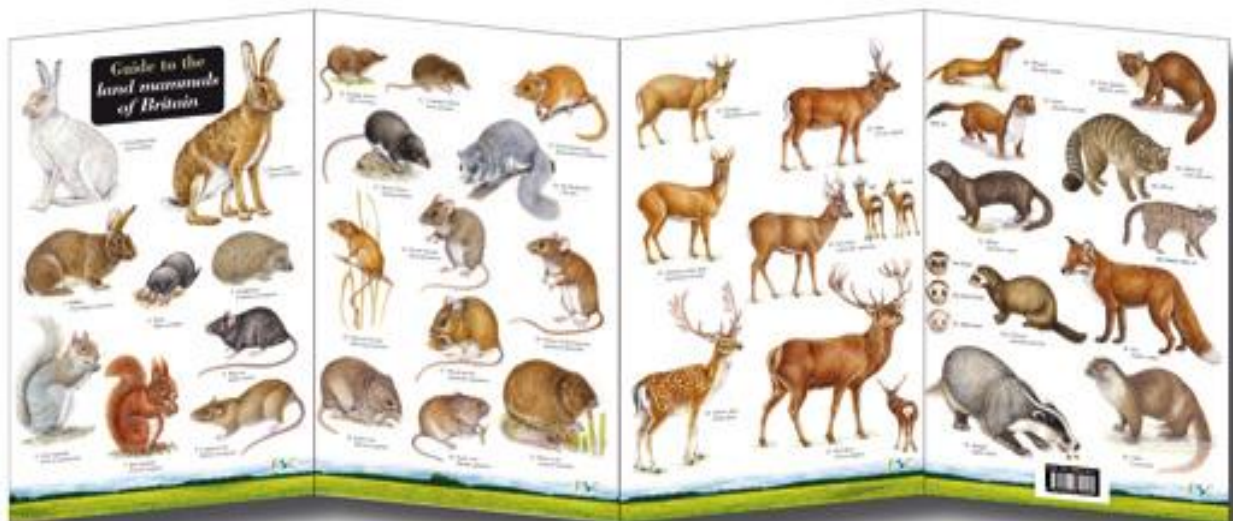
The British landscape can be divided roughly into two kinds of terrain. We can say that there are two main regions – Lowland Britain and Highland Britain. Lowland Britain covers southern and eastern England. Lowland Britain is a plain with chalk, sandstone and limestone hills, long valleys and plains, basins such as the Wash. The world famous white cliffs of Dover are also formed of chalk.

Highland Britain includes mountains of Cumbria, Scotland, the Lake District in the north-west England, the Pennine Chain, the counties of Devon and Cornwall in the south-western part of England and almost the whole of Wales and Northern Ireland. The southern part of Great Britain is known for its valleys and the best soil. Kent is often called "The Garden of England", because it is the largest fruit producer. The UK is well known for its wide variety of landscapes and scenery. There are various kinds of vegetation in this country as well. The flora here is less rich as that in southern countries.

With its mild climate and varied soils, the UK has a diverse pattern of natural vegetation.

Originally, oak forests probably covered the lowland, except for the fens and marsh areas, while pine forests and patches of moorland covered the higher or sandy ground. Over the centuries, much of the forest area, especially on the lowlands, was cleared for cultivation.

As humid climate is so good for plants, early in spring a lot of flowers and trees bloom every year. It happens much earlier than in many other European countries.

There are no big forests in Great Britain. Sherwood forest is one the most popular. It is located to the north of London. The name of a legendary hero Robin Hood is connected to it.

With its mild climate and varied soils, the UK has a diverse pattern of natural vegetation.

Originally, oak forests probably covered the lowland, except for the fens and marsh areas, while pine forests and patches of moorland covered the higher or sandy ground. Over the centuries, much of the forest area, especially on the lowlands, was cleared for cultivation.

Today only about 9% of the total surface is wooded. Extensive forests remain in east and north Scotland and in southeast England. Oak, elm, ash, and beech are the most common trees in England.

Pine and birch are most common in Scotland. Almost all the lowland outside the industrial centers is farmland, with a varied seminatural vegetation of grasses and flowering plants. Wild vegetation consists of the natural flora of woods, fens and marshes, cliffs, chalk downs, and mountain slopes, the most widespread being the heather, grasses, gorse, and bracken of the moorlands.

In a similar sense to fauna, and for similar reasons, the flora is impoverished compared to that of continental Europe. The flora comprises 3,354 vascular plant species, of which 2,297 are native and 1,057 have been introduced. The island has a wide variety of trees, including native species of birch beech, ash, hawthom, elm, oak, yew, pine, cherry and apple. Other trees have been naturalised, introduced especially from other parts of Europe (particularly Norway) and North America.

Introduced trees include several varieties of pine, chestnut, maple, spruce, sycamore and fir, as well as cherry plumand pear trees. The tallest species are the Douglas firs; two specimens have been recorded measuring 65 m or 212 ft. The Fortingall Yew in Perthshire is the oldest tree in Europe.

There are at least 1,500 different species of wildflower. Some 107 species are particularly rare or vulnerable and protected by the Wildlife and Countryside Act 1981. It is illegal to uproot any wildflowers without the landowner's permission. A vote in 2002 nominated various wildflowers to represent specific counties.

These include orchids, brambles, thistles, buttercups, primrose, thyme, redpoppies,bluebells, dasies, daffodils, rosemary, gorse, iris, ivy, mint, tulips, violets, cowslip, heather & many more. There are many species of algae and mosses across the island. Except for northern Scotland, the highest hills of the north and west, the saturated fens and marshes, and the seacoast fringes, the natural vegetation of the British Isles is deciduous forest dominated by oak. Human occupation has left only scattered woodlands and areas of wild or seminatural vegetation outside the enclosed cultivated fields.

Few of the fine moorlands and heathlands, wild though they may appear, can lay claim to any truly natural plant communities. Nearly all show varying degrees of adjustment to grazing, swaling (controlled burning), or other activities. Woodland now covers less than one-tenth of the country, the Forestry Commission has been active since its creation in 1919, nearly two-thirds of this woodland remains in private hands. The largest areas of woodland now stand in northeastern Scotland, Kielder & forests in Northumberland, Ashdown Forest in Sussex, Gwynedd in Wales, & Breckland in Norfolk.

The moorlands and heathlands that occupy about one-fourth of the total area of the UK consist of arctic-alpine vegetation on some mountain summits in Scotland and the much more extensive peat moss, heather, bilberry, and thin grass moors of the highland zone. Similar vegetation exists on high ground in eastern Northern Ireland and on the Mournes, and there are considerable areas of peat moss vegetation on the mountains of Antrim. In the lowland zone, where light sandy soils occur, the most common plant of the moorlands is the common heather – whose deep purple adds a splash of colour to the autumn countryside – but these areas contain bilberry and bell heather. A strip of land immediately bordering the coastline has largely escaped exploitation by humans and domesticated animals, so that patches of maritime vegetation often appear in approximately their natural state.

The **flora of Scotland** is an assemblage of native plant species including over 1,600 vascular plants, more than 1,500 lichens and nearly 1,000 bryophytes. The Arran Whitebeams, Shetland Mouse-ear and Scottish Primrose are endemic flowering plants and there are a variety of endemic mosses and lichens. The flora of Scotland is an assemblage of native plant species including over 1600 vascular plants, more than 1,500 lichens and nearly 1,000 bryophytes.

The total number of vascular species is low by world standard but lichens and bryophytes are abundant and the latter form a population of global importance. Various populations of rare fern exist, although the impact of 19th-century collectors threatened the existence of several species. The flora is generally typical of the north west European part of the Palearctic ecozone and prominent features of the Scottish flora include boreal Caledonian forest, heather moorland and coastal machair.

In addition to the native varieties of vascular plants, there are numerous non-native introductions, now believed to make up some 43% of the species in the country.

There are a variety of important trees species and specimens; a Grand Fir in Argyll is the tallest tree in the UK and the Fortingall Yew may be the oldest tree in Europe.

The Arran Whitebeams, Shetland Mouse-ear and Scottish Primrose are endemic flowering plants and there are a variety of endemic mosses and lichens. Conservation of the natural environment is well developed and various organisations play an important role in the stewardship of the country's flora.

Numerous references to the country's flora appear in folklore, song and poetry. Typical upland scenery with Scots Pine, Silver Birch and Heather. Scotland enjoys a diversity of temperate ecologies, incorporating both deciduous and coniferous woodlands, and moorland, montane, estuarine, freshwater, oceanic, tundra landscapes. Approximately 14% of Scotland is wooded, much of it forestry plantations, but prior to human clearing there would have been much larger areas of boreal Caledonian and broad-leaved forest. Although much reduced, significant remnants of the native Scots Pine woodlands can be found in places. 17% of Scotland is covered by heather moorland and peatland.

Caithness and Sutherland have some of the largest and most intact areas of blanket bog in the world, supporting a distinctive wildlife community. 75% of Scotland's land is classed as agricultural (including some moorland) with urban areas accounting for around 3% of the total.

The number of islands with terrestrial vegetation is nearly 800, about 600 of them lying off the west coast. Scotland has more than 90% of the volume and 70% of the total surface area of fresh water in the UK. There are more than 30,000 freshwater lochs and 6,600 river systems.

Below the tree line there are several zones of climax forest. Birch dominates to the west and north, Scots Pine with Birch and oak in the eastern Highlands and oak with Birch in the Central Lowlands and Borders. Much of the Scottish coastline consists of machair, a fertile dune pasture land formed as sea levels subsided after the last ice age. Machairs have received considerable ecological and conservational attention, chiefly because of their unique ecosystems.

Flowering Plants & Shrubs

The total number of vascular species is low by world standards, partly due to the effects of Pleistocene glaciations (which eliminated all or nearly all species) and the subsequent creation of the North Sea (which created a barrier to re-colonisation). There are a variety of important species and assemblages. Heather moor containing Ling, Bell Heather, Cross-leaved Heath, Bog Myrtle and fescues is generally abundant and contains various smaller flowering species such as Cloudberry and Alpine Ladies-mantle. Cliffs & mountains host a diversity of arctic & alpine plants including Alpine Pearlwort, Mossy Cyphal, Mountain Avens and Fir Clubmoss. On the Hebridean islands of the west coast, there are plantago pastures, which grow well in locations exposed to sea spray & include Red Fescue, Sea Plantain and Sea Pink. The machair landscapes include rare species such as Irish Lady's Tresses, Yellow Rattle and numerous orchids along with more common species such as Marram and Buttercup, Ragwort Bird's-foot Trefoil and Ribwort Plantain. Scots Lovage, first recorded in 1684 by Robert Sibbald, and the Oyster Plant are common plants of the coasts.

Aquatic Species

Bogbean and Water Lobelia are common plants of moorland pools and lochans.

The Least, Yellow and White Water-lilies are also widespread. Pipewort has generated some botanical controversy regarding its discovery, classification and distribution.

It was found growing on Skye in the 18th century, although there was subsequent confusion as to both the discoverer and the correct scientific name – now agreed to be *Eriocaulon aquaticum*.

The European range of this plant is confined to Scotland and western Ireland and it is one of only a small number of species which is common in North America, but very restricted in Europe.

There are a few localised examples of the Rigid Hornwort. Grasses and sedges are common everywhere except dune systems and stony mountain tops and plateaux. The total number of species is large, 84 have been recorded on the verges of a single road in West Lothian. Smooth Meadow-grass and Broad-leaved Meadow-grass are widespread in damp lowland conditions, Wood Sedge in woodlands, and Oval Sedge and Early Hair-grass on upland moors. In damp conditions reeds and several species of *Juncus* are found abundantly including Jointed, Soft, Toad, & Slender Rush.

Common Cottongrass is a familiar site on marshy land, but Saltmarsh Sedge was only discovered in 2004 at the head of Loch Duich. Some of Scotland's flowering plant species have extremely restricted ranges in the country. These include *Diapensia lapponica*, found only on the slopes of Sgurr an Utha, Argyll and Mountain Bearberry, recorded at only a few mainland locations, on Skye and Orkney. The pinewoods of Strathspey contain rare species such as Creeping Lady's Tresses, Twinflower and the One-flowered Wintergreen. Plans to protect the Intermediate Wintergreen, found here, were introduced in 2008. Other nationally rare species include Tufted Saxifrage, Alpine Catchfly, Sword-leaved Helleborine, Norwegian Sandwort, Dark-red Helleborine, Iceland Purslane, Small Cow-wheat and Yellow Oxytropis.

Invasive Plants

A number of non-native, invasive species have been identified as a threat to native biodiversity, including Giant Hogweed, Japanese Knotweed and Rhododendron.

In May 2008 it was announced that psyllid lice from Japan, which feed on the Knotweed, may be introduced to the UK to bring the plant under control. This would be the first time that an alien species has been used in Britain in this way. Scientists at the Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux International do not believe the lice will cause any environmental damage. Over-grazing caused by the large numbers of Red Deer and sheep has also resulted in the impoverishment of moorland and upland habitats and a loss of native woodland. Only 31 species of deciduous tree and shrub are native to Scotland, including 10 willows, four whitebeams and three birch and cherry species.

The Meikleour Beech hedges located in Perth and Kinross were planted in the autumn of 1745 by Jean Mercer and her husband, Robert Murray Nairne. This European Beech hedge, which is 530 m (0.3 mi) in length, reaches 30 m (100 ft) in height and is noted in the Guinness World Records as the tallest and longest hedge on Earth. The Arran Whitebeams are species unique to the Isle of Arran.

The Arran Whitebeam and the Cut-leaved Whitebeam are amongst the most endangered tree species in the world if rarity is measured by numbers alone. The trees developed in a highly complex fashion involving the Rock Whitebeam, which is found on nearby Holy Isle but not Arran, interbreeding with the Rowan to produce the new species. In 2007 it was announced that two specimens of a third new hybrid, the Catacol Whitebeam had been discovered by researchers on Arran.

Shakespeare makes reference to Birnam Wood being used as camouflage for Malcolm Canmore's army before the battle at Dunsinane with MacBeth. There is an ancient tree, the Birnam Oak, standing a few hundred metres from the centre of Birnam. It may well have been part of Birnam Wood at the time of the battle 900 years ago, and remains part of the legend. The orange berries can be processed into jams, liquors and ointments and the hardy species grows well even on exposed west coasts.

Flora in Scottish culture

The thistle has been one of the national emblem of the Scots nation since the reign of Alexander III (1249-1286) and was used on silver coins issued by James III in 1470. Today, it forms part of the emblem of the Scottish Rugby Union. As legend has it, an invading army had attempted to sneak up at night on the Scots. One, perhaps barefooted, unwelcome foreign soldier stumbled upon a Scots Thistle, and cried out in pain, thus alerting Scots to their presence. Some sources suggest the specific occasion was the Battle of Largs, which marked the beginning of the departure of the Viking monarch Haakon IV of Norway, who had harried the coast for some years.

Spiky plants such as brambles appear to have been used around forts since time immemorial, so the story, whether it factually relates to the Haakon episode or not, likely is the culmination of more than one such event over time. In some variants, it is invading English which stumble on a thistle, but the story predates this time.

Numerous plants are referred to in Scottish song and verse. These include Robert Burns *A Red, Red Rose*, Hugh MacDiarmid's *A Drunk Man Looks at the Thistle*, Sorley MacLean's *Hallaig*, Harry Lauder's *I Love A Lassie* and in the 21st century, Runrig's *And The Accordions Played*.

The last two lyrics include a reference to the *bluebell*. The "Scottish Bluebell" is as the "Harebell" rather than the "Common Bluebell". Trees held an important place in Gaelic culture from the earliest times. Particularly large trees were venerated, and the most valuable such as oak, Common Hazel and Apple were classed as "nobles".

The less important Common Alder, Common Hawthorn and Gean were classed as "commoners", there were "lower orders" and "slaves" such as Eurasian Aspen and Juniper.

The alphabet was learned as a mnemonic using tree names. Rowan was regularly planted close to Highland houses as a protection from witchcraft. Various plants are said to have apotropaic qualities, notably Mountain Ash. Henbane may have been used as a hallucinogenas long ago as the Neolithic period. This tradition has recently been taken up once again by New Agers.

Floral Biodiversity of Wales

Species which can only be found in Wales are the Radnor lily, spotted rock-rose and a type of fish, the gwyniad, only found in Lake Bala. The rare fen orchid is one of the most threatened species in northwestern Europe and has vanished from many places in Wales. The Welsh Government funds Natural Resources Wales (NRW), Plantlife, Bridgend County Borough Council and the Wales Biodiversity Partnership coastal ecosystem group to help reconstruct its natural habitat and secure the future of this threatened species. The Welsh government works closely with the Wales Biodiversity Partnership (WBP) which promotes and monitors the Wales biodiversity action plan.

In 2010 the Welsh government launched a Natural Environment Framework, "A Living Wales", which focuses on sustainable land and marine management in Wales. The Environment (Wales) Act 2016 put into place a range of powers and duties designed to enable the natural resources of Wales to be planned and management in a more sustainable, pro-active and joined-up way than was previously possible. The sessile oak, one of Wales' most common species, can be found across the region.

English holly, one of the few native evergreen trees, can found in southern Wales. The wych elm, a native species, suffers from disease and competition introduced by exotic species. The cuckoo flower, a herbaceous perennial, can be found throughout Wales.

Bog rosemary, a small flowering shrub, can be found in central Wales. Within the British Isles, the Snowdon lily is found only on the slopes of Snowdon. Important Plant Areas (IPAs) in Wales are areas of "the highest botanical importance" as determined by Plantlife.

Flora of Ireland

Ice-sheets covered most of Ireland until 13,000 years ago when the Holocene began.

The majority of Ireland's flora and fauna has only returned as the ice sheets retreated and sea level rose accompanied by post-glacial rebound when 10,000 years ago the climate began to warm.

At this time there was a land bridge connecting Wales and the east coast of Ireland since sea levels were over 100 m lower than they are today (water being frozen into the ice caps covering northern Asia and North America). Plants and animals were able to cross this land-bridge until about 7,500 years ago, when it was finally covered by the rising sea level as warming continued.

Mesolithic hunters entered Ireland around 8000 B.C. beginning human occupation and from the Neolithic landscape was progressively altered by agriculture, especially in the 19th and 20th centuries.

Aside from the habitat alteration new species were introduced deliberately or accidentally.

The archaeologist Emmet Byrnes and botanist Declan Little, Woodlands of Ireland give a history of woodlands in Ireland. Ice-sheets covered most of Ireland until 13,000 years ago when the Holocene began. The majority of Ireland's flora and fauna has only returned as the ice sheets retreated and sea level rose accompanied by post-glacial rebound when 10,000 years ago the climate began to warm. There are two major habitats, making up most of the land area.

Grassland includes Lowland meadow and pasture with grasses such as sweet vernal grass, perennial ryegrass, meadow foxtail, false oat-grass, crested dog's-tail, red fescue, downy oat-grass, Yorkshire fog, timothy grass and yellow oat-grass.

Lowland meadow & pasture flowers include meadow thistle, creeping thistle, spear thistle, pignut, lesser knapweed, meadow thistle, smooth hawksbeard, eyebright, ragged robin, red bartsia, yellow rattle, marsh lousewort, cowslip, catsear, autumn hawkbit, meadow buttercup, bulbous buttercup and dandelion.

Upland pasture (mostly semi-natural, that is maintained by particular farming practices such as grazing and mowing). Typical species are: moor matgrass, wavy hair-grass, sheep's fescue, green-ribbed sedge, cross-leaved heath, bell heather, bilberry, black crowberry, deergrass and bog asphodel.

Ireland possesses almost 200,000 ha (490,000 ac) of actively growing bogs and fens.

This compares with 126,000 ha (310,000 ac) in the UK, 500 ha (1,200 ac) each in Switzerland & Germany Germany and total loss in the Netherlands and Poland.

In Ireland in 2018 there were 23,628 ha (58,390 ac) of raised bog at 164 sites (8% of original area), 143,248 ha (353,970 ac) of blanket bog at 233 sites (18% of original area) and 54,026 ha (133,500 ac) ha of fen at 221 sites (58% of original area).

These 200,000 ha of actively growing raised and blanket bogs and fens are of European conservation importance. In Ireland two factors led to the formation of such extensive peatlands. High rainfall- there are 175 rain-days each year in the west, southwest and northwest of Ireland and poor drainage The bogs formed at the end of the last ice age, about 10,000 years ago in the central lowlands of Ireland in basins of calcareous boulder clay. These became lakes overgrown with fen vegetation and infilled with fen peat which cut off the surface plants from mineral-rich water below.

Nutrient-demanding fen plants were then replaced by bog mosses and plants which could survive on low levels of nutrients. The fen peat below prevented the rainwater draining away and the sponge-like bog moss and plants soaked it up. Over 70% of Ireland's 900 native species occur in The Burren, which is less than 0.5% of the area of Ireland.

A 2001 survey found 28 different species per m² (averaged over 1,100 vegetation samples) in upland grasslands, with up to 45 species per m² in some samples. 22 of Ireland's 27 native orchid species are found in the region. Such high diversity has several explanations.

Firstly, several hundred km² of species-rich unimproved limestone grasslands and upland pastures grazed mainly in winter, a practice, which removes potentially dominant grass and weed species. Secondly, there is a mixture of Arctic-alpine and Mediterranean, calcicole & calcifuge species.

The area is dominated by bare rock and rendzina soils. Woodland plants include wood sorrel, blackthorn, bird's nest orchid, wood anemone, bluebell, wood avens, bugle, ramsons, self-heal, dogviolet, honeysuckle, holly, lords and ladies, herb robert and woody nightshade. Woods dominated by oak and birch, with lesser amounts of rowan, holly, hazel, yew and aspen are called western oakwoods and occur principally in the uplands of Ireland, Scotland and Wales.

Quarries, gravel and sand pits, roads and railways, field boundaries, walls, waste ground and rubbish tips contain such plant species as common ragwort, pineapple weed, hairy bindweed, creeping buttercup, common daisy, catsear, coltsfoot, fat hen, nettle, redshank, germander speed well, ivy-leaved toadflax, rosebay willowherb, great willowherb and wall pennywort.

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

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

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

№	Activity			
	Plant	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

THE NATIONAL SYMBOLS OF GREAT BRITAIN

The national symbols of England are things, which are emblematic, representative or otherwise characteristic of England or English culture. Some are established, official symbols; the Royal Arms of England, which has been codified in heraldry. The national flower of **England** is the **rose**.

The flower has been adopted as England's emblem since the time of the Wars of the 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**).

Scotland – St. Andrew – the Thistle and Scottish Bluebell. The national flower of Scotland is the thistle, a prickly-leaved purple flower that was first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defence. The Scottish Bluebell is seen as the flower of Scotland.

Wales – St. David and the Daffodil. The national flower of Wales is the daffodil, which is traditionally worn on St. David's Day. The vegetable called leek is also considered to be a traditional emblem of Wales. There are many explanations of how the leek came to be adopted as the national emblem of Wales. One is that St David advised the Welsh, on the eve of battle with the Saxons, to wear leeks in their caps to distinguish friend from foe. As Shakespeare records in Henry V, the Welsh archers wore leeks at the battle of Agincourt in 1415.

Northern Ireland – St. Patrick and the Shamrock. The national flower of Northern Ireland is the shamrock, a three-leaved plant similar to clover. An Irish tale tells of how Patrick used the three-leafed shamrock to explain the Trinity. He used it in his sermons to represent how the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit could all exist as separate elements of the same entity. His followers adopted the custom of wearing a shamrock on his feast day. the Sovereign's motto and the lion and the unicorn.

The Barbary lion is a national animal of England. In the Middle Ages, the lions kept in the menagerie at the Tower of London were Barbary lions. English medieval warrior rulers with a reputation for bravery attracted the nickname "the Lion": the most famous example is Richard I of England, known as Richard the Lionheart. Lions are frequently depicted in English heraldry, either as a device on shields themselves, or as supporters. They appear in sculpture, sites of national importance.

The lion is used as a symbol of English sporting teams, such as the England national cricket team. The oak is the national tree of England, representing strength and endurance. The Royal Oak and Oak Apple Day commemorate the escape of King Charles II from the grasps of the Parliamentarians (Roundheads) after the Battle of Worcester in 1651 (the last battle of the English Civil War); he hid in an oak tree to avoid detection before making it safely into exile. The Major Oak is an 800-1000 year old oak in Sherwood Forest, fabled as the principal hideout of Robin Hood.

RED ROBINBREAST – NATIONAL SYMBOL

This aggressively territorial little bird has captured the nation's heart. Why do we love the robin so much that we have made him the Bird of Britain by popular acclaim?

Hard-hearted ornithologists may say that the robin's fearless attendance, once one starts digging in the garden, is attributable to his aggressive territorialism. The gardener knows better, and won't begrudge a worm for the ruddy-breasted bird perching on the spade handle.

There's more to it than that. A peculiarly British tradition is that the Babes in the Wood, of pantomime and children's tales, were covered with leaves by the robin where they lay lifeless.

The idea is taken up in Webster's memorable lyric, "Call for the robin-redbreast and the wren".

So, as Christmas-card emblem, leafy undertaker or gardener's companion, the quick and colourful bird forces its merits on its chosen patrons. It's as if the election of a national bird was not ours but the robin's. English much-loved garden favourite beat off the barn owl, blackbird and wren to be crowned as the nation's new flying favourite.

The redbreast's victory was announced on BBC Springwatch, having secured more than a third of the 224,438 votes cast. Since last autumn, the race has been on to finding a fitting ornithological emblem to represent Britain in the same way the USA has the bald eagle and France the cockerel, Sweden has the common Blackbird, Japan has the green pheasant and India has the peacock.

Supporters for the robin say its friendly but feisty character embodies all that is good about being British. It is hoped that the Government will give the robin some form of official recognition. Although it would be impossible to feature alongside the Lion and Unicorn in the Royal Coat of Arms, its hope it may feature on future coinage, bank notes or another official emblem. The vote results are expected to be passed on to both Downing Street and Buckingham Palace in coming days.

Environment Minister Rory Stewart welcomed the robin's victory, saying: "The robin is synonymous with the British countryside and I'm delighted that so many people voted in the poll to name it their favourite bird. "The UK has some of the world's finest wildlife, and I would encourage everyone to make use of our wonderful assets like our national parks and forests, where birds like the robin can be seen in their natural environment. The Robin is Britain's most familiar bird so it's perhaps fitting that it has been chosen by the nation to be our National Bird." Children were allowed to cast their votes in classroom ballot boxes as well as on the campaign's website.

The first round of voting for Britain's Vote National Bird Campaign took place in the autumn of 2014, when over 70,000 people chose a shortlist from a long list of 60 iconic British birds that included the skylark, cuckoo and nightingale. One look at the robin's manifesto and it is easy to see why it won.

Friendly, loyal and endearing yet belligerent and uncompromising to all those who dare extinguish its vitality or threaten its domain, Robins are the avian embodiment of John Bull, Britannia and any other British hero you care to mention.

Little wonder that most celebrated legendary figure of them all, the scourge of the Sheriff of Nottingham and the leader of Sherwood Forest's Merry Men, was called Robin. The redbreast's place in English rich literary history – Chaucer, Blake and Wordsworth, who mentions robins in no fewer than 14 of his poems – is matched by the way English associate the species with our most sacred holidays.

Not only is the robin a mainstay of Christmas celebrations, it is a symbol of resurrection, the redness of its breast stained by the blood of Christ.

NATIONAL PARKS

National parks are a devolved matter with each of the countries of the UK having its own policies and arrangements. Counted together, the UK has fifteen national parks with ten in England, three in Wales and two in Scotland. These parks are not truly national parks according to the internationally accepted standard of the IUCN, but they are areas of outstanding landscape where habitation and commercial activities are restricted. There are currently no national parks in Northern Ireland though there are controversial moves to establish one in the Mourne Mountains.

If established, it would stretch from Carlingford Lough to Newcastle and Slieve Croob. Though it might create jobs in tourism, there are fears that it would drive up the area's cost of living.

All 15 national parks share two statutory purposes; to conserve and enhance the natural and cultural heritage of the area, and to promote understanding and enjoyment of the special qualities of the national park by the public. The Scottish national parks have two further statutory purposes; to promote sustainable use of the natural resources of the area, and to promote sustainable economic and social development of the area's communities. The Broads was not established as a national park, but was described at the time as having a 'status equivalent to that of a national park'. It has since adopted the title 'national park' and is a member of the UK national parks family, with the same level of landscape protection and an additional statutory purpose; to protect the interests of navigation.

All 15 national parks in the UK are members of the Association of National Park Authorities (ANPA), which works to promote the UK national parks family and to facilitate training and development between staff and members of all parks. Beginning in 2014 there was a movement to establish the Greater London area as a kind of national park.

The national parks of England & Wales are areas of relatively undeveloped and scenic landscape that are designated under the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act (2016).

Despite their similar name, national parks in England & Wales are quite different from national parks in many other countries, which are usually owned and managed by the government as a protected community resource, and which do not usually include permanent human communities.

In England and Wales, designation as a national park may include substantial settlements and human land uses which are often integral parts of the landscape, and land within a national park remains largely in private ownership. There are currently thirteen national parks in England and Wales. Each park is operated by its own national park authority, with two "statutory purposes": to conserve and enhance the natural beauty, wildlife and cultural heritage of the area, and to promote opportunities for the understanding and enjoyment of the park's special qualities by the public.

When national parks carry out these purposes they also have the duty to: seek to foster the economic and social well-being of local communities within the national parks.

An estimated 110 Ma people visit the national parks of England and Wales each year. Recreation and tourism bring visitors and funds into the parks, to sustain their conservation efforts and support the local population through jobs and businesses. These visitors bring problems, such as erosion and traffic congestion, and conflicts over the use of the parks' resources.

Access to cultivated land is restricted to bridleways, public footpaths, and permissive paths, with most (but not all) uncultivated areas in England and Wales having right of access for walking under the Countryside and Rights of Way Act 2000. Archaeological evidence from prehistoric Britain shows that the areas now designated as national parks have been occupied by humans since the Stone Age, at least 5,000 years ago and in some cases much earlier. Before the 19th century, relatively wild, remote areas were often seen simply as uncivilised and dangerous.

In 1725 Daniel Defoe described the High Peak as "the most desolate, wild and abandoned country in all England". By the early 19th century, romantic poets such as Byron, Coleridge & Wordsworth wrote about the inspirational beauty of the "untamed" countryside.

Wordsworth described the English Lake District as a "sort of national property in which every man has a right and interest who has an eye to perceive and a heart to enjoy" in 1810.

This early vision, based in the Picturesque movement, took over a century, and much controversy, to take legal form in the UK with the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act 1949. The idea for a form of national parks was first proposed in the United States in the 1860s, where national parks were established to protect wilderness areas such as Yosemite. This model has been used in many other countries since, but not in the UK.

After thousands of years of human integration into the landscape, Britain lacks any substantial areas of wilderness. Furthermore, those areas of natural beauty so cherished by the romantic poets were often only maintained and managed in their existing state by human activity, usually agriculture.

By the early 1930s, increasing public interest in the countryside, coupled with the growing and newly mobile urban population, was generating increasing friction between those seeking access to the countryside and landowners. Alongside of direct action trespasses, such as the mass trespass of Kinder Scout, several voluntary bodies took up the cause of public access in the political arena.

In 1931, Christopher Addison (later Lord Addison) chaired a government committee that proposed a 'National Park Authority' to choose areas for designation as national parks. A system of national reserves and nature sanctuaries was proposed: "(i) to safeguard areas of exceptional natural interest against (a) disorderly development and (b) spoliation; (ii) to improve the means of access for pedestrians to areas of natural beauty; and (iii) to promote measures for the protection of flora and fauna." No further action was taken after the intervention of the 1931 General Election.

The voluntary Standing Committee on National Parks first met on 26 May 1936 to put the case to the government for national parks in the UK.

After World War II, the Labour Party proposed the establishment of national parks as part of the post-war reconstruction of the UK: the essential requirements of a National Park are that it should have great natural beauty, a high value for open-air recreation and substantial continuous extent.

Further, the distribution of selected areas should as far as practicable be such that at least one of them is quickly accessible from each of the main centres of population in England and Wales. Lastly there is merit in variety and with the wide diversity of landscape which is available in England and Wales, it would be wrong to confine the selection of National Parks to the more rugged areas of mountain and moorland, and to exclude other districts which, though of less outstanding grandeur and wildness, have their own distinctive beauty and a high recreational value.

The National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act 1949 was passed with all party support.

The first ten national parks were designated as such in the 1950s under the Act in mostly poor-quality agricultural upland. Much of the land was still owned by individual landowners, often private estates, but there was property owned by public bodies such as the Crown, or charities which allow and encourage access such as the National Trust. Accessibility from the cities was considered important. Other areas were considered: for example, parts of the coast of Cornwall were considered as a possible national park in the 1950s but were thought to be too disparate to form a single coherent national park and were eventually designated as an Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty (AONB) instead.

The north Pennines were also considered for designation as a national park in the 1970s but the proposal was thought to be administratively too difficult because the area was administered by five different county councils.

The Broads in East Anglia are not in the strictest sense a national park, being run by a separately constituted Broads Authority set up by a special Act of Parliament in 1988 and with a structure in which conservation is subordinate to navigational concerns but it is generally regarded as being "equivalent to" a national park. The New Forest, which includes the largest remaining tracts of unenclosed pasture land, heathland and old-growth forest in the heavily populated south east of the country was designated as a national park on 1 March 2005.

Tourism is an important part of the economy of the regions, which contain national parks.Through attractions, shops and accommodation, visitors provide an income and a livelihood to local employers and farmers. This income provides jobs for the park. Within the Peak District National Park the estimate in 2004 for visitor spending is £185 Ma, which supports over 3,400 jobs, representing 27% of total employment in the national park. The national park authorities have two roles: to conserve and enhance the park, and to promote its use by visitors. These two objectives cause frequent conflicts between the needs of different groups of people. It is estimated that the national parks of England and Wales receive 110 Ma visitors each year. Most of the time it is possible to achieve both the original two purposes by good management. Occasionally a situation arises where access for the public is in direct conflict with conservation.

Following the ethos of the Sandford Principle, the Environment Act 1995 sets down how a priority may be established between conservation and recreational use. Similar provision has been made for Scottish national parks. Although recreation and tourism brings many benefits to an area, it also brings a number of problems. The national funding offered to national park authorities is partly in recognition of the extra difficulties created in dealing with these conflicts.

Some of the most popular "honeypot" areas attract large numbers of visitors, resulting in overcrowded car parks, blocked roads, and overstretched local facilities, particularly on Sundays in the summer and on bank holidays. Examples include the areas near Keswick in the Lake District, Buxton and Bakewell in the Peak District.

Hill walking and use of other public rights-of-way is an extremely popular use of all the national parks. Heavy use of the most popular paths leads to considerable erosion, but strengthening of paths can be unsightly. Particularly heavy wear is caused by sponsored walks, walks promoted by national books and magazines, by horse riding on unsurfaced bridleways, mountain biking and use of off-road vehicles on green lanes. Examples include Dovedale in the Peak District. Over-grazing, for example, by sheep on hill and moorland areas, can also reduce vegetation, leading to increased erosion.

Wildlife may be disturbed by the level of use on some of the areas of the parks that are open to the public. Moorland and chalk downland is easily damaged by regular use, and takes many years to recover. Moorland birds in particular nest and roost on the ground and are therefore especially sensitive. Orienteering, mountain biking and hang gliding are typical activities which are likely to cause disturbance to nesting birds. Litter of all kinds is both unsightly and can cause pollution and damage to livestock and wild animals. Broken glass is a danger to people and, by focusing the rays of the sun, a possible cause of fire, particularly in areas of moorland such as Exmoor, parts of the Peak District and the North York Moors. Trampling of grass meadows reduces the amount of winter feed for farm animals. Walkers who stray from footpaths may climb over fences or dry stonewalls rather than looking out for the stiles that mark the course of footpaths across farmland. Sheep can be injured or even killed by dogs not under proper control, especially at lambing time.

Gift shops and cafés which cater for the needs of tourists are often more profitable than shops selling everyday goods for local people (such as butchers or bakers). In some villages where tourist shops are in the majority and there are few shops catering for the local people, the local community may feel pushed out by the tourists. Houses are often very expensive in tourist villages as there is demand for them as second homes or holiday homes by holiday cottage firms or well-off people who live elsewhere, or who move to a local home from which they commute to work, making them unaffordable for local people. This is a particular problem in areas within easy commuting distance of large cities, such as the Peak District, the Lake District, the Yorkshire Dales, and the New Forest and South Downs. Some forms of use of national parks interfere with other uses. For example, use of high-speed boats causes noise pollution, conflicts with other uses such as boat trips, yachting, canoeing, and swimming. A controversial bylaw imposing a 10 knot speed limit came into force on Windermere on 29 March 2005.

UK National Parks map

UNIT III. DEMOGRAPHICS OF GREAT BRITAIN

INTRODUCTION

According to the 2011 census, the total population of the UK was around 63,182,000. It is the 21st-most populated country in the world. Its overall population density is 259 people per km² (671 people per mi²), with England having a significantly higher population density than Wales, Scotland & Northern Ireland. Almost one-third of the population lives in England's southeast, which is predominantly urban and suburban, with about 9 Ma in the capital city of London, the population density of which is just over 5,200 per km² (13,468 per mi²).

The population of the UK is considered an example of a population that has undergone demographic transition – that is, the transition from a (typically) pre-industrial population with high birth and mortality rates and slow population growth, through a stage of falling mortality and faster rates of population growth, to a stage of low birth and mortality rates with, again, lower rates of population growth.

This population growth through 'natural change' has been accompanied in the past two decades by growth through net international migration into the UK.

The UK high literacy rate (99% at age 15 & above) is attributable to universal public education introduced for the primary level in 1870 (Scotland 1872, free 1890) and secondary level in 1900. Parents are obliged to have their children educated from the ages of 5 to 18 (raised from 16 in 2013), can continue education free of charge in the form of A-Levels, vocational training or apprenticeship to age 18.

The Church of England and the Church of Scotland function as the national churches in their respective countries, but all the major religions found in the world are represented in the UK.

The UK's population is predominantly White British. Being located close to continental Europe, the countries that formed the UK were subject to many invasions and migrations from the continent, especially from Scandinavia, including Roman occupation for several centuries. Historically, British people were therefore thought to be descended mainly from the different ethnic stocks that settled there before the 11th century: pre-Celtic, Celtic, Anglo-Saxon, Viking and Norman.

However, recent genetic testing has revealed that these migrations contributed very little to the British genepool, with around 80% of white British DNA coming from an ancestral population who settled in the British Isles 12,000 years ago.

Although Celtic languages are spoken in Scotland, Cornwall, Northern Ireland, the predominant language overall is English. In North and West Wales, Welsh is widely spoken as a first language, but much less so in the South East of the country, where English is the predominant language.

Roman Britain had an estimated population between 2.8 Ma and 3 Ma at the end of the 2nd century C.E. At the end of the 4th century, it had an estimated population of 3.6 Ma, of whom 125,000 consisted of the Roman army and their families and dependents.

The urban population of Roman Britain was about 240,000 people at the end of the 4th century. Roman Britain's capital city, Londinium, is estimated to have had a population of about 60,000.

Londinium was an ethnically diverse city, with inhabitants from across the Roman Empire, including natives of Britannia, continental Europe, the Middle East, and North Africa. There was cultural diversity in other Roman-British towns, which were sustained by considerable migration, both within Britannia and from other Roman territories, including North Africa, Roman Syria, the Eastern Mediterranean, and continental Europe.

During the Industrial Revolution, child mortality decreased dramatically. The proportion of children born in London who died before the age of five decreased from 74.5 per 1000 in 1730-1749 to 31.8 per 1000 in 1810-1829.

According to Robert Hughes in *The Fatal Shore*, the population of England and Wales, which had remained steady at 6 Ma from 1700 to 1740, rose dramatically after 1740.

The first Census in 1801 revealed that the population of Great Britain was 10.5 Ma. In 1800, the population of Ireland was between 4.5 and 5.5 Ma. The 1841 UK Census counted the population of England and Wales to be 15.9 Ma. Ireland's population was 8.2 Ma in 1841. The population of Scotland was 2.6 Ma. The Great Irish Famine, which began in the 1840s, caused the deaths of one Ma Irish people, and caused well over a Ma to emigrate. Mass emigration became entrenched as a result of the famine, and the population continued to decline until the mid-20th century.

The population of England had almost doubled from 16.8 Ma in 1851 to 30.5 Ma in 1901. Ireland's population decreased rapidly, from 8.2 Ma in 1841 to less than 4.5 Ma in 1901.

The UK Office for National Statistics' 2016-based National Population Projections indicated that, if recent trends continue, the UK's population would increase by 3.6 Ma between mid-2016 to mid-2026. This represents an average annual growth rate of 0.5%. Over the same period, England is projected to grow by 5.9%; for Wales, this figure is 3.1%, while for Scotland and Northern Ireland the figures are 3.2% and 4.2% respectively. These projections do not allow for any possible effects of the UK leaving the European Union. There are 13 urban areas that exceed 500,000 inhabitants: they are centred on London, Birmingham, Glasgow, Leeds, Bradford, Leicester, Southampton, Portsmouth, Sheffield, Liverpool, Manchester, Belfast, Bristol, Newcastle upon Tyne and Nottingham.

The population of the UK in the 2011 census was 63 Ma, of whom 31 Ma were male and 32 Ma female. The 2011 census recorded the population of England as 53.0 Ma, Scotland as 5.3 Ma, Wales as 3.0 Ma, and Northern Ireland as 1.8 Ma.

In 2015, there were 777,165 recorded live births in the UK. The crude birth rate was 11.9 per 1,000 population. The total fertility rate was 1.80. In 2015, 602,782 deaths were recorded, with the crude death rate being 9.3 per 1,000. The infant mortality rate was 3.9 per 1,000 live births.

The total fertility rate is the number of children born per woman. It is based on fairly good data for the entire period. Sources: Our World In Data and Gapminder Foundation.

Age Structure

The key features of the age distribution profile for the UK population, as measured in the 2011 Census, were summarised in December 2012 by the Office for National Statistics in terms of peaks and wide bands of the pyramid reflecting high numbers of births in previous years, particularly for people aged 60-64 born following the Second World War and those aged 40-49, born during the 1960s baby boom.
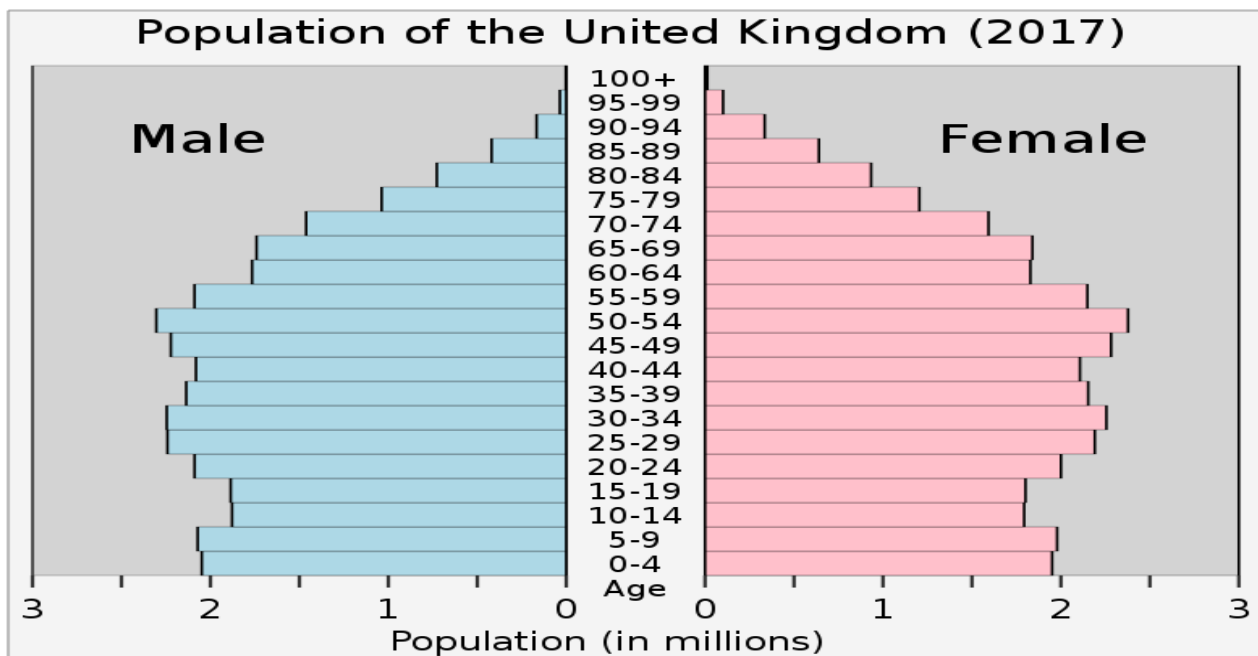
There is a smaller number of children aged five to nine years than ten years ago, which is a consequence of low numbers of births at the beginning of the 21st century, and the broadening of the pyramid in the 0-4 years category is due to a higher numbers of births in recent years.

At higher ages, females outnumber males, reflecting the higher life expectancy of females.

At lower ages, there are more males than females, reflecting that there are slightly more boys than girls born each year. The most recent UK Office for National Statistics' population estimates for mid-2016 suggest the median age of the UK population was 40.0 years.

In 2015, there were estimated to be over half a Ma people (556,270) aged 90 and over living in the UK, up from 194,670 people in 1985, there were estimated to be 14,570 centenarians (people aged 100 or over) and 850 people aged 105 or over. The UK Office for National Statistics' 2016-based National Population Projections suggest that the UK population will continue to age with the number of people aged 85 and over doubling from 1.6 Ma in mid-2016 to 3.2 Ma in mid-2041.

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

Population of the United Kingdom (2017)

Fertility

In 2012, the UK's total fertility rate (TFR) was 1.92 children per woman, below the replacement rate, which in the UK is 2.075. In 2001, the TFR was at a record low of 1.63, but it then increased every year until it reached a peak of 1.96 in 2008, before decreasing again.

The TFR was considerably higher during the 1960s 'baby boom', peaking at 2.95 children per woman in 1964. In 2012 and 2013, England and Wales's TFR decreased to 1.85. In Scotland TFR is lower: it decreased from 1.75 in 2010 to 1.67 in 2012. Northern Ireland has the highest TFR in the UK, standing at 2.02 in 2010 and 2.03 in 2012.

In 2014, 27% of births were to mothers born outside the UK, a 0.5 point increase since 2013.

The 2014 fertility rate was higher for foreign-born mothers (2.09) than UK-born mothers (1.76).

In the 2010-14 time period, the most common countries of birth for mothers (excluding the UK) were Poland, Pakistan and India; and Poland and India for fathers. Within the UK, Newham, London had the highest rate of births to non-UK mothers (76.7%) and Torfaen, Wales the lowest (3.2%).

Demographic statistics according to the World Population Review.

- One birth every 39 seconds.
- One death every 53 seconds.
- Net gain of one person every minute.
- One net migrant every 3 minutes.

Population

- UK 65,648,100.
- constituent countries:
- England 55,268,100.
- Scotland 5,404,700.
- Wales 3,113,200.
- Northern Ireland 1,862,100 (2016 est.).

Age Structure

- *0-14 years:* 17.53% (male 5,819,363/female 5,532,123).
- *15-24 years:* 11.9% (male 3,938,643/female 3,770,511).
- *25-54 years:* 40.55% (male 13,387,903/female 12,873,090).
- *55-64 years:* 11.98% (male 3,843,268/female 3,918,244).
- *65 years and over:* 18.04% (male 5,246,475/female 6,439,832) (2017 est.).

Total fertility rate

1.88 children born/woman (2017 est.) Country comparison to the world: 142nd.

Median age

- *total:* 40.5 years.
- *male:* 39.3 years.
- *female:* 41.7 years (2017 est.) Country comparison to the world: 49th.

Population growth rate

0.52% (2017 est.) Country comparison to the world: 154th.

Ethnic groups

white 87.2%, black/African/Caribbean/black British 3%, Asian/Asian British: Indian 2.3%, Asian/Asian British: Pakistani 1.9%, mixed 2%, other 3.7% (2011 est.).

Net migration rate

2.5 migrant(s)/1,000 population (2017) Country comparison to the world: 37th.

Birth rate

12.1 births/1,000 population (2017) Country comparison to the world: 166th.

Death rate

9.4 deaths/1,000 population (2017) Country comparison to the world: 55th.

Mother's mean age at first birth

28.5 years. note: data represent England and Wales only (2014).

Life expectancy at birth

total population: 80.8 years *male:* 78.6 years *female:* 83.1 years (2017) Country comparison to the world: 35th.

Religions

Christian (includes Anglican, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, Methodist) 59.5%, Muslim 4.4%, Hindu 1.3%, other 2%, unspecified 7.2%, none 25.7% (2011).

Urbanization

- *urban population:* 83.4% of total population (2018);
- *rate of urbanization:* 0.89% annual rate of change (2015-20).

School life expectancy (primary to tertiary education)

- *total:* 18 years;
- *male:* 17 years;
- *female:* 18 years (2014).

Unemployment, youth ages 15-24

- *total:* 14.6% Country comparison to the world: 91st;
- *male:* 16.2%;
- *female:* 12.9% (2015).

The British Social Attitudes Survey found in 2012 that the non-religious outnumbered Christians (48% vs 46%). Six percent identified as something else. Discrepancies found between surveys may be the result of differences in phrasing, question order, and data collection method.

In a YouGov poll 2011 35% of the total respondents were either very or fairly religious vs 63% who were not very religious or not religious at all, with the remaining 2% unsure.

The traditional religion in the UK is Christianity. In England the established church is the Church of England (Anglican). In Scotland, the Church of Scotland (a Presbyterian Church) is regarded as the 'national church' but there is not an established church.

In Wales there is no established church, with the Church in Wales having been disestablished in 1920. Likewise, in Ireland the Church of Ireland was disestablished in 1871.

In Northern Ireland and similarly in parts of Scotland, there is a sectarian divide between Roman Catholic and Protestant communities.

In the 2011 Census, rather than select one of the specified religions offered on the Census form, many people chose to write in their own religion. Some of these religions were reassigned to one of the main religions offered. In England and Wales, 241,000 people belonged to religious groups which did not fall into any of the main religions. The largest of these were Pagans (57,000) and Spiritualists (39,000). The census also recorded 177,000 people stating their religion as Jedi Knight.

These returns were classified as "No religion", along with Atheist, Agnostic, Heathen and those who ticked "Other" but did not write in any religion.

According to the 2010 Integrated Household Survey, 71% of the British population are Christian, 4% are Muslim and 21% have no religious affiliation.

The **demography of England** has since 1801 been measured by the decennial national census, and is marked by centuries of population growth and urbanisation. Due to the lack of authoritative contemporary sources, estimates of the population of England for dates prior to the first census in 1801 vary considerably.

The demography of Scotland includes all aspects of population, past and present, in the area that is now Scotland. Scotland has a population of 5,295,000 (first results of 2011 UK Census).

The population growth rate in 2011 was estimated as 0.6% per annum according to the 2011 GROS Annual Review. Covering an area of 78,782 km² (30,418 mi²), Scotland has a population density of $67.2/km^2$ (174/ mi²). Around 70% of the country's population live in the Central Lowlands – a region stretching in a northeast-southwest orientation between the major cities of Edinburgh &Glasgow, including the major settlements of Paisley, Stirling, Falkirk, Perth & Dundee.

Other concentrations of population include the northeast coast of Scotland, principally the regions around the cities of Aberdeen and Inverness, and the west coast around the town of Ayr.

The Highlands of Scotland and the island group of Eilean Siarhave the lowest population densities at $9/km^2$ (23/ mi²). Glasgow has the highest population density at $3,289/km^2$ (8,520/ mi²).

From the 1960s to early 1970s Scotland experienced a gradual increase in population; from 1974 there was a natural decrease in population, with both an excess of deaths over births and of emigration over immigration – particularly to the rest of the UK.

Fertility & Morbidity Rates

Both the Scottish Government and leading academics in Scotland had expressed some concern over the historic falling annual number of births in Scotland. In 2002, according to the GROS, the number of live births in Scotland was the lowest ever recorded, at 51,270.

In 2004, there were 4,012 more deaths than births, although for the subsequent five years this process had been reversed with 4,342 more births than deaths in 2008. The long-term reversal in the declining birth rate of the 1990s was confirmed in 2009 when the Registrar General for Scotland reported that with 60,000 births recorded in 2008, this was the highest recorded fertility rate since 1995. The population of children under age 5 grew by 6% (293,000) over the ten-year period between 2001 and 2011. However, the number of children aged 5-14 fell by 11% (69,000).

The population of people over 65 grew by 11% (85,000) and they now represent 17% of the total population and for the first time there are more people over 65 than under 15 years of age. Significantly, in 2011 there were 230,000 people over 80 years of age.

Politicians and academics noted that in the first years of the 21st century the previous trend of a net migration away from Scotland had reversed with significant immigration to Scotland from the rest of the UK. Between 2001 and 2011 Scotland's population grew by 5% (233,000), the fastest rate of growth for at least 100 years. Similarly, since 2004 there had also been a growing influx of arrivals from the new EU accession states such as Poland, Czech Republic, Lithuania and Latvia, contributing to the recent growth of the population.

Consequently, since 2002 the birth rate gradually increased with 53,957 births recorded in 2004, and in 2008 the number of live births was 60,041.

Literacy: *definition:* age 15 and over can read and write;

- *total population:* 99%;
- *male:* 99%;
- *female:* 99% (2005 est).

Higher education

95% of Scottish higher education students study in universities in Scotland.

The 2001 census revealed that 75% of people in **Wales** at the time were born in **Wales**. More generally, the 2001 census revealed that only 2.1% of the Wales population was non-white (0.88% Asian, 0.40% Chinese and 0.25% Black) and 0.61% of mixed race.

Languages

In the Late Bronze Age, Britain was part of a culture called the Atlantic Bronze Age, held together by maritime trading, which also included Ireland, France, Spain and Portugal. In contrast to the generally accepted view that Celtic originated in the context of the Hallstatt culture, since 2009,

John T. Koch and others have proposed that the origins of the Celtic languages are to be sought in Bronze Age Western Europe, especially the Iberian Peninsula. Koch et al.'s proposal has failed to find wide acceptance among experts on the Celtic languages. All the modern Brythonic languages (Breton, Cornish, Welsh) are generally considered to derive from a common ancestral language termed Brittonic, British, Common Brythonic, Old Brythonic or Proto-Brythonic, which is thought to have developed from Proto-Celtic or early Insular Celtic by the 6th century A.D.

Brythonic languages were probably spoken before the Roman invasion at least in the majority of Great Britain south of the rivers Forth and Clyde, though the Isle of Man later had a Goidelic language, Manx. Northern Scotland mainly spoke Pritennic, which became Pictish, which may have been a Brythonic language. During the period of the Roman occupation of Southern Britain (A.D. 43 to c. 410), Common Brythonic borrowed a large stock of Latin words. Approximately 800 of these Latin loan words have survived in the three modern Brythonic languages. Romano-British is the name for the Latinised form of the language used by Roman authors.

British English is spoken in the present day across the island, and developed from the Old English brought to the island by Anglo-Saxon settlers from the mid 5th century. Some 1.5 mln people speak Scots – a variety of English which some consider to be a distinct language.

An estimated 700,000 people speak Welsh, an official language in Wales. In parts of North West Scotland, Scottish Gaelic remains widely spoken. There are various regional dialects of English, and numerous languages spoken by some immigrant populations.The UK's de facto official language is English which is spoken as a first language by 95% of the population.

Six regional languages: Scots, Ulster-Scots, Welsh, Cornish, Irish and Scottish Gaelic are protected under the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages. Abilities in these languages (other than Cornish) for those aged three and above were recorded in the UK census 2011 as follows.

Cornish is spoken by around 2,500 people.

In the 2011 census 464 respondents aged three and over in Cornwall said that Cornish was their main language, amounting to 0.09% of the total population of Cornwall aged three and over.

After English, Polish was the second most common language given in the UK census 2011.

618,091 respondents aged three and over said that Polish was their main language, amounting to 1.01% of the total population of the UK aged three and over.

The French language is spoken in some parts of the Channel Islands although the islands, like the Isle of Man, are not part of the UK. British Sign Language is also common. English is by far the most commonly spoken language in Scotland.

Two regional languages of Scotland, Scottish Gaelic and Scots, are protected under the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages. Abilities in these languages for those aged three and above were recorded in the UK census 2011 as follows.

National Identity

A question on national identity was asked in the 2011 census: "what do you feel is your national identity?". Respondents could identify themselves as having more than one national identity.

In the 2011 census:

- 62% identified themselves as "Scottish only".
- 18% identified themselves as "Scottish" and "British".
- 8% identified themselves as "British only".
- 2% identified themselves as "Scottish" together with some other identity.
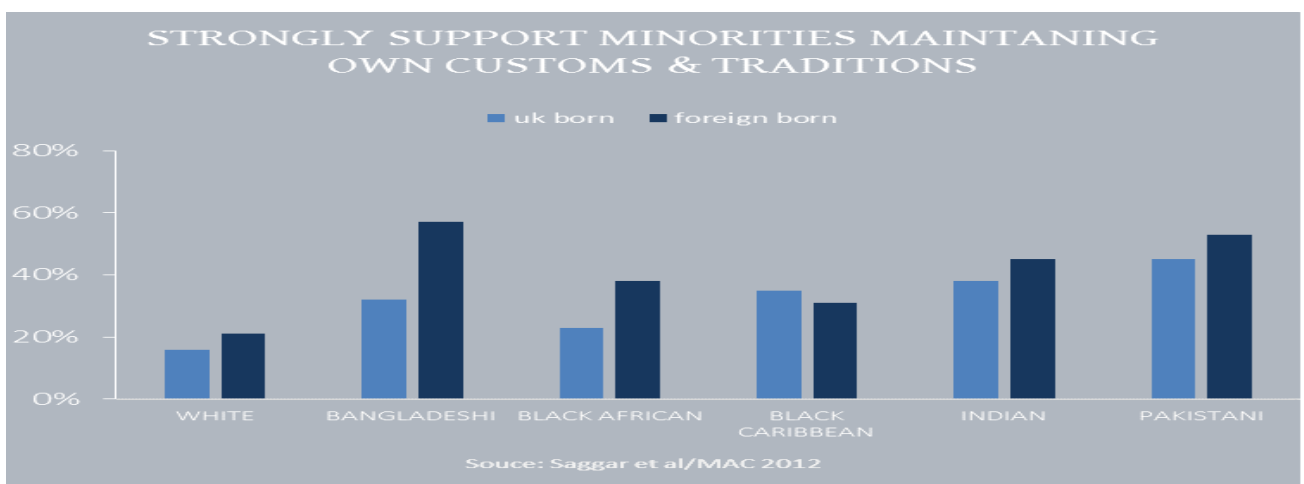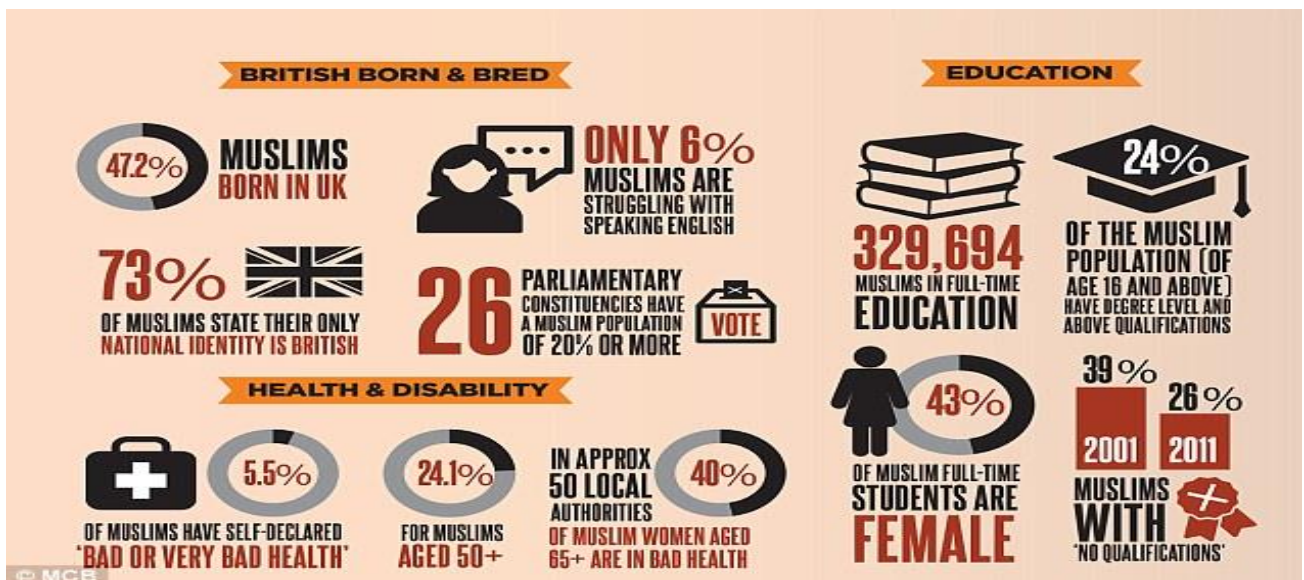- the remainder chose other national identities.

The council areas with at least 90% of the population stating some "Scottish" national identity were North Lanarkshire, Inverclyde, East Ayrshire and West Dunbartonshire. The lowest proportions of people stating some "Scottish" national identity were in Edinburgh (70%) and Aberdeen (75%).

The council areas with the highest proportions of people stating "British" as their only national identity were Argyll and Bute and Shetland, each with 12%.

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

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

Exercise 3. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

BRITISH BORN & BRED

47.2% MUSLIMS BORN IN UK

ONLY 6% MUSLIMS ARE STRUGGLING WITH SPEAKING ENGLISH

73% OF MUSLIMS STATE THEIR ONLY NATIONAL IDENTITY IS BRITISH

26 PARLIAMENTARY CONSTITUENCIES HAVE A MUSLIM POPULATION OF 20% OR MORE — VOTE

EDUCATION

329,694 MUSLIMS IN FULL-TIME EDUCATION

24% OF THE MUSLIM POPULATION (OF AGE 16 AND ABOVE) HAVE DEGREE LEVEL AND ABOVE QUALIFICATIONS

43% OF MUSLIM FULL-TIME STUDENTS ARE FEMALE

39% 2001 **26%** 2011 MUSLIMS WITH 'NO QUALIFICATIONS'

HEALTH & DISABILITY

5.5% OF MUSLIMS HAVE SELF-DECLARED 'BAD OR VERY BAD HEALTH'

24.1% FOR MUSLIMS AGED 50+

IN APPROX **50 LOCAL** AUTHORITIES **40%** OF MUSLIM WOMEN AGED 65+ ARE IN BAD HEALTH

© MCB

STRONGLY SUPPORT MINORITIES MAINTANING OWN CUSTOMS & TRADITIONS

■ uk born ■ foreign born

Souce: Saggar et al/MAC 2012

BRITISH IDENTITY & NATIONALITY

According to the British Social Attitudes Survey, there are broadly two interpretations of British identity, with ethnic and civic dimensions: The first group, which we term the ethnic dimension, contained the items about birthplace, ancestry, living in Britain, and sharing British customs and traditions.

The second, or civic group, contained the items about feeling British, respecting laws and institutions, speaking English, and having British citizenship. Of the two perspectives of British identity, the civic definition has become the dominant idea and in this capacity, Britishness is sometimes considered an institutional or overarching state identity.

This has been used to explain why first-, second- and third-generation immigrants are more likely to describe themselves as British, rather than English, Northern Irish, Scottish or Welsh, because it is an "institutional, inclusive" identity, that can be acquired through naturalisation and British nationality law; the vast majority of people in the UK who are from an ethnic minority feel British.

However, this attitude is more common in England than in Scotland or Wales; "white English people perceived themselves as English first and as British second, and most people from ethnic minority backgrounds perceived themselves as British, but none identified as English, a label they associated exclusively with white people". Contrariwise, in Scotland and Wales "there was a much stronger identification with each country than with Britain."

Studies and surveys have reported that the majority of the Scots and Welsh see themselves as both Scottish/Welsh and British though with some differences in emphasis. The Commission for Racial Equality found that with respect to notions of nationality in Britain, "the most basic, objective and uncontroversial conception of the British people is one that includes the English, the Scots & the Welsh". However, "English participants tended to think of themselves as indistinguishably English or British, while both Scottish and Welsh participants identified themselves much more readily as Scottish or Welsh than as British".

Some people opted "to combine both identities" as "they felt Scottish or Welsh, but held a British passport and were therefore British", whereas others saw themselves as exclusively Scottish or exclusively Welsh and "felt quite divorced from the British, whom they saw as the English".

Commentators have described this latter phenomenon as "nationalism", a rejection of British identity because some Scots and Welsh interpret it as "cultural imperialism imposed" upon the UK by "English ruling elites", or else a response to a historical misappropriation of equating the word "English" with "British", which has "brought about a desire among Scots, Welsh and Irish to learn more about their heritage and distinguish themselves from the broader British identity".The propensity for nationalistic feeling varies greatly across the UK, and can rise and fall over time.

The state-funded Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey, part of a joint project between the University of Ulster and Queen's University Belfast, has addressed the issue of identity in since it started polling in 1998. It reported that 37% of people identified as British, whilst 29% identified as Irish and 24% identified as Northern Irish. 3% opted to identify themselves as Ulster, whereas 7% stated 'other'. Of the two main religious groups, 68% of Protestants identified as British as did 6% of Catholics; 60% of Catholics identified as Irish as did 3% of Protestants.

21% of Protestants and 26% of Catholics identified as Northern Irish. For Northern Ireland, however, the results of the Life & Times Survey are not the whole story. The poll asks for a single preference, whereas many people easily identify as any combination of British and Irish, or British, Northern Irish and Irish, or Irish and Northern Irish. The 2014 Life & Times Survey addressed this to an extent by choosing two of the options from the identity question: British and Irish. It found that, while 28% of respondents stated they felt "British *not* Irish" and 26% felt "Irish *not* British", 39% of respondents felt some combination of both identities. 6% chose "other description".

The identity question is confounded further by identity with politics and religion, particularly by a stance on the constitutional status of Northern Ireland.
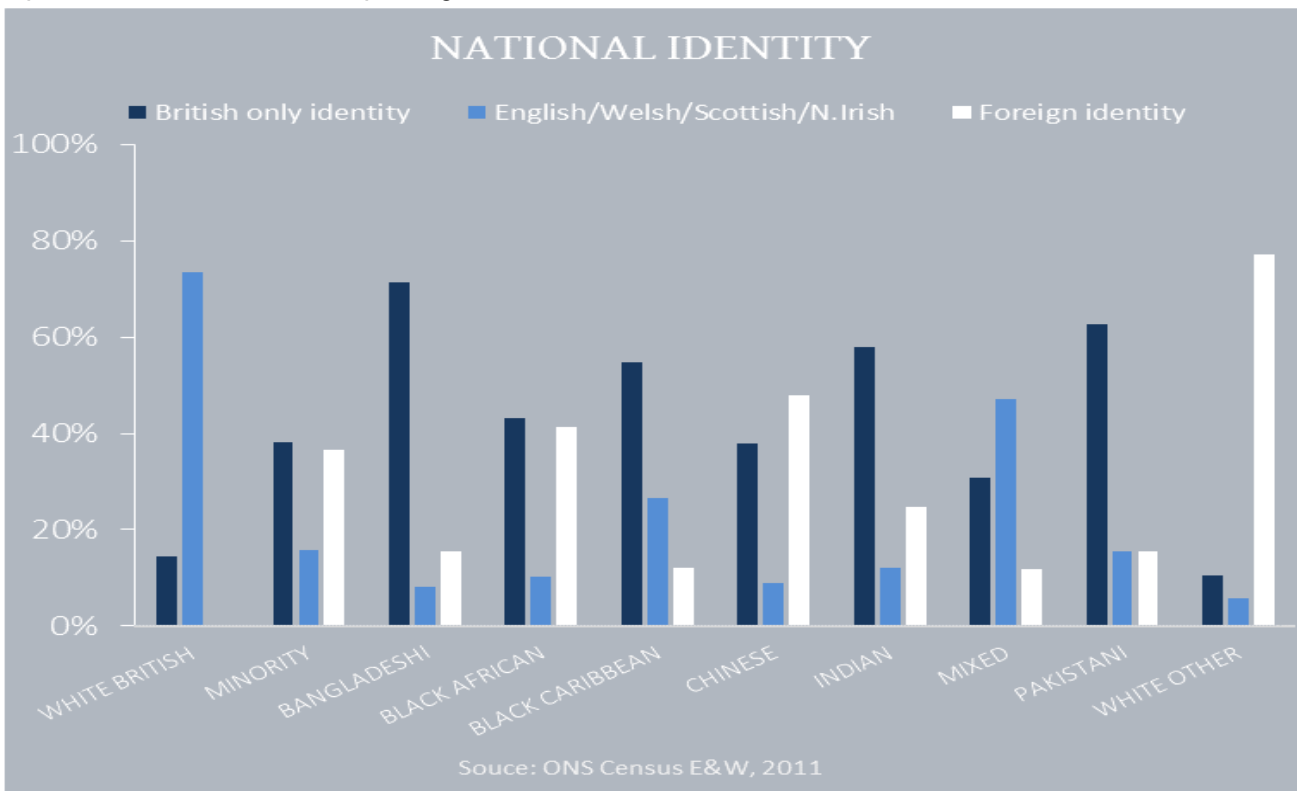
Again in 2014, the Life & Times Survey asked what respondents felt should be the "long term future for Northern Ireland". 66% of respondents felt the future should be as a part of the UK, with or without devolved government. 17% felt that Northern Ireland should unify with the Republic of Ireland.

50% of specifically Roman Catholics considered that the long-term future should be as part of the UK, with 32% opting for separation. 87% of respondents identifying as any Protestant denomination opted for remaining part of the UK, with only 4% opting for separation. Of those respondents who declared no religion, 62% opted for remaining part of the UK, with 9% opting for separation.

Following devolution and the significant broadening of autonomous governance throughout the UK in the late 1990s, debate has taken place across the UK on the relative value of full independence, an option that was rejected by the Scottish people in the Scottish independence referendum, 2014. Cornwall is administered as a county of England, but the Cornish people are a recognised national minority, included under the terms of the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities in 2014. Each of England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales has separate national governing bodies for sports and competes separately in many international sporting competitions.

Each country of the UK has a national football team, and competes as a separate national team in the various disciplines in the Commonwealth Games. At the Olympic Games, the UK is represented by the Great Britain and Northern Ireland team, although athletes from Northern Ireland can choose to join the Republic of Ireland's Olympic team. In addition to Northern Ireland having its own national governing bodies for some sports such as Association football and Netball, for others, such as rugby union and cricket, Northern Ireland participates with the Republic of Ireland in a joint All-Ireland team. England and Wales field a joint cricket team.

The UK participates in the Eurovision Song Contest as a single entity, though there have been calls for separate and Scottish and Welsh entrants. In 2018, Wales participated alone in the spin-off "Choir of the Year", placing second.

NATIONAL IDENTITY

Souce: ONS Census E&W, 2011

Immigration to the UK since 1922

Immigration to the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland since 1922 has been substantial, in particular from Ireland and the former colonies of the British Empire – such as India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, the Caribbean, South Africa, Kenya and Hong Kong – under British nationality law. Others have come as asylum seekers, seeking protection as refugees under the United Nations 1951 Refugee Convention, or from European Union (EU) member states, exercising one of the EU's Four Freedoms. About half the population increase between the 1991 and 2001 censuses was due to foreign-born immigration.

4.9 mln people (8.3 % of the population at the time) were born abroad, although the census gives no indication of their immigration status or intended length of stay.

Total net immigration reached 237,000 in 2007, an increase of 46,000 on 2006. In 2006, there were 149,035 applications for British citizenship, 32 % fewer than in 2005. The number of people granted citizenship during 2006 was 154,095, 5 % fewer than in 2005.

The largest groups of people granted British citizenship were from India, Pakistan, Somalia and the Philippines. In 2006, 134,430 people were granted settlement in the UK, a drop of 25 % on 2005.

Meanwhile, migration from Central and Eastern Europe has increased since 2004 with the accession to the European Union of eight Central and Eastern European states, since there is free movement of labour within the EU. The UK government is currently phasing in a new points-based immigration system for people from outside of the European Economic Area.

British Empire & the Commonwealth

From the mid-18th century until at least 1947, and longer in many areas, the British Empire covered a large proportion of the globe, at its peak over a third of the world's people lived under British rule. Both during this time, and following the granting of independence to most colonies after World War II, the vast majority of immigrants to the UK were from either current or former colonies, most notably those in the Indian subcontinent and the Caribbean. Following the end of the Second World War, the British Nationality Act 1948 was passed to allow the 800 mln subjects in the British Empire to live and work in the UK without needing a visa. These people filled a gap in the UK labour market for unskilled jobs and many people were specifically brought to the UK on ships.

Commonwealth immigration, made up largely of economic migrants, rose from 3,000 per year in 1953 to 46,800 in 1956 and 136,400 in 1961. The heavy numbers of migrants resulted in the establishment of a Cabinet committee in June 1950 to find "*ways which might be adopted to check the immigration into this country of coloured people from British colonial territories*".

Although the Committee recommended not introducing restrictions, the Commonwealth Immigrants Act was passed in 1962 as a response to public sentiment that the new arrivals "should return to their own countries" and that "no more of them come to this country".

The justification for the control, which is included in this Bill, which I shall describe in more detail in a few moments, is that a sizeable part of the entire population of the earth is at present legally entitled to come and stay in this already densely populated country. It amounts altogether to one-quarter of the population of the globe and at present there are no factors visible which might lead us to expect a reversal or even a modification of the immigration trend.

The new Act required migrants to have a job before they arrived, to possess special skills or who would meet the "labour needs" of the national economy. In 1965, to combat the perceived injustice in the case where the wives of British subjects could not obtain British nationality, the British Nationality Act was adopted. Shortly afterwards, refugees from Kenya and Uganda, fearing discrimination from their own national governments, began to arrive in Britain; as they had retained their British nationality granted by the 1948 Act, they were not subject to the later controls.

The Conservative MP Enoch Powell campaigned for tighter controls on immigration, which resulted in the passing of the Commonwealth Immigration Act in 1968. For the first time, the Act required migrants to have a "substantial connection with the UK", namely to be connected by birth or ancestry to a UK national. Those who did not could only obtain UK nationality at the discretion of the national authorities. One month after the adoption of the Act, Enoch Powell made his infamous Rivers of Blood speech.

By 1972, with the passing of the Immigration Act, only holders of work permits, or people with parents or grandparents born in the UK could gain entry-effectively stemming primary immigration from Commonwealth countries. The Act abolished the distinction between Commonwealth and non-Commonwealth entrants. The Conservative government allowed, amid much controversy, the immigration of 27,000 individuals displaced from Uganda. In the 1970s, an average of 72,000 immigrants were settling in the UK every year from the Commonwealth; this decreased in the 1980s and early 1990s to around 54,000 per year, only to rise again to around 97,000 by 1999. The total number of Commonwealth immigrants since 1962 is estimated at around 2.5 mln. The Ireland Act 1949 has the unusual status of recognizing the Republic of Ireland, but affirming that its citizens are not citizens of a foreign country for the purposes of any law in the UK. This act was initiated at a time when a republic withdrew from the Commonwealth of Nations after declaring itself a republic.

World War II

In the lead up to the World War II, many Germans, particularly those belonging to minorities which were persecuted under Nazi rule, such as Jews, sought to emigrate to the UK, and it is estimated that as many as 50,000 may have been successful. There were immigration caps on the number who could enter and, subsequently, some applicants were turned away. When the UK declared war on Germany, however, migration between the countries ceased.

Post-war immigration (1945-1983)

Until the Commonwealth Immigrants Act 1962, all Commonwealth citizens could enter and stay in the UK without any restriction.

The Commonwealth Immigrants Act 1962 made Citizens of the UK and Colonies (CUKCs) whose passports were not directly issued by the UK Government (passports issued by the Governor of a colony or by the Commander of a British protectorate) subject to immigration control. Indians began arriving in the UK in large numbers shortly after their country gained independence in 1947.

More than 60,000 arrived before 1955, many of whom drove buses, or worked in foundries or textile factories. Later arrivals opened corner shops or ran post offices.

The flow of Indian immigrants peaked between 1965 and 1972, boosted in particular by Idi Amin's sudden decision to expel all 50,000 Gujarati Indians from Uganda. Around 30,000 Ugandan Asians migrated to the UK.

By 1972, only holders of work permits, or people with parents or grandparents born in the UK could gain entry - significantly reducing primary immigration from Commonwealth countries.

Following the end of World War II, substantial groups of people from Soviet-controlled territories settled in Britain, particularly Poles and UKrainians. The UK recruited displaced people as so-called European Volunteer Workers in order to provide labour to industries that were required in order to aim economic recovery after the war. In the 1951 census, the Polish-born population of the UK numbered some 162,339, up from 44,642 in 1931. There was also an influx of refugees from Hungary, following the crushing of the 1956 Hungarian revolution, numbering 20,990.

During this period, British politicians began ignoring their own people's wishes on the matter of immigration. Enoch Powell gave the famous "Rivers of Blood" speech on 20 April 1968 in which he warned his audience of what he believed would be the consequences of continued unchecked immigration from the Commonwealth to Britain. Prime Minister Edward Heath sacked Powell from his Shadow Cabinet the day after the speech, and he never held another senior political post.

Powell received almost 120,000 (predominantly positive) letters and a Gallup poll at the end of April showed that 74% of those asked agreed with his speech. After the "Rivers of Blood" speech, Powell was transformed into a national public figure and won huge support across Britain. Three days after the speech, on 23 April, as the Race Relations Bill was being debated in the House of Commons, 1,000 dockers marched on Westminster protesting against Powell's "victimization", and the next day 400 meat porters from Smithfield market handed in a 92-page petition in support of Powell.

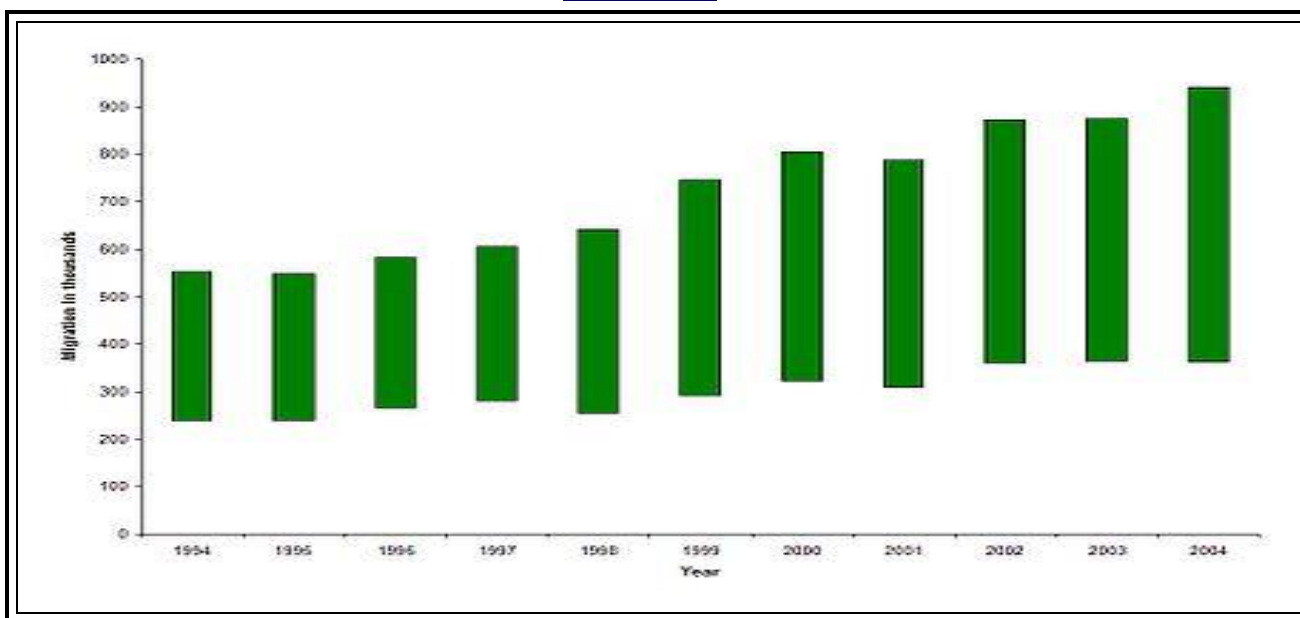### Contemporary immigration (1983 onwards)

The British Nationality Act 1981, which was enacted in 1983, distinguishes between British citizen or British Overseas Territories citizen. The former hold nationality *by descent* and the latter hold nationality *other than by descent*. Citizens by descent cannot automatically pass on British nationality to a child born outside the UK or its Overseas Territories. Immigration officers have to be satisfied about a person's nationality and identity and entry could be refused if they were not satisfied.

Non-European immigration rose significantly during the period from 1997, not least because of the government's abolition of the primary purpose rule in June 1997. This change made it easier for UK residents to bring foreign spouses into the country.

Census data reveals the number of UK residents who were born abroad (1951-2001).

total foreign-born population [   ] percentage of total population

Inflow migration (the top of the bars), outflow migration (the bottom of the bars) and net overall immigration (the bars themselves) increased between 1994 and 2004.

European Union

One of the Four Freedoms of the European Union, of which the UK is a member, is the right to the *free movement of people*. Since the expansion of the EU on 1 May 2004, the UK has accepted immigrants from Central and Eastern Europe, Malta and Cyprus, although the substantial Maltese and Greek- and Turkish-Cypriot communities were established earlier through their Commonwealth connection.

There are restrictions on the benefits that members of eight of these accession countries can claim, which are covered by the Worker Registration Scheme. Most of the other EU member states have exercised their right for temporary immigration control (which must end by 2011) over entrants from these accession states, although some are now removing these restrictions.

Self-employed workers and people who are not working (including students) are not required to register under the scheme so this figure represents a lower limit on immigration inflow. These figures do not indicate the number of immigrants who have since returned home, but 56 % of applicants in the 12 months ending 30 June 2007 reported planning to stay for a maximum of three months.

Figures for total immigration show that there was a *net* inflow of 64,000 people from the eight Central and Eastern European accession states in 2005. Research suggests that a total of around 1 mln people had moved from the new EU member states to the UK by April 2008, but that half this number have since returned home or moved on to a third country.

The Government announced that the same rules would not apply to nationals of Romania and Bulgaria when those countries acceded to the EU in 2007.

Instead, restrictions were put in place to limit migration to students, the self-employed, highly skilled migrants and food and agricultural workers. Statistics released by the Home Office indicate that in the first three months of Romania and Bulgaria's EU membership, 7,120 people (including family members) from the two countries successfully registered on the various schemes. Between April and June 2007, a further 9,335 Bulgarian and Romanian nationals had their applications granted.

This includes those registering as self-employed and self-sufficient. An additional 3,980 were issued cards for the Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS).

"Managed migration" is the term used for all legal work permits and visas and this accounts for a substantial percentage of overall immigration figures for the UK. Many of the immigrants who arrive under these schemes bring skills, which are in short supply in the UK.

This area of immigration is managed by Work Permits (UK), a department within the Home Office. Applications are made at UK Embassies or Consulates or directly to Work Permits (UK), depending upon the type of visa or permit required. Employer Sponsored Work Permits allow employers to sponsor an employee's entrance into the UK by demonstrating that they possess skills that cannot be found elsewhere. Immigrants who have education or experience in occupations, which are listed on the Skills Shortage List, may apply for a work permit. This includes engineers, doctors, nurses, actuaries and teachers.

Employers can also obtain work permits for occupations not on the Skills Shortage List by advertising the position and demonstrating that no suitable UK resident or EU worker can be found.

Approvals for a work permit are based upon the suitability of the applicant to the role, by education and/or experience. In addition there is a points-based system called the Highly Skilled Migrant Programme (HSMP) which allows a highly skilled migrant to enter the UK with the right to work without first having to find an offer of employment and without an employer needing to sponsor the visa. Points are awarded for education, work experience, past earnings, achievements in the field and achievements of the applicant's partner. There are also points for being aged under 28 and for doctors currently working in the UK. Some people work in the UK under a Working holiday visa which allows 12 months of work within a 24 month period for those aged 17 to 30.

UK Ancestry Entry Clearance allows a person to work in the UK for five years if they have a grandparent who was born in the UK, Channel Islands and Isle of Man at any time; or a grandparent born in what is now the Republic of Ireland on or before March 31, 1922.

After that, they may apply for indefinite leave to remain. Though immigration is a matter that is reserved to the UK government under the legislation that established devolution for Scotland in 1999, the Scottish Government was able to get an agreement from the Home Office for their Fresh Talent Initiative which was designed to encourage foreign graduates of Scottish universities to stay in Scotland to look for employment.

The UK is a signatory to the United Nations Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, which means that it has a responsibility under international law not to return refugees to the place where they would face persecution. Nonetheless, the issue of immigration has been a controversial political issue since the late 1990s. Both the ruling Labour Party and the opposition Conservatives have suggested policies perceived as being "tough on asylum" and the tabloid media frequently print headlines about an "immigration crisis". This is denounced by those seeking to ensure that the UK upholds its international obligations as disproportionate. Critics suggest that much of the opposition to high levels of immigration by refugees is based on racism.

Concern is raised about the treatment of those held in detention and the practice of dawn raiding families, and holding young children in immigration detention centers for long periods.

However, critics of the UK's asylum policy often point out the "safe third country rule" – the international agreement that asylum seekers must apply in the first free nation they reach, not go "asylum shopping" for the nation they prefer. EU courts have upheld this policy. Human rights organizations such as Amnesty International have argued that the government's new policies, particularly those concerning detention centers, have detrimental effects on asylum applicants and those facilities have seen a number of hunger strikes and suicides. Others have argued that recent government policies aimed at reducing "bogus" asylum claims have had detrimental impacts on those genuinely in need of protection. The UK operates a small refugee resettlement scheme in co-operation with the UNHCR known as the Gateway Protection Programme.

Illegal immigration

Illegal immigrants in the UK include those who have:
- entered the UK without authority;
- entered with false documents;
- overstayed their visas.

Although it is difficult to know how many people reside in the UK illegally, a Home Office study released estimated a population of between 310,000 and 570,000. London Citizens, a coalition of community organizations, is running a regularization campaign called *Strangers into Citizens*, backed by figures including the leader of the Catholic Church in England and Wales.

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

Exercise 2. State the function of the pronoun "it" and translate the sentences.

- It is imperative to bring about the cessation of the arms race, which maintains an explosive situation in the world.
- It seems that a respect for other countries' sovereignty and individuality, non-interference in each other's internal affairs, equality and other high principles go against the grain of cold warriors.
- The non-alignment movement is developing becoming a powerful international political force.
- The growing non-alignment movement faces difficulties because countries in it have different social systems and quite different development levels.
- It is often stated that democratic rights only take on full meaning when there is detente. So we have to fight in every way to make detente real.

Exercise 3. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

Exercise 4. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 5. Translate the words and word-combinations into Russian.

Refugees; persecution; poverty; religious persecution; descendants; to keep one's links alive; definable ethnic group; to be descended from; Nazi persecution; great eminence; contributions to; academic life; mixed marriages; strong attachment to; community; practical purposes; to assimilate with; to settled in; a distinct national identity; to run one's own businesses; to excel; to remain closely knit; to reflect the conflict within; internal affairs; sovereignty and individuality; non-interference in; non-alignment movement; to face difficulties; different development levels; détente; legal immigrant; illegal immigrant; political immigrant; long-term immigrant; short-term immigrant; immigrant alien; immigration; documented immigration; undocumented immigration; migration; emigration; emigration of labourers; forced emigration; out-migration; immigrant; to immigrate; to immigrate from one country in(to) another.

Exercise 6. Read the text on immigrants from Europe and give the main idea of it.

The British have a long tradition of receiving immigrants from across the seas, including *refugees* from *persecution* or poverty. 300 years ago, a few thousand Protestant refugees from *religious persecution* came from France and some other parts of Europe, but their descendants are by now no longer a distinct group. In the 18th century labourers from Ireland built the canals, until a later generation built the railways. When Irish people come to live in Great Britain they are not considered to be foreign, and it is calculated that nearly a mln people now in Britain can be recognised as Irish in their *origins*. Some keep their Irish links alive; there are two newspaper shops in one West London Street, both selling many copies of twenty local papers from different parts of Ireland.

The oldest definable ethnic group is Jewish. In numbers, it is small. Depending on definitions, there are 300,000-400,000 Jews in Britain, or well under 1 % of the whole population. Most British Jews are *descended from* people who came from Eastern Europe in the 19th century. Before then a small number of Sephardim Jews were *well established* in international trade and banking.

In the 1930s there were refugees from Nazi persecution, most of them highly educated.

Many Jews from all these groups have *attained* great *eminence* through their contributions to the arts and academic life. Those who were concerned with politics were mainly active on the left. From 1950 to 1979, there were always at least twenty-five Jewish Labour members of the House of Commons, though few of them were much concerned with Jewish interests.

However, by the 1970s more Jews were moving to the right in politics: in 1989, there were only seven Jewish Labour MPs *as opposed to* sixteen Conservative MPs, including several ministers.

The Jewish population is now *declining slowly*, because of mixed marriages. Some Jews keep a strong attachment to their religion and to their community. Many live in a middle-class area of North London. In big towns, Poles, UKrainians and others have their own churches.

Exercise 7. Translate these word-combinations and make up sentences with them.

Man of eminence; to do refuge; to find, take refuge; to give, provide refuge; to seek refuge; to take refuge from the storm; wildlife refuge; to suffer persecution; relentless persecution; political persecution; racial persecution; religious persecution; persecution mania.

Exercise 8. Answer the questions.

1. Where has Britain received large numbers of immigrants? 2. What is the number of people with Commonwealth origins? 3. Where is the vast majority settled? 4. Where do many Asians work? 5. How do immigrants feel in Britain? 6. Where have people of West Indian origin excelled? 7. What is the case with election of black and coloured people to the House of Commons nowadays?

Exercise 9. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	A c t i v i t y			
	Country	**When**	**Where**	**Score**

IMMIGRANTS FROM OUTSIDE EUROPE

Like other northern European countries, Britain has received large numbers of immigrants from the Third World, but in Britain's case, they have come mostly from the Indian subcontinent or the Caribbean.

There are now well over a mln people whose origins were in the Indian subcontinent and 600,000 from the Caribbean. The number of people with Commonwealth origins, including those from Africa and the Far East, is about 4 per cent of the whole population.

The vast majority are in London and the big cities of the midlands, rather fewer in other regions – though there is a big Muslim Asian community in West Yorkshire.

Restrictions on immigration from the Commonwealth were first imposed in the 1960s, and have been kept, with variations, since that time. There are a few industrial areas where big Asian communities remain closely knit, with many of their people working in local factories.

In one of these, Southall in West London, Sikhs and Hindus have reflected the conflict within India. In the West Yorkshire area, there are many separate schools for those Muslims who want them.

Some Muslims and Hindus at first arrived in Britain with English as their second language. Some came knowing no English, but equipped to work in factories along with others speaking the same language. Many Asians work for public services and many others run their own businesses.

Together with their Chinese competitors (kept mainly by people from Hong Kong), Indian restaurants provide a fine addition to the great variety of eating places available in most towns. Londoners and other city people also have good reason to be grateful to the Asians who have taken over many of the small shops. Typically these are run by families who keep them open late at night and on Sundays, and help to keep the streets alive in spite of the competition of the supermarkets.

There is by now a big Asian middle class, based on both business and the professions.

In the 1960s, some newly independent Commonwealth countries in East Africa drove out the Indians who over the past few generations had established themselves as leaders of their commerce.

Some brought their experience and skill to Britain, although they were discouraged by the Labour government then in power. It now seems that children of Indian origin are having a better success rate with secondary school examinations than the native British children. For the immigrants from the Caribbean, coming from societies with many of their customs as well as their first language close to the British pattern, there was less fundamental novelty in the new homeland.

However, some were disappointed when they could not get jobs of the same status as those they had left behind. In some respects, the people from the Caribbean have had experiences similar to those of American blacks who have moved to northern cities of the United States, with high unemployment for unqualified young black people.

People of West Indian origin have excelled in several forms of athletic sports, and Britain's most recent teams at Olympic Games have included many black people.
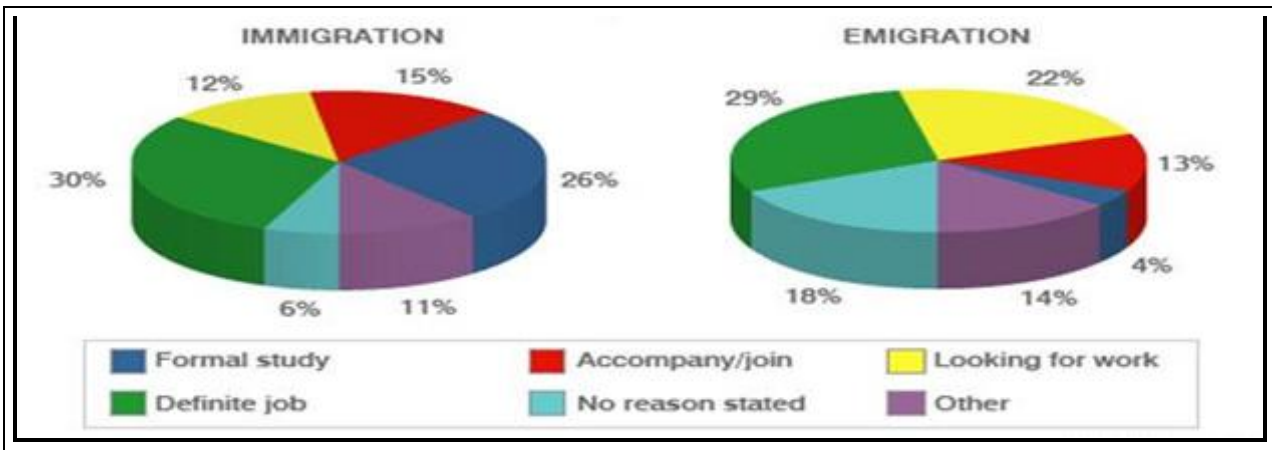
The Caribbean influence on song and dance is obvious. The House of Commons had two members of Indian origin elected in the 1890s, but none from 1929 to 1987. In the 1980s, there was dissatisfaction at the continuing failure of local parties to choose black or Asian candidates for seats, which a party could hope to win. A demand for the establishment of "black sections" of the Labour Party (implying some kind of quota) was rejected by the leadership. However, at the election of 1987 four black or Asian Labour candidates were elected to the House of Commons. A further twenty-four candidates were defeated, twenty-two of them in constituencies the party could not hope to win.

Exercise 1. Render the score of the text on immigrants from outside Europe in English.

Exercise 2. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

Exercise 3. Read the text & pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 4. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

IMMIGRATION / EMIGRATION

Ethnicity	All	UK-born	Foreign-born
White British	100%	100%	92%
Indian	73%	97%	64%
Pakistani	81%	95%	71%
Bangladeshi	80%	92%	77%
Black Caribbean	88%	97%	79%
Black African	51%	86%	45%

Ethnicity	Fairly or very strongly feeling they belong to Britain		Fairly or very strongly feeling they belong to the local area	
	Local area more than half of same ethnicity	Local area less than half of same ethnicity	Local area more than half of same ethnicity	Local area less than half of same ethnicity
White British	85%	79%	74%	58%
Indian	91%	88%	79%	71%
Pakistani	90%	87%	84%	80%
Bangladeshi	84%	90%	81%	76%
Black Caribbean	83%	84%	80%	73%
Black African	84%	84%	79%	63%

KEY FINDINGS

83% of Britons say there is a population crisis	25% think Immigration has led to a rich and varied culture in Britain
69% believe special treatment of immigrants means britons "lose out"	69% believe that multiculturalism isn't working
84% think immigration should be cut or stopped	60% say immigartion makes Britain more dangerous
66% believe migrants undercut British workers and take their jobs	58% think british culture is diluted by immigration
39% think immigartion has led to "no-go" are as near their home	30% claim they never or very rarely interact with ethnic minorities

UK POPULATION IS...
94% identify as heterosexual
87% are ethnic white
33% 40-64 years of age
51% / 49%
working class, middle class, upper class
6% / 46% / 48%
10% Great White Males: straight, white, middle-class, middle-aged men

ENGLISH PEOPLE

The English people are a nation and an ethnic group native to England who speak the English language. The English identity is of early medieval origin, when they were known in Old English as the *Angelcynn* ("family of the Angles"). Their ethnonym is derived from the Angles, one of the Germanic peoples who migrated to Great Britain around the 5th century AD. England is one of the countries of the UK, and the majority of people living there are British citizens.

Historically, the English population is descended from several peoples – the earlier Celtic Britons (or Brythons) and the Germanic tribes that settled in Britain following the withdrawal of the Romans, including Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians.

Collectively known as the Anglo-Saxons, they founded what was to become England (from the Old English *Englaland*) along with the later Danes, Anglo-Normans and other groups. In the Acts of Union 1707, the Kingdom of England was succeeded by the Kingdom of Great Britain.

Over the years, English customs and identity have become fairly closely aligned with British customs and identity in general. Today many English people have recent forebears from other parts of the UK, while some are also descended from more recent immigrants from other European countries and from the Commonwealth. The English people are the source of the English language, the Westminster system, the common law system and numerous major sports such as cricket, football, rugby union, rugby.

The concept of an "English nation" (as opposed to a British one) has become increasingly popular after the devolution process in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland resulted in the four nations having semi-independent political and legal systems. Although England itself has no devolved government, the 1990s witnessed a rise in English self-consciousness.

This is linked to the expressions of national self-awareness of the other British nations of Wales and Scotland – which take their most solid form in the new devolved political arrangements within the UK – and the waning of a shared British national identity with the growing distance between the end of the British Empire and the present. Many recent immigrants to England have assumed a solely British identity, while others have developed dual or mixed identities.

Use of the word "English" to describe Britons from ethnic minorities in England is complicated by most non-white people in England identifying as British rather than English. In their 2004 Annual Population Survey, the Office for National Statistics compared the *ethnic* identities of British people with their perceived national identity. They found that while 58% of white people in England described their nationality as "English", the vast majority of non-white people called themselves "British".

Relationship to Britishness

It is unclear how many British people consider themselves English. In the 2001 UK census, respondents were invited to state their ethnicity, but while there were tick boxes for "Irish" and for 'Scottish', there were none for "English", or "Welsh", who were subsumed into the general heading 'White British'. Following complaints about this, the 2011 census was changed to "allow respondents to record their English, Welsh, Scottish, Northern Irish, Irish or other identity".
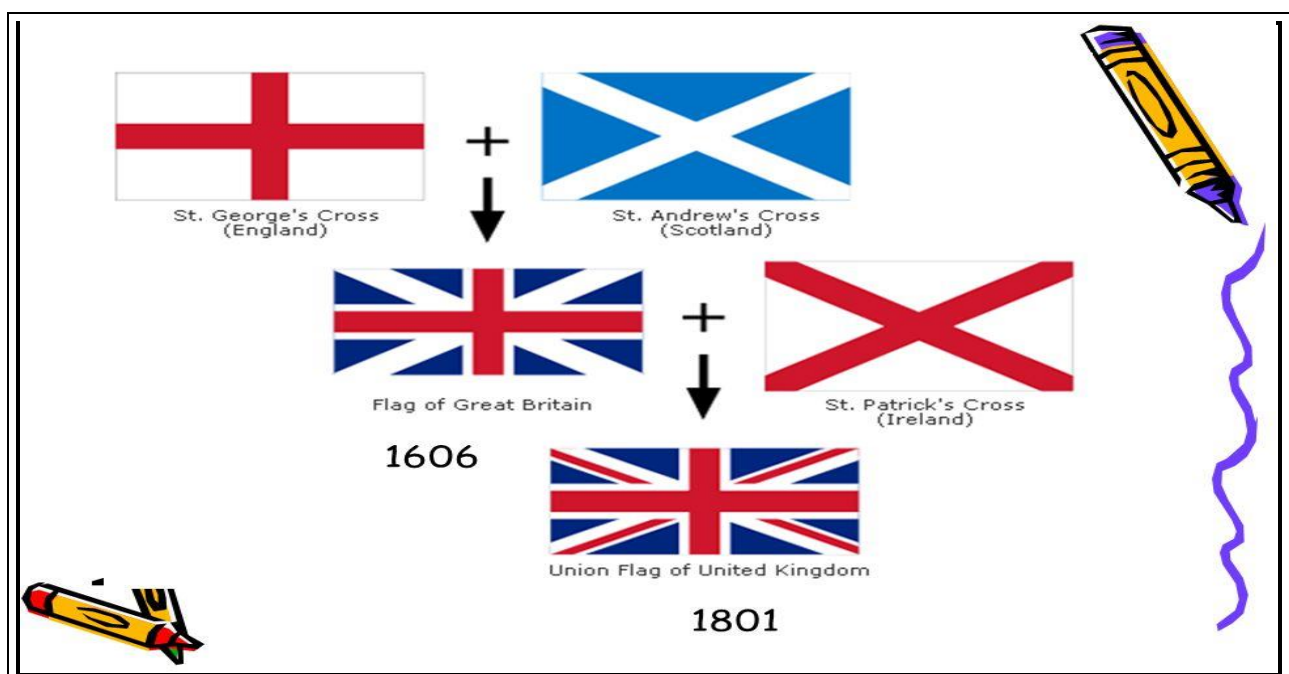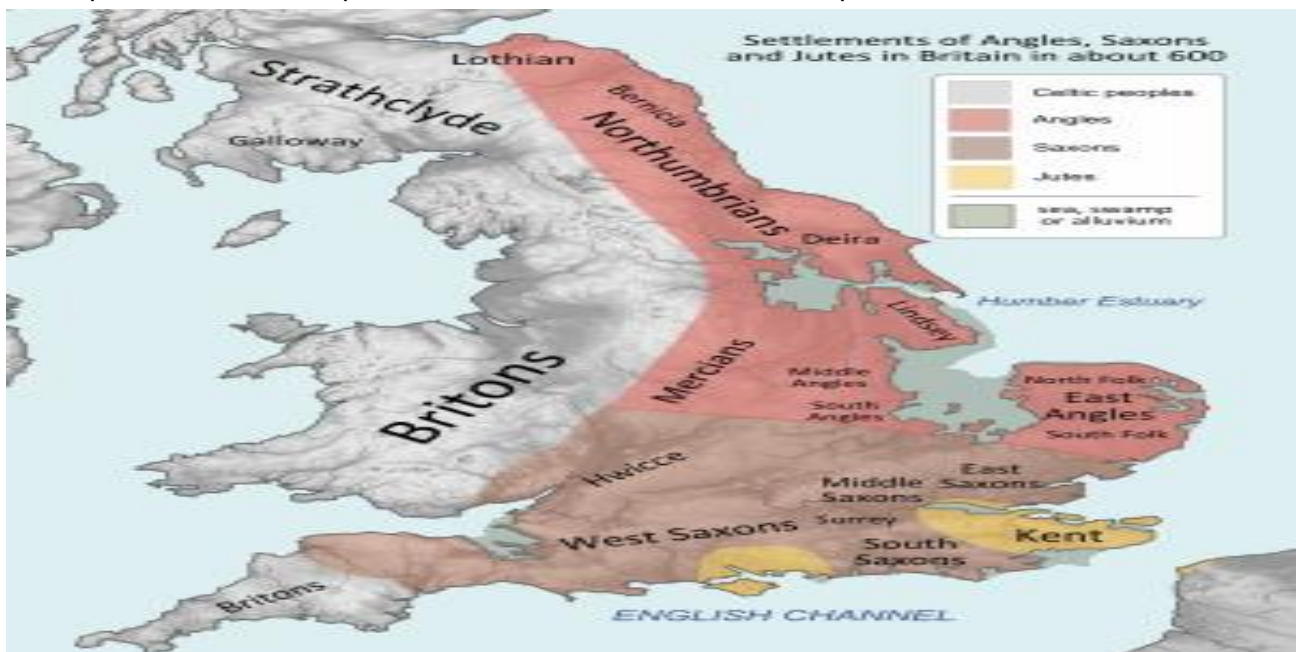
Another complication in defining the English is a common tendency for the words "English" and "British" to be used interchangeably, especially overseas. In his study of English identity, Krishan Kumar describes a common slip of the tongue in which people say "English, I mean British". He notes that this slip is normally made only by the English themselves and by foreigners: "Non-English members of the UK rarely say "British" when they mean "English". Kumar suggests that although this blurring is a sign of England's dominant position with the UK, it is "problematic for the English when it comes to conceiving of their national identity. It tells of the difficulty that most English people have of distinguishing themselves, in a collective way, from the other inhabitants of the British Isles".

In 1965, the historian A. J. P. Taylor wrote, "When the *Oxford History of England* was launched a generation ago, "England" was still an all-embracing word. It meant indiscriminately England and Wales; Great Britain; the UK; and even the British Empire.

Foreigners used it as the name of a Great Power and indeed continue to do so. Bonar Law, by origin a Scotch Canadian, was not ashamed to describe himself as "Prime Minister of England". Now terms have become more rigorous. The use of "England" except for a geographic area brings protests, especially from the Scotch."

However, although Taylor believed this blurring effect was dying out, Norman Davies lists numerous examples in history books of "British" still being used to mean "English" and vice versa.

In December 2010, Matthew Parris in *The Spectator*, analysing the use of "English" over"British", argued that English identity, rather than growing, had existed all along but has recently been unmasked from behind a veneer of Britishness. These and other English cultural characteristics have spread worldwide, in part as a result of the former British Empire.

There is a debate between historians, geneticists and others about the extent, to which historical changes in the culture of the British Isles corresponds to historical migration events of Germanic tribes, and to the extent of these migrations. The traditional view of historians, based on contemporary accounts and linguistic evidence, was that the English are primarily descended from the Anglo-Saxons, the term used to describe the various Germanic tribes that migrated to the island of Great Britain following the end of the Roman occupation of Britain, with assimilation of later migrants such as the Norse Vikings and Normans.

This belief is now regarded by many historians as incorrect, on the basis of more recent genetic and archaeological research. Based on a re-estimation of the number of settlers, some have taken the view that it is highly unlikely that the British Celtic-speaking population was substantially displaced by the Anglo-Saxons and that instead a process of acculturation took place, with an Anglo-Saxon ruling elite imposing their culture on the local populations. Research into the genetic history of the British Isles, conducted by Stephen Oppenheimer in 2007 appears to support this theory, not showing a clear dividing line between the English and their 'Celtic' neighbours but a gradual clinal change from west coast Britain to east coast Britain, originating from upper palaeolithic & Mesolithic era variations in a pre-Indo-European population, which Oppenheimer argues form the basis of the modern population of the British Isles rather than Germanic tribes or Celts.

More recent genetic studies of ancient British DNA have refuted the hypothesis that the Anglo-Saxon invaders formed an elite class largely separate from the indigenous population, finding that samples from culturally Anglo-Saxon graveyards contained individuals who were more Celtic, suggesting a high level of intermingling between the Anglo-Saxons and the native Britons. The 2016 study authored by Stephan Schiffels et al. found the Anglo-Saxons to have significantly impacted the genetic composition of the British Isles, so that on average the contemporary East English population derives 38 % of its ancestry from Anglo-Saxon migrations, with this proportion varying in other parts of Britain that saw less of the migration or the migration of different Germanic tribes.

The theory that the English people are primarily descended from Anglo-Saxons is based largely on the dramatic cultural changes in Britain following their migration. The Celtic language was almost totally displaced by Old English and there was a complete shift towards North-West German farming methods and pottery styles. The Brythonic languages such as Cornish, Cumbric and Welsh, held on for several centuries in parts of western England such as Cornwall, Devon, Cumbria and a part of Lancashire. Many historians, while making allowance for the limited survival of the Britons in England, hold to the view that there was significant displacement of the indigenous population after the Germanic migrations.

Early Middle Ages

The first people to be called "English" were the Anglo-Saxons, a group of closely related Germanic tribes that began migrating to eastern & southern Great Britain, from southern Denmark & northern Germany, in the 5th century A.D., after the Romans had withdrawn from Britain. The Anglo-Saxons gave their name to England (*Engla land*, meaning "Land of the Angles") and to the English.

The Anglo-Saxons arrived in a land that was already populated by people commonly referred to as the "Romano-British" – the descendants of the native Brythonic-speaking population that lived in the area of Britain under Roman rule during the 1st-5th centuries A.D.

The multi-ethnic nature of the Roman Empire meant that small numbers of other peoples may have been present in England before the Anglo-Saxons arrived. There is archaeological evidence, for example, of an early North African presence in a Roman garrison at Aballava, now Burgh-by-Sands, in Cumbria: a 4th-century inscription says that the Roman military "unit of Aurelian Moors" from Mauretania (Morocco) was stationed there.

Although the Roman Empire incorporated peoples from far and wide, genetic studies suggest the Romans did not significantly mix into the British population. The exact nature of the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons and their relationship with the Romano-British is a matter of debate. Traditionally, it was believed that a mass invasion by various Anglo-Saxon tribes largely displaced the indigenous British population in southern and eastern Great Britain (modern-day England with the exception of Cornwall).

This was supported by the writings of Gildas, the only contemporary historical account of the period, describing slaughter and starvation of native Britons by invading tribes. Furthermore, the English language contains no more than a handful of words borrowed from Brythonic sources.

However, this view has been re-evaluated by some archaeologists and historians since the 1960s; more recently supported by genetic studies, which see only minimal evidence for mass displacement.

Archaeologist Francis Pryor has stated that he "can't see any evidence for *bona fide* mass migrations after the Neolithic." While the historian Malcolm Todd writes "It is much more likely that a large proportion of the British population remained in place and was progressively dominated by a Germanic aristocracy, in some cases marrying into it and leaving Celtic names in the, admittedly very dubious, early lists of Anglo-Saxon dynasties.

But how we identify the surviving Britons in areas of predominantly Anglo-Saxon settlement, either archaeologically or linguistically, is still one of the deepest problems of early English history."

In a survey of the genes of British and Irish men, even those British regions that were most genetically similar to (Germanic speaking) continental regions were still more genetically British than continental: "When included in the PC analysis, the Frisians were more "Continental" than any of the British samples, although they were somewhat closer to the British ones than the North German/Denmark sample. The part of mainland Britain that has the most Continental input is Central England, but even here the AMH+1 frequency, not below 44% (Southwell), is higher than the 35% observed in the Frisians. These results demonstrate that even with the choice of Frisians as a source for the Anglo-Saxons, there is a clear indication of a continuing indigenous component in the English paternal genetic makeup."

In 2016, through the investigation of burials using ancient DNA techniques, researchers found evidence of intermarriage in the earliest phase of Anglo-Saxon settlement. By studying rare mutations and employing whole genome sequencing, it was claimed that the continental and insular origins of the ancient remains could be discriminated, and it was calculated that 25-40% of the ancestry of the modern English is attributable to continental "Anglo-Saxon" origins.

Vikings & the Danelaw

From about 800 A.D. waves of Danish Viking assaults on the coastlines of the British Isles were gradually followed by a succession of Danish settlers in England. At first, the Vikings were very much considered a separate people from the English. This separation was enshrined when Alfred the Great signed the Treaty of Alfred and Guthrum to establish the Danelaw, a division of England between English and Danish rule, with the Danes occupying northern and eastern England.

However, Alfred's successors subsequently won military victories against the Danes, incorporating much of the Danelaw into the nascent kingdom of England. Danish invasions continued into the 11th century, and there were both English and Danish kings in the period following the unification of England (for example, Æthelred II (978-1013 & 1014-1016) was English but Cnut (1016-1035) was Danish). Gradually, the Danes in England came to be seen as "English". They had a noticeable impact on the English language: many English words, such as *anger*, *ball*, *egg*, *got*, *knife*, *take*, and *they*, are of Old Norse origin, and place names that end in *-thwaite* and *-by* are Scandinavian in origin.

Southern Great Britain in A.D. 600 after the Anglo-Saxon settlement, showing England's division into multiple petty kingdoms. The English population was not politically unified until the 10th century. Before then, it consisted of a number of petty kingdoms which gradually coalesced into a Heptarchy of seven powerful states, the most powerful of which were Mercia and Wessex.

The English nation state began to form when the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms united against Danish Viking invasions, which began around 800 A.D. Over the following century and a half England was for the most part a politically unified entity, and remained permanently so after 959.

The nation of England was formed in 937 by Æthelstan of Wessex after the Battle of Brunanburh, as Wessex grew from a relatively small kingdom in the South West to become the founder of the Kingdom of the English, incorporating all Anglo-Saxon kingdoms and the Danelaw.

Norman & Angevin Rule

The Norman conquest of England during 1066 brought Anglo-Saxon and Danish rule of England to an end, as the new French speaking Norman elite almost universally replaced the Anglo-Saxon aristocracy and church leaders.

After the conquest, "English" normally included all natives of England, whether they were of Anglo-Saxon, Scandinavian or Celtic ancestry, to distinguish them from the Norman invaders, who were regarded as "Norman" even if born in England, for a generation or two after the Conquest.

The Norman dynasty ruled England for 87 years until the death of King Stephen in 1154, when the succession passed to Henry II, House of Plantagenet (based in France), and England became part of the Angevin Empire until 1399. Various contemporary sources suggest that within 50 years of the invasion most of the Normans outside the royal court had switched to English, with Anglo-Norman remaining the prestige language of government and law largely out of social inertia.

Orderic Vitalis, a historian born in 1075 and the son of a Norman knight, said that he learned French only as a second language. Anglo-Norman continued to be used by the Plantagenet kings until Edward I came to the throne. Over time the English language became more important even in the court, and the Normans were gradually assimilated, until, by the 14th century, both rulers and subjects regarded themselves as English and spoke the English language. Despite the assimilation of the Normans, the distinction between "English" and "French" survived in official documents long after it had fallen out of common use, in particular in the legal phrase *Presentment of Englishry* (a rule by which a hundred had to prove an unidentified murdered body found on their soil to be that of an Englishman, rather than a Norman, if they wanted to avoid a fine). This law was abolished in 1340.

Since the 18th century, England has been one part of a wider political entity covering all or part of the British Isles, which today is called the UK. Wales was annexed by England by the Laws in Wales Acts 1535-1542, which incorporated Wales into the English state.

A new British identity was subsequently developed when James VI of Scotland became James I of England as well, and expressed the desire to be known as the monarch of Britain.

In 1707, England formed a union with Scotland by passing an Act of Union in March 1707 that ratified the Treaty of Union. The Parliament of Scotland had previously passed its own Act of Union, so the Kingdom of Great Britain was born on 1 May 1707.

In 1801, another Act of Union formed a union between the Kingdom of Great Britain and the Kingdom of Ireland, creating the UK of Great Britain and Ireland. In 1922, about two-thirds of the Irish population (those who lived in 26 of the 32 counties of Ireland), left the UK to form the Irish Free State. The remainder became the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, although this name was not introduced until 1927, after some years in which the term "UK" had been little used. Throughout the history of the UK, the English have been dominant in population and in political weight. As a consequence, notions of "Englishness" and "Britishness" are often very similar.

Immigration & Assimilation

At the same time, after the Union of 1707, the English, along with the other peoples of the British Isles, have been encouraged to think of themselves as British rather than to identify themselves with the constituent nations. England has been the destination of varied numbers of migrants at different periods from the 17th century onwards.

While some members of these groups seek to practise a form of pluralism, attempting to maintain a separate ethnic identity, others have assimilated and intermarried with the English.

Since Oliver Cromwell's resettlement of the Jews in 1656, there have been waves of Jewish immigration from Russia in the 19th century and from Germany in the 20th.

After the French king Louis XIV declared Protestantism illegal in 1685 in the Edict of Fontainebleau, an estimated 50,000 Protestant Huguenots fled to England. Due to sustained and sometimes mass emigration of the Irish, current estimates indicate that around 6 mln people in the UK have at least one grandparent born in the Republic of Ireland. There has been a black presence in England since the 16th century due to the slave trade, and an Indian presence since at least the 17th century because of the East India Company and British Raj. Black and Asian populations have grown throughout the UK generally, as immigration from the British Empire and the subsequent Commonwealth of Nations was encouraged due to labour shortages during post-war rebuilding.

However, these groups are often still considered to be ethnic minorities and research has shown that black and Asian people in the UK are more likely to identify as British rather than with one of the state's four constituent nations, including England.

Current National & Political Identity

The 1990s witnessed a resurgence of English national identity. Survey data shows a rise in the number of people in England describing their national identity as English and a fall in the number describing themselves as British. Today, black and minority ethnic people of England still generally identify as British rather than English to a greater extent than their white counterparts; however, groups such as the Campaign for an English Parliament (CEP) suggest the emergence of a broader civic and multi-ethnic English nationhood. Scholars and journalists have noted a rise in English self-consciousness, with increased use of the English flag, particularly at football matches where the Union flag was previously more commonly flown by fans. This perceived rise in English self-consciousness has been attributed to the devolution in the late 1990s of some powers to the Scottish Parliament and National Assembly for Wales. In policy areas for which the devolved administrations in Scotland, Wales & Northern Ireland have responsibility, the UK Parliament votes on laws that consequently only apply to England.

Because the Westminster Parliament is composed of MPs from throughout the UK, this has given rise to the "West Lothian question", a reference to the situation in which MPs representing constituencies outside England can vote on matters affecting only England, but MPs cannot vote on the same matters in relation to the other parts of the UK. Consequently, groups such as the CEP have called for the creation of a devolved English Parliament, claiming that there is now a discriminatory democratic deficit against the English. The establishment of an English parliament has also been backed by a number of Scottish and Welsh nationalists.

Writer Paul Johnson has suggested that like most dominant groups, the English have only demonstrated interest in their ethnic self-definition when they were feeling oppressed.

John Curtice argues that "In the early years of devolution...there was little sign" of an English backlash against devolution for Scotland and Wales, but that more recently survey data shows tentative signs of "a form of English nationalism...beginning to emerge among the general public".

Michael Kenny, Richard English and Richard Hayton, meanwhile, argue that the resurgence in English nationalism predates devolution, being observable in the early 1990s, but that this resurgence does not necessarily have negative implications for the perception of the UK as a political union.

Others question whether devolution has led to a rise in English national identity at all, arguing that survey data fails to portray the complex nature of national identities, with many people considering themselves both English *and* British. Recent surveys of public opinion on the establishment of an English parliament have given widely varying conclusions. In the first five years of devolution for Scotland and Wales, support in England for the establishment of an English parliament was low at between 16 and 19%, according to successive British Social Attitudes Surveys.

A report, based on the British Social Attitudes Survey, published in December 2010 suggests that only 29% of people in England support the establishment of an English parliament, though this figure had risen from 17% in 2007. One 2007 poll carried out for BBC *Newsnight*, however, found that 61 % would support such a parliament being established Krishan Kumar notes that support for measures to ensure that only English MPs can vote on legislation that applies only to England is generally higher than that for the establishment of an English parliament, although support for both varies depending on the timing of the opinion poll and the wording of the question. Electoral support for English nationalist parties is low, even though there is public support for many of the policies they espouse. The English Democrats gained just 64,826 votes in the 2010 UK general election, accounting for 0.3 % of all votes cast in England. Kumar argued in 2010 that "despite devolution and occasional bursts of English nationalism – more an expression of exasperation with the Scots or Northern Irish – the English remain on the whole satisfied with current constitutional arrangements".

English Diaspora

From the earliest times English people have left England to settle in other parts of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, but it is not possible to identify their numbers, as British censuses have historically not invited respondents to identify themselves as English. However, the census does record place of birth, revealing that 8.08% of Scotland's population, 3.66% of the population of Northern Ireland and 20% of the Welsh population were born in England.

Similarly, the census of the Republic of Ireland does not collect information on ethnicity, but it does record that there are over 200,000 people living in Ireland who were born in England and Wales.

English ethnic descent and emigrant communities are found primarily in the Western World, and in some places, settled in significant numbers. Substantial populations descended from English colonists and immigrants exist in the United States, Canada, Australia, South Africa and New Zealand.

United States

In the 2016 American Community Survey, English Americans were (7.4%) of the United States population behind the German Americans (13.9%) and Irish Americans (10.0%).

However, demographers regard this as a serious undercount, as the index of inconsistency is high, and many, if not most, people from English stock have a tendency (since the introduction of a new "American" category in the 2000 census) to identify as simply Americans or if of mixed European ancestry, identify with a more recent and differentiated ethnic group. Americans of English heritage are seen and identify, as simply "American" due to the many historic cultural ties between England and the U.S. and their influence on the country's population. Relative to ethnic groups of other European origins, this may be due to the early establishment of English settlements; as well as to non-English groups having emigrated in order to establish significant communities.

Canada

In the Canada 2016 Census, 'English' was the most common ethnic origin (ethnic origin refers to the ethnic or cultural group(s) to which the respondent's ancestors belong) recorded by respondents; 6,320,085 people or 18.3% of the population self-identified themselves as wholly or partly English.

On the other hand, people identifying as Canadian but not English may have previously identified as English before the option of identifying as Canadian was available.

Australia

From the beginning of the colonial era until the mid-20th century, the vast majority of settlers to Australia were from the British Isles, with the English being the dominant group. Among the leading ancestries, increases in Australian, Irish and German ancestries and decreases in English, Scottish and Welsh ancestries appear to reflect such shifts in perception or reporting. These reporting shifts at least partly resulted from changes in the design of the census question, in particular the introduction of a tick box format in 2001.

English Australians have come from the south than the north of England. Australians of English descent, are both the single largest ethnic group in Australia and the largest "ancestry" identity in the Australian census. In the 2016 census, 7.8 mln or 36.1% of the population identified as "English" or a combination including English, a numerical increase from 7.2 mln over the 2011 census figure. The census also documented 907,572 residents or 3.9% of Australia as being born in England, and are the largest overseas-born population.

Other Communities

Since the 1980s there have been increasingly large numbers of English people, estimated at over 3 mln, permanently or semi-permanently living in Spain and France, drawn there by the climate and cheaper house prices. Significant numbers of people with at least some English ancestry also live in New Zealand, South Africa and South America.

Bede was an English Benedictinemonk at the monastery of St. Peter and its companion monastery of St. Paul in the Kingdom of Northumbria of the Angles. Bede was sent there at the age of seven and later joined Abbot Ceolfrith at the Jarrow monastery, both of whom survived a plague that struck in 686, an outbreak that killed a majority of the population there.

While he spent most of his life in the monastery, Bede travelled to several abbeys and monasteries across the British Isles, even visiting the archbishop of York and King Ceolwulf of Northumbria. He is well known as an author, teacher, and scholar, and his most famous work, *Ecclesiastical History of the English People*, gained him the title "The Father of English History". His ecumenical writings were extensive and included a number of Biblical commentaries and other theological works of exegetical erudition. Bede was one of the greatest teachers and writers of the Early Middle Ages and is considered by historians to be the single most important scholar of antiquity for the period between the death of Pope Gregory I in 604 and the coronation of Charlemagne in 800.

In 1899, Pope Leo XIII declared him a Doctor of the Church. He is the only native of Great Britain to achieve this designation; Anselm of Canterbury, a Doctor of the Church, was originally from Italy. Bede was moreover a skilled linguist and translator, and his work made the Latin & Greek writings of the early Church Fathers much more accessible to his fellow Anglo-Saxons, which contributed significantly to English Christianity. Bede's monastery had access to an impressive library which included works by Eusebius, Orosius, and many others.

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

Exercise 2 Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

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

Britain's foreign population

Number of immigrants into UK

THE GLOBAL VILLAGE
SOME OF THE PLACES GROUPS OF IMMIGRANTS HAVE SETTLED IN THE UK

China to Glasgow
Spain to Edinburgh
Poland to Northern Ireland
Pakistan to Manchester
Iraq to Hull
Slovakia to Warrington
Zimbabwe to Leicester
Afghanistan to Birmingham
Latvia to Peterborough
Bulgaria to Herefordshire
Everywhere to London

UNIT IV. RELIGION & SOCIETY

INTRODUCTION

Christianity has been the largest religion by number of adherents since the Early Middle Ages: it was introduced under the ancient Romans, developing as Celtic Christianity. According to tradition, Christianity arrived in the 1st or 2nd century. The most popular form is Anglicanism (Episcopalism in Scotland). Dating from the 16th century Reformation, it regards itself as both Catholic and Reformed.

The Head of the Church is the monarch of the UK, as the Supreme Governor.

It has the status of established church in England. There are just over 26 mln adherents to Anglicanism in Britain today, although only around 1 mln regularly attend services.

The second largest Christian practice is the Latin Rite of the Roman Catholic Church, which traces its history to the 6th century with Augustine's mission and was the main religion for around a thousand years. There are over 5 mln adherents today, 4.5 mln in England and Wales and 750,000 in Scotland, although fewer than a mln Catholics regularly attend mass.

The Church of Scotland, a form of Protestantism with a Presbyterian system of ecclesiastical polity, is the third most numerous on the island with around 2.1 mln members. Introduced in Scotland by clergyman John Knox, it has the status of national church in Scotland.

The monarch of the UK is represented by a Lord High Commissioner. Methodism is the fourth largest and grew out of Anglicanism through John Wesley. It gained popularity in the old mill towns of Lancashire and Yorkshire, also amongst tin miners in Cornwall. The Presbyterian Church of Wales, which follows Calvinistic Methodism, is the largest denomination in Wales.

There are other non-conformist minorities, such as Baptists, Quakers, the United Reformed Church (a union of Congregationalists and English Presbyterians), Unitarians.The first patron saint of Great Britain was Saint Alban. He was the first Christian martyr dating from the Romano-British period, condemned to death for his faith and sacrificed to the pagan gods. In more recent times, some have suggested the adoption of St Aidan as another patron saint of Britain. From Ireland, he worked at Iona amongst the Dál Riata and then Lindisfarne where he restored Christianity to Northumbria.

The three constituent countries of the UK have patron saints: Saint George and Saint Andrew are represented in the flags of England and Scotland respectively. These two flags combined to form the basis of the Great Britain royal flag of 1604. Saint David is the patron saint of Wales.

There are many other British saints. Some of the best known are Cuthbert, Columba, Patrick, Margaret, Edward the Confessor, Mungo, Thomas More, Petroc, Bede, and Thomas Becket.

Numerous other religions are practised. Jews have inhabited Britain since 1070. Jews were expelled from England in 1290 but permitted to return in 1656. There were also Jewish migrations from Lithuania. The 2001 census recorded that Islam had around 1.5 mln adherents.

More than 1 mln people practise either Hinduism, Sikhism, or Buddhism–religions introduced from the Indian subcontinent and Southeast Asia.

Religion in the UK, and in the countries that preceded it, has been dominated for over 1,400 years by various forms of Christianity. Religious affiliations of UK citizens are recorded by regular surveys, the four major ones being the national decennial census, the Labour Force Survey, the British Social Attitudes survey and the European Social Survey.

According to the Census, Christianity is the majority religion, followed by Islam, Hinduism, Sikhism, Judaism and Buddhism in terms of number of adherents. Among Christians, Anglicans are the most common denomination, followed by the Catholics, Presbyterians, Methodists and Baptists.

This, and the relatively large number of individuals with nominal or no religious affiliations, has led commentators to variously describe the UK as a multi-faith and secularised society.

The UK was formed by the union of previously independent countries in 1707, and consequently most of the largest religious groups do not have UK-wide organisational structures. While some groups have separate structures for the individual countries of the UK, others have a single structure covering England and Wales or Great Britain. Similarly, due to the relatively recent creation of Northern Ireland in 1921, most major religious groups in Northern Ireland are organised on an all-Ireland basis. While the UK as a whole has no official religion, the Church of England remains the state church of its largest constituent country, England. The Monarch of the UK is the Supreme Governor of the Church, and accordingly, only a Protestant may inherit the British throne.

Pre-Roman forms of religion in Britain included various forms of ancestor worship and paganism.

Little is known about the details of such religions. Forms of Christianity have dominated religious life in what is now the UK for over 1,400 years. It was introduced by the Romans to what is now England, Wales, Southern Scotland. The doctrine of Pelagianism, declared heretical in the Council of Carthage (418), originated with a British-born ascetic, Pelagius.

The Anglo-Saxon invasions briefly re-introduced paganism in the 5-6th centuries.

Christianity was again brought to Great Britain by Catholic Church and Irish-Scottish missionaries in the course of the 7th century. Insular Christianity as it stood between the 6-8th centuries retained some idiosyncrasies in terms of liturgy & calendar, but it had been nominally united with Roman Christianity since at least the Synod of Whitby of 664.

Still in the Anglo-Saxon period, the archbishops of Canterbury established a tradition of receiving their pallium from Rome to symbolize the authority of the Pope.

The Catholic Church remained the dominant form of Western Christianity in Britain throughout the Middle Ages, but the (Anglican) Church of England became the independent established church in England and Wales in 1534 as a result of the English Reformation. It retains a representation in the UK Parliament and the British monarch is its Supreme Governor.

In Scotland, the Presbyterian Church of Scotland, established in a separate Scottish Reformation in the 16th century, is recognized as the national church. It is not subject to state control and the British monarch is an ordinary member, required to swear an oath to "maintain and preserve the Protestant Religion and Presbyterian Church Government" upon his or her accession. The adherence to the Catholic Church continued at various levels in different parts of Britain, especially among recusants and in the north of England, but most strongly in Ireland. This would expand in Great Britain, partly due to Irish immigration in the 19th century, the Catholic emancipation & the Restoration of the English hierarchy.

From the mid-17thcentury, forms of Protestant nonconformity, including Congregationalists, Baptists, Quakers, Methodists, grew outside of the established church. The (Anglican) Church in Wales was disestablished in 1920 and, as the (Anglican) Church of Ireland was disestablished in 1870 before the partition of Ireland, there is no established church in Northern Ireland. The Jews in England were expelled in 1290 and only emancipated in the 19th century.

British Jews had numbered fewer than 10,000 in 1800 but around 120,000 after 1881 when Russian Jews settled permanently in Britain. The substantial immigration to the UK since the 1920s has contributed to the growth of foreign faiths, especially of Islam, Hinduismand Sikhism, Buddhism in the UK experienced growth partly due to immigration and partly due to conversion (especially when including Secular Buddhism).

As elsewhere in the western world, religious demographics have become part of the discourse on multiculturalism, with Britain variously described as a post-Christian society,"multi-faith or secularized.

Scholars have suggested multiple possible reasons for the decline, but have not agreed on their relative importance. Martin Wellings lays out the "classical model" of secularisation, while noting that it has been challenged by some scholars.

The familiar starting-point, a classical model of secularisation, argues that religious faith becomes less plausible and religious practice more difficult in advanced industrial and urbanized societies.

The breakdown or disruption of traditional communities and norms of behavior; the spread of a scientific world-view diminishing the scope of the supernatural and the role of God; increasing material affluence promoting self-reliance and this-worldly optimism; and greater awareness and toleration of different creeds and ideas, encouraging religious pluralism and eviscerating commitment to a particular faith, all form components of the case for secularisation. Applied to the British churches in general by Steve Bruce and to Methodism in particular by Robert Currie, this model traces decline back to the Victorian era and charts in the 20th century a steady ebbing of the sea of faith.

Religious Affiliations

In the 2011 census, Christianity was the largest religion, stated as their affiliation by 59.5% of the total population. This figure was found to be 53% in the 2007 Tearfund survey, 42.9 % in the 2009 British Social Attitudes Survey and 42.98 % in the EU-funded European Social Survey published in April 2009 for those identifying as Christian.

Although there was no UK-wide data in the 2001 or the 2011 census on adherence to individual Christian denominations, since they are asked only in the Scottish and in the Northern Irish Censuses, using the same principle as applied in the 2001 census, a survey carried out in the end of 2008 by Ipsos MORI and based on a scientifically robust sample, found the population of England and Wales to be 47.0% Anglican, 9.6% Catholic and 8.7% other Christians; 4.8% were Muslim, 3.4% were members of other religions. 5.3% were Agnostics, 6.8% were Atheists and 15.0% were not sure about their religious affiliation or refused to answer to the question. Ceri Peach estimated in 2005 that 62% of Christians were Anglican, 13.5% Catholic, 6% Presbyterian and 3.4% Methodist, with small numbers in other Protestant denominations and the Orthodox church.

The 2009 British Social Attitudes Survey, which covers Great Britain but not Northern Ireland, indicated that over 50 % would self-classify as not religious at all, 19.9 % were part of the Church of England, 9.3% non-denominational Christian, 8.6% Catholic, 2.2% Presbyterian/Church of Scotland, 1.3% Methodist, 0.53% Baptist, 1.17% other Protestant, 0.23% United Reformed Church/ Congregational, 0.06% Free Presbyterian, 0.03% Brethren Christian and 0.41% other Christian.
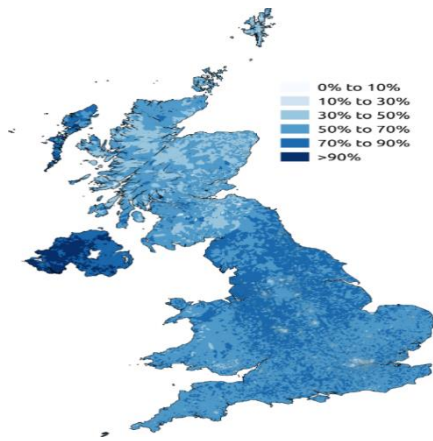
In a 2016 survey conducted by BSA (British Social Attitudes) on religious affiliation; 53% of respondents indicated "no religion" and 41% indicated they were Christians, while 6% affiliated with non-Christian religions (Islam, Hinduism, Judaism etc.). The wording of the question affects the outcome of polls as is apparent when comparing the results of the Scottish census with that of the English and Welsh census. An ICM poll for *The Guardian* in 2006 asked the question "Which religion do you yourself belong to?" with a response of 64% stating "Christian" and 26% stating "none".

In the same survey, 63% claimed they are not religious with just 33% claiming they are. This suggests that the religious UK population identify themselves as having Christian beliefs, but maybe not as active "church-goers". Religions other than Christianity, such as Islam, Hinduism, Sikhism and Judaism, have established a presence in the UK, both through immigration and by attracting converts.

Others that have done so include the Bahá'í Faith, the Rastafari movement and Neopaganism.

Religious affiliations of UK citizens are recorded by regular surveys, the four major ones being the UK Census, the Labour Force Survey, the British Social Attitudes survey and the European Social Survey. The different questions asked by these surveys produced different results:

The census for England and Wales asked the question "What is your religion?". In 2001 14.81% and in 2011 around a quarter (25.1%) of the population said they had "none" and 59.5% stated they were Christian. The census for Scotland asked the question "What religion, religious denomination or body do you belong to?". In 2001 27.55% and in 2011 36.7% selected "none" and 53.8% stated they were Christian.

Religion in the UK
(2011 census)
- Christianity (59.5%)
- No religion (25.7%)
- Islam (4.4%)
- Hinduism (1.3%)
- Sikhism (0.7%)
- Judaism (0.4%)
- Buddhism (0.4%)
- Other religions (0.4%)
- Not stated (7.2%)

The Labour Force Survey asked the question "What is your religion even if you are not currently practising?" with a response of 15.7% selecting "no religion" in 2004 and 22.4% selecting "no religion" in 2010. The British Social Attitudes survey asked the question "Do you regard yourself as belonging to any particular religion?" with 53% selecting "no religion" in 2016.

The European Social Survey asked the question "Which religion or denomination do you belong to at present?" with 50.54% of respondents selecting "no religion" in 2002 and 52.68% selecting "no religion" in 2008. Society in the UK is markedly more secular than it was in the past and the number of churchgoers fell over the second half of the 20th century. The Ipsos MORI poll in 2003 reported that 18% were "a practising member of an organised religion".

The Tearfund Survey in 2007 found that only 7% of the population considered themselves as practising Christians. Some 10% attended church weekly and two-thirds had not gone to church in the past year. The Tearfund Survey also found that two-thirds of UK adults (66%) or 32.2 Ma people had no connection with the Church at present (nor with another religion).

These people were evenly divided between those who have been in the past but have since left (16 Ma) and those who have never been in their lives (16.2 Ma).

A survey in 2002 found Christmas attendance at Anglican churches in England varied between 10.19% of the population in the diocese of Hereford, down to just 2.16% in Manchester.

Church attendance at Christmas in some dioceses was up to three times the average for the rest of the year. Overall church attendance at Christmas has been steadily increasing in recent years; a 2005 poll found that 43 % expected to attend a church service over the Christmas period, in comparison with 39% and 33% for corresponding polls taken in 2003 and 2001 respectively.

A December 2007 report by Christian Research showed that the services of the Catholic Church had become the best-attended services of Christian denominations in England, with average attendance at Sunday Mass of 861,000, compared to 852,000 attending Anglican services.

Attendance at Anglican services had declined by 20% between 2000 and 2006, while attendance at Catholic services, boosted by large-scale immigration from Poland and Lithuania, had declined by only 13%. In Scotland, attendance at Church of Scotland services declined by 19% and attendance at Catholic services fell by 25%. British Social Attitudes Surveys have shown the proportion of those in Great Britain who consider they "belong to" Christianity to have fallen from 66% in 1983 to 43% in 2009.

In 2012 about 6% of the population of the UK regularly attended church, with the average age of attendees being 51; in contrast, in 1980, 11% had regularly attended, with an average age of 37.

It is predicted that by 2020 attendance will be around 4%, with an average age of 56. This decline in church attendance has forced many churches to close down across the UK, with the Church of England alone closing 1,500 churches between 1969 and 2002. Their fates include dereliction, demolition, and residential, artistic and commercial conversion. In October 2014 weekly attendance at Church of England services dropped below 1 Ma for the first time. At Christmas 2014, 2.4 Ma attended.

For that year baptisms were 130,000, down 12% since 2004; marriages were 50,000, down 19%; and funerals 146,000, down 29%. The Church estimated that about 1% of churchgoers were lost to death each year; the Church's age profile suggested that attendances would continue to decline.

One study showed that in 2004 at least 930,000 Muslims attended a mosque at least once a week, just outnumbering the 916,000 regular churchgoers in the Church of England. Muslim sources claim the number of practising Muslims is underestimated as nearly all of them pray at home.

There is a disparity between the figures for those identifying themselves with a particular religion and for those proclaiming a belief in a God:

In a 2011 YouGov poll, 34% of UK citizens said they believed in a God or gods.

A Eurobarometer opinion poll in 2010 reported that 37% of UK citizens "believed there is a God", 33% believe there is "some sort of spirit or life force" and 25% answered, "I don't believe there is any sort of spirit, God or life force". The 2008 European Social Survey suggested that 46.94% of UK citizens never prayed and 18.96% prayed daily. A survey in 2007 suggested that 42% of adults' resident in the UK prayed, with one in six praying daily.

Christianity

The UK was formed by the union of previously independent states in 1707, and consequently most of the largest religious groups do not have UK-wide organisational structures. While some groups have separate structures for the individual countries of the UK, others have a single structure covering England and Wales or Great Britain.

Similarly, due to the relatively recent creation of Northern Ireland in 1921, most major religious groups in Northern Ireland are organised on an all-Ireland basis.

Anglicanism

The Church of England is the established church in England. Its most senior bishops sit in the national parliament and the Queen is its supreme governor. It is also the "mother church" of the worldwide Anglican Communion. The Church of England separated from the Catholic Church in 1534 and became the established church by an Act of Parliament in the Act of Supremacy, beginning a series of events known as the English Reformation. Historically it has been the predominant Christian denomination in England and Wales, in terms of both influence and number of adherents.

The Scottish Episcopal Church, which is part of the Anglican Communion (but not a "daughter church" of the Church of England), dates from the final establishment of Presbyterianism in Scotland in 1690, when it split from the Church of Scotland. In the 1920s, the Church in Wales became disestablished and independent from the Church of England, but remains in the Anglican Communion. During the years 2012 to 2014 the number of members of the Church of England dropped by around 1.7 Ma.

Presbyterianism & Congregationalism & other Reformed

Lisburn Free Presbyterian Church, County Antrim, Northern Ireland
The Methodist church at Haroldswick is the most northerly church in the UK
A Baptist church in Birmingham, West Midlands.

In Scotland, the Church of Scotland (informally known by its Scots language name, "the Kirk"), is recognised as the national church. It is not subject to state control and the British monarch is an ordinary member, required to swear an oath to "maintain & preserve the Protestant Religion & Presbyterian Church Government" upon his or her accession.

Splits in the Church of Scotland, especially in the 19th century, led to the creation of various other Presbyterian churches in Scotland, including the Free Church of Scotland, which claims to be the constitutional continuator of the Church in Scotland and was founded in 1843. The Free Presbyterian Church of Scotland was formed in 1893 by some who left the Free Church over alleged weakening of her position and likewise claims to be the spiritual descendant of the Scottish Reformation.

The Evangelical Presbyterian Church in England and Wales was founded in the late 1980s and organized themselves as a presbytery in 1996. As of 2016 they had 15 churches in the UK.

The Presbyterian Church in Ireland is the largest Protestant denomination and second largest church in Northern Ireland. The Free Presbyterian Church of Ulster was founded on 17 March 1951 by the cleric and politician Ian Paisley. It has about 60 churches in Northern Ireland.

The Presbyterian Church of Wales seceded from the Church of England in 1811 and formally formed itself into a separate body in 1823. The Non-subscribing Presbyterian Church of Ireland has 31 congregations in Northern Ireland, with the first Presbytery being formed in Antrim in 1725.

The United Reformed Church (URC), a union of Presbyterian and Congregational churches, consists of about 1,500 congregations in England, Scotland and Wales.

There are about 600 Congregational churches in the UK. In England there are three main groups, the Congregational Federation, the Evangelical Fellowship of Congregational Churches, and about 100 Congregational churches that are loosely federated with other congregations in the Fellowship of Independent Evangelical Churches, or are unaffiliated. In Scotland the churches are mostly member of the Congregational Federation and in Wales which traditionally has a larger number of Congregationalists, most are members of the Union of Welsh Independents.

Methodism

The Methodist movement traces its origin to the evangelical awakening in the 18th century.

The British Methodist Church, which has congregations throughout Great Britain, the Channel Islands, the Isle of Man, Malta and Gibraltar, has around 188,000 members, and 5,900 churches, though only around 3,000 members in 50 congregations are in Scotland. In the 1960s, it made ecumenical overtures to the Church of England, aimed at church unity.

Formally, these failed when they were rejected by the Church of England's General Synod in 1972. However, conversations and co-operation continued, leading on 1 November 2003 to the signing of a covenant between the two churches. The Methodist Church in Ireland covers the whole of the island of Ireland, including Northern Ireland where it is the fourth-largest denomination. Other Methodist denominations in Britain include the Salvation Army, founded in 1865; the Free Methodist Church, a holiness church; and the Church of the Nazarene.

Baptists

The Baptist Union of Great Britain, despite its name, covers just England and Wales. There is a separate Baptist Union of Scotland and the Association of Baptist Churches in Ireland is an all-Ireland organisation. Other Baptist associations also exist in England, such as the Grace Baptist association and the Gospel Standard Baptists.

Charismatics & Pentecostalism

Assemblies of God are part of the World Assemblies of God Fellowship with over 600 churches in Great Britain. Assemblies of God Ireland cover the whole of the island of Ireland, including Northern Ireland.

The Apostolic Church commenced in the early part of the 20th century in South Wales and now has over 110 churches across the UK. Elim Pentecostal Church as of 2013 had over 500 churches across the UK. There is a growing number of independent, charismatic churches that encourage Pentecostal practices as part of their worship. These are broadly grouped together as the British New Church Movement and could number up to 400,000 members.

The phenomenon of immigrant churches and congregations that began with the arrival from the West Indies in 1948 stands as a unique trend. West Indian congregations that started from this time include the Church of God, New Testament Assembly and New Testament Church of God. Africans began to arrive in the early 1980s and established their own congregations. Foremost among these are Matthew Ashimolowo from Nigeria and his Kingsway International Christian Centre in London that may be the largest church in Western Europe.

Quakers

The Britain Yearly Meeting is the umbrella body for the Religious Society of Friends (Quakers) in Great Britain, the Channel Isles and the Isle of Man. It has 14,260 adult members. Northern Ireland comes under the umbrella of the Ireland Yearly Meeting.

Catholicism

The Catholic Church has separate national organisations for England, Wales, and Scotland, which means there is no single hierarchy for the Catholic Church in the UK. Catholicism is the second largest denomination in England and Wales, with around five Ma members, mainly in England. There is, however, a single apostolic nuncio to Great Britain, presently Archbishop Edward Joseph Adams. Catholicism is Scotland's largest Christian denomination, representing a fifth of the population.

The apostolic nuncio to the whole of Ireland (both Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland) is Jude Thaddeus Okolo. Eastern Rite Catholics in the UK are served by their own clergy and do not belong to the Latin Church dioceses but are still in full communion with the Bishop of Rome.

Orthodox Christianity

Orthodox Christianity is a relatively minor faith in the UK when compared to Protestantism and Catholicism; most Orthodox churches cater to immigrants from Eastern Europe and the Balkans and is a relatively minor faith among Britons themselves

Shah Jahan Mosque in Woking is the oldest purpose-built mosque in the UK. Singers Hill Synagogue, Birmingham, England. Kagyu Samyé Ling Monastery and Tibetan Centre in Scotland. The Neasden Temple is the second largest temple of Hinduism in Europe.

Islam

Estimates suggested a total of about 2.4 Ma Muslims over all the UK. According to Pew Forum on Religion and Public Life, the number of Muslims in Britain could be up to 3 Ma.

The vast majority of Muslims in the UK live in England and Wales. Between 2001 and 2009 the Muslim population increased roughly 10 times faster than the rest of society.

Most Muslim immigrants to the UK came from former colonies. The biggest groups of Muslims are of Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Indian and Arab origins, with the remainder coming from Muslim-dominated areas such as Southwest Asia, Somalia, Malaysia, Indonesia. During the 18th century, lascars (sailors) who worked for the British East India Company settled in port towns with local wives. These numbered only 24,037 in 1891 but 51,616 on the eve of World War I.

Naval cooks, including Sake Dean Mahomet, came from the Sylhet Division of Bangladesh.

From the 1950s onwards, the growing Muslim population has led to a number of notable Mosques being established, including East London Mosque, London Central Mosque, Manchester Central Mosque, London Markaz, and the Baitul Futuh of the Ahmadiyya Muslim Community.

According to Kevin Brice, a researcher at the University of Wales, Trinity Saint David, thousands convert to Islam annually and there are approximately 100,000 converts to Islam in Britain, where they run two mosques.

According to a Labour Force Survey estimate, the total number of Muslims in Great Britain in 2008 was 2,422,000, around 4 % of the total population. Between 2004 and 2008, the Muslim population grew by more than 500,000. In 2010, The Pew Forum on Religion and Public Life estimated 2,869,000 Muslims in Great Britain. The largest age-bracket within the British Muslim population were those under the age of 4, at 301,000 in September 2008. The Muslim Council of Britain and the Islamic Forum of Europe are the umbrellas organisations for many local, regional and specialist Islamic organisations in the UK. Muslims are by far the poorest religious or non religious community in the UK.

Muslims happen to be the most disproportionately represented religious group facing arrest, trial and imprisonment, with 13.1% of prisoners being Muslims while the community represents 4% of those aged 15 years or older within the general population.

Judaism

The Jewish Naturalisation Act, enacted in 1753, permitted the naturalisation of foreign Jews, but was repealed the next year. The first graduate from the University of Glasgow who was openly known to be Jewish was in 1787. Unlike their English contemporaries, Scottish students were not required to take a religious oath. In 1841 Isaac Lyon Goldsmid was made baronet, the first Jew to receive a hereditary title. The first Jewish Lord Mayor of the City of London, Sir David Salomons, was elected in 1855, followed by the 1858 emancipation of the Jews. On 26 July 1858, Lionel de Rothschild was finally allowed to sit in the House of Commons of the UK when the law restricting the oath of office to Christians was changed. (Benjamin Disraeli, a baptised, teenage convert to Christianity of Jewish parentage, was already an MP at this time and rose to become Prime Minister in 1874.)

In 1884 Nathan Mayer Rothschild, 1st Baron Rothschild became the first Jewish member of the British House of Lords; again Disraeli was already a member.

British Jews number around 300,000 with the UK having the fifth largest Jewish community worldwide. However, this figure did not include Jews who identified 'by ethnicity only' in England and Wales or Scottish Jews who identified as Jewish by upbringing but held no current religion.

A report in August 2007 by University of Manchester historian Dr Yaakov Wise stated that 75 % of all births in the Jewish community were to ultra-orthodox, Haredi parents, and that the increase of ultra-orthodox Jewry has led to a significant rise in the proportion of British Jews who are ultra-orthodox.

However, various studies suggest that within some Jewish communities and particularly in some strictly Orthodox areas, many residents ignored the voluntary question on religion following the advice of their religious leaders resulting in a serious undercount, therefore it is impossible to give an accurate number on the total UK Jewish population. It may be even more than double the official estimates, heavily powered by the very high birth rate of orthodox families and British people who are Jewish by origin but not religion; the Jewish as ethnicity section is not documented on the census.

Buddhism

The earliest Buddhist influence on Britain came through its imperial connections with Southeast Asia, and as a result the early connections were with the Theravada traditions of Burma, Thailand, and Sri Lanka. The tradition of study resulted in the foundation of the Pali Text Society, which undertook the Exercise of translating the Pali Canon of Buddhist texts into English. Buddhism as a path of practise was pioneered by the Theosophists, Madame Blavatsky and Colonel Olcott, in 1880 they became the first Westerners to receive the refuges, the ceremony by which one traditionally becomes a Buddhist. In 1924 London's Buddhist Society was founded, and in 1926 the Theravadin London Buddhist Vihara.

The rate of growth was slow but steady through the century; the 1950s saw the development of interest in Zen Buddhism. In 1967 Kagyu Samyé Ling Monastery and Tibetan Centre, now the largest Tibetan Buddhist centre in Western Europe, was founded in Scotland. The first home-grown Buddhist movement was founded in 1967, the Friends of the Western Buddhist Order (now the Triratna Buddhist Community). There are some Soka Gakkai groups in the UK.
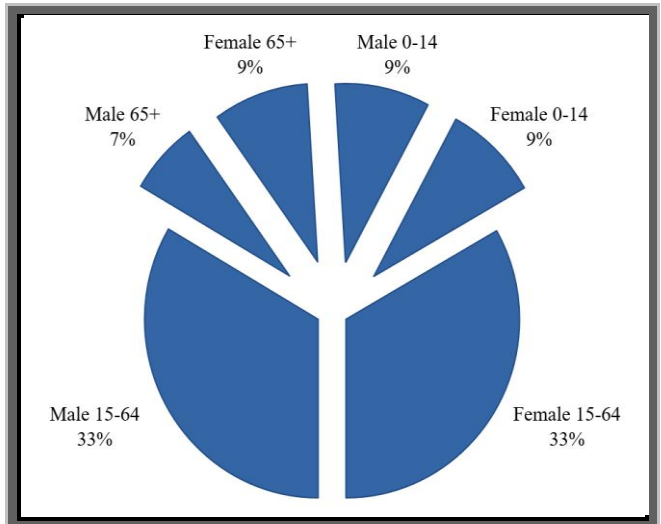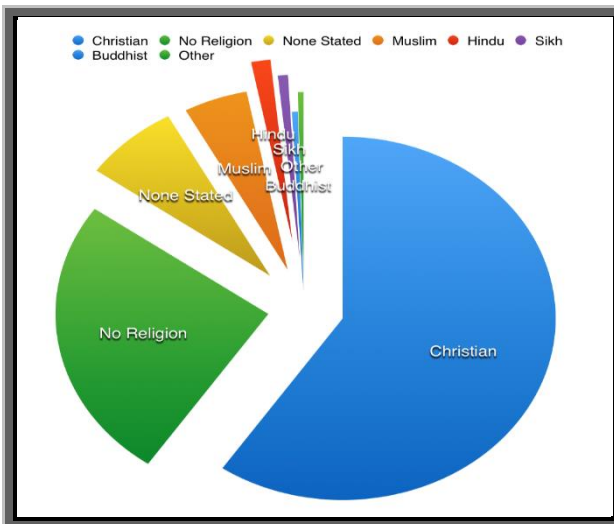
Hinduism

Hinduism was the religion of 558,810 people in Great Britain as high as 1.5 Ma.

One Non-governmental organisation estimated as of 2007 that there are 800,000 Hindus in the UK. Although most British Hindus live in England, with half living in London alone, small but growing.

Hindu communities exist in Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales.

Druidry

During the Iron Age, Celtic polytheism was the predominant religion in the area now known as England. Neo-Druidism grew out of the Celtic revival in 18th century Romanticism. A 2012 Druid analysis estimates that there are roughly 11,000 Druids in Britain.

Religion in Great Britain (2011)

Though the main political parties are secular, the formation of the Labour Party was influenced by Christian socialism and by leaders from a nonconformist background, such as Keir Hardie.

On the other hand, the Church of England was once nicknamed "the Conservative Party at prayer", though this has changed since the 1980s as the Church has moved to the left of the Conservative Party on social and economic issues. Some minor parties are explicitly "religious" in ideology: two "Christian" parties – the Christian Party and the Christian Peoples Alliance, fielded joint candidates at the 2009 European Parliament elections and increased their share of the vote to come eighth, with 249,493 votes (1.6% of total votes cast), and in London, where the CPA had three councillors, the Christian parties picked up 51,336 votes (2.9% of the vote), up slightly from the 45,038 gained in 2004.

The Church of England is represented in the UK Parliament by 26 bishops (the Lords Spiritual) and the British monarch is a member of the church (required under Article 2 of the Treaty of Union) as well as its Supreme Governor. The Lords Spiritual have seats in the House of Lords and debate government policies affecting the whole of the UK. The Church of England has the right to draft legislative measures (related to religious administration) through the General Synod that can then be passed into law by Parliament. The Prime Minister, regardless of personal beliefs, plays a key role in the appointment of Church of England bishops, although in July 2007 Gordon Brown proposed reforms of the Prime Minister's ability to affect Church of England appointments.

Religion & Education

Religious education and Collective Worship are compulsory in many state schools in England and Wales by virtue of clauses 69 and 70 of the School Standards and Framework Act 1998. Clause 71 of the act gives parents the right to withdraw their children from Religious Education and Collective Worship and parents should be informed of their right in accordance with guidelines published by the Department for Education; "a school should ensure parents or carers are informed of this right".

The content of the religious education is decided locally by the Standing Advisory Council on Religious Education. In England and Wales, a significant number of state funded schools are faith schools with the vast majority Christian (mainly either of Church of England or Catholic) though there are also Jewish, Muslim and Sikh faith schools. Faith schools follow the same national curriculum as state schools, though with the added ethos of the host religion. Until 1944 there was no requirement for state schools to provide religious education or worship, although most did so.

The Education Act 1944 introduced a requirement for a daily act of collective worship and for religious education but did not define what was allowable under these terms.

The act contained provisions to allow parents to withdraw their children from these activities and for teachers to refuse to participate. The Education Reform Act 1988 introduced a further requirement that the majority of collective worship be "wholly or mainly of a broadly Christian character".According to a 2003 report from the Office for Standards in Education, a "third of governing bodies do not fulfil their statutory duties adequately, sometimes because of a failure to pursue thoroughly enough such matters as arranging a daily act of collective worship".

In Scotland, the majority of schools are non-denominational, but separate Catholic schools, with an element of control by the Catholic Church, are provided within the state system.

The Education (Scotland) Act 1980 imposes a statutory duty on all local authorities to provide religious education and religious observance in Scottish schools. These are currently defined by the Scottish Government's Curriculum for Excellence (2005).

Northern Ireland has a highly segregated education system. 95 % of pupils attend either maintained (Catholic) schools or controlled schools, which are open to children of all faiths and none, though in practise most pupils are from the Protestant community.

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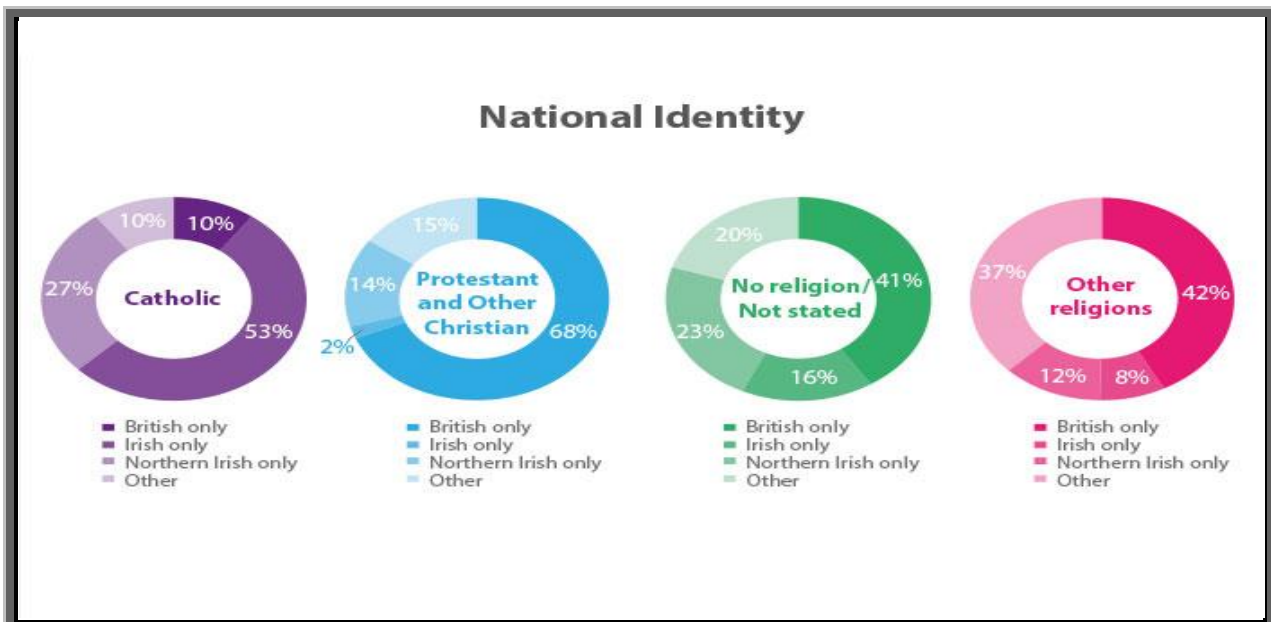
RELIGION & THE MEDIA

The Communications Act 2003 requires certain broadcasters in the UK to carry a "suitable quantity and range of programmes" dealing with religion and other beliefs, as part of their public service broadcasting. Prominent examples of religious programming include the BBC. television programme *Songs of Praise*, aired on a Sunday evening with an average weekly audience of 2.5 Ma, and the *Thought for the Day* slot on BBC. Radio 4. Channels offer documentaries on, or from the perspective of a criticism of organised religion. A significant example is Richard Dawkins' two-part Channel 4 documentary, *The Root of all Evil?*. Open disbelief of, or even mockery of organised religion, is not regarded as a taboo in the British media, though it has occasionally provoked controversy – the movie *Monty Python's Life of Brian*, the poem "The Love That Dares to Speak Its Name", and the musical *Jerry Springer: The Opera*, all of which involved characters based on Jesus, were subject to public outcry and blasphemy allegations, while *The Satanic Verses*, a novel by British Indian author Salman Rushdie which includes a fantasy sequence about Muhammed, caused global protests including several by British Muslims.

British comedy has a history of parody on the subject of religion.

Religion & social identity: patron saints of the home nations

- Saint George is the patron saint of England.
- Saint Andrew is the patron saint of Scotland.
- Saint David is the patron saint of Wales.
- Saint Patrick is the patron saint of Ireland.

National Identity

Catholic: British only 10%, Irish only 10%, Northern Irish only 53%, Other 27%

Protestant and Other Christian: British only 15%, Irish only 68%, Northern Irish only 2%, Other 14%

No religion/Not stated: British only 20%, Irish only 41%, Northern Irish only 16%, Other 23%

Other religions: British only 37%, Irish only 42%, Northern Irish only 8%, Other 12%

SAINT GEORGE - THE PATRON SAINT OF ENGLAND

Saint George did not rise to the position of "patron saint" of England, however, until the 14th century, and he was still obscured by Edward the Confessor, the traditional patron saint of England, until in 1552 during the reign of Edward VI all saints' banners other than George's were abolished in the English. Saint George (d. 23 April 303), was a Roman soldier of Greek origin and a member of the Praetorian Guard for Roman emperor Diocletian, who was sentenced to death for refusing to recant his Christian faith. He became one of the most venerated saints and megalo-martyrs in Christianity, and was especially venerated by the Crusaders.

In hagiography, as one of the Fourteen Holy Helpers and one of the most prominent military saints, he is immortalised in the legend of Saint George and the Dragon. His memorial, Saint George's Day, is traditionally celebrated on 23 April. England, Georgia and several other nation states, cities, universities, professions and organisations all claim Saint George as their patron.

The legend of Saint George and the Dragon is first recorded in the 11th century, in a Georgian source. It reaches Europe in the 12th century. In The Golden Legend, by 13th-century Archbishop of Genoa Jacobus da Varagine, George's death is at the hands of Dacian, and about the year 287.

The *Golden Legend* offered a historicised narration of George's encounter with a dragon.

This account was very influential, and it remains the most familiar version in English owing to William Caxton's 15th-century translation. In the medieval romances, the lance with which Saint George slew the dragon was called Ascalon after the Levantine city of Ashkelon, today in Israel.

The name *Ascalon* was used by Winston Churchill for his personal aircraft during World War II, according to records at Bletchley Park. In Sweden, the princess rescued by Saint George is held to represent the kingdom of Sweden, while the dragon represents an invading army. Several sculptures of Saint George battling the dragon can be found in Stockholm, the earliest inside Storkyrkan ("The Great Church") in the Old Town. Iconography of the horseman with spear overcoming evil was widespread throughout the Christian period.

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

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

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

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

SAINT ANDREW - THE PATRON SAINT OF SCOTLAND

One of these crosses is the flag of the Patron Saint of Scotland, Saint Andrew, although he was not actually born in Scotland. Andrew's home was Copernicum; like his brother Simon Peter, he was a fisherman. Andrew was however a disciple of St. John the Baptist prior to becoming a follower of Christ. Andrew the Apostle known as Saint Andrew and referred to in the Orthodox tradition as the First-Called was a Christian Apostle and the brother of Saint Peter.

The name "Andrew" (Greek: manly, brave, from ἀνδρεία, *Andreia*, "manhood, valour"), like other Greek names, appears to have been common among the Jews, Christians, and other Hellenizedpeople of Judea. No Hebrew or Aramaic name is recorded for him. According to Orthodox tradition, the apostolic successor to Saint Andrew is the Patriarch of Constantinople.

Saint Andrew was born according to the Christian tradition in 6 B.C. in Galilee.

The New Testamentstates that Andrew was the brother of Simon Peter, and likewise a son of John, or Jonah. He was born in the village of Bethsaida on the Sea of Galilee. Both he and his brother Peter were fishermen by trade, hence the tradition that Jesus called them to be his disciples by saying that he will make them "fishers of men". At the beginning of Jesus' public life, they were said to have occupied the same house atCapernaum Andrew at once recognized Jesus as the Messiah, and hastened to introduce him to his brother. Thenceforth, the two brothers were disciples of Christ.

On a subsequent occasion, prior to the final call to the apostolate, they were called to a closer companionship, and then they left all things to follow Jesus. Andrew was one of the four disciples who came to Jesus on the Mount of Olives to ask about the signs of Jesus' return at the "end of the age".

Andrew is said to have been martyred by crucifixion at the city of Patras (Patræ) in Achaea. Early texts, such as the Acts of Andrew known to Gregory of Tours, describe Andrew as bound, not nailed, to a Latin cross of the kind on which Jesus is said to have been crucified; yet a tradition developed that Andrew had been crucified on a cross of the form called *crux decussata* (X-shaped cross, or "saltire"), now commonly known as a "Saint Andrew's Cross" – supposedly at his own request, as he deemed himself unworthy to be crucified on the same type of cross as Jesus had been.

The iconography of the martyrdom of Andrew – showing him bound to an X-shaped cross – does not appear to have been standardized until the later Middle Ages. Several legends state that the relics of Andrew were brought by divine guidance from Constantinople to the place where the modern Scottish town of St Andrews stands today (Gaelic, *Cill Rìmhinn*).

According to legend, in 832 A.D., Óengus II led an army of Picts and Scots into battle against the Angles, led by Æthelstan, near modern-day Athelstaneford, East Lothian. The legend states that he was heavily outnumbered and hence whilst engaged in prayer on the eve of battle, Óengus vowed that if granted victory he would appoint Saint Andrew as the Patron Saint of Scotland.

On the morning of battle white clouds forming an X shape in the sky were said to have appeared. Óengus and his combined force, emboldened by this apparent divine intervention, took to the field and despite being inferior in numbers were victorious. Having interpreted the cloud phenomenon as representing the *crux decussata* upon which Saint Andrew was crucified, Óengus honoured his pre-battle pledge and duly appointed Saint Andrew as the Patron Saint of Scotland.

The white saltire set against a celestial blue background is said to have been adopted as the design of the flag of Scotland on the basis of this legend. Andrew's connection with Scotland may have been reinforced following the Synod of Whitby, when the Celtic Church felt that Columba had been "outranked" by Peter and that Peter's brother would make a higher ranking patron.

The 1320 Declaration of Arbroath cites Scotland's conversion to Christianity by Andrew, "the first to be an Apostle". Numerous parish churches in the Church of Scotland and congregations of other Christian churches in Scotland are named after Andrew. The national church of the Scottish people in Rome, Sant'Andrea degli Scozzesi is dedicated to Saint Andrew.

SAINT DAVID - THE PATRON SAINT OF WALES

Saint David (c. 500 – c. 589) was a Welsh bishop of Mynyw (now St Davids) during the 6th century. He is the patron saint of Wales. David was a native of Wales, and a relatively large amount of information is known about his life. However, his birth date is uncertain: suggestions range from 462 to 512. He is traditionally believed to be the son of Saint Non and the grandson of Ceredig ap Cunedda, king of Ceredigion. The Welsh annals placed his death 569 years after the birth of Christ, but Phillimore's dating revised this to 601. Many of the traditional tales about David are found in the *Buchedd Dewi* ("Life of David"), a hagiography written by Rhygyfarch in the late 11th century.

Modern historians are sceptical of some of its claims: one of Rhygyfarch's aims was to establish some independence for the Welsh church, which had refused the Roman rite until the 8th century and now sought a metropolitan status equal to that of Canterbury.

He became renowned as a teacher and preacher, founding monastic settlements and churches in Wales, Dumnonia, and Brittany. St David's Cathedral stands on the site of the monastery he founded in the Glyn Rhosyn valley of Pembrokeshire. Around 550, he attended the Synod of Brefi, where his eloquence in opposing Pelagianism caused his fellow monks to elect him primate of the region. As such he presided over the synod of Caerleon (the "Synod of Victory") around 569.
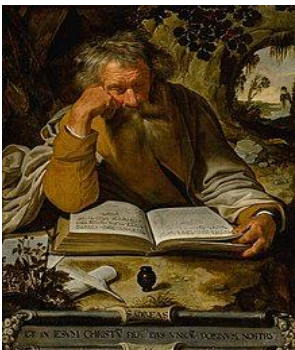
His best-known miracle is said to have taken place when he was preaching in the middle of a large crowd at the Synod of Brefi: the village of Llanddewi Brefi stands on the spot where the ground on which he stood is reputed to have risen up to form a small hill. A white dove, which became his emblem, was seen settling on his shoulder. John Davies notes that one can scarcely "conceive of any miracle more superfluous" in that part of Wales than the creation of a new hill.

David is said to have denounced Pelagianism during this incident and he was declared archbishop by popular acclaim according to Rhygyfarch,[7]bringing about the retirement of Dubricius.

St David's metropolitan status as an archbishopric was later supported by Bernard, Bishop of St David's, Geoffrey of Monmouth and Gerald of Wales.

The Monastic Rule of David prescribed that monks had to pull the plough themselves without draught animals, must drink only water and eat only bread with salt & herbs; spend the evenings in prayer, reading and writing. He lived a simple life and practised asceticism, teaching his followers to refrain from eating meat and drinking beer. His symbol, the symbol of Wales, is the leek. David was buried at St David's Cathedral at St Davids, Pembrokeshire, where his shrine was a popular place of pilgrimage throughout the Middle Ages**.**

During the 10-11th centuries the Cathedral was regularly raided by Vikings, who removed the shrine from the church and stripped off the precious metal adornments. In 1275 a new shrine was constructed, the ruined base of which remains to this day, which was originally surmounted by an ornamental wooden canopy with murals of David, Patrickand Denis. The relics of David and Justinian of Ramsey Island were kept in a portable casket on the stone base of the shrine. It was at this shrine that Edward I came to pray in 1284. During the reformation Bishop Barlow (1536-48), a staunch Protestant, stripped the shrine of its jewels and confiscated the relics of David and Justinian.

SAINT PATRICK - THE PATRON SAINT OF IRELAND

Saint Patrick is the patron saint of Ireland. He was a Christian missionary given credited with converting Ireland to Christianity in the A.D. 400s. So many legends surround his life that the truth is not easily found. St Patrick was not actually Irish. His exact birthplace and date is not known.

However, it is believed he was born around 375 A.D. in Scotland. His parents were Calpurnius and Conchessa, were Romans living in Britain in charge of the colonies. His real name is believed to be Maewyn Succat and he took on the name Patrick upon becoming a priest.

As a teen he was kidnapped by pirates and sold into slavery in Ireland to herd and tend sheep on Slemish mountain, Co Antrim.

During his six-year captivity, he became fluent in the Irish language, he turned to God in prayer. He escaped after having a dream sent from God in which he was told to leave Ireland by going to the coast where he would find a ship waiting to sail to Britain. He is believed to have met up with his parents in Wales before travelling to France where he became a priest and later a bishop.

Patrick was sent another dream in which the people of Ireland were calling out to him to come and walk among them once more. He was set the Exercise of teaching Christianity to the Irish. He travelled throughout Ireland, preaching the Gospel & converting many. He and his disciples preached and converted thousands and began building churches all over the country.

Patrick preached and converted all over Ireland for 40 years. The date cited for when Ireland was converted to Christianity is 432. There is much debate over when and where he died. It is believed he died on 17 March, 460 at Saul, Downpatrick. That is why Saint Patrick's day is celebrated on March 17th. Some people suggest he was also born on 17 March. The clans of Ireland began to bicker over who should receive the honour of having his final resting-place on their land. To avoid this sacrilegious end to his life his friends secreted away his body to bury in a secret grave. Many believe this to be in Downpatrick, County Down, where there is a permanent memorial.

Interests/hobbies: Preaching, Writing, Travel, Church-building, Hillwalking – once spent forty days of Lent on Croagh Patrick

Legacies: Pota Phadraig: Pota Phadraig (Patrick's Pot) is the name given to the measure of whiskey to be taken on Saint Patrick's Day. Tradition dictates that a shamrock be floated on the whiskey before drinking, hence the expression, 'drowning the shamrock".

The Shamrock: This was the tool reputedly used by Saint Patrick to illustrate the Holy Trinity to convert the Irish pagans Saint Patrick's Breastplate: Also known as The Lorica, this was the hymn said to have been sung by Patrick and his followers on their pilgrimage to Tara as they attempted to put a stop to the pagan rituals.

Saint Patrick's Day Parades: Contrary to popular belief, did not originate in Ireland.

The first St. Patrick's Day celebration in America was in 1737 hosted by the Charitable Irish Society of Boston. Today festive parades are held all over the world, for no more sinister purpose than raising a glass to the saint and celebrating Irishness.

The Reek: Every year thousands of pilgrims, many in bare feet, climb the 2,500 ft to the peak of Croagh Patrick, to pay homage to Saint Patrick's Christian mission in Ireland.

Legend says that it was here that the saint rang his bell and the snakes of Ireland fled. Things you didn't know about Saint Patrick: At the age of sixteen, shortly before he was taken into captivity, "he committed a fault which appears not to have been a great crime, yet was to him a subject of tears during the rest of his life". He was tremendously conscious about his lack of education and often refers to his inability to express his thoughts clearly in his Confessio.

Myths about Saint Patrick: He used a shamrock to explain the Trinity: The shamrock was traditionally worn in Ireland as a symbol of the cross. He drove the snakes out of the country: Ireland never had snakes – but the snake metaphor was probably used later to represent paganism.

He was the first to preach the Good News in Ireland: It is known that there were Christians in Ireland before his time. He is thought to have been born and died on his feastday, March 17th: Both claims are considered unlikely.

Religious fragmentation in Scotland

In the 1690s the Presbyterian establishment purged the land of Episcopalians and heretics, and made blasphemy a capital crime. Thomas Aitkenhead, the son of an Edinburgh surgeon, aged 18, was indicted for blasphemy by order of the Privy Council for calling the New Testament "The History of the Imposter Christ"; he was hanged in 1696. Their extremism led to a reaction known as the "Moderate" because that ultimately prevailed and opened the way for liberal thinking in the cities.

The early 18th century saw the beginnings of a fragmentation of the Church of Scotland.

These fractures were prompted by issues of government and patronage, but reflected a wider division between the hard-line Evangelicals and the theologically more tolerant Moderate Party.

The battle was over fears of fanaticism by the former and the promotion of Enlightenment ideas by the latter. The Patronage Act of 1712 was a major blow to the evangelicals, for it meant that local landlords could choose the minister, not the members of the congregation.

Schisms erupted as the evangelicals left the main body, starting in 1733 with the First Secession headed by figures including Ebenezer Erskine. The second schism in 1761 lead to the foundation of the independent Relief Church. These churches gained strength in the Evangelical Revival of the later 18th century. A key result was the main Presbyterian church was in the hands of the Moderate faction, which provided critical support for the Enlightenment in the cities. Long after the triumph of the Church of Scotland in the Lowlands, Highlanders and Islanders clung to an old-fashioned Christianity infused with animistic folk beliefs and practices. The remoteness of the region and the lack of a Gaelic-speaking clergy undermined the missionary efforts of the established church.

The later 18th century saw some success, owing to the efforts of the SSPCK missionaries and to the disruption of traditional society. Catholicism had been reduced to the fringes of the country, particularly the Gaelic-speaking areas of the Highlands and Islands. Conditions also grew worse for Catholics after the Jacobite rebellions and Catholicism was reduced to little more than a poorly run mission. Also important was Episcopalianism, which had retained supporters through the civil wars and changes of regime in the 17th century. Since most Episcopalians had given their support to the Jacobite rebellions in the early 18th century, they also suffered a decline in fortunes.

Tolerance & Religious Discrimination

In the early 21st century, the Racial and Religious Hatred Act 2006 made it an offence in England and Wales to incite hatred against a person on the grounds of their religion. The common law offences of blasphemy and blasphemous libel were abolished with the coming into effect of the Criminal Justice and Immigration Act 2008 on 8 July 2008.

2005-2010 polls have shown that public opinion in the UK generally tends towards a suspicion or outright disapproval of radical or evangelical religiosity, though moderate groups and individuals are rarely subject to less favourable treatment from society or employers.

The Equality Act 2010 prohibits discrimination against people on the basis of religion, in the supply of goods and services and selection for employment, subject to very limited exceptions (such as the right of schools and religious institutions to appoint paid ministers).

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

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

Exercise 3. Read the text & pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 4. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 5. Explain the score of the information.

Secularism

There is no strict separation of church and state in the UK. Accordingly, most public officials may display the most common identifiers of a major religion in the course of their duties – for example, rosary beads. Chaplains are provided in the armed forces and in prisons. Although school uniform codes are generally drawn up flexibly enough to accommodate compulsory items of religious dress, some schools have banned wearing the crucifix in a necklace, arguing that to do so is not a requirement of Christianity where they prohibit all other necklaces.

Post-adolescence, the wearing of a necklace is permitted in some F.E. colleges who permit religious insignia necklaces on a wider basis, which are without exception permitted at universities.

Some churches have warned that the Equality Act 2010 could force them to go against their faith when hiring staff. In 2011 two judges of the Court of Appeal of England and Wales upheld previous statements in the country's jurisprudence that the (non-canon) laws of the UK "do not include Christianity". Therefore, a local authority was acting lawfully in denying a Christian married couple the right to foster care because of stated negative views on homosexuality. In terms of the rights recognised "in the case of fostering arrangements at least, the right of homosexuals to equality should take precedence over the right of Christians to manifest their beliefs and moral values".

Exercise 6. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 7. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 8. Remember the notions.

secular ['sekjələ] - a) мирской, земной б) светский, нецерковный

secular concerns – мирские хлопоты

secular education – светское образование

sacred & secular music – духовная и светская музыка

secular arm – светская власть

secular movement – длительная тенденция

secular bird – птица Феникс

secular democracy – светское демократическое государство

secular stability – вековая устойчивость

secular architecture – светская архитектура

secular democracy – светское демократическое государство

secular change – вековое изменение; изменение за большой промежуток времени

secularism ['sekjəl(ə)rɪz(ə)m] – атеизм; антиклерикализм; доктрина отделения церкви от государства

secularization ['sekjəl(ə)raɪ'zeɪʃ(ə)n] – секуляризация; отделение церкви от государства; отделение школы от церкви

Secularism is a system of social organization and education where religion is not allowed to play a part in civil affairs.

The British nobility is the peerage of the UK. The nobility of its four constituent home nations has played a major role in shaping the history of the country, although in the present day they retain only the rights to stand for election to the House of Lords, dining rights in the House of Lords, position in the formal order of precedence, the right to certain titles, and the right to an audience with the monarch. Still, more than a third of British land is in the hands of aristocrats and traditional landed gentry. In everyday speech, the British nobility consists of members of the immediate families of peers who bear courtesy titles or honorifics. Members of the peerage carry the titles of DUKe, Marquess, Earl, Viscount or Baron. Peers are sometimes referred to generically as the Lords, although individual dUKes are not so styled when addressed or by reference.Scottish lairds' names include a description of their lands in the form of a territorial designation.

In Scotland, a territorial designation implies the rank of "Esquire", thus this is not normally added after the name; Lairds are part of Scotland's landed gentry and – where armigerous (that is, entitled to heraldic arms) – minor nobility. All modern British honours, including peerage dignities, are created directly by the British monarch, taking effect when letters patent are affixed with the Great Seal of the Realm. The Sovereign is considered the fount of honour and, as "the fountain and source of all dignities cannot hold a dignity from himself", cannot hold a British peerage.

Descendants in the male-line of peers and children of women who are peeresses in their own right, as well as baronets, knights, dames and certain other persons who bear no peerage titles belong to the gentry, deemed members of the non-peerage nobility below whom they rank. The Scottish feudal barony, an official title of nobility in the UK, is addressed as *The Baron of X*.

The untitled nobility consists of all those who bear formally matriculated, or recorded, armorial bearings. Other than their designation, such as Gentleman or Esquire, they enjoy only the privilege of a position in the formal orders of precedence in the UK. The largest portion of the British aristocracy have historically been the landed gentry, made up of baronets and the non-titled armigerous landowners whose families hailed from the mediaeval feudal class (referred to as gentlemen due to their income solely deriving from land ownership).

History

Before the 20th century, peerages were generally hereditary and (with a few exceptions), descended in the male line. The eldest son of a DUKe, Marquess or Earl almost always uses one of his father's subsidiary titles as a courtesy title; for instance, the eldest son of the Earl of Snowdon is called Viscount Linley. The modern peerage system is a vestige of the custom of English kings in the 12-13th centuries in summoning wealthy individuals (along with church officials and elected representatives for commoners) to form a Parliament.

The economic system at the time was manorialism (feudalism), and the privilege of being summoned to Parliament was related to the amount of land one controlled (a "barony").

In the late 14th century, this right (or "title") began to be granted by decree, and titles became inherited with the rest of an estate under the system of primogeniture. Non-hereditary positions began to be created again in 1867 for Law Lords, and 1958 generally. In 1958, the Life Peerages Act enabled (non-hereditary) life peers to sit in the House of Lords, and from then on the creation of hereditary peerages rapidly became obsolete, almost ceasing after 1964. This, however, is only a convention and was not observed by former prime minister Margaret Thatcher, who asked the Queen to create three hereditary peerages (two of them, however, to men who had no heirs). Until changes in the 20th century, only a proportion of those holding Scottish and Irish peerages were entitled by that title to sit in the House of Lords; these were nominated by their peers. Until constitutional reforms in 1999, possession of a title in the peerage (except Irish) entitled its holder to a seat in the House of Lords.

Since then, only 92 hereditary peers are entitled to sit in the House of Lords, of which 90 are elected by the hereditary peers by ballot and replaced on death.

The two exceptions are the Earl Marshal (a position held by the DUKes of Norfolk), who is responsible for certain ceremonial functions on state occasions; the Lord Great Chamberlain, who serves as the monarch's representative in Parliament and accompanies them on certain state occasions; both are automatically entitled to sit in the House.

Typically, those due to inherit a peerage – or indeed have done so, in recent times – have been educated at one of the major public schools, such as Eton or Winchester. A member of the House of Lords cannot simultaneously be a member of the House of Commons.

In 1960, Anthony Wedgwood Benn inherited his father's title as Viscount Stansgate. He fought and won the ensuing by-election, but was disqualified from taking his seat until an act was passed enabling hereditary peers to renounce their titles. Titles, while often considered central to the upper class, are not always strictly so. Both Captain Mark Phillips and Vice-Admiral Sir Timothy Laurence, the respective first and second husbands of Princess Anne, do not hold peerages.

Most members of the British upper class are untitled.

DUKe, in the UK, is the highest-ranking hereditary title in all four peerages of the British Isles. A dUKe thus outranks all other holders of titles of nobility (Marquess, Earl, Viscount and Baron). The wife of a dUKe is known as a duchess, which is also the title of a woman who holds a dUKedom in her own right, referred to as a duchess *suo jure*; her husband, however, does not receive any title. In the order of precedence in the UK, non-Royal DUKes without state offices or positions generally take precedence before all other nobility, in order of date of creation, but after Royalty and certain Officers of State. A **Royal DUKe** is a dUKe who is a member of the British Royal Family, entitled to the style of "His Royal Highness". The current Royal DUKedoms are, in order of precedence:

- DUKe of Lancaster, held by Elizabeth II
- DUKe of Edinburgh, held by Prince Philip
- DUKe of Cornwall (England) & DUKe of Rothesay (Scotland), Prince Charles, of Wales
- DUKe of York, held by Prince Andrew
- DUKe of Cambridge held by Prince William
- DUKe of Sussex held by Prince Harry
- DUKe of Gloucester, held by Prince Richard
- DUKe of Kent, held by Prince Edward (who should not be confused with the Earl of Wessex).

With the exceptions of the dUKedoms of Cornwall and Rothesay (which can only be held by the eldest son of the Sovereign), royal dUKedoms are hereditary, according to the terms of the Letters Patent that created them, which usually contain the standard remainder to the "heirs male of his body".

The British monarch also holds and is entitled to the revenues of the Duchy of Lancaster, and within the borders of the County Palatine of Lancashire is by tradition saluted as "The DUKe of Lancaster". Even when the monarch is a Queen regnant, she does not use the title of *Duchess*.

Forms of address. A DUKe's coronet

- Begin: My Lord DUKe
- Address: His Grace the DUKe of _____
- Speak to as: Your Grace (formal and employees), DUKe (social)
- Ceremonial, formal, or legal title: The Most High, Noble & Potent Prince His Grace [forename], DUKe of _____

A British or Irish DUKe is entitled to a coronet (a silver-gilt circlet, chased as jewelled but not actually gemmed) bearing 8 conventional strawberry leaves on the rim of the circlet.

The physical coronet is worn only at coronations. Any peer can bear his coronet of rank on his coat of arms above the shield. **Marquess** is a rank of nobility in the peerages of the UK.

Unlike the position on the continent of Europe, in the Kingdom of England and Kingdom of Ireland, and later in Great Britain and the UK, the monarch is the only one capable of awarding titles of nobility. There are currently thirty-four such marquessates.

The first marquess in England was Robert de Vere, 9th Earl of Oxford, who was appointed the Marquess of Dublin by King Richard II of Englandon 1 December 1385.

On 13 October 1386, the patent of this marquessate was recalled, and Robert de Vere was raised to the rank of the DUKe of Ireland. John Beaufort, 1st Earl of Somerset, the second illegitimate son of John of Gaunt, was raised to the second marquessate as the Marquess of Dorset in September 1397. In 1399, he was disgraced, and the king revoked his marquessate.

The House of Commons of England later petitioned King Henry IV for his restoration, but the King objected stating *"the name of marquess is a strange name in this realm"*. From that period the title appears to have been dormant until it was revived by Henry VI in 1442.

The only woman to be appointed as a marquess in her own right was Anne Boleyn, who was created Marchioness of Pembroke in preparation for her marriage to Henry VIII. The investiture ceremony was held at Windsor Castle on 1 September 1532. The Marquess of Winchester (created in 1551) is the oldest surviving English or British marquessate, and as a result the holder of the title is considered the "Premier Marquess of England".

Since Marquessates in England created after 1707 became Marquessates of Great Britain and, from 1801, of the UK, he is now the only English Marquess with no higher rank; all other English Marquesses are also DUKes and use their title of Marquess as a subsidiary title.

Peerage of Ireland

The first marquesses (Irish: *marcas*) in the Peerage of Ireland were Randal MacDonnell, 1st Marquess of Antrim (1645) and Ulick Burke, 1st Marquess of Clanricarde (1646), both titles created during the Irish Confederate Wars. (The above-mentioned Robert de Vere was created Marquess of Dublin and DUKe of Ireland, but both of these were titles in the Peerage of England, not Ireland.)
The Marquess of Waterford (created 1791) is the oldest surviving Irish marquessate, currently held by Henry Nicholas de la Poer Beresford, 9th Marquess of Waterford.

Peerage of UK

The title Marquess was always higher than that of an Earl. In the late 19th and the 20th century many Viceroys of India were appointed as marquesses after their term of office. (It is indicative of the importance of the Indian Empire in British national life that retiring Viceroys were offered marquessates while retiring prime ministers were offered only earldoms).

Some of the German relations of King George V were made marquesses in the Peerage of the UK after renouncing their German princely titles in 1917. Prince Louis of Battenberg, the princely head of the Battenberg family, became the first Marquess of Milford Haven.

The last marquess created by the British crown was the Marquess of Willingdon in 1936.

The creation of new hereditary titles is today confined almost exclusively to members of the royal family, but the creation of new marquessates appears to have ceased entirely.

When new Royal DUKes are created (the DUKe of Cambridge in 2011), the preferred next-highest subsidiary title appears to be that of an earldom. No explanation for this apparent policy of omitting marquessates has been forthcoming.

An English or British marquess is formally styled "The Most Honourable The Marquess of" and less formally styled "Lord', and his wife "Lady". As with dUKes, all sons of a marquess have the courtesy style of "the Lord Forename [Surname]" and all daughters have the courtesy style of "the Lady Forename [Surname]".

The style for the eldest son, however, is often trumped by a subsidiary title of his father, such as earl or viscount, which is used instead. Especially for signing documents, the signature being only the name of the title. This form of signature is true for all peers, including peers by courtesy. For example, The Marquess of Salisbury would sign his name merely "Salisbury".

A marquess by courtesy, however (who would always be the heir to a dUKedom, since the courtesy title of an heir must always be at least one rank below that of the peer). It does not enjoy the style of "Most Honourable", but is merely Marquess of, without the definite article. The genuine marquess as a peer, however, is always "The Most Honourable The Marquess of", to differentiate a marquess by courtesy (*i.e.*, the heir to a dUKedom) from a marquess in his own right.

The spelling of the title in a few older Scottish cases is "Marquis", particularly when the title was created prior to the formation of the Kingdom of Great Britain in 1707. A British marquess is entitled to a coronet bearing four strawberry leaves (3 visible) and four silver balls (or pearls) around the rim (2 visible). The actual coronet is worn mostly on certain ceremonial occasions, but a marquess can bear his coronet of rank on his coat of arms above the shield.

Hereditary Knights (styled as *Sir*)

Knight of Kerry, Irish, called The Green Knight is one of three Hiberno-Normanhereditary knighthoods, all of which existed in Ireland since feudal times. The other two were The White Knight (surname fixed as Fitzgibbon), being dormant since the 19th century, and the Knight of Glin (The Black Knight), dormant since 2011. All three belong to the FitzGerald dynasty, being created by the Earls of Desmond for their kinsmen.

Knights (styled as *Sir*)

Knight, from Old English *cniht* ("boy" or "servant"), a cognate of the German word *Knecht* ("labourer" or "servant").

Untitled members of the Gentry

Esquire (in the sense of shield bearer, via Old French *esquier*) Gentleman

Irish & Gaelic nobility

Outside the UK, the remaining Gaelic nobility of Ireland continue informally to use their archaic provincial titles. As Ireland was nominally under the overlordship of the English Crown for between the 12th and 16th centuries, the Gaelic system coexisted with the British system. A modern survivor of this coexistence is the Baron Inchiquin, still referred to in Ireland as the Prince of Thomond.

The Prince of Thomond is one of three remaining claimants to the non-existent, since the 12th century, so-called High Kingship of Ireland, the others being The O'Neill, and the O'Conor Don.

Chief of the Name was a clan designation which was effectively terminated in 1601 with the collapse of the Gaelic order, which, through the policy of surrender and regrant, eliminated the role of a chief in a clan or sept structure.

Contemporary individuals today designated or claiming a title of an Irish chief treat their title as hereditary, whereas chiefs in the Gaelic order were nominated and elected by a vote of their kinsmen.

Modern "chiefs" of tribal septs descend from provincial and regional kings with pedigrees beginning in Late Antiquity, whereas Scottish chiefly lines arose well after the formation of the Kingdom of Scotland, (with the exception of the Clann Somhairle, or Clan Donald and Clan MacDougall, the two of royal origins). The related Irish Mór ("Great") is sometimes used by the dominant branches of the larger Irish dynasties to declare their status as the leading princes of the blood.

Following the Norman invasion of Ireland several Hiberno-Norman families adopted Gaelic customs, the most prominent being the De Burgh dynasty and FitzGerald dynasty; their use of Gaelic customs did not extend to their titles of nobility, as they continuously utilized titles granted under the authority of the English monarchy.
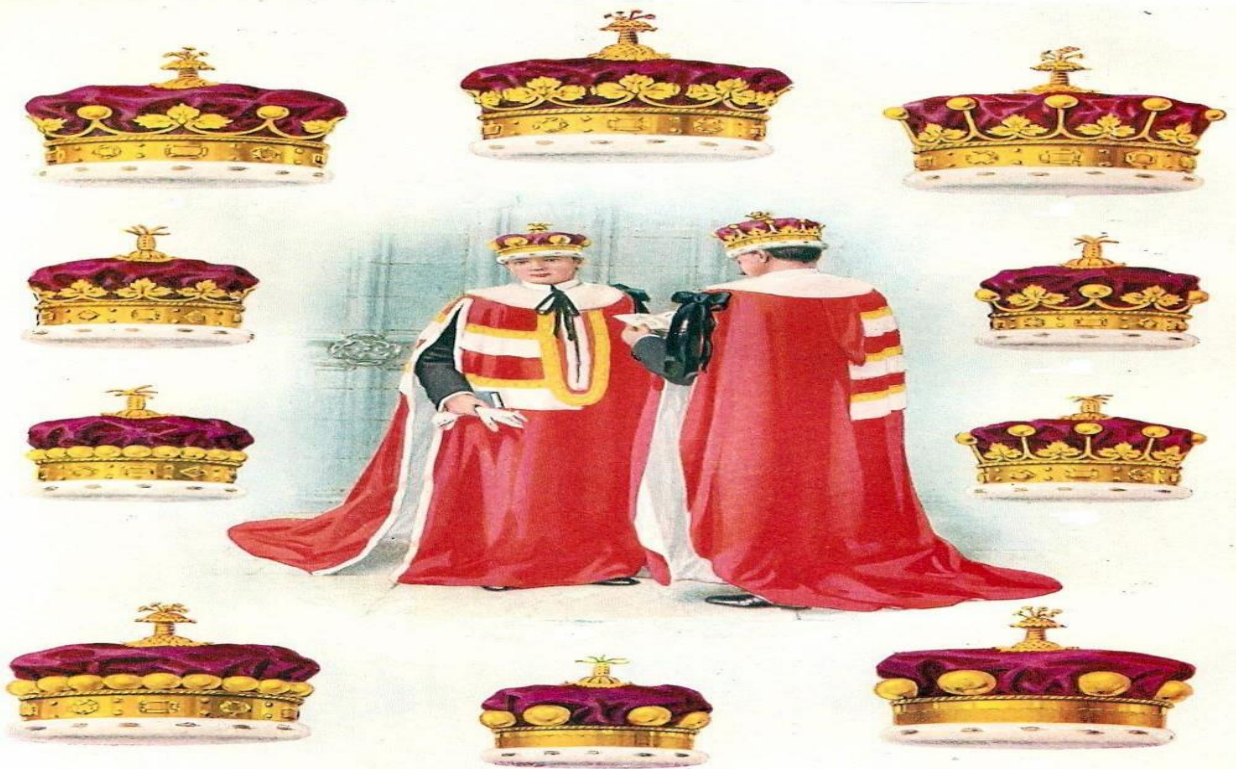
Baron

Viscount

Earl - Count

Marquess - Marquis

Duke

Prince of Wales

In Scotland, a Baron is the head of a "feudal" barony (prescriptive barony). This used to be attached to a particular piece of land on which was the "caput" (Latin meaning 'head'), or the essence of the barony, normally a building, such as a castle or manor house. Accordingly, the owner of the piece of land containing the "caput" was the Baron or Baroness.

The Court of the Lord Lyon issued a new ruling April 2015 that recognises a person possessing the dignity of baron and other feudal titles (Lordship/Earl/Marquis). Lord Lyon now prefers the approach of recognizing the particular feudal noble dignity as expressed in the Crown Charter that the petitioner presents. These titles are recognised as the status of a minor baron but not a peer. Scottish feudal baronies may be passed to any person, of either sex, by inheritance or conveyance.

Scotland has a distinct legal system within the UK. Historically, in the Kingdom of Scotland, the Lord Lyon King of Arms, as the Sovereign's Minister in matters armorial, is at once Herald and Judge.

The Scottish equivalent of an English baron is a Lord of Parliament.

History

Scottish Prescriptive Barony *by Tenure* was, from 1660 until 2004, the feudal description of the only genuine degree of title of UK nobility capable of being bought and sold (along with the *Caput*, or property), rather than passing strictly by blood inheritance.

Statutes of 1592 and the *Baronetcy Warrants* of King Charles I show the non-peerage Table of Precedence as: Baronets, Knights, Barons and Lairds, Esquire and Gentlemen.

A *General Register of Sasines* was set up by Statute in 1617, with entry in the Register giving the *prescriptive* right (right by normal or correct usage), after so many years, to the "caput" or essence of the Barony. The individual who owned the said piece of land containing the caput was hence the Baron or Baroness.

Uncertainty over armorial right was removed by the *Lyon Register* being set up by Statute in 1672, such that no arms were to be borne in Scotland unless validly entered in Lyon Register. Up until 1874 each new Baron was confirmed in his Barony by the Crown by Charter of Confirmation. Up until 28 November 2004 a Barony was an estate of land held directly of the Crown, or the Prince and Great Steward of Scotland. It was an essential element of a barony title that there existed a Crown Charter erecting the land into a Barony, recorded in the Register of the Great Seal of Scotland.

Often the original Charter was later lost, an Official Extract has the same legal status as the original Charter. From the *Treaty of Union of 1707* – until 1999 – a unified Parliament of Great Britain (since January, 1801, known as the Parliament of the UK), at Westminster, was responsible for passing legislation affecting private law both north and south of the Scottish border.

In 1999 the devolved Scottish Parliament was established, and Private law measures can now be passed at Holyrood, the seat of the Scottish Parliament in Edinburgh. Using a *prescriptive feudal grant* allowed developers to impose perpetual conditions affecting the land. The courts became willing to accept the validity of such obligations, which became known as *real burdens*. In practical and commercial terms, these real burdens were like English leasehold tenure.

The first Scottish Executive was committed to abolishing the anachronism of the feudal system.

On 28 November 2004 the *Abolition of Feudal Tenure etc. (Scotland) Act 2000* came into full force and effect, putting an end to Scotland's feudal system. Under Scots law, a Scottish Prescriptive Barony by Tenure is now "incorporeal feudal heritage", not attached to the land and remains the only genuine, *prescriptive*, degree of title of UK nobility capable of being bought and sold – since under Section 63 (1) of the Act, the dignity of Baron is preserved after the abolition of the feudal system.

However, the Abolition Act did end the ability to get feudal land privileges by inheriting or acquiring the *caput* (land or castle) in Scotland.

In common law jurisdictions, land may still be owned and inherited through a barony if the land is titled in "the Baron of X" as baron rather than in the individual's name.

In America it passes with the barony as a fee simple appurtenance to an otherwise incorporeal hereditament, the barony being treated like a landowning corporation. In Scotland, the practice has not been tested in a Court of Session case since the Act. What is possibly the oldest barony in Scotland, the Barony of the Bachuil, has not depended on land ownership for centuries; the barony passes along with the possession of a certain ancient stick, "The Bachuil Mór", which was once the bishop's staff of the Pictish Saint Moluag in the year 562. Unlike all other barons in Scotland, the lawful possessor of the stick is the Baron of the Bachuil, regardless of landholdings.

After 28 November 2004 under Scots law, a Scottish Barony, which was previously Scottish heritable property (real property), became incorporeal heritable property (not attached to the land).

Prior to the Act coming into effect, Scottish Feudal Baronies (Lordships and Earldoms) were the only genuine title of UK nobility capable of being transferred following the sale of land containing a "caput" (or the sale of a feudal superiority). Most baronies were created (erected) prior to 1745 but one was erected as late as 1824. Since the Abolition of Feudal Tenure (Scotland) Act 2000 came into effect, the Lord Lyon, who is the Chief Herald of Scotland, has restored a more traditional form to the coat of arms of a Baron. Barons are now identified by the helm befitting their degree. A new policy statement has been made by the Lord Lyon to this effect. Independent Scots legal advice should always be taken before entering into any contract that claims to offer a Baronial title for sale.

The holder of the dignity of a Barony may petition the Lord Lyon for a grant of arms as he falls under the jurisdiction of the Lyon's Court. A policy statement has been made to this effect by the Lord Lyon. The Lyon Court has no jurisdiction in relation to the transfer of, or legal "trade" in, feudal titles.

An English barony is a peerage (yet the abolition act of 1660) allows for some remaining non-peer baronies not converted by writ to remain as feudal baronies of free socage "incorporeal hereditament" similar to a lordship of the manor), but whether Scottish barons rightfully rank as peers is disputable. They are known as minor barons currently treated as noble titles of less than peerage rank. The Scottish equivalent of an English baron is "Lord of Parliament".

The feudal baronial title tends to be used when a landed family is not in possession of any UK peerage title of higher rank, subsequently granted, or has been created a knight of the realm.

The name recorded by the Lord Lyon as part of any grant of arms or matriculation becomes the holder's name for all official purposes. The holder of a Scottish barony ("Inverglen") may add the title to his existing name ("John Smith, Baron of Inverglen") or add the territorial designation to his surname if still in possession of the caput ("John Smith of Inverglen, Baron of Inverglen"); some of the oldest Scottish families prefer to be styled by the territorial designation alone ("Smith of Inverglen").

Formal and in writing, they are styled as The Much Honoured Baron of Inverglen. A baron may be addressed socially as "Inverglen" or "Baron," and introduced in the third person as "John Smith of Inverglen, Baron of Inverglen" or "The Baron of Inverglen".

When referred to informally in the third person it is incorrect to refer to him as "Baron Inverglen" or "Lord Inverglen", as these would imply a peerage title (Lord of Parliament).

A married couple may be styled "The Baron and Baroness of Inverglen", "Inverglen & Madam Smith of Inverglen", "Inverglen and Lady Inverglen", or "The Baron of Inverglen & Lady Inverglen."

The oldest son of a feudal baron may be known by his father's territorial designation with the addition of "yr" (abbreviation for "younger"), as in "John Smith of Inverglen, yr" and the eldest daughter if heir apparent is entitled to use the courtesy title "Maid of [Barony]" at the end of her name.

The UK policy of using titles on passports requires that the applicant provides evidence that the Lord Lyon has recognised a feudal barony, or the title is included in Burke's Peerage. If accepted, the correct form is for the applicant to include the territorial designation as part of their surname (Surname of territorial designation e.g. *Smith of Inverglen*).

The former Lord Lyon declined to award the following baronial additaments to the arms of those feudal barons registering arms now that the Abolition of Feudal Tenure. (Scotland) Act 2000 is in force. However, the current Lord Lyon has confirmed in a recent policy statement that he will officially recognise feudal barons or those possessing the dignity of baron who meet certain conditions and will grant them arms with a helmet befitting their degree. Scottish Barons rank below Lords of Parliament, and, while a noble, are not conventionally considered peerage titles; unlike others, the title can be hereditary or bought and sold. In showing that Scottish barons are titles of nobility, reference may be made, amongst others, to Lyon Court in the Petition of Maclean of Ardgour for a Birthbrieve by Interlocutor dated 26 February 1943 which "Finds and Declares that the Minor Barons of Scotland are, and have both in this Nobiliary Court, and in the Court of Session, been recognised as "titled" nobility, and that the estait of the Baronage (The Barones Minores) is of the ancient Feudal Nobility of Scotland".

Baronets and knights are evidently classed as "Gentlemen" here and are of a lower degree than Barons. The Scottish Head of Baronial Houses, includes all the various styles and titles which designate the territorial nobility. Barons may wear two eagle feathers when in traditional dress. If the baron is a member of a clan it is advisable to consult the clan chief on clan customs and traditions.

The Lord Lyon only gives guidance and not governance on the wearing of feathers and recommends consulting with a clan chief. Previously, between the 1930s and 2004, when new arms were granted or a matriculation of existing arms took note of a barony, the owner was given a *chapeau* or cap of maintenance as part of his armorial achievement on petitioning for the same.

This is described as "gules doubled ermine" for barons in possession of the caput of the barony. An azure chapeau is appropriate for the heirs of ancient baronial families who are no longer owners of the estates. This chapeau was a relatively recent armorial invention of the late Lord Lyon Thomas Innes of Learney. Accordingly, a number of ancient Arms of feudal barons do not display the chapeau, and now it is no longer granted. The chapeau, if part of the armorial achievement, is placed into the space directly above the shield and below the helmet, and may otherwise be used on a visiting card, the flap of an envelope or to ensign the circlet of a crest badge as used on a bonnet.

Particularly Scottish in character is the *Feudo-baronial Mantle* or robe of estate – described as gules doubled silk argent, fur-edged of miniver and collared in ermine fastened on the right shoulder by five spherical buttons Or. This may be displayed in a pavilioned form, draped behind the complete achievement of arms – or the armorial *shield* alone – tied open with cords and tassels and surmounted by the chapeau. Again, Lord Lyon is no longer granting these robes.

The *helmet* is now the chief mode of recognition of a Scottish baron. The Lord Lyon has adopted a steel helm with grille of three grilles, garnished in gold, as the current baronial additament.

Alternatively, a feudal steel tilting helm garnished in gold may appear, or a helmet of some other degree if the baron holds a higher rank, such as a lordship of parliament.

Supporters, are now usually reserved for the holders of the older baronies (chartered before 1587) and those that have been in continuous family ownership. In England, supporters are reserved for the peerage, and a Scottish baron who approaches the English College of Arms is not allowed supporters. A *compartment* has occasionally been granted to barons, representing their territories, even in cases where there are no supporters.

Badge & Flags

A *badge* – distinct from the *crest* – as a separate armorial device, is not necessarily a feature of the arms. The badge may be used by the "tail" or following of a landowner **baron**. The grant is linked to the baron's *standard*, a heraldic flag, in the livery colours that carries a large representation of the badge. The standard is blazoned in the grant or matriculation. The livery colours are usually the two most prominent colours of the arms themselves.

A *Standard* – an elongated shape, tapering from 1.2 m down to 60 cm, with the fly edge split and rounded (lanceolate). The length is according to rank, from 7.5 m for the Sovereign down to 3.5 m for a Knight, **Baron** or Chief. It bears the Arms as on the shield or the saltire in the hoist, with the tail parted per fess with the Crest, Badge and/or Supporter, plus the motto on one or more Ribands. The Standard is set before the **Baron/Chief's**tent (as it's a "Headquarters" flag and does not indicate that the Armiger is in residence) rather than carried like the banner. A Standard requires a separate grant by the Lord Lyon and is only made under certain conditions.

A *Guidon* – one-third shorter than a Standard and tapering to a round, unsplit end at the fly.

These are assigned by Lord Lyon to individuals who have Supporters to their Arms, and to others who have a following – those in a position of leadership or some official position.

A *Pennon* – a smaller, elongated flag 4 ft long with a pointed, rounded or swallow-tailed end, designed to be displayed on a lance, assigned by Lord Lyon King to an Armiger who applies for one. It is charged with the motto of the armiger as well as the arms as on the shield.

A *Banner* – a square or rectangular upright representation of the Arms designed for carrying in warfare or tournaments, but now flown as a "house flag" when the Armiger is in residence and is NOT the flag of the Clan or Family. Originally, conspicuous gallantry in battle was marked by cutting off the tail of the Standard or Pennon, turning it into a Banner. Strictly speaking, the sizes and shapes are:

Square banner – Sovereign, 1.5 m square; DUKes; 1.25 m sq; Earls, 1.1 m sq; Viscounts and Barons, 1 m sq; Baronets and **feudal barons**, 0.9 m sq; other Armigers, 70 cm wide x 85 cm high.

Rectangular banner – typically in the ratio 3:2, or 5:4 when flown as the "house flag" of an Armiger. *Carrying flag* – this should be sized as follows (width x height): Peers, 1.2 m x 1.5 m; **Feudal Barons**, 90 cm x 115 cm; Chiefs, 85 cm x 110 cm; Chieftains, 80 cm x 90 cm. A *Ensign* may be occasionally granted and blazoned. This is a square flag, smaller than the flying banner, and carrying the full embroidered achievement (arms, crest, motto), again fringed in livery colours.

A *Pipe banner* – rather similar to a Banner, but of a size to fit on the longest drone of the pipes (usually 45 cm) and richly decorated with gold fringing, tassles and the like. The pipe banner for a Chief who is also a Peer or a **Feudal Baron** should have a rounded end extending beyond the length, and any other Chief a split rounded end. A feudal baron is authorised two pipers.

Clan Chiefs/Laird

The Scottish Gaelic word *clann* means children. In early times, and possibly even today, Scottish clanmembers believed themselves to descend from a common ancestor, the founder of the clan, after whom the clan is named. The **clan chief** is the representative of this founder, and represents the clan. In the Scottish clan system, a chief is greater than a **chieftain**, a designation applied to heads of branches of a clan. Scottish clans that no longer have a clan chief are referred to as armigerous clans. Historically the principal function of the chief was to lead his clan in battle on land and sea. The chief and the chieftain were at one time in the Scottish Highlands influential political characters, who wielded a large and often arbitrary authority. However, none of this authority now remains. Highland chiefship or chieftainship in the modern sense is no more than a high social dignity. The existence of chiefship and chieftainship has been recognized by Scottish law;[4] however, the disarming of the Highland clans after the 1745 Jacobite rising effectively eliminated clanship from ordinary civil or statutory law.

Most notable was the Heritable Jurisdictions (Scotland) Act, of 1746 that abolished traditional rights of jurisdiction afforded to Scottish clan chiefs.

"Clan chiefs" & "clan chieftains"

While Scottish law recognizes the existence of clans, chiefs and chieftains,[7] this recognition is only one of social dignity or precedence via the Lyon Court, does not involve any interest for which the law has jurisdiction. Learney further considered clans to be a "noble incorporation" because the arms borne by a clan chief are granted or otherwise recognised by the Lord Lyon as an officer of the Crown.

Clans with recognised chiefs are therefore considered a noble community under Scots law.

A group without a chief recognised by the sovereign through the Lord Lyon has no official standing under Scottish law. Claimants to the title of chief are expected to be recognised by the Lord Lyon as the rightful heir to the undifferenced arms of the ancestor of the clan of which the claimant seeks to be recognized as chief. A chief of a clan is the only person who is entitled to bear the undifferenced arms of the ancestral founder of the clan. The clan is considered to be the chief's heritable estate and the chief's Seal of Arms is the seal of the clan as a "noble corporation".

Therefore, under Scots law, the chief is recognised as the head of the clan and therefore, once recognised, serves as the lawful representative of the clan community worldwide.

The Lyon Court remains the only authority which can make a recording of the dignity of a chiefship acknowledged by attestation, although it is suggested it cannot declare judicially a chiefship.

"**Chief of the Name and Arms**"

The Lyon Court, whose jurisdiction is heraldic, can confirm an application for the **Chief of the Name & Arms** of a Scottish family. However, the "Chief of the Name and Arms" is a heraldic term, refers to the head of a heraldic armigerous family. The term *chief of clan* and *principals of branches* is not to persons bearing coats of arms; chiefship and chieftainship have no armorial significance.

"**Clan commander**"

In cases where a clan has no chief, or a family wishes to have recognition as a clan, clan or family members can formally get together, witnessed by a representative of the Lord Lyon, in a derbhfine and appoint either a **clan chief** if the evidence of links to a chiefly line exists or otherwise a **clan commander**. The Lyon Court can recognize the appointment of a clan commander, for an interim period of up to ten years, whereupon a further derbhfine will be required. It is at this point that the Clan Chief is recognised by the Lyon Court.

Clans with clan commanders are still referred to as armigerous clans. Clan chiefs are entitled to supporters on their coat of arms to specify a very high dignity.

A requirement of the Standing Council of Scottish Chiefs for membership, is that an applicant chief must demonstrate a right to hereditary supporters. A chief without supporters could only be allowed to serve on the Council for their lifetime, and each successive heir would have to be re-elected in the same manner. Elements of the chief's arms are often found in the crest badge worn, usually on a bonnet, by members of Scottish clans.

These crest badges contain, in most cases, the chief's heraldic crest, and heraldic motto(or sometimes the chief's secondary motto or *slogan*). Clan chiefs are entitled to wear three eagle feathers behind their crest badge. Clan chieftains are entitled to two eagle feathers.

A clan member is not entitled to any feathers unless he or she has been granted arms by the Lord Lyon King of Arms, in which case they are an armiger and can wear a crest badge containing elements from their *own* arms. The sash, as worn by Scottish women as part of the national dress, is normally worn over the right shoulder; only the wives of chiefs and chieftains, and women who are chiefs or chieftains in their own right, wear it over the left shoulder.

LAIRD IN SCOTLAND

Laird is a generic name for the owner of a large, long-established Scottish estate, roughly equivalent to an esquire in England, yet ranking above the same in Scotland. In the Scottish order of precedence, a laird ranks below a baron and above a gentleman. This rank is only held by those lairds holding official recognition in a territorial designation by the Lord Lyon King of Arms.

The term "laird" has generally been applied to the owner of an estate, sometimes by the owner himself or, more commonly, by those living and working on the estate. It is a description rather than a title, and is not appropriate for the owner of a normal residential property, far less the owner of a small souvenir plot of land. It goes without saying that the term 'laird' is not synonymous with that of 'lord' or "lady". Historically, the term **bonnet laird** was applied to rural, petty landowners, as they wore a bonnet like the non-landowning classes. Bonnet lairds filled a position in society below lairds and above husbandmen (farmers), similar to the yeomen of England. The word "laird" is known to have been used from the 15th century, and is a shortened form of *laverd*, derived from the Old English word *hlafweard* meaning "warden of loaves". The word "lord" is of the same origin, and would have formerly been interchangeable with "laird"; in modern usage the term "lord" is associated with a peerage title, and thus the terms have come to have separate meanings.

In the 15th and 16th centuries, the designation was used for land owners holding directly of the Crown, and therefore were entitled to attend Parliament. Lairds reigned over their estates like princes, their castles forming a small court. Originally in the 16th and 17th centuries, the designation was applied to the head chief of a highland clan and therefore was not personal property and had obligations towards the community. The laird may possess certain local or feudal rights. A lairdship carried voting rights in the ancient pre-Union Parliament of Scotland, although such voting rights were expressed via two representatives from each county who were known as Commissioners of the Shires, who came from the laird class and were chosen by their peers to represent them.

A certain level of landownership was a necessary qualification. A laird is said to hold a lairdship. A woman who holds a lairdship in her own right has been styled with the honorific "Lady".

Although "laird" is sometimes translated as *lord* and historically signifies the same, like the English term lord of the manor "laird" is not a title of nobility. The designation is a "corporeal hereditament", the designation cannot be held in gross, and cannot be bought and sold without selling the physical land. The designation does not entitle the owner to sit in the House of Lords and is the Scottish equivalent to an English squire, in that it is not a noble title, more a courtesy designation meaning landowner with no other rights assigned to it. A laird possessing a Coat of Arms registered in the Public Register of All Arms and Bearings in Scotland is a member of Scotland's minor nobility.

Scottish famous people

THE BRITISH HONOURS SYSTEM

The British honours system is a means of rewarding individuals' personal bravery, achievement, or service to the UK and the British Overseas Territories. The system consists of three types of award – honours, decorations and medals:

- **Honours** are used to recognise merit in terms of achievement and service;
- **Decorations** tend to be used to recognise specific deeds;
- **Medals** are used to recognise service on a particular operation or in a specific theatre, long and/or valuable service, and/or good conduct.

Although the Anglo-Saxon monarchs are known to have rewarded their loyal subjects with rings and other symbols of favour, it was the Normanswho introduced knighthoods as part of their feudal government. The first English order of chivalry, the Order of the Garter, was created in 1348 by Edward III. Since then, the system has evolved to address the changing need to recognise other forms of service to the UK. As the head of state, the Sovereign is the "fount of honour", but the system for identifying and recognising candidates to honour has changed considerably over time.

Various orders of knighthood have been created (see below) as well as awards for military service, bravery, merit, and achievement which take the form of decorations or medals. Most medals are not graded. Each one recognises specific service and as such there are normally set criteria which must be met. These criteria may include a period of time and will often delimit a particular geographic region. Medals are not normally presented by the Sovereign. A full list is printed in the "order of wear", published (infrequently) by the *London Gazette*.

Orders of honours

Honours are split into classes ("orders") and are graded to distinguish different degrees of achievement or service, according to various criteria.

Nominations are reviewed by honours committees made up of government officials and private citizens from different fields, who meet twice a year to discuss the candidates and make recommendations for appropriate honours to be awarded by the Queen.

New Year & Birthday Honours

A list of approximately 1,350 names is published twice a year, at the New Year and on the date of the Sovereign's (official) birthday. Since their decisions are inevitably subjective, the twice-yearly honours lists often provoke criticism from those who feel strongly about particular cases.

Candidates are identified by public or private bodies, by government departments, or are nominated by members of the public. Depending on their roles, those people selected by the honours committee are submitted either to the Prime Minister, Secretary of State for Foreign & Commonwealth Affairs, or Secretary of State for Defence for their approval before being sent to the Sovereign for final approval. Certain honours are conferred solely at the Sovereign's discretion, such as appointments to the Order of the Garter, the Order of the Thistle, the Royal Victorian Order, and the Order of Merit.

The honour's insignias are then presented by the Sovereign or her designated representative.

The Prince of Wales, the DUKe of Cambridge and the Princess Royal have deputised for the Queen at investiture ceremonies at Buckingham Palace.

Prime Minister's Resignation Honours

By convention, a departing prime minister is allowed to nominate Prime Minister's Resignation Honours, to reward political and personal service. In recent history, only Tony Blair and Gordon Brown have not taken up this privilege (Brown did issue the 2010 Dissolution Honours to similar effect).

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

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

DORMANT ORDERS OF CHIVALRY

Orders were created for particular reasons at particular times. In some cases these reasons have ceased to have any validity and orders have fallen into abeyance, primarily due to the decline of the British Empire during the 20th century. Reforms of the system have sometimes made other changes. For example, the British Empire Medal temporarily ceased to be awarded in the UK in 1993, as was the companion level award of the Imperial Service Order its medal is still used).

The British Empire Medal was revived, however, in 2012 with 293 BEMs awarded for the Diamond Jubilee Honours, and has continued to be awarded in some other Commonwealth nations.

The Order of St Patrick was founded in 1783 by George III for the Kingdom of Ireland, and after the Acts of Union 1800 continued for Irish peers in the UK of Great Britain and Ireland.

After the Irish Free State's secession in 1922, only members of the royal family were appointed to the order, the last in 1936. The last surviving knight was Prince Henry, DUKe of Gloucester, who died on 10 June 1974. Although dormant, the order technically still exists, and may be used as an award at any time. Queen Elizabeth II is the current sovereign of this order.

The Royal Guelphic Order, also known as the Hanoverian Guelphic Order, was an honour founded by George, Prince Regent in the name of his father King George III in 1815.

In the UK it was used only briefly, until the death of William IV in 1837 that resulted in the ending of the personal union with the Kingdom of Hanover due to succession to the throne of Hanover following the Salic Law, unlike in the UK where women could inherit the throne.

The order continued for some time as a national order of Hanover until the defeat and forced dissolution of the kingdom by Prussia in 1866. Since then the order has been a house order to be awarded by the House of Hanover. The order's current head is Ernst August Prinz von Hanover, head of the house of Hanover. The Order includes two Divisions, Civil and Military. During the personal union of the UK and Hanover it originally had three classes, but with several reorganizations since 1841 as house order today it has four classes and an additional Cross of Merit.

Hereditary peerage

There are five ranks of hereditary peerage: DUKe, Marquess, Earl, Viscount and Baron. Until the mid 20th century, peerages were usually hereditary, until the end of the 20th century, English, Scottish, British and UK peerages (except, until very recent times, those for the time being held by women) carried the right to a seat in the House of Lords. Hereditary peerages are now normally given only to members of the Royal Family. The most recent were the grants to the Queen's youngest son, the Earl of Wessex, on his marriage in 1999, to the Queen's grandson Prince William, who was made the DUKe of Cambridge on the morning before his marriage to Catherine Middleton on 29 April 2011, and to the Queen's grandson Prince Harry, who was made the DUKe of Sussex on the morning before his marriage to Meghan Markle on 19 May 2018. No hereditary peerages were granted to commoners after the Labour Party came to power in 1964, until Margaret Thatcher tentatively reintroduced them by two grants to men with no sons in 1983, respectively the Speaker of the House of Commons George Thomas and the former Deputy Prime Minister William Whitelaw.

Both these titles died with their holders. She followed this with an Earldom in 1984 for the former Prime Minister Harold Macmillan not long before his death, reviving a traditional honour for former Prime Ministers. Macmillan's grandson succeeded him on his death in 1986.

No hereditary peerages have been created since, and Thatcher's own title was a life peerage (see further explanation below). The concession of a baronetcy (hereditary knighthood), was granted to Margaret Thatcher's husband Denis following her resignation (explained below, see Baronet).

Hereditary peerages are not "honours under the crown" and so cannot normally be withdrawn.

Life peerage

A peerage can be revoked only by a specific Act of Parliament, and then for only the current holder, in the case of hereditary peerages. A hereditary peer can disclaim his peerage for his own lifetime under Peerage Act 1963 within a year after inheriting the title.

Modern life peerages were introduced under the Appellate Jurisdiction Act 1876, following a test case (the Wensleydale Peerage Case) which established that non-statutory life peers would not have the right to sit in the House of Lords. At that time, life peerages were intended only for Law Lords, there being a desire to introduce legal expertise into the chamber to assist appellate law work, without conferring rights on future generations of these early working peers because the future generations might contain no legal experts. Subsequently, under the Life Peerages Act 1958, life peerages became the norm for all new grants outside the Royal Family, this being seen as a modest reform of the nature of the second legislative chamber. However, its effects were gradual because hereditary peers, and their successors, retained until recently their rights to attend and vote with the life peers.

All hereditary peers except 92 – chosen in a secret ballot of all hereditary peers – have now lost their rights to sit in the second chamber. All hereditary peers retain dining rights to the House of Lords, retaining its title as "the best club in London". All Life Peers hold the rank of Baron and automatically have the right to sit in the House of Lords. The title exists only for the duration of their own lifetime and is not passed to their heirs (although the children even of life peers enjoy the same courtesy titles as hereditary peers). Some life peerages are created as an honour for achievement, some for the specific purpose of introducing legislators from the various political parties (known as working peers) and some under the Appellate Jurisdiction Act 1876, with a view to judicial work.

There is a discrete number appointed as "People's Peers", on recommendation of the general public. 26 Church of England bishops have a seat in the House of Lords.

As a life peerage is not technically an "honour under the Crown", it cannot normally be withdrawn once granted. Thus, while knighthoods have been withdrawn as "honours under the Crown", convicted criminals who have served their sentences have returned to the House of Lords.

In the case of Lord Archer of Weston-super-Mare, he has chosen only to exercise dining rights and has yet to speak following his release from his conviction for perjury.

Baronetcy

A Baronetcy is the lowest title of honour in the UK. It carries the title **Sir**. A Baronetcy is, in the order of precedence, below a Barony but above most knighthoods. Baronetcies are not peerages. When a baronetcy becomes vacant on the death of a holder, the heir, if he wishes to be addressed as "Sir", is required to register the proofs of succession. The Official Roll of Baronets is kept at the Ministry of Justice (transferred from the Home Office in 2001) by the Registrar of the Baronetage.

Anyone who considers that he is entitled to be entered on the roll may petition the Crown through the Lord Chancellor. Anyone succeeding to a baronetcy therefore must exhibit proofs of succession to the Lord Chancellor. A person who is not entered on the roll will not be addressed or mentioned as a baronet or accorded precedence as a baronet, effectively declining the honour.

The baronetcy can be revived at any time on provision of acceptable proofs of succession. As of 2008, 158 baronetcies are listed as presumedly not extinct, but awaiting proofs of succession.

As with hereditary peerages, baronetcies generally ceased to be granted after the Labour Party came to power in 1964. The sole subsequent exception was a baronetcy created in 1990 for the husband of Margaret Thatcher, Sir Denis Thatcher, later inherited by their son Mark Thatcher.

Descended from medieval chivalry, knights exist both within the orders of chivalry and in a class known as *Knights Bachelor*. Regular recipients include High Court judges and Chief Constables. Knighthood carries the title *Sir*; the female equivalent *Dame* exists only within the orders of chivalry.

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

HONOURARY AWARDS

Order of St. John

Members of the Most Venerable Order of the Hospital of St John of Jerusalem (founded 1888) may wear the Order's insignia but the ranks within the Order of St John do not confer official rank in the order of precedence and, likewise, the abbreviations or postnominal initials associated with the various grades of membership in the Order of St John do not indicate precedence among the other orders. Thus someone knighted in the order does not take precedence with the knights of other British orders nor should they be addressed as "Sir" or "Dame". Other British and Commonwealth orders, decorations and medals which do not carry titles but entitle the holder to place post-nominal letters after his or her name also exist, as do a small number of Royal Family Orders.

Citizens of countries which do not have the Queen as their head of state sometimes have honours conferred upon them, in which case the awards are "honorary". In the case of knighthoods, the holders are entitled to place initials behind their name but not style themselves "Sir" as they are not entitled to receive the accolade. Examples of foreigners with honorary knighthoods are Billy Graham, Bill Gates, Bob Geldof, Bono and Rudolph Giuliani, while Arsène Wenger and Gérard Houllier are honorary OBEs. Honorary knighthoods arise from Orders of Chivalry rather than as Knights Bachelor as the latter confers no postnominal letters.

Recipients of honorary awards who later become subjects of Her Majesty may apply to convert their awards to substantive ones. Examples of this are Marjorie Scardino, American CEO of Pearson PLC, and Yehudi Menuhin, the American-born violinist and conductor. They were granted an honorary damehood and knighthood respectively while still American citizens, and converted them to substantive awards after they assumed British nationality, becoming Dame Marjorie and Sir Yehudi. Menuhin later accepted a life peerage with the title Lord Menuhin. Sir Tony O'Reilly, who holds both British and Irish nationality, uses the style "Sir", but has gained approval from the Irish Government to accept the award as is necessary under the Irish Constitution.

Elisabeth Schwarzkopf, the German soprano, became entitled to be known as "Dame Elisabeth" when she took British nationality. Irish-born Sir Terry Wogan was initially awarded an honorary knighthood, but by the time he collected the accolade from the Queen in December 2005, he had obtained dual nationality and the award was upgraded to a substantive knighthood. Bob Geldof is often erroneously referred to as "Sir Bob"; he is not entitled to this style as an honorary knight as he is a citizen of the Republic of Ireland (he is not a citizen of a Commonwealth country).

There is no law in the UK preventing foreigners from holding a peerage (Newburgh), though only Commonwealth and Irish citizens may sit in the House of Lords. This has yet to be tested under the new arrangements. However, some other countries have laws restricting the acceptances of awards granted to would-be recipients by foreign powers. In Canada, where the House of Commons of Canada (but not necessarily the Senate of Canada) has opposed the granting of titular honours with its (non-binding) Nickle Resolution, then Prime Minister Jean Chrétien advised the Queen not to grant Conrad Black a titular honour while he remained a Canadian citizen.

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

Exercise 2. Analyze the information and make a chart about it.

№	Activity			
	Events	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

Orders of the British Empire

TITLES & HONOURS IN BRITAIN

All officially recognised titles in the UK derive directly or indirectly from the sole "Fount of Honour", the Sovereign. Only the Queen herself and Queen Elizabeth the Queen Mother have the right to the honorific title Her (or Your) Majesty (H.M.). The Prince of Wales, the Queen's son, the DUKe of Edinburgh, the Queen's husband, and other members of the Royal Family bear the title of His (or Her) Royal Highness (H.R.H.) The Peerage consists of five ranks – in diminishing order of seniority – these are DUKes, Marquises, Earls, Viscounts and Barons. The last four of these can all be referred to as "Lord" (e.g. Lord Salisbury). All are members of the House of Lords, and until 1958 all were hereditary. Since that year there has been an additional category of non-hereditary "Life Peers" with the rank of Baron. Below the Peerage and with no automatic seat in Parliament are two more ranks, which carry the title "Sir", always used with the Christian name. These are Baronets, where the title is hereditary, and Knights, where it is not. Their wives are known as "Lady" – used with surname only. When "Lord" and "Lady" are used with the Christian name as well as the surname (e.g. Lord David Cecil, Lady Antonia Fraser) these are known as "courtesy titles" and merely signify that the bearer is the son or daughter of a dUKe or marquees – or, in the case of daughter only, an earl.

There are several orders of Chivalry, of which the senior is the Order of the Garter (K.G.). This has no other grades. The other orders have up to five grades. The Order of the British Empire will serve as a good example: within it are the Knights Grand Cross (G.B.E.), the Knights Commander (K.B.E.), the Commanders (C.B.E.), the Officers (O.B.E.) and the Members (M.B.E.).

The two senior grades carry the title "Sir". Female holders of the second grade are known as "Dames", and the "K" is changed to "D". The other principal Orders of Chivalry are those of the Bath (G.C.B., etc.), St Michael and St. George (G.C.M.G, etc.) and the Royal Victorian Order (G.C.V.O.).

There are two other orders, which are awarded to eminent people without conferring a title. They are the Order of Merit, limited to 24-members, and the Order of the Companions of Honour (65 members).

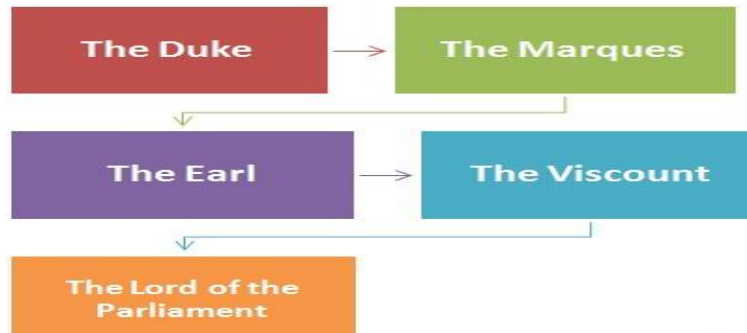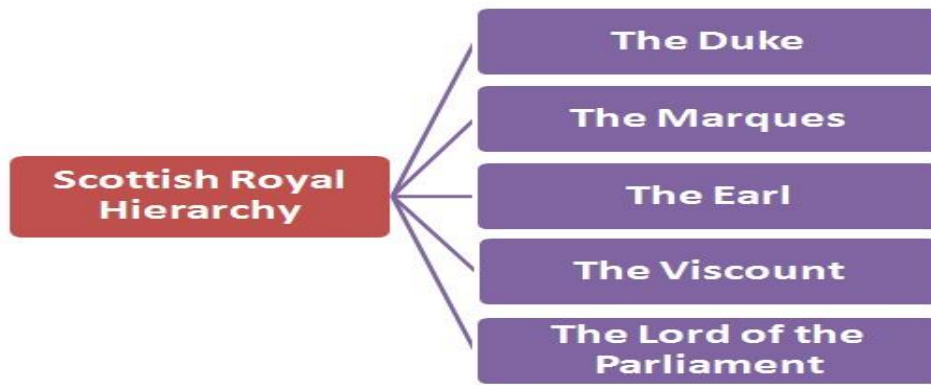***Exercise 1. Use the words and word-combinations in the brackets in the correct form.***

The Prince of Wales is the title, which is given to the king's (queen's) eldest son when he becomes 18. The origin of this title (восходить к) to the time of Edward I.

When Edward I destroyed Welsh (независимость) in the war of 1282-1283, he (создавать) an (неписанный закон) making the eldest son of an English King the Prince of Wales. The King's son (наследовать) the title of Prince of Wales at a special ceremony and automatically is pronounced king when the old king dies. Hence we have (поговорка): "*The king is dead, long live the king!*" Since 1337 the King's eldest son has been born the DUKe of Cornwall.

Cornwall was a Celtic territory created by Edward III who gave his eldest son the Black Prince that title. Thus, the eldest King's son has been born the DUKe of Cornwall and (в возрасте) 18 receives the title of Prince of Wales, a Regent is appointed (править) the country until the DUKe reaches the age of 18. This tradition still (жить) though it is not quite popular in Wales.

Exercise 2. Mark the following statements as true (T) or false (F).

1. The Peerage consists of four ranks. 2. The last three of these can all be referred to as "Lord". 3. Since 1978 there has been an additional category of non-hereditary "Life Peers" with the rank of Baron. 4. There are seven orders of Chivalry. 5. There are three other orders, which are awarded to eminent people without conferring a title. 6. Female holders of the first grade are known as "Dames". 7. This is the Order of Merit, limited to 25-members. 8. This is the Order of the Companions of Honour (60 members). 9. Only the Queen herself and has the right to the honorific title Her (or Your) Majesty (H.M.). 10. The Order of the Garter (K.G.) has no other grades.

Scottish Royal Hierarchy: The Duke, The Marques, The Earl, The Viscount, The Lord of the Parliament

The Duke → The Marques → The Earl → The Viscount → The Lord of the Parliament

Exercise 3. Choose the correct variant.

1. The Duchy's name is _____ from the Earldom of Cornwall.

a) derived b) gained c) got d) obtained

2. She _____ great pleasure from her grandchildren.

a) gains b) derives c) gets d) obtains

3. His income is _____ from several different businesses.

a) gained b) obtained c) derived d) got

4. The Earldom of Cornwall elevated Edward III to a duchy in _____.

a) 1337 b) 1345 c) 1245 d) 1456

5. Prince Charles became the DUKe of Cornwall on the Queen's accession in _____.

a) 1956 b) 1952 c) 1867 d) 1906

6. The DUKe of Edinburgh receives an annual parliamentary _____ to enable him to carry out public duties.

a) allowance b) maintenance c) support d) upkeep

7. The Prince must pass _____ the estate intact.

a) on b) up c) out d) down

8. The annual amounts payable to the Royal family are set every _____ years.

a) 5 b) 10 c) 8 d) 15

9. The Privy Purse is fully taxable, subject to a deduction for official _____.

a) expenditure b) costs c) outgoings d) expenses

10. "God Save the King" was a patriotic song first publicly performed in _____.

a) 1867 b) 1745 c) 1567 d) 1789

The Aristocracy Of England

Exercise 4. Is there any connection between ducks and politics? Look at the first idiom and you'll get the answer. Which of the other idioms have you known before?

Lame duck – a politician who has little time left in office and therefore has less power: *He is a lame-duck leader and is not effective at all.*

Duck soup – A Exercise that doesn't require much effort: *The exam was duck soup. I am sure that I did very well.*

Sitting duck – an unsuspecting person easily fooled: *The soldier should move from that window. He is like a sitting duck for the enemy.*

Dead duck – someone in a hopeless situation or condition: *He is a dead duck. When the police find him he will have to go to jail.*

Like water off a duck's back – without effect: *Criticism falls away from him like water off a duck's back and he never worries about anything.*

Ugly duckling – ugly or plain child (who grows up to be pretty): *She was really an ugly duckling when she was a child but now she is quite beautiful.*

Exercise 5. Write an essay on one of the following topics.

✚ There are a lot of monarchies in the world, where the monarch does not really affect the country's policy, but the citizens wouldn't like to replace the existing government with republic. Why do the people preserve the monarchy as the form of government of their country?

✚ Do you agree or disagree that the concepts of "true democracy" is the same as "anarchy"? Use specific reasons and examples.

✚ Some people support the idea of one-chamber parliament; others would like their country to house the parliament of two chambers. What kind of parliament do you think is the best for UKraine?

✚ What types of government do you know? How are they correlated with the notion of democracy? Which of them appeals to you most? Why do you think so?

Exercise 6. Summarize your findings on titles & honours in the UK and issue in a short presentation.

Duke
Eight stylized gold strawberry leaves rise up from the chased silver-gilt circlet.
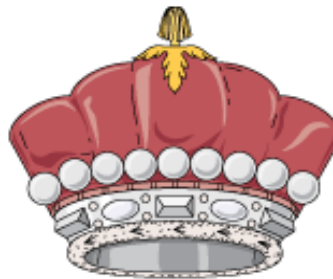
Marquess
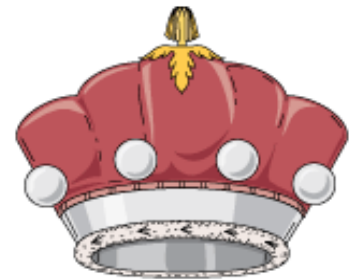Four gold strawberry leaves alternate with four silver balls.

Earl
Eight lofty rays are topped with silver balls; there are gold strawberry leaves in between.

Viscount
Sixteen silver balls touch one another.

Baron
Plain silver-gilt circlet has six large silver balls.

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CEREMONY IN GREAT BRITAIN

Each year, around 2,600 people receive their awards personally from The Queen or a member of the Royal Family. The majority of investiturestake place at Buckingham Palace, but some also take place at the Palace of Holyroodhouse in Edinburgh and at Windsor Castle.

There are approximately 120 recipients at each Investiture. The Queen usually conducts the investitures, the Prince of Wales, The Princess Royalor, the DUKe of Cambridge also hold some investitures on behalf of the Queen.

During the ceremony, the Queen enters the ballroom of Buckingham Palace attended by two Gurkha orderly officers, a tradition begun in 1876 by Queen Victoria. On duty on the dais are five members of the Queen's Body Guard of the Yeomen of the Guard, which was created in 1485 by Henry VII; they are the oldest, but not most senior, military corps in the UK. Four gentlemen ushers are on duty to help look after the recipients and their guests.

The Queen is escorted by either the Lord Chamberlain or the Lord Steward. After the National Anthem has been played, he stands to the right of the Queen and announces the name of each recipient and the achievement for which they are being decorated. The Queen is provided with a brief background for each recipient by her equerry as they approach to receive their decorations.

Those who are to be knighted kneel on an investiture stool to receive the accolade, which is bestowed by the Queen using the sword used by her father, George VI as DUKe of York and Colonel of the Scots Guards. An award for gallantry may be made posthumously; in this case the Queen presents the decoration or medal to the recipient's next-of-kin in private before the public investure public begins.

After the investiture ceremony, those honoured are ushered out of the ballroom into the Inner Quadrangle of Buckingham Palace, where the royal rota of photographers are stationed. Here recipients are photographed with their awards. In some cases, members of the press may interview some of the more well-known people who have been honoured.

Honours, decorations and medals are arranged in the "Order of Wear", an official list which describes the order in which they should be worn. The current Order of Wear was published on 17 March 2003. Additional information on the social events at which an award may be worn is contained in the insignia case given to each recipient.

The list places the Victoria Cross and George Cross at the top, followed by the orders of knighthood arranged in order of date of creation. Individuals of a higher rank precede those of a lower rank. For instance, a Knight Grand Cross always precedes a Knight Commander. For those of equal rank, members of the higher-ranked Order take precedence. Within the same Order, precedence is accorded to that individual who received the honour earlier.

Not all orders have the same number of ranks. The Order of Merit, the Order of the Companions of Honour, the Distinguished Service Order and the Imperial Service Order are slightly different, being single-rank honours, and have been placed at appropriate positions of seniority. Knights Bachelor come after knights of the different orders, but before those with the rank of Commander or lower.

Decorations are followed by medals of various categories, being arranged in date order within each section. These are followed by Commonwealthand honorary foreign awards of any level.

Miscellaneous details are explained in notes at the bottom of the list. The order of wear is not connected to and should not be confused with the order of precedence.

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

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Order	When	Where	Score

CHAPTER II. HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

UNIT I. EARLY HISTORY

INTRODUCTION

England became inhabited more than 800,000 years ago, as the discovery of stone tools and footprints at Happisburgh in Norfolk has revealed. The earliest evidence for early modern humans in North West Europe, a jawbone discovered in Devon at Kents Cavern in 1927, was re-dated in 2011 to between 41,000 and 44,000 years old. Continuous human habitation in England dates to around 13,000 years ago (see Creswellian), at the end of the last glacial period.

The region has numerous remains from the Mesolithic, Neolithic, and Bronze Age, such as Stonehenge and Avebury. In the Iron Age, England, like all of Britain south of the Firth of Forth, was inhabited by the Celtic people known as the Britons, including some Belgic tribes (the Atrebates, the Catuvellauni, the Trinovantes, etc.) in the southeast. In A.D. 43 the Roman Conquest of Britain began; the Romans maintained control of their province of Britannia until the early 5th century.

The end of Roman rule in Britain facilitated the Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain, which historians often regard as the origin of England and of the English people.

The Anglo-Saxons, a collection of various Germanic peoples, established several kingdoms that became the primary powers in present-day England and parts of southern Scotland. They introduced the Old English language, which largely displaced the previous British language.

The Anglo-Saxons warred with British successor states in Wales, Cornwall, the Hen Ogledd (Old North; the Brythonic-speaking parts of northern England and southern Scotland), as well as with each other. Raids by Vikings became frequent after about A.D. 800, and the Norsemen settled in large parts of what is now England. During this period, several rulers attempted to unite the various Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, an effort that led to the emergence of the Kingdom of England by the 10th century.

In 1066, a Norman expedition invaded & conquered England. The Norman dynasty established by William the Conqueror ruled England for over half a century before the period of succession crisis known as the Anarchy (1135-1154). Following the Anarchy, England came under the rule of the House of Plantagenet, a dynasty which later inherited claims to the Kingdom of France. During this period, the Magna Carta was signed. A succession crisis in France led to the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453), a series of conflicts involving the peoples of both nations. Following the Hundred Years' Wars, England became embroiled in its own succession wars. The Wars of the Roses pitted two branches of the House of Plantagenet against one another, the House of York and the House of Lancaster. The Lancastrian Henry Tudor ended the War of the Roses and established the Tudor dynasty in 1485.

Under the Tudors and the later Stuart dynasty, England became a colonial power. During the rule of the Stuarts, the English Civil War took place between the Parliamentarians and the Royalists, which resulted in the execution of King Charles I (1649) and the establishment of a series of republican governments – first, a Parliamentary republic known as the Commonwealth of England (1649-1653), then a military dictatorship under Oliver Cromwell known as The Protectorate (1653-1659). The Stuarts returned to the restored throne in 1660, though continued questions over religion and power resulted in the deposition of another Stuart king, James II, in the Glorious Revolution (1688). England, which had conquered Wales in the 13th century, united with Scotland in 1707 to form a new sovereign state called Great Britain. Following the Industrial Revolution, Great Britain ruled a colonial Empire, the largest in recorded history.

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

BRITAIN'S FIRST INHABITATION IN STONE AGE

The time from Britain's first inhabitation until the last glacial maximum is known as the Old Stone Age, or Palaeolithic. Archaeological evidence indicates that what was to become England was colonised by humans long before the rest of the British Isles because of its more hospitable climate between and during the various glacial periods of the distant past. This earliest evidence, from Happisburgh in Norfolk, includes the oldest human footprints found outside Africa and points to dates of more than 800,000 B.P. These earliest inhabitants were hunter-gatherers, who survived by hunting game and gathering edible plants. Low sea levels meant that Britain was still attached to the continent for much of this earliest period of history, and varying temperatures over tens of thousands of years meant that it was not always inhabited.

The last Ice Age ended around 9,000 B.C.; England has been inhabited ever since.

This marks the beginning of the Middle Stone Age, or Mesolithic. Rising sea levels cut Britain off from the continent for the last time around 6500 B.C. The population by this period were exclusively anatomically modern humans, and the evidence would suggest that their societies were increasingly complex and they were manipulating their environment and their prey in new ways, possibly selective burning of the then omnipresent woodland to create clearings where the herds would gather to make them easier to hunt. Simple projectile weapons would have been the main tools of the hunt, such as the javelin and possibly the sling. The bow and arrow was known in Western Europe from at least 9000 B.C. The climate continued to improve and it is likely the population was on the rise.

The New Stone Age, or Neolithic, begins with the introduction of farming, ultimately from the Middle East, around 4000 B.C. It is not known whether this was caused by a substantial folk movement or native adoption of foreign practices, nor are these two models mutually exclusive. People began to cultivate crops and rear animals, and overall lead a more settled lifestyle. Monumental collective tombs were built to house the dead in the form of chambered cairns and long barrows, and towards the end of the period other kinds of monumental stone alignments begin to appear, such as Stonehenge, their cosmic alignments betraying a preoccupation with the sky and planets.

Flint technology developed, producing a number of highly artistic pieces as well as purely pragmatic. More extensive woodland clearance took place to make way for fields and pastures.

The Sweet Track in the Somerset Levels is one of the oldest timber trackways discovered in Northern Europe and among the oldest roads in the world, dated by dendrochronology to the winter of 3807-3806 B.C; it too is thought to have been a primarily religious structure.

The Bronze Age begins around 2500 B.C with the first appearance of bronze objects in the archaeological record. This coincides with the appearance of the characteristic Beaker culture; again it is unknown whether this was brought about primarily by folk movement or by cultural assimilation, and again it may be a mixture of both. The Bronze Age sees a shift of emphasis from the communal to the individual, and the rise to prominence of increasingly powerful elites, whose power was enshrined in the control of the flow of precious resources, to manipulate tin and copper into high-status bronze objects such as swords and axes, and their prowess as hunters and warriors.

Settlement became increasingly permanent and intensive. Towards the end of the period, numerous examples of extremely fine metalwork begin to be found deposited in rivers, presumably for ritual reasons and perhaps reflecting a progressive shift of emphasis away from the sky and back to the earth, as a rising population increasingly put the land under greater pressure.

England largely also becomes in this period bound up with the Atlantic trade system, which created something of a cultural continuum over a large part of Western Europe. It is possible that the Celtic languages developed or spread to England as part of this system; by the end of the Iron Age at the very least, there is ample evidence that they were spoken across the whole of England, as well as the Western parts of Britain. The Iron Age is conventionally said to begin around 800 B.C.

The Atlantic system had by this time effectively collapsed, although England maintained contacts across the Channel with France, as the Hallstatt culture became widespread across the country.

The overall picture of continuity suggests this was not accompanied by any substantial movement of population; crucially, only a single Hallstatt burial is known from Britain, and even here the evidence is inconclusive. Overall burials largely disappear across England, the dead being disposed of in a way, which is archaeologically invisible: excarnation is a widely cited possibility.

Hillforts were known since the Late Bronze Age, but a huge number were constructed in the period 600-400 B.C., particularly in the South; after about 400 however new ones largely cease to be built and a large number cease to be regularly inhabited, while a smaller number of others become more and more intensively occupied, suggesting a degree of regional centralisation. It is around this time that the earliest mentions of Britain begin to appear in the annals of history.

The first historical mention of the region is from the Massaliote Periplus, a sailing manual for merchants thought to date to the 6th century B.C., and Pytheas of Massilia wrote of his exploratory voyage to the island around 325 B.C. Both of these texts are now lost; although quoted by later writers, not enough survives to inform the archaeological interpretation to any significant degree.

Contact with the continent was generally at a lower point than in the Bronze Age, although it was not insignificant. Continental goods continued to make their way into England throughout the period, although with a possible hiatus from around 350-150 B.C.

Numerous armed invasions of hordes of migrating Celts are no longer considered realistic, although there are two known invasions. Around 300 B.C., it appears that a group from the Gaulish Parisii tribe took over East Yorkshire, establishing the highly distinctive Arras culture; and from around 150-100 B.C., groups of Belgae began to control significant parts of the South. These invasions would have constituted movements of a relatively small number of people who established themselves as a warrior elite at the top of pre-existing native systems, rather than any kind of total wipeout. The Belgic invasion was on a much larger scale than the Parisian settlement; however, the continuity of pottery style demonstrates clearly that the native population remained in place under new rulers.

All the same, it was accompanied by significant socio-economic change. Proto-urban, or even urban settlements, known as oppida, begin to eclipse the old hillforts and elite whose position is based on battle-prowess and the ability to manipulate resources re-appears much more distinctly.

In 55 and 54 B.C., Julius Caesar, as part of his campaigns in Gaul, invaded Britain and claimed to have scored a number of victories, but he never penetrated further than Hertfordshire and was unable to establish a province. However, his invasions do mark a turning point in British history. Control of trade, the flow of resources and prestige goods, became ever more important to the elites of Southern Britain. As the provider of relatively limitless wealth & patronage, Rome steadily became the biggest player in all their dealings. In such a system, with retrospect, it is clear that a full-scale invasion and ultimate annexation was inevitable. The Roman historian Tacitus wrote in his Agricola, completed in A.D. 98, that the various groupings of Britons shared physical characteristics with continental peoples.

The Caledonians, inhabitants of what is now Scotland, had red hair and large limbs, indicating a Germanic origin; the Silures, inhabitants of what is now South Wales, were swarthy with curly hair, indicating a link with the Iberians of the Roman provinces of Hispania, in what is now Portugal and Spain; the Britons nearest the Gauls of mainland Europe resembled the Gauls. This is an oversimplification, which nonetheless holds somewhat true to the present day. Some archaeologists and geneticists have challenged the long-held assumption that the invading Anglo-Saxons wiped out the native Britons in England when they invaded, pointing instead to the possibility of a more limited folk movement bringing a new language and culture which the natives gradually assimilated.

Debate is ongoing surrounding the ultimate origins of the people of the British Isles. In 2003 & 2006 respectively, Bryan Sykes and Stephen Oppenheimer both championed the idea of continuity ever since the Mesolithic period, with a substantial input from the East during the Neolithic.

More recently, this view has been contested, by pointing out that the haplotypes, which Sykes and Oppenheimer associated with Spain hailed ultimately from Asia Minor. This might be more consistent with some kind of Neolithic wipeout; however, it is impossible to date this gene flow.

Other theories have proposed an even more substantial input in the Early Bronze Age than was previously thought. Ultimately, the genetics have in fact not yet told us anything new. Researchers at University College London have conducted genetic tests, which confirm biological differences between the English and the Welsh, with the native English population having DNA which correlates to others found in Germanic parts of Northern Europe traceable through their Y chromosome.

Roman Britain. Roman Empire, 3rd century.

After Caesar's expeditions, the Romans began their real attempt to conquer Britain in 43 A.D., at the behest of the Emperor Claudius. They landed in Kent, and defeated two armies led by the kings of the Catuvellauni tribe, Caratacus and Togodumnus, in battles at the Medway and the Thames.

Togodumnus was killed, and Caratacus fled to Wales. The Roman force, led by Aulus Plautius, then halted as Plautius sent for Claudius to come and finish the campaign.

When Claudius arrived he led the final march on the Catuvellauni capital at Camulodunum (modern Colchester), before returning to Rome for his triumph. The Catuvellauni at this time held sway over most of the southeastern corner of England; eleven local rulers surrendered, a number of client kingdoms were established, and the rest became a Roman province with Camulodunum as its capital.

Over the next four years, the territory was consolidated and the future emperor Vespasian led a campaign into the Southwest where he subjugated two more tribes.

By 54 A.D. the border had been pushed back to the Severn and the Trent, and campaigns were underway to subjugate Northern England and Wales. In 60 A.D. however, under the leadership of the warrior-queen Boudicca, the tribes rose in revolt against the Romans.

Camulodunum was burned to the ground, as well as Londinium and Verulamium, there is some archaeological evidence that the same happened at Winchester as well, and the Second Legion Augusta, stationed at Exeter, refused to move for fear of revolt among the locals there as well.

The governor however, Suetonius Paulinus, marched back from his campaign in Wales to face Boudicca in battle. There was a substantial engagement, somewhere along the line of Watling Street, at the end of which Boudicca was utterly defeated. The province was pacified once more.

Over the next 20 years the borders expanded just a little, but the governorship of Agricola saw the last pockets of independence in Wales and Northern England finally incorporated into the province. He also led a campaign into Scotland, but from these conquests the Emperor Domitian recalled him, and the border gradually solidified along the line of the Stanegate in Northern England.

Hadrian's Wall was built along this line in 138 A.D.; apart from a number of temporary forays into Scotland, this was now the border. The Romans, and their culture, were here to stay; over the course of their three hundred and fifty years in charge, England's landscape would become ubiquitously impregnated with traces of their presence.

THE ANGLO-SAXON INVASION

The Romans conquered most of the island (up to Hadrian's Wall in northern England) and this became the Ancient Roman province of Britannia. In the course of the 500 years after the Roman Empire fell, the Britons of the south and east of the island were assimilated or displaced by invading Germanic tribes (Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, often referred to collectively as Anglo-Saxons).

At about the same time, Gaelic tribes from Ireland invaded the north-west, absorbing both the Picts and Britons of northern Britain, eventually forming the Kingdom of Scotland in the 9th century.

The southeast of Scotland was colonised by the Angles and formed, until 1018, a part of the Kingdom of Northumbria. Ultimately, the population of southeast Britain came to be referred to as the English people, so-named after the Angles.

In the wake of the breakdown of Roman rule in Britain from the middle of the 4th century, present day Germanic groups progressively settled England. Collectively known as the "Anglo-Saxons", these were Angles and Saxons from what is now the Danish/German border area and Jutes from the Jutland peninsula. The entire region was referred to as, "Hwicce" and settlements throughout the south were called Gewisse. The Battle of Deorham was a critical battle that established the Anglo-Saxon rule in 577. Saxon mercenaries had been present in Britain since before the late Roman period, but the main influx of population is thought to have taken place after the 5th century.

The precise nature of these invasions has not been fully determined, with doubts being cast on the legitimacy of historical accounts due to a lack of archaeological finds.

Gildas Sapiens' De Excidio et Conquestu Britanniae, composed in the 6th century, states that when the Roman army departed the Isle of Britannia in the 4th century C.E., the indigenous Britons were invaded by Picts, their neighbours to the north (now Scotland) and the Scots (now Ireland).

The Britons then invited the Saxons into the island, hoping to repel the invading armies of the north. To their dismay, the Saxons themselves turned against the Britons after vanquishing the Scots and Picts. Seven Kingdoms are traditionally identified as being established by these Saxon migrants.

Three were clustered in the Southeast: Sussex, Kent and Essex. The Midlands were dominated by the kingdoms of Mercia and East Anglia. The Monarchs of Mercia's lineage was determined to reach as far back as the early 500's. To the north was Northumbria, which unified two earlier kingdoms, Bernicia and Deira. The development of these kingdoms led to the eventual domination by Northumbria and Mercia in the 7th century, Mercia in the 8th century and then Wessex in the 9th century.

Northumbria extended its control north into Scotland and west into Wales. It also subdued Mercia whose first powerful King, Penda, was killed by Oswy in 655. Northumbria's power began to wane after 685 with the defeat and death of its king Aegfrith at the hands of the Picts. Mercian power reached its peak under the rule of Offa, who from 785 had influence over most of Anglo-Saxon England.

From Offa's death in 796 the supremacy of Wessex was established under Egbert who extended his control west into Cornwall before defeating the Mercians at the Battle of Ellendun in 825.

Four years later he received submission and tribute from the Northumbrian king, Eanred.

The sequence of events of the fifth and sixth centuries is particularly difficult to access, peppered with a mixture of mythology, such as the characters of Hengist and Horsa, and legend, such as St. Germanus's so-called "Alleluia Victory" against the Heathens, and half-remembered history, such as the exploits of Ambrosius Aurelianus and King Arthur. However, the belief that the Saxons simply wiped or drove out all the native Britons from England has been widely discredited by a number of archaeologists since the 2000s. At any rate, the Anglo-Saxons, including Saxonified Britons, progressively spread into England, by a combination of military conquest and cultural assimilation, until by the eighth century some kind of England really had emerged.

Christianisation of Anglo-Saxon England began around A.D. 600, influenced by Celtic Christianity from the northwest and by the Roman Catholic Church from the southeast.

Augustine, the first Archbishop of Canterbury, took office in 597. In 601, he baptised the first Christian Anglo-Saxon king, Aethelbert of Kent. The last pagan Anglo-Saxon king, Penda of Mercia, died in 655. The last pagan Jutish king, Arwald of the Isle of Wight was killed in 686. The Anglo-Saxon mission on the continent took off in the 8th century, leading to the Christianisation of practically all of the Frankish Empire by 800. Throughout the 7th and 8th century power fluctuated between the larger kingdoms. Bede records Aethelbert of Kent as being dominant at the close of the 6th century, but power seems to have shifted northwards to the kingdom of Northumbria, which was formed from the amalgamation of Bernicia and Deira. Edwin of Northumbria probably held dominance over much of Britain, though Bede's Northumbrian bias should be kept in mind. Succession crises meant Northumbrian hegemony was not constant.

Mercia remained a very powerful kingdom, especially under Penda. Two defeats essentially ended Northumbrian dominance: The Battle of the Trent in 679 against Mercia, and Nechtanesmere in 685 against the Picts. The so-called "Mercian Supremacy" dominated the 8th century, though it was not constant. Aethelbald and Offa, the two most powerful kings, achieved high status.

Indeed, Offa was considered the overlord of south Britain by Charlemagne. That Offa could summon the resources to build Offa's Dyke is testament to his power. However, a rising Wessex, and challenges from smaller kingdoms, kept Mercian power in check; by the early 9th century the "Mercian Supremacy" was over. This period has been described as the Heptarchy, though this term has now fallen out of academic use. The word arose on the basis that the seven kingdoms of Northumbria, Mercia, Kent, East Anglia, Essex, Sussex and Wessex were the main polities of south Britain.

Viking challenge & the rise of Wessex

The first recorded landing of Vikings took place in 787 in Dorsetshire, on the south-west coast.

The first major attack in Britain was in 793 at Lindisfarne monastery as given by the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. However, by then the Vikings were almost certainly well-established in Orkney and Shetland, and many other non-recorded raids probably occurred before this. Records do show the first Viking attack on Iona taking place in 794. The arrival of the Vikings (in particular the Danish Great Heathen Army) upset the political and social geography of Britain and Ireland.

In 867 Northumbria fell to the Danes; East Anglia fell in 869. Though Wessex managed to contain the Vikings by defeating them at Ashdown in 871, a second invading army landed, leaving the Saxons on a defensive footing. At much the same time, Æthelred, king of Wessex died and was succeeded by his younger brother Alfred. Alfred was immediately confronted with the Exercise of defending Wessex against the Danes. He spent the first five years of his reign paying the invaders off. In 878, Alfred's forces were overwhelmed at Chippenham in a surprise attack. It was only now, with the independence of Wessex hanging by a thread that Alfred emerged as a great king. In May 878, he led a force that defeated the Danes at Edington. The victory was so complete that the Danish leader, Guthrum, was forced to accept Christian baptism and withdraw from Mercia. Alfred then set about strengthening the defences of Wessex, building a new navy – 60 vessels strong.

Alfred's success bought Wessex and Mercia years of peace and sparked economic recovery in previously ravaged areas. Alfred's success was sustained by his son Edward, whose decisive victories over the Danes in East Anglia in 910 and 911 were followed by a crushing victory at Tempsford in 917.

These military gains allowed Edward to fully incorporate Mercia into his kingdom and add East Anglia to his conquests. Edward then set about reinforcing his northern borders against the Danish Kingdom of Northumbria. Edward's rapid conquest of the English kingdoms meant Wessex received homage from those that remained, including Gwynedd in Wales and Scotland.

His dominance was reinforced by his son Æthelstan, who extended the borders of Wessex northward, in 927 conquering the Kingdom of York and leading a land and naval invasion of Scotland.

These conquests led to his adopting the title 'King of the English' for the first time.

Germanic speakers referred to Britons as Welsh. This term came to be applied exclusively to the inhabitants of what is now Wales, but it also survives in names such as Wallace and in the second syllable of Cornwall. Cymry, a name the Britons used to describe themselves, is similarly restricted in modern Welsh to people from Wales, but also survives in English in the place name of Cumbria.

The Germanic tribes did not assimilate the Britons living in the areas now known as Wales, Cumbria and Cornwall, a fact reflected in the survival of Celtic languages in these areas into more recent times. At the time of the Germanic invasion of Southern Britain, many Britons emigrated to the area now known as Brittany, where Breton, a Celtic language closely related to Welsh and Cornish and descended from the language of the emigrants, is still spoken.

In the 9th century, a series of Danish assaults on northern English kingdoms led to them coming under Danish control (the Danelaw). In the 10th century, all the English kingdoms were unified under one ruler as the kingdom of England when the last constituent kingdom, Northumbria, submitted to Edgar in 959. In 1066, England was conquered by the Normans, who introduced a Norman-speaking administration that was eventually assimilated. Wales came under Anglo-Norman control in 1282, and was officially annexed to England in the 16th century. The dominance and independence of England was maintained by the kings that followed. It was not until 978 and the accession of Æthelred the Unready that the Danish threat resurfaced. Two powerful Danish kings (Harold Bluetooth & later Sweyn, his son) both launched devastating invasions of England. Anglo-Saxon forces were resoundingly defeated at Maldon in 991. More Danish attacks followed, and their victories were frequent.

Æthelred's control over his nobles began to falter; he grew increasingly desperate. His solution was to pay the Danes off: for almost 20 years he paid increasingly large sums to the Danish nobles in an attempt to keep them from English coasts. Known as Danegelds, these payments slowly crippled the English economy & eventually became too expensive. Æthelred then made an alliance with Normandy in 1001, through marriage to the duke's daughter Emma, in the hope of strengthening England.

He then made a great error: in 1002, he ordered the massacre of all the Danes in England, which had serious consequences. It angered Sweyn, who unleashed a decade of devastating attacks on England. Northern England, with its sizable Danish population, sided with Sweyn.

By 1013, London, Oxford, and Winchester had fallen to the Danes. Æthelred fled to Normandy & Sweyn seized the throne. Sweyn suddenly died in 1014, Æthelred returned to England, confronted by Sweyn's successor, Cnut. Silver brooch imitating a coin of Edward the Elder, c. 920, found in Rome, Italy. British Museum. Alfred of Wessex died in 899 and was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder. Edward; his brother-in-law Æthelred of Mercia, began a programme of expansion, building forts & towns on an Alfredian model. On Æthelred's death, his wife (Edward's sister) Æthelflæd ruled as "Lady of the Mercians" and continued expansion.
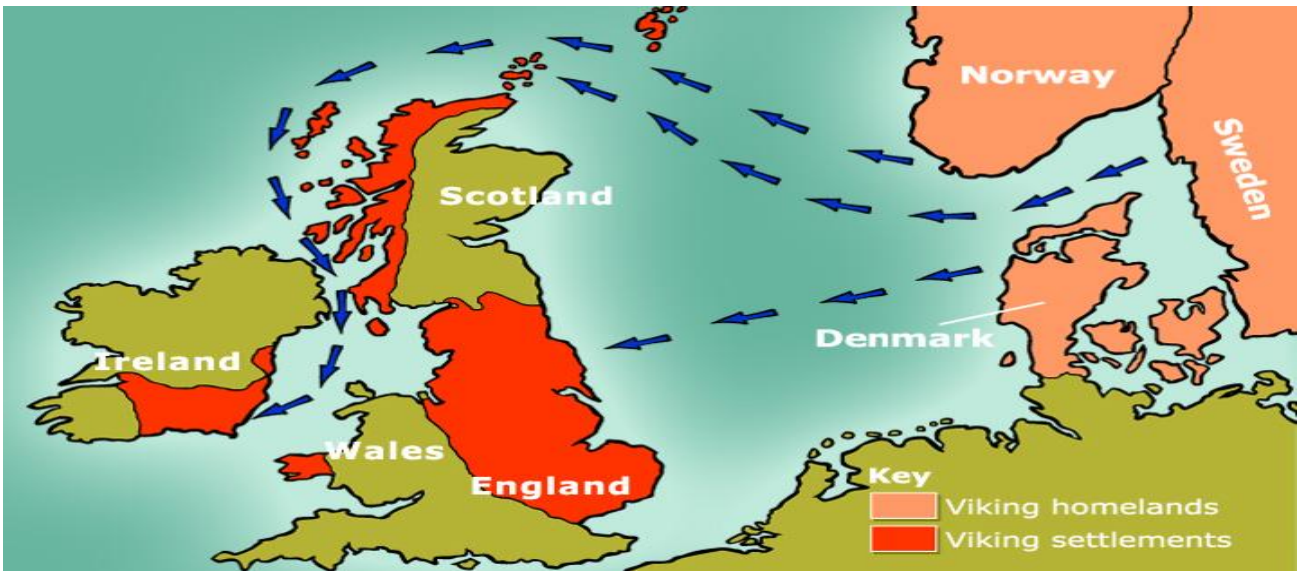
It seems Edward had his son Æthelstan brought up in the Mercian court; on Edward's death, Athelstan succeeded to the Mercian kingdom, after some uncertainty, Wessex. Æthelstan continued the expansion of his father and aunt and was the first king to achieve direct rulership of what we would now consider England. The titles attributed to him in charters and on coins suggest a still more widespread dominance. His expansion aroused ill-feeling among the other kingdoms of Britain, and he defeated a combined Scottish-Viking army at the Battle of Brunanburh. However, the unification of England was not a certainty. Under Æthelstan's successors Edmund and Eadred, the English kings repeatedly lost and regained control of Northumbria. Nevertheless, Edgar, who ruled the same expanse as Athelstan, consolidated the kingdom, which remained united thereafter.

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

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

Exercise 3. Write a small essay on the topic.

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

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The rune stone U 344 was raised in memory of a Viking who went to England three times.

There were renewed Scandinavian attacks on England at the end of the 10th century.

Æthelred ruled a long reign but ultimately lost his kingdom to Sweyn of Denmark; though he recovered it following the latter's death. However, Æthelred's son Edmund II Ironside died shortly afterwards, allowing Cnut, Sweyn's son, to become king of England. Under his rule, the kingdom became the centre of government for an empire, which included Denmark and Norway.

His sons succeeded Cnut, but in 1042, the native dynasty was restored with the accession of Edward the Confessor. Edward's failure to produce an heir caused a furious conflict over the succession on his death in 1066. His struggles for power against Godwin, Earl of Wessex, the claims of Cnut's Scandinavian successors, and the ambitions of the Normans whom Edward introduced to English politics to bolster his own position caused each to vie for control of Edward's reign.

Harold Godwinson became king, in all likelihood appointed by Edward the Confessor on his deathbed and endorsed by the Witan. William of Normandy, Harald Hardråde (aided by Harold Godwin's estranged brother Tostig) and Sweyn II of Denmark all asserted claims to the throne. By far the strongest hereditary claim was that of Edgar the Ætheling, but his youth and apparent lack of powerful supporters caused him to be passed over, and he did not play a major part in the struggles of 1066, though he was made king for a short time by the Witan after the death of Harold Godwinson.

In September 1066, Harald III of Norway landed in Northern England with a force of around 15,000 men and 300 longships (50 men in each boat). With him was Earl Tostig, who had promised him support. Harold Godwinson defeated and killed Harald III of Norway and Tostig and the Norwegian force at the Battle of Stamford Bridge. On 28 September 1066, William of Normandy invaded England with a force of Normans, in a campaign known as the Norman Conquest. On 14 October, after having marched his exhausted army all the way from Yorkshire, Harold fought the Normans at the Battle of Hastings, where England's army was defeated and Harold was killed. Further opposition to William in support of Edgar the Ætheling soon collapsed, and William was crowned king on Christmas Day 1066.

For the next five years he faced a series of English rebellions in various parts of the country & a half-hearted Danish invasion, but he was able to subdue all resistance and establish an enduring regime. The Norman Conquest led to a profound change in the history of the English state. William ordered the compilation of the Domesday Book, a survey of the entire population and their lands and property for tax purposes, which reveals that within twenty years of the conquest the English ruling class, had been entirely dispossessed and replaced by Norman landholders, who also monopolised all senior positions in the government and the Church. William and his nobles spoke and conducted court in Norman French, in England as well as in Normandy. The use of the Anglo-Norman language by the aristocracy endured for centuries and left an indelible mark in the development of modern English.

Upon being crowned, on Christmas Day 1066, William began consolidating his power.

By 1067, he faced revolts on all sides and spent four years systematically crushing each one. He then went about imposing his superiority over Scotland & Wales, forcing each to recognise him as overlord. The English Middle Ages were characterised by civil war, international war, occasional insurrection, and widespread political intrigue amongst the aristocratic and monarchic elite.

England was more than self-sufficient in cereals, dairy products, beef and mutton. The nation's international economy was based on the wool trade, in which the produce of the sheepwalks of northern England was exported to the textile cities of Flanders, where it was worked into cloth.

Medieval foreign policy was as much shaped by relations with the Flemish textile industry as it was by dynastic adventures in western France. An English textile industry was established in the 15th century, providing the basis for rapid English capital accumulation. Henry I, the fourth son of William I the Conqueror, succeeded his elder brother William II as King of England in 1100.

Henry was also known as "Henry Beauclerc" (because of his education – as his older brother William was the heir apparent and thus given the practical training to be king, Henry received the alternate, formal education), worked hard to reform and stabilise the country and smooth the differences between the Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman societies.

The loss of his son, William Adelin, in the wreck of the White Ship in November 1120, undermined his reforms. This problem regarding succession cast a long shadow over English history.

Henry I had required the leading barons, ecclesiastics and officials in Normandy and England, to take an oath to accept Matilda (as Empress Maud, Henry I's daughter) as his heir. England was far less than enthusiastic to accept an outsider, and a woman, as their ruler.
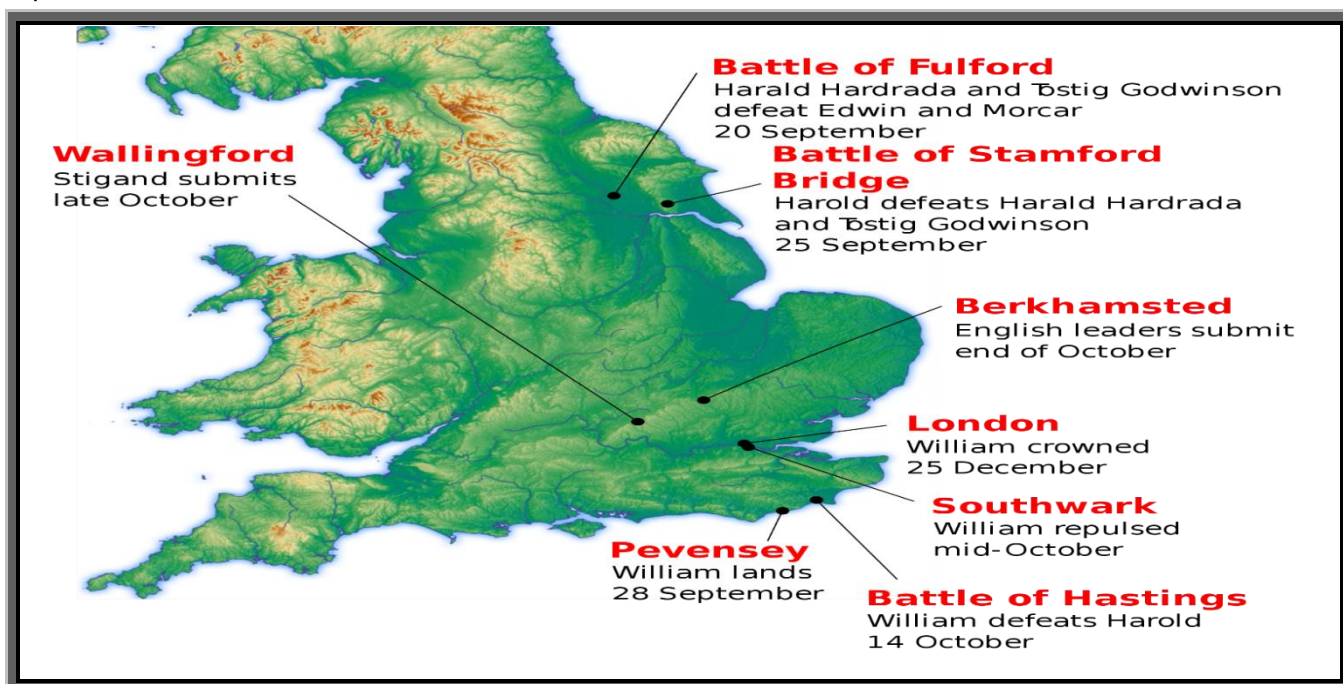
There is some evidence suggesting Henry was unsure of his own hopes and the oath to make Matilda his heir. In likelihood, Henry probably hoped Matilda would have a son and step aside as Queen Mother, making her son the next heir. Upon Henry's death, the Norman and English barons ignored Matilda's claim to the throne, and thus through a series of decisions, Stephen, Henry's favourite nephew, was welcomed by many in England and Normandy as their new ruler.

On 22 December 1135, Stephen was anointed king with the implicit support of the church and nation. Matilda and her own son stood for direct descent by heredity from Henry I, and she bided her time in France. The following civil war from 1139-1153 is known as the Anarchy. In the autumn of 1139, she invaded England with her illegitimate half-brother Robert of Gloucester.

Her husband, Geoffroy V of Anjou, conquered Normandy but did not cross the channel to help his wife, satisfied with Normandy and Anjou. During this breakdown of central authority, the nobles ran amok building adulterine castles (i.e. castles erected without government permission). Stephen was captured, and his government fell.

Matilda was proclaimed queen but was soon at odds with her subjects and was expelled from London. The period of insurrection and civil war that followed continued until 1148, when Matilda returned to France. Stephen effectively reigned unopposed until his death in 1154, although his hold on the throne was still uneasy. As soon as he regained power, he began the process of demolishing the adulterine castles, which were hated by the peasants due to their being employed as forced labour to build and maintain them. Stephen kept a few castles standing however, which put him at odds with his heir.

During the confused and contested reign of Stephen, there was a major swing in the balance of power towards the feudal barons, as civil war and lawlessness broke out.

Battle of Fulford
Harald Hardrada and Tostig Godwinson defeat Edwin and Morcar
20 September

Battle of Stamford Bridge
Harold defeats Harald Hardrada and Tostig Godwinson
25 September

Wallingford
Stigand submits late October

Berkhamsted
English leaders submit end of October

London
William crowned 25 December

Southwark
William repulsed mid-October

Pevensey
William lands 28 September

Battle of Hastings
William defeats Harold 14 October

Empress Matilda and Geoffroy's son, Henry, resumed the invasion; he was already Count of Anjou, DUKe of Normandy and DUKe of Aquitaine when he landed in England. When Stephen's son and heir apparent Eustace died in 1153, the king reached an accommodation with Henry of Anjou (who became Henry II) to succeed Stephen, in which peace between them was guaranteed. England was part of a greater union, retrospectively named the Angevin Empire.

Henry destroyed the remaining adulterine castles and expanded his power through various means and to different levels into Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Flanders, Nantes, Brittany, Quercy, Toulouse, Bourges and Auvergne. The reign of Henry II represents a reversion in power back from the barony to the monarchical state in England; it was also to see a similar redistribution of legislative power from the Church, again to the monarchical state.

This period also presaged a properly constituted legislation and a radical shift away from feudalism. In his reign new Anglo-Angevin and Anglo-Aquitanian aristocracies developed, though not to the same point as the Anglo-Norman once did, and the Norman nobles interacted with their French peers. Henry's successor, Richard I "the Lion Heart" ("The absent king"), was preoccupied with foreign wars, taking part in the Third Crusade, being captured while returning and pledging fealty to the Holy Roman Empire as part of his ransom, and defending his French territories against Philip II of France.

His successor, his younger brother John, lost much of those territories including Normandy following the disastrous Battle of Bouvines in 1214, despite having in 1212 made the Kingdom of England a tribute-paying vassal of the Holy See, which it remained until the 14th century when the Kingdom rejected the overlordship of the Holy See and re-established its sovereignty.

From 1212 onwards, John had a constant policy of maintaining close relations with the Pope, which partially explains how he persuaded the Pope to reject the legitimacy of the Magna Carta.
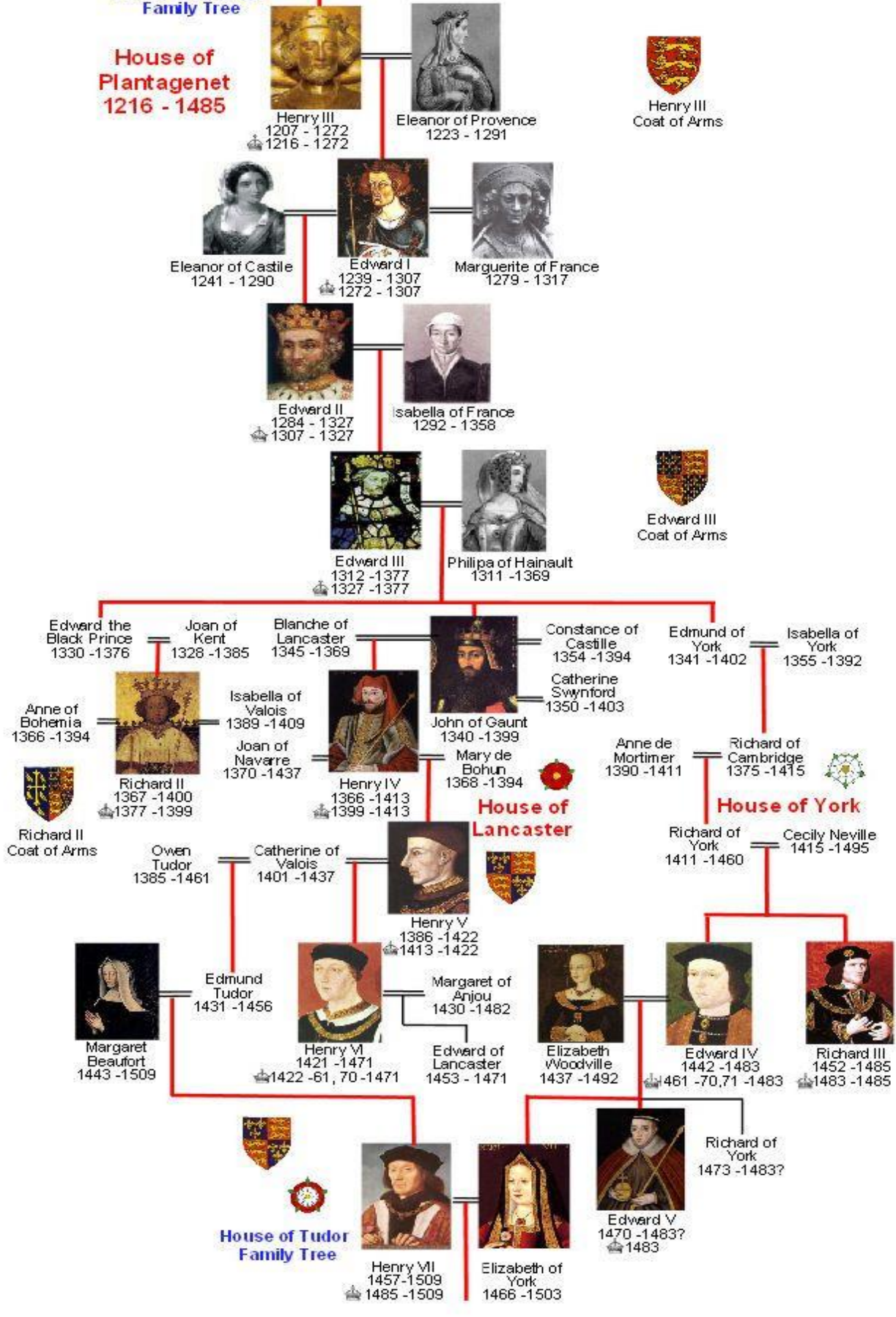

House of the Plantagenets

House of
Plantagenet
1216 - 1485

Henry III
1207 - 1272
♛1216 - 1272

Eleanor of Provence
1223 - 1291

Henry III
Coat of Arms

Eleanor of Castile
1241 - 1290

Edward I
1239 - 1307
♛1272 - 1307

Marguerite of France
1279 - 1317

Edward II
1284 - 1327
♛1307 - 1327

Isabella of France
1292 - 1358

Edward III
1312 -1377
♛1327 -1377

Philipa of Hainault
1311 -1369

Edward III
Coat of Arms

Edward the
Black Prince
1330 -1376

Joan of
Kent
1328 -1385

Blanche of
Lancaster
1345 -1369

Constance of
Castille
1354 -1394

Edmund of
York
1341 -1402

Isabella of
York
1355 -1392

Anne of
Bohemia
1366 -1394

Isabella of
Valois
1389 -1409

Catherine
Swynford
1350 -1403

Anne de
Mortimer
1390 -1411

Richard of
Cambridge
1375 -1415

Richard II
1367 -1400
♛1377 -1399

Joan of
Navarre
1370 -1437

John of Gaunt
1340 -1399

Mary de
Bohun
1368 -1394

Henry IV
1366 -1413
♛1399 -1413

House of York

Richard II
Coat of Arms

House of
Lancaster

Owen
Tudor
1385 -1461

Catherine of
Valois
1401 -1437

Richard of
York
1411 -1460

Cecily Neville
1415 -1495

Henry V
1386 -1422
♛1413 -1422

Edmund
Tudor
1431 -1456

Margaret of
Anjou
1430 -1482

Margaret
Beaufort
1443 -1509

Henry VI
1421 -1471
♛1422 -61, 70 -1471

Edward of
Lancaster
1453 - 1471

Elizabeth
Woodville
1437 -1492

Edward IV
1442 -1483
♛1461 -70, 71 -1483

Richard III
1452 -1485
♛1483 -1485

Richard of
York
1473 -1483?

Edward V
1470 -1483?
♛1483

House of Tudor
Family Tree

Henry VII
1457-1509
♛1485 -1509

Elizabeth of
York
1466 -1503

MAGNA CARTA

Over the course of his reign a combination of higher taxes, unsuccessful wars and conflict with the Pope had made King John unpopular with his barons, and in 1215 some of the most important decided to rebel against him. He met their leaders along with their French & Scot allies at Runnymede, near London on 15 June 1215 to seal the Great Charter (Magna Carta in Latin), which imposed legal limits on the king's personal powers.

Because he had sealed under duress, John received approval from the Pope to break his word as soon as hostilities had ceased, provoking the First Barons' War and an invited French invasion by Prince Louis of France (whom the majority of the English barons had invited to replace John on the throne and had him proclaimed king in London in May 1216).

John travelled around the country to oppose the rebel forces, directing, among other operations, a two-month siege of the rebel-held Rochester Castle. John's son, Henry III, was only 9 years old when he became king (1216-1272). He spent much of his reign fighting the barons over the Magna Carta and the royal rights, and was eventually forced to call the first "parliament" in 1264.

He was unsuccessful on the Continent, where he endeavoured to re-establish English control over Normandy, Anjou, and Aquitaine. His reign was punctuated by numerous rebellions and civil wars, often provoked by incompetence and mismanagement in government and Henry's perceived over-reliance on French courtiers (restricting the influence of the English nobility).

One of these rebellions – led by a disaffected courtier, Simon de Montfort – was notable for its assembly of one of the earliest precursors to Parliament. In addition to fighting the Second Barons' War, Henry III made war against Saint Louis and was defeated during the Saintonge War, yet Louis IX did not capitalise on his victory, respecting his opponent's rights.

In June 1215, King John signed the Magna Carta, which would become one of the most important documents in the history of Medieval England. Latin for "Great Charter", the Magna Carta was signed by the King of England at the time – John – and the feudal barons at Runnymede near Windsor Castle, and it was essentially designed to determine the way the country would be run.

The Magna Carta was a means of limiting the king's power and to ensure the population of England did not suffer at the hands of Royalty abusing their power. It was a series of writings between the king and his subjects promising that the king would govern England and deal with the nation according to feudal law customs.

The document has such historical significance because not only did it place constraints on the power of a king, which was rare at the time, but it has also sparked debate over exactly why a king would agree to such a deal. Central to the signing of the Magna Carta was the relationship between the king and the barons. The king was reliant on the barons to raise money, which would in turn be used for military campaigns, particularly to defend the territories it controlled in France. As with typically under the Feudal System, to collect the taxes, the king would need to consult with the barons, who would then gather the money – this made the king, in part at least, reliant on the barons.

While this system worked quite effectively for in Medieval England, it was tested under the reign of John, who constantly wanted more taxes to be raised for his ever-expanding military campaigns overseas. And by 1204, when the king had lost his land in northern France, John decided to bring in higher taxes without consulting the barons.

The king made other mistakes in different areas, one of the most notable of which was to anger the Roman Catholic Church. The pope acted out of temper due to John's behaviour and from 1207 the decision was made to ban all church services in England. Of course for people in Medieval England, religion, and the fear of being sent to hell, were extremely important – both for barons and peasants.

With the churches shut, people's chances of showing themselves to be a good Christian and thus going to heaven would be extremely difficult, which worried them and therefore turned them against the king.

John himself was confronted with an even more serious situation in 1209 he was excommunicated by the pope, which rendered it impossible for John to get to Heaven unless the pope withdrew it.

John therefore backed down by accepting the Church's power and allowed them many privileges in 1214. John experienced another reason why 1214 was not a good year for him. He faced military defeat for another time when trying to get his territory back from the north of France. He headed back to London and ordered more tax money – but the barons were not interested in listening this time and opposed his power. They captured London but did not totally defeat John and once the spring of 1215 came around, both sides were prepared to discuss matters – resulting in the Magna Carta. The full Magna Carta Transcript outlines all of the 63 clauses within the agreement.

The document concerned the position of the Catholic Church in England in the first part and the relationship between the king and the barons in the second part. Ultimately it centred on ways of modernising the English legal system. Magna Carta promised just laws and it states court access shall be granted to everyone, and that costs and money shouldn't affect anything if someone wanted to take an issue to the law courts. It states that no freeman (a person who was not a serf) will be sent to prison or given a punishment without going through the proper legal system beforehand. In the future the word "freeman" was replaced by "no one" to include everyone.

The last sections address how the Magna Carta would be imposed in England. 25 barons were made responsible of ensuring the king did what was required in the Magna Carta and it is clear that they were allowed to be forceful if they thought it would make a difference. For more impact with the document, King John's royal seal (see image below) was included to demonstrate to people it had his royal approval.

THE REIGN OF EDWARD I IN 14TH CENTURY

The reign of Edward I (reigned 1272-1307) was rather more successful. Edward enacted numerous laws strengthening the powers of his government, and he summoned the first officially sanctioned Parliaments of England (his Model Parliament).

He conquered Wales and attempted to use a succession dispute to gain control of the Kingdom of Scotland, though this developed into a costly and drawn-out military campaign.

His son, Edward II, proved a disaster. A weak man who preferred to engage in activities like thatching and ditch-digging rather than jousting, hunting, or the usual entertainments of kings, he spent most of his reign trying in vain to control the nobility, who in return showed continual hostility to him. Meanwhile, the Scottish leader Robert Bruce began retaking all the territory conquered by Edward I.

In 1314, the English army was disastrously defeated by the Scots at the Battle of Bannockburn. Edward also showered favours on his companion Piers Gaveston, a knight of humble birth.

While it has been widely believed that Edward was a homosexual because of his closeness to Gaveston, there is no concrete evidence of this. The king's enemies, including his cousin Thomas of Lancaster, captured and murdered Gaveston in 1312.

Edward's downfall came in 1326 when his wife, Queen Isabella, travelled to her native France and then, along with her lover Roger Mortimer, invaded England. Despite their tiny force, they quickly rallied support for their cause. The king fled London, and his companion since Piers Gaveston's death, Hugh Despenser, was publicly tried and executed. Edward was eventually captured and charged with breaking his coronation oath. He was deposed and remained imprisoned in Gloucestershire until he was murdered some time in the autumn of 1327, presumably by agents of Isabella and Mortimer.

Mas of people in northern Europe died in the Great Famine of 1315–1317. In England, half a Ma people died, more than 10% of the population.

Edward III, son of Edward II, was crowned at age fourteen after his father was deposed by his mother and her consort Roger Mortimer. At age seventeen he led a successful coup against Mortimer, the de facto ruler of the country, and began his personal reign.

Edward III reigned 1327-1377, restored royal authority and went on to transform the Kingdom of England into the most efficient military power in Europe. His reign saw vital developments in legislature and government – in particular the evolution of the English parliament – as well as the ravages of the Black Death. After defeating, but not subjugating, the Kingdom of Scotland, he declared himself rightful heir to the French throne in 1338, but his claim was denied due to the Salic law.

This started what would become known as the Hundred Years' War. Following some initial setbacks, the war went exceptionally well for England; victories at Crécy and Poitiers led to the highly favourable Treaty of Brétigny. Edward's later years were marked by international failure and domestic strife, largely because of his inactivity and poor health. In 1373, England signed an alliance with the Kingdom of Portugal, which is claimed to be the oldest alliance in the world still in force. In 1381, a Peasants' Revolt led by Wat Tyler spread across large parts of England. Richard II suppressed it, with the death of 1500 rebels.

Black Death

The Black Death, an epidemic of bubonic plague that spread over the whole of Europe, arrived in England in 1348 and killed as much as a third to half the population. Military conflicts during this period were usually with domestic neighbours such as the Welsh, Irish and Scots, and included the Hundred Years' War against the French and their Scottish allies.

Notable English victories in the Hundred Years' War included Crécy and Agincourt. The final defeat of the uprising led by the Welsh prince, Owain Glyndŵr, in 1412 by Prince Henry (who later became Henry V) represents the last major armed attempt by the Welsh to throw off English rule. Edward III gave land to powerful noble families, including many people of royal lineage.

Because land was equivalent to power, these powerful men could try to claim the crown. The autocratic and arrogant methods of Richard II only served to alienate the nobility more, and his forceful dispossession in 1399 by Henry IV increased the turmoil. Henry spent much of his reign defending himself against plots, rebellions and assassination attempts.

Rebellions continued throughout the first ten years of Henry's reign, including the revolt of Owain Glyndŵr, who declared himself Prince of Wales in 1400, and the rebellion of Henry Percy, 1st Earl of Northumberland. The king's success in putting down these rebellions was due partly to the military ability of his eldest son, Henry of Monmouth, who later became king (though the son managed to seize much effective power from his father in 1410).

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

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

Exercise 3. Write a small essay on the topic.

Exercise 4. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

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

Henry V succeeded to the throne in 1413. He renewed hostilities with France and began a set of military campaigns which are considered a new phase of the Hundred Years' War, referred to as the Lancastrian War. He won several notable victories over the French, including at the Battle of Agincourt.

In the Treaty of Troyes, Henry V was given the power to succeed the current ruler of France, Charles VI of France. The Treaty also provided that he would marry Charles VI's daughter, Catherine of Valois. They married in 1421. Henry died of dysentery in 1422, leaving a number of unfulfilled plans, including his plan to take over as King of France.

(Another unfulfilled plan was to lead a new crusade to retake Jerusalem from the Muslims.) Henry V's son, Henry VI, became king in 1422 as an infant. His reign was to be marked by constant turmoil due to his political weaknesses. While he was growing up, the Regency government ruled England.

The Regency Council attempted to install Henry VI as the King of France, as provided by the Treaty of Troyes signed by his father Henry V, and led English forces to take over areas of France.

It appeared they might succeed due to the poor political position of the son of King Charles VI, who had claimed to be the rightful king as King Charles VII of France. However, in 1429, Joan of Arc began to lead a military effort by the French to prevent the English from gaining control of France.

With her help, the French forces were able to push the English forces back and to regain control of French territory. In 1437, Henry VI came of age and began to actively rule as king.

In an attempt to forge peace, he married a French noblewoman, Margaret of Anjou in 1445, as provided in the Treaty of Tours. Hostilities resumed with France in 1449. When England lost the Hundred Years' War in August 1453, Henry fell into a period of mental breakdown that lasted until Christmas 1454. With his inability to control the feuding nobles, civil war began in 1455.

The conflicts are known as the Wars of the Roses (1455-1485), and although the fighting was very sporadic and small, there was a general breakdown in the authority and power of the Crown.

The royal court and Parliament moved to Coventry, in the Lancastrian heartlands, which effectively became the capital of England until 1461. Henry's cousin, who deposed Henry in 1461 and became Edward IV, went a little way to restoring the power of the Crown.

Edward defeated the Lancastrians at the Battle of Mortimer's Cross. He was briefly expelled from the throne in 1470-1471 when Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, brought Henry back to power.

Six months later, Edward defeated and killed Warwick in battle and reclaimed the throne.

Henry was imprisoned in the Tower of London and died there.

Edward died in 1483, only 40 years old. His eldest son and heir Edward V, aged 13, would have succeeded him, but the king's brother Richard, DUKe of Gloucester declared his marriage to be bigamous & invalid, making all his children illegitimate. Edward V and his 10-year-old brother Richard were imprisoned in the Tower of London and their uncle made himself king as Richard III.

The two princes were never seen again and presumably died in the Tower. It was widely believed that Richard had them murdered, although their exact fate remains a mystery. Regardless of what really happened, the king was reviled as a treacherous fiend who murdered his own nephews to gain the throne. This hatred of Richard obscured his able governance during his brief reign.

In the summer of 1485, Henry Tudor, the last Lancastrian male, landed in England from his exile in France. He defeated and killed Richard in battle at Bosworth Field on 22 August of that year and became king as Henry VII. With Henry VII's accession to the throne in 1485, the Wars of the Roses came to an end, and Tudors would continue to rule England for 118 years. Traditionally, the Battle of Bosworth Field is considered to mark the end of the Middle Ages in England, although Henry did not introduce any new concept of monarchy, and for most of his reign his hold on power was tenuous. He claimed the throne by conquest and God's judgement in battle. Parliament quickly recognized him as king, but the Yorkists were far from defeated.

Nonetheless, he married Edward IV's eldest daughter Elizabeth in January 1486, thereby uniting the houses of York and Lancaster. Most of the European rulers did not believe Henry would survive long, and were thus willing to shelter claimants against him. The first plot against him was the Stafford and Lovell Rebellion of 1486, which presented no serious threat. However, Richard III's nephew John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln, hatched another attempt the following year.

Using a peasant boy named Lambert Simnel, who posed as Edward, Earl of Warwick (the real Warwick was locked up in the Tower of London), he led an army of 2,000 German mercenaries paid for by Margaret of Burgundy into England. They were defeated and de la Pole killed at the difficult Battle of Stoke, where the loyalty of some of the royal troops to Henry was questionable.

The king, realizing that Simnel was merely a dupe, employed him in the royal kitchen. A more serious menace was Perkin Warbeck, a Flemish youth who posed as Edward IV's son Richard.

Again enjoying the support of Margaret of Burgundy, he invaded England four times from 1495–1497 before he was finally captured and put in the Tower of London.

Both Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick were too dangerous to keep around even in captivity, and Henry had to execute them in 1499 before Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain would allow their daughter Catherine to come to England and marry his son Arthur. In 1497, Henry defeated Cornish rebels marching on London. The rest of his reign was relatively peaceful, despite worries concerning succession after the death of his wife Elizabeth of York in 1503. Henry VII's foreign policy was a peaceful one.

He had formed an alliance with Spain and the Holy Roman Emperor Maximilian I, but in 1493, when they went to war with France, England was dragged into the conflict. With his crown impoverished and his hold on power insecure, Henry had no desire to go to war. He quickly reached an understanding with the French and renounced all claims to their territory except the port of Calais, realizing also that nothing could be done to stop them from incorporating the Duchy of Brittany.

In return, the French agreed to recognize him as king and stop sheltering pretenders. Shortly afterwards, they became preoccupied with adventures in Italy and turned their attention away from England. Henry also reached an understanding with Scotland, agreeing to marry his daughter Margaret to that country's king James IV. Upon becoming king, Henry inherited a government severely weakened and degraded by the Wars of the Roses.

The treasury was empty, having been drained by Edward IV's Woodville in-laws after his death.

Through a tight fiscal policy and ruthless tax collection and confiscations, Henry managed to refill the treasury by the time of his death. He also effectively rebuilt the machinery of government.

In 1501, the king's son Arthur, having married Catherine of Aragon, died of an illness at the age of 15, leaving his younger son Henry, DUKe of York, as his heir. When the king himself died in 1509, the position of the Tudors was secure at last, his son succeeded him unopposed.

IN THE RED CORNER

IN THE WHITE CORNER

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER

HOUSE OF YORK

| Henry IV | Henry V | Henry VI | Edward IV | Edward V | Richard III |

THE WARS OF THE ROSES

The Wars of the Roses were a series of English civil wars for control of the throne of England fought between supporters of two rival branches of the royal House of Plantagenet: the House of Lancaster, associated with a red rose, and the House of York, whose symbol was a white rose.

Eventually, the wars eliminated the male lines of both families. The conflict lasted through many sporadic episodes between 1455 & 1487, but there was related fighting before and after this period between the parties. The power struggle ignited around social and financial troubles following the Hundred Years' War, unfolding the structural problems of feudalism, combined with the mental infirmity and weak rule of King Henry VIwhich revived interest in Richard of York's claim to the throne. Historians disagree on which of these factors to identify as the main reason for the wars.

With the DUKe of York's death, the claim transferred to his heir, Edward, who later became the first Yorkist king of England, as Edward IV. He reigned from 1461, interrupted by a Lancastrian uprising and reinstallment of Henry VI in 1470 to 1471, until his sudden death in 1483. His son reigned for 78 days as Edward V, but was then deposed by his uncle, who became Richard III.

The final victory went to a relative and claimant of the Lancastrian party, Henry Tudor, son of Henry VI's half-brother Edmund Earl of Richmond, who defeated Richard III at the Battle of Bosworth Field. After assuming the throne as Henry VII, he married Elizabeth of York, the eldest daughter and heir of Edward IV, thereby uniting the two claims. The House of Tudorruled the Kingdom of England until 1603, with the death of Elizabeth I, granddaughter of Henry VII and Elizabeth of York. The name "Wars of the Roses" refers to the heraldic badges associated with two rival branches of the same royal house, the White Rose of York and the Red Rose of Lancaster. *Wars of the Roses* came into common use in the 19th century after the publication in 1829 of *Anne of Geierstein* by Sir Walter Scott. Scott based the name on a scene in William Shakespeare's play Henry IV.

The Yorkist faction used the symbol of the white rose from early in the conflict, but the Lancastrian red rose was apparently introduced only after the victory of Henry Tudor at the Battle of Bosworth, when it was combined with the Yorkist white rose to form the Tudor rose, which symbolised the union of the two houses; the origins of the Rose as a cognizance itself stem from Edward I's use of "a golden rose stalked proper." Often, owing to nobles holding multiple titles, more than one badge was used: Edward IV, used both his sun in splendour as Earl of March, but his father's falcon and fetterlock as DUKe of York. Badges were not always distinct; at the Battle of Barnet, Edward's 'sun' was very similar to the Earl of Oxford's Vere star, which caused fateful confusion.

Most, but not all, of the participants in the wars wore livery badges associated with their immediate lords or patrons under the prevailing system of bastard feudalism; the wearing of livery was by now confined to those in "continuous employ of a lord", thus excluding mercenaries.

Another example: Henry Tudor's forces at Bosworth fought under the banner of a red dragon while the Yorkist army used Richard III's personal device of a white boar. Although the names of the rival houses derive from the cities of York and Lancaster, the corresponding duchy and dUKedom had little to do with these cities. The lands and offices attached to the Duchy of Lancaster were mainly in Gloucestershire, North Wales, Cheshire, and (ironically) in Yorkshire, while the estates and castles of the DUKe of York were spread throughout England and Wales, many in the Welsh Marches.

Summary of events

Tensions within England during the 1450s centered on the mental state of Henry VI and on his inability to produce an heir with his wife, Margaret of Anjou. In the absence of a direct heir, there were two rival branches with claims to the throne should Henry die without issue, being the Beaufort family, led by Edmund Beaufort and the House of York, headed by Richard of York. By 1453, issues had come to a head: though Margaret of Anjou was pregnant, Henry VI was descending into increasing mental instability, by August becoming completely non-responsive and unable to govern.

A Great Council of nobles was called, and through shrewd political machinations, Richard had himself declared Lord Protector and chief regent during the mental incapacity of Henry.

In the interlude, Margaret gave birth to a healthy son and heir, Edward.

By 1455, Henry had regained his faculties; open warfare came at the First Battle of St. Albans.

Several prominent Lancastrians died at the hands of the Yorkists. Henry was again imprisoned, and Richard of York resumed his role as Lord Protector. Although peace was temporarily restored, the Lancastrians were inspired by Margaret of Anjou to contest York's influence; a deadly feud between the two branches of the royal family ensued.

Fighting resumed more violently in 1459. York and his supporters were forced to flee the country; Henry once again restored to direct rule, but one of York's most prominent supporters, the Earl of Warwick, invaded England from Calais in October 1460 and captured Henry VI yet again at the Battle of Northampton. York returned to the country and for the third time became Protector of England, but was dissuaded from claiming the throne, though it was agreed that he would become heir to the throne (displacing Henry & Margaret's son, Edward of Westminster, from the line of succession).

Margaret and the remaining Lancastrian nobles gathered their army in the north of England.

When York moved north to engage them, he and his second son Edmund were killed at the Battle of Wakefield in December 1460. The Lancastrian army advanced south & released Henry at the Second Battle of St. Albans, but failed to occupy London, and subsequently retreated to the north.

York's eldest son, Edward, Earl of March, was proclaimed King Edward IV. He gathered the Yorkist armies and won a crushing victory at the Battle of Towton in March 1461.

After Lancastrian revolts in the north were suppressed in 1464, Henry was captured once again and placed in the Tower of London. Edward fell out with his chief supporter and adviser, the Earl of Warwick ("Kingmaker") after Edward's unpopular and secretly conducted marriage with the widow of a Lancastrian supporter, Elizabeth Woodville. Within a few years, it became clear that Edward was favouring his wife's family and alienating a number of friends closely aligned with Warwick as well.

Furious, Warwick tried first to supplant Edward with his younger brother George, DUKe of Clarence, establishing the alliance by marriage to his daughter, Isabel Neville. When that plan failed, due to lack of support from Parliament, Warwick sailed to France with his family and made an alliance with the former Lancastrian Queen, Margaret of Anjou, to restore Henry VI to the throne.

This resulted in two years of rapid changes of fortune, before Edward IV once again won complete victories at Barnet (1471), where Warwick was killed, and Tewkesbury (1471) where the Lancastrian heir, Edward of Westminster, Prince of Wales was killed, or perhaps executed after the battle. Queen Margaret was escorted to London as a prisoner and Henry was murdered in the Tower of London several days later, ending the direct Lancastrian line of succession.

A period of comparative peace followed, ending with the unexpected death of King Edward in 1483. His surviving brother, Richard, DUKe of Gloucester, first moved to prevent the unpopular Woodville family of Edward's widow from participating in the government during the minority of Edward's son, Edward V; then seized the throne for himself, using the suspect legitimacy of Edward IV's marriage as pretext.

Henry Tudor, a distant relative of the Lancastrian kings who had inherited their claim, defeated Richard III at Bosworth in 1485. He was crowned Henry VII, and married Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV, to unite and reconcile the two houses.

Yorkist revolts, directed by John de la Pole, 1st Earl of Lincoln & others, flared up in 1487 under the banner of the pretender Lambert Simnel – who claimed he was Edward, Earl of Warwick (son of George of Clarence), resulting in the last pitched battles. Though most surviving descendants of Richard of York were imprisoned, sporadic rebellions continued until 1497, when Perkin Warbeck, who claimed he was the younger brother of Edward V, one of the two disappeared Princes in the Tower, was imprisoned and later executed.

Disputed succession

William the Conqueror's son King Henry I of England died in 1135, after his only male heir was killed aboard the White Ship. Following the White Ship disaster, England entered a period of prolonged instability known as The Anarchy. However, following the ascension of Henry of Anjou to the throne in 1154 as Henry II, the crown passed from father to son or brother to brother with little difficulty until 1399. The question of succession after Edward III's death in 1377 is said to be the cause of the Wars of Roses. He had five surviving legitimate sons: Edward, the Black Prince (1330-1376); Lionel, DUKe of Clarence ("Lionel of Antwerp" 1338-1368); John, Duke of Lancaster ("John of Gaunt"; 1340-1399); Edmund, DUKe of York ("Edmund of Langley"1341-1402); Thomas, Earl of Buckingham (1355-1397). Although Edward III's succession seemed secure, there was a "sudden narrowing in the direct line of descent" near the end of his reign.

His eldest son, Edward, the Black Prince, had died the year before. Edward III was succeeded on the throne by the Black Prince's only surviving son Richard II, who was only 10 years old.

Richard's claim to the throne was based on the principle that the son of an elder brother had priority in the succession over his uncles. Since Richard was a minor, had no siblings, and had three living uncles at the time of Edward III's death, there was considerable uncertainty about who was next in line for the succession after Richard. If Richard II died without legitimate offspring, his successors by primogeniture would be the descendants of Lionel of Antwerp, Edward III's second son.

Clarence's only daughter, Philippa, 5th Countess of Ulster, married into the Mortimer family and had a son, Roger Mortimer, 4th Earl of March (1374-1398), who technically had the best claim to succeed. However, a legal decree issued by Edward III in 1376 introduced some complexity into the question of who would ultimately take the throne. The letters patent he issued limited the right of succession to male heirs, which placed his third son John of Gaunt ahead of Clarence's descendants, because the Mortimer line of descent passed through a daughter.

Richard II's reign was marked by increasing dissension between the King and several of the most powerful nobles. In 1399, he exiled Gaunt's son Henry of Bolingbroke. Richard's government had become highly unpopular beyond his strongholds in Cheshire and Wales.

Throughout his reign, Richard had repeatedly switched his choice of heir in order to keep his political enemies at bay & perhaps to reduce the chances of deposition. Nevertheless, when Bolingbroke returned from exile in 1399, initially to reclaim his rights as DUKe of Lancaster, he took advantage of the support of most of the nobles to depose Richard and was crowned King Henry IV, establishing the House of Lancaster on the throne.

House of Lancaster

The House of Lancaster descended from John of Gaunt, third surviving son of Edward III of England. Their name derives from John of Gaunt's primary title of DUKe of Lancaster, which he held by right of his spouse, Blanche of Lancaster. They had received explicit preference from Edward III in the line of succession because they formed the most senior unbroken male line of descent from him.

Henry IV's claim to the throne was through his father, John of Gaunt. At the onset of Richard II's reign, Gaunt was the official heir presumptive, but due to the intrigues of his turbulent rule, the succession was unclear by the time of his deposition. Therefore, an argument could be made that the legitimate king of England was not Henry IV, but instead was Edmund Mortimer, 5th Earl of March, the son of Roger Mortimer, 4th Earl of March. However, there was little support at the time for his counter-claim. Certainly many people believed it to be the case. As Henry's initial popularity waned, the Mortimer family's claim to the throne was a pretext for the major rebellion of Owain Glyndŵr in Wales, other, less successful, revolts in Cheshire and Northumberland. There were uprisings in support of the Mortimers' claim throughout Henry IV's reign, which lasted until 1413.

A peculiarity of Henry IV's seizure of the throne is demonstrated in the way he announced his claim. He was vague, and he resigned himself to mentioning that he was the rightful heir of Henry III.

He had died more than a century before, perhaps subtly implying that all English kings ever since (Edward I, Edward II, Edward III and Richard II) had not been rightful monarchs. Henry IV seems to have been exploiting a legend that Henry III's second son Edmund "Crouchback", 1st Earl of Lancaster, was in fact his eldest son but had been removed from succession because he had a physical deformity, which gave origin to his nickname. Since Henry IV was Edmund's descendant and heir through his mother Blanche of Lancaster, he was in fact the rightful king. There is no evidence for this legend, and Edmund's nickname did not stem from a deformity.

An important branch of the House of Lancaster was the House of Beaufort, whose members were descended from Gaunt by his mistress, Katherine Swynford. Originally illegitimate, they were made legitimate by an Act of Parliament when Gaunt and Katherine later married.

However, Henry IV excluded them from the line of succession to the throne. Henry IV's son and successor, Henry V, inherited a temporarily pacified nation, and his military success against France in the Hundred Years' War bolstered his popularity, enabling him to strengthen the Lancastrian hold on the throne. Nevertheless, one notable conspiracy against Henry, the Southampton Plot, took place during his 9-year reign. This was led by Richard, Earl of Cambridge, who attempted to place Edmund Mortimer, his brother-in-law, in the throne. Cambridge was executed for treason in 1415, at the start of the campaign that led to the Battle of Agincourt.

House of York

The founder of the House of York was Edmund of Langley, the fourth son of Edward III and the younger brother of John of Gaunt. Their family name comes from Edmund's title DUKe of York, which he acquired in 1385. However, the superiority of their claim is not based on the male line, but on the female line, as descendants of Edward III's second son Lionel of Antwerp.

Edmund's second son, Richard, Earl of Cambridge, who was executed by Henry V, had married Anne de Mortimer, daughter of Roger Mortimer and sister of Edmund Mortimer.

Anne's grandmother, Philippa of Clarence, was the daughter of Lionel of Antwerp.

The Mortimers were the most powerful marcher family of the 14th century. G.M. Trevelyan has written that "the Wars of the Roses were to a large extent a quarrel between Welsh Marcher Lords, who were also great English nobles, closely related to the English throne".

Anne de Mortimer had died in 1411. When her brother Edmund Mortimer, 5th Earl of March, who had loyally supported Henry, died childless in 1425, the title and extensive estates of the Earldom of March and the Mortimer claim to the throne thus passed to Anne's descendants.

Richard of York, the son of Cambridge and Anne Mortimer, was four years old at the time of his father's execution. Although Cambridge was attainted, Henry V later allowed Richard to inherit the title and lands of Cambridge's elder brother Edward, DUKe of York, who had died fighting alongside Henry at Agincourt and had no issue. Henry, who had three younger brothers and was himself in his prime and recently married to the French princess, Catherine of Valois, had no doubt that the Lancastrian right to the crown was secure.

Henry's premature death in 1422, at the age of 36, led to his only son Henry VI coming to the throne as an infant and the country being ruled by a divided Council of regency. Henry V's younger brothers produced no surviving legitimate issue, leaving only distant cousins (the Beauforts) as alternative Lancaster heirs. As Richard of York grew into maturity and questions were raised over Henry VI's fitness to rule, Richard's claim to the throne thus became more significant. The revenue from the York and March estates also made him the wealthiest magnate in the land.

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

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

HENRY VI

From early childhood, Henry VI was surrounded by quarrelsome councillors and advisors. His younger surviving paternal uncle, Humphrey, DUKe of Gloucester, sought to be named Lord Protector and deliberately courted the popularity of the common people for his own ends but was opposed by his half-uncle Cardinal Henry Beaufort. On several occasions, Beaufort called on John, DUKe of Bedford, Humphrey's older brother, to return from his post as Henry VI's regent in France, either to mediate or to defend him against Humphrey's accusations of treason.

Henry VI's coming of age in 1437 brought no end to the noblemen's scheming, as his weak personality made him prone to being swayed and influenced by select courtiers, especially those whom he deemed his favourites. Some time after, Cardinal Beaufort withdrew from public affairs, partly due to old age and partly because William de la Pole, 1st DUKe of Suffolk, rose to become the dominant personality at court. Suffolk and the Beauforts were widely held to be enriching themselves through their influence on Henry, and were blamed for mismanaging the government and poorly executing the continuing Hundred Years' War with France. Under Henry VI, all the land in France won by Henry V and even the provinces of Guienne and Gascony, which had been held since the reign of Henry II three centuries previously, were lost.

Opposition to Suffolk and Beaufort was led by Humphrey of Gloucester, and Richard of York. Humphrey felt that the lifetime efforts of his brothers, of himself, and of many Englishmen in the war against France were being wasted as the French territories slipped from English hands, especially since Suffolk and his supporters were trying to make large diplomatic and territorial concessions to the French in a desperate attempt for peace. In this, Gloucester enjoyed little influence, as Henry VI tended to favour Suffolk and Beaufort's faction at court due to its less hawkishand more conciliatory inclinations. The Duke of York, Bedford's successor in France, and at times described as a skeptic of the peace policy, became entangled in this dispute as Suffolk & the Beauforts were frequently granted large money and land grants from the king, as well as important government and military positions, redirecting much needed resources away from York's campaigns in France.

Suffolk eventually succeeded in having Humphrey of Gloucester arrested for treason.

Humphrey died while awaiting trial in prison at Bury St. Edmunds in 1447. Some authorities date the start of the War of the Roses from the death of Humphrey. At the same time, Richard of York was stripped of the prestigious military command in France and sent to govern the relatively distant Ireland, whereby he could not interfere in the proceedings of the court.

However, with severe reverses in France, Suffolk was stripped of office and was murdered on his way to exile. Edmund Beaufort, 2nd DUKe of Somerset (Cardinal Beaufort's nephew), succeeded him as leader of the party seeking peace with France. The Duke of York meanwhile represented those who wished to prosecute the war more vigorously, and criticised the court; Somerset, in particular, for starving him of funds and men during his campaigns in France. In all these quarrels, Henry VI had taken little part. He was seen as a weak, ineffectual king. In addition, he displayed several symptoms of mental illness that he may have inherited from his maternal grandfather, Charles VI of France. By 1450 many considered Henry incapable of carrying out the duties and responsibilities of a king.

In 1450, there was a violent popular revolt in Kent, Jack Cade's Rebellion, which is often seen as the prelude to the Wars of the Roses. The rebel manifesto, *The Complaint of the Poor Commons of Kent* written under Cade's leadership, accused the crown of extortion, perversion of justice, and election fraud. The rebels occupied parts of London, and executed James Fiennes, 1st Baron Saye and Sele, the unpopular Lord High Treasurer, after a hasty trial. After some of them fell to looting, they were driven out of London by the citizens. They dispersed after they were supposedly pardoned but several, including Cade, were later executed. After the rebellion the rebels' grievances formed the basis of Richard of York's opposition to a royal government from which he felt excluded.

Two years later, in 1452, Richard of York returned to England from his new post as Lieutenant of Ireland and marched on London, demanding Somerset's removal and reform of the government.

At this stage, few of the nobles supported such drastic action, and York was forced to submit to superior force at Blackheath. He was imprisoned for much of 1452 and 1453 but was released after swearing not to take arms against the court. The increasing discord at court was mirrored in the country as a whole, where noble families engaged in private feuds and showed increasing disrespect for the royal authority and for the courts of law.

In many cases feuds were fought between old-established families, and formerly minor nobility raised in power and influence by Henry IV in the aftermath of the rebellions against him.

The quarrel between the Percys – long the Earls of Northumberland – and the comparatively upstart Nevilles was the best-known of these private wars and followed this pattern, as did the Bonville-Courtenay feud in Cornwall and Devon.

A factor in these feuds was the presence of large numbers of soldiers discharged from the English armies that had been defeated in France. Nobles engaged many of these to mount raids, or to pack courts of justice with their supporters, intimidating suitors, witnesses and judges.

This growing civil discontent, the abundance of feuding nobles with private armies, and corruption in Henry VI's court formed a political climate ripe for civil war. With the king so easily manipulated, power rested with those closest to him at court, in other words, Somerset and the Lancastrian faction.

Richard and the Yorkist faction, who tended to be physically placed further away from the seat of power, found their power slowly being stripped away. Royal power and finances also started to slip, as Henry was persuaded to grant many royal lands and estates to the Lancastrians, thereby losing their revenue.

In 1453, Henry suffered the first of several bouts of complete mental collapse, during which he failed even to recognise his new-born son, Edward of Westminster. On 22 March 1454, Cardinal John Kemp, the Chancellor, died. Henry was incapable of nominating a successor.

To ensure that the country could be governed, a Council of Regency was set up, headed by the DUKe of York, who still remained popular with the people, as Lord Protector.

York soon asserted his power with ever-greater boldness (although there is no proof that he had aspirations to the throne at this early stage). He imprisoned Somerset and backed his Neville allies (his brother-in-law, the Earl of Salisbury, and Salisbury's son, the Earl of Warwick), in their continuing feud with the Earl of Northumberland, a powerful supporter of Henry.

Henry recovered in 1455 and once again fell under the influence of those closest to him at court.

Directed by Henry's queen, the powerful and aggressive Margaret of Anjou, who emerged as the *de facto* leader of the Lancastrians, Richard was forced out of court. Margaret built up an alliance against Richard and conspired with other nobles to reduce his influence. An increasingly thwarted Richard (who feared arrest for treason) finally resorted to armed hostilities in 1455.

START OF THE WAR

Richard, Duke of York, led a small force toward London and was met by Henry's forces at St Albans, north of London, on 22 May 1455. The relatively small First Battle of St. Albans was the first open conflict of the civil war. Richard's aim was ostensibly to remove "poor advisors" from King Henry's side.

The result was a Lancastrian defeat. Several prominent Lancastrian leaders, including Somerset and Northumberland, were killed. After the battle, the Yorkists found Henry hiding in a local tanner's shop, abandoned by his advisers and servants, apparently having suffered another bout of mental illness. (He had been slightly wounded in the neck by an arrow.) York and his allies regained their position of influence. With the king indisposed, York was again appointed Protector, and Margaret was shunted aside, charged with the king's care. For a while, both sides seemed shocked that an actual battle had been fought and did their best to reconcile their differences, but the problems that caused conflict soon re-emerged, particularly the issue of whether the DUKe of York, or Henry and Margaret's infant son, Edward, would succeed to the throne. Margaret refused to accept any solution that would disinherit her son, and it became clear that she would only tolerate the situation for as long as the DUKe of York and his allies retained the military ascendancy.

Henry recovered and in February 1456 he relieved York of his office of Protector. In the autumn of that year, Henry went on royal progress in the Midlands, where the king and queen were popular.

Margaret did not allow him to return to London where the merchants were angry at the decline in trade and the widespread disorder. The king's court was set up at Coventry. By then, the new DUKe of Somerset was emerging as a favourite of the royal court. Margaret persuaded Henry to revoke the appointments York had made as Protector, while York was made to return to his post as lieutenant in Ireland. Disorder in the capital and the north of England (fighting between the Nevilles & Percys) and piracy by French fleets on the south coast were growing, but the king and queen remained intent on protecting their own positions, with the queen introducing conscriptionfor the first time in England.

Meanwhile, York's ally, Warwick, was growing in popularity in London as the champion of the merchants; as Captain of Calais he had fought piracy in the Channel.

In the spring of 1458, Thomas Bourchier, the Archbishop of Canterbury, attempted to arrange a reconciliation. The lords had gathered in London for a Grand Council and the city was full of armed retainers. The Archbishop negotiated complex settlements to resolve the blood-feuds that had persisted since the Battle of St. Albans. Then, on Lady Day (25 March), the King led a "love day" procession to St. Paul's Cathedral, with Lancastrian and Yorkist nobles following him, hand in hand. No sooner had the procession and the Council dispersed than plotting resumed.

The next outbreak of fighting was prompted by Warwick's high-handed actions as Captain of Calais. He led his ships in attacks on neutral Hanseatic League and Spanish ships in the Channel on flimsy grounds of sovereignty. He was summoned to London to face enquiries, but he claimed that attempts had been made on his life; returned to Calais. York, Salisbury and Warwick were summoned to a royal council at Coventry, but they refused, fearing arrest when they were isolated from their own supporters. York summoned the Nevilles to join him at his stronghold at Ludlow Castle in the Welsh Marches. On 23 September 1459, at the Battle of Blore Heath in Staffordshire, a Lancastrian army failed to prevent Salisbury from marching from Middleham Castle in Yorkshire to Ludlow.

Shortly afterwards the combined Yorkist armies confronted the much larger Lancastrian force at the Battle of Ludford Bridge. Warwick's contingent from the garrison of Calais under Andrew Trollope defected to the Lancastrians, and the Yorkist leaders fled. York returned to Ireland, and his eldest son, Edward, Earl of March, Salisbury and Warwick fled to Calais. The Lancastrians were back in total control. York and his supporters were attainted at the Parliament of Devils as traitors. Somerset was appointed Governor of Calais and was dispatched to take over the vital fortress on the French coast, but his attempts to evict Warwick were easily repulsed.

Warwick and his supporters even began to launch raids on the English coast from Calais, adding to the sense of chaos and disorder. Being attainted, only by a successful invasion could the Yorkists recover their lands and titles. Warwick travelled to Ireland to concert plans with York, evading the royal ships commanded by the Duke of Exeter. In late June 1460, Warwick, Salisbury and Edward of March crossed the Channel and rapidly established themselves in Kent and London, where they enjoyed wide support. Backed by a papal emissary who had taken their side, they marched north.

King Henry led an army south to meet them while Margaret remained in the north with Prince Edward. At the Battle of Northampton on 10 July, the Yorkist army under Warwick defeated the Lancastrians, aided by treachery in the king's ranks. For the second time in the war, King Henry was found by the Yorkists in a tent, abandoned by his retinue, having apparently suffered another breakdown. With the king in their possession, the Yorkists returned to London.

In the light of this military success, Richard of York moved to press his claim to the throne based on the illegitimacy of the Lancastrian line. Landing in north Wales, he and his wife Cecily entered London with all the ceremony usually reserved for a monarch.

Parliament was assembled, and when York entered he made straight for the throne, which he may have been expecting the Lords to encourage him to take for himself as they had acclaimed Henry IV in 1399. Instead, there was stunned silence. York announced his claim to the throne, but the Lords, even Warwick and Salisbury, were shocked by his presumption; they had no desire at this stage to overthrow King Henry. Their ambition was still limited to the removal of his councillors.

The next day, York produced detailed genealogies to support his claim based on his descent from Lionel of Antwerp, Duke of Clarence. York's claim was through a daughter of a second son, Henry's through the son of a third son. The judges felt that Common law principles could not determine who had priority in the royal succession, and declared the matter "above the law and passed ther lernyng".

Parliament agreed to consider the matter and accepted that York's claim was better, but by a majority of five, they voted that Henry VI should remain as king. A compromise was struck in 1460 with the Act of Accord, which recognised York as Henry's successor, disinheriting Henry's six-year-old son, Edward. York accepted this compromise as the best offer. It gave him much of what he wanted, particularly since he was also made Protector of the Realm and was able to govern in Henry's name.

Death of Richard, Duke of York

Queen Margaret and her son had fled to north Wales, parts of which were still in Lancastrian hands. They later travelled by sea to Scotland to negotiate for Scottish assistance. Mary of Gueldres, Queen Consort to James II of Scotland, agreed to give Margaret an army on condition that she cede the town of Berwick to Scotland and Mary's daughter be betrothed to Prince Edward. Margaret agreed, although she had no funds to pay her army and could only promise booty from the riches of southern England, as long as no looting took place north of the River Trent.

The DUKe of York left London later that year with the Earl of Salisbury to consolidate his position in the north against the Lancastrians who were reported to be massing near the city of York. He took up a defensive position at Sandal Castle near Wakefield over Christmas 1460. Then on 30 December, his forces left the castle and attacked the Lancastrians in the open, although outnumbered.

The ensuing Battle of Wakefield was a complete Lancastrian victory. Richard of York was slain in the battle, and both Salisbury and York's 17-year-old second son, Edmund, Earl of Rutland, were captured and executed. Margaret ordered the heads of all three placed on the gates of York.

Lancaster Rose   *York Rose*   *Tudor Rose*

EDWARD'S CLAIM TO THE THRONE

The Act of Accord and the events of Wakefield left the 18-year-old Edward, Earl of March, York's eldest son, as DUKe of York and heir to his claim to the throne. With an army from the pro-Yorkist Marches (the border area between England and Wales), he met Jasper Tudor's Lancastrian army arriving from Wales; he defeated them soundly at the Battle of Mortimer's Cross in Herefordshire.

He inspired his men with a "vision" of three suns at dawn ("parhelion"), telling them that it was a portent of victory and represented the three surviving York sons; himself George and Richard.

This led to Edward's later adoption of the sign of the sunne in splendour as his personal device.

Margaret's army was moving south, supporting itself by looting as it passed through the prosperous south of England. In London, Warwick used this as propaganda to reinforce Yorkist support throughout the south – the town of Coventry switched allegiance to the Yorkists. Warwick's army established fortified positions north of the town of St Albans to block the main road from the north but was outmanoeuvred by Margaret's army, which swerved to the west and then attacked Warwick's positions from behind. At the Second Battle of St Albans, the Lancastrians won another big victory.

As the Yorkist forces fled they left behind King Henry, who was found unharmed, sitting quietly beneath a tree. Henry knighted 30 Lancastrian soldiers immediately after the battle.

In an illustration of the increasing bitterness of the war, Queen Margaret instructed her seven-year-old son Edward of Westminster to determine the manner of execution of the Yorkist knights who had been charged with keeping Henry safe and had stayed at his side throughout the battle.

As the Lancastrian army advanced southwards, a wave of dread swept London, where rumours were rife about savage northerners intent on plundering the city. The people of London shut the city gates and refused to supply food to the queen's army, which was looting the surrounding counties of Hertfordshire and Middlesex.

Edward of March, having joined with Warwick's surviving forces, advanced towards London from the west at the same time that the queen retreated northwards to Dunstable; as a result, Edward and Warwick were able to enter London with their army. They found considerable support there, as the city was largely Yorkist-supporting. It was clear that Edward was no longer simply trying to free the king from bad councillors, but that his goal was to take the crown. Thomas Kempe, the Bishop of London, asked the people of London their opinion and they replied with shouts of "King Edward".

The request was quickly approved by Parliament, and Edward was unofficially appointed king in an impromptu ceremony at Westminster Abbey; Edward vowed that he would not have a formal coronation until Henry VI and his wife were removed from the scene.

Edward claimed Henry had forfeited his right to the crown by allowing his queen to take up arms against his rightful heirs under the Act of Accord. Parliament had already accepted that Edward's victory was simply a restoration of the rightful heir to the throne.

Edward and Warwick marched north, gathering a large army as they went, and met an equally impressive Lancastrian army at Towton. The Battle of Towton, near York, was the biggest battle of the Wars of the Roses. Both sides agreed beforehand that the issue would be settled that day, with no quarter asked or given. An estimated 40,000-80,000 men took part, with over 20,000 men being killed during (after) the battle, an enormous number for the time and the greatest recorded single day's loss of life on English soil. Edward and his army won a decisive victory, and the Lancastrians were routed, with most of their leaders slain. Henry and Margaret, who were waiting in York with their son Edward, fled north when they heard the outcome. Many of the surviving Lancastrian nobles switched allegiance to King Edward, and those who did not were driven back to the northern border areas and a few castles in Wales. Edward advanced to take York, where he replaced the rotting heads of his father, his brother; Salisbury with those of defeated Lancastrian lords such as the notorious who was blamed for the execution of Edward's brother Edmund, Earl of Rutland, after the Battle of Wakefield.

The official coronation of Edward IV took place in June 1461 in London, where he received a rapturous welcome from his supporters. After the Battle of Towton, Henry VI and Margaret had fled to Scotland, where they stayed with the court of James III and followed through on their promise to cede Berwick to Scotland. Later in the year, they mounted an attack on Carlisle, but, lacking money, they were easily repulsed by Edward's men, who were rooting out the remaining Lancastrian forces in the northern counties. Several castles under Lancastrian commanders held out for years: Dunstanburgh, Alnwick, Bamburgh were some of the last to fall. There was some fighting in Ireland.

At the Battle of Piltown in 1462, the Yorkish supporter Thomas Fitz Gerald, 7th Earl of Desmond, defeated the Lancastrian Butlers of Kilkenny.

The Butlers suffered more than 400 casualties. Local folklore claims that the battle was so violent that the local river ran red with blood, hence the names Pill River and Piltown ("Town of the blood"). There were Lancastrian revolts in the north of England in 1464. Several Lancastrian nobles, including the third DUKe of Somerset, who had apparently been reconciled to Edward, readily led the rebellion. The revolt was put down by Warwick's brother, John Neville. A small Lancastrian army was destroyed at the Battle of Hedgeley Moor on 25 April, but because Neville was escorting Scottish commissioners for a treaty to York, he could not immediately follow up this victory.

Then on 15 May, he routed Somerset's army at the Battle of Hexham. Somerset was captured and executed. The deposed King Henry was later captured for the third time at Clitheroe in Lancashire in 1465. He was taken to London and held prisoner at the Tower of London, where, for the time being, he was reasonably well treated. About the same time, once England under Edward IV and Scotland had come to terms, Margaret and her son were forced to leave Scotland and sail to France, where they maintained an impoverished court in exile for several years. The last remaining Lancastrian stronghold was Harlech Castle in Wales, which surrendered in 1468 after a seven-year-long siege.

The powerful Earl of Warwick ("the Kingmaker") had meanwhile become the greatest landowner in England. Already a great magnate through his wife's property, he had inherited his father's estates and had been granted much forfeited Lancastrian property. He also held many of the offices of state. He was convinced of the need for an alliance with France and had been negotiating a match between Edward and a French bride. However, Edward had married Elizabeth Woodville, the widow of a Lancastrian knight, in secret in 1464. He later announced the news of his marriage to Warwick's considerable embarrassment. This embarrassment turned to bitterness when the Woodvilles came to be favoured over the Nevilles at court.

Many of Queen Elizabeth's relatives were married into noble families and others were granted peerages or royal offices. Other factors compounded Warwick's disillusionment: Edward's preference for an alliance with Burgundyrather than France and reluctance to allow his brothers George, Duke of Clarence and Richard, Duke of Gloucester, to marry Warwick's daughters Isabel and Anne.

Furthermore, Edward's general popularity was on the wane in this period with higher taxes and persistent disruptions of law and order.

By 1469, Warwick had formed an alliance with Edward's jealous and treacherous brother George, who married Isabel Neville in defiance of Edward's wishes in Calais. They raised an army that defeated the king's forces at the Battle of Edgecote Moor. Edward was captured at Olney, Buckinghamshire, and imprisoned at Middleham Castle in Yorkshire. (Warwick had *two* Kings of England in his custody.)

Warwick had the queen's father, Richard Woodville, 1st Earl Rivers, and her brother John executed.

However, he made no immediate move to have Edward declared illegitimate and place George on the throne. The country was in turmoil, with nobles once again settling scores with private armies (in episodes such as the Battle of Nibley Green), and Lancastrians being encouraged to rebel.

Few of the nobles were prepared to support Warwick's seizure of power.

Edward was escorted to London by Warwick's brother George Neville, the Archbishop of York, where he and Warwick were reconciled, to outward appearances.

When further rebellions broke out in Lincolnshire, Edward easily suppressed them at the Battle of Losecoat Field. From the testimony of the captured leaders, he declared that Warwick and George, Duke of Clarence, had instigated them. They were declared traitors and forced to flee to France, where Margaret of Anjou was already in exile. Louis XI of France, who wished to forestall a hostile alliance between Edward & Edward's brother-in-law Charles the Bold, DUKe of Burgundy, suggested the idea of an alliance between Warwick and Margaret. Neither of those two formerly mortal enemies entertained the notion at first, but eventually they were brought round to realise the potential benefits.

However, both were undoubtedly hoping for different outcomes: Warwick for a puppet king in the form of Henry VI or his young son; Margaret to be able to reclaim her family's realm.

In any case, a marriage was arranged between Warwick's daughter Anne and Margaret's son Edward of Westminster; Warwick invaded England in the autumn of 1470.

Edward IV had already marched north to suppress another uprising in Yorkshire. Warwick, with help from a fleet under his nephew, the Bastard of Fauconberg, landed at Dartmouth and rapidly secured support from the southern counties and ports. He occupied London in October and paraded Henry VI through the streets as the restored king. Warwick's brother John Neville, who had recently received the empty title Marquess of Montagu and who led large armies in the Scottish marches, suddenly defected to Warwick. Edward was unprepared for this event and had to order his army to scatter. He and Richard, Duke of Gloucester, fled from Doncaster to the coast and thence to Holland and exile in Burgundy. They were proclaimed traitors, and many exiled Lancastrians returned to reclaim their estates. Warwick's success was short-lived, however. He over-reached himself with his plan to invade Burgundy in alliance with the King of France, tempted by King Louis' promise of territory in the Netherlands as a reward. This led Edward's brother-in-law, Charles of Burgundy, to provide funds and troops to Edward to enable him to launch an invasion of England in 1471.
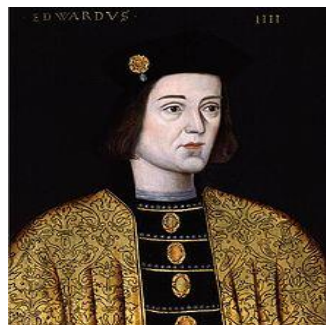
Edward landed with a small force at Ravenspur on the Yorkshire coast. Initially claiming to support Henry and to be seeking only to have his title of DUKe of York restored, he soon gained the city of York & rallied several supporters. His brother George turned traitor again, abandoning Warwick.

Having outmaneuvered Warwick and Montagu, Edward captured London. His army then met Warwick's at the Battle of Barnet. The battle was fought in thick fog, and some of Warwick's men attacked each other by mistake. It was believed by all that they had been betrayed, and Warwick's army fled. Warwick was cut down trying to reach his horse. Montagu was also killed in the battle.
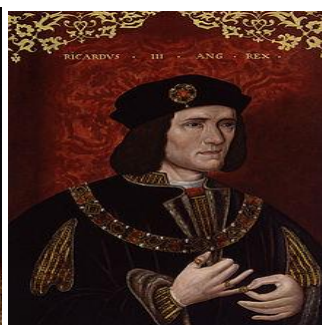
Margaret and her son Edward had landed in the West Country only a few days before the Battle of Barnet. Rather than return to France, Margaret sought to join the Lancastrian supporters in Wales and marched to cross the Severn but was thwarted when the city of Gloucesterrefused her passage across the river. Her army, commanded by the fourth successive Duke of Somerset, was brought to battle and destroyed at the Battle of Tewkesbury. Her son Prince Edward, the Lancastrian heir to the throne, was killed. With no heirs to succeed him, Henry VI was murdered shortly afterwards, on 21 May 1471, to strengthen the Yorkist hold on the throne.

| Henry VII | Edward IV | Richard III | Henry IV |

The restoration of Edward IV in 1471 is sometimes seen as marking the end of the Wars of the Roses proper. Peace was restored for the remainder of Edward's reign. His youngest brother, Richard, DUKe of Gloucester, and Edward's lifelong companion and supporter, William Hastings, were generously rewarded for their loyalty, becoming effectively governors of the north and midlands respectively.

George of Clarence became increasingly estranged from Edward, and was executed in 1478 for association with convicted traitors. When Edward died suddenly in 1483, political and dynastic turmoil erupted again. Many of the nobles still resented the influence of the queen's Woodville relatives (her brother, Anthony Woodville, 2nd Earl Rivers and her son by her first marriage, Thomas Grey, 1st Marquess of Dorset), and regarded them as power-hungry upstarts ('*parvenus*').

At the time of Edward's premature death, his heir, Edward V, was only 12 years old and had been brought up under the stewardship of Earl Rivers at Ludlow Castle.

On his deathbed, Edward had named his surviving brother Richard of Gloucester as Protector of England. Richard had been in the north when Edward died. Hastings, who also held the office of Lord Chamberlain, sent word to him to bring a strong force to London to counter any force the Woodvilles might muster. The DUKe of Buckingham also declared his support for Richard.

Richard and Buckingham overtook Earl Rivers, who was escorting the young Edward V to London, at Stony Stratford in Buckinghamshire on 28 April. Although they dined with Rivers amicably, they took him prisoner the next day, declared to Edward that they had done so to forestall a conspiracy by the Woodvilles against his life. Rivers and his nephew Richard Grey were sent to Pontefract Castle in Yorkshire and executed there at the end of June. Edward entered London in the custody of Richard on 4 May, and was lodged in the Tower of London. Elizabeth Woodville had gone hastily into sanctuary at Westminster with her remaining children, although preparations were being made for Edward V to be crowned on 22 June, at which point Richard's authority as Protector would end.

On 13 June, Richard held a full meeting of the Council, at which he accused Hastings and others of conspiracy against him. Hastings was executed without trial later in the day.

Thomas Bourchier, the Archbishop of Canterbury, then persuaded Elizabeth Woodville to allow her younger son, the 9-year-old Richard, DUKe of York, to join Edward in the Tower. Having secured the boys, Robert Stillington, Bishop of Bath and Wells then alleged that Edward IV's marriage to Elizabeth Woodville had been illegal and that the two boys were therefore illegitimate.

Richard then claimed the crown as King Richard III. The two imprisoned boys, known as the "Princes in the Tower", disappeared and are assumed to have been murdered. There was never a trial or judicial inquest on the matter. Perkin Warbeck claimed he was the younger of the Princes from 1490 and was recognised as such by Richard's sister, the Duchess of Burgundy. Having been crowned in a lavish ceremony on 6 July, Richard then proceeded on a tour of the Midlands and the north of England, dispensing generous bounties and charters and naming his own son as the Prince of Wales.

Opposition to Richard's rule had already begun in the south when, on 18 October, the DUKe of Buckingham (who had been instrumental in placing Richard on the throne and who himself had a distant claim to the crown) led a revolt aimed at installing the Lancastrian Henry Tudor. It has been argued that his supporting Tudor rather than either Edward V or his younger brother, showed Buckingham was aware that both were already dead.

The Lancastrian claim to the throne had descended to Henry Tudor on the death of Henry VI and his son in 1471. Henry's father, Edmund Tudor, 1st Earl of Richmond, had been a half-brother of Henry VI, but Henry's claim to royalty was through his mother, Margaret Beaufort. She was descended from John Beaufort, who was a son of John of Gaunt and thus a grandson of Edward III. John Beaufort had been illegitimate at birth, though later legitimised by the marriage of his parents. It had supposedly been a condition of the legitimation that the Beaufort descendants forfeited their rights to the crown.

Henry had spent much of his childhood under siege in Harlech Castle or in exile in Brittany.

After 1471, Edward IV had preferred to belittle Henry's pretensions to the crown; made only sporadic attempts to secure him. However, his mother, Margaret Beaufort, had been twice remarried, first to Buckingham's uncle; then to Thomas, Lord Stanley, one of Edward's principal officers, and continually promoted her son's rights. Buckingham's rebellion failed. Some of his supporters in the south rose up prematurely, thus allowing Richard's Lieutenant in the South, the DUKe of Norfolk, to prevent many rebels from joining forces. Buckingham himself raised a force at Brecon in mid-Wales.

He was prevented from crossing the River Severn to join other rebels in the south of England by storms and floods, which prevented Henry Tudor landing in the West Country. Buckingham's starving forces deserted and he was betrayed and executed. The failure of Buckingham's revolt was clearly not the end of the plots against Richard, who could never again feel secure, and who suffered the loss of his wife and eleven-year-old son, putting the future of the Yorkist dynasty in doubt.

Many of Buckingham's defeated supporters and other disaffected nobles fled to join Henry Tudor in exile. Richard made an attempt to bribe the DUKe of Brittany's chief Minister Pierre Landais to betray Henry, but Henry was warned and escaped to France, where he was again given sanctuary and aid. Confident that many magnates and even many of Richard's officers would join him, Henry set sail from Harfleur on 1 August 1485, with a force of exiles and French mercenaries.

With fair winds, he landed in Pembrokeshire six days later and the officers Richard had appointed in Wales either joined Henry or stood aside. Henry gathered supporters on his march through Wales and the Welsh Marches and defeated Richard at the Battle of Bosworth Field. Richard was slain during the battle, supposedly by the major Welsh landowner Rhys ap Thomas with a blow to the head from his poleaxe. Rhys was knighted three days later by Henry VII.

Henry, having been acclaimed King Henry VII, strengthened his position by marrying Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV and the best surviving Yorkist claimant, reuniting the two royal houses.

Henry merged the rival symbols of the red rose of Lancaster and the white rose of York into the new emblem of the red and white Tudor Rose. Henry later shored up his position by executing a number of other claimants, a policy his son Henry VIII continued.

Many historians consider the accession of Henry VII to mark the end of the Wars of the Roses.

Others argue that they continued to the end of the fifteenth century, as there were several plots to overthrow Henry and restore Yorkist claimants. Only two years after the Battle of Bosworth, Yorkists rebelled, led by John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln, who had been named by Richard III as his heir but had been reconciled with Henry after Bosworth.

The conspirators produced a pretender, a boy named Lambert Simnel, who resembled the young Edward, Earl of Warwick (son of George of Clarence), the best surviving male claimant of the House of York. The imposture was shaky, because the young earl was still alive and in King Henry's custody and was paraded through London to expose the impersonation.

At the Battle of Stoke Field, Henry defeated Lincoln's army. Lincoln died in the battle. Simnel was pardoned for his part in the rebellion and was sent to work in the royal kitchens.

Henry's throne was challenged again in 1491, with the appearance of the pretender Perkin Warbeck, who claimed he was Richard, DUKe of York (the younger of the two Princes in the Tower).

Warbeck made several attempts to incite revolts, with support at various times from the court of Burgundy and James IV of Scotland. He was captured after the failed Second Cornish Uprising of 1497 and killed in 1499, after attempting to escape from prison. Warwick was executed, rendering the male-line of the House of York (and by extension the whole Plantagenet dynasty) extinct.

During the reign of Henry VII's son Henry VIII, the possibility of a Yorkist challenge to the throne remained until as late as 1525, in the persons of Edward Stafford, Edmund and his brother Richard de la Pole, all of whom had blood ties to the Yorkist dynasty but were excluded by the pro-Woodville Tudor settlement.

AFTERMATH

To an extent, England's break with Rome was prompted by Henry's fears of a disputed succession, should he leave only a female heir to the throne or an infant.

Historians debate the extent of impact the wars had on medieval English life. The classical view is that the many casualties among the nobilitycontinued the changes in feudal English society caused by the effects of the Black Death.

These included a weakening of the feudal power of the nobles and an increase in the power of the merchant classes, and the growth of a centralised monarchy under the Tudors. The wars heralded the end of the medieval period in England and the movement towards the Renaissance.

After the wars the large standing baronial armies that had helped fuel the conflict were suppressed. Henry VII, wary of any further fighting, kept the barons on a very tight leash, removing their right to raise, arm and supply armies of retainers so that they could not make war on each other or the king. The military power of individual barons declined; the Tudor court became a place where baronial squabbles were decided with the influence of the monarch.

Oxford historian K. B. McFarlane, suggest that the effects of the conflicts have been greatly exaggerated and that there were no wars of the roses. Many places were unaffected by the wars, particularly in the eastern part of England, such as East Anglia. It has been suggested that the traumatic impact of the wars was exaggerated by Henry VII, to magnify his achievement in quelling them and bringing peace. The effect of the wars on the merchant and labouring classes was far less than in the long drawn-out wars of siege and pillage in Europe, which were carried out by mercenaries who profited from long wars. Philippe de Commines observed in 1470: The realm of England enjoys one favour above all other realms, that neither the countryside nor the people are destroyed, nor are buildings burnt or demolished. Misfortune falls on soldiers and nobles in particular...

Exceptions to this claimed general rule were the Lancastrian looting of Ludlow after the largely bloodless Yorkist defeat at Ludford Bridge in 1459, and the widespread pillaging carried out by Queen Margaret's unpaid army as it advanced south in early 1461. Both events inspired widespread opposition to the Queen, and support for the Yorkists. Many areas did little or nothing to change their city defences, perhaps an indication that they were left untouched by the wars.

City walls were either left in their ruinous state or only partially rebuilt. In the case of London, the city was able to avoid being devastated by convincing the York and Lancaster armies to stay out after the inability to recreate the defensive city walls. Few noble houses were extinguished during the wars; in the period from 1425 to 1449, before the outbreak of the wars, there were as many extinctions of noble lines from natural causes (25) as occurred during the fighting (24) from 1450 to 1474.

The most ambitious nobles died and by the later period of the wars, fewer nobles were prepared to risk their lives and titles in an uncertain struggle.

The kings of France and Scotland and the Dukes of Burgundy played the two factions off against each other, pledging military and financial aid and offering asylum to defeated nobles and pretenders, to prevent a strong and unified England from making war on them.
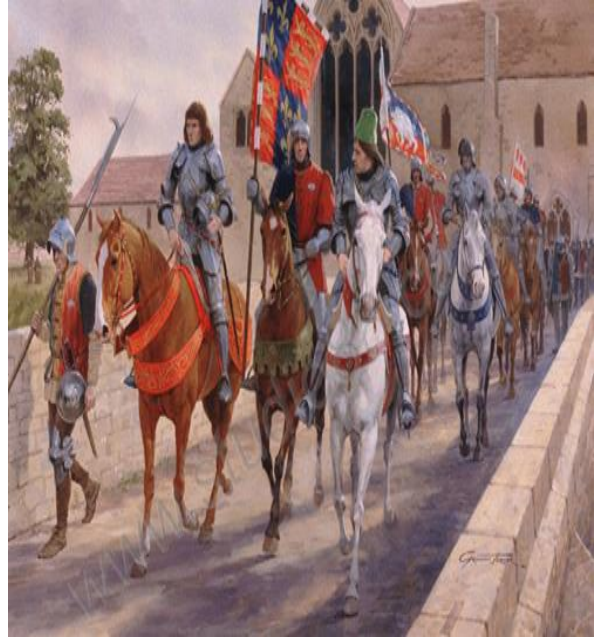

Henry VI   Henry V   Elisabeth of York

Henry VIII began his reign with a high degree of optimism. The handsome, athletic young king stood in sharp contrast to his wary, miserly father. Henry's lavish court quickly drained the treasury of the fortune he had inherited. He married the widowed Catherine of Aragon, and they had several children, but none survived infancy except a daughter, Mary.

In 1512, the young king embarked on a war in France. Although England was an ally of Spain, one of France's principal enemies, the war was mostly about Henry's desire for personal glory, regardless of the fact that his sister Mary was married to the French king Louis XII.

The war accomplished little. The English army suffered badly from disease, and Henry was not even present at the one notable victory, the Battle of the Spurs. Meanwhile, James IV of Scotland (despite being Henry's other brother-in-law), activated his alliance with the French and declared war on England. While Henry was dallying in France, Catherine, who was serving as regent in his absence, and his advisers were left to deal with this threat.

At the Battle of Flodden on 9 September 1513, the Scots were completely and totally defeated.

Most of the Scottish nobility were killed along with James himself. When Henry returned from France, he was given credit for the victory even though he had nothing to do with it.

Eventually, Catherine was no longer able to have any more children. The king became increasingly nervous about the possibility of his daughter Mary inheriting the throne, as England's one experience with a female sovereign, Matilda in the 12th century, had been a catastrophe. He eventually decided that it was necessary to divorce Catherine and find a new queen. The Church would not simply grant this favour, so Henry cited the passage in the Book of Leviticus where it said, "If a man taketh his brother's wife, he hath committed adultery; they shall be childless." Catherine insisted that she and Arthur had never consummated their brief marriage and that the prohibition did not apply here.

The timing of Henry's case was very unfortunate; it was 1527 and the Pope had been taken prisoner by the emperor Charles V, Catherine's nephew and the most powerful man in Europe, for siding with his archenemy Francis I of France. As there was no possibility of getting a divorce in these circumstances, Henry decided to simply secede from the Church, in what became known as the English Reformation. The newly established Church of England amounted to little more than the existing Catholic Church, but with the king rather than the Pope as its head. It took a number of years for the separation from Rome to be completed, however, and many were executed for resisting the king's religious policies.

In 1530, Catherine was banished from court and spent the remainder of her life (until her death in 1536) alone in an isolated manor home, barred from any contact with Mary (her ladies-in-waiting helped the two maintain a secret correspondence). Their marriage was declared invalid, making Mary an illegitimate child. Henry married Anne Boleyn in secret in January 1533, just as his divorce from Catherine was finalised. After this, they had a second, public wedding.

Anne soon became pregnant and may have already been when they wed. However, on 7 September 1533, she gave birth to a daughter, Elizabeth. The king was devastated at his failure to obtain a son after all the effort it had taken to remarry. Gradually, he came to develop a disliking of his new queen for her strange behaviour.

In 1536, when Anne was pregnant again, Henry was badly injured in a jousting accident. Shaken by this, the queen gave birth prematurely to a stillborn boy. By now, the king was convinced that his marriage was hexed, and having already found a new queen, Jane Seymour, he put Anne in the Tower of London on charges of witchcraft. Afterwards, she was beheaded along with five men (her brother included) accused of adultery with her. The marriage was then declared invalid, so that Elizabeth, just like her half sister, became a bastard. Henry immediately married Jane Seymour, who became pregnant almost as quickly.

On 12 October 1537, she gave birth to a healthy boy, Edward, which was greeted with huge celebrations. The king's quest for a son was finally over, so long as Edward could be kept healthy.

However, the queen died of puerperal sepsis ten days later. The king married a fourth time in 1540, to the German Anne of Cleves for a political alliance with her Protestant brother, the DUKe of Cleves. He hoped to obtain another son in case something should happen to Edward.

Anne proved a dull, unattractive woman and Henry declined to consummate the marriage. He quickly divorced her, and she remained in England as a kind of adopted sister to him.

So he married again, to a 19-year-old named Catherine Howard. But when it became known that she was neither a virgin at the wedding, nor a faithful wife afterwards, she ended up on the scaffold and the marriage declared invalid. His sixth and last marriage was to Catherine Parr, more a nursemaid to him than anything else, as his health was failing (since the jousting accident in 1536).

In 1542, the king embarked on a new campaign in France, but unlike in 1512, he only managed with great difficulty. The war netted England the city of Boulogne, but nothing else, and the French retook it in 1549. Scotland also declared war and at Solway Moss was once again totally defeated. Henry's paranoia and suspicion worsened in his last years. The total number of executions during his 38-year reign numbered in the tens of thousands. He died in January 1547 at the age of 55 and was succeeded by his son, Edward VI.

Henry VIII & his wives

Although he showed piety and intelligence, Edward VI was only nine years old when he took the throne in 1547. His uncle, Edward Seymour, 1st DUKe of Somerset tampered with Henry VIII's will and obtained letters patent giving him much of the power of a monarch by March 1547. He took the title of Protector. Whilst some see him as a high-minded idealist, his stay in power culminated in a crisis in 1549 when many counties of the realm were up in protest.

Kett's Rebellion in Norfolk and the Prayer Book Rebellion in Devon & Cornwall simultaneously created a crisis during a time when invasion from Scotland and France were feared. Somerset, disliked by the Regency Council for his autocratic methods, was removed from power by John Dudley, who is known as Lord President Northumberland. Northumberland proceeded to adopt the power for himself, but his methods were more conciliatory and the Council accepted him. It was during Edward's reign that England became a Protestant nation as opposed to a Catholic one in schism from Rome.

Edward was beginning to show great promise when he fell violently ill with tuberculosis in 1553 and died that August two months short of his 16th birthday.

Northumberland made plans to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne and marry her to his son, so that he could remain the power behind the throne. His plot failed in a matter of days, Jane Grey was beheaded, and Mary I (1516-1558) took the throne amidst popular demonstration in her favour in London, which contemporaries described as the largest show of affection for a Tudor monarch.

Mary had never been expected to hold the throne, at least not since Edward was born.

She was a devoted Catholic who believed that she could turn the clock back to 1516, before the Reformation began. Returning England to Catholicism led to the burnings of 274 Protestants, which are recorded especially in John Foxe's Book of Martyrs. Mary then married her cousin Philip, son of Emperor Charles V, and King of Spain when Charles abdicated in 1556. The union was a difficult one, since Mary was already in her late 30s and Philip was a Catholic and a foreigner, and so not very welcome in England. This wedding had the effect of provoking the hostility of the French, already at war with Spain and now alarmed at the prospect of being completely encircled by the Habsburgs. Calais, the last English outpost on the Continent, was then taken by France.

King Philip (1527-1598) had very little power, although he did protect Elizabeth. He was not popular in England, and spent little time there. Mary eventually became pregnant, or at least believed herself to be. In reality, she may have had uterine cancer. Her death in November 1558 was greeted with huge celebrations in the streets of London.

ELIZABETH I ERA

The reign of Elizabeth I restored a sort of order to the realm following the turbulence of the reigns of Edward VI and Mary I when she came to the throne following the latter's death in 1558.

The religious issue which had divided the country since Henry VIII was in a way put to rest by the Elizabethan Religious Settlement, which re-established the Church of England. Much of Elizabeth's success was in balancing the interests of the Puritans and Catholics. She managed to offend neither to a large extent, although she clamped down on Catholics towards the end of her reign as war with Catholic Spain loomed.

Despite the need for an heir, Elizabeth declined to marry, despite offers from a number of suitors across Europe, including the Swedish king Erik XIV. This created endless worries over her succession, especially in the 1560s when she nearly died of smallpox. It has been often rumoured that she had a number of lovers (including Francis Drake), but there is no hard evidence.

Elizabeth maintained relative government stability. Apart from the Revolt of the Northern Earls in 1569, she was effective in reducing the power of the old nobility and expanding the power of her government. Elizabeth's government did much to consolidate the work begun under Thomas Cromwell in the reign of Henry VIII, that is, expanding the role of the government and effecting common law and administration throughout England. During the reign of Elizabeth and shortly afterwards, the population grew significantly: from three Ma in 1564 to nearly five Ma in 1616.

The queen ran afoul of her cousin Mary, Queen of Scots, who was a devoted Catholic and had been forced to abdicate her throne as a consequence (Scotland had recently become Protestant).

She fled to England, where Elizabeth immediately had her arrested. Mary spent the next 19 years in confinement, but proved too dangerous to keep alive, as the Catholic powers in Europe considered her, not Elizabeth, the legitimate ruler of England. She was eventually tried for treason and sentenced to death, being beheaded in February 1587.

The Elizabethan era was the epoch in English history of Queen Elizabeth I's reign (1558-1603).

Historians often depict it as the golden age in English history. The symbol of Britannia was first used in 1572 and often thereafter to mark the Elizabethan age as a renaissance that inspired national pride through classical ideals, international expansion, and naval triumph over the hated Spanish foe.

In terms of the entire century, the historian John Guy (1988) argues "England was economically healthier, more expansive, and more optimistic under the Tudors" than at any time in a thousand years. This "golden age" represented the apogee of the English Renaissance and saw the flowering of poetry, music and literature. The era is most famous for theatre, as William Shakespeare and many others composed plays that broke free of England's past style of theatre. It was an age of exploration and expansion abroad, while back at home, the Protestant Reformation became more acceptable to the people, most certainly after the Spanish Armada was repulsed. It was also the end of the period when England was a separate realm before its royal union with Scotland.

The Elizabethan Age is viewed so highly largely because of the periods before and after. It was a brief period of largely internal peace between the English Reformation and the battles between Protestants and Catholics and the battles between parliament and the monarchy that engulfed the seventeenth century. The Protestant/Catholic divide was settled, for a time, by the Elizabethan Religious Settlement, and parliament was not yet strong enough to challenge royal absolutism.

England was well-off compared to the other nations of Europe. The Italian Renaissance had ended under the weight of foreign domination of the peninsula. France was embroiled in its own religious battles that would only be settled in 1598 with the Edict of Nantes. In part because of this, but also because the English had been expelled from their last outposts on the continent, the centuries long conflict between France and England was largely suspended for most of Elizabeth's reign. The one great rival was Spain, with which England clashed both in Europe and the Americas in skirmishes.

That exploded into the Anglo-Spanish War of 1585-1604. An attempt by Philip II of Spain to invade England with the Spanish Armada in 1588 was famously defeated, but the tide of war turned against England with an unsuccessful expedition to Portugal & the Azores, the Drake-Norris Expedition of 1589. Thereafter Spain provided some support for Irish Catholics in a debilitating rebellion against English rule; Spanish naval and land forces inflicted a series of reversals against English offensives.
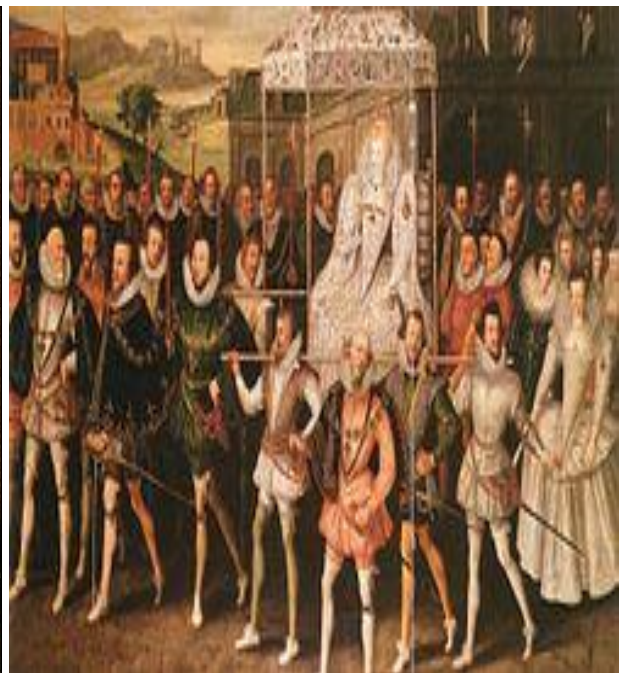
This drained both the English Exchequer and economy that had been so carefully restored under Elizabeth's prudent guidance. English commercial and territorial expansion would be limited until the signing of the Treaty of London the year following Elizabeth's death.

England during this period had a centralised, well-organised, and effective government, largely a result of the reforms of Henry VII and Henry VIII. Economically, the country began to benefit greatly from the new era of trans-Atlantic trade. The National Armada memorial in Plymouth using the Britannia image to celebrate the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588.

In foreign policy, Elizabeth played against each other the major powers of France and Spain, as well as the papacy and Scotland. These were all Catholic and each wanted to end Protestantism in England. Elizabeth was cautious in foreign affairs and only half-heartedly supported a number of ineffective, poorly resourced military campaigns in the Netherlands, France and Ireland. She risked war with Spain by supporting the "Sea Dogs", such as Walter Raleigh, John Hawkins and Sir Francis Drake, who preyed on the Spanish merchant ships carrying gold and silver from the New World.

The major war came with Spain, 1585-1603. When Spain tried to invade and conquer England, it was a fiasco and the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588-associated Elizabeth's name forever with what is popularly viewed as one of the greatest victories in English history. Her enemies failed to combine and Elizabeth's foreign policy successfully navigated all the dangers.

In all, the Tudor period is seen as a decisive one, which set up many important questions, which would have to be answered in the next century and during the English Civil War. These were questions of the relative power of the monarch and Parliament and to what extent one should control the other. Some historians think that Thomas Cromwell affected a "Tudor Revolution" in government, and it is certain that Parliament became more important during his chancellorship. Other historians say the "Tudor Revolution" really extended to the end of Elizabeth's reign, when the work was all consolidated. Although the Privy Council declined after the death of Elizabeth, while she was alive, it was very effective.

UNION OF THE CROWNS

Elizabeth died in 1603 at the age of 69. Her closest male Protestant relative was the King of Scots, James VI, of the House of Stuart, who became King James I of England in a Union of the Crowns. On 20 October 1604 King James, who had succeeded separately to the two thrones of England and Scotland, proclaimed himself "King of Great Brittaine, France, and Ireland". When James died in 1625 and the Privy Council of England was drafting the proclamation of the new king, Charles I, a Scottish peer, Thomas Erskine, 1st Earl of Kellie, succeeded in insisting that it use the phrase "King of Great Britain", which James had preferred, rather than King of Scotland and England.

While that title was used by some of James's successors, England and Scotland each remained legally separate countries, each with its own parliament, until 1707, when each parliament passed an Act of Union to ratify the Treaty of Union that had been agreed the previous year.

This created a single kingdom out of two, with a single parliament, with effect from 1 May 1707.

The Treaty of Union specified the name of the new all-island state as "Great Britain", while describing it as "One Kingdom" and "the UK". To most historians, therefore, the all-island state that existed between 1707 and 1800 is "Great Britain" or the "Kingdom of Great Britain".

King James I & VI as he was styled became the first monarch to rule the entire island of Great Britain, although it was merely a union of the English and Scottish crowns; both countries remained separate political entities. Several assassination attempts were made on James, notably the Main Plot and Bye Plots of 1603, and most famously, on 5 November 1605, the Gunpowder Plot, by a group of Catholic conspirators, led by Robert Catesby, which caused more antipathy in England towards the Catholic faith. Upon taking power, James immediately made peace with Spain, and for the first half of the 17th century, England remained largely inactive in European politics.

In 1607, England built an establishment at Jamestown. This was the beginning of colonialism by England in North America. Many English settled then in North America for religious or economic reasons. Approximately 70% of English immigrants to North America who came between 1630-1660 were indentured servants. By 1700, Chesapeake planters transported about 100,000 indentured servants, who accounted for more than 75% of all European immigrants to Virginia and Maryland.

The First English Civil War broke out in 1642, largely because of an ongoing series of conflicts between James' son, Charles I, and Parliament. The defeat of the Royalist army by the New Model Army of Parliament at the Battle of Naseby in June 1645 effectively destroyed the king's forces.

Charles surrendered to the Scottish army at Newark. He was eventually handed over to the English Parliament in early 1647. He escaped, and the Second English Civil War began, although it was a short conflict, with the New Model Army quickly securing the country.

The capture and subsequent trial of Charles led to his beheading in January 1649 at Whitehall Gate in London, making England a republic. The trial and execution of Charles by his own subjects shocked the rest of Europe (the king argued to the end that only God could judge him) and was a precursor of sorts to the beheading of Louis XVI 145 years later. The New Model Army, under the command of Oliver Cromwell, then scored decisive victories against Royalist armies in Ireland and Scotland. Cromwell was given the title Lord Protector in 1653, making him 'king in all but name' to his critics. After he died in 1658, his son Richard Cromwell succeeded him in the office but he was forced to abdicate within a year. For a while it looked as if a new civil war would begin as the New Model Army split into factions. Troops stationed in Scotland under the command of George Monck eventually marched on London to restore order. The monarchy was restored in 1660, with King Charles II returning to London. In 1665, London was swept by a visitation of the plague, and then, in 1666, the Great Fire, which raged for 5 days, destroying approximately 15,000 buildings, swept the capital.

After the Restoration, there was an overall reduction in the power of the crown, and by the 18th century, England rivaled the Netherlands for being one of the freest countries in Europe.

GLORIOUS REVOLUTION

In 1680, the Exclusion crisis occurred due to widespread objections to a Catholic serving as the King of England, since James was the heir presumptive to Charles, who was the king at that time. After the death of Charles II in 1685, his Catholic Brother King James II & VII was crowned. From that point, there were various factions pressing for his Protestant daughter Mary and her husband, Prince William III of Orange, to replace him in what became known as the Glorious Revolution.

In November 1688, William landed in England with an invading force, and succeeded in being crowned king. After this, James attempted to retake the throne by force in the Williamite War, and was finally defeated by William at the Battle of the Boyne in 1690.

In December 1689, one of the most important constitutional documents in English history, the Bill of Rights, was passed. The Act, which restated and confirmed many provisions of the earlier Declaration of Right, established restrictions on the royal prerogative. It provided, amongst other things, that the Sovereign could not suspend laws passed by Parliament, levy taxes without parliamentary consent, infringe the right to petition, raise a standing army during peacetime without parliamentary consent, deny the right to bear arms to Protestant subjects, unduly interfere with parliamentary elections, punish members of either House of Parliament for anything said during debates, require excessive bail or inflict cruel and unusual punishments. William was opposed to the imposition of such constraints, but he chose not to engage in a conflict with Parliament and agreed to abide by the statute.

In parts of Scotland and Ireland, Catholics loyal to James remained determined to see him restored to the throne, and there followed a series of bloody though unsuccessful uprisings. As a result of these, any failure to pledge loyalty to the victorious King William was severely dealt with.

The most infamous example of this policy was the Massacre of Glencoe in 1692. Jacobite rebellions continued on into the mid-18th century until the son of the last Catholic claimant to the throne, (James III & VIII), mounted a final campaign in 1745. The Jacobite forces of Prince Charles Edward Stuart, the "Bonnie Prince Charlie" of legend, were defeated at the Battle of Culloden in 1746.

Formation of the UK

The Acts of Union between the Kingdom of England and the Kingdom of Scotland were a pair of Parliamentary Acts passed by both parliaments in 1707, which dissolved them in order to form a Kingdom of Great Britain governed by a unified Parliament of Great Britain according to the Treaty of Union. The Acts joined the Kingdom of England and the Kingdom of Scotland (previously separate states, with separate legislatures but with the same monarch) into a single Kingdom of Great Britain.

The two countries had shared a monarch since the Union of the Crowns in 1603, when King James VI of Scotland inherited the English throne from his double first cousin twice removed, Queen Elizabeth I. Although described as a Union of Crowns, until 1707 there were in fact two separate Crowns resting on the same head. There had been three attempts in 1606, 1667, and 1689 to unite the two countries by Acts of Parliament.

But it was not until the early 18th century that the idea had the will of both political establishments behind them, albeit for rather different reasons. On this date, the Scots Parliament and the English Parliament united to form the Parliament of Great Britain, based in the Palace of Westminster in London, the home of the English Parliament. Hence, the Acts are referred to as the Union of the Parliaments. On the Union, historian Simon Schama said, "What began as a hostile merger, would end in a full partnership in the most powerful going concern in the world ... it was one of the most astonishing transformations in European history." The Kingdom of Great Britain came into being on 1 May 1707, because of the political union of the Kingdom of England (including Wales) and the Kingdom of Scotland according to the Treaty of Union. It enabled the two kingdoms to be combined into a single kingdom, merging the two parliaments into a single parliament of Great Britain. Queen Anne became the first monarch of the new Great Britain.

Although now a single kingdom, certain aspects of the former independent kingdoms remained separate, as agreed in the terms in the Treaty of Union. Scottish and English law remained separate, as did the Presbyterian Church of Scotland & the Anglican Church of England. England & Scotland also continued to each have its own system of education.

Meanwhile, the long War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1714) was underway with France.

A more peace-minded government came to power in London and the treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt in 1713-1714 ended the war. British historian G. M. Trevelyan argues: That Treaty [of Utrecht], which ushered in the stable and characteristic period of 18th-century civilization, marked the end of danger to Europe from the old French monarchy, and it marked a change of no less significance to the world at large, the maritime, commercial and financial supremacy of Great Britain.

In 1714, the reign of Queen Anne ended. Anne was the last monarch of the House of Stuart. She was succeeded by her second cousin, George I, of the House of Hanover, who was a descendant of the Stuarts through his maternal grandmother, Elizabeth, daughter of James VI & I. A series of Jacobite rebellions broke out in an attempt to restore the Stuart monarchy, but all ultimately failed.

Several Planned French Invasions were attempted, with the intention of placing the Stuarts on the throne. The terms One Kingdom, UK and UK of Great Britain were used in the Treaty of Union and the Act of Union 1707. However, the actual name of the new state was Great Britain.

James VI /I first used the name Great Britain in October 1604, who indicated that henceforth he and his successors would be viewed as Kings of Great Britain, not Kings of England and Scotland.

However, the name was not applied to the state as a unit; both England & Scotland continued to be governed independently. Its validity as a name of the Crown is questioned, given that monarchs continued using separate ordinals (e.g., James VI/I, James VII/II) in England and Scotland.

To avoid confusion, historians generally avoid using the term King of Great Britain until 1707 and instead to match the ordinal usage call the monarchs kings or queens of England and Scotland. Separate ordinals were abandoned when the two states merged in accordance with the 1707 Acts of Union, with subsequent monarchs using ordinals apparently based on English not Scottish history.

One example is Queen Elizabeth II of the UK, who is referred to as being "the Second" even though there never was an Elizabeth I of Scotland or Great Britain.

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

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

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

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

The Stuart line died with Anne in 1714, although a die-hard faction with French support supported pretenders. The Elector of Hanover became king as George I (1714-1727). He paid more attention to Hanover and surrounded himself with Germans, making him an unpopular king.

However he did build up the army and created a more stable political system in Britain and helped bring peace to northern Europe. Jacobite factions seeking a Stuart restoration remained strong; they instigated a revolt in 1715-1716. The son of James II planned to invade England, but before he could do so, John Erskine, Earl of Mar, launched an invasion from Scotland, which was easily defeated.

George II (1727-1760) enhanced the stability of the constitutional system, with a government run by Sir Robert Walpole during the period 1730-42. He built up the First British Empire, strengthening the colonies in the Caribbean and North America. In coalition with the rising power Prussia, defeated France in the Seven Years' War (1756-1763), and won full control of Canada.

George III (1760-1820) never visited Hanover, and spoke English as his first language. Reviled by Americans as a tyrant and the instigator of the American War of Independence, he was insane off and on after 1788 as his eldest son served as regent. The last king to dominate government and politics, his long reign is noted for losing the first British Empire in the American Revolutionary War (1783), as France sought revenge for its defeat in the Seven Years' War by aiding the Americans.

The reign was notable for the building of a second empire based in India, Asia and Africa, the beginnings of the industrial revolution that made Britain an economic powerhouse; above all the life and death struggle with the French, the French Revolutionary Wars 1793-1802, ending in a draw and a short truce, and the epic Napoleonic Wars (1803-1815), ending with the decisive defeat of Napoleon.

South Sea Bubble

The era was pro as entrepreneurs extended the range of their business around the globe.

The South Sea Bubble was a business enterprise that exploded in scandal. The South Sea Company was a private business corporation set up in London ostensibly to grant trade monopolies in South America. Its actual purpose was to re-negotiate previous high-interest government loans amounting to £31 mln through market manipulation and speculation. It issued stock four times in 1720 that reached about 8,000 investors. Prices kept soaring every day, from £130 a share to £1,000, with insiders making huge paper profits. The Bubble collapsed overnight, ruining many speculators.

Investigations showed bribes had reached into high places – even to the king.

Robert Walpole managed to wind it down with minimal political and economic damage, although some losers fled to exile or committed suicide.

Robert Walpole was Prime Minister, 1719-42, and indeed he invented the role. The term was applied to him by friends and foes alike by 1727. Historian Clayton Roberts summarizes his new functions: He monopolized the counsels of the King, he closely superintended the administration, he ruthlessly controlled patronage, and he led the predominant party in Parliament. Walpole was a master of the effective use of patronage, as were his two disciples who succeeded him as prime minister, Henry Pelham (1743-1754) and Pelham's brother the Duke of Newcastle (1754-1762).

Moralism & benevolence & hypocrisy

Hypocrisy became a major topic in English political history in the early 18th century.

The Toleration Act 1689 allowed for certain rights, but it left Protestant Nonconformists (Such as Congregationalists & Baptists) deprived of important rights, including that of office-holding.

Nonconformists who wanted office ostentatiously took the Anglican sacrament once a year in order to avoid the restrictions. High Church Anglicans were outraged. They outlawed what they called "occasional conformity" in 1711 with the Occasional Conformity Act 1711.

In the political controversies using sermons, speeches, pamphlet wars, both high churchmen and Nonconformists attacked their opponents as insincere and hypocritical.

As well as dangerously zealous, in contrast to their own moderation. This campaign of moderation versus zealotry peaked in 1709 during the impeachment trial of high-church preacher Henry Sacheverell. Historian Mark Knights argues that by its very ferocity, the debate may have led to more temperate and less hypercharged political discourse. The Whigs restored occasional conformity when they returned to power in 1719.

English author Bernard Mandeville's famous "Fable of the Bees" (1714) explored the nature of hypocrisy in contemporary European society. On the one hand, Mandeville was a "moralist" heir to the French Augustinianism of the previous century, viewing sociability as a mere mask for vanity and pride. On the other, he was a "materialist" who helped found modern economics.

He tried to demonstrate the universality of human appetites for corporeal pleasures. He argued that the efforts of self-seeking entrepreneurs are the basis of emerging commercial and industrial society, a line of thought that influenced Adam Smith (1723-1790) and 19th century Utilitarianism.

The tension between these two approaches modes ambivalences and contradictions – concerning the relative power of norms and interests, the relationship between motives and behaviours, and the historical variability of human cultures.

In the 1750 to 1850 era, Whig aristocrats in England boasted of their special benevolence for the common people. They claimed to be guiding and counseling reform initiatives to prevent the outbreaks of popular discontent that caused instability and revolution across Europe. However, Tory and radical critics accused the Whigs of hypocrisy – alleging they were deliberately using the slogans of reform and democracy to boost themselves into power while preserving their precious aristocratic exclusiveness.

Historian L.G. Mitchell defends the Whigs, pointing out that thanks to them radicals always had friends at the centre of the political elite, and thus did not feel as marginalized as in most of Europe.

He points out that the debates on the 1832 Reform Bill showed that reformers would indeed receive a hearing at parliamentary level with a good chance of success.

Meanwhile, a steady stream of observers from the Continent commented on the English political culture. Liberal and radical observers noted the servility of the English lower classes, the obsession everyone had with rank and title, the extravagance of the aristocracy, a supposed anti-intellectualism, and a pervasive hypocrisy that extended into such areas as social reform.

There were not so many conservative visitors. They praised the stability of English society, its ancient constitution, and reverence for the past; they ignored the negative effects of industrialization.

Warfare & Finance

From 1700 to 1850, Britain was involved in 137 wars or rebellions. It maintained a relatively large and expensive Royal Navy, along with a small standing army. When the need arose for soldiers, it hired mercenaries or financed allies who fielded armies. The rising costs of warfare forced a shift in government financing from the income from royal agricultural estates and special imposts and taxes to reliance on customs and excise taxes, after 1790, an income tax. Working with bankers in the City, the government raised large loans during wartime and paid them off in peacetime. The rise in taxes amounted to 20% of national income, but the private sector benefited from the increase in economic growth. The demand for war supplies stimulated the industrial sector, particularly naval supplies, munitions and textiles, which gave Britain an advantage in international trade during the postwar years. The French Revolution polarized British political opinion in the 1790s, with conservatives outraged at the killing of the king, the expulsion of the nobles, and the Reign of Terror. Britain was at war against France almost continuously from 1793 until the final defeat of Napoleon in 1815.

Conservatives castigated every radical opinion in Britain as "Jacobin" (in reference to the leaders of the Terror), warning that radicalism threatened an upheaval of British society. The Anti-Jacobin sentiment, well expressed by Edmund Burke and many popular writers was strongest among the landed gentry and the upper classes.

BRITISH EMPIRE

The Seven Years' War, which began in 1756, was the first war waged on a global scale, fought in Europe, India, North America, the Caribbean, the Philippines and coastal Africa. The signing of the Treaty of Paris (1763) had important consequences for Britain and its empire.

In North America, France's future as a colonial power there was effectively ended with the ceding of New France to Britain (leaving a sizeable French-speaking population under British control) and Louisiana to Spain. Spain ceded Florida to Britain. In India, the Carnatic War had left France still in control of its enclaves but with military restrictions and an obligation to support British client states, effectively leaving the future of India to Britain. The British victory over France in the Seven Years' War therefore left Britain as the world's dominant colonial power.

During the 1760s & 1770s, relations between the 13 Colonies and Britain became increasingly strained, primarily because of opposition to Parliament's repeated attempts to tax American colonists without their consent. Disagreement turned to violence and in 1775, the American Revolutionary War began. In 1776, the Patriots expelled royal officials and declared the independence of the USA.

After capturing a British invasion army in 1777, the US formed an alliance with France (in turn Spain aided France), evening out the military balance. The British army controlled only a handful of coastal cities. 1780-81 was a low point for Britain. Taxes and deficits were high, government corruption was pervasive, and the war in America was entering its sixth year with no apparent end in sight.

The Gordon Riots erupted in London during the spring of 1781, in response to increased concessions to Catholics by Parliament. In October 1781, Lord Cornwallis surrendered his army at Yorktown, Virginia. The Treaty of Paris was signed in 1783, formally terminating the war and recognising the independence of the United States.

The loss of the Thirteen Colonies, at the time Britain's most populous colonies, marked the transition between the "first" & "second" empires, in which Britain shifted its attention to Asia, the Pacific & later Africa. Adam Smith's Wealth of Nations, published in 1776, had argued that colonies were redundant, free trade should replace the old mercantilist policies that had characterised the first period of colonial expansion, dating back to the protectionism of Spain & Portugal.

The growth of trade between the newly independent United States and Britain after 1783 confirmed Smith's view that political control was not necessary for economic success.

During its first 100 years of operation, the focus of the British East India Company had been trade, not the building of an empire in India. Company interests turned from trade to territory during the 18th century as the Mughal Empire declined in power and the British East India Company struggled with its French counterpart during the Carnatic Wars of the 1740s and 1750s.

The British, led by Robert Clive, defeated the French and their Indian allies in the Battle of Plassey, leaving the Company in control of Bengal and a major military and political power in India.

In the following decades, it gradually increased the size of the territories under its control, ruling either directly or indirectly via local puppet rulers under the threat of force of the Indian Army, 80% of which was composed of native Indian sepoys.

On 22 August 1770, James Cook discovered the eastern coast of Australia while on a scientific voyage to the South Pacific. In 1778, Joseph Banks, Cook's botanist on the voyage, presented evidence to the government on the suitability of Botany Bay for the establishment of a penal settlement, and in 1787, the first shipment of convicts set sail, arriving in 1788.

The British government had somewhat mixed reactions to the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789, and when war broke out on the Continent in 1792, it initially remained neutral.

However, the following January, Louis XVI was beheaded. This combined with a threatened invasion of the Netherlands by France spurred Britain to declare war. For the next 23 years, the two nations were at war except for a short period in 1802-1803.

Britain alone among the nations of Europe never submitted to or formed an alliance with France. Throughout the 1790s, the British repeatedly defeated the navies of France and its allies, but were unable to perform any significant land operations. An Anglo-Russian invasion of the Netherlands in 1799 accomplished little except the capture of the Dutch fleet. The first decades were marked by Jacobite risings, which ended with defeat for the Stuart cause at Culloden in 1746. In 1763, victory in the Seven Years' War led to the growth of the First British Empire. With the defeat by the United States, France and Spain in the War of American Independence, Britain lost its 13 American colonies and rebuilt a Second British Empire based in Asia and Africa.

As a result, British culture, and its technological, political, constitutional, and linguistic influence, became worldwide. Politically, the central event was the French Revolution And its Napoleonic aftermath, 1793-1815, which British elites saw as a profound threat, and worked energetically to form multiple coalitions that finally defeated Napoleon in 1815.

The Tories, who came to power in 1783, remained in power (with interruption) until 1830.

Forces of reform, often emanating from the Evangelical religious elements, opened decades of political reform that broadened the ballot, and opened the economy to free trade. The outstanding political leaders of the 19th century included Palmerston, Disraeli, Gladstone, and Salisbury.

Culturally the Victorian era (Queen Victoria reigned 1837-1901) was a time of prosperity and dominant middle-class virtues when Britain dominated the world economy and maintained a generally peaceful century, 1815-1914. The First World War (1914-1918), in alliance with France, Russia and the United States, was a furious but ultimately successful total war with Germany.

During the late 18th century and early 19th century, there was considerable social upheaval as technological advances and increasing mechanization transformed a largely agrarian society, which was the Industrial Revolution. Much of the agricultural workforce was uprooted from the countryside and moved into large urban centres of production. As the steam-based production factories could undercut the traditional cottage industries, because of economies of scale and the increased output per worker made possible by the new technologies. The consequent overcrowding into areas with little supporting infrastructure saw dramatic increases in the rate of infant mortality (many Sunday schools for pre-working age children (5 or 6) had funeral clubs to pay for each other's funeral arrangements), crime, and social deprivation. The first general laws against child labour, the Factory Acts, were passed in Britain in the first half of the 19th century. Children younger than nine were not allowed to work and the workday of youth under the age of 18 was limited to 12 hours. The Act of Union of 1800 formally assimilated Ireland within the British political process and from 1 January 1801 created a new state called the UK of Great Britain and Ireland, which united the Kingdom of Great Britain with the Kingdom of Ireland to form a single political entity.

The English capital of London was adopted as the capital of the Union.

At the threshold to the 19th century, Britain was challenged again by France under Napoleon, in a struggle that, unlike previous wars, represented a contest of ideologies between the two nations: the constitutional monarchy of Great Britain versus the liberal principles of the French Revolution ostensibly championed by the Napoleonic empire. It was not only Britain's position on the world stage that was threatened: Napoleon threatened invasion of Britain itself, and with it, a fate similar to the countries of continental Europe that his armies had overrun.

On 1 January 1801, the first day of the 19th century, the Great Britain and Ireland joined to form the UK of Great Britain and Ireland. The Act of Union 1800, creating the «UK of Great Britain and Ireland», brought about the legislative union of Great Britain and Ireland. The Act was passed in both the Parliament of Great Britain and the Parliament of Ireland, dominated by the Protestant Ascendancy and lacking representation of the country's Roman Catholic population. Substantial majorities were achieved, and according to contemporary documents this was assisted by bribery in the form of the awarding of peerages and honours to opponents to gain their votes.

Under the terms of the merger, the separate Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland were abolished, and replaced by a united Parliament of the UK.

Ireland thus became an integral part of the UK, sending around 100 MPs to the House of Commons at Westminster and 28 representative peers to the House of Lords, elected from among their number by the Irish peers themselves, except that Roman Catholic peers were not permitted to take their seats in the Lords. Part of the trade-off for the Irish Catholics was to be the granting of Catholic Emancipation, which had been fiercely resisted by the all-Anglican Irish Parliament.

However, King George III, who argued that emancipating the Roman Catholics would breach his Coronation Oath, blocked this. The Roman Catholic hierarchy had endorsed the Union. However the decision to block Catholic Emancipation fatally undermined the appeal of the Union.

Napoleonic Wars

During the War of the Second Coalition (1799-1801), Britain occupied most of the French and Dutch colonies (the Netherlands – a satellite of France since 1796), but tropical diseases claimed the lives of over 40,000 troops. When the Treaty of Amiens created a pause, Britain was forced to return most of the colonies. In May 1803, war was declared again. Napoleon's plans to invade Britain failed due to the inferiority of his navy, and in 1805, Lord Nelson's fleet decisively defeated the French and Spanish at Trafalgar, which was the last significant naval action of the Napoleonic Wars.

In 1806, Napoleon issued the series of Berlin Decrees, which brought into effect the Continental System. This policy aimed to weaken the British export economy closing French-controlled territory to its trade. Napoleon hoped that isolating Britain from the Continent would end its economic dominance.

It never succeeded in its objective. Britain possessed the greatest industrial capacity in Europe, and its mastery of the seas allowed it to build up considerable economic strength through trade to its possessions from its rapidly expanding new Empire.

Britain's naval supremacy meant that France could never enjoy the peace necessary to consolidate its control over Europe; it could threaten neither the home islands nor the main British colonies.

The Spanish uprising in 1808 at last permitted Britain to gain a foothold on the Continent.

The Duke of Wellington and his army of British and Portuguese gradually pushed the French out of Spain and in early 1814, as Napoleon was being driven back in the east by the Prussians, Austrians, and Russians, Wellington invaded southern France. After Napoleon's surrender and exile to the island of Elba, peace appeared to have returned.

However, when he escaped back into France in 1815, the British and their allies had to fight him again. The armies of Wellington and Von Blucher defeated Napoleon finally at Waterloo.

Financing the war

A key element in British success was its ability to mobilize the nation's industrial and financial resources and apply them to defeating France. With a population of 16 mln, Britain was barely half the size of France with 30 mln. In terms of soldiers, the French numerical advantage was offset by British subsidies that paid for a large proportion of the Austrian & Russian soldiers, peaking at about 450,000 in 1813. Most important, the British national output remained strong and the well-organized business sector channeled products into what the military needed. The system of smuggling finished products into the continent undermined French efforts to ruin the British economy by cutting off markets.

The British budget in 1814 reached £66 mln, including £10 mln for the Navy, £40 mln for the Army, £10 mln for the Allies, and £38 mln as interest on the national debt. The national debt soared to £679 mln, more than double the GDP. It was willingly supported by hundreds of thousands of investors and taxpayers, despite the higher taxes on land and a new income tax. The whole cost of the war came to £831 mln. By contrast, the French financial system was inadequate and Napoleon's forces had to rely in part on requisitions from conquered lands. Napoleon attempted economic warfare against Britain, especially in the Berlin Decree of 1806.

It forbade the import of British goods into European countries allied with or dependent upon France, installed the Continental System in Europe.

All connections were to be cut, even the mail. British merchants smuggled in many goods and the Continental System was not a powerful weapon of economic war. There was some damage to Britain, especially in 1808 and 1811, but its control of the oceans helped ameliorate the damage.

Even more damage was done to the economies of France and its allies, which lost a useful trading partner. Angry governments gained an incentive to ignore the Continental System, which led to the weakening of Napoleon's coalition.

War of 1812 with United States

Simultaneous with the Napoleonic Wars, trade disputes and British impressment of American sailors led to the War of 1812 with the United States. The "second war of independence" for the American, it was little noticed in Britain, where all attention was focused on the struggle with France.

The British could devote few resources to the conflict until the fall of Napoleon in 1814.

American frigates inflicted a series of embarrassing defeats on the British navy, which was short on work force due to the conflict in Europe. A stepped-up war effort that year brought about some successes such as the burning of Washington, but many influential voices such as the DUKe of Wellington argued that an outright victory over the US was impossible.

Peace was agreed to at the end of 1814, but Andrew Jackson, unaware of this, won a great victory over the British at the Battle of New Orleans in January 1815 (news took several weeks to cross the Atlantic before the advent of steam ships). Ratification of the Treaty of Ghent ended the war in February 1815. The major result was the permanent defeat of the Indian allies the British had counted upon. The US-Canada border was demilitarised by both countries; peaceful trade resumed, although worries of an American conquest of Canada persisted into the 1860s.

George IV & William IV

Britain emerged from the Napoleonic Wars a very different country than it had been in 1793.

As industrialisation progressed, society changed, becoming urban and less rural. The postwar period saw an economic slump, and poor harvests and inflation caused widespread social unrest.

Europe after 1815 was on guard against a return of Jacobinism, and even liberal Britain saw the passage of the Six Acts in 1819, which proscribed radical activities. By the end of the 1820s, along with a general economic recovery, many of these repressive laws were repealed and in 1828, new legislation guaranteed the civil rights of religious dissenters.

A weak ruler as regent (1811-20) and king (1820-30), George IV let his ministers take full charge of government affairs, playing a far lesser role than his father, George III.

The principle now became established that the king accepts as prime minister the person who wins a majority in the House of Commons, whether the king personally favors him or not. His governments, with little help from the king, presided over victory in the Napoleonic Wars, negotiated the peace settlement, and attempted to deal with the social and economic malaise that followed.

His brother William IV ruled (1830-37), but was little involved in politics. His reign saw several reforms: the poor law was updated, child labour restricted, slavery abolished in nearly all the British Empire, and, most important, the Reform Act 1832 refashioned the British electoral system.

There were no major wars until the Crimean War of 1853-56. While Prussia, Austria, and Russia, as absolute monarchies, tried to suppress liberalism wherever it might occur, the British came to terms with new ideas. Britain intervened in Portugal in 1826 to defend a constitutional government there and recognising the independence of Spain's American colonies in 1824. British merchants and financiers, and later railway builders, played major roles in the economies of most Latin American nations. The British intervened in 1827 on the side of the Greeks, who had been waging a war of independence against the Ottoman Empire since 1824.

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

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

Exercise 3. Analye the Whig reforms of the 1830s.

The Whig Party recovered its strength and unity by supporting moral reforms, especially the reform of the electoral system, the abolition of slavery and emancipation of the Catholics.

Catholic emancipation was secured in the Roman Catholic Relief Act 1829, which removed the most substantial restrictions on Roman Catholics in Britain.

The Whigs became champions of Parliamentary reform. They made Lord Grey prime minister 1830-1834, and the Reform Act 1832 became their signature measure. It broadened the franchise slightly and ended the system of rotten and pocket boroughs (where elections were controlled by powerful families), and gave seats to new industrial centres. The aristocracy continued to dominate the government, the Army and Royal Navy, and high society. After parliamentary investigations demonstrated the horrors of child labour, limited reforms were passed in 1833.

Chartism emerged after the 1832 Reform Bill failed to give the vote to the working class. Activists denounced the "betrayal" of the working class and the 'sacrificing' of their interests by the "misconduct" of the government. In 1838, Chartists issued the People's Charter demanding manhood suffrage, equal sized election districts, voting by ballots, payment of MPs, annual Parliaments, and abolition of property requirements.

Elites saw the movement as pathological, so the Chartists were unable to force serious constitutional debate. Historians see Chartism as both a continuation of the 18th century fight against corruption and as a new stage in demands for democracy in an industrial society.

In 1832 Parliament abolished slavery in the Empire with the Slavery Abolition Act 1833.

The government purchased the slaves for £20,000,000 (the money went to rich plantation owners who mostly lived in England), and freed the slaves, especially those in the Caribbean sugar islands.

Exercise 4. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 5. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 6. Write a small essay on the topic.

Exercise 7. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

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

Major-General Sir Isaac Brock, "Hero of Upper Canada". Born Guernsey 1769, killed in battle in Queenston Heights 1812.

Exhibition Series Souvenir Sheet No.3 Guernsey at CAPEX'96

QUEEN VICTORIA ERA (1837-1901)

Victoria became queen in 1837 at age 18. Her long reign until 1901 saw Britain reach the zenith of its economic and political power. Exciting new technologies such as steam ships, railroads, photography, and telegraphs appeared, making the world much faster-paced. Britain again remained mostly inactive in Continental politics, and it was not affected by the wave of revolutions in 1848.

The Queen played a small role in politics, but became the iconic symbol of the nation, the empire, and proper, restrained behaviour. Her strength lay in good common sense and directness of character; she expressed the qualities of the British nation, which at that time made it preeminent in the world. As a symbol of domesticity, endurance and Empire, and as a woman holding the highest public office during an age when middle- and upper-class women were expected to beautify the home while men dominated the public sphere, Queen Victoria's influence has been enduring.

Her success as ruler was due to the power of the self-images she successively portrayed of innocent young woman, devoted wife and mother, suffering and patient widow, and grandmotherly matriarch. Lord Palmerston (1784-1865) dominated foreign policy for decades, through a period when Britain was at the height of its power, serving terms as both Foreign Secretary and Prime Minister.

He became controversial at the time, and remains so today, for his aggressive bullying and his "liberal interventionist" policies. He was intensely patriotic; he used the Royal Navy to undermine the Atlantic slave trade.

The Victorian era saw the fleshing out of the second British Empire. Scholars debate whether the Victorian period – as defined by a variety of sensibilities and political concerns that have come to be associated with the Victorians – actually begins with her coronation or the earlier passage of the Reform Act 1832. The era was preceded by the Regency era and succeeded by the Edwardian period.

Historians like Bernard Porter have characterized the mid-Victorian era, (1850-1870) as Britain's 'Golden Years.'There was peace and prosperity, as the national income per person grew by half. Much of the prosperity was due to the increasing industrialization, especially in textiles and machinery, as well as to the worldwide network of trade and engineering that produce profits for British merchants and experts from across the globe. There was peace abroad (apart from the short Crimean war, 1854-56), and social peace at home. Opposition to the new order melted away, says Porter.

The Chartist movement, peaked as a democratic movement among the working class in 1848; its leaders moved to other pursuits, such as trade unions and cooperative societies. The working class ignored foreign agitators like Karl Marx in their midst, and joined in celebrating the new prosperity. Employers typically were paternalistic, and generally recognized the trade unions.

Companies provided their employees with welfare services ranging from housing, schools and churches, to libraries, baths, and gymnasia. Middle-class reformers did their best to assist the working classes aspire to middle-class norms of "respectability". There was a spirit of libertarianism, says Porter, as people felt they were free. Taxes were very low, and government restrictions were minimal.

There were still problem areas, such as occasional riots, especially those motivated by anti-Catholicism. Society was still ruled by the aristocracy and the gentry, which controlled high government offices, both houses of Parliament, the church, and the military.

Becoming a rich businessman was not as prestigious as inheriting a title and owning a landed estate. Literature was doing well, but the fine arts languished as the Great Exhibition of 1851-showcased Britain's industrial prowess rather than its sculpture, painting or music. The educational system was mediocre; the capstone universities (outside Scotland) were likewise mediocre.

Historian Llewellyn Woodward has concluded: For leisure or work, for getting or spending, England was a better country in 1879 than in 1815. The scales were less weighted against the weak, against women and children, and against the poor. There was greater movement, and less of the fatalism of an earlier age.

The public conscience was more instructed, and the content of liberty was being widened to include something more than freedom from political constraint.... Yet England in 1871 was by no means an earthly paradise. The housing and conditions of life of the working class in town & country were still a disgrace to an age of plenty.

The Great London Exhibition of 1851 clearly demonstrated Britain's dominance in engineering and industry; that lasted until the rise of the United States and Germany in the 1890s. Using the imperial tools of free trade and financial investment, it exerted major influence on many countries outside Europe, especially in Latin America and Asia. Thus, Britain had both a formal Empire based on British rule and an informal one based on the British pound. One nagging fear was the possible collapse of the Ottoman Empire. It was well understood that a collapse of that country would set off a scramble for its territory and possibly plunge Britain into war. To head that off Britain sought to keep the Russians from occupying Constantinople and taking over the Bosporous Straits, as well as from threatening India via Afghanistan.

In 1853, Britain and France intervened in the Crimean War and defeated Russia at a very high cost in casualties. In the 1870s, the Congress of Berlin blocked Russia from imposing the harsh Treaty of San Stefano on the Ottoman Empire. Despite its alliance with the French in the Crimean War, Britain viewed the Second Empire of Napoleon III with some distrust, especially as the emperor constructed ironclad warships and began returning France to a more active foreign policy.

East Indian company steamship Nemesis

During the American Civil War (1861-1865), British leaders personally disliked American republicanism and favoured the more aristocratic Confederacy, as it had been a major source of cotton for textile mills. Prince Albert was effective in defusing a war scare in late 1861.

The British people, who depended heavily on American food imports, generally favoured the United States. What little cotton was available came from New York, as the blockade by the US Navy shut down 95% of Southern exports to Britain.

In September 1862, Britain (along with France) contemplated stepping in and negotiating a peace settlement, which could only mean war with the USA. But in the same month, US president Abraham Lincoln announced the Emancipation Proclamation would be issued in January 1863 making abolition of slavery in the Confederacy a war goal. Since support of the Confederacy now meant support for slavery, there was no longer any possibility of European intervention.

Meanwhile, the British sold arms to both sides, built blockade runners for a lucrative trade with the Confederacy, and surreptitiously allowed warships to be built for the Confederacy.

The warships caused a major diplomatic row that was resolved in the Alabama Claims in 1872, in the Americans' favour. In 1867, Britain united most of its North American colonies as the Dominion of Canada, giving it self-government and responsibility for its internal affairs. Britain handled foreign policy and defence. The second half of the 19th century saw a huge expansion of Britain's colonial empire in Asia and Africa as well as the Pacific. In the "Scramble for Africa", the boast was having the Union Jack flying from "Cairo to Cape Town." Britain defended its empire with the world's dominant navy, and a small professional army. It was the only power in Europe to have no conscription.

The rise of the German Empire after 1871 posed a new challenge, for it (along with the USA) threatened to take Britain's place as the world's foremost industrial power. Germany acquired a number of colonies in Africa and the Pacific, but Chancellor Otto von Bismarck succeeded in achieving general peace through his balance of power strategy. When William II became emperor in 1888, he discarded Bismarck, began using bellicose language, and planned to build a navy to rival Britain's.

Boer War

Ever since Britain had taken control of South Africa from the Netherlands in the Napoleonic Wars, it had conflicted with the Dutch settlers who further away and created two republics of their own. The British imperial vision called for control over the new countries and the Dutch-speaking "Boers" (or "Afrikaners") fought back in the War in 1899-1902. British historian Andrew Roberts argues that the Boers insisted on keeping full control of both their two small republics, allowing no role whatever for nonwhites, and distinctly limited roles for British and other European settlers.

These "Uitlanders" with the base of the economy, and paid 80 % of the taxes, and had no vote.

The Transvaal was in no sense a democracy, argues Roberts, for no black, Britain, Catholic or Jew was allowed to vote or hold any office. Johannesburg was the business center, with 50,000 primarily British residents, but was not permitted any local government.

The English language was banned in official proceedings; no public meetings were permitted; newspapers were closed down arbitrarily; and full citizenship was technically possible but quite rare. Roberts says President Paul Kruger "ran a tight, tough, quasi-police state from his state capital, Pretoria". the British government officially protested; while theoretically recognizing the Transvaal's right to manage its internal affairs, cabinet member Joseph Chamberlain detailed the many ways how Uitlanders were mistreated as second-class non-citizens, despite their essential role in producing prosperity.

The Boer response to the British pressure was to declare war on 20 October 1899.

The 410,000 Boers were massively outnumbered, but amazingly, they waged a successful guerrilla war, which gave the British regulars a difficult fight. The Boers were landlocked and did not have access to outside help.

The weight of numbers, superior equipment, and often brutal tactics eventually brought about a British victory. To defeat the guerrillas, the British rounded up their women and children into concentration camps, where many died of disease. World outrage focused on the camps, led by a large faction of the Liberal Party in Britain. However, the United States gave its support.

The Boer republics were merged into Union of South Africa in 1910; it had internal self-government but its foreign policy was controlled by London and was an integral part of the British Empire.

The unexpectedly great difficulty in defeating the Boers forced a reevaluation of British policy. In military terms, it was clear that the Cardwell reforms have been inadequate. The call to establish a general staff to control military operations had been shelved by the Duke of Cambridge, himself a royal with enormous authority. It took a five more years to set up a general staff and other Army reforms, under the administration of Lord Haldane. The Royal Navy was now threatened by Germany. Britain responded by a massive building program launched in 1904 by the highly controversial First Sea Lord, Sir John Fisher. He launched the HMS Dreadnought in 1906. It was the first modern battleship based on new armour. new propulsion, new guns and gunnery that made all other warships obsolete.

The Boer war demonstrated that Britain was not loved around the world – it had more enemies than friends and its policy of "splendid isolation" was one of high risk. It needed new friends. It made a military alliance with Japan, buried old controversies to forge a close relationship with the USA. Britain in addition to taking control of new territories developed an enormous power in economic and financial affairs in numerous independent countries, especially in Latin America and Asia. It lent money, built railways, and engaged in trade. The Great London Exhibition of 1851 clearly demonstrated Britain's dominance in engineering, communications and industry; that lasted until the rise of the United States and Germany in the 1890s. In 1890-1902 under Salisbury Britain promoted a policy of splendid isolation with no formal allies. Part of the agreement, which led to the Act of Union 1800, stipulated that the Penal Laws in Ireland were to be repealed and Catholic Emancipation granted. King George III blocked emancipation. A campaign under Daniel O'Connell led to the concession of Catholic Emancipation in 1829, allowing Catholics to sit in Parliament.

When potato blight hit Ireland in 1846, much of the rural population was left without food. Relief efforts were inadequate and hundreds of thousands died in the Great Hunger. Mas more migrated to England, or to North America. Ireland became permanently smaller in terms of population.

In the 1870s new moderate nationalist movement was formed. As the Irish Parliamentary Party it became a major factor in parliament under Charles Stewart Parnell. Home Rule Bills introduced by Liberal Prime Minister Gladstone failed of passage, and split the Liberals.

A significant unionist minority (based in Ulster), opposed Home Rule, fearing that a Catholic-Nationalist parliament in Dublin would discriminate against them and would hurt its industry.

Parliament passed laws in 1870, 1881, 1903 and 1909 that enabled most tenant farmers to purchase their lands, and lowered the rents of the others.

The transition to industrialization was not seamless for workers, many of whom saw their livelihoods threatened by the process. Of these, some frequently sabotaged or attempted to sabotage factories. These saboteurs were known as "Luddites". The Local Government Act of 1888 was the first systematic attempt to impose a standardised system of local government in England. The counties of England at the time were used as the basis of the system.

By 1888, it was clear that the piecemeal system that had developed over the previous century in response to the vastly increased need for local administration could no longer cope.

The sanitary districts and parish councils had legal status, but were not part of the mechanism of government. They were run by volunteers; often there was no-one who could be held responsible for the failure to undertake the required duties. Furthermore, the increased "county business" could not be handled by the Quarter Sessions, nor was it appropriate to do so. Finally, there was a desire to see local administration performed by elected officials, as in the reformed municipal boroughs.

The Local Government Act was therefore the first systematic attempt to impose a standardised system of local government in England. The counties of England at the time were used as the basis of the system. The counties themselves had undergone some boundary changes in the preceding 50 years, mainly to remove enclaves and exclaves. The act called for the creation of statutory counties, based on the ancient/historic counties, but completely corrected for enclaves and exclaves, and adjusted so that all settlements were completely within a single county.

These statutory counties were to be used for non-administrative functions: "sheriff, lieutenant, custos rotulorum, justices, militia, coroner, or other". With the advent of elected councils, the offices of lord lieutenant and sheriff became largely ceremonial. The statutory counties formed the basis for the so-called 'administrative counties'. However, it was felt that large cities and primarily rural areas in the same county could not be well administered by the same body. Thus, 59 "counties in themselves", or 'county boroughs', were created to administer the urban centres of England. These were part of the statutory counties, but not part of the administrative counties.

Local Government Act 1894 created a second tier of local government. Henceforth, all administrative counties and county boroughs would be divided into either rural or urban districts, allowing more localised administration. The municipal boroughs reformed after 1835 were brought into this system as special cases of urban districts. The urban and rural districts were based upon, and incorporated the sanitary districts which had been created in 1875 (with adjustments, so that districts did not overlap two counties). The Act provided for the establishment of civil parishes.

The 1894 Act formed an official system of civil parishes, separated from the ecclesiastical parishes, to carry on some of these responsibilities (others being transferred to the district/county councils). However, the civil parishes were not a complete third-tier of local government. Instead, they were "community councils" for smaller, rural settlements, which did not have a local government district to themselves. Where urban parish councils had previously existed, they were absorbed into the new urban districts.

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

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

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

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

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EARLY 20TH CENTURY 1901-1918

Queen Victoria died in 1901 and her son Edward VII became king, inaugurating the Edwardian Era, which was characterised by great and ostentatious displays of wealth in contrast to the sombre Victorian Era. With the advent of the 20th century, things such as motion pictures, automobiles, and aeroplanes were coming into use. The new century was characterised by a feeling of great optimism.

The social reforms of the last century continued into the 20th with the Labour Party being formed in 1900. Edward died in 1910, to be succeeded by George V, who reigned 1910-36. Scandal-free, hard working and popular, George V was the British monarch who, with Queen Mary, established the modern pattern of exemplary conduct for British royalty, based on middle-class values and virtues.

He understood the overseas Empire better than any of his prime ministers and used his exceptional memory for figures and details, whether of uniforms, politics, or relations, to good effect in reaching out in conversation with his subjects.

The era was prosperous but political crises were escalating out of control. Dangerfield (1935) identified the "strange death of liberal England" as the multiple crisis that hit simultaneously in 1910-1914 with serious social and political instability arising from the Irish crisis, labor unrest, the women's suffrage movements, and partisan and constitutional struggles in Parliament. At one point it even seemed the Army might refuse orders dealing with Northern Ireland. No solution appeared in sight when the unexpected outbreak of the Great War in 1914 put domestic issues on hold.

McKibben argues that the political party system of the Edwardian era was in delicate balance on the eve of the war in 1914. The Liberals were in power with a progressive alliance of Labour, off and on, Irish Nationalists. The coalition was committed to free trade (as opposed to the high tariffs the Conservatives sought), free collective bargaining for trades unions (which Conservatives opposed), an active social policy that was forging the welfare state, constitutional reform to reduce the power of the House of Lords. The coalition lacked a long-term plan, because it was cobbled together from leftovers from the 1890s. The sociological basis was non-Anglican religion and non-English ethnicity rather than the emerging class conflict emphasized by Labour.

World War I

Britain entered the war because of its implicit support for France, which had entered to support Russia, which in turn had entered to support Serbia. Even more important than that chain of links was Britain's determination to honour its commitment to defend Belgium. Britain was loosely part of the Triple Entente with France & Russia, which (with smaller allies) fought the Central Powers of Germany, Austria & the Ottoman Empire. After a few weeks the Western Front turned into a killing ground in which Mas of men died but no army made a large advance.

The stalemate required an endless supply of men and munitions. By 1916, volunteering fell off, the government imposed conscription in Britain (but not in Ireland) to keep up the strength of the Army.

After a rough start in industrial mobilisation, Britain replaced Prime Minister Asquith in December 1916 with the much more dynamic Liberal leader David Lloyd George. The nation now successfully mobilised its work force, womanpower, industry, finances, Empire and diplomacy, in league with France and the U.S. to defeat the enemy. After defeating Russia, the Germans tried to win in the spring of 1918 before the Mas of American soldiers arrived. They failed, and they were overwhelmed and finally accepted an Armistice in November 1918, that amounted to a surrender.

Britain eagerly supported the war, but in Ireland, the Catholics were restless and plotted a rebellion in 1916. It failed but the brutal repression that followed turned that element against Britain.

The economy grew about 14% from 1914 to 1918 despite the absence of so many men in the services; by contrast, the German economy shrank 27%. The War saw a decline of civilian consumption, with a major reallocation to munitions. The government share of GDP soared from 8% in 1913 to 38% in 1918 (compared to 50% in 1943).

The war forced Britain to use up its financial reserves and borrow large sums from New York banks. After the U.S. entered in April 1917, the Treasury borrowed directly from the U.S. government.

The Royal Navy dominated the seas, defeating the smaller German fleet in the only major naval battle of the war, the Battle of Jutland in 1916. Germany was blockaded, leading to an increasing shortage short of food. Germany's naval strategy increasingly turned towards use of U-Boats to strike back against the British, despite the risk of triggering war with the powerful neutral power, the USA.

The waters around Britain were declared a war zone where any ship, neutral or otherwise, was a target. After the liner Lusitania was sunk in May 1915, drowning over 100 American passengers, protests by the United States led Germany to abandon unrestricted submarine warfare.

With victory over Russia in 1917, Germany now calculated it could finally have numerical superiority on the Western Front. Planning for a massive spring offensive in 1918, it resumed the sinking of all merchant ships without warning. The US entered the war alongside the Allies (without actually joining them), provided the needed money and supplies to sustain the Allies' war efforts.

The U-boat threat was ultimately defeated by a convoy system across the Atlantic.

On other fronts, the British, French, Australians, and Japanese seized Germany's colonies. Britain fought the Ottoman Empire, suffering defeats in the Gallipoli Campaign and in Mesopotamia, while arousing the Arabs who helped expel the Turks from their lands. Exhaustion and war-weariness were growing worse in 1917, as the fighting in France continued with no end in sight.

The German spring offensives of 1918 failed, and with the summer arrival of American soldiers at a rate of 10,000 per day, the Germans realised they were being overwhelmed. Germany agreed to a surrender on 11 November 1918. Victorian attitudes and ideals that had continued into the first years of the 20th century changed during the First World War. The army had traditionally never been a large employer in the nation, with the regular army standing at 247,432 at the start of the war. By 1918, there were about five Ma people in the army and the fledgling Royal Air Force, newly formed from the Royal Naval Air Service (RNAS) and the Royal Flying Corps (RFC), was about the same size of the pre-war army. The almost three Ma casualties were known as the "lost generation"; such numbers inevitably left society scarred; but even so, some people felt their sacrifice was little regarded in Britain, with poems like Siegfried Sassoon's Blighters criticising the ill-informed jingoism of the home front.

Postwar Settlement

The war had been won by Britain and its allies, but at a terrible human and financial cost, creating a sentiment that wars should never be fought again. The League of Nations was founded with the idea that nations could resolve their differences peacefully, but these hopes were unfulfilled. The harsh peace settlement imposed on Germany would leave it embittered and seeking revenge.

At the Paris Peace Conference of 1919, Lloyd George, American President Woodrow Wilson and French premier Georges Clemenceau made all the major decisions. They formed the League of Nations as a mechanism to prevent future wars. They sliced up the losers to form new nations in Europe, and divided up the German colonies and Ottoman holdings outside Turkey.

They imposed what appeared to be heavy financial reparations (but in the event were of modest size). They humiliated Germany by forcing it to declare its guilt for starting the war, a policy that caused deep resentment in Germany and helped fuel reactions such as Nazism.

Britain gained the German colony of Tanganyika and part of Togoland in Africa, while its dominions added other colonies. Britain gained League of Nations mandates over Palestine, which had been partly promised as a homeland for Jewish settlers, and Iraq. Iraq became fully independent in 1932. Egypt, which had been a British protectorate since 1882, became independent in 1922, although the British remained there until 1952.

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

Exercise 2. Choose the correct variant. Use the information from the text.

INTERWAR ERA 1918-1939 & GREAT DEPRESSION

Historian Arthur Marwick sees a radical transformation of British society resulting from the Great War, a deluge that swept away many old attitudes and brought in a more equalitarian society.

He sees the famous literary pessimism of the 1920s as misplaced, arguing there were major positive long-term consequences of the war to British society.

He points to an energized self-consciousness among workers that quickly built up the Labour Party, the coming of partial woman suffrage, and an acceleration of social reform and state control of the economy. He sees a decline of deference toward the aristocracy and established authority in general, and the weakening among youth of traditional restraints on individual moral behavior.

The chaper one faded away; village druggists sold contraceptives. Marwick says that class distinctions softened, national cohesion increased, British society became equal.

Great Depression

The Great Depression originated in the United States in late 1929 and quickly spread to the world. Britain had never experienced the boom that had characterized the US, Germany, Canada and Australia in the 1920s, so its bust appeared less severe. Britain's world trade fell in half (1929-33), the output of heavy industry fell by a third, employment profits plunged in nearly all sectors.

At the depth in summer 1932, registered unemployed numbered 3.5 Ma; many more had only part-time employment. Experts tried to remain optimistic. John Maynard Keynes, who had not predicted the slump, said, "There will be no serious direct consequences in London. We find the look ahead decidedly encouraging." Doomsayers on the left such as Sidney and Beatrice Webb, J. A. Hobson, and G. D. H. Cole repeated the dire warnings they had been making for years about the imminent death of capitalism, only now far more people paid attention.

Starting in 1935 the Left Book Club provided a new warning every month, and built up the credibility of Soviet-style socialism as an alternative. Particularly hardest hit by economic problems were the north of England, Scotland, Northern Ireland and Wales; unemployment reached 70% in some areas at the start of the 1930s (with more than 3 Ma out of work nationally) and many families depended entirely on payments from local government known as the dole.

In 1936, by which time unemployment was lower, 200 unemployed men made a highly publicized march from Jarrow to London in a bid to show the plight of the industrial poor.

Although much romanticized by the Left, the Jarrow Crusade marked a deep split in the Labour Party and resulted in no government action.

Unemployment remained high until the war absorbed all the job seekers. George Orwell's book The Road to Wigan Pier gives a bleak overview of the hardships of the time.

Vivid memories of the horrors and deaths of the World War made Britain and its leaders strongly inclined to pacifism in the interwar era. The challenge came from dictators, first Benito Mussolini of Italy, then Adolf Hitler of a much more powerful Nazi Germany. The League of Nations proved disappointing to its supporters; it was unable to resolve any of the threats posed by the dictators. British policy was to "appease" them in the hopes they would be satiated.

By 1938, it was clear that war was looming, and that Germany had the world's most powerful military. The final act of appeasement came when Britain and France sacrificed Czechoslovakia to Hitler's demands at the Munich Agreement of 1938.

Instead of satiation, Hitler menaced Poland, and at last, Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain dropped appeasement and stood firm in promising to defend Poland. Hitler however cut a deal with Joseph Stalin to divide Eastern Europe; when Germany did invade Poland in September 1939, Britain and France declared war; the British Commonwealth followed London's lead.

Exercise 1. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

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

WORLD WAR II (1939-1945)

The King declared war on Nazi Germany in September 1939, after the German invasion of Poland. During the quiet period of "phoney war", the British sent to France the most highly mechanized army in the world; together with France they had more tanks than Germany, but fewer warplanes.

The smashing German victory in Spring 1940 was due entirely to "superior combat doctrine. Realistic training, imaginative battlefield leadership, and unparalleled initiative from generals down to sergeants". The British with the thinnest of margins rescued its main army from Dunkirk (as well as many French soldiers), leaving all their equipment and war supplies behind.

Winston Churchill came to power, promising to fight the Germans to the very end.

The Germans threatened an invasion – which the Royal Navy was prepared to repel. First the Germans tried to achieve air supremacy but were defeated by the Royal Air Force in the Battle of Britain in late summer 1940. Japan declared war in December 1941; quickly seized Hong Kong, Malaya, Singapore, and Burma, and threatened Australia and India. Britain formed an alliance with the Soviet Union (starting in 1941) and very close ties to the United States (starting in 1940). The war was very expensive. It was paid for by high taxes, by selling off assets, and by accepting large amounts of Lend Lease from the U.S. and Canada. The US gave $30 bn in munitions; Canada gave aid. (The American and Canadian aid did not have to be repaid, but there were American loans that were repaid.)

Britain's total mobilisation during this period proved to be successful in winning the war, by maintaining strong support from public opinion. The war was a "people's war" that enlarged democratic aspirations and produced promises of a postwar welfare state.

The media called it a "people's war"- a term that caught on and signified the popular demand for planning and an expanded welfare state. The Royal family played major symbolic roles in the war.

They refused to leave London during the Blitz and were indefatigable in visiting troops, munition factories, dockyards, and hospitals all over the country. All social classes appreciated how the royals shared the hopes, fears and hardships of the people.

Historians credit Britain with a highly successful record of mobilising the home front for the war effort, in terms of mobilising the greatest proportion of potential workers, maximising output, assigning the right skills to the right task; maintaining the morale and spirit of the people. Much of this success was due to the systematic planned mobilisation of women, as workers, soldiers & housewives, enforced after December 1941 by conscription. The women supported the war effort, and made the rationing of consumer goods a success. In some ways, the government over-responded, evacuating too many children in the first days of the war, closing cinemas as frivolous then reopening them when the need for cheap entertainment was clear, sacrificing cats and dogs to save a little space on shipping pet food, only to discover an urgent need to keep the rats and mice under control.

The British relied successfully on voluntarism. Munitions production rose dramatically, and the quality remained high. Food production was emphasised, in large part to free shipping for munitions.

Farmers increased the number of acres under cultivation from 12,000,000 to 18,000,000 (from about 50,000 to 75,000 km²), and the farm labour force was expanded by a fifth, thanks especially to the Women's Land Army. The success of the government in providing new services, such as hospitals and school lunches, as well as egalitarian spirit, contributed to widespread support for an enlarged welfare state. The coalition government and all major parties supported it.

Welfare conditions, especially regarding food, improved during the war as the government imposed rationing and subsidized food prices. Conditions for housing worsened of course with the bombing, and clothing was in short supply. Equality increased dramatically, as incomes declined sharply for the wealthy and for white collar workers, as their taxes soared, while blue collar workers benefited from rationing and price controls. People demanded an expansion of the welfare state as a reward to the people for their wartime sacrifices. The goal was operationalized in a famous report by William Beveridge.

It recommended that the various income maintenance services that a grown-up piecemeal since 1911 be systematized and made universal. Unemployment benefits and sickness benefits were to be universal. There would be new benefits for maternity.

The old-age pension system would be revised and expanded, and require that a person retired.

A full-scale National Health Service would provide free medical care for everyone. All the major parties endorsed the principles and they were largely put into effect when peace returned.

Britain was a winner in the war, but it lost India in 1947 and nearly all the rest of the Empire by 1960. It debated its role in world affairs and joined the United Nations in 1945, NATO in 1949, where it became a close ally of the United States. Prosperity returned in the 1950s and London remained a world centre of finance and culture, but the nation was no longer a major world power.

In 1973, after a long debate and initial rejection, it joined the European Union. The end of the war saw a landslide victory for Clement Attlee and the Labour Party. They were elected on a manifesto of greater social justice with left wing policies such as the creation of a National Health Service, an expansion of the provision of council housing and nationalisation of the major industries.

Britain faced severe financial crises, responded by reducing her international responsibilities and by sharing the hardships of an "age of austerity". Large loans from the USA and Marshall Plan grants helped rebuild and modernize its infrastructure and business practices.

Rationing and conscription dragged on into the post war years, and the country suffered one of the worst winters on record. Nevertheless, morale was boosted by events such as the marriage of Princess Elizabeth in 1947 and the Festival of Britain. Labour Party experts went into the files to find the detailed plans for nationalisation that had been developed. To their surprise, there were no plans.
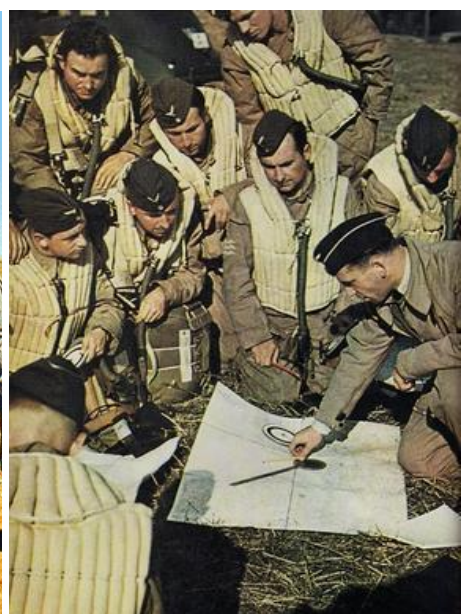
The leaders realized they had to act fast to keep up the momentum of the 1945 electoral landslide. They started with the Bank of England, civil aviation, coal, and Cable and Wireless.

Then came railways, canals, road haulage and trucking, electricity, gas.

Finally came iron and steel, which was a special case because it was a manufacturing industry.

Altogether, about one fifth of the economy had been nationalised. Labour dropped its plans to nationalise farmlands. The procedure used was developed by Herbert Morrison, who as Lord President chaired the Committee on the Socialization of Industries. He followed the model that was already in place of setting up public corporations such as the BBC in broadcasting (1927).

As the owners of corporate stock were given government bonds, the government took full ownership of each affected company, consolidating it into a national monopoly. The management remained the same, only now they became civil servants working for the government.

PROSPERITY OF THE POSTWAR YEARS

During the war, trade unions were encouraged and their membership grew from 4.1 Ma in 1914 to 6.5 Ma in 1918. They peaked at 8.3 Ma in 1920 before relapsing to 5.4 Ma in 1923.

Coal was a sick industry; the best seams were being exhausted, raising the cost. Demand fell as oil began replacing coal for fuel. The 1926 general strike was a nine-day nationwide walkout of 1.3 Ma railwaymen, transport workers, printers, dockers, iron workers and steelworkers supporting the 1.2 Ma coal miners who had been locked out by the owners. The miners had rejected the owners' demands for longer hours and reduced pay in the face of falling prices. The Conservative government had provided a nine-month subsidy in 1925 but that was not enough to turn around a sick industry.

To support the miners, the Trades Union Congress (TUC), an umbrella organization of all trades unions, called out certain critical unions. The hope was the government would intervene to reorganize and rationalize the industry, raise the subsidy. The Conservative government had stockpiled supplies and essential services continued with middle class volunteers.

All three major parties opposed the strike. The Labour Party leaders did not approve and feared it would tar the party with the image of radicalism, for the Cominterm in Moscow had sent instructions for Communists to aggressively promote the strike. The general strike itself was largely non-violent, but the miners' lockout continued and there was violence in Scotland. It was the only general strike in British history, for TUC leaders such as Ernest Bevin considered it a mistake.

Most historians treat it as a singular event with few long-term consequences, but Martin Pugh says it accelerated the movement of working-class voters to the Labour Party, which led to future gains. The Trade Disputes & Trade Unions Act 1927 made general strikes illegal and ended the automatic payment of union members to the Labour Party. That act was largely repealed in 1946.

The coal industry, used up the more accessible coal as costs rose output fell from 2567 Ma tons in 1924 to 183 Ma in 1945. The Labour government nationalised the mines in 1947.

For the Labour Party leadership, nationalisation was a method to consolidate economic planning in their own hands. It was not designed to modernise old industries, make them efficient, or transform their organisational structure. There was no money for modernisation, although the Marshall Plan, operated separately by American planners, did force many British businesses to adopt modern managerial techniques. Hardline socialists were disappointed, as the nationalised industries seemed identical to the old private corporations, and national planning was made virtually impossible by the government's financial constraints. Socialism was in place, but it did not seem to make a major difference. Rank-and-file workers had long been motivated to support Labour by tales of the mistreatment of workers by supervisors and the management. The supervisors and the managers were the same men as before with much the same power over the workplace. There was no worker control of industry.

The unions resisted government efforts to set wages. By the time of the general elections in 1950 and 1951, Labour seldom boasted about nationalisation of industry. Instead, it was the Conservatives who decried the inefficiency and mismanagement, and promised to reverse the takeover of steel and trucking. As the country headed into the 1950s, rebuilding continued and a number of immigrants from the remaining British Empire, mostly the Caribbean and the Indian subcontinent, were invited to help the rebuilding effort. As the 1950s wore on, Britain lost its place as a superpower and could no longer maintain its large Empire. This led to decolonisation and a withdrawal from almost all of its colonies by 1970. Events such as the Suez Crisis showed that the UK's status had fallen in the world.

The 1950s and 1960s were, however, relatively prosperous times after the Second World War, and saw the beginning of a modernisation of the UK, with the construction of its first motorways for example, and also during the 1960s a great cultural movement began, which expanded across the world. Unemployment was relatively low and the standard of living continued to rise with more new private & council housing developments taking place & the number of slum properties diminishing.

The postwar period witnessed a dramatic rise in the average standard of living, as characterised by a 40% rise in average real wages from 1950 to 1965. Earnings for men in industry rose by 95% between 1951 and 1964, while during that same period the official workweek was reduced and five reductions in income tax were made. Those in traditionally poorly paid semi-skilled and unskilled occupations saw a particularly marked improvement in their wages and living standards.

As summed up by R. J. Unstead: Opportunities in life, if not equal, were distributed much more fairly than ever before and\ the weekly wage-earner, in particular, had gained standards of living that would have been almost unbelievable in the thirties." In 1950, the UK standard of living was higher than in any EEC country apart from Belgium. It was 50% higher than the West German standard of living; twice as high as the Italian standard of living. By the earlier Seventies, however, the UK standard of living was lower than all EEC countries apart from Italy (roughly equal to Britain).

In 1951, the average weekly earnings of men over the age of 21 stood at £8 6s 0d, and nearly doubled a decade later to £15 7s 0d. By 1966, average weekly earnings stood at £20 6s 0d.

Between 1964 and 1968, the percentage of households with a television set rose from 80.5% to 85.5%, a washing machine from 54% to 63%, a refrigerator from 35% to 55%, a car from 38% to 49%, a telephone from 21.5% to 28%, and central heating from 13% to 23%.

Between 1951 &1963, wages rose by 72% while prices rose by 45%, enabling people to afford more consumer goods than ever before. Between 1955 and 1967, the average earnings of weekly-paid workers increased by 96% and those of salaried workers by 95%, while prices rose by about 45% in the same period. The rising affluence of the Fifties and Sixties was underpinned by sustained full employment and a dramatic rise in workers' wages.

In 1950, the average weekly wage stood at £6.8s, compared with £11.2s.6d in 1959.

Because of wage rises, consumer spending increased by about 20% during this same period, while economic growth remained at about 3%. In addition, food rations were lifted in 1954 while hire-purchase controls were relaxed in the same year. Because of these changes, large numbers of the working classes were able to participate in the consumer market for the first time.

As noted by Harriet Wilson: National wealth has grown considerably; although the shareout of this among the social classes has remained substantially of the same proportions, it has meant a considerable rise in the standard of living of all classes.

It is estimated that in Britain at the turn of the century average earnings in industry sufficed merely to meet the essential needs of a two-child family, today average earnings allow the industrial wage-earner to spend a third of his income on things other than basic needs."

The significant real wage increases in the 1950s and 1960s contributed to a rapid increase in working-class consumerism, with British consumer spending rising by 45% between 1952 and 1964.

In addition, entitlement to various fringe benefits was improved. In 1955, 96% of manual labourers were entitled to two weeks' holiday with pay, compared with 61% in 1951. By the end of the 1950s, Britain had become one of the world's most affluent countries, and by the early Sixties, most Britons enjoyed a level of prosperity that had previously been known only to a small minority of the population.

For the young and unattached, there was, for the first time in decades, spare cash for leisure, clothes, and luxuries.

In 1959, Queen magazine declared that "Britain has launched into an age of unparalleled lavish living." Average wages were high while jobs were plentiful, and people saw their personal prosperity climb even higher. Prime Minister Harold Macmillan claimed that "the luxuries of the rich have become the necessities of the poor". Levels of disposable income rose steadily, with the spending power of the average family rising by 50% between 1951 and 1979, and by the end of the 70s, 6 out of 10 families had come to own a car.

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

Exercise 2. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

EMPIRE TO COMMONWEALTH

Britain's control over its Empire loosened during the interwar period. Nationalism strengthened in other parts of the empire, particularly in India and in Egypt.

Between 1867 and 1910, the UK had granted Australia, Canada, and New Zealand "Dominion" status (complete autonomy within the Empire). They became charter members of the British Commonwealth of Nations (known as the Commonwealth of Nations since 1949), an informal but close-knit association that succeeded the British Empire. Beginning with the independence of India and Pakistan in 1947, the remainder of the British Empire was almost completely dismantled. Today, most of Britain's former colonies belong to the Commonwealth, almost all of them as independent members.

The resulting League of Nations was a favorite project in Interwar Britain. However, while the Empire remained strong, As did the London financial markets, the British industrial base began to slip behind Germany and especially the United States. Sentiments for peace were so strong that the nation supported appeasement of Hitler's Germany in the late 1930s, until the Nazi invasion of Poland in 1939 opened the Second World War. In the Second World War 1939-45, France, the Soviet Union the U.S. joined Britain as the main Allied powers. Britain and its Empire faced near defeat at several points, 1940-42, but finally crushed Germany, Italy and Japan.

There are, however, 13 former British colonies: Bermuda, Gibraltar, the Falkland Islands, and others, which have elected to continue rule by London and are known as British Overseas Territories.
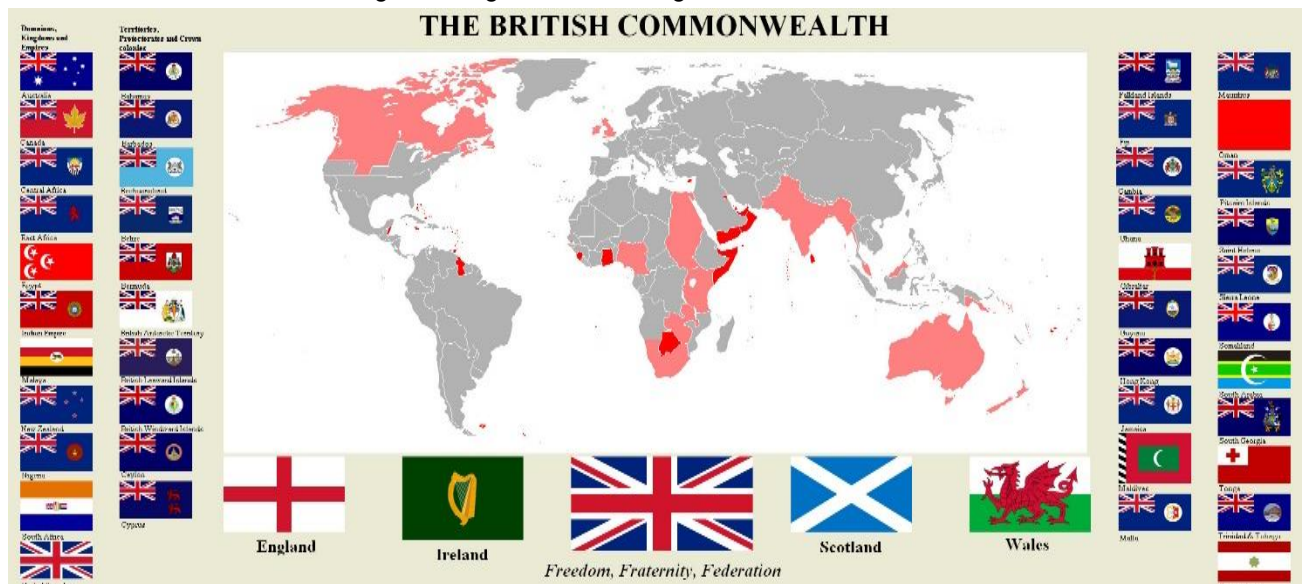
In the 1960s, moderate unionist Prime Minister of Northern Ireland Terence O'Neill tried to reform the system and give a greater voice to Catholics who comprised 40% of the population of Northern Ireland. Militant Protestants led by the Rev. Ian Paisley blocked his goals.

The increasing pressures from nationalists for reform and from unionists to resist reform led to the appearance of the civil rights movement under figures like John Hume, Austin Currie and others.

Clashes escalated out of control as the army could barely contain the Provisional Irish Republican Army (IRA) and the Ulster Defence Association. British leaders feared their withdrawal would give a "Doomsday Scenario", with widespread communal strife, followed by the mass exodus of hundreds of thousands of refugees. London shut down Northern Ireland's parliament and began direct rule.

By the 1990s, the failure of the IRA campaign to win mass public support or achieve its aim of a British withdrawal led to negotiations that in 1998 produced the "Good Friday Agreement". It won popular support and largely ended the Troubles.

The **Commonwealth** is one of the world's oldest political association of states. Its roots go back to the British **Empire** when some countries were ruled directly or indirectly by Britain. Some of these countries became self-governing while retaining Britain's monarch as Head of State.

THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

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HOME RULE OF IRELAND

From the late 19th century, the majority of people living in Ireland wanted the British government to grant some form of self-rule to Ireland. The Irish Nationalist Party sometimes held the balance of power in the House of Commons in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, a position, from which it sought to gain Home Rule, which would have given Ireland autonomy in internal affairs, without breaking up the UK. Two bills granting Home Rule to Ireland were passed by the House of Commons in 1886 and 1893, but rejected by the House of Lords.

With the passing of the Parliament Act 1911 by the Liberal Party government (which reduced the powers of the Lords from striking down parliamentary Bills to delaying their implementation for two years) it was apparent that Home Rule would probably come into force in the next five years.

The Home Rule Party had been campaigning for this for almost fifty years.

However, a significant minority was vehemently opposed to the idea and wished to retain the Union in its existing form. Irish unionists had been agitating successfully against Home Rule since the 1880s, and on 28 September 1912, the leader of the northern unionists, Edward Carson, introduced the Ulster Covenant in Belfast, pledging to exclude Ulster from home rule. The Covenant was signed by 450,000 men. Whilst precipitating a split with unionists in the south & west (including a particularly sizeable community in Dublin), it gave the northern unionists a feasible goal to aim for.

By the early 20th century, Belfast (the largest city in Ulster) had become the largest city in Ireland. Its industrial economy, with strong engineering and shipbuilding sectors, was closely integrated with that of Great Britain. Belfast was a substantially Ulster Protestant town with a Catholic minority of less than 30%, concentrated in the west of the city. In 1912, the House of Lords managed to delay a Home Rule bill passed by the House of Commons. It was enacted as the Government of Ireland Act 1914. Civil war threatened when the Protestants of Northern Ireland refused to be placed under Catholic control. Semi-military unites were formed ready to fight – the Unionist Ulster Volunteers opposed to the Act and their Catholic counterparts, the Irish Volunteers supporting the Act.

A third Home Rule Bill was introduced by the Liberal minority government in 1912. However, the Conservative Party was sympathetic to the unionist case, and the political voice of unionism was strong in Parliament. After heavy amendment by the House of Lords, the Commons agreed in 1914 to allow four counties of Ulster to vote themselves out of its provisions and then only for six years.

Throughout 1913 and 1914, paramilitary "volunteer armies" were recruited and armed, firstly the unionist Ulster Volunteer Force (UVF), and in response, the nationalist Irish Volunteers. But events in Europe were to take precedence: in what was to be the opening shot of World War I, Gavrilo Princip assassinated ArchdUKe Franz Ferdinand of Austria in Sarajevo.

Home rule was delayed for the duration of what was expected to be a short war and unionist and nationalist leaders agreed to encourage their volunteers to join the British army.

The 36th (Ulster) Division, which was to suffer so severely at the Somme in 1916, was formed predominantly from the UVF. Nationalists joined in great numbers as well, with "old" Irish regiments from Munster and Leinster being greatly strengthened by these recruits.

During World War I, tensions continued to mount in Ireland. Hardline Irish separatists (Irish Nationalists & later Republicans) rejected Home Rule entirely because it involved maintaining the connection with Britain. They retained control of one faction of the Irish Volunteers, and in Easter 1916, led by Thomas Clarke, James Connolly and others attempted a rebellion in Dublin.

After summary trials, the British government had the leaders executed for treason.

The government blamed the small Sinn Féin party, which had had little to do with it.

The execution of the leaders of the rebellion turned out to be a propaganda coup for militant republicanism, and Sinn Féin's previously negligible popular support grew.

The surviving leaders of the Irish Volunteers infiltrated the party and assumed its leadership in 1917. (The Irish Volunteers would later become the Irish Republican Army (IRA) in 1919.) Republicans gained further support when the British government attempted to introduce conscription to Ireland in 1918. Sinn Féin was at the forefront of organising the campaign against conscription.

The outbreak of the World War in 1914 put the crisis on political hold. A disorganized Easter Rising in 1916 was brutally suppressed by the British, which had the effect of galvanizing Catholic demands for independence. Prime Minister Lloyd George failed to introduce Home Rule in 1918 and in the December 1918 General Election Sinn Féin won a majority of Irish seats. Its MPs refused to take their seats at Westminster, instead choosing to sit in the First Dáil parliament in Dublin. A declaration of independence was ratified by Dáil Éireann, the self-declared Republic's parliament in January 1919.

An Anglo-Irish War was fought between Crown forces and the Irish Republican Army between January 1919 and June 1921. The war ended with the Anglo-Irish Treaty of December 1921 that established the Irish Free State. Six northern, predominantly Protestant counties became Northern Ireland and have remained part of the UK ever since, despite demands of the Catholic minority to unite with the Republic of Ireland. Britain officially adopted the name "UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland" by the Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act 1927. When the veterans of World War I, on both sides of the political divide, returned from the front in 1918 and 1919, they came back as battle-hardened soldiers.

In the general election of 1918, the Irish Parliamentary Party lost almost all of its seats to Sinn Féin. Of the 30 seats in the six counties that would become Northern Ireland, 23 were won by Unionists, including 3 Labour Unionists and five of the six IPP members returned in Ireland were elected in Ulster as a result of local voting pacts with Sinn Féin. Guerrilla warfare slowly gathered pace in Ireland in the aftermath of the election, leading to the Anglo-Irish War. Although lower in intensity in Ulster than the rest of Ireland, the conflict was complicated there by involving not only the IRA, British Army and Royal Irish Constabulary, but the Ulster Volunteer Force (UVF) as well.

The fourth and final Home Rule Bill (the Government of Ireland Act 1920) partitioned the island into Northern Ireland (six northeastern counties) & Southern Ireland (the rest of the island).

Some unionists such as Sir Edward Carson opposed partition, seeing it as a betrayal of unionism as a Pan-Irish political movement. Three Counties unionists, who found themselves on the wrong side of the new border that partitioned Ulster, felt betrayed by those who had joined them in pledging to "stand by one another" in the Ulster Covenant. The Belfast Telegraph reassured unionists who felt guilty about this "that it was better for two-thirds of passengers to save themselves than for all to drown.

Many Irish nationalists opposed partition, although some were gratified that Northern Ireland contained a large nationalist minority that would deny it stability. The Treaty was given effect in the UK through the Irish Free State Constitution Act 1922.

Under Article 12 of the Treaty, Northern Ireland could exercise its opt out by presenting an address to the King requesting not to be part of the Irish Free State.

Once the Treaty was ratified, the Parliament of Northern Ireland had one month to exercise this opt out during which month the Irish Free State Government could not legislate for Northern Ireland, holding the Free State's effective jurisdiction in abeyance for a month.

On 7 December 1922 the Parliament of Northern Ireland resolved to make the following address to the King so as to opt out of the Irish Free State: Most gracious sovereign, we, your Majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the Senators and Commons of Northern Ireland in Parliament assembled, having learnt of the passing of the Irish Free State Constitution Act, 1922, being the Act of Parliament for the ratification of the Articles of Agreement for a Treaty between Great Britain & Ireland, do. By this humble Address, pray your Majesty that the powers of the Parliament and Government of the Irish Free State shall no longer extend to Northern Ireland.

On 13 December 1922 Prime Minister James Craig addressed the Parliament of Northern Ireland informing them that the King had responded to the Parliament's address as follows: I have received the Address presented to me by both Houses of the Parliament of Northern Ireland in pursuance of Article 12 of the Articles of Agreement set forth in the Schedule to the Irish Free State (Agreement) Act, 1922, and of Section 5 of the Irish Free State Constitution Act, 1922, and I have caused my Ministers and the Irish Free State Government to be so informed. Northern Ireland, having received self-government within the UK under the Government of Ireland Act, was in some respects left to its own devices. The first years of the new autonomous region were marked by bitter violence, particularly in Belfast. The IRA was determined to oppose the partition of Ireland so the authorities created the (mainly ex-UVF) Ulster Special Constabulary to aid the Royal Irish Constabulary (RIC) & introduced emergency powers to put down the IRA. Many died in political violence between 1920 and 1923, during which Belfast experienced the worst violence in its history. Killings petered out in 1923 after the signing of the Anglo-Irish Treaty in 1922. In total, 636 people were killed between July 1920 and July 1922 in Northern Ireland. "Approximately 460 of these deaths occurred in Belfast (258 Catholics, 159 Protestants, and 3 of unknown religion). However, as Catholics made up less than one-quarter of the population of the city, the per capita death rates were much higher."

The continuing violence created a climate of fear in the new region, and there was migration across the new border. As well as movement of Protestants from the Free State into Northern Ireland, some Catholics fled south, leaving some of those who remained feeling isolated.

Despite the mixed religious affiliation of the old Royal Irish Constabulary and the transfer of many Catholic RIC police officers to the newly formed Royal Ulster Constabulary (1922), northern Catholics did not join the new force in great numbers. Many nationalists came to view the new police force as sectarian, adding to their sense of alienation from the state.

Under successive unionist Prime Ministers from Sir James Craig (later Lord Craigavon) onwards, the unionist establishment practised what is generally considered a policy of discrimination against the nationalist/Catholic minority. This pattern was firmly established in the case of local government, where gerrymandered ward boundaries rigged local government elections to ensure unionist control of some local councils with nationalist majorities.

In a number of cases, most prominently those of the Corporation of Derry, Omagh Urban District, and Fermanagh County Council, ward boundaries were drawn to place as many Catholics as possible into wards with overwhelming nationalist majorities while other wards were created where unionists had small but secure majorities, maximising unionist representation.

Voting arrangements which gave commercial companies multiple votes according to size, and which restricted the personal franchise to property owners, primary tenants and their spouses (ended in England in the 1940s), continued in Northern Ireland until 1969 and became increasingly resented.

Disputes over local government gerrymandering were at the heart of the Northern Ireland civil rights movement in the 1960s. In addition, there was widespread discrimination in employment, particularly at senior levels of the public sector and in certain sectors of the economy, such as shipbuilding and heavy engineering. Emigration to seek employment was significantly more prevalent among the Catholic population. As a result, Northern Ireland's demography shifted further in favour of Protestants, leaving their ascendancy seemingly impregnable by the late 1950s.

The abolition of proportional representation in 1929 meant that the structure of party politics gave the Ulster Unionist Party a continual sizeable majority in the Parliament of Northern Ireland, leading to 50 years of one-party rule. While nationalist parties continued to retain the same number of seats that they had under proportional representation, the Northern Ireland Labour Party and various smaller leftist unionist groups were smothered, meaning that it proved impossible for any group to sustain a challenge to the Ulster Unionist Party from within the unionist section of the population.

In 1935, the worst violence since partition convulsed Belfast. After an Orange Order parade decided to return to the city centre through a Catholic area instead of its usual route; the resulting violence left nine people dead. Over 2,000 Catholics were forced to leave their homes across Northern Ireland. While disputed for decades, many unionist leaders now admit that the Northern Ireland government in the period 1922-72 was discriminatory, although prominent Democratic Unionist Party figures continue to deny it or its extent. One unionist leader, Nobel Peace Prize joint-winner, former UUP leader and First Minister of Northern Ireland David Trimble, described Northern Ireland as having been a "cold house for Catholics".

Despite this, Northern Ireland was relatively peaceful for most of the period from 1924 until the late 1960s, except for some brief flurries of IRA activity, the (Luftwaffe) Belfast blitz during the Second World War in 1941 and the so-called "Border Campaign" from 1956 to 1962. It found little support among nationalists. However, many Catholics were resentful towards the state, and nationalist politics was fatalist. Meanwhile, the period saw an almost complete synthesis between the Ulster Unionist Party and the loyalist Orange Order, with Catholics (even unionist Catholics) being excluded from any position of political or civil authority outside of a handful of nationalist-controlled councils.

Throughout this time, although the Catholic birth rate remained higher than for Protestants, the Catholic proportion of the population declined, as poor economic prospects, especially west of the River Bann, saw Catholics emigrate in disproportionate numbers.

Nationalist political institutions declined, with the Nationalist Party boycotting the Stormont Parliament for much of this period and its constituency organisations reducing to little more than shells. Sinn Féin was banned although it often operated through the Republican Clubs or similar vehicles.

At various times the party stood and won elections on an abstentionist platform. Labour-based politics were weak in Northern Ireland in comparison with Britain. A small Northern Ireland Labour Party existed but suffered many splits to both nationalist and unionist factions.

World War II

Belfast was a representative British city that has been well studied by historians.

It was a key industrial city producing ships, tanks, aircraft, engineering works, arms, uniforms, parachutes and a host of other industrial goods. The unemployment that had been so persistent in the 1930s disappeared, and labour shortages appeared. There was a major munitions strike in 1944.

As a key industrial city, Belfast became a target for German bombing missions, but it was thinly defended; there were only 24 anti-aircraft guns in the city.

The Northern Ireland government under Richard Dawson Bates (Minister for Home Affairs) had prepared too late, assuming that Belfast was far enough away to be safe. When Germany conquered France in Spring 1940 it gained closer airfields. The city's fire brigade was inadequate; there were no public air raid shelters as the Northern Ireland government was reluctant to spend money on them.

There were no searchlights in the city, which made shooting down enemy bombers even more difficult. After seeing the Blitz in London in the autumn of 1940, the government began to build air raid shelters. In early 1941, the Luftwaffe flew reconnaissance missions that identified the docks and industrial areas to be targeted. Especially hard hit were the working class areas in the north and east of the city, where over 1000 were killed and hundreds were seriously injured.

Many people left the city in fear of future attacks. The bombing revealed the terrible slum conditions. In May 1941, the Luftwaffe hit the docks and the Harland and Wolff shipyard, closing it for six months. Apart from the numbers of dead, the Belfast blitz saw half of the city's houses destroyed.

About £20 Ma worth of damage was caused. The Northern Ireland government was criticised heavily for its lack of preparation, and Northern Ireland's Prime Minister J. M. Andrews resigned.

The bombing raids continued until the invasion of Russia in summer 1941. The American army arrived in 1942-44, setting up bases around Northern Ireland, and spending freely.

The Troubles was a period of ethno-political conflict in Northern Ireland which spilled over at various times into England, the Republic of Ireland, mainland Europe. The duration of the Troubles is conventionally dated from the late 1960s and considered by many to have ended with the Belfast "Good Friday" Agreement of 1998. Violence nonetheless continues on a sporadic basis.

In the 1960s, moderate unionist prime minister Terence O'Neill (later Lord O'Neill of the Maine) tried to introduce reforms, but encountered strong opposition from both fundamentalist Protestant leaders like Ian Paisley and within his own party.

The increasing pressures from Irish nationalists for reform and opposition by Ulster loyalists to compromise led to the appearance of the Northern Ireland Civil Rights Association, under figures such as Austin Currie and John Hume. It had some moderate Protestant support and membership, and a considerable dose of student radicalism after Northern Ireland was swept up in the worldwide protests of 1968. Clashes between marchers and the RUC led to increased communal strife, culminating in an attack by a unionist mob (included police reservists) on a march, known as the Burntollet bridge incident, outside Derry on 4 January 1969.

Wholescale violence erupted after an Apprentice Boys march was forced through the Irish nationalist Bogside area of Derry on 12 August 1969 by the RUC, which led to large-scale disorder known as the Battle of the Bogside. Rioting continued until 14 August, and in that time 1,091 canisters, each containing 12.5g of CS gas and 14 canisters containing 50g, were released by the RUC.

Even more severe rioting broke out in Belfast and elsewhere in response to events in Derry (see Northern Ireland riots of August 1969). The following thirty years of civil strife came to be known as "the Troubles". At the request of the unionist-controlled Northern Ireland government, the British army was deployed by the UK Home Secretary James Callaghan two days later on 14 August 1969.

Two weeks later, control of security in Northern Ireland was passed from the Stormont government to Lieutenant-General Ian Freeland (GOC). At first the soldiers received a warm welcome from Irish nationalists, who hoped they would protect them from loyalist attack (which the IRA had, for ideological reasons, not done effectively). However, tensions rose throughout the following years, with an important milestone in the worsening relationship between the British Army and Irish nationalists being the Falls Curfew of 3 July 1970, when 3,000 British troops imposed a three-day curfew on the Lower Falls area of West Belfast. After the introduction of internment without trial for suspected IRA men on 9 August 1971, even the most moderate Irish nationalists reacted by completely withdrawing their co-operation with the state. The Social Democratic & Labour Party (SDLP) members of the Parliament of Northern Ireland withdrew from that body on 15 August and a widespread campaign of civil disobedience began. Tensions were ratcheted to a higher level after the killing of fourteen unarmed civilians in Derry by the 1st Battalion, Parachute Regiment on 30 January 1972, an event dubbed Bloody Sunday. Throughout this period, the main paramilitary organisations began to form. 1972 was the most violent year of the conflict.

In 1970 the Provisional IRA, was created as a breakaway from what then became known as the Official IRA (the Provisionals came from various political perspectives, though most rejected the increasingly Marxist outlook of the Officials and were united in their rejection of the Official's view that physical force alone would not end partition), and a campaign of sectarian attacks by loyalist paramilitary groups like the Ulster Defence Association (formed to co-ordinate the various Loyalist vigilante groups that sprung up) and others brought Northern Ireland to the brink of civil war.

On 30 March 1972, the British government, unwilling to grant the unionist Northern Ireland government more authoritarian special powers, and now convinced of its inability to restore order, pushed through emergency legislation that prorogued the Northern Ireland Parliament and introduced direct rule from London. In 1973 the British government dissolved the Parliament of Northern Ireland and its government under the Northern Ireland Constitution Act 1973.The British government held talks with various parties, including the Provisional IRA, during 1972 and 1973.

The Official IRA declared a ceasefire in 1972, and eventually ended violence against the British altogether, although a breakaway group, the Irish National Liberation Army, continued. The Provisional IRA remained the largest and most effective nationalist paramilitary group.

On 9 December 1973, after talks in Sunningdale, Berkshire, the UUP, SDLP and Alliance Party of Northern Ireland and both governments reached the Sunningdale Agreement on a cross-community government for Northern Ireland, which took office on 1 January 1974.

The Provisional IRA was unimpressed, increasing the tempo of its campaign, while many unionists were outraged at the participation of Irish nationalists in the government of Northern Ireland and at the cross-border Council of Ireland. Although the pro-Sunningdale parties had a clear majority in the new Northern Ireland Assembly, the failure of the pro-Agreement parties to co-ordinate their efforts in the general election of 28 February, combined with an IRA-sponsored boycott by hardline republicans, allowed anti-Sunningdale unionists to take 51.1% of the vote and 11 of Northern Ireland's 12 seats in the UK House of Commons. Emboldened by this, a coalition of anti-Agreement unionist politicians and paramilitaries organised the Ulster Workers' Council strike, which began on 15 May.

The strikers brought Northern Ireland to a standstill by shutting down power stations, and after Prime Minister Harold Wilson refused to send in troops to take over from the strikers, the power-sharing executive collapsed on 28 May 1974.

Some British politicians, notably former British Labour minister Tony Benn, advocated British withdrawal from Ireland, but many opposed this policy, and called their prediction of the possible results of British withdrawal the "Doomsday Scenario", anticipating widespread communal strife.

The worst fear envisaged a civil war, which would engulf not just Northern Ireland, but also the Republic of Ireland and Scotland, both of which had major links with the people of Northern Ireland. Later, the feared possible impact of British withdrawal was the "Balkanisation" of Northern Ireland.

The level of violence declined from 1972 onwards, decreasing to under 150 deaths a year after 1976 and under 100 after 1988. The Provisional IRA, using weapons and explosives obtained from the USA and Libya, bombed England and various British army bases in Europe, as well as conducting ongoing attacks within Northern Ireland.

These attacks were not only on "military" targets but on commercial properties and various city centres. Arguably, its signature attack would involve cars packed with high explosives.

At the same time, loyalist paramilitaries largely focused their campaign within Northern Ireland, ignoring the uninvolved military of the Republic of Ireland, instead claiming a (very) few republican paramilitary casualties. They usually targeted Catholics (especially those working in Protestant areas), and attacked Catholic-frequented pubs using automatic fire weapons.

Such attacks were euphemistically known as "spray jobs". Both groups would carry out extensive "punishment" attacks against members of their own communities for a variety of perceived, alleged, or suspected crimes.

Various fitful political talks took place from then until the early 1990s, backed by schemes such as rolling devolution; 1975 saw a brief Provisional IRA ceasefire. The two events of real significance during this period, however, were the hunger strikes (1981) and the Anglo-Irish Agreement (1985).

Despite the failure of the hunger strike, the modern republican movement made its first foray into electoral politics, with modest electoral success on both sides of the border, including the election of Bobby Sands to the House of Commons. This convinced republican to adopt the Armalite and ballot box strategy and gradually take a more political approach. While the Anglo-Irish Agreement failed to bring an end to political violence in Northern Ireland, it did improve co-operation between the British and Irish governments, which was key to the creation of the Belfast Agreement a decade later.

At a strategic level the agreement demonstrated that the British recognised as legitimate the wishes of the Republic to have a direct interest in the affairs of Northern Ireland. It also demonstrated to paramilitaries that their refusal to negotiate with the governments might be self-defeating in the long run. Unlike the Sunningdale Agreement, the Anglo-Irish Agreement withstood a much more concerted campaign of violence and intimidation, as well as political hostility, from unionists. Republicans were left in the position of rejecting the only significant all-Ireland structures created since partition.

By the 1990s, the perceived stalemate between the IRA and British security forces, along with the increasing political successes of Sinn Féin, convinced a majority inside the republican movement that greater progress towards republican objectives might be achieved through negotiation rather than violence at this stage.This change from paramilitary to political means was part of a broader Northern Ireland peace process, which followed the appearance of new leaders in London (John Major) and Dublin (Albert Reynolds).

Increased government focus on the problems of Northern Ireland led, in 1993, to the two prime ministers signing the Downing Street Declaration. At the same time Gerry Adams, leader of Sinn Féin, and John Hume, leader of the Social Democratic and Labour Party, engaged in talks.

The UK political landscape changed dramatically when the 1997 general election saw the return of a Labour government, led by Prime Minister Tony Blair, with a large parliamentary majority. A new leader of the Ulster Unionist Party, David Trimble, initially perceived as a hardliner, brought his party into the all-party negotiations which in 1998 produced the Belfast Agreement ("Good Friday Agreement"), signed by eight parties on 10 April 1998, although not involving Ian Paisley's Democratic Unionist Party or the UK Unionist Party. A majority of both communities in Northern Ireland approved this Agreement, as did the people of the Republic of Ireland, both by referendum on 22 May 1998.

The Republic amended its constitution, to replace a claim it made to the territory of Northern Ireland with an affirmation of the right of all the people of Ireland to be part of the Irish nation and a declaration of an aspiration towards a United Ireland.

Under the Good Friday Agreement, properly known as the Belfast Agreement, voters elected a new Northern Ireland Assembly to form a parliament. Every party that reaches a specific level of support gains the right to name members of its party to government and claim one or more ministries. Ulster Unionist party leader David Trimble became First Minister of Northern Ireland.

The Deputy Leader of the SDLP, Seamus Mallon, became Deputy First Minister of Northern Ireland, though his party's new leader, Mark Durkan, subsequently replaced him. The Ulster Unionists, Social Democratic and Labour Party, Sinn Féin and the Democratic Unionist Party each had ministers by right in the power-sharing assembly. The Assembly and its Executive operated on a stop-start basis, with repeated disagreements about whether the IRA was fulfilling its commitments to disarm, allegations from the Police Service of Northern Ireland's Special Branch that there was an IRA spy-ring operating in the heart of the civil service. It has since emerged that the spy-ring was run by MI5.

The Direct Rule Secretary of State for Northern Ireland, Peter Hain, and a British ministerial team then, once more, ran Northern Ireland answerable to him. Hain was answerable only to the Cabinet.

The changing British position to Northern Ireland was represented by the visit of Queen Elizabeth II to Stormont. She met nationalist ministers from the SDLP as well as unionist ministers and spoke of the right of people who perceive themselves as Irish to be treated as equal citizens along with those who regard themselves as British. Similarly, on visits to Northern Ireland, the President of Ireland, Mary McAleese, met with unionist ministers and with the Lord Lieutenant of each county – the official representatives of the Queen. However, the Assembly elections of 30 November 2003 saw Sinn Féin and the Democratic Unionist Party (DUP) emerge as the largest parties in each community, which was perceived as making a restoration of the devolved institutions more difficult to achieve.

However, serious talks between the political parties and the British and Irish governments saw steady, if stuttering, progress throughout 2004, with the DUP in particular surprising many observers with its newly discovered pragmatism.

However, an arms-for-government deal between Sinn Féin and the DUP broke down in December 2004 due to a row over whether photographic evidence of IRA decommissioning was necessary, and the IRA refusal to countenance the provision of such evidence. The 2005 British general election saw further polarisation, with the DUP making sweeping gains, although Sinn Féin did not make the breakthrough many had predicted. In particular, the failure of Sinn Féin to gain the SDLP leader Mark Durkan's Foyle seat marked a significant rebuff for the Republican Party. The UUP only took one seat, with the leader David Trimble losing his and subsequently resigning as leader.

On 28 July 2005, the IRA made a public statement ordering an end to the armed campaign and instructing its members to dump arms and to pursue purely political programmes. While the British and Irish governments warmly welcomed the statement, political reaction in Northern Ireland itself demonstrated a tendency to suspicion engendered by years of political and social conflict. In August, the British government announced that due to the security situation improving and in accordance with the Good Friday Agreement provisions, Operation Banner would end by 1 August 2007.

In 13 October 2006, an agreement was proposed after three days of multiparty talks at St. Andrews in Scotland, which all parties including the DUP, supported. Under the agreement, Sinn Féin would fully endorse the police in Northern Ireland, and the DUP would share power with Sinn Féin.

All the main parties in Northern Ireland, including the DUP and Sinn Féin, subsequently formally endorsed the agreement. On 8 May 2007, devolution of powers returned to Northern Ireland. DUP leader Ian Paisley and Sinn Féin's Martin McGuinness took office as First Minister and Deputy First Minister, respectively. "You Raise Me Up", the 2005 track by Westlife, was played at their inauguration.

UNIT III. THE HISTORY OF SCOTLAND

INTRODUCTION

The history of Scotland is known to have begun by the end of the last glacial period (in the paleolithic), roughly 10,000 years ago. Prehistoric Scotland entered the Neolithic Era about 4000 B.C., the Bronze Age about 2000 B.C., and the Iron Age around 700 B.C. Scotland's recorded history began with the arrival of the Roman Empire in the 1st century, when the province of Britannia reached as far north as the line between the firths of Clyde to the Forth.

North of this was Caledonia, whose people were known in Latin as "Picti", "the painted ones".

Constant uprisings forced Rome's legions back: Hadrian's Wall attempted to seal off the Roman south and the Antonine Wall attempted to move the Roman border north.

The latter was swiftly abandoned and the former overrun, most spectacularly during the Great Conspiracy of the 360s. As Rome finally withdrew from Britain, Gaelic raiders called the Scoti began colonizing Western Scotland and Wales.

According to 9th- and 10th-century sources, the Gaelic kingdom of Dál Riata was founded on the west coast of Scotland in the 6th century. In the following century, the Irish missionary Columba founded a monastery on Iona and introduced the previously pagan Scoti and pagan Picts to Celtic Christianity. Following England's Gregorian mission, the Pictish king Nechtan chose to abolish most Celtic practices in favour of the Roman rite, restricting Gaelic influence on his kingdom and avoiding war with Anglian Northumbria. Towards the end of the 8th century, the Viking invasions began.

Successive defeats by the Norse forced the Picts and Gaels to cease their historic hostility to each other and to unite in the 9th century, forming the Kingdom of Scotland.

The Kingdom of Scotland was united under the descendants of Kenneth MacAlpin, first king of a united Scotland. His descendants, known to modern historians as the House of Alpin, fought among each other during frequent disputed successions. The last Alpin king, Malcolm II, died without issue in the early 11th century and the kingdom passed through his daughter's son, Duncan I, who started a new line of kings known to modern historians as the House of Dunkeld or Canmore.

The last Dunkeld king, Alexander III, died in 1286 leaving only a single infant granddaughter as heir; four years later, Margaret, Maid of Norway herself died in a tragic shipwreck en route to Scotland.

England, under Edward I, would take advantage of the questioned succession in Scotland to launch a series of conquests into Scotland. The resulting Wars of Scottish Independence were fought in the late 13th & early 14th centuries as Scotland passed back and forth between the House of Balliol and the House of Bruce. Scotland's ultimate victory in the Wars of Independence under David II confirmed Scotland as a fully independent and sovereign kingdom. When David II died without issue, his nephew Robert II established the House of Stewart (the spelling would be changed to Stuart in the 16th century), which would rule Scotland uncontested for the next three centuries.

James VI, Stuart king of Scotland, also inherited the throne of England in 1603, and the Stuart kings and queens ruled both independent kingdoms until the Act of Union in 1707 merged the two kingdoms into a new state, the Kingdom of Great Britain.

Ruling until 1714, Queen Anne was the last Stuart monarch. Since 1714, the succession of the British monarchs of the houses of Hanover and Saxe-Coburg and Gotha (Windsor) has been due to their descent from James VI and I of the House of Stuart.

During the Scottish Enlightenment and Industrial Revolution, Scotland became one of the commercial, intellectual and industrial powerhouses of Europe. Later, its industrial decline following the Second World War was particularly acute.

People lived in Scotland for at least 8,500 years before Britain's recorded history. At times during the last interglacial period (130,000-70,000 B.C.) Europe had a climate warmer than today's, and early humans may have made their way to Scotland, with the possible discovery of pre-ice age axes on Orkney and mainland Scotland. Glaciers then scoured their way across most of Britain, and only after the ice retreated did Scotland again become habitable, around 9600 B.C.

Upper Paleolithic hunter-gatherer encampments formed the first known settlements, and archaeologists have dated an encampment near Biggar to around 12000 B.C. Numerous other sites found around Scotland build up a picture of highly mobile boat-using people making tools from bone, stone and antlers. The oldest house for which there is evidence in Britain is the oval structure of wooden posts found at South Queensferry near the Firth of Forth, dating from the Mesolithic period, about 8240 B.C.

The earliest stone structures are probably the 3 hearths found at Jura, dated to about 6000 B.C. Neolithic farming brought permanent settlements. Evidence of these includes the well-preserved stone house at Knap of Howar on Papa Westray, dating from around 3500 B.C. and the village of similar houses at Skara Brae on West Mainland, Orkney from about 500 years later. The settlers introduced chambered cairn tombs from around 3500 B.C., as at Maeshowe, and from about 3000 B.C. the many standing stones and circles such as those at Stenness on the mainland of Orkney, which date from about 3100 B.C., of four stones, the tallest of which is 16 ft (5 m) in height. These were part of a pattern that developed in many regions across Europe at about the same time.

The creation of cairns and Megalithic monuments continued into the Bronze Age, which began in Scotland about 2000 B.C. As elsewhere in Europe, hill forts were first introduced in this period, including the occupation of Eildon Hill near Melrose in the Scottish Borders, from around 1000 B.C., which accommodated several hundred houses on a fortified hilltop. From the Early and Middle Bronze Age there is evidence of cellular round houses of stone, as at Jarlshof and Sumburgh on Shetland.

There is evidence of the occupation of crannogs, roundhouses partially or entirely built on artificial islands, usually in lakes, rivers and estuarine waters.

In the early Iron Age, from the seventh century B.C., cellular houses began to be replaced on the northern isles by simple Atlantic roundhouses, substantial circular buildings with a dry stone construction. From about 400 B.C., more complex Atlantic roundhouses began to be built, as at Howe, Orkney and Crosskirk, Caithness. The most massive constructions that date from this era are the circular broch towers, probably dating from about 200 B.C. This period saw the first wheelhouses, a roundhouse with a characteristic outer wall, within which was a circle of stone piers (bearing a resemblance to the spokes of a wheel), but these would flourish most in the era of Roman occupation.

There is evidence for about 1,000 Iron Age hill forts in Scotland, most located below the Clyde-Forth line, which have suggested to some archaeologists the emergence of a society of petty rulers and warrior elites recognisable from Roman accounts. Roman cavalryman trampling conquered Picts, on a tablet found at Bo'ness dated to c. 142 and now in the National Museum of Scotland

The surviving pre-Roman accounts of Scotland originated with the Greek Pytheas of Massalia, who may have circumnavigated the British Isles of Albion (Britain) and Ierne (Ireland) sometime around 325 B.C. The most northerly point of Britain was called Orcas (Orkney). By the time of Pliny, the Elder, who died in ad 79, Roman knowledge of the geography of Scotland had extended to the Hebudes, Dumna (the Outer Hebrides), the Caledonian Forest and the people of the Caledonii, from whom the Romans named the region north of their control Caledonia.

Ptolemy, possibly drawing on earlier sources of information as well as more contemporary accounts from the Agricolan invasion, identified 18 tribes in Scotland in his Geography, but many of the names are obscure and the geography becomes less reliable in the north and west, suggesting early Roman knowledge of these area was confined to observations from the sea.

The Roman invasion of Britain began in earnest in ad 43, leading to the establishment of the Roman province of Britannia in the south. By the year 71, the Roman governor Quintus Petillius Cerialis had launched an invasion of what is now Scotland.

In the year 78, Gnaeus Julius Agricola arrived in Britain to take up his appointment as the new governor and began a series of major incursions. He is said to have pushed his armies to the estuary of the "River Taus" (River Tay) and established forts there, including a legionary fortress at Inchtuthil.

After his victory over the northern tribes at Mons Graupius in 84, a series of forts and towers were established along the Gask Ridge, which marked the boundary between the Lowland and Highland zones, probably forming the first Roman limes or frontier in Scotland. Agricola's successors were unable or unwilling to further subdue the far north.

By the year 87, the occupation was limited to the Southern Uplands and by the end of the first century the northern limit of Roman expansion was a line drawn between the Tyne and Solway Firth.

The Romans eventually withdrew to a line in what is now northern England, building the fortification known as Hadrian's Wall from coast to coast. Around 141, the Romans undertook a reoccupation of southern Scotland, moving up to construct a new lime between the Firth of Forth and the Firth of Clyde, which became the Antonine Wall. The largest Roman construction inside Scotland, it is a sward-covered wall made of turf around 20 ft (6 m) high, with nineteen forts. It extended for 37 mi (60 km). Having taken twelve years to build, the wall was overrun and abandoned soon after 160.

The Romans retreated to the line of Hadrian's Wall. Roman troops penetrated far into the north of modern Scotland several more times, with at least four major campaigns. The most notable invasion was in 209 when the emperor Septimius Severus led a major force north. After the death of Severus in 210 they withdrew south to Hadrian's Wall, which would be Roman frontier until it collapsed in the 5th century. By the close of the Roman occupation of southern and central Britain in the 5th century, the Picts had emerged as the dominant force in northern Scotland, with the various Brythonic tribes the Romans had first encountered there occupying the southern half of the country. Roman influence on Scottish culture and history was not enduring.

Post-Roman Scotland

In the centuries after the departure of the Romans from Britain, there were four groups within the borders of what is now Scotland. In the east were the Picts, with kingdoms between the river Forth and Shetland. In the late 6th century, the dominant force was the Kingdom of Fortriu, whose lands were centred on Strathearn and Menteith and who raided along the eastern coast into modern England. In the west were the Gaelic (Goidelic)-speaking people of Dál Riata with their royal fortress at Dunadd in Argyll, with close links with the island of Ireland, from whom comes the name Scots.

In the south was the British (Brythonic) Kingdom of Strathclyde, descendants of the peoples of the Roman influenced kingdoms of "Hen Ogledd" (Old north), often named Alt Clut, the Brythonic name for their capital at Dumbarton Rock. Finally, there were the English or "Angles", Germanic invaders who had overrun much of southern Britain and held the Kingdom of Bernicia, in the southeast.

The first English king in the historical record is Ida, who is said to have obtained the throne and the kingdom about 547. Ida's grandson, Æthelfrith, united his kingdom with Deira to the south to form Northumbria around the year 604. There were changes of dynasty, and the kingdom was divided, but it was re-united under Æthelfrith's son Oswald (634-42).

Scotland was largely converted to Christianity by Irish-Scots missions associated with figures such as St Columba, from the fifth to the seventh centuries. These missions tended to found monastic institutions and collegiate churches that served large areas. Partly as a result of these factors, some scholars have identified a distinctive form of Celtic Christianity, in which abbots were more significant than bishops, attitudes to clerical celibacy were more relaxed and there were some significant differences in practice with Roman Christianity, particularly the form of tonsure and the method of calculating Easter, although most of these issues had been resolved by the mid-7th century.

Conversion to Christianity may have speeded a long term process of gaelicisation of the Pictish kingdoms, which adopted Gaelic language and customs. There was also a merger of the Gaelic & Pictish crowns, historians debate whether it was a Pictish takeover of Dál Riata, or the other way around. This culminated in the rise of Cínaed mac Ailpín (Kenneth MacAlpin) in the 840s, which brought to power the House of Alpin.

In 867 A.D. the Vikings seized the southern half of Northumbria, forming the Kingdom of York; three years later they stormed the Britons' fortress of Dumbarton and subsequently conquered much of England except for a reduced Kingdom of Wessex, leaving the new combined Pictish and Gaelic kingdom almost encircled. When he died as king of the combined kingdom in 900, Donald II was the first man to be called rí Alban (King of Alba).

The term **Scotia** was increasingly used to describe the kingdom between North of the Forth and Clyde and eventually the entire area controlled by its kings was referred to as Scotland.

The long reign (900-942/3) of Causant ín (Constantine II) is often regarded as the key to formation of the Kingdom of Alba. He was later credited with bringing Scottish Christianity into conformity with the Catholic Church. After fighting many battles, his defeat at Brunanburh was followed by his retirement as a Culdee monk at St. Andrews. The period between the accession of his successor Máel Coluim I (Malcolm I) & Máel Coluim mac Cináeda (Malcolm II) was marked by good relations with the Wessex rulers of England, intense internal dynastic disunity and relatively successful expansionary policies.

In 945, Máel Coluim I annexed Strathclyde as part of a deal with King Edmund of England, where the kings of Alba had probably exercised some authority since the later 9th century, an event offset somewhat by loss of control in Moray.

The reign of King Duncan I from 1034 was marred by failed military adventures, and he was defeated and killed by MacBeth, the Mormaer of Moray, who became king in 1040. MacBeth ruled for seventeen years before he was overthrown by Máel Coluim, the son of Donnchad, who some months later defeated MacBeth's step-son and successor Lulach to become king Malcolm III.

It was Máel Coluim III, who acquired the nickname "Canmore" ("Great Chief"), which he passed to his successors and who did most to create the Dunkeld dynasty that ruled Scotland for the following two centuries. Particularly important was his second marriage to the Anglo-Hungarian princess Margaret. This marriage, and raids on northern England, prompted William the Conqueror to invade and Máel Coluim submitted to his authority, opening up Scotland to later claims of sovereignty by English kings. When Malcolm died in 1093, his brother Donald III succeeded him.

However, William II of England backed Máel Coluim's son by his first marriage, Donnchad, as a pretender to the throne and he seized power. His murder within a few months saw Domnall restored with one of Máel Coluim sons by his second marriage, Edmund, as his heir. The two ruled Scotland until two of Edmund's younger brothers returned from exile in England, again with English military backing. Victorious, Edgar, the oldest of the three, became king in 1097. Shortly afterwards Edgar and the King of Norway, Magnus Bare Legs concluded a treaty recognizing Norwegian authority over the Western Isles. In practice, Norse control of the Isles was loose, with local chiefs enjoying a high degree of independence. His brother Alexander, who reigned 1107-24, succeeded him.

King Alexander III of Scotland on the left with Llywelyn, Prince of Wales on the right as guests to King Edward I of England at the sitting of an English parliament.

When Alexander died in 1124, the crown passed to Margaret's fourth son David I, who had spent most of his life as a Norman French baron in England. His reign saw what has been characterised as a "Davidian Revolution", by which native institutions and personnel were replaced by English and French ones, underpinning the development of later Medieval Scotland. Members of the Anglo-Norman nobility took up places in the Scottish aristocracy.

He introduced a system of feudal land tenure, which produced knight service, castles and an available body of heavily armed cavalry. He created an Anglo-Norman style of court, introduced the office of justicar to oversee justice, and local offices of sheriffs to administer localities.

He established the first royal burghs in Scotland, granting rights to particular settlements, which led to the development of the first true Scottish towns and helped, facilitate economic development as did the introduction of the first recorded Scottish coinage. He continued a process begun by his mother and brothers helping to establish foundations that brought reform to Scottish monasticism based on those at Cluny and he played a part in organising diocese on lines closer to those in the rest of Western Europe. These reforms were pursued under his successors and grandchildren Malcolm IV of Scotland & William I, with the crown now passing down the main line of descent through primogeniture, leading to the first of a series of minorities.

William's son Alexander II and his son Alexander III, who pursued a policy of peace with England to expand their authority in the Highlands and Islands, reaped the benefits of greater authority. By the reign of Alexander III, the Scots were in a position to annex the remainder of the western seaboard, which they did following Haakon Haakonarson's ill-fated invasion and the stalemate of the Battle of Largs with the Treaty of Perth in 1266.

The Wars of Independence

The death of King Alexander III in 1286, and the death of his granddaughter and heir Margaret, Maid of Norway in 1290, left 14 rivals for succession.

To prevent civil war, the Scottish magnates asked Edward I of England to arbitrate, for which he extracted legal recognition that the realm of Scotland was held as a feudal dependency to the throne of England before choosing John Balliol, the man with the strongest claim, who became king in 1292. Robert Bruce, 5th Lord of Annandale, the next strongest claimant, accepted this outcome with reluctance. Over the next few years Edward I used the concessions he had gained to systematically undermine both the authority of King John and the independence of Scotland.

In 1295, John, on the urgings of his chief councillors, entered into an alliance with France, known as the Auld Alliance. Edward I of England, "Hammer of The Scots", depicted on a late-15thC woodcut. In 1296, Edward invaded Scotland, deposing King John. The following year William Wallace and Andrew de Moray raised forces to resist the occupation and under their joint leadership, an English army was defeated at the Battle of Stirling Bridge. For a short time, Wallace ruled Scotland in the name of John Balliol as Guardian of the realm. Edward came north in person and defeated Wallace at the Battle of Falkirk in 1298. Wallace escaped but probably resigned as Guardian of Scotland. In 1305, he fell into the hands of the English, who executed him for treason despite the fact that he owed no allegiance to England.

Rivals John Comyn and Robert the Bruce, grandson of the claimant, were appointed as joint guardians in his place. On 10 February 1306, Bruce participated in the murder of Comyn, at Greyfriars Kirk in Dumfries. Less than seven weeks later, on 25 March, Bruce was crowned as King. However, Edward's forces overran the country after defeating Bruce's small army at the Battle of Methven.

Despite the excommunication of Bruce and his followers by Pope Clement V, his support slowly strengthened; and by 1314 with the help of leading nobles such as Sir James Douglas and Thomas Randolph only the castles at Bothwell and Stirling remained under English control.

Edward I had died in 1307. His heir Edward II moved an army north to break the siege of Stirling Castle and reassert control. Robert defeated that army at the Battle of Bannockburn in 1314, securing de facto independence. In 1320, the Declaration of Arbroath, a remonstrance to the Pope from the nobles of Scotland, helped convince Pope John XXII to overturn the earlier excommunication and nullify the various acts of submission by Scottish kings to English ones so that Scotland's sovereignty could be recognised by the major European dynasties. The Declaration has been seen as one of the most important documents in the development of a Scottish national identity.

In 1326, what may have been the first full Parliament of Scotland met. The parliament had evolved from an earlier council of nobility and clergy, the colloquium, constituted around 1235, but in 1326 representatives of the burghs (commissioners) joined them to form the Three Estates.

In 1328, Edward III signed the Treaty of Edinburgh-Northampton acknowledging Scottish independence under the rule of Robert the Bruce. However, four years after Robert's death in 1329, England once more invaded on the pretext of restoring Edward Balliol, son of John Balliol, to the Scottish throne, thus starting the Second War of Independence. Despite victories at Dupplin Moor and Halidon Hill, in the face of tough Scottish resistance led by Sir Andrew Murray, the son of Wallace's comrade in arms, successive attempts to secure Balliol on the throne failed. Edward III lost interest in the fate of his protégé after the outbreak of the Hundred Years' War with France. In 1341 David II, King Robert's son and heir, was able to return from temporary exile in France. Balliol finally resigned his claim to the throne to Edward in 1356, before retiring to Yorkshire, where he died in 1364.

The Stewarts

After David II's death, Robert II, the first of the Stewart kings, came to the throne in 1371. His ailing son John, who took the regnal name Robert III, followed him in 1390. During Robert III's reign (1390-1406), actual power rested largely in the hands of his brother, Robert Stewart, DUKe of Albany.

After the suspicious death (on the orders of the DUKe of Albany) of his elder son, David, DUKe of Rothesay in 1402, Robert, fearful for the safety of his younger son, the future James I, sent him to France in 1406.

However, the English captured him en route and he spent the next 18 years as a prisoner held for ransom. As a result, after the death of Robert III, regents ruled Scotland: first, the Duke of Albany; and later his son Murdoch. When Scotland finally paid the ransom in 1424, James, aged 32, returned with his English bride determined to assert this authority. Several of the Albany family were executed; but he succeeded in centralising control in the hands of the crown, at the cost of increasing unpopularity, and was assassinated in 1437. His son James II (reigned 1437-1460), when he came of age in 1449, continued his father's policy of weakening the great noble families, most notably taking on the powerful Black Douglas family that had come to prominence at the time of the Bruce.

In 1468, the last significant acquisition of Scottish territory occurred when James III was engaged to Margaret of Denmark, receiving the Orkney Islands and the Shetland Islands in payment of her dowry. Berwick upon Tweed was captured by England in 1482. With the death of James III in 1488 at the Battle of Sauchieburn, his successor James IV successfully ended the quasi-independent rule of the Lord of the Isles, bringing the Western Isles under effective Royal control for the first time.

In 1503, he married Margaret Tudor, daughter of Henry VII of England, laying the foundation for the 17th century Union of the Crowns. Scotland advanced markedly in educational terms during the 15th century with the founding of the University of St Andrews in 1413, the University of Glasgow in 1450 and the University of Aberdeen in 1495, and with the passing of the Education Act 1496, which decreed that all sons of barons and freeholders of substance should attend grammar schools. James IV's reign is often considered to have seen a flowering of Scottish culture under the influence of the European Renaissance.

In 1512, the Auld Alliance was renewed and under its terms, when the English under Henry VIII attacked the French, James IV invaded England in support. The invasion was stopped decisively at the Battle of Flodden Field during which the King, many of his nobles, and a large number of ordinary troops were killed, commemorated by the song Flowers of the Forest. Once again, Scotland's government lay in the hands of regents in the name of the infant James V.

James V finally managed to escape from the custody of the regents in 1528. He continued his father's policy of subduing the rebellious Highlands, Western and Northern isles and the troublesome borders. He continued the French alliance, marrying first the French noblewoman Madeleine of Valois and then after her death Marie of Guise.

James V's domestic and foreign policy successes were overshadowed by another disastrous campaign against England that led to defeat at the Battle of Solway Moss (1542). James died a short time later, a demise blamed by contemporaries on "a broken heart".

The day before his death, he was brought news of the birth of an heir: a daughter, who would become Mary, Queen of Scots. Once again, Scotland was in the hands of a regent. Within two years, the Rough Wooing began, Henry VIII's military attempt to force a marriage between Mary and his son, Edward. This took the form of border skirmishing and several English campaigns into Scotland.

In 1547, after the death of Henry VIII, forces under the English regent Edward Seymour, 1st DUKe of Somerset were victorious at the Battle of Pinkie Cleugh, the climax of the Rough Wooing, and followed up by the occupation of Haddington. Mary was then sent to France at the age of five, as the intended bride of the heir to the French throne. Her mother, Marie de Guise, stayed in Scotland to look after the interests of Mary – and of France – although the Earl of Arran acted officially as regent.

Guise responded by calling on French troops, who helped stiffen resistance to the English occupation. By 1550, after a change of regent in England, the English withdrew from Scotland completely.

From 1554, Marie de Guise, took over the regency, and continued to advance French interests in Scotland. French cultural influence resulted in a large influx of French vocabulary into Scots.

But anti-French sentiment also grew, particularly among Protestants, who saw the English as their natural allies. In 1560 Marie de Guise died, and soon after the Auld Alliance also ended, with the signing of the Treaty of Edinburgh, which provided for the removal of French and English troops from Scotland. The Scottish Reformation took place only days later when the Scottish Parliament abolished the Roman Catholic religion and outlawed the Mass.

Meanwhile, Queen Mary had been raised as a Catholic in France, and married to the Dauphin, who became king as Francis II in 1559, making her queen consort of France. When Francis died in 1560, Mary, now 19, returned to Scotland to take up the government. Despite her private religion, she did not attempt to re-impose Catholicism on her largely Protestant subjects, thus angering the chief Catholic nobles. Her six-year personal reign was marred by a series of crises, largely caused by the intrigues and rivalries of the leading nobles.

The murder of her secretary, David Riccio, was followed by that of her unpopular second husband Lord Darnley, and her abduction by and marriage to the Earl of Bothwell, who was implicated in Darnley's murder. Mary and Bothwell confronted the lords at Carberry Hill and after their forces melted away, he fled and she was captured by Bothwell's rivals. Mary was imprisoned in Loch Leven Castle, and in July 1567, was forced to abdicate in favour of her infant son James VI.

Mary eventually escaped and attempted to regain the throne by force. After her defeat at the Battle of Langside in 1568, she took refuge in England, leaving her young son in the hands of regents. In Scotland the regents fought a civil war on behalf of James VI against his mother's supporters.

In England, Mary became a focal point for Catholic conspirators and was eventually tried for treason and executed on the orders of her relative Elizabeth I.

JAMES I
1406-1437

JAMES II
1437-1460

JAMES III
1460-1488

JAMES IV
1488-1513

JAMES V
1513-1542

MARY
1542-1567

JAMES VI
1567-1625

PROTESTANT REFORMATION

In 1559, John Knox returned from ministering in Geneva to lead the Calvinist reformation in Scotland. During the 16th century, Scotland underwent a Protestant Reformation that created a predominantly Calvinist national Kirk, which became Presbyterian in outlook and severely reduced the powers of bishops. In the earlier part of the century, the teachings of first Martin Luther and then John Calvin began to influence Scotland, particularly through Scottish scholars, often training for the priesthood, who had visited Continental universities. The Lutheran preacher Patrick Hamilton was executed for heresy in St. Andrews in 1528. The execution of others, especially the Zwingli-influenced George Wishart, who was burnt at the stake on the orders of Cardinal Beaton in 1546, angered Protestants.

Wishart's supporters assassinated Beaton soon after and seized St. Andrews Castle, which they held for a year before they were defeated with the help of French forces. The survivors, including Chaplain John Knox, were condemned to be galley slaves in France, stoking resentment of the French and creating martyrs for the Protestant cause. Limited toleration and the influence of exiled Scots and Protestants in other countries, led to the expansion of Protestantism, with a group of lairds declaring themselves Lords of the Congregation in 1557 and representing their interests politically.

The collapse of the French alliance and English intervention in 1560 meant that a relatively small, but highly influential, group of Protestants were in a position to impose reform on the Scottish church.

A confession of faith, rejecting papal jurisdiction and the mass, was adopted by Parliament in 1560, while the young Mary, Queen of Scots, was still in France. Knox, having escaped the galleys and spent time in Geneva as a follower of Calvin, emerged as the most significant figure of the period.

The Calvinism of the reformers led by Knox resulted in a settlement that adopted a Presbyterian system and rejected most of the elaborate trappings of the medieval church.

The reformed Kirk gave considerable power to local lairds, who often had control over the appointment of the clergy. There were widespread, but generally orderly outbreaks of iconoclasm.

At this point the majority of the population was probably still Catholic in persuasion and the Kirk found it difficult to penetrate the Highlands and Islands, but began a gradual process of conversion and consolidation that, compared with reformations elsewhere, was conducted with little persecution.

Women shared in the religiosity of the day. The egalitarian and emotional aspects of Calvinism appealed to men and women alike. Historian Alasdair Raffe finds that, "Men and women were thought equally likely to be among the elect. Godly men valued the prayers and conversation of their female co-religionists, and this reciprocity made for loving marriages and close friendships between men and women." Furthermore, there was an increasingly intense relationship In the pious bonds between minister and his women parishioners. For the first time, laywomen gained numerous new religious roles, took a prominent place in prayer societies.

In 1603, James VI King of Scots inherited the throne of the Kingdom of England, and became King James I of England, leaving Edinburgh for London, uniting England and Scotland under one monarch. The Union was a personal or dynastic union, with the Crowns remaining both distinct and separate – despite James's best efforts to create a new "imperial" throne of "Great Britain".

The acquisition of the Irish crown along with the English, facilitated a process of settlement by Scots in what was historically the most troublesome area of the kingdom in Ulster, with perhaps 50,000 Scots settling in the province by the mid-17th century. Attempts to found a Scottish colony in North America in Nova Scotia were largely unsuccessful, with insufficient funds and willing colonists.

The St. Giles riot initiated by Jenny Geddes sparked off the Bishops' Wars. Although James had tried to get the Scottish Church to accept some of the High Church Anglicanism of his southern kingdom, he met with limited success. His son and successor, Charles I, took matters further, introducing an English-style Prayer Book into the Scottish church in 1637. This resulted in anger and widespread rioting. (Jenny Geddes who threw a stool in St. Giles Cathedral initiated it.)

Representatives of various sections of Scottish society drew up the National Covenant in 1638, objecting to the King's liturgical innovations. In November of the same year, matters were taken even further, when at a meeting of the General Assembly in Glasgow the Scottish bishops were formally expelled from the Church, which was then established on a full Presbyterian basis.

Charles gathered a military force; but as neither side wished to push the matter to a full military conflict, a temporary settlement was concluded at Pacification of Berwick.

Matters remained unresolved until 1640 when, in a renewal of hostilities, Charles's northern forces were defeated by the Scots at the Battle of Newburn to the west of Newcastle.

During the course of these Bishops' Wars Charles tried to raise an army of Irish Catholics, but was forced to back down after a storm of protest in Scotland and England. The backlash from this venture provoked a rebellion in Ireland and Charles was forced to appeal to the English Parliament for funds. Parliament's demands for reform in England eventually resulted in the English Civil War.

This series of civil wars that engulfed England, Ireland and Scotland in the 1640s and 1650s is known to modern historians as the Wars of the Three Kingdoms.

The Covenanters meanwhile, were left governing Scotland, where they raised a large army of their own and tried to impose their religious settlement on Episcopalians and Roman Catholics in the north of the country. In England, his religious policies caused similar resentment and he ruled without recourse to parliament from 1629. As the civil wars developed, the English Parliamentarians appealed to the Scots Covenanters for military aid against the King. A Solemn League and Covenant was entered into, guaranteeing the Scottish Church settlement and promising further reform in England. Scottish troops played a major part in the defeat of Charles I, notably at the battle of Marston Moor.

An army under the Earl of Leven occupied the North of England for some time. However, not all Scots supported the Covenanter's taking arms against their King. In 1644, James Graham, first Marquess of Montrose attempted to raise the Highlands for the King. Few Scots would follow him, but, aided by 1,000 Irish, Highland and Islesmen troops sent by the Irish Confederates under Alasdair MacDonald (MacColla), and an instinctive genius for mobile warfare, he was stunningly successful.
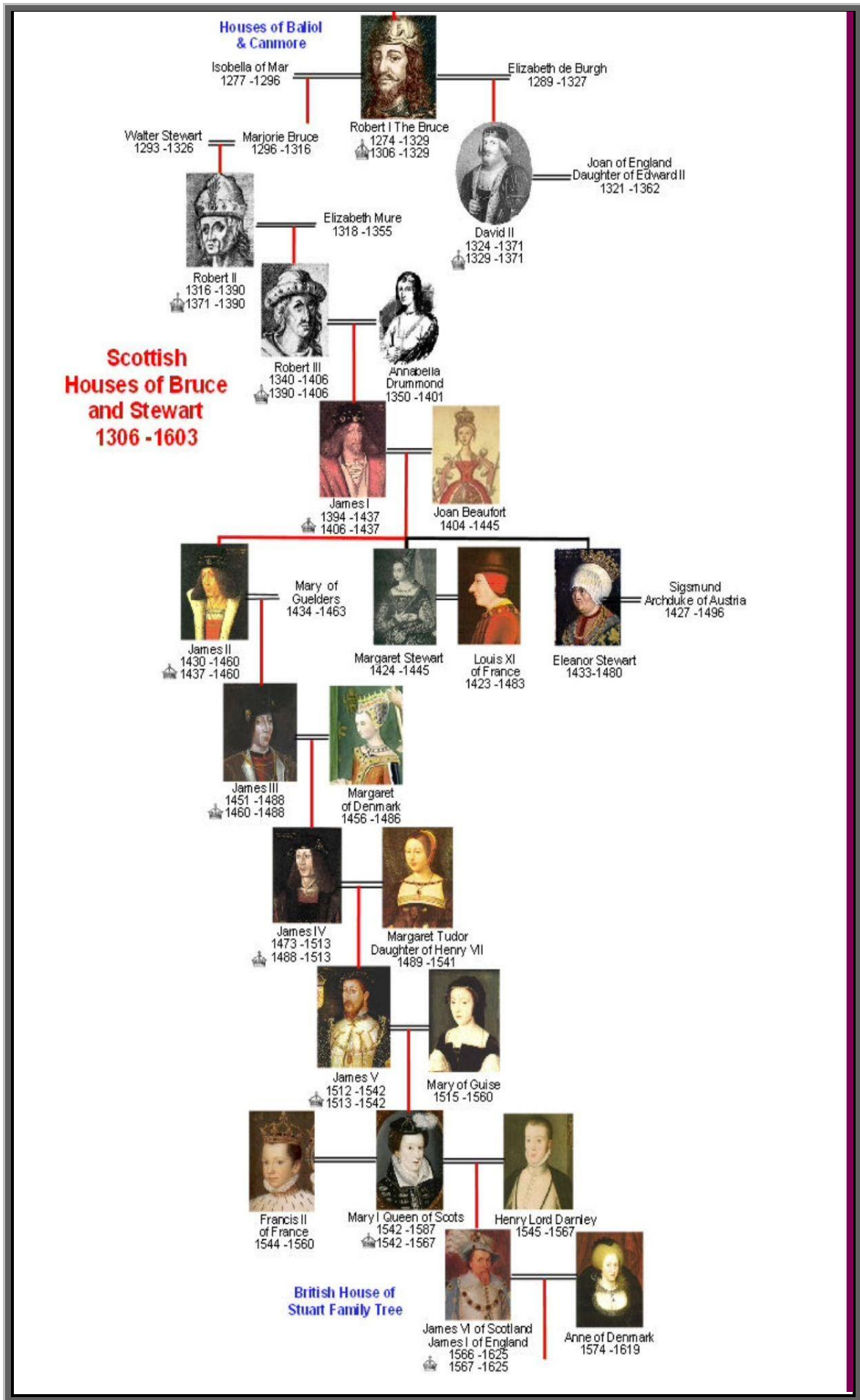
A Scottish Civil War began in September 1644 with his victory at battle of Tippermuir.

After a series of victories over poorly trained Covenanter militias, the lowlands were at his mercy. However, at this high point, his army was reduced in size, as MacColla and the Highlanders preferred to continue the war in the north against the Campbells. Shortly after, what was left of his force was defeated at the Battle of Philiphaugh. Escaping to the north, Montrose attempted to continue the struggle with fresh troops; but in July 1646, his army was disbanded after the King surrendered to the Scots army at Newark, and the civil war ended.

The following year Charles, while he was being held captive in Carisbrooke Castle, entered into an agreement with moderate Scots Presbyterians. In this secret "Engagement", the Scots promised military aid in return for the King's agreement to implement Presbyterianism in England on a three-year trial basis. The DUKe of Hamilton led an invasion of England to free the King, but Oliver Cromwell defeated him in August 1648 at the Battle of Preston.

The execution of Charles I in 1649 was carried out in the face of objections by the Covenanter government and his son was immediately proclaimed as King Charles II in Edinburgh.

Oliver Cromwell led an invasion of Scotland in 1650, and defeated the Scottish army at Dunbar and then defeated a Scottish invasion of England at Worcester on 3 September 1651 (the anniversary of his victory at Dunbar). Cromwell emerged as the leading figure in the English government & Scotland was occupied by an English force under George Monck. The country was incorporated into the Puritan-governed Commonwealth and lost its independent church government, parliament and legal system, but gained access to English markets.

Houses of Baliol & Canmore

Isobella of Mar
1277 -1296

Elizabeth de Burgh
1289 -1327

Robert I The Bruce
1274 -1329
1306 -1329

Walter Stewart
1293 -1326

Marjorie Bruce
1296 -1316

Joan of England
Daughter of Edward II
1321 -1362

David II
1324 -1371
1329 -1371

Elizabeth Mure
1318 -1355

Robert II
1316 -1390
1371 -1390

**Scottish
Houses of Bruce
and Stewart
1306 -1603**

Robert III
1340 -1406
1390 -1406

Annabella
Drummond
1350 -1401

James I
1394 -1437
1406 -1437

Joan Beaufort
1404 -1445

Mary of
Guelders
1434 -1463

James II
1430 -1460
1437 -1460

Margaret Stewart
1424 -1445

Louis XI
of France
1423 -1483

Eleanor Stewart
1433-1480

Sigsmund
Archduke of Austria
1427 -1496

James III
1451 -1488
1460 -1488

Margaret
of Denmark
1456 -1486

James IV
1473 -1513
1488 -1513

Margaret Tudor
Daughter of Henry VII
1489 -1541

James V
1512 -1542
1513 -1542

Mary of Guise
1515 -1560

Francis II
of France
1544 -1560

Mary I Queen of Scots
1542 -1587
1542 -1567

Henry Lord Darnley
1545 -1567

**British House of
Stuart Family Tree**

James VI of Scotland
James I of England
1566 -1625
1567 -1625

Anne of Denmark
1574 -1619

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Various attempts were made to legitimise the union, calling representatives from the Scottish burghs and shires to negotiations and to various English parliaments, where they were always under-represented and had little opportunity for dissent. However, final ratification was delayed by Cromwell's problems with his various parliaments and the union did not become the subject of an act until 1657.

After the death of Cromwell and the regime's collapse, Charles II was restored in 1660 and Scotland again became an independent kingdom. Scotland regained its system of law, parliament and kirk, but also the Lords of the Articles (by which the crown managed parliament), bishops and a king who did not visit the country. He ruled largely without reference to Parliament, through a series of commissioners. These began with John, Earl of Middleton and ended with the king's brother and heir, James, DUKe of York (known in Scotland as the DUKe of Albany). The English Navigation Acts prevented the Scots engaging in what would have been lucrative trading with England's colonies.

The restoration of episcopacy was a source of trouble, particularly in the south-west of the country, an area with strong Presbyterian sympathies. Abandoning the official church, many of the inhabitants began to attend illegal field assemblies, known as conventicles.

Official attempts to suppress these led to a rising in 1679, defeated by James, Duke of Monmouth, the King's illegitimate son, at the Battle of Bothwell Bridge.

In the early 1680s a more intense phase of persecution began, later to be called "the Killing Time". When Charles died in 1685 and his brother, a Roman Catholic, succeeded him as James VII of Scotland (and II of England), matters came to a head. James put Catholics in key positions in the government and attendance at conventicles was made punishable by death. He disregarded parliament, purged the Council and forced through religious toleration to Roman Catholics, alienating his Protestant subjects. It was believed that the king would be succeeded by his daughter Mary, a Protestant and the wife of William of Orange, Stadtholder of the Netherlands, but when in 1688, James produced a male heir, James Francis Edward Stuart, it was clear that his policies would outlive him. An invitation by seven leading Englishmen led William to land in England with 40,000 men, and James fled, leading to the almost bloodless "Glorious Revolution".

The Estates issued a Claim of Right that suggested that James had forfeited the crown by his actions (in contrast to England, which relied on the legal fiction of an abdication) and offered it to William and Mary, which William accepted, along with limitations on royal power. The final settlement restored Presbyterianism and abolished the bishops who had generally supported James.

William, who was more tolerant than the Kirk tended to be, passed acts restoring the Episcopalian clergy excluded after the Revolution. Although William's supporters dominated the government, there remained a significant following for James, particularly in the Highlands. His cause, which became known as Jacobitism, from the Latin (Jacobus) for James, led to a series of risings.

An initial Jacobite military attempt was led by John Graham, Viscount Dundee. His forces, almost all Highlanders, defeated William's forces at the Battle of Killiecrankie in 1689, but they took heavy losses and Dundee was slain in the fighting. Without his leadership the Jacobite army was soon defeated at the Battle of Dunkeld. In the aftermath of the Jacobite defeat on 13 February 1692, in an incident since known as the Massacre of Glencoe, 38 members of the Clan MacDonald of Glencoe were killed by members of the Earl of Argyll's Regiment of Foot, on the grounds that they had not been prompt in pledging allegiance to the new monarchs.

The closing decade of the 17th century saw the generally favourable economic conditions that had dominated since the Restoration come to an end. There was a slump in trade with the Baltic and France from 1689 to 1691, caused by French protectionism and changes in the Scottish cattle trade, followed by four years of failed harvests (1695, 1696 & 1698-9), an era known as the "seven ill years".

The result was severe famine and depopulation, particularly in the north. The Parliament of Scotland of 1695 enacted proposals to help the desperate economic situation, including setting up the Bank of Scotland.

The "Company of Scotland Trading to Africa and the Indies" received a charter to raise capital through public subscription. With the dream of building a lucrative overseas colony for Scotland, the Company of Scotland invested in the Darien scheme, an ambitious plan devised by William Paterson to establish a colony on the Isthmus of Panama in the hope of establishing trade with the Far East.

The Darién scheme won widespread support in Scotland as the landed gentry and the merchant class were in agreement in seeing overseas trade and colonialism as routes to upgrade Scotland's economy. Since the capital resources of the Edinburgh merchants and landholder elite were insufficient, the company appealed to middling social ranks, who responded with patriotic fervour to the call for money; the lower classes volunteered as colonists. However, the English government opposed the idea: involved in the War of the Grand Alliance from 1689 to 1697 against France, it did not want to offend Spain, which claimed the territory as part of New Granada.

The English investors withdrew. Returning to Edinburgh, the Company raised 400,000 pounds in a few weeks. Three small fleets with a total of 3,000 men eventually set out for Panama in 1698. The exercise proved a disaster. Poorly equipped; beset by incessant rain; under attack by the Spanish from nearby Cartagena; and refused aid by the English in the West Indies, the colonists abandoned their project in 1700. Only 1,000 survived and only one ship managed to return to Scotland.

Union flag, combining the Cross of St George of England, with the Cross of St. Andrew of Scotland. Scotland was a poor rural, agricultural society with a population of 1.3 Ma in 1755.

Although Scotland lost home rule, the Union allowed it to break free of a stultifying system and opened the way for the Scottish enlightenment as well as a great expansion of trade and increase in opportunity and wealth. Edinburgh economist Adam Smith concluded in 1776 "By the union with England, the middling and inferior ranks of people in Scotland gained a complete deliverance from the power of an aristocracy which had always before oppressed them." Historian Jonathan Israel holds that the Union "proved a decisive catalyst politically and economically", by allowing ambitious Scots entry on an equal basis to a rich expanding empire and its increasing trade.

Scotland's transformation into a rich leader of modern industry came suddenly & unexpectedly in the next 150 years, following its union with England in 1707 and its integration with the advanced English and imperial economies. The transformation was led by two cities that grew rapidly after 1770.

Glasgow, on the river Clyde, was the base for the tobacco and sugar trade with an emerging textile industry. Edinburgh was the administrative and intellectual centre where the Scottish Enlightenment was chiefly based. By the start of the 18th century, a political union between Scotland and England became politically and economically attractive, promising to open up the much larger markets of England, as well as those of the growing English Empire. With economic stagnation since the late 17th century, which was particularly acute in 1704; the country depended more and more heavily on sales of cattle and linen to England, who used this to create pressure for a union.

The Scottish parliament voted on 6 January 1707, by 110 to 69, to adopt the Treaty of Union. It was also a full economic union; indeed, most of its 25 articles dealt with economic arrangements for the new state known as "Great Britain". It added 45 Scots to the 513 members of the House of Commons and 16 Scots to the 190 members of the House of Lords, and ended the Scottish parliament. It replaced the Scottish systems of currency, taxation and laws regulating trade with laws made in London. Scottish law remained separate from English law, and the religious system was not changed. England had about five times the population of Scotland at the time, and about 36 times as much wealth. Jacobitism was revived by the unpopularity of the union. In 1708 James Francis Edward Stuart, the son of James VII, who became known as "The Old Pretender", attempted an invasion with a French fleet carrying 6,000 men, but the Royal Navy prevented it from landing troops.

A more serious attempt occurred in 1715, soon after the death of Anne and the accession of the first Hanoverian king, the eldest son of Sophie, as George I of Great Britain. This rising (known as The Fifteen) envisaged simultaneous uprisings in Wales, Devon, and Scotland. However, government arrests forestalled the southern ventures. In Scotland, John Erskine, Earl of Mar, nicknamed Bobbin' John, raised the Jacobite clans but proved to be an indecisive leader and an incompetent soldier.

Mar captured Perth, but let a smaller government force under the DUKe of Argyll hold the Stirling plain. Part of Mar's army joined up with risings in northern England and southern Scotland; the Jacobites fought their way into England before being defeated at the Battle of Preston, surrendering on 14 November 1715. The day before, Mar had failed to defeat Argyll at the Battle of Sheriffmuir.

At this point, James belatedly landed in Scotland, but was advised that the cause was hopeless. He fled back to France. An attempted Jacobite invasion with Spanish assistance in 1719 met with little support from the clans and ended in defeat at the Battle of Glen Shiel.

In 1745 the Jacobite rising known as The Forty-Five began. Charles Edward Stuart, son of the Old Pretender, often referred to as Bonnie Prince Charlie or the Young Pretender, landed on the island of Eriskay in the Outer Hebrides. Several clans unenthusiastically joined him. At the outset he was successful, taking Edinburgh and then defeating the only government army in Scotland at the Battle of Prestonpans. The Jacobite army marched into England, took Carlisle & advanced as far as Derby.

However, it became increasingly evident that England would not support a Roman Catholic Stuart monarch. The Jacobite leadership had a crisis of confidence and they retreated to Scotland as two English armies closed in and Hanoverian troops began to return from the continent.

Charles' position in Scotland began to deteriorate as the Whig supporters rallied and regained control of Edinburgh. After an unsuccessful attempt on Stirling, he retreated north towards Inverness. He was pursued by the DUKe of Cumberland and gave battle with an exhausted army at Culloden on 16 April 1746, where the Jacobite cause was crushed. Charles hid in Scotland with the aid of Highlanders until September 1746, when he escaped back to France.

There were bloody reprisals against his supporters and foreign powers abandoned the Jacobite cause, with the court in exile forced to leave France. The Old Pretender died in 1760 and the Young Pretender, without legitimate issue, in 1788. When his brother, Henry, Cardinal of York, died in 1807, the Jacobite cause was at an end. Archibald Campbell, 3rd Duke of Argyll, and dominant political figure in Scotland, 1720s. With the advent of the Union and the demise of Jacobitism, access to London and the Empire opened up very attractive career opportunities for ambitious middle-class and upper class Scots, who seized the chance to become entrepreneurs, intellectuals, and soldiers.

Thousands of Scots, mainly Lowlanders, took up positions of power in politics, civil service, the army and navy, trade, economics, colonial enterprises and other areas across the nascent British Empire. Historian Neil Davidson notes that "after 1746 there was an entirely new level of participation by Scots in political life, particularly outside Scotland". Davidson also states that "far from being 'peripheral' to the British economy, Scotland – or more precisely, the Lowlands – lay at its core".

British officials especially appreciated Scottish soldiers. As the Secretary of War told Parliament in 1751, "I am for having always in our army as many Scottish soldiers as possible...because they are generally more hardy and less mutinous". The national policy of aggressively recruiting Scots for senior civilian positions stirred up resentment among Englishmen, ranging from violent diatribes by John Wilkes, to vulgar jokes and obscene cartoons in the popular press; the haughty ridicule by intellectuals such as Samuel Johnson that was much resented by Scots. In his great Dictionary Johnson defined oats as, "a grain, which in England is generally given to horses, but in Scotland supports the people". To which Lord Elibank retorted, "Very true, and where will you find such men and such horses?"

Scottish politics in the late 18th century was dominated by the Whigs, with the benign management of Archibald Campbell, 3rd DUKe of Argyll (1682-1761), who was in effect the "viceroy of Scotland" from the 1720s until his death in 1761. Scotland generally supported the king with enthusiasm during the American Revolution. Henry Dundas (1742-1811) dominated political affairs in the latter part of the century. Dundas put a brake on intellectual and social change through his ruthless manipulation of patronage in alliance with Prime Minister William Pitt the Younger, until he lost power in 1806. The main unit of local government was the parish, and since it was part of the church, the elders imposed public humiliation for what the locals considered immoral behaviour, including fornication, drunkenness, wife beating, cursing and Sabbath breaking. The main focus was on the poor and the landlords ("lairds") and gentry, and their servants, were not subject to the parish's control.

The policing system weakened after 1800 and disappeared in most places by the 1850s.

Collapse of the clan system

After the battle of Culloden, the leaders were declared to be traitors, with Jacobite officers executed and many of the rebel soldiers shipped to the colonies as indentured servants. Key laws included the Dress Act 1746, the Act of Proscription 1746, and especially the Heritable Jurisdictions Act of 1746. All aspects of Highland culture, especially the Scottish Gaelic language were forbidden.

Parliament also banned the bearing of arms and the wearing of tartans, and limited the activities of the Episcopalian Church. After a generation the Highlands had been transformed and the laws were no longer needed; they were mostly repealed.

Historians debate whether the dramatic changes merely reflect long-term trends that were more-or-less inevitable, or whether government intervention played the decisive role in changing the goals and roles of the chiefs. As Conway (2006) concludes, the new policies "went far beyond earlier efforts to promote economic development in the Highlands and ... represented the first real endeavour to transform the region's social system ... the post-rebellion legislation certainly seems to have accelerated the change." However Devine (1999) and Ray (2001) argue that long-term economic and social changes were already undermining the clan system.

The major result of these changes were the Highland Clearances, by which much of the population of the Highlands suffered forced displacement as lands were enclosed, principally so that they could be used for sheep farming. The clearances followed patterns of agricultural change throughout Britain, but were particularly notorious as a result of the late timing, the lack of legal protection for year-by-year tenants under Scots law, the abruptness of the change from the traditional clan system, and the brutality of many evictions.

One result was a continuous exodus from the land – to the cities, or further afield to England, Canada, America or Australia. Many of those who remained were now crofters: poor families living on "crofts" – very small rented farms with indefinite tenure used to raise various crops and animals, with kelping industry (where men burned kelp for the ashes), fishing, spinning of linen and military service as important sources of revenue.

The era of the Napoleonic wars, 1790-1815, brought prosperity, optimism, and economic growth to the Highlands. The economy grew thanks to higher wages, as well as large-scale infrastructure spending such as the Caledonian Canal project. On the East Coast, farmlands were improved, and high prices for cattle brought money to the community. Service in the Army was also attractive to young men from Highlands, who sent pay home and retired there with their army pensions, but the prosperity ended after 1815, and long-run negative factors began to undermine the economic position of the crofters.

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

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

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

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ENLIGHTENMENT IN SCOTLAND

Historian Jonathan Israel argues that by 1750 Scotland's major cities had created an intellectual infrastructure of mutually supporting institutions, such as universities, reading societies, libraries, periodicals, museums and masonic lodges. The Scottish network was "predominantly liberal Calvinist, Newtonian", "design" oriented in character which played a major role in the further development of the transatlantic Enlightenment". In France Voltaire said "we look to Scotland for all our ideas of civilization", and the Scots in turn paid close attention to French ideas. Historian Bruce Lenman says their "central achievement was a new capacity to recognize and interpret social patterns".

The first major philosopher of the Scottish Enlightenment was Francis Hutcheson, who held the Chair of Philosophy at the University of Glasgow from 1729 to 1746. A moral philosopher who produced alternatives to the ideas of Thomas Hobbes, one of his major contributions to world thought was the utilitarian and consequentialist principle that virtue is that which provides, in his words, "the greatest happiness for the greatest numbers".

Much of what is incorporated in the scientific method (the nature of knowledge, evidence, experience, causation) and some modern attitudes towards the relationship between science and religion were developed by his protégés David Hume and Adam Smith.

Hume became a major figure in the skeptical philosophical and empiricist traditions of philosophy.

He and other Scottish Enlightenment thinkers developed what he called a "science of man", which was expressed historically in works by authors including James Burnett, Adam Ferguson, John Millar and William Robertson, all of whom merged a scientific study of how humans behave in ancient and primitive cultures with a strong awareness of the determining forces of modernity.

Modern sociology largely originated from this movement and Hume's philosophical concepts that directly influenced James Madison (and thus the U.S. Constitution) and when popularised by Dugald Stewart, would be the basis of classical liberalism. Adam Smith published The Wealth of Nations, often considered the first work on modern economics. It had an immediate impact on British economic policy and in the 21st century still framed discussions on globalisation and tariffs.

The focus of the Scottish Enlightenment ranged from intellectual and economic matters to the specifically scientific as in the work of the physician and chemist William Cullen, the agriculturalist and economist James Anderson, chemist and physician Joseph Black, natural historian John Walker and James Hutton, the first modern geologist. With tariffs with England now abolished, the potential for trade for Scottish merchants was considerable. However, Scotland in 1750 was still a poor rural, agricultural society with a population of 1.3 Ma.

Some progress was visible: agriculture in the Lowlands was steadily upgraded after 1700 and standards remained high. There were the sales of linen and cattle to England, the cash flows from military service, and the tobacco trade that was dominated by Glasgow Tobacco Lords after 1740.

Merchants who profited from the American trade began investing in leather, textiles, iron, coal, sugar, rope, sailcloth, glassworks, breweries, and soapworks, setting the foundations for the city's emergence as a leading industrial centre after 1815. The tobacco trade collapsed during the American Revolution (1776-83), when its sources were cut off by the British blockade of American ports. However, trade with the West Indies began to make up for the loss of the tobacco business, reflecting the British demand for sugar and the demand in the West Indies for herring and linen goods.

Linen was Scotland's premier industry in the 18th century and formed the basis for the later cotton, jute, woollen industries. Scottish industrial policy was made by the Board of Trustees for Fisheries and Manufactures in Scotland, which sought to build an economy complementary, not competitive, with England. Since England had woollens, this meant linen. Encouraged and subsidised by the Board of Trustees so it could compete with German products, merchant entrepreneurs became dominant in all stages of linen manufacturing and built up the market share of Scottish linens.

The British Linen Company, established in 1746, was the largest firm in the Scottish linen industry in the 18th century, exporting linen to England and America. As a joint-stock company, it had the right to raise funds through the issue of promissory notes or bonds. With its bonds functioning as bank notes, the company gradually moved into the business of lending and discounting to other linen manufacturers, and in the early 1770s banking became its main activity.

It joined the established Scottish banks such as the Bank of Scotland (Edinburgh, 1695) and the Royal Bank of Scotland (Edinburgh, 1727). Glasgow would soon follow & Scotland had a flourishing financial system by the end of the century. There were over 400 branches, amounting to one office per 7,000 people, double the level in England, where banks were also more heavily regulated. Historians have emphasised that the flexibility and dynamism of the Scottish banking system contributed significantly to the rapid development of the economy in the 19th century.

German sociologist Max Weber mentioned Scottish Presbyterianism in The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism (1905), and many scholars in recent decades argued that "this worldly asceticism" of Calvinism was integral to Scotland's rapid economic modernization.

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

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

Exercise 3. Write a small essay on the topic.

Exercise 4. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

The first Scottish Enlightment

C H A P T E R III
THE POLITICAL SYSTEM OF THE UK
UNIT I. MONARCHY IN GREAT BRITAIN

INTRODUCTION

The UK is a unitary state with devolution that is governed within the framework of a parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarchy, in which the monarch, currently Queen Elizabeth II, is the head of state while the prime minister of the UK, currently Theresa May, is the head of government.

Executive power is exercised by the British government, on behalf of and by the consent of the monarch, as well as by the devolved governments of Scotland and Wales, and the Northern Ireland Executive. Legislative power is vested in the two chambers of the Parliament of the UK, the House of Commons and the House of Lords, as well as in the Scottish Parliament and Welsh and Northern Ireland assemblies. The judiciary is independent of the executive and the legislature.

The highest court is the Supreme Court of the UK. The UK political system is a multi-party system. Since the 1920s, the two largest political participation have been the Conservative Party and the Labour Party. Before the Labour Party rose in British politics, the Liberal Party was the other major political party along with the Conservatives.

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

With the partition of Ireland, Northern Ireland received home rule in 1920, though civil unrest meant direct rule was restored in 1972. Support for (non-British) nationalist parties in Scotland and Wales led to proposals for devolution in the 1970s though only in the 1990s did devolution actually happen. Today, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland each possess a legislature and executive, with devolution in Northern Ireland being conditional on participation in certain all-Ireland institutions.

The UK government remains responsible for non-devolved matters and, in the case of Northern Ireland, co-operates with the government of the Republic of Ireland. It is a matter of dispute as to whether increased autonomy and devolution of executive and legislative powers has contributed to the increase in support for independence. The principal pro-independence party, the Scottish National Party, became a minority government in 2007 and then went on to win an overall majority of MSPs at the 2011 Scottish parliament elections and forms the Scottish Government administration.

A 2014 referendum on independence led to a rejection of the proposal, but with 44.7% voting to secede. In Northern Ireland, a smaller percentage vote for Irish nationalist parties.

The largest, Sinn Féin, not only advocates Irish reunification, but its members abstain from taking their elected seats in the Westminster parliament, as this would entail taking a pledge of allegiance to the British monarch. The constitution of the UK is uncodified, being made up of constitutional conventions, statutes and other elements such as EU law. This system of government, known as the Westminster system, has been adopted by other countries, especially those that were formerly parts of the British Empire. The UK is responsible for several dependencies, which fall into two categories: the Crown dependencies, in the immediate vicinity of the UK, and British Overseas Territories.

THE OUTLINE OF BRITISH POLITICAL SYSTEM

Britain is a constitutional monarchy, without a written constitution. The head of the state is Queen Elizabeth II. The queen reigns, but does not rule. A Cabinet of government officials, called ministers, actually rules the country. These ministers normally belong to the political party that has a majority in the House of Commons, which dominates Parliament, the country's lawmaking body. They are responsible to the people. This section provides an outline of the UK's system of government.

The Constitution of the UK is not one document, as are the constitutions of many other countries. Much of it is not even in writing and so the country is often said to have an unwritten constitution.

Some of the written parts of the Constitution come from laws passed by Parliament. Some written parts come from such old documents are Magna Carta, which limited the king's power.

Other written parts come from Common law, a body of laws based on people's customs and beliefs, and supported in the courts. The unwritten parts of the constitution include many important ideas and practices that the people have developed over the years. They include the Cabinet system of government and the relationship between the Cabinet and the monarch.

For more than 1,000 years, the Constitution has been changing and developing. It is still changing, because it is so flexible. The Constitution can be changed at any time by an act of government or by the people's acceptance of a new idea or practice.

The monarchy is over 1,000 years old. Queen Elizabeth II can trace her ancestry back to England's earliest kings in the 800's. The throne passes from a king or queen to his or her oldest son.

If the monarch has no son, the oldest daughter inherits the throne. She becomes queen regnant and has all the power. The crown symbolises the British monarch's supreme power. For hundreds of years, the monarch held most authority. But as Parliament's power grew the monarch's power declined.

Today, almost all the powers of the crown are used by various government officials in the monarch's name. Elizabeth can make few decisions of her own. Yet the powers of government are referred to as her powers, and are used by her ministers, her Parliament, and her courts. The British call their government Her Majesty's Government and government officials work on Her Majesty's Service.

Parliament makes the laws of the UK. Parliament consists of the queen, the House of Commons, and the House of Lords. The queen must approve all bills passed by Parliament before they can become laws. Although the queen may reject a bill, no monarch has done so since the early 1700's. The prime minister is usually the leader of the political party that has the most seats in the House of Commons. The monarch asks the prime minister to form a government – that is, to select ministers to head governmental departments and to hold various offices.

The Prime Minister selects about 100 ministers. From them, the prime minister picks a special group to make up the Cabinet. The Cabinet is the group of senior ministers responsible for the general policy of the government.

The Cabinet watches over the general conduct of the government and decides what steps will be taken to deal with matters of government. The Cabinet decides what new laws and amendments to existing laws will be introduced to Parliament. The Cabinet decides what the government shall do and how it shall be done. The prime minister chairs the Cabinet, which usually consists of about 20 ministers.

There are Conservative Party, Labour Party, Liberal Party, Liberal Democrats, Social Democratic Party, Tory Party, Whig Party in Great Britain. Law courts of the UK operate under three separate legal system – one for England and Wales, one for Northern Ireland, and one for Scotland. The system in Northern Ireland resembles that of England and Wales. Scotland's system differs in many ways from the other two. But in each system, some courts hear only criminal cases are, cases involving disputes between people. Decisions made by lower courts are appealed to higher courts.

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

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

MONARCHY

A monarchy is a form of government, in which a group, generally a group of people representing a dynasty (aristocracy), embodies the country's national identity and its head, the monarch, exercises the role of sovereignty. The actual power of the monarch may vary from purely symbolic (crowned republic), to partial and restricted (constitutional monarchy), to completely autocratic (absolute monarchy).

Traditionally the monarch's post is inherited and lasts until death or abdication.

In contrast, elective monarchies require the monarch to be elected. Both types have further variations as there are widely divergent structures and traditions defining monarchy.

In some elected monarchies only pedigrees are taken into account for eligibility of the next ruler, whereas many hereditary monarchies impose requirements regarding the religion, age, gender, mental capacity, etc. Occasionally this might create a situation of rival claimants whose legitimacy is subject to effective election. There have been cases where the term of a monarch's reign is either fixed in years or continues until certain goals are achieved: an invasion being repulsed, for instance.

Monarchic rule was the most common form of government until the 19th century. It is now usually a constitutional monarchy, in which the monarch retains a unique legal and ceremonial role, but exercises limited or no official political power: under the written or unwritten constitution, others have governing authority. Currently, 45 sovereign nations in the world have monarchs acting as heads of state, 16 of which are Commonwealth realms that recognise Queen Elizabeth II as their head of state.

Most modern European monarchies are constitutional and hereditary with a largely ceremonial role, with the exception of the Vatican which is an elective theocracy and the Principalities of Monaco and Liechtenstein where the monarchs exercise unrestricted authority. The monarchies of Cambodia and Malaysia are constitutional with a largely ceremonial role, despite possessing significantly more social and legal clout than their European counterparts. The monarchs of Brunei, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and Swaziland have more political influence than any other single source of authority in their nations, either by tradition or a constitutional mandate.

Etymology

The word "monarch" comes from the Greek language "one, singular" & "to rule", which referred to a single, at least nominally absolute ruler. In current usage the word *monarchy* usually refers to a traditional system of hereditary rule, as elective monarchies are rare nowadays. The form of societal hierarchy known as chiefdom or tribal kingship is prehistoric. The Greek term *monarchia* is classical, used by Herodotus. The monarch in classical antiquity is identified as "king" or "ruler" or as "queen".

From earliest historical times, with the Egyptian and Mesopotamian monarchs, as well as in reconstructed Proto-Indo-European religion, the king holds sacral function directly connected to sacrifice, or is considered by their people to have divine ancestry. The role of the Roman emperor as the protector of Christianity was conflated with the sacral aspects held by the Germanic kings to create the notion of "Divine right of kings" in the Christian Middle Ages. The Chinese, Japanese and Nepalese monarchs continued to be considered living Gods into the modern period.

Since antiquity, monarchy has contrasted with forms of democracy, where executive power is wielded by assemblies of free citizens. In antiquity, monarchies were abolished in favour of such assemblies in Rome (Roman Republic, 509 B.C.), and Athens (Athenian democracy, 500 B.C.).

In Germanic antiquity, kingship was primarily a sacral function, and the king was either directly hereditary for some tribes, while for others he was elected from among eligible members of royal families by the thing. Such ancient "parliamentarism" declined during the European Middle Ages, but it survived in forms of regional assemblies, such as the Icelandic Commonwealth, the Swiss *Landsgemeinde,* later *Tagsatzung,* and the High Medieval communal movement linked to the rise of medieval town privileges.

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

CHARACTERISTICS & ROLE OF MONARCHY

The modern resurgence of parliamentarism and anti-monarchism began with the temporary overthrow of the English monarchy by the Parliament of England in 1649, followed by the American Revolution of 1776 & the French Revolution of 1789. Much of 19th century politics was characterised by the division between anti-monarchist Radicalism and monarchist Conservativism.

Many countries abolished the monarchy in the 20th century and became republics, especially in the wake of either World War I or World War II.

Advocacy of republics is called republicanism, while advocacy of monarchies is called monarchism. In the modern era, monarchies are more prevalent in small states than in large ones.

Monarchies are associated with political or sociocultural hereditary rule, in which monarchs rule for life (although some monarchs do not hold lifetime positions: for example, the Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia serves a five-year term) and pass the responsibilities and power of the position to their child or another member of their family when they die. Most monarchs, both historically and in the modern day, have been born and brought up within a royal family, the centre of the royal household and court.

Growing up in a royal family (called a dynasty when it continues for several generations), future monarchs are often trained for the responsibilities of expected future rule.

Different systems of succession have been used, such as proximity of blood, primogeniture, and agnatic seniority (Salic law). While most monarchs have been male, many female monarchs have reigned in history; the term queen regnant refers to a ruling monarch, while a queen consort refers to the wife of a reigning king. Rule may be hereditary in practice without being considered a monarchy, such as that of family dictatorships or political families in many democracies.

The principal advantage of hereditary monarchy is the immediate continuity of leadership (as seen in the classic phrase "The King is dead. Long live the King!").

Some monarchies are non-hereditary. In an elective monarchy, monarchs are elected, or appointed by some body (an electoral college) for life or a defined period, but otherwise serve as any other monarch. Three elective monarchies exist today: Malaysia and the United Arab Emirates are 20th-century creations, while one (the papacy) is ancient.

A self-proclaimed monarchy is established when a person claims the monarchy without any historical ties to a previous dynasty. There are examples of republican leaders who have proclaimed themselves monarchs: Napoleon I of France declared himself Emperor of the French and ruled the First French Empire after having held the title of First Consul of the French Republic for five years following his seizure of power in the coup of 18 Brumaire. The President Jean-Bédel Bokassa of the Central African Republic declared himself "Emperor" of the Central African Empire. Yuan Shikai, the first formal President of the Republic of China, crowned himself Emperor of the short-lived "Empire of China" a few years after the Republic of China was founded.

POWERS OF THE MONARCH

In an absolute monarchy, the monarch rules as an autocrat, with absolute power over the state and government – the right to rule by decree, promulgate laws, and impose punishments.

Absolute monarchies are not necessarily authoritarian or totalitarian; the enlightened absolutists of the Age of Enlightenment were monarchs who allowed various freedoms.

In a constitutional monarchy, the monarch is subject to a constitution. The monarch serves as a ceremonial figurehead symbol of national unity and state continuity. The monarch is nominally sovereign but the electorate, through their legislature, exercise (usually limited) political sovereignty.

Constitutional monarchs have limited political power, except in Japan and Sweden, where the constitutions grant no power to their monarchs. Typical monarchical powers include granting pardons, granting honours, reserve powers, to dismiss the prime minister, refuse to dissolve parliament, or veto legislation ("withhold Royal Assent"). They often have privileges of inviolability, sovereign immunity, and an official residence. A monarch's powers and influence may depend on tradition, precedent, popular opinion, and law. In other cases the monarch's power is limited, not due to constitutional restraints, but to effective military rule.

In the late Roman Empire, the Praetorian Guard several times deposed Roman Emperors and installed new emperors. Similarly, in the Abbasid Caliphate the Ghilmans (slave soldiers) deposed of Caliphs once they became prominent, allowing new ones to come to power.

The Hellenistic kings of Macedon and of Epirus were elected by the army, which was similar in composition to the *ecclesia* of democracies, the council of all free citizens; military service was often linked with citizenship among the male members of the royal house. Military domination of the monarch has occurred in modern Thailand and in medieval Japan (where a hereditary military chief, the *shōgun*, was the de facto ruler, although the Japanese emperor nominally ruled).

In Fascist Italy the Savoy monarchy under King Victor Emmanuel III coexisted with the Fascist single-party rule of Benito Mussolini; Romania under the Iron Guard and Greece during the first months of the Colonels' regime were much the same way.

Spain under Francisco Franco was officially a monarchy, although there was no monarch on the throne. Upon his death, Franco was succeeded as head of state by the Bourbon heir, Juan Carlos I, who proceeded to make Spain a democracy with himself as a figurehead constitutional monarch.

Most states only have a single person acting as monarch at any given time, although two monarchs have ruled simultaneously in some countries, a situation known as diarchy. Historically this was the case in the ancient Greek city-state of Sparta or 17th-century Russia, and there are examples of joint sovereignty of spouses or relatives (William III & Mary II in the Kingdoms of England & Scotland).

Other examples of joint sovereignty include Tsars Peter I and Ivan V of Russia, and Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor and Joanna of Castile of the Crown of Castile.

Andorra currently is the world's sole constitutional diarchy or co-principality. Located in the Pyrenees between Spain and France, it has two co-princes: the Bishop of Urgell (a prince-bishop) in Spain and the President of France (inherited *ex officio* from the French kings, who themselves inherited the title from the counts of Foix). It is the only situation in which an independent country's (co-)monarch is democratically elected by the citizens of another country.

In a personal union, separate independent states share the same person as monarch, but each realm retains its separate laws and government. The sixteen separate Commonwealth realms are sometimes described as being in a personal union with Queen Elizabeth II as monarch, however, they can also be described as being in a shared monarchy. A regent may rule when the monarch is a minor, absent, or debilitated. A pretender is a claimant to an abolished throne or to a throne already occupied by somebody else. Abdication is the act of formally giving up one's monarchical power and status. Monarchs may mark the ceremonial beginning of their reigns with a coronation or enthronement.

THE ROLE OF MONARCH

Monarchy, especially absolute monarchy, sometimes is linked to religious aspects.

Many monarchs once claimed the right to rule by the will of a deity (Divine Right of Kings, Mandate of Heaven), a special connection to a deity (sacred king) or even purported to be divine kings, or incarnations of deities themselves (imperial cult). Many European monarchs have been styled *Fidei defensor* (Defender of the Faith); some hold official positions relating to the state religion or established church. In the Western political tradition, a morally-based, *balanced* monarchy is stressed as the ideal form of government, and little reverence is paid to modern-day ideals of egalitarian democracy: Saint Thomas Aquinas unapologetically declares: "Tyranny is wont to occur not less but more frequently on the basis of polyarchy (rule by many, oligarchy or democracy) than on the basis of monarchy."

However, Thomas Aquinas stated that the ideal monarchical system would also have at lower levels of government both an aristocracy and elements of democracy in order to create a balance of power. The monarch would be subject to both natural and divine law, as well, be subject to the Church in matters of religion. In Dante Alighieri's *De Monarchia*, a spiritualised, imperial Catholic monarchy is strongly promoted according to a Ghibelline world-view in which the "royal religion of Melchizedek" is emphasised against the sacerdotal claims of the rival papal ideology.

In Saudi Arabia, the king is a head of state who is both the absolute monarch of the country and the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques of Islam.

Titles of Monarchs

Monarchs can have various titles. Common European titles of monarchs are emperor or empress, king or queen, grand duke or grand duchess, prince or princess, dUKe or duchess (in that hierarchical order of nobility). Some early modern European titles (in German states) included elector, margrave.

Lesser titles include count, princely count, or imam (Oman). Slavic titles include knyaz and tsar or tsaritsa, a word derived from the Roman imperial title *Caesar*.

In the Muslim world, titles of monarchs include caliph (successor to the Islamic prophet Muhammad & a leader of the entire Muslim community), padishah (emperor), sultan or sultana, shâhanshâh (emperor), shah, malik (king) or malikah (queen), emir (commander, prince) or emira (princess), sheikh or sheikha.

East Asian titles of monarchs include emperor or empress regnant, son of heaven, emperor or empress regnant, king) or queen regnant), emperor or empress regnant. South Asian & South East Asian titles included emperor or empress, king or queen. Historically, Mongolic or Turkic monarchs have used the title *khan* and *khagan* (emperor) or *khatun* and *khanum* and Ancient Egypt monarchs have used the title *pharaoh* for men and women.

In Ethiopian Empire, monarchs used title king of kings or queen of kings. Many monarchs are addressed with particular styles or manners of address, like "Majesty", "Royal Highness", "By the Grace of God". Sometimes titles are used to express claims to territories that are not held in fact (English claims to the French throne), or titles not recognised (antipopes).

After a monarchy is deposed, often former monarchs and their descendants are given titles (the King of Portugal was given the hereditary title DUKe of Braganza).

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

Exercise 2. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

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

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

DEPENDENT & HEREDITARY MONARCHIES

In some cases monarchs are dependent on other powers. In the British colonial era indirect rule under a paramount power existed, such as the princely states under the British Raj.

In Botswana, South Africa, Ghana and Uganda, the ancient kingdoms and chiefdoms that were met by the colonialists when they first arrived on the continent are now constitutionally protected as regional or sectional entities. Furthermore, in Nigeria, though the dozens of sub-regional polities that exist there are not provided for in the current constitution, they are nevertheless legally recognised aspects of the structure of governance that operates in the nation. In addition to these five countries, peculiar monarchies of varied sizes and complexities exist in various other parts of Africa.

In a hereditary monarchy, the position of monarch is inherited according to a statutory or customary order of succession, within one royal family tracing its origin through a historical dynasty or bloodline. This usually means that the heir to the throne is known well in advance of becoming monarch to ensure a smooth succession.

Primogeniture, in which the eldest child of the monarch is first in line to become monarch, is the most common system in hereditary monarchy. The order of succession is usually affected by rules on gender. Historically "agnatic primogeniture" or "patrilineal primogeniture" was favoured, that is inheritance according to seniority of birth among the sons of a monarch or head of family, with sons and their male issue inheriting before brothers and their issue, and male-line males inheriting before females of the male line. This is the same as semi-Salic primogeniture. Complete exclusion of females from dynastic succession is commonly referred to as application of the Salic law.

Before primogeniture was enshrined in European law and tradition, kings would often secure the succession by having their successor (usually their eldest son) crowned during their own lifetime, so for a time there would be two kings in coregency – a senior king and a junior king. Examples include Henry the Young King of England and the early Direct Capetians in France.

Sometimes, however, primogeniture can operate through the female line. In some systems a female may rule as monarch only when the male line dating back to a common ancestor is exhausted. In 1980, Sweden became the first European monarchy to declare equal (full cognatic) primogeniture, meaning that the eldest child of the monarch, whether female or male, ascends to the throne.

Other kingdoms (the Netherlands,1983, Norway,1990, Belgium, 1991, Denmark & Luxembourg) have since followed suit. The UK adopted absolute (equal) primogeniture on April 25, 2013, following agreement by the prime ministers of the 16 Commonwealth Realms at the 22nd Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting. Religion can be a factor in the eligibility of a monarch.

The British monarch, as head of the Church of England, is required to be in communion with the Church, although all other former rules forbidding marriage to non-Protestants were abolished when equal primogeniture was adopted in 2013. In the case of the absence of children, the next most senior member of the collateral line (a younger sibling of the previous monarch) becomes monarch.

In complex cases, this can mean that there are closer blood relatives to the deceased monarch than the next in line according to primogeniture. This has often led, especially in Europe in the Middle Ages, to conflict between the principle of primogeniture and the principle of proximity of blood.

Other hereditary systems of succession included tanistry, which is semi-elective and gives weight to merit and Agnatic seniority. In some monarchies, such as Saudi Arabia, succession to the throne first passes to the monarch's next eldest brother, and only after that to the monarch's children (agnatic seniority).

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

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

Exercise 3. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 4. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

ELECTIVE MONARCHIES

In an elective monarchy, monarchs are elected, or appointed by some body (an electoral college) for life or a defined period, but otherwise serve as any other monarch. There is no popular vote involved in elective monarchies, as the elective body usually consists of a small number of eligible people. Historical examples of elective monarchy include the Holy Roman Emperors (chosen by prince-electors from the same dynasty), and the free election of kings of the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth. Pepin the Short (father of Charlemagne) was elected King of the Franks by an assembly of Frankish leading men; Stanisław August Poniatowski of Poland was an elected king, as was Frederick I of Denmark. Germanic peoples had elective monarchies.

Five forms of elective monarchies exist today. The pope of the Roman Catholic Church (rules as Sovereign of the Vatican City State) is elected to a life term by the College of Cardinals.

In the Sovereign Military Order of Malta, the Prince and Grand Master is elected for life tenure by the Council Complete of State from within its members. In Malaysia, the federal king, called the Yang di-Pertuan Agong or Paramount Ruler is elected for a five-year term from among and by the hereditary rulers (mostly sultans) of nine of the federation's constitutive states, all on the Malay peninsula. The United Arab Emirates has a procedure for electing its monarch.

Furthermore, Andorra has a unique constitutional arrangement as one of its heads of state is the President of the French Republic in the form of a Co-Prince. This is the only instance in the world where the monarch of a state is elected by the citizens of a different country.

Appointment by the current monarch is another system, used in Jordan. It was used in Imperial Russia; however, it was changed to semi-Salic soon, because the instability of the appointment system resulted in an age of palace revolutions. In this system, the monarch chooses the successor, who is always his relative. Currently there are 44 nations in the world with a monarch as head of state. They fall roughly into the following categories.

Commonwealth realms. Queen Elizabeth II is the monarch of 16 Commonwealth realms (Antigua & Barbuda, the Commonwealth of Australia, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Canada, Grenada, Jamaica, New Zealand, the Independent State of Papua New Guinea, the Federation of Saint Christopher & Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, the Solomon Islands, Tuvalu and the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland). They have evolved out of the British Empire into fully independent states within the Commonwealth of Nations that retain the Queen as head of state, unlike other Commonwealth countries that are either dependencies, republics or have a different royal house.

All 16 realms are constitutional monarchies and full democracies where the Queen has limited powers or a largely ceremonial role. The Queen is head of the established Church of England in the UK, while the other 15 realms do not have an established church.

Other European constitutional monarchies. The Principality of Andorra, the Kingdom of Belgium, the Kingdom of Denmark, the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, the Kingdom of the Netherlands, the Kingdom of Norway, the Kingdom of Spain, the Kingdom of Sweden are fully democratic states in which the monarch has a limited or largely ceremonial role.

There is generally a Christian religion established as the official church in each of these countries. This is the Lutheran form of Protestantism in Norway, Sweden and Denmark, while Belgium and Andorra are Roman Catholic countries. Spain and the Netherlands have no official State religion.

Luxembourg, which is very predominantly Roman Catholic, has five so-called *officially recognised cults of national importance* (Roman Catholicism, Protestantism, Greek Orthodoxy, Judaism & Islam), a status which gives to those religions some privileges like the payment of a state salary to their priests. Andorra is unique among all existing monarchies, as it is, by definition, a diarchy, with the Co-Princeship being shared by the President of France and the Bishop of Urgell. This situation, based on historic precedence, has created a peculiar situation among monarchies).

Both Co-Princes are not of Andorran descent; one is elected by common citizens of a foreign country (France). But not by Andorrans as they cannot vote in the French Presidential Elections; the other, the bishop of Urgel, is appointed by a foreign head of state, the Pope.

European constitutional/absolute monarchies. Liechtenstein & Monaco are constitutional monarchies in which the Prince theoretically retains many powers of an absolute monarch. In reality, he is a figurehead who is expected not to use that power. The 2003 Constitution referendum which gives the Prince of Liechtenstein the power to veto any law that the Landtag (parliament) proposes and the Landtag can veto any law that the Prince tries to pass. The Prince can hire or dismiss any elective member or government employee from his or her post. However, what makes him not an absolute monarch is that the people can call for a referendum to end the monarchy's reign. When Crown Prince Alois threatened to veto a referendum to legalize abortion in 2011, voters were surprised because the Prince hasn't vetoed any law for over 3 decades.

The Prince of Monaco has simpler powers but cannot hire or dismiss any elective member or government employee from his or her post, but he can elect the minister of state, government council and judges. Both Albert II and Hans-Adam II are theoretically very powerful, but in practice even they have very limited power compared to the Islamic monarchs.

Islamic monarchies. These Islamic monarchs of the Kingdom of Bahrain, the Brunei Darussalam, the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, the State of Kuwait, Malaysia, the Kingdom of Morocco, the Sultanate of Oman, the State of Qatar, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates generally retain far more powers than their European or Commonwealth counterparts.

The Nation of Brunei, the Abode of Peace, the Sultanate of Oman, the State of Qatar, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia remain absolute monarchies; the Kingdom of Bahrain, the State of Kuwait & United Arab Emirates are classified as mixed, meaning there are representative bodies of some kind, but the monarch retains most of his powers.

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, Malaysia and the Kingdom of Morocco are constitutional monarchies, but their monarchs still retain more substantial powers than European equivalents.

East & Southeast Asian constitutional monarchies. The Kingdom of Bhutan, Japan, Thailand, Cambodia have constitutional monarchies where the monarch has a limited or ceremonial role.

The Kingdom of Bhutan, Japan, Thailand are countries that were never colonised by European powers, but Japan and the Kingdom of Thailand have changed from traditional absolute monarchies into constitutional ones during the 20th century, while the Kingdom of Bhutan changed in 2008.

The Kingdom of Cambodia had its own monarchy after independence from the French Colonial Empire, which was deposed after the Khmer Rouge came into power and the subsequent invasion by the Socialist Republic of Vietnam. The monarchy was subsequently restored in the peace agreement of 1993. *Other monarchies.* Five monarchies do not fit into one of the above groups by virtue of geography or class of monarchy: the Kingdom of Tonga in Polynesia; of Swaziland & of Lesotho in Africa; the Vatican City State; the Sovereign Military Order of Malta in Europe.

Of these, the Kingdom of Lesotho and Tonga are constitutional monarchies, while the Kingdom of Swaziland and the Vatican City State are absolute monarchies. The Kingdom of Swaziland is unique among these monarchies, often being considered a diarchy. The King, or Ngwenyama, rules alongside his mother, the NdlovUKati, as dual heads of state originally designed to be checks on political power. The Ngwenyama is considered the administrative while the NdlovUKati is the spiritual & national head of state. The Pope is the absolute monarch of the *Vatican City State* by virtue of his position as head of the Roman Catholic Church and Bishop of Rome; he is an elected rather than hereditary ruler and does not have to be a citizen of the territory prior to his election by the cardinals. The ruling Kim family in North Korea has been described as a *de facto* absolute monarchy or "hereditary dictatorship". In 2013, Ten Fundamental Principles of the Korean Workers' Party states: the party & revolution must be carried "eternally" by the "Baekdu (Kim's) bloodline".

PARLIAMENTARY MONARCHY

The UK is a parliamentary monarchy – that is, the head of state is a monarch with *limited powers*. Britain's democratic government is based on a constitution composed of various historical documents, laws, and *formal customs* adopted over the years. Parliament, the legislature, consists of the House of Lords, the House of Commons, and the monarch, also called the Crown.

The House of Commons is far more influential than the House of Lords, which in effect makes the British system *unicameral,* meaning the legislature has one chamber. The *chief executive* is the Prime Minister, who is a member of the House of Commons. The executive branch includes Her Majesty's Government, commonly referred to simply as "the government".

The government *is composed of* ministers in the Cabinet, most of whom are members of the House of Commons; *government departments*, each of which is responsible to a minister; *local authorities*; and *public corporations*. Because the House of Commons is involved in both the legislative and executive branches of the British government, there is no separation of powers between executive and legislature as there is in the United States.

The British constitution *comprises multiple documents*. The written part consists of the *Magna Carta,* written in 1215; the *Petition of Right*, passed by Parliament in 1628; and the *Bill of Rights* of 1689. It includes the entire *body of laws enacted by Parliament*, *precedents established by decisions* made in British *courts of law*, and various traditions and customs.

The democratically elected House of Commons can *alter* these laws with a *majority vote*.

The constitution *continually* evolves as new laws are passed and judicial decisions are handed down. All laws passed by Parliament are regarded as constitutional, and changes or amendments to the constitution occur whenever new legislation *overrides* existing law. Although the Crown gives its royal *assent* to legislation, this is a mere formality.

Exercise 1. Explain the italic words and phrases and translate them into your native language.

Exercise 2. Translate the phrases into English, using words from the text.

Парламент с ограниченными полномочиями; глава исполнительной ветви власти; подотчетен президенту; состоять из многих статей; абсолютно все распоряжения; принят депутатами парламента; официальный представитель государства; полномочия, которые передаются по наследству; настоящий правопреемник фонда.

Exercise 3. Translate the words and word-combinations with the keyword «monarch».

Monarch, absolute monarch, constitutional monarch, monarchy, constitutional monarchy, absolute monarchy, hereditary monarchy, limited monarchy, dual monarchy, parliamentary monarchy; to establish (set up) a monarchy, to overthrow a monarchy, monarch's prerogative, monarchic(al), monarchical power, monarchical regime, monarchical system, monarchism, monarchist, Monarchian.

Exercise 4. Translate the notion.

Различают неограниченную (абсолютную) монархию, характерную для рабовладельческого и феодального строя, и ограниченную (конституционную) монархию, при которой власть монарха ограничена парламентом. Государства с конституционной монархией: Великобритания, Норвегия, Дания, Швеция. В некоторых странах Азии имеется еще теократическая монархия (глава государства является одновременно религиозным главой).

Exercise 5. Remember that.

Magna Carta – a charter of liberty and political rights obtained from King John of England by his rebellious barons at Runnymede in 1215, which came to be seen as the seminal document of English constitutional practice. The charter granted by King John at Runnymede in 1215, recognizing the rights and privileges of the barons, church, and freemen.

ROYAL FAMILIES TODAY

Today the world is nearly controlled and heavily influenced by an oligarchy. This is the same social set up we have seen for the last 6000 years.

In the past there were monarchs that governed the people. It was royal families and the nobility that had most of the power and wealth. Oligarchs existed back then and they exist now.

In the past however these oligarchs had more legislative and legal power. The authority of kings and queens were not questioned. The type of governments that existed in the past was dictatorial.

The Oligarchs of today act in a different manner. The people have legislative power through their elected officials, the oligarchy of the world today exercise there will by stealth.

Today they still carry an incredible amount of power and influence. The oligarchy of today consists of international bankers, royal families, and corporate elites. Together these loose networks of oligarchs are working to create a New World Economic and Social Order. These elites control most of the world's natural resources, the media, richest corporations and the flow of money. Their influence is transnational, and infiltrates many governmental and non-governmental organizations.

The royal families of Europe still carry immense power. The royal families are deeply involved in the creation of a world governmental infrastructure. One way is to be born into the Royal Family.

If you are prince, especially the eldest son, then one day you can become a king.

In some countries, if you are the eldest daughter (princess) and there are no sons, then one day you could become a queen. A more usual way to become leader of your country, however, is to become a politician and then to become the leader of the most popular party. In most countries where the people elect their government, the voters usually vote for a person who belongs to one of the main political parties. This person is usually the candidate for the local region.

The candidate who receives the most votes becomes the political representative for that region and takes a seat (a place) in the national parliament or assembly. The political party, which wins the most seats, then has the right to form a government and to take power. The head of that political party then becomes the president (in countries such as Taiwan or Italy) or the Prime Minister (in countries such as Great Britain and Japan).

In some countries, such as France and the USA, the system is a little different. Every seven years in France, and every four years in the USA, there are presidential elections. At this time the people vote directly for the person that they want to become a president. Regional elections are independent from presidential elections. This means that it is possible to become the president and yet not be the leader of the most popular political party.

Exercise 1. Translate the words in the brackets into English in the correct form.

The Queen is really a figurehead representing the country, but she has the power to prevent any politician from establishing (диктатура). The Queen and her family are a symbol that people can (ассоциировать) with. The British public is obsessed with the details of the Royal Family life, and when people feel that the Queen has problems with her children, or her sister, they see her as a '*real person'* with the same (тревога) and (опасение) as themselves. The Monarchy has not always been popular. During the late 19th century there was a growing republican (настроение), but the personality and family (образ) of the Queen, her father and grandfather have removed that feeling.

The Queen is probably (самая богатая) woman in the world, most of the money is coming from family investments rather than the state. In recent years the Queen has become (кочующий) ambassador for Britain, and if we calculate (увеличение) in trade after a Royal visit abroad, the nation probably makes (доход) from her activities, and that does not take into account the income from tourism in Britain generated by the monarchy and great state (события) such as royal weddings. In the late 1980s a newspaper conducted (общественный) poll. People were asked, "If there were no monarchy, who would you vote for a President?" More than 80% chose the Queen.

THE BRITISH MONARCHY

The British monarchy *stands for* the continuity of British history going back to Anglo-Saxon times, and today it serves as a *figurehead* for the state. In theory, the British monarch has *enormous powers*, but in reality those powers are limited and the Crown follows the *dictates* and advice of the ministers in Parliament. The British monarchy has been a *hereditary position* since the 9th century, Parliament has *stepped* in at times to alter the *succession*, for example, in 1701 when the house of Hannover was selected to replace the Stuart dynasty.

Primogeniture, the passing of the throne to the eldest son when a monarch dies, has been the rule of *succession,* and when there are no sons, the eldest daughter ascends the throne. This was the case when Elizabeth II succeeded to the throne in February 1952 upon the death of her father, George VI. Her husband, Prince Philip, has the title of *Prince Consort*, but no *rank or privileges*.

The *current heir* to the throne is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles, Prince of Wales. According to the Act of Settlement of 1701, only Protestants *are eligible* to succeed to the throne. A regent may be appointed to rule for the sovereign if he or she is underage or *incapacitated*. As the official head of state, the monarch formally *summons* and *dismisses* Parliament and the ministers of the Cabinet.

The monarch also serves as head of the judiciary, commander in chief of the armed forces, and Supreme Governor of the Church of England and the Church of Scotland.

In reality, the government carries out the duties associated with these functions. Theoretically, the monarch appoints all judges, military officers, diplomats, and archbishops, as well as other church officers. The monarch *bestows honours* and awards, such as *knighthoods* and *peerages*. In reality, all of these appointments are made upon the advice of the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister declares war and peace and concludes treaties with foreign states in the name of the Crown.

The monarch serves as the ceremonial head of the Commonwealth of Nations and is the ceremonial head of state for 16 Commonwealth countries. The real work of the monarchy consists largely of *signing papers*. The monarch has the right, however, to be consulted on all aspects of national life and review all important government documents.

The monarch may meet with the *Privy Council,* a now largely ceremonial body made up of Cabinet members that serves in an advisory capacity to the monarch. Since Britain is a democracy, the monarchy could potentially be abolished if a majority of the population decides to do so. In the early 21st century, the monarchy generally remained popular, despite *unpleasant media coverage* surrounding the marriages and relationships of the royal family.

Only Scotland had a small majority that wanted to make the UK a republic. The royal family *endorses developments* in Britain by performing such ceremonial functions as cutting ribbons, opening businesses, launching ships, and laying cornerstones.

Many members of the royal family are involved in charity work and maintain a public presence by visiting shelters, hospitals, and clinics. Because foreigners are attracted to the *pageantry* of royalty, tourism related to the royal family brings a substantial amount of money into the country.

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

Exercise 2. Explain the notions.

Monarchy – a form of government in which supreme authority is vested in a single and usually hereditary figure, such as a king, and whose powers can vary from those of an absolute despot to those of a figurehead; a country reigned over by a king, prince, or other monarch. A monarchy is a system in which a country has a monarch. The monarchy is the focus of loyalty and service. *Absolute monarchy* – a monarchy without constitutional limits Compare: constitutional monarchy. *Constitutional monarchy* – a monarchy governed according to a constitution that limits and defines the powers of the sovereign.

Dual Monarchy – the monarchy of Austria-Hungary from 1867 to 1918.

Exercise 3. Explain the italic words and phrases and translate them into your native language.

Exercise 4. Choose the right variant.

1. This bill was _____ in the last session of Parliament.
a) voided b) repealed c) abandoned d) renounced
2. This is a noble act, which _____ noble aims.
a) pursues b) chases c) is after d) follows
3. The bill must receive Royal _____.
a) assent b) approval c) approbation d) consent
4. The defeated nation _____ some of their land to the enemy.
a) conceded b) granted c) lost d) allowed
5. The former president _____ the election to the opposing party
a) conceded b) acknowledged c) admitted d) allowed

Exercise 5. Read the text and decide, which five of the following 10 points from the beginning of the text on the monarchy you would choose to include:

a) most ancient secular (non-religious) institution in UK
b) continuous history of over 1000 years
c) hereditary succession
d) Queen Elizabeth II became queen in 1952
e) integral part of legislature
f) head of judiciary
g) head of armed forces
h) temporal head of Church of England
i) constitutional position has changed from absolute power to no real power
j) remaining rights and duties are part of the "Royal Prerogative".

Exercise 6. Read the sentences and decide, which phrases express obligation or capacity.

Sentences	obligation	capacity
a) The Queen *must* act on the advice of her ministers.		
b) The monarch *is able* to remit penalties.		
c) The monarch's consent *is required* before a Cabinet can be formed.		
d) The monarch *has the power* to sign international agreements.		
e) The monarch *may not* be present at Privy Council meetings.		

Key: Obligation; a, c. Other expressions: has to; is compelled to; is forced to; has a duty to.
Capacity: b, d, e. Other expressions: can; has the capacity to; has the ability to.

JOHN SEALING MAGNA CHARTA. 1215.

THE BRITISH ROYAL FAMILY

The British Royal Family is the group of close relatives of the monarch of the UK.

The term is also commonly applied to the same group of people who are the relations of the monarch in her or his role as sovereign of any of the other Commonwealth realms, thus sometimes at variance with official national terms for the family. Members of the Royal Family belong to, either by birth or marriage, the House of Windsor, since 1917, when George V changed the name of the royal house from Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. This decision was primarily taken because Britain and her Empire were at war with Germany and given the British Royal Family's strong German ancestry; it was felt that its public image could be improved by choosing a more British house name.

The new name chosen, Windsor, had absolutely no connection other than as the name of the castle which was and continues to be a royal residence.

Queen Elizabeth is a large shareholder in one of the world biggest mining companies, while Queen Beatrix is the biggest share holder in Dutch Shell, an oil giant.

Prince Bernhard queen Beatrix's father was one of the founders of Bilderberg: a secretive group involving the elites and oligarchs that brainstorm the directionality of the world. Prince Philip was one of the founders of the World Life Fund. The Windsor family with Prince Charles is one of the largest promoters of the green agenda, and a world government to combat climate change.

Although the British Crowns legal power today is seemed symbolic, the Queen is still considered the official head of state of the countries of the Commonwealth.

All crown corporations and crown land would be under the British Monarch's dominion.

The queen is still on coins in the countries of her Commonwealth. Large amount of tax dollars every year go to the royal families of Europe from the countries they reside in. Now that's power!

Today, they often perform ceremonial and social duties throughout the UK and abroad on behalf of the UK. Aside from the monarch, their only constitutional role in the affairs of government is to serve, if eligible and when appointed by letters patent, as a Counsellor of State, two or more of whom exercise the authority of the Crown (within stipulated limits) in the disposal or absence from the British realm of the monarch. In the other realms of the Commonwealth royalty do not serve as Counsellors of State.

However, in each such realm the monarch's family members may act on behalf of, are funded by, and represent the sovereign of that particular state, and not the UK.

The Queen, her consort, her children and grandchildren, as well as all former sovereigns' children and grandchildren hold places in the first sections of the official orders of precedence in England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. Wives of the said enjoy their husbands' precedence, and husbands of princesses are unofficially but habitually placed with their wives as well.

However, the Queen changed the private order of precedence in the Royal Family in favour of Princesses Anne and Alexandra, who henceforth take private precedence over the Duchess of Cornwall, who is otherwise the realm's highest ranking woman after the Queen herself. She did not alter the relative precedence of other born-princesses, such as the daughters of her younger sons.

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

THE HISTORY OF THE HOUSE OF WINDSOR

The House of Windsor is the royal house of the Commonwealth realms. It was founded by King George V by royal proclamation on the 17 July 1917, when he changed the name of his family from the German Saxe-Coburg and Gotha (a branch of the House of Wettin) to the English Windsor, due to the anti-German sentiment in the UK during World War I.

Currently, the most prominent member of the House of Windsor is Queen Elizabeth II, the reigning monarch of the Commonwealth realms. Edward VII, in turn, his son, George V were members of the House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, a German ducal family, by virtue of their descent from Albert, Prince Consort, husband of Queen Victoria. High anti-German sentiment amongst the people of the British Empire during World War I reached a peak in March 1917, when the Gotha G.IV, a heavy aircraft capable of crossing the English Channel began bombing London directly.

The aircraft became a household name, and the name Gotha was part of the name of the royal family, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. These bombings were coupled with the abdication of King George's first cousin, Nicholas II, the Tsar of Russia on 15 March 1917, which raised the spectre of the eventual abolition of all the monarchies in Europe. The King and his family were finally convinced to abandon all titles held under the German Crown, to change German titles and house names to anglicised versions.

Hence, on 17 July 1917, a royal proclamation issued by George V declared: "Now, therefore, We, out of Our Royal Will and Authority, do hereby declare and announce that as from the date of this Our Royal Proclamation Our House and Family shall be styled and known as the House and Family of Windsor, and that all the descendants in the male line of Our said Grandmother Queen Victoria who are subjects of these Realms, other than female descendants who may marry or may have married, shall bear the said Name of Windsor". Upon hearing that his cousin had changed the name of the British royal house to Windsor, German Emperor Wilhelm II remarked jokingly that he planned to see Shakespeare's play The Merry Wives of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.The name had a long association with British royalty, through the town of Windsor, Berkshire and Windsor Castle, a link reflected in the Round Tower of Windsor Castle being the basis of the badge of the House of Windsor.

In 1917 Prince Louis of Battenberg adopted the surname Mountbatten, a partial translation into English. Prince Louis is the maternal grandfather of Prince Philip, DUKe of Edinburgh.

From 1917 to 1919, George V also stripped 15 of his German relations – most of whom belonged to the House of Hanover – of their British titles and styles of prince and princess.

On 9 April 1952, Queen Elizabeth II officially declared her "Will and Pleasure that I and My children shall be styled and known as the House and Family of Windsor, and that my descendants who marry and their descendants, shall bear the name of Windsor." On 8 February 1960, the Queen confirmed that she and her children would continue to be known as the House and Family of Windsor, as would any agnatic descendants who enjoy the style of Royal Highness, and the title of Prince or Princess.

Britain Royal Family

THE HISTORY OF THE HOUSE OF WETTIN

The House of Wettin is a dynasty of German counts, dUKes, prince-electors (Kurfürsten) and kings that once ruled the area of today's German states of Saxony, the Saxon part of Saxony-Anhalt, and Thuringia for more than 800 years as well as holding at times the kingship of Poland. Agnates of the House of Wettin have, at various times, ascended the thrones of Great Britain, Portugal, Bulgaria, Poland, Saxony, and Belgium; of these, only the British and Belgian lines retain their thrones today.

The oldest member of the House of Wettin who is known for certain was Thiedericus (died 982), who was probably based in the Liesgau (located at the western edge of the Harz). Around 1000, as part of the German conquest of Slavic territory, the family acquired Wettin Castle, after which they named themselves. Wettin Castle is located in Wettin in the Hosgau on the Saale River.

Around 1030, the Wettin family received the Eastern March as a fief. The prominence of the Wettin family in the Slavic marches caused Emperor Henry IV to invest them with the March of Meissen as a fief in 1089. The family advanced over the course of the Middle Ages: in 1263 they inherited the landgraviate of Thuringia (though without Hesse), and in 1423 they were invested with the Duchy of Saxony, centred at Wittenberg, thus becoming one of the prince-electors of the Holy Roman Empire. The family divided into two ruling branches in 1485 when the sons of Frederick II, Elector of Saxony divided the territories hitherto ruled jointly. The elder son Ernest, who had succeeded his father as Prince-elector, received the territories assigned to the Elector (Electoral Saxony) and Thuringia, while his younger brother Albert obtained the March of Meissen, which he ruled from Dresden.

As Albert ruled under the title of "DUKe of Saxony", his possessions were also known as Ducal Saxony. The older, Ernestine branch remained predominant until 1547 and played an important role in the beginnings of the Protestant Reformation. Their predominance ended in the Schmalkaldic War, which pitted the Protestant Schmalkaldic League against Emperor Charles V. Although itself Protestant, the Albertine branch rallied to the Empire's cause; Charles V rewarded them by forcing the Ernestines to sign away their rights to the Electoral title and lands to the Albertines.

The Ernestine line was thereafter restricted to Thuringia, and its dynastic unity swiftly crumbled.

The Albertine Wettin maintained most of the territorial integrity of Saxony, preserving it as a significant power in the region, and using small appanage fiefs for their cadet branches, few of which survived for significant lengths of time. The Ernestine Wettin, on the other hand, repeatedly subdivided their territory, creating an intricate patchwork of small duchies and counties in Thuringia.

The junior Albertine branch ruled as Electors (1547-1806) and Kings of Saxony (1806-1918) and played a role in Polish history: two Wettin were Kings of Poland (between 1697-1763) and a third ruled the Duchy of Warsaw (1807-1814) as a satellite of Napoleon. After the Napoleonic Wars, the Albertine branch lost about 40% of its lands, including the old Electoral Saxony, to Prussia, restricting it to a territory coextensive with the modern Saxony.

SAXE-COBURG AND GOTHA

MONARCHS OF GREAT BRITIAN -1707 - PRESENT
HOUSE OF STUART

Queen Anne had been queen of England, Scotland and Ireland since 8 March 1702, and so became Queen of Great Britain upon the Union of England and Scotland.

Portrait	Birth	Marriages	Death
	6 February 1665 St. James's Palace daughter of James II and VII and Anne Hyde	George of Denmark St. James's Palace 28 July 1683 17 children	1 August 1714 Kensington Palace aged 49

HOUSE OF HANOVER

The Hanoverian succession came about as a result of the Act of Settlement 1701, passed by the Parliament of England. In return for access to the English plantations in North America, the Hanoverian succession and the Union were ratified by the Parliament of Scotland in 1707. After the death of Anne with no living children, George I, the son of Sophia of Hanover, granddaughter of James VI of Scotland and I of England through his daughter Elizabeth of Bohemia, was the closest Protestant heir to the throne.

Portrait	Birth	Marriages	Death
	28 May 1660 Leineschloss son of Ernest Augustus, Elector of Brunswick-Lüneburg and Sophia of Hanover	Sophia Dorothea of Brunswick-Lueneburg-Celle 21 November 1682 2 children	11 June 1727 Osnabruck aged 67
	30 October 1683 Herrenhausen son of George I and Sophia Dorothea of Brunswick-Lueneburg-Celle	Caroline of Ansbach 22 August 1705 8 children	25 October 1760 Kensington Palace aged 76

Portrait	Birth	Marriages	Death
	4 June 1738 Norfolk House son of Frederick, Prince of Wales and Princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha	Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz 8 September 1761 15 children	29 January 1820 Windsor Castle aged 81
	12 August 1762 St James's Palace son of George III and Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz	(1) Maria Anne Fitzherbert 15 September 1785 (2) Caroline of Brunswick 8 April 1795 1 daughter	26 June 1830 Windsor aged 67
	21 August 1765 Buckingham Palace son of George III and Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz	Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen 13 July 1818 2 children	20 June 1837 aged 71
	24 May 1819 daughter of Prince Edward, DUKe of Kent and Strathearn and Princess Victoria of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld	Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha 10 February 1840 9 children	22 January 1901 aged 81

HOUSE OF SAXE-COBURG & GOTHA

Although he was the son and heir of Victoria, Edward VII inherited his father's names and is therefore counted as inaugurating a new royal house.

Portrait	Birth	Marriages	Death
	9 November 1841 Buckingham Palace son of Victoria and Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	Alexandra of Denmark St George's Chapel 10 March 1863 6 children	6 May 1910 Buckingham Palace aged 68

THE ROYAL FAMILY IN GREAT BRITAIN TODAY

Princess Elizabeth Alexandra Mary was born in London on 21 April 1926; she was educated privately, and assumed official duties at 16. On the death of George VI in 1952 she succeeded to the throne while in Kenya with her husband and was crowned on 2 June 1953.

The reign of Queen Elizabeth II since 1952 has spanned a period of rapid and occasionally turbulent change. Britain's positions in the world, its economy, the very shape and structures of society have all been transformed and many traditional institutions have suffered in the process.

Through all this, the path of the Crown has been marked out by the Queen herself, in a prolonged display of unwavering devotion to duty and quiet pragmatism which has met a nationally-felt need, and has won her the respect and affection of her peoples. As hereditary head of State for Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and Head of the Commonwealth, she has symbolic and formal functions and duties but no direct powers. She is an embodiment of national identity and continuity and, with her family, performs countless formalities to mark events in the lives of individuals and communities and provides valuable patronage for innumerable charities. Elizabeth II is now the longest reigning British monarch since Queen Victoria, and the Queen's Golden Jubilee in 2002 and Diamond Jubilee in 2012 were celebrated with enthusiasm and displays of loyalty.

The Prince of Wales, after suffering a period of unpopularity, has shown resilience and willingness to meet the public half-way in its new mood. His long-established concern for the disadvantaged sections of society and support of "green" environmental issues; his evident devotion to his two sons Prince William and Harry has won him a real measure of respect.

This has altered significantly in recent times with the Queen's decision to pay tax, changes being made to the Civil List, and the opening of Buckingham Palace to the public to help fund the restoration of Windsor Castle. Debate about the future of the monarchy continues, but the Royal Family has shown itself willing to contemplate evolutionary change, and the Crown of Britain has entered the second decade of the 21st century with renewed vigour and fresh purpose.

Exercise 1. Answer the questions.

1. What has the Queen done recently? 2. How can you characterize the activity of the Prince of Wales? 3. Does the Queen have symbolic and formal functions and duties but no direct powers? 4. When was the Queen's Diamond and Golden Jubilees celebrated? 5. What has won her the respect and affection of her peoples? 6. Has the Royal Family shown itself willing to contemplate evolutionary change? 7. Who is now the longest reigning British monarch since Queen Victoria? 8. Has the Crown of Britain entered the second decade of the 21st century with renewed vigour & fresh purpose, hasn't she?

Exercise 2. Complete the text on "The Royal Assent" by translating phrases in the brackets.

Once both Houses of Parliament have passed a (законопроект), then it has to go to the (королева) for the (королевская санкция). If she had been living 500 years ago, the Queen would have (подписать) all Bills herself. She would also have gone in person to the (Палата лордов) to announce in Norman French whether she agreed to a Bill or wished (отклонить) it. No (монархи) since the 16th century have signed Bills themselves. There are now two ways in which the Queen can assent to a Bill. Usually she signs what are known as Letters Patent, which allow the two Houses (спикер палати лордов) and (лорд-канцлер) to announce that the Queen has given her (санкции).

The other method of giving the Royal Assent occurs about once a year. The Queen signs a document known as a Commission, which commands certain (лорды), known as Royal Commissioners, to go to the House of Lords and let (члены) of both Houses know the Royal Assent has been given.

The ceremony for Royal Assent by Commission is rather like the State Opening Ceremony.

Once a Bill has received the Royal Assent it becomes an (закон парламента). A Bill usually takes several months to complete all its stages in (парламент).

Exercise 3. Explain the notion «aristocracy».

When one hears the word "aristocracy", the picture of a king, queen, or nobleman comes to mind. The word aristocracy, which is a form of government, comes from the Greek words "aristos" and "kratos", which mean the "rule by the best". Some have described Britain as being a "class ridden society", a society which is still based on wealth. In Britain, the aristocracy refers to the upper class – the wealthy and ruling class. This class is predominately made up of members of royalty and nobility.

Many do not know that there is a distinction between nobility and royalty in regards to the aristocracy in Britain. If one is deemed royalty, it means that they were born into their position.

Therefore, only the king and queen and their direct relations can be considered royalty. On the other hand, nobility is a title conferred upon a person if they meet certain requirements, which include being wealthy and already being a part of the aristocratic population.

It was common for royalty to confer titles of nobility on these members of the society. In the past, those owning great tracts of land were assured of wealth and political power. Along with their land, the British aristocrats usually possessed valuable works of art and elegant homes.

In today's modern Britain, the aristocracy is still alive and well. Research has shown that approximately 70% of the land is owned by only 0.6% of the population. A great majority of these land owners are from the same families that owned the land in the 19th century. This leads us to the British aristocracy today.

Exercise 4. Write a short essay on the topic.

CIVIL LIST

A civil list is a list of individuals to whom money is paid by the government. It is a term especially associated with the UK and its former colonies of Canada and New Zealand.

It was originally defined as expenses supporting the monarch. Morocco has a civil list defined in its constitution of 1996. In the UK, the Civil List was, until 2011, the annual grant that covered some expenses associated with the Sovereign performing their official duties, including those for staff salaries, State Visits, public engagements, ceremonial functions and the upkeep of the Royal Households.

The cost of transport and security for the Royal Family, together with property maintenance and other sundry expenses, were covered by separate grants from individual Government Departments. The Civil List was abolished under the Sovereign Grant Act 2011.

Following the "Glorious Revolution" of 1688, the expenses relating to the support of the monarch were largely separated from the ordinary expenses of the State managed by the Exchequer.

This was a reaction to the reigns of Charles II and James II of England (James VII of Scotland), whose large revenues had made them independent of Parliament.

In 1697, Parliament under William III and Mary II fixed The Crown's peacetime revenue at £1,200,000 per year; of this about £700,000 was appropriated towards the Civil List.

The Sovereigns were expected to use this to defray some of the costs of running the civil government (such as the Civil Service, judges' and ambassadors' salaries) and the payment of pensions, as well as the expenses of the Royal Household and the Sovereign's personal expenses.

It was from this that the term "Civil List" arose, to distinguish it from the statement of military and naval expenses which were funded through special taxation.

The accession of George III in 1760 marked a significant change in royal finances. As his predecessor, George II, had failed to meet all of the specific costs of the civil government in accordance with the previous arrangement, it was decided that George III would surrender the hereditary revenues from the Crown Estate to Parliament for the duration of his reign, and in return Parliament would assume responsibility for most of the costs of the civil government. Parliament would continue to pay the Civil List, which would defray the expenses of the Royal Household and some of the costs of the civil government. George III, however, retained the income from the Duchy of Lancaster.

On the accession of William IV in 1830, the sum voted for the Civil List was restricted to the expenses of the Royal Household, removing any residual responsibilities associated with the cost of the civil government. This finally removed any links between the Sovereign and the cost of the civil government. On the accession of Queen Victoria, the Civil List Act 1837 – which reiterated the principles of the civil list system and specified all prior Acts as in force – was passed.

Upon the accession of subsequent monarchs prior Acts down to Queen Elizabeth II, this constitutional arrangement was confirmed, but the historical term "Civil List" remained even though the grant had nothing to do with the expenses of the civil government. In 1931 George V decided to eschew the £50,000 due to him from the Civil List as a result of the Great Depression. George had felt it was possible to reject the grant by "exercise of the most rigid economy" and that Queen Mary and other royal family members were "desirous that reductions in these grants should be made during this time of national crisis".

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

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

The last British monarch to receive Civil List payments was Elizabeth II. The Civil List for her reign lasted from her accession in 1952 until its abolition in 2012. During this period the Queen, as head of state, used the Civil List to defray some of the official expenditure of the monarchy.

Only The Queen, the DUKe of Edinburgh and the Queen Mother ever received direct funding from the Civil List. The Prince of Wales and his immediate family (Camilla, Duchess of Cornwall, the DUKe and Duchess of Cambridge, Prince Harry) received their income from the Duchy of Cornwall.

The state duties and staff of other members of the Royal Family were funded from a parliamentary annuity, the amount of which was fully refunded by the Queen to the treasury.

The Queen's consort (Prince Philip, DUKe of Edinburgh) received £359,000 per year.

The Queen was permitted to claim these amounts as a deduction against her gross income from personal investments and other sources – the net amount, after deductions, was subject to normal income tax. The last two decades of the Civil List were marked by surpluses and deficits.

Surpluses in the 1991-2000 Civil List caused by low inflation and the efforts of the Queen and her staff to make the Royal Household more efficient led to the accrual of a £35.3 mln reserve by late 2000. Consequently, the Civil List was fixed at £7.9 mln annually in 2001, the same amount as in 1991, and remained at that level until its abolition.

The reserve was then used to make up the shortfall in the Civil List during the subsequent decade. The Civil List Act 1972 forbade parliament from reducing any of these payments.

The abolition of the Civil List was announced in the spending review statement to the House of Commons on 20 October 2010 by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, George Osborne. In its place, he said, "the Royal Household will receive a new Sovereign Support Grant linked to a portion of the revenue of the Crown Estate". The Crown Estate is a statutory corporation, run on commercial lines by the Crown Estate Commissioners and generates revenue for HM Treasury every year.

This income is received by the Crown and given to the state as a result of the agreement reached in 1760 that has been renewed at the beginning of each subsequent reign.

The Sovereign Grant Act 2011 received Royal Assent on 18 October 2011. Under this Act, the Sovereign Grant now funds all of the official expenditure of the monarchy, not just the expenditure previously borne by the Civil List. These are pensions traditionally granted by the Sovereign from the Civil List upon the recommendation of the First Lord of the Treasury. The Civil List Act 1837 applied the condition that any new pensions should be "granted to such persons only as have just claims on the royal beneficence or who by their personal services to the Crown, or by the performance of duties to the public, or by their useful discoveries in science and attainments in literature and the arts, have merited the gracious consideration of their sovereign and the gratitude of their country."

Famous recipients include William Wordsworth, William Barnes, Geraldine Jewsbury, Margaret Oliphant, Christopher Logue, and Molly Parkin. (Lord Byron is often said to have received a civil list pension, but his mother was the actual recipient.)

As of 1911, a sum of £1,200 was allotted each year from the Civil List, in addition to the pensions already in force. From a Return issued in 1908, the total of Civil List pensions payable in that year amounted to £24,665. In the financial year 2012-13 the annual cost of Civil List pensions paid to 53 people was £126,293. New Civil List pensions continue to be awarded occasionally.

In Canada the civil list was a common term during the pre-confederation period; it referred to the payment for all officials on the government payroll. There was much controversy as to whether the list would be controlled by the Governor or by the Legislative Assembly.

The Assembly demanded control of all money matters, while the Governors worried that if the Assembly was given this power, then certain positions would be delisted. Eventually under the Baldwin-Lafontaine government, a compromise was reached with Lord Elgin.

PRIVY PURSE

The Privy Purse is the British Sovereign's private income, mostly from the Duchy of Lancaster.

The Duchy is a landed estate of approximately 46,000 acres (200 km²) held in trust for the Sovereign since 1399. It has 190 mi (500 km) of foreshore. The land is organised into the Lancashire Survey, the Yorkshire Survey, the Crewe Survey, the Nedwood Estate and the South Survey.

The Sovereign is not entitled to the Duchy's capital, but the net revenues of the Duchy are the property of the Sovereign in right of the Duchy of Lancaster.

While the income is private, the Queen uses the larger part of it to meet official expenses incurred by other members of the British Royal Family. Only the Queen and the Duke of Edinburgh receive payments from Parliament that are not reimbursed by the Queen.

The Chancellor of Lancaster Duchy, who is the equivalent of the chairman of the trustees, has for the past several centuries always been a Government minister, although this is not a requirement.

The Keeper of the Privy Purse looks after the Sovereign's personal financial affairs. His title is derived from the Privy Purse (an embroidered bag borne by the Keeper at a coronation), which contrasts with his Department's present-day use of computers and up-to-date accounting procedures.

He manages the revenues, which come from the Duchy of Lancaster. The Privy Purse meets both official expenditure incurred by The Queen as Sovereign and private one.

In recent years the office of Keeper has been held jointly with that of *Treasurer to the Queen*, who is responsible for the use of the Civil List, funds used to meet official expenditure relating to the Queen's duties as Head of State. He oversees the grant-in-aid from the Royal Household for the maintenance of the occupied Royal Palaces (Buckingham Palace and St. James' Palace) and their gardens and for the financial aspects of Royal travel, personnel matters in the Royal Household, the Queen's private estates (Balmoral Castle & Sandringham House), for the commercial activities of the Royal Collection Trust. In the past, the UK's Civil Government day-to-day costs were paid for by the sovereign under normal circumstances, the money in this *Public Purse* being raised from the income of the Crown Estate lands and holdings. Under extraordinary circumstances, namely in time of war or during budget shortfalls, Parliament raised additional money through taxation.

The system was to a large degree self-funding through the Crown's large holdings, taxes being applied only when necessary, always at the risk of public outcry. Taxes were normally very low, and the necessity to go to Parliament to fund wars was an effective check on the monarch's power.

As the role of the government increased in the 18th century, the Public Purse was increasingly unable to raise enough to fund the development of the country.

In 1760 when George III came to the throne, it was decided that the whole cost of civil government should be provided by Parliament, with the crown surrendering most of the hereditary revenues (principally the net surplus of the Crown Estate) by the King for the duration of the reign.

In this new system, Parliament was responsible for the finances of the UK, including paying the Crown the Civil List allowance to meet the Sovereign's official expenses. In 2012 the Civil List was replaced by the Sovereign Grant Act 2011.

Exercise 1. Give the main idea of the information above in English.

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

Exercise 3. Characterize the main functions of the Queen.

At the head of the UK is the King, as at present, the Queen. But her power is very symbolic. Everything is done in Queen's name. But her power is not absolute; it is limited in many various ways. It is said that the Queen reigns but does not rule. She personally does not decide what action the state shall take. The hereditary principle still operates and the Crown is passed on to the sovereign's eldest son (daughter if there are no sons). The Queen has a central role in state affairs, not only through her ceremonial functions, such as opening the Parliament, but because she meets the Prime Minister every week and receives copies of all Cabinet papers.

Functions of the Queen:

- opening and closing Parliament;
- approving the appointment of the Prime Minister;
- giving her Royal Assent to bills;
- giving honours such as peerages, knighthoods and medals;
- Head of the Commonwealth;
- Head of the Church of England;
- Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces.

Just for fun

Here are some more facts about the Queen and her family. The Queen meets thousands of people every year. She has to shake hands with each of them, and she has to find something interesting to say. If you meet the Queen you should call her "*Your Majesty*", then "*Ma'am*". The other Princes and Princesses are "*Your Highness*", then "*Sir*", or "*Madam*". When she wants to end a conversation, she takes a half step backwards, smiling broadly, then moves on.

Exercise 4. Remember that.

Ten things the Queen could do by using the royal prerogative.

▪ Dismiss the Government.	▪ Give territory away to a foreign power.
▪ Declare war.	▪ Make everyone a peer.
▪ Disband the army.	▪ Declare a State of Emergency.
▪ Sell all the ships in the Navy.	▪ Pardon all offenders.
▪ Dismiss the Civil Service.	▪ Create universities in every parish in the UK.

The Queen's particular likes	Dislikes of the Queen
▪ Horse racing.	▪ Ivy
▪ Scottish country dancing.	▪ Tennis, including Wimbledon
▪ Jig-saw puzzles.	▪ Milk pudding
▪ Long-stemmed, deep-pink carnations.	▪ Dictating letters
▪ Champagne	▪ The cold
▪ Deerstalking.	▪ Snails
▪ Quiet evenings at home watching television with her supper on a tray.	▪ Any talk of Edward VIII
▪ Crossword puzzles.	▪ Cigar smoke
▪ Bright red dresses.	▪ Sailing
▪ The Beatles film "*Yellow Submarine*".	▪ Crouse

Exercise 5. Choose the correct variant.

1. Positions in the Royal Household receive good ____ and benefits.

a) reward b) recompense c) repayment d) remuneration

2. A number of vacancies ____ on regular basis.

a) happen b) befall c) occur d) fall out

3. Since 1917 the Sovereign has sent congratulatory ____ to those celebrating his 100th and 105th birthday and every year thereafter.

a) commissions b) errands c) missions d) messages

4. The section of Royal finances ____ information about the 4 sources of funding of the Queen.

a) comprises b) contents c) involves d) includes

5. These pages ____ information about the financial arrangements of the Royal Family members.

a) contain b) hold c) comprise d) include

6. The ____ are (is) transferred from other funding sources to the Civil List.

a) outgoings b) outlays c) expenses d) costs

7. The Duchy's founding charter ____ the gift of estates spread throughout England.

a) included b) comprised c) contained d) involved

8. After 660 years the Duchy's land holdings have become more ____.

a) manifold b) multifarious c) diversified d) various

9. The Sovereign is unable to generate _____ new wealth through earnings or business activities.

a) essential b) important c) serious d) significant

10. Many of the most familiar objects and ____ in national life incorporate Royal symbols or represent the monarchy in some way.

a) events b) occurrences c) chances d) incidents

Exercise 6. Answer the questions.

1. What powers does the Queen have in government? 2. Who is next in line to the British crown after Prince Charles? 3. How can Parliament control the Royal Family? 4. What connections are there between the Royal Family and the world outside Britain? 5. Which member of the Royal Family has the highest number of public engagement?

Exercise 7. Choose the correct variant.

1. The Royal Collections must be passed ____ to the Queen's successor in due course.
a) over b) on c) out d) down

2. Royal symbols play a (n)____ part in our daily existence.
a) significant b) essential c) important d) expressive

3. For data privacy ____ there is no automatic alert from government records for wedding anniversaries.
a) causes b) reasons c) motives d) the whys and wherefores (of)

4. Elizabeth has managed to ____ a division between her public and private life.
a) carry on b) keep up c) preserve d) maintain

5. Her knowledge of current situations and trends is ____ up to date.
a) carelessly b) incautiously c) uncannily d) dangerous

6. Everybody was impressed and ____ by Elizabeth's knowledge and wit.
a) delighted b) rejoiced c) enjoyed d) pleased

7. Elizabeth ____ the character of the monarchy through her actions.
a) raised b) elevated c) promoted d) rose

8. Elizabeth's long reign has ____ a bright spot in the life of her country.
a) supported b) supplied c) provided d) secured

9. Since the beginning of the ____ century the monarch had the right to make and pass legislation. a) 19th b) 18th c) 17th d) 16th

10. On almost all ____ the monarch acts on the advice of ministers.
a) issues b) affairs c) matters d) cases

Exercise 8. Each group of countries on the right has the same state system. Can you find it from the list on the left?

1. People's Republic	a) Bahrain, Brunei, Oman, Saudi Arabia
2. Colony	b) Bermuda, the Falkland Islands, Gibraltar, Hong Kong (until 1997)
3. Constitutional Monarchy	c) Brazil, India, Mexico, the USA
4. Federal Republic	d) Egypt, France, Indonesia, Peru
5. Republic	e) Belgium, Denmark, Japan, the Netherland
6. Monarchy	f) Birma, China, Ethiopia, Mozambique

Key: 2 / b; 3 / e; 4 / c; 5 / d; 6 / a (all these states are defined as monarchies. Brunei and Oman are sultanates; Bahrain is an emirate)

UNIT II. NATIONAL SYMBALLS OF GREAT BRITAIN

INTRODUCTION

The national symbols of England are things which are emblematic, representative or otherwise characteristic of England or English culture. Some are established, official symbols; the Royal Arms of England, which has been codified in heraldry. Other symbols may not have official status, for one reason or another, but are likewise recognised at a national or international level.

The national flag of England, known as St. George's Cross, has been England's national flag since the 13th century. Originally the flag was used by the maritime state the Republic of Genoa.

The English monarch paid a tribute to the Doge of Genoa from 1190 onwards, so that English ships could fly the flag as a means of protection when entering the Mediterranean. A red cross acted as a symbol for many Crusaders in the 12th & 13th centuries. It became associated with Saint George, along with countries & cities, which claimed him as their patron saint and used his cross as a banner.

Since 1606 the . George's Cross has formed part of the design of the Union Flag, a Pan-British flag designed by King James I. The Royal Banner of England (the Banner of the Royal Arms, the Banner of the King) is the English banner of arms; it features the Royal Arms of England. This Royal Banner differs from England's national flag, St George's Cross, in that it does not represent any particular area or land, but rather symbolises the sovereignty vested in the rulers thereof.

The Royal Arms of England is a coat of arms symbolising England and the English monarchs.

Designed in the High Middle Ages, the Royal Arms was subject to significant alteration as the territory, politics and rule of the Kingdom of England shifted throughout the Middle Ages.

However, the enduring *blazon*, or technical description, is "Gules three lions passant guardant in pale Or armed and langued Azure", meaning three horizontally positioned, identical gold lions facing the observer, with blue tongues and claws, on a deep red background. Although officially subsumed into the heraldry of the British Royal Family in 1707, the historic Royal Arms featuring three lions continues to represent England on several coins of the pound sterling, forms the basis of several emblems of English national sports teams (the England national football team), and endures as one of the most recognisable national symbols of England.

St. Edward's Crown was one of the English Crown Jewels and remains one of the senior Crown Jewels of the UK, often being used as the coronation crown. Since 1952, two-dimensional representations of the crown have been used in coats of arms, badges, and various other insignia to indicate the authority of the monarch throughout the Commonwealth realms.

The Tudor rose, which takes its name from the Tudor dynasty, was adopted as a national emblem of England around the time of the Wars of the Roses as a symbol of peace.

It is a syncretic symbol in that it merged the white rose of the Yorkists and the red rose of the Lancastrians – cadet branches of the Plantagenets – who went to war over control of the royal house. It is also known as the Rose of England.

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

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

The national flag of the UK is the Union Jack, known as the Union Flag. The current design of the Union Jack dates from the union of Ireland and Great Britain in 1801.

It consists of the red cross of Saint George (patron saint of England, edged in white, superimposed on the Cross of St Patrick (patron saint of Ireland), which are superimposed on the Saltire of Saint Andrew (patron saint of Scotland). Wales is not represented in the Union Flag by Wales's patron saint, Saint David, as at the time the flag was designed Wales was part of the Kingdom of England.

The flag's standard height-to-length proportions are 1:2. The war flag variant used by the British Army modifies the proportions to 3:5 and crops two of the red diagonals.

The earlier flag of Great Britain was established in 1606 by a proclamation of King James VI and I of Scotland and England. The new flag of the UK was officially created by an Order in Council of 1801, reading as follows: The Union Flag shall be azure, the Crosses saltire of Saint Andrew and Saint Patrick quarterly per saltire, counter-changed, argent and gules, the latter fimbriated of the second, surmounted by the Cross of Saint George of the third fimbriated as the saltire.

The Union Flag can be flown by any individual or organisation in Great Britain on any day of their choice. Legal regulations restrict the use of the Union Flag on Government buildings in Northern Ireland. Long-standing restrictions on Government use of the flag elsewhere were abolished in July 2007. While the flag appears symmetric, the white lines above and below the diagonal red are different widths. On the side closer to the flagpole (or on the left when depicted on paper), the white lines above the diagonals are wider; on the side farther from the flagpole, the converse is true. Thus, no change will be apparent when rotating the flag 180 degrees, but if mirrored the flag will be upside-down.

Placing the flag upside down is considered lèse majesté and is offensive to some. However, it can be flown upside down as a distress signal. While this is rare, it was used by groups under siege during the Boer War and during campaigns in India in the late 18th century.

St. Patrick's Saltire

The reason that the UK flag is not symmetrical is because of the relative positions of the saltires of St Patrick and St Andrew. The red saltire of St Patrick is offset such that it does not relegate the white saltire of St Andrew to a mere border. St Andrew's saltire has the higher position at the hoist side with St Patrick's saltire in the higher position on the opposite side.

The Union Flag is flown from Government buildings at half-mast in the following situations:

- from the announcement of the death of the Sovereign (exception is made for Proclamation Day – the day the new Sovereign is proclaimed, when the Flag is flown at full mast from 11 a.m. to sunset);
- the day of the funeral of a member of the British Royal Family;
- the funeral of a foreign Head of State;
- the funeral of a former British Prime Minister.

The Sovereign sometimes declares other days when the Union Flag is to fly at half-mast. Half-mast means the flag is flown two-thirds of the way up the flagpole with at least the height of the flag between the top of the flag and the top of the flagpole. Until July 2007, the Union Flag was only flown on Government buildings on a limited number of special days each year. The choice of days was managed by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS).

Government buildings are those used by civil servants, the Crown, or the armed forces. They were not applicable to private citizens, corporations, or local authorities.

On 3 July 2007, the Justice Secretary Jack Straw laid a green paper before Parliament entitled *The Governance of Britain*. Alongside a range of proposed changes to the constitutional arrangements of the UK was a specific announcement that there would be consultation on whether the rules on flag-flying on Government buildings should be relaxed.

Two days later, Prime Minister Gordon Brown announced that with immediate effect the Union Flag would fly from the flag pole above the front entrance of 10 Downing Street on every day of the year. The intention was to increase feelings of British national identity. Other Government departments were asked to follow this lead, all Government buildings in Whitehall did so. James Purnell, Culture Secretary from June 2007 to January 2008 in Brown's administration, subsequently concurred with the abolition of the restrictions – pending consultation on longer term arrangements. The flag days directed by the DCMS include birthdays of members of the Royal Family, the wedding anniversary of the Monarch, Commonwealth Day, Accession Day, Coronation Day, The Queen's official birthday, Remembrance Sunday and on the days of the State Opening and prorogation of Parliament.

In Scotland, the Scottish Government has decreed that the Flag of Scotland ("the Saltire") will fly on all its buildings every day from 8 am until sunset, but there is no specific policy on flying the Union Flag and as such it is sometimes flown alongside the Saltire and sometimes omitted.

An exception is made for "national days". On these days, the Saltire shall be lowered and replaced with the Union Flag. These are the same as the flag days noted above with the exception of: 3 September: Merchant Navy Day. Another difference is that on Saint Andrew's Day, the Union Flag can only be flown if the building has more than one flagpole – the Saltire will not be lowered to make way for the Union Flag if there is only one flagpole.

In Northern Ireland, the Union Flag is flown from buildings of the Northern Ireland Office as decreed by Regulations published in 2000. The Regulations were amended in 2002 to remove the requirement to fly the flag on the birthdays of Queen Elizabeth, the Queen Mother and Princess Margaret, Countess of Snowdon who both died that year. The current flag days are now the same as the UK government days noted above with the exception of the Duchess of Cornwall's birthday, which was only added to the UK flag days after her wedding to the Prince of Wales in 2005, and has not yet been extended to Northern Ireland. The Police Service of Northern Ireland is the only body in the UK that is not permitted to fly the Union Flag, and is only permitted to fly its service flag or the Royal Standard in the event of a visit by the Sovereign.

In November 2007 the then culture minister Margaret Hodge said she would consider a redesign of the Union Flag to incorporate the Welsh dragon, during a debate in the House of Commons on the frequency with which the flag flies above public buildings.

The issue was initially raised by Ian Lucas, another Labour MP, who complained that the flag introduced in 1606 following the accession of James VI of Scotland to the English throne as James I combined the cross of St. George and the saltire of St. Andrew. This principle continued in 1801 when the St Patrick cross was incorporated following the Union with Ireland Act 1800.

Lucas claimed the identity of Wales had been suppressed ever since the Laws in Wales Acts 1535-1542. In the debate, Albert Owen MP said that "we in Wales do not feel part of the union flag because the dragon or the cross of St. David is not on it." Conservative MP Stewart Jackson described the comments as "eccentric".

As of 2013, numerous proposals were made about how the Union Flag might be altered to create a flag for the union of England, Wales and Northern Ireland after possible Scottish independence.

The College of Arms stated that there would be no need to change the flag in those circumstances, and the existing flag could continue to be used if desired. Regarding the removal of Scottish heraldic features from the Union Flag, the Court of the Lord Lyon stated in 2012 that " would be speculation at this stage, and we could only cross that bridge if we came to it."

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

Exercise 2. Choose the correct variant. Use the information from the text.

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

Exercise 4. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

THE ROYAL COAT OF ARMS OF THE UK

The royal coat of arms of the UK, or the Royal Arms for short, is the official coat of arms of the British monarch, currently Queen Elizabeth II. These arms are used by the Queen in her official capacity as monarch of the UK. Variants of the Royal Arms are used by other members of the British royal family; and by the British government in connection with the administration and government of the country. In Scotland, there exists a separate version of the Royal Arms, a variant of which is used by the Scotland Office. The arms in banner form serve as basis for the monarch's official flag, known as the *Royal Standard*. In the standard variant used outside of Scotland, the shield is quartered, depicting in the first and fourth quarters the three passant guardant lions of England; in the second, the rampant lion and double tressure flory-counterflory of Scotland; and in the third, a harp for Ireland. The crest is a statant guardant lion wearing the St. Edward's Crown, himself on another representation of that crown. The dexter supporter is a likewise crowned English lion; the sinister, a Scottish unicorn.

According to legend a free unicorn was considered a very dangerous beast; therefore the heraldic unicorn is chained, as were both supporting unicorns in the royal coat of arms of Scotland.

In the greenery below, a thistle, Tudor rose and shamrock are depicted, representing Scotland, England and Ireland respectively. This armorial achievement comprises the motto, in French, of English monarchs, *Dieu et mon Droit* (God & my Right), which has descended to the present royal family as well as the Garter circlet which surrounds the shield, inscribed with the Order's motto, *Honi soit qui mal y pense* (Shame on him who thinks evil). The official blazon of the Royal Arms is: The Royal Arms as shown above may only be used by the Queen herself. They appear in courtrooms, since the monarch is deemed to be the fount of judicial authority in the UK and law courts comprise part of the ancient royal court (thus so named). Judges are officially Crown representatives, demonstrated by the display of the Royal Arms behind the judge's bench in all UK courts (with the exceptions of the magistrates' court in the City of London, where behind the Justices of the Peace stands a sword upright flanked by the arms of the City and the Crown).

In Northern Ireland, the Royal Arms cannot be displayed in courtrooms or on court-house exteriors. There are a few exceptions, with the Royal Arms allowed to be displayed in the courtrooms of the Royal Courts of Justice in Belfast; the courts in Armagh, Banbridge, Downpatrick, Magherafelt, or Omagh may be shown on the exterior of court buildings that had them in place prior to the 2002 law.

As the UK is governed in the monarch's name, the British Government uses the Royal Arms as a national symbol of the UK; in that capacity, the coat of arms can be seen on several government documents and forms, passports, in the entrance to embassies and consulates, etc.

However, when used by the government and not by the monarch personally, the coat of arms is often represented without the helm. This is the case with the sovereign's Scottish arms, a version of which is used by the Scotland Office.

The Royal Arms have regularly appeared on the coinage produced by the Royal Mint including, for example, from 1663, the Guinea and, from 1983, the British one pound coin.

In 2008, a new series of designs for all seven coins of £1 and below was unveiled by the Royal Mint, every one of which is drawn from the Royal Arms. The full Royal Arms appear on the one pound coin, and sections appear on each of the other six, such that they can be put together like a puzzle to make another complete representation of the Royal Arms.

The monarch grant Royal Warrants to select businesses and tradespeople which supply the Royal Household with goods or services. This entitles those business to display the Royal Arms on their packaging and stationery by way of advertising. It is customary (but not mandatory) for churches throughout the UK whether in the Church of England or the Church of Scotland to display the Royal Arms to show loyalty to the Crown.

A banner of the Royal Arms, known as the Royal Standard, is flown from the royal palaces when the monarch is in residence, Windsor Castle and Buckingham Palace being her principal abodes; and from public buildings only when the monarch is present. This protocol equally applies to the monarch's principal residences in Scotland (the Palace of Holyroodhouse and Balmoral Castle), where the Royal Standard (Scottish version) is flown.

When the monarch is not in residence the Union Flag, or in Scotland the ancient Royal Standard of Scotland, is flown. The widely sold British newspaper *The Times* uses the Hanoverian Royal Arms as a logo, whereas its sister publication, *The Sunday Times*, displays the current Royal Arms. The Royal Arms are displayed in all courts in British Columbia, as well as in other Canadian provinces such as Ontario, where the judges are appointed by Crown authority. The Royal Arms were displayed by all Viceroys of Australia as representation of their Crown authority.

The Royal Arms are used and displayed in the Supreme Courts of South Australia and Victoria.

The Royal Arms were controversially used by former Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher as her official letterhead from 1997.

Scotland

Since the Union of the Crowns in 1603, a separate version of the Royal Arms has been used in Scotland, giving the Scottish elements pride of place. The shield is quartered, depicting in the first and fourth quarters the lion *rampant* of Scotland; in the second, the three lions *passant guardant* of England; and in the third, the harp of Ireland. The crest atop the Crown of Scotland is a red lion, seated and forward facing, itself wearing the Crown of Scotland and holding the two remaining elements of the Honours of Scotland, namely the Sword of State and the Sceptre of Scotland. This was the crest used in the Royal Arms of the Kingdom of Scotland. The motto, in Scots, appears above the crest, in the tradition of Scottish heraldry, is an abbreviated form of the full motto: *In My Defens God Me Defend*. The supporters change sides and both appear wearing the crowns of their respective Kingdom. The dexter supporter is a crowned and chained unicorn, symbolising Scotland.

The sinister supporter is a crowned lion, symbolising England. Between each supporter and the shield is a lance displaying the flag of their respective Kingdom. The coat features both the motto *Nemo me impune lacessit* (No one wounds (touches) me with impunity), surrounding the shield, the collar of the Order of the Thistle. On the compartment are a number of thistles, Scotland's national flower.

England & Wales & Northern Ireland

Unlike the Acts of Union 1707 with Scotland, the Acts of Union 1800 with Ireland did not provide for a separate Irish version of the royal arms. The crest of the Kingdom of Ireland has had little or no official use since the union. When the Irish Free State established its own seals in the 1930s, the "Fob Seal" used on letters of credence varied the British arms by having the harp in two quarters.

The harp quarter of the Royal Arms represents Ireland on both the English & Scottish versions.

Likewise, one English quarter is retained in the Scottish version, one Scottish quarter is retained in the English version. Thus, England, Scotland and Ireland are represented in all versions of the Royal Arms since they came under one monarch. By contrast, there is no representation at all for Wales in the Royal Arms, as at the Act of Union 1707 Wales was an integral part of the Kingdom of England pursuant to the Laws in Wales Acts 1535 and 1542; thus, it has been argued Wales is represented in the English coat of arms. However. the argument is somewhat disengenuous as in 1535 the Welsh Dragon was already part of the Tudor Coat of Arms. Upon the accession of the Tudor monarchs, who were themselves of Welsh descent, a Welsh Dragon was used as a supporter on the Royal Arms.

This was dropped by their successors, the Scottish House of Stuart, who replaced the Tudors' dragon supporter with the Scottish unicorn. In the 20th century, the arms of the principality of Wales were added as an inescutcheon to the coat of arms of the Prince of Wales, a banner of those arms with a green inescutcheon bearing the prince's crown is flown as his personal standard in Wales.

Kingdoms of England & Scotland

The current royal arms are a combination of the arms of the former kingdoms that make up the UK, and can be traced back to the first arms of the kings of England and kings of Scots.

Various alterations occurred over the years as the arms of other realms acquired or claimed by the kings were added to the royal arms. The table below tracks the changes in the royal arms from the original arms of King Richard I of England, and William I, King of Scots.

Members of the British royal family are granted their own personal arms which are based on the Royal Arms. Only children and grandchildren in the male line of the monarch are entitled to arms in this fashion: the arms of children of the monarch are differenced with a three-point label; grandchildren of the monarch are differenced with a five-point label. An exception is made for the eldest son of the Prince of Wales, who bears a three-point label. Since 1911, the arms of the Prince of Wales also displays an inescutcheon of the ancient arms of the Principality of Wales. Queens consort and the wives of sons of the monarch have their own personal coat of arms. Typically this will be the arms of their husband impaled with their own personal arms or those of their father, if armigerous.

However, the consorts of a Queen regnant are not entitled to use the Royal Arms. Thus Prince Philip, DUKe of Edinburgh has been granted his own personal arms. Currently the following members of the royal family have their own arms based on the Royal Arms:

Government

Various versions of the Royal Arms are used by Her Majesty's Government in the UK, the Parliament of the UK and courts in some parts of the Commonwealth. HM Government generally uses a simplified version of the Royal Arms with a crown replacing the helm and crest, and with no compartment.

In relation to Scotland, the Scotland Office and the Advocate General for Scotland use the Scottish version, again without the helm or crest, and the same was used as the day-to-day logo of the Scottish Executive until September 2007, when a rebranding exercise introduced the name *Scottish Government*, together with a revised logo incorporating the flag of Scotland.

The Scottish Government continues to use the Arms on some official documents.

The simplified Royal Arms also feature:

- on all Acts of Parliament;
- on the cover of all UK passports;
- as an inescutcheon on the diplomatic flags of British Ambassadors;
- on all acts of the Anguilla House of Assembly, the Sovereign Base Areas, Pitcairn Islands and South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands administrations.

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

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

NATIONAL ANTHEM OF GREAT BRITAIN

"God Save the Queen" depending on the gender of the reigning monarch) is the national or royal anthem in a number of Commonwealth realms, their territories, the British Crown dependencies.

The author of the tune is unknown, and it may originate in plainchant; but an attribution to the composer John Bull is sometimes made.

"God Save the Queen" is the national anthem of the UK and one of two national anthems used by New Zealand since 1977, as well as for several of the UK's territories that have their own additional local anthem. It is also the royal anthem – played specifically in the presence of the monarch – of all the aforementioned countries, as well as Australia (since 1984), Canada (since 1980), Barbados and Tuvalu.

In countries not previously part of the British Empire, the tune of "God Save the Queen" has provided the basis for various patriotic songs, though still generally connected with royal ceremony.

The melody continues to be used for the national anthem of Liechtenstein, "Oben am jungen Rhein", and the royal anthem of Norway, "Kongesangen". In the USA, the melody is used for the patriotic song "My Country, "Tis of Thee".

Beyond its first verse, which is consistent, "God Save the Queen/King" has many historic and extant versions. Since its first publication, different verses have been added and taken away and, even today, different publications include various selections of verses in various orders.

In general, only one verse is sung. Sometimes two verses are sung, and on rare occasions, three. The sovereign and her or his spouse are saluted with the entire composition, while other members of the Royal Family who are entitled to royal salute (the Prince of Wales, Duke of Cambridge and Duke of Sussex along with their spouses) receive just the first 6 bars.

Percy Scholes points out the similarities to an early plainsongmelody, although the rhythm is very distinctly that of a galliard, and he gives examples of several such dance tunes that bear a striking resemblance to "God Save the King/Queen".

Scholes quotes a keyboard piece by John Bull (1619) which has some similarities to the modern tune, depending on the placing of accidentals which at that time were unwritten in certain cases and left to the discretion of the player. He points to several pieces by Henry Purcell, one of which includes the opening notes of the modern tune, setting the words "God Save the King".

19th-century scholars and commentators mention the widespread belief that an old Scots carol, "Remember O Thou Man" was the source of the tune.

The first published version of what is almost the present tune appeared in 1744 in *Thesaurus Musicus*. The 1744 version of the song was popularised in Scotland and England the following year, with the landing of Charles Edward Stuart and was published in *The Gentleman's Magazine*.

The style most commonly heard in official performances was proposed as the "proper interpretation" by King George V, who considered himself something of an expert.

Until the latter part of the 20th century, theatre and concert goers were expected to stand while the anthem was played after the conclusion of a show. In cinemas this brought a tendency for audiences to rush out while the end credits played to avoid this formality.

The UK's national anthem usually prefaces The Queen's Christmas Message and important royal announcements, such as of royal deaths, when it is played in a slower, sombre arrangement. Scholes recommends the attribution "traditional" earliest known version by John Bull (1562-1628)".

God save great George our king   Happy and glorious
God save our noble king   Long to reign over us
God save the king!   God save the king!
Send him victorious

"God Save the Queen" is the national anthem of the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Like many aspects of British constitutional life, its official status derives from custom and use, not from Royal Proclamation or Act of Parliament. In general, only one or two verses are sung, but on rare occasions, three. The variation in the UK of the lyrics to "God Save the Queen" is the oldest amongst those currently used, and forms the basis on which all other versions used throughout the Commonwealth are formed; though, again, the words have varied throughout these years.

England has no official national anthem of its own; "God Save the Queen" is treated as the English national anthem when England is represented at sporting events.

There is a movement to establish an English national anthem, with Blake and Parry's "Jerusalem" and Elgar's "Land of Hope and Glory" among the top contenders. Scotland has its own national song & Wales has its own national anthem for political & national events and for use at international football, rugby union and other sports in which those nations compete independently.

On all occasions Wales' national anthem is "Hen Wlad Fy Nhadau" (Land of my Fathers). Scotland has no single anthem; "Scotland the Brave" was traditionally used until the 1990s, when "Flower of Scotland" was adopted. In Northern Ireland, "God Save the Queen" is still used as the official anthem. Since 2003, "God Save the Queen", considered an all inclusive Anthem for Great Britain and Northern Ireland, as well as other countries within the Commonwealth. In sports in which the UK competes as one nation, most notably as Great Britain at the Olympics, "God Save the Queen" is used to represent anyone or any team that comes from the UK.

UNIT III. THE LEGISLATURE OF THE UK

INTRODUCTION

The Legislatures of the UK are derived from a number of different sources from both within the UK and through membership of the European Union.

The Parliament of the UK is the supreme legislative body for the UK and the British overseas territories with Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland each having their own devolved legislatures.

Each of the three major jurisdictions of the UK has its own laws and legal system.

The UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is the supreme legislative body for the UK and also for English Law. It alone possesses legislative supremacy and thereby ultimate power over all other political bodies in the UK and its territories. Its head is the Sovereign of the UK (currently Queen Elizabeth II) and its seat is the Palace of Westminster in Westminster, one of the city borough, London.

The UK Legislation may take the form of Acts (passed directly by Parliament) or Statutory Instruments, made under the authority of an Act of Parliament by either a government minister or by the Queen-in-Council. The latter are generally subject either to parliamentary approval (affirmative procedure) or parliamentary disallowance (negative procedure).

The majority of Acts considered in the UK are defined as public general acts, or "Acts of Parliament" as they will have progressed & gained approval as a Bill through both House of Commons and House of Lords, have gained Royal Assent from the Monarch. Local and Personal Acts of Parliament are presented to Parliament as a result of sponsored petitions. These are processed through committees to enable relevant or affected parties to challenge or change the proposed Act.

Prerogative instruments, made by the Sovereign under the royal prerogative are another source of UK-wide legislation. The UK Parliament is responsible for all matters relating to defence and all foreign affairs and relations with international organisations, particularly the United Nations, the Commonwealth and the European Union. With there being no devolved legislature in England the UK Parliament is the supreme body for its governance, legislation, public bodies and local government.

House of Commons

The House of Commons is the lower house of the Parliament of the UK and is an elected chamber consisting currently of 650 members known as Members of Parliament (MPs) which are elected using First past the post in single-member constituencies with 533 elected from England, 59 from Scotland, 40 from Wales and 18 from Northern Ireland. The House of Commons is now considered to be the supreme chamber of Parliament.

House of Lords

The House of Lords is the upper house of the Parliament of the UK however it is an unelected chamber with all members to the House of Lords being appointed. As of August 2018, there are currently 793 members known as "Peers". The House of Lords no longer has the same powers as the House of Commons under the Parliament Acts of 1911 and 1949 especially when it comes to blocking general legislation and the passing of financial legislation.

The Scottish Parliament

The Scottish Parliament is the national, unicameral legislature of Scotland, located in the Holyrood area of the capital, Edinburgh. The Parliament, informally referred to as "Holyrood", is a democratically elected body comprising 129 members known as Members of the Scottish Parliament (MSPs).

Of these 73 MSPs are elected using First past the post in single member constituencies and a further 56 MSPs are elected using the D'Hondt method, a form of party-list proportional representation in eight additional member regions with each region electing 7 MSPs. The Scottish Parliament was convened by the Scotland Act 1998, which sets out its powers as a devolved legislature. The Act delineates the legislative competence of the Parliament – the areas in which it can make laws – by explicitly specifying powers that are "reserved" to the Parliament of the UK: all matters that are not explicitly reserved are automatically the responsibility of the Scottish Parliament.

The British Parliament retains the ability to amend the terms of reference of the Scottish Parliament, and can extend or reduce the areas in which it can make laws. The first meeting of the new Parliament took place on 12 May 1999. The Scottish Statutory Instruments made by the Scottish Government are another source of legislation. As with Statutory Instruments made by the British government, these are generally subject to either approval or disallowance by the Scottish Parliament

The National Assembly for Wales

The National Assembly for Wales has the power to make legislation in Wales. The Assembly was created by the Government of Wales Act 1998, which followed a referendum in 1997. It is a democratically elected body with 60 members known as Assembly Members (AMs).

Of these 40 AMs are elected using First past the post in single member constituencies and a further 20 MSPs are elected using the D'Hondt method, a form of party-list proportional representation in five additional member regions with each region electing 4 AMs.

The Assembly had no powers to initiate primary legislation until limited law-making powers were gained through the Government of Wales Act 2006. Its primary law-making powers were enhanced following a Yes vote in the referendum on 3 March 2011, making it possible for it to legislate in the 20 areas that are devolved without having to consult the UK Parliament, nor the Secretary of State for Wales. The Assembly may also delegate authority to enact legislation through Welsh Statutory Instruments. Under the Wales Act 2017 the Assembly came into line with Scotland and Northern Ireland and moved to a resevered powers model. It is expected that the National Assembly for Wales will be renamed the "Welsh Parliament" before the next scheduled election in 2021.

The Northern Ireland Assembly

The Northern Ireland Assembly is the devolved legislature of Northern Ireland which is a democratically elected body comprising 90 members known as Members of the Legislative Assembly (MLAs).

The 90 MLAs are elected using the single transferable vote across the 18 Westminster Parliamentary constituencies with each constituency electing 5 MLAs.

It was established in 1998 as part of the Good Friday Agreement which was approved by the public in referendums which were held in both Northern Ireland and in the Republic of Ireland. It has power to legislate in a wide range of areas that are not explicitly reserved to the Parliament of the UK, and to appoint the Northern Ireland Executive. It sits at Parliament Buildings at Stormont in Belfast.

Legislation of the Assembly empowers the Northern Island Executive to issue Statutory Rules in a variety of areas. The Assembly currently hasn't met since 26 January 2017 due to a breakdown of trust which brought down both the Assembly and Executive. As a member state of the European Union (EU) under the European Communities Act 1972 the decisions, directives and regulations of the EU are directly applicable with full legal force in the UK and is also supreme to all domestic legislation, in effect another source of UK legislation. The UK became a member when it joined what was originally known as the European Communities on 1 January 1973.

The European Parliament

The European Parliament (EP) is the directly elected parliamentary institution of the European Union. Together with the Council of the European Union (the Council) and the European Commission, it exercises the legislative function of the EU.

The Parliament is composed of 751 Members of the European Parliament (MEPs), who represent the second-largest democratic electorate in the world (after the Parliament of India) and the largest trans-national democratic electorate in the world (375 mln eligible voters in 2009).

The UK sends 73 members to the European Parliament, of these 70 MEPs are elected using the D'Hondt method, a form of party-list proportional representation in 11 regional constituencies in England, Scotland and Wales while in Northern Ireland 3 MEPs are elected using the single transferable vote in a single national constituency.

MODERN SOURCES OF LEGISLATION

Parliament of the UK

- Acts of the UK Parliament
- Statutory instruments made by a Minister or by the Queen-in-Council, generally subject either to parliamentary approval (affirmative procedure) or parliamentary disallowance; these are made either under Acts or by the royal prerogative.

Scottish Parliament

- Acts of the devolved Scottish Parliament, and statutory instruments made by the Scottish Government.

National Assembly for Wales

- Statutory instruments made by the National Assembly for Wales.

Northern Ireland Assembly

- Acts of the Northern Ireland Assembly, and statutory instruments made by Northern Ireland Departments.

European Union

Exercise 1. Characterize the activity of UK in European Union.

The UK is a member of the European Union (EU). As such, UK citizens elect 78 Members of the European Parliament to represent them in the European Parliament in Brussels and Strasbourg. In recent years, there have been divisions in both major parties as to whether the UK should form greater ties within the EU, or reduce the EU's supranational powers.

Opponents of greater European integration are known as Eurosceptics, supporters Europhiles. Division over Europe is prevalent in both major parties. The Conservative Party is seen as most split over this issue, whilst in Government up to 1997, and today in opposition.

However, the Labour Party is split, with conflicting views within Cabinet over UK adoption of the euro, although the party is on the whole in favour of further integration where in the interest of the UK. UK nationalists have long campaigned against European integration. The strong showing of the eurosceptic UK Independence Party (UKIP) in the 2004 European Parliament elections has shifted the debate over UK relations with the EU.

Parliament decided in March 2008 not to hold a referendum on the ratification of the Treaty of Lisbon, signed in 2007. This was despite the Labour government promising in 2004 to hold a referendum on the previously proposed Constitution for Europe. UK legislation derives from a number of different sources. The UK does not have a single body of legislation, but is divided into three states, each with its own laws and legal system: England and Wales (English law), Scotland (Scots law), and Northern Ireland (Northern Ireland law).

Exercise 2. Choose the keywords and phrases that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 3. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise *4. Make up some dialogues from the information above.*

Exercise *5. Write a small essay on the topic.*

Exercise 6. Answer the questions.

1. Is Britain a constitutional monarchy without a written constitution? 2. Who is the head of the state? 3. What does the queen do? 4. What body rules the country? 5. Which ministers are there in the Cabinet? 6. Who are they responsible to? 7. What is the Constitution of the UK like? 8. What is often said about it? 9. Do some of the written parts of the Constitution come from laws passed by Parliament? 10. Where do some written parts come? 11. What do the unwritten parts of the constitution include? 12. Do they include the Cabinet system of government and the relationship between the Cabinet and the monarch? 13. How long has the Constitution been changing and developing? 14. Is it so flexible? 15. Can the Constitution be changed at any time by an act of government or by the people's acceptance of a new idea or practice?

Exercise 7. Complete the sentences with the facts from the information above.

1. The monarchy is over ____ years old. 2. Queen Elizabeth II can trace her ancestry back to ____. 3. The throne passes from a queen to his or her ____. 4. If the monarch has no son, the oldest daughter inherits ____. 5. The crown symbolises the British monarch's supreme ____. 6. For ____ the monarch held most authority. 7. But as Parliament's power grew the monarch's power ____. 8. Almost all the powers of the crown are used by various government officials in ___. 9. Elizabeth can make few decisions of ___. 10. The powers of government are referred to as her powers, and are used by ____.

Exercise 8. Choose the right variant.

1. This bill was ____ in the last session of Parliament.
a) voided b) repealed c) abandoned d) renounced
2. The company was forced to _____ contracts with two managers.
a) void b) abolish c) abrogate d) annul
3. The country was obliged to _____ the contract with our factory.
a) cancel b) invalidate c) nullify d) revoke
4. The local legislature was _____ last month.
a) disbanded b) dismissed c) dissolved d) dispersed
5. The defeated nation _____ some of their land to the enemy.
a) conceded b) granted c) lost d) allowed
6. The former president _____ the election to the opposing party
a) conceded b) acknowledged c) admitted d) allowed
7. The thieves thought that they had _____the jewels from discovery.
a) concealed b) to kept close c) to kept secret d) hiden
8. The neighbours were at deadly _____ with each other.
a) feud b) vendetta c) quarrel d) bickering
9. This man was _____ in our country.
a) proscribed b) outlawed c) banished d) exiled
10. In Roman empire was a custom to _____.
a) proscribe b) outlaw c) banish d) exile

UK PARLIAMENT

The UK Parliament is the supreme legislative body in the UK (there is parliamentary sovereignty), and Government is drawn from and answerable to it.

There is a devolved Scottish Parliament and devolved Assemblies in Wales and Northern Ireland, with varying degrees of legislative authority. The British parliament is bicameral but has three parts, consisting of the Sovereign as the head of the legislature (the Queen-in-Parliament), an upper house (the second chamber) called the House of Lords, and a so-called "lower house" (the primary chamber) called the House of Commons.

The House of Lords includes two different types of members: the Lords Spiritual, consisting of the most senior bishops of the Church of England, and the Lords Temporal, consisting mainly of life peers, appointed by the Sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister, and of 92 hereditary peers, sitting either by virtue of holding a royal office, or by being elected by their fellow hereditary peers.

Prior to the opening of the Supreme Court in October 2009, the House of Lords performed a judicial role through the Law Lords. The House of Commons is an elected chamber with elections to 650 single member constituencies held at least every five years under the first-past-the-post system. The two Houses meet in separate chambers in the Palace of Westminster (commonly known as the Houses of Parliament) in London.

By constitutional convention, all government ministers, including the Prime Minister, are members of the House of Commons or, less commonly, the House of Lords and are thereby accountable to the respective branches of the legislature. Most cabinet ministers (Secretaries of State) are from the Commons, whilst junior ministers can be from either House. However, the Leader of the House of Lords must be a peer and is a cabinet position, usually combined with a paid position.

The Parliament of Great Britain was formed in 1707 following the ratification of the Treaty of Union by Acts of Union passed by the Parliament of England and the Parliament of Scotland, both Acts of Union stating, "That the UK of Great Britain be represented by one and the same Parliament to be stiled The Parliament of Great Britain".

At the start of the 19th century, Parliament was further enlarged by Acts of Union ratified by the Parliament of Great Britain and the Parliament of Ireland that abolished the latter and added 100 Irish MPs and 32 Lords to the former to create the Parliament of the UK of Great Britain and Ireland.

The Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act 1927 formally amended the name to the "Parliament of the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland", five years after the secession of the Irish Free State in 1922. With the global expansion of the British Empire, the UK Parliament has shaped the political systems of many countries as ex-colonies and so it has been called the "Mother of Parliaments".

However, John Bright – who coined the epithet – used it in reference to the political culture of "England" rather than just the parliamentary system. In theory, the UK's supreme legislative power is officially vested in the Crown-in-Parliament. However, the Crown normally acts on the advice of the Prime Minister and the powers of the House of Lords are limited to only delaying legislation; thus power is *de facto* vested in the House of Commons.

The UK of Great Britain and Ireland was created on 1 January 1801, by the merger of the Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland under the Acts of Union 1800. The principle of ministerial responsibility to the lower House did not develop until the 19th century – the House of Lords was superior to the House of Commons both in theory and in practice. Members of the House of Commons (MPs) were elected in an antiquated electoral system, under which constituencies of vastly different sizes existed.

Thus, the borough of Old Sarum, with seven voters, could elect two members, as could the borough of Dunwich, which had almost completely disappeared into the sea due to land erosion.

Many small constituencies, known as pocket or rotten boroughs, were controlled by members of the House of Lords, who could ensure the election of their relatives or supporters.

During the reforms of the 19th century, beginning with the Reform Act 1832.

The electoral system for the House of Commons was progressively regularised.

No longer dependent on the Lords for their seats, MPs grew more assertive. The supremacy of the British House of Commons was reaffirmed in the early 20th century.

In 1909, the Commons passed the so-called "People's Budget", which made numerous changes to the taxation system which were detrimental to wealthy landowners.

The House of Lords, which consisted mostly of powerful landowners, rejected the Budget. On the basis of the Budget's popularity and the Lords' consequent unpopularity, the Liberal Party narrowly won two general elections in 1910.

Using the result as a mandate, the Liberal Prime Minister, Herbert Henry Asquith, introduced the Parliament Bill, which sought to restrict the powers of the House of Lords. (He did not reintroduce the land tax provision of the People's Budget.) When the Lords refused to pass the bill, Asquith countered with a promise extracted from the King in secret before the second general election of 1910 and requested the creation of several hundred Liberal peers, so as to erase the Conservative majority in the House of Lords. In the face of such a threat, the House of Lords narrowly passed the bill.

The Parliament Act 1911, as it became, prevented the Lords from blocking a money bill (a bill dealing with taxation), and allowed them to delay any other bill for a maximum of three sessions (reduced to two sessions in 1949), after which it could become law over their objections. However, regardless of the Parliament Acts of 1911 and 1949, the House of Lords has always retained the unrestricted power to veto any bill outright which attempts to extend the life of a parliament.

The Government of Ireland Act 1920 created the parliaments of Northern Ireland and Southern Ireland and reduced the representation of both parts at Westminster. The number of Northern Ireland seats was increased again after the introduction of direct rule in 1973.

The Irish Free State became independent in 1922, and in 1927 parliament was renamed the Parliament of the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Further reforms to the House of Lords were made in the 20th century. The Life Peerages Act 1958 authorised the regular creation of life peerage dignities. By the 1960s, the regular creation of hereditary peerage dignities had ceased; thereafter, almost all new peers were life peers only.

The House of Lords Act 1999 removed the automatic right of hereditary peers to sit in the Upper House, although it made an exception for 92 of them to be elected to life-terms by the other hereditary peers, with by-elections upon their death.

The House of Lords is now a chamber that is subordinate to the House of Commons. Additionally, the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 led to abolition of the judicial functions of the House of Lords with the creation of the new Supreme Court of the UK in October 2009.

The legislative authority, the Crown-in-Parliament, has three separate elements: the Monarch, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons. No individual may be a member of both Houses, and members of the House of Lords are legally barred from voting in elections for members of the House of Commons. Formerly, no-one could be a member of Parliament while holding an Office of profit under the Crown, thus maintaining the separation of powers, but the principle has been gradually eroded.

Until 1919, Members of Parliament who were appointed to ministerial office lost their right to sit in the House of Commons and had to seek re-election. The rule survives in the House of Commons Disqualification Act 1975 which specifies a number of state positions that make an individual ineligible to serve as a member of Parliament. The only vestige of the principle is the process of resignation from the House of Commons. Royal Assent of the Monarch is required for all Bills to become law, and certain Delegated Legislation must be made by the Monarch by Order in Council.

The Crown has executive powers which do not depend on Parliament, through prerogative powers, including the power to make treaties, declare war, award honours, and appoint officers and civil servants.

In practice these are always exercised by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister and the other ministers of HM Government. The Prime Minister and government are directly accountable to Parliament, through its control of public finances, and to the public, through the election of members of parliament. The Monarch appoints the Prime Minister, who then forms a government from members of the Houses of Parliament. This must be someone who could command a majority in a confidence vote in the House of Commons. In the past the monarch has occasionally had to make a judgment, as in the appointment of Alec Douglas-Home in 1963 when it was thought that the incumbent Prime Minister, Harold Macmillan, had become ill with terminal cancer. However, today the monarch is advised by the outgoing Prime Minister as to whom he or she should offer the position next.

The Upper House is formally styled "The Right Honourable The Lords Spiritual and Temporal in Parliament Assembled", the Lords Spiritual being bishops of the Church of England and the Lords Temporal being Peers of the Realm. The Lords Spiritual and Lords Temporal are considered separate "estates", but they sit, debate and vote together.

Since the Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949, the powers of the House of Lords have been very much less than those of the House of Commons. All bills except money bills are debated and voted upon in the House of Lords; however, by voting against a bill, the House of Lords can only delay it for a maximum of two parliamentary sessions over a year. After that time, the House of Commons can force the Bill through without the Lords' consent, under the Parliament Acts. The House of Lords can hold the government to account through questions to government ministers & the operation of a small number of select committees. The highest court in England & Wales and in Northern Ireland used to be a committee of the House of Lords, but it became an independent supreme court in 2009.

The Lords Spiritual formerly included all of the senior clergymen of the Church of England – archbishops, bishops, abbots and mitred priors. Upon the Dissolution of the Monasteries under Henry VIII the abbots and mitred priors lost their positions in Parliament.

All diocesan bishops continued to sit in Parliament, but the Bishopric of Manchester Act 1847, and later Acts, provide that only the 26 most senior are Lords Spiritual. These include the incumbents of the "five great sees", namely the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Archbishop of York, the Bishop of London, the Bishop of Durham and the Bishop of Winchester. The remaining 21 Lords Spiritual are the most senior diocesan bishops, ranked in order of consecration, although the Lords Spiritual (Women) Act 2015 makes time-limited provision for vacancies to be filled by women who are bishops.

The Lords Temporal are all members of the Peerage. Formerly, they were all hereditary peers.

The right of some hereditary peers to sit in Parliament was not automatic: after Scotland and England united into Great Britain in 1707, it was provided that all peers whose dignities had been created by English kings could sit in Parliament, but those whose dignities had been created by Scottish kings were to elect a limited number of "representative peers". A similar arrangement was made in respect of Ireland when it was united with Great Britain in 1801, but when southern Ireland left the UK in 1922 the election of Irish representative peers ceased.

By the Peerage Act 1963, the election of Scottish representative peers also ended, and all Scottish peers were granted the right to sit in Parliament. Under the House of Lords Act 1999, only life peerages (that is to say, peerage dignities which cannot be inherited) automatically entitle their holders to seats in the House of Lords. Of the hereditary peers, only 92 – the Earl Marshal, the Lord Great Chamberlain and the 90 elected by other peers – retain their seats in the House.

The Commons, the last of the "estates" of the Kingdom, are represented in the House of Commons, which is formally styled "The Honourable The Commons in Parliament Assembled" ("commons" coming from *commune*, the old French term for a district).

In 2016, the House consists of 650 members. Each "Member of Parliament" or "MP" is chosen by a single constituency by the First-Past-the-Post electoral system. Universal adult suffrage exists for those 18 and over.

Citizens of the UK, and those of the Republic of Ireland and Commonwealth nations resident in the UK, are qualified to vote, unless they are in prison at the time of the election. The term of members of the House of Commons depends on the term of Parliament, a maximum of five years; a general election, during which all the seats are contested, occurs after each dissolution.

All legislation must be passed by the House of Commons to become law and it controls taxation and the supply of money to the government. Government ministers (including the Prime Minister) must regularly answer questions in the House of Commons and there are a number of select committees that scrutinise particular issues and the workings of the government.

There are mechanisms that allow members of the House of Commons to bring to the attention of the government particular issues affecting their constituents.

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

Exercise 2. Try to understand the notions.

The Lords Commissioners are Privy Counsellors appointed by the Monarch of the UK to exercise, on his or her behalf, certain functions relating to Parliament which would otherwise require the monarch's attendance at the Palace of Westminster. These include the opening and prorogation of Parliament, the confirmation of a newly elected Speaker of the House of Commons and the granting of Royal Assent.

The Lords Commissioners are collectively known as the Royal Commission. The Royal Commission includes at least three-five – Lords Commissioners. In current practice, the Lords Commissioners usually include the Lord Chancellor, the Archbishop of Canterbury (who is named but usually does not participate), the leaders of the three major parties in the House of Lords, the convenor of the House of Lords Crossbenchers and (since 2007) the Lord Speaker of the House of Lords.

The Lord Chancellor serves as the most senior Lord Commissioner and traditionally presides over the Royal Commission. However, since the 2007 appointment of Jack Straw, a member of the House of Commons, as Lord Chancellor the person in that office does not participate in Royal Commissions, much like the Archbishop of Canterbury. In this case, the Leader of the House of Lords performs the duties of the Lord Chancellor, with the Lord Speaker of the House of Lords serving as a Lord Commissioner.

The one exception to this procedure was during the appointment in 2009 of John Bercow as Commons Speaker. On this occasion, Straw, as Lord Chancellor, performed this function personally and the Lord Speaker, Baroness Hayman, did not serve as a Lord Commissioner.

The Lords Commissioners enter the chamber of the House of Lords at the appointed time, and take seats on a structure temporarily placed for the duration of the ceremony.

The Lord Chancellor or Leader of the House of Lords, as the most senior Lord Commissioner, commands the Gentleman/Lady Usher of the Black Rod to summon the House of Commons.

Representatives of the House of Commons arrive at the Bar of the House of Lords, and bow thrice, but do not actually enter the Lords Chamber.

After each bow, male Lords Commissioners doff their hats to the Members of Parliament while female Lords Commissioners bow their heads in return. The Reading Clerk of the House of Lords then reads the Monarch's Commission, which authorizes the Lords Commissioners. After the appropriate business has been transacted, the Commons again bow thrice and depart.

Exercise 3. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 4. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

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

THE STATE OPENING OF PARLIAMENT

The State Opening of Parliament is an annual event that marks the commencement of a session of the Parliament of the UK. It is held in the House of Lords Chamber. Before 2012, it took place in November or December, or, in a general election year, when the new Parliament first assembled. From 2012 onwards, the ceremony has taken place in May or June.

Upon the signal of the Monarch, the Lord Great Chamberlain raises his wand of office to signal to Black Rod, who is charged with summoning the House of Commons and has been waiting in the Commons lobby. Black Rod turns and, under the escort of the Door-keeper of the House of Lords and an inspector of police, approaches the doors to the Chamber of the Commons.

In 1642, King Charles I stormed into the House of Commons in an unsuccessful attempt to arrest the Five Members, who included the celebrated English patriot & leading Parliamentarian John Hampden. This action sparked the English Civil War. The wars established the constitutional rights of Parliament, a concept legally established in the Glorious Revolution in 1688 and the subsequent Bill of Rights 1689. Since then, no British monarch has entered the House of Commons when it is in session.

On Black Rod's approach, the doors are slammed shut against him, symbolising the rights of parliament and its independence from the monarch. He then strikes with the end of his ceremonial staff (the Black Rod) three times on the closed doors of the Commons Chamber. He is then admitted, and announces the command of the monarch for the attendance of the Commons.

The monarch reads a speech, known as the Speech from the Throne, which is prepared by the Prime Minister and the Cabinet, outlining the Government's agenda for the coming year.

The speech reflects the legislative agenda for which the Government intends to seek the agreement of both Houses of Parliament. After the monarch leaves, each Chamber proceeds to the consideration of an "Address in Reply to Her Majesty's Gracious Speech". But, first, each House considers a bill *pro forma* to symbolise their right to deliberate independently of the monarch. In the House of Lords, the bill is called the Select Vestries Bill, while the Commons equivalent is the Outlawries Bill.

The Bills are considered for the sake of form only, and do not make any actual progress.

Both houses of the British Parliament are presided over by a speaker, the Speaker of the House for the Commons and the Lord Speaker in the House of Lords.

For the Commons, the approval of the Sovereign is theoretically required before the election of the Speaker becomes valid, but it is, by modern convention, always granted. The Speaker's place may be taken by three deputies, known as the Chairman, First Deputy Chairman and Second Deputy Chairman of Ways and Means. (They take their name from the Committee of Ways and Means, of which they were once presiding officers, but which no longer exists.)

Prior to July 2006, the House of Lords was presided over by a Lord Chancellor (a Cabinet member), whose influence as Speaker was very limited (whilst the powers belonging to the Speaker of the House of Commons are vast). However, as part of the Constitutional Reform Act 2005, the position of Speaker of the House of Lords was separated from the office of Lord Chancellor (the office has control over the judiciary as a whole), though the Lords remain largely self-governing. Decisions on points of order and on the disciplining of unruly members are made by the whole body in the Upper House, but by the Speaker alone in the Lower House. Speeches in the House of Lords are addressed to the House as a whole (using the words "My Lords"), but those in the House of Commons are addressed to the Speaker alone (using "Mr Speaker" or "Madam Speaker"). Speeches may be made to both Houses simultaneously. Both Houses may decide questions by voice vote; members shout out "Aye!" & "No!" in the Commons – or "Content!" and "Not-Content!" in the Lords – the presiding officer declares the result. The pronouncement of either Speaker may be challenged; recorded vote (division) demanded.

(The Speaker of the House of Commons may choose to overrule a frivolous request for a division, but the Lord Speaker does not have that power.)

In each House, a division requires members to file into one of the two lobbies alongside the Chamber; their names are recorded by clerks, and their votes are counted as they exit the lobbies to re-enter the Chamber. The Speaker of the House of Commons is expected to be non-partisan, and does not cast a vote except in the case of a tie; the Lord Speaker, however, votes along with the other Lords. Both Houses normally conduct their business in public, and there are galleries where visitors may sit. As at 2016, Parliament has a fixed term of 5 years. Originally there was no fixed limit on the length of a Parliament, but the Triennial Act 1694 set the maximum duration at three years.

As the frequent elections were deemed inconvenient, the Septennial Act 1715 extended the maximum to seven years, but the Parliament Act 1911 reduced it to five. During the Second World War, the term was temporarily extended to ten years by Acts of Parliament. Since the end of the war the maximum has remained five years. Modern Parliaments rarely continued for the maximum duration; normally, they were dissolved earlier. For instance, the 52nd, which assembled in 1997, was dissolved after four years. The Septennial Act was repealed by the Fixed-term Parliaments Act 2011.

Following a general election, a new Parliamentary session begins. Parliament is formally summoned 40 days in advance by the Sovereign, who is the source of parliamentary authority. On the day indicated by the Sovereign's proclamation, the two Houses assemble in their respective chambers.

The Commons are then summoned to the House of Lords, where Lords Commissioners (representatives of the Sovereign) instruct them to elect a Speaker. The Commons perform the election; on the next day, they return to the House of Lords, where the Lords Commissioners confirm the election and grant the new Speaker the royal approval in the Sovereign's name.

The business of Parliament for the next few days of its session involves the taking of the oaths of allegiance. Once a majority of the members have taken the oath in each House, the State Opening of Parliament may take place. The Lords take their seats in the House of Lords Chamber, the Commons appear at the Bar (at the entrance to the Chamber), and the Sovereign takes his or her seat on the throne. The Sovereign then reads the Speech from the Throne – the content of which is determined by the Ministers of the Crown – outlining the Government's legislative agenda for the upcoming year. Thereafter, each House proceeds to the transaction of legislative business.

By custom, before considering the Government's legislative agenda, a bill is introduced *pro forma* in each House – the Select Vestries Bill in the House of Lords and the Outlawries Bill in the House of Commons. These bills do not become laws; they are ceremonial indications of the power of each House to debate independently of the Crown. After the *pro forma* bill is introduced, each House debates the content of the Speech from the Throne for several days.

Once each House formally sends its reply to the Speech, legislative business may commence, appointing committees, electing officers, passing resolutions and considering legislation.

A session of Parliament is brought to an end by a prorogation. There is a ceremony similar to the State Opening, but much less well-known to the general public. Normally, the Sovereign does not personally attend the prorogation ceremony in the House of Lords; he or she is represented by Lords Commissioners. The next session of Parliament begins under the procedures described above, but it is not necessary to conduct another election of a Speaker or take the oaths of allegiance afresh at the beginning of such subsequent sessions. Instead, the State Opening of Parliament proceeds directly.

To avoid the delay of opening a new session in the event of an emergency during the long summer recess, Parliament is no longer prorogued beforehand, but only after the Houses have reconvened in the autumn; the State Opening follows a few days later. Each Parliament comes to an end, after a number of sessions, in anticipation of a general election. Parliament is dissolved by virtue of the Fixed-term Parliaments Act 2011. Prior to that, dissolution was effected by the Sovereign, always on the advice of the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister could seek dissolution at a time politically advantageous to his or her party. If the Prime Minister loses the support of the House of Commons, Parliament will dissolve and a new election will be held.

Parliaments can be dissolved if two-thirds of the House of Commons votes for an early election. Formerly, the demise of the Sovereign automatically brought a Parliament to an end, the Crown being seen as the *caput, principium, et finis* (beginning, basis & end) of the body, but this is no longer the case. The first change was during the reign of William and Mary, when it was seen to be inconvenient to have no Parliament at a time when succession to the Crown could be disputed, and an Act was passed that provided that a Parliament was to continue for six months after the death of a Sovereign, unless dissolved earlier. Under the Representation of the People Act 1867 Parliament can now continue for as long as it would otherwise have done in the event of the death of the Sovereign.

After each Parliament concludes, the Crown issues writs to hold a general election and elect new members of the House of Commons, though membership of the House of Lords does not change.

Parliament meets in the Palace of Westminster. The State Opening of Parliament is a ceremony loaded with historical ritual and symbolic significance for the governance of the UK. In one place are assembled the members of all three branches of government, of which the Monarch is the authority and nominal head in each part: the Crown-in-Parliament, (the Queen, together with the House of Commons and the House of Lords), constitutes the legislature; the Queen-in-Council, Her Majesty's Ministers constitute the executive.

The Queen-on-the-Bench, consisting of Her Majesty's Judges, although not members of either House, are summoned to attend and represent the judiciary. Therefore, the State Opening demonstrates the governance of the UK but also the separation of powers. The importance of international relations is represented through the presence in the Chamber of the *corps diplomatique*. The Opening of Parliament began out of practical necessity. By the late 14th century, the manner in which the King gathered his nobles and representatives of the Commons had begun to follow an established pattern. First of all, Peers' names were checked against the list of those who had been summoned, and representatives of the Commons were checked against the sheriffs' election returns.

The Peers were robed and sat in the Painted Chamber at Westminster; the Commons were summoned, and stood at the Bar (threshold) of the Chamber. A speech or sermon was then given (usually by the Lord Chancellor) explaining why Parliament had been summoned, after which the Lords and Commons went separately to discuss the business in hand.

The monarch normally presided, not only for the Opening but also for the deliberations which followed (unless prevented by illness or other pressing matters). In the Tudor period, the modern structure of Parliament began to emerge, and the monarch no longer attended during normal proceedings.

For this reason, the State Opening took on greater symbolic significance as an occasion for the full constitution of the State (Monarch, Lords and Commons) to be seen. In this period, the parliamentary gathering began to be preceded by an open-air State Procession (attracted onlookers): the Monarch, together with Household retinue, would proceed in State from whichever royal residence was being used, first to Westminster Abbey for a service a Mass of the Holy Ghost, prior to the Reformation), and thence on foot (accompanied by the Lords Spiritual & Temporal in their robes) to the Palace of Westminster for the Opening itself.

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

Exercise 2. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

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

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

SPEECH FROM THE THRONE

Before the arrival of the sovereign, the Imperial State Crown is carried to the Palace of Westminster in its own State Coach (the Australian State Coach). From the Victoria Tower, the Crown is passed by the sovereign's Bargemaster to the Comptroller of the Lord Chamberlain's office, under the watchful eye of the Crown Jeweller. It is then carried, along with the Great Sword of State and the Cap of Maintenance, to be displayed in the Royal Gallery. Also brought in this procession, usually in King Edward VII's Town Coach, are two maces, separate from the three used by parliament, to be displayed by the Sergeants-at-Arms in the Royal Procession.

The monarch arrives at the Palace of Westminster from Buckingham Palace in a state coach (since 2014, the Diamond Jubilee State Coach), entering through the Sovereign's Entrance under the Victoria Tower; the monarch is usually accompanied by his or her consort and sometimes by other members of the royal family. Members of the armed forces line the procession route from Buckingham Palace to the Palace of Westminster. As the national anthem is played, the Royal Standard is hoisted to replace the Union Flag upon the Sovereign's entrance and remains flying whilst she is present.

Then, after he or she takes on the Parliament Robe of State and Imperial State Crown in the Robing Chamber, the monarch proceeds through the Royal Gallery to the House of Lords, usually accompanied by his or her consort and immediately preceded by the Earl Marshal, and by one peer (the Leader of the House of Lords) carrying the Cap of Maintenance on a white rod, and another peer (a retired senior military officer) carrying the Great Sword of State, all following the Lord Great Chamberlain and his white stick, commonly the practical implement of ceremonial ushers, raised aloft.

Once seated on the throne, the monarch, wearing the Imperial State Crown, instructs the House by saying, "My Lords, pray be seated"; her consort takes his seat on the throne to her left and other members of the royal family may be seated elsewhere on the dais.

Motioned by the monarch, the Lord Great Chamberlain raises his wand of office to signal to the Gentleman/Lady Usher of the Black Rod (known as Black Rod), who is charged with summoning the House of Commons and has been waiting in the Central Lobby. Black Rod turns and, under the escort of the Door-keeper of the House of Lords and a police inspector, proceeds to the Members' Lobby of the House of Commons, and reaches the doors of the Commons.

In 1642, King Charles I stormed into the House of Commons in an unsuccessful attempt to arrest the Five Members, who included the celebrated English patriot & leading parliamentarian John Hampden. Since that time, no British monarch has entered the House of Commons when it is sitting.

On Black Rod's approach, the Doorkeeper of the Commons orders that the doors are slammed shut against him, symbolising the rights of parliament and its independence from the monarch.

The Usher of the Black Rod then strikes with the end of his ceremonial staff (the Black Rod) three times on the closed doors of the Commons Chamber, and is then admitted. (There is a mark on the door of the Commons showing the repeated indentations made by Black Rods over the years.)

The Sergeant-at-Arms introduces Black Rod. At the bar, Black Rod bows to the Speaker before proceeding to the table, bowing again; announcing the command of the monarch for the attendance of the Commons, in the following words: Mr [or Madam] Speaker, The Queen commands this honourable House [pauses to bow to both sides of the House] to attend Her Majesty immediately in the House of Peers. A tradition has developed in recent years for this command to be greeted with a defiant topical comment by republican-leaning Labour MP Dennis Skinner, upon which, with some mirth, the House rises to make their way to the Lords' Chamber.

This customary intervention was omitted by Mr Skinner in 2015, claiming that he had "bigger fish to fry than uttering something", due to a dispute over seating with the Scottish Nationalists. Skinner resumed the practice in 2016.

Procession of the Commons

The Speaker proceeds to attend the summons at once. The Sergeant-at-Arms picks up the ceremonial mace and, with the Speaker and Black Rod, leads the Members of the House of Commons as they walk, in pairs, towards the House of Lords. By custom, the members saunter, with much discussion and joking, rather than formally process.

The Prime Minister and the Leader of the Opposition followed by The Deputy Prime Minister, First Secretary of State or another member of the government and the Deputy Leader of the Opposition usually walk side by side, leading the two lines of MPs. The Commons then arrive at the Bar of the House of Lords. The only people required to bow are the House of Commons Speaker, Commons Clerk, senior Lords official Black Rod and the Sergeant-at-Arms. No person who is not a member of the Upper House may pass the Bar unbidden when it is in session; a similar rule applies to the Commons. They remain standing at the Bar during the speech.

The monarch reads a prepared speech, known as the "Speech from the Throne" or the "Queen's Speech", outlining the Government's agenda for the coming year. The speech is written by the Prime Minister & their cabinet members, reflects the legislative agenda for which the Government seeks the agreement of both Houses of Parliament. It is traditionally written on goatskin vellum; presented on bended knee for the monarch to read by the Lord Chancellor, who produces the scroll from a satchel-like bag.

Traditionally, rather than turning his back on the Sovereign, which might appear disrespectful, the Lord Chancellor walks backwards down the steps of the throne, continuing to face the monarch.

Lord Irvine of Lairg, the Lord Chancellor at the time, sought to break the custom and applied successfully for permission to turn his back on the sovereign and walk down the steps forwards.

The next Lord Chancellor, Jack Straw, continued the former tradition but succeeding Lord Chancellors have chosen to walk forwards. The whole speech is addressed to "My Lords and Members of the House of Commons", with one significant exception that the monarch says specifically, "Members of the House of Commons, estimates for the public services will be laid before you", since the budget is constitutionally reserved to the Commons.

The monarch reads the entire speech in a neutral and formal tone, implying neither approval nor disapproval of the proposals of Her Government: the monarch makes constant reference to "My Government" when reading the text. After listing the main bills to be introduced during the session, the monarch states: "Other measures will be laid before you", thus leaving the government scope to introduce bills not mentioned in the speech. The monarch mentions any state visits that she intends to make and also any planned state visits of foreign heads of state to the UK during the parliamentary session. The monarch concludes the speech in saying: "My Lords and Members of the House of Commons, I pray that the blessing of Almighty God may rest upon your counsels".

Traditionally, the members of both houses of Parliament listen to the speech respectfully, neither applauding nor showing dissent towards its contents before it is debated in each house. This silence, however, was broken in 1998, when Queen Elizabeth II announced the government's plan of abolishing the right of hereditary peers to sit in the House of Lords. A few Labour members of the House of Commons cried "yes" and "hear", prompting several of the Lords to shout "no" and "shame".

The Queen continued delivering her speech without any pause, ignoring the intervention. The conduct of those who interrupted the speech was strongly criticised at the time.

Following the speech, the monarch and his or her retinue leave the chamber. The monarch bows to both sides of the House of Peers and then leaves the chamber, in the reverse order of the usual procession, before the Commons bow again and return to their Chamber.

After the departure of the Queen from the palace, each Chamber proceeds to the consideration of an "Address in Reply to Her Majesty's Gracious Speech." But first, each House considers a bill *pro forma* to symbolise their right to deliberate independently of the monarch.

In the House of Lords, the bill is called the Select Vestries Bill, while the Commons equivalent is the Outlawries Bill. The bills are considered for the sake of ceremony only, and do not make any actual legislative progress. For the address in reply, a chosen member moves "That an humble Address be presented to Her Majesty, as follows". The following is the form used in the House of Lords and is nearly identical to that used in the House of Commons: We, Your Majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal in Parliament assembled, beg leave to thank Your Majesty for the most gracious Speech. which Your Majesty has addressed to both Houses of Parliament.

The first speech of the debate in the Commons is, by tradition, a humorous one given by a member selected in advance. The consideration of the address in reply to the Throne Speech is the occasion for a debate on the Government's agenda. The debate on the Address in Reply is spread over several days. On each day, a different topic, such as foreign affairs or finance, is considered.

The debate provides an indication of the views of Parliament regarding the government's agenda. Following this debate, a vote is taken on the Government Programme. If the Government loses the vote, it is considered to be a vote of no confidence.

On two occasions, in 1974 and 2017, the State Opening has been conducted in a "dressed-down" manner, due to the snap general elections held in those years. This form of ceremony has been marked by several changes. Most noticeably, the Queen attended in a hat and morning dress, rather than the traditional crown, ball gown, and robe of state. The Imperial State Crown is carried in front of the Queen, in the same manner as the Sword of State and Cap of Maintenance. No carriages or coaches are used, the Queen arrives at Westminster by motorcar. There is no military escort in the streets for this procession. Finally, certain personages, such as Heralds and Officers of Arms, are not in attendance at the ceremony. Other than these changes, the ceremony remains largely the same.

Laws can be made by Acts of the UK Parliament. While Acts can apply to the whole of the UK including Scotland, due to the continuing separation of Scots law many Acts do not apply to Scotland and may be matched either by equivalent Acts that apply to Scotland alone or, since 1999, by legislation set by the Scottish Parliament relating to devolved matters.

This has led to a paradox known as the West Lothian question. The existence of a devolved Scottish Parliament means that while Westminster MPs from Scotland may vote directly on matters that affect English constituencies, they may not have much power over their laws affecting their own constituency. Since there is no devolved "English Parliament", the converse is not true.

While any Act of the Scottish Parliament may be overturned, amended or ignored by Westminster, in practice this has yet to happen. Legislative Consent Motions enables the UK Parliament to vote on issues normally devolved to Scotland, Wales or Northern Ireland, as part of UK legislation.

Laws, in draft form known as bills, may be introduced by any member of either House.

A bill introduced by a Minister is known as a "Government Bill"; one introduced by another member is called a "Private Member's Bill". A different way of categorising bills involves the subject.

Most bills, involving the general public, are called "public bills". A bill that seeks to grant special rights to an individual or small group of individuals, or a body such as a local authority, is called a "Private Bill". A Public Bill which affects private rights (in the way a Private Bill would) is called a "Hybrid Bill", although those that draft bills take pains to avoid this.

Private Members' Bills make up the majority of bills, but are far less likely to be passed than government bills. There are three methods for an MP to introduce a Private Member's Bill. The Private Members' Ballot (once per Session) put names into a ballot, and those who win are given time to propose a bill. The Ten Minute Rule is another method, where MPs are granted ten minutes to outline the case for a new piece of legislation. Standing Order 57 is the third method, which allows a bill to be introduced without debate if a day's notice is given to the Table Office.

Filibustering is a danger, as an opponent of a bill can waste much of the limited time allotted to it. Private Members' Bills have no chance of success if the current government opposes them, but they are used in moral issues: the bills to decriminalise homosexuality and abortion were Private Members' Bills, for example. Governments can sometimes attempt to use Private Members' Bills to pass things it would rather not be associated with. "Handout bills" are bills which a government hands to MPs who win Private Members' Ballots.

Each Bill goes through several stages in each House. The first stage, called the first reading, is a formality. At the second reading, the general principles of the bill are debated, and the House may vote to reject the bill, by not passing the motion "That the Bill be now read a second time". Defeats of Government Bills in the Commons are extremely rare, the last being in 2005, and may constitute a motion of no confidence. (Defeats of Bills in the Lords never affect confidence and are much more frequent.) Following the second reading, the bill is sent to a committee.

In the House of Lords, the Committee of the Whole House or the Grand Committeeare used. Each consists of all members of the House; the latter operates under special procedures, and is used only for uncontroversial bills. In the House of Commons, the bill is usually committed to a Public Bill Committee, consisting of between 16 and 50 members, but the Committee of the Whole House is used for important legislation. Several other types of committees, including Select Committees, may be used, but rarely. A committee considers the bill clause by clause, and reports the bill as amended to the House, where further detailed consideration ("consideration stage" or "report stage") occurs.

However, a practice which used to be called the "kangaroo" allows the Speaker to select which amendments are debated. This device is used under Standing Order 89 by the committee chairman, to restrict debate in committee.

The Speaker, who is impartial as between the parties, by convention selects amendments for debate which represent the main divisions of opinion within the House.

Other amendments can technically be proposed, but in practice have no chance of success unless the parties in the House are closely divided. If pressed they would normally be casually defeated by acclamation. Once the House has considered the bill, the third reading follows. In the House of Commons, no further amendments may be made, and the passage of the motion "That the Bill be now read a third time" is passage of the whole bill.

In the House of Lords further amendments to the bill may be moved. After the passage of the third reading motion, the House of Lords must vote on the motion "That the Bill do now pass".

Following its passage in one House, the bill is sent to the other House. If passed in identical form by both Houses, it may be presented for the Sovereign's Assent.

If one House passes amendments that the other will not agree to, and the two Houses cannot resolve their disagreements, the bill will normally fail. Since the passage of the Parliament Act 1911 the power of the House of Lords to reject bills passed by the House of Commons has been restricted, with further restrictions were placed by the Parliament Act 1949. If the House of Commons passes a public bill in two successive sessions, and the House of Lords rejects it both times, the Commons may direct that the bill be presented to the Sovereign for his or her Assent, disregarding the rejection of the Bill in the House of Lords. In each case, the bill must be passed by the House of Commons at least one calendar month before the end of the session. The provision does not apply to Private Bills bills or to Public bills if they originated in the House of Lords or if they seek to extend the duration of a Parliament beyond five years. A special procedure applies in relation to bills classified by the Speaker of the House of Commons as "Money Bills".

A Money Bill concerns *solely* national taxation or public funds; the Speaker's certificate is deemed conclusive under all circumstances. If the House of Lords fails to pass a Money Bill within one month of its passage in the House of Commons, the Lower House may direct that the Bill be submitted for the Sovereign's Assent immediately.

Even before the passage of the Parliament Acts, the Commons possessed pre-eminence in cases of financial matters. By ancient custom, the House of Lords may not introduce a bill relating to taxation or Supply, nor amend a bill so as to insert a provision relating to taxation or Supply, nor amend a Supply Bill in any way. The House of Commons is free to waive this privilege, does so to allow the House of Lords to pass amendments with financial implications.

The House of Lords remains free to reject bills relating to Supply and taxation, but may be over-ruled easily if the bills are Money Bills. (A bill relating to revenue and Supply may not be a Money Bill if it includes subjects other than national taxation and public funds).

The last stage of a bill involves the granting of the Royal Assent. Theoretically, the Sovereign may either grant or withhold Royal Assent (make the bill a law or veto the bill). In modern times the Sovereign always grants the Royal Assent, using the Norman French words "La Reyne le veult" (the Queen wishes it; "Le Roy" instead in the case of a king). The last refusal to grant the Assent was in 1708, when Queen Anne withheld her Assent from a bill "for the settling of Militia in Scotland", in the words "*La reyne s'avisera*" (the Queen will think it over).

Thus, every bill obtains the assent of all three components of Parliament before it becomes law (except where the House of Lords is over-ridden under the Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949).

The words "BE IT ENACTED by the Queen's [King's] most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual, Temporal, Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:-", or, where the House of Lords' authority has been over-ridden by use of the Parliament Acts, the words "BE IT ENACTED by The Queen's [King's] most Excellent Majesty, in accordance with the provisions of the Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949, and by the authority of the same, as follows: "appear near the beginning of each Act of Parliament.

JUDICIAL FUNCTIONS

Prior to the creation of the Supreme Court of the UK in October 2009, Parliament also used to perform several judicial functions. The Queen-in-Parliament constituted the highest court in the realm for most purposes, but the Privy Council had jurisdiction in some cases (appeals from ecclesiastical courts). The jurisdiction of Parliament arose from the ancient custom of petitioning the Houses to redress grievances and to do justice.

The House of Commons ceased considering petitions to reverse the judgements of lower courts in 1399, effectively leaving the House of Lords as the court of last resort. In modern times, the judicial functions of the House of Lords were performed not by the whole House, but by a group of "Lords of Appeal in Ordinary" (judges granted life peerage dignities under the Appellate Jurisdiction Act 1876 by the Sovereign) and by "Lords of Appeal" (other peers with experience in the judiciary).

However, under the Constitutional Reform Act 2005, these judicial functions were transferred to the newly created Supreme Court in 2009, and the Lords of Appeal in Ordinary became the first Justices of the Court. Peers who hold high judicial office are no longer allowed to vote or speak in the Lords until they retire as Justices.

In the late 19th century, Acts allowed for the appointment of *Scottish Lords of Appeal in Ordinary* and ended appeal in Scottish criminal matters to the House of Lords, so that the High Court of Justiciary became the highest criminal court in Scotland. There is an argument that the provisions of Article XIX of the Union with England Act 1707 prevent any Court outside Scotland from hearing any appeal in criminal cases.

The House of Lords judicial committee usually had a minimum of two Scottish Judges to ensure that some experience of Scots law was brought to bear on Scottish appeals in civil cases, from the Court of Session. The Supreme Court now usually has at least three Scottish judges, together with at least two from Northern Ireland. As Wales is developing its own judicature, it is likely that the same principle will be applied. Certain other judicial functions have historically been performed by the House of Lords. Until 1948, it was the body in which peers had to be tried for felonies or high treason; now, they are tried by normal juries. The last occasion of the trial of a peer in the House of Lords was in 1935. When the House of Commons impeaches an individual, the trial takes place in the House of Lords. Impeachments are now rare; the last one occurred in 1806.

In 2006, a number of MPs attempted to revive the custom, having signed a motion for the impeachment of Tony Blair, but this was unsuccessful.

THE RELATIONSHIP WITH THE UK GOVERNMENT

The British Government is answerable to the House of Commons. However, neither the Prime Minister nor members of the Government are elected by the House of Commons. Instead, the Queen requests the person most likely to command the support of a majority in the House, normally the leader of the largest party in the House of Commons, to form a government.

So that they may be accountable to the Lower House, the Prime Minister and most members of the Cabinet are, by convention, members of the House of Commons. The last Prime Minister to be a member of the House of Lords was Alec Douglas-Home, 14th Earl of Home, who became Prime Minister in 1963. To adhere to the convention under which he was responsible to the Lower House, he disclaimed his peerage and procured election to the House of Commons within days of becoming Prime Minister.

Governments have a tendency to dominate the legislative functions of Parliament, by using their in-built majority in the House of Commons, and sometimes using their patronage power to appoint supportive peers in the Lords. In practice, governments can pass any legislation (within reason) in the Commons they wish, unless there is major dissent by MPs in the governing party.

But even in these situations, it is highly unlikely a bill will be defeated, though dissenting MPs may be able to extract concessions from the government. In 1976, Lord Hailsham created a now widely used name for this behaviour, in an academic paper called "elective dictatorship".

Parliament controls the executive by passing or rejecting its Bills and by forcing Ministers of the Crown to answer for their actions, either at "Question Time" or during meetings of the parliamentary committees. In both cases, Ministers are asked questions by members of their Houses, and are obliged to answer. Although the House of Lords may scrutinise the executive through Question Time and through its committees, it cannot bring down the Government.

A ministry must always retain the confidence and support of the House of Commons.

The Lower House may indicate its lack of support by rejecting a Motion of Confidence or by passing a Motion of No Confidence. Confidence Motions are generally originated by the Government to reinforce its support in the House, whilst No Confidence Motions are introduced by the Opposition.

The motions sometimes take the form "That this House has [no] confidence in Her Majesty's Government" but several other varieties, many referring to specific policies supported or opposed by Parliament, are used. A Confidence Motion of 1992 used the form, "That this House expresses the support for the economic policy of Her Majesty's Government."

Such a motion may theoretically be introduced in the House of Lords, but, as the Government need not enjoy the confidence of that House, would not be of the same effect as a similar motion in the House of Commons; the only modern instance of such an occurrence involves the 'No Confidence' motion that was introduced in 1993 and subsequently defeated.

Many votes are considered votes of confidence, although not including the language mentioned above. Important bills that form part of the Government's agenda (as stated in the Speech from the Throne) are generally considered matters of confidence. The defeat of such a bill by the House of Commons indicates that a Government no longer has the confidence of that House. The same effect is achieved if the House of Commons "withdraws Supply", that is, rejects the budget.

Where a Government has lost the confidence of the House of Commons, in other words has lost the ability to secure the basic requirement of the authority of the House of Commons to tax and to spend Government money, the Prime Minister is obliged either to resign, or seek the dissolution of Parliament and a new general election. Otherwise the machinery of government grinds to a halt within days. The third choice – to mount a coup d'etat or an anti-democratic revolution – is hardly to be contemplated in the present age. Though all three situations have arisen in recent years even in developed economies, international relations have allowed a disaster to be avoided.

Where a Prime Minister has ceased to retain the necessary majority and requests a dissolution, the Sovereign can in theory reject his or her request, forcing a resignation and allowing the Leader of the Opposition to be asked to form a new government. This power is used extremely rarely. The conditions that should be met to allow such a refusal are known as the Lascelles Principles.

These conditions and principles are constitutional conventions arising from the Sovereign's reserve powers as well as longstanding tradition and practice, not laid down in law.

In practice, the House of Commons' scrutiny of the Government is very weak. Since the first-past-the-post electoral system is employed in elections, the governing party tends to enjoy a large majority in the Commons; there is often limited need to compromise with other parties. Modern British political parties are so tightly organised that they leave relatively little room for free action by their MPs.

In many cases, MPs may be expelled from their parties for voting against the instructions of party leaders. During the 20th century, the Government has lost confidence issues only three times – twice in 1924, and once in 1979.

Parliamentary Questions

In the UK, question time in the House of Commons lasts for an hour each day from Monday to Thursday (2:30 to 3:30 pm on Mondays, 11:30 am to 12:30 pm on Tuesdays and Wednesdays, and 9:30 to 10:30 am on Thursdays). Each Government department has its place in a rota which repeats every five weeks. The exception to this sequence are the Business Questions (Questions to the Leader of House of Commons), in which questions are answered each Thursday about the business of the House the following week. Questions to the Prime Minister takes place each Wednesday from noon to 12:30 p.m. In addition to government departments, there are questions to the Church commissioners.

Additionally, each Member of Parliament is entitled to table questions for written answer.

Written questions are addressed to the Ministerial head of a government department, usually a Secretary of State, but they are often answered by a Minister of State or Parliamentary Under Secretary of State. Written Questions are submitted to the Clerks of the Table Office, either on paper or electronically, and answers are recorded in *The Official Report (Hansard)* so as to be widely available and accessible. In the House of Lords, a half-hour is set aside each afternoon at the start of the day's proceedings for Lords' oral questions. A peer submits a question in advance, which then appears on the Order Paper for the day's proceedings. The Lord shall say: "*My Lords, I beg leave to ask the Question standing in my name on the Order Paper*". The Minister responsible then answers the question. The Lord is then allowed to ask a supplementary question and other peers ask further questions on the theme of the original put down on the order paper. (For instance, if the question regards immigration, Lords can ask the Minister any question related to immigration during the allowed period).

The question of Parliamentary sovereignty appears to remain unresolved. Parliament has not passed any Act defining its own sovereignty. A related possible limitation on Parliament relates to the Scottish legal system and Presbyterian faith, preservation of which were Scottish preconditions to the creation of the unified Parliament. Since the Parliament of the UK was set up in reliance on these promises, it may be that it has no power to make laws that break them.

Parliament's power has often been eroded by its own Acts. Acts passed in 1921 and 1925 granted the Church of Scotland complete independence in ecclesiastical matters. More recently, its power has been restricted by membership of the European Union, which has the power to make laws enforceable in each member state. In the Factortame case, the European Court of Justice ruled that British courts could have powers to overturn British legislation contravening European law.

Parliament has created national devolved parliaments and assemblies with differing degrees of legislative authority in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Parliament still has the power over areas for which responsibility lies with the devolved institutions, but would gain the agreement of those institutions to act on their behalf. Similarly, it has granted the power to make regulations to Ministers of the Crown, and the power to enact religious legislation to the General Synod of the Church of England.

PRIVILEGES OF PARLIAMENT

Each House of Parliament possesses and guards various ancient privileges. The House of Lords relies on inherent right. In the case of the House of Commons, the Speaker goes to the Lords' Chamber at the beginning of each new Parliament and requests representatives of the Sovereign to confirm the Lower House's "undoubted" privileges and rights. The ceremony observed by the House of Commons dates to the reign of King Henry VIII. Each House is the guardian of its privileges, may punish breaches thereof. The extent of parliamentary privilege is based on law and custom.

Sir William Blackstone states that these privileges are "very large and indefinite", and cannot be defined except by the Houses of Parliament themselves.

The foremost privilege claimed by both Houses is that of freedom of speech in debate; nothing said in either House may be questioned in any court or other institution outside Parliament.

Another privilege claimed is that of freedom from arrest; at one time this was held to apply for any arrest except for high treason, felony or breach of the peace but it now excludes any arrest on criminal charges; it applies during a session of Parliament, and 40 days before or after such a session. Members of both Houses are no longer privileged from service on juries.

Both Houses possess the power to punish breaches of their privilege. Contempt of Parliament – disobedience of a subpoena issued by a committee – may be punished.

The House of Lords may imprison an individual for any fixed period of time, but an individual imprisoned by the House of Commons is set free upon prorogation. The punishments imposed by either House may not be challenged in any court, and the Human Rights Act does not apply.

Until at least 2015, members of the House of Commons also had the privilege of a separate seating area in the Palace of Westminster canteen, protected by a false partition labelled "MPs only beyond this point", so that they did not have to sit with canteen staff taking a break. This provoked mockery from a newly elected 20-year-old MP who described it as "ridiculous" snobbery.

The quasi-official emblem of the Houses of Parliament is a crowned portcullis. The portcullis was originally the badge of various English noble families from the 14th century. It went on to be adopted by the kings of the Tudor dynasty in the 16th century, under whom the Palace of Westminster became the regular meeting place of Parliament. The crown was added to make the badge a specifically royal symbol. The portcullis probably first came to be associated with the Palace of Westminster through its use as decoration in the rebuilding of the Palace after the fire of 1512.

However, at the time it was only one of many symbols. The widespread use of the portcullis throughout the Palace dates from the 19th century, when Charles Barry and Augustus Pugin used it extensively as a decorative feature in their designs for the new Palace built following the disastrous 1834 fire. The crowned portcullis came to be accepted during the 20th century as the emblem of both houses of parliament. This was simply a result of custom and usage rather than a specific decision. The emblem now appears on official stationery, publications and papers, and is stamped on various items in use in the Palace of Westminster, such as cutlery, silverware and china. Various shades of red and green are used for visual identification of the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

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

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

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

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS

The Countries of the UK are divided into parliamentary constituencies of broadly equal population by the four Boundary Commissions. Each constituency elects a Member of Parliament (MP) to the House of Commons at General Elections and, if required, at by-elections.

In modern times, all Prime Ministers and Leaders of the Opposition have been drawn from the Commons, not the Lords. Alec Douglas-Home resigned from his peerages days after becoming Prime Minister in 1963, and the last Prime Minister before him from the Lords left in 1902 (the Marquess of Salisbury). One party usually has a majority in Parliament, because of the use of the First Past the Post electoral system, which has been conducive in creating the current two party systems.

The monarch normally asks a person commissioned to form a government simply whether it can survive in the House of Commons, something which majority governments are expected to be able to do. In exceptional circumstances the monarch asks someone to "form a government" *with a parliamentary minority* which in the event of no party having a majority requires the formation of a coalition government. This option is only ever taken at a time of national emergency, such as war-time. It was given in 1916 to Andrew Bonar Law, and when he declined, to David Lloyd George and in 1940 to Winston Churchill.

It is worth noting that a government is not formed by a vote of the House of Commons, merely a commission from the monarch. The House of Commons gets its first chance to indicate confidence in the new government when it votes on the Speech from the Throne (the legislative programme by the new government). The House of Commons has 650 members – 524 from England, 38 from Wales, 72 from Scotland, and 16 from Northern Ireland. The prime minister and most Cabinet ministers are members of the Commons. Each member represents a voting district called a constituency. Members are not required to live in the constituency they represent. Clergy of the Church of England, the Church of Scotland, the Church of Ireland, and the Roman Catholic Church cannot be elected to the Commons. Members of the nobility – except peers of Ireland – and certain government officials also are ineligible. Members of the House of Commons receive an annual salary. They get travel and administrative expenses. Members of the Commons are chosen in a general election, in which all voters may participate.

If a member dies or resigns, the constituency chooses a new representative in a by-election. Members of the House of Commons are elected to a maximum term of five years, after which Parliament must be dissolved and another election held. However, an election may be called at any time, and most Parliaments sit (are in session) for less than five years.

The prime minister may call for a new election if Parliament refuses to support the policies of the Cabinet. The prime minister may call for a vote if he or she believes the political climate of the country favours another victory by his or her party.

The House of Commons sits for about 160 days annually from November to October. Most sessions last from mid-afternoon to evening, though some sessions continue through the night. The Commons meets in a long room with rows of benches running along two sides. The Speaker of the House of Commons sits at one end of the chamber.

The members of the House of Commons take their seats on the green leather benches according to their party and position. From this we get the terms "*frontbenches*", "*backbenches*" and "*crossbenches*".

The two sides, the Government and the Opposition, sit facing one another. If, for example, you sit in the Public gallery of the House of Commons, you would see the Government sitting to the left of the table.

The leaders of the Government and the Opposition are known as the frontbench because they sit on the benches nearest the centre of the chamber. Other members sit behind them and are known as the backbench. The Government and the Opposition debate most proposed legislation.

Other discussion between the two sides takes place at the question periods at the opening of the order of business. Members of the Opposition question the prime minister and other members of the Government about their policies. The Opposition parties would be seated to the right.

Government ministers sit on the frontbench on the Government side of the Chamber. They are therefore known as Government frontbenches. Those MPs who belong to the same party as the Government but who do not hold a Government post are known as Government backbenches. The Official Opposition is divided in the same way. The Opposition consists of all those parties, which, as a result of the last general election are not part of the Government.

It is made up of the official opposition, the largest opposition party, and a number of smaller parties. The Labour Party has the largest number of MPs in the House of Commons, having won the most seats in the general election of 1997. The party winning most seats in a general election will form a government and the party leader becomes Prime Minister. The Speaker presides over the sessions, grants members the right to speak and keeps order during debates. Members of the prime minister's party, representing the Government, sit on the benches to the Speaker's right. Members of other political parties supporting the Government also sit on that side of the room. Members of the second largest party, called the Opposition, and their supporters sit to the left of the Speaker.

Exercise 1. Answer the questions.

1. How are the countries of the UK divided? 2. How does each constituency elect a Member of Parliament (MP) to the House of Commons? 3. Where are Prime Ministers and Leaders of the Opposition drawn? 4. When does the monarch ask someone to "form a government" with a parliamentary minority? 5. How many members does the House of Commons have? 6. Who cannot be elected to the Commons? 7. How long does the House of Commons sit? 8. How are the leaders of the Government and the Opposition known? 9. Who questions the prime minister? 10. Where do the Opposition parties sit?

Exercise 2. For questions (1-10) choose the correct answer (a-c).

1. How many members are there in the House of Commons?
a) 650 b) 567 c) 658
2. What election are members of the Commons chosen in?
a) National elections b) General election c) Primary election
3. What term are members of the Commons elected to?
a) five years b) four years c) seven years
4. How long are most Parliaments in session?
a) 10 hours b) 7 hours c) 12 hours
5. How long does the House of Commons annually sit?
a) 100 days b) 160 days c) 200 days
6. What do the Government and the Opposition most debate?
a) Legislation b) Money bills c) Domestic affairs
7. What party has the largest number of MPs in the House of Commons?
a) The Labour Party b) The Conservatives c) The Liberals
8. When did the Labour Party win the most seats?
a) 1997 b) 1993 c) 1989
9. When did the Conservatives win the general elections?
a) 1979, 1983 and 1992 b) 1983, 1987 and 1992 c) 1964, 1968 and 1973
10. When has Mr. Blair been first the Prime Minister?
a) 1997 b) 1990 c) 1992

Exercise 3. Try to understand the new vocabulary.

Eligible, to be eligible, eligible for membership, eligible for [to] re-election, eligible to vote, eligible candidate, eligible person, eligible voter, eligibility, eligibleness, ineligible, ineligibility.

Exercise 4. Give synonyms to the following words in column I from column II.

I. Session, bench, to influence, trust, to supply, bill, to rule, extreme, eligible, represent.
II. Sitting, post, to govern, confidence, to provide, act, emergency, ineligible, symbolize, to effect.

THE HOUSE OF LORDS

The House of Lords was previously a largely hereditary aristocratic chamber, although including life peers, Law Lords and Lords Spiritual. It is currently mid-way through extensive reforms, the most recent of these being enacted in the House of Lords Act 1999.

The house still currently consists of two very different types of member, the Lords Temporal and Lords Spiritual. Lords Temporal include appointed members (life peers with no hereditary right for their descendants to sit in the house) and ninety-two remaining hereditary peers, elected from among, and by, the holders of titles which previously gave a seat in the House of Lords.

The Lords Spiritual represent the established Church of England and number 26, the Archbishops of York and of Canterbury and the 24 most senior Bishops of the church.

The House of Lords currently acts to review legislation initiated by the House of Commons, with the power to propose amendments, and can exercise a suspensive veto.

This allows it to delay legislation if it does not approve it for twelve months. However, the use of vetoes is limited by convention and by the operation of the Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949: the Lords may not veto the "money bills" or major manifesto promises. Persistent use of the veto can also be overturned by the Commons, under a provision of the Parliament Act 1911.

Often governments will accept changes in legislation in order to avoid both the time delay, and the negative publicity of being seen to clash with the Lords. However the Lords still retain a full veto in acts which would extend the life of Parliament beyond the 5 year term limit introduced by the Parliament Act 1911. The House of Lords is currently also the final court of appeal on civil cases within the UK, although in practice only a small subset of the House of Lords, known as the Law Lords, hears judicial cases. In accordance with the legal doctrine of *stare decisis*, the House of Lords supersedes all civil and criminal courts in England & Wales. The Constitutional Reform Act 2005 outlines plans for a Supreme Court of the UK to replace the role of the Law Lords.

As you know, a parliament is the group of people who *make the laws* of their country. British laws are made in Parliament, which consists of two Houses, as they are called, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The House of Lords is called the upper house of Parliament, though it has less power than the House of Commons.

The term upper house refers to the branch of a lawmaking body that is less subject to control by the voters. This house, for example, is not an elected assembly. Most of its members inherit their seats. The main function of the House of Lords is to review legislation passed by the House of Commons. Although the Lords can amend bills, it rarely changes their basic principles. The Lords also serves as the UK's highest court of appeals.

The House of Lords has about 1,170 members, including about 800 hereditary peers and peeresses, about 320 life peers and peeresses, about 20 law lords, and 26 lords spiritual. Hereditary peers and peeresses are members of the nobility who have inherited their seats.

Life peers and peeresses are appointed to the Lords to honour their achievements in business, civil service, or other fields. They have the title of baron or baroness. Law lords, called lords of appeals, are chosen from among the UK's highest-ranking judges. They form the final court of appeal for civil cases throughout Britain and for criminal cases in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland.

The House of Lords consists of the Lords "Spiritual and Temporal". Lords Spiritual are senior members of the Church of England. The Lords Spiritual are the two archbishops (Canterbury and York) and 24 bishops of the church of England. The Lords Temporal include *peers by* hereditary right, *peer by virtue* of their office (the Law Lords), and Life peers created under the Life Peerages Act, 1958. Peerages are created by the sovereign; about half have been created since 1920. Peerages can also be renounced for life under the Peerages Act, 1963. Life peers, law lords; lords spiritual are appointed to their seats for life.

Their children do not inherit their seats. The peers sit comfortably on their red leather benches as the MPs stand awkwardly *huddled together* below the bar while the Queen reads the *throne speech*, which *outlines* the Government's programme of legislation for the *coming session*. Before the throne in the House of Lords, and dividing the benches, is the woolsack upon which the Lord Chancellor sits as Speaker of the House.

By traditions, the woolsack was introduced in the reign of Edward III and it is recorded in the House of Lords documents "that the judges shall sit upon woolsack".

The woolsack is now stuffed with wood from England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and from the Commonwealth countries. Members of the Government and their *supporters* sitting to the right of the throne, and those of the Opposition to the left.

The bishops always sit on the Government side of the House crossbenches, set near the bar of the House, are for the use of peers who sit as Independents. Only about 20 % of the members attend most debates in the House of Lords. Members are not paid a salary, but they do receive travel expenses. Each session of Parliament is usually opened in the House of Lords by the Queen who is attended by heralds, officers of the Court and members of the Diplomatic Corps.

The Commons are "summoned" to the Chamber by Black Rod (the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod, whose title *derives from* the black staff with golf fittings which he carries on *formal occasions*). In the full House of Lords there are some 1.000 potential members, though the actual numbers are cut to fewer than 700 working members by a voluntary process of a "leave of absence". When Cromwell's troopers crushed the King's men, the House of Lords, which had backed the King in his dictatorship, *was abolished* only to be restored when Charles II *was restored* to the throne. Over the past two centuries of more modern times, there has been pressure for the House of Lords to be abolished or reformed. The Liberals, faced with a Lords veto on a Budget, had to pass the Parliament Act of 1912 restricting the House of Lords delaying power on laws to 2 years. In 1949 this power to delay was reduced to one year. The Lords don't possess the power to reject a money bill.

Exercise 1. Summarize major points about parliament.

Exercise 2. Answer the questions.

1. What is the difference between a Bill and an Act of Parliament? 2. What two types of Bills do you know? 3. What stages should a Bill complete to become an Act? 4. What are the functions of the House of Lords in making a law? 5. Which of the two Houses of Parliament has more power? 6. When does a Bill become an Act of Parliament? 7. What supersedes all civil and criminal courts in England & Wales? 8. What outlines plans for a Supreme Court of the UK to replace the role of the Law Lords? 9. How many members does the House of Lords have? 10. Who are the Lords "Spiritual and Temporal"? 11. Are there some potential members in the full House of Lords? 12. How are Peerages created? 13. How many actual numbers are cut? 14. How many percents of the members attend most debates in the House of Lords? 15. Members are not paid a salary, but they do receive travel expenses, aren't they? 16. The Lords don't possess the power to reject a money bill, do they?

A BRIEF HISTORY OF ENGLISH PARLIAMENT

The British Parliament developed from a council of nobles and high-ranking clergy that advised the early kings of England. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, this informal advisory group became a formal assembly called the Great Council. It met three times yearly to help the king decide matters of government policy and to make laws.

During the early 1200's, King John began to call knights elected from the shires (counties) to some meetings of the Great Council. He summoned the knights to obtain their approval of taxes he had levied, because tax collection would be difficult without their cooperation. In the mid-1200's, the English statesman Simon de Montfort enlarged the council, by then called Parliament, to include elected representatives from towns, shires, and boroughs. The meeting King Edward I called in 1295 became known as the Model Parliament, because it resembled later Parliaments.

By the mid-1300's, the elected representatives began to meet separately from the nobles and bishops, and Parliament was divided into two houses. By the late 1300's, the Commons obtained the right to consider tax legislation before it was discussed by the Lords. However, the Commons had no power to initiate legislation. It could only ask the monarch to grant requests.

By the early 1400's, the Commons gained the right to introduce bills. Parliament has met on the same site in London since 1547. As its role in government increased, Parliament demanded greater power. During the 1620's, the struggle between Parliament and the king became bitter.

In 1628, Parliament forced King Charles I to sign the Petition of Right, a document that limited royal power. However, Charles refused to obey the agreement. He did not allow Parliament to meet from 1629 until 1640, when he was forced to call a meeting to obtain funds. But Parliament refused to provide any money unless Charles obeyed the Petition of Right. He refused, and civil war broke out. In 1649, Parliament ordered Charles beheaded. The legislature, led by the Puritan general Oliver Cromwell, declared England a republic and ruled until 1653. Because the same Parliament had remained in session since 1640, it became known as the Long Parliament. Cromwell then ruled as a dictator until his death in 1658. In 1660, a new Parliament restored the monarchy.

The Bill of Rights of 1689 gave Parliament the right to meet frequently and have freedom of speech during debates. It confirmed the right of the Commons to control financial legislation. By the early 1700's, Parliament had gained nearly total control over the monarchy. In 1707, the Act of Union joined England, Scotland, and Wales together to form the Kingdom of Great Britain. The act established a single parliament for the nation. During the 1800's, the membership of Parliament changed dramatically. In the early 1800's, nobles and other wealthy landowners controlled most of the members of Parliament, including the House of Commons. Some districts with almost no voters had representation, while districts with large populations had none. Few citizens had the right to vote. In 1832, Parliament passed a reform act that distributed seats on the basis of population. The act also reduced the property requirements for voting to give most middle-class men, but no women, the right to vote. The Reform Acts of 1867 and 1884 extended the vote to nearly all adult males. In 1928, women received full voting rights.

The Decline of the House of Lords. During the 1800's, the two houses of Parliament remained nearly equal in power. Although the Commons had control over money bills, the Lords had the power to veto legislation. In 1909, the Lords rejected a budget approved by the Commons. A struggle broke out between the two houses of Parliament, which resulted in the Parliamentary Act of 1911. Under this act, the House of Lords lost its veto power. The Lords was permitted to delay money bills for only one month and non-money bills for two years. The Parliamentary Act of 1949 reduced to one year the length of time that the Lords could postpone non-money bills. For 300 years, the Parliament met in St. Stephen's Chapel in the Palace of Westminster. A fire destroyed that building in 1834. The present Houses of Parliament, completed in 1860, are known officially as the New Palace of Westminster.
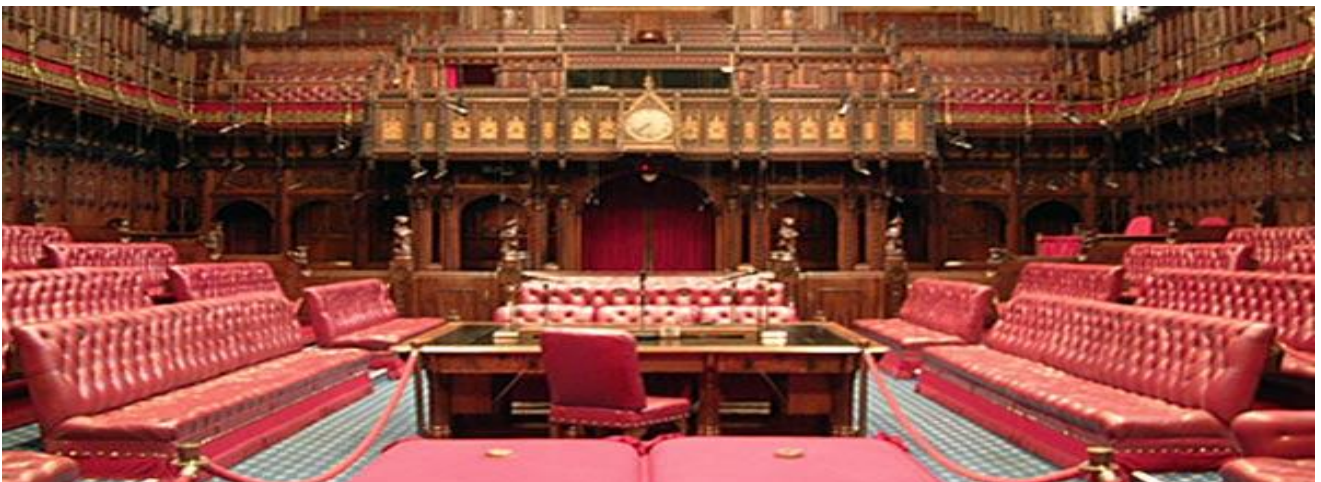
Exercise 1. Digest the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Choose the right variant.

1. Although the queen may _____ a bill, no monarch has done so since the early 1700's.
a) reject b) repel c) rebuff d) refuse
2. They _____ the parliament for two days.
a) adjourned b) deferred c) postponed d) put off
3. You can _____ the parliament for tomorrow.
a) convene b) convoke c) gather d) summon
4. Who can _____ parliament?
a) disband b) dissolve c) disperse d) break up
5. This Act of Parliament was _____ 2 days ago.
a) abolished b) abrogated c) annulled d) cancelled
6. The strike _____ with a bang.
a) came up b) broke out c) began d) started
7. The emperor _____ that all foreigners be expelled.
a) ordained b) predetermined c) predestined d) arranged
8. Every man's end is _____.
a) predetermined b) prepared c) appointed d) decreed
9. She always had a feeling that she was _____ to an early death.
a) predestined b) decreed c) destined d) ordered
10. The government _____ that a new tax should be imposed.
a)   decreed b) predestined c) ordered d) destined

The House of Lords meets in a chamber in the Palace of Westminster.

PARLIAMENT AT WORK

The building in which Parliament meets stand on the site of the royal palace of Westminster, which was *burned down* in 1834. The Commons had met for nearly three centuries before that date in the chapel of the palace, dedicated to St. Stephen. The size and shape of this chapel and the arrangement of the seats in it (facing inwards along the length of the building) have had a *decisive influence* on English political methods. These methods so much *depended on* this arrangement of seating that when the House of Commons had *to be rebuilt* (after the fire of 1834, and again after the fire of 1941 (caused by German bombers) the size and shape of the medieval chapel was copied almost exactly.

This arrangement of the seats has always divided the members into two *distinct groups.* As the practice grew up during the 17-18th centuries of basing the government on the party with a majority in the Commons, it became natural for the government supporters to sit on one side of the House and their opponents (the Opposition) on the other. The chairman of the Commons (called the Speaker, because in the Middle Ages his duty was to speak for the Commons when the king asked their opinion) has his great-canopied chair at the top of what used to be the altar steps of the chapel.

The government party sits on his right, with ministers on the front bench nearest the Speaker.

The Opposition sits on his left, with their leaders on the front bench nearest the Speaker. This division of members, first imposed by the shape and seating arrangements of St. Stephen's Chapel, into two distinct groups – Government and Opposition – has helped *to prevent* more than two large political parties existing in Britain at any one time. From the middle of the 19th century until the World War I these two parties were Conservatives and the Liberals, sometimes one having a majority and sometimes the other. But as more workers got the vote, they began to want a party, which would put forward the point of view of the working class – and the Labour Party was founded in 1899.

The fact that the House of Commons is small (there are seats on the floor of the House for only 346 of the 650 members) has resulted in a very intimate, almost conversational style of discussion or "debate".

A member who wishes to speak must "*catch the Speaker's eye*".

The Speaker, who has a list of members wishing *to speak in the debate*, calls on members to speak alternately from the two sides of the House – that is, *for and against the proposal* before the House. He calls leading members of the Government and Opposition sitting in the front benches before ordinary members – "backbenches" as they are named. The member *called on* to speak rises in his place and begins his speech with the words "Mr. Speaker…". Everything he says must be addressed to the Speaker, never to the other members, and on no account to any individual member.

The purpose of this first rule is to prevent the debate becoming personal and to keep the discussion on a high level and *strictly to the subject under discussion*. Even *in spite of this rule*, feelings do often *get roused,* and the Speaker often has difficulty *in keeping the debate calm* and reasonable. If a member *breaks* one of the many and *strict rules* of the House, the Speaker immediately "*calls him to order*". If the Speaker seems to have missed some *breach of the rules*, any member may call the Speaker's *attention to the breach*. This is called "*speaking on a point of order*", and to catch the Speaker's attention the member speaks sitting in his place with a hat on his head. In the old days members attending Parliament generally wore top hats.

Now that members often do not have hats at all, comic incidents have occurred when members have placed strange objects on their heads in the hope that the Speaker would accept them as hats.

Except on points of order, no member may speak more than once in a debate. New laws introduced into the House for discussion are called "*bills*". Each bill has to go through four stages in both Houses (Commons and Lords) before it can become an "*act*" – that is, law. The First Reading consists only of announcing the title of the bill and supplying members with printed copies.

The Second Reading is a discussion of the general principles of the bill, with a vote at the end of the discussion. If the bill *passes its Second Reading* it is considered word by word "in a committee".

In the case of very important bills the whole House acts as the committee, the Chairman of Committees presiding instead of the Speaker. The rules of debate in a committee are much less strict; for example, each member may speak as many times as he can catch the chairman's eye.

Less important bills are considered by committees consisting of only some of the members, sitting in a small committee room, not in the House itself. The bill as altered by the committee is then brought before the whole House again for its Third Reading.

In this debate matters of principle and detail may be discussed and *voted on*. At the end of the Third Reading *a final vote is taken*, "That this bill has been now read for the third time". If a majority of the members vote in favour, the bill has then *passed all its stages.* Unless it is *a money bill*, it must then go through all these stages again in the House of Lords. When a bill has passed through both Houses, it is presented to the Queen for approval. No king or queen since Queen Anne has refused *to approve a bill* which has been passed by both Houses of Parliament – indeed; it would not be possible now for any king or queen to refuse approval. When the royal approval has been announced, the bill is an act – it has become part of the law of the land.

There is one procedure of the House of Commons, which exists in no Parliaments except those of the British Commonwealth of Nations, and that is "*Question Time*". This is one of the most valuable defences of the ordinary man and woman against the great power of the government and the *civil service* today. For an hour at the beginning of each day's business (after the prayers with which each sitting is always opened) members can question and cross-question a minister about any detail of the policy or conduct of the department for which that minister is responsible.

In this way a minister can be made to explain to the House anything his department has done or proposes to do. If the House does not approve what the minister's department has done, it can make clear its *disapproval*, and the minister, who must keep the goodwill of the House, will hasten to remove the cause of complaint. Any individual person can write to his Member of Parliament and ask him to ask a question in the House, and if he thinks it wise, will do so. In this way we are protected against the mistakes or *ill-considered actions* of the government or of the civil service.

Exercise 1. Read and try to understand the text and give the main idea of it.

Exercise 2. Translate the words and word-combinations and make up sentences with them.

To draft a bill; to introduce (propose) a bill; to oppose bill; to support a bill; to move (railroad) a bill through a legislature; to quash (reject, vote down) a bill; to throw out the bill; to shelve a bill; to veto a bill; to pass the bill; authorization bill; engrossed bill; omnibus bill; to shelve a bill; bill of rights; to fill the bill; butcher's bill; to find a true bill; to ignore the bill; to kill the bill; private bill; public bill; race (rattle, rush) the bill through; to sell smb. a bill of goods; a true bill; bill before Parliament; clerk of bills; bill drafting; act of Parliament; to act a lie; act book.

Exercise 3. Explain the score of some notions in English.

Bill is a printed or written statement of the money owed for goods or services. A bill is a written statement of money that you owe for goods or services. In government, a bill is a formal statement of a proposed new law that is discussed and then voted on. If you say that someone or something fits the bill or fills the bill, you mean that they are suitable for a particular job or purpose. Bill and coo is informal exchange caresses or affectionate words; behave or talk in a very loving or sentimental way. Act of Parliament is a written law passed by Parliament, Congress, etc. Act is a document attesting a legal transaction. Act is the recorded decisions or proceedings of a committee or an academic body.

Note

Black Rod – "*Черный жезл*", герольдмейстер (постоянное должностное лицо в Палате лордов, во время церемоний несет черный жезл – титул существующий с 1350 г.)

Exercise 4. Give a short characteristic of the functions of the Speaker and the Parliament.

Many form and rules of parliamentary procedure date back to the beginning of the 16th century. People outside Great Britain believe that if they elect the man to sit in the Parliament he has a seat there. But the House of Commons has seats for only about two thirds of its members. Thus, on great occasions when the House is full, members have to sit in the gangways. Only four members of the House of Commons have reserved seats: the Speaker, the Prime Minister, the Leader of the Opposition and the member who is in the Parliament for the longest unbroken period. Ministers sit on the front bench, but have no right to any particular seat there.

The Queen usually opens the new session of the Parliament. When she takes seat on the throne she sends the official of the House of Lords, called Black Rod, to call the Commons.

When he arrives at the door of the House of Commons they bang it in his face to show their independence. After this they follow *Black Rod* into the Chamber of the House of Lords, where they stand while the Queen reads her speech. During the election of the Speaker, when he is going to his great chair at one end of the House, he struggles and pretends that he doesn't wish to accept the honour.

This comes from the days when men were afraid to become the Speaker. It was because the Sovereign and the House of Commons often quarrelled and the Speaker's duty of acting as go – between was both difficult and dangerous. Nowadays the Speaker no longer takes part in debates as other members do. He presides over the debates and decides which member is to speak at any particular moment. Often several wish to speak and they stand up and try "*to catch the Speaker's eye*", as they call it. He doesn't vote at the end of the debates. But if the Government and the Opposition gain an equal number of votes, then the Speaker has the casting vote.

Exercise 5. Choose the right variant.

1. Powerful nations usually _____ over small weak countries.
a) dominate b) rule c) control d) overwhelm
2. The teacher must learn not to _____ over her class.
a) dominate b) pressure c) prevail d) predominate
3. She _____ what I would be doing.
a) outlined b) pointed c) marked d) stressed
4. She had a large family for _____.
a) support b) maintenance c) help d) backing
5. Members _____ a bill back to a committee.
a) referred b) committed c) submitted d) handed over
6. This case was _____ to the other court.
a) referred b) sent c) directed d) pointed
7. The company completely (flatly, outright, totally) rejected a _____.
a) bid b) proposal c) suggestion d) offer
8. Members of the Labour Party _____ an amendment and the Parliament ratified it.
a) moved b) proposed c) suggested d) offered
9. Everybody must vote on important _____.
a) issues b) matters c) affairs d) points
10. These are _____ of state.
a) matters b) affairs c) cases d) issues
11. Speaker _____ that he doesn't wish to accept the honour.
a) pretends b) feigns c) simulates d) shams
12. The House of Commons often _____.
a) quarrelled b) fell out c) brawled d) wrangled

Exercise 6. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 7. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 8. Describe the traditions of the British Parliament.

The Lord Chancellor, chairman of the House of Lords, still sits on the large sack of wool covered with red cloth. Many, many years ago, when wool was the main product of England, it naturally was the symbol of the country's power. Today the Woolsack is a mere tradition.

Many traditions are found in the House of Commons, too. When its new chairman, the Speaker, is elected, he is dragged to his chair putting up a show of resistance. This custom dates from the times when it was dangerous to be the Speaker. Now take the voting procedure in the House of Commons. After the discussion of a bill the Speaker asks if it has the approval of the House. In case the approval is not unanimous some of the members shout "Aye" (which is derived from the old French word meaning "Yes") and others shout "No". Then the Speaker "calls for division", or in other words, puts the bill to the vote. This is called 'division' since the voting is done by dividing: the members leave their seats and pass into the corridors through different doors, to show which way they are voting. The votes are counted as the members go through. Here is another Parliament tradition.

In the House of Commons, there are benches and not separate seats as in most European parliaments. The first strange thing about those benches is that they don't provide seat for all 630 members of the House, but only for the two-thirds of their number. So, in case all the members of Parliament appear at the session there won't be enough room for sitting.

The second thing is that the rows of benches face each other while the Speaker's chair is in the centre of the House, between those rows of benches. The front benches on the Speaker's right are for the members of the Government, the front benches on his left are for the leaders of the Opposition. The backbenches are occupied by the ordinary members who are called 'back-benchers'. These traditions of Parliament as well as many other England's customs and habits do not change.

Exercise 9. Characterize the Members of Parliament in Great Britain.

Each Member of Parliament (MP) represents one of 651 constituencies in the UK. British elections are usually fought between political parties, not individuals. Therefore, people who want to be elected to parliament need to be nominated by one of the main political parties. There is nothing to stop unconventional candidates from standing for election, however. A candidate has only to put down a deposit of £500 and collect ten signatures from residents in the constituency where he wants to stand. A candidate who gets less than 55 of the total votes loses its deposit. For somebody who is standing for election for publicity purposes, this is a small price to pay.

Although MPs will support a particular party, they are not controlled by that political party and theoretically do not have to vote with their party in Parliament.

MPs represent everyone in the constituency, not just the people who voted for them.

A lot of MPs' work has nothing to do with voting in Parliament. There are hundreds of things MPs have to deal with in the day-to-day business of constituency life, such as housing or health care. MPs are there to help people and to try to make sure their rights under the law are not violated.

Some MPs hold an advice bureau in their constituencies, where people can go for advice. Anyone who feels that he has been unfairly treated by the central government can complain to their local MP who will do his best to see that the problem is solved.

Members of Parliament have been paid salaries since 1911. The rate has lately been nearly twice the average industrial worker's wages. Since 1965 the allowances for travel, living in London, and paying part-time secretaries and research assistants, have all been increased.

Exercise 10. Translate the words and word-combinations and make up sentences with them.

To go into a huddle; to huddle together things which are utterly diverse; to buy a cat in the sack; to get the sack; to give the sack; to hit the sack (retire, fall asleep, go to sleep, hit the hay, turn in); to sack money; to sack profit; a sack of Troy; job definition.

Exercise 11. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 12. Choose the right variant.

1. They have enough influence to get the bill _____.
a) passed b) taken in c) received d) accepted
2. These _____ are outside influences from the government. But others are a sphere of its influence.
a) issues b) matters c) questions d) cases
3. This is a noble act, which _____ noble aims.
a) pursues b) chases c) is after d) follows
4. The bill must receive Royal _____.
a) assent b) approval c) approbation d) consent
5. She _____ to help.
a) consented b) acceded c) agreed d) assented
6. Problems we ignore now will come back to _____ us.
a) haunt b) hunt c) follow d) pursue
7. The directors have _____ to accede to the workers' demands.
a) agreed b) acquiesced c) assented d) consented
8. I'll have to _____ my plans for tomorrow.
a) modify b) correct c) change d) alter
9. A suitable answer has already been _____ by the chairman.
a) put forward b) suggested c) offered d) proposed
10. This problem _____ a thorough research.
a) need b) force c) call for d) demand

Exercise 13. Translate the words and word-combinations and make up sentences with them.

Avenue of appeal; to file an appeal, lodge an appeal; to file an appeal against a decision; to lose an appeal; to win an appeal; to take an appeal to a higher court; to deny (dismiss, reject, throw out) an appeal; to make an appeal; emotional appeal; to make an appeal to the public for donations; to appeal to the country; to appeal from Philip drunk to Philip sober; to appeal to a higher court; to appeal against the judgement of the court; to appeal to the facts; to appeal to reason

Exercise 14. Translate the sentences into English.

1. She applied herself to her new duties with great energy. 2. This rule applies to all. 3. He tried to crystallize his thoughts. 4. The end does not justify the means. 5. The higher court sustained the verdict. 6. There is no need for the jury to retire. 7. They sack the temples. 8. He explores every avenue, which may lead him to a point of vantage. 9. There is no appeal from a verdict of the higher court. 10. The universities have to appeal to the government for more money. 11. For the proof of the existence of the conscience, we appeal to the consciousness. 12. The universities have to appeal to the government for more money. 13. I appeal to you to let me alone. 14. They have 48 hours to appeal the decision. 15. I appealed to his sense of justice. 16. Police are appealing for information about the incident. 17. She appealed to Germany for political asylum. 18. He will appeal to the state for an extension of unemployment benefits. 19. The United Nations has appealed for help from the international community. 20. He said they would appeal against the decision. 21. We intend to appeal the verdict. 22. Maguire has appealed to the Supreme Court to stop her extradition.

HISTORICAL OUTLINE OF BRITISH PARLIAMENT

Parliament started life as an English affair. It was not much of a Parliament – more of a talking shop for the king and rich men. The king asked their advice, but did what he wanted. These meetings morphed into a formal arrangement, which eventually became the House of Lords. In those days – and for several centuries later – England was busy fighting with Scotland and raiding Wales.

By the 13th century, a parliament was when kings met up with English barons to raise cash for fighting wars – mostly against Scotland. Thanks to Magna Carta of 1215, kings were now obliged to ask before taking anyone's money. That did not stop the rows though. Some barons were fed up with Henry III – not least because of his failed, expensive battles in Wales. The ambitious Simon de Montfort sidelined Henry and made himself ruler. De Montfort was a big fan of Parliament.

The one in 1265 was the first to involve «ordinary» folk – knights, not just the super-rich. It was the first time elections were held – the first stirrings of the House of Commons we know today.

The venue was usually Westminster, where one enterprising monarch had built a massive hall on a swamp, which grew into the Palace of Westminster. Westminster Hall is still in use today. Scotland had its own parliament from the 13th century, which was occasionally held in open air.

In those days, though, the king had the real power. So one of the early campaigns for independence was sparked by an English king declaring himself king of Scotland. William Wallace led the rebellion.

In those days, campaign weapons were bows and arrows. Wallace was eventually found guilty of treason. He was dragged through the streets of London naked before being hanged, drawn & quartered. In the early days, there were no rules on who could vote. But a feeling developed that too many «persons of low estate» were doing so. Therefore, from 1430 you could only vote if you owned property worth 40 shillings. The rule stayed in place for 400 years.

Ireland had its own parliament from the 13th century. In 1542, Irish MPs decided that whoever was king of England should also be king of Ireland. They kept their parliament going though.

The seeds of a UK Parliament were sown in 1542 when Wales came on board. At the time, Wales was a patchwork of independent areas. But along came Henry VIII, a man fond of dramatic gestures. Having given the Catholic Church its marching orders, he was worried that the Catholics would not go quietly. To stop the Welsh coming under their influence, he decided Wales would be ruled by England. By now, Parliament was a full-blooded institution and Wales was allowed to send representatives. Henry called it an Act of Union but it was more of a forced marriage.

By 1603, England and Scotland had the same king but different parliaments. King James tried to persuade the English Parliament to bring the Scottish Parliament into the fold. But English MPs refused to let any Scots into the Westminster club. After the civil war, England became a republic under Oliver Cromwell. Cromwell had big ideas. He annexed Scotland and Ireland into a full union with a single parliament at Westminster. The 1654 parliament was the first one in which the whole of Britain was represented. But Cromwell dissolved it pretty quickly when MPs refused to do his bidding.

The Parliament of Great Britain was formed in 1707 following the ratification of the Treaty of Union by Acts of Union passed by the Parliament of England and the Parliament of Scotland, both Acts of Union stating, "That the UK of Great Britain be represented by one and the same Parliament to be stilled The Parliament of Great Britain".

At the start of the 19th century, Parliament was further enlarged by Acts of Union ratified by the Parliament of Great Britain and the Parliament of Ireland that abolished the latter and added 100 Irish MPs and 32 Lords to the former to create the Parliament of the UK of Great Britain and Ireland.

The Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act 1927formally amended the name to the "Parliament of the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland", five years after the secession of the Irish Free State in 1922. With the global expansion of the British Empire, the UK Parliament has shaped the political systems of many countries as ex-colonies and so it has been called the "Mother of Parliaments".

However, John Bright – who coined the epithet – used it in reference to the political culture of "England" rather than just the parliamentary system. In theory, the UK's supreme legislative power is officially vested in the Crown-in-Parliament. However, the Crown normally acts on the advice of the Prime Minister and the powers of the House of Lords are limited to only delaying legislation; thus, power is *de facto* vested in the House of Commons.

Big changes for Parliament from 1707 when Scotland became a fully paid-up member. Again, it was about fears of a Catholic takeover – to stop a Catholic king forming a rival power base in Scotland. It was prompted by the failure of a colonial venture in central America, which left Scotland bankrupt and in need of money – even if it was English cash. The 1707 Act of Union brought England and Scotland together – with one king and no more Scottish Parliament.

Scottish MPs & Lords made their way down to Westminster. However, there were complaints, elegantly summed up by Robert Burns that Scotland had been "bought and sold for English gold".

The UK of Great Britain and Ireland was created on 1 January 1801, by the merger of the Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland under the Acts of Union 1800.

The principle of ministerial responsibility to the lower House did not develop until the 19th century – the House of Lords was superior to the House of Commons both in theory and in practice.

Members of the House of Commons (MPs) were elected in an antiquated electoral system, under which constituencies of vastly different sizes existed. Thus, the borough of Old Sarum, with seven voters, could elect two members, as could the borough of Dunwich, which had almost completely disappeared into the sea due to land erosion. Many small constituencies, known as pocket or rotten boroughs, were controlled by members of the House of Lords, who could ensure the election of their relatives or supporters. During the reforms of the 19th century, beginning with the Reform Act 1832, the electoral system for the House of Commons was progressively regularised. No longer dependent on the Lords for their seats, MPs grew more assertive.

The supremacy of the British House of Commons was established in the early 20th century.

In 1909, the Commons passed the so-called "People's Budget", which made numerous changes to the taxation system which were detrimental to wealthy landowners. The House of Lords, which consisted mostly of powerful landowners, rejected the Budget. Based on the Budget's popularity and the Lords' consequent unpopularity, the Liberal Party narrowly won two general elections in 1910.

Using the result as a mandate, the Liberal Prime Minister, Herbert Henry Asquith, introduced the Parliament Bill, which sought to restrict the powers of the House of Lords. (He did not reintroduce the land tax provision of the People's Budget.) When the Lords refused to pass the bill, Asquith countered with a promise extracted from the King in secret before the second general election of 1910 and requested the creation of several hundred Liberal peers, to erase the Conservative majority in the House of Lords. In the face of such a threat, the House of Lords narrowly passed the bill.

The Parliament Act 1911, as it became, prevented the Lords from blocking a money bill (a bill dealing with taxation), and allowed them to delay any other bill for a maximum of three sessions (reduced to two sessions in 1949), after which it could become law over their objections. However, regardless of the Parliament Acts of 1911 and 1949, the House of Lords has always retained the unrestricted power to veto any bill outright which attempts to extend the life of a parliament.

At the end of the 18th century, there was a powerful campaign for Irish independence from England. The English response? To crush the rebellion brutally and bring Ireland firmly into the UK with another Act of Union. That was the end of the Irish Parliament.

A hundred Irish MPs turned up at Westminster. The fledgling UK Parliament – now made up of English, Irish, Scottish and Welsh MPs – had a lot to grapple with in the 19th century.

The assassination of a Prime Minister and the start of big changes to Parliament – with more men being given the vote and people being allowed to vote in secret. There was a succession of rebellions in Ireland, throughout the 19th century, against Britain.

The Government of Ireland Act 1920 created the parliaments of Northen & Southern Ireland and reduced the representation of both parts at Westminster.

The number of Northern Ireland seats was increased again after the introduction of direct rule in 1973. The Irish Free State became independent in 1922, and in 1927 parliament was renamed the Parliament of the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Moderate rebels settled on "Home Rule" as the way forward – which included bringing back an Irish Parliament. Just as the Westminster Parliament looked set to agree, World War I broke out.

Finally, in 1920 – after a rebellion, which became a civil war – a law was passed dividing Ireland into north and south. Northern Ireland was given its own parliament, which was suspended 1972 because of the troubles. The south became a new independent Irish state. This arrangement was fiercely controversial for most of the 20th century.

For the first 800 years or so Parliament was a club for men. Women finally got the vote in 1918 after the campaign by the suffragists. The first woman elected to the Commons, in 1918, was Countess Constance Markievicz but as a member of Sinn Fein, she refused to take her seat.

The first woman to take her seat was Viscountess Nancy Astor in 1919. The desire for Scottish independence has never gone away. The Scottish National Party was created in 1934 and won its first seat at Westminster in 1945. The SNP managed an all-time high of 11 Westminster seats in 1974.

Five years later, there was a referendum on Scottish devolution. A small majority voted in favour. However, the proposal did not get the support of the required 40% of the electorate. Welsh nationalists created Plaid Cymru in 1925, reaching a peak of four Westminster seats in 1992. It is a peculiar situation for nationalist MPs – sitting in a parliament that they do not want to be a part of. For Irish nationalist politicians – Sinn Fein – the answer is to win a seat but never turn up at Westminster.

Further reforms to the House of Lords were made in the 20th century. The Life Peerages Act 1958 authorised the regular creation of life peerage dignities. By the 1960s, the regular creation of hereditary peerage dignities had ceased; thereafter, almost all new peers were life peers only.

The House of Lords Act 1999 removed the automatic right of hereditary peers to sit in the Upper House, although it made an exception for 92 of them to be elected to life-terms by the other hereditary peers, with by-elections upon their death. The House of Lords is now a chamber that is subordinate to the House of Commons. Additionally, the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 led to abolition of the judicial functions of the House of Lords with the creation of the new Supreme Court of the UK in October 2009. Parliament had its first major jolt to the system in a long while when Labour came into government in 1997. Tony Blair decided to complete some unfinished business.

Along came a Parliament for Scotland with powers to make laws on education, health and crime.

Labour hoped devolution would kill off Scottish nationalism for good. However, the SNP ended up winning the Scottish parliamentary elections in 2007. For Northern Ireland and Wales, there were assemblies. David Cameron announced in October 2012 that there would be a referendum on whether Scotland should separate from the rest of the UK. It was held on 18 September 2014 and turned out to be a lot closer than expected, with 45% voting for independence. Promises of more powers devolved to Scotland were made as the campaign neared its end. They have prompted calls for changes to the rules, so only English MPs decide on matters, such as education, which only apply to England.

Exercise 1. Summarize the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

THE BEGINNING OF THE PARLIAMENT IN ENGLAND

The Parliament of England was the legislature of the Kingdom of England.

In 1066, William of Normandy introduced what, in later centuries, became referred to as a feudal system, by which he sought the advice of a council of tenants-in-chief (a person who held land) and ecclesiastics before making laws.

In 1215, the tenants-in-chief secured Magna Carta from King John, which established that the king may not levy or collect any taxes (except the feudal taxes to which they were hitherto accustomed), save with the consent of his royal council, which gradually developed into a parliament.

Over the centuries, the English Parliament limited the power of the English monarchy , which arguably culminated in the English Civil War and the trial and execution of Charles I in 1649.

After the restoration of the monarchy under Charles II, and the subsequent Glorious Revolution of 1688, the supremacy of Parliament was a settled principle and all future English and later British sovereigns were restricted to the role of constitutional monarchs with limited executive authority.

The Act of Union 1707 merged the English Parliament with the Parliament of Scotland to form the Parliament of Great Britain. When the Parliament of Ireland was abolished in 1801, its former members were merged into what was now called the Parliament of the UK.

Under a monarchical system of government, monarchs usually must consult and seek a measure of acceptance for their policies if they are to enjoy the broad cooperation of their subjects.

Early kings of England had no standing army or police, and so depended on the support of powerful subjects. The monarchy had agents in every part of the country. However, under the feudal system that evolved in England following the Norman Conquest of 1066, the laws of the Crown could not have been upheld without the support of the nobility and the clergy.

The former had economic and military power bases of their own through major ownership of land and the feudal obligations of their tenants (some held lands on condition of military service).

The Church was virtually a law unto itself in this period as it had its own system of religious law courts. In order to seek consultation and consent from the nobility and the senior clergy on major decisions, post-Norman Conquest English monarchs called Great Councils, which consist of bishops, abbots, archbishops, barons and earls, the pillars of the feudal system.

When this system of consultation and consent broke down, it often became impossible for government to function effectively. The most prominent instances of this prior to the reign of Henry III are the disagreements between T. Becket and Henry II and between King John and the barons.

Thomas Becket, who served as Archbishop of Canterbury between 1162 and 1170, was murdered following a long running dispute with Henry II over the jurisdiction of the Church. John, who was king from 1199 to 1216, aroused such hostility from many leading noblemen that they forced him to agree to Magna Carta in 1215. John's refusal to adhere to this charter led to civil war.

The Great Council evolved into the Parliament of England. The term itself came into use during the early 13th century, deriving from the Latin and French words for discussion and speaking.

The word first appears in official documents in the 1230s. Because of the work by historians G. O. Sayles and H. G. Richardson, it is widely believed that the early parliaments had a judicial as well as a legislative function. During the 13th and 14th centuries, the kings began to call Knights of the Shire to meet when the monarch saw it as necessary.

A notable example of this was in 1254 when sheriffs of counties were instructed to send Knights of the Shire to parliament to advise the king on finance. Initially, parliaments were mostly summoned when the king needed to raise money through taxes. Following the Magna Carta this became a convention. This was due in no small part to the fact that King John died in 1216 and was succeeded by his young son Henry III. Leading peers and clergy governed on Henry's behalf until he came of age, giving them a taste for power that they would prove unwilling to relinquish. Among other things, they made sure that Magna Carta would be reaffirmed by the young king.

PARLIAMENT IN THE REIGN OF HENRY III

Once the minority of Henry III ended and he took full control of the government, leading peers became increasingly concerned with his style of government, specifically his unwillingness to consult them on decisions he took, and his seeming patronisation of his foreign relatives over his native subjects.

Henry's support of a disastrous papal invasion of Sicily was the last straw. In 1258, seven leading barons forced Henry to swear to uphold the Provisions of Oxford, superseded, the following year, by the Provisions of Westminster. This effectively abolished the absolutist Anglo-Norman monarchy, giving power to a council of 15 barons, and providing for a thrice-yearly meeting of parliament to monitor their performance. Parliament assembled six times between June 1258 and April 1262, most notably at Oxford in 1258. The French-born nobleman Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, emerged as the leader of this characteristically English rebellion. In the following years, those supporting Montfort and those supporting the king grew more hostile to each other. Henry obtained a papal bull in 1263 exempting him from his oath and both sides began to raise armies.

At the Battle of Lewes on 14 May 1264, Henry was defeated and taken prisoner by Montfort's army. However, many of the peers who had initially supported Montfort began to suspect that he had gone too far with his reforming zeal. His support amongst the nobility rapidly declined. So in 1264, Montfort summoned the first parliament in English history without any prior royal authorisation.

The archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls and barons were summoned, as were two knights from each shire and two burgesses from each borough. Knights had been summoned to previous councils, but the representation of the boroughs was unprecedented. This was purely a move to consolidate Montfort's position as the legitimate governor of the kingdom, since he had captured Henry and his son Prince Edward (later Edward I) at the Battle of Lewes.

A parliament consisting of representatives of the realm was the logical way for Montfort to establish his authority. In calling this parliament, in a bid to gain popular support, he summoned knights and burgesses from the emerging gentry's class, thus turning to his advantage the fact that most of the nobility had abandoned his movement.

This parliament was summoned on 14 December 1264. It first met on 20 January 1265 in Westminster Hall and was dissolved on 15 February 1265. It is not certain who actually attended this parliament. Nonetheless, Montfort's scheme was formally adopted by Edward I in the so-called "Model Parliament" of 1295. The attendance at parliament of knights and burgesses historically became known as the summoning of "the Commons", a term derived from the Norman French word "commune", literally translated as the "community of the realm".

Following Edward's escape from captivity, Montfort was defeated and killed at the Battle of Evesham in 1265. Henry's authority was restored and the Provisions of Oxford were forgotten, but this was nonetheless a turning point in the history of the Parliament of England. Although he was not obliged by statute to do so, Henry summoned the Commons to parliament three times between September 1268 and April 1270. However, this was not a significant turning point in the history of parliamentary democracy. Subsequently, very little is known about how representatives were selected because, at this time, being sent to parliament was not a prestigious undertaking.

But Montfort's decision to summon knights of the shires and burgesses to his parliament did mark the irreversible emergence of the landed gentry as a force in politics.

From then on, monarchs could not ignore them, which explain Henry's decision to summon the Commons to several of his post-1265 parliaments. Even though many peers who had supported the Provisions of Oxford remained active in English public life throughout Henry's reign, the conditions they had laid down for regular parliaments were largely forgotten, as if to symbolise the historical development of the English Parliament via convention rather than statutes and written constitutions.

The Provisions of Oxford were constitutional reforms developed in 1258 to resolve a dispute between the English barons and King Henry III.

They asserted the right of the barons to representation in the king's government and, like the earlier Magna Carta, demonstrated the ability of the barons to press their concerns in opposition to the monarchy. When in the spring of 1258 King Henry III of England sought financial aid from a new Parliament, he was confronted by a group of barons who insisted on a new commission of reform, in the shape of a council of 24 members, 12 selected by the crown, 12 by the barons. The Provisions of Oxford were the reform programme the 24, including Simon de Montfort, 6th Earl of Leicester, set out.

The chief ministers, the Justiciar and Chancellor were to be chosen by and responsible to the Council of Fifteen, and ultimately to the community of the realm at regular parliaments to be held three times a year. This was revolutionary. It was the most radical scheme of reform undertaken before the arrest and execution of King Charles I in the 1640s. The Provisions set up a new form of government, with a 15-member Privy Council (nine baronial) to advise the king and oversee the entire administration as a standing body. They confirmed "there be three parliaments a year to treat of the common wants of the kingdom, and of the king." At the parliaments, the Fifteen would be checked and monitored by another body of 12 representative barons.

Meanwhile the men selected (by 4 electors appointed by the 24) were to supervise ministerial appointments, local administration and the custody of royal castles; while recommendations for an inquest into local (mis-)government, and further measures of reform were also set out.

In addition to controlling the central government, the reformers, urged on by swelling discontent among the lesser aristocracy, townsmen, merchants and freemen in the localities, began an investigation into abuses of local officials and a reform of local government.

These reforms show the growing power of social groups beyond the major barons, who though still leading the reform, evidently felt they, could not ignore popular discontent. In this regard, they introduced reforms that were even harmful to their own local interests.

A written confirmation of the agreement was sent to the sheriffs of all the counties of England trilingual, in Latin, French significantly, in Middle English. The use of the English language was symbolic of the *Anglicisation* of the government of England and an antidote to the Francization which had taken place in the decades immediately before. The Provisions were the first government documents to be published in English since the Norman Conquest 200 years before.

The Provisions of Oxford were confirmed & extended in 1259 by the Provisions of Westminster.

The administrative controls of the Provisions of Oxford were overthrown by Henry, helped by a papal bull, in 1261, seeding the start of the Second Barons' War (1263-1267), which was won by the King and his royalist supporters; and they were annulled for the last time in 1266 by the Dictum of Kenilworth. However, the administrative and legislative reforms the barons had initiated were taken up and confirmed in the Statute of Marlborough.

The 1258 Provisions had a significant effect upon the development of the English Common Law, limiting in part the expansion of royal jurisdiction by way of the number of available writs, but in the main confirming the importance of the common law of the land for all, from king to commoner.

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

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

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

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

THE EMERGENCE OF PARLIAMENT AS AN INSTITUTION

A 16th-century depiction of Edward's parliament

During the reign of Edward I, which began in 1272, the role of Parliament in the government of the English kingdom increased due to Edward's determination to unite England, Wales and Scotland under his rule by force. He was also keen to unite his subjects in order to restore his authority and not face rebellion, as was his father's fate. Edward therefore encouraged all sectors of society to submit petitions to parliament detailing their grievances in order for them to be resolved. This seemingly gave all of Edward's subjects a potential role in government and this helped Edward assert his authority.

Both the Statute of Westminster 1275 and 1285, with the assistance of Robert Burnell, codified the existing law in England. As the number of petitions being submitted to parliament increased, they came to be dealt with, often ignored, more and more by ministers of the Crown so as not to block the passage of government business through parliament.

However, the emergence of petitioning is significant because it is some of the earliest evidence of parliament being used as a forum to address the general grievances of ordinary people.

Submitting a petition to parliament is a tradition that continues to this day in the Parliament of the UK and in most Commonwealth realms. These developments symbolise the fact that parliament and government were by no means the same thing by this point. If monarchs were going to impose their will on their kingdom, they would have to control parliament rather than be subservient to it. From Edward's reign onwards, the authority of the English Parliament would depend on the strength or weakness of the incumbent monarch. When the king or queen was strong he or she would wield enough influence to pass their legislation through parliament without much trouble.

Some strong monarchs even bypassed it completely, although this was not often possible in the case of financial legislation due to the post-Magna Carta convention of parliament granting taxes. When weak monarchs governed, parliament often became the centre of opposition against them.

Subsequently, the composition of parliaments in this period varied depending on the decisions that needed to be taken in them. The nobility and senior clergy were always summoned. From 1265 onwards, when the monarch needed to raise money through taxes, it was usual for knights and burgesses to be summoned too. However, when the king was merely seeking advice, he often only summoned the nobility and the clergy, sometimes with and without the knights of the shires.

On some occasions, the Commons were summoned and sent home again once the monarch was finished with them, allowing parliament to continue without them. It was not until the mid-14th century that summoning representatives of the shires and the boroughs became the norm for all parliaments. One of the moments that marked the emergence of parliament as a true institution in England was the deposition of Edward II. Even though it is debatable whether Edward II was deposed in parliament or by parliament, this remarkable sequence of events consolidated the importance of parliament in the English unwritten constitution. Parliament was also crucial in establishing the legitimacy of the king who replaced Edward II: his son Edward III.

In 1341, the Commons met separately from the nobility and clergy for the first time, creating what were effectively an Upper Chamber and a Lower Chamber, with the knights and burgesses sitting in the latter. This Upper Chamber became known as the House of Lords from 1544 onward, and the Lower Chamber as the House of Commons, collectively known as the Houses of Parliament.

The authority of parliament grew under Edward III; it was established that no law could be made, nor any tax levied, without the consent of both Houses and the Sovereign.

Edward III was involved in the 100 Years' War and needed finances. During his conduct of the war, Edward tried to circumvent parliament as much as possible, which caused this edict to be passed.

The Commons came to act with increasing boldness during this period. The Commons even proceeded to impeach some of the king's ministers.

During the Good Parliament (1376), the Presiding Officer of the lower chamber, Sir Peter de la Mare, complained of heavy taxes, demanded an accounting of the royal expenditures, and criticised the king's management of the military. The bold Speaker was imprisoned, but was soon released after the death of Edward III. During the reign of the next monarch, Richard II, the Commons once again began to impeach errant ministers of the Crown. They insisted that they could not only control taxation, but also public expenditure. Despite such gains in authority, however, the Commons still remained much less powerful than the House of Lords and the Crown. This period saw the introduction of a franchise, which limited the number of people who could vote in elections for the House of Commons. From 1430 onwards, the franchise was limited to Forty Shilling Freeholders that is man who owned freehold property worth 40 shillings or more.

The Parliament of England legislated the new uniform county franchise, in the statute.

The Chronological Table of the Statutes does not mention such a 1430 law, as it was included in the Consolidated Statutes as a recital in the Electors of Knights of the Shire Act 1432, which amended and re-enacted the 1430 law to make clear that the resident of a county had to have a 40 shilling freehold in that county to be a voter there.

Exercise 1. Digest the information in English.

Exercise 2. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

Exercise 3. Analyze the history of English Parliament and compose the dates accordingly.

№	What	When
1.	The reign of Edward I began in___.	1544
2.	The Statute of Westminster ___ and ___ codified the existing law in England.	1376
3.	In ___ the Commons met separately from the nobility & clergy for the first time.	1430
4.	This Upper Chamber became known as the House of Lords from ___onward.	1272
5.	The Commons proceeded to impeach some of the king's ministers in ___.	1275 & 1285
6.	From ___ onwards, the franchise of elections was limited.	1341
7.	The Speaker was imprisoned, soon released after the death of Edward III in___.	1377
8.	Summoning representatives of all people became the norm for parliament in ___.	1265
9.	Edward II was deposed in parliament during his reign___.	1284-1327
10.	From ___onwards knights and burgesses were summoned when the monarch needed to raise money through taxes.	The mid-14th century
11.	Edward III was involved in the ___ Years' War.	100
12.	The Chronological Table of the Statutes does not mention such a ___law.	1430
13.	The resident of a county had to have a ___shilling freehold in that county to be a voter there.	40

During the reign of the Tudor monarchs, the modern structure of the English Parliament began to be created. The Tudor monarchy was powerful, and there were often periods of several years when parliament did not sit at all. However, the Tudor monarchs were astute enough to realise that they needed parliament to legitimise many of their decisions, mostly out of a need to raise money through taxation legitimately without causing discontent. Thus, they consolidated the state of affairs whereby monarchs would call and close parliament as and when they needed it.

By the time Henry Tudor (Henry VII) came to the throne in 1485 the monarch was not a member of either the Upper Chamber or the Lower Chamber. Consequently, the monarch would have to make his or her feelings known to Parliament through his or her supporters in both houses.

Proceedings were regulated by the presiding officer in either chamber. From the 1540s the presiding officer in the House of Commons became formally known as the "Speaker", having previously been referred to as the "prolocutor" or "parlour" (a semi-official position, often nominated by the monarch, that had existed ever since Peter de Montfort had acted as the presiding officer of the Oxford Parliament of 1258). This was not an enviable job. When the House of Commons was unhappy it was the Speaker who had to deliver this news to the monarch. This began the tradition whereby the Speaker of the House of Commons is dragged to the Speaker's Chair by other members once elected.

A member of either chamber could present a "bill" to parliament. Bills supported by the monarch were often proposed by members of the Privy Council who sat in Parliament. In order for a bill to become law it would have to be approved by a majority of both Houses of Parliament before it passed to the monarch for Royal Assent or veto. The royal veto was applied several times during the 16-17th centuries and it is still the right of the monarch of the UK and Commonwealth realms to veto legislation today, it has not been exercised since 1707 (today such exercise would presumably precipitate a constitutional crisis). When a bill was enacted into law, this process gave it the approval of each estate of the realm: the King, Lords, and Commons.

In reality, this was not a democratic process. The Parliament of England was far from being a democratically representative institution in this period. It was possible to assemble the entire peerage and senior clergy of the realm in one place to form the estate of the Upper Chamber. However, the voting franchise for the House of Commons was small.

Some historians estimate that it was as little as 3% of the adult male population; and there was no secret ballot. This meant that elections could be controlled by local grandees, because in many boroughs a majority of voters were in some way dependent on a powerful individual, or else could be bought by money or concessions. If these grandees were supporters of the incumbent monarch, this gave the Crown and its ministers considerable influence over the business of parliament. Many of the men elected to parliament did not relish the prospect of having to act in the interests of others.

So a law was enacted, still on the statute book today, whereby it became unlawful for members of the House of Commons to resign their seat unless they were granted a position directly within the patronage of the monarchy (today this latter restriction leads to a legal fiction allowing *de facto* resignation despite the prohibition, but nevertheless it is a resignation which needs the permission of the Crown).

However, it must be emphasised that while several elections to parliament in this period were in some way corrupt by modern standards, many elections involved genuine contests between rival candidates, even though the ballot was not secret. It was in this period that the Palace of Westminster was established as the seat of the English Parliament. In 1548, the House of Commons was granted a regular meeting place by the Crown, St. Stephen's Chapel. This had been a royal chapel.

It was made into a debating chamber after Henry VIII became the last monarch to use the Palace of Westminster as a place of residence and following the suppression of the college there. This room became the home of the House of Commons until it was destroyed by fire in 1834, although the interior was altered several times up until then.

The structure of this room was pivotal in the development of the Parliament of England.

While most modern legislatures sit in a circular chamber, the benches of the British Houses of Parliament are laid out in the form of choir stalls in a chapel, simply because this is the part of the original room that the members of the House of Commons utilised when they were granted use of St. Stephen's Chapel. This structure took on a new significance with the emergence of political parties in the late 17th and early 18th centuries, as the tradition began whereby the members of the governing party would sit on the benches to the right of the Speaker and the opposition members on the benches to the left. It is said that the Speaker's chair was placed in front of the chapel's altar. As Members came and went they observed the custom of bowing to the altar and continued to do so, even when it had been taken away, thus then bowing to the Chair, as is still the custom today.

The numbers of the Lords Spiritual diminished under Henry VIII, who commanded the Dissolution of the Monasteries, thereby depriving the abbots and priors of their seats in the Upper House.

For the first time, the Lords Temporal were more numerous than the Lords Spiritual. Currently, the Lords Spiritual consist of the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, the Bishops of London, Durham and Winchester, and 21 other English diocesan bishops in seniority of appointment to a diocese.

The Laws in Wales Acts of 1535-42 annexed Wales as part of England and this brought Welsh representatives into the Parliament of England, first elected in 1542.

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

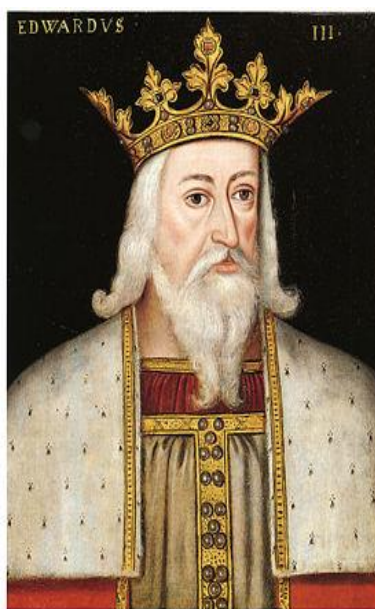*Exercise 2. Make up some dialogues from the information above.*

Exercise 3. Write a small essay on the topic.

Exercise 4. Remember the notion.

Tudor – the English royal dynasty that held the throne from the accession of Henry VII in 1485 until the death of Elizabeth I in 1603.

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

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

Parliament had not always submitted to the wishes of the Tudor monarchs. But parliamentary criticism of the monarchy reached new levels in the 17th century.

When the last Tudor monarch, Elizabeth I, died in 1603, King James VI of Scotland came to power as King James I, founding the Stuart monarchy.

In 1628, alarmed by the arbitrary exercise of royal power, the House of Commons submitted to Charles I the Petition of Right, demanding the restoration of their liberties. Though he accepted the petition, Charles later dissolved parliament and ruled without them for 11 years.

It was only after the financial disaster of the Scottish Bishops' Wars (1639-1640) that he was forced to recall Parliament so that they could authorise new taxes. This resulted in the calling of the assemblies known historically as the Short Parliament of 1640 and the Long Parliament, which sat with several breaks and in various forms between 1640 and 1660.

The Long Parliament was characterised by the growing number of critics of the king who sat in it. The most prominent of these critics in the House of Commons was John Pym. Tensions between the king and his parliament reached boiling point in January 1642 when Charles entered the House of Commons and tried, unsuccessfully, to arrest Pym and four other members for their alleged treason.

The five members had been tipped off about this, and by the time, Charles came into the chamber with a group of soldiers they had disappeared. Charles was further humiliated when he asked the Speaker, William Lenthall, to give their whereabouts, which Lenthall famously refused to do.

From then on relations between the king and his parliament deteriorated further. When trouble started to brew in Ireland, both Charles and his parliament raised armies to quell the uprisings by native Catholics there. It was not long before it was clear that these forces would end up fighting each other, leading to the English Civil War which began with the Battle of Edgehill in October 1642: those supporting the cause of parliament were called Parliamentarians (Roundheads).

Battles between Crown and Parliament would continue throughout the 17th and 18th centuries, but parliament was no longer subservient to the English monarchy. This change was symbolised in the execution of Charles I in January 1649. It is somewhat ironic that this event was not instigated by the elected representatives of the realm. In Pride's Purge of December 1648, the New Model Army (which by then had emerged as the leading force in the parliamentary alliance) purged Parliament of members that did not support them. The remaining "Rump Parliament", as it was later referred to by critics, enacted legislation to put the king on trial for treason.

This trial, the outcome of which was a foregone conclusion, led to the execution of the king and the start of an 11-year republic. The House of Lords was abolished and the purged House of Commons governed England until April 1653, when army Chief Oliver Cromwell dissolved it following disagreements over religious policy and how to carry out elections to parliament.

Cromwell later convened a parliament of religious radicals in 1653, commonly known as Barebone's Parliament, followed by the unicameral First Protectorate Parliament that sat from September 1654 to January 1655 and the Second Protectorate Parliament that sat in two sessions between 1656 and 1658, the first session was unicameral and the second session was bicameral. Although it is easy to dismiss the English Republic of 1649-60 as nothing more than a Cromwellian military dictatorship, the events that took place in this decade were hugely important in determining the future of parliament.

First, it was during the sitting of the first Rump Parliament that members of the House of Commons became known as "MPs" (Members of Parliament). Second, Cromwell gave a huge degree of freedom to his parliaments, although royalists were barred from sitting in all but a handful of cases. His vision of parliament appears to have been largely based on the example of the Elizabethan parliaments. However, he underestimated the extent to which Elizabeth I and her ministers had directly and indirectly influenced the decision-making process of her parliaments.

He was thus always surprised when they became troublesome. He ended up dissolving each parliament that he convened. Yet it is worth noting that the structure of the second session of the Second Protectorate Parliament of 1658 was identical to the parliamentary structure consolidated in the Glorious Revolution Settlement of 1689.

In 1653 Cromwell had been made head of state with the title Lord Protector of the Realm.

The Second Protectorate Parliament offered him the crown. Cromwell rejected this offer, but the governmental structure embodied in the final version of the Humble Petition and Advice was a basis for all future parliaments. It proposed an elected House of Commons as the Lower Chamber, a House of Lords containing peers of the realm as the Upper Chamber, and a constitutional monarchy, subservient to parliament and the laws of the nation, as the executive arm of the state at the top of the tree, assisted in carrying out their duties by a Privy Council. Oliver Cromwell had thus inadvertently presided over the creation of a basis for the future parliamentary government of England. In 1657 he had the Parliament of Scotland unified with the English Parliament.

In terms of the evolution of parliament as an institution, by far the most important development during the republic was the sitting of the Rump Parliament between 1649 and 1653.

This proved that parliament could survive without a monarchy and a House of Lords if it wanted to. Future English monarchs would never forget this. Charles I was the last English monarch ever to enter the House of Commons. Even to this day, a Member of the Parliament of the UK is sent to Buckingham Palace as a ceremonial hostage during the State Opening of Parliament, in order to ensure the safe return of the sovereign from a potentially hostile parliament.

During the ceremony the monarch sits on the throne in the House of Lords and signals for the Lord Great Chamberlain to summon the House of Commons to the Lords Chamber. The Lord Great Chamberlain then raises his wand of office to signal to the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod, who has been waiting in the central lobby. Black Rod turns and, escorted by the doorkeeper of the House of Lords and an inspector of police, approaches the doors to the chamber of the Commons. The doors are slammed in his face – symbolising the right of the Commons to debate without the presence of the Queen's representative. He then strikes three times with his staff (the Black Rod), and he is admitted.

Exercise 1. Give some synonyms from the line I to the line II.

I. Ceremonial, escoted, doorkeeper, to symbolize, chamber, presence, to debate, to signal.

II. Formal, convoyed, doorman, to mean, intitution, availability, to discuss, to signalize.

Exercise 2. Translate the words and word-combinations with the key word "hostage".

To exchange hostages; to extricate hostages; to free the hostages; to hold smb (as a) hostage; to negotiate the release of a hostage; to obtain the release of hostages; to purchase the hostages' freedom; to release a hostage; to secure the release of hostages; to seize hostages; to set the hostages free; to swap hostages for prisoners; to take hostages; exchange of: holder of; release of; rescue of; seizure of; taking of hostages; a hostage to fortune; Iran hostage crisis.
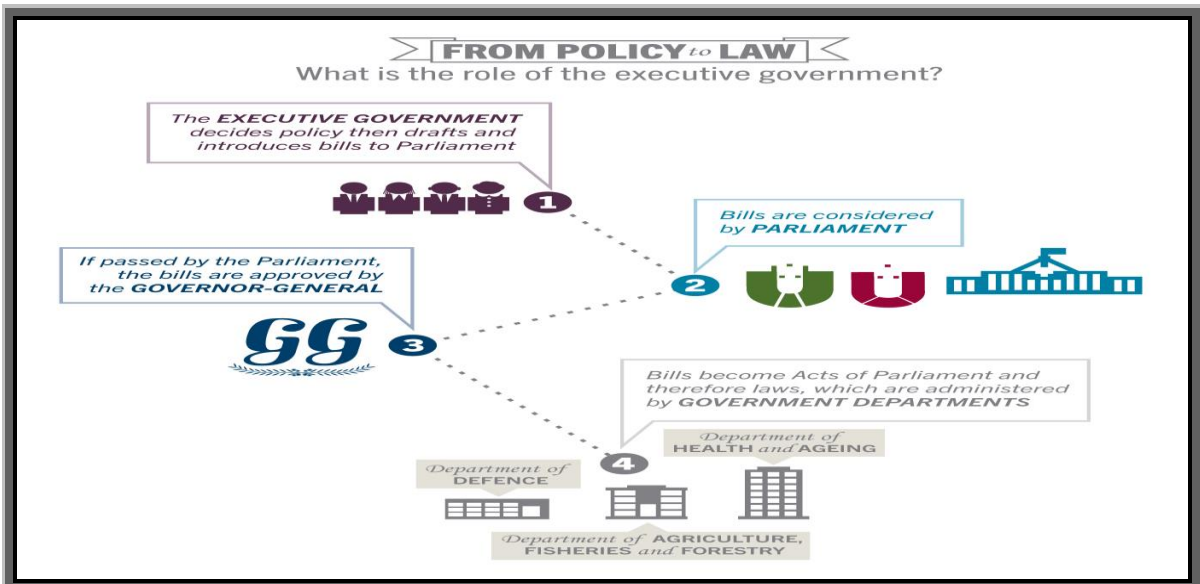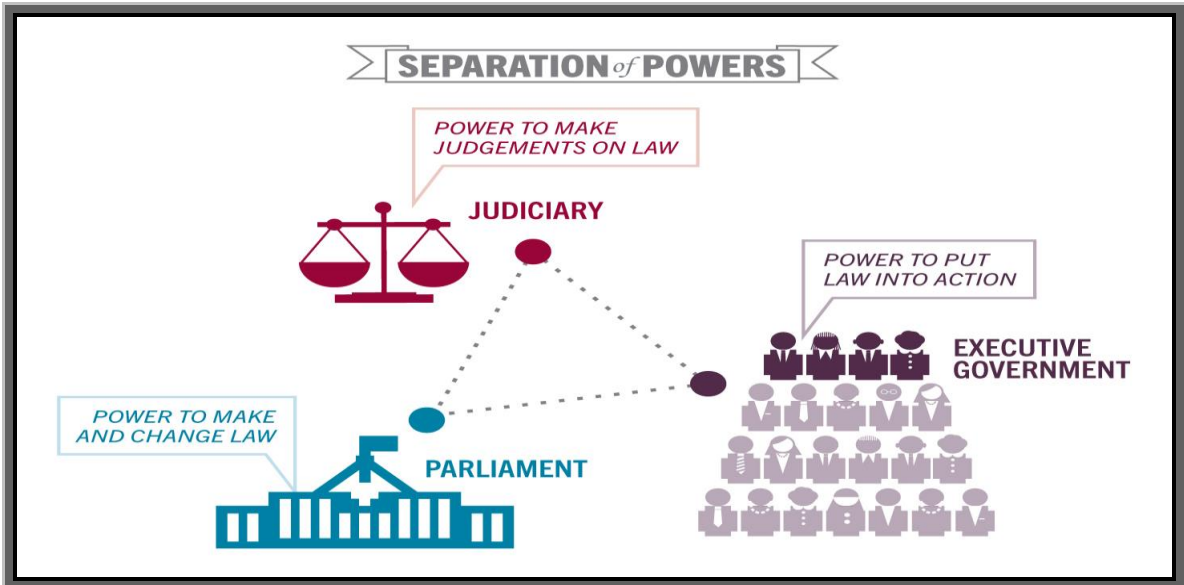
Exercise 3. Try to understand the information.

Cromwell (1599-1658), English general and statesman, Lord Protector of the Commonwealth 1653-1658. Cromwell was the leader of the victorious Parliamentary forces (Roundheads) in the English Civil War. As head of state he styled himself Lord Protector, and refused Parliament's offer of the Crown in 1657. His rule was notable for its puritan reforms in the Church of England. He was briefly succeeded by his son Richard (1626-1712), who was forced into exile in 1659.

Exercise 4. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 5. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 6. Write a small essay on the topic.

FROM THE RESTORATION TO THE ACT OF SETTLEMENT

The revolutionary events that occurred between 1620 and 1689 all took place in the name of parliament. The new status of parliament as the central governmental organ of the English state was consolidated during the events surrounding the Restoration of the monarchy in 1660. Following the death of Oliver Cromwell in September 1658, his son Richard Cromwell succeeded him as Lord Protector, summoning the Third Protectorate Parliament in the process.

When this parliament was dissolved following pressure from the army in April 1659, the Rump Parliament was recalled at the insistence of the surviving army grandees. This in turn was dissolved in a coup led by army general John Lambert, leading to the formation of the Committee of Safety, dominated by Lambert and his supporters. When the breakaway forces of George Monck invaded England from Scotland where they had been stationed – without Lambert's supporters putting up a fight – Monck temporarily recalled the Rump Parliament and reversed Pride's Purge by recalling the entirety of the Long Parliament. They then voted to dissolve themselves and call new elections, which were arguably the most democratic for 20 years although the franchise was still very small.

This led to the calling of the Convention Parliament, which was dominated by royalists.

This parliament voted to reinstate the monarchy and the House of Lords. Charles II returned to England as king in May 1660. The Anglo-Scottish parliamentary union that Cromwell had established was dissolved in 1661 when the Scottish Parliament resumed its separate meeting place in Edinburgh.

The Restoration began the tradition whereby all governments looked to parliament for legitimacy.

In 1681, Charles II dissolved parliament and ruled without them for the last four years of his reign. This followed bitter disagreements between the king and parliament that had occurred between 1679 and 1681. Charles took a big gamble by doing this. He risked the possibility of a military showdown a kin to that of 1642. However he rightly predicted that the nation did not want another civil war. Parliament disbanded without a fight. Events that followed ensured that this would be nothing but a temporary blip. Charles II died in 1685 and he was succeeded by his brother James II.

During his lifetime, Charles had always pledged loyalty to the Protestant Church of England, despite his private Catholic sympathies. James was openly Catholic. He attempted to lift restrictions on Catholics taking up public offices. This was bitterly opposed by Protestants in his kingdom. They invited William of Orange, a Protestant who had married Mary, daughter of James II & Anne Hyde invasion force, England and claim the throne. William assembled an army estimated at 15,000 soldiers (11,000 foot and 4000 horse) and landed at Brixham in southwest England in November 1688.

When many Protestant officers, including James's close adviser, John Churchill, 1st DUKe of Marlborough, defected from the English army to William's invasion force, James fled the country.

Parliament then offered the Crown to his Protestant daughter Mary, instead of his son (James Francis Edward Stuart). Mary refused the offer, and instead William and Mary ruled jointly, with both having the right to rule alone on the other's death. As part of the compromise in allowing William to be King – called the Glorious Revolution – Parliament was able to have the 1689 Bill of Rights enacted. Later the 1701 Act of Settlement was approved. These were statutes that lawfully upheld the prominence of parliament for the first time in English history. These events marked the beginning of the English constitutional monarchy and its role as one of the three elements of parliament.

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

Exercise 2 Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

COMPOSITION & POWERS

The legislative authority, the Crown-in-Parliament, has three separate elements: the Monarch, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons. No individual may be a member of both Houses, and members of the House of Lords are legally barred from voting in elections for members of the House of Commons. Royal Assent of the Monarch is required for all Bills to become law, and certain.

Delegated Legislation must be made by the Monarch by Order in Council. The Crown has executive powers, which do not depend on Parliament, through prerogative powers, including the power to make treaties, declare war, award honours, and appoint officers and civil servants. In practice these are always exercised by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister and the other ministers of HM Government. The Prime Minister and government are directly accountable to Parliament, through its control of public finances, and to the public, through the election of members of parliament.

The Monarch appoints the Prime Minister, who then forms a government from members of the Houses of Parliament. This must be someone who could command a majority in a confidence vote in the House of Commons. In the past, the monarch has occasionally had to make a judgment, as in the appointment of Alec Douglas-Home in 1963 when it was thought that the incumbent Prime Minister, Harold Macmillan, had become ill with terminal cancer. However, today the monarch is advised by the outgoing Prime Minister as to whom he or she should offer the position next.

The Upper House is formally styled "The Right Honourable the Lords Spiritual and Temporal in Parliament Assembled", the Lords Spiritual being bishops of the Church of England and the Lords Temporal being Peers of the Realm. The Lords Spiritual and Lords Temporal are considered separate "estates", but they sit, debate and vote together.

Since the Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949, the powers of the House of Lords have been very much less than those of the House of Commons. All bills except money bills are debated and voted upon in the House of Lords; however, by voting against a bill, the House of Lords can only delay it for a maximum of two parliamentary sessions over a year. After that time, the House of Commons can force the Bill through without the Lords' consent, under the Parliament Acts. The House of Lords can hold the government to account through questions to government ministers and the operation of a small number of select committees. The highest court in England & Wales & in Northern Ireland used to be a committee of the House of Lords, but it became an independent supreme court in 2009.

The Lords Spiritual formerly included all of the senior clergymen of the Church of England – archbishops, bishops, abbots and mitred priors. Upon the Dissolution of the Monasteries under Henry VIII the abbots and mitred priors lost their positions in Parliament. All diocesan bishops continued to sit in Parliament, but the Bishopric of Manchester Act 1847, and later Acts, provide that only the 26 most senior are Lords Spiritual. These always include the incumbents of the "five great sees", namely the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Archbishop of York, the Bishop of London, the Bishop of Durham and the Bishop of Winchester. The remaining 21 Lords Spiritual are the most senior diocesan bishops, ranked in order of consecration, although the Lords Spiritual (Women) Act 2015 makes time-limited provision for vacancies to be filled by women who are bishops.

The Lords Temporal are all members of the Peerage. Formerly, they were all hereditary peers.

The right of some hereditary peers to sit in Parliament was not automatic: after Scotland and England united into Great Britain in 1707, it was provided that all peers whose dignities had been created by English kings could sit in Parliament, but those whose dignities had been created by Scottish kings were to elect a limited number of "representative peers". A similar arrangement was made in respect of Ireland when it was united with Great Britain in 1801, but when southern Ireland left the UK in 1922 the election of Irish representative peers ceased. By the Peerage Act 1963, the election of Scottish representative peers ended, and all Scottish peers were granted the right to sit in Parliament.

Under the House of Lords Act 1999, only life peerages (that is to say, peerage dignities which cannot be inherited) automatically entitle their holders to seats in the House of Lords. Of the hereditary peers, only 92 – the Earl Marshal, the Lord Great Chamberlain and the 90 elected by other peers – retain their seats in the House. The Commons, the last of the "estates" of the Kingdom, are represented in the House of Commons, which is formally styled "The Honourable The Commons in Parliament Assembled" ("commons" coming from *commune*, the old French term for a district).

In 2016, the House consists of 650 members. Each "Member of Parliament" or "MP" is chosen by a single constituency by the First-Past-the-Post electoral system. Universal adult suffrage exists for those 18 and over; citizens of the UK, and those of the Republic of Ireland and Commonwealth nations resident in the UK, are qualified to vote, unless they are in prison at the time of the election.

The term of members of the House of Commons depends on the term of Parliament, a maximum of five years; a general election, during which all the seats are contested, occurs after each dissolution. All legislation must be passed by the House of Commons to become law and it controls taxation and the supply of money to the government. Government ministers (including the Prime Minister) must regularly answer questions in the House of Commons and there are a number of select committees that scrutinise particular issues and the workings of the government.

There are mechanisms that allow members of the House of Commons to bring to the attention of the government particular issues affecting their constituents. The State Opening of Parliament is an annual event that marks the commencement of a session of the Parliament of the UK.

It is held in the House of Lords Chamber. Before 2012, it took place in November or December, or, in a general election year, when the new Parliament first assembled. From 2012 onwards, the ceremony has taken place in May or June.

Upon the signal of the Monarch, the Lord Great Chamberlain raises his wand of office to signal to Black Rod, who is charged with summoning the House of Commons and has been waiting in the Commons lobby. Black Rod turns and, under the escort of the Doorkeeper of the House of Lords and an inspector of police, approaches the doors to the Chamber of the Commons. In 1642, King Charles I stormed into the House of Commons in an unsuccessful attempt to arrest the Five Members, who included the celebrated English patriot and leading Parliamentarian John Hampden.

This action sparked the English Civil War. The wars established the constitutional rights of Parliament, a concept legally established in the Glorious Revolution in 1688 and the subsequent Bill of Rights 1689. Since then, no British monarch has entered the House of Commons when it is in session.

On Black Rod's approach, the doors are slammed shut against him, symbolising the rights of parliament and its independence from the monarch. He then strikes with the end of his ceremonial staff (the Black Rod) three times on the closed doors of the Commons Chamber. He is then admitted, and announces the command of the monarch for the attendance of the Commons.

The monarch reads a speech, known as the Speech from the Throne, which is prepared by the Prime Minister and the Cabinet, outlining the Government's agenda for the coming year.

The speech reflects the legislative agenda for which the Government intends to seek the agreement of both Houses of Parliament. After the monarch leaves, each Chamber proceeds to the consideration of an "Address in Reply to Her Majesty's Gracious Speech". But, first, each House considers a bill *pro forma* to symbolise their right to deliberate independently of the monarch.

In the House of Lords, the bill is called the Select Vestries Bill, while the Commons equivalent is the Outlawries Bill. The Bills are considered for the sake of form only, and do not make any actual progress.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

By convention, Ministers sit on the frontbench on the right hand of the Speaker: the Chief Whip usually sits in this row immediately next to the gangway.

Parliamentary Private Secretaries usually sit in the row behind their minister. Official Opposition spokespersons use the front bench to the Speaker's left. Minority or smaller parties sit on the benches below the gangway on the left. There is nothing sacrosanct about these places and on occasions when a Member has deliberately chosen to occupy a place on the front bench or on the opposite side of the House from their usual position there is no redress for such action.

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

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

This style of debate can make the Commons Chamber a rather noisy place with robustly expressed opinion, many interventions, expressions of approval or disapproval and, sometimes, of repartee and banter. Ultimately it is the Chair, The Speaker of the House of Commons, who controls the House and who speaks and when members have the right, when speaking, to be heard without unendurable background noise (deliberate or accidental) and the Chair will call for order if it appears there is an attempt to drown out a member or when a number of members are leaving the Chamber, or conversing loudly.

The colours of the Houses of Parliament

A tradition that stands out to most visitors to Parliament is the difference between the colours which are used in the Lords and Commons parts of the building. Green is the principal colour for furnishing and fabrics throughout the House of Commons, with the green benches of the Chamber perhaps the most recognisable of these. The first authoritative mention of the use of green in the Chamber occured in 1663. In the House of Lords, red is similarly employed in upholstery, hansard, notepaper etc.

This colour most likely stems from the use by monarchs of red as a royal colour and its consequent employment in the room where the Monarch met their court and nobles.

Dragging the Speaker of the House of Commons

When a new Speaker of the House of Commons is elected, the successful candidate is physically dragged to the Chair by other MPs. This tradition has its roots in the Speaker's function to communicate the Commons' opinions to the monarch. Historically, if the monarch didn't agree with the message being communicated then the early death of the Speaker could follow. Therefore, as you can imagine, previous Speakers required some gentle persuasion to accept the post.

Prayers

Each sitting in both Houses begins with prayers that follow the Christian faith. In the Commons the Speaker's Chaplain usually reads the prayers. In the Lords a senior bishop (Lord Spiritual) who sits in the Lords usually reads the prayers. MPs can use prayers cards to reserve seats in the chamber for the remainder of that sitting day. These 'prayer cards' are dated and must be obtained personally by the member who wishes to use them from and on duty attendant before the House meets.

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

When MPs vote on debates or legislation it is called a division. When MPs vote they say "aye" or "no". In the Lords, Members vote saying "content" or "not content". For major votes the House divides into the voting lobbies, two corridors that run either side of the chamber, and members are counted as they enter into each. The *dress* of MPs has of course changed throughout history. The dress of members these days is generally that which might ordinarily be worn for a fairly formal business transaction.

The Speaker has, on a number of occasions, taken exception to informal clothing, including the non-wearing of jackets and ties by men.

The *Woolsack* is the seat of the Lord Speaker in the House of Lords Chamber. The Woolsack is a large, wool-stuffed cushion or seat covered with red cloth. The Lord Speaker presides over business in the House of Lords, but does not control them like the Speaker in the Commons, as members of the Lords regulate their own discussions. If a Deputy Speaker presides in the absence of the Lord Speaker, then that individual uses the Woolsack. When the House of Lords is sitting, the Mace is placed on the rear of the Woolsack, behind the Lord Speaker. In front of the Woolsack in the House of Lords Chamber is a larger cushion known as the *Judges' Woolsack*. During the State Opening of Parliament, the Judges' Woolsack is occupied by senior judges.

This is a reminder of medieval Parliaments, when judges attended to offer legal advice.

During normal sittings of the House, any Member of the Lords may sit on it.

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

Exercise 1. Digest the information in English.

Exercise 2. Add some information and make a talk in class.

Exercise 3. Analyze the text and make up the chart about the rules & customs in Parliament.

№	When	What
1.		

The Speaker occupies an exquisitely carved chair on a dais at the northern end of the Chamber.

The Serjeant at Arms is responsible for keeping order within the Commons part of the parliamentary estate.

PROCEDURE & TERM

Both houses of the British Parliament are presided over by a speaker, the Speaker of the House for the Commons and the Lord Speaker in the House of Lords.

For the Commons, the approval of the Sovereign is theoretically required before the election of the Speaker becomes valid, but it is, by modern convention, always granted. The Speaker's place may be taken by 3 deputies, known as the Chairman, First Deputy Chairman and Second Deputy Chairman of Ways and Means. Prior to July 2006, the House of Lords was presided over by a Lord Chancellor (a Cabinet member), whose influence as Speaker was very limited (whilst the powers belonging to the Speaker of the House of Commons are vast). However, as part of the Constitutional Reform Act 2005, the position of Speaker of the House of Lords (termed in the Act) was separated from the office of Lord Chancellor (the office which has control over the judiciary as a whole), though the Lords remain largely self-governing. Decisions on points of order and on the disciplining of unruly members are made by the whole body in the Upper House, but by the Speaker alone in the Lower House.

Speeches in the House of Lords are addressed to the House as a whole (using the words "My Lords"), but those in the House of Commons are addressed to the Speaker alone (using "Mr Speaker" or "Madam Speaker"). Speeches may be made to both Houses simultaneously. Both Houses may decide questions by voice vote; members shout out "Aye!" and "No!" in the Commons – or "Content!" and "Not-Content!" in the Lords – and the presiding officer declares the result.

The pronouncement of either Speaker may be challenged; a recorded vote (known as a division) demanded. (The Speaker of the House of Commons may choose to overrule a frivolous request for a division, but the Lord Speaker does not have that power.) In each House, a division requires members to file into one of the two lobbies alongside the Chamber; their names are recorded by clerks, and their votes are counted as they exit the lobbies to re-enter the Chamber. The Speaker of the House of Commons is expected to be non-partisan, and does not cast a vote except in the case of a tie; the Lord Speaker, however, votes along with the other Lords.

Both Houses normally conduct their business in public, and there are galleries where visitors may sit. As at 2016, Parliament has a fixed term of 5 years.

Originally there was no fixed limit on the length of a Parliament, but the Triennial Act 1694 set the maximum duration at 3 years. As the frequent elections were deemed inconvenient, the Septennial Act 1715 extended the maximum to seven years, but the Parliament Act 1911 reduced it to five. During the Second World War, the term was temporarily extended to ten years by Acts of Parliament. Since the end of the war the maximum has remained five years. Modern Parliaments, however, rarely continued for the maximum duration; normally, they were dissolved earlier. For instance, the 52nd, which assembled in 1997, was dissolved after four years. The Septennial Act was repealed by the Fixed-term Parliaments Act 2011.

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

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

Exercise 3. Write a small essay on the topic.

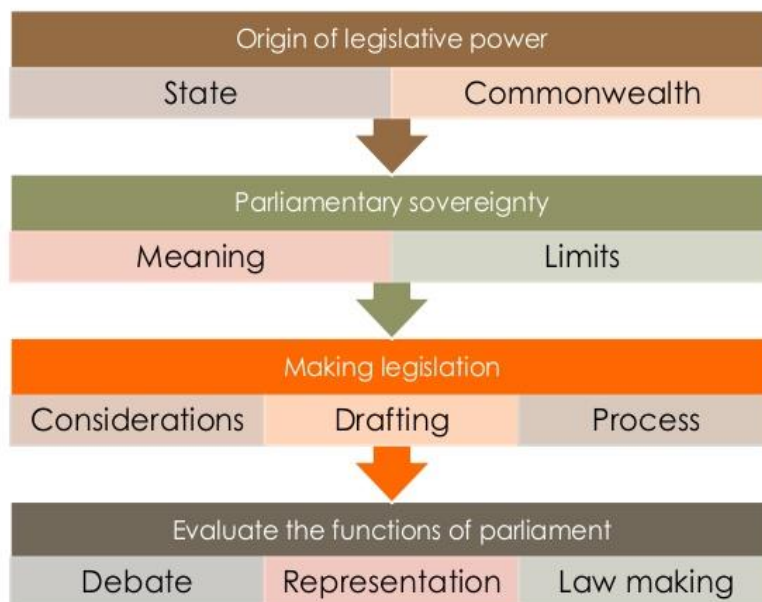*Exercise 4. Analyze the activity of English Parliament and make up the chart about it.*

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

Parliament Buildings, Stormont, Northern Irelandis home to the Northern Ireland Assembly.

Queen opens Parliament

THE SPEAKER & THE PARLIAMENT

The Speaker of the House of Commons debates in the Commons Chamber and the holder of this office is an MP who has been elected by other MPs. The Speaker is the chief officer and highest authority of the House of Commons and must remain politically impartial at all times.

During debates the Speaker keeps order and calls MPs to speak. The Speaker also represents the Commons to the Monarch, the Lords and other authorities and chairs the House of Commons Commission. The current many form and rules of parliamentary procedure date back to the beginning of the 16th century. People outside Great Britain believe that if they elect the man to sit in the Parliament he has a seat there. But the House of Commons has seats for only about two thirds of its members. Thus, on great occasions when the House is full, members have to sit in the gangways.

Only four members of the House of Commons have reserved seats: the Speaker, the Prime Minister, the Leader of the Opposition and the member who is in the Parliament for the longest unbroken period. Ministers sit on the front bench, but have no right to any particular seat there.

The Queen usually opens the new session of the Parliament. When she takes seat on the throne she sends the official of the House of Lords, called Black Rod, to call the Commons. When he arrives at the door of the House of Commons they bang it in his face to show their independence.

After this they follow *Black Rod* into the Chamber of the House of Lords, where they stand while the Queen reads her speech. During the election of the Speaker, when he is going to his great chair at one end of the House, he struggles and pretends that he doesn't wish to accept the honour.

This comes from the days when men were afraid to become the Speaker.

It was because the Sovereign and the House of Commons often quarrelled and the Speaker's duty of acting as go-between was both difficult and dangerous. He presides over the debates and decides which member is to speak at any particular moment. Often several wish to speak and they stand up and try "*to catch the Speaker's eye*", as they call it. The Speaker doesn't take part in the debates, and he doesn't vote at the end of them. But if the Government and the Opposition gain an equal number of votes, then the Speaker has the casting vote.

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

Exercise 2. Complete the sentences with the words below.

The UK is divided into 650 parliamentarians.

1. A(n) ___ takes place every four or five years. 2. Before an election, each party prepares a ___ which outlines their policies. 3. An important Conservative policy was the return of state industries to the ___. 4. During the period of Conservative government, ___ fell to 4% for the first time in nearly thirty years. 5. However,___continued to be unacceptably high.

(election, manifesto, state, unemployment)

Exercise 3. Choose the right variant.

1. Powerful nations usually _____ over small weak countries.
a) dominate b) rule c) control d) overwhelm
2. The MPs are appointed for _____ years by the Crown.
a) four b) five c) seven d) six
3. British monarchs had the right to make and pass a _____.
a) law b) legislation c) rule d) bill
4. Members _____ a bill back to a committee.
a) referred b) committed c) submitted d) handed over
5. Traditions are _____ but are interesting in their own right.
a) luster b) brilliance c) magnificence d) pageantry
6. Members of the LP _____ an amendment and the Parliament ratified it.
a) moved b) proposed c) suggested d) offered
7. Everybody must vote on important _____. a) issues b) matters c) affairs d) points
8. These are _____ of state. a) matters b) affairs c) cases d) issues
9. These _____ are outside influences from the government.
a) issues b) matters c) questions d) cases
10. Labour governments _____ in obtaining wide control over social services.
a) succeeded b) were successful c) prospered d) thrived

Exercise 4. Make the sentences below as true (T) if they give the message of the text, and false (F) if they change the message.

1. The Speaker of the House of Commons debates in the Commons Chamber. 2. The Speaker must remain politically impartial at all times. 3. During debates the Speaker doesn't keeps order and calls MPs to speak. 4. The Speaker represents the Commons to the Monarch, the Lords and other authorities. 5. Many form and rules of parliamentary procedure date back to the beginning of the 17th century. 6. Only five members of the House of Commons have reserved seats. 7. The Speaker usually opens the new session of the Parliament. 8. The House of Commons has seats for only about one third of its members. 9. The Speaker's duty of acting as go-between was difficult and dangerous. 10. Nowadays the Speaker takes part in debates.

Exercise 5. Complete the text with the expressions below.

Some people suppose that there are few women and members of the ethic 1) ____ in Parliament. In 1979, Margaret Thatcher became the first woman Prime Minister, yet she never 2) ____ a woman to her Cabinet, and until 1983 the 3) ____ of women 4) ____ to the House of Commons was under 5%. In the election in 1992, 59 women were 5) ____ to the House of Commons. This total is still below the 6) ____ in other European countries. Although the Conservatives choose few women as their candidates for the House of Commons' seats, women are very active in the affairs of the party as a whole. The Labourites have also tried to 7) ___ to women voters by giving women 8) ____ positions. In all parties, a higher 9) ____ of women is elected to 10) ____ than the House of Commons. 11) The Queen usually opens the new ____ of the Parliament. In total, since 1918, there have been 12) ____ women MPs. 13) There are currently ____ women MPs among the 650 members of the House. 14) The *Representation of the People Act* ____ allowed women to stand as parliamentary candidates from 1918. 15) The representation of Women in the House of Commons of the UK has been an issue in the politics of the UK at numerous points in ____ centuries. 16) Originally debate centered on whether women should be allowed to vote and stand for election as ____. 17) In more modern times concerns about the under-representation of women led ____ to introduce all-women short lists.
(Appointed, elected, prominent, proportion, local councils, to appeal, session, *498, 208, 1918, minority, members of parliament, the Labour Party, the 20th and 21st.)*

Exercise 6. Choose the right variant.

1. The speaker _____ out against the new regulations.
a) lashed b) cursed c) tore to pieces d) criticized severely
2. The Speaker of the HC _____ in the Commons Chamber.
a) debates b) discusses c) argues d) contends
3. He _____over the debates and decides some problems.
a) presides b) directs c) controls d) chairs
4. The Speaker must remain politically _____at all times.
a) impartial b) disinterested c) unprejudiced d) objective
5. These are _____ facts (statements).
a) nude b) naked c) bare d) unadorned
6. We support the call for the _____ of a Bill of Rights.
a) ordinance b) law c) enactment d) statute
7. Nowadays the Speaker no longer takes part in _____.
a) debates b) discussions c) talks d) conversations
8. The HC has seats for only about _____ of its members.
a) two thirds b) one third c) one half d) three thirds
9. On great occasions members have to sit in the _____.
a) gangways b) aisles c) outside d) inside
10. The Speaker's duty of acting as go-between was both _____and dangerous.
a) difficult b) hard c) easy d) heavy

Exercise 7. Choose the right variant.

1. They have enough influence to get the bill _____.
a) passed b) taken up c) received d) accepted
2. These _____ are outside influences from the government.
a) issues b) matters c) questions d) cases
3. This is a noble act, which _____ noble aims.
a) pursues b) chases c) is after d) follows
4. The bill must receive Royal _____.
a) assent b) approval c) approbation d) consent
5. He had never _____ my opinion. a) reverenced b) adored c) idolized d) esteemed
6. Problems we ignore now will come back to _____ us.
a) haunt b) hunt c) follow d) pursue
7. In the history of law there were a great many of _____.
a) speculations b) frauds c) shady deals d) swindles
8. Necessity knows no _____. a) law b) rule c) instruction d) code
9. A suitable answer has already been _____ by the chairman.
a) put forward b) suggested c) offered d) proposed
10. This problem _____ a thorough research.
a) needs b) forces c) calls for d) demands
11. Each party prepares a ___ which outlines their policiesю.
a) manifesto b) declaration c) appeal d) programm

Exercise 8. Translate the word-combinations and make up sentences with them.

To go into a huddle; to huddle together; things which are utterly diverse; to buy a cat in the sack; to get the sack; to give the sack; to hit the sack (retire, fall asleep, go to sleep, hit the hay, turn in); to sack money; to sack profit; a sack of Troy; job definition; habits; habit of mind; customs; customary law; customary international law.

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PARLIAMENTARY ACTIVITIES

Following a general election, a new Parliamentary session begins. Parliament is formally summoned 40 days in advance by the Sovereign, who is the source of parliamentary authority. On the day indicated by the Sovereign's proclamation, the two Houses assemble in their respective chambers.

The Commons are the summoned to the House of Lords, where Lords Commissioners (representatives of the Sovereign) instruct them to elect a Speaker. The Commons perform the election; on the next day, they return to the House of Lords, where the Lords Commissioners confirm the election and grant the new Speaker the royal approval in the Sovereign's name. The business of Parliament for the next few days of its session involves the taking of the oaths of allegiance. Once a majority of the members have taken the oath in each House, the State Opening of Parliament may take place. The Lords take their seats in the House of Lords Chamber, the Commons appear at the Bar (at the entrance to the Chamber), and the Sovereign takes his or her seat on the throne.

The Sovereign then reads the Speech from the Throne – the content of which is determined by the Ministers of the Crown – outlining the Government's legislative agenda for the upcoming year.

Thereafter, each House proceeds to the transaction of legislative business.

By custom, before considering the Government's legislative agenda, a bill is introduced *pro forma* in each House – the Select Vestries Bill in the House of Lords and the Outlawries Bill in the House of Commons. These bills do not become laws; they are ceremonial indications of the power of each House to debate independently of the Crown. After the *pro forma* bill is introduced, each House debates the content of the Speech from the Throne for several days. Once each House formally sends its reply to the Speech, legislative business may commence, appointing committees, electing officers, passing resolutions and considering legislation.
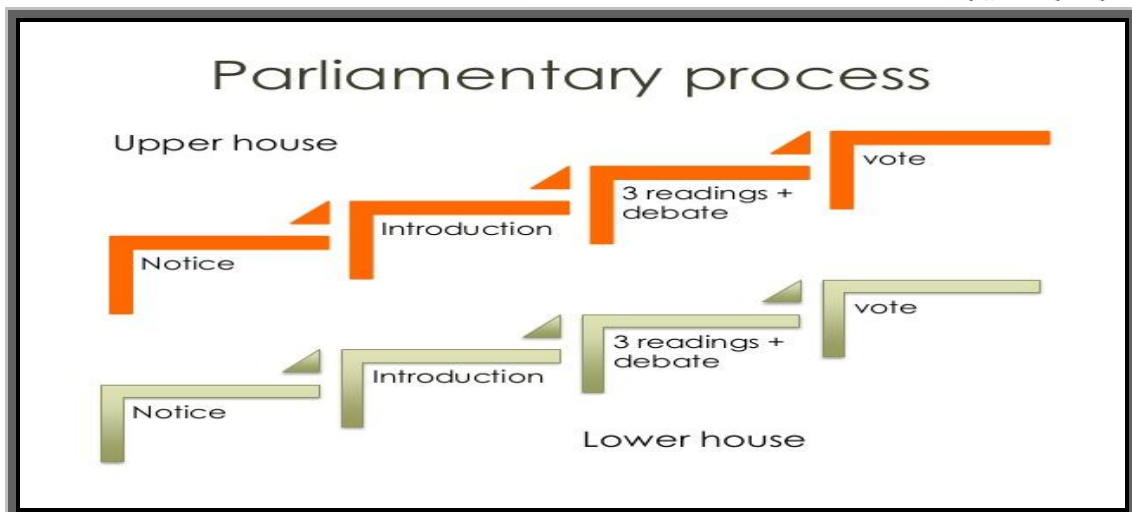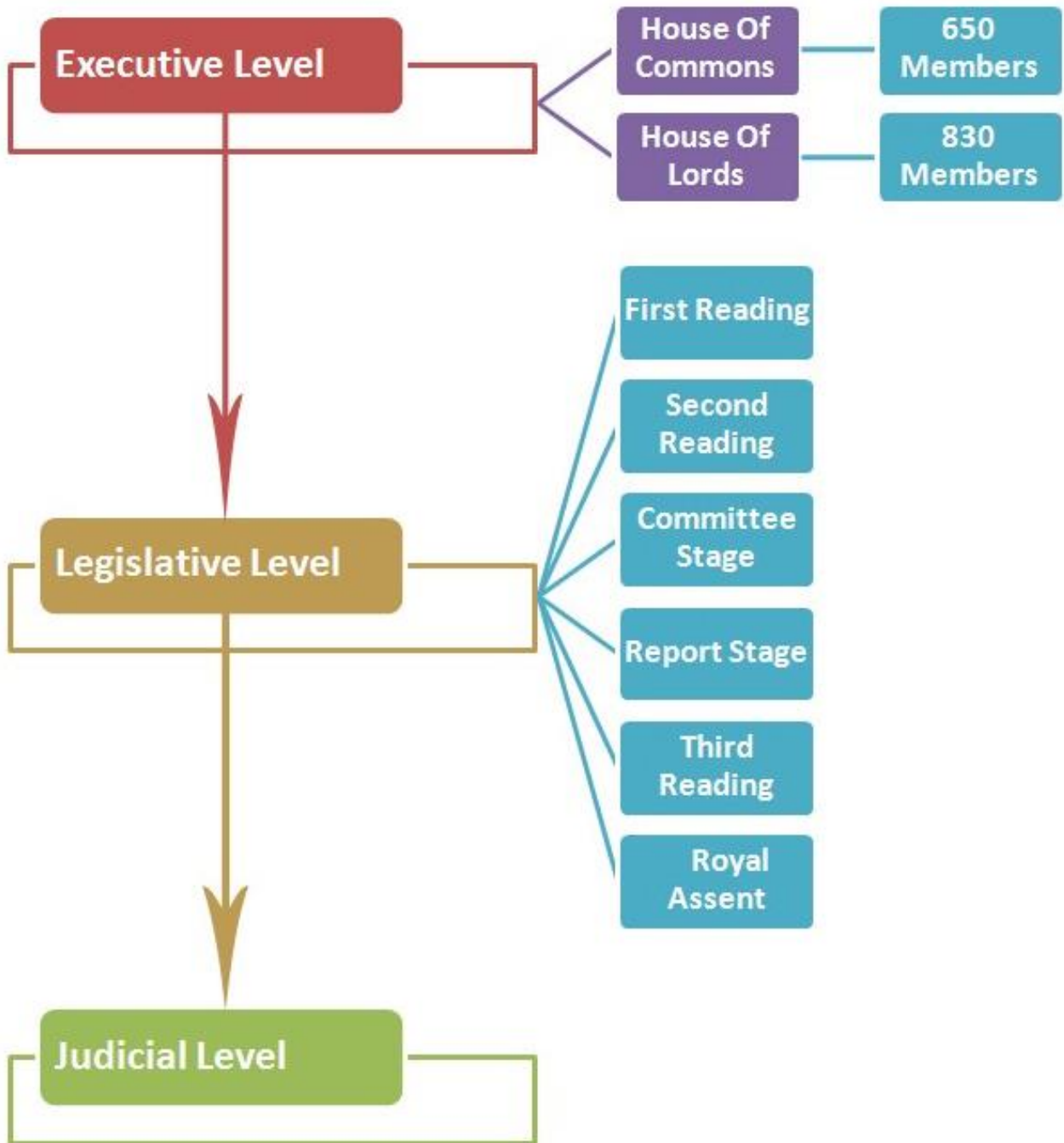
A session of Parliament is brought to an end by a prorogation. There is a ceremony similar to the State Opening, but much less well-known to the general public. Normally, the Sovereign does not personally attend the prorogation ceremony in the House of Lords; he or she is represented by Lords Commissioners. The next session of Parliament begins under the procedures described above, but it is not necessary to conduct another election of a Speaker or take the oaths of allegiance afresh at the beginning of such subsequent sessions. Instead, the State Opening of Parliament proceeds directly.

To avoid the delay of opening a new session in the event of an emergency during the long summer recess, Parliament is no longer prorogued beforehand, but only after the Houses have reconvened in the autumn; the State Opening follows a few days later.

Each Parliament comes to an end, after a number of sessions, in anticipation of a general election. Parliament is dissolved by virtue of the Fixed-term Parliaments Act 2011. Prior to that, the Sovereign, on the advice of the Prime Minister, affected dissolution. The Prime Minister could seek dissolution at a time politically advantageous to his or her party. If the Prime Minister loses the support of the House of Commons, Parliament will dissolve and a new election will be held. Parliaments can also be dissolved if two-thirds of the House of Commons votes for an early election.

Formerly, the demise of the Sovereign automatically brought a Parliament to an end, the Crown being seen as the *caput, principium, et finis* (beginning, basis and end) of the body, but this is no longer the case. The first change was during the reign of William and Mary, when it was seen to be inconvenient to have no Parliament at a time when succession to the Crown could be disputed, and an Act was passed that provided that a Parliament was to continue for six months after the death of a Sovereign, unless dissolved earlier. Under the Representation of the People Act 1867 Parliament can now continue for as long as it would otherwise have done in the event of the death of the Sovereign.

After each Parliament concludes, the Crown issues writs to hold a general election and elect new members of the House of Commons, though membership of the House of Lords does not change.

Parliamentary process

PARLIAMENTARY QUESTIONS

In the UK, question time in the House of Commons lasts for an hour each day from Monday to Thursday (2:30a.m. to 3:30 p.m. on Mondays, 11:30 a.m. to 12:30 p.m. on Tuesdays and Wednesdays, and 9:30 to 10:30 am on Thursdays).

Each Government department has its place in a rota, which repeats every five weeks.

The exception to this sequence are the Business Questions (Questions to the Leader of House of Commons), in which questions are answered each Thursday about the business of the House the following week. Questions to the Prime Minister takes place each Wednesday from noon to 12:30 p.m.

In addition to government departments, there are also questions to the Church commissioners. Additionally, each Member of Parliament is entitled to table questions for written answer. Written questions are addressed to the Ministerial head of a government department, usually a Secretary of State, but they are often answered by a Minister of State or Parliamentary Under Secretary of State.

Written Questions are submitted to the Clerks of the Table Office, either on paper or electronically, and answers are recorded in *The Official Report (Hansard)* to be widely available and accessible.

In the House of Lords, a half-hour is set aside each afternoon at the start of the day's proceedings for Lords' oral questions. A peer submits a question in advance, which then appears on the Order Paper for the day's proceedings. The Lord shall say: "*My Lords, I beg leave to ask the Question standing in my name on the Order Paper*". The Minister responsible then answers the question. The Lord is then allowed to ask a supplementary question and other peers ask further questions on the theme of the original put down on the order paper. (If the question regards immigration, Lords can ask the Minister any question related to immigration during the allowed period).

Parliamentary Sovereignty	• Sovereignty = "Crown in Parliament" • Parliamentary sovereignty is a form of legal sovereignty (i.e. make, amend, repeal any law)
The Rule of Law	• The Rule of Law has traditionally been seen as an alternative to a codified constitution, showing that, even in the absence of higher law, government is till subject to legal checks and constraints. • Government, in short, is not 'above' the law.
Parliamentary Government	• UK constitutional structure is based on a fusion of powers between executive and Parliament (i.e. parliamentary government). • Government & parliament overlap/interlock. • Government, in effect, governs in and through parliament.
Constitutional Monarchy	• Monarchy remains constitutionally significant body in the UK. Monarchy is a 'dignified' institution and still plays vital role even if no meaningful political power. Role is to promote popular allegiance, serve as a symbol of political unity above party politics. Monarch has the right to be informed, consulted, to warn and encourage.
EU Membership	• Membership of the EU has major implications for the UK constitution e.g. role and significance of Parliament [can parliament still be seen as sovereign?] • Sovereignty now best understood as 'parliamentary sovereignty within the context of EU membership'.

Strength & weakness of UK Parliament

PARLIAMENT'S SOVEREIGNTY

Several different views have been taken of Parliament's sovereignty. According to the jurist Sir William Blackstone, "It has sovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all possible denominations, ecclesiastical, or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal ... it can, in short, do every thing that is not naturally impossible."

A different view has been taken by the Scottish judge Lord Cooper of Culross. When he decided the 1953 case of *MacCormick v. Lord Advocate* as Lord President of the Court of Session, he stated, "The principle of unlimited sovereignty of Parliament is a distinctively English principle and has no counterpart in Scottish constitutional law." He continued, "Considering that the Union legislation extinguished the Parliaments of Scotland and England and replaced them by a new Parliament, I have difficulty in seeing why the new Parliament of Great Britain must inherit all the peculiar characteristics of the English Parliament but none of the Scottish." Nevertheless, he did not give a conclusive opinion on the subject. Thus, the question of Parliamentary sovereignty appears to remain unresolved.

Parliament has not passed any Act defining its own sovereignty. A related possible limitation on Parliament relates to the Scottish legal system and Presbyterian faith, preservation of which were Scottish preconditions to the creation of the unified Parliament. Since the Parliament of the UK was set up in reliance on these promises, it may be that it has no power to make laws that break them.

Parliament's power has often been eroded by its own Acts. Acts passed in 1921 and 1925 granted the Church of Scotland complete independence in ecclesiastical matters. More recently, its power has been restricted by membership of the European Union, which has the power to make laws enforceable in each member state. In the Factortame case, the European Court of Justice ruled that British courts could have powers to overturn British legislation contravening European law.

Parliament has created national devolved parliaments and assemblies with differing degrees of legislative authority in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Parliament still has the power over areas for which responsibility lies with the devolved institutions. But, it would gain the agreement of those institutions to act on their behalf. Similarly, it has granted the power to make regulations to Ministers of the Crown, and the power to enact religious legislation to the General Synod of the Church of England.

(Measures of the General Synod and, in some cases proposed statutory instruments made by ministers, must be approved by both Houses before they become law.) In every case aforementioned, authority has been conceded by Act of Parliament and may be taken back in the same manner.

It is entirely within the authority of Parliament, for example, to abolish the devolved governments in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland or to leave the EU. However, Parliament revoked its legislative competence over Australia and Canada with the Australia and Canada Acts: although the Parliament of the UK could pass an Act reversing its action, it would not take effect in Australia or Canada as the competence of the *Imperial Parliament* is no longer recognised there in law.

One well-recognised exception to Parliament's power involves binding future Parliaments. No Act of Parliament may be made secure from amendment or repeal by a future Parliament.

Although the Act of Union 1800 states that the Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland are to be united "forever", Parliament permitted southern Ireland to leave the UK in 1922.

Exercise 1. Generate all events in the text.

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

TOPICAL VOABULARY

sovereignty ['sɔvr(ə)ntɪ] – независимость, суверенитет, суверенность; суверенное государство; а) верховная власть б) владычество

a threat to national sovereignty – угроза национальной независимости

to establish/to violate a country's sovereignty – установить/нарушить суверенитет страны

the sovereignty of parliament – власть парламента

to abandon one's fight for sovereignty – отказываться от борьбы за суверенитет

to be under British sovereignty – находиться под британским владычеством

to claim sovereignty over a region – претендовать на владычество над какой-л. областью

to concede some of the country's sovereignty – частично поступаться суверенитетом страны

to defend one's sovereignty – защищать свой суверенитет

to encroach upon smb's sovereignty – посягать на чей-л. суверенитет

to enjoy sovereignty – пользоваться суверенитетом / суверенным правом

to establish sovereignty – устанавливать суверенитет

to exercise sovereignty – осуществлять право суверенитета

to extend smb's sovereignty over a territory – распространять свою власть на какую-л. территорию

to gain sovereignty – завоевывать суверенитет

to guarantee sovereignty – гарантировать суверенитет

to hamper sovereignty – препятствовать суверенитету

to hurt a country's sovereignty – нарушать суверенитет страны

to impair a country's sovereignty over a territory – подрывать власть страны над территорией

to infringe sovereignty – покушаться на суверенитет; нарушать суверенитет

to lose sovereignty – утрачивать / терять суверенитет

to observe one's / to perform acts of sovereignty – соблюдать суверенитет

to preserve one's sovereignty – сохранять суверенитет

to protect national sovereignty – защищать национальный суверенитет

to put a country's sovereignty at risk – ставить под удар суверенитет страны

to question a country's sovereignty – оспаривать суверенитет страны

to recognize (smb's) sovereignty – признавать (чей-л.) суверенитет

to relinquish (surrender, give up) one's sovereignty – отказываться от суверенитета

to respect a country's sovereignty – уважать суверенитет страны

to restore (regain) the sovereignty (of) – восстанавливать суверенитет

to restrict the sovereignty of a country – ограничивать суверенитет страны

to revert to a country's sovereignty – возвращаться под власть какой-л. страны

to rob smb of his sovereignty – лишать кого-л. суверенитета

to safeguard (guarantee) political sovereignty – гарантировать / охранять политический суверенитет

to seek increased sovereignty from smb – добиваться у кого-л. расширения суверенитета

to strengthen sovereignty – укреплять суверенитет

to trample (up) on smb's sovereignty – попирать чей-л. суверенитет

to undermine sovereignty – подрывать суверенитет

to violate a country's sovereignty – нарушать суверенитет страны

to win national sovereignty – завоевывать национальный суверенитет

Exercise 1. Analyze the topical vocabulary, learn it and make up sentences with it.

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

MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT IN GREAT BRITAIN

Each Member of Parliament (MP) represents one of 650 constituencies in the UK. British elections are usually fought between political parties, not individuals. Therefore, people who want to be elected to parliament need to be nominated by one of the main political parties. There is nothing to stop unconventional candidates from standing for election, however.

A candidate has only to put down a deposit and collect ten signatures from residents in the constituency where he wants to stand. A candidate who gets less than 55% of the total votes loses its deposit. For somebody who is standing for election for publicity purposes, this is a small price to pay.

Although MPs will support a particular party, they are not controlled by that political party and theoretically do not have to vote with their party in Parliament.

MPs represent everyone in the constituency, not just the people who voted for them. A lot of MPs' work has nothing to do with voting in Parliament. There are hundreds of things MPs have to deal with in the day-to-day business of constituency life, such as housing or health care. MPs are there to help people and to try to make sure their rights under the law are not violated. Some MPs hold an advice bureau in their constituencies, where people can go for advice. Anyone who feels that he has been unfairly treated by the central government can complain to their local MP who will do his best to see that the problem is solved. Members of Parliament have been paid salaries since 1911.

The rate has lately been nearly twice the average industrial worker's wages.

Since 1965 the allowances for travel, living in London, and paying part-time secretaries and research assistants, have all been increased.

Exercise 1. Choose the right variant.

1. British election is usually _____ between political parties.
a) fought b) struggled c) contended d) battled
2. MPs represent everyone in the _____.
a) constituency b) election district c) electorate d) electoral ward
3. Some MPs hold an advice bureau in their _____.
a) constituencies b) election districts c) electorates d) electoral wards
4. MP will do his best to help his _____.
a) voter b) constituent c) elector d) selector
5. Since _____ the allowances have all been increased.
a) 1965 b) 1976 c) 1978 d) 1956
6. The Speaker has presided over the Budget debate in _____.
a) 1968 and 1989 b) 1978 and 1989 c) 1969 and 1990 d) 1970 and 1990
7. There are _____ Deputy Chairmen of Ways and Means
a) two b) three c) four d) five
8. They may take _____ in his absence
a) the Chair b) the position c) the place d) the post
9. The deputy can _____ all the authority of the Speaker.
a) exercise b) perform c) do d) exert
10. General oversight of matters _____ with private bills.
a) connected b) related c) linked d) untied
11. Since _____ the allowances for travel, living in London and others have all been increased.
a) 1965 b) 1970 c) 1975 d) 1980
12. Members of Parliament have been paid salaries since _____.
a) 1911 b) 1920 c) 1925 d) 1910

Exercise 2. Give a short presentation on the topic above.

CHAIRMAN OF WAYS & MEANS

The election rules for the Deputy Speakers state that the First Deputy is the Chairman of Ways and Means. The Chairman of Ways and Means is the principal Deputy Speaker and began to formally deputise from 1853. In the absence of the Speaker, the Chairman of Ways and Means may exercise all the authority of the Speaker, under the Deputy Speakers Act 1855.

The Chairman of Ways and Means is elected from the opposite side of the House from which the Speaker was elected. The main role of the Chairman of Ways and Means is to take the Chair during unavoidable absence or absence by leave of the House of the Speaker, and perform his or her duties in relation to all proceedings in the House.

The Chairman of Ways and Means is also chairman of any committee of the whole House.

The Chairman of Ways and Means has three distinct roles from the Speaker:

- Supervision of arrangements for sittings in Westminster Hall.
- General oversight of matters connected with private bills.
- Chair of the Panel of Chairs with general responsibility for the work of general committees.

Between 1641 and 1967, the Chairman of Ways and Means presided over the Committee of Ways and Means. Proposals for raising taxation originated in the Committee of Ways and Means but since 1967 (when the Committee was abolished), all fiscal matters, including taxation, now reside with the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Although the Speaker has presided over the Budget debate, in 1968 and 1989 for example, it is usually the Chairman of Ways and Means that takes the Chair as the financial measures contained in the Chancellor's Budget are brought in on Ways and Means Resolutions. There are two Deputy Chairmen of Ways and Means; the First Deputy Chairman and the Second Deputy Chairman. They may take the Chair in the absence of the Chairmen of Ways and Means either in the Commons Chamber or in Westminster Hall and exercise all the authority of the Speaker.

In Committee of the whole House, the Chair will be taken by a Deputy Chairman in the absence of the Chairman of Ways and Means is elected from the same side of the House as the Speaker. The Second Chairman of Ways and Means is elected from the opposite side of the House from which the Speaker was elected.

Exercise 1. Identify the areas of activity for the Chairman of Ways and Means.

Exercise 2. Analyze the activity of the Committee and make up the chart about it.

№	ACTIVITY			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

Exercise 3. Remember the explanation.

Ways and Means Committee – Комитет путей и средств (палата общин, заседающая как бюджетная комиссия для утверждения источников покрытия расходов по бюджету).

Ways and Means – способы и средства для покрытия бюджетных расходов.

The methods and resources at someone's disposal for achieving something the company is seeking ways and means of safeguarding jobs

Ways and procedures – пути и методы.

Chairman of Ways and Means – председатель бюджетной комиссии (официальная должность заместителя спикера).

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

MAKING NEW LAWS: BILLS & ACTS

The functions of parliament are: making laws; providing money for the government through taxation; examining government policy, administration and spending; debating political questions.

Every year Parliament passes about hundreds laws directly, by making Acts of Parliament.

Because this can be a long process, the Parliament sometimes passes a very general law and leaves a minister to fill in the details. In this way, it indirectly passes about 2,000 additional rules and regulations. No new law can be passed unless it has completed a number of stages in the House of Commons and the House of Lords. The monarch also has to give a Bill the Royal Assent, which is now just a formality. Since 1707 no sovereign has refused a Bill. Whilst a law is still going through the Parliament it is called a Bill. There are two main types of Bills – *Public Bills*, which deal with matters of public importance and *Private Bills*, which deal with local matters and individuals.

One example of a Government Bill is *the Sea Fish* (Conservation) *Bill* of 1992-1993, which affects the amount of time that fishing boats may spend at sea. Although a rather old example, it illustrated well how a Government Bill becomes an Act of Parliament. This particular Bill was introduced into the Commons by the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food.

Public and private Bills are passed through Parliament in much the same way. When a Bill is introduced in the House of Commons, it receives a formal first reading. It is then printed and read a second time, when it is debated but not amended. After the second reading the Bill is referred to a committee, either a special committee made up of certain members of the House, or to the House itself as a committee. Here it is discussed in detail and amended, if necessary.

The Bill is then presented for a third reading and is debated. If the Bill is passed by the Commons it goes to the Lords, and provided it is not rejected by them, it goes through the same procedure as in the Commons. At the Third Reading stage, the House decided to pass the Bill as a whole. The Bill cannot be changed at this stage – it is either accepted or rejected.

Once the Bill has passed its Third readings in the Commons, one of the Clerks at the Table carries the Bill to the House of Lords. After receiving the Royal Assent the Bill becomes an Act of Parliament. In order to be enforced, it must be published in Statute form, becoming a part of Statute Law. The power of the Lords to reject the Bill has been severely curtailed. A money Bill must be passed by the Lords without amendment within a month of being presented in the House.

The Act of 1949 provides that any Public Bill passed by the Commons in two successive parliamentary sessions and rejected both times by the Lords, may be presented for the Royal Assent, even though it has not been passed by the Lords. The Lords, therefore, can only delay the passage of a Public Bill, they cannot reject it. The House of Lords has the job of reviewing Bills received from the Commons. A different group of people can often see something in a completely different way.

The House of Lords often makes changes to Common Bills. Once both Houses of the Parliament have passed a Bill, then it has to go to the Queen for the Royal Assent. Even after an Act has received the Royal Assent, it may not come into force straight away.

Exercise 1. Digest the score of the passage briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Translate the words and word-combinations with the keyword «bill».

Authorization, engrossed, omnibus bill; to draft (introduce / propose, oppose, support) a bill; to move / railroad a bill through a legislature; to quash (reject / vote down, throw down, pass) a bill; to shelve (veto, pass, throw out) a bill; Bill of Rights; to adopt a bill unanimously; to amalgamate two bills; to amend (approve, bar (block)) the bill; to bring in a bill; to debate a bill clause by clause; to defeat (kill, vote down) a bill; to delay the bill past one's convention; to draw (enact); to lobby a bill through; to make an amendment to a bill; to pass (rush) a bill through all the stages of parliament; to push through a bill; to sign a bill (into law); to table a bill; to water down a bill; butcher's bill; to fill the bill; environmental bill; to bill and coo; bill drafting; bill goes to the lower house for consideration.
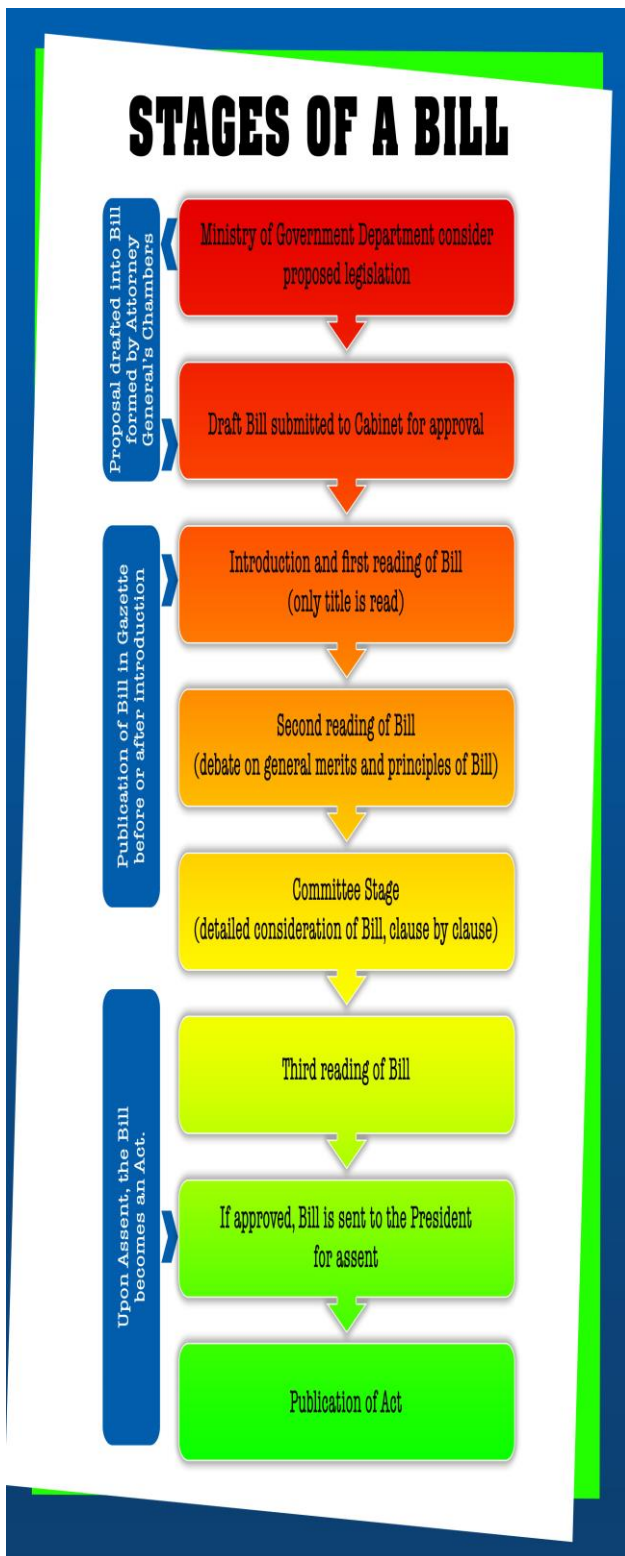
Exercise 3. Answer the questions.

1. Is the UK legislature composed only of the House of Lords and the House of Commons? 2. Are all UK laws national in their effect? 3. Is Parliament a democratically elected body? 4. Which of the three categories of Lords Temporal do you think are called "The Law Lords"? 5. Can a judge become a Member of Parliament? 6. How is the Prime Minister selected in the UK? 7. What is the relationship between the Prime Minister and the monarch? 8. What is the relationship between the Cabinet and the Parliament? 9. What is the vital difference between the role of the Cabinet and government ministries or departments? 10. Who is the UK Minister of Justice? 11. What assumed a republican form of government in 1937? 12. English law and Scots law are very different from each other in form and substance, aren't they? 13. How have the two legal systems resulted? 14. What has been greatly influenced by English law? 15. How long has the Parliament for England and Scotland existed? 16. Where has the separate evolution of the two legal systems, both before and after Union resulted? 17. What is Scots law based upon? 18. How long has common Parliament for England and Scotland exist? 19. Has there any assimilation of the legal system of the two countries been? 20. Has a fusion of law taken place between England and Wales?

The House of Lords measured 100 feet by 50 feet, and was decorated in solemn hues of gold and crimson, with lofty stained-glass windows depicting the past.

STAGES OF A BILL

Proposal drafted into Bill formed by Attorney General's Chambers

Ministry of Government Department consider proposed legislation

Draft Bill submitted to Cabinet for approval

Publication of Bill in Gazette before or after introduction

Introduction and first reading of Bill (only title is read)

Second reading of Bill (debate on general merits and principles of Bill)

Committee Stage (detailed consideration of Bill, clause by clause)

Third reading of Bill

Upon Assent, the Bill becomes an Act.

If approved, Bill is sent to the President for assent

Publication of Act

House of Lords

- First reading
- Second reading
- Committee stage
- Report stage
- Third reading

House of Commons

- First reading
- Second reading
- Committee stage
- Report stage
- Third reading
- Consideration of amendments

Royal Assent

The process of decision-making in Parliament

UNIT IV. POLITICS IN THE UK

INTRODUCTION

The politics of the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland takes place in the framework of a constitutional monarchy, in which the Monarch is head of state and the Prime Minister of the UK is the head of government. Executive power is exercised by the UK government, the devolved governments of Scotland and Wales, and the Executive of Northern Ireland. Legislative power is vested in both the government and the two chambers of Parliament, the House of Commons and the House of Lords, as well as in the Scottish parliament and Welsh and Northern Ireland assemblies.

The judiciary is independent of the executive and the legislature, though several senior judges are still members of the House of Lords, which is currently the highest court of the UK for civil cases and the highest court of England and Wales for criminal cases. Before the mid-19th century, politics in the UK was dominated by the Whigs and the Tories. These were not political parties in the modern sense but somewhat loose alliances of interests and individuals. The Whigs included many of the leading aristocratic dynasties committed to the Protestant succession, and later drew support from elements of the emerging industrial interests and wealthy merchants, while the Tories were associated with the landed gentry, the Church of England and the Church of Scotland. By the mid 19th century, the Tories had evolved into the Conservative Party, and the Whigs had evolved into the Liberal Party.

The parliament was presided over by a speaker, who handled proceedings.

The concept of right and left came originally from France, where the Right supported a smaller state with less influence on the lives of the public, the Left advocated a larger state with more influence on the lives of the public. In the late 19th century the Liberal Party began to lean towards the left, and the seating in the house of commons began to reflect this: Right of the speaker were those supporting right wing politics, the Conservatives; left of the speaker were those supporting Left wing politics, the Liberals. Liberal Unionists split off from the Liberals over Irish Home Rule and moved closer to the Conservatives over time. The Liberals and Conservatives dominated the political scene until the 1920s, when the Liberal Party declined in popularity and suffered a long stream of resignations. It was replaced as the main anti-Tory opposition party by the newly emerging Labour Party, which represented an alliance between the labour movement, organised trades unions and various socialist societies.

Since then the Conservative and Labour parties have dominated British politics, and have alternated in government ever since. However, the UK is not quite a two-party system as other parties have significant support. The Liberal Democrats were the third largest party until the 2015 general election when they were overtaken by the Scottish National Party in terms of seats and UK political party membership, and by the UK Independence Party in terms of votes.

Starting in 2009 however, the judicial role of the House of Lords will be scrapped under the Constitutional Reform Act 2005. The UK is a multi-party system and since the 1920s, the two largest political parties have been the Conservative Party and the Labour Party. Though coalition and minority governments have been an occasional feature of parliamentary politics, the first-past-the-post electoral system used for general elections tends to maintain the dominance of these two parties, though each has in the past century relied upon a third party to deliver a working majority in Parliament.

The Liberal Democrats, a party formed by the merger of the former Liberal Party and Social Democratic Party in 1988, is the third largest party in the British parliament. It seeks a reform of the electoral system to address the disproportionate dominance of the two main parties that results from the current system. Growing support for "Nationalist" parties in Scotland and Wales led to proposals for devolution in the 1970s though only in the 1990s did devolution actually happen.

Today, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland each possess a legislature and government alongside that of the UK, responsible for devolved matters.

It is a matter of dispute as to whether increased autonomy and devolution of executive and legislative powers has contributed to a reduction in support for full independence.

The principal pro-independence party, the Scottish National Party, won 20 extra MSPs at the 2007 Scottish parliament elections; now forms the Scottish Government as a minority administration, with plans to hold a referendum on negotiating for independence, before 2011.

In Wales, the nationalist party, Plaid Cymru, is the junior coalition partner in the Welsh Assembly. Government does not officially advocate complete secession from the UK.

In Northern Ireland, the largest Pro-Belfast Agreement party, Sinn Fein, not only advocates Northern Ireland's unification with the Republic of Ireland, but also abstains from taking their elected seats in the Westminster government, as this would entail taking a pledge of allegiance to the British monarch. The constitution is uncodified, being made up of constitutional conventions, statutes and other elements. This system of government, known as the *Westminster system*, has been adopted by other countries as well, such as Canada, India, Australia, New Zealand, Singapore, Malaysia and Jamaica, countries that made up part of the British Empire.

The UK is short for The UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland... quite a mouthful! It is a sovereign state (in the same way as France or the USA) but is made up of four countries; England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. For Americans, the best analogy would be that the UK is like the USA, whilst its four consistent countries are like states.

Political definition of Great Britain (dark green)

– in Europe (green & dark grey)

 – in the UK (green)

Politically, Great Britain refers to the whole of England, Scotland and Wales in combination, but not Northern Ireland; it includes islands, such as the Isle of Wight, Anglesey, the Isles of Scilly, the Hebrides and the island groups of Orkney and Shetland, that are part of England, Wales, or Scotland.

It does not include the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands, which are self-governing dependent territories.

Exercise 1. Summarize the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Explain the essentials of the executive system.

Exercise 3. Find in the texts the English equivalents for the following expressions.

Обращаться за советом; баллотироваться в своем избирательном округе; нарушать права; выдвинуть свою кандидатуру от партии; собирать подписи; участвовать в избирательной кампании в рекламных целях; средняя зарплата рабочего; несправедливо обойтись с кем-то; производить подсчёт голосов; молчаливое голосование; распустить парламент; политическая партия у власти; за месяц до выборов; безработный; объявлять результаты голосования; от каждого избирательного округа; широкое освещение в печати, на радио, по телевидению; продолжительностью в 3 недели.

Exercise 4. Translate the sentences into Russian.

1. Every member of the community should have a vote in electing those delegates. 2. We have some educational votes 3. The committees were equally divided, so the chairman voted against the suggestion to prevent it being passed. 4. Some delegated didn't vote him into a committee. 5. How many members voted on the housing question? 6. The amount voted for public works in 1872 was £642,856. 7. I vote that we go home. 8. In spite of the chairman's support, the suggestion was voted down by the rest of the committee. 9. If people vote down a person or their proposal, they reject that person or proposal, usually as a result of a formal vote. 10. Many new young members have been voted in this time, which should give the House a fresh start. If people vote in a particular person or political party, they give enough votes to that person or party in an official election for them to hold a position of power.

HISTORICAL OUTLINE OF POLITICS IN ENGLAND

The Politics of England forms the major part of the wider politics of the UK, with England being more populous than all the other countries of the UK put together. As England is also by far the largest in terms of area and GDP, its relationship to the UK is somewhat different from that of Scotland, Wales or Northern Ireland. The English capital London is the capital of the UK, and English is the dominant language of the UK. Dicey and Morris list the separate states in the British Islands.

"England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, the Isle of Man, Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark.... is a separate country in the sense of the conflict of laws, though not one of them is a State known to public international law." But this may be varied by statute. The UK is one state for the purposes of the Bills of Exchange Act 1882. Great Britain is a single state for the purposes of the Companies Act 1985.

Traditionally authors referred to the legal unit or state of England and Wales as "England" although this usage is becoming politically unacceptable in the last few decades.

The Parliament of the UK is located in London, as is its civil service, HM Treasury and most of the official residences of the monarchy. In addition, the state bank of the UK is known as the "Bank of *England*". Though associated with England for some purposes, the Isle of Man, Jersey and Guernsey have their own parliaments, and are not part of the UK, the European Union or England. Prior to the Union, in 1707, England was ruled by a monarch and the Parliament of England.

Since the Union, England has not had its own government.

Post-Union Politics

Treaty of Union agreed by commissioners for each parliament on 22 July 1706.

Acts of Union 1707, passed by both the Parliament of England and the Parliament of Scotland to form the Kingdom of Great Britain. Act of Union 1800, passed by both the Parliament of Great Britain and the Parliament of Ireland to form the UK of Great Britain and Ireland.

Once the terms of the Treaty of Union were agreed in 1706, Acts of Union were passed in both the Parliament of England and the Parliament of Scotland, which created a new Kingdom of Great Britain. The Acts dissolved both parliaments, replacing them with a new *Parliament of the Kingdom of Great Britain* based in the former home of the English parliament. All the traditions, procedures, and standing orders of the English parliament were retained, as were the incumbent officers; English members comprised the overwhelming majority of the new body. It was not even considered necessary to hold a new general election. While Scots law and Scottish legislation remained separate, new legislation for both former kingdoms was now dealt with by the new parliament.

After the Hanoverian George I ascended the throne in 1714 through an Act of Parliament, power began to shift from the Sovereign, and by the end of his reign the position of the ministers – who had to rely on Parliament for support – was cemented.

Towards the end of the 18th century the monarch still had considerable influence over Parliament, which was dominated by the English aristocracy and by patronage, but had ceased to exert direct power: for instance, the last occasion Royal Assent was withheld, was in 1708 by Queen Anne.

At general elections, the vote was restricted to freeholders and landowners, in constituencies that were out of date, so that in many "rotten boroughs" seats could be bought while major cities remained unrepresented. Reformers & Radicals sought parliamentary reform, but as the Napoleonic Wars developed the government became repressive against dissent and progress toward reform was stalled.

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

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score

Since Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland voted for devolved legislatures in referendums in 1997 and 1998; there have been numerous debates about England's position within the UK.

The Scottish Parliament, National Assembly for Wales and Northern Ireland Assembly were created by the UK parliament along with strong support from the majority of people of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, and are not yet independent of the rest of the UK.

However, this gave each country a separate and distinct political identity, leaving England (83% of the UK population) as the only part of the UK directly ruled in nearly all matters by the UK government in London, although London itself is devolved. While Scotland and Northern Ireland have always had separate legal systems to England, this has not been the case with Wales. However, laws concerning the Welsh language, the National Assembly for Wales, have created differences between the law in Wales, and the law in England, as they apply in Wales and not in England.

Regarding parliamentary matters, an anomaly called the West Lothian Question has come to the fore because of legislative devolution for Scotland, Wales & Northern Ireland without corresponding legislative devolution for England. Before devolution, purely "Scottish" legislation was debated at Westminster in a Scottish Grand Committee composed of just those MPs representing Scottish constituencies.

However, legislation was still subject to a vote of the entire House of Commons and this frequently led to legislation being passed despite the majority of Scottish MPs voting against. (This was especially true during the period of Conservative rule from 1979 to 1997 when the Conservative Party had an overall majority of MPs but only a handful representing Scotland and Wales.)

Now that many Scottish matters are dealt with by the Scottish Parliament, the fact that MPs representing Scotland and Wales can not vote on those issues as they affect Scotland, but can vote on those same issues as they affect England is causing some disquiet. The Campaign for an English Parliament is a notable proponent of a separate English parliament.

The House of Commons

English members of parliament are elected at the same time as those for the rest of the UK.

There are 533 English constituencies. Because of their large number, they form an inbuilt majority in the House of Commons. Even though Clause 81 of the Scotland Act 1998 equalised the English and Scottish electoral quota; thereby reduced the number of Scottish members in the House of Commons from 72 to 59 MPs.

English Grand Committee

For many years an anomaly known as the West Lothian question where MPs from Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are able to vote on matters, which only affect England only when those same issues are devolved to their own institutions and has become a major issue in recent years.

In May 2015 the Conservative Party won an unexpected overall majority and pledged to commit to a manifesto promise to change parliamentary procedures and create an English Grand Committee to give English MPs a much greater role in issues which affect only England as a solution to this issue known as "English Votes for English Laws" (EVEL). On 22 October 2015 following a heated debate in the House of Commons the Conservative Government led by David Cameron by 312 votes to 270 votes approved the proposals, which came into, effect immediately.

The House of Lords

The House of Lords has an inbuilt English majority. Members of the House of Lords who sit by virtue of their ecclesiastical offices are known as the Lords Spiritual. Formerly, the Lords Spiritual comprised a majority in the House of Lords, including the Church of England's archbishops, diocesan bishops, abbots, and priors. After 1539, however, only the archbishops and bishops continued to attend, for the Dissolution of the Monasteries suppressed the positions of abbot and prior.

In 1642, during the English Civil War, the Lords Spiritual were excluded altogether, but they returned under the Clergy Act 1661.

The number of Lords Spiritual was further restricted by the Bishopric of Manchester Act 1847, and by later acts. Now, there can be no more than 26 Lords Spiritual in the Lords, but they always include the five most important prelates of the Church: the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Archbishop of York, the Bishop of London, the Bishop of Durham, and the Bishop of Winchester. Membership of the House of Lords extends to the 21 longest-serving other diocesan bishops of the Church of England. The current Lords Spiritual, therefore, represent only the Church of England, although members of other churches and religions are appointed by the Queen as individuals and not *ex officio*.

While Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are each treated as single European Parliament constituencies, England itself gets 9 European constituencies, out of a total of 12 UK constituencies. Gibraltar, the only British Overseas Territory that is also part of the European Union, is included in South West England. The current English European constituencies are **Greater London Authority.**

Greater London has a certain amount of devolution, with the London Assembly and the directly elected Mayor of London. The Assembly was established on 3 July 2000, after a referendum in which 72% of those voting supported the creation of the Greater London Authority, which included the Assembly along with the Mayor of London. The referendum and establishment were largely contigious with Scottish and Welsh devolution.

In Greater London, the 32 London borough councils have a status close to that of unitary authorities, but come under the Greater London Authority, which oversees some of the functions performed elsewhere in England by Counties including transport, policing, the fire brigade and economic development. The Mayor of London is referred to as the "London Mayor", a form which helps to avoid confusion with the Lord Mayor of the City of London, the ancient and now mainly ceremonial role in the City of London. The Mayor of London is mayor of Greater London, which has a population of over 7.5 mln while the City of London is only a small part of the modern city centre and has a population of less than 10,000.

There is a London political party, One London, which was represented in the assembly from 2005-8, and is eurosceptic, with roots in the UK Independence Party (UKIP) and Veritas.

Former Regional Assemblies

After power was to be devolved to Scotland, Northern Ireland & Wales without a counterweight in England, a series of referendums were planned to establish elected regional assemblies in some of the regions. The first was held in London in 1998 and was passed. The London Assembly and Mayor of London of the Greater London Authority were created in 2000. The remaining 8 Partnership Regional Assemblies were abolished in 2010 with most of their functions transferring to the relevant Regional Development Agency and to Local Authority Leaders' Boards.

Status of Cornwall

Most English people & the UK government regard Cornwall as a county of England, but Comish nationalists believe that the Duchy of Cornwall has a status deserving greater autonomy.

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

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

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

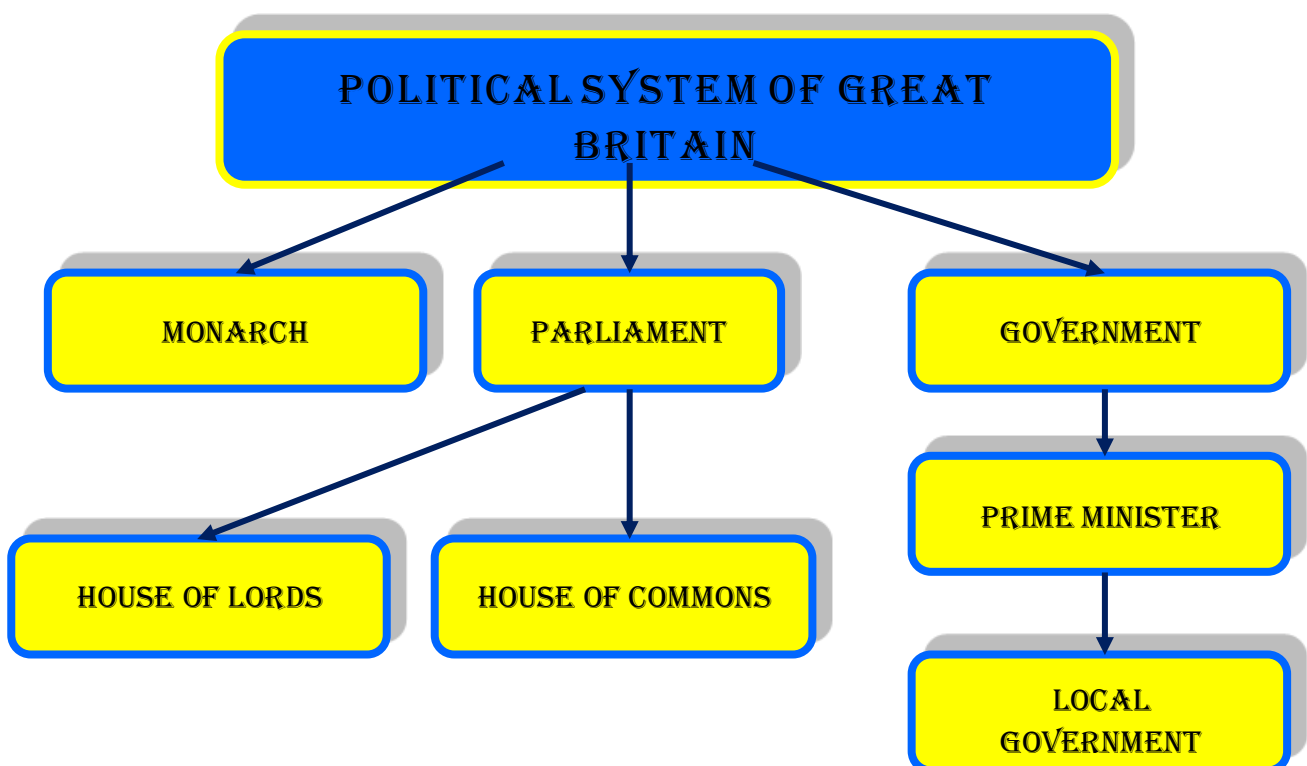| №	Activity			
	Event	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

Exercise 4. Analyze the Electoral systems in UK.

Various electoral systems are used in the UK:

▪ The First Past the Post system is used for UK general elections, for some local government elections in England & Wales.

▪ The Bloc Vote system is used for some local government elections in England & Wales.

▪ The Additional Member System is used for elections to the Scottish Parliament, Welsh Assembly and London Assembly.

▪ The Single Transferable Vote system is used in Northern Ireland to elect the Assembly, local councils, and Members of the European Parliament, and in Scotland to elect local councils.

▪ The Party List System is used for European Parliament elections in England, Scotland & Wales.

▪ The Supplementary Vote is used to elect directly-elected mayors in England, such as the Mayor of London.

Unlike many European nations, the UK uses a first-past-the-post system to elect members of Parliament. Therefore, elections and political parties in the UK are affected by Duverger's Law, which causes the agglomeration of related political ideologies into a few large parties with many small parties rarely winning representation. One reason for all the quirks is that Britain has many political parties, making it possible to win individual constituencies on less than 50% of the vote due to the opposition votes being divided. Electoral reform has been considered for general elections many times, but after the Jenkins Commission report in October 1998, which suggested the alternative vote top-up for general elections was effectively ignored by the government, there have been no further government proposals for reform.

It is highly unlikely that electoral reform will happen unless there is a significant change in the balance of power and Labour loses its large majority. The broad-based Make Votes Count Coalition continues to campaign for reform. Low turnout is a concern, as the percentage of the electorate who voted in the last general election was just 61%.

ELECTIONS IN THE UK

There are 6 types of elections in the UK: UK general elections, elections to devolved parliaments and assemblies, elections to the European Parliament, local elections, mayoral elections; Police and Crime Commissioner elections.

Elections are held on Election Day, which is conventionally a Thursday. General elections have fixed dates, must be called within five years of the opening of parliament following the last election.

Other elections are held on fixed dates, though in the case of the devolved assemblies and parliaments early elections can occur in certain situations. Currently, six electoral systems are used: the single member plurality system (First Past the Post), the multi member plurality system, party list PR, the single transferable vote, the Additional Member System and the Supplementary Vote.

Elections are administered locally: in each lower-tier local authority, the actual polling procedure is run by the Returning Officer and the compiling and maintenance of the electoral roll by the Electoral Registration Officer. The Electoral Commission only sets standards for and issues guidelines to Returning Officers and Electoral Registration Officers, but is responsible for nationwide electoral administration (the registration of political parties & directing the administration of national referendums).

Traditionally the UK effectively has had a two party system arising from the use of *the First-Past-The-Post system* for general and local elections.

Duverger's law certainly seems borne out in the history of British parliamentary politics. Before World War I, the UK had a true two-party system, the main parties being the Tories (the Conservative Party) and the Whigs (the Liberal Party), though after Catholic Emancipation there was a substantial Irish Parliamentary Party. After World War II, the dominant parties have been Conservative and Labour. No third party has come close to winning a parliamentary majority.

However, some have challenged the view that the UK still has a two party system, since the Liberal Democrats have won around 15% -25% of the votes in recent elections. The Liberal Democrats won 62 of the 646 seats in the House of Commons in the 2005 general election, and several nationalist (regional) groupings hold seats as well, leading some spectators to regard the Westminster parliament as a "two & a half" party system. It is relatively easy to stand for election as an independent candidate, although wins are very rare and usually involve special circumstances.

Following the 2005 general election, there were three independent MPs, the highest number since 1945, however only one of these was returned in the 2010 election. To stand as a candidate in a particular constituency, a British citizen needs the signatures of 10 people registered to vote there, and pay a deposit of £500 (which is returned if he/she gains more than 5% of the vote in that seat).

The system of universal suffrage did not exist in the UK until 1928. From 1688 to 1832, less than 10% of the adult male population had the right to vote. The first act to increase the size of the electorate was the Reform Act 1832 (sometimes known as the Great Reform Act).

The electoral register was created. The overall result of the Act was that the electorate was increased to 14% of the adult male population. Although this was not a large increase, the Act was the first big step towards equal representation. Between 1838 and 1848 a popular movement, Chartism organized around 6 demands including universal male franchise and the secret ballot.

The Reform Act 1867 redistributed more MPs from boroughs who had disproportional representation (42) to London and industrial towns. It decreased the property qualification in boroughs, meaning all men (with an address) in boroughs could vote. The consequences were for the first time some of the working class could vote, and MPs had to take these new constituents into account.

Some parties decided to become national parties. The overall effect was that the Act increased the size of the electorate to 32% of the adult male population. The Ballot Act 1872 replaced open elections with secret ballot system. The Corrupt and Illegal Practices Prevention Act 1883 criminalized attempts to bribe voters and standardized the amount that could be spent on election expenses.

The Representation of the People Act 1884 and the Redistribution of Seats Act 1885 (the Third Reform Act) collectively increased the electorate to 56% of the adult male population.

House of Lords – no elections; note – in 1999, as provided by the House of Lords Act, elections were held in the House of Lords to determine the 92 hereditary peers who would remain; elections held only as vacancies in the hereditary peerage arise; House of Commons – last held on 8 June 2017 (next to be held by 5 May 2022)

Election results: House of Commons - percent of vote by party – Conservative 42.3%, Labor 40.0%, SNP 43.0%, Lib Dems 7.4%, DUP 0.9%, Sinn Fein 0.7%, Plaid Cymru 0.5%, other 0.6%; seats by party – Conservative 317, Labor 262, SNP 35, Lib Dems 12, DUP 10, Sinn Fein 7, Plaid Cymru 4.

As in many Western democracies, voter apathy is a current concern, after a dramatic decline in election turnout recently. Turnout fell to a historic low of 59% in 2001. It increased to 61% in 2005, and 65% in 2010. The main reasons identified for low turnout are:

- Lack of variation between the ideologies of the main parties.
- Decline in partisanship as many voters are no longer loyal to one party.
- Reduction in the popularity of various party leaderships.
- Dissatisfaction with parties' record on public services, education, transport.
- Lack of interest in the election campaign.
- Voters believing their vote will have no effect on the overall outcome.

There is an inverse relationship between turnout in a constituency and the winning candidate's majority in that seat. Possible measures to increase turnout include:

- Compulsory voting.
- Electoral reform, towards proportional representation, advocated by the Liberal Democrats, Green Party and many other minor parties.
- New voting methods such as post, telephone, and internet. There were several criminal proceedings after the last general election which highlighted weaknesses in the postal voting system and resulted in a cooling of enthusiasm for IT and proxy arrangements.
- Lowering the voting age, which has recently seen support, most notably the "Votes for 16" campaign that was launched in 2003.

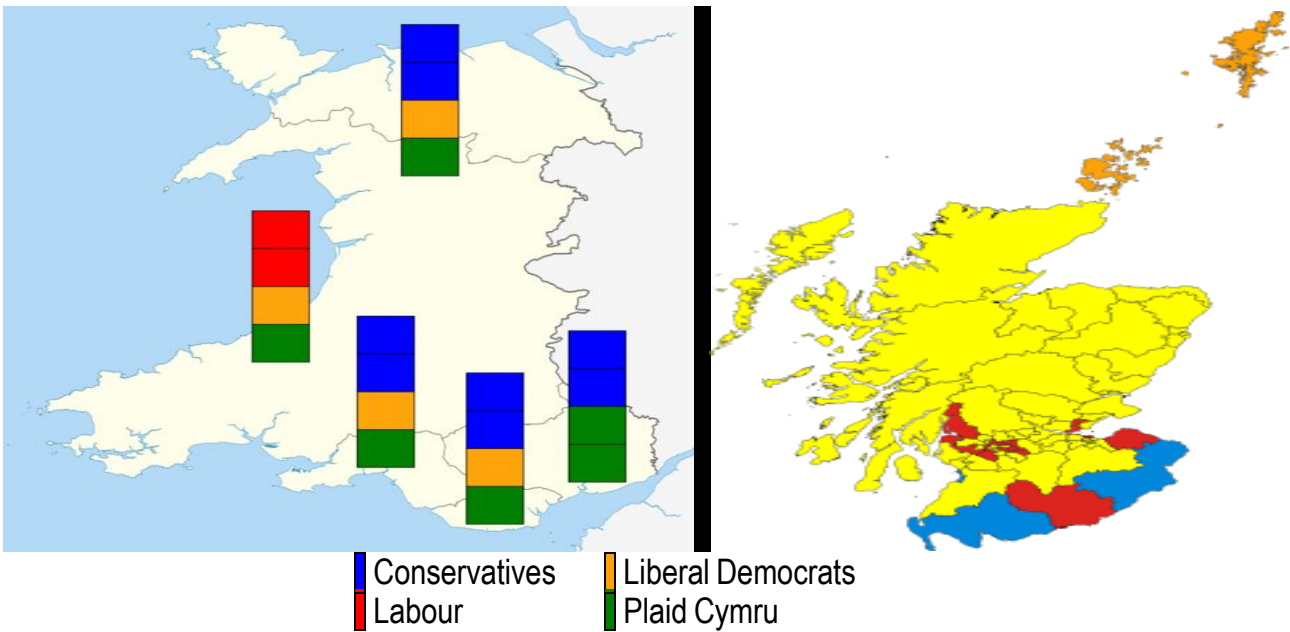***Exercise 1. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.***

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

Exercise 3. Match phrases with numerical data without using the text.

№	Event	Date
1.		

Exercise 4. Mark the following statements as true (T) or false (F).

1. The foundation of the present-day system of electing members of Parliament was laid by the Great Reform Act of 1832. 2. After 1840, about one man in six in England and Wales had the right to vote. 3. After the Second World War any women had the right to vote. 4. By 1958 all men and all women over the age of 21 years had the right to vote. 5. The obvious way to get money was to tax poor people in order to make the lives of rich people happier. 6. At the beginning of the 19th century they refused to allow the government's plans to pass into law. 7. The Democratic Party decided that the power of the House of Lords ought to be limited. 8. The Labour party in general favoured leaving things as they were. 9. The General Election didn't show that a majority in the whole country agreed with the Liberals. 10. In 1949 the right of the House of Lords to delay a bill was reduced from three years to one year. 11. Elections were held in the House of Lords to determine the 92 hereditary peers. 12. The Ballot Act 1872 replaced open elections with secret ballot system.
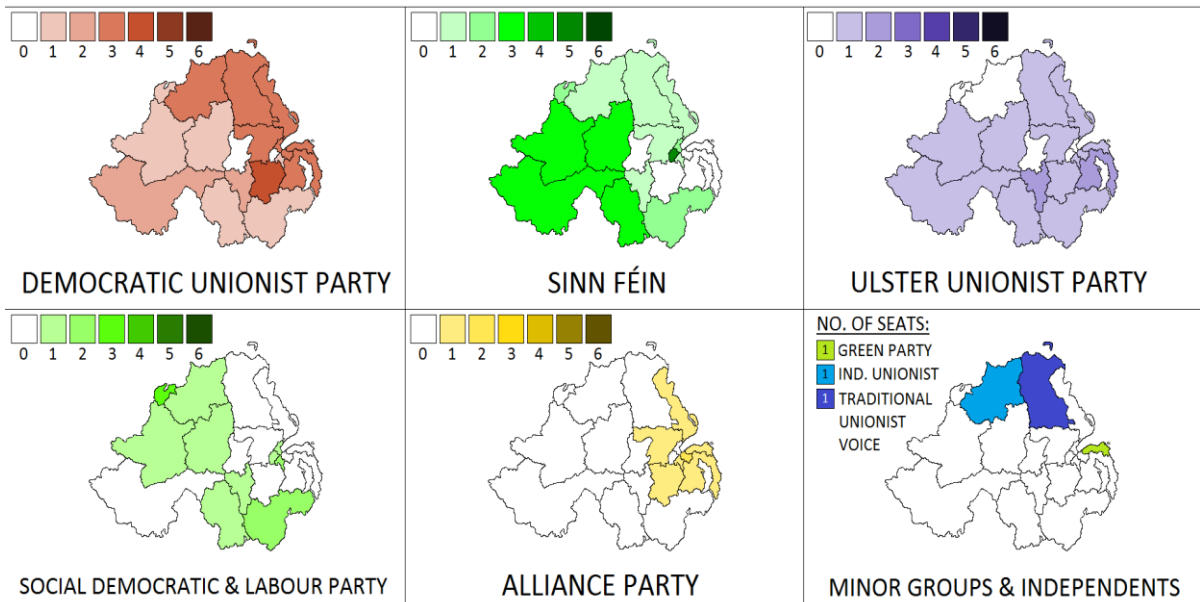
Conservatives **Liberal Democrats**
Labour **Plaid Cymru**

A map showing the constituency winners of the Election by their party colours

Exercise 5. Try to translate the notion.

Duverger's law – закон Дюверже (предположение о зависимости количества политических партий от типа избирательной системы). В этом предположении выделяют логически объясняемый закон: система простого большинства с одной баллотировкой ведет к двухпартийной системе, и эмпирическую гипотезу: Система простого большинства с двумя баллотировками и система пропорционального представления ведут к многопартийной системе; закон подтверждается очень многими странами, но есть и исключения: Шотландия, Канада; закон опирается на предположение о том, что рациональные политики и избиратели понимают, что наличие более двух партий является пустой тратой ресурсов; некоторое время может существовать три партии, но та партия, которая немного ослабнет раньше других, очень быстро сойдет с политической арены. Д. Рэ предложил интерпетацию закона для объяснения трехпартийной системы; Г. Таллок: закон справедлив, но для его полной реализации необходимо пару столетий).

*Exercise 6. Translate the sentence: **The presidency is an elective office. Explain this expression according to the political situation in UKraine.***

NUMBER OF SEATS PER CONSTITUENCY - 2011

DEMOCRATIC UNIONIST PARTY

SINN FÉIN

ULSTER UNIONIST PARTY

SOCIAL DEMOCRATIC & LABOUR PARTY

ALLIANCE PARTY

MINOR GROUPS & INDEPENDENTS

333

The Conservatives win a 12-seat majority in parliament as Labour are almost wiped out by the SNP in Scotland and the Liberal Democrats suffer major losses in 2015.
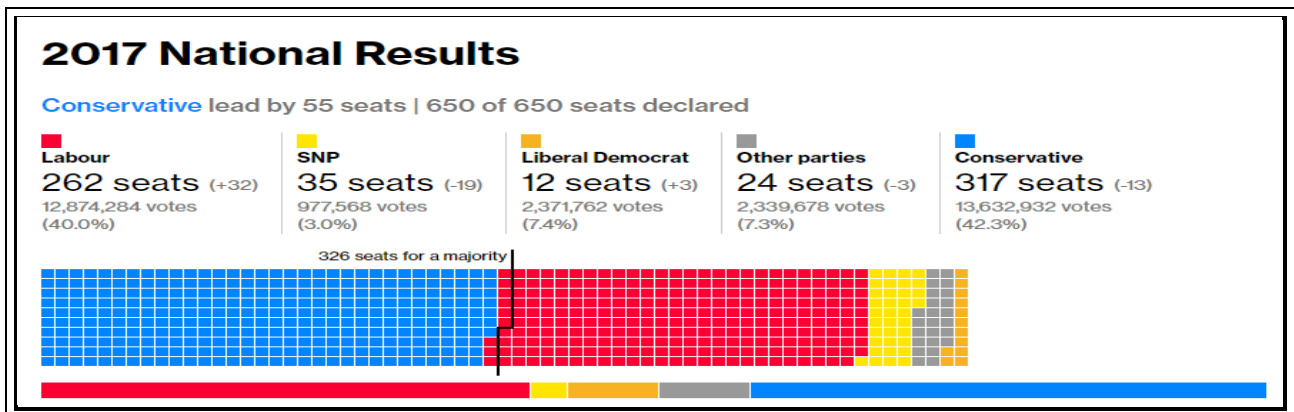
UK vote share after 650 of 650 seats

Party	%
Conservative	42.4
Labour	40.0
Liberal Democrat	7.4
SNP Scottish National Party	3.0
UKIPUKIP	1.8
GRN Green Party	1.6

UK election 2017: full results

Latest general election results from the UK's 650 constituencies. Theresa May's gamble has failed; the Conservatives have lost their parliamentary majority and have turned to the DUP to support them in forming a new government. Search for your own seat by name or postcode and find out your local result. No party wins a majority in parliament as Theresa May's Conservatives lose seats in England and Wales to Labour and the Liberal Democrats, despite seeing their vote share rise in 2017.

Theresa May has lost her parliamentary majority after calling an election to strengthen it, and has made a deal with the DUP to form a new government. Jeremy Corbyn's Labour party increased its tally by 31 seats. But an anti-Tory coalition is still not viable without the DUP. One constituency is still to declare. The count was suspended in Kensington after three recounts failed to establish a winner.

2017 National Results

Conservative lead by 55 seats | 650 of 650 seats declared

Labour	SNP	Liberal Democrat	Other parties	Conservative
262 seats (+32)	**35 seats** (-19)	**12 seats** (+3)	**24 seats** (-3)	**317 seats** (-13)
12,874,284 votes (40.0%)	977,568 votes (3.0%)	2,371,762 votes (7.4%)	2,339,678 votes (7.3%)	13,632,932 votes (42.3%)

326 seats for a majority

334

THE FIRST PAST THE POST SYSTEM

Under The First Past the Post (FPTP) voting takes place in constituencies that elect a single MP. Voters put a cross in a box next to their favoured candidate and the candidate with the most votes in the constituency wins. All other votes count for nothing. We believe The First Past the Post is the very worst system for electing a representative government. The First Past the Post is the second most widely used voting system in the world, after Party List Proportional Representation. In crude terms, it is used in places that are, or once were, British colonies. Of the many countries that use First Past The Post, the most commonly cited are the UK to elect members of the House of Commons, both chambers of the US Congress, and the lower houses in India and Canada. The First Past the Post used to be even more widespread, but many countries that used to use it have adopted other systems.

Pros & Cons of The First Past The Post

The Case for. It's simple to understand and thus doesn't cost much to administer. It doesn't take very long to count all the votes and work out who's won, meaning results can be declared a handful of hours after polls close. The voter can clearly express a view on which party they think should form the next government. It tends to produce a two-party system, which in turn tends to produce single-party governments, which don't have to rely on support from other parties to pass legislation. It encourages 'broad-church' centrist policies.

The Arguments against. Representatives can be elected on tiny amounts of public support, as it does not matter by how much they win, only that they get more votes than other candidates.

It encourages tactical voting, as voters vote not for the candidate they most prefer, but against the candidate they most dislike. FPTP in effect wastes huge numbers of votes, as votes cast in a constituency for losing candidates, or for the winning candidate above the level they need to win that seat, count for nothing. FPTP severely restricts voter choice. Parties are coalitions of many different viewpoints. If the preferred-party candidate in your constituency has views with which you don't agree, you don't have a means of saying so at the ballot box. Rather than allocating seats in line with actual support, FPTP rewards parties with 'lumpy' support, i.e. with just enough votes to win in each particular area. Thus, losing 4,000 votes in one area can be a good idea if it means you pick up 400 votes in another. With smaller parties, this works in favour of those with centralised support.

With relatively small constituency sizes, the way boundaries are drawn can have important effects on the election result, which encourages attempts at gerrymandering.

Small constituencies lead to a proliferation of safe seats, where the same party is all but guaranteed re-election at each election. This not only in effect

Exercise 1. Translate the words and phrases with the keyword «election».

Election; to win an election; to concede (lose) an election; to decide (swing) an election; to fix (rig) an election; to schedule an election; disputed election; authorization election; certification election; free election; general election; local election; national election; primary election; realigning election; special election; by-election; watershed election; election fever; election campaign; the election of winners; election petition; election of officers; election meeting; election day; contested election; candidate for election; to be up for election; off-year (mid-term e) election; election pledges; early election; to call an early election; early election results; general election; election speech; election returns; to hold an election; to carry (win) an election; election campaign (electioneering); election court; election district (law; quota); electoral system; electioneer; elective; elective body; elective office.

Notes on the texts

Constituency – электорат, избирательный округ. *Retaliation* – кара, возмездие, расплата, мера возмездия. *Posterity* – потомство, последующее поколение. *Uncontested matters* – неоспоримые, бесспорные дела, вопросы. *Repossession* – восстановление во владении.

Exercise 2. Fill in the blanks.

1. All the heads of ministries (departments) are included into ____. 2. The Cabinet is headed by the____. 3. The Prime Minister chooses the ____. 4. Mr. Blair is the____of the UK. 5. The majority of the members of Mr. Blair's Cabinet are members of the ____. 6. Mr. Blair's Cabinet belongs to the ____Party. 7. The Cabinet meets at 10 ____ Street. 8. During the last 27 years there have been eight general ____. 9. Ministers rely on ____ servants for advice and information.

Exercise 3. Find in the texts the English equivalents for the following expressions.

Обращаться за советом; баллотироваться в своем избирательном округе; нарушать права; выдвинуть свою кандидатуру от партии; собирать подписи; участвовать в избирательной кампании в рекламных целях; средняя зарплата рабочего; несправедливо обойтись с кем-то.

Exercise 4. Complete the following sentences with some prepositions.

1. I voted ___ the Liberal candidate. 2. Put your voting papers ___ the ballot box. 3. He's very right-wing, so he's a ___ socialist. 4. She belong ___ the Labour Party. 5. The Liberals formed an alliance ___ the Social Democrats. 6. There's a split ___ the two parties. 7. There's a split ___the party. 8. It tends ___ produce a two-party system. 9. They formed an alliance ___ the Liberal Party.

Exercise 5. Complete the following text with the words and expressions below.

The country is divided into 650 voting areas or (1) ___ which each (2) ___ one MP to serve in the (3) ___.MPs have to present all of their (4) ___, regardless of whether they voted for them. In addition MPs have a duty to their political party, to themselves and their own beliefs and to the nation as a whole. Once or twice a week people in a constituency have the chance to meet their (5) ___ when they can talk about their problems, large or small. People may come to their MP with (6) ___ or money problems or perhaps someone has a relative in hospital and finds it difficult to get there on public transport. An MP spends time at and during holidays, meeting people in local factories, clubs, schools. The working hours of the House of Commons are very unusual. Most MPs start their day early in the (7) ___ and may not get home until (8) ___ or later. It is important for MPs to keep up with the (9)___ so the first thing they do in the morning is to look at the newspapers to know what has been happening overnight both in this country and (10) ___ MPs often do this over breakfast.

The first thing an MP does after arriving at the House of Commons is to collect his (11) ___. MPs receive huge amounts of mail every day; so reading and answering (12) ___ takes a large amount of time. At 2.30 p. m. each day, the (13) ___ walks in procession to the Chamber of the House of Commons to begin the day's (14) ___. The first hour of the afternoon from 2.30 to 3.30 p.m. is Question Time, at which most MPs like to be present because they have a chance to ask the (15) ___ about what it is doing – and why. They especially like to be present on Tuesdays and Thursdays for Questions to the Prime Minister. From teatime until about 10.00 p.m. there are (16) ___ in the Chamber in which MPs may try to speak, especially if the subjects are of interest to their constituents. Sometimes a MP finally gets to bed when it is nearly time to begin the next day's work.

(debates, housing, elect, constituencies, Speaker, midnight, news, Government, mail, abroad, Sittings, letters, morning, MP, constituents, the House of Commons)

Exercise 6. Complete the sentences with the words and expressions from the box.

Proportional representation; Member of Parliament; call an election; House of Commons; stand for election; General Election; polling day; canvassing; secret ballot; constituents; constituencies; polling stations; by-election; campaigns; turn-out.

A (1) ___ has just taken place all over the UK. These must take place every five years unless the Prime Minister decides to (2) ___ earlier. Below is the result in Middleford, one of the approximately 650 (3) ___, into which the country is divided for this purpose. (4) ___ was last Thursday, when the election (5) ___ and door-to-door (6) ___ stopped and the people of Middleford went to the (7) ___ to make their choice from the four candidates (anyone over the age of 21) who can (8) ___. Voting is not compulsory and the number of people (9) ___ to vote in Middleford (everyone over 18) was 100,000, so the (10) ___ was 705. Now Mr. Smith will become the (11) ___ for Middleford, which means he will represent the people of Middleford in the (12) ___ in London. If he should die or be forced to give up his seat, the people of Middleford will have to vote again, in a (13) ___ to replace him. It is a very simple system and Mr. Smith will try to represent all his (14) ___ fairly, whether they voted for him or not. However, the fact remains that most voters in Middleford voted for candidates (and parties) other than Mr. Smith, and their votes are now lost. It is seats which are important in Parliament, not votes, and it is easy to see why smaller parties would like a system of (15) ___ , in which the number of votes they won was reflected in the number of seats they received in Parliament.

Exercise 7. Translate the text The Election Timetable in writing.

The British Government is elected for up to five years, unless it is defeated in the Parliament on a major issue. The Prime Minister chooses the date of the next General Election, but does not have to wait until the end of the five years. A time is chosen which will give as much advantage as possible to the political party in power. Other politicians and the newspapers try very hard to guess which date the Prime Minister will choose. About a month before the selection 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. Once Parliament is dissolved, all MPs are unemployed, but government officers continue to function. Party manifestos are published and campaigning begins throughout the country, lasting for about three weeks with large-scale press, radio and television coverage.

Voting takes place on Polling Day (usually a Thursday). The results from each constituency are announced as soon as the votes have been counted, usually the same night. The national result is known by the next morning at the latest. 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.

Exercise 8. Fill in the blanks.

1. Important Bills are usually sponsored by the ____.2. Bills can be introduced into the ____ or ____. 3. There are two main types of Bills: Bills ____ and ____ Bills. 4. Once a Bill has received the Royal Assent it becomes an ____. 5. In order to be enforced, it must be published in Statute form, becoming a part of ____. 6. The power of the Lords to reject the Bill has been severely ____. 7. A money Bill must be passed by the Lords without amendment within a____. 8. The Lords can only delay the passage of a ____. 9. The Lords cannot reject____. 10. At the Third Reading stage, the House decided to pass the Bill____.11. In government, a bill is a formal statement of a proposed new law that is discussed and then ____. 12. This is the toughest crime bill that ____has passed in a decade. 13. The bill was approved by a large ____. 14. President has been given a *clean bill of health* by doctors in ____. 15. This is a debate in Congress on the President's new transportation ____.

Exercise 9. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 10. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 11. Try to title the text.

The UK's First Past the Post electoral system leaves small parties disadvantaged on a UK-wide scale. It can, however, allow parties with concentrations of supporters in the constituent countries to flourish. In the 2015 election there was widespread controversy when UKIP and the Green Party of England and Wales received 4.9 Ma votes (12.6% of the total vote for UKIP & 3.8% for the Greens) yet only gained one seat each in the House of Commons.

After that election, UKIP, the Liberal Democrats, the Green Party of England and Wales, together with its Scottish and Northern Ireland affiliated parties, the Scottish National Party and Plaid Cymru, delivered a petition signed by 477,000 people to Downing Street demanding electoral reform.

Since 1997, proportional representation-based voting systems have been adopted for elections to the Scottish Parliament, the National Assembly for Wales, the Northern Ireland Assembly, the London Assembly and the UK's seats in the European Parliament. In these bodies, other parties have had success. Traditionally political parties have been private organisations with no official recognition by the state. The Registration of Political Parties Act 1998 changed that by creating a register of parties.
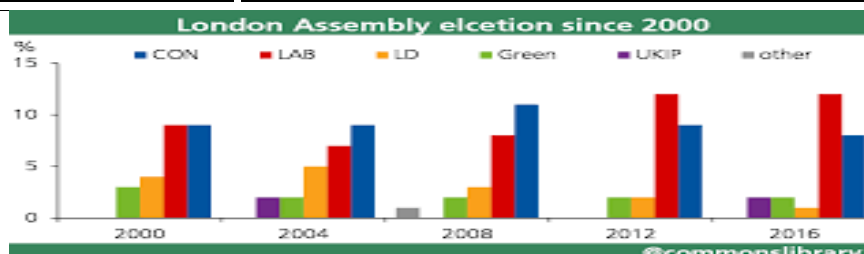
Membership of political parties has been in decline in the UK since the 1950s.

Under current electoral law, including the Registration of Political Parties Act, the Electoral Administration Act 2006; the Political Parties, Elections and Referendums Act 2000, only registered party names can be used on ballot papers by those wishing to fight elections.

Candidates who do not belong to a registered party can use "independent" or no label at all. As of 3 August 2015 the Electoral Commission showed the number of registered political parties in Great Britain and Northern Ireland as 492.

Exercise 12. You often hear everyday British things below mentioned in Britain. Do you know what they are? Match them with their explanations.

1. The Independent	a. the financial center of London
2. 10 Downing Street	b. the primary parliamentary chamber
3. Mister Blair	c. a national daily newspaper
4. The House of Commons	d. the Prime Minister's residence in London
5. Coronation Street	e. the Clock Tower in London
6. The City	f. the Prime Minister of the UK
7. MP	g. a Member of the House of Commons
8. Bobby	h. a British policeman
9. Big Ben	i. British most popular TV show, a long-running drama

London Assembly elcetion since 2000

Historically, the aristocracy was divided between Conservatives and Liberals. However, when Gladstone committed to home rule for Ireland, Britain's upper classes largely abandoned the Liberal party, giving the Conservatives a large permanent majority in the House of Lords.

High Society in London, following the Queen, largely ostracized home rulers, and Liberal clubs were badly split. Joseph Chamberlain took a major element of upper-class supporters out of the Party and into a third party called "Liberal Unionism" that collaborated with and eventually merged into the Conservative party. The Gladstonian liberals in 1891 adopted The Newcastle Programme that included home rule for Ireland, disestablishment of the Church of England in Wales and Scotland, tighter controls on the sale of liquor, major extension of factory regulation, and various democratic political reforms. The Programme had a strong appeal to the Nonconformist middle-class Liberal element, which felt liberated by the departure of the aristocracy. Disraeli and Gladstone dominated the politics of the late 19th century, Britain's golden age of parliamentary government. They long were idolized, but historians in recent decades have become much more critical, especially regarding Disraeli.

Benjamin Disraeli (1804-1881), prime minister 1868 and 1874-80, remains an iconic hero of the Conservative Party. He played a central role in the creation the Party, defining its policies and its broad outreach. Disraeli is remembered for his influential voice in world affairs, his political battles with the Liberal leader William Gladstone, and his one-nation conservatism or "Tory democracy". He made the Conservatives the party most identified with the glory and power of the British Empire. He was born into a Jewish family, which became Episcopalian when he was 12 years old.

Disraeli fought to protect established political, social, and religious values and elites; he emphasized the need for national leadership in response to radicalism, uncertainty, materialism. He is especially known for his enthusiastic support for expanding and strengthening the British Empire in India and Africa as the foundation of British greatness, in contrast to Gladstone's negative attitude toward imperialism. Gladstone denounced Disraeli's policies of territorial aggrandizement, military pomp, and imperial symbolism (such as making the Queen Empress of India), saying it did not fit a modern commercial and Christian nation. In foreign policy he is best known for battling and besting Russia.

Disraeli's second term was dominated by the Eastern Question – the slow decay of the Ottoman Empire and the desire of Russia, to gain at its expense. Disraeli arranged for the British to purchase a major interest in the Suez Canal Company (in Ottoman-controlled Egypt). In 1878, faced with Russian victories against the Ottomans, he worked at the Congress of Berlin to maintain peace in the Balkans and made terms favourable to Britain, which weakened Russia, its longstanding enemy.

Disraeli's old reputation as the "Tory democrat" and promoter of the welfare state has faded as historians argue that he had few proposals for social legislation in 1874-80, and that the 1867 Reform Act did not reflect a vision for the unenfranchised working man. However he did work to reduce class antagonism, for as Perry notes, "When confronted with specific problems, he sought to reduce tension between town and country, landlords and farmers, capital and labour, and warring religious sects in Britain and Ireland – in other words, to create a unifying synthesis."

William Ewart Gladstone (1809-1898) was the Liberal counterpart to Disraeli, serving as prime minister four times (1868-74, 1880-85, 1886, 1892-94). He was the moral compass of the Liberal Party and is famous for his oratory, his religiosity, his liberalism, his rivalry with Disraeli, and for his poor relations with the Queen.

Gladstone's first ministry saw many reforms including Disestablishment of the Protestant Church of Ireland and the introduction of secret voting. His party was defeated in 1874, but made a comeback based on opposition to Turkey's Bulgarian atrocities against Christians. Gladstone's Midlothian Campaign of 1879-80 was a pathbreaking introduction of many modern political campaigning techniques. His Liberal party was increasingly pulled apart on the Irish issue.

He proposed Irish home rule in 1886; It failed to pass and the resulting split in the Liberal Party kept it out of office for 20 years (with only a short interruption). Gladstone's financial policies, based on the notion of balanced budgets, low taxes and laissez-faire, were suited to a developing capitalist society but could not respond effectively as economic and social conditions changed. Called the "Grand Old Man" later in life, he was always a dynamic popular orator who appealed strongly to British workers and lower middle class. The deeply religious Gladstone brought a new moral tone to politics with his evangelical sensibility and opposition to aristocracy.

His moralism often angered his upper-class opponents (including Queen Victoria, who strongly favoured Disraeli), and his heavy-handed control split the Liberal party. His foreign policy goal was to create a European order based on cooperation rather than conflict and mutual trust instead of rivalry and suspicion; the rule of law was to supplant the reign of force and self-interest. This Gladstonian concept of a harmonious Concert of Europe was opposed to and ultimately defeated by the Germans with a Bismarckian system of manipulated alliances and antagonisms.

Historians agree that **Lord Salisbury** (1830-1903) as foreign minister and prime minister in the late 19th century was a strong and effective leader in foreign affairs. He had a superb grasp of the issues, and proved: a patient, pragmatic practitioner, with a keen understanding of Britain's historic interests.

He oversaw the partition of Africa, the emergence of Germany and the United States as imperial powers, and the transfer of British attention from the Dardanelles to Suez without provoking a serious confrontation of the great powers. Historians portray Lord Salisbury as a talented leader who was an icon of traditional, aristocratic conservatism. Robert Blake considers Salisbury "a great foreign minister, [but] essentially negative, indeed reactionary in home affairs".

Professor P.T. Marsh's estimate is more favourable than Blake's, he says Salisbury was a leader who "held back the popular tide for 20 years." Professor Paul Smith argues that, "into the progressive strain of modern Conservatism he simply will not fit."Professor H.C.G. Matthew points to "the narrow cynicism of Salisbury". One admirer of Salisbury, Maurice Cowling largely agrees with the critics and says Salisbury found the democracy born of the 1867 and 1884 Reform Acts as "perhaps less objectionable than he had expected – succeeding, through his public persona, in mitigating some part of its nastiness."

Prime Ministers from 1900 to 1945: Marquess of Salisbury, Arthur Balfour, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, H. H. Asquith, David Lloyd George, Bonar Law, Stanley Baldwin, Ramsay MacDonald, Stanley Baldwin, Ramsay MacDonald, Stanley Baldwin, Neville Chamberlain and Winston Churchill.

The Liberal Party was in power 1906–1914 (when it formed a wartime coalition). It passed the welfare reforms that created a basic British welfare state. It weakened the veto power of Lords, blocked woman suffrage. In 1914, it apparently "solved" the problem of Irish Home Rule but when the war broke out the solution was shelved.

H. H. Asquith was Liberal Prime Minister between 1908 and 1916, followed by David Lloyd George, 1916-22. Although Asquith was the Party leader, the dominant Liberal was Lloyd George.

H. H. Asquith was overwhelmed by the wartime role of coalition prime minister, and Lloyd George replaced him as the coalition prime minister in late 1916 but Asquith remained Liberal Party leader. The two fought for years over control of the party, badly weakening it in the process.
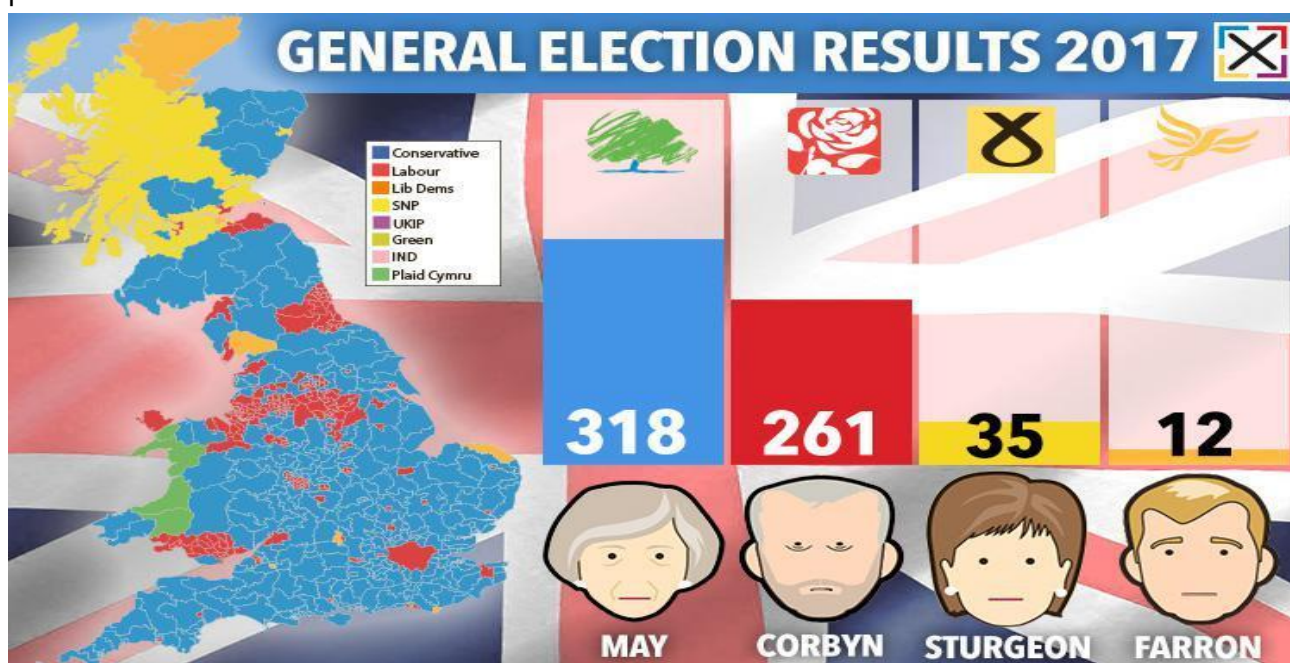
Historian Martin Pugh in The Oxford Companion to British History argues that Lloyd George: made a greater impact on British public life than any other 20th-century leader, thanks to his pre-war introduction of Britain's social welfare system (especially medical insurance, unemployment insurance, and old-age pensions, largely paid for by taxes on high incomes and on the land).

Furthermore, in foreign affairs he played a leading role in winning the First World War, redrawing the map of Europe at the peace conference, and partitioning Ireland. The **Lloyd George** ministry fell apart in 1922. Stanley Baldwin, as leader of the Conservative Party (1923-37) and as Prime Minister (in 1923-24, 1924-29 & 1935-37), dominated British politics.

His mixture of strong social reforms and steady government proved a powerful election combination. The result was: the Conservatives governed Britain either by themselves or as the leading component of the National Government. He was the last party leader to win over 50% of the vote (in the general election of 1931). Baldwin's political strategy was to polarize the electorate so that voters would choose between the Conservatives on the right and the Labour Party on the left, squeezing out the Liberals in the middle. The polarization did take place and while the Liberals remained active under Lloyd George, they won few seats and were a minor factor until they joined a coalition with the Conservatives in 2010. Baldwin's reputation soared in the 1920s and 1930s, but crashed after 1945 as he was blamed for the appeasement policies toward Germany, and as admirers of Churchill made him the Conservative icon. Since the 1970s Baldwin's reputation has recovered somewhat.

Labour won the 1923 election, but in 1924 Baldwin and the Conservatives returned with a large majority. McKibbin finds that the political culture of the interwar period was built around an anti-socialist middle class, supported by the Conservative leaders, especially Baldwin.

Stanley Baldwin was Conservative Prime Minister between 1923-1924, 1924-1929, 1935-1937 expanding the welfare state. Two major programs that permanently expanded the welfare state passed in 1919 and 1920 with surprisingly little debate, even as the Conservatives dominated parliament.

POLITICAL PARTIES TODAY

The main parties in the UK are the Conservative Party (right wing), the Labour Party (left wing) and the Liberal Democrats (centre). The Conservative Party goes back to the Tories, or Royalists, who originated in King Charles' reign (1660-1685). The Tories were the party that supported Church and King; the other main party at the time was the Whigs, who were a group eager for political reform.

The Tory party gave way to its successor, the Conservative Party, in around 1830.

The Conservative Party believes in free enterprise and the importance of an economy with private ownership preferred to state control. There has been a Liberal Party in Great Britain since 1868 when the name was adopted by the Whig Party. The Whig Party was created after the revolution of 1688 and aimed to subordinate the power of the Crown to that of Parliament and the upper classes.

In 1899, the Trade Union Congress summoned a special conference of trade unions and socialist bodies to make plans to present labour in Parliament.

The proposal for such a meeting had come from Thomas Steels, a member of the Independent Labour Party, which had been formed in 1893.

The conference met in February 1900 in London and has always been looked on as the foundation of the Labour Party. The Labour Party believes that private ownership and enterprise should be allowed to flourish, but not at the expense of their traditional support of the public services.

There has been a Liberal Party in Great Britain since 1868 when the name was adopted by the Whig Party. The Whig Party was created after the revolution of 1688 and aimed to subordinate the power of the Crown to that of Parliament and the upper classes.

In 1981 a second centre party was created by 24 Labour MPs. It was called the Social Democratic Party, and soon formed an alliance with the Liberal Party. They formed a single party, which became the Liberal Democrats after the 1987 election. The Liberal Democrats believe that the state should have some control over the economy, but that there should be individual ownership.

There are other political parties within the UK. The Green Party offers economic and industrial policies that relate directly to the environment. The Scottish Nationalist Party wants independence for Scotland within the European Community. Plaid Cymru – the Welsh Nationalist Party – is determined to preserve the Welsh language and culture as the foundation of a distinctive Welsh identity within the UK. Its radical has resorted to arson attempts as a means of protest.

Historically, the UK had two major political parties, though currently three parties dominate the political landscape. Originally, the Conservatives and the Liberals dominated British politics, but the Liberal Party collapsed in the early 20th century and was largely replaced by the Labour Party.

In the 1980s, the Liberals merged with the Social Democratic Party and, as the Liberal Democrats, are viewed as the third major party. Other parties, often called minor parties (in UK terms at least) contest elections but few except those which are based in single countries of the UK win seats in Parliament. The Scottish National Party has had MPs continuously since 1967, and Plaid Cymru, the Welsh nationalists, has had MPs continuously since 1974. All 18 MPs elected from Northern Ireland are from parties that just contest elections in Northern Ireland. The Conservatives were in power for most of the time, with the Labour Party suffering the "wilderness years" of 1951-1964 (three straight General Election defeats) and 1979-1997 (four straight General Election defeats).

During this second period, Margaret Thatcher, who became leader of the Conservative party in 1975, made a fundamental change to Conservative policies, turning the Conservative Party into an economic neoliberal party. In the General Election of 1979, she defeated James Callaghan's troubled Labour government after the winter of discontent. For most of the 1980s and the 1990s, Conservative governments under Thatcher and her successor John Major pursued policies of privatization, anti-trade-unionism, and, for a time, Monetarism, now known collectively as Thatcherism. The Labour Party elected left-winger Michael Foot as their leader after their 1979 election defeat.

He responded to dissatisfaction with the Labour Party by pursuing a number of radical policies developed by its grass-roots members.

In 1981 several right-wing Labour MPs formed a breakaway group called the Social Democratic Party (SDP), a move which split Labour and is widely believed to have made Labour unelectable for a decade. The SDP formed an alliance with the Liberal Party which contested the 1983 and 1987 general elections as a centrist alternative to Labour and the Conservatives.

After some initial success, the SDP did not prosper (partly due to its unfavourable distribution of votes in the FPTP electoral system), and was accused by some of splitting the anti-Conservative vote. The SDP eventually merged with the Liberal Party to form the Liberal Democrats in 1988.

Support for the new party has increased since then, and the Liberal Democrats (often referred to as LibDems) in 1997 and 2001 gained an increased number of seats in the House of Commons.

The Labour Party was badly defeated in the Conservative landslide of the 1983 general election, and Michael Foot was replaced shortly thereafter by Neil Kinnock as leader. Kinnock expelled the far left Militant tendency group and moderated many of the party's policies. Yet he was in turn replaced by John Smith after Labour defeats in the 1987 and 1992 general elections.

Tony Blair became leader of the Labour Party after John Smith's sudden death from a heart attack in 1994. He continued to move the Labour Party back towards the "centre" by loosening links with the unions and embracing many of Margaret Thatcher's liberal economic policies. This, coupled with the professionalizing of the party machine's approach to the media, helped Labour win a historic landslide in the 1997 General Election, after 18 years of Conservative government.

Some observers say the Labour Party had by then morphed from a democratic socialist party to a social democratic party, a process that delivered three general election victories but alienated some of its core base. The Conservative Party won the second largest number of seats (still under 200) at the 2005 general election and remained the official opposition, a position they have held continuously since they lost power at the 1997 general election. The crushing defeat of the 1997 election saw them lose over half their seats from 1992 and saw the party re-align with public perceptions of them.

The Conservative party can trace its origin back to 1662, with the Court Party and the Country Party being formed in the aftermath of the English Civil War. The Court Party soon became known as the Tories, a name that has stuck despite the official name being "Conservative".

The term "Tory" originates from the Exclusion Bill crisis of 1678-1681 – the Whigs were those who supported the exclusion of the Roman Catholic DUKe of York from the thrones of England, Ireland and Scotland, and the Tories were those who opposed it. Both names were originally insults: a "whiggamore" was a horse drover, and a "tory" was an Irish term for an outlaw, later applied to Irish Confederates and Irish Royalists, during the Wars of the Three Kingdoms. Generally, the Tories were associated with lesser gentry and the Church of England, while Whigs were more associated with trade, money, larger land holders (or "land magnates"), expansion and tolerance.

Both were still committed to the political system in place at that time. Neither group could be considered a true political party in the modern sense. The Rochdale Radicals were a group of more extreme reformists who were also heavily involved in the cooperative movement. They sought to bring about a more equal society, and are considered by modern standards to be left-wing.

After becoming associated with repression of popular discontent in the years after 1815, the Tories underwent a fundamental transformation under the influence of **Robert Peel**, himself an industrialist rather than a landowner, who in his 1834 "Tamworth Manifesto" outlined a new "Conservative" philosophy of reforming ills while conserving the good. Though Peel's supporters subsequently split from their colleagues over the issue of free trade in 1846, ultimately joining the Whigs & the Radicals to form what would become the Liberal Party, Peel's version of the party's underlying outlook was retained by the remaining Tories, who adopted his label of Conservative as the official name of their party.

In 2008, the Conservative Party formed a pact with the Ulster Unionist Party to select joint candidates for European and House of Commons elections. In 1899, the Trade Union Congress summoned a special conference of trade unions and socialist bodies to make plans to present labour in Parliament. The proposal for such a meeting had come from Thomas Steels, a member of the Independent Labour Party, which had been formed in 1893.

The conference met in February 1900 in London and has always been looked on as the foundation of the Labour Party. The Labour Party believes that private ownership and enterprise should be allowed to flourish, but not at the expense of their traditional support of the public services. In the most recent general election in 2005, the Labour Party won re-election on a reduced majority, with both the Conservatives and Liberal Democrats making gains. The Labour Party won the majority of seats in the House of Commons at the 2005 general election, with 356 MPs.

The history of the Labour party goes back to 1900 when a Labour Representation Committee was established which changed its name to the Labour Party in 1906. After the First World War, this led to the demise of the Liberal Party as the main reformist force in British politics. The existence of the Labour Party on the left of British politics led to a slow waning of energy from the Liberal Party, which has consequently assumed third place in national politics. After performing poorly in the elections of 1922, 1923 and 1924, the Liberal Party was superseded by the Labour Party as the party of the left.

Following two brief spells in minority governments in 1924 and 1929-1931, the Labour Party had its first true victory after World War II in the 1945 "khaki election". Throughout the rest of the 20th century, Labour governments alternated with Conservative governments.

Two parties dominate politics in the House of Commons. Each one operates throughout Great Britain (only the Conservative and Unionist Party stands candidates in Northern Ireland). Most of the British Members of the European Parliament, Scottish Parliament and the National Assembly for Wales represent one of these parties:

- Conservative and Unionist Party, centre-right (316 seats in the House of Commons)
- Labour Party, centre-left (257 seats)
- Co-operative Party (Labour MPs as part of a long-standing electoral agreement)

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

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

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

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

LIBERAL DEMOCRATS

The Liberal Democrats (Lib Dems) is a liberal British political party formed in 1988 from a merger of the Liberal Party and the Social Democratic Party (SDP), a splinter group from the Labour Party which had formed the SDP-Liberal Alliance from 1981, but can trace their origin back to the Whigs and the Rochdale Radicals who evolved into the Liberal Party.

The Liberal Democrats won the third largest number of seats at the 2005 general election, winning 62. In the general election held on 6 May 2010, the Liberal Democrats won 23% of the vote and 57 seats in the House of Commons, making them the third-largest party in the House of Commons behind the Conservatives with 306 and Labour with 258.

The election returned a hung parliament with no party having an absolute majority. Negotiations between the Lib Dems and the two main parties occurred in the following days.

David Cameron became Prime Minister on 11 May after Gordon Brown's resignation and the Liberal Democrats formed a coalition government with the Conservative Party, with Nick Clegg as Deputy Prime Minister and other Liberal Democrats in the cabinet. Three quarters of the Liberal Democrat's manifesto pledges went into the Programme for Government.

At the 2010 general election, the Lib Dems led by Nick Clegg won 57 seats, With no party having an overall majority, the party formed a coalition government with the Conservatives, with Clegg becoming Deputy Prime Minister and others taking up ministerial positions.

At the 2015 general election, the Liberal Democrats were reduced to eight MPs and became the fourth largest party in the House of Commons, behind the SNP leading to Nick Clegg's resignation. At the 2017 general election, the party returned 12 MPs, becoming the third-largest UK-wide party in terms of votes cast. Sir Vince Cable succeeded Tim Farron as party leader.

Founding

The Liberal Democrats were formed on 3 March 1988 by a merger between the Liberal Party & the Social Democratic Party, which had formed a pact nearly seven years earlier as the SDP-Liberal Alliance. The Liberal Party, founded in 1859, were descended from the Whigs, Radicals and Peelites, while the SDP were a party created in 1981 by former Labour members, MPs and cabinet ministers, but also gained defections from Conservatives.

Having declined to third party status after the rise of the Labour Party from 1918 and especially during the 1920s, the Liberals were challenged for this position in the 1980s when a group of Labour MPs broke away and established the Social Democratic Party (SDP). The SDP and the Liberals realised that there was no space for two political parties of the centre and entered into the SDP-Liberal Alliance so that they would not stand against each other in elections.

The Alliance was led by David Steel (Liberal) and Roy Jenkins (SDP); Jenkins was replaced by David Owen. The two parties had their own policies and emphases, but produced a joint manifesto for the 1983 and 1987 general elections.

Following disappointing results in the 1987 election, Steel proposed to merge the two parties.

Although opposed by Owen, it was supported by a majority of members of both parties, and they formally merged in March 1988, with Steel and Robert Maclennan (who had become SDP leader in August 1987) as joint interim leaders. The new party was initially named Social & Liberal Democrats (SLD) with the unofficial short form The Democrats being used from September 1988.

The name was subsequently changed to Liberal Democrats in October 1989, which is frequently shortened to Lib Dems. The new party logo, the *Bird of Liberty*, was adopted in 1989.

The minority of the SDP who rejected the merger remained under Owen's leadership in a rump SDP; the minority of the Liberal Party divided, with some retiring from politics immediately and others (led by former Liberal MP Michael Meadowcroft) creating a new 'Liberal Party' that claimed to be the continuation of the Liberal Party which had just dissolved itself.

Michael Meadowcroft eventually joined the Liberal Democrats in 2007 but some of his former followers continue still as the Liberal Party, most notably in a couple of electoral wards of the cities of Liverpool and Peterborough. The party is a member of the Alliance of Liberals and Democrats for Europe Party and Liberal International.

The ideology of the Liberal Democrats draws from liberal ideas. The party is in favour of reform of traditional British institutions such as the Church of England, a change in the electoral system from first-past-the-post to proportional representation, and drug decriminalisation.

The Liberal Democrats supported the adoption of the Euro and greater European integration.

In recent years, the adoption of the Euro has not been on their agenda, with no mention of it in their 2017 manifesto. The party supports constitutional and electoral reform, progressive taxation, environmentalism, human rights laws, banking reform and civil liberties. The term "Liberal Party" was first used officially in 1868, though it had been in use colloquially for decades beforehand. The Liberal Party formed a government in 1868 and then alternated with the Conservative Party as the party of government throughout the late 19th century and early 20th century.

Liberal Party, founded in 1859, were descended from the Whigs, Radicals and Peelites.

Having declined to third party status after the rise of the Labour Party from 1918 and especially during the 1920s, the Liberals were challenged for this position in the 1980s when a group of Labour MPs broke away and established the Social Democratic Party (SDP).

The Liberal Democrats experienced its worst-ever showing in the 2015 general election, losing 48 seats in the House of Commons, leaving them with only eight MPs.

The Liberal Democrats exist to build and safeguard a fair, free and open society, in which we seek to balance the fundamental values of liberty, equality and community, and in which no one shall be enslaved by poverty, ignorance or conformity. The group opposes what it regards as illiberal policies and abuses of power, such as detention without trial, while advocating employee share ownership, tax cuts for those on low and middle incomes, the right of citizens to freedom of information, and of their right to personal privacy.

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

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

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

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

Robert Peel was the founder of the modern Conservative Party. Benjamin Disraeliwas a Conservative Party leader in the 19th century.

The party was founded in 1834 by Robert Peel out of the old Tory Party, which was founded in 1678. During the 1800s, the party was one of the two main political parties along with the Liberal Party.

In 1846, the party split over the repeal of the 'Corn Laws', which was favoured by Robert Peel and most top Conservatives but was disliked by backbencher Conservative MPs. Following the repeal, the Peel government fell and Robert Peel and his followers went on to join the Liberal Party. Because of this, the Conservatives were not able to form a majority government for twenty-eight years.

Under the leadership of Benjamin Disraeli, the party created a philosophy which supported the British Empire, the Church of England, the monarchy and social reforms, which took the party into power from 1874 to 1880. In 1886, the Liberal Party split over whether Ireland should be given independence.

Those who did not support it became known as the Liberal Unionists and they joined with the Conservatives. This alliance meant that the Conservatives were in power for most of the period 1885–1906, under Lord Salisbury and then Arthur Balfour.

Early & middle 20th century

Winston Churchillwas Prime Minister and Conservative Party leader during World War II.

By 1906, the Conservatives had another split, this time about the issue of 'tariff reform' and as a result, the party was defeated in a landslide at the 1906 General Election by the Liberal Party.

In 1912, the Conservative Party formally joined with the Liberal Unionist Party to create the modern-day Conservative and Unionist Party, however this is usually shortened to Conservative Party.

The party was in a coalition with the Liberal Party from 1916 to 1922, and was mostly in power from 1922 to 1929 under Stanley Baldwin. During the 1920s, the Labour Party replaced the Liberals as the Conservative's main political opponent.

The Conservatives were the leading figure in the coalitions of 1931-1935 and 1940-1945, and Winston Churchill was Prime Minister during World War II. Labour defeated the Conservatives at the 1945 General Election and the Conservatives were forced to accept many of Labour's new reforms like the creation of the welfare state and high taxes. The Conservatives returned to power from 1951 to 1964, under Churchill, Anthony Eden, Harold Macmillan and Alec Douglas-Home and during this time, Britain saw a period of economic and national prosperity. The Conservatives were led by Edward Heath from 1965 to 1975 and were in power from 1970 to 1974.

Late 20th century

Margaret Thatcherwas Conservative Party leader from 1975 to 1990 and Prime Minister from 1979 to 1990. Whilst Heath was in power, he took Britain into the European Union, which later would deeply divide the Conservative Party. Direct rule had to be placed on Northern Ireland because of the violence that occurred because of The Troubles. After this, the Ulster Unionist Party stopped supporting the Conservative Party at Westminster. A miner's strike and rising inflation in 1973 caused Heath to start the three-day working week to ration power. The February 1974 General Election caused a hung parliament and Labour was in power until 1979.

Margaret Thatcher became Conservative leader in 1975 and successfully introduced a number of monetarist policies. In 1979, the party was returned to power because of the Labour government's handling of the "Winter of Discontent" and Britain's growing inflation. Thatcher was Prime Minister from 1979 to 1990 and won the General Elections of 1979, 1983 and 1987. Thatcher's second and third terms saw the privatisation of most of Britain's state-owned industry, such as British Telecom in 1984, British gas in 1986, British Airways in 1987 and British Leyland and British Steel in 1988. In 1989, the Conservative government introduced the Community Charge, or "Poll Tax" which was seen as unfair to the poor and was very unpopular.

Thatcher was replaced as Prime Minister and Conservative Party leader in 1990 by John Major. Major led the country and the party until 1997. John Major replaced the unpopular Community Charge with the Council Tax in 1992 and led the party to a surprise victory in the 1992 General Election. Although there was a recessionin the early 1990s, John Major's Conservative government started a long period of economic prosperity which would last until the late 2000s.

In the 1997 General Election, the Conservatives were defeated in a landslide and lost all of their Scottish and Welsh seats. This is blamed on party splits over the European Union, the "Black Wednesday" currency problem in 1992, and the 'New' Labour Party led by Tony Blair.

21st century

The party then entered thirteen years of opposition, with William Hague leading the party from 1997 to 2001. At the 2001 General Election, the party's campaign focussed on several right-wing policies and whilst Hague was seen as a powerful speaker, his leadership was damaged by some poor publicity stunts, and the party made a net gain of only one seat at the 2001 General Election. Iain Duncan Smith led the party from 2001 to 2003 and whilst he did moderate some of the party's right-wing policies, he was seen as unable to return the party to power by many Conservative MPs and Michael Howard became leader in 2003.

The Labour government under Tony Blair was becoming unpopular because of the Iraq War. Michael Howard managed to reduce Labour's majority in parliament at the 2005 General Election, from 167 to 66. Howard resigned soon after this and David Cameron became Conservative Party leader. Cameron distanced himself from the party right and focused on modern and environmental issues.

The Conservatives had a regular lead in opinion polls from 2007 onwards and at the 2010 General Election, the party won the most seats in parliament and the highest number of votes but was 20 seats short of a majority in parliament. A coalition government was made with the Liberal Democrats and David Cameron became Prime Minister in May 11, 2010. In the UK general election, 2015 the Conservatives won 331 seats. The first Conservative-majority government since 1992 was formed. Following the UK voting to leave the EU on the 23rd June 2016, Cameron resigned as Conservative leader and PM. On 11 July 2016 it was announced officially that Theresa May would become the new Leader of the Conservative Party and Prime Minister on the evening of 13 July 2016.

Usually, support for the party comes from the south of England, Eastern England and rural areas.

Party support is not very strong in the north of England, Scotland or Wales.

Most Conservatives believe in the following things:

- Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland should remain as part of the UK.
- Marriage should be encouraged through the tax system.
- People are on benefits, who refuse a job they are able to take, should stop getting benefits.
- Pensions should be tied to a person's average earnings.
- There should be less immigration to the UK.
- There should be more support given to members of the British armed forces & their families.
- Britain should not join the Euro (although some Conservatives believe that Britain should).
- Britain should keep its nuclear weapons.
- The monarchy should be preserved.
- There should be no changes made to how elections are held in Britain.
- Homeowners should not be punished by law for defending themselves against people who break into their homes.

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

Exercise 2. Add some information & make up a small report & give a talk in class.

Exercise 3. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

THE LABOUR PARTY

The Labour Party is a centre-left political party in the UK. It has been described as a broad church, bringing together an alliance of social-democratic, democratic socialist & trade unionist outlooks.

The party's platform emphasises greater state intervention, social justice and strengthening workers' rights. Labour is a full member of the Party of European Socialists and Progressive Alliance, and holds observer status in the Socialist International. As of 2017, the party was considered the "largest party in Western Europe" in terms of party membership, with more than half a mln members.

The Labour Party was founded in 1900, having grown out of the trade union movement and socialist parties of the 19th century. It overtook the Liberal Party to become the main opposition to the Conservative Party in the early 1920s, forming minority governments under Ramsay MacDonald in 1924 and from 1929 to 1931. Labour later served in the wartime coalition from 1940 to 1945, after which it formed a majority government under Clement Attlee until 1951.

Labour was next in government from 1964 to 1970 under Harold Wilson and from 1974 to 1979, first under Wilson and then under James Callaghan. The Labour Party was most recently in government from 1997 to 2010 under Tony Blair and Gordon Brown during the "New Labour" era, first elected with a landslide majority of 179, reduced to 66 in the 2005 election. Since leaving government, the party has been led by Ed Miliband from 2010 and Jeremy Corbyn from 2015.

Labour is currently the Official Opposition in the Parliament of the UK, having won the second-largest number of seats in the 2017 general election. The Labour Party is currently the largest party in the Welsh Assembly, forming the main party in the current Welsh government. The party is the third largest in the Scottish Parliament and sends the most MEPs from the UK to the European Parliament, sitting in the Socialists and Democrats Group. Whilst the party organises in Northern Ireland, it does not contest elections there, instead supporting the Social Democratic and Labour Party.

The Labour Party originated in the late 19th century, meeting the demand for a new political party to represent the interests and needs of the urban working class, a demographic which had increased in number, and many of whom only gained suffrage with the passage of the Representation of the People Act 1884. Some members of the trades union movement became interested in moving into the political field, and after further extensions of the voting franchise in 1867 and 1885, the Liberal Party endorsed some trade-union sponsored candidates. The first Lib-Lab candidate to stand was George Odger in the Southwark by-election of 1870. In addition, several small socialist groups had formed around this time, with the intention of linking the movement to political policies.

Among these were the Independent Labour Party, the intellectual and largely middle-class Fabian Society, the Marxist Social Democratic Federation and the Scottish Labour Party.

At the 1895 general election, the Independent Labour Party put up 28 candidates but won only 44,325 votes. Keir Hardie, the leader of the party, believed that to obtain success in parliamentary elections, it would be necessary to join with other left-wing groups. Hardie's roots as a lay preacher contributed to an ethos in the party which led to the comment by 1950s General Secretary Morgan Phillips that "Socialism in Britain owed more to Methodism than Marx".

In 1899, a Doncaster member of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, Thomas R. Steels, proposed in his union branch that the Trade Union Congress call a special conference to bring together all left-wing organisations and form them into a single body that would sponsor Parliamentary candidates. The motion was passed at all stages by the TUC, and the proposed conference was held at the Memorial Hall on Farringdon Street on 26 and 27 February 1900. The meeting was attended by a broad spectrum of working-class and left-wing organisations – trades unions represented about one third of the membership of the TUC delegates. After a debate, the 129 delegates passed Hardie's motion to establish "a distinct Labour group in Parliament, who shall have their own whips, and agree upon their policy, which must embrace a readiness to cooperate with any party.

Party, which for the time being may be engaged in promoting legislation in the direct interests of labour". This created an association called the Labour Representation Committee (LRC), meant to co-ordinate attempts to support MPs sponsored by trade unions and represent the working-class population.

With the Representation of the People Act 1918, almost all adult men (excepting only peers, criminals and lunatics) and most women over the age of thirty were given the right to vote, almost tripling the British electorate at a stroke, from 7.7 mln in 1912 to 21.4 mln in 1918. This set the scene for a surge in Labour representation in parliament. The Communist Party of Great Britain was refused affiliation to the Labour Party between 1921 and 1923.

Meanwhile, the Liberal Party declined rapidly, and the party suffered a catastrophic split which allowed the Labour Party to gain much of the Liberals' support. With the Liberals thus in disarray, Labour won 142 seats in 1922, making it the second largest political group in the House of Commons and the official opposition to the Conservative government. After the election Ramsay MacDonald was voted the first official leader of the Labour Party. The Party had a distinctive and suspicious foreign policy based on pacifism. Its leaders believed that peace was impossible because of capitalism, secret diplomacy, and the trade in armaments.

That is it stressed material factors that ignored the psychological memories of the Great War, and the highly emotional tensions regarding nationalism and the boundaries of the countries.

In the 1929 general election, the Labour Party became the largest in the House of Commons for the first time, with 287 seats and 37.1% of the popular vote.

A downturn in the economy and a series of scandals in the early 1960s (the most notorious the Profumo affair) had engulfed the Conservative government by 1963. The Labour Party returned to government with a 4-seat majority under Wilson in the 1964 general election but increased its majority to 96 in the 1966 general election. After losing the 1970 general election, Labour returned to opposition, but retained Harold Wilson as Leader. Heath's government soon ran into trouble over Northern Ireland and a dispute with miners in 1973 which led to the "three-day week".

The 1970s proved a difficult time to be in government for both the Conservatives and Labour due to the 1973 oil crisis which caused high inflation and a global recession. For much of its time in office the Labour government struggled with serious economic problems and a precarious majority in the Commons, while the party's internal dissent over Britain's membership of the European Economic Community, which Britain had entered under Edward Heath in 1972, led in 1975 to a national referendum on the issue in which two thirds of the public supported continued membership.

Harold Wilson's personal popularity remained reasonably high but he unexpectedly resigned as Prime Minister in 1976 citing health reasons, and was replaced by James Callaghan. The Wilson and Callaghan governments of the 1970s tried to control inflation (23.7% in 1975) by a policy of wage restraint. This was fairly successful, reducing inflation to 7.4% by 1978. However, it led to increasingly strained relations between the government and the trade unions. The Labour Party was defeated heavily in the 1983 general election, winning only 27.6% of the vote, its lowest share since 1918. Labour improved its performance in 1987, gaining 20 seats and so reducing the Conservative majority from 143 to 102. They were now firmly re-established as the second political party in Britain as the Alliance had once again failed to make a breakthrough with seats.

In November 1990 following a contested leadership election, Margaret Thatcher resigned as leader of the Conservative Party and was succeeded as leader and Prime Minister by John Major. Most opinion polls had shown Labour comfortably ahead of the Tories for more than a year before Thatcher's resignation, with the fall in Tory support blamed largely on her introduction of the unpopular poll tax, combined with the fact that the economy was sliding into recession at the time.

The Labour Party won the 1997 general election with a landslide majority of 179; it was the largest Labour majority ever, and at the time the largest swing to a political party achieved since 1945.

In the 2005 general election, Labour was re-elected for a third term, but with a reduced majority of 66 and popular vote of only 35.2%, the lowest percentage of any majority government in British history. The party edged out the Conservatives in the May 2014 European parliamentary elections winning 20 seats to the Conservatives' 19. However, the UK Independence Party won 24 seats.

Labour gained 324 councillors in the 2014 local elections. In September 2014, Shadow Chancellor Ed Balls outlined his plans to cut the government's current account deficit, and the party carried these plans into the 2015 general election. Whereas Conservatives campaigned for a surplus on all government spending, including investment, by 2018-19, Labour stated it would balance the budget, excluding investment, by 2020. The 2015 general election unexpectedly resulted in a net loss of seats, with Labour representation falling to 232 seats in the House of Commons. The party lost 40 of its 41 seats in Scotland in the face of record swings to the Scottish National Party.

The Labour Party is a democratic socialist party. It believes that by the strength of our common endeavour we achieve more than we achieve alone, so as to create for each of us the means to realise our true potential and for all of us a community in which power, wealth and opportunity are in the hands of the many, not the few, where the rights we enjoy reflect the duties we owe, and where we live together, freely, in a spirit of solidarity, tolerance and respect.

Historically, influenced by Keynesian economics, the party favoured government intervention in the economy, and the redistribution of wealth. Taxation was seen as a means to achieve a "major redistribution of wealth and income" in the October 1974 election manifesto. The party also desired increased rights for workers, and a welfare state including publicly funded healthcare.

From the late-1980s onwards, the party adopted free market policies, leading many observers to describe the Labour Party as social democratic or the Third Way, rather than democratic socialist.

Other commentators go further and argue that traditional social democratic parties across Europe, including the British Labour Party, have been so deeply transformed in recent years that it is no longer possible to describe them ideologically as "social democratic", and claim that this ideological shift has put new strains on the Labour Party's traditional relationship with the trade unions. Historically within the party, differentiation was made between the social democratic and the socialist wings of the party, the latter often subscribed to a radical socialist, even Marxist, ideology.

The red flag, originally the official flag and symbol of the Labour party. Labour has long been identified with red, a political colour traditionally affiliated with socialism and the labour movement. Prior to the red flag logo, the party had used a modified version of the classic 1924 shovel, torch and quill emblem. Since the party's inception, the red flag has been Labour's official symbol; the flag has been associated with socialism and revolution ever since the 1789 French Revolution and the revolutions of 1848. The red rose, a symbol of social democracy, was adopted as the party symbol in 1986 as part of a rebranding exercise and is now incorporated into the party logo.

| J. Corbyn, current leader | Ed Miliband, 2010-2015 | G. Brown, 2007-2010 | T. Blair, 1997-200 |

Party	Description
Conservative&Unionist Party	A party loosely divided into three categories: The Thatcherites who strongly support a free market & tend to be Eurosceptic; the economically moderate, pro-European & socially liberal One Nation Conservatives, & the socially conservative, deeply Eurosceptic.
Labour Party	A big tent party with roots in the trade union movement. The party in recent years is seen to have several internal factions: The democratic socialist Momentum that are soft Eurosceptic, the pro-European & progressives of Open Labour, the social liberal and pro free market Progress and, the Labour members who stand on a split ticket with the Co-operative Party.
Scottish National Party	Scottish nationalist and social democratic party which supports of Scottish Independence and membership of the European Union.
Liberal Democrats	Liberal and social liberal. The party's main two branches are the social-liberal grouping, and the 'Orange Book' grouping, which supports classical economic liberalism, membership of the European Union.
Democratic Unionist Party	Unionist & national conservative party in Northern Ireland. Socially conservative with close links to Protestantism.
Sinn Féin	Irish republican party that supports the unification of the island of Ireland as a 32-county Irish republic.
Plaid Cymru - Party of Wales	Social-democratic and Welsh nationalist party in favour of Welsh independence.
Social Democratic & Labour Party	Social-democratic and Irish nationalist party supporting a United Ireland.
Ulster Unionist Party	Unionist party in Northern Ireland, conservative but with liberal factions.
Green Party of England and Wales	Green political party that favours eco-socialism, environmentalism, sustainability & non-violence.
Scottish Green Party	Green political party in favour of Scottish independence & Scottish republicanism.
UK Independence Party	Eurosceptic & right-wing populist party. Favours national sovereignty, democracy, socialconservatism & economic liberalism.
Alliance Party of N. Ireland	Liberal and centrist political party in Northern Ireland.
Green Party in N. Ireland	Green political and nonsectarian party in Northern Ireland.
Traditional Unionist Voice	Strongly social and national conservative unionist party in Northern Ireland, opposed to the St Andrews Agreement.
People Before Profit	Socialist party with Trotskyist elements that is active in both the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland.
Libertarian Party	Libertarian party favour of in liberalism: liberty from government & corporatocracy.

UNIT V. THE EXECUTIVE POWER IN THE UK

INTRODUCTION

Executive power in the UK is exercised on behalf of the Sovereign, in whom executive power is nominally vested, by the UK government and the Scottish Government, the Welsh Assembly Government and the Northern Ireland Executive. The monarch appoints a Prime Minister as the head of Her Majesty's Government, guided by the strict convention that the Prime Minister should be the member of the House of Commons most likely to be able to form a Government with the support of that House. In practice, this means that the leader of the political party with an absolute majority of seats in the House of Commons is chosen to be the Prime Minister.

The Prime Minister then selects the other Ministers that make up the Government and act as political heads of the various Government Departments. About twenty of the most senior government ministers make up the Cabinet and approximately 100 ministers in total comprise the government.

In accordance with constitutional convention, all ministers within the government are either Members of Parliament or peers in the House of Lords.

As in some other parliamentary systems of government, the executive ("the government") is drawn from and is answerable to Parliament – a successful vote of no confidence will force the government either to resign or to seek a parliamentary dissolution and a general election. In practice, members of parliament of all major parties are strictly controlled by whips who try to ensure they vote according to party policy. If the government has a large majority, then they are very unlikely to lose enough votes to be unable to pass legislation. In November 2005, the Blair government suffered its first defeat, on a proposal to extend the period for detaining terrorist suspects to 90 days. Before this, the last bill proposed by a government that was defeated in the House of Commons was the Shop Hours Bill in 1986, one of only three in the 20th century. Governments with a small majority or coalition governments are much more vulnerable to defeat.

They sometimes have to resort to extreme measures, such as "wheeling in" sick MPs, to get the necessary majority. Margaret Thatcher in 1983 and Tony Blair in 1997 were swept into power with such large majorities that even allowing for dissent within their parties, they were assured of winning practically all parliamentary votes, and thus were able to implement radical programmes of legislative reform and innovation. However, other Prime Ministers who enjoy only slender majorities, such as John Major in 1992, can easily lose votes if relatively small numbers of their backbench MPs defy the whip and vote against the Government's proposals.

Therefore, Governments with small majorities find it more difficult to implement controversial legislation and can become bogged down cutting deals with factions within their party or seeking assistance from other political parties. These are politically led by a Government Minister who is often a Secretary of State and member of the Cabinet. He or she may also be supported by a number of junior Ministers. In practice, several government departments and Ministers have responsibilities that cover England alone, where devolved bodies having responsibility for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, (the Department of Health), or responsibilities that mainly focus on England.

Implementation of the Minister's decisions is carried out by a permanent politically neutral organization known as the civil service. Its constitutional role is to support the Government of the day regardless of which political party is in power. Unlike some other democracies, senior civil servants remain in post upon a change of Government. Administrative management of the Department is led by a head civil servant known in most Departments as a Permanent Secretary.

The majority of the civil service staff in fact work in executive agencies, which are separate operational organizations reporting to Departments of State. "Whitehall" is often used as a synonym for the central core of the Civil Service. This is because most Government Departments have headquarters in and around the former Royal Palace Whitehall.

The Privy Council

The Privy Council developed from a small group of Royal Advisers at court into the chief source of executive authority. Nevertheless, its position was weakened in the 18-19th centuries as more of its functions were transferred to a developing parliamentary Cabinet.

Today its main role is to advise the monarch on a range of matters, like the resolution of constitutional issues and the approval of *Orders in Council*, such as the granting of *Royal Charters* to public bodies. The most important Exercise of the Privy Council today is performed by its Judicial Committee. This serves as the final court of appeal from those dependencies and Commonwealth countries, which have retained this avenue of appeal. It may also be used as an arbiter for a wide range of courts and committees in Britain and overseas, and its rulings can be influential. The office of Privy Councillor is an honorary one, conferred, for example, on former Prime Ministers.

The Ministry

The Ministry is the government of the moment. The head of the Ministry is the Prime Minister.

The functions of the Prime Minister are:

- leading the majority party;
- running the Government;
- appointing Cabinet Ministers and other ministers;
- representing the nation in political matters.

Upon accepting office the Prime Minister must form a government, that is, select a cabinet and ministry from among the Members of the Parliament of his own party. The Cabinet constitutes the centre of the government and is composed of about 20 of the most important ministers.

All major decisions of the Government are made by the Cabinet, and therefore it is the Cabinet, which forms Government policy. Decisions made by the Cabinet must be unanimous.

It makes its decisions collectively and is collectively responsible to Parliament. After the Prime Minister has formed his Cabinet, he selects the rest of his ministry. Most of these ministers are the political heads of Government Departments and are members of one of the Houses.
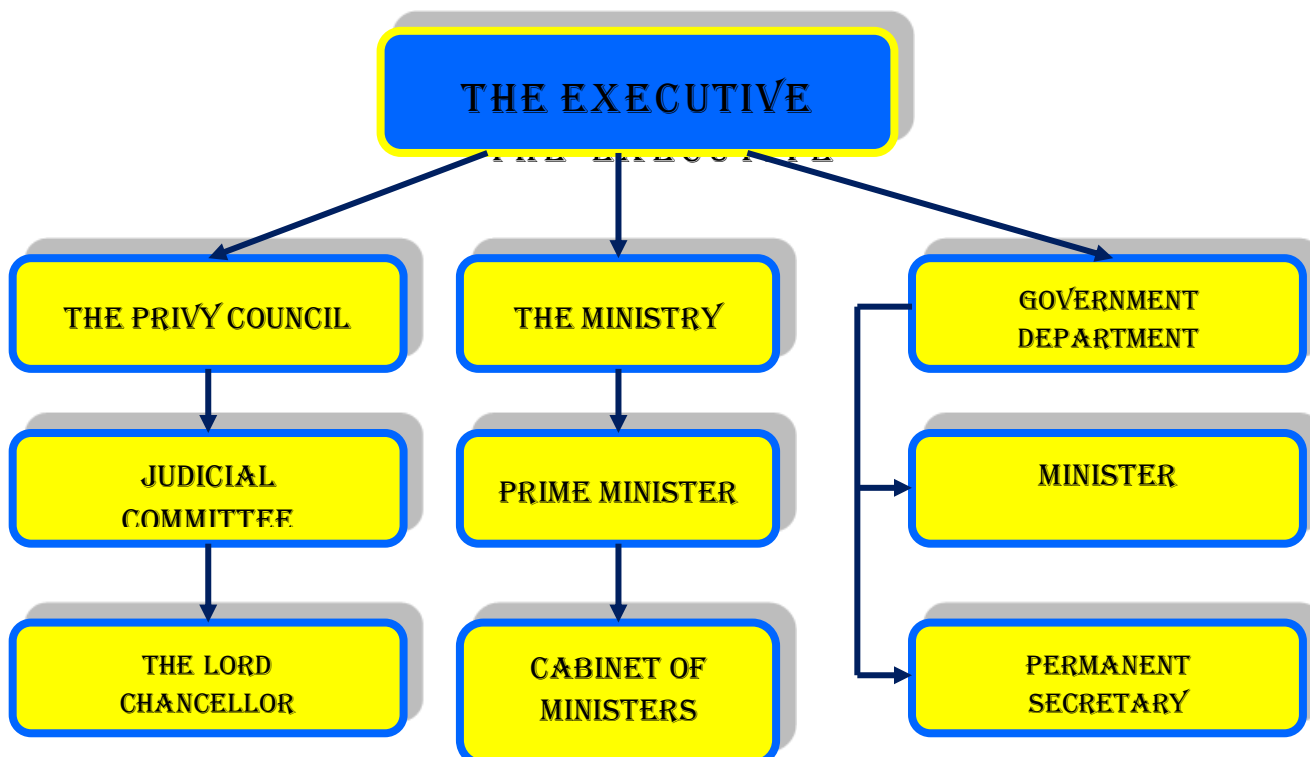
Government Departments

Government Departments are responsible for implementing Government Policy.

Each department is headed by two people: a political head that is usually the minister, and an administrative head from the Civil Service, called a Permanent Secretary. They are responsible for a permanent staff, which is part of the Civil Service. There are many such departments, for example the Home Office, the Department of Education, the Ministry of Defence, etc. The most important department is the Treasury, and the Prime Minister is usually its political head. It is the department, which controls the economy of the nation. As well as government departments there are government agencies formed to operate public services, e.g., the Post Office, British Rail, etc. Most of these agencies are subject to the control of one of the Government Departments.

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

Exercise 2. Explain the executive system.

№	Functions	Department	Score
1.			

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                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │     THE EXECUTIVE       │
                    └─────────────────────────┘
           ┌──────────────┼──────────────┐
┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐
│ THE PRIVY COUNCIL│ │  THE MINISTRY    │ │   GOVERNMENT     │
│                  │ │                  │ │   DEPARTMENT     │
└──────────────────┘ └──────────────────┘ └──────────────────┘
        │                    │                     │
┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐
│    JUDICIAL      │ │  PRIME MINISTER  │ │    MINISTER      │
│   COMMITTEE      │ │                  │ │                  │
└──────────────────┘ └──────────────────┘ └──────────────────┘
        │                    │                     │
┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐
│   THE LORD       │ │  CABINET OF      │ │   PERMANENT      │
│   CHANCELLOR     │ │  MINISTERS       │ │   SECRETARY      │
└──────────────────┘ └──────────────────┘ └──────────────────┘
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The executive can be divided into three parts.

Exercise 3. Choose the right variant.

1. It took an _____ pressure from the people to force Parliament to reform itself in 1832.
a) irresistible b) insuperable c) insurmountable d) invincible
2. The right to vote was no longer _____ to landowners.
a) confined b) limited c) restricted d) restrained
3. The House of Lords tried to _____ this expenditure of money on public welfare.
a) slow up b) slow down c) slacken one's pace d) reduce
4. The Liberal Party wanted to _____ reform.
a) bring in b) introduce c) institute d) acquaint
5. They could only _____ other laws for two years.
a) delay b) detain c) postpone d) put off
6. The Conservatives in general _____ leaving things as they were.
a) favoured b) aided c) supported d) helped
7. They _____ a General Election.
a) collared for b) convened c) convoked d) summoned
8. The government cannot be prevented from _____ the will of the people.
a) carrying out b) producing c) realizing d) fulfilling
9. The government did everything to _____ crime.
a) prevent b) guard c) stave off d) avert
10. Nothing shall _____ us from reaching our aim!
a) prevent b) forestall c) obviate d) preclude
11) A ministry is _____ by the party with a majority in the Commons.
a) formed b) fashion c) mould d) instruct
12) The government is _____ in the Queen's name.
a) carried on b) carried out c) carried up d) carried off
13. Charles II preferred a more intimate gathering of some _____ or _____ men.
a) 5-6 b) 4-5 c) 3-4 d) 6-7

Exercise 4. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE EXECUTIVE

The Privy Council developed from a small group of Royal Advisers at court into the chief source of executive authority. However, its position was weakened in the 18-19th centuries as more of its functions were transferred to a developing parliamentary Cabinet. Today its main role is to advise the monarch on a range of matters, like the resolution of constitutional issues and the approval of *Orders in Council*, such as the granting of *Royal Charters* to public bodies.

The most important Exercise of the Privy Council today is performed by its Judicial Committee.

This serves as the final court of appeal for those dependencies and Commonwealth countries.

It may be used as an arbiter for a wide range of courts and committees in Britain and overseas, and its rulings can be influential. The office of Privy Councillor is an honorary one, conferred, for example, on former Prime Ministers. *The Ministry i*s the government of the moment. The head of the Ministry is the Prime Minister. The functions of the Prime Minister are: leading the majority party; running the Government; appointing Cabinet Ministers and other ministers; representing the nation in political matters. Upon accepting office the Prime Minister must form a government, that is, select a cabinet and ministry from among the Members of the Parliament of his own party. The Cabinet constitutes the centre of the government and is composed of about 20 of the most important ministers. All major decisions of the Government are made by the Cabinet, which forms Government policy.

Decisions made by the Cabinet must be unanimous. It makes its decisions collectively and is collectively responsible to Parliament. After the Prime Minister has formed his Cabinet, he selects the rest of his ministry. Most of these ministers are the political heads of Government Departments and members of one of the Houses. *Government Departments* are responsible for implementing Government Policy.

Each department is headed by two people: a political head that is usually the minister, and an administrative head from the Civil Service, called a Permanent Secretary. They are responsible for a permanent staff, which is part of the Civil Service. There are many such departments, for example the Home Office, the Department of Education, the Ministry of Defence, etc. The most important department is the Treasury, and the Prime Minister is usually its political head. It is the department, which controls the economy of the nation. As well as government, departments there are government agencies formed to operate public services, e.g., the Post Office, British Rail, etc. Most of these agencies are subject to the control of one of the Government Departments.

Exercise 1. Decide which word or phrase in each group of five doesn't belong and why.

- a) Crown b) monarchy c) Royal Assent d) MP e) heir to the throne
- a) recommend b) pass c) abolish d) enact e) amend
- a) subject b) British National Act c) citizenship d) treaty e) naturalization
- a) constitutional convention b) code c) custom d) legislation e) judicial precedent
- a) constituency b) electorate c) hereditary peer d) suffrage e) ballot paper
- a) Criminal Law b) case law c) Land Law d) Jurisprudence e) Law of Tort
- a) Opposition b) majority party c) Cabinet d) Prime Minister e Home Secretary
- a) binding precedent b) judicial decision c) parliamentary sovereign d) common law e) authority
- a) life peerage b) delaying power c) Lord Chancellor d) House of Commons e) Lords Spiritual

Key: 1 d; 2 a; 3 d; 4 e; 5 b; 6 c; 7 b; 8 a; 9 c; 10 d.

1. It's the only word which is not connected with the Sovereign. 2. Parliament passes, enacts, and amends laws, and uses legislation to abolish things, but not to recommend things. 3. It's the only word which is not connected with nationality. 4. It's the only political party which is not active in the UK. 5. It's the only one which is not a source of English law. 6. It's the only one which is not connected with elections. 7. It's the only one which is not a branch of English law or a separate subject for study. 8. It's the only one which is not part of the Government. 9. It's the only one which is not connected with the doctrine of judicial precedent. 10. It's the only one which is not connected with the House of Lords.

Exercise 2. Choose the right variant.

1. Since their election victory in _____ Mr. Blair has chosen a team of ministers to help him.
a) 1997 b) 1992 c) 1995 d) 1993

2. Symon de Monfort called the first Parliament in _____.
a) 1560 b) 1650 c) 1670 d) 1456

3. The House of Commons is still the centre of the political _____.
a) power b) stage c) life d) influence

4. From the middle of the _____ century until the First World War these two parties were Conservatives and the Liberals.
a) 19th b) 18th c) 17th d) 16th

5. In the House of Commons there are seats on the floor for only _____ of the 650 members
a) 546 b) 456 c) 562 d) 346

6. Many form and rules of parliamentary procedure date back to the beginning of the _____ century.
a) 16th b) 17th c) 15th d) 14th

7. Each Member of Parliament (MP) represents one of _____ constituencies.
a) 645 b) 650 c) 656 d) 650

8. A candidate has only to put down a deposit of _____ and collect ten signatures from residents.
a) $600 b) $1500 c) $500 d) $1000

9. A candidate who gets less than _____ % of the total votes loses its deposit.
a) 54 b) 50 c) 51 d) 55

10. Members of Parliament have been paid salaries since _____.
a) 1911 b) 1920 c) 1925 d) 1934

Exercise 3. Remember that.

Privy Council – a body of advisers appointed by a sovereign or a Governor General (now chiefly on an honorary basis and including present and former government ministers of the Crown and other distinguished subjects, all of whom are appointed for life). In Britain, the Privy Council is a group of people who are appointed to advise the king or queen on political affairs.

Exercise 4. Try to translate the notion in English.

Тайный совет (совещательный орган при монархе, созданный в средние века; юридически является главным органом государственного управления, однако начиная с 18 века утратил свое значение – в настоящее время исполнительная власть сосредоточена в руках кабинета министров, который технически является одним из комитетов Тайного совета; выполняет номинальные функции и служит для придания юридической силы "королевским указам в совете"; в состав совета входит около 500 советников; в т. ч. все члены действующего кабинета министров, другие влиятельные политические деятели, высшие судебные должностные лица и представители Содружества Наций; советники назначаются монархом, по предложению премьер-министра (кроме принцев крови, высшей аристократии, высших судебных чиновников, высшего духовенства) и сохраняют эту должность на протяжении всей жизни; главой совета считается монарх, но фактически его деятельностью руководит лорд председатель Тайного совета; собирается в полном составе по случаю бракосочетания или смерти монарха и восшествия на престол нового монарха).

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

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

Exercise 6. Describe the functions of the Cabinet and the Prime Minister.

Some organisation had to be found which would enable the king and the majority in Parliament to work smoothly together. This organisation was the cabinet system. The origin of the Cabinet is to be found in the small group of people who formed the King's Council.

During the Middle Ages these great officers of state – the Chancellor, the Treasurer, the Marshall, the Constable (chief officer of the Household), and others – were bishops or great nobles. Some of these officers were chosen by the king, amongst them being the Chancellor and Treasurer.

But others, including the Marshal and Constable, inherited their positions without the king having any say in the matter. All were men of great power and authority in their own right. This type of Council or Privy Council, as it came to be called lasted as long as the king was still the senior partner in the partnership between king and Parliament. But after the victory of Parliament it began to develop rapidly into the Cabinet Council.

Charles II found the Privy Council, which had grown to some fifty members, too large and cumbersome; he preferred a more intimate gathering of some five or six men, the holders of the great offices of state, who could meet in a small room or cabinet. This small council came to be called the Cabinet Council or, for short, Cabinet. Thus in our present-day constitution the king or queen, as the head of the state, sees that a ministry is formed by the party with a majority in the Commons. The government is carried on in the Queen's name, but she has no control over what the ministry does in her name so long as it has the support of a majority in the Commons.

Exercise 7. Remember that.

The English noun *Commonwealth* dates originally from the 15th century. The original phrase "common wealth" or "the common weal" comes from the old meaning of "wealth" which is "well-being".

The term literally meant "common well-being". Thus Commonwealth originally meant a state governed for the common good as opposed to an authoritarian state governed for the benefit of a given class of owners. Today the term is more general and means a *political community*.

When capitalized, "*Commonwealth*" normally refers to the 53 members Commonwealth of Nations – formerly the "British Commonwealth" – a loose confederation of nations formerly members of the British Empire (with one exception: Mozambique, which was a Portuguese possession).

The Commonwealth's membership includes both republics and monarchies and the (appointed, not hereditary) head of the Commonwealth of Nations is Queen Elizabeth II. She also reigns as monarch directly in a number of states, known as Commonwealth Realms, notably the UK, Australia, Canada, New Zealand and others. The Commonwealth of Nations is sometimes referred as the New Commonwealth in a British context.

Queen Victoria convened her first Privy Council on the day of her accession in 1837.

THE BEGINNING OF THE NEW SYSTEM

Until well into the 19th century, Britain managed with an administrative system, which was in all essentials the same as the Tudor system. By an administrative system, we mean the organisation through which the government actually gets things done, after Parliament has said what shall and shall not be done. The administration, for example, actually *runs the army and navy*, collects the taxes, *keeps the accounts,* and *pays the bills*. Parliament, having decided what the administration shall or shall not do, then keeps a *constant watch* to see that *the job is properly done* and *in accordance with the law*.

The administration of government has become *enormously* more complicated since Tudor times. By the early years of the 19th century the Tudor system was *proving quite inefficient*.

In the late 18th and early 19th centuries, however, *extraordinary changes* known as the Industrial Revolution took place in Britain. In the 80 years from 1750 to 1831, the population of Britain doubled, and in the next 60 years it *doubled* again, reaching 33 mlns.

The size of the population was increasing and the people's methods of living and working were changing in a manner never before seen in a great country in the whole history of the world. A large part of this *rapidly growing population earned its living* in the new factories, and since factories employing large numbers of people must be in towns, there was an *enormous growth of towns.*

By 1851 about half the population of Britain were *town dwellers*. The huge new towns brought problems, which the old administrative system was quite *unable to solve*. Profiteering landlords and *jerry builders* ran up houses as quickly, as cheaply, and as close together as they could, saving space by *crowding families* into single rooms or thrusting them underground into cellars, and saving money by using *inferior building materials* and by providing inadequate drainage. In this way the *slums of great cities* were created, *making a problem*. The central government did nothing to stop it, because they lacked any organisation through which they could work.

The magistrates and borough councillors did nothing to stop it, because among them were the people who *reaped the huge and rapid profits*.

The result of this *neglect of the health* and *well being* of the people was a series of *most deadly outbreaks* of cholera. In 1831 there were 50,000 deaths in Britain from cholera; in 1848 – 960,000, of which a quarter were in London; in 1853 – 425,000, of which nearly half were in London.

At the same time, the central government was also interfering more and more with other aspects of the people's lives, and its activity was steadily increasing in all fields. New boards and ministries were being created and continually grew – the Colonial Office in 1854, the India Office in 1858, the Board of Education in 1899, the Ministry of Labour in 1916, and a whole group of new ministries at the end of the First World War in 1919.

Legislative (makes laws)	Executive (carries out laws)	Judicial (evaluates laws)

THE COMING OF DEMOCRACY

The power of government gradually passed from the king to Parliament. However, in the days of the Revolution of 1688, when Parliament finally won control of the government, the great mass of ordinary people still had no say in how the country should be run. The owners of property had always controlled Parliament. The Great Reform Act of 1832 laid the foundation of our present-day system of electing members of Parliament. It took an irresistible pressure from the whole mass of the people to force Parliament to reform itself in 1832. The result of the reform was that, as far as possible, one member represented more or less the same number of voters in every part of Britain.

The right to vote was no longer confined to landowners, but was given to the middle class, the prosperous shopkeepers of the towns and farmers in the counties.

After 1832, about one man in six in England and Wales had the right to vote. This seems to us nowadays to be still far from a real democracy, but it was a great step forwards.

It was not until 1918, after the First World War, that any women had the right to vote, although two of England's greatest rulers, Queen Elizabeth I and Queen Victoria had been women.

By 1928, all men and all women over the age of 21 years had the right to vote. During the 19th century, as the government took on more and more responsibility for the welfare of its entire people – especially for their health and education, more and more money were needed.

The obvious way to get this money was to tax rich people in order to make the lives of poor people happier. The House of Lords, where sat many of the richest men in the country, tried to slow this expenditure of money on public welfare, and at the beginning of the 20th century they refused to allow the government's plans to pass into law. The Liberal Party, who was the party who wanted to bring in reform, therefore decided that the power of the House of Lords ought to be limited.

As they had a majority in the House of Commons, they brought in a bill proposing that in future the Lords should have no power at all over laws about taxes, and that they could only delay other laws for two years. The Conservatives, the party who in general favoured leaving things as they were, opposed the bill; so the Liberals "went to the country" – that is they called for a General Election.

The General Election showed that a majority in the whole country agreed with the Liberals; and so the Lords gave way, even though the great majority of them really opposed the change.

In 1949, the right of the House of Lords to delay a bill was reduced from two years to one year. So now the House of Lords has hardly any power, except the power to make the House of Commons think again. Thus, Britain is now a fully democratic country, with a government, which cannot be prevented from carrying out the will of the people.

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

Exercise 2. Answer the questions.

1. Did the great mass of ordinary people still have to say in how the country should be run? 2. What act laid the foundation of our present-day system of electing members of Parliament? 3. Did it take an irresistible pressure from the whole mass of the people to force Parliament to reform itself in 1832? 4. When did about one man in six in England and Wales have the right to vote? 5. Is Britain now a fully democratic country? 6. Can the government be prevented from carrying out the will of the people? 7. When did any women have the right to vote? 8. The right to vote was no longer confined to landowners, wasn't it? 9. When was the right to vote given to the middle class? 10. When did all men and all women over the age of 21 years have the right to vote? 11. When was the obvious way to get money to make the lives of poor people happier? 12. Did the House of Lords try to slow up this expenditure of money on public welfare? 13. What Party wanted to bring in reform? 14. What happened with the functions of the House of Lords in 1949?

Exercise 3. Describe the process of getting & spending.

Every year in the first half of April the Chancellor of the Exchequer "opens his Budget" in the House of Commons. Budget Day is the day when the Chancellor (not to be confused with the Lord Chancellor, the chairman of the House of Lords and head of all the judges) tells the House of Commons how much the government must spend and how he thinks the money should be provided.

During the Chancellor's speech, which is one of the greatest and most exciting occasions of the Parliamentary year, the Commons sit as a committee – the Committee of Ways and Means. This enables them to discuss in detail the Chancellor's very detailed proposals. The discussion goes on for many days after the Chancellor has "opened his Budget"; and when all his proposals have been accepted, perhaps with some alterations, the House of Commons, sitting as the Committee of Ways and Means, reports to the House of Commons itself that the budget proposals have been approved.

Then a bill, the Finance Bill, is introduced into the House in order to make the budget proposals into law. This bill goes through all the stage (except that, since this is a money bill, the House of Lords has no say) and then becomes the Finance Act. This is the law, which states what taxes everyone must pay for the next twelve months. The government collects these huge sums of money largely by taxation, the taxation being arranged so that people who have only a little money pay small taxes and people who have a lot of money pay heavy taxes. This is called progressive taxation.

There are two main kinds of taxes. The first kind, "direct taxes", are taken directly from the money people earn or which comes to them from their investments. The most important kind of direct tax is income tax, the tax which has to be paid every year on the money, either earned or unearned, which people receive each year. If you earn very little indeed, you pay very little or nothing. The other kind, indirect taxes are added to the price of things you buy. It is possible to avoid indirect taxes, more or less, by not buying the things on which these taxes are collected.

The advantages of indirect taxes, so long as they are put on luxury goods and not on necessities, is that people often pay them without noticing and objecting to them so much; and also very poor people can to a certain extent avoid paying them by not buying the things which are taxed.

Indirect taxes are collected on almost all goods brought into this country from abroad (customs duties), and on many things made in this country (excise duties). The heaviest customs or excise duties are on things which people enjoy but can do without, such as beer, wine, spirits, tobacco, petrol, football, pools and betting, and entertainments (such as the cinema, football matches, horse and dog races).

Exercise 4. Summarize the information briefly in English.

Exercise 5. Translate the sentences into Russian.

1. I appeal to you to let me alone. 2. Jim appealed successfully against the judgement that he was guilty. 3. The severe snowstorm has slowed the traffic down. 4. The policeman brought in two boys whom he had caught stealing. 5. He delayed my calling the police. 6. The government introduced a Bill before Parliament. 7. Hundreds lay languishing in prison. 8. The plaintiff applied for shares in this company. 9. The Appeal Court found the film dull, dreary, and offensive in parts (in places). 10. Any act repealing in whole or in part any former statute. 11. There is no appeal from a verdict of the higher court. 12. For the proof of the existence of the conscience, we appeal to the consciousness. 13. Its poetical and romantic attractions appeal even to a person so little poetical as Hobbes. 14. He said he would appeal against the conviction. 15. The range of topics will appeal to youngsters. 16. This is an appeal to their common cultural values. 17. He has 28 days in which to lodge an appeal. 18. Everybody has got the right of appeal.

Exercise 6. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 7. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 8. Write a small essay on the topic.

Exercise 9. Describe the Britain control of government expenditure.

Parliament has other things to do as well as pass bills. The Government cannot legally spend any money without the permission of the House of Commons. This permission is given in the form of Acts of Parliament authorising the payment of sums of money out of the consolidated fund, which can be regarded as the Government's central bank account.

Before the annual Appropriation Bill is passed the House of Commons votes on some two hundred items of expenditure, but this is done in a few minutes. Only the Government is allowed to propose expenditure. The House still discusses the merits of the policies, but does not try to discuss the cost. But the Public Accounts Committee, chaired by a prominent Opposition MP, examines the departmental accounts in detail, with the help of the National Audit Office, and its reports are often critical of waste. The House of Commons still keeps in close contact with taxation.

Each year the taxes are authorised by a Finance Act, which is based on the Budget presented by the Chancellor of the Exchequer in March. In the detailed discussions Members try to persuade the Chancellor to reduce particular taxes, and they are not always unsuccessful.

The House of Commons spends more hours in session each year than any other parliamentary assembly, but for most of the time less than fifty MPs are present listening to the one who is speaking. About one-seventh of this time is taken by senior and junior ministers stating the Government's policy or replying to questions and arguments put by the Opposition or by backbenchers of all parties.

Rather less time is taken by Opposition frontbench spokesmen. The rest, about three-quarters, is occupied by backbenchers of all parties. During any year almost every aspect of the nation's business is dealt with in debate. The average backbencher makes about five fifteen-minute speeches in a year, usually to a nearly empty chamber, but heard by ministers from the department responsible for the matter about which he is speaking. Some backbenchers' speeches are based on material supplied by national or local interests, and a large proportion deal with matters of concern to the MPs' own constituents. Backbench speeches hardly ever influence the voting; though ministers may be impressed by what they hear, and sometimes modify their policies accordingly. Most backbenchers' arguments have already been put before departments through other contacts outside Parliament, or in private party committees; but the fact that they are put forward in open debate obliges the minister to listen and react. For a long time it was argued that the House of Commons ought to have a system of committees, corresponding with the main government departments. After a series of experiments over many years, a system of this kind was at last created in 1979-80.

Each of these select committees has a more or less permanent membership, so that it can develop a thorough knowledge of the general problems associated with the work of its department.

There are special advisers from outside Parliament, and individual members may employ their own research assistants. When a committee decides on a particular investigation, its clerk asks the department for a memorandum and statistics, and civil servants are called before the committee to answer questions. People from outside the administration may be called in. The question sessions are held in public, and a stenographic record of the proceedings is published. Finally, the committee prepares and publishes a report, which may suggest changes in the way things have been done. Some reports are discussed in the press or debated in the House, and some have some real influence – partly because committee members usually forget about their parties in this work. But in their constituencies MPs get more reward for ideological vigour than for less glamorous work in committees.

Exercise 10. Translate the sentences.

1. This university is Britain's premier university. 2. This is Europe's premier port. 3. He is the first deputy premier. 4. The leader of the government of a country is sometimes referred to as the country's premier. 5. Premier is used to describe something that is considered to be the best or most important thing of a particular type.Premiership is the position of a Prime Minister or other head of government.

HISTORY OF THE PREMIERSHIP

The *Prime Minister of the UK* is the head of Her Majesty's Government in the UK. The Prime Minister (PM) and Cabinet (consisting of all the most senior ministers, most of whom are government department heads) are collectively accountable for their policies and actions to the Monarch, Parliament, their political party and ultimately to the electorate.

The office is one of the Great Offices of State. The current holder of the office, Theresa May, leader of the Conservative Party, was appointed by the Queen on 13 July 2016.

The office is not established by any constitution or law but exists only by long-established convention, which stipulates that the monarch must appoint as Prime Minister the person most likely to command the confidence of the House of Commons; this individual is typically the leader of the political party or coalition of parties that holds the largest number of seats in that chamber.

The position of Prime Minister was not created; it evolved slowly and erratically over 300 years due to numerous acts of Parliament, political developments, and accidents of history.

The office is therefore best understood from a historical perspective. The origins of the position are found in constitutional changes that occurred during the Revolutionary Settlement (1688-1720) and the resulting shift of political power from the Sovereign to Parliament.

Although the Sovereign was not stripped of the ancient prerogative powers and legally remained the head of government, politically it gradually became necessary for him or her to govern through a Prime Minister who could command a majority in Parliament.

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

Prior to 1902, the Prime Minister sometimes came from the House of Lords, provided that his government could form a majority in the Commons. However as the power of the aristocracy waned during the 19th century the convention developed that the Prime Minister should always sit in the lower house. As leader of the House of Commons, the Prime Minister's authority was further enhanced by the Parliament Act of 1911 that marginalised the influence of the House of Lords in the law-making process. The PM is *ex officio* also First Lord of the Treasury and Minister for the Civil Service.

Certain privileges, such as residency of 10 Downing Street, are accorded to Prime Ministers by virtue of their position as First Lord of the Treasury. As the "Head of Her Majesty's Government», the modern Prime Minister leads the Cabinet (the Executive). In addition, the Prime Minister leads a major political party and generally commands a majority in the House of Commons (the lower house of the legislature). As such, the incumbent wields both legislative and executive powers. Under the British system, there is a unity of powers rather than separation.

In the House of Commons, the Prime Minister guides the law-making process with the goal of enacting the legislative agenda of their political party. In an executive capacity the Prime Minister appoints (dismiss) all other cabinet members and ministers, and co-ordinates the policies and activities of all government departments, and the staff of the Civil Service. The Prime Minister also acts as the public "face" and "voice" of Her Majesty's Government, both at home and abroad. Solely upon the advice of the Prime Minister, the Sovereign exercises many statutory and prerogative powers, including high judicial, political, official and Church of England ecclesiastical appointments; the conferral of peerages, knighthoods, decorations and other honours.

Exercise 1. Give a short annotation on the information above.

CONSTITUTIONAL BACHGROUND

The British system of government is based on an uncodified constitution, meaning that it is not set out in any single document. The British constitution consists of many documents most importantly for the evolution of the office of Prime Minister; it is based on customs known as constitutional conventions that became accepted practice.

In 1928, Prime Minister H. H. Asquith described this characteristic of the British constitution in his memoirs: In this country we live ... under an unwritten Constitution. It is true that we have on the Statute-book great instruments like Magna Carta, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights which define and secure many of our rights and privileges; but the great bulk of our constitutional liberties and ... our constitutional practices do not derive their validity and sanction from any Bill which has received the formal assent of the King, Lords and Commons.

They rest on usage, custom, convention, often of slow growth in their early stages, not always uniform, but which in the course of time received universal observance and respect.

The relationships between the Prime Minister and the Sovereign, Parliament and Cabinet are defined largely by these unwritten conventions of the constitution.

Many of the Prime Minister's executive and legislative powers are actually royal prerogatives which are still formally vested in the Sovereign, who remains the head of state. Despite its growing dominance in the constitutional hierarchy, the Premiership was given little formal recognition until the 20th century; the legal fiction was maintained that the Sovereign still governed directly.

The position was first mentioned in statute only in 1917, in the schedule of the Chequers Estate Act. Increasingly during the 20th century, the office and role of Prime Minister featured in statute law and official documents; however, the Prime Minister's powers and relationships with other institutions still largely continue to derive from ancient royal prerogatives and historic and modern constitutional conventions.

Prime Ministers continue to hold the position of First Lord of the Treasury and, since 1968, that of Minister for the Civil Service, the latter giving them authority over the civil service.

Under this arrangement, Britain might appear to have two executives: the Prime Minister and the Sovereign. The concept of "the Crown" resolves this paradox. The Crown symbolises the state's authority to govern: to make laws and execute them, impose taxes and collect them, declare war and make peace. Before the "Glorious Revolution" of 1688, the Sovereign exclusively wielded the powers of the Crown; afterwards, Parliament gradually forced monarchs to assume a neutral political position.

Parliament has effectively dispersed the powers of the Crown, entrusting its authority to responsible ministers (the Prime Minister and Cabinet), accountable for their policies and actions to Parliament, in particular the elected House of Commons. Although many of the Sovereign's prerogative powers are still legally intact, constitutional conventions have removed the monarch from day-to-day governance, with ministers exercising the royal prerogatives, leaving the monarch in practice with three constitutional rights: to be kept informed, advise, and warn.

Exercise 1. Summarize the information above.

Exercise 2. Translate the sentences.

1. The premiership of a leader of a government is the period of time during which they are the leader. 2. The final years of M. Thatcher's premiership were very successful. 3. So far, his premiership has been dominated by crisis-management.

Exercise 3. Analyze the text above and make up the chart about the premiership.

№	Positive features	Negative features

REVOLUTIONARY SETTLEMENT

Because the Premiership wasn't intentionally created, there is no exact date when its evolution began. A meaningful starting point, however, is 1688-9 when James II fled England and the Parliament of England confirmed William and Mary as joint constitutional monarchs, enacting legislation that limited their authority and that of their successors: the Bill of Rights (1689), the Mutiny Bill (1689), the Triennial Bill (1694), the Treason Act (1696) and the Act of Settlement (1701).

Known collectively as the Revolutionary Settlement, these acts transformed the constitution, shifting the balance of power from the Sovereign to Parliament. They also provided the basis for the evolution of the office of Prime Minister, which did not exist at that time.

Late in the 17th century, Treasury Ministers began to attend the Commons regularly. They were given a reserved place, called the Treasury Bench, to the Speaker's right where the Prime Minister and senior Cabinet members sit today.

The Revolutionary Settlement gave the Commons control over finances and legislation and changed the relationship between the Executive and the Legislature. For want of money, Sovereigns had to summon Parliament annually and could no longer dissolve or prorogue it without its advice and consent. Parliament became a permanent feature of political life. The veto fell into disuse because Sovereigns feared that if they denied legislation, Parliament would deny them money. No Sovereign has denied royal assent since Queen Anne vetoed the Scottish Militia Bill in 1708.

Treasury officials and other department heads were drawn into Parliament serving as liaisons between it and the Sovereign. Ministers had to present the government's policies, and negotiate with Members to gain the support of the majority; they had to explain the government's financial needs, suggest ways of meeting them and give an account of how money had been spent.

The Sovereign's representatives attended Commons sessions so regularly that they were given reserved seats at the front, known as the Treasury Bench. This is the beginning of "unity of powers": the Sovereign's Ministers (the Executive) became leading members of Parliament (the Legislature).

Today the Prime Minister (First Lord of the Treasury), the Chancellor of the Exchequer (responsible for The Budget) and other senior members of the Cabinet sit on the Treasury bench and present policies in much the same way Ministers did late in the 17th century. After the Revolution, there was a constant threat that non-government members of Parliament would ruin the country's finances by proposing ill-considered money bills. Vying for control to avoid chaos, the Crown's Ministers gained an advantage in 1706, when the Commons informally declared, "That this House will receive no petition for any sum of money relating to public Service, but what is recommended from the Crown."

On 11 June 1713, this non-binding rule became *Standing Order 66*: that "the Commons would not vote money for any purpose, except on a motion of a Minister of the Crown." Standing Order 66 remains in effect today, essentially unchanged for 300 years. Empowering Ministers with sole financial initiative had an immediate and lasting impact. Apart from achieving its intended purpose – to stabilise the budgetary process – it gave the Crown a leadership role in the Commons; the Lord Treasurer assumed a leading position among Ministers. The power of financial initiative was not, however, absolute. Only Ministers might initiate money bills, but Parliament now reviewed and consented to them. Standing Order 66 therefore represents the beginnings of Ministerial responsibility and accountability.

The term "Prime Minister" appears at this time as an unofficial title for the leader of the government, usually the head of the Treasury. Jonathan Swift, for example, wrote in 1713 about "those who are now commonly called Prime Minister among us", referring to Sidney Godolphin, 1st Earl of Godolphin and Robert Harley, Queen Anne's Lord Treasurers and chief ministers. Since 1721, every head of the Sovereign's government – with one exception in the 18th century (William Pitt the Elder) and one in the 19th (Lord Salisbury) – has been First Lord of the Treasury.

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

BEGINNINGS OF THE PM'S PARTY LEADERSHIP

Political parties first appeared during the Exclusion Crisis of 1678-1681. The Whigs, who believed in limited monarchy, wanted to exclude James Stuart from succeeding to the throne because he was a Catholic. The Tories, who believed in the "Divine Right of Kings", defended James' hereditary claim. Political parties were not well organised or disciplined in the 17th century.

They were more like factions with "members" drifting in and out, collaborating temporarily on issues when it was to their advantage, and then disbanding when it was not. A major deterrent to the development of opposing parties was the idea that there could only be one "King's Party" and to oppose it would be disloyal or even treasonous. This idea lingered throughout the 18th century.

Nevertheless, it became possible at the end of the 17th century to identify Parliaments and Ministries as being either "Whig" or "Tory" in composition.

The modern Prime Minister is also the leader of the Cabinet. A convention of the constitution, the modern Cabinet is a group of ministers who formulate policies.

As the political heads of government departments Cabinet Ministers ensure that permanent civil servants carry out policies. Although the modern Prime Minister selects Ministers, appointment still rests with the Sovereign. With the Prime Minister as its leader, the Cabinet forms the executive branch of government. The term "Cabinet" first appears after the Revolutionary Settlement to describe those ministers who conferred privately with the Sovereign.

The growth of the Cabinet met with widespread complaint and opposition because its meetings were often held in secret and it excluded the ancient Privy Council (of which the Cabinet is formally a committee) from the Sovereign's circle of advisers, reducing it to an honorary body.

The early Cabinet, like that of today, included the Treasurer and other department heads who sat on the Treasury bench. However, it might also include individuals who were not members of Parliament such as household officers (the Master of the Horse) and members of the royal family.

The exclusion of non-members of Parliament from the Cabinet was essential to the development of ministerial accountability and responsibility.

Both William and Anne appointed and dismissed Cabinet members, attended meetings, made decisions, and followed up on actions. Relieving the Sovereign of these responsibilities and gaining control over the Cabinet's composition was an essential part of evolution of the Premiership.

This process began after the Hanoverian Succession. Although George I (1714-1727) attended Cabinet meetings at first, after 1717 he withdrew because he did not speak fluent English and was bored with the discussions. George II (1727-1760) occasionally presided at Cabinet meetings but his grandson, George III (1760-1820), is known to have attended only two during his 60-year reign.

Thus, the convention that Sovereigns do not attend Cabinet meetings was established primarily through royal indifference to the everyday tasks of governance. The Prime Minister became responsible for calling meetings, presiding, taking notes, and reporting to the Sovereign. These simple executive tasks naturally gave the Prime Minister ascendancy over his Cabinet colleagues.

Although the first three Hanoverians rarely attended Cabinet meetings they insisted on their prerogatives to appoint and dismiss ministers and to direct policy even if from outside the Cabinet. It was not until late in the 18th century that Prime Ministers gained control over Cabinet.

Exercise 1. Comment the given details about British Premiership.

Exercise 2. Analyze the text above and make up the chart about the beginnings.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

Exercise 3. Read and translate the text on «Treasury Commission».

The Premiership is still largely a convention of the constitution; its legal authority is derived primarily from the fact that the Prime Minister is also First Lord of the Treasury.

The connection of these two offices – one a convention, the other a legal office – began with the Hanoverian Succession in 1714. When George I succeeded to the British throne in 1714, his German ministers advised him to leave the office of Lord High Treasurer vacant because those who had held it in recent years had grown overly powerful, in effect, replacing the Sovereign as head of the government.

They also feared that a Lord High Treasurer would undermine their own influence with the new King. They therefore suggested that he place the office in "commission", meaning that a committee of five ministers would perform its functions together. Theoretically, this dilution of authority would prevent any one of them from presuming to be the head of the government.

The King agreed and created the Treasury Commission consisting of the First Lord of the Treasury, the Second Lord, and three Junior Lords. No one has been appointed Lord High Treasurer since 1714; it has remained in commission for 300 years. The Treasury Commission ceased to meet late in the 18th century but has survived, albeit with very different functions: the First Lord of the Treasury is now the Prime Minister, the Second Lord is the Chancellor of the Exchequer (actually in charge of the Treasury), and the Junior Lords are government Whipsmaintaining party discipline in the House of Commons; they no longer have any duties related to the Treasury, though when subordinate legislation requires the consent of the Treasury it is still two of the Junior Lords who sign on its behalf.

Exercise 4. Remember that.

premier ['premɪə] – премьер, премьер-министр;

premiership ['premɪəʃɪp] – премьерство, положение или должность премьер-министра;

to appoint smb to the premiership – назначать кого-л. премьер-министром;

to relinquish the premiership – отказываться от должности премьер-министра;

to restore smb to premiership – восстанавливать кого-л. на посту премьер-министра;

to tear the premiership in half – разделять срок пребывания на посту премьер-министра на два срока (Израиль);

Britain's premier university – самый лучший университет Великобритании;

Europe's premier port – важнейший порт Европы;

first deputy premier – первый заместитель премьер-министра.

Exercise 5. Try to compare the synonyms of the word (adjective) "premier".

Leading, foremost, chief, principal, head, top-ranking, top, prime, primary, first, highest, preeminent, nonpareil, senior, outstanding, master, ranking; informal: top-notch, blue-ribbon, blue-chip.

Exercise 6. Make the sentences below as true (T) if they give the message of the text, and false (F) if they change the message.

1. Political parties first appeared in 1678-1681. 2. Political parties were well organised or disciplined in the 17th century. 3. A major deterrent to the development of opposing parties was the idea that there could only be one "King's Party". 4. Some consider that to oppose "King's Party" would be disloyal or even treasonous. 5. This idea lingered throughout the 19th century. 6. It became possible at the end of the 18th century to identify Parliaments and Ministries as being either "Whig" or "Tory" in composition. 7. The modern Prime Minister is not the leader of the Cabinet. 8. A convention of the constitution, the modern Cabinet is not a group of ministers who formulate policies. 9. With the Prime Minister as its leader, the Cabinet forms the executive branch of government. 10. The Prime Minister became responsible for calling meetings, presiding, taking notes, and reporting to the Sovereign. 11. It was not until late in the 19th century that Prime Ministers gained control over Cabinet. 12. the first three Hanoverians insisted on their prerogatives to appoint and dismiss ministers.

THE CABINET & THE PRIME MINISTER

Lord Grey, often called the first modern Prime Minister.

The modern Prime Minister is the leader of a major political party with mlns of followers. Generally agreeing on policies, party leaders and their supporters usually suppress their differences of opinion at the polls for the sake of gaining a majority of seats in the Commons and being able to form a government. Political parties first appeared during the Exclusion Crisis of 1678-1681.

The Whigs, who believed in limited monarchy, wanted to exclude James Stuart from succeeding to the throne because he was a Catholic. The Tories, who believed in the "Divine Right of Kings", defended James' hereditary claim. These parties dominated British politics for over 150 years, with the Whigs evolving into the Liberal Party and the Tories into the Conservative. Even today, Conservatives are often called "Tories". Political parties were not well organized or disciplined in the 17th century. They were more like factions with "members" drifting in and out, collaborating temporarily on issues when it was to their advantage, and then disbanding when it was not.

A major deterrent to the development of opposing parties was the idea that there could only be one "King's Party" and to oppose it would be disloyal or even treasonous. This idea lingered throughout the 18th century. Nevertheless it became possible at the end of the 17th century to identify Parliaments and Ministries as being either "Whig" or "Tory" in composition.

The term "Cabinet" first appears after the Revolutionary Settlement to describe those ministers who conferred privately with the Sovereign. The growth of the Cabinet met with widespread complaint and opposition because its meetings were often held in secret and it excluded the ancient Privy Council from the Sovereign's circle of advisers, reducing it to an honorary body.

Relieving the Sovereign of these responsibilities and gaining control over the Cabinet's composition was an essential part of evolution of the Premiership.

Exercise 1. Translate phrases and words into your native language.

Minister, to accredit a minister, foreign minister, Prime Minister, minister plenipotentiary, minister without portfolio, to minister to the sick, Minister of Defence, Minister of War, Minister for Foreign Affairs, Minister of Finance, cabinet minister, government minister, the ministers, minister extraordinary and plenipotentiary, minister in charge, minister in no charge, minister in the Commons, minister residentiary, minister with portfolio, junior minister, minister of justice, minister of state, non-cabinet minister, public minister, shadow minister, non-departmental minister, minister of vengeance.

Exercise 2. Analyze the activity of the Prime Minister and make up the chart about it.

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

Exercise 3. Remember that.

Prime Minister – the head of an elected parliamentary government; the principal (chief) minister of state. In current use, the terms Premier and Prime Minister refer to the same office in Britain, but in Canada & Australia the government of a province or state is headed by a Premier, that of the federal government by a Prime Minister. In France, where the President has an executive function, the Prime Minister is in a subordinate position. There are four living former British Prime Ministers.

Exercise 4. Read the text and use the words in the brackets in the correct form.

Some organisation had to be (FIND) 1)____which would enable the king and the majority in Parliament to work smoothly together. This organisation was the cabinet system. The origin of the Cabinet is to be (FIND) 2) ____ in the small group of people who (FORM) 3) ____the King's Council.

During the Middle Ages these great officers of state – the Chancellor, the Treasurer, the Marshall, the Constable (chief officer of the Household), and others – (BE) 4) ____ bishops or great nobles. Some of these officers were (CHOOSE) 5) ____ by the king, amongst them being the Chancellor and Treasurer. But, others, (INCLUDE) 6) ____ the Marshal and Constable, (INHERITE) 7) ____ their positions without the king having any say in the matter. All were men of great power and authority in their own right. This type of Council or Privy Council, as it came to be (CALL) 8) ____lasted as long as the king was still the senior partner in the partnership between king and Parliament. But after the victory of Parliament it (BEGIN) 9) ____ to develop rapidly into the Cabinet Council. Charles II found the Privy Council, which had (GROW) 10) ____ to some fifty members, too large and cumbersome; he (PREFER) 11) ____a more intimate gathering of some five or six men, the holders of the great offices of state, who could meet in a small room or cabinet. This small council (COME) 12) ____to be called the Cabinet Council or, for short, Cabinet. Thus in our present-day constitution the king or queen, as the head of the state, (SEE) 13) ____that a ministry is formed by the party with a majority in the Commons. The government is (CARRY) 14) ____ on in the Queen's name, but she has no control over what the ministry (DO) 15) ____ in her name so long as it has the support of a majority in the Commons.

Exercise 5. Try to translate in English.

Премьер-министр (глава исполнительной власти в Японии, Ирландии, Великобритании; в Великобритании, согласно конституционным конвенциям: определяет национальную политику, консультируясь с кабинетом министров; состав кабинета министров и распределение министерских портфелей, кабинет министров выбирается из членов парламента и пэров, поддерживающих правящую партию; совместно с кабинетом министров и правительством несет коллективную ответственность перед палатой общин за проведение национальной политики и обязан подать в отставку, если голосование за доверие правительству окажется не в его пользу; собирает заседания кабинета министров, определяет их повестку дня; число, предмет ведения и состав комитетов кабинета).

| John Major (74) | Tony Blair (64) | Gordon Brown (66) | David Cameron (50) |
| (1990-1997) | (1997-2007) | (2007-2010) | (2010-2016) |

THE QUEEN & HER PRIME MINISTERS 1952-2012

Upon retirement, it is customary for the Sovereign to grant a Prime Minister some honour or dignity. The honour bestowed is commonly, but not invariably, membership of the UK's most senior order of chivalry, the Order of the Garter. The practice of creating a retired Prime Minister a Knight (Margaret Thatcher, a Lady) of the Garter (KG and LG respectively) has been fairly prevalent since the mid-19th century. On the retirement of a Prime Minister who is Scottish, it is likely that the primarily Scottish honour of Knight of the Thistle (KT) will be used instead of the Order of the Garter, which is generally regarded as an English honour.

Historically it has also been common for Prime Ministers to be granted a peerage upon retirement from the Commons, which elevates the individual to the House of Lords. Formerly, the peerage bestowed was usually an earldom, with Churchill offered a dUKedom.

From the 1960s onward, life peerages were preferred, although in 1984 Harold Macmillan was created Earl of Stockton. Sir Alec Douglas-Home, Harold Wilson, James Callaghan and Margaret Thatcher accepted life peerages, although Douglas-Home had previously disclaimed his hereditary title as Earl of Home. Edward Heath did not accept a peerage of any kind and nor have any of the Prime Ministers to retire since 1990; although Heath and John Major were later appointed as Knights of the Garter.

The most recent Prime Minister to die was Margaret Thatcher (served 1979-1990) in 2013, aged 87. She revered one Prime Minister, thought another dull and one was 'mad'. As David Cameron enthuses about their relationship, how have the monarch and her leaders got on?

Winston Churchill (1951-55)

When the Queen ascended the throne in 1952 her first Prime Minister Winston Churchill was worried. "How can I adapt to her after serving her father for seven years?" he asked his private secretary Sir John Colville anxiously. "I don't know her. She's a mere child."

The 25-year-old Queen was equally nervous, revering the great man's war-hero credentials but by the time he left office three years later they got on famously. He instructed the new Queen in the ways of politics while their customary 30-minute weekly meetings often swelled to two hours as they discussed horse-racing alongside state matters. One courtier described 77-year-old Churchill coming away from his audiences "purring". Colville later wrote: "He was an old man whose passions were spent but there is no doubt that at a respectful distance he fell in love with the Queen."

Anthony Eden (1955-57)

While Churchill's successor was surprised by the Queen's wide reaching knowledge of the Commonwealth, she didn't return the favour. One former palace aide told royal biographer Ben Pimlott: "I think the Queen believed Eden was mad." When Eden opted to invade Egypt during the Suez crisis her belief was no doubt crystallised. She had gently cautioned him against the disastrous military action that ended up destroying his career.

Harold Macmillan (1957-63)

Macmillan, an Old Etonian ex-Guardsman who was married to the DUKe of Devonshire's daughter, was one of the Queen's favourite politicians and he in turn gushed about the monarch.

Professing himself "astonished by her grasp of detail", the new premier wrote in his diary: "The Queen is not only very charming but incredibly well informed." Perhaps partly because of his personal loneliness (his wife had a long-standing affair) he relished his meetings with the Queen and took to reading papers to her at such length that he had to be restrained by his private secretary. It's a mark of her affection for him that when poor health landed him in hospital, she sent a bottle of champagne and the note: My dear Prime Minister, I have just returned this morning from Scotland and I send you this small "reviver" with all my good wishes for a speedy and complete recovery and I hope it will make you feel much better!" She visited his bedside for their final audience before he resigned.

Alec Douglas-Home (1963-64)

From hospital Macmillan had controversially offered the Queen advice on his successor, urging the 14th Earl of Home. The Queen was happy to go along with his suggestion as she knew the family well. They were Scottish aristocrats and neighbours of her mother's family the Bowes-Lyons. "She loved Alec – he was an old friend", said one aide. "They talked about dogs and shooting together. They were the same sort of people." He renounced his peerage to take up the post.

Harold Wilson (1964-70, 74-76)

Wilson was the first Labour PM of the Queen's reign and the pair formed a surprise friendship, with Wilson providing the Queen with a window on her ordinary subjects – something his aristocratic predecessor could not do. Their meetings became relaxed affairs and he famously described his visits as "going to see mother". "Harold was very fond of her and she reciprocated it", said Labour Cabinet minister Barbara Castle. "He made her feel at ease and kept her well-informed."

Edward Heath (1970-74)

Not good at small talk or speaking to women, Ted Heath failed to charm Her Majesty and their meetings were cool. As one former courtier said: "Ted was tricky – she was never comfortable with him." Heath also had little interest in the Queen's beloved Commonwealth and she thought him dull.

According to John Major, during a 2002 Buckingham Palace dinner held for the Queen and all her surviving Prime Ministers, Heath dozed off.

Jim Callaghan (1976-79)

Callaghan was another Labour premier with whom the Queen got on famously – although he took his duty of trust so seriously that he would not even tell the Queen's private secretary what they talked about. He said she offered him "friendliness but not friendship" but the pair were also said to have indulged in flirtatious banter. In a Golden Jubilee interview with David Frost he recalled one occasion when he couldn't make up his mind about an issue and asked her what she thought. He said she replied with a twinkle in her eye: "That's what you're paid for."

Margaret Thatcher (1979-90)

She was the only female Prime Minister and the one closest to the Queen's age but that did not mean they got on. Relations were famously stiff and the Queen was said to refer to her as "that woman". The problem was not lack of respect – nobody would curtsey lower, it was said – but the Queen was a traditionalist while her Prime Minister wanted to change everything.

Neither did Mrs Thatcher share the monarch's passion for the outdoors – on the last day of a trip to Balmoral her cases would be packed long before leaving time. The Queen made little secret of her fury when the US invaded the Commonwealth island of Grenada on Mrs Thatcher's watch.

John Major (1990-97)

The Queen was much more relaxed with Major and he said their audiences were far more comfortable than he had imagined. The often derided premier and his wife Norma came to value their Balmoral trips, enjoying relaxed barbecues with the Queen and Prince Philip.

By the time of Major's defeat they had come to regard each other as good friends, not least because they had each had a terrible few years (she with the Windsor fire and the collapse of her children's marriages, he with the infighting in his party). When he tendered his resignation on the morning after the 1997 election both Major and the Queen were moved. According to royal biographer William Shawcross, she put his defeat into the perspective of decades.

Tony Blair (1997-2007)

At the dawn of the New Labour era Blair publicly told the Queen he was "as proud as proud can be to be your Prime Minister" but their relationship was disastrous. She declined his offer to call him Tony and there was a cultural gap between the Blairsю

They were mesmerised by ostentatious wealth, and a monarch who eats her breakfast cereal from Tupperware. On a political level Blair cared little for details, constitutional niceties or the lessons of history, all of which the Queen passionately valued. She thought he was too chummy with George W Bush at the expense of the Commonwealth and was "surprised", palace-speak for "offended", when he changed the day of their weekly audiences. We can only imagine what she thought of his memoirs in which he revealed their private conversations to the public.

Gordon Brown (2007-10)

After the bling-loving Blairs, son-of-the-manse Brown was more in tune with the Queen's Tupperware tastes and was careful to observe protocol. His wife Sarah made a point of curtseying (unlike Cherie Blair). However, none of that was enough to secure Brown an invitation to Prince William's wedding. Both he and Tony Blair were left off the list, unlike two other former premiers, Baroness Thatcher and Sir John Major. Was the snub a protest at equipment shortages for troops in Afghanistan, about which the Queen was furious, or delayed royal revenge for New Labour's scrapping of the Royal Yacht Britannia?

David Cameron (2010-2016)

It's too early to know much about the relationship between the monarch and the current Prime Minister but they are culturally of a mind – Cameron enjoys shooting in Scotland which is a fast way into the Queen's affections – and they are also related: he is a direct descendant of King William IV, the Queen's great-great-great-uncle.

Downing Street is a street in London, UK, known for housing the official residences and offices of the Prime Minister and the Chancellor of the Exchequer. "Downing Street" is used as a metonym for the Government of the UK. Downing Street is off Whitehall in central London, a few minutes' walk from the Houses of Parliament and a little further from Buckingham Palace. The street was built in the 1680s by Sir George Downing. The houses on the south side of the street were demolished in the 19th century to make way for government offices now occupied by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office. For more than 300 years, it has held the official residences of the First Lord of the Treasury, an office now synonymous with that of Prime Minister, and the Second Lord of the Treasury, an office held by the Chancellor of the Exchequer. The Prime Minister's official residence is 10 Downing Street; the Chancellor's official residence is next door at Number 11. The government's Chief Whip has an official residence at Number 12, although the current Chief Whip's residence is at Number 9.

Exercise 1. Digest the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Translate the words and phrases with the keyword «*ministerial*».

Ministerial (cheers, cries, salaries, conference, officer, responsibility, act, appointment, duty, functions, inquiry, level talks, office, post, procedure, tribunal,), mini-ministerial meeting, ministerialist, ministership, ministry, the Ministry of (Justice, Health, Foreign Affairs, External Affairs, Home Affairs, Pensions and National Insurance, Defence Housing and Construction); responsible ministry, service ministry; to enter the ministry; during the Wilson ministry.

Exercise 3. Try to understand the notion.

In Britain and some other countries, a ministry is a government department, which deals with a particular thing, or area of activity, for example trade, defence, or transport. The ministry of a religious person is the work that they do that is based on or inspired by their religious beliefs. Members of the clergy belonging to some branches of the Christian church are referred to as the ministry.

Exercise 4. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 5. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 6. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

«FIRST» PRIME MINISTERS

Since the office evolved rather than being instantly created, it may not be totally clear-cut who was the first Prime Minister. However, this appellation is traditionally given to *Sir Robert Walpole*, who became First Lord of the Treasury in 1721. In 1720, the South Sea Company, created to trade in cotton, agricultural goods and slaves, collapsed, causing the financial ruin of thousands of investors and heavy losses for many others, including members of the royal family.

King George I called on Robert Walpole, well known for his political and financial acumen, to handle the emergency. With considerable skill and some luck, Walpole acted quickly to restore public credit and confidence, and led the country out of the crisis. A year later, the King appointed him First Lord of the Treasury, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Leader of the House of Commons – making him the most powerful minister in the government.

Ruthless, crude, and hard working, he had a "sagacious business sense" and was a superb manager of men. At the head of affairs for the next two decades, Walpole stabilised the nation's finances, kept it at peace, made it prosperous, and secured the Hanoverian Succession.

Walpole demonstrated for the first time how a chief minister – a Prime Minister – could be the actual Head of the Government under the new constitutional framework. First, recognising that the Sovereign could no longer govern directly but was still the nominal head of the government, he insisted that he was nothing more than the "King's Servant".

Second, recognising that power had shifted to the Commons, he conducted the nation's business there and made it dominant over the Lords in all matters. Third, recognising that the Cabinet had become the executive and must be united, he dominated the other members and demanded their complete support for his policies. Fourth, recognising that political parties were the source of ministerial strength, he led the Whig party and maintained discipline. In the Commons, he insisted on the support of all Whig members, especially those who held office. Finally, he set an example for future Prime Ministers by resigning his offices in 1742 after a vote of confidence, which he won by just 3 votes. The slimness of this majority undermined his power, even though he still retained the confidence of the Sovereign.
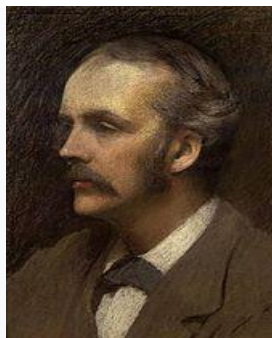
For all his contributions, Walpole was not a Prime Minister in the modern sense. The King – not Parliament – chose him; and the King – not Walpole – chose the Cabinet. Walpole set an example, not a precedent, and few followed his example. For over 40 years after Walpole's fall in 1742, there was widespread ambivalence about the position. In some cases, the Prime Minister was a figurehead with power being wielded by other individuals; in others there was a reversion to the "chief minister" model of earlier times in which the Sovereign actually governed. During Britain's participation in the Seven Years' War, for example, the powers of government were divided equally between the DUKe of Newcastle and William Pitt, 1st Earl of Chatham, leading to them both alternatively being described as Prime Minister. Furthermore, many thought that the title "Prime Minister" usurped the Sovereign's constitutional position as "head of the government" and that it was an affront to other ministers because they were all appointed by and equally responsible to the Sovereign.

| Sir Robert Walpole | George Grenville | Arthur Balfour | Lord Lansdowne |

For these reasons, there was a reluctance to use the title. Although Walpole is now called the "first" Prime Minister, the title was not commonly used during his tenure. Walpole himself denied it. In 1741, during the attack that led to Walpole's downfall, Samuel Sandys declared that "According to our Constitution we can have no sole and Prime Minister."

In his defence, Walpole said "I unequivocally deny that I am sole or Prime Minister and that to my influence and direction all the affairs of government must be attributed."

George Grenville, Prime Minister in the 1760s, said it was "an odious title" and never used it. Lord North, the reluctant head of the King's Government during the American War of Independence, "would never suffer himself to be called Prime Minister, because it was an office unknown to the Constitution." Denials of the Premiership's legal existence continued throughout the 19th century.

In 1806, for example, one member of the Commons said, "the Constitution abhors the idea of a Prime Minister". In 1829, Lord Lansdowne said, "nothing could be more mischievous or unconstitutional than to recognise by act of parliament the existence of such an office."

By the turn of the 20th century, the Premiership had become, by convention, the most important position in the constitutional hierarchy. Yet there were no legal documents describing its powers or acknowledging its existence. The first official recognition given to the office had only been in the Treaty of Berlin in 1878, when Disraeli signed as "First Lord of the Treasury and Prime Minister of her Britannic Majesty". Incumbents had no statutory authority in their own right.

As late as 1904, Arthur Balfour explained the status of his office in a speech at Haddington: "The Prime Minister has no salary as Prime Minister. He has no statutory duties as Prime Minister, his name occurs in no Acts of Parliament, and though holding the most important place in the constitutional hierarchy, he has no place which is recognised by the laws of his country. This is a strange paradox."

In 1905 the position was given some official recognition when the "Prime Minister" was named in the order of precedence, outranked, among non-royals, only by the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, the Moderator of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland and the Lord Chancellor.

The first Act of Parliament to mention the Premiership – albeit in a schedule – was the Chequers Estate Act on 20 December 1917. This law conferred the Chequers Estate owned by Sir Arthur and Lady Lee, as a gift to the Crown for the use as a country home for future Prime Ministers.

Unequivocal legal recognition was given in the Ministers of the Crown Act 1937, which made provision for payment of a salary to the person who is both "the First Lord of the Treasury and Prime Minister". Explicitly recognising 200 years' of ambivalence, the Act states that it intended "To give statutory recognition to the existence of the position of Prime Minister, and to the historic link between the Premiership and the office of First Lord of the Treasury, by providing in respect to that position and office a salary of ...". The Act made a distinction between the "position" (Prime Minister) and the "office" (First Lord of the Treasury), emphasising the unique political character of the former.

Nevertheless, the brass plate on the door of the Prime Minister's home, 10 Downing Street, still bears the title of "First Lord of the Treasury", as it has since the 18th century as it is officially the home of the First Lord and not the Prime Minister.

Exercise 1. Try to compare the synonyms of the word (noun) "premier".

Leader, head of government, government leader; president, chancellor, Prime Minister, PM.

Exercise 2. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.

№	Activity			
	Prime Minister	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

THE EMERGENCE OF CABINET GOVERNMENT

Despite the reluctance to legally recognise the Premiership, ambivalence toward it waned in the 1780s. During the first 20 years of his reign, George III (1760-1820) tried to be his own "Prime Minister" by controlling policy from outside the Cabinet, appointing and dismissing ministers, meeting privately with individual ministers, and giving them instructions.

These practices caused confusion and dissension in Cabinet meetings; King George's experiment in personal rule was generally a failure. After the failure of Lord North's ministry (1770-1782) in March 1782 due to Britain's defeat in the American Revolutionary War and the ensuing vote of no confidence by Parliament, the Marquess of Rockingham reasserted the Prime Minister's control over the Cabinet.

Rockingham assumed the Premiership "on the distinct understanding that measures were to be changed as well as men; and that the measures for which the new ministry required the royal consent were the measures which they, while in opposition, had advocated." He and his Cabinet were united in their policies and would stand or fall together; they also refused to accept anyone in the Cabinet who did not agree. King George threatened to abdicate but in the end reluctantly agreed out of necessity: he had to have a government. From this time, there was a growing acceptance of the position of Prime Minister and the title was more commonly used, if only unofficially.

Associated initially with the Whigs, the Tories started to accept it. Lord North, for example, who had said the office was "unknown to the constitution", reversed himself in 1783 when he said, "In this country some body of men like a Cabinet should govern the whole and direct every measure."

In 1803, William Pitt the Younger, also a Tory, suggested to a friend that "this person generally called the first minister" was an absolute necessity for a government to function, and expressed his belief that this person should be the minister in charge of the finances.

Pitt's 19 years as Prime Minister followed by Lord Liverpool's 15, led the Tory Party to accept the office as a convention of the constitution. The Tories' wholesale conversion started when Pitt was confirmed as Prime Minister in the election of 1784. For the next 17 years until 1801 (again from 1804 to 1806), Pitt, the Tory, was Prime Minister in the same sense that Walpole, the Whig, had been earlier. Their conversion was reinforced after 1810. In that year, George III, who had suffered periodically from mental instability (due to a blood disorder now known as porphyria), became permanently insane and spent the remaining 10 years of his life unable to discharge his duties.

The Prince Regent was prevented from using the full powers of Kingship. The Regent became George IV in 1820, but during his 10-year reign was indolent and frivolous. Consequently, for 20 years the throne was virtually vacant and Tory Cabinets led by Tory Prime Ministers filled the void, governing virtually on their own. The Tories were in power for almost 50 years, except for a Whig ministry from 1806 to 1807. Lord Liverpool was Prime Minister for 15 years; he and Pitt held the position for 34 years. Under their long, consistent leadership, Cabinet government became a convention of the constitution.

Although subtle issues remained to be settled, the Cabinet system of government is essentially the same today as it was in 1830.

Under this form of government, called the *Westminster system*, the Sovereign is head of state and titular head of Her Majesty's Government. She selects as her Prime Minister the person who is able to command a working majority in the House of Commons, and invites him or her to form a government.

As the actual Head of Government, the Prime Minister selects his Cabinet, choosing its members from among those in Parliament who agree or generally agree with his intended policies. He then recommends them to the Sovereign who confirms his selections by formally appointing them to their offices.

Led by the Prime Minister, the Cabinet is collectively responsible for whatever the government does. The Sovereign does not confer with members privately about policy, nor attend Cabinet meetings.

With respect to actual governance, the monarch has only three constitutional rights: to be kept informed, advise, and warn.

In practice, this means that the Sovereign reviews state papers and meets regularly with the Prime Minister, usually weekly, when she may advise and warn him or her regarding the proposed decisions and actions of Her Government. The modern British system includes not only a government formed by the majority party (or coalition of parties) in the House of Commons but also an organised and open opposition formed by those who are not members of the governing party.

Called Her Majesty's Most Loyal Opposition, they occupy the benches to the Speaker's left.

Seated in the front, directly across from the ministers on the Treasury Bench, the leaders of the opposition form a "Shadow Government", complete with a salaried "Shadow Prime Minister", the Leader of the Opposition, ready to assume office if the government falls or loses the next election.

Opposing the King's government was considered disloyal, even treasonous, at the end of the 17th century. During the 18th century, this idea waned and finally disappeared as the two party system developed. The expression "His Majesty's Opposition" was coined by John Hobhouse, first Baron Broughton. In 1826, Broughton, a Whig, announced in the Commons that he opposed the report of a Bill. As a joke, he said, "It was said to be very hard on His Majesty's ministers to raise objections to this proposition. For my part, I think it is much harder on His Majesty's Opposition to compel them to take this course." The phrase caught on and has been used ever since.

Sometimes rendered as the "Loyal Opposition", it acknowledges the legitimate existence of the two party systems, and describes an important constitutional concept: opposing the government is not treason; reasonable men can honestly oppose its policies and still be loyal to the Sovereign and the nation. Informally recognized for over a century as a convention of the constitution, the position of Leader of the Opposition was given statutory recognition in 1937 by the Ministers of the Crown Act.

Exercise 1. Render the score of the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

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

Exercise 4. Try to translate the notion into English.

Вестминстерская система – это демократическая система государственного устройства, организованная по примеру Великобритании и используемая во многих странах Содружества наций: Канаде, Австралии, Сингапуре, Ирландии, Новой Зеландии и Индии.

Exercise 5. Find out the names of the participants of the Gladstone's cabinet of 1968 in the picture.

Gladstone's cabinet of 1868.

The Conservative government under Benjamin Disraeli had been defeated at the 1868 general election, so in December 1868 the victorious William Ewart Gladstone formed his first government. He introduced reforms in the British Army (including the abolition of the purchase system), the legal system (establishing the Supreme Court of Judicature) and the Civil Service, disestablished the Church of Ireland. In foreign affairs, he pursued a peaceful policy. His government was defeated in the 1874 general election, whereupon Disraeli formed a government and Gladstone retired as Leader of the Liberal Party.

William Ewart Gladstone (1809-1898) was a British Liberal political leader and earlier Conservative politician. In the career lasting over 60 years, he served as Prime Minister four separate times (1868-74, 1880-85, February-July 1886 and 1892-94), more than any other person, and served as Chancellor of the Exchequer four times. Gladstone was also Britain's oldest Prime Minister; he resigned for the final time when he was 84 years old. Gladstone first entered Parliament in 1832.

At first a Conservative minister, he later joined the Liberal Party, becoming its leader in 1867.

His ministries saw the introduction of elementary education, the passing of the Irish Land Acts and the third Reform Act, and his campaign in favour of Home Rule for Ireland. Beginning as a High Tory, Gladstone served in the Cabinet of Sir Robert Peel. After the split of the Conservatives Gladstone was a Peelite – in 1859 the Peelites merged with the Whigs and the Radicals to form the Liberal Party.

As Chancellor, Gladstone became committed to low public spending and to electoral reform, earning him the sobriquet "The People's William". Gladstone's first ministry saw many reforms including the disestablishment of the Church of Ireland and the introduction of secret voting. After his electoral defeat in 1874, Gladstone resigned as leader of the Liberal Party, but from 1876 began a comeback based on opposition to Turkey's reaction to the Bulgarian April Uprising.

Gladstone's Midlothian Campaign of 1879-80 was an early example of many modern political campaigning techniques. After the 1880 election, he formed his second ministry, which saw crises in Egypt (culminating in the death of General Gordon in 1885), in Ireland, where the government passed repressive measures but also improved the legal rights of Irish tenant farmers. The government passed the Third Reform Act. Back in office in early 1886, Gladstone proposed Irish home rule but this was defeated in the House of Commons in July. The resulting split in the Liberal Party helped keep them out of office, with one short break, for 20 years. In 1892 Gladstone formed his last government at the age of 82.

The Second Home Rule Bill passed the Commons but was defeated in the Lords in 1893. Gladstone resigned in March 1894, in opposition to increased naval expenditure. He left Parliament in 1895 and died three years later aged 88. His supporters as «The People's William» or the «G.O.M.» knew Gladstone affectionately. ("Grand Old Man," or, according to Disraeli, "God's Only Mistake").

Gladstone is consistently ranked as one of Britain's greatest Prime Ministers.

Exercise 1. Complete the sentences with the information from the text above.

Gladstone was born in_____.
       formed his first government_____.
       served as Prime Minister four separate times_____.
       served as Chancellor of the Exchequer_____.
       was also Britain's oldest Prime_____.
       resigned for the final time when he_____.
       first entered Parliament in_____.
       became committed to low public spending and to electoral reform_____.
       resigned as leader of the Liberal Party_____.
       formed his last government at the age of_____.
       resigned in March 1894, in opposition to increased_____.
       left Parliament in 1895_____.

British Prime Ministers have never been elected directly by the public. A Prime Minister need not be a party leader; David Lloyd George was not a party leader during his service as Prime Minister during World War I; neither was Ramsay MacDonald from 1931 to 1935. Prime Ministers have taken office because they were members of either the Commons or Lords, and either inherited a majority in the Commons or won more seats than the opposition in a general election.

Since 1722, most Prime Ministers have been members of the Commons; since 1902, all have had a seat there. Like other members, they are elected initially to represent only a constituency.

Former Prime Minister Tony Blair represented Sedgefield in County Durham from 1983 to 2007. He became Prime Minister because in 1994 he was elected as Labour Party leader and then led the party to victory in the 1997 general election, winning 418 seats compared to 165 for the Conservatives and gaining a majority in the House of Commons.

Neither the Sovereign nor the House of Lords had any meaningful influence over who was elected to the Commons in 1997 or in deciding whether Blair would become Prime Minister.

Their detachment from the electoral process and the selection of the Prime Minister has been a convention of the constitution for almost 200 years. Prior to the 19th century, they had significant influence, using to their advantage the fact that most citizens were disenfranchised and seats in the Commons were allocated disproportionately. Through patronage, corruption and bribery, the Crown and Lords "owned" about 30% of the seats (called "pocket" or "rotten boroughs") giving them a significant influence in the Commons and in the selection of the Prime Minister.

In 1830, Charles Grey, the 2nd Earl Grey and a life-long Whig, became Prime Minister and was determined to reform the electoral system. For two years, he and his Cabinet fought to pass what has come to be known as the Great Reform Bill of 1832. The greatness of the Great Reform Bill lay less in substance than in symbolism. As John Bright, a liberal statesman of the next generation, said, "It was not a good Bill, but it was a great Bill when it passed." Substantively, it increased the franchise by 65% to 717,000; with the middle class receiving most of the new votes. The representation of 56 rotten boroughs was eliminated completely, together with half the representation of 30 others. The freed up seats were distributed to boroughs created for previously disenfranchised areas. However, many rotten boroughs remained and it still excluded mlns of working class men and all women.

Symbolically, however, the Reform Act exceeded expectations. It is now ranked with Magna Carta and the Bill of Rights as one of the most important documents of the British constitutional tradition. First, the Act removed the Sovereign from the election process and the choice of Prime Minister. Slowly evolving for 100 years, this convention was confirmed two years after the passage of the Act. In 1834, King William IV dismissed Melbourne as Premier, but was forced to recall him when Robert Peel, the King's choice, could not form a working majority. Since then, no Sovereign has tried to impose a Prime Minister on Parliament. Second, the Bill reduced the Lords' power by eliminating many of their pocket boroughs and creating new boroughs in which they had no influence.

Weakened, they were unable to prevent the passage of more comprehensive electoral reforms in 1867, 1884, 1918 and 1928 when universal equal suffrage was established. The rivalry between Disraeli and Gladstone helped to identify the position of Prime Minister with specific personalities. (Disraeli is in the lead looking back over his shoulder at Gladstone.)

Ultimately, this erosion of power led to the Parliament Act of 1911, which marginalised the Lords' role in the legislative process and gave further weight to the convention that had developed over the previous century that a Prime Minister cannot sit in the House of Lords. The last to do so was Robert Gascoyne-Cecil, 3rd Marquess of Salisbury, from 1895 to 1902. Throughout the 19th century, governments led from the Lords had often suffered difficulties governing alongside ministers who sat in the Commons. Grey set an example and a precedent for his successors. He was *primus inter pares* (first among equals), as Bagehot said in 1867 of the Prime Minister's status.

Using his Whig victory as a mandate for reform, Grey was unrelenting in the pursuit of this goal, using every Parliamentary device to achieve it. Although respectful toward the King, he made it clear that his constitutional duty was to acquiesce to the will of the people and Parliament. The Loyal Opposition acquiesced too.

Some disgruntled Tories claimed they would repeal the Bill once they regained a majority. But in 1834, Robert Peel, the new Conservative leader, put an end to this threat when he stated in his Tamworth Manifesto that the Bill was "a final and irrevocable settlement of a great constitutional question which no friend to the peace and welfare of this country would attempt to disturb".

The Premiership was a reclusive office prior to 1832. The incumbent worked with his Cabinet and other government officials; he occasionally met with the Sovereign, and attended Parliament when it was in session during the spring and summer. He never went out on the stump to campaign, even during elections; he rarely spoke directly to ordinary voters about policies and issues.

After the passage of the Great Reform Bill, the nature of the position changed: Prime Ministers had to go out among the people. The Bill increased the electorate to 717,000. Subsequent legislation (population growth) raised it to 2 mln in 1867, 5.5 mln in 1884 and 21.4 mln in 1918.

As the franchise increased, power shifted to the people and Prime Ministers assumed more responsibilities with respect to party leadership. It naturally fell on them to motivate and organise their followers, explain party policies, and deliver its "message". Successful leaders had to have a new set of skills: to give a good speech, present a favourable image, and interact with a crowd. They became the "voice", the "face" and the "image" of the party and ministry.

Robert Peel, often called the "model Prime Minister", was the first to recognise this new role.

After the successful Conservative campaign of 1841, J. W. Croker said in a letter to Peel, "The elections are wonderful, and the curiosity is that all turns on the name of Sir Robert Peel. It's the first time that I remember in our history that the people have chosen the first Minister for the Sovereign.

Mr. Pitt's case in '84 is the nearest analogy; but then the people only confirmed the Sovereign's choice; here every Conservative candidate professed himself in plain words to be Sir Robert Peel's man and on that ground was elected." Benjamin Disraeli and William Ewart Gladstone developed this new role further by projecting "images" of themselves to the public.

Known by their nicknames "Dizzy" and the "Grand Old Man", their colourful, sometimes bitter, personal and political rivalry over the issues of their time – Imperialism vs. Anti-Imperialism, expansion of the franchise, labour reform, and Irish Home Rule – spanned almost 20 years until Disraeli's death in 1881.

Documented by the penny press, photographs and political cartoons, their rivalry linked specific personalities with the Premiership in the public mind and further enhanced its status. Each created a different public image of himself and his party.

Disraeli, who expanded the Empire to protect British interests abroad, cultivated the image of himself (the Conservative Party) as "Imperialist", making grand gestures such as conferring the title "Empress of India" on Queen Victoria in 1876. Gladstone, who saw little value in the Empire, proposed an anti-Imperialist policy (later called "Little England"), and cultivated the image of himself (the Liberal Party) as "man of the people" by circulating pictures of himself cutting down great oak trees with an axe as a hobby. Gladstone went beyond image by appealing directly to the people.

In his Midlothian campaign – so called because he stood as a candidate for that county – Gladstone spoke in fields, halls and railway stations to hundreds, sometimes thousands, of students, farmers, labourers and middle class workers. Although not the first leader to speak directly to voters – both he and Disraeli had spoken directly to party loyalists before on special occasions.

 He was the first to canvass an entire constituency, delivering his message to anyone who would listen, encouraging his supporters and trying to convert his opponents.

Publicised nationwide, Gladstone's message became that of the party. Noting its significance, Lord Shaftesbury said, "It is a new thing and a very serious thing to see the Prime Minister on the stump."

Campaigning directly to the people became commonplace. Several 20th century Prime Ministers, such as David Lloyd George and Winston Churchill, were famous for their oratorical skills.

After the introduction of radio, motion pictures, television, and the internet, many used these technologies to project their public image and address the nation. Stanley Baldwin, a master of the radio broadcast in the 1920s and 1930s, reached a national audience in his talks filled with homely advice and simple expressions of national pride. Churchill also used the radio to great effect, inspiring, reassuring and informing the people with his speeches during the Second World War.

Two recent Prime Ministers, Margaret Thatcher and Tony Blair (both spent a decade or more as Prime Minister), achieved celebrity status like rock stars, but have been criticised for their more 'presidential' style of leadership. According to Anthony King, "The props in Blair's theatre of celebrity included ... his guitar; his casual clothes ... footballs bounced skilfully off the top of his head ... carefully choreographed speeches and performances at Labour Party conferences."

In addition to being the leader of a great political party and the head of Her Majesty's Government, the modern Prime Minister directs the law-making process, enacting into law his or her party's programme.

Tony Blair, whose Labour party was elected in 1997 partly on a promise to enact a British Bill of Rights and to create devolved governments for Scotland and Wales, subsequently stewarded through Parliament the Human Rights Act (1998), the Scotland Act (1998) and the Government of Wales Act (1998). From its appearance in the 14th century Parliament has been a bicameral legislature consisting of the Commons and the Lords. Members of the Commons are elected; those in the Lords are not. Most Lords are called "Temporal" with titles such as DUKe, Marquess, Earl and Viscount.

The balance are Lords Spiritual (prelates of the Anglican Church).For most of the history of the Upper House, Lords Temporal were landowners who held their estates, titles and seats as an hereditary right passed down from one generation to the next – in some cases for centuries.

In 1910, there were 19 whose title was created before 1500.

Until 1911, Prime Ministers had to guide legislation through the Commons and the Lords and obtain majority approval in both houses for it to become law. This was not always easy, because political differences often separated the chambers. Representing the landed aristocracy, Lords Temporal were generally Tory (later Conservative) who wanted to maintain the status quo and resisted progressive measures such as extending the franchise. The party affiliation of members of the Commons was less predictable. During the 18th century, its makeup varied because the Lords had considerable control over elections: sometimes Whigs dominated it, sometimes Tories. After the passage of the Great Reform Bill in 1832, the Commons gradually became more progressive, a tendency that increased with the passage of each subsequent expansion of the franchise.

In 1906, the Liberal party, led by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, won an overwhelming victory on a platform that promised social reforms for the working class. With 379 seats compared to the Conservatives' 132, the Liberals could confidently expect to pass their legislative programme through the Commons. At the same time, however, the Conservative Party had a huge majority in the Lords; it could easily veto any legislation passed by the Commons that was against their interests. For five years, the Commons and the Lords fought over one bill after another.

The Liberals pushed through parts of their programme, but the Conservatives vetoed or modified others. When the Lords vetoed the "People's Budget" in 1909, the controversy moved inevitably toward a constitutional crisis. In 1910, Prime Minister H. H. Asquith introduced a bill "for regulating the relations between the Houses of Parliament" which would eliminate the Lords' veto power over legislation.

Passed by the Commons, the Lords rejected it. In a general election fought on this issue, the Liberals were weakened but still had a comfortable majority. At Asquith's request, King George V then threatened to create a sufficient number of new Liberal Peers to ensure the bill's passage.

Rather than accept a permanent Liberal majority, the Conservative Lords yielded, and the bill became law. The Parliament Act 1911 established the supremacy of the Commons.

It provided that the Lords could not delay for more than one month any bill certified by the Speaker of the Commons as a money bill. Furthermore, the Act if any bill rejected by the Lords would nevertheless become law if passed by the Commons in three successive sessions provided those two years had elapsed since its original passage. The Lords could still delay or suspend the enactment of legislation but could no longer veto it. Subsequently the Lords "suspending" power was reduced to one year by the Parliament Act 1949. Indirectly, the Act enhanced the already dominant position of Prime Minister in the constitutional hierarchy. Although the Lords are still involved in the legislative process and the Prime Minister must still guide legislation through both Houses, the Lords no longer have the power to veto or even delay enactment of legislation passed by the Commons. If he controls the Cabinet, maintains party discipline, and commands a majority in the Commons, the Prime Minister is assured of putting through his legislative agenda.

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

Exercise 2. Match phrases with numerical data without using the text.

№	Phrases & Sentences	Dates
1.	Since _____, most Prime Ministers have been members of the Commons.	200
2.	The selection of the PM has been a convention of the constitution for _____years.	1830
3.	In_____, Charles Grey, a life-long Whig, became Prime Minister.	1722
4.	The Premiership was a reclusive office prior to _____.	717,000
5.	The Great Reform Bill increased the electorate to _____.	1832
6.	Tony Blair's Labour party was elected in ____.	14th century
7.	From its appearance in the_____Parliament has been a bicameral legislature.	1997
8.	_____, PMs had to guide legislation through the Commons and the Lords.	1832
9.	The Great Reform Bill in _____ made the Commons more progressive.	Until 1911
10.	The Parliament Act _____ established the supremacy of the Commons.	1911

FORMER PRIME MINSTERS OF GREAT BRITAIN

William Pitt the Younger

Charles Grey

Robert Peel

William Gladstone

Winston Churchill

Clement Attlee

Harold Wilson

Margaret Thatcher

The classic view of Cabinet Government was laid out by Walter Bagehot in *The English Constitution* (1867), in which he described the Prime Minister as the *primus - inter - pares* ("first among equals"). The view was questioned by Richard Crossman in *The Myths of Cabinet Government* (1972) and by Tony Benn. They were both members of the Labour governments of the 1960s and thought that the position of the Prime Minister had acquired more power so that Prime Ministerial Government was a more apt description. Crossman stated that the increase of the power of the Prime Minister resulted from power of centralised political parties, the development of a unified civil service, and the grown of the Prime Minister's private office and Cabinet secretariat. Graham Allen (a Government Whip during Tony Blair's first government) made the case (2003) that in fact the office of Prime Minister has presidential powers, as did the political scientist Michael Foley in *The British Presidency* (2000).

In Tony Blair's government, many sources such as former ministers have suggested that decision-making was controlled by him and Gordon Brown, and the Cabinet was no longer used for decision-making. Former ministers such as Clare Short and Chris Smith have criticised the lack of decision-making power in Cabinet. When she resigned, Short denounced "the centralisation of power into the hands of the Prime Minister and an increasingly small number of advisers".

The Butler Review of 2004 condemned Blair's style of "sofa government".

However, the power that a Prime Minister has over his or her cabinet colleagues is directly proportional to the amount of support that they have with their political parties and this is often related to whether the party considers them to be an electoral asset or liability.

When a party is divided into factions a Prime Minister may be forced to include other powerful party members in the Cabinet for party political cohesion. The Prime Minister's personal power is curtailed if their party is in a power-sharing arrangement, or a formal coalition with another party (in the coalition government of 2010 to 2015). When commissioned by the Sovereign, a potential Prime Minister's first requisite is to "form a Government" – to create a cabinet of ministers that has the support of the House of Commons, of which they are expected to be a member. The Prime Minister then formally kisses the hands of the Sovereign, whose royal prerogative powers are thereafter exercised solely on the advice of the Prime Minister and Her Majesty's Government ("HMG").

The Prime Minister has weekly audiences with the Sovereign, whose rights are constitutionally limited: "to warn, to encourage, and to be consulted"; the extent of the Sovereign's ability to influence the nature of the Prime Ministerial advice is unknown, but presumably varies depending upon the personal relationship between the Sovereign and the Prime Minister of the day.

The Prime Minister will appoint all other cabinet members (who then become active Privy Counsellors) and ministers, although consulting senior ministers on their junior ministers, without any Parliamentary or other control or process over these powers.

At any time, the PM may obtain the appointment, dismissal or nominal resignation of any other minister; the PM may resign, either purely personally or with the whole government.

The Prime Minister co-ordinates the policies & activities of the Cabinet & Government departments, acting as the main public "face" of Her Majesty's Government.

Although the Commander-in-Chief of the British Armed Forces is legally the Sovereign, under constitutional practice the Prime Minister can declare war, and through the Secretary of State for Defence (whom the PM may appoint and dismiss) as chair of the Defence Council the power over the deployment and disposition of British forces. The Prime Minister can authorise, but not directly order, the use of Britain's nuclear weapons and the Prime Minister is hence a Commander-in-Chief in all but name. The Prime Minister makes all the most senior Crown appointments, and Ministers over whom the PM has the power of appointment and dismissal make most others.

Privy Counsellors, Ambassadors and High Commissioners, senior civil servants, senior military officers, members of important committees and commissions, and other officials are selected, and in most cases may be removed, by the Prime Minister. The PM formally advises the Sovereign on the appointment of Archbishops and Bishops of the Church of England, but the PM's discretion is limited by the existence of the Crown Nominations Commission.

The appointment of senior judges, while constitutionally still on the advice of the Prime Minister, is now made on the basis of recommendations from independent bodies. The Sovereign only on the advice of the Prime Minister bestows peerages, knighthoods, and most other honours.

The only important British honours over which the Prime Minister does not have control are the Order of the Garter, Merit, the Royal Victorian Order, the Venerable Order of Saint John, which are all within the "personal gift" of the Sovereign. The Prime Minister appoints officials known as the "Government Whips", who negotiate for the support of MPs and to discipline dissenters. Party discipline is strong since electors generally vote for individuals on the basis of their party affiliation.

Members of Parliament may be expelled from their party for failing to support the Government on important issues, and although this will not mean they must resign as MPs, it will usually make re-election difficult. Members of Parliament who hold ministerial office or political privileges can expect removal for failing to support the Prime Minister. Restraints imposed by the Commons grow weaker when the Government's party enjoys a large majority in that House, or among the electorate.

In most circumstances, however, the Prime Minister can secure the Commons' support for almost any bill by internal party negotiations, with little regard to Opposition MPs.

However, even a government with a healthy majority can on occasion find itself unable to pass legislation. On 9 November 2005, Tony Blair's Government was defeated over plans, which would have allowed police to detain terror suspects for up to 90 days without charge, and on 31 January 2006, was defeated over certain aspects of proposals to outlaw religious hatred.

On other occasions, the Government alters its proposals to avoid defeat in the Commons, as Tony Blair's Government did in February 2006 over education reforms.

Formerly, a Prime Minister whose government lost a Commons vote would be regarded as fatally weakened, and the whole government would resign, usually precipitating a general election.

In modern practice, when the Government party has an absolute majority in the House, only loss of supply and the express vote "that this House has no confidence in Her Majesty's Government" are treated as having this effect; dissenters on a minor issue within the majority party are unlikely to force an election with the probable loss of their seats and salaries.

Likewise, a Prime Minister is no longer just "first amongst equals" in HM Government; although theoretically the Cabinet might still outvote the PM, in practice the PM progressively entrenches his or her position by retaining only personal supporters in the Cabinet. In occasional reshuffles, the Prime Minister can sideline and simply drop from Cabinet the Members who have fallen out of favour: they remain Privy Counsellors, but the Prime Minister decides which of them are summoned to meetings.

The Prime Minister is responsible for producing and enforcing the Ministerial Code.

By tradition, before a new Prime Minister can occupy 10 Downing Street, they are required to announce to the country and the world that they have "kissed hands" with the reigning monarch, and have thus become Prime Minister. This is usually done by saying words to the effect of:

Throughout the UK, the Prime Minister outranks all other dignitaries except members of the Royal Family, the Lord Chancellor, and senior ecclesiastical figures.

Until 2006, the Lord Chancellor was the highest paid member of the government, ahead of the Prime Minister. This reflected the Lord Chancellor's position at the head of the judicial pay scale.

The Constitutional Reform Act 2005 eliminated the Lord Chancellor's judicial functions and also reduced the office's salary to below that of the Prime Minister.

The Prime Minister is customarily a member of the Privy Council and thus entitled to the appellation "The Right Honourable". Membership of the Council is retained for life. It is a constitutional convention that only a Privy Counsellor can be appointed Prime Minister.

Most potential candidates have attained this status. The only case when a non-Privy Counsellor was the natural appointment was Ramsay MacDonald in 1924. The issue was resolved by appointing him to the Council immediately prior to his appointment as Prime Minister.

According to the now defunct Department for Constitutional Affairs, the Prime Minister is made a Privy Counsellor because of taking office and should be addressed by the official title prefixed by "The Right Honourable" and not by a personal name. Although this form of address is employed on formal occasions, it is rarely used by the media.

As "Prime Minister" is a position, not a title, the incumbent should be referred to as "the Prime Minister". The title "Prime Minister" ("PM James Smith") is technically incorrect but is sometimes used erroneously outside the UK, and has more recently become acceptable within it.

Within the UK, the expression "Prime Minister Smith" is never used, although it, too, is sometimes used by foreign dignitaries and news sources. 10 Downing Street, in London, has been the official place of residence of the Prime Minister since 1732; they are entitled to use its staff and facilities, including extensive offices. Chequers, a country house in Buckinghamshire, gifted to the government in 1917, may be used as a country retreat for the Prime Minister.

Exercise 1. Choose the keywords and phrases that best convey the gist of the text.

Exercise 2. Answer the questions.

1. Who laid out the classic view of Cabinet Government? Where did he do it? 2. Who questioned the view? And where? 3. What governments were they both members of? 4. Who stated that the increase the power of the Prime Minister resulted from power of centralised political parties? 5. Who said that the office of Prime Minister has presidential powers? 6. Who condemned Blair's style of "sofa government"? 7. When may PM be forced to include other powerful party members in the Cabinet? 8. When is the Prime Minister's personal power curtailed? 9. When does the PM have audiences with the Sovereign? 10. What does the influence of the PM on the Sovereign depend on? 11. Who will appoint all other cabinet members? 12. Who may obtain the appointment, dismissal or nominal resignation of any other minister? 13. Who generally co-ordinates the policies and activities of the Cabinet? 14. Who makes all the most senior Crown appointments? 15. Who is selected and may be removed by the PM? 16. What kind of officials does the PM appoint? 17. Is the PM just "first amongst equals" in HM Government? 18. Can the PM sideline and simply drop from Cabinet the Members who have fallen out of favour? 19. Since what time has 10 Downing Street, in London, been the official place of residence of the PM? 20. What form of address is employed on formal occasions?

Exercise 3. Remember that.

Sovereign ['sɔv(ə)rɪn] – a) монарх Syn: monarch б) повелитель, властелин, правитель; владыка Syn: ruler, governor, lord, arbiter;

sovereign virtue – наилучшее качество, высочайшая добродетель;

a sovereign remedy – эффективное лечебное средство;

sovereign power – верховная власть;

sovereign state – суверенное государство.

Sovereign is used to describe the person or institution that has the highest power in a country.

A sovereign is a king, queen, or other royal ruler of a country. A sovereign state or country is independent and not under the authority of any other country.

Exercise 4. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 5. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

THE UK GOVERNMENT

The monarch appoints a Prime Minister as the head of Her Majesty's Government in the UK, guided by the strict convention that the Prime Minister should be the member of the House of Commons most likely to be able to form a Government with the support of that House.

In practice, this means that the leader of the political party with an absolute majority of seats in the House of Commons is chosen to be the Prime Minister. If no party has an absolute majority, the leader of the largest party is given the first opportunity to form a coalition.

The Prime Minister then selects the other Ministers that make up the Government and act as political heads of the various Government Departments. About twenty of the most senior government ministers make up the Cabinet and approximately 100 ministers in total comprise the government.

In accordance with constitutional convention, all ministers within the government are either Members of Parliament or peers in the House of Lords. As in some other parliamentary systems of government (those based upon the Westminster System), the executive (called "the government") is drawn from and is answerable to Parliament – a successful vote of no confidence will force the government either to resign or to seek a parliamentary dissolution and a general election.

In practice, members of parliament of all major parties are strictly controlled by whips who try to ensure they vote according to party policy. If the government has a large majority, then they are very unlikely to lose enough votes to be unable to pass legislation.

The Prime Minister & the Cabinet

The Prime Ministers are the most senior minister in the Cabinet. They are responsible for chairing Cabinet meetings, selecting Cabinet ministers (all other positions in Her Majesty's government), and formulating government policy. The Prime Minister being the de facto leader of the UK, he or she exercises executive functions that are nominally vested in the sovereign (by way of the Royal Prerogatives).

Historically, the British monarch was the sole source of executive powers in the government.

However, following the lead of the Hanoverian monarchs, an arrangement of a "Prime Minister" chairing and leading the Cabinet began to emerge. Over time, this arrangement became the effective executive branch of government, as it assumed the day-to-day functioning of the British government away from the sovereign. Theoretically, the Prime Minister is *primus inter pares* (Latin for "first among equals") among their Cabinet colleagues. While the Prime Minister is the senior Cabinet Minister, they are theoretically bound to make executive decisions in a collective fashion with the other Cabinet ministers. The Cabinet, along with the PM, consists of Secretaries of State from the various government departments, the Lord High Chancellor, the Lord Privy Seal, the President of the Board of Trade, the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster and Ministers without portfolio. Cabinet meetings are typically held weekly, while Parliament is in session.

Government departments & the Civil Service

The Government of the UK contains a number of ministries known mainly, though not exclusively as departments (Department for Education). These are politically led by a Government Minister who is often a Secretary of State and member of the Cabinet. A number of junior Ministers may support him or her. In practice, several government departments and Ministers have responsibilities that cover England alone, with devolved bodies having responsibility for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland (Department of Health), responsibilities mainly focus on England (Department for Education).

Implementation of the Minister's decisions is carried out by a permanent politically neutral organisation known as the civil service. Its constitutional role is to support the Government of the day regardless of which political party is in power. Unlike some other democracies, senior civil servants remain in post upon a change of Government. Administrative management of the Department is led by a head civil servant known in most Departments as a Permanent Secretary.

The majority of the civil service staff in fact work in executive agencies, which are separate operational organisations reporting to Departments of State.
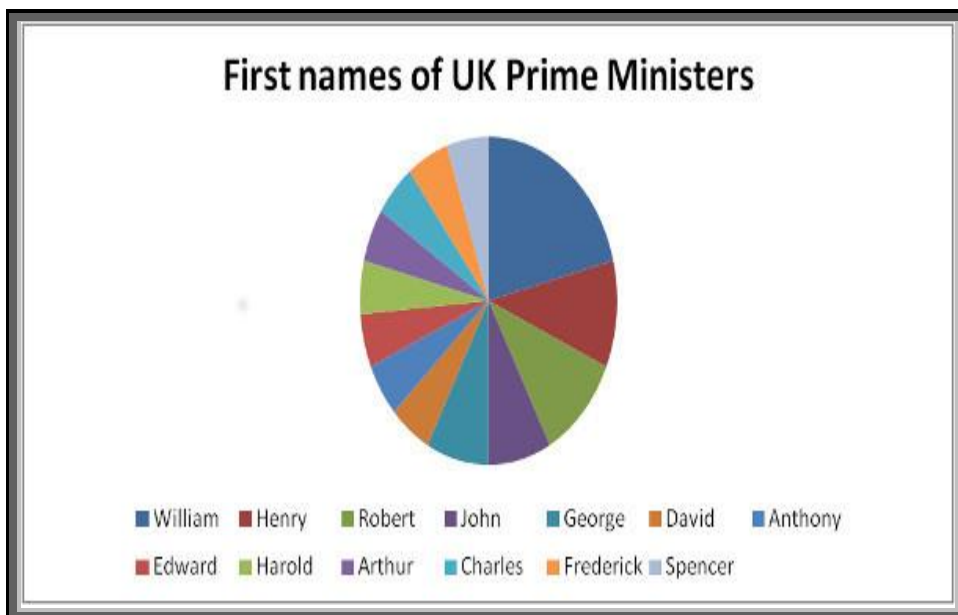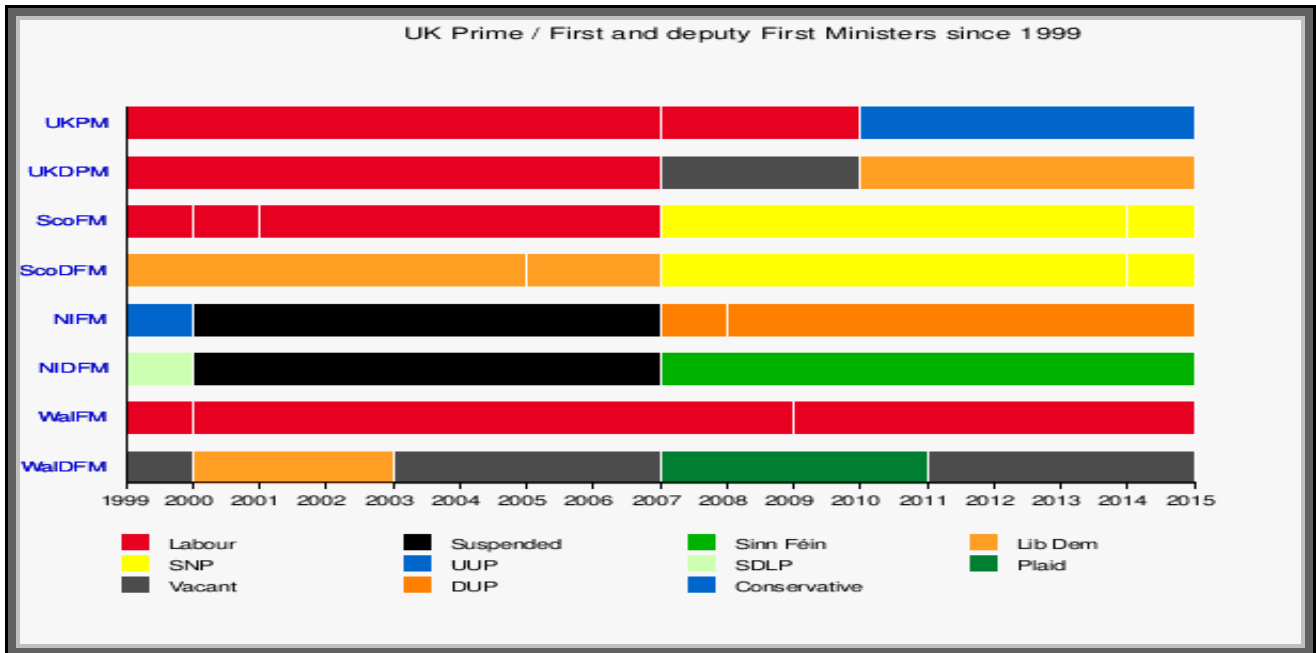
"Whitehall" is often used as a metonym for the central core of the Civil Service. This is because most Government Departments have headquarters in and around the former Royal Palace Whitehall.

Exercise 1. Summarize your findings on history of Premiership & issue in a short presentation.

Exercise 2. Analyze the activity of English Parliament & make up the chart about it.

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

Devolved national administrations

THE SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT IN BRITAIN

State Organs of the UK include the monarchy, the legislative, the executive and judicial organs of Government. The monarchy is the most ancient institution in the UK, with a continuous history stretching back over a thousand years. The monarchy is hereditary. Queen Elizabeth II, who succeeded to the throne in 1952, is the head of the judiciary, the commander-in-chief of the Armed Forces of the Crown and the temporal head of the established Church in England. Her Majesty's Government governs in the name of the Queen who must act on the advice of her ministers.

- Who reigns in the UK?
- What party do ministers belong to?
- Britain is a constitutional monarchy, isn't it?
- Who is the head of the state?
- Does the UK have a written constitution?
- What is the oldest document, which is provided the UK's system of government?
- What do the unwritten parts of the constitution include?
- How can the constitution be changed?

Britain is a constitutional monarchy, without a written constitution. The head of the state is Queen Elizabeth II. The queen reigns, but does not rule. A Cabinet of government officials, called ministers, actually rules the country. These ministers normally belong to the political party that has a majority in the House of Commons, which dominates Parliament, the country's lawmaking body. They are responsible to the people. This section provides an outline of the UK's system of government.

The Constitution of the UK is not one document, as are the constitutions of many other countries.

Much of it is not even in writing and so the country is often said to have an unwritten constitution. Some of the written parts of the Constitution come from laws passed by Parliament. Some written parts come from such old documents are Magna Carta, which limited the king's power.

Other written parts come from Common Law, a body of laws based on people's customs and beliefs, and supported in the courts. The unwritten parts of the constitution include many important ideas and practices that the people have developed over the years. They include the Cabinet system of government and the relationship between the Cabinet and the monarch. For more than 1,000 years, the Constitution has been changing and developing. It is still changing, because it is so flexible.

The Constitution can be changed at any time by an act of government or by the people's acceptance of a new idea or practice.

- How old is the monarchy?
- How does the throne pass?
- What does the crown symbolise?
- How do the British call their government?
- What does the parliament do?
- May the queen reject the bill?
- Has the monarch ever done it?
- What does the Prime Minister do?

The monarchy is over 1,000 years old. Queen Elizabeth II can trace her ancestry back to England's earliest kings in the 800's. The throne passes from a king or queen to his or her oldest son. If the monarch has no son, the oldest daughter inherits the throne. She becomes queen regnant and has all the power. The crown symbolises the British monarch's supreme power. For hundreds of years, the monarch held most authority. But as Parliament's power grew the monarch's power declined.

Today, various government officials in the monarch's name use almost all the powers of the crown. Elizabeth can make few decisions of her own. Yet the powers of government are referred to as her powers, and are used by her ministers, her Parliament, and her courts. The British call their government Her Majesty's Government and government official's work on Her Majesty's Service.

Legislative. Parliament is the legislative organ and is constitutionally composed of the Monarch, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons. The Queen in Parliament represents the supreme authority within the UK. *Parliament* makes the laws of the UK.

Parliament consists of the queen, the House of Commons, and the House of Lords. The queen must approve all bills passed by Parliament before they can become laws. Although the queen may reject a bill, no monarch has done so since the early 1700's. The Prime Minister is usually the leader of the political party that has the most seats in the House of Commons.

The monarch asks the Prime Minister to form a government – that is, to select ministers to head governmental departments and to hold various offices. *The Prime Minister* selects about 100 ministers. From them, the Prime Minister picks a special group to make up the Cabinet. The Cabinet is the group of senior ministers responsible for the general policy of the government.

The Cabinet watches over the general conduct of the government and decides what steps will be taken to deal with matters of government. The Cabinet decides what new laws and amendments to existing laws will be introduced to Parliament.

The Cabinet decides what the government shall do and how it shall be done. The Prime Minister chairs the Cabinet, which usually consists of about 20 ministers. There are Conservative Party, Labour Party, Liberal Party, Liberal Democrats, Social Democratic Party, Tory Party, Whig Party in Great Britain. Law courts of the UK operate under three separate legal system – one for England and Wales, one for Northern Ireland, and one for Scotland.

The system in Northern Ireland resembles that of England and Wales.

Scotland's system differs in many ways from the other two. However, in each system, some courts hear only criminal cases are, cases involving disputes between people.

Decisions made by lower courts are appealed to higher courts.

- How is the local government divided?
- What does the local government do?
- Are the states of the Commonwealth equal and independent?

Local government. The main local government units of Northern Ireland are divided into districts. Scotland is divided into regions and divisions called island areas. The regions are divided into districts. Most governmental units have their own elected councils. The councils deal with such matters as education, public health, and police and fire protection. Local governments collect a local tax, which is either a community charge or rates, but about two-fifth of the local governments' income comes from the national government. The Commonwealth of Nations is an association of independent countries and their dependencies. The Commonwealth succeeded the British Empire.

The UK is the heart of the Commonwealth. All the independent states are free and equal partners for a discussion of the Commonwealth and its development. Armed services of the UK are made of volunteers. The four services are the Royal Navy, the Royal Marines, the British Army, and the Royal Air Force. Parliament is the supreme lawmaking body of the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Before bills can become acts, they must be approved by both Houses of Parliament and must receive the Royal Assent. In certain circumstances, the approval of the House of Lords is not necessary. Parliament, meets in the Royal Palace of Westminster, which is better known as the House of Parliament.

- What must the courts enforce?
- Can the parliament alter the succession to the throne?
- What do the Lord Chancellor and the Speaker normally do?
- The House of Lords has no fixed number of members, has it?
- What does the Lord Chancellor preside over?
- What cannot the House of Lords do?
- The House of Lords is the final court of appeal in criminal cases, isn't it?

The Supremacy of Parliament. The courts must enforce all acts of Parliament.

These acts cannot be set a side as being unconstitutional or for any other reason. By passing acts, Parliament can even alter the country's constitution. But Parliament can't alter the succession to the throne without obtaining the consent of the other parliaments in the Commonwealth of Nations.

The Monarch formally opens Parliament, prorogues it, and dissolves it. The monarch also completes the process of passing an act by giving the royal assent. The Lord Chancellor and the speaker normally announce to Parliament that the monarch has given the Royal Assent to a bill. By tradition, the monarch never acts without the advice of his or her ministers. *The House of Lords* has no fixed number of members. But four groups of people are entitled to sit in the House of Lords: the 2 archbishops and 24 bishops of the Church of England, the law lords, hereditary peers, and life peers. The monarch formally appoints all bishops and creates peers on the advice of the Prime Minister.

The Lord Chancellor, who is a member of the government and head of the judicature, presides over the House of Lords both when it sits as a legislative body and when it sits as a law court.

The chief servants of the House of Lords are the clerks of the parliament, who deals with records and procedure, and the gentleman of the Black Rod, who keeps order and takes messages to the Commons. The House of Lords cannot originate, amend, or reject money bills. Otherwise, the House of Lords shares with the Commons the work of passing bills and debating government policy.

About one-third of all bills, including those that deal with the administration of justice, start in the House of Lords. If the Lords reject a bill that the Commons has passed, the Commons can pass the bill again in the next session. If the Commons then passes the bill a second time, the bill is not sent back to the Lords, but is submitted for the Royal Assent. In other words, the final power of the Lords is to impose about a year's delay on legislation. These rules are contained in the Parliament Acts of 1911 and 1949.

The House of Lords is the final court of appeal in criminal cases.

- When it sits as a law court, only law lords attend, don't they?
- Who elects members of the House of Commons?
- What does the Speaker of the House of Commons do?
- Where do the Prime Minister and members of the government sit?
- Who are Whips?
- Who are the chief servants of the Commons?
- Since when has the UK held direct elections to the European Parliament?

The House of Commons consists of 650 members elected by the people. The Speaker of the House of Commons is a member chosen by the whole Commons to preside over meetings of the Commons.

The Chairman of Ways and Means, who is also deputy speaker, acts as Chairman when the Commons sits as a committee. *The Speaker*, or the Chairman of Ways and Means, selects the next member to speak; tries to keep a balance between spokespeople for the government and the opposition and to preserve orderly debate. Two other deputy speakers help the Speaker and Chairman of Ways and Means. The speaker and the two deputies only speak in their official capacity, and they do not express an opinion on any matter. The Prime Minister and members of the government sit on the front bench of the speaker's right. The leading members of the opposition sit on the opposite front bench.

These members, on both sides, are known as frontbenchers. Behind them, sit the backbenchers.

Contact between frontbenchers & Whips maintain backbenchers on both sides of the Commons.

Whips are members elected by their parliamentary parties to enforce discipline within the parliamentary party and to make sure that members are present in the chamber to vote on important issues. The leader of the House of Commons is a member of the government, who arranges the timetable and calendar of business of the Commons, in consultation with the chief whips of both sides.

The chief servants of the Commons are the clerk and the servant at arms. Elections include general elections, held to choose the members of the House of Commons, and by-elections, held to replace a member who has died or retired.

Local elections are held for county and other local government councils. Since 1979, the UK has held direct elections to the European Parliament.

Members of Parliament safeguard the interests of the people within their constituencies. They also work together for the good of the nation. Almost all members have a loyalty to a political party.

Once elected, MP takes a seat in the House of Commons. MPs spend much time on bills introduced by the government. Some time it is reserved for private members – not ministers – to introduce bills.

Advising the monarch. The Prime Minister's choice of members of the government has to be formally approved by the monarch. The Prime Minister advices the monarch about the appointments and the choice of bishops for the Church of England and judges for the Supreme Court.

He or she also has the power to submit to the monarch lists of people considered worthy of honours, such as peerages. The Prime Minister's power to select peers is important because it gives him or her influence over the choice of some new members of the House of Lords. In addition to these activities, the Prime Minister also advises the monarch about royal visits to other countries. The Prime Minister has no regular audiences with the monarch.

Exercise 1. Read the text interrupted with questions & discuss political system.

Exercise 2. Complete the sentences choosing the right variant.

1. The Commonwealth now serves to _____ international co-operation.
a) embolden b) foster c) hearten d) promote
2. Who can _____ parliament?
a) disband b) dissolve c) disperse d) break up
3. They _____ the parliament for two days.
a) adjourned b) deferred c) postponed d) put off
4. Parliament is a _____ body.
a) legislation b) legislature c) legislative d) legislate
5. _____, codes and delegated legislation are all sources of written law.
a) Law reports b) Statutes c) Rules of law d) Litigation
6. A Bill becomes an Act of Parliament when it has received the _____of both Houses of Parliament and the Sovereign.
a) consent b) ratification c) enactment d) assent
7. You can _____ the parliament for tomorrow.
a) convene b) convoke c) gather d) summon
8. This Act of Parliament was _____2 days ago.
a) abolished b) abrogated c) annulled d) cancelled
9. The Minister presented the new Housing _____to the House of Commons for reading and debate.
a) Act b) Code c) Law d) Bill
10. Parliament was dissolved and a / an _____ was called.
a) General Election b) electoral roll c) by-election d) election campaign
11. Members _____ a bill back to a committee.
a) referred b) committed c) submitted d) handed over
12. The House _____ the MP for his rude remark to the Minister.
a) denounced b) rebUKed c) censured d) condemned

Exercise 3. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 4. Explain the notions.

Exchequer Chamber, exchequer bill, exchequer bond, Exchequer Division, Exchequer Stock, National Exchequer, Exchequer account. The Exchequer is the department in the British government, which is responsible for receiving, issuing, and accounting for money belonging to the state.

Exercise 5. Remember that.

The Exchequer is the department in the British government which is responsible for receiving, issuing, and accounting for money belonging to the state. The account held by the Bank of England for all government funds. The former government office responsible for collecting revenue and making payments on behalf of the sovereign, auditing official accounts, and trying legal cases relating to revenue.

The original sense was "chessboard". Current senses derive from the Norman department of state dealing with the royal revenues, named Exchequer from the chequered tablecloth on which accounts were kept by means of counters. Chancellor of the Exchequer – the chief finance minister of the UK, who prepares the nation's annual budgets.

Exercise 6. Try to render the score of the information.

The Scottish Government is responsible for all issues that are not explicitly reserved to the UK Parliament at Westminster, by the Scotland Act; including NHS Scotland, education, justice, rural affairs, and transport. It manages an annual budget of more than £25 bn.

The government is led by the First Minister, assisted by various Ministers with individual portfolios and remits. The Scottish Parliament nominates a Member to be appointed as First Minister by the Queen. The First Minister then appoints their Ministers (now known as Cabinet Secretaries) and junior Ministers, subject to approval by the Parliament.

The First Minister, the Ministers (but not junior ministers), the Lord Advocate and Solicitor General are the Members of the Scottish Executive, as set out in the Scotland Act 1998. They are collectively known as "the Scottish Ministers".

The Welsh Government and the National Assembly for Wales have more limited powers than those devolved to Scotland, although following the passing of the Government of Wales Act 2006 and the Welsh devolution referendum, 2011, the Assembly can now legislate in some areas through an Act of the National Assembly for Wales. Following the 2011 election, Welsh Labour held exactly half of the seats in the Assembly, falling just short of an overall majority. A Welsh Labour Government was subsequently formed headed by Carwyn Jones.

The Northern Ireland Executive and Assembly have powers closer to those already devolved to Scotland. The Northern Ireland Executive is led by a diarchy, most recently First Minister Arlene Foster (Democratic Unionist Party) and deputy First Minister Martin McGuinness (Sinn Féin), with both positions currently vacant.

Building of Parliament in Scotland

Sir Winston Leonard Spencer-Churchill was a British politician and statesman who served as the Prime Minister of the UK from 1940 to 1945 and again from 1951 to 1955.

Born in an aristocratic family of the DUKes of Marlborough, a branch of the Spencer family, in 1874, Winston Churchill served in the British military and worked as a writer before going into politics. After becoming Prime Minister in 1940, he helped lead a successful Allied strategy with the U.S. and Soviet Union during WWII to defeat the Axis powers and craft post-war peace. Elected Prime Minister again in 1951, he introduced key domestic reforms.

As Prime Minister, Churchill led Britain to victory over Nazi Germany during World War II.

Churchill was also an officer in the British Army, a non-academic historian, and a writer. He won the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1953 for his overall, lifetime body of work.

His father, Lord Randolph Churchill, was a charismatic politician who served as Chancellor of the Exchequer; his mother, Jennie Jerome, was an American socialite.

As a young army officer, he saw action in British India, the Anglo-Sudan War, and the Second Boer War. He gained fame as a war correspondent and wrote books about his campaigns. At the forefront of politics for fifty years, he held many political and cabinet positions.

In 1900, Churchill became a Member of Parliament in the Conservative Party for Oldham, a town in Manchester. Following his father into politics, he also followed his father's sense of independence, becoming a supporter of social reform. Unconvinced that the Conservative Party was committed to social justice, Churchill switched to the Liberal Party in 1904.

He was elected a Member of Parliament in 1908, and was appointed to the Prime Minister's cabinet as president of the Board of Trade. Before the First World War, he served as President of the Board of Trade, Home Secretary, and First Lord of the Admiralty as part of Asquith's Liberal government.

As president of the Board of Trade, he joined newly appointed Chancellor Lloyd George in opposing the expansion of the British Navy.

In 1908, he introduced several reforms for the prison system, the first minimum wage, and helped set up labor exchanges for the unemployed and unemployment insurance.

Churchill assisted in the passing of the People's Budget, which introduced new taxes on the wealthy to pay for new social welfare programs. The budget passed the House of Commons in 1909, but was initially defeated in the House of Lords, before being passed in 1910. He drafted a controversial piece of legislation to amend the Mental Deficiency Act of 1913, mandating sterilization of the feeble-minded. The bill eventually passed both Houses with the remedy of confinement in institutions. While serving as First Lord of the Admiralty, Churchill helped modernize the British Navy, ordering that new warships be built with oil-fired instead of coal-fired engines. He was one of the first to promote military aircraft and set up the Royal Navy Air Service. So enthusiastic was he about aviation that he took flying lessons to understand firsthand its military potential.

During the war, he continued as First Lord of the Admiralty until the disastrous Gallipoli Campaign caused his departure from government. He then briefly resumed active army service on the Western Front as commander of the 6th Battalion of the Royal Scots Fusiliers.

From 1919 to 1922, Churchill served as minister of war and air and colonial secretary under Prime Minister David Lloyd George. As colonial secretary, Churchill was embroiled in another controversy when he ordered air power to be used on rebellious Kurdish tribesmen in Iraq, a British holding. He returned to government under Lloyd George as Minister of Munitions, Secretary of State for War, for Air, then Secretary of State for the Colonies. Though not directly involved in the disastrous Battle of Gallipoli, Churchill resigned his post because he felt responsible for proposing the expedition.

For a brief period, he rejoined the British Army, commanding a battalion of the Royal Scots Fusiliers on the Western Front and seeing action in "no man's land."

In 1917, he was appointed minister of munitions for the final year of the war, overseeing the production of tanks, airplanes and munitions. Fractures in the Liberal Party led to the defeat of Churchill as a Member of Parliament in 1922, and he rejoined the Conservative Party. He served as Chancellor of the Exchequer, returning Britain to the gold standard, and took a hard line against a general labor strike that threatened to cripple the British economy. After two years out of Parliament, he served as Chancellor of the Exchequer in Baldwin's Conservative government of 1924-1929, controversially returning the pound sterling in 1925 to the gold standard at its pre-war parity, a move widely seen as creating deflationary pressure on the UK economy. With the defeat of the Conservative government in 1929, Churchill was out of government.

He was perceived as a right-wing extremist, out of touch with the people. He spent the next few years concentrating on his writing and published *A History of English Speaking Peoples*.

Out of office and politically "in the wilderness" during the 1930s because of his opposition to increased home rule for India and his resistance to the 1936 abdication of Edward VIII, Churchill took the lead in warning about Nazi Germany and in campaigning for rearmament. At the outbreak of the Second World War, he was again appointed First Lord of the Admiralty.

Following the resignation of Neville Chamberlain on 10 May 1940, Churchill became Prime Minister. His speeches and radio broadcasts helped inspire British resistance, especially during the difficult days of 1940-41 when the British Commonwealth and Empire stood almost alone in its active opposition to Adolf Hitler. He led Britain as Prime Minister until after the German surrender in 1945.

After the Conservative Party suffered an unexpected defeat in the 1945 general election, he became Leader of the Opposition to the Labour Government. He publicly warned of an "Iron Curtain" of Soviet influence in Europe and promoted European unity. After winning the 1951 election, Churchill again became Prime Minister. His second term was preoccupied by foreign affairs, including the Malayan Emergency, Mau Mau Uprising, Korean War, and a UK-backed coup d'état in Iran.

Domestically his government laid great emphasis on housebuilding. Churchill suffered a serious stroke in 1953 and retired as Prime Minister in 1955, although he remained a Member of Parliament until 1964. Upon his death aged ninety in 1965, Elizabeth II granted him the honour of a state funeral, which saw one of the largest assemblies of world statesmen in history.

Named the Greatest Briton of all time in a 2002 poll, Churchill is among the most influential people in British history, consistently ranking well in opinion polls of Prime Ministers of the UK. His highly complex legacy continues to stimulate intense debate amongst writers and historians.

In 1963, he was the first of only eight people to be made an honorary citizen of the USA.

On 3 September 1939, the day Britain declared war on Germany following the outbreak of the Second World War, Churchill was appointed First Lord of the Admiralty, the same position he had held during the first part of the First World War. As such he was a member of Chamberlain's small War Cabinet. In this position, he proved to be one of the highest-profile ministers during the so-called "Phoney War", when the only noticeable action was at sea and the USSR's attack on Finland.

Churchill planned to penetrate the Baltic with a naval force. This was soon changed to a plan involving the mining of Norwegian waters to stop iron ore shipments from Narvik and provoke Germany into attacking Norway, where it could be defeated by the Royal Navy. However, Chamberlain and the rest of the War Cabinet disagreed, and the start of the mining plan, Operation *Wilfred*, was delayed until 8 April 1940, a day before the successful German invasion of Norway.

Churchill wears a helmet during an air raid warning in the Battle of Britain in 1940.

On 10 May 1940, hours before the German invasion of France by a lightning advance through the Low Countries, it became clear that, following failure in Norway, the country had no confidence in Chamberlain's prosecution of the war and so Chamberlain resigned. The commonly accepted version of events states that Lord Halifax turned down the post of Prime Minister because he believed he could not govern effectively as a member of the House of Lords instead of the House of Commons.

Although the Prime Minister does not traditionally advise the King on the former's successor, Chamberlain wanted someone who commanded the support of 3 major parties in the House of Commons. A meeting between Chamberlain, Halifax, Churchill and David Margesson, the government Chief Whip, led to the recommendation of Churchill as constitutional monarch, George VI asked Churchill to be Prime Minister. Churchill's first act was to write to Chamberlain to thank him for his support.

In June 1940, to encourage the neutral Irish state to join with the Allies, Churchill indicated to the Taoiseach Éamon de Valera that the UK would push for Irish unity, but, apparently believing that Churchill could not or would not deliver, de Valera declined the offer.

Churchill had become a staunch critic of Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain's policy of appeasement toward the Nazis. On September 3, 1939, the day that Britain declared war on Germany, Churchill was appointed first lord of the Admiralty and a member of the war cabinet, and by April 1940, he became chairman of the Military Coordinating Committee.The British did not inform the Government of Northern Ireland that they had made the offer to the Dublin government, de Valera's rejection was not publicised until 1970.

Churchill was still unpopular among many Conservatives and the Establishment, who opposed his replacing Chamberlain; the former Prime Minister remained party leader until dying in November.

Churchill probably could not have won a majority in any of the political parties in the House of Commons, and the House of Lords was completely silent when it learned of his appointment.

An American visitor reported in late 1940 that, "Everywhere I went in London people admired [Churchill's] energy, his courage, his singleness of purpose. People said they didn't know what Britain would do without him. He was obviously respected. But no one felt he would be Prime Minister after the war. He was simply the right man in the right job at the right time being the time of a desperate war with Britain's enemies." An element of British public and political sentiment favoured a negotiated peace with Germany, among them Halifax as Foreign Secretary.

Over three days in May (1940), there were repeated discussions within the War Cabinet of whether the UK should associate itself with French approaches to Mussolini to use his good offices with Hitler to seek a negotiated peace: they terminated in refusal to do so. Various interpretations are possible of this episode and of Churchill's argument that "it was idle to think that, if we tried to make peace now, we should get better terms than if we fought it out", but throughout Churchill seems to have opposed any immediate peace negotiations.

Although at times personally pessimistic about Britain's chances for victory – Churchill told Hastings Ismay on 12 June 1940 that "you and I will be dead in three months' time"– his use of rhetoric hardened public opinion against a peaceful resolution and prepared the British for a long war.

In May, debate in Parliament on the Norwegian crisis led to a vote of no confidence toward Prime Minister Chamberlain. King George VI appointed Churchill as Prime Minister and minister of defense. Within hours, the German Army began its Western Offensive, invading the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg. Two days later, German forces entered France. Britain stood alone against the onslaught.

Quickly, Churchill formed a coalition cabinet of leaders from the Labor, Liberal and Conservative parties. He placed intelligent and talented men in key positions.

By refusing an armistice with Germany, Churchill kept resistance alive in the British Empire and created the basis for the later Allied counter-attacks of 1942-45, with Britain serving as a platform for the supply of the Soviet Union and the liberation of Western Europe. In response to previous criticisms that there had been no clear single minister in charge of the prosecution of the war Churchill created and took the additional position of Minister of Defence, making him the most powerful wartime Prime Minister in British history. He immediately put his friend and confidant, industrialist and newspaper baron Lord Beaverbrook, in charge of aircraft production and made his friend Frederick Lindemann the government's scientific advisor. It was Beaverbrook's business acumen that allowed Britain to quickly gear up aircraft production and engineering, which eventually made the difference in the war.

The war energised Churchill, who was 65 years old when he became Prime Minister.

In meetings in Teheran (1943), Yalta (February 1945) and Potsdam (July 1945), Churchill collaborated with the two leaders to develop a united strategy against the Axis Powers, and helped craft the post-war world with the United Nations as its centerpiece.

As the war wound down, Churchill proposed plans for social reforms in Britain, but was unable to convince the public. He was defeated in the general election in July 1945.

During the next six years, Churchill became the leader of the opposition party and continued to have an impact on world affairs. In March 1946, while on a visit to the United States, he made his famous "Iron Curtain" speech, warning of Soviet domination in Eastern Europe. He also advocated that Britain remain independent from European coalitions and maintain its independence. After the general election of 1951, Churchill returned to government. He was appointed minister of defense between October 1951 and January 1952, and became Prime Minister in October 1951.

In 1953, Churchill was knighted by Queen Elizabeth II. He introduced reforms such as the Mines and Quarries Act of 1954, which improved working conditions in mines, and the Housing Repairs and Rent Act of 1955, which established standards for housing.

These domestic reforms were overshadowed by a series of foreign policy crises in the colonies of Kenya and Malaya, where Churchill ordered direct military action. While successful in putting down the rebellions, it became clear that Britain was no longer able to sustain its colonial rule.

Churchill's speeches were a great inspiration to the embattled British. His first as Prime Minister was the famous, "I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears, and sweat speech."

One historian has called its effect on Parliament as "electrifying". The House of Commons that had ignored him during the 1930s "was now listening, and cheering". Churchill followed that closely with two other equally famous ones, given just before the Battle of Britain.

As Prime Minister of the UK, Sir Winston Churchill rallied the British people during WWII, and led his country from the brink of defeat to victory. Churchill retired as Prime Minister in 1955. He remained a Member of Parliament until the general election of 1964, when he did not seek re-election.

Exercise 1. Read, try to understand the text and render your attitude to its contents.

Exercise 2. Answer the questions.

1. When and where was Churchill born? 2. What family was he brought up? 3. Did he help lead a successful Allied strategy with the U.S. and Soviet Union during WWII? 4. How many times was he elected Prime Minister? 5. What did he do in 1951 as PM? 6. Did he lead Britain to victory over Nazi Germany during World War II? 7. Was he also an officer in the British Army, a non-academic historian, and a writer? 8. What did he win in literature in 1953 for his overall, lifetime body of work? 9. What was his father? 10. Who was his mother? 11. What did he see as a young army officer? 12. Did he gain fame as a war correspondent and wrote books about his campaigns? 13. How long did he hold many political and cabinet positions at the forefront of politics? 14. When did he retire? 15. When did he die? 16. What are his most important acts in his political activity? 17. What kind of hobby did he have? 18. Did people respect him? 19. Did people love him? 20. Were his anemies afraid of him?

Exercise 3. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 4. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 5. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

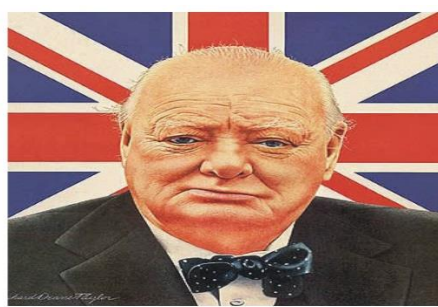***Exercise 6. Transfer the given information from the passages onto a table.***

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

Exercise 7. Complete the sentences with the information from the text above.

W. Churchill was born in _____.

was brought up in_____.

was a British politician and statesman _____.

served as the Prime Minister of the UK again from _____.

served in the British military and worked as a writer _____.

helped lead a successful Allied strategy with the U.S. _____.

introduced key domestic reforms in _____.

led Britain to victory over Nazi Germany _____.

was a non-academic historian _____.

won the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1953 for_____.

was unpopular among Conservatives & the Establishment_____.

was simply the right man in the right job at the right time _____.

formed a coalition cabinet of leaders from_____.

placed intelligent and talented men in key _____.

kept resistance alive in the British Empire _____.

was was 65 years old when he became again

collaborated with the two leaders to develop a united strategy _____.

proposed plans for social reforms in Britain_____.

was defeated in the general election in July _____.

became the leader of the opposition party _____.

made his famous "Iron Curtain" speech in_____.

advocated that Britain remain independent from European coalitions _____.

returned to government in _____.

was appointed minister of defense in _____.

became Prime Minister in _____.

was knighted by Queen Elizabeth II in _____.

introduced reforms such as _____.

rallied the British people _____.

led his country from the brink of defeat to_____.

retired as Prime Minister in _____.

remained a Member of Parliament until the general election of _____.

Exercise 8. Try to understand W. Churchill quotes.

1. Success is not final, failure is not fatal: it is the courage to continue that counts. 2. Attitude is a little thing that makes a big difference.3. If you're going through hell, keep going. 4. Never, never, never give up. 5. My most brilliant achievement was my ability to be able to persuade my wife to marry me. 6. Success consists of going from failure to failure without loss of enthusiasm. 7. We make a living by what we get, but we make a life by what we give. 8. The best argument against democracy is a five-minute conversation with the average voter. 9. The truth is incontrovertible. 10. Malice may attack it, ignorance may deride it, but in the end, there it is.

THE CABINET

The Cabinet developed during the 18th century out of informal meetings of *key government ministers* during the reigns of *the Hanoverian monarchs*, who *took relatively little interest* in politics.

During the 19th century, this committee of key ministers *evolved into* an effective body that *wielded* the monarch's executive power. The Cabinet has about 20 members, or ministers, all of whom must be members of Parliament (MPs). Members of the Cabinet are leaders of the majority party in the House of Commons or, more rarely, members of the House of Lords. *Cabinet ministers* who *head a particular government department*, such as the Ministry of Defence, are known as *secretaries of state*.

The Prime Minister serves as *the first lord of the treasury* and as minister for the *civil service*.

In addition to the various secretaries of state, the Cabinet includes non-departmental ministers who hold traditional offices – such as *the lord president* of the council, *the paymaster general, and the lord privy seal* – and ministers without portfolio, who do not have specific responsibilities but *are assigned to specific tasks* as needed. The Lord Chancellor holds a unique position.

The Lord Chancellor's executive duties as a Cabinet member include being responsible for *legal affairs* in the UK, but he or she is also head of the judiciary, which is a separate part of the British government. The Prime Minister has the power to *move members of the Cabinet from post to post*, or *to drop individuals from the Cabinet entirely*. Former Cabinet ministers may *retain their positions* as members of Parliament. Two key doctrines of Cabinet government are collective and ministerial responsibility.

Collective responsibility means that the Cabinet acts unanimously, even when Cabinet ministers do not all agree upon a subject.

If an important decision is unacceptable to a particular Cabinet member, it is expected that he or she will *resign to signify dissent*. Ministerial responsibility means that ministers are responsible for the work of their departments and answer to Parliament for the activities of their departments.

The policy of departmental ministers must be consistent with *that of the government* as a whole.

The ministers bear the responsibility for any failure of their department in terms of administration or policy. The *Privy Council* is a large, and generally ceremonial, body of more than 450 members that developed out of the *royal council* that existed in the Middle Ages. By the 18th century the Privy Council had taken over all the powers of the Royal Council. The Privy Council comprises *all current and former Cabinet members*, as well as important public figures in Britain and the Commonwealth.

The council advises the monarch and arranges for the *formal handling of documents*. It has a large number of committees, each with a specific task, such as dealing with *outlying islands*, universities, or legal matters. The most important committee is the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, which is the highest *court of appeal* for certain nations in the Commonwealth, some church-related appeals, and for disciplinary committees of some professions.

Exercise 1. Summarize the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Explain the italic words and phrases and translate them into your native language.

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

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

Exercise 5. Make a chart on Prime Ministers for the last 20 years.

№	Activity			
	Prime Minister	**When**	**Where**	**Score**
1.				

MARGARET THATCHER

Margaret Thatcher, (1925-2013) was a British stateswoman who was Prime Minister of the UK from 1979 to 1990 and Leader of the Conservative Party from 1975 to 1990. She was the longest-serving British Prime Minister of the 20th century, and the first woman to have held the office.

A Soviet journalist dubbed her *The Iron Lady* (the metaphorical sobriquet followed her throughout her political career, and has since become a generic descriptor for strong-willed female politicians*)*, a nickname that became popularly associated with her uncompromising politics and leadership style.

As Prime Minister, she implemented policies that have come to be known as Thatcherism.

A research chemist before becoming a barrister, Thatcher was elected Member of Parliament for Finchley in 1959. Edward Heath appointed her Secretary of State for Education and Science in his Conservative government. In 1975, Thatcher defeated Heath in the Conservative Party leadership election to become Leader of the Opposition and became the first woman to lead a major political party in the UK. She became Prime Minister after winning the 1979 general election.

On moving into 10 Downing Street, Thatcher introduced a series of political & economic initiatives intended to reverse high unemployment and Britain's struggles in the wake of the Winter of Discontent and an ongoing recession. Her political philosophy & economic policies emphasised deregulation (particularly of the financial sector), flexible labour markets, the privatisation of state-owned companies, reducing the power and influence of trade unions.

Thatcher's popularity during her first years in office waned amid recession and high unemployment, until victory in the 1982 Falklands War and the recovering economy brought a resurgence of support, resulting in her decisive re-election in 1983. She narrowly escaped an assassination attempt in 1984.

Thatcher was re-elected for a third term in 1987. During this period her support for Community Charge (referred to as the "poll tax") was widely unpopular, and her views on the European Community were not shared by others in her Cabinet. She resigned as Prime Minister and party leader in November 1990, after Michael Heseltine launched a challenge to her leadership.

After retiring from the Commons in 1992, she was given a life peerage as Baroness Thatcher (of Kesteven in the County of Lincolnshire) which entitled her to sit in the House of Lords.

Thatcher became Prime Minister on 4 May 1979. Arriving at Downing Street she said, paraphrasing the so-called Prayer of Saint Francis: where there is discord, may we bring harmony; where there is error, may we bring truth; where there is doubt, may we bring faith; and where there is despair, may we bring hope. Thatcher remained in office throughout the next decade. For much of her premiership, she was described as the most powerful woman in the world.

Domestic affairs

Thatcher was Leader of the Opposition and Prime Minister at a time of increased racial tension in Britain. Commenting on the local elections of May 1977, *The Economist* noted "The Tory tide swamped the smaller parties. That specifically includes the National Front (NF), which suffered a clear decline from last year". Her standing in the polls rose by 11% after a January 1978 interview for *World in Action* in which she said "the British character has done so much for democracy, for law and done so much throughout the world that if there is any fear that it might be swamped people are going to react and be rather hostile to those coming in", as well as "in many ways [minorities] add to the richness and variety of this country.

The moment the minority threatens to become a big one, people get frightened". In the 1979 general election, the Conservatives attracted voters from the NF, whose support almost collapsed.

In a meeting in July 1979 with Foreign Secretary Lord Carrington and Home Secretary William Whitelaw she objected to the number of Asian immigrants, in the context of limiting the total of Vietnamese boat people allowed to settle in the UK to fewer than 10,000.

Economy & Taxation

Thatcher's economic policy was influenced by monetarist thinking & economists such as Milton Friedman & Alan Walters. Together with Chancellor of the Exchequer Geoffrey Howe, she lowered direct taxes on income and increased indirect taxes. She increased interest rates to slow the growth of the money supply and thereby lower inflation, introduced cash limits on public spending, reduced expenditure on social services such as education and housing. Cuts to higher education resulted in her becoming the first Oxford-educated post-war Prime Minister without an honorary doctorate from Oxford University, after a 738–319 vote of the governing assembly and a student petition.

Her new centrally-funded City Technology Colleges did not achieve much success; the Funding Agency for Schools was set up to control expenditure by opening and closing schools; a right-wing think tank described it as having "an extraordinary range of dictatorial powers".

Some Conservatives in the Cabinet, the so-called "wets", expressed doubt over Thatcher's policies. The 1981 England riots resulted in the British media discussing the need for a policy U-turn.

At the 1980 Conservative Party conference, Thatcher addressed the issue directly, with a speech written by the playwright Ronald Millar that included the lines: "You turn if you want to.

The lady's not for turning!" Thatcher's job approval rating fell to 23% by December 1980, lower than recorded for any previous Prime Minister. As the recession of the early 1980s deepened, she increased taxes, despite concerns expressed in a March 1981 statement signed by 364 leading economists.

By 1982, the UK began to experience signs of economic recovery; inflation was down to 8.6% from a high of 18%, but unemployment was over 3 mln for the first time since the 1930s.

By 1983, overall economic growth was stronger, and inflation and mortgage rates had fallen to their lowest levels since 1970, although manufacturing employment as a share of total employment fell to just over 30%, with total unemployment remaining high, peaking at 3.3 mln in 1984.

By 1987, unemployment was falling, the economy was stable and strong and inflation was low.

Opinion polls showed a comfortable Conservative lead, and local council election results had also been successful, prompting Thatcher to call a general election for 11 June that year, despite the deadline for an election still being 12 months away.

The election saw Thatcher re-elected for a third successive term. Thatcher had been firmly opposed to British membership of the Exchange Rate Mechanism, a precursor to European monetary union, believing that it would constrain the British economy, despite the urging of both her Chancellor of the Exchequer Nigel Lawson and Foreign Secretary Geoffrey Howe, but she was persuaded by John Major to join in October 1990, at what proved to be too high a rate. Thatcher was committed to reducing the power of the trade unions, whose leadership she accused of undermining parliamentary democracy and economic performance through strike action.

Several unions launched strikes in response to legislation introduced to curb their power, but resistance eventually collapsed. Only 39% of union members voted for Labour in the 1983 general election. According to the BBC, Thatcher "managed to destroy the power of the trade unions for almost a generation". The miners' strike of 1984-85 was the biggest confrontation between the unions and the Thatcher ministry. Thatcher supported an active climate protection policy and was instrumental in the passing of the Environmental Protection Act 1990, the establishment of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, and in founding the Hadley Centre for Climate Research and Prediction.

Thatcher's first foreign policy crisis came with the 1979 Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. She condemned the invasion, said it showed the bankruptcy of a détente policy, and helped convince some British athletes to boycott the 1980 Moscow Olympics. She gave weak support to US President Jimmy Carter who tried to punish the USSR with economic sanctions. Britain's economic situation was precarious, and most of NATO was reluctant to cut trade ties. Thatcher became closely aligned with the Cold War policies of US President Ronald Reagan, based on their shared distrust of Communism.

During her premiership Thatcher had the second-lowest average approval rating (40%) of any post-war Prime Minister. Thatcher returned to the backbenches as a constituency parliamentarian after leaving the premiership. Her domestic approval rating recovered after her resignation; the balance of public opinion was that her government had been good for the country. Aged 66, she retired from the House at the 1992 general election, saying that leaving the Commons would allow her more freedom to speak her mind.

Exercise 1. Read the text and choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the text.

Exercise 2. Complete the sentences.

M. Thatcher was born in _____.

was a British stateswoman _____.

was the longest-serving British Prime Minister of_____.

implemented policies that have come to be known as _____.

was elected Member of Parliament for Finchley in _____.

became the first woman to lead a major political party in _____.

became Prime Minister after winning the _____ general election.

introduced a series of political and economic initiatives intended to_____.

was re-elected for a third term in _____.

had been firmly opposed to British membership of_____.

was committed to reducing the power of_____.

supported an active climate protection_____.

condemned the _____ Soviet invasion of Afghanistan.

helped convince some British athletes to boycott the _____ Moscow Olympics.

became closely aligned with the Cold War policies of_____.

returned to the backbenches as a constituency parliamentarian_____.

retired from the House at the _____ general election.

«ONE PARTY GOVERNMENT»

One party generally forms British governments (Ministries). The Prime Minister and Cabinet are *usually* all members of the same political party, almost always the one that has a majority of seats in the House of Commons. Coalition governments (a ministry that *consists* of representatives from two or more parties) & minority governments (a one-party ministry *formed* by a party that does not *command* a majority in the Commons) are *relatively rare)*. "One party government", as this system is sometimes called, has been the general rule for almost 300 years.

Early in his reign, William III (1689-1702) preferred "Mixed Ministries" (coalitions) consisting of both Tories and Whigs. William thought this composition would dilute the *power* of any one party and give him the *benefit* of differing points of view. However, this *approach* did not work well because the members could not agree on *a leader* or on policies, and often worked at *odds* with each other.

In 1697, William formed a homogeneous Whig ministry. Known as the *Junto*, this government is often cited as the first true Cabinet because its members were all Whigs, reflecting the majority composition of the Commons. Anne (1702-1714) followed this pattern but preferred Tory Cabinets.

This approach worked well as long as Parliament was also predominantly Tory.

However, in 1708, when the Whigs obtained a majority, Anne did not call on them to form a government, refusing to *accept* the idea that politicians could force themselves on her *merely* because their party had a majority. She never parted with an entire Ministry or accepted an *entirely* new one *regardless* of the results of an election.

Anne preferred to *retain* a minority government rather than be dictated to by Parliament.

Consequently, her chief ministers Sidney Godolphin, 1st Earl of Godolphin and Robert Harley, who were called "Prime Minister" by some, had difficulty executing policy in the face of a hostile Parliament.

William's and Anne's experiments with the political composition of the Cabinet illustrated the strengths of one party government and the weaknesses of coalition and minority governments.

Nevertheless, it was not until the 1830s that the constitutional convention was established that the Prime Minister of the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (PM) is the head of Her Majesty's Government in the UK. The Prime Minister and Cabinet (consisting of all the most senior ministers, who are government department heads) are collectively accountable for their policies and actions to the Monarch, to Parliament, to their political party and ultimately to the electorate. The current Prime Minister, David Cameron, leader of the Conservative Party, was *appointed* by the Queen on 11 May 2010.

The office is not *established* by any constitution or law but exists only by long-established convention, which stipulates that the monarch must appoint as Prime Minister the person most likely to command the confidence of the House of Commons; this individual is typically the leader of the political party or coalition of parties that holds the largest number of seats in that chamber.

However, as the power of the aristocracy waned during the 19th century the convention developed that the Prime Minister should always sit in the lower house. As leader of the House of Commons, the Prime Minister's authority was further *enhanced* by the Parliament Act of 1911 that marginalized the influence of the House of Lords in the law-making process.

The accretion of so much political power in one position gave rise to concerns that the office had become too "*presidential*", as in the American constitutional system, and that the Prime Minister was an "*elected monarch*". As the "*Head of Her Majesty's Government*" the modern Prime Minister leads the Cabinet (the Executive). In addition, the Prime Minister leads a major political party and generally commands a majority in the House of Commons. As such the incumbent wields both legislative and executive powers. Under the British system, there is a unity of powers rather than separation.

In the House of Commons, the Prime Minister guides the law-making process with the goal of enacting the legislative agenda of their political party.

The Prime Minister acts as the public "*face*" and "*voice*" of Her Majesty's Government, both at home and abroad.

Solely upon the advice of the Prime Minister, the Sovereign exercises many statutory and prerogative powers, including high judicial, political, official and Church of England ecclesiastical appointments; the conferral of peerages, knighthoods, decorations and other honours.

Sovereign must select the Prime Minister (Cabinet) from the party whose views reflect those of the majority in Parliament. Since then, most ministries have reflected this one party rule.

Despite the "*one party*" convention, Prime Ministers may still be called upon to lead either minority or coalition governments. A minority government may be formed as a result of a "*hung parliament*" in which no single party commands a majority in the House of Commons after a general election or the death, resignation or defection of existing members.

By *convention* the serving Prime Minister is given first opportunity to reach agreements that will allow them to survive a vote of confidence in the House and continue to govern.

The last minority government was led by Labour Prime Minister Harold Wilson for eight months after the February 1974 general election produced a hung parliament. In the October 1974 general election, the Labour Party gained 18 seats, giving Wilson a majority of three.

A hung parliament may also lead to the formation of a coalition government in which two or more parties negotiate a joint programme to command a majority in the Commons. Coalitions have been formed during times of national crisis such as war. Under this circumstance, the parties agree to temporarily set aside their political differences and unite to face the national crisis. Coalitions are rare; since 1721, there have been fewer than a dozen.

When the general election of 2010 produced a hung parliament, the Conservative and Liberal Democrat parties agreed to form Her Majesty's current coalition government, the first in seventy years.

The last Coalition in the UK before 2010 was led by Conservative Prime Minister Winston Churchill during most of the Second World War from May 1940 to May 1945. Clement Attlee, the leader of the Labour Party, served as *deputy* Prime Minister.

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

Exercise 2. Translate the words and word-combinations in the brackets in the correct form.

There is no written constitution. A thousand years ago, before the Norman Conquest in 1066, the Anglo-Saxon kings (советоваться) the Great Council (an assembly on the leading men from each district) before taking major decisions.

Between 1066 and 1215 the king (править) alone, but in 1215 the nobles forced King John to accept "*Magna Carta*" (*The Great Charter*) which (забрать) some of the king's powers. In later (столетия) this was seen as the first occasion on which the king was forced (принять совет).

In 1264 the first parliament of nobles met together. Since then British Constitution has evolved (другими словами) it has grown up slowly, because of (бесчисленные) Acts of Parliament. There have been no violent changes in the constitution since the "*bloodless revolution*" of 1688.

Then, Parliament invited William and Mary to become Britain's first (конституционный) monarch. A constitutional monarch is one who can rule only with the support of Parliament. *The Bill of Rights* (1689) was the first (законный шаг) towards constitutional monarchy. This Bill prevented the monarch from (разработка законов) or raising an army without Parliament's (одобрение). Since 1869 the power of Parliament has grown steadily, while the power of the monarch (ослаблять). The Reform Acts of 1832, 1867 and 1884 (давать голос для голосования) to large numbers of male citizens. Today every man and woman aged 18 and over has the right to vote.

Exercise 3. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 4. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 5. Write a small essay on the topic.

Exercise 6. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

Exercise 7. Choose the correct variant.

1. Since ____ the allowances for travel, living in London, and paying part-time secretaries and research assistants, have all been increased.

a) 1965 b) 1967 c) 1950 d) 1987

2. Until well into the ____ century Britain managed with an administrative system, which was in all essentials the same as the Tudor system.

a) 17th b) 19th c) 18th d) 16th

3. By ____ about half the population of Britain were town dwellers.

a) 1956 b) 1851 c) 1889 d) 1945

4. In 1831 there were ____ deaths in Britain from cholera.

a) 40,000 b) 30,000 c) 100,000 d) 50,000

5. From the middle of the ____century until the First World War these two parties were Conservatives and the Liberals

a) 18th b) 16th c) 17th d) 19th

6. The foundation of our present-day system of electing members of Parliament was laid by the Great Reform Act of ____.

a) 1789 b) 1890 c) 1832 d) 1856

7. By 1928 all men and women over the age of ____years had the right to vote.

a) 18 b) 19 c) 20 d) 21

8. In ____ the right of the House of Lords to delay a bill was reduced from 2 years to 1 year.

a) 1923 b) 1978 c) 1987 d) 1949

9. The Conservative Party goes back to Tories (Royalists), who originated in King Charles' reign ____.

a) 1456-1502 b) 1560-1590 c) 1630-1645 d) 1660-1685

10. In 1981 a second centre party was created by ____Labour MPs.

a) 21 b) 25 c) 24 d) 20

Exercise 8. Choose the right variant.

1. It took an ____pressure from the people to force Parliament to reform itself in 1832.

a) irresistible b) insuperable c) insurmountable d) invincible

1. The right to vote was no longer ____ to landowners.

a) confined b) limited c) restricted d) restrained

2. The House of Lords tried to ____ this expenditure of money on public welfare.

a) slow up b) slow down c) slacken one's pace d) reduce

3.The Liberal Party wanted to ____ reform.

a) bring in b) introduce c) institute d) acquaint

4.They could only ____ other laws for two years.

a) delay b) detain c) postpone d) put off

5.The Conservatives in general ____ leaving things as they were.

a) favoured b) aided c) supported d) helped

7. They ____ a General Election.

a) called for b) convened c) convoked d) summoned

8. The government cannot be prevented from ____ the will of the people.

a) carrying out b) producing c) realizing d) fulfilling

9. The government did everything to ____ crime.

a) prevent b) guard c) stave off d) avert

10. Nothing shall ____ us from reaching our aim!

a) prevent b) forestall c) obviate d) preclude

Exercise 9. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 10. Render the score of the text «Getting & Spending».

Every year in the first half of April the Chancellor of the Exchequer "*opens his Budget*" in the House of Commons. Budget Day is the day when the Chancellor tells the House of Commons how much the government must spend and how he thinks the money should be provided.

During the Chancellor's speech, which is one of the greatest and most exciting occasions of the Parliamentary year, the Commons sit as a committee – the Committee of Ways and Means.

This enables them to discuss in detail the Chancellor's very detailed proposals.

The discussion goes on for many days after the Chancellor has "*opened his Budget*"; and when all his proposals have been accepted, perhaps with some alterations, the Committee reports to the House of Commons itself that the budget proposals have been approved. Then a bill, the *Finance Bill*, is introduced into the House in order to make the budget proposals into law.

This bill goes through all the stage (except that, since this is a money bill, the House of Lords has no say) and then becomes the *Finance Act*. This is the law, which states what taxes everyone must pay for the next 12 months. The government collects these huge sums of money largely by taxation, being arranged so that people who have only a little money pay small taxes and people who have a lot of money pay heavy taxes. This is called progressive taxation.

There are two main kinds of taxes. The first kinds, "*direct taxes*", are taken directly from the money people earn or which comes to them from their investments. The most important kind of direct tax is income tax, which has to be paid every year on the money, either earned or unearned, which people receive each year. If you earn very little indeed, you pay very little or nothing.

The other kind, indirect taxes are added to the price of things you buy. It is possible to avoid indirect taxes, more or less, by not buying the things on which these taxes are collected. Indirect taxes are collected on almost all goods brought into this country from abroad (customs duties), and on many things made in this country (excise duties). The heaviest customs or excise duties are on things which people enjoy but can do without, such as beer, wine, spirits, tobacco, petrol, football, pools and betting, and entertainments (the cinema, football matches, horses and dog races).

Government spending
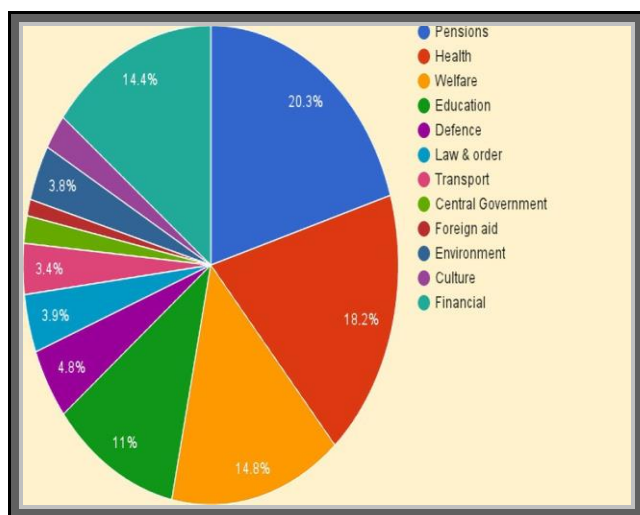
BRITAIN: CONTROL OF GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE

1. Parliament has other things to do as well as pass bills. The Government cannot legally spend any money without the permission of the House of Commons. This permission is given in the form of Acts of Parliament authorising the payment of sums of money out of the consolidated fund, which can be regarded as the Government's central bank account. Before the annual Appropriation Bill is passed the House of Commons votes on some 200 items of expenditure, but this is done in a few minutes.

Only the Government is allowed to propose expenditure. The House still discusses the merits of the policies, but does not try to discuss the cost. But the Public Accounts Committee, chaired by a prominent Opposition MP, examines the departmental accounts in detail, with the help of the National Audit Office, and its reports are often critical of waste.

2. The House of Commons still keeps in close contact with taxation. Each year the taxes are authorised by a Finance Act, which is based on the Budget presented by the Chancellor of the Exchequer in March. In the detailed discussions, Members try to persuade the Chancellor to reduce particular taxes, and they are not always unsuccessful. The House of Commons spends more hours in session each year than any other parliamentary assembly, but for most of the time less than 50 MPs are present listening to the one who is speaking. About one-seventh of this time is taken by senior and junior ministers stating the Government's policy or replying to questions and arguments put by the Opposition or by backbenchers of all parties. Rather less time is taken by Opposition frontbench spokesmen.

The rest, about three-quarters, is occupied by backbenchers of all parties.

During any year almost every aspect of the nation's business is dealt with in debate.

The average backbencher makes about five fifteen-minute speeches in a year, usually to a nearly empty chamber, but heard by ministers from the department responsible for the matter about which he is speaking. Some backbenchers' speeches are based on material supplied by national or local interests, and a large proportion deal with matters of concern to the MPs' own constituents.

Backbench speeches hardly ever influence the voting; though ministers may be impressed by what they hear, and sometimes modify their policies accordingly.

3. Most backbenchers' arguments have already been put before departments through other contacts outside Parliament, or in private party committees; but the fact that they are put forward in open debate obliges the minister to listen and react. For a long time it was argued that the House of Commons ought to have a system of committees, corresponding with the main government departments.

After a series of experiments over many years, a system of this kind was at last created in 1979-80. Each of these select committees has a more or less permanent membership, so that it can develop thorough knowledge of the general problems associated with the work of its department.

There are special advisers from outside Parliament, and individual members may employ their own research assistants. When a committee decides on a particular investigation, its clerk asks the department for a memorandum and statistics, and civil servants are called before the committee to answer questions. People from outside the administration may also be called in. The question sessions are held in public, and a stenographic record of the proceedings is published. Finally, the committee prepares and publishes a report, which may suggest changes in the way things have been done.

Some reports are discussed in the press or debated in the House, and some have some real influence – partly because committee members usually forget about their parties in this work. But in their constituencies MPs get more reward for ideological vigour than for less glamorous work in committees.

Exercise 1. Render the score of the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Find antonyms to the following words and phrases.

To spend, to state, particular, general, advantage, to persuade, to reduce, central, to allow, to give, partly, legally, real, for a long time, to reward, outside, to put forward, in open debate, finally, to call in, in private party, a large proportion.

Exercise 3. Establish the correspondence of the parts of the texts (1-3) to rubrics A-C.

A. Arguments put by the Opposition. B. The House of Commons and a system of committees. C. The annual Appropriation Bill.

Exercise 4. Translate the word-combinations and make up sentences with them.

To appeal to the facts; to appeal to reason; to appeal to the country; to appeal from Philip drunk to Philip sober; to dissolve a government; to form a government; to head a government; to operate, run a government; to overthrow a government; corrupt government; strong government; weak government.

Exercise 5. Complete the sentences with the facts from the passage.

1. Parliament has other things to do as ____. 2. The Government cannot legally spend any money without ____. 3. The permission of the House of Commons is given in the form of ____. 4. The consolidated fund is regarded as the Government's central ____. 5. The House of Commons votes on some two hundred items of ____. 6. The Government is allowed to propose____. 7. The House discusses ____ of the policies. 8. The Public Accounts Committee examines the departmental accounts in ____. 9. The House of Commons keeps in close contact with ____. 10. Members try to persuade the Chancellor to reduce particular ____. 11. The House of Commons spends more hours in session each year than____. 12. There are special advisers from outside____. 13. Civil servants are called before the committee to ____. 14. The question sessions are held in ____, and a stenographic record of the proceedings is ____. 15. Some reports are discussed in the press or ____in the House.

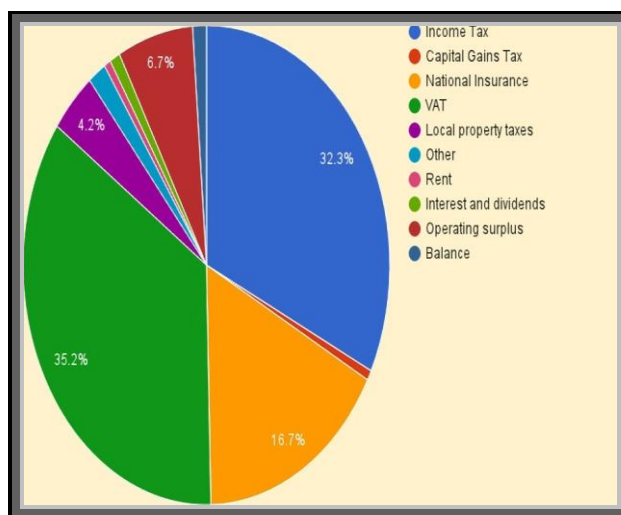*Exercise 6. Find synonyms to the following words and phrases.*

To spend, assembly, to state, to occupy, aspect, to deal with, to debate, to make a speech, to base, to supply, influence, impression, to modify, arguments, department, to oblige, to react, main, to develop, general problems, special, adviser, research, civil servants, investigation, particular, to answer questions, to change, to moderate, to abate, glamorous work, select committees, consolidated.

Exercise 7. Translate phrases and words with the help of the dictionary.

Income / profits tax; national / local taxes; individual income tax; purchase tax; direct taxes; indirect taxes; heavy tax; tax evasion; tax assessment; tax cuts; tax revenue; tax exile; tax rates on smth.; tax collector; free of tax, tax-free; to lower / reduce tax rates; to impose / levy a tax on smb. / smth.; to collect taxes; to pay taxes; sales tax; admissions tax; classified tax; delinquent tax; earmarked tax; franchise tax; inheritance tax; nuisance tax; payroll tax; pollution tax; school tax; sin tax; single tax; state income tax; tax break; tax incentives; tax evader; windfall profit tax; a tax on one's time; a tax on one's strength / health / patience; to tax incomes; to tax the costs of damages; to tax smb.'s powers, strength / health; to tax smb. with trickery; What will you tax me?

UK Spending pie chart

10 sources on a pie chart, 3 items dominate

CIVIL SEVICE

A civil servant or public servant is a person in the public sector employed for a government department or agency. The extent of civil servants of a state as part of the "*Civil Service*" varies from country to country. In the UK, for instance, only Crown employees are referred to as civil servants whereas county or city employees are not. Many consider the study of civil service to be a part of the field of public administration. Workers in "*non-departmental public bodies*" may also be classed as civil servants for the purpose of statistics and possibly for their terms and conditions.

Collectively a state's civil servants form its Civil Service or Public Service.

An international civil servant or international staff member is a civilian employee that is employed by an international organization. These international civil servants do not resort under any national legislation (from which they have immunity of jurisdiction) but are governed by an internal staff regulation. All disputes related to international civil service are brought before special tribunals created by these international organizations such as, for instance, the Administrative Tribunal of the ILO.

Specific referral can be made to the International Civil Service Commission (ICSC) of the United Nations, an independent expert body established by the United Nations General Assembly. Its mandate is to regulate and coordinate the conditions of staff service in the United Nations common system, while promoting and maintaining high standards in the international civil service.

- What does a large staff of professional civil servants do?
- Is the Civil Service wholly non-political?
- Who are forbidden to be candidates for Parliament?
- May they vote at elections?
- What do civil servants do when a new government comes into office?
- When ministers are away campaigning for their party?
- Who maintains the continuity of the administration of their departments?
- Why do the civil servants study the election manifesto of the opposition?

When we speak of "*the Government*" we tend to think of the ministers, who are politicians. But each department has a large staff of professional civil servants who do most of the work of running the department on the minister's behalf. The Civil Service is wholly non-political. Those of its members who are in any way concerned with administration are forbidden to be candidates for Parliament or to give public support to any political party, though they may vote at elections.

When a new government comes into office the same civil servants must work for the new ministers, who, a few weeks before, led the attack on the old ministers' policies. In the three weeks before a general election, when ministers, as leading party politicians, are away campaigning for their party, the civil servants maintain the continuity of the administration of their departments. But they have also to prepare themselves for the possibility of a change of government, so they study the election manifesto of the opposition party, so as to be prepared to advise new ministers on the implementation of their programme if the election results in a change of government.

- Is the Civil Service a life's career?
- Who controls the entry to the Service?
- What must pass the people who hope to become civil servants?
- Where are they trained?
- When can a civil servant be removed?

The Civil Service is a life's career. Most of those who advise ministers have joined the service after taking bachelors' degrees at universities, at the age of about 22, though some have joined at an earlier age without going to university, and made their way up by promotion. Entry to the Service is controlled by the Civil Service Commission. People who hope to become civil servants must pass through a long selection process, with a series of tests designed to measure their competence and suitability, and who are chosen have been among the most successful students in their university examinations.

They are trained at the Civil Service College, which provides courses both for newly appointed officials and for those at later stages of their careers. A civil servant in an established post has almost complete security of tenure, and can in practice only be removed for improper conduct.

Promotion is not automatic according to seniority, but selective, and based on the recommendation of superior officers. A civil servant does not necessarily remain in the same department all through a long career; in fact when a department has a vacancy in one of its top posts it is very likely that it will be filled by someone brought in from another department.

- Is the chief official of a department the permanent secretary?
- The permanent secretary is in close touch with the minister, isn't it?
- What must each civil servant know exactly?
- What do many people say about the Civil Service?
- What is one of the main professional duties of civil servants?

The chief official of a department is the permanent secretary, and below him are under-secretaries, assistant secretaries and others in a hierarchy.

The permanent secretary is in close touch with the minister, and has the Exercise of issuing directives, which will put the minister's policies into force. Each civil servant must know exactly how far his personal responsibility extends, and what questions he ought to refer to someone higher up.
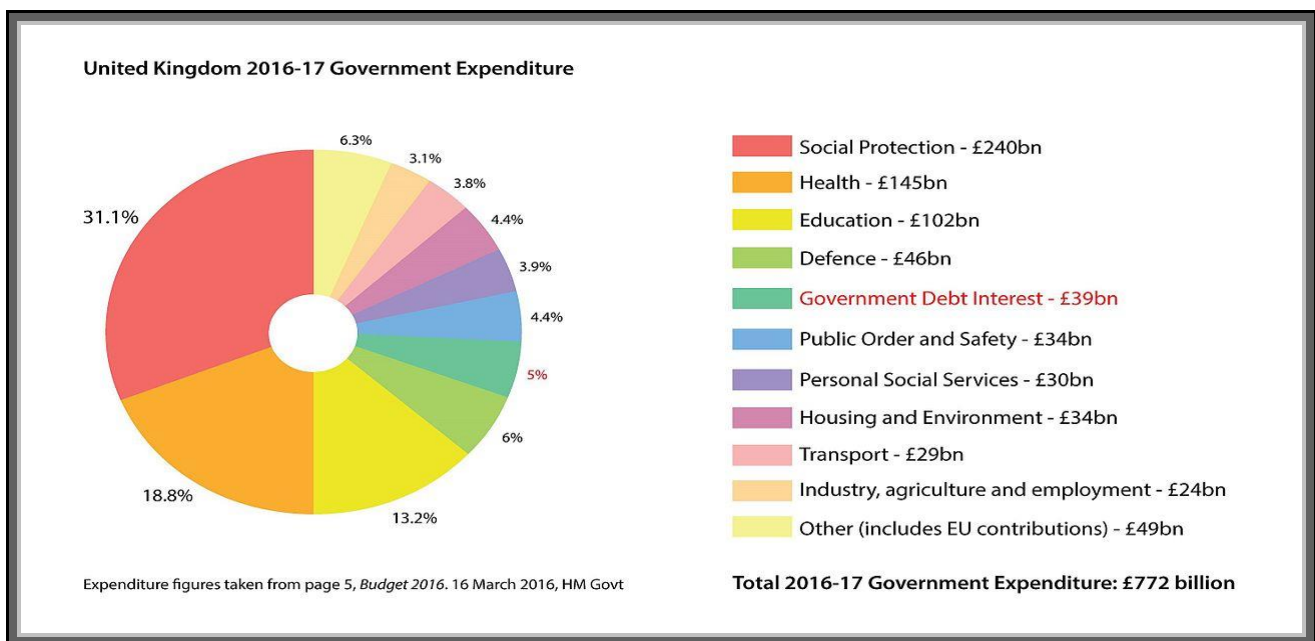
Many people say that Britain is really managed by the Civil Service, and that the ministers, being mere amateurs, just do what the civil servants tell them to do – or find themselves frustrated whenever they try to implement any new ideas. One of the main professional duties of civil servants is to shield their ministers from criticism in the House of Commons. Any innovation is likely to upset some established interest, which can be relied upon to feed some MP with material to attack it. Still many MPs insist that they need to have outside earnings, through journalism, work in the law courts or business, to enable them to live up to the standard they expect.

Exercise 1. Read the text interrupted with questions and have a discussion about it.

Exercise 2. Make up a small report and give a talk in class.

Exercise 3. Translate the word-combinations and make up sentences with them.

In search of plunder; irresistible proof; irresistible enemy; insuperable hindrance; to bring in guilty; be in for smth.; in and out; ins and outs; to call the docket; to call (as) witness; to call the defendant; to call the plaintiff; to call in evidence; to call smb.'s attention to smth.

United Kingdom 2016-17 Government Expenditure

Social Protection - £240bn	31.1%
Health - £145bn	18.8%
Education - £102bn	13.2%
Defence - £46bn	6%
Government Debt Interest - £39bn	5%
Public Order and Safety - £34bn	4.4%
Personal Social Services - £30bn	3.9%
Housing and Environment - £34bn	4.4%
Transport - £29bn	3.8%
Industry, agriculture and employment - £24bn	3.1%
Other (includes EU contributions) - £49bn	6.3%

Expenditure figures taken from page 5, *Budget 2016*. 16 March 2016, HM Govt

Total 2016-17 Government Expenditure: £772 billion

Government Expenditure

Exercise 4. Find in the text the English equivalents for the following expressions.

Абсолютное большинство; отклонить / выдвинуть законопроект; налогообложение; внести поправку в законопроект; обсуждать политические вопросы; королевская санкция; ассигновать деньги для нужд правительства; принять закон.
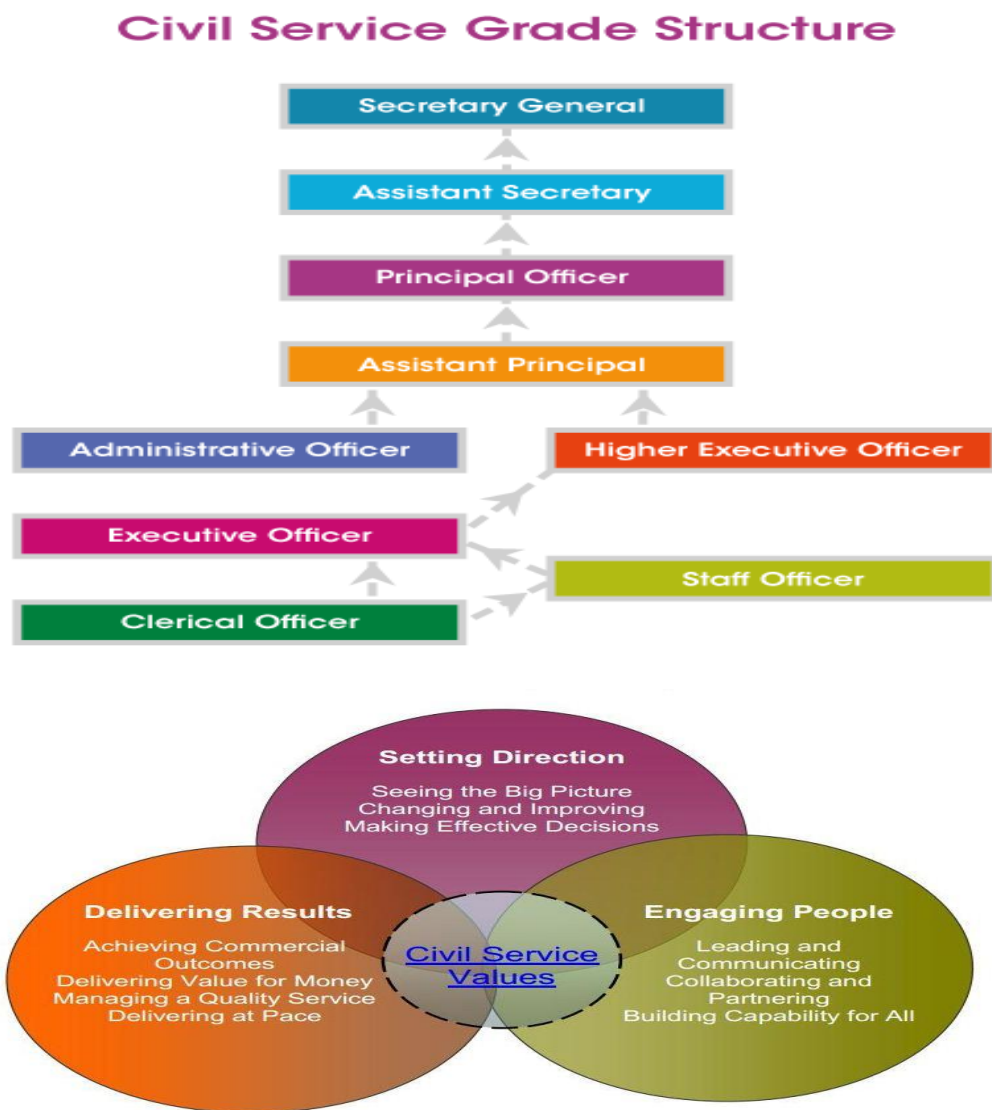
Exercise 5. Find in the texts the English equivalents for the phrases below.

Избирательный округ; правящая партия; вопрос первостепенной важности; дать кому-либо преимущество; сформировать правительство; широкое освещение предвыборной кампании в прессе; объявить дату выборов; объявить результаты выборов; иметь большинство мест в палате общин; распустить парламент; подсчитывать голоса; потерпеть поражение в парламенте; обсуждать законопроект; подробно обсудить; направить законопроект на рассмотрение; отложить принятие законопроекта.

Exercise 6. Find in the texts the English equivalents for the following expressions.

Вступать в должность; круг вопросов; почетная должность; единогласное решение; осуществлять политику правительства; быть ответственным за; постоянный штат сотрудников; контролировать экономику; правительственные службы; подавляющее большинство в партии; исполнять функции; представлять нацию в политических кругах.

Exercise 7. Explain the score of civil service values with the help of the picture.

Civil service values

HISTORY OF CIVIL SERVICE

Her Majesty's (Home) Civil Service, or the Home Civil Service, is the permanent bureaucracy or secretariat of Crown employees that supports Her Majesty's Government, which is composed of a cabinet of ministers chosen by the Prime Minister of the UK of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, as well as two of the three devolved administrations: the Scottish Government and the Welsh Government, but not the Northern Ireland Executive.

As in other states that employ the Westminster political system, Her Majesty's Home Civil Service forms an inseparable part of the British government. The executive decisions of government ministers are implemented by HM Civil Service. Civil servants are employees of the Crown and not of the British parliament. Civil servants also have some traditional and statutory responsibilities which to some extent protect them from being used for the political advantage of the party in power.

Senior civil servants may be called to account to Parliament. In general use, the term *civil servant* in the UK does not include all public sector employees.

Although there is no fixed legal definition, the term is usually defined as a "servant of the Crown working in a civil capacity who is not the holder of a political (or judicial) office; the holder of certain other offices in respect of whose tenure of office special provision has been made; [or] a servant of the Crown in a personal capacity paid from the Civil List".

As such, the civil service does not include government ministers (who are politically appointed), members of the British Armed Forces, the police, officers of local government authorities or quangos of the Houses of Parliament, employees of the National Health Service (NHS), or staff of the Royal Household. As at the end of March 2016 there were 418,343 civil servants in the Home Civil Service, this is down 3.6% on the previous year. There are two other administratively separate civil services in the UK. One is for Northern Ireland (the Northern Ireland Civil Service); the other is the foreign service (Her Majesty's Diplomatic Service). The heads of these services are members of the Permanent Secretaries Management Group. The Offices of State grew in England, and later the UK. Initially, as in other countries, they were little more than secretariats for their leaders, who held positions at court.

In the 18th century, in response to the growth of the British Empire and economic changes, institutions such as the Office of Works and the Navy Board grew large. Each had its own system and staff was appointed by purchase or patronage. By the 19th century, it became increasingly clear that these arrangements were not working. In 1806, the Honourable East India Company established a college, the East India Company College, near London to train administrators; it was established on recommendation of officials in China who had seen the imperial examination system.

The civil service, based on examination similar to the Chinese system, was advocated by a number of Englishmen over the next several decades.

A permanent, unified and politically neutral civil service, in which appointments were made on merit, was introduced on the recommendations of the Northcote-Trevelyan Report of 1854, which also recommended a clear division between staff responsible for routine ("mechanical") work, and those engaged in policy formulation and implementation in an "administrative" class. The report was well-timed, because bureaucratic chaos in the Crimean War promptly caused a clamour for the change.

A Civil Service Commission was accordingly set up in 1855 to oversee open recruitment and end patronage, and most of the other Northcote-Trevelyan recommendations were implemented over some years. This system was broadly endorsed by Commissions chaired by Playfair (1874), Ridley (1886), MacDonnell (1914), Tomlin (1931) and Priestley (1955).

The Northcote-Trevelyan model remained essentially stable for a hundred years. This was a tribute to its success in removing corruption, delivering public services (even under the stress of two world wars), and responding effectively to political change.

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

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THE NORTHCOTE–TREVELYAN REPORT

The Northcote-Trevelyan Report was a document prepared by Stafford H. Northcote (later to be Chancellor of the Exchequer) and C. E. Trevelyan (then permanent secretary at the Treasury).

Published in February 1854, the report catalysed the development of Her Majesty's Civil Service in the UK.

In the years leading up to 1854, there were at least 11 other reports into the structure and functions of individual government departments. Because these were mainly motivated by the need for "economy" rather than the improvement of effectiveness, they had Her Majesty's Treasury involvement.

As such, Trevelyan, who was from 1840 "assistant secretary" to the Treasury, had taken part in many of them. By 1848, he had become convinced of the need for reform across government rather than merely in individual departments. Although he had not been successful in instituting the kind of reforms for which he would later argue in the Northcote-Trevelyan report, his reviews into the Home Office, Foreign Office, Colonial Office, and the Irish Office had led him to draw two of the conclusions that would ultimately have prominence in Northcote-Trevelyan; that work should be divided into mechanical and intellectual types, and that recruitment and selection should be based solely on merit.

The appointment of a reform-minded Gladstone as chancellor in 1852 created greater pressure for civil service reform. A report into the Board of Trade recommended that "the whole subject of the examination of candidates for public employment is well worthy of consideration; it would be of great advantage if a proper system was devised, a central board of properly qualified examiners employed."

The terms of reference of what became the Northcote-Trevelyan report were issued by Gladstone in the form of a Treasury minute in 1853. They stated that an enquiry should be convened:

For the purpose of considering applications for increase of salary, abolishing or consolidating redundant offices, supplying additional assistance where it is required, getting rid of obsolete processes, and introducing more simple and compendious modes of transacting business establishing a proper distinction between intellectual and mechanical labour, and generally, so revising and readjusting the public establishments as to place them on the footing best calculated for the efficient discharge of their important functions according to the actual circumstances of the present time.

The report took nine months to draft and publish. It had four major conclusions:

- Recruitment into the civil service should be by open examination, conducted by an independent "civil service board".
- Entrants should be recruited into "home civil service", rather than to a specific department.
- Recruits would be segregated at entry into a hierarchy of grades, ranging from clerical officers who would conduct routine tasks, through to those who would provide policy advice to ministers.
- Promotion would be on merit, not preferment, patronage, purchase, or length of service.

In 1908, writer Graham Wallas wrote that "the real 'constitutional' check in England is provideв by the existence of a permanent civil service, appointed on a system independent of the opinion and desires of any politician", which has been taken to be an endorsement of the by then well-embedded principles behind Northcote-Trevelyan. It has been argued that the "structure provided by the Northcote-Trevelyan report and the Order in Council" was flawed in its inception, and since then steadily grew more inappropriate, due to major changes in both the Civil Service and the world in general after the publication of the report.

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

№	Activity			
	Event	When	Where	Score
1.				

Following the Second World War, however, demands for change again grew. There was a concern that technical and scientific expertise was mushrooming, to a point at which the "good all-rounder" culture of the administrative civil servant with a classics or other arts degree could no longer properly engage with it: as late as 1963 the Treasury had just 19 trained economists.

The times were, moreover, ones of keen respect for technocracy, with the mass mobilisation of war having worked effectively, and the French National Plan apparently delivering economic success.

And there was a feeling which would not go away, following the war and the radical social reforms of the 1945 Labour government, that the so-called "mandarins" of the higher civil service were too remote from the people. Indeed, between 1948 and 1963 only 3% of the recruits to the administrative class came from the working classes, and in 1966 more than half of the administrators at undersecretary level and above had been privately educated.

Lord Fulton's committee reported in 1968. He found that administrators were not professional enough, and in particular lacked management skills; that the position of technical and scientific experts needed to be rationalised and enhanced; and that the service was indeed too remote.

His 158 recommendations included the introduction of a unified grading system for all categories of staff, the Civil Service College and a central policy planning unit. He also said that control of the service should be taken from the Treasury, and given to a new Department, and that the "fast stream" recruitment process for accessing the upper echelons should be made more flexible, to encourage candidates from less privileged backgrounds. The new Department was set up by Prime Minister Harold Wilson's Labour Government in 1968 and named the Civil Service Department, known as CSD.

Into Heath's Downing Street came the Central Policy Review Staff (CPRS); they were in particular given charge of a series of Programme Analysis and Review (PAR) studies of policy efficiency and effectiveness. But, whether through lack of political will, or through passive resistance by a mandarinate, which the report had suggested were "amateurs", Fulton failed.

The Civil Service College equipped generalists with additional skills, but did not turn them into qualified professionals as ENA did in France. Recruits to the fast stream self-selected, with the universities of Oxford and Cambridge still producing a large majority of successful English candidates, since the system continued to favour the tutorial system at Oxbridge while to an extent the Scottish Ancient universities educated a good proportion of recruits from north of the border.

The younger mandarins found excuses to avoid managerial jobs in favour of the more prestigious postings. The generalists remained on top, and the specialists on tap.

Margaret Thatcher came to office in 1979 believing in free markets as a better social system in many areas than the state: government should be small but active. Many of her ministers were suspicious of the civil service, in light of public choice research that suggested public servants tend to increase their own power and budgets. She immediately set about reducing the size of the civil service, cutting numbers from 732,000 to 594,000 over her first seven years in office.

Derek Rayner, the former chief executive of Marks & Spencer, was appointed as an efficiency expert with the Prime Minister's personal backing; he identified numerous problems with the Civil Service, arguing that only three bn of the eight bn pounds a year spent at that time by the Civil Service consisted of essential services, and that the "mandarins" (senior civil servants) needed to focus on efficiency and management rather than on policy advice.

In late 1981, the Prime Minister announced the abolition of the Civil Service Department, transferring power over the Civil Service to the Prime Minister's Office and Cabinet Office. Progress initially was sluggish, but in due course MINIS-style business planning became standard; delegated budgets were introduced, so that individual managers were held much more accountable for meeting objectives, and for the first time for the resources they used to do so.

Performance-related pay began in December 1984, was built on thereafter, and continues to this day, though the sums involved have always been small compared to the private sector; the effectiveness of PRP as a genuine motivator has often been questioned. Without any statutory change, the managerial functions of Ministries would be hived off into Executive Agencies, with clear Framework Documents setting out their objectives, and whose chief executives would be made accountable directly (in some cases to Parliament) for performance.

Agencies were to, as far as possible, take a commercial approach to their tasks. However, the Government conceded that agency staff would remain civil servants, which diluted the radicalism of the reform. The approach seems somewhat similar to the Swedish model, though no influence from Sweden has ever been acknowledged. The Next Steps Initiative took some years to get off the ground, and progress was patchy. Significant change was achieved, although agencies never really achieved the level of autonomy envisaged at the start. By 5 April 1993, 89 agencies had been established, and contained over 260,000 civil servants, some 49% of the total.

It was believed with the Thatcher reforms that efficiency was improving. But there was still a perception of carelessness and lack of responsiveness in the quality of public services.

The government of John Major sought to tackle this with a Citizen's Charter programme.

This sought to empower the service user, by setting out rights to standards in each service area, and arrangements for compensation when these were not met. An Office of Public Service and Science was set up in 1992, to see that the Charter policy was implemented across government.

By 1998, 42 Charters had been published, and they included services provided by public service industries such as the health service and the railways, as well as by the civil service.

The highest ranking civil servant in the country is the Cabinet Secretary. A subsidiary title that was also held by the incumbent was *Head of the Home Civil Service* or more recently sometimes styled *Head of the Civil Service.*

Exercise 1. Render the score of the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Give the main idea of the text Politically neutrality below.

The Home Civil Service is a politically neutral body, with the function of impartially implementing the policy programme of the elected government. Like all servants of the Crown, civil servants are legally barred from standing for election as Members of Parliament or Members of the European Parliament.

Under regulations first adopted in 1954 and revised in 1984, members of the Senior Civil Service (the top management grades) are barred from holding office in a political party or publicly expressing controversial political viewpoints, while less senior civil servants at an intermediate (managerial) level must generally seek permission to participate in political activities.

The most junior civil servants are permitted to participate in political activities, but must be politically neutral in the exercise of their duties. All civil servants are subject to the Official Secrets Acts 1911 to 1989, meaning that they may not disclose sensitive government information.

Since 1998, there have also been restrictions on contact between civil servants and lobbyists.

The Committee on Standards in Public Life, also created in 1998, is responsible for regulation of contacts between public officials and lobbyists. The increasing influence of politically appointed "special advisers" in government departments can reduce the political neutrality of public administration.

In 2000, then-Prime Minister Tony Blair was criticised for appointing 20 special advisers (compared to eight under his predecessor John Major) and for the fact that the total salary cost of special advisers across all government departments had reached £4 mln.

The Conservative-Liberal Democrat coalition government of 2010-15 had proposed introducing a more American-style system where senior civil servants, such as permanent secretaries, became political appointees. However, this was dropped after it was considered that the existing permanent civil service style was better suited to the government of the UK.

Exercise 3. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

CIVIL SERVICE CODE

The current civil service code was introduced on 6 June 2006 to outline the core values and standards expected of civil servants. The core values are defined as *integrity*, *honesty*, *objectivity*, and *impartiality*. A key change from previous values is the removal of *anonymity* within the core values.

The Code includes an independent line of appeal to the Civil Service Commissioners on alleged breaches of the Code. *The Civil Service Management Code (CSMC)* sets out the regulations and instructions to departments and agencies regarding the terms and conditions of service of civil servants. It is the guiding document which gives delegation to civil service organisations, from the Minister for the Civil Service, in order for them to make internal personnel policies.

The Civil Service Commissioners' Recruitment Code is maintained by the Civil Service Commissioners and is based on the *principle of selection on merit on the basis of fair and open competition.*

A breakdown by department of civil servants employed in 2013.The structure of the home civil service is divided into organisations, grades and professions. Each Secretary of State has a Department which has executive agencies and non-departmental public bodies subordinate to it.

The grading system used in the civil service has changed many times, and the current structure is made up of two schemes. All senior grades (Deputy Director / Grade 5 level and above) are part of the Senior Civil Service, which is overseen by the Cabinet Office on behalf of the civil service as a whole.

Below the Senior Civil Service, each individual department/executive agency can put in place its own grading and pay arrangements, provided they still comply with the central civil service pay and review guidance.

The Osmotherly Rules, named for their author, a civil servant in the Machinery of Government Division of the British Cabinet Office named E.B.C. Osmotherly, are a set of internal guidelines specifying how government departments should provide evidence to Parliamentary select committees.

Covering procedures for both the House of Lords and the House of Commons, it has "no formal Parliamentary standing or approval, nor does it claim to have." Although they were first formally issued in May 1980, a similar document had been circulating throughout the 1970s. They were "prepared entirely for use within Government" and had no official status in Parliament.

An early edition of the Rules was caught up in the Westland affair, a political scandal, in which the ministers were worried that officials being questioned by committees about individual conduct could be harmful; they were criticised as "unduly restrictive".

The current edition dates from July 2005, and was issued by the Office of the Leader of the House of Commons (jointly with the Cabinet Office) under the name of *Departmental Evidence and Responses to Select Committees*. It was described by the Commons Liaison Committee as "modest".

The rules state that civil servants ("officials") are not directly accountable to Parliament; rather, Secretaries of State, Ministers of State, Parliamentary Under-Secretaries of State and Parliamentary Private Secretaries (as the elected/appointed agents of the Crown) are accountable to Parliament, and their civil servants – essentially carrying out actions under ministerial powers and authority – are merely responsible to them, and thus cannot be summoned by Select Committees, as they are protected by the same rule that prevents Members of Parliament being summoned.

However, in general, if there is a dispute about the attendance of an official, the relevant minister should attend instead as a matter of courtesy. They cover the occasions when it is considered appropriate for officials to refrain from giving evidence on the grounds of national security and public interest.

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

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

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

CURRENT POLITICAL LANDSCAPE

After winning the largest number of seats and votes in the 2015 general election, the Conservatives first under David Cameron and now under Theresa May remain ahead of the Labour Party, led by Jeremy Corbyn since September 2015. The SNP has maintained its position in Scotland, the party was just short of an overall majority at the Scottish parliamentary elections in May 2016.

However, a turbulent referendum on the UK's membership of the European Union, called for by David Cameron, led to his own resignation, the appointment of a new prime minister Theresa May, and divided opinion on Europe amongst the party.

In addition, the EU referendum campaign plunged the Labour Party into crisis and resulted in a motion of no confidence in the party leader Jeremy Corbyn being passed by the party's MPs in a 172-40 vote, which followed a significant number of resignations from the Shadow Cabinet.

This led to an leadership election which began with Angela Eagle, the former Shadow First Secretary of State and Shadow Secretary of State for Business, Innovation and Skills who eight days later withdrew from the leadership race, to support Owen Smith, the former Shadow Secretary of State for Work and Pensions. This was won by Jeremy Corbyn with an increased majority. He went on to lead the Labour party at the 2017 election, where they gained 30 seats.

Following the vote to leave the European Union, Nigel Farage offered his own resignation as leader, something he had campaigned for since 1992. A leadership contest also took place in the Green Party, which led to the joint election on 2 September 2016 of Jonathan Bartley and Caroline Lucas as co-leaders, who took over the role in a job-share arrangement. Lucas, was previously leader until 2010 and is the party's only MP. Strategic cross-party alliances have been initiated, including a "progressive alliance" and a "Patriotic Alliance", as proposed by UKIP donor Aaron Banks.

All political parties have membership schemes that allow members of the public to actively influence the policy and direction of the party to varying degrees, though particularly at a local level.

Membership of British political parties is around 1% of the British electorate, which is lower than in all European countries except for Poland and Latvia. Overall membership to a political party has been in decline since the 1950s. In 1951, the Conservative Party had 2.2 mln members, and a year later in 1952 the Labour Party reached their peak of 1 mln members (electorate of around 34 mln).

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

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

The debating chamber of Scottish Parliament   The debating chamber of Welsh Parliament

UNIT VI. LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN THE UK

STRUCTURE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN THR UK

Unlike in many other countries the structure of local and regional government does not feature as part of the British constitution. Consequently, there is little consistency in how local government is structured. The lack of constitutional basis or definition also means that it is subject to change by the government. Generally speaking, the structure of local government can be split into two broad categories:

- Single tier systems.
- Two tier systems.

Different parts of the country have different systems in place.

Two tier systems

Most of the country conforms to this model. County councils cover larger geographical areas; local examples include Hampshire County Council and West Sussex County Council. County councils provide most local services, including education, social care and transport.

Counties are divided into several smaller areas administered by district or borough councils; local examples include Gosport Borough Council or Fareham Borough Council.These councils provide more local services such as housing, refuse and recycling and planning.

Single tier systems

In single tier areas, there is only one unitary authority which takes on the responsibility of local public services. This system is often found in larger cities; local examples include Portsmouth City Council or Southampton City Council. Unitary councils have also recently been created in larger, more rural areas; examples include Durham County Council and Wiltshire Council. Scottish councils use this model.

Civil parish councils

Many areas are covered by smaller town or parish councils; local examples include Horndean Parish Council or Petersfield Town Council. These councils have limited powers and are only responsible for local services such as allotments, car parks & community centres. Other organisations are set up to deliver specific services across wider areas. These include fire and rescue authorities (the Hampshire Fire & Rescue Service) & national park authorities (the New Forest National Park Authority).

Governance

Local councils are run by councillors who are elected by the local population to represent them and make decisions at the council (the exception to this is the City of London Corporation, where, in addition to various other unique governance arrangements, local businesses also get a vote).

Councillors make the decisions at local councils, leaving local government officers to implement them and provide services. Governance arrangements vary between different councils but generally speaking fall into one of two categories:

- Leader and cabinet model.
- Elected mayor and cabinet model.

Under this model the leader of the largest political group elected to the council is usually appointed as leader of the council. The leader will then appoint a cabinet, which is responsible for the overall policy and strategic direction. The leader and cabinet make recommendations to all councillors for the adoption of policies. Local examples of councils adopting this arrangement include Portsmouth City Council and Havant Borough Council.

Elected mayor & cabinet model

Under this model, a mayor is elected directly by local residents to serve a four-year term.

Unlike the leader and cabinet model, the mayor is not a councillor. The mayor then appoints a cabinet, drawn from councillors, who make decisions. Examples include Bedford Borough Council or Torbay Council. The majority of councils have an overview and scrutiny arrangements place. This can take the role of one committee covering all policy areas or several committees looking at specific policy areas.

The role of overview and scrutiny is to provide a system of checks and balances in local councils.

Committees hold cabinet and other decision makers to account by scrutinizing decisions made.

Committees also have a role in advising policy development, monitoring council performance and scrutinizing external bodies, for example health authorities.

Local government authorities are funded from three sources:

- *Government grants*: from central government form the bulk of local government funding.

- *Council Tax*: around a quarter of local government finance comes from the council tax. This is a local tax levied on local residents. The level is set by the local council each year, but the actual amount paid this is affected by the value of the property and household circumstances.

- *National non-domestic rates*: also known as business rates, are levied on business and other non-domestic premises. The level is set by the government and affected by the 'rateable value' of the property in question. Although councils collect business rates the money does not.

Exercise 1. Summarize the information in English.

Exercise 2. Write a short essay on the topic with the help of the picture below.

Structure of English local government

THE MAIN FEATURES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Local government in the UK has origins that pre-date the UK itself, as each of the four countries of the UK has its own separate system. For an overview, see Administrative geography of the UK.

The pattern of **local government in England** is complex, with the distribution of functions varying according to the local arrangements. Legislation concerning local government in England is decided by the Parliament and Government of the UK, because England does not have a devolved parliament or regional assemblies, outside Greater London. England has, since 1994 been subdivided into 9 regions. One of these, London, has an elected Assembly and Mayor.

The other regions no longer have any statutory bodies to execute any responsibilities. Combined authorities were introduced in England outside Greater London by the Local Democracy, Economic Development and Construction Act 2009 to cover areas larger than the existing local authorities but smaller than the regions. Combined authorities are created voluntarily and allow a group of local authorities to pool appropriate responsibility and receive certain delegated functions from central government in order to deliver transport and economic policy more effectively over a wider area.

There are currently 9 such authorities, with the Greater Manchester Combined Authority established on 1 April 2011, Liverpool City Region Combined Authority and three others in April 2014, two in 2016 and two in 2017. Below the region level and excluding London, England has two different patterns of local government in use. In some areas there is a county council responsible for services such as education, waste management & strategic planning within a county, with several non-metropolitan district councils responsible for services such as housing, waste collection and local planning. Both are principal councils and are elected in separate elections. Some areas have only one level of local government.

These are unitary authorities, which are also principal councils. Most of Greater London is governed by London borough councils. The City of London and the Isles of Scilly are *sui generis* authorities, pre-dating recent reforms of local government. There are 125 "single tier" authorities, which all function as billing authorities for Council Tax and local education authorities:

- 55 unitary authorities.
- 36 metropolitan boroughs.
- 32 London boroughs.
- The Common Council of the City of London.
- The Council of the Isles of Scilly.

There are 33 "upper tier" authorities. The non-metropolitan counties function as local education authorities:

- 27 non-metropolitan counties
- 6 metropolitan counties (councils abolished in 1986)

There are 201 "lower tier" authorities, which all have the function of billing authority for Council Tax: 201 non-metropolitan districts. There are in total 353 principal councils, not including the Corporation of London, the Council of the Isles of Scilly, or the Inner Temple and Middle Temple, the last two of which are also local authorities for some purposes.

Parishes

Below the district level, a district may be divided into several civil parishes. Typical activities undertaken by a parish council include allotments, parks, public clocks, and entering Britain in Bloom.

They have a consultative role in planning. Councils such as districts, counties and unitaries are known as principal local authorities in order to differentiate them in their legal status from parish and town councils, which are not uniform in their existence. Local councils tend not to exist in metropolitan areas but there is nothing to stop their establishment.

The current arrangement of local government in England is the result of a range of incremental measures, which have their origins in the municipal reform of the 19th century.

Councillors & Mayors

Councils have historically had no split between executive and legislature. Functions are vested in the council itself, and then exercised usually by committees or subcommittees of the council.

The chairman of the council itself has authority to conduct the business of meetings of the full council, including the selection of the agenda, but otherwise the chairmanship is considered an honorary position with no real power outside the council meeting.

The chairman of a borough has the title "Mayor". In certain cities the mayor is known as the Lord Mayor; this is an honour which must be granted by Letters Patent from the Crown.

The chairman of a town council too is styled the "town mayor". Boroughs are in many cases descendants of municipal boroughs set up hundreds of years ago, and so have a number of traditions and ceremonial functions attached to the mayor's office. Where a council would have both civic mayor, namely the chairman of the council, and an executive mayor, it has become usual for the chairman to take the take the simple title "Chairman" or "Chair". The post of Leader of the Council has been recognised. Leaders typically chair several important committees, and receive a higher allowance to reflect their additional responsibilities, but they have no special, legal authority.

In 2000, Parliament passed the Local Government Act 2000 requiring councils to move to an executive-based system, either with the council leader and a cabinet acting as an executive authority, or with a directly elected mayor – with either having a cabinet drawn from the councillors – or a mayor and council manager. In 2012, principal councils began returning to Committee systems, under the Localism Act 2011. There are now 16 directly elected mayors, in districts where a referendum was in favour of them. Several of the mayors originally elected were independents, which in parliamentary elections are usually Labour Party strongholds. Committee system councils have no direct "scrutiny" role, with the decisions being scrutinised as they are taken by the committee, and potentially referred to full council for review. Councils may make people honorary freemen or honorary aldermen. A mayor's term of office lasts for the municipal year.

Northern Ireland is divided into 11 districts for local government purposes. In Northern Ireland, local councils do not carry out the same range of functions as those in the rest of the UK; they have no responsibility for education, road-building or housing (nominate members to the advisory Northern Ireland Housing Council). Their functions include planning, waste and recycling services, leisure and community services, building control and local economic and cultural development.

The collection of rates is handled centrally by the Land & Property Services agency of the Northern Ireland Executive. The current pattern of 11 local government districts was established on 1 April 2015, as a result of the reform process that started in 2005. The previous pattern of local government in Northern Ireland, with 26 councils, was established in 1973 by the Local Government (Boundaries) Act 1971 and the Local Government Act 1972 to replace the previous system established by the Local Government (Ireland) Act 1898. The system was based on the recommendations of the Macrory Report, of June 1970, which presupposed the continued existence of the Government of Northern Ireland to act as a regional-level authority. From 1921 to 1973, Northern Ireland was divided into 6 administrative counties (urban & rural districts) and two county boroughs. The counties and county boroughs continue to exist for the purposes of lieutenancy and shrievalty. This system, with the abolition of rural districts, remains the model for local government in the Republic of Ireland.

Local government in Scotland is organised through 32 unitary authorities designated as *councils,* which consist of councillors elected every five years by registered voters in each of the council areas. Councils receive the majority of their funding from the Scottish Government, through aggregate external finance (AEF). Scottish councils co-operate through, and are represented collectively by, the Convention of Scottish Local Authorities (COSLA). The history of Scottish local government mainly surrounds involves the counties of Scotland. The counties have their origins in the sheriffdoms or shires over which a sheriff exercised jurisdiction.

Modern History

Between 1890 & 1975 local government in Scotland was organised with county councils (including four *counties of cities*) and various lower-level units. Between 1890 and 1929, there were parish councils and town councils, but with the passing of the Local Government (Scotland) Act 1929, the functions of parish councils were passed to larger district councils and a distinction was made between large burghs (with a population of 20,000 or more) and small burghs. This system was further refined by the passing of the Local Government (Scotland) Act 1947. The new councils vary widely in size – some are the same as counties. The changes took effect in 1996 with shadow councillors elected in 1995 to oversee the smooth transition of control. In 2016 there were ward boundary changes in 25 local authority areas, following the Scottish Government accepting some of the recommendations of Local Government Boundary Commission for Scotland.

Governance & Administration

The power vested in local authorities is administered by elected councillors. There are currently 1,227 councillors, each paid a part-time salary for the undertaking of their duties. In total, there are 32 unitary authorities, the largest being the City of Glasgow with more than 600,000 inhabitants, the smallest, Orkney, with just over 20,000 people living there (population of 21,670 in 2015).

The Commissioner makes a determination on whether there is a need for an investigation, and then whether or not to refer the matter to the Standards Commission.

Each council elects a convener from among the members of the council to chair meetings and to act as a figurehead for the area. A council may elect a depute convener, though this is not required.

In the four city councils in Scotland – Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen, Dundee – the convener is called a Lord Provost, whilst in other councils the council may choose another title for their conveners. Most councils use the term "provost". The office of provost or convener is roughly equivalent to that of a mayor in other parts of the UK. Traditionally these roles are ceremonial and have no significant administrative functions. Lord provosts in the four city councils have the additional duty of acting as Lord Lieutenant for their respective city. The Leader of the Council is elected as the leader of the largest political grouping of councillors.

The Leader of the Council has no executive or administrative powers designated by statute, but the position is salaried. There is a Depute Leader of the Council appointed.

Each political group within the council typically appoints a leader, with the largest grouping's leader becoming "Leader of the Council", and being the central figure of *de facto* political authority.

Officers of a council are administrative, non-political staff of the council. Generally the composition of the council's officers are a matter for the council, but there are a number of statutory officers whose roles are defined by central government.

The most significant of these officers is the Head of Paid Service, usually titled the Chief Executive. The Chief Executive is similar in function to a city manager, though certain councillors have executive authority and there is no clear division of powers. There is a statutory Monitoring Officer, who usually heads the Legal Services division of the council, as well as a Chief Financial Officer.

Since 1996, **Wales** has been divided into 22 single-tier **principal areas** for local government purposes. 11 are named as counties, including the Cities and Counties of Cardiff and Swansea, 11 are styled as county boroughs. The elected councils of these areas are responsible for the provision of all local government services, including education, social work, environmental protection, most highways.

Below these, there are elected community councils to which responsibility for specific aspects of the application of local policy may be devolved. The Queen appoints a Lord Lieutenant to represent her in each of the eight preserved counties of Wales, which are combinations of principal areas retained for ceremonial purposes. Subdivisions of Wales created for such purposes as the organization of the National Health Service.

The provision of police and emergency services are made up of combinations of principal areas. There are 6 cities in total in Wales: to the three principal areas with city status (Cardiff, Swansea & Newport), the communities of Bangor, St Davids and St Asaph have the status.

City status is granted by letters patent. Like councils throughout the UK, Welsh councils are made up of elected councillors. At the lowest level of administrative subdivision in Wales are the communities, into which each principal area is subdivided. They may have elected community councils which perform a number of roles, such as providing local facilities, and representing their communities to larger local government bodies. Community councils are the equivalent of English parish councils.

A community council may call itself a "town council" if it so wishes. The councils of three communities with city status – Bangor, St Asaph, and St Davids – are known as "city councils".

Communities which are too small to have a council may have a community meeting instead: an example of direct democracy. The communities in the urban areas of the cities of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport do not have community councils.

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

Exercise 2. Analyze the text on the permanent principles.

All *local authorities* derive their *existence* and their *powers* and *functions* from Parliament and the central government. Parliament can take powers away or add to them, and it can even abolish any particular authority, or group or class of authorities, if it wants to. The Local Government Act of 1972 reorganised the whole system, *bringing* a new structure *into effect* in 1974. This was partly revised in 1986. Although Parliament has these powers over local authorities, and has used them recently, it does not exercise any *detailed supervision* through any office of the nature of prefect or local governor.

Many of the activities of local authorities are in fact supervised, advised or controlled by the central government, but there is no single agency of control for any particular local authority or class of authorities. In each area the *elected council* and its officers have direct relations with the various central government departments – though these may have regional offices through which some of the central-local relations are conducted.

In each county, the Queen appoints a Lord Lieutenant as her representative, now only for *ceremonial purposes*. Except around London these ancient ('historic') counties *kept their boundaries unchanged* until 1974, when some of them lost territory to *newly created counties*, some of which in their turn became obsolete in 1986. Within the counties the oldest units are the parishes.

These are the local communities or villages, which became established in the Middle Ages, each with a church as its focal point. They have their equivalents all over Europe, such as French *communes* and German *Gemeinden.* Until 1888 they were important units of administration.

Although they still survive and have elected parish councils, they now have almost no powers of their own. From the early Middle Ages, as some villages grew into towns, the Crown gave them "charters of incorporation" as "boroughs" or "cities", with their own mayors and councils.

But from the late 19th century *successive changes* have been imposed by Parliament. Some old boroughs have been expanded, some, absorbed by others, have ceased to exist as *distinct units of administration*, and some have survived with little change.

Exercise 3. Read & try to understand it.

Administrative management – classical school of management. The traditional view of management that centres on how a business should be organized and the practices an effective manager should follow. The two major contributors to this school of thought were Henri Fayol (1930) and Max Weber (1922).

Fayol's 14 principles of management are still relevant, while Weber's bureaucracy model still has some relevance in medium and large organizations. *Administrative law* – law legislative requirements, typically for businesses, issued by government agencies in published regulations. *Administrator* – a person responsible for carrying out the administration of a business or organization.

The really important difference among towns is that some have the status of "*county boroughs*" – that is to say, they are entirely responsible for all their own local government services, and are quite independent of the counties, in which they are geographically situated; in local government they have the status of counties themselves.

The status of county borough was given in 1888 to all towns, which then had a population of over 50,000, and a few other towns have been given this status by Acts of Parliament since that time.

But for a long time past it has been generally agreed that this promotion ought not to be given too easily, and some towns with many more than 50,000 inhabitants are still not county boroughs. In 1968 there were 83 towns in England and Wales with county borough status.

Everywhere outside the county boroughs there is a "*two-tier*" pattern of local government, with the most important (fairly large-scale) local services managed by the counties, but some services performed by the inferior authorities. These inferior authorities are of three types: first, the non-county boroughs (municipal boroughs) – that is, the towns, which have charters of incorporation as boroughs or cities but have not been given independent status; secondly, urban districts, which are towns which have never been given charters of incorporation; and thirdly, rural districts.

All this means that if you live in a county borough, all your local government services are looked after by the borough, but otherwise some of the services are provided by the county and some by the nearer borough or district authorities. The distribution of services between the counties and the boroughs and districts is not rigidly fixed, but in general the municipal boroughs have more functions than the urban districts, and the urban districts have more functions than the rural districts.

Thus, responsibility for local government in England and Wales is divided as follows: 83 county boroughs, with a total population of about 12,000,000, manage their own affairs. Outside these big towns 58 administrative counties manage the large-scale services in their own areas. Under the counties are parallel subdivisions – about 300 municipal boroughs and 1,000 districts.

Just over half of them are urban districts, the rest rural. Leaving aside the county boroughs each administrative county has, on the average, about 22 smaller authorities in the second tier below it. London is a county with a special system. The term "*administrative county*" excludes the county boroughs within a geographical county.

✦ Local government is often regarded as being the basis of national self-government.

✦ Local government is essentially a method of getting various services run for the benefit of the community. Education, medical and hospital services, public transport and other utility services have become matters of governmental concern.

✦ The functions of local government can be broadly divided into two main groups, namely functions of control over the activities of private citizens, and the provision of public services.

✦ In the first main group – functions of control – is the power to make by laws. All the local councils have this power.

✦ By laws, a form of local legislation (like other laws) is designed to regulate the conduct of members of the public.

The provision of public services (the second main group of local governmental functions) is not strictly speaking a governmental function that is as far as government is to be regarded as the regulation of the conduct of private citizens. The governments of civilized countries make it their concern not only to restrain by guidance or control the activities of their subjects, but also to provide for the public welfare by the establishment of system of education, sanitation, roads and other services.

In addition to the series of local councils, there are a number of their bodies operating in local areas throughout the country and having functions, which are similar to or allied with the functions of these councils. Every local government area has its council, elected by the inhabitants.

Any person who is entitled to vote in parliamentary elections may now vote in local elections too. The number of members of a council depends on the population of the area, but is not related to it according to any definite formula. The smallest council has 15 members, the largest 150; the council of a medium-sized administrative county is likely to have about 50 or 60 members. The arrangements for the election of the councillors are rather complicated, and are not the same for all types of councils.

Members of county councils are elected for three years at general elections taking place every three years. With borough councils there is an election every year, but only one-third of seats in each council are filled at each annual election; each councillor is elected for three years, but at any particular election only one-third of the seats are filled. With the rural and urban districts there is some variation. Some follow the same system as the counties, with general elections for the whole council every three years, and some follow the system of the boroughs. Public interest is local; government elections are usually rather slight. The county and borough councils do not consist only of members elected by the inhabitants, but have another element in addition.

In each case, 255 of the members of the council are appointed, for terms of six years each, by the whole of the rest of the council. These appointed members are not called councillors, but aldermen.

This arrangement of having some non-elected members was introduced with the modern system of local government towards the end of the 19th century.

The intention was that the councillors could themselves choose from the community, to serve as aldermen, some solid men who would not wish to take the trouble of getting them elected.

In practice, however, it is usual for the councillors to choose as aldermen, not distinguished people from outside, but the most senior among their own number. Sometimes a party with a small majority gives all the vacant aldermanic seats to its own supporters, and thus, increases its majority; but this practice invites criticism and possibly later retaliation. Aldermen and councillors are not paid for their work, but they may receive some allowance of money to help with their expenses.

Every local council has its presiding officer, and this post is filled by the vote of the whole council, for only one year at a time. The presiding officer of a country or district council is called the Chairman, but in a borough or city, he is called Mayor or Lord Mayor. (The title of Lord Mayor is a special mark of distinction given to the mayors of the seventeen most important English cities, and Cardiff in Wales. A Lord Mayor does not receive any title personally by virtue of his office).
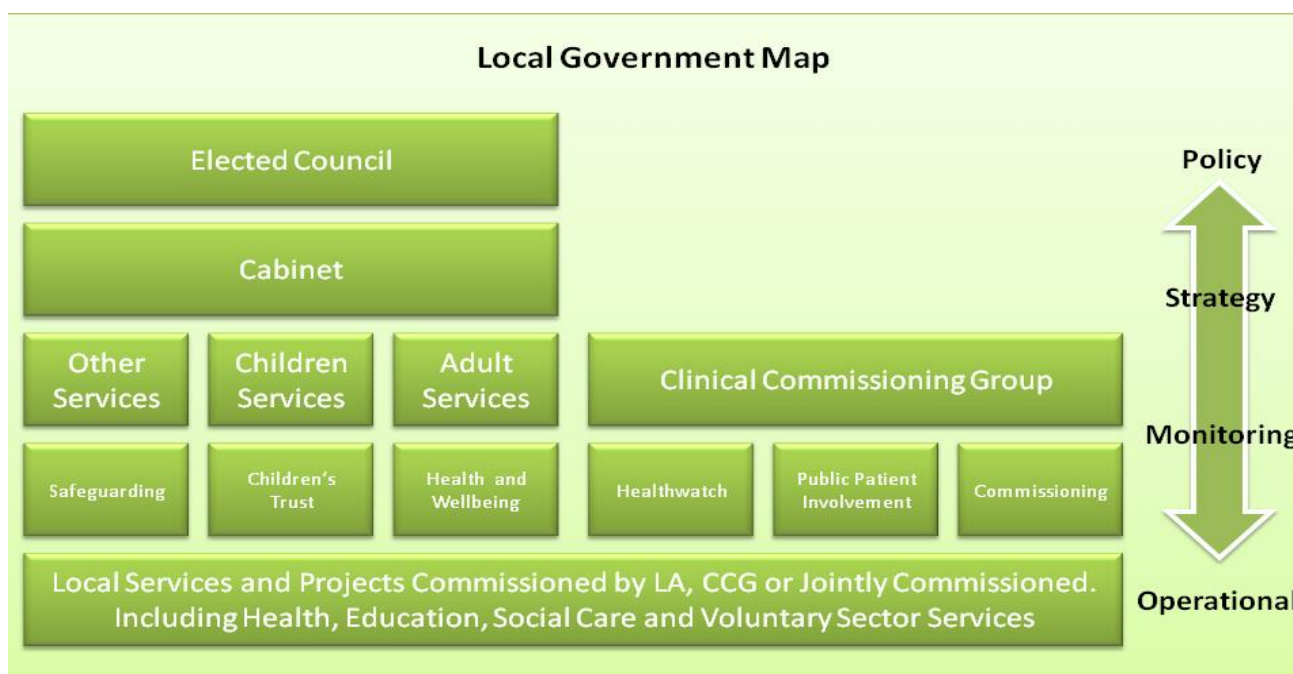
Any person may be appointed to the office of Mayor or Lord Mayor, but in practice, the office is usually given to a fairly senior member of the council who has not yet held the office. Re-election of the same person is possible but unusual.

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

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

Exercise *3. Answer the questions.*

1. What is regarded as being the basis of national self-government? 2. What kind of services have become matters of governmental concern? 3. How many groups can the functions of local government be broadly divided into? 4. What local councils have the power to do the control? 5. What do the governments of civilized countries make it their concern? 6. There are a number of their bodies operating in local areas throughout the country, aren't they? 7. Who elects every local government? 8. Who may now vote in local elections too? 9. The arrangements for the election of the councillors are complicated, aren't they? 10. How often is there election with borough councils? 11. How many seats in each council are filled at each annual election? 12. Is there some variation with the rural and urban districts? Government elections aren't usually rather slight, are they? 13. How many members of the council are appointed? 14. How are these appointed members called? 15. Are aldermen and councillors paid for their work? 16. How is the post of presiding officer filled? 17. Who may be appointed to the office of Mayor or Lord Mayor?

Local Government Map

Elected Council

Cabinet

| Other Services | Children Services | Adult Services | Clinical Commissioning Group |
| Safeguarding | Children's Trust | Health and Wellbeing | Healthwatch | Public Patient Involvement | Commissioning |

Local Services and Projects Commissioned by LA, CCG or Jointly Commissioned. Including Health, Education, Social Care and Voluntary Sector Services

Policy

Strategy

Monitoring

Operational

⬥ Local government is concerned with localities and not with the country as a whole; it must be subordinate to the national government for this reason.

⬥ Since local government is concerned with, the exercise of particular functions in particular areas, the areas used for local government purposes are an important feature.

⬥ For England and Wales outside London there are laid down, for local government purposes, six types of area – the county borough, the administrative county, the non-county borough, the urban district, the rural district and the parish. London has a separate set of arrangements: there is an administrative county of London composed of the City of London and 28 metropolitan boroughs.

⬥ The Local Government Act, 1933 and the London Government Act, 1939 provide each administrative county to have its county council, each borough (whether county, non-county or metropolitan) its borough council, each urban and rural district its urban district council or rural district council and for the establishment of parish councils for rural parishes.

⬥ The City of London has its own special constitution - a "*Court of Common Council*".

⬥ All these local councils have two features in common. They are publicly elected periodically by the people of the area, (county, borough, district or parish) which the council represents.

⬥ Second, they all depend to a large for their finances on the local taxes (known as rates) levied on occupiers of property in the area.

⬥ Since the rates are paid by the people in the area of the council that is by the people who have elected the council there is local financial responsibility as between council and electors.

Notes on the text

Alderman – a magistrate ranking next to the mayor in cities and boroughs from medieval times until modern municipal reorganization; a member of the smaller of the two classes composing the borough or county council; one of the 26 chief officers chosen for life who heads a ward of the City of London; a member of a legislative body of a city.

Councils in England are in buildings such as the Birmingan Town Hall.

The reforms arising from the Local Government Act of 1972 resulted in the most uniform and simplified system of local government, which has been used in England. They effectively wiped away everything that had gone before, and built an administrative system from scratch.

All previous administrative districts – statutory counties, administrative counties, county boroughs, municipal boroughs, counties corporate, civil parishes – were abolished.

The aim of the act was to establish a uniform two tier system across the country. Onto the blank canvas, new counties were created to cover the entire country; many of these were obviously based on the historic counties, but there were some major changes, especially in the north.

This uniform two-tier system lasted only 12 years. In 1986, the metropolitan county councils and Greater London were abolished. This restored autonomy (in effect the old county borough status) to the metropolitan and London boroughs.

The Local Government Act (1992) established a commission (Local Government Commission for England) to examine the issues, and make recommendations on where unitary authorities should be established. It was considered too expensive to make the system entirely unitary; there would doubtlessly be cases where the two-tier system functioned well.

The commission recommended that many counties be moved to completely unitary systems; that some cities become unitary authorities, but that the remainder of their parent counties remain two-tier; and that in some counties the status quo should remain.

The rate-capping rebellion was a campaign within English local councils in 1985, which aimed to force the Conservative government of Margaret Thatcher to withdraw powers to restrict the spending of councils. The campaign's tactic was that councils whose budgets were restricted would refuse to set any budget at all for the financial year 1985-86, requiring the Government to intervene directly in providing local services, or to concede. However, all 15 councils, which initially refused to set a rate eventually, did so, and the campaign failed to change Government policy. Powers to restrict council budgets have remained in place ever since. In 1997, the Lieutenancies Act was passed.

This firmly separated all local authority areas (unitary or two-tier), from the geographical concept of a county as high level spatial unit. The lieutenancies it established became known as ceremonial counties, since they were no longer administrative divisions. The counties represent a compromise between the historic counties and the established in 1974. While the 1997 Labour government devolved power to Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, it refused to create a devolved Assembly or parliament for England, planning instead to introduce eight regional assemblies around England to devolve power to the regions.

In the event, only a London Assembly (directly elected Mayor) was established. Rejection in a referendum of a proposed North-East Assembly in 2004 effectively scrapped those plans.

A pre-condition of having a regional assembly was for the whole area to move to unitary authority status. Since the 2005 General Election, the government has floated the idea of voluntary mergers of local councils, avoiding a costly reorganisation but achieving desired reform.

The guiding principles of the government's "New Localism" demand levels of efficiency not present in the current over-duplicated two-tier structure.

Recent Changes

In 2009, new changes to local government were made whereby a number of new unitary authorities were created in areas, which previously had a 'two-tier' system of counties and districts.

In five shire counties, the functions of the county and district councils were combined into a single authority; and in two counties the powers of the county council were absorbed into a significantly reduced number of districts. The abolition of regional development agencies and the creation of Local enterprise partnerships were announced as part of the June 2010 UK budget.

During the 20th century, the structure of local government was reformed and rationalised, with local government areas becoming fewer and larger, and the functions of local councils amended.
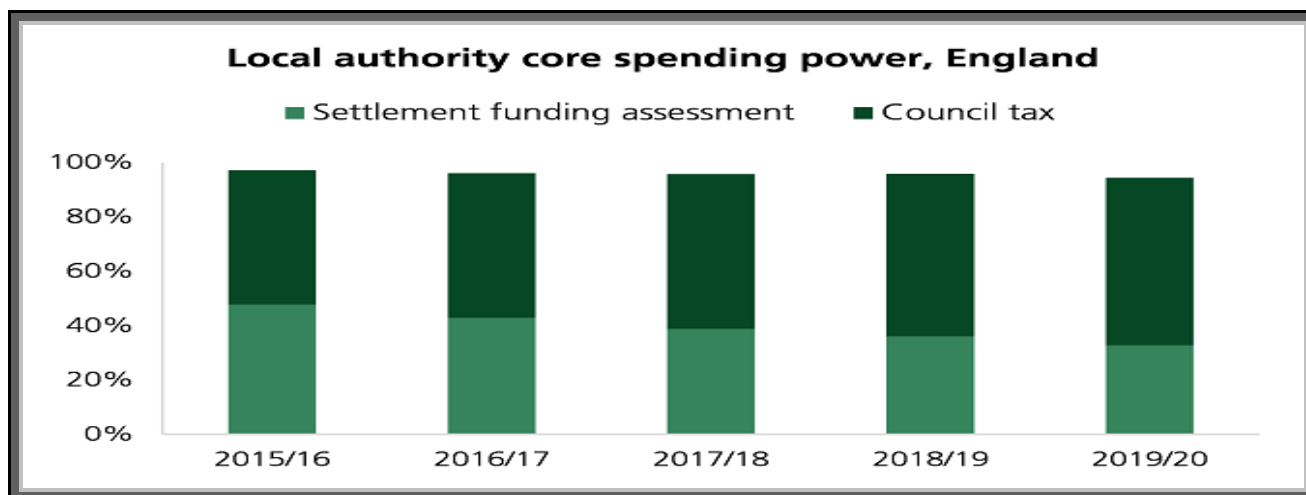
The way local authorities are funded has been subject to periodic and significant reform.

On 29 June 2010, a letter was sent from the Department of Communities & Local Government and the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills to local authority and business leaders, inviting proposals to replace regional development agencies in their areas by 6 September 2010.

On 7 September 2010, details were released of 56 proposals for local enterprise partnerships that had been received. On 6 October 2010, during the Conservative Party Conference, it was revealed that 22 had been given the provisional "green light" to proceed and others may later be accepted with amendments. 24 bids were announced as successful on 28 October 2010.

Northern Ireland is one of the four countries of the UK (although it is described by official sources as a province or a region), situated in the northeast of the island of Ireland. It was created as a separate legal entity on 3 May 1921, under the Government of Ireland Act 1920.

The new autonomous Northern Ireland was formed from six of the nine counties of Ulster: four counties with unionist majorities and two counties, Fermanagh and Tyrone, which had slight Irish nationalist majorities (of 53.6% and 54.6% respectively in the 1918 election). The remaining three Ulster counties with larger nationalist majorities were not included. In large part, unionists, at least in the northeast, supported its creation while nationalists were opposed.

Local authority spending power

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CHAPTER IV. JUDICIAL SYSTEM IN THE UK
UNIT I. TYPES OF COURTS

INTRODUCTION

Judiciary is the last branch of power in the UK and it is made up of the court system with the Supreme Court on top. Its members have a great power because they are the ones who decide what the law actually implies in any given case. The power of judges in the UK is even higher because UK does not have a written constitution and therefore there is no supreme set of laws collected in one place to be available for the citizens.

Due to this enormous power, judiciary has a large amount of checks and balances. Firstly, the court system in itself allows any case to be considered by a more supreme court every time if the court decision was considered unfair. Secondly, judges are appointed and approved by the experts outside judiciary, who are theoretically unlikely to be prejudiced during the appointment process.

THE COURT 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 judgments and customs. Just as there is no written constitution, so England and Wales have no criminal or civil code and the interpretation of the law is based on what has happened in the past. The courts interpret the laws, which are made in Parliament, 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 (divorce or bankruptcy cases) are dealt with in County courts. Appeals are heard by higher courts.

The Central Criminal Court in London: the Old Bailey. 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 in Luxembourg. In addition, individuals have made the British Government change its practices in a number of areas because of petitions to the European Court of Human Rights.

The legal system also includes juvenile courts (offenders under 17) and coroners' courts (investigate violent, sudden or unnatural deaths). There are administrative tribunals, which make quick, cheap and fair decisions with much less formality. Tribunals deal with professional standards, disputes between individuals, and individuals and government departments (overtaxation).

Criminal law is concerned with wrongful acts wrongful acts to the community. *Civil law* is concerned with individuals' rights, duties and obligations towards one another. Administration of justice rests with the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Advocate, the Home Secretary, the Attorney General and the Secretaries of State for Scotland and Northern Ireland. The highest judicial appointments are made by the Queen on the advice of the Prime Minister. The judiciary is independent, its adjudications not being subject to ministerial direction or control.

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

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

Exercise 3. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 4. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

The Courts of the UK are separated into three separate jurisdictions, the Courts of England and Wales, Courts of Scotland and the Courts of Northern Ireland.

Her Majesty's Courts of Justice of England and Wales are the civil and criminal courts responsible for the administration of justice in England and Wales; they apply English law, the law of England and Wales, and are established under Acts of the Parliament of the UK.

The UK does not have a single unified legal system – England and Wales have one system, Scotland another, and Northern Ireland a third.

There are exceptions to this rule; for example in immigration law, the Asylum and Immigration Tribunal's jurisdiction covers the whole of the UK, while in employment law there is a single system of Employment Tribunals for England, Wales, and Scotland (not Northern Ireland).

Additionally, the Military Court Service has jurisdiction over all members of the armed forces of the UK in relation to offences against military law. The Court of Appeal, the High Court, the Crown Court, the Magistrates' Courts, and the County Courts are administered by Her Majesty's Courts and Tribunals Service, an executive agency of the Ministry of Justice.

The Supreme Court is the highest appeal court in almost all cases in England and Wales. Prior to the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 this role was held by the House of Lords. The Supreme Court is also the highest court of appeal for devolution matters, a role previously held by the Privy Council.

The Privy Council is the highest court of appeal for a small number of Commonwealth countries, colonies and the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man.

There are a number of smaller statutory jurisdictions, such as appeals from ecclesiastical and professional bodies. The judges who sit on the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council are also the members of the Supreme Court and the Court of Appeal. The Senior Courts of England and Wales were originally created by the Judicature Acts as the "Supreme Court of Judicature".

It was renamed the "Supreme Court of England and Wales" in 1981, and again to the "Senior Courts of England and Wales" by the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 (to distinguish it from the new Supreme Court of the UK). It consists of the following courts: Court of Appeal (formally Her Majesty's Court of Appeal in England); High Court of Justice in England; Crown Court.

The Court of Appeal deals only with appeals from other courts or tribunals.

The Court of Appeal consists of two divisions: the Civil Division hears appeals from the High Court and County Court and certain superior tribunals, while the Criminal Division may only hear appeals from the Crown Court connected with a trial on indictment (i.e. for a serious offence). Its decisions are binding on all courts, including itself, apart from the Supreme Court.

The High Court of Justice functions both as a civil court of first instance and a criminal and civil appellate court for cases from the subordinate courts. It consists of three divisions: the Queen's Bench, the Chancery and the Family divisions. The divisions of the High Court are not separate courts, but have somewhat separate procedures and practices adapted to their purposes.

Although particular kinds of cases will be assigned to each division depending on their subject matter, each division may exercise the jurisdiction of the High Court.

The Crown Court is a criminal court of both original and appellate jurisdiction which in addition handles a limited amount of civil business both at first instance and on appeal. It was established by the Courts Act 1971. It replaced the Assizes whereby High Court judges would periodically travel around the country hearing cases, and Quarter Sessions which were periodic county courts.

The Old Bailey is the unofficial name of London's most famous Criminal Court, which is now part of the Crown Court. Its official name is the "Central Criminal Court". The Crown Court hears appeals from Magistrates' Courts. It is the only court in England and Wales that has the jurisdiction to try cases on indictment and when exercising such a role it is a superior court. There its judgments cannot be reviewed by the Administrative Court of the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court.

The Crown Court is an inferior court in respect of the other work it undertakes, viz. inter alia, appeals from the Magistrates' courts and other tribunals.

The most common subordinate courts in England and Wales are the *Magistrates' Courts*, *Family Proceedings Courts*, *Youth courts*, *County Courts*. *Magistrates' Courts* are presided over by a bench of lay magistrates (aka justices of the peace), or a legally trained district judge (formerly known as a stipendiary magistrate), sitting in each local justice area. There are no juries. They hear minor criminal cases, as well as certain licensing appeals. Youth courts are run on similar lines to Adult magistrates' courts but deal with offenders aged between the ages of 10 and 17 inclusive.

Youth courts are presided over by a specially trained subset of experienced adult magistrates or a district judge. Youth magistrates have a wider catalogue of disposals available to them for dealing with young offenders and often hear more serious cases against youths. In addition, some Magistrates' Courts are also a Family Proceedings Court and hear Family law cases including care cases and they have the power to make adoption orders. Family Proceedings Courts are not open to the public.

The Family Proceedings Court Rules 1991 apply to cases in the Family Proceedings Court.

Youth courts are not open to the public for observation, only the parties involved in a case being admitted. *County Courts* are statutory courts with a purely civil jurisdiction.

They are presided over by either a District or Circuit Judge and, except in a small minority of cases such as civil actions against the Police. The judge sits alone as trier of fact and law without assistance from a jury. County courts have divorce jurisdiction and undertake private family cases, care proceedings and adoptions. County Courts are local courts in the sense that each one has an area over which certain kinds of jurisdiction – such as actions concerning land or cases concerning children who reside in the area – are exercised. Proceedings for possession of land must be started in the county court in whose district the property lies.

However, in general any county court in England and Wales may hear any action and claims are frequently transferred from court to court. it sits in 92 different cities of UK. The Court Service administers the tribunals that fall under the direct responsibility of the Lord Chancellor.

Tribunals can be considered the lowest rung of the court hierarchy in England and Wales. In addition, there are many other specialist courts. These are often described as "Tribunals" rather than courts, but the difference in name is not of any great consequence. An Employment Tribunal is an inferior court of record for the purposes of the law of contempt of court. In many cases there is a statutory right of appeal from a tribunal to a particular court or specially constituted appellate tribunal.

In the absence of a specific appeals court, the only remedy from a decision of a Tribunal may be a judicial review to the High Court, which will often be more limited in scope than an appeal. Examples of specialist courts are:

- Employment (formerly Industrial) Tribunals with appeal to the Employment Appeal Tribunal.
- The Employment Appeal Tribunal, which is a superior court of record, and therefore not subject to judicial review, appeals go to the Court of Appeal.
- Leasehold Valuation Tribunals, with appeal to the Lands Tribunal.
- The Lands Tribunal (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).
- The First-tier Tribunal and the Upper Tribunal established under the Tribunals, Courts and Enforcement Act 2007. The post of coroner is ancient, dating from the 11th century, and coroners still sit today to determine the cause of death in situations where people have died in potentially suspicious circumstances, abroad, or in the care of central authority. They have jurisdiction over treasure trove.

The Church of England is an established church had exclusive or non-exclusive subject matter jurisdiction over marriage and divorce cases, testamentary matters, defamation, and other areas.

Since the 19th century, the jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical courts has narrowed principally to matters of church property and errant clergy. However, in the area of immigration law, the respective jurisdictions of the Asylum and Immigration Tribunal.

The Special Immigration Appeals Commission cover all of the UK; in employment law, Employment tribunals and the Employment Appeal Tribunal have jurisdiction in the whole of Great Britain (but Northern Ireland). The Constitutional Reform Act 2005 created a new Supreme Court of the UK to take over the judicial functions of the House of Lords and devolution cases from the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. The Supreme Court began work in 2009, and serves as the highest court of appeal in England and Wales and in Northern Ireland, and for civil cases in Scotland.

The High Court of Justiciary remains the court of last resort in Scotland for criminal cases.

The Supreme Criminal Court in Scotland is the High Court of Justiciary, which consists of the Lord Justice General, the Lord Justice Clerk and other judges. The High Court sits in Edinburgh and in other major towns and cities. It tries the most serious crimes and has exclusive jurisdiction in cases involving murder, treason and rape. *The Sheriff Court* is concerned with relatively less serious offences. There are six sheriffdoms, each of which is headed by a Sheriff Principal who is responsible for ensuring the efficient disposal of justice. The six sheriffdoms are subdivided into 49 sheriff court districts. The sheriff is the judge in the Sheriff Court.

District courts deal with more minor offences. They are established on a local government district basis and their judges are either lay justices of the peace or legally qualified stipendiary magistrates who have the same summary criminal jurisdiction and powers as the sheriff.
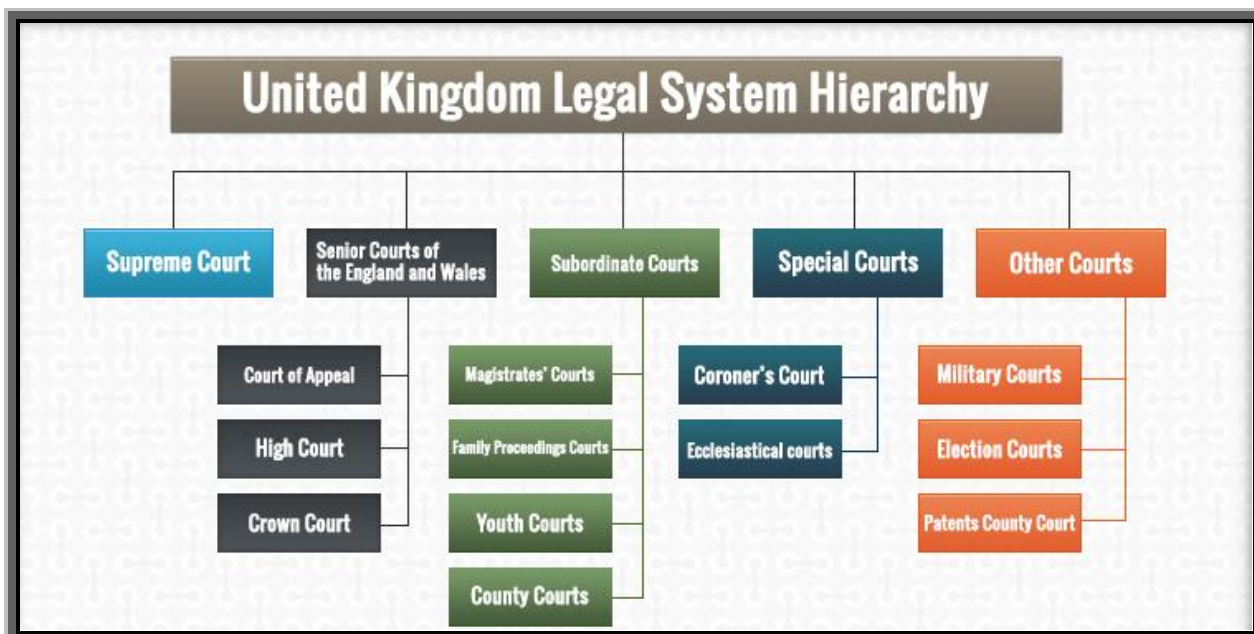
The fiscal decides whether the case should be tried in the sheriff or district court and whether the proceedings are to be by summary or solemn procedure. Summary procedure leads to trial by a judge or jury. An accused person does not have the right to elect for trial by jury. When deciding between solemn or summary procedure, the fiscal has to consider the gravity of the offence, the criminal record of the accused and the fact that a summary court has limited powers of sentence in the event of conviction. In solemn procedure, the trial takes place before a judge sitting with a jury of 15 people.

Details of the alleged offence are set out in a document called an indictment.

The judge decides questions of law and the jury questions of fact. The judge sits without a jury in summary procedure and decides questions of fact and law. The fiscal serves upon the accused a summary complaint containing the terms of the charges and instructing him or her to appear in court. All cases in the High Court and the more serious ones in sheriff courts are tried by a judge and jury.

Summary procedure is used in the less serious cases in the sheriff courts and all cases in the district courts. Children under 16 who have committed an offence are normally dealt with by children's hearings.

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

United Kingdom Legal System Hierarchy

COUNTY & CIVIL COURTS

Civil cases are heard in County Courts and the High Court. Magistrates' Courts have a concurrent jurisdiction with the County Courts and the High Court in cases relating to children.

The County Courts were established in 1846, chiefly in order to facilitate the recovery of small debts. Civil law courts provide a forum for deciding disputes involving tort (accidents, negligence, libel), contract disputes, the probate of wills, trusts, property disputes, administrative law, commercial law, and any other private matters that involve private parties and other groups including government institutions. An action by an individual (or legal equivalent) against the attorney general is a civil matter, but when the state, being represented by the prosecutor for the attorney general, or some other agent for the state, takes action against an individual (or legal equivalent, including a department of the government), this is public law, not civil law.

There are some 250 county courts. Each court is assigned at least one circuit judge and one district judge. The circuit judge usually hears the high-value claims and matters of greater importance or complexity. The district judge hears uncontested matters, mortgage repossession claims and small-value claims. The circuit judge deals with appeals from decisions by the district judge.

The Courts of Summary Jurisdiction have, in addition to their criminal jurisdiction, a limited civil jurisdiction, of which the most important heads are:

- the making of separation orders; affiliation orders; adoption orders (these may also be made by County Courts and the High Court;
- the regulation differing from each court;
- the enforcement of the payment of local rates and income tax;
- the grant of licences to public houses;
- the settlement of certain disputes between employers and workmen.

Justice in minor civil cases is administrated in the County Courts. These courts, incidentally, have nothing to do with the counties; the name was selected for historical reasons. Specialized work is concentrated in certain designated courts. In some types of cases, admiralty cases, a county court is restricted to an upper financial limit. For small claims, there are special arbitration facilities and simplified procedures. Most small claims are about money that one person owes to another.

Arbitration is normally heard by the district judge, who asks questions to discover the facts at issue and dispenses with strict rules of procedure and evidence. County Courts have very severely limited jurisdiction. They have only limited equitable jurisdiction to issue orders compelling persons to do certain things. Except for a few cases in which they are specifically authorized to review the decisions of administrative authorities, County Courts have no power to consider appeals against administrative decision-making. There are over 100 special care centres and family hearing centres, which deal with contested family matters involving children. In particular, all cases of nullity and divorce must be taken before the High Court in London or Assizes. Appeals from the Court of Summary Jurisdiction follow the same course in civil as in criminal cases. Appeals from the County Court or from the High Court may be taken to the Court of Appeal, with the possibility of a further appeal to the House of Lords.

The civil courts in Scotland are the Court of Session and the Sheriff Court, which have the same jurisdiction over most civil litigation. The Court of Session, however, does not consider cases with a value of less than £1,500; these are dealt with by the Sheriff Court. Appeals from the sheriff may be made to the sheriff principal or directly to the Court of Session in ordinary actions.

In summary cause actions, the case may be appealed to the sheriff principal on a point of law and to the Court of Session thereafter only if the sheriff principal certifies the case as suitable for such an appeal. In small claims there may only be in appeal to the sheriff principal on a point of law.
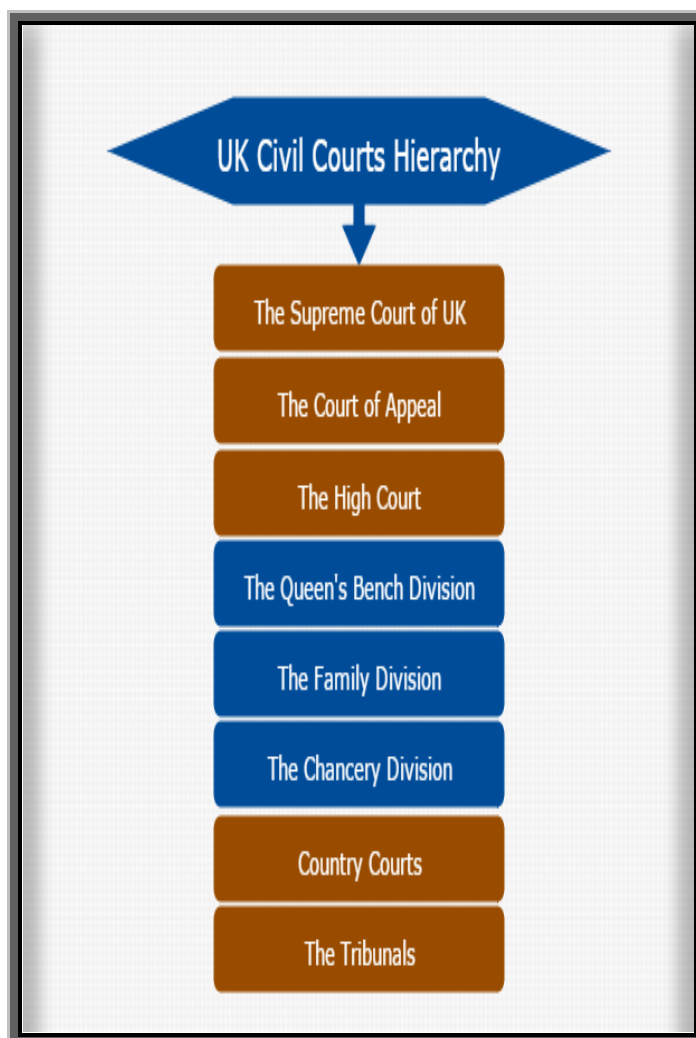
The Court of Session sits in Edinburgh, and in general has jurisdiction to deal with all kinds of action.

It is divided into the Outer House (a court of first instance) and the Inner House (mainly an Appeal Court). Appeals to the Inner House may be made from the Outer House and from the Sheriff Court. From the Inner House an appeal may go to the House of Lords. Proceedings in the Court of Session or ordinary actions in the Sheriff Court are initiated by serving the defender with a summons (an initial writ in the Sheriff Court) which is a document requesting the court to grant the remedy sought and containing a detailed statement of the facts upon which the pursue relies.

A defender who intends to contest the action must inform the court; if he or she fails to do so, the court normally grants a decree in absence in favour of the pursuer. Where a case is contested, both parties must prepare written pleading. The pursuer and defender are then given an opportunity to adjust their own cases in the light of the statements and allegations put forward by the other side.

A court hearing is then arranged for the case to be determined. In summary cause cases in the Sheriff Court a statement of claim is incorporated in the summons. The procedure is designed to enable most actions to be carried through without the parties involved having to appear in court, except in contested cases. The Scottish Land Court deals exclusively with matters concerning agriculture. Its chairman has the status and tenure of a judge of the Court of Session and its other members are summoned. Civil cases to a limited and specified monetary value are dealt with in county courts, although Magistrates' Courts also deal with certain limited classes of civil case. The superior civil law court is the High Court of Justice, from which an appeal may be made to the Court of Appeal.

The House of Lords is the final civil appeal court.

UK civil courts

OTHER REMEDIES

There are a number of differences between proceedings in Northern Ireland and those in England and Wales – procedures in the county court start with the issue of a civil bill, which is served by the plaintiff on the defendant. There are some procedures, which enable grievances to be remedied without going to law.

The Parliamentary Commissioner for Administration (Ombudsman), for instance, investigates complaints of maladministration when asked to do so as they were Members of Parliament on behalf of members of the public. Powers of investigation extend to administrative actions be central government departments and certain executive and non-departmental bodies. They do not include policy decisions – which can be questioned in Parliament – and matters affecting relations with other countries.

The Commissioner has access to departmental papers, and reports the findings to the Member of Parliament who presented the complaint. The Commissioner is required to report annually to Parliament. In addition, he or she publishes details of selected investigations at quarterly intervals.

There are similar complaints procedures covering local government.

The Restrictive Practices Court is a specialized UK Court dealing with monopolies and restrictive trade practices. It comprises five judges – three from the English High Court, one from the Scottish Court of Session and one from the Northern Ireland Supreme Court – and up to ten other people with expertise in industry, commerce or public life. Cases are referred to the Court by the Director of Fair Trading. It has power to decide whether a restrictive practice is against the public interest and to prevent parties to such practices from enforcing them.

Note on the text

Restrictive Practices Court – суд, рассматривающий дела о нарушении свободы конкуренции.

Exercise 1. Digest the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Translate phrases and make up sentences with them.

To be of importance; to be of significance; to be of concern.

Exercise 3. Give the antonyms to the following words.

Disagreement, illegal, incapacity, incompetent, non-legal, unmarried, uncertain.

Exercise 4. Explain the jurisdiction of the county courts which covers:

- actions founded upon contract and tort;
- trust and mortgage cases;
- action for the recovery of land;
- disputes between landlords and tenants;
- complaints about race and sex discrimination;
- admiralty cases (maritime questions and offences) and patent cases;
- divorce cases and other family matters.

Exercise 5. Read the text and give the main idea of it.

Tribunals exercise judicial functions separate from the courts and tend to be more accessible, less formal and less expensive. They are normally set up under statutory powers, which govern their constitution, functions and procedure. Tribunals often consist of lay people, but they are generally chaired by someone who is legally qualified. Some tribunals decide disputes between private citizens.

Industrial tribunals, for example, have a major role in employment disputes.

Others, such as those concerned with social security, resolve claims by private citizens against public authorities. A further group (including tax tribunals) decides disputed claims by public authorities against private citizens, while others decide cases concerning immigration into Britain.

Tribunals usually consist of an uneven number of people so that a majority decision can be reached. A two-tier system operates in some areas. In the case of industrial tribunals which deal with employment cases there is a right of appeal on a question of law to the Employment Appeal Tribunal, followed by further appeal to the Court of Appeal (Civil Division) in England and Wales and to the Court of Session in Scotland. The independent Council on tribunals appointed by the Lord Chancellor and the Lord Advocate, supervises many tribunals, advises on draft legislation and rules of procedure, monitors their activities and reports on particular matters. A Scottish Committee of the Council exercises similar functions in Scotland.

Exercise 6. Translate the sentences into your native language.

1. Since charges against children and young persons are heard by Juvenile Courts the Justices should be specially qualified to deal with juvenile cases.

2. In small towns the clerk of the Inferior Court will advise the Justice of the Peace on legal matters in as much as he is the only lawyer in the court, as a rule.

3. The Court of Summary Jurisdiction could not send the accused for trial to a higher court seeing that there was no sufficient evidence.

Exercise 7. Remember that.

Civil law – the law applied by the civil courts in the UK, as opposed to ecclesiastical, criminal, or military law. It is, thus, the law that regulates dealings between private citizens that are not subject to interference by the state. Its chief divisions include the law of contract, torts, and trusts.

Civil law – the system of law concerned with private relations between members of a community rather than criminal, military, or religious affairs.

The law generally is in force on the Continent, which has its basis in Roman law.

This is the system of law predominant on the European continent and of which a form is in force in Louisiana, historically influenced by the codes of ancient Rome.

Exercise 8. Pay attention to the words and word-combinaitions.

civil rights – гражданские права
civil strife (war) – междоусобица, гражданская война
civil case гражданское дело
a civil servant – государственный служащий
a civil marriage – гражданский брак
civil defence – гражданская оборона
civil disturbances — беспорядки
to be civil to – соблюдать вежливость по отношению к кому-л.
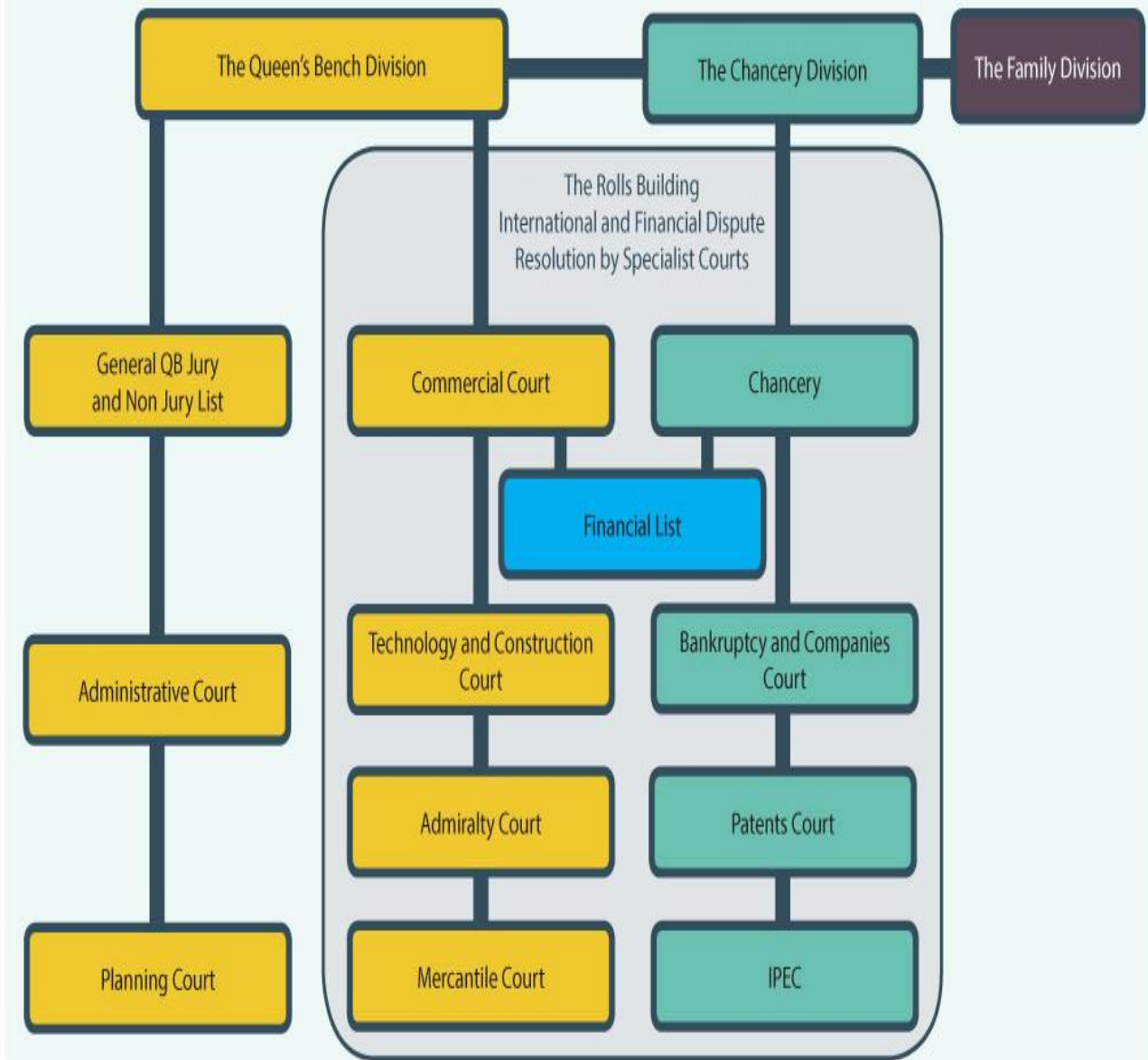civil twilight – гражданские сумерки
civil unrest – общественные беспорядки
civil violation – гражданское правонарушение
to keep a civil tongue (in one's head) – держаться в рамках приличия

Exercise 9. Add some information &make up a small report and give a talk in class.

THE HIGH COURT OF ENGLAND AND WALES

The Queen's Bench Division — The Chancery Division — The Family Division

The Rolls Building
International and Financial Dispute
Resolution by Specialist Courts

General QB Jury and Non Jury List

Commercial Court

Chancery

Financial List

Administrative Court

Technology and Construction Court

Bankruptcy and Companies Court

Admiralty Court

Patents Court

Planning Court

Mercantile Court

IPEC

The High Court

THE HIGH COURT

The High Court deals with the more complicated civil cases and with most appeals.

In the event of overlapping jurisdiction between the High Court and the county court, cases of exceptional importance, complexity or financial substance are reserved or transferred for trial in the High Court. The High Court is divided into three divisions:

🞣 the Family Divisions, which is concerned with family law, including adoption and divorce;

🞣 the Chancery Divisions, which deals with corporate and personal insolvency; disputes in the running of companies, between landlords and tenants and in intellectual property matters; and the interpretation of trusts and contested wills;

🞣 The Queen's Bench Division, which is concerned with contract and tort cases, and deals with applications for judicial review.

Maritime law and commercial law are the responsibility of the Division's admiralty and commercial courts. The jurisdictions overlap in some cases, and cases started in one division may be transferred by court order to another where appropriate. The differences of procedure and practice between divisions are partly historical, derived from the separate courts which were merged into the single High Court by the 19th-century Judicature Acts, but are mainly driven by the usual nature of their work, for example, conflicting evidence of fact is quite commonly given in person in the Queen's Bench Division, but evidence by affidavit is more usual in the Chancery Division which is primarily concerned with points of law.

Most High Court proceedings are heard by a single judge, but certain kinds of proceedings, especially in the Queen's Bench Division, are assigned to a Divisional Court, a bench of two or more judges. Exceptionally the court may sit with a jury, but in practice normally only in defamation cases or cases against the police. Litigants are normally represented by counsel, but may be represented by solicitors qualified to hold a right of audience, or they may act in person. The High Court is in the City of Westminster, London. It has district registries across England and Wales and almost all its proceedings may be issued and heard at a district registry headed by the Lord Chief Justice.

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

Exercise 2. Answer the questions.

1. What does The High Court deal with? 2. When are cases of exceptional importance, complexity or financial substance reserved? 3. How many divisions is The High Court divided into? 4. What are the responsibility of the Division's admiralty and commercial courts? 5. When did cases start in one division may be transferred by court order to another where appropriate? 6. Are the differences of procedure and practice between divisions partly historical? 7. Were they derived from the separate courts which were merged into the single High Court by the 19th-century Judicature Acts? 8. Are they mainly driven by the usual nature of their work? 9. Who hears most High Court proceedings? 10. Are certain kinds of proceedings assigned to a Divisional Court? 11. How many judges are there in a bench there? 12. When can the court sit with a jury? 13. Who normally represents litigants? 14. Are solicitors qualified to hold a right of audience, or may they act in person? 15. Where is The High Court? 16. Has it district registries across England and Wales? 17. May all High Court proceedings be issued and heard at a district registry?
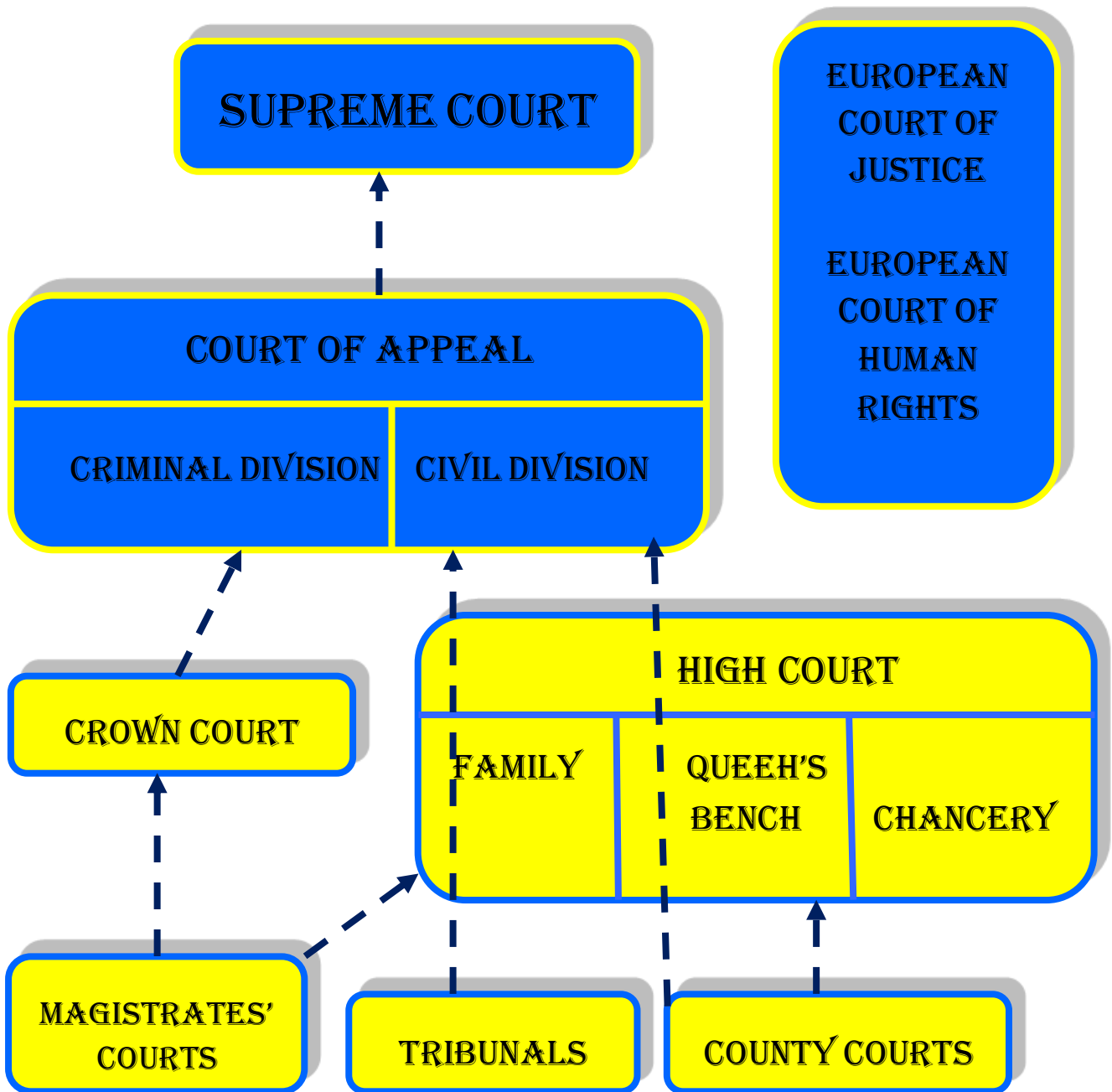
Notes on grammar

As, because, for – так как; *since, forasmuch as, inasmuch* – поскольку; *considering that, seeing that, in view of* – ввиду того, что; *due to, owing to, thanks to, because of, on account of, as a result of, in consequence* – вследствие.

Exercise 3. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 4. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

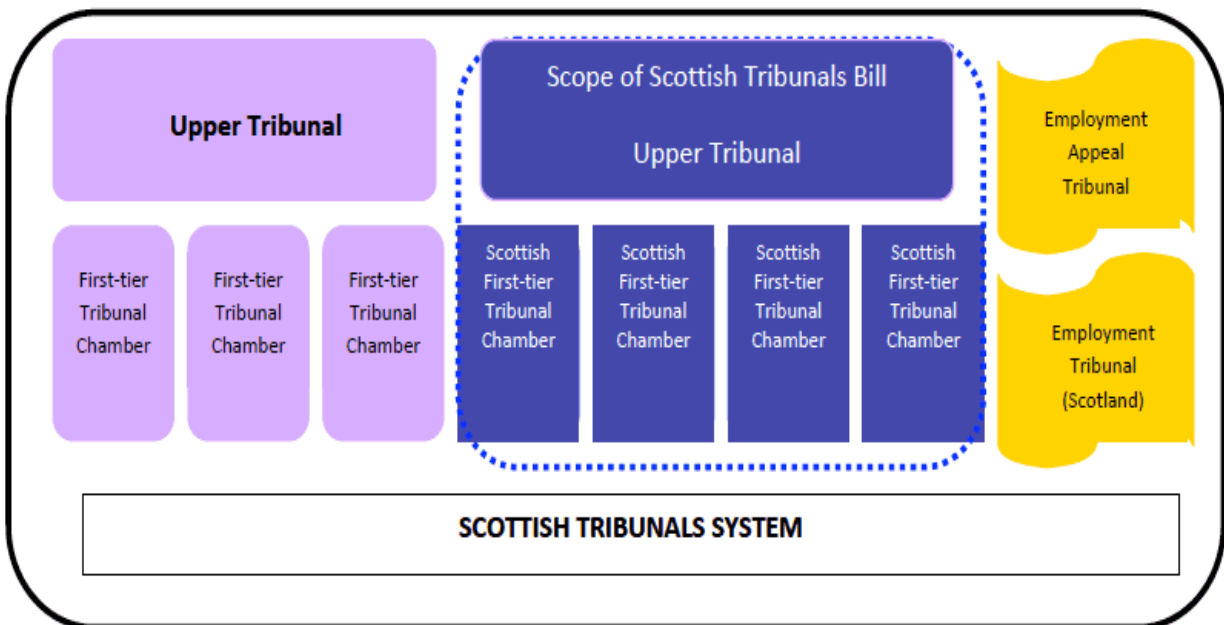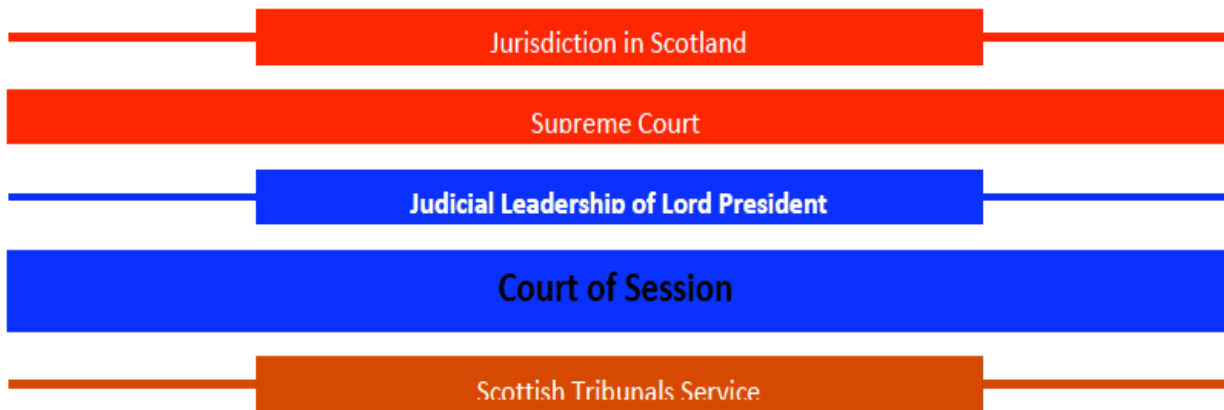*Exercise 5. Write a small essay on the topic.*
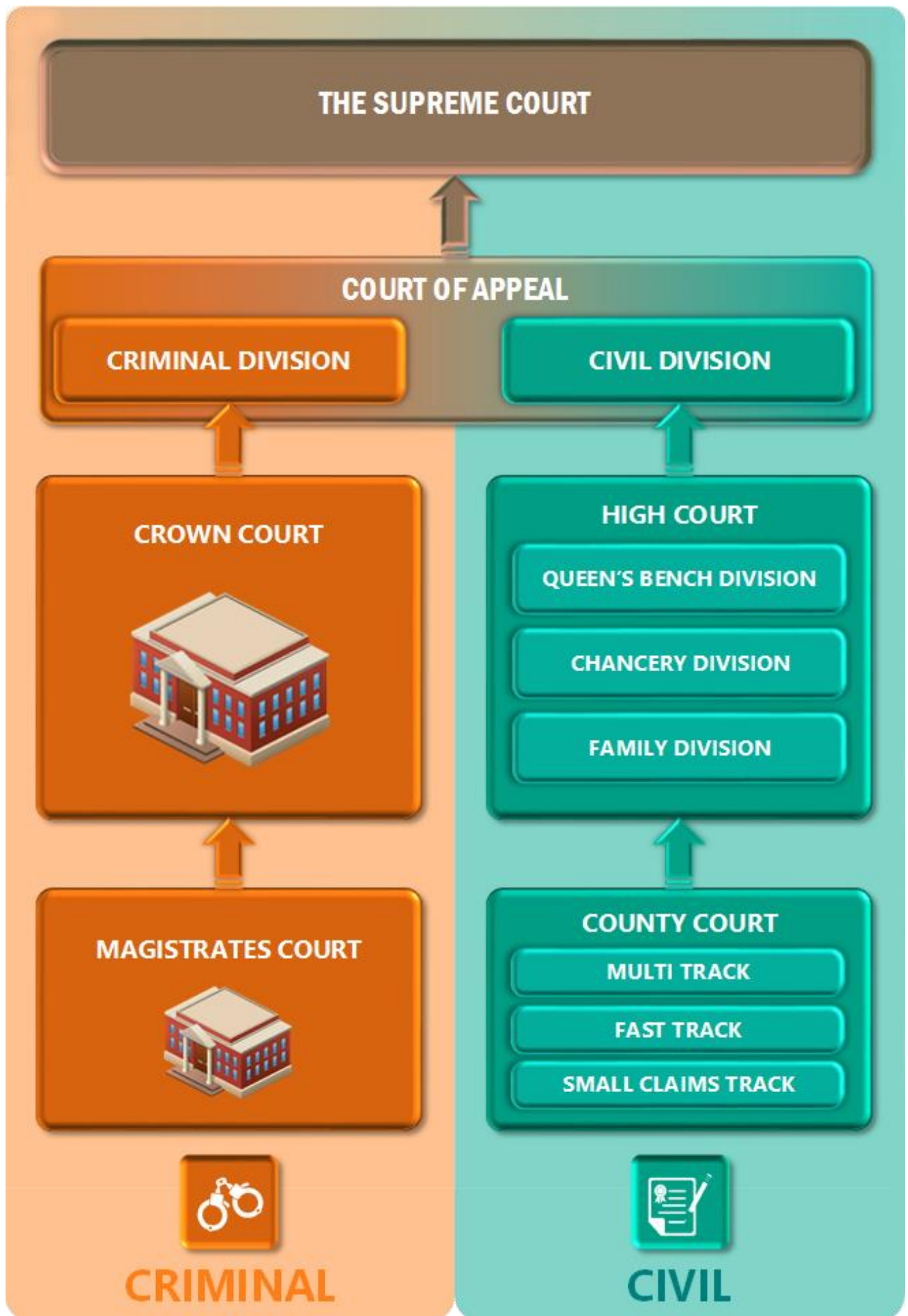
The structure of the Supreme Court

The Supreme Court inside

Scottish Employment Tribunals

Jurisdiction in Scotland

Supreme Court

Judicial Leadership of Lord President

Court of Session

Scottish Tribunals Service

| Upper Tribunal | Scope of Scottish Tribunals Bill |
| | Upper Tribunal |

| First-tier Tribunal Chamber | First-tier Tribunal Chamber | First-tier Tribunal Chamber | Scottish First-tier Tribunal Chamber | Scottish First-tier Tribunal Chamber | Scottish First-tier Tribunal Chamber | Scottish First-tier Tribunal Chamber |

Employment Appeal Tribunal

Employment Tribunal (Scotland)

SCOTTISH TRIBUNALS SYSTEM

The structure of the Scottish tribunals system

THE SUPREME COURT

COURT OF APPEAL

CRIMINAL DIVISION

CIVIL DIVISION

CROWN COURT

HIGH COURT

QUEEN'S BENCH DIVISION

CHANCERY DIVISION

FAMILY DIVISION

MAGISTRATES COURT

COUNTY COURT

MULTI TRACK

FAST TRACK

SMALL CLAIMS TRACK

CRIMINAL

CIVIL

QUEEN'S BENCH DIVISION

The Queen's (King's) Bench Division has two roles. It hears a wide range of contract law and personal injury/general negligence cases, but also has special responsibility as a supervisory court.

Until 2005, the head of the QBD was the Lord Chief Justice (currently Lord Judge). A new post of President of the Queen's Bench Division was created under the provisions of the Constitutional Reform Act 2005, leaving the Lord Chief Justice as President of the Courts of England and Wales, Head of the Judiciary of England and Wales and Head of Criminal Justice.

The Queen's Bench Division has a supervisory jurisdiction over all inferior courts; its Administrative Court is generally the appropriate legal forum where the validity (at least in principle, not the merits) of official decisions may be challenged. Generally, unless specific appeal processes are provided, the validity of any decision of a government minister, inferior court, tribunal, local authority or official body may be challenged by someone with sufficient interest by judicial review in the Administrative Court of the Queen's Bench Division. A single judge first decides whether the matter is fit to bring to the court (to filter out frivolous or unarguable cases) and if so the matter is allowed to go forward to a full judicial review hearing with one or more judges. In addition, the Queen's Bench Divisional Court hears appeals on points of law from the Magistrates' Court and from the Crown Court.

These are known as Appeals by way of Case Stated, since the questions of law are considered solely based on the facts found and stated by the authority under review.

Other specialized Courts of the Queen's Bench Division include the Technology & Construction Court, Commercial Court, the Admiralty Court. The specialized judges and procedures of these courts are somewhat tailored to their type of business, but they are not essentially different from any other court of the QBD. Appeals from the High Court in civil matters are made to the Court of Appeal (Civil Division); in criminal matters appeal from the Divisional Court are made only to the Supreme Court of the UK. The Chancery Division (housed in the Rolls Building) deals with business law, trusts law, probate law, insolvency; land law in relation to issues of equity. It has specialist courts (the Patents Court & the Companies Court) which deal with intellectual property and company law matters respectively. All tax appeals are assigned to the Chancery Division.

The head of the Chancery Division was known as the Vice-Chancellor until October 2005, when the title was changed by the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 to Chancellor of The High Court.

Cases heard before the Chancery Division are reported in the Chancery Division law reports. In principle the High Court is bound by its own previous decisions, but there are conflicting authorities as to what extent. Appeal from the High Court in civil matters normally lies to the Court of Appeal, and thence in cases of importance to the Supreme Court; in some cases a "*leapfrog*" appeal may be made directly to the Supreme Court. In criminal matters appeals from the Queen's Bench Divisional Court are made directly to the Supreme Court.

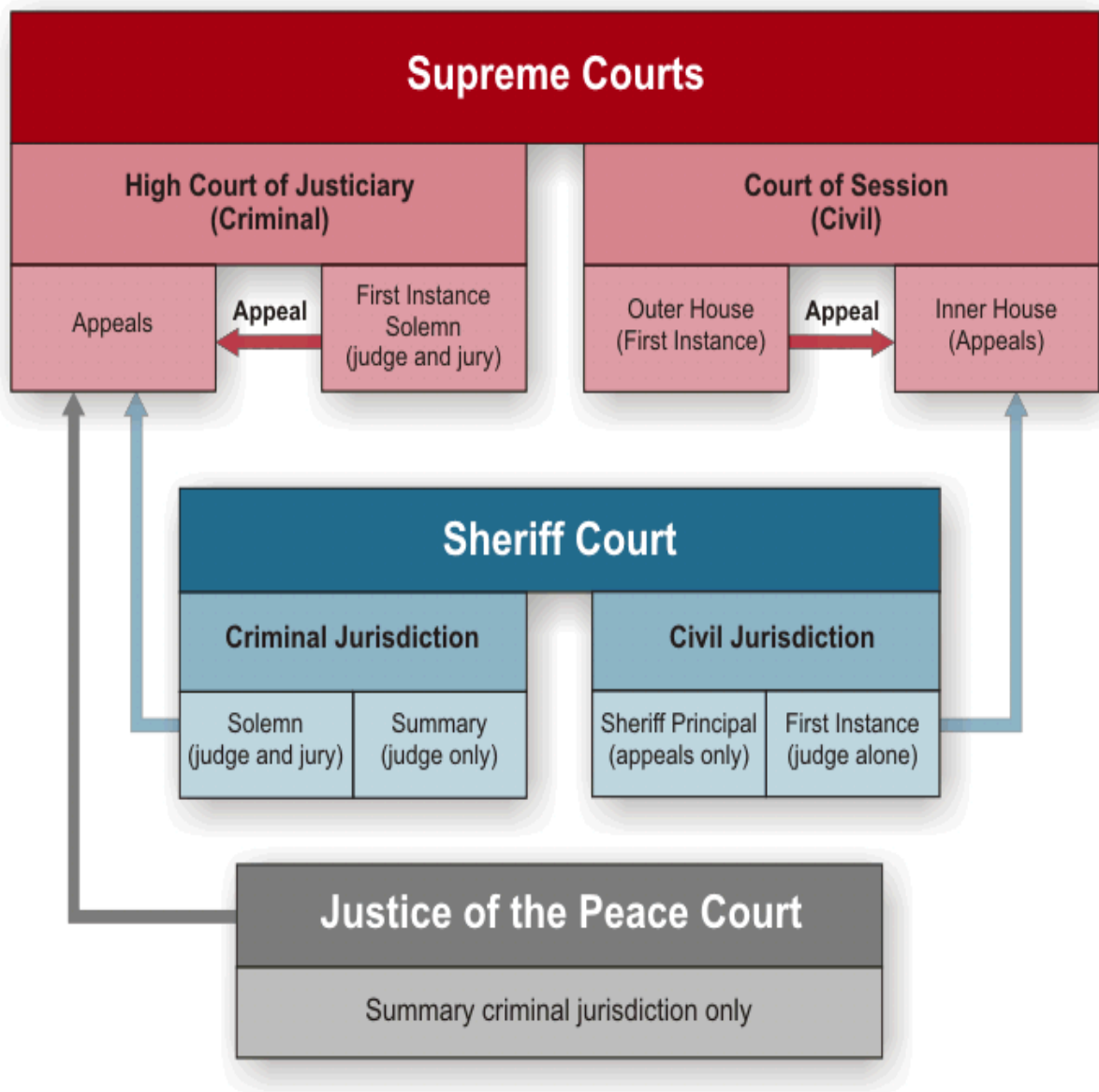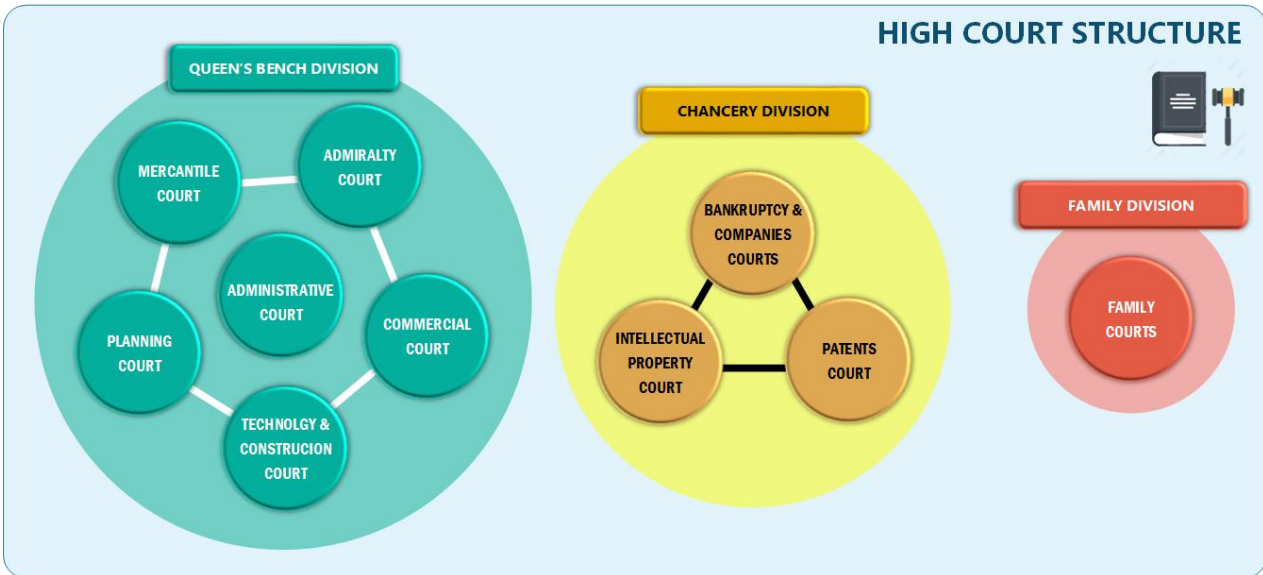*Exercise 1. Render the main idea of the information.*

Exercise 2. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 3. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

Exercise 4. Analyze the text above and make up the chart about courts.

№	Court	Activities
1.		
2.		

HIGH COURT STRUCTURE

QUEEN'S BENCH DIVISION

- MERCANTILE COURT
- ADMIRALTY COURT
- ADMINISTRATIVE COURT
- PLANNING COURT
- COMMERCIAL COURT
- TECHNOLGY & CONSTRUCION COURT

CHANCERY DIVISION

- BANKRUPTCY & COMPANIES COURTS
- INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY COURT
- PATENTS COURT

FAMILY DIVISION

- FAMILY COURTS

Supreme Courts

High Court of Justiciary (Criminal)	Court of Session (Civil)
Appeals	← **Appeal**	First Instance Solemn (judge and jury)	Outer House (First Instance)	**Appeal** →	Inner House (Appeals)

Sheriff Court

Criminal Jurisdiction	Civil Jurisdiction
Solemn (judge and jury)	Summary (judge only)	Sheriff Principal (appeals only)	First Instance (judge alone)

Justice of the Peace Court

Summary criminal jurisdiction only

Court system in Scotland

JUDICIAL ORGANIZATIONS

Superior courts. The highest court is the House of Lords, which exercises the judicial function of Parliament. In theory appeal to the House of Lords is an appeal to the whole House but in practice, particularly since the Appellate Jurisdiction Act, 1876, created a group of salaried life peers, the Lords of Appeal in Ordinary, or "law lords", there is an established convention dating from 1844 that lay peers do not participate in judicial sittings of the House. Appeals are referred to an Appellate Committee of the House. By that Act an appeal must be heard by at least three of the Lord Chancellor, the Lords of Appeal in Ordinary, and such peers as hold or have held judicial office. The House has almost entirely appellated jurisdiction only, in civil and criminal cases from the Courts of Appeal in England and Northern Ireland and in civil cases only from the Court of Session in Scotland.

The Court of Appeal sits in both civil and criminal divisions. The Civil division hears appeals from the High Court, county courts, the Restrictive Practices court, certain special courts and certain tribunals, such as the Lands Tribunal.

The Criminal division hears appeals by persons convicted on indictment in the Crown Courts.

The High Court in its civil jurisdiction id divided into three Divisions (Queen's Bench, Chancery, and Family, formerly Probate, Divorce & Admiralty) to each of which certain kinds of cases are assigned. Divisional court of each of the divisions, consisting of two or more judges, have limited appellate jurisdiction in certain cases. The main civil jurisdiction is exercised by single judge hearing cases of the kind appropriate to the divisions to which the judge belongs.

The criminal jurisdiction of the High Court is exercised exclusively by the Queen's Bench Division. A divisional court of two or three judges of that Division deals with appeals from a Crown Court and magistrates' courts, and exercises the supervisory jurisdiction of the court, issuing the prerogative writ of habeas corpus and to ensure that magistrates' courts and inferior tribunals exercise their power properly, by granting orders of mandamus, prohibition and certiorari.

The Crown Court, created in 1972, replaces the former assizes and quarter sessions. It exercises criminal jurisdiction and sittings are held regularly at major towns throughout England and Wales.

It comprises judges of the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court, circuit judges and Recorders (part-time judges). They sit singly with juries trying persons charged on indictment with crimes.

A judge of the Crown Court sits with two to four justices of the peace to hear appeals from magistrates' courts and proceedings on committal by magistrates to the Crown Court for sentence.

The Central Criminal Court, known as the Old Bailey, is sitting of the Crown Court, having criminal jurisdiction only, over indictable offences committed in Greater London or on the high seas.

The court consists of *ex officio* judges and in practice judges of the Queen's Bench Division, the Recorder of London, the Common Sergeant, and additional judges of the Central Criminal Court

Inferior courts. County courts have exclusively civil jurisdiction, which is limited in extent and in area, and which is entirely statutory. The judges are persons who also hold office as circuit judges of the Crown Court. Magistrates' courts consist of a stipendiary magistrate or of from two to seven (two or three) lay justices of the peace; a single lay justice has a very limited jurisdiction.

Magistrates' courts have civil jurisdiction in relation to certain debts, licenses, and domestic proceedings. In the exercise of criminal jurisdiction one or more justices may sit as examining magistrates to conduct a preliminary investigation into an indictable offence.

A magistrates' court may try summarily many minor statutory offences, and certain offences. If the prosecutor applies for the case to be heard summarily, the court agrees it is a suitable mode of trial and the defendant does not elect jury trial. Cases may be appealed to the Crown Court.

Exercise 1. Summarize the information briefly in English.

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

Exercise 3. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

Exercise 4. Read the text and decide if the following statements are true or false.

1. When the House of Lords sits as a court only peers who are senior members of the judiciary can take part in the proceedings. 2. The House of Lords is the final court of appeal fro civil and criminal cases in the UK. 3. The three Divisions of the High Court each hear different kinds of cases. 4. The Queen's Bench Division of the High Court is responsible for judicial review of administrative action. 5. A jury is always present at Crown Court hearings. 6. The Old Bailey is the name of the Crown Court for the London area. 7. The county courts only hear cases concerning statute law. 8. All English judges and magistrates are professional lawyers. 9. The magistrates' courts investigate some saces, which are later tried by jury in the Crown Court. 10. The magistrates' courts can choose to hear cases with or without a jury. *Key: 1, 3, 4, 6, 9, 1 – true; 2, 5, 7, 8, 10 – false.*

Exercise 5. Choose some of the points, which interest you and prepare to talk about the ideas.

- Areas of jurisdiction of the courts.
- Hierarchy of the courts and system of appeals.
- Use of lay magistrates to decide less important civil and criminal cases.
- Judicial and legislative functions of the House of Lords.
- Social and economic position of judges.
- Use of the jury composed of 12 ordinary men and women, to try serious crimes.

Exercise 6. Explain the law-terms and make up sentences with them.

To give in charge; to take charge of; young charges; to bring (level, make) a charge; to bring charges of forgery against smb.; to concoct (cook up, fabricate, trump up) a charge; to prove (substantiate) a charge; to face a charge; to lay to smb.'s charge; to dismiss (throw out) a charge; to drop (retract, withdraw) a charge; to deny (refute, repudiate) a charge; baseless (fabricated, false, trumped-up) charge; frivolous charge; charge of murder; to be arrested on various charges; to charge oneself with; charge a jury; to charge down; to charge into; to charge against; to charge at; charg- d'affaires.

Exercise 7. From the box on the right choose the name of the person who is the leader or head of each body on the left. Some names are used more than once.

(1) the Speaker	a) The United Nations Secretariat
(2) the Attorney-General	b) The House of Commons (UK
(3) the British Sovereign	c) The British Commonwealth of Nations
(4) the Master of the Rolls	d) The International Court of Justice
(5) the President	e) The EEC Commission
(6) the Lord Chancellor	f) The UK Government
(7) the Secretary-General	g) The House of Lords (UK)
(8) the Prime Minister	h) The European Court
	i) The Order of Barristers (UK
	j) The UK
	k) The USA
	l) The Court of Appeal Civil Division (UK)

Key: a / 7; b / 1; c / 3; d / 5; e / 5; f / 8; g / 6; h / 5; I / 2; j / 3; k / 5; I / 4.

Exercise 8. Choose the best words from the box to complete the sentences.

(1) wrongfully (2) prerequisite (3) inviolability (4) receiving (5) irreparable (6) ensure (7) foregoing

    a) The Race Relations Act 1976 was passed to _____ fair treatment for people of alliances.

    b) A good knowledge of French and English is often a _____ for an international lawyer.

    c) A _____ order is a court order which places the property of a debtor in the control of a special trustee in bankruptcy cases.

    d) It was alleged that the newspaper article had caused _____ damage to the company's good name and professional reputation.

    e) The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was made to guarantee the _____ of fundamental rights.

    f) The plaintiff claimed damages against his employer because he had been _____ dismissed.

    g) The _____ provisions have all been included in the Bill.

  Key*: a / 6; b / 2; c / 4; d / 5; e / 3; f / 1; g / 7*

Exercise 9. Do you know the word or phrase referred to by each definition?

The number in the brackets refers to the number of letters in each word.

    1. When you _____ (5, 3, 6), you state at the beginning of a trial that you did not commit the offence you are accused of. 2. _____ (5, 6) are fundamental rights of man, such as the right to life, the right to freedom of thought and the right to work. 3. _____ (1) is a procedure for the settlement of disputes by one or more independent third parties on a domestic or international level as an alternative to judicial proceedings. 4. A person is _____ (9) of the offence with which they are charged if they are found guilty of it. 5. The _____ (8) is written or spoken statements of facts, or subjects which help to prove something at a trial. 6. _____ (9) is legal responsibility for one's actions together with an obligation to repair any injury caused. 7. _____ (5, 11) is supreme power in state full legislative, executive and juridical powers of a state on its territory. 8._____ (6) of a law, contract, obligation, etc. means its violation or non-respect. *Key: a) plead not guilty b) Human rights c) Arbitration d) convicted e) Evidence f) liability g) state sovereignty h) Breach*

  Exercise 10. Answer the questions.

    1. What is the name of the court which has jurisdiction over offences committed by young people? 2. Do convicted criminals have the right to appeal against sentence? 3. What is the constitutional position of the Isle of Man with regard to the UK? 4. Can the UK Parliament legislate for the Isle of Man on domestic matters? 5. Can individual citizens apply to the European Court of Human Rights if they think their rights have been violated? 6. Why is all humiliating judicial punishment not a violation of human rights? 7. Will the European Court of Human Rights consider domestic law or policy in states which are signatories to the Convention when reaching a decision? 8. Who is generally liable for the criminal acts of a state agent committed abroad: the state, the agent, both or neither? 9. What important principle of International Law was laid down by the Nuremberg Charter of 1945 regarding the court of superior orders? 10. Why are soldiers who kill foreigners in a war not guilty of murder? 11. Can spies enjoy agent immunity fro crimes they commit abroad?

  Exercise 11. Match the abbreviations to the people, organizations, etc. from the previous tasks.

  a) AG b) MR c) YM QE II d) LC e) CA f) HL g) PM h) UN i) ICJ

  Key*: a) Attorney-General b) Master of the Rolls c) Her majesty Queen Elizabeth II d) Lord Chancellor e) Court of Appeal f) House of Lords g) Prime Minister h) United Nations i) International Court of Justice*

  Exercise 12. Remember that.

  Legal person – A human being (a natural person) or a juristic person. A juristic person is an entity, such as a corporation, that is recognized as having a legal personality, i.e. capable of enjoying and being subject to legal rights and duties.

Exercise 13. Do the words look like a cognate in Russian?

In English *jurisprudence* is another name for the philosophy of law. In English *evidence* means the signed for proof of something; in criminal law the *evidence* includes everything (objects, statements, documents, etc.) which helps to show how a crime happened. In general English *Equity* means fairness, justice. In English law *Equity* is a special area of law which was first created by the Lord Chancellor and then developed by a special court – the Court of Chancery. It consists of principles of justice which add to or supplement the ordinary law when this is necessary for justice in a particular case. *International Law* is the law, which regulates or governs relations between states.

Exercise 14. Fill in blank spaces with a word from the word family given in capitals on the right.

1. Members of the lower house of the American Congress are called ____ (REPRESENT). 2. Nearly all British citizens over the age of 18 are members of the ____ (ELECT). 3. The district (1) ____ is the official who 2) ____ births, marriages and deaths in a certain area. (REGISTER) 4. In the British constitution the Queen in Parliament is the legislative ____ (SOVEREIGN). 5. Many British (1)____ are in favour of changing the (2) ____ system. (1) (VOTE) (2) (ELECT). 6. Sums of money which are (1) ____ to pay fees to lawyers are called legal (2) ____ (SPEND). 7. Dangerous criminals are always sent to a / an ____ where there is very strict security. (PRISON). For the purposes of tax, a person is ____ in the UK if she / he stays there for more than six months of the year. (RESIDE). 9. Parliament (1) ____ the (2) ____ of the special Commission last week. (1) (APPROVE) (2) (RECOMMEND). 10. Direct ____ to the European Parliament are held every five years. (ELECT)

Key: a) representatives b) electorate c) registrar, registers d) sovereign e) voters, electoral f) spent, expenses g) a prison h) resident i) approved, recommendation /s j) elections.

Exercise 15. Read about the definitions and try to understand them.

Ratio decidendi. The enunciation of the reason or principle upon which a question before a court has been decided is alone binding as a precedent. This underlying principle is called the *ration decidendi.*, namely the general reasons given for the decision or the general grounds upon which it is based, detached or abstracted from the specific peculiarities of the particular case which gives rise to the decision. What constitutes binding precedent is the *ration decidendi.*

Dicta. Statements which are not necessary to the decision, which go beyond the occasion and lay down a rule that it is unnecessary for the purpose in hand are generally termed "*dicta*". They have no binding authority on another court, although they may have some persuasive efficacy. Mere passing remarks of a judge are known as "*obiter dicta*", whilst considered enunciations of the judge's opinion on a point not arising for decision, and so have been termed "*judicial dicta*".

Three Branches of Government   *cẽ*

LEGISLATIVE
Makes Laws
PARLIAMENT
Unicameral
House/Legislative Council)
Bicameral
(House + Senate)

Includes legislators or members of houses of parliament

EXECUTIVE
Administers Laws
HEAD OF STATE
President/Monarch
(Governor-General, Governor)
HEAD OF GOVERNMENT
Prime Minister/Premier
/Chief Minister
CABINET
Cabinet/Executive Council

Includes public servants organised into ministries and departments

JUDICIAL
Interprets Laws
COURTS
Migistrate Courts
High Courts
Supreme Courts
Caribbean Court of Justice
/Privy Council

Includes judges of the various law courts

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THE HOUSE OF LORDS

The House of Lords is the highest court in England, the most senior and final court of appeal.

Both historically and in the theory of the law, it is the same institution, which is the Upper House of Parliament. For judicial purposes, it is usually composed only of the Lords of Appeal in ordinary. The Lord Chancellor is the highest judge in the Kingdom. The other Lords have been promoted from the regular English courts or from the Scottish or Northern Irish Judiciary.

In addition, former Chancellors and present and former judges who happen to hold peerages are also qualified to sit with the law lords. The law lords receive life peerage upon their appointment to the House hence, they have permanent appointments. Although they may retire from active service upon reaching retirement age as former judges who hold peerages, they remain qualified for judicial service. The House of Lords hears appeals from the English Court of Appeals. In exceptional circumstances it may hear direct appeals from the High Court. It also is the final appellate court for Scotland and Northern Ireland. It is, thus, a secondary level of appeal, the court of last resort.

The House of Lords hears only a very limited number of cases. The Court of Appeal does most of the filtering of appellate cases. It freely grants leave to appeal in those cases in which important legal questions are in doubt. The law lords normally sit in panels of five. The Lord Chancellor names the five lords who will sit on any given case. Normally they sit in a small committee room in Westminster Palace, although they may go to the judgment. The lords deliver their judgments seriatim, so each pronounces his opinion and vote on the case at hand. In some cases, one lord will simply agree with the remarks of a colleague, thus, obviating the need for a lengthy speech, but in either instance each lord still pronounces his own separate opinion.

Exercise 1. Digest the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Answer the questions.

1. What is the chief judicial office of the nation? 2. What are his functions? 3. How many courts of trial and appeal are there in Great Britain? 4. What is the highest court in England? 5. Who is the highest judge in the Kingdom? 6. What may the House of Lords hear in exceptional circumstances? 7. How many lords who will sit on any given case can name the Lord Chancellor? 8. How do the lords deliver their judgments?

Exercise 3. Remember that.

Jurisdiction – the official power to make legal decisions and judgements the English court had no jurisdiction over the defendants. A system of law courts; a judicature.. The territory or sphere of activity over which the legal authority of a court or other institution extends. The right or power to administer justice and to apply laws. **It** is the power that a court of law or an official has to carry out legal judgments or to enforce laws. The official power to make legal decisions and judgments.
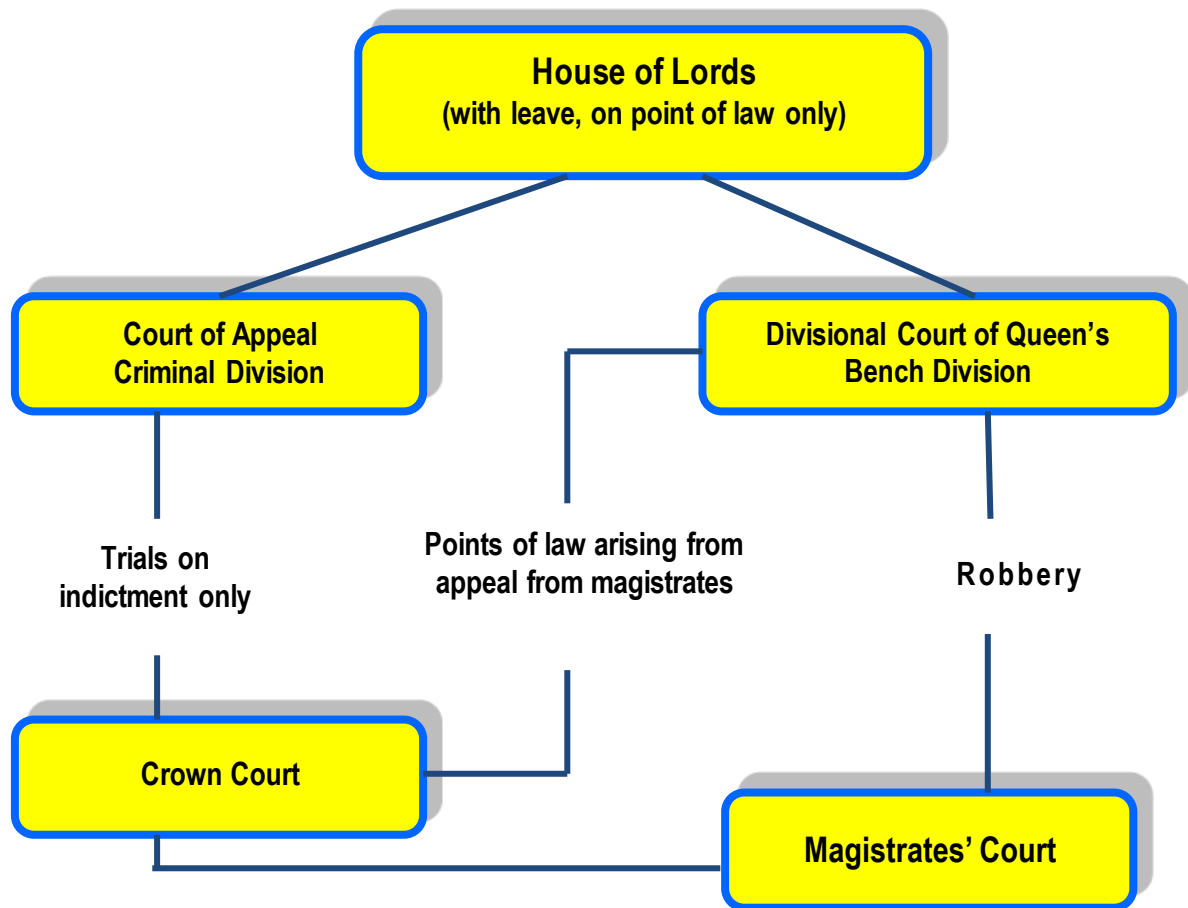
Exercise 4. Try to understand the notions.

The *authority* of our elected officials refers to their power (often conferred by rank or office) to give orders, require obedience, or make decisions. Their authority is normally limited by their *jurisdiction*, which is a legally predetermined division of a larger whole; within which someone has a right to rule or decide (the matter was beyond his jurisdiction). Back in the days when Great Britain had *dominion*, or supreme authority, over the American colonies, it was the king of England who held *sway* over this country's economic and political life – an old-fashioned word that stresses the sweeping scope of one's power. But his *sovereignty* considered as a whole, was eventually challenged.

Exercise 5. Analyze the information, which is in the highlight, and use it in practice.

Exercise 6. Make up some dialogues from the information above.

Exercise 7. Write a small essay on the topic.

The structure of the House of Lords

Westminster Palace

THE ROYAL COURTS OF JUSTICE

The Royal Courts of Justice, commonly called the Law Courts, is the building in London which houses the Court of Appeal of England and Wales and the High Court of Justice of England and Wales. Courts within the building are open to the public although there may be some restrictions depending upon the nature of the cases being heard. The building is a large grey stone edifice in the Victorian Gothic styleand was designed by George Edmund Street, a solicitor turned architect.

It was built in the 1870s. The Royal Courts of Justice were opened by Queen Victoria in December 1882. It is on The Strand, in the City of Westminster, near the border with the City of London (Temple Bar) and the London Borough of Camden. It is surrounded by the four Inns of Court, King's College London and the London School of Economics. Those who do not have legal representation may receive some assistance within the court building.

There is a Citizens Advice Bureau based within the Main Hall, which provides free, confidential, and impartial advice by appointment to anyone who is a litigant in person in the courts.

There is also a Personal Support Unit where litigants in person can get emotional support and practical information about what happens in court. The Central Criminal Court, popularly known as the Old Bailey, is situated about half a mile to the East. It has no other connection with the Royal Courts of Justice. The eleven architects competing for the contract for the Law Courts each submitted alternative designs with the view of the possible placing of the building on the Thames Embankment. The present site was chosen only after much debate. In 1868 it was finally decided that George Edmund Street, R.A. was to be appointed the sole architect for the Royal Courts of Justice and it was he who designed the whole building from foundation to varied carvings and spires.

Exercise 1. Render the main idea of the text in English.

Exercise 2. Choose the right variant.

1. The building _____the Court of Appeal of England and Wales.
a) houses b) lodges c) refuges
2. The Citizens Advice Bureau provides free, confidential, and _____advice.
a) impartial b) disinterested c) fair
3. _____ architects competing for the contract for the Law Courts.
a) Eleven b) Ten c) Five
4. Each architect _____ alternative designs.
a) submitted b) represented c) conformed
5. In _____ George Edmund Street was to be appointed the sole architect.
a) 1868 b) 1890 c) 1865
6. The Royal Courts of Justice were built in _____.
a) 1870s b) 1860 c) 1890s d) 1850s

Exercise 3. Try to understand it.

Justice – Just behaviour or treatment, a concern for justice, peace, and genuine respect for people; the quality of being fair and reasonable the justice of his case; the administration of the law or authority in maintaining this tragic miscarriage of justice. A judge or magistrate, in particular a judge of the Supreme Court of a country or state. Foe example: bring someone to justice (arrest someone for a crime and ensure that he is tried in court); do oneself justice (to make full use of one's abilities); do smb./smth. justice (do, treat, or represent smb. or something with due fairness or appreciation); in justice to (out of fairness to); Mr Justice (a form of address or reference to a judge of the supreme court).

The justice of a cause, claim, or argument is its quality of being reasonable, fair, or right. Justice is the legal system that a country uses in order to deal with people who break the law. If a criminal is brought to justice, he or she is punished for a crime by being arrested and tried in a court of law. To do justice to a person or thing means to reproduce them accurately and show how good they are.

Exercise 4. Choose the word or the phrase from the box to complete the sentences.

(1) shall be (2) cannot be (3) ought to (4) is entitled to (5) may (6) are bound to (7) have to be (8) need not be (9) are binding on (10) may be required (11) are not entitled to

a) By the Unfair Contract Terms Act 1977 the parties to a contract ____ always to limit their liability under the contract. (They don't always have the right)

b) Article 4 of the EEC Treaty provides that the functions of the Community ____ carried out by the Assembly, the Council, the Commission and the Court of Justice. (They must be)

c) In English law a valid contract ____ reduced to writing. (It is not necessary)

d) Under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 husband and wife ____ give evidence against each other in criminal cases where necessary. (They must give evidence)

e) The government ____ protect British subjects from criminals. (It has a duty)

f) A woman who stops work in order to have a baby ____ maternity pay for a period of up to 18 weeks. (She has a right to maternity pay)

g) Under English law transfers of land ____ made by deed. (They must be made by deed)

h) EC regulations are directly applicable laws which ____ all Member States. (They must be applied and respected)

i) A person who commits murder below the age of 18 years ____ sentenced to the imprisonment. (It is not impossible)

j) A breath test ____ when a police officer stops a car and smells alcohol on the driver's breath. (The police officer can demand it)

Key *a/11 b/1 c/8 d/6 e/3 f/4 g/7 h/9 i/2 j/10*

Exercise 5. Analyze the information on the courts & the government.

Since Britain is governed by the rule of law, courts can intervene if requested to do so by a person seeking a legal remedy from an injury resulting from the act or omission of a public authority.

Public authorities, including central government departments are liable in ordinary civil action for torts such as negligence or for breaches of contract. In some cases criminal proceedings can be brought against public health legislation. Actions for damages may also be brought against a public authority. Public authorities and officials must act within the powers that the law allows them.

If they take on unauthorized functions, they are acting beyond the powers laid down by the law and the courts can intervene to stop such illegal action.

In England and Wales, for instance, the Divisional Court of the Queen's Bench exercises supervisory jurisdiction, by way of judicial review, over the actions and decisions of government ministers or others charged with the performance of public acts and duties.

This remedy of judicial review is concerned with the legality and propriety of the decision-taking process and is used when all other avenues of appeal have been exhausted.
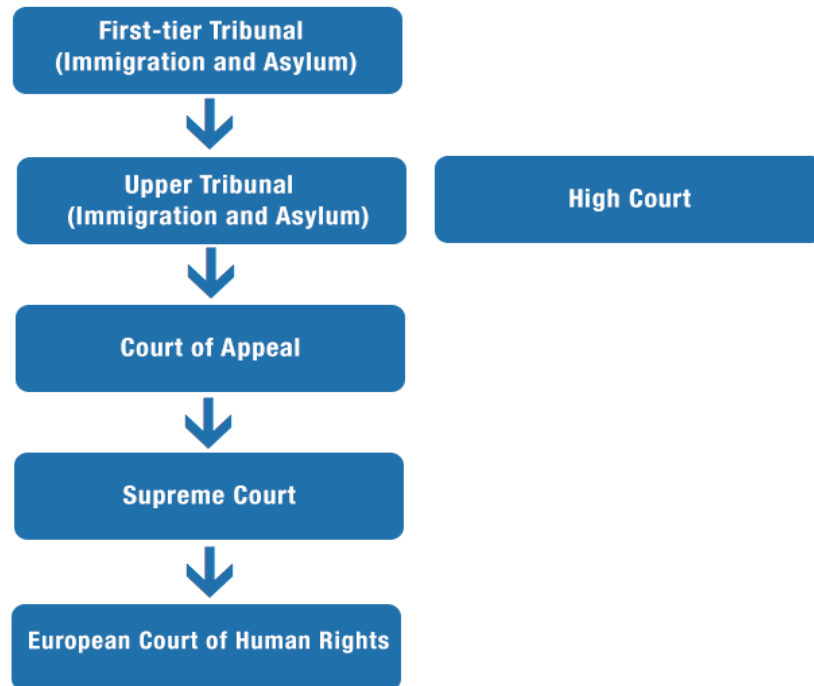
Parties in civil proceedings can generally require the production of government documents for the purposes of evidence. Although the courts accept the power of central government to withhold documents when genuine state secrets are involved, disclose may be ordered by the court unless the public interest in secrecy outweighs the public interest in doing justice to the individual.

This decision is made by the courts and not the Government. Remedies against actions by the public bodies are sometimes provided for by statute. In some cases, for instance, a statute provides for an appeal to a court from an authority's decision, usually on a point of law.

Exercise 6. Identify the areas of relationship between courts and government.

Exercise 7. Choose the keywords that best convey the gist of the information.

Exercise 8. Read the text and pick up the essential details in the form of quick notes.

First-tier Tribunal (Immigration and Asylum)
↓
Upper Tribunal (Immigration and Asylum)
↓
Court of Appeal
↓
Supreme Court
↓
European Court of Human Rights

High Court

Exercise 9. Answer the questions.

1. Public authorities are liable in ordinary civil action for torts, aren't they? 2. What does the Divisional Court of the Queen's Bench exercise? 3. What is the remedy of judicial review concerned with? 4. The public interest in secrecy outweighs the public interest in doing justice to the individual, isn't it? 5. On what point does a statute for an appeal to a court from an authority's decision provide? 6. What can parties in civil proceedings generally require?

Exercise 10. Translate the words and phrases with the keyword "court".

Court of arbitration; court decision (holding); superior court; Court of Appeal; probate court; territorial court; traffic court; court of directors / governors; Court of Rome; out of court; to court disaster; to court danger; to court scandal; court below; court brief; court briefing; court circle; court day; **court** decree; court expert; court house; court injunction; court interpreter; court is in session; court jurisdiction; court of jurisdiction (judiciary); court martial; court of referees; court of review; court of wards; court opinion; court order; court of first appearance (instance); court of highest resort; court of honour.

Exercise 11. Translate phrases in the brackets into English.

1. The County Courts hear all kinds of (гражданские споры).2. There is a provision that the (иски) to be heard by the County Court should not exceed one or two hundred pounds. 3. Cases of (развод) are heard by the High Court or Assizes. 4. The Court of Summary Jurisdiction makes (решения об усыновлении). 5. (Апелляция) in civil cases follow the same course as in criminal cases.

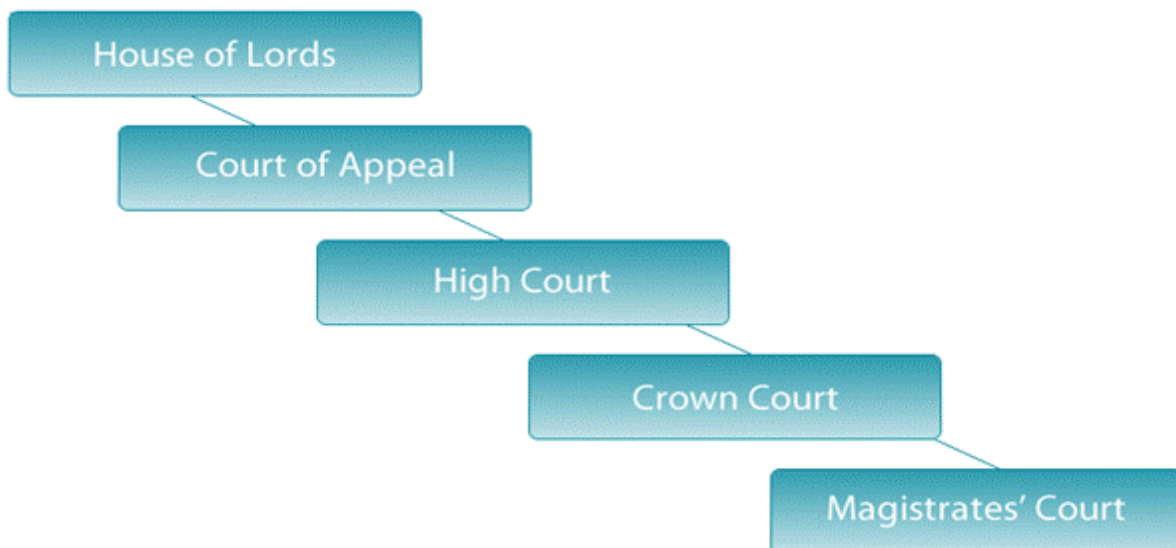### Exercise 12. Translate the sentences into Russian.

1. I appeal to you to let me alone. 2. Jim appealed successfully against the judgement that he was guilty. 3. The severe snowstorm has slowed the traffic down. 4. The police officer brought in two boys whom he had caught stealing. 5. He delayed my calling the police. 6. The government introduced a Bill before Parliament. 7. Hundreds lay languishing in prison. 8. The plaintiff applied for shares in this company. 9. The Appeal Court found the film dull, dreary, and offensive in parts (places). 10. Any act repeals in completely or in part any former statute. 11. There is no appeal from a verdict of the higher court.12. A preliminary hearing was due to start today before Mr Justice Hutchison, but was adjourned.
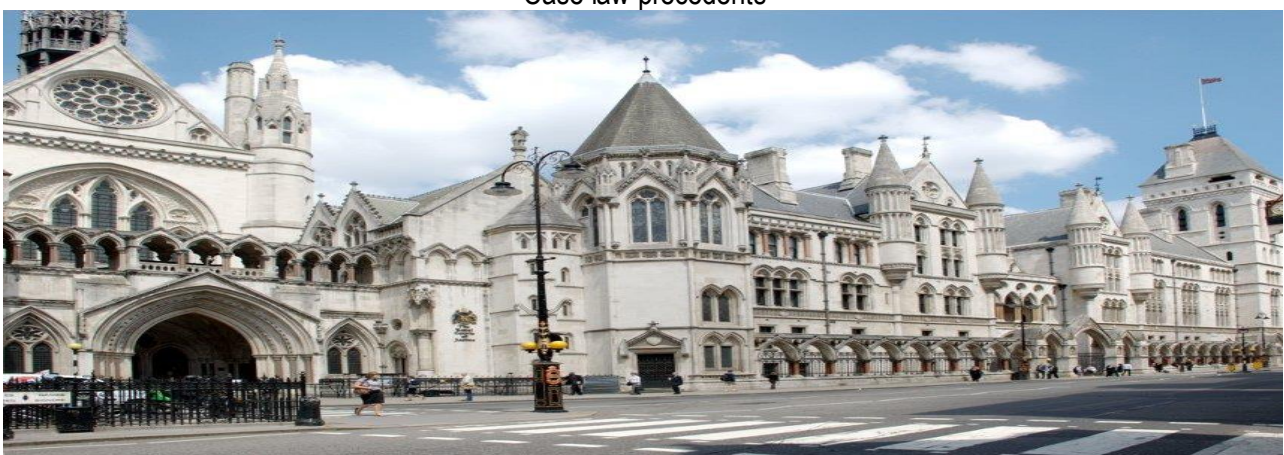
Exercise 13. Answer the questions.

1. What courts hear civil cases? 2. Why were the County courts established in 1846? 3. Who presides in the County Court? 4. What cases do the County Courts hear? 5. What cases do the Courts of Summary Jurisdiction hear? 6. What civil cases are heard by the High Court? 7. To what courts may appeals in civil cases be taken?

Exercise 14. Combine the words from the right side with those from the left.

grant	one's affairs	salaried	the will
original	of income taxes	to come down in	government
payment	monarchy	to settle	terms of
recovery	a pension	to grant	of a debt
a settlement	writ	to make	case
civil	the world	to avoid	company
limited	marriage	to form	local defence
salaried	the will	local	personnel

House of Lords

Court of Appeal

High Court

Crown Court

Magistrates' Court

Case law precedents

Royal Courts of Justice on the Strand, London

OLD BAILEY

The Central Criminal Court of England and Wales, commonly known as the Old Bailey from the street on which it stands, is a court in London and one of a number of buildings housing the Crown Court. Part of the present building stands on the site of the medieval Newgate gaol, on a road named Old Bailey that follows the line of the City of London's fortified wall (or *bailey*), which runs from Ludgate Hill to the junction of Newgate Street and Holborn Viaduct.

The Old Bailey has been housed in several structures near this location since the 16th century, and its present building dates from 1902. The Crown Court sitting at the Central Criminal Court deals with major criminal cases from within Greater London and in exceptional cases, from other parts of England and Wales. Trials at the Old Bailey, as at other courts, are open to the public; however, they are subject to stringent security procedures. The court originated as the sessions house of the Lord Mayor and Sheriffs of the City of London and of Middlesex.

The original medieval court was first mentioned in 1585; it was next to the older Newgate gaol, and seems to have grown out of the endowment to improve the gaol and rooms for the Sheriffs, made possible by a gift from Richard Whittington. It was destroyed in the Great Fire of London in 1666 and rebuilt in 1674, with the court open to the weather to prevent the spread of disease.

In 1734 it was refronted, enclosing the court and reducing the influence of spectators: this led to outbreaks of typhus, notably in 1750 when 60 people died, including the Lord Mayor and two judges. It was rebuilt again in 1774 and a second courtroom was added in 1824. Over 100,000 criminal trials were carried out at the Old Bailey between 1674 and 1834.

In 1834, it was renamed as the Central Criminal Court and its jurisdiction extended beyond that of London and Middlesex to the whole of the English jurisdiction for trials of major cases. Her Majesty's Courts and Tribunals Service manages the courts and administers the trials but the building itself is owned by the City of London Corporation, which finances the building, the running of it, the staff and the maintenance out of their own resources.

The court was originally intended as the site where only criminals accused of crimes committed in the City and Middlesex were tried. However, in 1856, there was public revulsion at the accusations against the doctor William Palmer that he was a poisoner and murderer. This led to fears that he could not receive a fair trial in his native Staffordshire. The Central Criminal Court Act 1856 was passed to enable his trial to be held at the Old Bailey.

In the 19th century, the Old Bailey was a small court adjacent to Newgate gaol. Hangings were a public spectacle in the street outside until May 1868. The condemned would be led along Dead Man's Walk between the prison and the court, and many were buried in the walk itself. Large, riotous crowds would gather and pelt the condemned with rotten fruit and vegetables and stones.

In 1807, 28 people were crushed to death after a pie-seller's stall overturned. A secret tunnel was subsequently created between the prison and St. Sepulchre's church opposite, to allow the chaplain to minister to the condemned man without having to force his way through the crowds.

The present Old Bailey building dates from 1902 but it was officially opened on 27 February 1907. It was designed by E. W. Mountford and built on the site of the infamous Newgate gaol, which was demolished to allow the court buildings to be constructed. Above the main entrance is inscribed the admonition: "Defend the Children of the Poor & Punish the Wrongdoer".

King Edward VII opened the courthouse. On the dome above the court stands a bronze statue of Lady Justice, executed by the British sculptor F. W. Pomeroy. She holds a sword in her right hand and the scales of justice in her left. The statue is popularly supposed to show blind Justice, however, the figure is not blindfolded: the courthouse brochures explain that this is because Lady Justice was originally not blindfolded, and because her "maidenly form" is supposed to guarantee her impartiality which renders the blindfold redundant.

During the Blitz of World War II, the Old Bailey was bombed and severely damaged, but subsequent reconstruction work restored most of it in the early 1950s. In 1952, the restored interior of the Grand Hall of the Central Criminal Court was once again open.

The interior of the Great Hall is decorated with paintings commemorating the Blitz, as well as quasi-historical scenes of St. Paul's Cathedral with nobles outside. Running around the entire hall are a series of axioms, some of biblical reference. They read:

"The law of the wise is a fountain of life".

"The welfare of the people is supreme".

"Right lives by law and law subsists by power".

"Poise the cause in justice's equal scales".

"Moses gave unto the people the laws of God".

"London shall have all its ancient rights".

The Great Hall is also decorated with many busts and statues, chiefly of British monarchs, but also of legal figures, and those who achieved renown by campaigning for improvement in prison conditions in the 18th-19th centuries. This part of the building also houses the shorthand-writers' offices.

The lower level also hosts a minor exhibition on the history of the Old Bailey and Newgate featuring historical prison artefacts.

In 1973, the Belfast Brigade of the Provisional IRA exploded a car bomb in the street outside the courts, killing one and injuring 200 people. A shard of glass is preserved as a reminder, embedded in the wall at the top of the main stairs. Between 1968 and 1972, a new South Block, designed by the architects Donald McMorran and George Whitby, was built to accommodate more modern courts.

There are presently 18 courts in use. Court 19 is now used variously as a press overflow facility, as a registration room for first-day jurors or as a holding area for serving jurors.

The original ceremonial gates to the 1907 part of the building are only used by the Lord Mayor and visiting royalty. The general entrance to the building is a few yards down the road in the South Block and is often featured as a backdrop in television news reports. There is a separate rear entrance, not open to the public, which permits more discreet access. In Warwick Square, on the western side of the complex, is the "Lord Mayor's Entrance".

A remnant of the city wall is preserved in the basement beneath the cells. The court manager is known by the title of the Secondary of the City of London. As of 2012, the Secondary is Charles Henty.

The court house originated as part of the City of London's borough judicial system, and it remains so. The Recorder and the Common Serjeant are both City officers, and the Recorder is a member of the Common Council because he is also a member of the Court of Aldermen. The City's Sheriffs and the Lord Mayor are justices there, but their jurisdiction is now nominal. The Sheriffs are resident with the senior judges in the complex. In Court Number 1, there are several benches set aside for the committee of the Bridge House Estates, which is the actual owner of the building.

The Old Bailey

CRIMINAL COURTS

In England, there are two main classes of criminal courts, those in which the trial of the more serious offences takes place before a judge and jury, and those in which less serious offences are tried before magistrates without jury. The courts in the first class are either assizes or quarter sessions. The second class consists of magistrates' courts, sometimes referred to as petty sessions.

The assizes are held in every county, usually in a county town, being visited at least twice a year by a judge who is commissioned by the Queen to administer justice in this area. He is a High Court Judge. In London and the surrounding area the Central Criminal Court takes the place of assizes. Trials are there presided over either by a High Court Judge or by one of the special judges of that court, such as the Recorder of the City of London and the Common Sergeant. This court is not superior to the assizes. Courts of quarter sessions are held at least four times a year for counties and for certain boroughs. The courts have the same jurisdiction as assizes with a few exceptions.

Murder, bigamy, and some other specified crimes cannot be tried at quarter sessions.

In counties, the court is presided over by a Chairman of quarter sessions, an experienced barrister, and in boroughs by a barrister known as the Recorder.

Justices of the peace may sit on the bench with the Chairman or Recorder but they play no part in the trial, which is with a jury. When the court is acting as a court of appeal from a magistrates' court there is no jury and the justices as a body decide the appeal. Magistrates' courts sit frequently in counties and boroughs for the trial of less serious offences, known until recently as courts of summary jurisdiction. An appeal from a magistrates' court goes to quarter sessions or, if a point of law is raised, to the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court.

All offenders are brought before the Court of Summary Jurisdiction, that being the court which is variously known as the Police Court, Petty Sessions, or merely as the Bench (sometimes, when sitting for the special purpose indicated, as the Juvenile Court or the Domestic Court).

There is no jury. Trivial cases are heard and decided then and there by this Court of Summary Jurisdiction. More serious cases are brought before this court, but the members then sit merely as examining magistrates and the proceedings do not amount to a trial, they are only a preliminary investigation deciding whether there is sufficient evidence to justify the sending of the accused for trial to a higher court, Quarter Sessions or Assizes. There is, however, amongst these more serious cases, an increasing number in which the accused, if he so wishes, may ask that his case should be tried and decided at once by this inferior court. These offences, in respect of which the accused may be sent off for trial to a higher court, are called indictable offences.

In a limited number of our great cities, including the metropolis, a full – time salaried barrister, called a stipendiary or metropolitan police court magistrate as the case may be, constitutes the Court of Summary Jurisdiction, but elsewhere this court consists of unpaid, part-time justices of the peace who are not as a rule lawyers. The clerk to these non-legal justices is usually a solicitor, and often plays an important part not only in preliminary matters but also in advising the justices (on legal matters only) during the course of their proceedings.

Exercise 1. Digest the information briefly in English.

Exercise 2. Answer the questions.

1. What are the other names of the Court of Summary Jurisdiction? 2. Is there a jury in the Court of Summary Jurisdiction? 3. What cases does the Court of Summary Jurisdiction hear? 4. Where does the Court of Summary Jurisdiction send more serious cases? 5. Who does the Court of Summary Jurisdiction consists of? 6. What offences are called indictable offences? Are all justices of the peace lawyers? 7. Who is a lawyer in the Court of Summary Jurisdiction? 8. Who playes an important part in it? 9. What are the offences, in respect of which the accused may be sent off for trial to a higher court?

Exercise 3. Translate the words and phrases in the brackets into English.

1. (Суд суммарной юрисдикции) is the court of first instance. 2. In more serious cases the members of the Court of Summary Jurisdiction hold only a (предварительное расследование). 3. The accused may be sent for trial to a higher court provided there is (достаточно доказательств). 4. (Преступления с обвинительным заключением) are those to be sent to a higher court after a preliminary investigation. 5. Solicitors commonly advise (мировые судьи) on legal matters during the proceedings.

Exercise 4. Combine words according to the meaning.

A) *Nouns*: action, case, cause, course, evidence, examination, formula, guide, inquiry, method, investigation, proof, regulation, road, rule, suit, testimony, trial proceedings, way;

B) *Verbs*: to ask, to advise, to consult, to decide, to defend, to desire, to excuse, to justify, to recommend, to plead, to settle, to want, to wish, to demand;

C) *Adjectives and Adverbs*: ample, at once, but, enough, immediately, important merely, insignificant, only, particular, preliminary, preparatory, solely, serious special, trivial, sufficient.

Exercise 5. Answer the questions.

1. How often are Quarter sessions held? 2. What are the functions of Quarter Sessions? 3. Who holds Assizes? 4. What cases are heard by Assizes? 5. What courts can appeals from the Court of Summary Jurisdiction be made to? 6. In what case is an appeal permitted direct from the Court of Summary Jurisdiction to King's Bench? 7. What appeals does the House of Lords consider?

Exercise 6. Read the text on Quarter Sessions and Assizes and give the main idea.

Quarter Sessions, which are held four times a year, have a double function. Sitting without a jury they hear appeals from the Courts of Summary Jurisdiction, and sitting with a jury they try many and various offences, not including quite the most serious. In the counties the court consists of unpaid magistrates, not generally lawyers, but with a barrister as chairman. In the borough the court is presided over by a salaried barrister called the Recorder. In London the London County Sessions meets twice a month. Assizes are held three or four times a year at provincial towns by a High Court Judge. He, sitting with a jury, hears the most serious criminal cases, those punishable with death or penal servitude for life. Technically, Assizes are an integral part of the High Court. For Greater London *the Central Criminal Court,* known as *the Old Bailey,* takes the place of Assizes.

Exercise 7. Make notes of your new knowledge about criminal courts.

Exercise 8. Translate the word-combinations and make up sentences with them.

Avenue of appeal; to file (lodge) an appeal; to file an appeal against a decision; to lose an appeal; to win an appeal; to take an appeal to a higher court; to deny (dismiss, reject, throw out) an appeal; to appeal to the facts; brief on appeal; to appeal against the judgement of the court; to appeal against the light; to appeal to the country; to appeal from Philip drunk to Philip sober; appeal (as) of right; to complete an appeal; to direct an appeal; to hear an appeal.

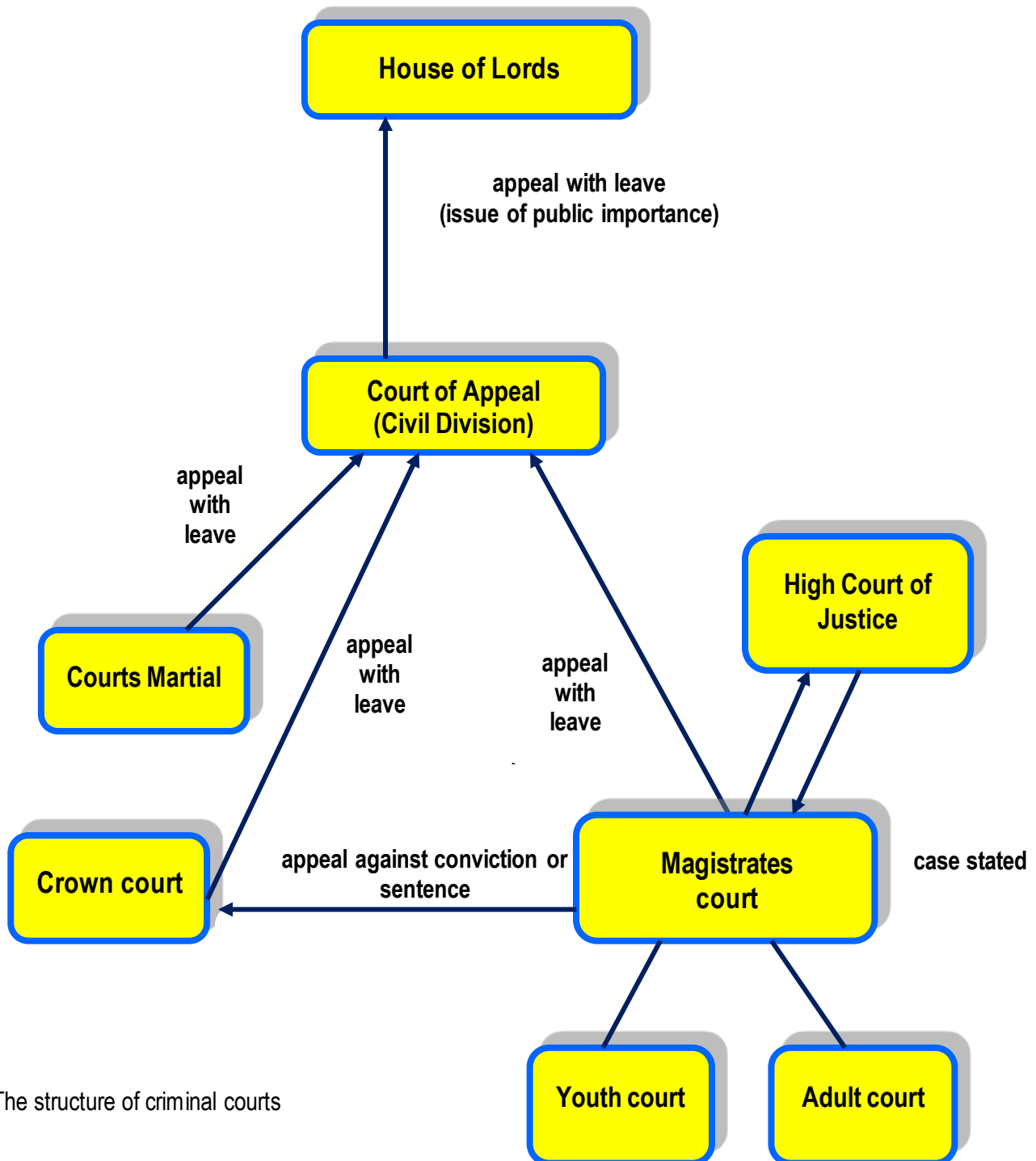*Exercise 9. Translate the sentences with the key word "appeal".*

1. For the proof of the existence of the conscience, we appeal to the consciousness. 2. The universities have to appeal to the government for more money. 3. You can appeal a decision. 4. The appeal is the judicial review by a superior court of the decision of a lower tribunal. 5. In Englih law an appeal is (formerly) a formal charge or accusation.6. To appeal is to apply to a superior court to review (a case or particular issue decided by a lower tribunal). 7. The judge must always appeal to the facts by making his decision. 8. They appealled against the judgement. 9. The president made an appeal to the public. 10. Appeal is an application for the judicial examination by a higher tribunal of the decision of any lower tribunal. 11. The novel has general appeal. 12. Movies have a great appeal for him. 13. Outings lost their appeal to/for me. 14. It's no use appealing to him.

Exercise 10. Add some information & make up a small report and give a talk in class.

Exercise 11. Try to understand the notion.

In modern English practice most appeals are limited to a review of the decision of the lower tribunal using a transcript or note of the evidence heard by that tribunal. In some circumstances there may be a full rehearing in which witnesses are recalled and fresh evidence may be introduced.

The appellate tribunal may in general make any order that the lower tribunal could have made, but there are some statutory restrictions upon this power; for example, in criminal cases the Court of Appeal may not impose a more severe sentence than the trial court. Appellate tribunals are usually reluctant to overrule the decisions of lower tribunals on questions of fact even when they have the power to do so; consequently argument on appeals can be directed towards legal errors allegedly committed at the trial. In some cases (e. g. appeals by case stated from magistrates' courts) the appeal may by law be confined to questions of law. Appeal may be contrasted with review, in which the higher tribunal is confined to an examination of the record of the lower tribunal's proceedings.

The structure of criminal courts

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CRIMINAL APPEALS

From the Court of Summary Jurisdiction there is in some cases a right of appeal to Quarter Sessions, and sometimes a further appeal to the King's Bench Division of the High Court, and on a point of law as distinguished from a point of fact, an appeal is sometimes permitted direct from the Court of Summary Jurisdiction to King's Bench.

From Quarter Sessions, Assizes, and the Central criminal Court, there is in some cases a right of appeal to the Court of Criminal Appeal, a further appeal, but on a point of law only, to the House of Lords. Appeals, if made, must be made promptly. They soon become time-barred.

The Queen's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice is very rarely the scene of a criminal trial. The Division Court of the Queen's Bench Division, consisting of three judges (often presided over by the Lord Chief Justice), is a court of appeal on points of law from magistrates' courts and also from quarter sessions when that court is acting as an appellate tribunal from a magistrates' court.

The appeal by case stated is in no sense a re-hearing of the case and witnesses are not heard.

That court can also supervise the proceedings of magistrates' courts and quarter sessions.

The Court of Criminal Appeal hears appeals from assizes and quarter sessions. Only the convicted person may appeal, there being no right of appeal by the prosecutor against a jury's verdict of Not Guilty. The Court consists usually of three judges of the Queen's Bench Division, the Lord Chief Justice of England normally presiding over the other two. In cases of special importance a "*full court*" of five or more judges sits. The Court has power to increase a sentence on appeal and not merely to reduce it. The Court may set aside a jury's verdict of Guilty if they think it is unreasonable or not supported by the evidence. But the Court will not do this merely because the case for the prosecution was weak or because the Court itself has some doubt as to the correctness of the verdict. The House Secretary has power to refer a case to the Court or to take its opinion on any particular point.

The House of Lords, as a court of law consisting of the Lords of Appeal in Ordinary and the Lord Chancellor, is the supreme court of appeal in criminal matters.

Exercise 1. Explain the law-terms and make up sentences with them.

To commit an offence; to cause (give) offence (to); criminal offence; impeachable offence; indictable offence; minor offence; petty offence; serious (capital) offence; trivial offence; to take offence at; without offence; offence of agreeing to indemnify sureties; offence of assault; offence of attempting to commit a crime; offence of drunkenness; offence of gross indecency; offence of several transactions; graded offence; regulatory offence; offence against morality (sovereignty, the law, the person, the property, the state), offence victim; offenceless (unoffending, inoffensive); to offend (vex, annoy, displease, anger); to offend against law; offended party; offended sovereignty; offended spouse; offendedly; offender (wrongdoer, lawbreaker, delinquent, transgressor, trespasser); chronic (old) offender (recidivist, repeater); first offender; offender rehabilitation; offending (corporation, document, drunkard, food, person); offendress; offensive; to go into the offensive.

Hierarchy of the courts

MAGISTRATES' COURTS

The most common type of law court in England and Wales is the Magistrates' Court. It is the lower court of trial. It deals with summary offences. More serious criminal cases then go to the Crown Court. Civil cases are dealt with in County courts. Magistrates' Courts have limited powers of penalty but may commit a convicted offender to the Crown Court if it considered that the powers of the Magistrates' Courts are insufficient.

Approximately 95% of all prosecutions are dealt with in the Magistrates' Courts. Juvenile Courts are composed of specially trained magistrates. They try most charges against children and young persons under the age of 18 years. The vast majority of criminal cases are likewise handled in lower courts. At some stage in the proceedings, almost every criminal case is considered in a Magistrates' Court Cases involving minor offences begin and end there. Cases involving more serious offences normally go through preliminary stages in these lower tribunals before being referred to higher courts for trial. There are two kinds of these lower courts in England. In London and a very few other cities, there are full-time, paid magistrates. They are called stipendiary magistrates.

All of these stipendiary magistrates are lawyers. There are only about 50 of these stipendiary magistrates in the entire country. In other cities and in all rural areas, there are justices of the peace.

There are lawmen, who sit once every week or two to hear criminal cases arising within their area. Even in London and other large cities, there are part-time justices, who sit to relieve the burden of the stipendiary magistrates, sit to hear cases involving juveniles, the granting and revocation of liquor licenses, and for a few other purposes. The justices of the peace provide the backbone of criminal justice in England. There are 18,500 justices in the country. The Lord Chancellor appoints them for each county in a document called the Commission of the Peace. Once appointed a judge serves until he reaches age 70, when he must retire from active service.

They always sit in panels. At least two justices must participate in decision of a case; three usually sit on a panel although as many as seven may serve at one time. They only sit in official court-houses. They receive a short period of training before they are allowed to try case.

Although the justices are laymen, they have the assistance of a legally trained clerk. He goes to their conference room with them when they consider the decisions, advises them on matters of law, and prepares documents. The ultimate disposition of the case remains, however, in their hands.

There is no jury. The justices must determine legal questions (the function of a judge), factual question (the function of a jury), and the nature of punishment to be imposed (the function of a judge).

The justices have relatively broad criminal jurisdiction. They hear all cases involving a potential of less than six-month imprisonment. They also have an old lot of miscellaneous function, such as the enforcement of material separation decrees, certain adoption proceedings, the licensing of pubs and gambling establishments. Procedure in the Magistrates' Courts is relatively simple although the courts are conducted with formally and decorum. Prosecutions are usually conducted by a senior police officer rather than a lawyer. The defendant usually appears in person, although he may be represented by a solicitor or, rarely, a barrister. The system for selecting justices of the peace reflects the importance which has been attached to this office in the English system.

Formally the Lord Chancellor simply makes the appointment. In fact, he makes the appointments after an elaborate nominating procedure. In each county, a selection committee considers individuals who might be appointed to the office. These committees are appointed by the Lord Chancellor with an effort to provide a broad cross-section of interests. Usually all major political parties are represented, as well as other groups within the community. The membership of the committees is kept secret to attempt to avert any improper influence of members. Only the name of the secretary is made public, so that individuals may nominate candidates for consideration.

Since selection as a magistrate is considered a significant honour, the magisterial bench becomes a kind of local establishment.

In a nation, which esteems status and titles, the letters J.P. after a name are symbols of community recognition and respectability. Appeals may be taken from the decisions of Magistrates' Courts to the local Crown Court or to a three-judge panel of the High Court, depending on the nature of the issues involved. Although there is a structure for appeals, the justices are large and self-regulated. Their interaction with the professional judicial system, the High Court and a County Court, is very restricted.

Civil proceedings consist of litigation about property, family matters and actions to obtain financial redress for damage to property and personal injury.

The courts of trial for such litigation are the County Court and the High Court of Justice. The County Courts are local courts and are presided over by a single Judge.

Notes on the text

Law Courts – «Дом правосудия» (главное здание судебных учреждений в Лондоне). *Litigation* – спор, тяжба. *Injury* – обида, ложь. *To sentence for something* – наказывать за что-то. *To avert* – отвести подозрение, предотвратить опасность. *Elaborate nominating procedure* – разработанная процедура назначения. *Miscellaneous functions* – разносторонние функции. *Law court* – суд, действующий по нормам статутного и общего права.

Exercise 1. Read, translate and try to render the main idea of the texts.

Exercise 2. Combine words and phrases according to the meaning.

To accompany, act, action, alone, case, claim, demand, to differ, to disagree, to establish, to follow, to institute, to obey, to observe, only, to object, to oppose, statute, to comply, to notice.

Case law & Appeals & Precedent

CHAPTER V. BREXIT: PERSPECTIVES

UK & EUROPEAN UNION

The UK first joined the then European Communities in January 1973 by the then Conservative Prime Minister Edward Heath, and remained a member of the European Union (EU) that it evolved into; UK citizens, and other EU citizens resident in the UK, elect 73 members to represent them in the European Parliament in Brussels and Strasbourg.

The UK's membership in the Union has been a major topic of debate over the years and has been objected to over questions of sovereignty, and in recent years there have been divisions in both major parties over whether the UK should form greater ties within the EU, or reduce the EU's supranational powers. Opponents of greater European integration are known as "Eurosceptics", while supporters are known as "Europhiles". Division over Europe is prevalent in both major parties, although the Conservative Party is seen as most divided over the issue, both whilst in Government up to 1997 and after 2010, and between those dates as the opposition. However, the Labour Party is divided, with conflicting views over UK adoption of the euro whilst in Government (1997-2010).

British nationalists have long campaigned against European integration. The strong showing of the eurosceptic UK Independence Party (UKIP) since the 2004 European Parliament elections has shifted the debate over UK relations with the EU.

In March 2008, Parliament decided to not hold a referendum on the ratification of the Treaty of Lisbon, signed in December 2007. This was despite the Labour government promising in 2004 to hold a referendum on the previously proposed Constitution for Europe.

In 2015, the Tory Party's general election victory activated a manifesto pledge to hold a referendum on the UK's membership of the EU. David Cameron made the promise at a time when he was under pressure from Eurosceptic backbenchers and when the Conservatives appeared to be losing votes to UKIP. Most political commentators agree that given a free hand, he would not have wanted a referendum. Having called the vote, Cameron embarked on a tour of EU capitals as he sought to renegotiate Britain's terms of membership, but vowed to campaign with his "heart and soul" to keep Britain in the bloc. Several members of his own cabinet campaigned to leave.

On 23 June 2016, the UK voted to leave the European Union in a referendum and settled the question that had rumbled under the surface of British politics for a generation: should the country remain within the European Union or end its 40-year membership and go it alone?

After the referendum, it was debated as to how and when the UK should leave the EU.

On 11 July 2016, the Cabinet Office Minister, John Penrose failed to deliver a final answer on whether it would be at the disposal of the Prime Minister and one of the Secretaries of State, through the Royal prerogative, or of Parliament, through primary legislation. In October 2016 the Conservative Prime Minister, Theresa May, announced that Article 50 would be invoked by "the first quarter of 2017". On 24 January 2017 the Supreme Court ruled in the Miller case by a majority that the process could not be initiated without an authorising act of parliament, but unanimously ruled against the Scottish government's claim in respect of devolution that they had a direct say in the decision to trigger Article 50. Consequently, the European Union (Notification of Withdrawal) Act 2017 empowering the prime minister to invoke Article 50 was passed and enacted by royal assent in March 2017. Invocation of Article 50 by the UK government occurred on 29 March 2017, when Sir Tim Barrow, the Permanent Representative of the UK to the European Union, formally delivered by hand a letter signed by Prime Minister T. May to D. Tusk, the President of the European Council in Brussels.

The letter contained the UK's intention to withdraw from the European Atomic Energy Community (EAEC or Euratom). This means that the UK will cease to be a member of the EU on 30 March 2019, unless an extension to negotiations is agreed upon by the UK and EU.

Despite contradictory polling in the run-up to the vote, on 23 June most commentators expected the UK to stay in the EU. Even as the count was underway, UKIP's Nigel Farage said it looked as if "Remain will edge it". However, the Leave campaign won by 51.9% to 48.1%, a gap of 1.3 mln votes, prompting Cameron to resign as prime minister. Here are the arguments presented by both sides of the debate during the referendum campaign: Brexiters argued that leaving the EU would result in an immediate cost saving, as the country would no longer contribute to the EU budget.

In 2016, Britain paid in £13.1bn, but it also received £4.5bn worth of spending, said Full Fact, "so the UK's net contribution was £8.5bn". What was harder to determine – and still is – was whether the financial advantages of EU membership, such as free trade and inward investment (see below) outweigh the upfront costs. And in the months since exit negotiations began, the UK has pledged to keep paying billions of pounds into the EU budget for years to come. The EU is a single market in which no tariffs are imposed on imports and exports between member states.

"More than 50 % of our exports go to EU countries", said Sky News during the campaign, and membership of the bloc means we have always had a say over how trading rules are drawn up.

Withing the EU, Britain benefited from trade deals between the EU and other world powers.

Outside the EU, said Remainers, the UK would lose trade with its neighbours and reduce its negotiating power with the rest of the world. Brexiters said it could more than compensate for those disadvantages because it would be free to establish its own trade agreements.

A middle-ground option proposed by some campaigners involved the UK leaving the political aspects of the EU, so it would not be bound by EU laws on agriculture, justice and home affairs, yet would remain a member of the single market. That would have meant seeking membership of the European Free Trade Area, which currently includes the 28 EU member states plus Norway, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Switzerland. Former UKIP leader Nigel Farage has in the past suggested Britain could follow the lead of Norway – although he has not repeated that since the Brexit vote.

However, others argued that an "amicable divorce" would not be possible. "If Britain were to join the Norwegian club", said The Economist, "it would remain bound by virtually all EU regulations, including the working-time directive and almost everything dreamed up in Brussels in future".

Meanwhile it would no longer have any influence on what those regulations said.

Eurosceptics argue the vast majority of small and medium-sized firms do not trade with the EU but are restricted by a huge regulatory burden imposed from abroad. Leading Brexit campaigner Boris Johnson proposed adopting a Canada-style trade arrangement that would mean access to, but not membership of, the single market. "I think we can strike a deal as the Canadians have done based on trade and getting rid of tariffs" and have a "very, very bright future", he said.

The idea was dismissed by Cameron at the time, who said it would mean "years of painful negotiations and a poorer deal than we have today". It took Canada seven years to get its deal and it needed to ratify by all EU parliaments including regional governments in areas like Wallonia in Belgium. Since the Brexit vote, Theresa May has ruled out membership of the single market and customs union, although she has shown some willingness to replace the latter with something similar.

The Government, including Boris Johnson, has rejected the Norway and Canada models and is instead persuing a bespoke deal with the remaining EU members.

Whether that will include free trade with Europe and whether the UK will be able to strike trade deals with the rest of the world is still unclear. Brexiters argue it would be in the interests of other European countries to re-establish free trade.

However, their opponents suggest the EU will want to make life hard for Britain in order to discourage further breakaways; that Britain will have to compromise by agreeing to regulatory equivalence. Pro-Europeans argued that the UK's status as one of the world's biggest financial centres would be diminished if it was no longer seen as a gateway to the EU for the likes of US banks. They said financial firms based in the UK would lose the rights to "passport" freely across the continent.

Business for New Europe said tax revenues would drop if companies carrying out large amounts of business with Europe – particularly banks – moved their headquarters back into the EU.

On the other hand, Brexit campaigners suggested that free from EU rules and regulations, Britain could reinvent itself as a Singapore-style supercharged economy. Fears that carmakers could scale back or even end production in the UK if vehicles could no longer be exported tax-free to Europe were underlined by BMW's decision to remind its UK employees at Rolls-Royce and Mini of the "significant benefit" EU membership confers. But Brexit supporters were adamant that a deal to allow continued tariff-free trading will be secured even if the UK leaves the single market, as Britain has a large trade deficit with the EU and so it is in Europe's interest to find a compromise.

Although it seems unlikely that passporting will be part of the final trade deal, financial services are still hoping for an agreement on regulatory equivalence, which will maximise cross-border services.

Since the Brexit vote, many banks and financial firms have begun establishing EU bases to take some staff out of the UK – although most seem likely to maintain the majority of their British operations. For Brexiters, sovereignty was seen as a simple win: few disagreed that EU membership involves giving up some control over domestic affairs.

Pro-Brexit Labour MP Kate Hoey said at the time that the EU is "an attempt to replace the democratic power of the people with a permanent administration in the interests of big business".

Those on the right of the Conservative party may disagree with her emphasis, but they share her view that EU institutions have drained power from the British parliament. "The trouble is that most of us have no clue as to how the Brussels monolith works, or who's in charge", said Stay or Go, the Connell Guide to the EU referendum. Nevertheless, it said, we have only ourselves to blame. "We've made it that way" because too many of us "can't be bothered to vote" in European elections.

For those in the Remain camp, EU membership involved a worthwhile trade of sovereignty for influence: in return for agreeing to abide by EU rules, Britain had a seat around the negotiating table and its voice was amplified on the world stage as a result. "The truth is that pulling up the drawbridge and quitting the EU will not enhance our national sovereignty", warned Labour's Hilary Benn.

All it would do is to weaken it by taking away our power to influence events in an ever more complex and interdependent world". Nor, said Remainers, will UK sovereignty be absolute out of the EU: the British government will still be bound by membership of NATO, the UN, the World Trade Organisation, and various treaties and agreements with other nations.

Under EU law, Britain cannot prevent anyone from another member state from coming to live in the UK, while Britons benefit from an equivalent right to live and work anywhere else in the bloc.

The result was a huge increase in immigration into Britain, particularly from eastern and southern Europe. According to the Office for National Statistics, there were 942,000 eastern Europeans, Romanians and Bulgarians working in the UK, along with 791,000 western Europeans and 2.93 mln. workers from outside the EU in 2016. China and India are the biggest source of foreign workers in the UK. Remainers said that, while the recent pace of immigration had led to some difficulties with housing and service provision, the net effect had been overwhelmingly positive.

By contrast, most Brexiters said immigration should be dramatically cut and Britain should "regain control of our borders". Other pro-Brexit campaigners would not necessarily reduce immigration, but agreed that it should be up to the British Government to set the rules. After becoming prime minister, Theresa May put immigration at the centre of her approach to Brexit, pledging to end freedom of movement and honour Cameron's pledge to reduce net migration to the tens of thousands.

Pro-EU campaigners suggested three mln jobs would be lost if Britain voted to leave. However, while "figures from the early 2000s suggest around three mln jobs are linked to trade with the European Union", says Full Fact, "they don't say they are dependent on the UK being an EU member".

If trade and investment falls after Brexit, then some of these jobs would be lost – but if they rose, new jobs would be created. A drop in immigration could mean more jobs for the people who remained, but labour shortages could also hold back the economy, reducing its potential for growth (and a fall in population could reduce demand for goods and services). There are skills shortages in the UK workforce that could hurt some sectors. Writing for the London School of Economics, Professor Adrian Favell said limiting freedom of movement would deter the "brightest and the best" of the continent from coming to Britain and reduce the pool of candidates employers can choose from.

Free movement of people across the EU opened up job opportunities for British workers seeking to work elsewhere in Europe. Nearly two years on, it is still unclear what effect Brexit will have on the jobs market, either for British of foreign workers – but there has been no obvious immediate impact. For Leavers, exiting the EU was going to allow Britain to re-establish itself as a truly independent nation with connections to the rest of the world. For Remainers, it would result in the country giving up its influence in Europe, turning back the clock and retreating from the global power networks of the 21st century. "Brexit would bring some clear-cut advantages, said The Economist before the referendum. The UK would regain control over fishing rights around its coast.

However, it concluded that the most likely outcome would be that Britain would find itself "a scratchy outsider with somewhat limited access to the single market, almost no influence and few friends." Former work and pensions secretary Iain Duncan Smith, who was in favour of Brexit, said Britain was leaving the "door open" to terrorist attacks by remaining in the EU. "This open border does not allow us to check and control people", he said. However, several senior military figures, including former chiefs of defence staff Lord Bramall and Jock Stirrup, argued the opposite.

In a letter released by No 10 during the campaign, they said the EU was an "increasingly important pillar of our security", especially at a time of instability in the Middle East and in the face of "resurgent Russian nationalism and aggression". Defence Secretary Michael Fallon also said the UK benefited from being part of the EU, as well as NATO and the UN. "It is through the EU that you exchange criminal records and passenger records and work together on counter-terrorism", he said.

"We need the collective weight of the EU when you are dealing with Russian aggression or terrorism." In contrast, Colonel Richard Kemp, writing in The Times said these "critical bilateral relationships" would persist regardless of membership, and that it was "absurd" to suggest that the EU would put its own citizens, or the UK's, at greater risk by reducing cooperation in the event of Brexit.

"By leaving, we will again be able to determine who does and does not enter the UK", said Kemp, a former head of the international terrorism team at the Cabinet Office. "Failure to do so significantly increases the terrorist threat here endangers our people and is a betrayal of this country."

Since the Brexit vote, the Government has said it will work to maintain security relationships with the EU. "In today's uncertain world we need that shared strength more than ever", said Andrew Parker, the head of MI5, in May 2018. "I hope for a comprehensive and enduring agreement that tackles obstacles and allows professionals to get on with the job together."

Various approaches to the Brexit

What will be the legal route to achieving Brexit?

On March 29, 2017, the UK gave notice to the European Council under Article 50 of the Treaty on European Union (the TEU) of the UK's intention to leave the EU. Article 50 provides for a two-year period for the withdrawal to take effect. Accordingly, there are now ongoing negotiations between the UK and the European Commission, as EU negotiator, and these will continue based on guidelines issued by the European Council and in accordance with article 218(3) of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU). The negotiating period can be extended by agreement of all EU member states. If no extension is agreed, the UK would automatically cease to be a member of the EU at the end of two years. It is possible that even if there is a formal exit after 2 years, much of the detail of the negotiation will need to be dealt with over a longer period. Article 50 has never been used before so the UK would be setting a new precedent and this is likely to bring its own challenges for all parties involved in so far as there is "no clear legal framework for how it would work".

What UK legislation will need to be repealed or amended in order for Brexit to take effect?

The most important piece of UK legislation that needs to be repealed is the European Communities Act 1972 (ECA), which provides for the supremacy of EU law. Repealing the ECA will bring an end to the constitutional relationship that exists between EU and UK law. Moreover, the vast amounts of secondary legislation that have been passed with the objective and justification of implementing EU law would have to be considered by the Government.

Parliament has legislated to repeal the ECA with the EU (Withdrawal) Act 2018, which will convert all existing EU-derived law into domestic law. The Government's approach will allow the UK to decide over time what laws it wishes to retain and is intended to avoid the significant gaps and consequent uncertainty if all EU-derived law was repealed without replacement.

Commercially, even if the UK decided not to retain any EU law, companies looking to trade in the EU would nevertheless still be required to comply with EU laws such as EU competition rules, regulations and standards. The UK will need to address EU provisions, which regulate the relationship between EU Member States themselves or are based on reciprocity. Thought will also need to be given to the issues surrounding:

- legislation which relies on an EU Regulator or give jurisdiction to the CJEU;
- the numerous treaties which have been signed by the EU and are currently directly applicable in the UK by virtue of s2(1) of the European Communities Act;
- the fact that references in EU laws to actions being taken within the EU will not cover actions taken within the UK.

The EU (Withdrawal) Act contains wide-ranging powers to amend EU-derived law by secondary legislation. In the Government's view, these powers will give sufficient scope to correct or remove laws that would otherwise not function properly after Brexit, although the Government has sought to stress that the powers will not be able to be used to create 'new policy'.

What will be the impact on existing European Union Directives?

EU Directives require implementation into UK law in order to have effect. This creates the task for any UK government overseeing Brexit of deciding whether to embark on a process of reviewing Acts of Parliament and statutory instruments with a view to ascertaining whether or not to maintain, replace or repeal each piece of legislation. As set out above, the European Union (Withdrawal) Act is intended to affirm the status of UK legislation passed pursuant to EU Directives, but much of this legislation will need to be amended to take into account the new relationship with the EU, such as the appointment and oversight of new UK regulators in place of the EU institutions.

What will be the impact on existing European Union Regulations?

EU Regulations rely on the principle of direct applicability, which means that unlike EU Directives, they are directly implemented into UK law without the need for legislation from the UK Parliament.

In this light, Regulations are more powerful legislative tools for the EU because of their immediate applicability. The status of existing Regulations will be addressed in the European Union (Withdrawal) Act, although as noted above, in many cases amendments will likely be needed to take into account the UK's new relationship with the EU.

Will UK courts still be bound by decisions of the CJEU?

The Court of Justice of the European Union (CJEU) situated in Luxembourg is the final arbiter on questions of the interpretation of EU law. In her first speech setting out the UK Government's priorities for Brexit on 17 January 2017, the Prime Minister restated her position that the UK is not prepared to continue to be subject to the jurisdiction of the CJEU.

The EU (Withdrawal) Act sets out the future relationship between courts in the UK and EU law, including EU court decisions. UK courts, other than the Supreme Court, will continue to be bound by EU laws and court decisions made before Brexit. This is an attempt to preserve continuity given that previous CJEU decisions have influenced many areas of English case law and similarly, the English courts have looked at the wording of EU Directives for the purposes of construing UK legislation which was passed to give them effect. It is possible that the UK courts may start to move away from such decisions once the UK is no longer bound by EU law and/or such decisions may be superseded by post-Brexit legislation, but in the interim we envisage that the interpretation of EU law will likely continue to play some role in English jurisprudence.

What's happening now?

The UK has voted to leave the European Union. It is scheduled to depart at 11pm UK time on Friday 29 March, 2019. The UK and EU have provisionally agreed on the three "divorce" issues of how much the UK owes the EU, what happens to the Northern Ireland border and what happens to UK citizens living elsewhere in the EU and EU citizens living in the UK. Talks are now focusing on the detail of those issues – there is yet to be agreement on how to avoid having a physical Northern Ireland border – and on future relations. To buy more time, the two sides have agreed on a 21-month "transition" period to smooth the way to post-Brexit relations. The UK cabinet has just agreed how it sees those future relations working and will now be seeing if the EU agrees.

The Prime Minister has announced a bill to repeal the European Communities Act 1972, the Act of Parliament formally inserting the founding treaties into the law of the UK. This "Great Repeal Bill" is, of course, a consequence of the European Union (EU) referendum on 23 June 2016 when the British people decided to leave the EU as a Member State. It will only come into effect once "Brexit" is completed. As the Prime Minister also announced that she will trigger Article 50 of the Treaty on European Union in March 2017, the bill would become law in Spring 2019, after the prescribed two-year period of exit negotiations. Until then the entirety of EU law, it's supremacy included, will remain in force throughout the UK; indeed, any violations would be unlawful.

The "Great Repeal Bill" requires a vote and majority in Parliament to become law. This will give those feeling strongly against "Brexit", for example the 54 Scottish National Party MPs, an opportunity to make a stand, even when a majority made of Conservatives and some others will probably be found. The vote might well emphasise the division of the country – the referendum result was clear, but there are over 16 mln unhappy people. The "Great Repeal Bill" is a necessary legal part of "Brexit". Perhaps unsurprisingly, the Prime Minister's announcement does not tell us much about the intended type of deal to be negotiated with the EU to replace what the Bill will repeal after Spring 2019.

Even after a "hard Brexit" most of EU law, including thousands of pages of UK Regulations transposing EU Directives into our law, will remain on our statute books.

However, if and to what extent these Regulations can be repealed or even amended, will depend on the arrangements eventually made with the EU. An EU-UK Treaty with full access to the Internal Market would leave most of the EU based laws exactly as they are, although the supremacy of EU law and its enforceability in our courts would be affected. A "hard Brexit" taking the UK out of the Internal Market would lay the foundations of a process during which hundreds of Regulations are gradually repealed over time, replaced or amended by the British legislators, growing less and less compliant with EU law. Depending on the substance of these changes and on the sector they regulate, British producers and service providers would then have to abide by these new UK rules to do business here and additionally the potentially increasingly different EU rules to do business there, a costly proposition. It is these gradually evolving differences of law by which the "Great Repeal Bill" might threaten the business model of many companies and investors in the UK and, thus, our jobs and wealth.

What is the "*transition*" period?

It refers to a period of time after 29 March, 2019, to 31 December, 2020, to get everything in place and allow businesses and others to prepare for the moment when the new post-Brexit rules between the UK and the EU begin. It allows more time for the details of the new relationship to be fully hammered out. Free movement will continue during the transition period, as the EU wanted.

The UK will be able to strike its own trade deals – although they won't be able to come into force until 1 January 2021.

Do we know how things will work in the long-term?

No. Negotiations about future relations between the UK and the EU are taking place now. Both sides hope they can agree by October on the outline of future relations on things like trade, travel and security. If all goes to plan this deal could then be given the go ahead by both sides in time for 29 March 2019. Theresa May delivered a big speech setting out her thoughts on the UK and EU's future relations on 2 March, 2018.

Key dates at-a-glance

- *18 October 2018*: The key EU summit. Both sides hope to agree outline of future relations to allow time for UK parliament and EU members to ratify deal by Brexit day
- *13 December 2018*: EU summit. If deal not done by October, this is the fall back option if the two sides still want to reach agreement
- Commons and Lords vote on withdrawal treaty – MPs could reject the deal but it's not clear what would happen if that is the case
- The UK Parliament also needs to pass an implementation bill before Brexit day
- *29 March 2019*: As things stand, deal or no deal, Brexit is due to happen at 11pm UK time
- *31 December 2020*: If all goes to plan a transition period will then last until midnight on this date.

So is Brexit definitely happening?

The UK government and the main UK opposition party both say Brexit will happen. There are some groups campaigning for Brexit to be halted, but the focus among the UK's elected politicians has been on what relationship the UK has with the EU after Brexit, rather than whether Brexit will happen at all. Nothing is ever certain, but as things stand Britain is leaving the European Union. There is more detail on the possible hurdles further down this guide, but first let's go back to the basics.

What does Brexit mean?

It is a word that is used as a shorthand way of saying the UK leaving the EU – merging the words **Br**itain and **exit** to get Brexit, in the same way as a possible Greek exit from the euro was dubbed Grexit in the past.

REMAIN

PARLIAMENT RETAINS ULTIMATE POWER

UK MUST POOL SOVEREIGNTY

EVER CLOSER UNION WILL STOP

COUNTRIES MUST CO-OPERATE

LEAVE

UK CAN'T MAKE ITS OWN LAWS

LEAVING WOULD BE DEMOCRATIC

EU WILL TAKE MORE POWER

UK CAN PROTECT ITS INTERESTS

Why is Britain leaving the European Union?

A referendum – a vote in which everyone (or nearly everyone) of voting age can take part – was held on Thursday 23 June, 2016, to decide whether the UK should leave or remain in the EU. Leave won by 51.9% to 48.1%. The referendum turnout was 71.8%, with more than 30 mln. people voting.

What was the breakdown across the UK?

England voted for Brexit, by 53.4% to 46.6%. Wales also voted for Brexit, with Leave getting 52.5% of the vote and Remain 47.5%. Scotland and Northern Ireland both backed staying in the EU. Scotland backed Remain by 62% to 38%, while 55.8% in Northern Ireland voted Remain and 44.2% Leave.

What changed in government after the referendum?

Britain got a new Prime Minister – Theresa May. The former home secretary took over from David Cameron, who announced he was resigning on the day he lost the referendum. She became PM without facing a full Conservative leadership contest after her key rivals from what had been the Leave side pulled out.

Where does Theresa May stand on Brexit?

Theresa May was against Brexit during the referendum campaign but is now in favour of it because she says it is what the British people want. Her key message has been that "Brexit means Brexit" and she triggered the two year process of leaving the EU on 29 March, 2017. She set out her negotiating goals in a letter to the EU council president Donald Tusk. She outlined her plans for a transition period after Brexit in a big speech in Florence, Italy. She then set out her thinking on the kind of trading relationship the UK wants with the EU, in a speech in March 2018.

How did the snap 2017 election change things?

Theresa May surprised almost everyone after the 2017 Easter Bank Holiday by calling an election for 8 June (due until 2020). She said she wanted to strengthen her hand in Brexit negotiations with European leaders. She said Labour, the SNP and other opposition parties – and members of the House of Lords – would try to block and frustrate her strategy. However Mrs May did not increase her party's seats in the Commons and she ended up weakened, having to rely on support from the 10 MPs from Northern Ireland's Democratic Unionist Party.

What has happened to the UK economy since the Brexit vote?

David Cameron, his Chancellor George Osborne and many other senior figures who wanted to stay in the EU predicted an immediate economic crisis if the UK voted to leave and it is true that the pound slumped the day after the referendum – but it has now regained its losses against the dollar, while remaining 15% down against the euro. Predictions of immediate doom were wrong, with the UK economy estimated to have grown 1.8% in 2016, second only to Germany's 1.9% among the world's G7 leading industrialised nations.

The UK economy continued to grow at almost the same rate in 2017 although there was slower growth, of 0.1% in the first three months of 2018. Inflation rose after June 2016 but has since eased to stand at 2.4% . Unemployment has continued to fall, to stand near a 40-year year low of 4.2% .

Annual house price increases have steadily fallen from 9.4% in June 2016 but were still at an inflation-beating 4.2% in the year to March 2018, according to official ONS figures.

Brexit negotiations officially started a year after the referendum, on 19 June, 2017. Here's a picture from that first session: The UK and EU negotiating teams met face-to-face for one week each month, with a few extra sessions also thrown in ahead of EU summits.

Their first tasks were trying to get an agreement on the rights of UK and EU expat citizens after Brexit, reaching a figure for the amount of money the UK will need to pay on leaving, the so-called "divorce bill", and what happens to the Northern Ireland border. A provisional deal on these issues was reached on 8 December: "Breakthrough" deals in Brexit talks. They then agreed terms for the "transition" phase and now have moved on to the permanent post-Brexit relationship, while trying to agree on the precise wording of the divorce issues.

What is the European Union?

The European Union – often known as the EU – is an economic and political partnership involving 28 European countries. It began after World War Two to foster economic co-operation, with the idea that countries which trade together are more likely to avoid going to war with each other.

It has since grown to become a "single market" allowing goods and people to move around, basically as if the member states were one country. It has its own currency, the euro, which is used by 19 of the member countries, its own parliament and it now sets rules in a wide range of areas – including on the environment, transport, consumer rights and even things such as mobile phone charges.

What is Article 50?

Article 50 is a plan for any country that wishes to exit the EU to do so. It was created as part of the Treaty of Lisbon – an agreement signed up to by all EU states which became law in 2009. Before that treaty, there was no formal mechanism for a country to leave the EU.

It's pretty short – just five paragraphs – which spell out that any EU member state may decide to quit the EU, that it must notify the European Council and negotiate its withdrawal with the EU, that there are two years to reach an agreement - unless everyone agrees to extend it - and that the exiting state cannot take part in EU internal discussions about its departure.

When is the UK due to leave the EU?

For the UK to leave the EU it had to invoke Article 50 of the Lisbon Treaty which gives the two sides two years to agree the terms of the split. Theresa May triggered this process on 29 March, meaning the UK is scheduled to leave at 11pm UK time on *Friday, 29 March 2019*. It can be extended if all 28 EU members agree, but at the moment all sides are focusing on that date as being the key one, and Theresa May has now put it into British law.

What's going to happen to all the EU laws in force in the UK?

The Conservative government has introduced the European Union (Withdrawal) Bill to Parliament. It will end the primacy of EU law in the UK on Brexit Day. This "Great Repeal Bill", as it was originally called, incorporates all EU legislation into UK law in one lump, after which the government will decide over a period of time which parts to keep, change or remove. The government is facing claims from Remain-supporting MPs that it is giving itself sweeping powers to change legislation without proper Parliamentary scrutiny.

What is the Labour Party's position on Brexit?

Labour says it accepts the referendum result and that Brexit is going to happen. Leader Jeremy Corbyn says he would negotiate a permanent customs union with the EU after Brexit, which would be very similar to the one it has now. This is the only way to keep trade flowing freely and protect jobs, he says, as well as ensuring there is no return to a "hard border" in Northern Ireland. He has ruled out staying a member of the single market, as some of his pro-EU MPs want, so he can carry out his plans to nationalise key industries without being hampered by EU competition rules. He says the UK should have a very close relationship with the single market. Labour accepts that some form of free movement of people might have to continue. He also insists he could persuade Brussels to let the UK have a say in its rules post-Brexit.

What do "soft" and "hard" Brexit mean?

These terms are used during debate on the terms of the UK's departure from the EU. There is no strict definition of either, but they are used to refer to the closeness of the UK's relationship with the EU post-Brexit. So at one extreme, "hard" Brexit could involve the UK refusing to compromise on issues like the free movement of people even if it meant leaving the single market or having to give up hopes of aspects of free trade arrangements.

At the other end of the scale, a "soft" Brexit might follow a similar path to Norway, which is a member of the single market and has to accept the free movement of people as a result of that.

What is the single market?

The single market is seen by its advocates as the EU's biggest achievement and one of the main reasons it was set up in the first place. Britain was a member of a free trade area in Europe before it joined what was then known as the common market. In a free trade area countries can trade with each other without paying tariffs – but it is not a single market because the member states do not have to merge their economies together. The European Union single market, which was completed in 1992, allows the free movement of goods, services, money and people within the European Union, as if it was a single country. It is possible to set up a business or take a job anywhere within it.

The idea was to boost trade, create jobs and lower prices. But it requires common law-making to ensure products are made to the same technical standards and imposes other rules to ensure a "level playing field". Critics say it generates too many petty regulations and robs members of control over their own affairs. Mass migration from poorer to richer countries has also raised questions about the free movement rule. Theresa May has ruled out the UK staying in the single market, a position backed by Labour leader Jeremy Corbyn.

What's the difference between the single market and the customs union?

The customs union ensures EU member states all charge the same import duties to countries outside the EU. It allows member states to trade freely with each other, without burdensome customs checks at borders, but it limits their freedom to strike their own trade deals. It is different from a free trade area. In a free trade area no tariffs, taxes or quotas are charged on goods and services moving within the area but members are free to strike their own external trade deals.

The government says the UK is leaving the customs union after the transition period but ministers have yet to decide on what will replace it amid divisions in cabinet over the two options – a customs partnership and a technology based "maximum facilitation" arrangement.

Who is negotiating Britain's exit from the EU?

Theresa May set up a government department, headed by veteran Conservative MP and Leave campaigner David Davis, to take responsibility for Brexit talks. Former defence secretary, Liam Fox, who also campaigned to leave the EU, was given the new job of international trade secretary and Boris Johnson, who was a leader of the official Leave campaign, is foreign secretary.

These three were each playing roles in negotiations with the EU. However that has all changed now, with Boris Johnson and David Davis resigning over Theresa May's preferred Brexit plan.

Dominic Raab is the new Brexit secretary and Jeremy Hunt is foreign secretary. But Mrs May has made clear that she is in charge of the negotiations.

How long will it take for Britain to leave the EU?

The Article 50 process lasts two years so the intention is for the UK to leave the EU on 29 March 2019. EU law still stands in the UK until it ceases being a member. But as things stand there will not be a final break on that day as the two sides have agreed to a 21-month transition period to allow a smooth implementation of whatever Brexit deal is negotiated and minimise disruption to businesses and holidaymakers etc.

Why might Brexit take so long?

Unpicking 43 years of treaties and agreements covering thousands of different subjects was never going to be a straightforward task. It is further complicated by the fact that it has never been done before and negotiators are, to some extent, making it up as they go along. The post-Brexit trade deal is likely to be the most complex part of the negotiation because it needs the unanimous approval of 30 national and regional parliaments across Europe, some of whom may want to hold referendums.

So why can't the UK just cut all ties in March 2019?

The UK could cut all ties, but Theresa May and others would like to avoid such a "cliff-edge" where current regulations on things like cross-border trade and travel between the UK and the EU ends overnight. They think it would harm the economy.

What happens if there is no deal with the EU?

Without an agreement on trade, the UK would operate with the EU under World Trade Organisation rules, which could mean customs checks and tariffs on goods as well as longer border checks for travellers. There are questions about what would happen to Britain's position as a global financial centre and the land border between the UK and the Republic of Ireland. There is concern that Brits living abroad in the EU could lose residency rights and access to free emergency health care.

What happens to EU citizens living in the UK and UK citizens in the EU?

An agreement between the UK and the EU provides what Theresa May says is certainty to the 3.2 mln EU citizens in the UK – as well as citizens of Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland that they will be able to carry on living and working in the UK as they have done with their rights enshrined in UK law and enforced by British courts. UK citizens in the EU will retain their current rights with what the EU's Jean-Claude Juncker called a cheap and simple administration procedure.

The proposal provides a cut-off date of Brexit day – 29 March 2019 – for those to be covered by the rules. Babies born after that date to people who have qualified under these rules will be included in the agreement. Under the plan EU citizens legally resident in the UK and UK citizens in the EU will be able to leave for up to 5 years before losing the rights they will have as part of the proposed Brexit deal. Healthcare rights will continue as now although it is not clear yet what status an EHIC card would have for other travellers after Brexit. As with all other aspects of Brexit, this agreement would only come into force if and when the UK and the EU agree on an overall Brexit deal.

How will EU citizens apply for the new status?

UK government ministers say there will be an online system – similar to one used to renew driving licences – that will take minutes to complete with a fee similar to getting a passport.

Will EU nationals have to leave the UK if there's no deal?

We don't yet know what it would mean for recent arrivals, but it's worth saying that even if no Brexit deal was done, EU nationals with a right to permanent residence, which is granted after they have lived in the UK for five years, should not see their rights affected after Brexit.

What about EU nationals who want to work in the UK?

Any EU citizen already living and working in the UK will be able to carry on working and living in the UK after Brexit. The current plan is that even after Brexit, people from the EU will be able to move to work in the UK during a "transition" phase of about 2 years. There is some debate over whether they will have the same rights as those who came before, with possible restrictions on access to benefits or to vote in local elections. The EU wants them to have the same rights as now – the UK doesn't.

What happens after the transition period has yet to be decided, although it is widely expected that there will be a work permit system along the lines of that for non-EU nationals.

What does the fall in the value of the pound mean for prices in the shops?

People travelling overseas from the UK since the Brexit vote have found their pounds buy fewer euros. A slump in the value of the dollar means the exchange rate with the pound is pretty close to where it was before the referendum. A fall in the pound means exports get a boost as UK goods will be cheaper to buy in other countries, but some imported goods could get more expensive. The latest UK inflation figures have the rate at 3%, above the target level, but not out of kilter with recent years.

Will immigration be cut?

Prime Minister Theresa May said one of the main messages she took from the Leave vote was that the British people wanted to see a reduction in immigration. She has said this will be a focus of Brexit negotiations, as she remains committed to getting net migration – the difference between the numbers entering and leaving the country – down to a "sustainable" level, which she defines as being below 100,000 a year. The rate of increase in the size of Britain's population has slowed since the Brexit vote. Annual net migration is estimated to have fallen by nearly a third from the time of the referendum to 244,000 in the year to September 2017. "Brexit could well be a factor in people's decision to move to or from the UK, but people's decision to migrate is complicated and can be influenced by lots of different reasons," the Office for National Statistics said.

Campaigners, led by a group called the People's Vote, are calling for the public to have the final say on the final Brexit deal. Theresa May does not want another referendum, arguing that it would be an undemocratic breach of trust with the British people who clearly voted to Leave.

Labour's leaders have also spoken out against the idea, preferring the idea of a general election being called rather than another referendum.

Will MPs get a vote on the final Brexit deal?

Yes. Theresa May has promised there will be a Commons and Lords vote to approve whatever deal the UK and the rest of the EU agree at the end of the two year process. This vote was proposed as a "take it or leave it" one, after the deal was done. But Mrs May suffered her first defeat as PM in December 2017 when enough Tory rebels joined with opposition parties to back an amendment to the EU Withdrawal Bill which puts into law the fact that any Brexit deal can only become law if MPs have voted for it.
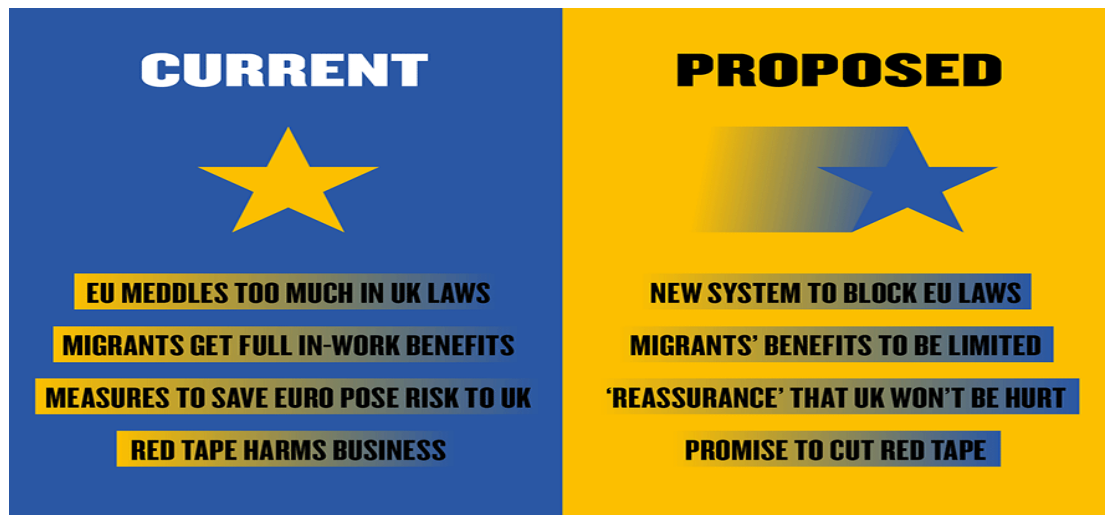
So could MPs block Brexit?

In theory, yes, but the EU side would need to agree too. The referendum result is not legally binding and the withdrawal agreement also has to be ratified by Parliament. But the UK has triggered the automatic process of leaving the EU. MPs could vote against the exit deal between the UK and EU. This would mean the UK would be on track to leave without a deal, rather than halting the process. Some anti-Brexit MPs believe that if that happens, they could then persuade enough of their colleagues to back a second referendum.

Will I need a visa to travel to the EU?

The UK government wants to keep visa-free travel to the UK for EU visitors after Brexit and it is hoping this will be reciprocated, meaning UK citizens will continue to be able to visit EU countries for short periods without seeking official permission to travel.

If visitors from EU countries wanted to work, study or settle in the UK they would have to apply for permission under the proposals. No agreement has been reached yet, however. If it is decided that EU citizens will need visas to come to the UK in the future, then UK citizens will need visas to travel to the EU.

CURRENT	PROPOSED
EU MEDDLES TOO MUCH IN UK LAWS	NEW SYSTEM TO BLOCK EU LAWS
MIGRANTS GET FULL IN-WORK BENEFITS	MIGRANTS' BENEFITS TO BE LIMITED
MEASURES TO SAVE EURO POSE RISK TO UK	'REASSURANCE' THAT UK WON'T BE HURT
RED TAPE HARMS BUSINESS	PROMISE TO CUT RED TAPE

The EU deal: what will change?

Will I still be able to use my passport?

Yes. It is a British document - there is no such thing as an EU passport, so your passport will stay the same. The government has decided to change the colour to blue for anyone applying for a new or replacement British passport from October 2019.

Has any other member state ever left the EU?

No nation state has ever left the EU. But Greenland, one of Denmark's overseas territories, held a referendum in 1982, after gaining a greater degree of self government, and voted by 52% to 48% to leave, which it duly did after a period of negotiation.

What does this mean for Scotland?

Scotland's First Minister Nicola Sturgeon said in the wake of the Leave result that it was "democratically unacceptable" that Scotland faced being taken out of the EU when it voted to Remain. Ms Sturgeon has officially asked for permission for a second referendum to be held. She had wanted the vote to be held between the autumn of 2018 and spring 2019. But after losing seats at the 2017 general election she has put her plans on hold with no referendum likely until 2021. Theresa May has said a second referendum should not be held during the Brexit process.

What does it mean for Northern Ireland?

The land border between Northern Ireland and EU member the Republic of Ireland has been a key part of the Brexit talks. There is currently a common travel area between the UK and the Republic. Like Scotland, Northern Ireland voted to remain in the EU in the 2016 referendum.

The result in Northern Ireland was 56% for Remain and 44% for Leave. Both sides in the Brexit talks agree that they do not want a return to a "hard border" - that means no physical infrastructure, such as customs posts or a network of surveillance cameras.

But the wording to agree on this proved tricky and there are still many questions to be answered about how it would work in practice. It remains a stumbling block in Brexit talks. The draft UK-EU agreement in December 2017 said that the UK "will maintain full alignment with those rules of the Internal Market and the Customs Union which, now or in the future, support North-South cooperation, the all island economy and the protection of the 1998 Agreement'. The EU has translated this into a draft legal document, setting out its interpretation of what was agreed.

The document proposes a "common regulatory area" after Brexit on the island of Ireland – in effect keeping Northern Ireland in an EU customs union – if no other solution is found.

Mrs May says this would threaten the "constitutional integrity" of the UK and lead to a border in the middle of the Irish sea, something no British prime minister could ever accept.

The UK has proposed its own temporary "backstop" arrangement if a new customs system is not ready in time by the end of the transition period.

How much has Brexit cost so far and how much will it cost by the end?

There is much debate about the long-term costs and benefits to the UK economy of Brexit - but what we do know for certain is that the EU wants the UK to settle any outstanding bills before it leaves.

There have been no official estimates published of the size of the bill, which covers things like pension payments to EU officials, the cost of relocating London-based EU agencies and outstanding EU budget commitments. A method for calculating the bill has been agreed, but the calculation of an exact UK share will depend on exchange rates, on interest rates, the number of financial commitments that never turn into payments, and more. The question of how and when payments will be made still needs to resolved, but it will be a schedule lasting for many years to come, and it is highly unlikely that anyone will ever be able to give an exact figure for the size of the divorce bill.

UK sources say it will be up to £40bn, but some EU sources expect it to be higher than that.

No-one can say for sure, and both sides want to keep it that way.

Why pay anything?

The UK could leave without any Brexit "divorce bill" deal but that would probably mean everyone ending up in court. If compromise can be achieved, and if payment of the bill were to be spread over many years, the amounts involved may not be that significant economically.

The European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) in Strasbourg is not a European Union institution. It was set up by the Council of Europe, which has 47 members including Russia and UKraine.

So quitting the EU will not exempt the UK from its decisions. The Conservatives are committed to sticking with the Human Rights Act which requires UK courts to treat the ECHR as setting legal precedents for the UK during the Brexit process.

What about the European Court of Justice?

The Court of Justice of the European Union – to give it its full name – is the EU's highest legal authority. It is based in Luxembourg. It is an entirely different thing to the European Court of Human Rights (ECHR). It is the ECHR not the ECJ that has often upset British politicians by making it harder, for example, to deport terrorist suspects.

The ECJ interprets and enforces the rules of the single market, settling disputes between member countries over issues like free movement and trade. It is at the centre of pretty much everything the EU does and it having the power over UK actions has been a key issue for those arguing for the UK to leave to the EU to regain full sovereignty.

Prime Minister Theresa May has vowed that Britain will not be under the "direct" jurisdiction of the ECJ after Brexit. But she has suggested that elements of relations could – where the UK signs up to specific EU agencies – still be covered by the ECJ after Brexit. After that, there will need to be a new mechanism for settling disputes between the UK and the EU but what form that take has yet to be decided. There has been talk of an ombudsman, or other third party, being appointed to settle disagreements.

The initial stages of the Brexit deal, published on 8 December 2017, do give limited powers to the ECJ in terms of EU citizens living in the UK for up to eight years.

Will the UK be able to rejoin the EU in the future?

BBC Europe editor Katya Adler says the UK would have to start from scratch with no rebate, and enter accession talks with the EU. Every member state would have to agree to the UK re-joining.

Nevertheless, she says with elections looming elsewhere in Europe, other leaders might not be generous towards any UK demands. New members are required to adopt the euro as their currency, once they meet the relevant criteria, although the UK could try to negotiate an opt-out.

Who wanted the UK to leave the EU?

The UK Independence Party, which received nearly four mln votes – 13% of those cast – in the 2015 general election, but who saw their vote collapse to about a quarter of that at this year's election, has campaigned for many years for Britain's exit from the EU. They were joined in their call during the referendum campaign by about half the Conservative Party's MPs, including Boris Johnson and five members of the then Cabinet.

What were their reasons for wanting the UK to leave?

They said Britain was being held back by the EU, which they said imposed too many rules on business and charged billions of pounds a year in membership fees for little in return. They wanted the UK to make all of its own laws again, rather than being created through shared decision making with other EU nations. Immigration was also a big issue for Brexit supporters, They wanted Britain to take back full control of its borders and reduce the number of people coming here to live and/or work.

 One of the main principles of EU membership is "free movement", which means you don't need to get a visa to go and live in another EU country. The Leave campaign also objected to the idea of "ever closer union" between EU member states and what they see as moves towards the creation of a "United States of Europe".

Who wanted the UK to stay in the EU?

Then Prime Minister David Cameron was the leading voice in the Remain campaign, after reaching an agreement with other European Union leaders that would have changed the terms of Britain's membership had the country voted to stay in. He said the deal would give Britain "special" status and help sort out some of the things British people said they didn't like about the EU, like high levels of immigration – but critics said the deal would make little difference.

16 members of Mr Cameron's Cabinet, including the woman who would replace him as PM, Theresa May, also backed staying in. The Conservative Party was split on the issue and officially remained neutral in the campaign. The Labour Party, Scottish National Party, Plaid Cymru, the Green Party and the Liberal Democrats were all in favour of staying in. The then US president Barack Obama also wanted Britain to remain in the EU – unlike his successor, Donald Trump, who is an enthusiastic champion of Brexit – as did the leaders of other EU nations such as France and Germany.

What were their reasons for wanting the UK to stay?

Those campaigning for Britain to stay in the EU said it got a big boost from membership – it makes selling things to other EU countries easier and, they argued, the flow of immigrants, most of whom are young and keen to work, fuels economic growth and helps pay for public services.

They also said Britain's status in the world would be damaged by leaving and that we are more secure as part of the 28 nation club, rather than going it alone.

What about businesses?

Big business – with a few exceptions – tended to be in favour of Britain staying in the EU because it makes it easier for them to move money, people and products around the world.

Given the crucial role of London as a financial centre, there's interest in how many jobs may be lost to other hubs in the EU. Some UK exporters say they've had increased orders or enquiries because of the fall in the value of the pound. Others are less optimistic; fearing products for the European market may have to be made at plants in the EU.The European Court of Human Rights is not an EU institution and that's why discussions about leaving it have not formed a key part of the Brexit debate.

The European Court of Justice – the ECJ – is one of the primary institutions of the European Union and administers EU law. So, while it might have a role in supervising a future trade deal, part of the goal of Brexit was to remove the UK from the ECJ's jurisdiction.

The European Court of Human Rights which, as Barry points out, can be even more controversial, is a body set up not by the EU but by member states of the Council of Europe, a separate institution which contains countries that aren't EU members. It's this court which has produced rulings which have been controversial in the UK, including blocking the extradition of Abu Qatada and establishing the right of serving prisoners to vote in elections – leaving the EU won't change anything.

Will other EU nations want to leave and could the UK form its own free trade area?

If the UK were to get a fantastic Brexit deal then maybe others would be tempted to go.

But the truth is, lots of European politicians want the EU to be tough with Britain precisely to stop other countries from following it through the door. As to Britain forming its own free trade area, it seems an awfully long shot and on balance it is unlikely, not least because there are not that many free countries around available to recruit into another free trade area.

ARGUMENTS FOR STAYING INSIDE THE EU

Free trade	Multinationals might reconsider their FDI into the UK. Adopting a Norwegian approach would mean UK accepting many EU rules without any say in policies.
Open markets	UK will lose tariff-free access to the largest export market. Pan-European trade agreements have benefitted UK. Outside EU, UK more exposed to low-cost competition.
Extra risks	Costs for businesses adjusting to many new laws. UK's net EU contribution is ≤ 1% of GDP. Moves to limit free movement of labour with Brexit might worsen skills shortages for many UK businesses.

THIS TIMELINE COVERS THE MAIN POINTS OF BRITISH FOREIGN POLICY FROM 1485 TO THE EARLY 21ST CENTURY.

16th century

Henry VII becomes king (1485-1509), founding the Tudor dynasty and ending the long civil war called "Wars of the Roses". His foreign policy involves an alliance with Spain, cemented by the marriage of his son Arthur to the Spanish princess Catherine of Aragon. However, after 5 months, Arthur dies at the age of 15. Henry VII reverses the Plantagenet policy of acquiring more French territory; he generally pursues a more defensive, Anglo-centric policy.

1485-1509: The king promotes the woolen trade with Netherlands; helps English merchants compete with the Hanseatic League; sends J. Cabot to explore the New World (1497); launches the Royal Navy

1489-91: England sends 3 expensive military expeditions to keep Brittany out of French control, but fails.

1502: Treaty of "perpetual peace" signed with Scotland. The marriage of King James IV of Scotland to Margaret Tudor will eventually lead to the Stuart succession to the English throne.

1509-47 Henry VIII becomes king; he revives the old claim to the French throne but France is now a more powerful country and the English control is limited to Calais

1511-16: War of the League of Cambrai allied with Spain against France; on losing side.

1513 English defeat & kill King James IV of Scotland at Battle of Flodden Field; he was allied with France.

1520: 7 June: Henry VIII meets with Francis I of France near Calais at the extravagant "Field of the Cloth of Gold"; no alliance results.

1521-26: Italian War of 1521–26 allied with Spain against France; on winning side.

1525: Queen Catherine does not produce the male heir the king demands, so he decides on a divorce (which angers Spain).

1526-30 War of the League of Cognac, allied with France; Spain wins.

1529 Henry VIII severs ties with Rome because of marriage issue; and declares himself head of the English church; Catholic Spain supports the Pope.

1533: Pope Clement VII excommunicates Henry and annuls his divorce from Catharine

1542: War with Scotland. James V defeated at the Battle of Solway Mos.

1551-59: Italian War of 1551–59; allied with Spain against France; on winning side.

1553-58: Mary I is queen; she promotes Catholicism and an alliance with Catholic Spain.

1554: Mary I marries Prince Philip of Spain, the king of Spain (1556-98). "The Spanish marriage" was unpopular even though Philip was to have little or no power. However he pushes Mary into alliance with Spain in a war with France that resulted in the loss of Calais in 1558.

1558-1603 Elizabeth I as Queen; Sir William Cecil (baron Burleigh, 1571) serves as chief advisor; they avoid European wars. Her spymaster Sir Francis Walsingham thwarts numerous plots supported by Spain or France to assassinate the Queen. The long-term English goal becomes a united and Protestant British Isles, through conquest of Ireland and alliance with Scotland. Defence is the mission of a strengthened Royal Navy.

1573: Convention of Nymegen a treaty with Spain promising to end support for raids on Spanish shipping by English privateers such as Drake and Hawkins.

1580-1620s English merchants form the Levant Company to promote trade with Ottoman Empire; they build a presence in Istanbul and trade grew as the Turks bought arms and cloth.

1585: By the Treaty of Nonsuch with the Netherlands, England supported the Dutch revolt against Spain with soldiers and money. Spain decides this means war and prepares an armada to invade England.

1585-1604: Anglo-Spanish War (1585–1604) was an undeclared intermittent naval conflict; English strategy focused on raids on ports such as Cadiz, and seizure of Spanish merchant ships because it was much cheaper than land forces – using privateers ("Sea Dogs") who turned a large profit when they captured prizes – let the naval warfare pay for itself.

1588: Massive Spanish invasion thwarted by destruction of Spanish Armada; it is celebrated for centuries as a decisive defeat for England's Catholic enemy.

17th century

1603-1714 was the Stuart period.

1603: James VI of Scotland crowned King of England (as James I of England (1603-25), marking a permanent union of the two thrones.

1604: King James achieves peace with Spain in Treaty of London; both sides will no longer support rebellions. After years of conflict, Spain and England sign the Treaty of London, 29 August 1604.

1613: James marries his daughter Elizabeth to Frederick V, Elector Palatine, leader of the Protestant Union of German princes. James associates his kingdoms with the anti-Habsburg forces with this marriage.

1613-20 Netherlands becomes England's major rival in trade, fishing, and whaling. The Dutch form alliances with Sweden and the Hanseatic League; England counters with an alliance with Denmark.

1610s: English involvement with Russia; strengthens the Muscovy Company, which has a monopoly on trade with Russia. In 1613 it obtains a monopoly on whaling in Spitsbergen.

1613: The English captain John Saris arrives at Hirado, Japan, with the intent of establishing a trading factory. He met with Tokugawa Ieyasu. However, during the ten-year activity of the company between 1613 & 1623, only four English ships brought cargoes directly from London to Japan.

1623. The Amboyna massacre occurs in Japan. England closes its commercial base at Hirado.
The relationship ends for more than two centuries.

1624-25: The king turns to France after negotiations with Spain for a marriage to the infanta had stalled. With religion closely tied to politics, France demanded an end to the persecution of Catholics in England as a condition for the marriage. The negotiations fail.

1627-28: English attempt to aid besieged Huguenots in the Siege of La Rochelle, but fail. This is the only major English contribution to the Thirty Years' War.

1639-40: Bishops' Wars with Scotland.

1642: English Civil War begins see Timeline of the English Civil War and Wars of the Three Kingdoms

1652-54: First Anglo-Dutch War.

1654-60: Anglo-Spanish War (1654-60)

1657: Alliance with France signed against Spain.

1661: King Louis XIV of France begins his personal reign, taking control of the state. Louis as the leader of the most powerful nation in western Europe begins a policy of aggressively asserting French interests and expanding the borders of France. Until his death in 1715, France's hegemonic aspirations are the principle driving drive in diplomacy in western Europe.

1665-67: Second Anglo-Dutch War.

1665: Charles II of Spain begins his reign. The last of the Spanish Habsburgs. As Carlos is childless with no Spanish relatives and as he is very sickly, his expected death raises the highly controversial issue of succession to the Spanish throne. The main candidates for the Spanish succession are the French Bourbons and the Austrian Habsburgs.

1667: War of Devolution. France attacks Spain and occupies much of the Spanish Netherlands and the Franche-Comté. The prospect that France might annexe the entire Spanish Netherlands is viewed as a threat in London.

1667: Treaty of Breda ends of the Dutch war. It is a major turning point after which mercantilism ceased to dominate Anglo-Dutch relations.

1668: Triple Alliance of England, Sweden and the United Provinces formed to oppose France. Spain is defeated, but the threat that the Triple Alliance might intervene on Spain's side forces the French to make peace. Louis annexes less Spanish territory than what he planned on.

The French decide that the Dutch will be their next target, and accordingly Louis seeks to break up the Triple Alliance by bidding for English and Swedish friendship.

1670: Treaty of Dover. Secret Anglo-French alliance formed. In exchange for French subsidies and a promise to send an army to England should another civil war break out between king and Parliament, Charles II agrees to convert to Catholicism and to fight with France against the Dutch. Until the Glorious Revolution of 1688, England was a close ally of France.

1672-74: Third Anglo-Dutch War begins.

1673: Revelation of the pro-Catholic Secret Treaty of Dover causes public backlash against the war & Crown.

1688-89: William of Orange invades from the Netherlands as King James II flees; becomes William III; called the Glorious Revolution Louis continues to recognise the deposed James II/VII, who takes refuge in France and is promoted by France as the legitimate king of England, a policy known as Jacobitism. French support was a major factor in British diplomacy until the mid-18th century. William allows James and his family to escape after being captured as the threat of a Jacobite restoration supported by France forces gives those who supported the Glorious Revolution a vested interest in ensuring that England is not defeated by France, and James is restored. Parliament accordingly votes for all the war taxes William requests. From William's viewpoint, James is more useful as king in exile in France than as a prisoner in the Tower of London.

12 May 1689: Reflecting the changed foreign policy orientation caused by the Glorious Revolution, William has England join the anti-French League of Augsburg and declare war on France (as a stadtholder of the United Provinces, William had already declared war on France on 26 November 1688.

1689-97 War of the Grand Alliance with France; also called "Nine Years War" or "War of the League of Augsburg" or " King William's War".

1697-98: During the Grand Embassy of Peter I the Russian tsar visited England for three months; improved relations and learned the best new technology especially regarding ships and navigation.

11 October 1698: Treaty signed between France, England, the Dutch Republic and the Holy Roman Emperor proposing three-fold division of Spain after the soon to be expected death of Carlos II between the French Bourbons, the Austrian Habsburgs and the Bavarian Wittelsbachs. The largest portion of the Spanish realms are to go to Josef Ferdinand of Bavaria. The treaty is undermined when Josef Ferdinand dies in 1699.

18th century

1700-1789: 25 March 1700: Another partition treaty signed between France, England and the United Provinces concerning the Spanish succession with the Bourbons receiving Naples, Sicily, Milan and the Spanish fortresses in Tuscany and the rest of the Spanish realms going to the Austrian Habsburgs. The proposed partition breaks down when the Holy Roman Emperor Leopold I insists that the entire Spanish empire go to his son Archduke Karl.

1 November 1700: Carlos II of Spain dies, leaves the entire Spanish succession to Duke Philippe of Anjou, the second son of the Dauphin who becomes King Felipe V of Spain. King Louis XIV of France issues letters patent explicitly stating that Philip is in the line of succession to the French throne, creates the possibility of France and Spain uniting to become a Catholic super-state that would dominate Europe. Additionally, Louis takes the opportunity to remind the world that he recognizes the Catholic the Old Pretender as King James III of England/James VIII of Scotland. Louis's actions which are seen as very threatening to England and all but guarantee a war.

1701-15: War of the Spanish Succession against France and Spain, in "Grand Alliance" with Austria, Prussia and the Dutch Republic. Britain fights in support of the Habsburg Archduke Karl of Austria's claim to the Spanish throne.

15 May 1702: War declared against France.

1704: Gibraltar captured on 4 August by the combined Dutch and British fleets; becomes British naval bastion into the 21st century

1704: An English and Dutch army under John Churchill, 1st Duke of Marlborough defeats the army of Louis XIV of France at Battle of Blenheim in Bavaria.

1706-07: The Treaty of Union merges Scotland into Britain; the Kingdom of Great Britain comes into being on 1 May 1707. Scots play an increasingly major role in the British Empire.

1708: Louis XIV sues for peace. The French agree to the Allied demand that the Archduke Karl become King of Spain, but the talks break down over the Allied demand that Louis send an army to Spain to depose his grandson Philip.

12 June 1709: Louis XIV says he was willing to concede to the Allied demands over the Spanish succession, but rejected the demand that he send an army to Spain to depose as an insult to French national honour. French win the moral high ground as many people in France, Britain and elsewhere see the demand that Louis depose Philip to be outrageous. New French commander Marshal Claude Louis Hector de Villars appointed to oppose Marlborough, proves to be the ablest French general of the war.

11 September 1709 -Bloody Battle of Malplaquet. Marlborough victorious over Villars, but Malplaquet is a Pyrrhic victory with the British losing twice what the French suffered.[36] Public opinion in Britain turns against the war after Malplaquet. Vigorous attacks by the Tory opposition on the Whig government for the war, its support of "Butcher Marlborough" and widespread corruption in regards to war contracts.

2 October-16 November 1710: General election results in a landslide victory for the Tories on a peace platform.[citation needed]

17 April 1711: Holy Roman Emperor Josef I dies, and his younger brother the Archduke Karl is elected his successor. Queen Anne and her ministers see no point to continuing the war as allowing Karl to become King of Spain would create a Habsburg super-state which would be just as much a potential danger as a Bourbon super-state.8 October 1711 -British and French governments sign the "London Preliminaries" to a peace treaty. 29 January 1712 -Peace conference opens in Utrecht. May 1712: Queen Anne issues "Restraining Orders" that forbid the British Army to fight the French unless attacked. Britain effectively withdraws the war. 11, April 1713: Treaty of Utrecht, ends War of the Spanish Succession and gives Britain territorial gains, especially Gibraltar, Acadia. Newfoundland, and the land surrounding Hudson Bay. The lower Great Lakes-Ohio area became a free trade zone. Philip stays on the Spanish throne, but is excluded from the French succession. The Spanish Netherlands becomes the Austrian Netherlands. Having strategically important Low Countries under Bourbon control is seen as a threat to Britain.

1714: The Elector of Hanover becomes king of Great Britain as George I; start of the Hanoverian dynasty.

1714-1717, 1731-1730: Charles Townshend, 2nd Viscount Townshend largely sets foreign policy as Secretary of State for the Northern Department; after 1726 displaced by Robert Walpole.

1715: Death of King Louis XIV in France. Regency of Duke of Orleans pursues policy of peace and friendship towards Britain.

1718-1720: War of the Quadruple Alliance against Spain.

1719: Failed Spanish invasion in support of Jacobites; Spanish fleet dispersed by storms. Spanish land in Scotland but are defeated at Battle of Glen Shiel.

1719: King George I orders Royal Navy into action against Sweden as part of the Great Northern War. The use of British power to further Hanoverian goals is deeply unpopular with public opinion.

1721: Peace signed with Sweden.

1722-1742: Sir Robert Walpole as (in effect) the Prime Minister. He takes charge of foreign policy around 1726; Britain pursues policy of peace and non-intervention in European conflicts.

1739-1742: War of Jenkins' Ear begins with Spain over smuggling and trade. Public opinion demanded it over Walpole's opposition; he fell from power. The war was inconclusive and expensive; it hurt legitimate trade. It merged into the War of the Austrian Succession in 1740.

1740-1748: War of the Austrian Succession begins, which merges into war with Spain. Britain fights against France and Spain in support of Austria and its new Queen Maria Theresa.

1744: large-scale French invasion attempt on southern England with Charles Edward Stuart stopped by storms, France declares war.

1746: April. Battle of Culloden in Scotland. Final victory of Hanoverians over Jacobites supported by France.

1748: Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) ends War of Austrian Succession. The war was indecisive and the "peace" was an armed truce.

1754: Undeclared war between France and Britain begins in North America, known as the French and Indian War in the United States. Fighting breaks out in the Ohio river valley between Franco-Indian and British and colonial American forces.

1756: Westminster Convention signed between Britain and Prussia. Part of the Diplomatic Revolution that saw Britain drop long-standing ally Austria in favour of Prussia.

1756-63 Seven Years' War, Britain, Prussia, and Hanover against France, Austria, the Russian Empire, Sweden, and Saxony. Major battles in Europe and North America; the East India Company also in involved in the Third Carnatic War (1756-1763) in India. Britain victorious and takes control of all of Canada; France seeks revenge.

1775-83: American Revolutionary War as 13 Colonies revolt; Britain has no major allies.

1776: Royal governors expelled from Thirteen United Colonies; they vote independence as the USA on 2 July; Declaration of Independence adopted on 4 July; France ships arms to Americans.

1777: France decides to recognise America in December after British invasion army from Canada surrenders to Americans at the Battle of Saratoga in N. Y.; French goal is revenge from defeat in 1763.

1778: Treaty of Allies. US and France form military alliance against Britain. The military and naval strengths of the two sides of the war are now about equal.

1778: Carlisle Peace Commission offers Americans all the terms they sought in 1775, but not independence; rejected

1779: Spain enters the war as an ally of France (but not of US)

1780: Russian Empire proclaims "armed neutrality" which helps France & the US & hurts the British cause.

1780-81: Russia and Austria propose peace terms; rejected by US

1781: At peace negotiations in Paris, Congress insists on independence; all else is negotiable; British policy is to help US at expense of France.

1783: Treaty of Paris ends Revolutionary War; British give generous terms to US with boundaries as British North America on north, Mississippi River on west, Florida on south. Britain gives East and West Florida to Spain.

1784: Britain allows trade with America but forbid some American food exports to West Indies; British exports to America reach £3.7 mln, imports only £750,000

1784: Pitt's India Act re-organised the British East India Company to minimise corruption; it centralised British rule by increasing the power of the Governor-General.

1785: Congress appoints John Adams as minister to Court of St James's.

1789-1815: The French Revolution polarized British political opinion in the 1790s, with conservatives outraged at killing of the king, the expulsion of the nobles, and the Reign of Terror. Britain was at war against France almost continuously from 1793 until the final defeat of Napoleon in 1815. Its strategy was to mobilize and fund the coalition against France. William Pitt the Younger was the dominant leader until his death in 1806. At home, conservatives castigated every radical opinion as "Jacobin" (in reference to the leaders of the Terror), warning that radicalism threatened an upheaval of British society.

1791-92: Government rejects intervention in French Revolution. Reasons are based on realism not ideology and are to avoid French attacks on the Austrian Netherlands; to not worsen the fragile status of King Louis XVI; and to prevent formation of a strong Continental league.

1792-1799: French Revolutionary Wars.

1792-97: War of the First Coalition: Prussia and Austria joined after 1793 by Britain, Spain, the Netherlands, Sardinia, Naples, and Tuscany against French Republic.

1792: Austria and Prussia invade France. The French defeat the invaders and then go on the offensive by invading the Austria Netherlands (modern Belgium) in late 1792. This causes grave tension with Britain as it was British policy to ensure that France could not control the "narrow seas" by keeping the French out of the Low Countries.

1792: In India, victory over Tipu Sultan in Third Anglo-Mysore War; cession of one half of Mysore to the British and their allies.

1793: France declares war on Britain.

1794: Jay Treaty with the USA and normalizes trade; British withdraws from forts in Northwest Territory; decade of peace with U.S. France is angered seeing a violation of its 1777 treaty with the U.S.

19th century

1802-03: Peace of Amiens allows 13 months of peace with France.

1803: Napoleonic Wars (1803-1815) against France.

1803-06: War of the Third Coalition: France closes out the Holy Roman Empire.

1803: By the Anglo-Russian agreement, Britain pays a subsidy of £1.5 million pounds for every 100,000 Russian soldiers in the field. Subsidies also went to Austria and other allies.

1804: Pitt organized the Third Coalition against Napoleon; it last until 1806 and was marked by mostly French victories

1805: Decisive defeat of the French navy at the Battle of Trafalgar by Nelson; end of invasion threats

1806-07: Britain leads the Fourth Coalition in alliance with Prussia, Russia, Saxony, and Sweden. Napoleon leads France to victory at numerous major battles, notably Battle of Jena-Auerstedt)

1807: Britain makes the international slave trade criminal; Slave Trade Act 1807; US criminalizes the international slave trade at the same time.

1808-14: Peninsular War against Napoleonic forces in Spain; result is victory under the Duke of Wellington.

1812-15: US declares War of 1812 over national honour, neutral rights at sea, British support for western Indians.

1813: Napoleon defeated at Battle of the Nations; British gains and threatens France.

1814: France invaded; Napoleon abdicates and Congress of Vienna convenes.

1814: Anglo-Nepalese War (1814-1816).

1815: With the War of 1812 against the U.S. a military draw, the British abandon their First Nation allies and agree at the Treaty of Ghent to restore the prewar status quo; thus begins a permanent peace along the US-Canada border, marred only by occasional small, unauthorised raids.

1815: Napoleon returns and for 100 days is again a threat; he is defeated at the Battle of Waterloo and exiled to a distant island; the Napoleonic Wars end, marking the start of the Britain's Imperial Century, 1815-1914.

1815: Second Kandyan War (1815) – in Ceylon (now Sri Lanka).

1815-1860: Further information: International relations of the Great Powers (1814-1919) and British Empire § Britain's imperial century (1815-1914)

1814-22: Castlereagh as Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs (foreign minister) works with the Congress of Vienna to provide a peace in Europe consistent with the conservative mood of the day. His Congress system sees the main powers meeting every two years or so to collectively manage European affairs. It resolves the Polish-Saxon crisis at Vienna and the question of Greek independence at Laibach.

The following ten years saw five European Congresses where disputes were resolved with a diminishing degree of effectiveness. Finally, by 1822, the whole system had collapsed. During this period, Russia emerges as Britain's main enemy, mostly because of tensions associated with the Eastern Question. Anglo-Russian rivalry only ends in the early 20th century.

1817: Third Anglo-Maratha War (1817-1818) – India.

1818: Rush-Bagot Treaty with the United States ends incipient naval race on the Great Lakes. Both powers impose limitations on how many warships they will maintain on the Great Lakes.

1822-27: George Canning in charge of foreign policy, avoids co-operation with European powers; supports the USA (Monroe Doctrine) to preserve newly independent Latin American states; goal is to prevent French influence and allow British merchants access to the opening markets. Temperley summarizes Canning's policies, which formed the basis of British foreign policy for decades:

non-intervention; no European police system; every nation for itself, and God for us all; balance of power; respect for facts, not for abstract theories; respect for treaty rights, but caution in extending them … a republic is as good a member of the comity of nations as a monarch. "England not Europe". "Our foreign policy cannot be conducted against the will of the nation". "Europe's domain extends to the shores of the Atlantic, England's begins there".

1821-32: Britain supports Greece in the Greek War of Independence from the Ottoman Empire; the 1832 Treaty of Constantinople is ratified at the London Conference of 1832.

1824: First Anglo-Burmese War (1824-1826) in Burma.

1830-65: Lord Palmerston dominates British foreign policy; his goal was to keep Britain dominant by maintaining the balance of power in Europe; he tried to keep autocratic nations like Russia in check; he supported liberal regimes because they led to greater stability in the international system.[65]

1833: Slavery Abolition Act 1833 frees slaves in Empire; the owners (reside in Britain) are paid £20 mln.

1839: Treaty of London. Britain, Germany and other powers guarantee the neutrality of Belgium; Germany violated it in 1914, so Britain declared war.

1839: Syrian War (1839-40).

First Anglo-Afghan War (1839-42).

1840: Oriental Crisis. The ambitions of Muhammad Ali, the more or less independent Ottoman governor of Egypt supported by France to take over the Ottoman Empire nearly causes an Anglo-French war.

1842: Treaty of Nanking follows military victory in First Opium War with China (1839 to 1842). It opens trade, cedes territory (Hong Kong), fixes Chinese tariffs at a low rate, grants extraterritorial rights to foreigners, and provides both a most favoured nation clause, as well as diplomatic representation.

1845: Blockade of the Río de la Plata. To block the ambitions of the Argentine dictator Juan Manuel de Rosas to take over Uruguay, Britain and France impose a five-year blockade on the Río de la Plata.

1845: Oregon boundary dispute threatens war with the United States.

1846: Oregon Treaty ends dispute with the United States. Border between British North American and the United States settled on the 49th parallel.

1846: The Corn Laws are repealed; free trade in grain.

1848-49. Second Sikh war; the British East India Company subjugates the Sikh Empire, annexes Punjab

1852: Second Burmese war; British Burma annexed; the remainder of Burma is annexed after the Third Anglo-Burmese War in 1885.

1853-56: Crimean War with Russia. British policy, in league with France, is to protect the decaying Ottoman Empire from Russian advances. The war itself is largely fought on the Crimean peninsula in southern Russia, and is mishandled by both sides. British naval success in the Baltic forces Russia to sue for peace; it demilitarises the Black Sea, ensuring British dominance of the eastern Mediterranean.

1856: Second Opium War with China.

1857: Indian Mutiny suppressed.

1858: The government of India transferred to the crown; the government appoints a viceroy.

1858: The Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Amity and Commerce is signed.

1860: End of war with China. Deeper British commercial involvement in China.

1860-1896: Further information: International relations of the Great Powers (1814-1919) and British Empire § Britain's imperial century (1815-1914).

1860-1870: The British government gives moral and diplomatic support to the "Risorgimento" (Unification of Italy creation of the modern Italian state against considerable international opposition. The famed hero of unification, Giuseppe Garibaldi was widely celebrated in Britain.

1861-65: Neutrality in American Civil War, although Prime Minister Palmerston favours the Confederacy and is tempted to recognise the Confederacy, which would lead to war with US.

1861: War scare over Trent Affair resolved: US releases Confederate diplomats seized from a British ship.

1864: Britain avoids involvement in the War between Denmark on the one side and Prussia and Austria regarding the Schleswig-Holstein question.

1867: British North America Act, 1867 creates Dominion of Canada, a federation with internal self-government; foreign and defence matters handled by London. The long-term goal is for Canada to pay for its own defence.

1868 to 1881: Gladstone formulates a moralistic policy regarding Afghanistan.

1871: Taking advantage of France's distress, Russia abrogates the 1856 Treaty of Paris and remilitarises the Black Sea. The action is approved at the London Convention of 1871. Revival of rivalry with Russia in the Near East.

1871: Treaty of Washington with the United States, sets up arbitration that settles the Alabama Claims in 1872 in US favour.

1871: The unification of Germany following its defeat of France leads the government to expand the Army, and put Edward Cardwell in charge of modernizing the forces.

1873: The Imperial College of Engineering opens in Tokyo with Henry Dyer as principal; Japan studies and copies British technology and business methods.

1874-1880. The Conservative government of Benjamin Disraeli scored a number of achievements. In 1875 came the purchase of the controlling shares in the Suez Canal company. By negotiations, Russia gave up substantial gains in the Balkans and a foothold in the Mediterranean. Britain gains control of Cyprus from the Ottomans as a naval base covering the Eastern Mediterranean. In exchange, Britain guaranteed the Asiatic territories of the Ottoman Empire. Britain did not do well in conflicts in Afghanistan and South Africa.

1875-1900: Britain joins in the Scramble for Africa.

1875-1898: Tensions with France were high, especially over African issues. At several points war was possible, but it never happened.

1875: Suez canal shares purchased from the almost bankrupt khedive of Egypt, Isma'il Pasha.

1875-78: Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli works during the Near East crisis to diminish rival Russian interests in the Ottoman Empire. He gained what he wanted at the Congress of Berlin (1878), but did not find a solution to the Eastern Question in the Balkans.

1876: Bulgarian Horrors causes outrage in Britain. Gladstone stages nationwide speaking tour attacking Disraeli government for its support of the Turks.

1877-78: Russian-Turkish War ends in a Russian victory. The Treaty of San Stefano is widely seen as an unacceptable increase in Russian power in the Balkans.

1878: Widespread "jingoism" celebrates sending a British fleet into Turkish waters to counter the advance of Russia.

1878: Treaty of Berlin gives Britain possession of Cyprus. Britain leases Cyprus from Turkey in order to block possible Russian expansion. In 1914 Britain annexed Cyprus and made it a crown colony in 1927. Disraeli boasts that he secured "Peace with honour" as well as Cyprus.

1879: Egypt goes bankrupt. Loss of Egyptian financial independence to a consortium of European bankers. Evelyn Baring sent to reorganise the Egyptian government in order that Egypt could pay off its debts.

1879: Anglo-Zulu War. British forward policy in South Africa aiming at complete control of the country as Britain wishes to maintain control over the alternative Cape route in case the Suez Canal should not be available.

1880: Foreign policy is a major issue in the British general election, helping Liberals under Gladstone to defeat Disraeli's Conservative Party by a landslide.

1880-81: First Boer War; Britain defeated by the South African Republic of the Afrikaners.

1880s: Gladstone calls for a "Concert of Europe" – a peaceful European order that overcomes traditional rivalries by emphasising co-operation over conflict, mutual trust over suspicion. He proposes that the rule of law should supplant the reign of force and begger-thy-neighbor policies. He was outmaneuvered by Bismarck's system of "realpolitik" using manipulated alliances and antagonisms.

1881: Pretoria Convention ends war with the Transvaal and Orange Free State. Henceforward, the Boer republics are independent with a vague British claim of suzerainty. Source of much future tension as the Boer republics see themselves as completely independent states while Britain does not.

1882: Uprising in Egypt led by Ahmed Orabi against the foreign control of the government. British take control of Egypt after a war (although it remains nominally part of Ottoman Empire)

1883-1907: Lord Cromer rules Egypt as consul general.

1885-1902: Historians agree that Lord Salisbury as foreign minister and prime minister was a strong and effective leader in foreign affairs. He had a superb grasp of the issues, and proved:

a patient, pragmatic practitioner, with a keen understanding of Britain's historic interests....He oversaw the partition of Africa, the emergence of Germany and the United States as imperial powers, and the transfer of British attention from the Dardanelles to Suez without provoking a serious confrontation of the great powers.

1885: Panjdeh Incident causes war scare with Russia.

1886: Witwatersrand Gold Rush. Gold is discovered in the Transvaal. The new wealth of the South African Republic threatens to undermine the assumptions behind the Pretoria convention as it was felt that the two Boer republics were too small and weak to threaten British rule over the Cape Colony and Natal, and thus British control over the Cape route to India. Now with gold being mined in the Witwatersrand, the South African Republic uses its new wealth to go on an arms-buying spree in Europe, which potentially could threaten the British position in South Africa. Renewed British push to bring all of southern Africa under its control.

1887: To protect the Suez Canal and the sea lanes to India and Asia, Prime Minister Salisbury signs the Mediterranean Agreements (March & December 1887) with Italy and Austria. This aligns Britain indirectly with Germany and the Triple Alliance.

1889: Salisbury increases he dominance of the Royal navy through the Naval Defence Act 1889, with an extra £20 million for ten new battleships, thirty-eight new cruisers, eighteen new torpedo boats and four new fast gunboats.

1890-1896: Britain suffers a series of diplomatic reverses, including the abandonment of the Congo treaty with Belgium; the French conquest of Madagascar; the collaboration of France, Russia and Germany in the Far East; the Venezuela crisis with United States; the Armenian massacres in the Ottoman Empire; the emerging alliance between France and Russia; and the debacle of the Jameson Raid; debates focus on Britain's lack of allies.

1890-1902: Salisbury promotes a policy of Splendid isolation with no formal allies.

1890: The South African Republic passes a law that disenfranchised most of the uitlanders as foreign, mostly British workers in the Transvaal's gold fields are known. The uitlander issue becomes a major source of strain and tension in the following decade.

1890: Heligoland–Zanzibar Treaty with Germany. Britain gains the German colony of Zanzibar while giving up a small strategic island off the German coast, and agrees on boundaries in Africa.

President Cleveland twists the tail of the British Lion regarding Venezuela--a policy hailed by Irish Catholics in the United States; cartoon in Puck by J.S. Pughe, 1895

1895: Venezuela Crisis. Border dispute with Venezuela causes major Anglo-American crisis when the United States intervenes to take Venezuela's side. It was resolved through arbitration and was last crisis that threatened war with the United States.

1894-96: Britain puts pressure on Turkey to stop its mistreatment of Christians.

A series of escalating atrocities against the Armenians living in Turkey causes public outrage in Britain. All efforts to coordinate sanctions or punishments with the other Powers fail, and the Armenians get no help.

1895-96: Jameson Raid. Botched attempt at a coup to overthrow President Paul Kruger of the South African Republic, instigated by Cecil Rhodes. The result was to strengthen Afrikaner nationalism and embarrass Britain.

1896: January – Germany's Kaiser Wilhelm escalated tensions with his Kruger telegram of January 1896 congratulating President Kruger of the Transvaal for beating off the Jameson raid. German officials in Berlin had managed to stop the Kaiser from proposing a German protectorate over the Transvaal. The telegram backfired, as the British began to see Germany as a major threat and moved to friendlier relationships with France.

The battleship HMS Royal Sovereign, 1896.

1897-1919: Further information: Causes of World War I.

1897: Admiral Alfred von Tirpitz appointed German Naval Secretary of State; beginning of the transformation of German Navy from small, coastal defence force to a fleet meant to challenge British naval power. Tirpitz calls for Riskflotte (Risk Fleet) that would make it too risky for Britain to take on Germany as part of wider bid to alter the international balance of power decisively in the Reich"s favour.

1897: German Foreign Secretary Bernhard von Bülow calls for Weltpolitik (World politics). New policy of Germany to assert its claim to be a global as opposed to a European power. Germany abandons Bismarck-era policy of being a conservative power committed to upholding the status quo, instead becomes a revisionist power intent on challenging and upsetting international order. It was now the policy of Germany to assert its claim to be a global power. The long-run result was the inability of Britain and Germany to be friends or to form an alliance.

1898: First Navy Law passed in Germany that commits the Reich to building up its fleet to achieve Tirpitz's vision.

1898: Anglo-Egyptian control over Sudan established.

1898: Fashoda Incident threatens war with France over control of upper Nile River (in present-day eastern South Sudan); the French back down. The long-term British goal is to link South Africa to Egypt with the Cape to Cairo Railway. It would facilitate governance, give rapid mobility to the military, promote settlement and foster trade. Most of the railway is eventually built, but there were gaps.

1898: Spanish-American War. Britain maintains pro-American neutrality. Anglo-American relations began to improve markedly at the end of the 19th century.

1899: Britain endorses the "Open Door Policy" allowing the world access to Chinese markets.

1899: Bloemfontein Conference between Alfred Milner, the British High Commissioner for South Africa and President Paul Kruger of the Transvaal. Principal issue the status of the uitlanders and the English language together with Milner's demand that the Transvaal's sovereignty be sharply reduced. Conference ends in failure.

1899: Colonial Secretary Joseph Chamberlain's offer of an alliance with Germany is refused by Berlin.

1899: Beginning of the Boer War II when the Transvaal (South African Republic) declares war on Britain.

1899: The first Hague Conference was a major effort to codify the rules for international peace. It set up machinery to help resolve international disputes. Britain and Russia used its procedures in resolving the Dogger Bank incident of 1904. It established a Permanent Court of Arbitration. It did little to slow the arms race in Europe. Its declaration banning the use of poison gas was simply ignored.

20th century

1900: British forces join in international rescue in Peking, China, & suppress the anti-Western Boxer Rebellion.

1900: Second Navy Law passed in Germany calling for huge increase in the size of the German Navy.

1901: Hay-Pauncefote Treaty with US nullifies Clayton–Bulwer Treaty of 1850; allows U.S. to build the Panama Canal & guarantees open passage for any nation. Panama Canal opens in 1914.

1902: Lenient Treaty of Vereeniging. Boer War ends in a British victory; Transvaal and Orange Free State are annexed and in 1910 become part of Union of South Africa. Boer leaders especially Jan Smuts accepted as British leaders.

A 1904 French postcard showing Britannia and Marianne happily dancing together, celebrating the new spirit of co-operation in the "entente cordiale".

1902: Reports from Captain Watson, naval attaché to Germany indicate that the German build-up that had begun in 1898 is intended to build a fleet meant to challenge British sea power. Beginning of the Anglo-German naval race.

1902: The Anglo-Japanese Alliance is signed; in 1905 it is renewed & expanded; it isn't renewed in 1923.

1903: King Edward VII, new to the throne but long familiar with France, makes a highly successful visit to Paris, turning hostility into friendship.

1903: Younghusband expedition to Tibet. Britain invades Tibet to counter supposed Russian influence at the court of the Dali Lama that seems to be threatening India.

1904: Beginning of the Russo-Japanese War. Britain supports Japan while France and Germany support Russia. Britain shares signet (signals intelligence) with Japan against Russia. Due to shared intelligence with Japan, British decision-makers increasingly come to the conclusion that Germany is supporting Russia as part of a bid to disturb the balance of power in Europe.

1904: 8 April. Three agreements with France ("Entente cordiale") end many points of friction. France recognises British control over Egypt, while Britain reciprocates regarding France in Morocco. France drops exclusive fishery rights on the shores of Newfoundland and in return receives an indemnity and territory in Gambia (Senegal) and Nigeria. Britain drops complaints regarding the French customs régime in Madagascar. Spheres of influence are defines in Siam (Thailand). Issues regarding New Hebrides are settled in 1906. Which means doing we see its rights in Egypt, it became possible for the British to significantly extend their control. The Entente was negotiated between the French foreign minister, Théophile Delcassé, and the British foreign secretary, Lord Lansdowne.

1904: Convention with Tibet allowing a British trade mission to be established and is intended to pull Tibet within the British sphere of influence.

1904: Dogger Bank incident. Russian Baltic fleet en route to Korea to fight Japan accidentally fires on British fishing trawlers. Britain and Russia almost go to war. Crisis ends when Russia apologises and pays compensation.

1905: First Moroccan Crisis. Germany threatens war with France in an attempt to break entente cordiale. Britain makes it clear that in the event of a German attack on France, Britain will intervene on France's side.

1905: Persian Constitutional Revolution causes tension with Russia. Britain supports Persian liberals while Russia supports the Shah.

1906: Algeciras Conference ends the Moroccan Crisis in a diplomatic defeat for Germany as France took the dominant role in North Africa. The Crisis brought London and Paris much closer and set up the presumption they would be allies if Germany attacked either one.

1906: Britain reacted to Germany's accelerated naval arms race by major innovations, especially those developed by Lord Fisher.

The launching of the HMS Dreadnought rendered all other battleships technically obsolete and marked British success in maintaining both qualitative and quantitative lead in the naval race with Germany.

1906: Third Navy Law passed in Germany. Germany plans to build "all big gun" ships of its own to keep up with Britain in the naval race. The Triple Entente formed 1907 (in grey) versus the Triple Alliance of 1882-1914, shown in red.

1907: Anglo-Russian Entente was achieved and outstanding disputes between Britain and Russia settled. It ended The Great Game regarding control of Tibet, Persia, and Afghanistan.

1907: Triple Entente with France & Russia, stands opposed to the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria & Italy.

1908: Fourth Navy Law passed in Germany; British popular response was a clamour for more warship construction under the slogan "We want eight and won't wait" when it appears that Germany is winning the naval race.

1911: Reports from Captain Watson, naval attaché to Germany indicate growing power and efficiency of German warships, heavy guns and sailors.

1911: Agadir Crisis France strong-armed itself into seizing more control over Morocco. The German Foreign Minister Alfred von Kiderlen-Waechter was not opposed to these moves, but he felt Germany was entitled to some compensation elsewhere in Africa. He sent a small warship, made saber-rattling threats, and whipped up anger among German nationalists. France and Germany soon agreed on a compromise. However, the British cabinet was alarmed at Germany's aggressiveness toward France. David Lloyd George made a dramatic "Mansion House" speech that denounced the German move an intolerable humiliation. There was talk of war, and Germany backed down. Relations with Berlin remained sour.

1911: Reciprocity treaty lowering tariffs between Canada and US fails on surge of pro-British, anti-American sentiments led by Conservative Party.

1912: Fifth Navy Law passed in Germany Expanding the German fleet as a threat to the Royal Navy's control of the seas.

1912: Haldane Mission to Germany. Richard Haldane visits Berlin to meet with high officials in an attempt to end the naval race with Germany. Haldane's offer of a "naval holiday" in building warships ends in failure when the Germans attempt to link a "naval holiday" with a British promise to remain neutral if Germany should attack France; Admiral Tirpitz orders further naval construction.

1914: July Crisis triggered when Austria-Hungary submits ultimatum to Serbia containing terms meant to inspire rejection. Foreign Secretary Edward Grey tries hard to maintain peace and mediate a compromise, but falls short.

1914: 4 August- The king, in the name of Britain and his Empire declares war on Germany and Austria following German violation of the neurality of Belgium.

1914: Stalemate on Western Front, but Britain & dominions seize the overseas German colonies

1915: British passenger liner RMS Lusitania torpedoed without warning by German submarine and sinks in 18 min.; 1,200 dead. Germany violated international law by not allowing passengers to escape.

1915: Treaty of London brings Italy into the war on the Allied state. Italy is secretly promised major gains at the expense of Austria-Hungary.

1916: Sykes-Picot Agreement is signed. Britain and France decide on spheres of influence if the Ottoman Empire should come to an end.

1917: 7 April. US declares war on Germany and Austria; does not actually join Allies and remains independent force; sends token army in 1917. A major factor in bringing the United States into war is the Zimmermann Telegram, a German proposal for anti-American alliances with Mexico and Japan that was intercepted, decoded and leaked by the British.

1917: Balfour Declaration is issued giving British support for a Jewish "national home" in Palestine.

1918: Britain accepts the Fourteen Points, the American statement of war aims. Beginning of British intervention in the Russian Civil War. After the end of World War I, Britain will be the biggest supporter of the Russian White forces. November. Britain and Allies defeat Germany, Austria-Hungary and Turkey; their empires dissolved (along with Russian Empire).

1919: Treaty of Versailles Prime Minister David Lloyd George was a key negotiator. In the Khaki Election of 1918, coming days after the Allied victory over Germany, Lloyd George promised to impose a harsh treaty on Germany. At the Versailles Conference, however, he took a much more moderate approach. France and Italy however demanded and achieved harsh terms, including German admission of guilt for starting the war (which humiliated Germany), and a demand that Germany pay the entire Allied cost of the war, including veterans' benefits and interest. League of Nations formed, with Britain an active member, along with the Dominions and India.

British Empire in 1921

1920-1937: Further information: International relations (1919-1939)

1919: Greco-Turkish War begins. Britain will be the most important supporter of Greece.

1919: War Secretary Winston Churchill introduces the Ten Year Rule that military spending is to be based on the assumption that there will be no major war for the next ten years. The Ten Year Rule leads to a huge decline in military spending.

1920: L. Krasin visits London to meet L. George. First official contact between Soviet Russia & Britain.

1921: Anglo-Soviet Trade Agreement is signed. First treaty between Britain and Soviet Russia.

1921: Franklin-Bouillon Agreement is signed. France supports Turkey in the Greco-Turkish War while Britain continues to support Greece.

1922: Washington Naval Conference concluding in the Four-Power Treaty, Five-Power Treaty, and Nine-Power Treaty; major naval disarmament for 10 years with sharp reduction of Royal Navy. Britain abandons claim to have navy "second to none", and recognises United States Navy as equal. The traditional "Two Power" standard, in which the Royal Navy was to the equal of the next two strongest powers is abandoned as the costs of a naval race with the United States and Japan are prohibitively expensive for a British economy badly weakened by World War I. The relative naval strengths of the major powers are fixed at GB = 5, US = 5, Japan = 3, France = 1.75, Italy = 1.75. Britain does not build up to its allowed maximum. The powers will abide by the treaty for ten years, then begin a naval arms race.

1922: League of Nation awards Britain a mandate to control Palestine, which it had conquered from the Ottoman Empire in 1917. The mandate lasts until 1948.

1922: Genoa conference. Britain clashes openly with France over the amount of reparations to be collected from Germany.

1922: Alliance with Japan ends.

1922: Chanak Crisis. Britain almost goes to war with Turkey. Some of the Dominions refuse to promise to war if Britain does, which comes as a major shock in Whitehall. The intention of Lloyd George to go to war with Turkey causes the downfall of his government.

1923: The British government renegotiated its £978 million war debt to the US Treasury by promising regular payments of £34 million for ten years then £40 million for 52 years. The idea was for the US to loan money to Germany, which in turn paid reparations to Britain, which in turn paid off its loans from the US government. In 1931 all German payments ended, and in 1932 Britain suspended its payments to the US. All the First World War debts were finally repaid after 1945.

1923: France occupies the Ruhr following German default in reparations. Britain condemns the French move, and largely supports Germany in the ensuring Ruhrkampf (Ruhr struggle) between the Germans and the French.

1923: Treaty of Lausanne with Turkey. Britain was forced to make major concessions to the Turks as compared to the previous Treaty of Sèvres of 1920.

1924: London conference between Labour Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald and French Premier Édouard Herriot. Britain forced France to reduce the amount of reparations to be collected from Germany. The British diplomat Sir Eric Phipps commented that "The London Conference was for the French 'man in the street' one long Calvary as he saw M. Herriot abandoning one by one the cherished possessions of French preponderance on the Reparations Commission, the right of sanctions in the event of German default, the economic occupation of the Ruhr, the French-Belgian railroad Régie, and finally, the military occupation of the Ruhr within a year".

1924: The Geneva Protocol, (Protocol for the pacific settlement of international disputes) was a proposal to the League of Nations presented by Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald, and his French counterpart Édouard Herriot. It set up compulsory arbitration of disputes, and a created a method to determine who was the aggressor in international conflicts. All legal disputes between nations would be submitted to the World Court. It called for a disarmament conference in 1925.

Any government which refused to comply in a dispute would be named an aggressor. Any victim of aggression was to receive immediate assistance from the League members. McDonald lost power and the new Conservatives government condemned the proposal, fearing it would lead to conflict with the United States. Washington also opposed it, and so did all the British dominions. The proposal was tabled in 1925 and never went into effect.

1924: Labour government establishes diplomatic relations with Soviet Russia.

1925: Locarno Treaties normalise the status of Germany, although the provisions of the Versailles Treaty still apply; begins a decade of British efforts to stabilise a new European status quo, hoping that stability, plus trade, would prevent another war.

1926: Dispute with Turkey over Mosul ends. Turkey ends claim to Mosul region of Iraq.

1927: British police raid ARCOS office in London. Relations with the Soviet Union are broken off following discovery of the Soviet spy ring operating out of the ARCOS building.

1929: MacDonald's Labour government restores relations with the Soviet Union.

1929: MacDonald visits the United States; first visit to the US by a sitting British Prime Minister.

1929–31: Labour Foreign Minister Arthur Henderson gives strong support to League of Nations.

1931: Statute of Westminster recognises the full independence to the Dominions.

1932: British policy in the Far East faces a crisis in 1932, when the Japanese attacked Shanghai. Of all British foreign investment, 6% is in China and two thirds of that is in Shanghai. As a result, the Ten Year Rule is dropped. (It said the military planning should assume that no war would take place in the next ten years.) The Cabinet authorises a modest increase in the Royal Navy budget based on the assumption that there might a war with Japan sometime within the next decade, through constraints imposed by the Great Depression limit how much money will be spent. Beginning of British rearmament.

1932: Britain suspends its World War I debt payments to the United States.

1934: A secret report by the Defence Requirements Committee identifies Germany as the "ultimate potential enemy"; calls for Continental expeditionary force of five mechanised divisions and fourteen infantry divisions. Budget restraints prevent formation of this large force.

1934: Beginning of the "air panic" of 1934-35, where exaggerated claims of German air strength are made in the British press. Royal Air Force becomes the main beneficiary of rearmament.

1935: The Peace Ballot is held. The results of the peace ballot suggest much public support for both pacifism and collective security.

1935: Stresa Front formed following summit between Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald, French Premier Pierre Laval and Italian Prime Minister Benito Mussolini promising to resist any attempt to challenge the Treaty of Versailles via force. Mussolini is mistakenly given the impression that Britain has no interest in Ethiopia.

1935: Anglo-German Naval Agreement signed in London. It is meant to avoid a repeat of the pre-1914 Anglo-German naval race.

1935: Italy invades Ethiopia. Beginning of a crisis in Anglo-Italian relations as Britain makes half-hearted attempts to uphold collective security, which leads Benito Mussolini to make threats of war against Britain.

1935: Election of 1935 takes place. Government of Stanley Baldwin is returned to power with a promise to uphold collective security.

1935: Hoare-Laval Pact proposes to appease Italy and evades League sanctions against Italy for invading Ethiopia. The proposal is rejected and Hoare is forced to resign in disgrace.

1936: Remilitarization of the Rhineland. Germany remilitarises the Rhineland in violation of the Versailles and Locarno treaties. The Baldwin government protests, but chooses not to take action. Brief Anglo-French staff talks are terminated by Britain after five days, through Britain does issue a statement saying linking British and French security.

1936-39: British opinion is deeply split on the Spanish Civil War with experts tending to favour Franco's Nationalists while intellectuals favoured the Republic because it was anti-Fascist.

About 2500 British and Irish volunteers go to Spain to fight for the Republic; 500 were killed. Over half were sent by the Communist Party, including many miners. The government is neutral and opposes arms shipments to either side, fearing the war might spread.

1937: Japanese planes attack British gunboats in the Yangtze River and machine-gun the car of the British Ambassador to China, Sir Hughe Knatchbull-Hugessen, who is badly injured. As these attacks occurred at the same time as the sinking of USS Panay, Britain suggests that an Anglo-American blockade of Japan as a response. The American President Franklin Roosevelt refuses the British offer and instead accepts Japanese apology, through he does allow the secret Anglo-American naval talks to be begin in early 1938.

1938–1945: Further information: Causes of World War II and Diplomatic history of World War II.

1938: Foreign Secretary Anthony Eden resigns in protest over Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain's appeasement policy towards Italy.

1938: Mexican oil expropriation. The government of Lázaro Cárdenas nationalises land owned by British oil companies in Mexico.

1938: Anglo-Italian Easter Accords are signed. Britain tries to restore relations with Italy.

1938: Hitler threatens war over the alleged mistreatment of ethnic Germans in the Sudetenland, a part of Czechoslovakia. Intense appeasement efforts by Britain and France to avoid war by concessions to Germany. Czechoslovakia is not consulted.

1938: Britain and France signed the Munich Agreement with Nazi Germany. Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain promises it means "peace in our time." Historians differ sharply; some argue the appeasement was cowardice; others argue it saved Britain, which was not prepared for war with Germany.

1939: Jan. - Appeasement policy ends as Germany seizes all of Czechoslovakia.

1939: 31 March - Prime Minister Chamberlain issues "guarantee" of Polish independence in the House of Commons in co-operation with France; they will go to war should Polish independence be threatened.

1939: Tientsin Incident. Britain and Japan almost to war when Japan blockades British concession in Tianjin, China.

1939: Britain signs a defence treaty with Poland, guaranteeing its boundaries against German threats.

1939: 1 September- Germany invades Poland; Britain and France declare war on 3 September.

1939-40: "Phoney war" with little action on the Western Front.

1940: British army trapped and narrowly escapes at Dunkirk.

1940: September. Britain trades bases on its colonies in the Western Hemisphere for destroyers from the United States. The destroyers were used to defend convoys. The colonies were used as bargaining counters to secure American friendship and to minimize creeping American influence.

1941: January – Britain informs the United States that unless aid is offered, Britain will be bankrupt later that year.

1941: The United States begins Lend-Lease to support Allied war effort; $31.4 bn is given away to Britain and $11.3 billion to the Soviet Union. Canada in a separate programs gives $4.7 bn. Unlike American aid in 1917-18, Lend Lease is not a loan and does not have to be repaid.

1941, 22 June - Germany launched Operation Barbarossa invading the USSR, which became one of the Allies of World War II fighting against the Axis powers.

1941: Prime Minister Churchill agrees on Atlantic Charter with President Roosevelt.

1941: The Anglo-Soviet invasion of Iran occupied a neutral country on pretext that Iran didn't let go of German advisors in Iran.

1941-45: The Arctic convoys transported supplies Britain gave without charge to the USSR during the war.

1941: Japan attacks the United States, Britain and the Netherlands. Japanese seize Hong Kong, Brunei, Malaya, Sabah, Sarawak, Singapore, and Burma; Gross mistreatment of prisoners of war.

1942: Britain and USSR agree that after victory Poland's boundaries would be moved westward, so that the USSR took over lands in the east while Poland gained lands in the west that had been under German control. They agreed on the "Curzon Line" as the boundary between Poland and the Soviet Union and the Oder-Neisse line would become the new boundary between Germany and Poland. The proposed changes angered the Polish government in exile in London, which was not consulted.

1943: A. J. P. Taylor asserts, "1943 was the year when world leadership moved from Great Britain to the United States."

1943: The Casablanca Conference in Morocco, 14-23 January, brought together Churchill, Roosevelt and Charles de Gaulle. The Allies announced a policy of "unconditional surrender" from the Axis powers.

1943: Aug. Quebec Conference ("Quadrant"). Combined Chiefs (US & UK) agree on 29 divisions to land in France in Operation Overlord in May 1944. Plans also discussed re landings in southern France, and operations in Burma, China and Pacific, and to share atomic bomb project.

1943: An agreement is signed ending all British extraterritorial rights in China.

1944: Argentina refused to go along with the American anti-German policies. Washington responded by trying to shut down Argentine exports. In 1944 President Franklin Roosevelt asked Prime Minister Winston Churchill to stop buying Argentine beef and grain. Churchill refused, saying the food was urgently needed.

1944 September – Churchill & Roosevelt and Combined Chiefs meet in II Quebec Conference ("Octagon"). Discussion of Pacific strategy; agreement (later revoked) on Morgenthau Plan to demilitarise Germany.

1944 October - Churchill and Foreign Minister Eden meet in Moscow with Stalin and his foreign minister Vyacheslav Molotov. They planned who would control what in postwar Eastern Europe. They agreed to give 90% of the influence in Greece to Britain and 90% in Romania to Russia. Russia gained an 80%/20% division in Bulgaria and Hungary. There was a 50/50 division in Yugoslavia, and no Russian share in Italy.

1944 December – Battle of Athens. British troops battle the Communist ELAS forces for control of Athens.

1945-1989: Further information: Cold War

1944-47: The Jewish insurgency in Palestine as Jews confront Arabs and British in quest for independent Israel in Palestine, for which Britain holds the League of nations mandate.

1945: World War II ends. Victory over Germany & Japan. Britain is financially exhausted as Lend Lease aid from the US suddenly ends in August. An "Age of Austerity" and cutbacks begins.

1945-46: Parliament approves a $3.75 bn low-interest loan from the US in 1946+ $1.2 bn Canada.

1945-1957: Despite tight budgets Britain uses cultural diplomacy in the Middle East. The British Council, the BBC and the official overseas information services mobilises pro-democracy organisations and educational exchanges, as well as magazines, book distribution, and films industry to bolster British prestige and promote democracy.

1946: UKUSA Agreement on continuing war-time signet work between the USA and the UK.

1947: The government decides in secret to build an atomic bomb.

1947: Government informs the United States that Britain cannot afford to subsidise the Greek government in its Greek Civil War against Communist guerrillas.

1947-48: Britain withdraws from the Palestine Mandate it held since 1920 and turns the issue over to the U.N. Financial exhaustion was a main reason, but also strategic concerns, for its involvement was alienating Arab nations whose good will was desired.

1948-49: The Berlin Blockade threatens Britain's status in West Berlin. The RAF plays a major role in the Berlin Airlift and the Soviets finally relent.

1948-1960: Malayan Emergency, a civil war against the Communist-led Malayan National Liberation Army (MNLA); Britain is victorious in the end.

1949: Britain becomes founding member of NATO.

1949: Amethyst incident. Frigate HMS Amethyst is fired upon by Chinese on the Yangtze River.

1950: Britain recognises China in January, over American objections.

1950-1953: Britain fights under the UN flag in the Korean War against Communist forces from North Korea and China.

1951: Britain strenuously opposes use of nuclear weapons in Korea as discussed by the US.

1951: Egypt renounces the 1936 treaty. Egyptians begin guerrilla attacks against the British Suez Canal base. Low-level warfare between British forces and the Egyptians for next several years.

1951: Abadan Crisis. The government of M. Mosaddegh in Iran nationalises the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company.

1952: In response to Egyptian attacks, British forces storm and take a police station in Ismaïlia. The Ismaïlia incident ignites anti-British rioting all over Egypt.

1953: American and British intelligence agencies support coup in Iran.

1954: Prime Minister Churchill refuses a French request to intervene in Vietnam.

1954: Treaty signed with Egypt ending the British Suez Canal base.

1955: Geneva summit attended by Prime Minister Anthony Eden. Last time that a British Prime Minister attended a summit of the super-powers.

1955-63: Yemen emerges as a trouble spot in an old-rich region where the Soviets sponsor a revolt. Civil war erupts in 1962 as Britain tries to protect its colony in Aden.

1955: Baghdad Pact signed. Alliance intended to maintain British influence in the Near East.

1956: In the Suez Crisis Egypt nationalised the Suez Canal, a vital waterway carrying most of Europe's oil from the Middle East. Britain and France, in league with Israel, invaded to seize the canal and overthrow President Nasser. The United States strenuously objected, using heavy diplomatic and financial pressure to force the invaders to withdraw. British policy had four goals: to control the Suez Canal; ensure the flow of oil; remove Nasser; and keep the Soviets out of the Middle East. It failed on all four.

1958-60: As the anti-nuclear movement gains momentum, Britain, the US and the USSR suspend nuclear tests and hold test ban talks in Geneva. However Prime Minister Harold Macmillan decides not to criticise French nuclear tests in 1960. His goals were to gain French support for Britain's joining the European Economic Community, French backing for a four-power summit to promote détente.

1958: Anglo-American nuclear treaty establishes basis for co-operation on nuclear weapons development.

1958: Britain sends troops to Jordan to restore order following riots against pro-British King Hussein.

1959-1960: Zürich and London Agreement between Britain, Greece and Turkey grants independence to Cyprus.

1960: Prime Minister Harold Macmillan gives "wind of change" speech in South Africa. It signals an intention to soon grant independence to the remaining colonies in Asia, the Caribbean and Africa.

1961: Britain sends troops to Kuwait following threats by Iraqi leader Abd al-Karim Qasim that he will invade Kuwait. Iraq is deterred from invading.

1962-1966: Indonesian confrontation. Britain fights undeclared war against Indonesia in defence of Malaysia.

1968: Britain announces withdrawal of military forces "East of Suez".

1971: In a reversal of the withdrawal of military forces "east of Suez", Britain signs the Five Power Defence Arrangements with Australia, New Zealand, Malaysia and Singapore. The alliance is intended to protect Singapore and Malaysia from Indonesia.

1972: Ugandan dictator Idi Amin expels the so-called "Asians", Ugandans of South Asian background, most of whom hold British pass-ports and come to Britain.

1973: Britain joins European Community after France blocked its first application in 1961.

1974: Turkey invades Cyprus. Britain is obliged to defend Cyprus under 1960 treaty, chooses not to.

1976: Britain needs bail-out by the IMF to avoid defaulting on debts.

1979: Strongly protests Soviet invasion of Afghanistan.

1980: Death of a Princess airs in Britain. Saudi Arabia breaks relations with Britain over the airing of the film, which it is claimed was insulting towards the House of Saud. Relations restored later that year.

1982: Victory in War with Argentina over Falkland Islands.

1984: Murder of Y. Fletcher. British policewoman killed by Libyan diplomat. Britain breaks relations with Libya.

1984: Thatcher wins rebate from European Union.

1984: Signs treaty with China to return Hong Kong in 1997.

1986: Hindawi affair. Britain breaks diplomatic relations with Syria after it emerges that Syria was involved in an attempt to bomb El Air flight out of London.

1989: Ruhollah Khomeini issues a fatwa sentencing British author Salman Rushdie to death. Britain breaks diplomatic relations with Iran.

Since 1990

1989: Collapse of Communist control in Eastern Europe

1990: Thatcher sends troops to Middle East following Iraqi invasion of Kuwait.

1990: Two plus four treaty restores full sovereignty to Germany and ends British occupation rights that had existed since 1945.

1991: Britain fights in Gulf War against Iraq.

1991: Cold War ends as Communism in USSR ends and the USSR is broken up

1992: Black Wednesday. Britain forced out of the European Exchange Rate Mechanism.

1994: Relations restored with Iran.

1997-2007: Prime Minister Tony Blair built his foreign policy on two traditional principles (close ties with US & EU) and a new activist philosophy of "interventionism".

21st century

2001: Britain joins war on terror. 2001–2014: British combat forces with NATO in Afghanistan; a few hundred troops remain to provide training until 2016.

2016: P5+1 and EU implement a deal with Iran intended to prevent the country gaining access to nuclear weapons.

2016: The United Kingdom votes for "Brexit" to leave the European Union.

2016: David Cameron resigns as Prime Minister following his defeat in the Brexit referendum. He is succeeded by Conservative Theresa May.

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