SPOJENÉ KRÁLOVSTVÍ V ROCE 2006
THE UK 2006: A COURSE IN BRITISH REALIA

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OBSAH
ÚVODEM ..............................................................................................................................6
Seznam zkratek použitých v anglickém textu: .................................................................8
Seznam českých zkratek použitých ve slovníčku: ..........................................................8
1: THE COUNTRY AND THE PEOPLE OF THE UK ........................................................9
  1.1 Basic geographical data ........................................................................................ 9
  1.2 Main parts of the UK ........................................................................................... 10
    1.2.1. England ........................................................................................................ 10
    1.2.2. Scotland ....................................................................................................... 12
    1.2.3. Wales (Welsh name: Cymru [kəmri]) ..................................................... 13
    1.2.4. Northern Ireland ....................................................................................... 13
  1.3 Climate and weather ............................................................................................ 13
  1.4 Population, languages, flag and national anthem .............................................. 14
  1.5 Identity and attitudes ......................................................................................... 15
    1.5.1. Identity ....................................................................................................... 15
    1.5.2. Attitudes .................................................................................................... 15
2: THE UK’S ECONOMY AND TRANSPORT ..............................................................19
  2.1 The character and structure of the UK’s economy ........................................... 19
  2.2 The service sector .............................................................................................. 20
  2.3 International trade in goods and services .......................................................... 21
  2.4 Energy and natural resources ......................................................................... 22
  2.5 Manufacturing ................................................................................................... 22
  2.6 Agriculture, fishing and forestry .................................................................... 24
  2.7 Transport ........................................................................................................... 26
    2.7.1 Road transport ............................................................................................ 26
    2.7.2 Railways ...................................................................................................... 27
    2.7.3 Shipping ....................................................................................................... 28
    2.7.4 Air traffic ..................................................................................................... 29
3: THE UK SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT I: THE BRITISH POLITICAL SYSTEM
   AND THE LEGISLATIVE POWER ............................................................................ 32
  3.1 The character of the British political system ..................................................... 32
  3.2 Parliament ......................................................................................................... 33
    3.2.1 The chief functions of parliament ............................................................. 33
    3.2.2 The composition of the British Parliament .............................................. 33
    3.2.3 How Parliament works ............................................................................. 36
  3.3 The electoral system .......................................................................................... 37
  3.4 Political parties in the UK .................................................................................. 37
   SYSTEM OF JUSTICE AND THE POLICE AND ARMED FORCES .................... 40
4.1 The executive power ................................................................. 40
  4.1.1 Central government ............................................................. 40
  4.1.2 Local government ............................................................... 42
4.2 International relations and defence ........................................... 43
  4.2.1 Britain and the Commonwealth .......................................... 43
  4.2.2 The UK and the European Union (EU) ............................... 43
  4.2.3 The UK and the USA .......................................................... 43
  4.2.4 Defence .............................................................................. 43
4.3 The system of justice ............................................................... 45
4.4 The police .................................................................................. 46

5: THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES ............... 50
  5.1 Education in the UK ............................................................... 50
  5.2 The state school system until the age of 18 ............................. 51
    5.2.1 Organisation of schools and school life ............................ 51
    5.2.2 Pre-school education (ages: 2 to 5) ................................. 51
    5.2.3 Primary education (ages: 5 to 11) .................................... 51
    5.2.4 Secondary education (ages: 11 to 16/18) ......................... 51
    5.2.5 Children with special educational needs (SEN) ............... 52
  5.3 The private system ................................................................. 53
  5.4 Higher education ................................................................. 54
    5.4.1 Universities ...................................................................... 54
    5.4.2 Higher education colleges ................................................. 54
    5.4.3 The Open University (OU) .................................................. 55

6: THE WELFARE SYSTEM IN THE UK .............................................. 57
  6.1 Setting up the British welfare state ......................................... 57
  6.2 The two parts of the welfare system ...................................... 57
    6.2.1 The System of National Insurance (NI) .............................. 57
    6.2.2 The National Health Service (NHS) system ....................... 60
  6.3 Charitable organisations ......................................................... 61

7: THE RELIGIOUS SCENE IN THE UK .............................................. 64
  7.1 The character of the religious scene in the UK ....................... 64
  7.2 The established Protestant churches .................................... 65
    7.2.1 The Church of England .................................................... 65
    7.2.2 The Church of Scotland (the “Kirk”) ................................. 66
  7.3 Free Protestant Churches ...................................................... 66
  7.4 The Roman Catholic Church ............................................... 67
  7.5 Non-Christian religious communities ................................... 67
  7.6 New religious movements ..................................................... 67

8: MASS MEDIA IN THE UK .............................................................. 70
  8.1 The Press .............................................................................. 70
ÚVODEM

Kurz britských reálií nazvaný SPOJENÉ KRÁLOVSTVÍ V ROCE 2006 stručně informuje o hlavních tématech tohoto předmětu. Cílem kurzu je poskytnout vám nejaktuálnější informace, protože reálie každé země se neustále mění.

Učivo je rozděleno do deseti kapitol. Každá kapitola obsahuje výklad a jeho procvičení, a to formou otázek a úkolů. Zvolili jsme otázky dvou typů:

- otázky, jejichž řešení lze nalézt v textu kapitoly;
- otázky k zamyšlení, které vás nutí zamyslet se nad probíraným učivem a domýšlet skutečnosti uvedené v textu.

Úkoly vás jednak vedou k orientaci na nejdůležitější skutečnosti a k tomu, abyste si připravovali jejich přehledné shrnutí; jednak zaměřují vaši pozornost na méně běžné výrazy použité v textu kapitoly. Úkoly pro zájemce upozorňují na další podrobnosti patřící k problírannému tématu, které nejsou zařazeny do výkladu: můžete si z nich vybrat téma pro vystoupení v hodinách pilotního kurzu. Další typy úkolů vás vedou k porovnávání britské skutečnosti se situací v České republice a k zamyšlení nad jednotlivými tématy z hlediska učitele britských reálií i možností a potřeb vašich žáků či studentů. Navíc kurz obsahuje čtyři korespondenční úkoly.

Kromě zmíněných deseti lekcí obsahuje kurz i Klíč ke cvičení a Glosář. Do Klíče jsme zařadili i odpovědi na otázky k zamyšlení, těšbe jsou to jen možné odpovědi; názory, které se od nich budou lišit, mohou vést k zajímavým diskusím v hodinách pilotního kurzu. V Klíči nejsou zodpovězeny otázky vyžadující zcela osobní názor a úkoly, jejich cílem je příprava shrnutí hlavních bodů výkladu, pokud jsou tato fakta již v bodech podána v textu příslušné kapitoly. V Glosáři najdete výrazy vztahující se k tématům jednotlivých kapitol. Krátký seznam knih k dalšímu studiu najdete na konci každé kapitoly; Bibliografie zařazená na konci kurzu obsahuje nejen všechny knižní materiály použité při zpracování výkladu, ale i seznam internetových adres, na nichž najdete další aktuální informace.

S výjimkou tohoto úvodu je celý kurz v angličtině. K rozhodnutí použít anglický jazyk vedly především dva důvody:

- zprostředkovat vám, učitelům angličtiny žijícím a působícím v zemi, kde se anglicky němluví, možnost čist, psát a diskutovat v tomto jazyce;
- poskytnout vám anglický text, který můžete použít jako východisko pro vlastní výuku.

Přejeme vám, aby se vám s tímto textem dobře pracovalo.

Po prostudování textu budete znát:

- přehlednou formou podané aktuální informace o britských reáliích (viz obsah);
- zdroje dalších informací v knižní i elektronické podobě.
Budete schopní:

- diskutovat o tématech souvisejících s britskými reáliemi v anglickém jazyce;
- využívat aktuální zdroje informací pro vlastní potřebu i pro potřeby svých žáků či studentů;
- vybírat z odborných zdrojů informace o britských reáliích pro výuku podle potřeb a možností svých žáků či studentů;
- připravovat základní i doplňkové texty potřebné k výuce britských reálií;
- učit tento předmět efektivněji a zodpovídat dotazy svých žáků či studentů nebo je odkázat na příslušný zdroj informací.

Získáte:

- potřebné aktuální znalosti o předmětu britské reálie a možnost diskutovat o způsobech jeho výuky;
- zdroj znalostí o předmětu a informace o dalších odborných materiálech pro vlastní potřebu i pro své žáky či studenty.

Čas potřebný k prostudování učiva:

8 + 30-35 hodin (pilotní kurz + studium e-learningového materiálu)
Seznam zkratek použitých v anglickém textu:

am = od půlnoci do poledne
cca. = asi
cf. = srovněj
e.g. = například
etc. = atd.
i.e. = to je
pm = od poledne do půlnoci
sq (km) = čtvereční (kilometry)
vs. = versus, tzn. proti, ve srovnání

Seznam českých zkratek použitých ve slovníčku:

apod. = a podobně
fin. = finanční (výraz)
např. = například
pl. = množné číslo
skot. = skotský (výraz)
srov. = srovněj
tj. = to je
tzn. = to znamená
1: THE COUNTRY AND THE PEOPLE OF THE UK

In this chapter you will learn about:

• the main parts of the United Kingdom (UK), including London and the Crown dependencies;
• the character of the land, the chief mountain ranges, rivers and lakes in the four main parts;
• the climate of the UK;
• the four nations living there, their languages, identity and typical attitudes;
• the population and its density.

After studying this chapter, you will be able to:

• characterise the UK and its main parts from the geographical point of view;
• understand the differences between the names UK, Britain, England, Ireland, Northern Ireland;
• find your bearings on a map of the British Isles;
• understand the British people’s way of thinking and attitudes more deeply;
• teach this topic more effectively.

Key words: United Kingdom, Britain, England, Scotland, Wales, Ireland, geography

Time for study: 2-3 hours

1.1 Basic geographical data

The British Isles are situated off the north-western coast of the Continent of Europe, and they comprise two states:

• the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, with the area of cca.244,000 square kilometres (sq km);
• the Irish Republic or Eire [eəɾə], situated on the second largest island. The UK consists of four parts:
  • England
  • Scotland
  • Wales
  • Northern Ireland. Together they make up Britain, which consists of Great Britain (the larger of the two main islands) plus Northern Ireland.

The so-called “Crown dependencies” have a special relationship with the UK.
Each of them has its own legislative assembly, system of law and taxation. They are:

- the **Channel Islands** (Jersey, Guernsey and smaller islands), situated in the English Channel close to the French coast;
- the **Isle of Man**, which lies in the Irish Sea.

### 1.2 Main parts of the UK

#### 1.2.1. England

England is the largest part of the UK and in many respects, it has a dominant position in the spheres of language, culture and public life. Besides, English custom and practice have influenced many aspects of everyday life in the rest of the UK.

It is predominantly a lowland country. Upland regions can be found in the North and in the South West. England has a dense network of rivers, the longest one being the **Severn**, which flows to the Bristol Channel, and the best known one the **Thames**, on which London is situated. Many rivers are connected by canals, which used to serve for transporting goods, but are utilized for holidaying today.
A. London

London is the capital of the UK as well as of England. Its population was over 7 million in the year 2000, and it is highly cosmopolitan. Administratively, it is divided into 32 boroughs and the City, but its three main parts are the following:

- **The City** is the oldest part of London. Today it is the *business and banking centre* of the UK; that is why very few people live there. The chief tourist attractions of the City are St Paul’s Cathedral and the Tower of London.

- **The West End** is the *centre of governmental institutions*, centred in Westminster (e.g. the Houses of Parliament) and along Whitehall and Downing Street; of *shopping* (e.g. Oxford Street, Regent Street or Bond Street); and of *entertainment* (e.g. Soho; Piccadilly or Leicester Square, known for numerous theatres and cinemas). The main sights are Westminster Abbey and the royal palaces, especially Buckingham Palace, as well as large and beautiful parks: the best known one is Hyde Park with the famous Speakers’ Corner.

- **The East End** used to contain London docks, wharfs with large warehouses and slums inhabited by working people and London’s poor, the Cockneys. The Port of London was replaced by the *Docklands*, an area of skyscrapers (the Canary Wharf Tower, 240 m high, is the tallest in the UK) and expensive flats.

B. Southern England

The southern part of England contains the *best farmland* in Britain, especially East Anglia, the main producer of cereals, and Kent, the “garden of England”. Hilly areas can also be found there, e.g. the Downs to the south of London. The “West Country” boasts of wild moorlands, such as Exmoor and Dartmoor, and the “English Riviera”, the south-western coast with popular *seaside resorts*. Such resorts (e.g. Brighton) and important passenger ports (e.g. Dover) can also be found in the south-east. With the exception of London and the “commuter belt” around the capital, Southern England is less densely populated than the Midlands or the North.

C. The Midlands

There are large *industrial areas* in this region that arose during the Industrial Revolution in the 18th and 19th centuries. These are especially the Black Country in the west, with Birmingham as the chief centre, Nottingham, Leicester and other industrial towns. The area has, however, some touristically attractive parts too, such as “Shakespeare country” centred on Stratford-upon-Avon.

D. Northern England

The North used to be another centre of industry, especially coal mining in the north-east (e.g. the Newcastle area), textiles (Leeds and Bradford, the leading producers of woollen goods, and Manchester’s cotton industry), steel production (Sheffield) and shipbuilding (Newcastle or Hull). Both the North and the Midlands were, however, hit by the decline in heavy industry
in the second half of the 20th century; this resulted in a high level of unemployment in both areas.

Yet the North also boasts of regions of great scenic beauty. These are especially the Lake District (the largest National Park and the greatest concentration of lakes in England) in the north-west, the Pennines (the highest peak: 893 m), which run up the middle of the North like a spine, or the Yorkshire Moors. The slopes of the Pennines and the moors are only suitable for sheep farming and hiking.

Before you start revising the first part of this chapter, take a rest and, if necessary, also a cup of coffee, tea or some other refreshment. Then go through the text again and do the task. You’ll be surprised how well you’ll remember everything. Enjoy the work!

Tasks 1:
1. Supply this information about the UK:
   a. its location: ……………………..
   b. its area: ……………………..
   c. its parts: ……………………..
2. Characterise:
   a. the three main parts of London;
   b. the three parts of England.
3. Explain:
   a. the difference between Britain and England;
   b. the terms Crown dependencies, commuter belt.
4. Look at any good map of Western Europe and say which seas and oceans the UK is surrounded by. Check the pronunciation of the names in a dictionary.
5. Print the blank map at the end of this chapter and enlarge it. Then write the names of the two states situated in the British Isles and of the main parts of the UK (including the Crown dependencies) in it.

1.2.2. Scotland

The area of the Scottish mainland and islands is cca.75,000 sq km. The mainland can be divided into three geographical areas:

- southern uplands
  The southern uplands near the border with England is a hilly region of small towns and sheep farming.

- central Lowlands
  The central Lowlands and the strip of plains along the east coast extending northwards contain the best farming land in Scotland and the
country’s largest cities. That is why more than 80 per cent of the population live there.

Scotland’s two major cities are Edinburgh and Glasgow. **Edinburgh** is half the size of Glasgow, but it is the country’s capital, the centre of administration, law, culture and scholarship. It has many fine historical buildings. **Glasgow** is Britain’s third largest city. It was the centre of heavy industry, especially shipbuilding, but it is also a cultural centre, with one of Scotland’s oldest universities.

The **Highlands** consist of mountains (the **Grampians**; the highest peak, Ben Nevis, is also the highest mountain in the British Isles, with its 1,343 m) and deep valleys. The region is very sparsely populated (cca.1 million people), as well as the numerous small islands off the west coast. The chief Scottish archipelagoes are the Hebrides, Orkneys and Shetlands.

### 1.2.3. Wales (Welsh name: Cymru [kəmri])

The **area** of Wales is nearly 21,000 sq km. Only a strip of land along the south-east of the country is flat, and the majority of the population live there; the rest consists of mountains (the **Cambrians**, with Snowdon, which reaches 1,085 m, are the highest) with large river valleys, plateaus and hilly areas. Beautiful National Parks can be found there – Snowdonia in the north-west is the largest one in Britain.

This character of the land resulted in difficult communications between individual parts of the country: each part of Wales has closer relations with its neighbouring English counties than with Welsh ones.

The south-eastern coastal strip used to be the centre of industry, especially coalmining, iron and steel. **Cardiff**, the Welsh capital, only has a population of about a quarter of a million.

### 1.2.4. Northern Ireland

The **area** of this part of the UK is 14,120 sq km. About one half of all the inhabitants live in the eastern coastal region, whose centre is the capital, **Belfast**. The terrain resembles a saucer, with flat farming land centred on **Lough Neagh** [loch nei], the largest lake in the British Isles; the plain is surrounded by hills and mountains, many of spectacular beauty. They, however, only reach the height of cca.850 m in the **Mourne Mountains** in the south-east.

### 1.3 Climate and weather

The **climate** of the UK is temperate and oceanic, with a high annual rainfall. It is favourably influenced by the warm **Gulf Stream**, which flows northwards around the British Isles; due to its effects, even the ports in northern Scotland do not generally freeze up in winter. There are few extremes of temperature: winters are comparatively mild and summers can be cool and rainy, especially in the mountainous areas of the west and north, which can even be afflicted by severe snowstorms in winter.
The weather in Britain is extremely changeable.

1.4 Population, languages, flag and national anthem

The population of the UK is around 60 million, but the inhabitants are rather unevenly distributed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population in millions</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>ENGLAND</th>
<th>SCOTLAND</th>
<th>WALES</th>
<th>NORTHERN IRELAND</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population density</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>245</td>
<td>over 380</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While some areas are very sparsely populated, especially mountainous and agricultural regions, about 20 million people are concentrated in eight large conurbations: London, Birmingham, Glasgow, Manchester, Sheffield, Leeds, Liverpool and Bradford.

The official language of the UK is English, but three Celtic languages are spoken in the countries of the so-called “Celtic Fringe” (i.e. Scotland, Wales and Ireland):

- Welsh is the most widely used of the Celtic languages, by about 600,000 Welsh people;
- Scottish Gaelic [galik] is only spoken by some 70,000 people in the north of Scotland;
- The Irish or Gaelic [geilik] language is not much used, but education in this language is encouraged in Northern Ireland.

The flag of the UK is called the “Union Jack”.

It is a combination of the crosses of St George, patron saint of England; St Andrew, patron saint of Scotland; and St Patrick, patron saint of Ireland. St David, patron saint of Wales, is not commemorated in the Union Jack; the flag of Wales is a red dragon in a white and green field.

The national anthem is “God Save the Queen”.

Flags

National anthem
1.5  Identity and attitudes

1.5.1.  Identity

The term identity denotes the feeling of who or what somebody is. We will discuss how strongly or weakly the British feel geographical, ethnic and class identities.

A. Geographical identity, which is based on the place of birth, is weak because the British are generally mobile people (cf. Chapter 10.1). They rather identify themselves with larger geographical areas.

For example, “northerners”, who see themselves as tougher, more honest and warm-hearted than “southerners”. These, in their turn, perceive “northerners” as ignorant, uncultured and interested only in sport and beer-drinking.

B. Ethnic identity is particularly strong among the inhabitants of the Celtic Fringe:

• Scots feel very different from the English as they have their own systems of education and law and a different form of Protestant religion (cf. Chapter 6), and their way of speaking English is very distinctive.

• The Welsh share the organization of public life with the English, but they have a highly important symbol of their identity: the Welsh language, whose use is actively supported. It is taught at schools and used in mass media; besides, nearly all public notices and signs are written in both Welsh and English.

• The Catholic inhabitants of Northern Ireland are self-consciously Irish, while the Protestants feel their Britishness much more strongly than British people living in England. In fact, the Protestant and Catholic communities are almost entirely segregated.

• The English made no distinction between English and British until the 1990s, when they started feeling English ethnically.

• Non-white people who emigrated to Britain at different times naturally have different habits, attitudes, religions and languages; they strongly identify themselves with their ethnic groups.

C. Class identity: Even if contemporary British society is more egalitarian than it used to be, class distinctions and identity still survive in many aspects of everyday life.

British people usually find it difficult to become friends with somebody from another social class. The reason is their different sets of attitudes and daily habits, which stem from:

• having different topics to discuss in different accents, as they attended different schools;

• having different pastimes and being interested in different sports;

• eating different food at different times of day;

• having different ideas about the correct way to behave.

1.5.2.  Attitudes

It is dangerous to generalize because Britain is a multicultural society, as you already know. Moreover, societies change but their reputations lag behind, which means that many deeply rooted stereotypes no longer reflect the reality (e.g. the image of the London “city gentleman” in a bowler hat). Here are some more or less typical attitudes of contemporary Britons:
Traditions are still observed in public life, but the British are too individualistic to follow tradition in their private lives.

The British are conservative in preferring stability to change and continuity to modernity (cf., e.g., English pubs or Christmas cards). They are also proud of being different (e.g. driving on the left is one of the tokens of Britishness). And as the countryside represents stability, they love and idealise it.

The British are still rather formal in public, but informal in private; the traditional reserve is breaking down, even if open displays of affection like kissing are still rare.

The British have a great respect for privacy (e.g. asking personal questions is considered rude), although there is a greater openness in their attitude to sex.

The British are actively patriotic only when threatened by an external enemy’s attack, but they have never been chauvinists.

Answer these questions:

1. What is the climate of the UK like? How is it influenced by the Gulf Stream and how does the climate influence the weather?
2. What does the British flag consist of?
3. Which type of identity is most strongly felt and by which nation(s) living in the British Isles?
4. Why is geographical identity based on larger geographical areas rather than the place a Briton was born in? Give an example to illustrate this.
5. How does class identity manifest itself in Britain and why is it so?

For reflection:

1. What do you think the density of population depends on? Try to prove your explanation on the facts stated in the text.
2. Why is, in your opinion, the Welsh language used much more widely than Scottish Gaelic or Irish?
3. What are probably the reasons for the unfavourable opinions of English southerners about northerners and vice versa?
4. Why do you think ethnic identity is so strong in people of Celtic origin and non-white people living in the UK, while it is comparatively weak in English people?
5. What was probably the stereotypical image of the British like and in what respects has the reality changed?

Tasks 2:

1. Characterise the four main parts of the UK.
2. Write the names of the main mountain ranges, rivers, lakes, archipelagoes and of the important cities (capitals, industrial centres) into the blank map of the British Isles that you have enlarged. Then compare it with a map in an atlas.
3. Supply the required information:
   a. The area of: Northern Ireland ............
      Scotland ............
      Wales ............
   b. The three geographical areas of Scotland and their character:
      1 .............................................................
      2 .............................................................
      3 .............................................................
   c. The names of British National Parks mentioned in the chapter:
      ...................................................... Do you know any other?
   d. The population of the UK and all its parts: .........................
   e. The name of the British flag and the title of the national anthem:
      ..................................................

4. Explain these terms: a. conurbation; b. archipelago; c. climate vs. weather; d. identity; e. egalitarian; f. multicultural society; g. stereotype; h. patriotism vs. chauvinism; i. canal vs. channel.

5. Find out:
   a. as much information as you can about one sight located in the City of London and one in the West End;
   b. more information about Edinburgh, Glasgow, Cardiff and Belfast;
c. interesting facts about one of the English regions or about one of the countries of the Celtic Fringe.

6. Choose one topic and prepare a short presentation (c.300 words) for the tutorial. Try to gather pictorial aids and materials (photos, magazine pictures, tourist leaflets and brochures, video cassettes etc.) that you could use when teaching this topic. Think of effective ways of presenting it to your pupils/students. Which of the tasks included in this section could you adapt for them or assign without any changes?

In this chapter, the main geographical aspects of the UK have been discussed. You have learned about the location of the British Isles, the two states situated in them, the main parts of the UK, their character, terrain, chief cities, mountain ranges, rivers and lakes; about the climate and weather, the population and its density, the languages spoken in the UK, the country’s flag and national anthem; what the inhabitants of the UK identify themselves with and about the attitudes that typify them.

Hopefully, the course has started with a comparatively easy chapter. I suppose you already know many of the facts presented here and that there aren’t many unknown words in the text. The pronunciation of less known proper names has been supplied; any good dictionary will help you with other words new for you.

The purpose of the questions and tasks in all chapters is threefold:
- to help you concentrate on the most important facts and systematize them in your memory;
- to guide you to reflecting more deeply on the causes of various facts;
- to help you find out what you have learned and what needs further revision.

Remember: If you haven’t understood anything or you need or are interested in further information, write down your questions and ask your teacher in the next contact lesson.

Further reading:
2: THE UK’S ECONOMY AND TRANSPORT

In this chapter you will learn about:

• the character of the British economy and the changes it underwent in the 20th century;
• the individual sectors of the British economy:
  ▪ energy and natural resources;
  ▪ the chief industries;
  ▪ the service sector;
  ▪ agriculture, fishing and forestry;
  ▪ transport.

After studying this chapter, you will be able to:

• understand the character and structure of the British economy and the causes of the changes that occurred in the course of the 20th century;
• briefly characterize the individual sectors of the British economy;
• compare the British and the Czech economies;
• choose relevant and appropriate facts to be presented to your pupils/students and thus teach this topic more effectively.

Key words: economy, services, industry, agriculture, trade, transport

Time for study: 4-5 hours

2.1 The character and structure of the UK’s economy

The economic system in the UK is a mixture of private and public enterprise. While the state took ever more control over the economy from 1945 until the 1980s, in that decade the process of privatising the nationalised companies started. At the beginning of the new millennium, there were cca.3.7 million businesses, mostly owned by shareholders. In some sectors, however, a small number of large British and international companies are responsible for a substantial proportion of total production, especially in the leading industries.

The industries that have not been denationalised are the Post Office, British Nuclear Fuels and the Civil Aviation Authority.

The privatisation of the economy required the creation of institutions with regulatory powers over the industries that they monitor, e.g. Offtel monitors the activities of the telephone industry.

The structure of the economy was changed in the course of the 20th century. New industries appeared, such as aerospace or the production of chemicals and plastics, while the so-called “old industries”, e.g. mining,
Sectors of the UK economy in order of importance:

- the service sector;
- international trade;
- “high tech” industries;
- other industries.

2.2 The service sector

This sector of the economy witnessed the fastest growth in recent decades, especially in insurance, communications and computer and information services. Cca. 80 per cent of all workforce are employed in it, and income from various types of services makes up about one half of total British external earnings.

The main types of services, ranked according to importance, are:

- **Financial services:**
  
  The UK has a stable financial system and one of the most open regulatory regimes in the world. This, together with the UK’s considerable expertise in financial matters and major financial institutions and markets, puts the UK in the foremost position in this field.

  The City of London, with the Bank of England, the London Stock Exchange and Lloyd’s insurance market, is one of the world’s leading financial centres. The chief financial services provided there are in the spheres of:
  - banking,
  - investment and insurance business,
  - stock and foreign exchange trading.

  Other important centres of financial services are Edinburgh, Glasgow, Manchester, Cardiff, Liverpool and Leeds.

- **Tourism:**
  
  Travel, hotel and catering services benefit from the fast growth of tourism, as the UK has become one of the leading tourist destinations in the world.

- **Computing:**
  
  Computing services comprise, e.g., software development or the provision of complete computer systems.

- **Business services:**
  
  Business services include, among other activities, market research, management consultancy and advertising.
2.3 International trade in goods and services

Trade has always played a key role in the British economy. Today, the UK is the fifth largest trading nation in the world: it exports more per head than the US and Japan.

The chief trading partners of the UK are:

- the European Union (cca.56 per cent);
- North America, especially the USA;
- Japan;
- other Western European countries.

While there has been a surplus for trade in services ever since 1966, the UK has not had a surplus on manufactured goods for more than two decades.

UK exports of goods are dominated by finished manufactures and semi-manufactured goods, but imports of both kinds of these goods have increased so dramatically that they exceeded the traditional import of foods and basic materials, as the table below shows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXPORTS</th>
<th>IMPORTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <strong>Finished manufactured goods</strong>, especially:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• machinery and transport equipment,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• electronics,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• mechanical machinery,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• road vehicles.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. <strong>Semi-manufactured goods</strong>, especially:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• chemicals and petroleum products,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• manufactures classified by material, such as metal or textile manufactures.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>Food, beverages, tobacco and live animals</strong>:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• food (meat, dairy products, eggs),</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• beverages (Scotch whisky, soft drinks),</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• cereals and animals feeding stuffs,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• tobacco,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• pedigree livestock.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <strong>Crude oil and natural gas</strong></td>
<td>4. <strong>Basic materials</strong>, especially:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <strong>Basic materials</strong>, especially:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• metal ores,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• textile fibres.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <strong>Crude oil</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.4 Energy and natural resources

The production of coal, the traditional source of energy, continues to fall: in the year 2000, only 29 underground mines were in production. Nuclear electricity output has also gone down. Nowadays, North Sea crude oil and gas account for over 70 per cent of total energy consumption: in 2000, cca.211 offshore fields were in production.

However, the British government also supports the development of renewable sources of energy, such as:

- hydro-electric plants, mostly located in Scotland (52 per cent of all electricity is produced by renewable sources of energy);
- biofuels, including wastes and landfill gas (cca.40 per cent);
- offshore wind turbines, as Britain’s coastal waters are the windiest areas in Europe (9 per cent).

As you have seen, the UK has to import most of the metal ores and timber it needs. The country is, however, virtually self-sufficient in construction minerals, and produces and exports such industrial minerals as china clay, potash and salt.

Manufacturing

Even though manufacturing only contributes over 20 per cent of the Gross National Product today (in comparison with over one third in 1950), it still plays an important role in the modern British economy. Overseas companies are responsible for about a quarter of manufacturing output in the UK.

These are the leading industries:

- chemicals, including man-made fibres, cosmetics and detergents, and plastics;
- pharmaceuticals: this industry is the world’s second largest exporter of medicines, many of which were developed in the UK;
- electronics, such as office machinery, computers, transmission systems, radios and TV sets or medical and precision optical equipment;
- motor vehicles, dominated by light commercial vehicles, trucks, buses and cars, and components, whose production has enjoyed strong growth;
- aerospace and defence industry: one of only three in the world that produce the whole spectrum of aerospace products and technology;
- offshore equipment;
- paper and printing: British companies are among the largest in this field.
As far as the “old industries” are concerned, the UK is still a major producer of such kinds of heavy machinery as industrial engines, pumps, computer controlled machine tools or mining and tunnelling equipment. The shipbuilding industry only consists of cca.20 yards producing, e.g., fishing vessels, fast ferries or large specialist craft. On the other hand, food and drink manufacturing and processing has been growing, and the tobacco industry achieves significant export sales.

The greatest concentration of manufacturing is in the Midlands, but southern England, central Scotland (“Silicon Glen”) and Wales are centres of electronics; shipyards are mainly located in Scotland and northern England; textiles in the North West (cotton textiles), Scotland (fine knitwear and woollens), Northern Ireland (linen) and Yorkshire (woollens and worsteds).

If you haven’t taken a rest and some refreshments yet, do it now. You certainly need both – this chapter is more difficult than Chapter 1, unless you’re interested in economic problems or know much about this sphere.

When you’re ready to start working again, go through the first part of the chapter once more and make a brief survey of the most important facts in the form of brief notes. You’ll see how useful you’ll find this survey when you start revising.

Answer these questions 1:

1. How can you characterise the British economic system?
2. Which are the main financial centres in the UK?
3. Which services do individual parts of the service sector provide?
4. Which countries are the chief business partners of the UK, in order of importance?
5. Which energy resources and raw materials has the UK got? Which basic materials must be imported?
6. Which renewable sources of energy does the UK have at its disposal?
7. In which parts of the UK is manufacturing concentrated?
8. Which are the chief manufacturing industries, and what do they produce?

For reflection 1:

1. Which industries were not privatised and why do you think these were left under the state’s control?
2. Why were institutions with regulatory powers over privatised industries created?
3. How did the structure of the British economy change in the 20\textsuperscript{th} century? Can you find reasons for the changes?
4. Why do you think the UK lost the leading position it used to hold in the world economy in the past, but kept this position in the sphere of finance and, partly, also trade?

5. Can you think of the reasons why international trade has always been highly important for the UK’s economy?

6. Can you explain why there is a surplus for trade in services and not in manufactured goods?

Task 1:

1. Study the table showing the chief exports and imports. Compare the commodity composition and try to explain the reasons why certain commodities are exported or imported.

**Agriculture, fishing and forestry**

*Character:*

- **size of farms**
  In agricultural areas, such as East Anglia, over three quarters of farms are of 40 hectares or more. In recent years, however, local councils started encouraging smallholdings (i.e. small farms of a few acres). Most farms are owner-occupied; less than one-third of agricultural land is rented, but in Northern Ireland, most farms are family farms.

- **ownership**
  As agriculture is dependent on the ups and downs of the weather, it needs governmental aid to compensate potential losses. The government also encourages such schemes as environmentally beneficial and organic farming.

*Government aid*

*Livestock production*

- About half of full-time farmers are devoted to:
  - dairy farming,
  - beef cattle kept for meat,
  - sheep farming.

  *Cattle* are bred in northern and central England, Wales, Northern Ireland and certain areas in south-western and north-eastern Scotland. *Sheep* are mostly reared in the hills and moorland areas of Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and northern and south-western England. *Pigs* and *poultry* are kept in controlled indoor environments nowadays.

  Britain is a leading exporter of *pedigree livestock*, especially horses, but also cattle, sheep and pigs.

*Crop production:*

- The farms devoted primarily to arable crops are found mainly in eastern and central-southern England, where the *main crops* are wheat, barley,
oilseed rape and sugar beet. Potatoes, oats, turnips, peas and beans are grown, e.g., in Northern Ireland, Scottish lowlands and some areas in central England. The chief hop-growing area is Kent. Vegetables are grown on fertile soils throughout the UK, mainly in small farms situated around large cities that can sell their produce in markets directly to customers. Fruit-growing areas are especially the southern and south-western counties of England. The Scilly and Channel Islands are known for producing early flowers. There are even a few vineyards in southern England. Flax, an important industrial crop, is primarily grown in Northern Ireland.
C. Fishing and forestry

**Fishing**

The fishing industry plays a very important role in the economy, as the UK is one of the European Union’s largest fishing countries. Cod and haddock represent over 40 per cent of all sea fish caught. Salmon and trout are the chief fresh-water fish caught and consumed in the UK, but catches of shellfish, especially lobsters, crabs and oysters, have increased to supply a rising demand.

**Forestry**

Forestry is an expanding industry. As woodlands cover a comparatively small part of the UK, organizations responsible for protecting and expanding forests encourage their planting and restocking in selected areas throughout the UK.

**Transport**

The UK transport system needs modernising, especially railways and road transport, which needs road-widening, more by-passes and a greater use of buses.

2.7.1 Road transport

Road transport is dominated by the motor car, which is also considered as a status symbol (many households have two or more cars). Coaches link many towns and cities; they are slower than trains but cheaper. Motorcycling and especially cycling are rising in popularity.

As most freight is also carried by road (cca. 81 per cent of goods by tonnage), the situation results in frequent traffic congestions and high pollution. Yet, the UK has the best road safety record in Europe.

![Road traffic by vehicle type](image-url)

Based on BRITAIN 2001, p.362
Public transport services in towns and cities suffer from too much traffic on the roads; besides, they stop running too early at night. These are the frequently used means of public transport:

- *trams* disappeared in the 1950s and ‘60s but are making a comeback in many cities now; they are more ecological than, e.g., buses;
- *light rail systems* are also in operation, e.g. the Docklands Light Railway in Greater London;
- *double- and single-decker buses*; double-deckers now have doors and no conductors;
- *underground railways*, in London and Glasgow;
- *taxis* operate mainly in urban areas.

### 2.7.2 Railways

Privatisation of British Railways services was completed in 1997. In the 1990s, *passenger traffic* was growing and, in 2000, it was at its highest level since 1946. Passenger services comprise a fast *Inter-City network*, which links the main centres of Great Britain, besides local, regional and commuter services.

The UK government encourages more *freight* to be moved by rail, to relieve pressure on the road network and to improve the quality of the environment. It is especially bulk commodities, such as building materials or petroleum, that are transported by rail.

The *Channel Tunnel* (popularly called “the Chunnel”) was opened to traffic in 1994, between terminals near Folkestone and Calais. Eurostar high-speed trains serve passenger and freight vehicles separately. They are operated jointly by the UK, French and Belgian Railways.
2.7.3 Shipping

Over 50 million passenger journeys a year take place on international and domestic ferry services linking the UK with mainland Europe and with Ireland. Dover is the main passenger port.

Cargo services: Cca.75 per cent of the UK’s foreign trade is carried by sea, and nearly all cargo-liner services from the UK are containerised.

Ports: There are cca.80 ports of commercial significance in Great Britain, and several hundreds small harbours that cater for local needs. Major ports are, e.g., London, Grimsby and Immingham or Southampton.
2.7.4 Air traffic

Demand for international air travel is expected to grow steadily in future; that means that air traffic is highly important economically.

All UK airlines and many of the major airports are in the private sector. British Airways is the UK’s biggest airline and one of the largest in the world. Heathrow (on the western edge of London) is the busiest airport for international travellers and air freight; Gatwick (to the south of London) is the fourth busiest passenger airport in Europe. Manchester has the third busiest airport in the UK.

Answer these questions 2:
1. How can you characterize British agriculture?
2. What is the size of a typical British farm?
3. Are most British farms rented or owner-occupied? Are there differences between individual parts of the UK in this respect?
4. What is the proportion between livestock and crop production in Britain?
5. Which farm animals are bred in the UK, and in which regions?
6. Which crops are grown in the UK, and in which regions?
7. Which are the main kinds of sea fish, fresh-water fish and shellfish caught and consumed in the UK?
8. Which aspects of transport have to be modernised?
9. What kinds of vehicles are used in road transport, and why is it dominated by the motor car?
10. Why are trams returning to cities, and which other means of transport are used in large cities?
11. Which are the major airlines, ports and airports in the UK?
12. Which sectors of the economy
   - are expanding?
   - play an important role in the economy?

For reflection 2:
1. Why do you think the British government privatised railways and encourages their use, especially for cargo transport?
2. Why do you think the UK’s shipping industry has declined and needs governmental encouragement, while air traffic is growing and expected to grow steadily in future?
3. Why is the protection and expansion of woodlands of utmost importance in the UK?
Tasks 2:
1. Outline the structure of the British economy. Rank the sectors according to their importance from 1 to 6.
2. Explain these terms: a. shareholder; b. “high tech” industries; c. Gross National Product; d. open regulatory regime; e. stock exchange; f. environmentally beneficial and organic farming; g. smallholding; h. pedigree livestock; i. bus vs. coach; j. containerised cargo services.
3. Print the blank map in Chapter 1 and enlarge it twice.
   a. Mark the main industrial areas and deposits of chief minerals on one map.
   b. Use the other one to mark the areas where chief crops are grown and main domestic animals reared.
4. Find out why nationalisation started in the UK after 1945 and why the government embarked on the process of deprivatisation in the 1980s.
5. Find basic information about the Czech economy on the internet. Use it to write a brief survey, paying attention to its character, structure (in order of importance of the main sectors) and the location of the main sectors in the country. Then find the similarities and differences between the Czech and the British economies.
6. Consider Chapter 2 from the didactic point of view:
   a. Which facts would be appropriate for your pupils/students’ age and knowledge levels?
   b. How would you present them?
   c. What aids could make your presentation clearer and more interesting?

Correspondence task 1:
Choose one of these topics and write 250 to 300 words about it:
1. A London sight or an interesting city/region in the UK.
3. An outline of your presentation of Chapters 1 or 2, in note form: which facts you have chosen and why; the visual and other aids you could use; the tasks you can assign to your pupils/students; etc.

This chapter has dealt with the character of the UK economy and its main sectors. You have studied them in order of their importance for the economy, and covered the service sector, manufacturing industries and their energy and natural resources; agriculture, fishing and forestry; and finally transport, its types and problems.
If you’ve answered all the questions in the exercises correctly (you’ve checked your answers in the “Key to exercises”, haven’t you?), you can congratulate yourself because you’ve mastered one of the longest and most complicated topics discussed in the course. As you’re a teacher yourself, you realise the importance of frequent revision, and you also know that the best way to learn something is to teach it!

Let me remind you that, if you haven’t understood anything in this chapter or you’re interested to learn more about it, you can get one of the books mentioned below for further reading or prepare your questions for our tutorial.

**Further reading:**


3: THE UK SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT I: THE BRITISH POLITICAL SYSTEM AND THE LEGISLATIVE POWER

In this chapter you will learn about:

- the character of the British political system;
- the Sovereign’s position and roles in the system;
- the legislative institutions in the UK;
- the electoral system;
- the largest political parties.

After studying this chapter, you will be able to:

- understand the principles of British democracy and parliamentary monarchy;
- understand the division of powers in the UK and the composition and functions of the chief governmental institutions;
- compare the British and the Czech systems of government;
- choose relevant and appropriate facts for your pupils/students to learn.

Key words: legislature, Parliament, Sovereign, electoral system, political party

Time for study: cca.3 hours

3.1 The character of the British political system

The UK is a parliamentary and constitutional monarchy. The country does not have a written constitution: instead of being set out in a single document, the constitution is made up of:

- statute law (i.e. Acts of Parliament),
- common law (i.e. law of precedent), and
- conventions (i.e. practices and rules that cannot be enforced by law);
- European legislation is an increasingly important element of government too as the UK is a member state of the European Union (EU).

The chief governmental institutions are:

- Parliament, which is the chief legislative body;
- central government, which represents the executive power;
- a system of law courts that represents the judicial power.
3.2 Parliament

3.2.1 The chief functions of parliament

The Parliament
• passes laws,
• supervises government policy and administration,
• debates the major issues of the day.

The maximum duration of a Parliament is five years. This period is divided into one-year sessions. There are “adjournments” at night, at weekends and before holidays, and each session is ended by prorogation until the new session opens.

Parliament can legislate for the UK as a whole and for any of its parts separately. After the 1998-99 devolution, however, it does not legislate on devolved matters without the agreement of the devolved legislatures.

In 1998, the Scottish Parliament and Executive and the National Assembly for Wales were established. Northern Ireland got its legislative and executive bodies in 1999.
• The Scottish Parliament has 129 Members elected for 4 years; the Cabinet consists of 11 Ministers headed by the First Minister. Both have extensive responsibilities; only overseas affairs, defence, overall economic and monetary policy and national security remain with the UK Government and Parliament. The Secretary of State for Scotland represents the Scottish interests with the UK Government.
• The Welsh Assembly comprises 60 members. It took over most of the functions formerly held by the Secretary of State for Wales, such as responsibilities for economic development, local government, health and social services.
• In December 1999 the British Parliament devolved power to the Northern Ireland National Assembly and its Executive Committee of Ministers. The Secretary of State for Northern Ireland is, however, still responsible for such matters as security policy, prisons and criminal justice.

Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have their Members of Parliament in the Westminster Parliament; England, however, has no separate elected legislative body.

3.2.2 The composition of the British Parliament

The British Parliament is made up of three parts:
• the Sovereign,
• the House of Lords,
• the elected House of Commons.

Each is constituted on different principles, but the agreement of all three is required for legislation.

A. The Sovereign

The Sovereign personifies the state: everything is done in the Queen’s name, but she has almost no power at all. She acts on the advice of her government ministers. In law, the Queen is:
• the formal head of:
  • the UK and the Commonwealth;
• the judiciary;
• the armed forces of the Crown;
• the Church of England;
• an integral part of the legislature:
  • she summons, prorogues and dissolves Parliament;
  • she opens its sessions by reading the Queen’s Speech (i.e. the programme of government for the coming year);
  • she signs laws.
• other duties
  • The Queen formally:
    • appoints all important office holders and Church dignitaries (e.g. ministers, judges, diplomats, bishops etc.);
    • confers peerages, knighthoods and other honours;
    • recognizes foreign states, concludes treaties, declares war and makes peace.

She represents the country abroad, gives audiences to foreign diplomats and British officials, receives accounts of Cabinet decisions and signs state papers.

The monarchy is popular with most Britons as it is considered as a symbol of continuity – it can be traced back for over a thousand years, but the marital problems of the Queen’s children somewhat cooled down the popularity of the monarchy.

The monarchy is important for the tourist industry as the buildings and events associated with it (e.g. the Trooping the Colour, cf. 10.3) bring a lot of money to the country. The financial burden of the monarchy was lessened when the Queen started paying income tax and other taxes in 1993.

The present Queen, Elizabeth II, belongs to the House of Windsor. When she dies, she should be succeeded by her son Charles, the Prince of Wales. In the case of his death, his sons William and Henry are next in the order of succession.

B. The House of Lords

This House is a relic of earlier times. It has limited powers, because its members are not elected: it can only delay legislation for six months.

In 1999, the government started a step-by-step reform of the House of Lords aimed at making it more representative of British society: the number of hereditary peers (see below) were to be reduced; they were to be replaced by regional members representing different religions and sectors of society, including ethnic minorities.

The House of Lords is presided over by the Lord Chancellor and it consists of cca.1000 members:

Lords Spiritual:
• 2 Archbishops (of Canterbury and York);
• 24 senior Bishops.

Lords Temporal:
• cca.750 hereditary peers, who have inherited the peerage from their fathers;
• over 300 *life peers* (existing since 1958), who were granted the peerage by the Queen only for the duration of their lives, as a reward for special merits;
• over 20 *law lords* or Lords of Appeal, who represent the Highest Court of Appeal (cf. 4.3).

C. **The House of Commons**

This House is the most important part of British Parliament. It consists of over 650 salaried members (MPs) elected for 5 years. In 2000, there were 529 MPs for England, 40 for Wales, 72 for Scotland and 18 for Northern Ireland.

The chief officer of the House of Commons is the *Speaker*, elected by MPs to preside over the House and addressed “Mr/Madam Speaker”. Officially, the Speaker is the second most important “commoner” (i.e. non-aristocrat) after the Prime Minister.

*Composition*

*Speaker*
The layout of the benches in the House reflects the British two-party system: there are just rows of benches facing each other. The MPs of the governing party sit on the right-hand side of the Speaker, the opposition MPs on his or her left. Government ministers and members of the shadow cabinet sit on the front benches; that is why they are called *frontbenchers*. Those who do not hold a government post are *backbenchers*.

**3.2.3 How Parliament works**

**A. The Parliamentary day**

Mornings are reserved for committee work, research, preparing speeches and dealing with problems of MPs’ constituencies.

The work of each House starts at 2.30 pm and usually lasts until 10.30 pm. The most important parts of the programme of the Commons are:

- **Question time** (cca. one hour), when MPs ask questions of government ministers; in this way the Commons check the activity of the government;
- debates on proposals of new laws (i.e. *bills*) and important issues of the day, which take up most of the time.

**B. Voting**

Voting is done “by division”, i.e. by walking out of the House through the “Aye” (i.e. yes) and “No” corridors. MPs mostly vote the way the party tells them to – the so-called *Whips* ensure this. A free vote is allowed when non-political questions such as the abolition of the death penalty are concerned.

Most preparatory work is done in *committees*, either permanent or appointed to examine particular bills. They consist of experts.

**C. The Law-Making Process**

The bill is introduced either by the government (*Public Bills*) or by MPs, peers or local authorities (*Private Bills*).

In the House of Commons, the bill goes through:

- the *first reading*, when its publication is announced;
- the *second reading*, when its general principles are announced;
• the *committee stage*, when its details are examined and amended;
• the *report stage*, when the House considers the amendments;
• the *third reading*, when the amended bill is debated.

The bill goes through the same stage in the House of Lords, and when both Houses have reached agreement, the bill “receives the *Royal Assent*” (i.e. the Queen signs it) and it becomes an Act of Parliament.

### 3.3 The electoral system

For electoral purposes the UK is divided into *constituencies* (659 in 2001). Every one of them returns one member to the House of Commons.

All British citizens can vote if they are:
• aged 18 or over;
• on the electoral register;
• not legally incapacitated to vote (e.g. insane or sentenced prisoners).

Members of the House of Lords are not entitled to vote.

Each political party can choose a candidate in a constituency. *Candidates* must be aged 21 or over and each must deposit £500 with the “Returning Officer” of the constituency; the money is returned if he or she receives 5 per cent or more of the votes cast. An official limit is set on the sum of money candidates can spend on their campaign.

*Voting* is not compulsory, and it can be done in person at the local polling station, by post or by proxy. The polling day for general elections is usually a Thursday. The *winner* is the candidate who gets most votes; all votes cast for the other candidates are simply ignored. That is why smaller parties have little chance to win, even if they may get a considerable number of votes.

### 3.4 Political parties in the UK

For the last 150 years a predominantly *two-party system* has existed in Britain:

- The *Conservative Party* is right of centre; its voters are primarily richer sections of society, but also a comparatively large minority of workers. It stands for, among other things, internal law and order, national defence and minimal government interference in the economy.

- The *Labour Party* used to be left of centre but is now a centrist party; its voters are working-class people and intelligentsia. It stands for full social services but less government involvement in the economy.

The third largest party is the *Liberal Democratic Party*.

This party arose from the union of the Liberals and...
the left wing of the Labour Party in the 1980s. It is in the centre or to the left of centre, supported especially by the middle class. It stands for the European Union, environmental protection and greater powers for local government.

Other parties

There are numerous smaller parties, and each country of the Celtic Fringe has one or more nationalist (or even extreme) parties. Political parties are represented both in central and in local government.

Answer these questions:

1. What is the British constitution made up of?
2. Which are the three branches of state power and which institutions represent them?
3. What are the chief functions of Parliament?
4. Which part of Parliament is the most important? Why this one and not any of the others?
5. For how long are British MPs elected and how is Parliament’s “life” divided?
6. What is the position of the monarch in the British system of government?
7. What are the present Queen’s chief roles and duties?
8. The House of Lords is described as “a relic of earlier times” in this chapter: how could it be modernised?
9. Who can and who can’t vote in Britain?

For reflection:

1. How do you understand the description of the UK as a “constitutional monarchy and parliamentary democracy”?
2. How does the layout of the benches in the House of Commons reflect the British two-party system?
3. How do the British and the Czech electoral systems differ? (A useful term: proportional representation.) What advantages and disadvantages does each of them have?
4. How do you understand this sentence? “The Queen reigns but does not rule.”

Tasks:

1. Outline:
   a. The structure of British parliament (with numbers and presiding officers).
   b. The devolved legislatures in the countries of the Celtic Fringe.
   c. The process of legislation.
2. Explain these terms: a. adjourn(ment); b. to prorogue; c. electoral register; d. devolution; e. hereditary peers – life peers – law lords; f. shadow cabinet; g. constituency; h. frontbencher vs. backbencher; i. bill vs. Act of Parliament; j. by-election vs. general election.

3. Briefly characterize the three largest political parties in the UK. Has any of them a counterpart in the Czech Republic?

4. Find out more about:
   a. the Royal Family and the royal residences;
   b. the honours that the Queen can confer on her subjects;
   c. smaller political parties in Britain;
   d. differences and similarities between the parliamentary procedures in the UK and the Czech Republic.

5. Consider how many facts presented in this chapter you would teach your pupils or students and why these. How would you present them? What pictures and other aids would you use? Be prepared to discuss the questions in the tutorial.

In this chapter you have been informed about the British political system and the legislative power. You have studied the Queen’s position in this system, her duties and the role she plays in the legislative process. Then you have learned about British Parliament, its composition, work and functions, and the devolved legislatures; the electoral system and the largest political parties.

This chapter has contained quite a few generally known facts, I suppose. That means it may not have been so difficult for you. Try writing a brief survey of the most important facts presented here – you can incorporate the outline Task 1 required you to write into it. Then you can do the same for Chapters 1 and 2 as a sort of revision. Part of the work has already been done: some tasks in those chapters asked you to do just that!

Further reading:


In this chapter you will learn about:

- the central government, civil service and the UK’s relations towards the Commonwealth, the EU and the USA;
- local government and the administrative division of the UK;
- the system of justice in England and Wales, the chief lawcourts, criminal procedure and the legal professions;
- the organisation of the police forces and the armed forces.

After studying this chapter, you will be able to:

- distinguish between the functions and duties of central and local government in the UK;
- understand and explain:
  - the terms Government and Cabinet;
  - the terms connected with the legal sphere in the UK and criminal procedure;
  - the structure and functioning of the main executive and judicial bodies;
  - the organisation of the police forces and the armed forces;
- compare the functioning of these branches of state power in the UK and in the Czech Republic;
- choose relevant and appropriate facts for your students/pupils to learn.

Key words: government (central, local); Cabinet, civil service; local council; legal institutions

Time for study: 3-4 hours

4.1 The executive power

4.1.1 Central government

Her Majesty’s Government is the supreme executive body formed by members of the party that has won the general election (single-party government). It consists of 90 to 100 ministers who are members of the House of Commons or the House of Lords. They have a collective responsibility for government policy and action: those who disagree with them, must resign. All ministers are:

- formally appointed by the Queen;
- answerable to Parliament, which checks their activity.
The **Cabinet** is naturally a smaller body: this part of the Government consists of the 15 to 20 most important ministers. The chief ones are the **Prime Minister** (PM), the **Foreign Secretary** (head of the Foreign Office), the **Home Secretary** (head of the Home Office) and the **Chancellor of the Exchequer** (head of the Treasury). The Cabinet usually meets once a week at 10 Downing Street, the Prime Minister’s residence. The proceedings are confidential.

The **Prime Minister**:

- is the leader of the party that has won the general election;
- is the head of the executive (he/she chooses his/her ministers);
- controls the Cabinet and the Cabinet Office; (s)he changes the Cabinet once every two years at least;
- determines Cabinet decisions;
- controls the monarch’s power of patronage (i.e. chooses and recommends people for important positions and honours).

In 2006, the Cabinet consisted of the following thirteen departments:

- The Foreign and Commonwealth Office
- The Home Office
- Her Majesty’s Treasury
- The Department of Trade and Industry
- The Department for Transport
- The Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs
- The Ministry of Defence
- The Department of Health
- The Department for International Development
- The Department for Culture, Media and Sport
- The Lord Chancellor’s Department
- The Department for Work and Pensions
- The Department for Education and Skills

The **Cabinet Office**, together with the Treasury and the Prime Minister’s Office, is at the centre of the UK Government. It helps run the complicated machinery of the government, keeps ministers in touch with each other and prepares necessary materials both for Cabinet meetings and for numerous Cabinet committees (they deal, e.g., with economic policy, defence or social affairs).
While ministers only stay in office for up to 5 years, civil servants are officials who ensure the continuity of individual departments. They serve any minister in charge of the department and look after the day-to-day running of the Government. That is why they have to be politically impartial. They are, however, often criticised for a lack of efficiency and expertise in economics and technology. Their number was lowered considerably between 1976 and 2000.

4.1.2 Local government

Originally, the UK was administratively divided into counties (regions in Scotland) and districts. Greater London and six metropolitan county areas (Tyne and Wear, West Midlands, Merseyside, Greater Manchester, West and South Yorkshire) had a county status.

In the 1990s, a major reform of local government was implemented. Each administrative unit is still headed by a local council elected for four years by the inhabitants of the areas aged 18 years or over, but:

In England, the two-tier structure described above was mostly kept. Single-tier, or unitary, authorities were only introduced into some areas, especially the larger cities and the metropolitan county areas. Greater London is made up of the 32 London boroughs and the City of London, each with a council; the Greater London Authority deals with London-wide issues.

In Scotland, 29 new unitary councils replaced the previous 9 regional and 53 district councils; in Wales, 22 single-tier councils replaced the previous 8 county councils and 37 district ones. Northern Ireland has had a single-tier district council system (26 districts) since 1973.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The single-tier system (councils)</th>
<th>The two-tier system</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ENGLAND: 40 unitary authorities in:</td>
<td>ENGLAND: 34 shire counties (county councils)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• metropolitan county areas</td>
<td>districts (district councils)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• large cities</td>
<td>London (Greater London Authority)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCOTLAND: 32 districts</td>
<td>32 boroughs + the City (councils)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WALES: 22 districts</td>
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<tr>
<td>NORTHERN IRELAND: 26 districts</td>
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</table>

Local councils’ responsibilities

Local councils are responsible for local matters, such as:

- education,
- environmental protection and culture,
- housing,
- police,
- social services.

Local councils’ financing

They are financed from:

- the council tax (which is based on the value of a property and the number of people living in it);
4.2 International relations and defence

The UK supports the maintenance of a stable international order. That is why it is a member of the United Nations (UN), the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) and other major international organisations.

4.2.1 Britain and the Commonwealth

The Commonwealth of Nations was formed in 1931 as the British Commonwealth of Nations by the Statute of Westminster. The adjective “British” was dropped in 1946.

This voluntary association of independent states has 54 members including the UK today (in 2006).

The member states are free to choose the form of government or to resign from the association. They all recognise the Queen as the head of the Commonwealth; she is the head of state in the UK and 15 other member states (e.g. Australia or Canada), where she is represented by a Governor.

Meetings of the Commonwealth heads of government are held every two years. The Commonwealth Secretariat, based in London, organises these meetings as well as joint consultations and co-operation. The Commonwealth Games, which are held every fourth year, help to keep cultural contacts alive.

4.2.2 The UK and the European Union (EU)

The UK joined the EU in 1973. Though its membership of the EU is regarded as an economic necessity and a political advantage, there have always been fears that Britain would gradually “dissolve in Europe”. As a result, the UK not only kept its own currency, the pound sterling, but did not support any further political unification of Europe, expressed in a European Constitution. However, the UK contributes to the EU budget and supports the enlargement of the Union.

4.2.3 The UK and the USA

The relations between these two countries are friendly officially, as they have much in common. Yet the special relationship declined after the UK joined the EU. Public feelings are, however, rather ambiguous: the British feel mild bitterness about the power of the USA.

4.2.4 Defence

The aims of the UK’s defence policy are to defend the country and its people, and British interests at home as well as abroad. Nowadays, however, the British armed forces only assist in humanitarian and peacekeeping operations on behalf of the UN or the EU.

Compulsory military service (called “National Service”) was abolished in 1957. Today, the UK has small, professional forces staffed by specialists.
The Army is the most numerous (110,100 in the year 2000). Within the UK, it is only used to keep order in Northern Ireland.

The Royal Navy (nearly 43,000) is known as the “senior service”, as it has the longest tradition and many times of glory.

The Royal Air Force (RAF; nearly 55,000) is the youngest of the three; it had its time of glory during World War II.

All three branches of the armed forces need to increase their flexibility and mobility.

**Time for some rest and refreshments! Remember that you don’t have to worry about the dates and figures: they’ve been included in the text to help you form a clearer overall picture of British institutions and relations between them. When you feel rested, go through the first half of the chapter again and do the exercises.**

### Answer these questions 1:

1. What is the relationship between:
   a. central government and Parliament in the UK?
   b. the Government and the Cabinet?
2. Who is the Government formed by?
3. How do you understand the term collective responsibility?
4. What are the duties of the Prime Minister?
5. Why is the Cabinet Office one of the most important government offices?
6. Who are civil servants and why do they have to be politically impartial?
7. How was local government in the UK changed in the second half of the 20th century? What do you think was the reason for this reform?
8. How are local councils financed and for how long are they elected?
9. What are the responsibilities of:
   a. the British central government?
   b. local councils?
10. What is Britons’ attitude to: a. the EU? b. the USA?
11. What are the aims of the UK’s defence policy?
12. What do the activities of the British armed forces mainly consist in, and how should their efficiency be improved?
For reflection 1:

1. The membership of the Commonwealth no longer involves any economic advantages. Why do you think the member states remain in this association?

2. What feeling or attitude do you think this statement expresses if said by a Briton? “We’re nothing but the 51st state of the USA!”

4.3 The system of justice

The UK does not have a single legal system. England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland all have their own legal systems, though there is a substantial similarity on many points. We will only discuss the legal system of England and Wales.

There is no ministry of justice in the UK. Its functions are shared by the Home Office, which is responsible for prisons and the police, and the Lord Chancellor’s Department, which oversees the effective management of courts and the appointment of judges and other legal officers.

There is no written code of law in the UK either. The system of justice is based on:

- precedent (i.e. so-called common law, developed from old customs and from decisions made by judges);
- statutes passed by Parliament (i.e. statutory law);
- European Community law (mainly in economic and social matters).

The law is enforced by judicial officers:

Judges are appointed, mostly from the ranks of practising barristers (i.e. lawyers with higher qualifications who can present cases in the Crown Court as counsel for the prosecution or for the defence). Judges can only be removed in rare circumstances, e.g. involving misconduct. Solicitors have lower qualifications; they arrange legal matters for clients and may prepare cases for barristers.

Lay magistrates (or Justices of the Peace, over 30,000 in England and Wales: not qualified lawyers) and stipendiary magistrates (legally qualified and salaried, who advise lay magistrates) judge less serious cases in lower lawcourts.

Criminal trials normally take place in open court; serious cases are tried before a jury of twelve. The accused is presumed innocent until his or her guilt has been proved.

There is a tendency to avoid imprisonment if possible, though life sentence is obligatory for murderers. Capital punishment has been abolished. The punishment for less serious offences is a fine or a certain number of hours of community service. A conditional discharge means that the
culprit is set free but if (s)he commits another crime within the time determined by the
court, the first crime is also taken into account. Those who are put on probation must meet
a social worker regularly.

THE STRUCTURE OF LAW COURTS IN ENGLAND AND WALES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>House of Lords</th>
<th>Appeals from the Courts of Appeal and High Court</th>
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<tr>
<td>(3 law lords)</td>
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<tr>
<th>CRIMINAL COURTS</th>
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<tr>
<td>Criminal Division</td>
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<tr>
<td>Appeals from the Crown Court</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Court of Appeal</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1-3 judges, no jury)</td>
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<th>CIVIL COURTS</th>
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<tr>
<td>Civil Division</td>
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<tr>
<td>Appeals from the High Court and County Courts</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>High Court</th>
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<tr>
<td>(1-3 judges, no jury; 4 sittings a year, in London)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Chancery Division</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appeals from county courts on bankruptcy, land registration and other business matters</td>
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<tr>
<th>Family Division</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appeals from county courts and magistrates’ courts on family matters (divorces, guardianship etc.)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Queen’s Bench Division</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appeals from Crown Court and magistrates’ courts on matters not within the scope of the other divisions</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crown Court</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1 judge + a jury)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Appeals from magistrates’ courts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>It works in 6 court circuits (based on):</td>
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<tr>
<td>• south-eastern (London)</td>
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<td>• Wales and Chester (Cardiff)</td>
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<td>• western (Bristol)</td>
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<td>• Midlands and Oxford (Birmingham)</td>
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<td>• north-eastern (Leeds)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• northern (Manchester)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Magistrates’ Courts + juvenile courts</th>
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<tr>
<td>(3 magistrates + a stipendiary magistrate, no jury)</td>
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<tr>
<td>They decide whether the accused has to be kept in custody + minor offences; punishments: imprisonment for up to 1 year + a fine up to a certain sum</td>
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<tr>
<th>County Courts</th>
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<tr>
<td>(1 judge, no jury)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Less important cases than those tried in the High Court</td>
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<tr>
<th>Tribunals</th>
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<tr>
<td>Appeals from administrative decisions on:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>immigration, social security, child support</td>
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4.4 The police

There is no national police force in the UK. Instead, there are over 50 police forces organised on a local basis. Central government inspects them and influences senior appointments. Each local police force has its Criminal Investigation Department
(CID) and each is headed by a chief constable.

The Metropolitan Police Force (“Met”), which polices Greater London, is an exception: it is under direct control of central government and it carries out certain national police functions, such as the registration of crimes and criminals or keeping the missing persons register. New Scotland Yard is the headquarters of its CID.

Two national bodies were set up in 1998: the National Criminal Intelligence Service, which collects and analyses findings about criminals, and the National Crime Squad, whose role is to detect and prevent organised crime and support regional forces in their investigation of serious crime.

Answer these questions 2:

1. Which officers and offices substitute for the non-existent ministry of justice in the UK?
2. Which sources of law is the system of justice based on?
3. What do the chief English judicial officers do?
4. How do Britons become:
   a. government ministers, including the Prime Minister?
   b. Members of Parliament?
   c. judges?
   d. local councillors?
   e. life and hereditary peers?
5. What is the difference between:
   a. the executive, the legislative and the judicial powers?
   b. a barrister and a solicitor?
   c. the former British Empire and the Commonwealth of Nations?
   d. lay and stipendiary magistrates?

For reflection 2:

1. What are, in your opinion, advantages and disadvantages of:
   a. a single-party government?
   b. compulsory military service?
2. In your opinion, which features make the system of justice in England and Wales different from the Czech one?
3. Why do you think imprisonment is avoided as often as possible as a form of punishment?
Tasks:

1. Outline:
   a. the main parts of the British central government;
   b. the former administrative division of the UK and the changes made in the second half of the 20th century;
   c. the organisation of the Commonwealth of Nations;
   d. the three branches of the British armed forces;
   e. the structure of lawcourts in England and Wales and examples of cases they try;
   f. the organisation of the British police.

2. Name:
   a. the titles of the chief British Cabinet ministers;
   b. the periods of time for which MPs and local councillors are elected;
   c. forms of punishment used in English lawcourts.

3. Explain these terms: a. patronage; b. single-tier council; c. council tax; d. statute; e. common vs. statutory law; f. precedent; g. code of law; h. community service; i. the “Met”; j. New Scotland Yard.

4. Get an atlas and find a map of the world. Then enlarge the map of the Commonwealth below and print it. Write the names of the chief member states of the Commonwealth on it.

5. Read Yes, Minister or Yes, Prime Minister by J. Lynn and A. Jay (in English or in Czech translation) and find out how the authors interpret the relations between Cabinet ministers and civil servants. Prepare a short presentation (for 2 to 3 minutes).

6. Consider the age of your pupils/students and decide which facts and explanations presented in this chapter they should know. How could you
present them in class? What sort of visual materials could you use? Be prepared to discuss the questions in the tutorial.

**Correspondence task 2:**

Choose one topic from the tasks for highly interested students in Chapters 3 and 4, and write up to 300 words about it.

In this chapter you have studied the executive and judicial powers in the UK. You have got acquainted with the chief institutions, their compositions and functioning: you have learned about the central and local government, the lawcourts, the police and the armed forces. International relations have also been discussed, as well as the aims of foreign and defence policy.

*Has everything been clearly explained? If not, or if you want to know more about something, take a note of it and ask during our tutorial.*

*If you have mastered everything, you can congratulate yourself: you’ve successfully covered three most difficult chapters in this course – and nearly one half of the whole course! The following chapters are closer to common life and, I do hope, will be more interesting for you.*

**Further reading:**


5: THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES

In this chapter you will learn about:

- the types of state and private schools at all levels, including universities;
- their organisation and financing;
- the chief examinations at primary and secondary schools and subjects taught there;
- the college and university grades.

After studying this chapter, you will be able to:

- understand the difference between state and private schools;
- understand and explain the terms public school, college (in both of its meanings) and Open University;
- realise the chief differences between the Czech and the Anglo-Welsh systems of education;
- teach this topic more effectively.

Key words: education, school, public and private systems, curriculum, college, university

Time for study: 2-3 hours

5.1 Education in the UK

You learned in Chapter Four that the UK does not have a single legal system. The same is true about education, though the systems in individual countries share certain common features:

- full time education is compulsory for all children in the UK until they are 16;
- schools are mostly coeducational;
- after the age of 16:
  - cca.70 per cent of school-leavers stay on in full-time education;
  - cca.10 per cent go into work;
  - the rest are guaranteed a place on government training programmes;
- much emphasis is placed on
  - improvements in school standards for pupils in the first years of education;
  - lifelong education.

In this chapter, we will only discuss the system of education in England and Wales.
5.2 The state school system until the age of 18

5.2.1 Organisation of schools and school life

There is little uniformity or central control over state education as it is administered by the Local Educational Authorities (LEAs): individual schools decide numerous things, including some aspects of the teaching programme. The National Curriculum (NC), which was introduced in 1988, only determines learning objectives and basic requirements, and the Department for Education and Skills formulates the general educational policy.

The main emphasis is on developing understanding rather than acquiring factual knowledge. Young people are expected to apply their knowledge to specific tasks. The emphasis on academic ability has risen in recent decades.

The school year is divided into three terms:

- **autumn term** (beginning of September – Christmas) + 2 weeks’ Christmas holiday;
- **spring term** (New Year – Easter) + 2 weeks’ Easter holiday;
- **summer term** + cca.6 weeks’ summer holiday.

All schools have a half-term holiday (up to a week) in the middle of each term.

Nearly all schools work from 9 till 3-4 pm, from Monday to Friday. Lunch is provided by the school and paid by parents, except for poor children (cca.15 per cent).

5.2.2 Pre-school education (ages: 2 to 5)

There is no countrywide system of pre-school education, though it has been expanded in recent years. The aim of this development is that pre-school education should provide all children with a basic foundation in reading and counting.

While very few children go to nurseries (for 2- to 3-year olds), over 60 per cent of 3- and 4-year olds attend nursery schools (3-5 years of age).

5.2.3 Primary education (ages: 5 to 11)

Compulsory education starts in infant schools (5 to 7) or primary school infant departments. At the age of 7, pupils transfer to junior schools or move to the primary school junior departments. At each stage, the core subjects are English (Welsh in Wales), maths, science, technology, physical education, religious education, history, geography, art and music.

At the age of 7 and 11, pupils take the National Tests in English, maths and science.

The size of a class should be 30 pupils or fewer, but it exceeds this number in many primary schools.

5.2.4 Secondary education (ages: 11 to 16/18)

Free secondary education (11 to 16) is provided by:
• **Comprehensive schools**, attended by nearly 90 per cent of pupils in England and Wales. Large ones offer up to 80 subjects to choose from: those mentioned above except art, music, history and geography, but a modern foreign language and sex education are added.

• Fifteen **City Technology Colleges** run by private sponsors. Their curriculum focuses on science, maths and technology.

• **Specialist state secondary schools**: besides providing the full NC, they specialise in science, maths and technology, modern foreign languages, sports or arts.

At the age of 16, students take the **General Certificate of Secondary Education** (GCSE) in ten subjects. Then, they can continue full-time education in school **sixth forms** or **sixth-form colleges**, where they study for two more years for examinations that lead to:

• higher education; these students take the **General Certificate of Education** (GCE) **Advanced (A) level** in three to four subjects;

• professional training;

• vocational qualification.

Both the GCSE and GCE exams are set by independent examining boards.

### 5.2.5 Children with special educational needs (SEN)

Cca.60 per cent of children with SEN are either educated in mainstream schools or in special schools. It is the duty of LEAs to identify and assess the needs of those children and, in co-operation with parents, decide about their children’s education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The number of state schools in England and Wales in 2000:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Primary schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Secondary schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(of which specialist schools)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Schools for children with SEN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Britain 2001

**Even if this topic may be closer to your interest than those discussed in the three previous chapters, it’s time to take a rest and refresh yourself.**

**Before you start studying again, think of what you’ve learned so far and compare the situation in England and Wales with the situation in Czech education. Then go through the first half of the chapter again and do the exercises.**
**Answer these questions 1:**

1. What do the systems of education in individual parts of the UK have in common?
2. Which organisations administer state education in the UK? Is there any central government control over it? If so, how is it realised?
3. What is emphasised in teaching in the British system of education?
4. How does the division of the school year and school day in England and Wales differ from the situation here? Can you find any similarities?
5. What options do 16-year olds have after successfully passing the GCSE?

**Tasks 1:**

1. Characterise pre-school education in England and Wales.
2. Outline the state system of primary and secondary education in England and Wales, from 5 to 18 years of age. Include the pupils’ ages, the chief exams and subjects:
   - primary schools;
   - secondary schools;
   - full-time education after the age of 16;
   - education of children with SEN.

5.3 **The private system**

This system is independent of public funds, which means that tuition fees have to be paid. Private schools are attended by cca.7 per cent of British children. They provide education for the same age levels as the state system:

- **Private nurseries** and **nursery schools**.
- **Pre-preparatory schools** (ages: 4 to 8), which provide elementary education.
- **Preparatory schools** (ages: 8 to 13), which prepare pupils for studies at public schools. There are cca.2,500 of them in Britain.
- **Public schools** (ages: 13-18) are expensive, often boarding schools, many of them highly prestigious. There are cca.500 of them in Britain.

The oldest public schools, such as Winchester (1382) or Eton (1440), were founded in the Middle Ages with the aim to provide education for sons of rich members.
of the middle classes; at that time, they were really “public”.

Public schools are divided into houses. Each is looked after by a housemaster and senior students are prefects. In other respects, these schools have changed considerably in the past few decades:

- they are no longer only for boys; some are for girls, some are coeducational;
- many also admit day pupils and some are day schools only;
- there is less emphasis on team sports and more on academic achievement; as a result, many provide the best-quality tuition in the country.

**Higher education**

Higher education courses are taught in universities, further education colleges and the Open University.

### 5.4.1 Universities

Universities in Britain enjoy academic freedom: they appoint their own staff, decide which students to admit and award their own degrees.

Universities select students on the basis of A-level results and an interview. Most students have to pay fees because there are ever fewer grants. They usually spend 3 years at university to be awarded a Bachelor’s degree (BA = Bachelor of Arts; BSc = Bachelor of Science), but some courses (e.g. medical) require a longer study. Achieving a Master’s degree requires 1 to 2 years of study (MA; MSc), and a doctorate (PhD = Doctor of Philosophy) up to 3 years.

There are four types of universities in England and Wales; each group was founded in a different century:

- **Oxbridge**: Oxford (1167) and Cambridge (1284) are the oldest British universities. They differ from all others by being federations of semi-independent colleges, founded at different times. Each has its own staff (known as Fellows) and all admitted students must first be members of a particular college before becoming students of Oxford or Cambridge. Oxbridge has the lowest student-teacher ratio in Britain (tutorials: one Fellow is a tutor to five to six students).

- **Redbricks**: Universities founded in the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century (redbricks, called so as most of them were built of red brick), mostly in industrial towns and cities, to provide education in technical subjects. They are organised like continental universities, into faculties and departments.

- **Campus universities**: In the 1960s, a number of the so-called campus universities were constructed as compact sets of buildings. They were usually located in the countryside but close to towns (e.g. Sussex, Warwick or East Anglia). They have accommodation for most of their students on campus. They emphasise such academic disciplines as social sciences, as well as teaching in seminars.

- **Civic universities**: Civic universities were originally technical colleges that were granted university status between the 1960s and ‘90s. They are flexible with regard to studying arrangements (e.g. they offer sandwich courses, i.e. studies interrupted by periods of practice outside education).

### 5.4.2 Higher education colleges

These institutions are maintained by local councils. Some of them are specialised, such as art and design or agriculture colleges. Others offer a wider range of courses in different fields. They also vary in size, from under
500 to more than 10,000 students. Some award their own degrees and qualifications, while degrees and qualifications granted by others have to be validated by a university.

5.4.3 The Open University (OU)

This non-residential university was started in 1969. It offers degrees and other courses for adult students of all ages.

Teaching is through a combination of TV and radio programmes, audio and video cassettes and distance-learning methods. Some courses require short residential courses in the summer. There is a network of tutorial centres in Britain for contact with part-time tutors and with fellow students.

Students do not need formal academic qualification to register for most courses. OU degrees are comparable with those granted by residential universities.

Answer these questions 2:

1. How are public schools organised, and how did they change in the second half of the 20th century?
2. What is the status of universities?
3. How are students selected for admission to universities?
4. How long do the three different university courses last, and which degrees are awarded after their successful completion?
5. What is the Open University, who can study at it, and how is teaching organised there?
6. Which types of schools in England and Wales:
   a. are free?
   b. require tuition fees?
   c. are maintained by local authorities?
   d. are independent of local authorities?

Tasks 2:

1. Explain:
   a. the origin of the term public school.
   b. the difference between a university and a higher education college.
2. Explain these terms: a. coeducational school; b. boarding school; c. Fellow; d. tutorial; e. sandwich course; f. college (two meanings of the word); g. redbricks; h. campus.
3. Outline the British system of independent education, adding the pupils’ ages.
4. Compare the state and private systems of education in Britain: which differences and similarities can you find?

5. Characterise each of the four types of universities in Britain.

6. Outline the Czech system of education and compare it with the Anglo-Welsh system: which differences and similarities can you find?

7. Find information about public schools in the 19th century or more facts about Oxbridge. Prepare a short presentation for the next tutorial.

8. Prepare a handout for your pupils/students that you could use when teaching this topic. Decide which facts you will include, how you will arrange them and what sort of aids you could use. Have a sample copy ready for the next tutorial.

This chapter deals with education in England and Wales. You have learned about the types of state and private schools, colleges and universities, including their organisation and financing, as well as examinations and awarded certificates and grades.

You have also been guided to comparing the Anglo-Welsh system of education with the system you are a part of.

I do hope you’ve found this chapter not only comparatively easy but also interesting, because you’ve had an opportunity to compare a system you’ve got a first-hand knowledge of with a system used in the country whose language and culture you teach.

If you happen to have studied at a British school, college or university, I and your colleagues would be grateful to you if you prepared a short, informal talk about your experiences for our tutorial.

Further reading:


6: THE WELFARE SYSTEM IN THE UK

In this chapter you will learn about:

- the beginnings of the British welfare system;
- its operation in four main parts;
- its funding and administration;
- voluntary organisations that cooperate with local and central authorities.

After studying this chapter, you will be able to:

- understand how the UK welfare system works;
- comprehend how it is financed and administered;
- understand and explain why it struggles with difficulties;
- realise how it compares with the Czech welfare system;
- choose relevant and appropriate facts for your pupils/students to learn.

Key words: welfare, national insurance, benefit, health service, charity

Time for study: 2-3 hours

Setting up the British welfare state

Britain is the first large country in the world to have set up the so-called welfare state, i.e. a state that takes care of all citizens who are not able to look after themselves because they are too young, too old, ill, disabled or unemployed.

After modest beginnings in the 1900s and in the 1930s, a commission headed by William Beveridge prepared a set of recommendations in 1942, which were turned into law by the Labour Government in 1948. At the beginning, the whole system was free of charge.

The two parts of the welfare system

6.2.1 The System of National Insurance (NI)

The system aims to secure a basic standard of living for people in financial need. The ministries responsible are the Department for Social Security and the Department of Employment.

The social security programme gains income from three sources:

- general taxation provides over half the necessary income;
- employers’ contributions (cca. a quarter);
- employees’ contributions (cca. a fifth).

This money is paid to the National Insurance Fund, from which individual benefits are paid.

The chief social security benefits are:
• **State Retirement Pensions** are taxable weekly benefits. They are payable to women from the age of 60 and men from the age of 65. As older people represent the fastest growing section of the community and old-age pensions make up nearly half the total security benefit expenditure, pension age for women will gradually have moved up by the year 2010.

The government pension is not very high. Pensioners may therefore have unlimited earnings that do not affect their pensions. During their working lives, people may also contribute to a pension fund organised by a private company. Besides, they can take a life insurance policy with an insurance company as a form of saving.

• **Jobseekers’ Allowances** (JSA) are benefits for unemployed people who must be capable of work and seek it actively. They are paid weekly for up to six months, but their recipients can benefit from a Back to Work Bonus: this is intended to encourage people to take up part-time work; if they move off JSA because they earn more or work longer hours, they can claim a tax-free lump sum of up to £1,000.

• **Income Support** is payable to those who are:
  - not entitled to either a pension or JSA, because they have not previously worked long enough or they have been unemployed for a longer time;
  - single parents, pensioners, disabled people and others with especially low incomes.

![Social Security Benefit Expenditure in the UK, 2000-2001](chart)

All claimants must go through a means test to prove the level of their income and/or savings. Besides regular monthly payments, Income Support can take other forms, e.g. help with rent.

• **Benefits for families** include:
  - *Child Benefits*, i.e. a tax-free weekly payment for children up to the age of 16 (19 if they continue in full-time non-advanced education; in 2000, it was £15 for the eldest child and £10 for each other one). Orphans are entitled to Guardian Allowance.
Most pregnant working women receive Statutory Maternity Pay (SMP) from their employer for a maximum of 18 weeks. Women who cannot get SMP because they are self-employed or have recently left their job, may get a weekly Maternity Allowance; it is based on average earnings and also paid for up to 18 weeks.

Widows under the age of 60 receive a tax-free single Widow’s Payment of £1,000, provided their late husbands have paid a minimum number of NI contributions. Widowed Mother’s Allowance is payable to widows with at least one child. Widows who are 55 and over get Widow’s Pensions.

- **Sickness and disability benefits:**
  - Employers are responsible for paying Statutory Sick Pay to employees from their fourth day of sickness for up to 28 weeks. Then they undergo the medical test of incapacity and if the illness lasts longer, they can receive:
    - *Incapacity Benefit*, provided they have paid enough NI contributions, or else
    - *Severe Disablement Allowance*, paid weekly.

Additions for children and adult dependants may also be paid, and other types of disability allowances are available.

Besides financial help, personal social services are administered by local authorities, often in co-operation with charities. Help is provided for:

- older and disabled people (e.g. domestic help or provision of meals in the home);
- people with mental health problems;
- children and young people with learning disabilities (cf.5.2.5);
- families (e.g. counselling, help in the home, day care for children etc.).

![Local Authorities Social Services](image)
Answer these questions 1:
1. When was the welfare state set up in Britain, and with what objectives?
2. Which three sources is the social security programme financed from?
3. Which are the five main social security benefits, and who are they payable to?
4. At what age do men and women retire in the UK, and how is this going to change?
5. In what ways can British people raise their income after retiring?
6. How long do these people get their benefits:
   a. the unemployed?
   b. parents with children?
   c. ill people?
7. How does the British government encourage unemployed people to move back into employment?
8. What sort of people need personal social services, and who are they administered by?

For reflection 1:
1. Why do you think it was soon after World War II that the British welfare state was set up?
2. Which group of social security benefits requires most money and why?
3. Why are, in your opinion, the means test and the medical test of incapacity necessary?

6.2.2 The National Health Service (NHS) system

The NHS system was set up in 1948, like the system of social security. It is organised centrally: the Department of Health is directly responsible for the NHS, which is administered by health authorities and health boards throughout the UK.

Financing:
The NHS system is financed through:
- general taxation (nearly 80 per cent of all costs);
• NI contributions paid by employed and self-employed people and
employers, because medical insurance is compulsory.

As the system proved too expensive, some *charges* were gradually introduced:
• a charge for every prescription;
• charges for most types of NHS dental treatment;
• sight tests and glasses.
Several groups of people, however, do not have to pay these charges, e.g. those with very low incomes.

*General practitioners* (GPs) are at the heart of the NHS system.
Everybody has to register with a local NHS GP. The GP can send his or her patients to specialists, tests, screening or a hospital. Most GPs work in a ‘group practice’: this allows them to save money by sharing waiting rooms and receptionists.

The British NHS system struggles with the same *difficulties* as the equivalent systems in other countries. The number of old people has increased as dramatically as the cost of equipment and operations. As a result, the system can hardly cope: there is a shortage of nurses, sometimes hygiene is neglected or doctors have to decide which patients should get the limited resources; this can mean putting people on waiting lists for operations.

The British government has already implemented *reforms*; their purpose is to make the NHS more cost-efficient, e.g.:
• hospitals can become registered charities or self-governing trusts;
• GPs can control their own budgets; the way they are paid has also changed: the amount of money they get from the government depends on the number of registered patients now (= the *capitation allowance*).

As more and more people take private medical insurance schemes, the NHS entered into closer co-operation with the *private health sector*: e.g., NHS hospitals can boost their budgets by taking private patients, and some of them share expensive equipment with private hospitals.

**Charitable organisations**

Charitable organisations are staffed by unpaid *volunteers*, mostly women, and they are financed from voluntary contributions.

There are over 150,000 *registered charities* in the UK today. Among the best-known are:
• The *Samaritans*: this organisation provides free counselling by phone to people in despair.
• The *Salvation Army* was founded in the 19th century to do Christian missionary work in London. Nowadays, it offers help to the most needy, especially the homeless.
• *Barnardo’s* helps children in need.

Health and social services departments of local authorities co-operate with charities, e.g.:
- the *meals-on-wheels* system: food is cooked by local authority staff and then distributed by volunteers;
- the officers of the *Citizens Advice Bureau*, which is financed jointly by local authorities and the central government, are staffed by volunteers.

**Answer these questions 2:**

1. How is the NHS system organised?
2. Which two sources is it financed from?
3. What are the causes and consequences of the difficulties that the British NHS system is struggling with?
4. Which three charges have been introduced in the system?
5. Which reforms have been implemented to make the British NHS system cost-efficient again?
6. How do local health and social services departments co-operate with charities?

**For reflection 2:**

1. Why can it be said that “GPs are at the heart of the NHS system”? Do you think they enjoy the same prestige and trust as specialists?
2. Why do, in your opinion, ever more people take private medical insurance schemes?
3. Why do you think the introduction of the capitation allowance may lead to greater cost-efficiency?

**Tasks:**

1. Outline the structure of the British welfare system.
2. Find out information about the *Czech* welfare system and compare the two systems: how far are they similar or different?
3. Only a few examples of social services for older and disabled people and families, and of co-operation between the NHS and private health service sector are given in the chapter. Try to find more.
4. Explain these terms: a. welfare state; b. benefit (two meanings); c. guardian; d. cost-efficient system; e. charity; f. meals-on-wheels.
5. Find out more information about one of the charities active in the UK. Prepare a short presentation for the next tutorial.
6. Go through the chapter again and consider the facts presented there from the point of view of your pupils or students. Would the topic be suitable for their age group and knowledge level as a whole? If not, should they be informed about selected facts at least? Which ones? How would you present the topic or the selected facts? Be prepared to discuss these questions in the tutorial.
This chapter deals with the welfare system in the UK. You have become acquainted with its beginning and structure, its financing and administration and with the fact that a number of charities as well as the private health sector co-operate with this state-organised system.

You have also been guided to make a comparison of the UK welfare system with the Czech one.

Further reading:


7: THE RELIGIOUS SCENE IN THE UK

In this chapter you will learn about:

• the character of the religious scene in the UK;
• the main Christian churches and groups active in the UK;
• the organisation and character of the state church;
• non-Christian religions active in the UK.

After studying this chapter, you will be able to:

• understand the difference between the established and Free churches;
• understand the difference between the terms Protestant, Anglican, Catholic, episcopal and presbyterian, and to explain them to your pupils / students;
• understand the character of individual churches and religious communities in the UK and distinguish the similarities and differences between them;
• decide which facts to teach your pupils / students and how to present them.

Key words: religion, church, sect, Anglican, Catholic, (non-)Christian

Time for study: cca.2 hours

7.1 The character of the religious scene in the UK

21st-century Britain is a multi-faith society. Everyone has the right to religious freedom. The active participation in organised religion is, however, not very high (cca.8 million active members of religions in 2000) and it has a decreasing tendency.

Yet, surveys have revealed that nearly three-quarters of the population believe in God and most people agree with compulsory religious instruction at schools. There is a general tolerance and no widespread anti-clericalism, but no “Christian” political party either.

Besides Christian churches, there are large non-Christian religious communities. Both groups are actively involved in voluntary work and both provide social services.

Two churches have a special status with regard to the state although no church is financed by the state:

• the Church of England is the official, or established, Church; it is subject to Parliament;
• the Church of Scotland had the same status until the early 20th century. Since then it has been completely self-governing, though it is recognised as the national Church of Scotland.

There is no established church in Wales or Northern Ireland.
In all parts of the UK, state schools must provide religious education, but parents can withdraw their children from religious classes. Churches also run their own schools.

In England and Wales state schools must also provide a daily act of collective worship. In Scotland children are encouraged to get acquainted with Christianity and other world religions and to develop their own beliefs. In Northern Ireland all schools must be open to pupils of all religions.

7.2 The established Protestant churches

7.2.1 The Church of England

The Anglican Church of England became the established church during the Reformation in the 16th century. Its doctrine was set out in the 39 Articles under Elizabeth I, and its forms of services are now contained in the book called Common Worship.

The church has an episcopal character: it has a hierarchy of archbishops and bishops. The monarch is the ‘Supreme Governor’ (or formal head) of the Church, though the real head, or the primate of England, is the archbishop of Canterbury. Its organisation is as follows:

```
THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND
   THE PROVINCE OF CANTERBURY  THE PROVINCE OF YORK
      (both headed by an archbishop)
   30 DIOCESES       14 DIOCESES
      (each headed by a bishop)
   ARCHDEACONRIES + DEANERIES
      (headed by archdeacons and deans)
   PARISHES
      (vicars + curates in large ones)
```

The Church can regulate its own worship. Its central governing and legislative body is the General Synod, while the central co-ordinating body is the Archbishops’ Council. It deals with inter-church relations, social and various administrative questions. The Crown appoints the Church dignitaries.

The first women priests were ordained in 1994. Their number grows but they cannot be appointed bishops or archbishops.

This church prevails in England.

There are three main strands of belief within the church of England:

- The ‘High Church’, or Anglo-Catholics are virtually identical with Catholicism, except for the fact that they do not recognise the Pope as their head. They prefer more colourful services with organ music and elaborate vestments (i.e. robes) for their priests.
- The ‘Low Church’ is opposed to Catholicism. It prefers plain services with a minimum of ceremony, it stresses reading the Bible and it criticises the hierarchical structure of the Church.
The ‘Broad Church’ is a liberal wing, willing to question some of the traditional Christian beliefs. It is highly tolerant, even towards homosexuality.

7.2.2 The Church of Scotland (the “Kirk”)

This church became the national church in Scotland after the Scottish Reformation in the late 16th century. It has a presbyterian form of government. It means that the church is governed by church councils composed of ministers, elders and deacons instead of bishops and archbishops. Both men and women can become ministers in parishes. The elected General Assembly is the supreme council. It meets annually and elects the head of the “Kirk” called Moderator. The Calvinist tradition is strong in this church.

If you haven’t taken a rest since you started studying this chapter, it’s time to do it now. After you’ve refreshed yourself, go through the first part of this chapter again. Has everything been clearly explained? Would you like to know more about any point? Take notes of these points if necessary and then do the exercises.

Answer these questions 1:
1. What is the British people’s attitude to religion?
2. How do you understand the term established church?
3. Which churches have this status in the UK? Is there an equivalent of established churches in the Czech Republic?
4. What sort(s) of activity are churches and religious groups in the UK involved in, besides religious matters?
5. What is the connection between the Anglican Church and the British government?
6. What have the Church of England and the Church of Scotland in common and how do they differ?

7.3 Free Protestant Churches

The term Free Churches is used for those Protestant churches in the UK that broke away from the established churches in the course of centuries. Their members have also been known as dissenters or nonconformists, because the structure and forms of worship in these churches is more informal. Though their doctrines and government may vary, all of them stress individual silent prayer and studying the Bible; they also reject pursuing “worldly pleasures”. All have ministers of both sexes.

The major Free Churches are:

• The Methodist Church, the largest of the Free Churches. It was founded by John Wesley in the 18th century, and the Salvation Army grew out of the Wesleyan movement in the 19th century. The present Church is a union of a number of separate
Methodist Churches. It has a democratic organisation and uses lay preachers. It prevails in some parts of Wales.

- The **Baptists** (founded in the 17th century) are mainly organised in groups of churches belonging to the Baptist Union of Great Britain. They prefer adult baptism.

- The third largest Free Church is the **United Reformed Church** (founded in 1972). Its origins can be traced back to the Puritans of the 16th century. Its doctrine and worship are closely related to the Scottish “Kirk”.

- The **Religious Society of Friends** (popularly called Quakers) was also founded in the 17th century. It has no ordained ministers and no formal liturgy. A great emphasis is placed on social concern (e.g. voluntary work in prisons). Both Baptists and Quakers are pacifists who reject service in the army and taking oaths.

There are numerous other Free Churches.

### 7.4 The Roman Catholic Church

The formal structure of this church, which was suppressed after the Reformation, was restored in 1850. Its organisation is similar to that of the Anglican Church, which kept it after the Reformation, but the word “priest” is used for Catholic ministers. The head of the British Roman Catholic Church is the **Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster**.

Today, Catholics make up over 10 per cent of the population. The ratio between Protestants and Catholics is different in Northern Ireland: 54 to 42.

Catholics attend services more frequently than Anglicans, and religious instruction is taken more seriously at Catholic schools.

### 7.5 Non-Christian religious communities

The numerous immigrants brought various non-Christian religions to the UK in the course of centuries. The largest of these communities are:

- The **Buddhist** community, which has followers both of Western and Asian origin. There are over 500 Buddhist groups and centres, including cca.50 monasteries and temples in the UK.

- The **Hindu** community originates mostly from India and some African states, but the faith also has British followers. There are cca.120 Hindu temples in the UK.

- The **Jewish** community is made up of Jews whose forefathers came to England centuries ago, plus 19th- and 20th-century immigrants from the continent of Europe, especially from Russia and Germany. There are cca.365 Jewish congregations in the UK today.

- The **Muslim** community mostly consists of Muslims who came to Britain from Muslim Asian and African countries. There are over 1,000 mosques and numerous Muslim community centres throughout the UK.

### 7.6 New religious movements

A number of new religious movements that have been established since World War II are active in the UK.

The movement that combines elements of Christianity, eastern religions, but also Druidism and other ancient pagan beliefs is called “**New Age**”. It emphasises personal spiritual development and respect for the natural environment. A recent development is the rise of **Pentecostalism**: it is organised into a number of loose fellowships that are led by laymen, not...
ordained priests; it also emphasises the power to heal the sick and other gifts from God, and celebrates them in enthusiastic services.

Some cults have, however, a bad reputation because of their efforts to achieve complete control over their followers.

It seems that Catholicism, Pentecostalism and eastern faiths are more attractive for British people than the Protestant religions.

**Answer these questions 2:**

1. Which three features do the Free Churches have in common?
2. Which are the four major Free Churches and what is typical of each of them?
3. Which recent developments are apparent on the British religious scene?
4. What do the Roman Catholic Church and the Anglican Church have in common? How do they differ?
5. Which churches allow women to become ministers?
6. Which churches have a more democratic form of government? What does this character consist in?
7. Which are the chief non-Christian religious communities? Which of them is the largest?
8. Which religions do these places of worship belong to?
   a. a mosque;
   b. a church;
   c. a temple;
   d. a synagogue.

**For reflection:**

1. How do you understand the terms Free Churches or nonconformists? Free from what or who? Not conforming to what or who?
2. Why do you think Catholicism, Pentecostalism and eastern faiths seem to be more attractive for British people than the Protestant religions?
3. What is your opinion of compulsory religious education in state schools? Would you introduce it into Czech state schools? Why (not)?

**Tasks:**

1. Briefly characterise the three strands of belief within the Church of England. Then find out whether any of them are close to some other churches active in Britain.
2. Explain these terms: a. episcopal; b. presbyterian; c. Druidism; d. “worldly pleasures”; e. dissenter; f. hierarchical structure.
3. Find out more information about:
   a. any church active in the UK;
b. any non-Christian religion mentioned in this chapter;
c. the Czech religious scene.

Prepare a short presentation about one of the topics above.

4. Consider which facts presented in this chapter your pupils / students should know. How would you present them in class? Be prepared to discuss the problem in the tutorial.

Correspondence task 3:

Choose one topic from the tasks for highly interested students in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, and write up to 300 words about it.

In this chapter, you have been informed about the major established and Free Christian churches and non-Christian religious communities active in the UK. You have learned about the Anglican Church in greater detail, because it is the most numerous religious group in the UK. You have also learned about the British attitude to religion.

Hopefully, the more chapters you’ve covered, the easier it is for you to study this subject – am I right? By now, you’ve got acquainted with general vocabulary, and there aren’t many new expressions in individual chapters. Just remember to revise: you already know how important it is. You’ve been reminded of the UK system of government in this chapter: why not revise it again? Don’t forget, it’s one of the most complicated topics.

Further reading:


8: MASS MEDIA IN THE UK

In this chapter you will learn about:

- the popularity of individual mass media in the UK;
- the leading newspapers and periodicals, radio stations and TV channels and their character;
- who owns and finances them;
- the relations between the media and government authorities;
- the British press agency.

After studying this chapter, you will be able to:

- understand the differences between various types of newspapers and periodicals;
- understand the difference between public service and commercial broadcasters in the UK;
- perceive the differences and similarities between the British and Czech media;
- teach this topic more effectively.

Key words: periodical, quality and popular papers, radio station, TV channel

Time for study: 2-3 hours

The Press

The British are the world’s third biggest newspaper buyers (after the Japanese and the Swedes): over 80 per cent of all British households buy a paper every day. In spite of this, there is a gradual decline in newspaper circulation, as a result of competition from other media, especially television.

Newspapers are owned by large multinational corporations. A considerable addition to their sales profit is money earned from advertising.

All papers are financially independent of political parties, but each one expresses a certain political outlook (see below). The press is also free from governmental control.
The national news agency of the UK and Irish Republic is called the Press Association. It supplies periodicals and broadcast media with news and photographs of all sorts.

Periodicals are bought from newsagents’ or delivered to people’s homes by paper boys/girls. Many papers are printed in colour and have extensive supplements, especially their Saturday and Sunday editions.

8.1.1 The national press

There are ten morning daily papers and ten Sunday papers that are available across the country, though they may have regional editions. Most of them have their editorial and printing offices in London, though no longer in the Fleet Street area, the former centre of journalism. Even if some Sunday papers have their “sisters” among the dailies, they employ separate staffs. Sunday papers have higher circulations than dailies.

National papers fall into three broad categories which differ in style, content and partly also appearance:

- **Five dailies and four Sundays** can be described as quality papers: they are directed at better educated readers who want full and reliable information on a wide range of public matters. Though they are still called “broadsheets” because of their large size, some of them appear in the “tabloid” or compact form, just half the original size, today.

- **Mid-market papers** cater for the intermediate readership.

- **Popular papers** appeal to those readers who prefer shorter, entertaining stories with more human interest, which often means sex and scandal. They also try to attract potential readers by larger headlines and more pictures.

Newspaper publishers are primarily interested in attracting as many readers as possible, in order to achieve higher circulations and profits. That is why not even quality papers can ignore “human interest stories”, though they still contain high quality articles that present factual information in a reliable way.

As there is no censorship in the UK, a policy of press self-regulation operates there: complaints about “invasions of privacy” are dealt with by the Press Complaints Commission made up of newspaper editors and journalists.

A LIST OF LEADING NATIONAL DAILY AND SUNDAY PAPERS
(the figures in brackets are the circulation figures in thousands):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DAILIES: QUALITY</th>
<th>LEFT</th>
<th>CENTRE</th>
<th>RIGHT</th>
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<td>The Guardian (cca 400)</td>
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<td>The Financial Times (cca 460)</td>
<td>The Independent (cca 225)</td>
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<td>The Times (over 722)</td>
<td>The Daily Telegraph (over 1,030)</td>
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<td>MID-MARKET</td>
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<td>The Daily Mail (cca 2,390)</td>
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8.1.2 Regional papers

Character

Most towns and cities in the UK have their own regional or local papers: they are morning and evening dailies, Sunday papers or weeklies. They mainly deal with local matters, but the dailies also cover national and international news.

Circulation

Generally, regional papers have lower circulation than national ones. Those with the highest circulation are published in Scotland (e.g. The Daily Record or The Sunday Mail, Glasgow) or evening papers (e.g. The Evening Standard, London).

8.1.3 Other periodical publications

These periodicals can be divided into:

- **Popular magazines**: They offer readers leisure-time information and entertainment. The top-selling weeklies are, e.g. Radio Times (it lists TV and radio programmes for the coming week and contains over 50 pages of articles), Reader’s Digest or women’s titles (e.g. Take and Break).

- **Business and professional titles**: They may appear weekly, monthly or quarterly. Some of the high-quality journals of opinion are The Economist (right-wing), which comments on political events, business and science; or The New Statesman (left-wing), which reviews social issues, politics, literature and arts. Private Eye is a satirical fortnightly, which specialises in political scandal.

Based on: O’Driscoll’s Britain, pp. 152-153
2. What is the relation between the press on the one hand, and the state and political parties on the other?

3. What is the name of the British and Irish national news agency?

4. Is Fleet Street still the centre of British journalism?

5. Is The Sunday Times the Sunday edition of The Times – or a separate paper?

6. How does the content of national papers differ from that of regional ones?

7. Which are the three categories of national dailies and the two types of periodicals? How do they differ?

For reflection 1:
1. Why do you think television influences newspaper circulation in a negative way?

2. Why do Sunday papers have higher circulation than dailies?

3. What sort of people do you think mid-market papers cater for?

4. What are the duties of the Press Complaints Commission? Why do you think it can be called “a self-regulatory” body?

Tasks 1:
1. Make sure that you understand the expressions below. If you are not sure, check their exact meanings in a good English-English dictionary:
   a. periodical – journal – magazine – newspaper;
   b. national / regional / daily / Sunday paper;
   c. quarterly;
   d. newsagent’s – news agency;
   e. newspaper supplement.

2. Make a survey of the British press. Consider the ownership, the political leanings, the main types of papers and their character.

3. Study the survey of the selected British papers and periodicals: which ones have the highest circulation and why?

Television and radio

Three public authorities supervise TV and radio services:

- the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC): it broadcasts TV and radio programmes;
- the Independent Television Commission (ITC): it licenses and regulates commercial TV services, including BBC commercial services;
• Radio Authority

The Radio Authority: it licences and regulates commercial radio services.

These three authorities are independent in their day to day work, though they are accountable to Parliament. The Department for Culture, Media and Sport is responsible for government policy towards broadcasting.

Since 1998, digital terrestrial and satellite TV services have provided all existing analogue programmes in a digital format. Digital radio services have been available since 1999.

Television Audience Figures in the year 2000

8.2.1 The BBC

Financing

It is the UK’s main public service broadcaster. Its services are financed almost entirely from licence fees that all households or premises with a TV set must buy annually. This is the reason why there is no advertising on the BBC. This income is supplemented from the commercial activities of BBC Worldwide, an international broadcaster, distributor and coproducer of BBC programmes.

The government decides the level of the licence fee; it appoints the BBC’s board of governors; theoretically, it can also veto any programme before it is transmitted but in reality, the BBC is independent of government interference.

The BBC has a deserved reputation for impartiality and objectivity in news reporting.

BBC Television:

A. BBC Television has two national networks:

• BBC ONE
  - BBC ONE (set up in 1936) broadcasts programmes of general interest, such as news broadcasts, drama and light entertainment (e.g. soap operas, sport, religious and children’s programmes).

• BBC TWO
  - BBC TWO (set up in 1964) offers serious drama and music, educational programmes (e.g. for the Open University) and the like; it is especially famous for excellent documentaries and dramatisations of great literary works.

The Corporation also provides a range of digital channels, e.g. BBC NEWS 24, which is a 24-hour news channel, or BBC KNOWLEDGE, a multimedia learning service.
B. **BBC Network Radio** operates five radio stations:

- **RADIO 1** is a music station for young audiences.
- **RADIO 2** offers light entertainment, documentaries and popular programmes like chat shows.
- **RADIO 3** covers serious drama, classical and jazz music, documentaries and discussion.
- **RADIO 4** offers similar programmes to BBC ONE plus parliamentary coverage and BBC World Service overnight.
- **RADIO 5 LIVE** mostly broadcasts news and sports coverage.

Radio broadcasting started in 1922, and the **BBC WORLD SERVICE** in 1932. It broadcasts in English and 42 other languages to the whole world. Its fame is international due to the principle of democracy and free speech, with which it became identified during World War II and the Cold War in the second half of the 20th century.

8.2.2 **Independent broadcasting**

Independent broadcasting is financed from advertising.

A. **Independent Television** (ITV: since 1945)

The main **independent TV companies** are:

- **ITV (CHANNEL 3)** is made up of 15 regionally based TV companies. They are licensed to supply programmes in 14 independent television geographical regions. Programmes are broadcast 24 hours a day throughout the country. Each company plans the content of the programmes that are to be broadcast in its area. As the companies cannot afford to make all their programmes, they share those which they make. A common news service is provided by **Independent Television News** (ITN). The two largest regional ITV (Channel 3) TV companies are **Granada Media** and **Carlton**.

- **CHANNEL 4** (since 1982) provides a national 24-hour TV service, although Wales has its own corresponding service (**S4C**, i.e. Sianel Pedwar Cymru). It provides programmes not generally offered by ITV (Channel 3), such as educational programmes (except Open University programmes), experimental and serious drama or “in-depth” news programmes.

- **CHANNEL 5** went on air in 1997 and it mainly focuses on entertainment, though it makes all other types of programme too.

  The **Gaelic Broadcasting Committee** ensures that a wide range of quality TV and radio programmes is broadcast in Gaelic for reception in Scotland.

B. **Independent Radio**

At present, there are three independent **national radio services**:

- **CLASSIC FM**: it broadcasts mainly classical music, together with news and information;
• **VIRGIN 1215**: it plays rock music;
• **TALK SPORT**: it is a speech-based service.

Besides the national services, there are independent *local stations* that mostly broadcast programmes and news of local interest, as well as music, advertising etc.

Due to the ever-growing competition between the BBC and ITV, the BBC had to lower the level of its programmes somewhat in order to attract viewers and listeners: e.g. *soap operas* appear on both the BBC and ITV channels and radio stations because the BBC want to prove that they can do the same type of programme better.

There is an interesting difference between British and US *soap operas*: while the American ones show the lives of rich and powerful people, British ones mostly deal with lower-middle or working class people (e.g. ITV’s “Coronation Street” or “The Archers”, the longest running radio soap opera in the world).

**Answer these questions 2:**

1. Which three public authorities supervise TV and radio services in the UK?
2. How does the BBC depend on the government?
3. How are the BBC and ITV financed? Is there any advertising in the BBC? Why (not)?
4. What is BBC WORLDWIDE?
5. How does the programme composition of BBC ONE differ from that of BBC TWO?
6. Which are the main independent TV companies? What differences can you find between them?
7. Which radio station would you tune in to if you wanted to listen to:
   a. classical music?
   b. chat shows?
   c. rock music?
   d. sports news?
8. What is ITV (Channel 3) made up of?
9. What is the Independent Television News, and which are the largest ITV (Channel 3) companies?
10. Do British media also broadcast in other languages than English?

**For reflection 2:**

1. The BBC is the dominant force in British broadcasting. What do you think helped it to achieve its position?
2. How did the BBC World Service acquire international fame?
3. Which channels can be called “the main promoters of learning and culture” in the UK?
4. What are the reasons for the slightly declining quality of BBC programmes and quality papers?
Tasks 2:

1. Explain these terms: a. public service broadcaster; b. licence fee; c. “in-depth” news programme; d. soap opera; e. ITC – ITV – ITN.

2. Make a survey of the BBC and ITV channels and radio stations. Briefly characterise each of them.

3. Make a similar survey of Czech radio stations and TV channels, and add a brief characterisation to each. Then compare the two systems and try to find differences and similarities.

4. Get hold of some British newspapers and periodicals (e.g. one quality and one popular periodical or paper) and prepare their description and characterisation for a short presentation. Be ready to compare it with Czech papers and periodicals of the same type.

5. This topic may be interesting for your pupils / students. Consider which facts you would consider appropriate for their age group and knowledge level; how you would present them in class and what aids you could use. Be prepared to discuss the problem in the tutorial.

In this chapter, you have been informed about the press and the broadcast media in the UK. You have studied the names, content and character of the leading papers and periodicals, radio stations and TV channels, and all the related facts.

You have also been guided to compare the British media with the Czech ones.

Has this chapter been interesting for you as well as for your pupils or students? I do hope so. You surely knew many facts even before you started studying it, and the text has helped you to complement and systematise what you already knew. But don’t forget to revise. The Open University has been mentioned in this chapter: a good opportunity to revise Chapter 5, which deals with education.

I hope the brief surveys you’re asked to make in each chapter help you when you revise the covered parts of the course.

Further reading:


9: CULTURAL LIFE AND SPORT IN THE UK

In this chapter you will learn about:

- the government’s policy towards culture and sport;
- the leading cultural institutions and activities;
  - theatres, opera houses, orchestras and choirs;
  - cinemas and film making;
  - museums and art galleries;
  - libraries;
  - art festivals;
- the major sports.

After studying this chapter, you will be able to:

- understand how culture and sporting activities are financed and which institutions are responsible for them;
- inform your pupils / students about the leading British arts organisations and the sports popular in the UK;
- understand the attitude of the British people to culture and sport;
- teach this topic more effectively.

Key words: culture, theatre, film, music, arts, literature, sport

Time for study: 2-3 hours

9.1 Administration and financing of culture and sport

The Department for Culture, Media and Sport, together with the National Assemblies for Wales and Northern Ireland and the Scottish Parliament, have responsibilities for the arts organisations and sport in the UK. The independent Arts Councils of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, and Regional Arts Boards at the local level, distribute government funds to arts organisations. Five Sports Councils do the same for sport and recreation. Other sources of finance are proceeds from the National Lottery and business and other sponsoring.

Over 200 Arts Centres in the UK enable people to see a range of specialist art and to take part in educational projects and other activities. The British Council, on the other hand, promotes international understanding of British arts, literature, design, education and science. It also encourages the knowledge and understanding of arts from other countries in the UK.

Thirteen National Sports Centres ensure that sporting opportunities are available to everybody; they also encourage greater success for the top sportsmen and sportswomen. Individual sports are run by over 410
independent governing bodies; it is, however, local authorities that provide sports facilities and playing fields for the local communities.

9.2 Drama and film

A. Drama: There are about 300 professional theatres in the UK. Some of them are privately owned, but most belong to local authorities or to non-profit-making organisations. About one third of the theatres are in London, mostly in the West End. The leading ones are:

THE ROYAL NATIONAL THEATRE (founded in 1963): it stages modern and classical plays in its three auditoriums on the South Bank.

The BARBICAN CENTRE, with two auditoriums. For half the year, it is home to the Royal Shakespeare Company from Stratford. It offers a varied drama programme for the other half of the year.

THE ROYAL COURT THEATRE in Sloane Square specializes in new work. It is home to the English Stage Company.

SHAKESPEARE’S GLOBE has attracted many spectators since its opening in 1996. It has developed into a centre for Shakespearean studies.

There are also theatres in other large cities, besides national touring companies and theatres for young people. Amateur dramatics is one of the chief pastimes in Britain.

B. Film: The Film Council (founded in 2000) distributes the majority of public funding for film production in the UK. The development of film as an art form is promoted by the British Film Institute. Among other activities, it runs the NATIONAL FILM THEATRE on the South Bank and
the annual London Film Festival. It also supports newer film festivals in the UK.

Cinemas

New cinemas have been built, especially multiplex ones. The number of feature films made with UK participation has been rising, as Britain excels in the digital technologies of film making.

Film making

9.3 Music

Attitude to music

In the UK more people attend live music performances than football matches. They also enjoy listening to music recorded on CDs or audio cassettes. Classical music is, however, a minority interest: while many musical bodies and soloists have international reputation, few are well known to the general public in the UK.

Orchestras

London leads the world for the wide range of music available throughout the year: London can boast of four symphony orchestras (e.g. THE LONDON SYMPHONY ORCHESTRA is world famous) and two BBC ORCHESTRAS; THE ROYAL OPERA HOUSE and THE ROYAL BALLET at Covent Garden, which stages operas in the original language, and THE ENGLISH NATIONAL OPERA in the London Coliseum, where operas are sung in English; and a number of chamber orchestras. Many British choirs have an international reputation; Wales is famous for its male voice choirs.

Concert halls

The largest London concert hall is the Royal Festival Hall on the South Bank. The Royal Albert Hall in Kensington is home of the famous Promenade Concerts or “Proms”, an annual season of concerts of serious music started by Henry Wood in 1895.

Music outside London

The prominent orchestras and opera companies outside London are, e.g., THE CITY OF BIRMINGHAM ORCHESTRA and THE HALLE in Manchester. The WELSH and SCOTTISH NATIONAL OPERAS or GLYNDEBOURNE OPERA in East Sussex, which also organises a festival of opera lasting from May till August.

Choral music

Folk and traditional music has always been strong in all parts of the UK. Music such as pop and rock, jazz and blues is popular with audiences throughout the country too.

9.4 Festivals

Types of festivals

Some 500 professional arts festivals take place in the UK every year. Besides music festivals that offer music of all sorts, there are many literature and film festivals and also festivals concentrating on poetry and visual arts.

Renowned ones

Some of the renowned festivals are:

- THE EDINBURGH INTERNATIONAL FESTIVAL, held in August and September, concentrates on opera, dance, drama, music (including jazz and rock) and the so-called “Fringe”: it offers programmes that suit all tastes (including street events).
- THE THREE CHOIRS FESTIVAL, the oldest choral festival in Europe as it was founded in 1724. It is held in August and rotates between Hereford, Gloucester and Worcester.
• THE ROYAL NATIONAL EISTEDDFOD [aiˈsteðfɔd], held in August and alternating each year between south and north Wales. It is a Welsh national festival of music, literature and drama, conducted entirely in Welsh.

• THE GLASTONBURY FESTIVAL (Somerset) of pop and rock, held in June.

You haven’t been put off by the numerous names and dates mentioned in the text, have you? They aren’t meant to be learned by heart, but to give you a better idea of the situation and to make it possible for you to compare facts and events.

When you’ve had a rest and refreshed yourself, go through subchapters 9.1-3 again and you’ll see how easy it’ll be for you to do the exercises that follow!

Answer these questions 1:

1. Which government bodies are responsible for culture and sporting activities in the UK?

2. What is the difference in function and status between Arts and Sports Councils, Arts Boards and Arts and Sports Centres?

3. What sources are they financed from?

4. Where in the UK are the majority of arts organisations concentrated?

5. Which festivals concentrate on:
   a. choral music?
   b. drama and opera?
   c. pop and rock?
   d. Welsh art and literature?

For reflection 1:

1. How does, in your opinion, the British Council promote “international understanding of British culture, science and education abroad and at home”?

Task 1:

1. Name the leading British
   • theatres;
   • opera houses;
   • orchestras and concert halls;
   • festivals.
9.5 Museums and art galleries

In the UK, there are about 2,500 museums and galleries open to the public and financed chiefly from government funds; about 1,000 independent museums and 800 art institutions receive support from local authorities or universities.

The national museums and art galleries contain some of the world’s most comprehensive collections of objects of artistic, archaeological, scientific, historical and general interest. The leading London ones are:

- **THE BRITISH MUSEUM** (founded in 1753) contains exhibits from all countries and ages, especially one of the world’s richest collections of antiquities.
- **THE VICTORIA AND ALBERT MUSEUM** specialises in fine and decorative arts.
- **THE NATURAL HISTORY MUSEUM** has five major departments: zoology, entomology, paleontology with anthropology, botany and mineralogy. It has an extensive educational programme too.
- **THE NATIONAL MUSEUM OF SCIENCE AND INDUSTRY** is situated in London, but it has two regional institutes in York (RAILWAY MUSEUM) and Bradford (NATIONAL MUSEUM OF PHOTOGRAPHY, FILM AND TV).
- **THE NATIONAL GALLERY** in Trafalgar Square contains Western painting from cca.1260 to 1900; **THE NATIONAL PORTRAIT GALLERY** is attached to it.
- **TATE BRITAIN** is devoted to British art since the 15th century; **TATE MODERN** specialises in 20th-century art.

Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have their own national arts collections and museums.

9.6 Literature and libraries

British publishers issue over 100,000 separate titles annually, and over 100 million books are sold in the UK.

Over 200 literary prizes are awarded yearly in the UK, e.g. the BOOKER PRIZE for fiction or the WHITBREAD BOOK OF THE YEAR awards.

There are almost 5,000 public libraries in the UK, maintained by local authorities. THE BRITISH LIBRARY (BL) in London is the national library of the UK. British publishers are legally obliged to deposit a copy of their publications at the BL. The National Libraries of Scotland and Wales, the BODLEIAN at Oxford and the CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY have the same right.

The British are enthusiastic readers. Though serious books are also read and poetry is becoming popular again, the main types of books the general public reads are:

- **detective fiction**, which can be considered a distinctly British genre (cf. the lasting popularity of Conan Doyle’s Sherlock Holmes stories or Agatha Christie’s books);
• romantic novels, which make up nearly one half of all books borrowed from libraries.

The last British author to win the Nobel Prize for literature was William Golding in 1983.

9.7 Sport

The British are a nation of great sport lovers. Sport is a form of entertainment activity and pastime as British people love competition. Many sports were invented by the British, e.g. football, golf (in Scotland), lawn tennis, rowing or horse racing.

The most popular sports and physical activities are:

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<th>FOR MEN:</th>
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<tr>
<td>snooker and billiards</td>
<td>keeping fit / yoga</td>
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<td>cycling</td>
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<tr>
<td>indoor swimming</td>
<td>cycling</td>
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<tr>
<td>soccer</td>
<td>snooker and billiards</td>
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Some other highly popular sports are:

• Marathons and half-marathons, which enjoy mass participation.
• Lawn tennis, played by about 5 million people in the UK; the WIMBLEDON CHAMPIONSHIP is one of the four tennis ‘Grand Slam’ tournaments.
• Angling for freshwater fish is pursued by over 3 million people.
• Basketball for men and netball for women are growing in popularity.
• Cricket is mostly played in schools, colleges and universities; this game is not played outside the UK and Commonwealth countries.
• Rowing also takes place in schools, universities and rowing clubs; the University Boat Race between 8-oared crews from Oxford and Cambridge and the Henley Regatta, in which crews from all over the world compete, are the most famous events.
• Golf is a widely popular sport.
• Rugby, a fast and aggressive game similar to American football, has two versions: rugby union, the older of the two, which used to be played at British public schools; and rugby league, whose traditional home is among the working people in northern England.
• The sports traditionally associated with the British upper classes are foxhunting and shooting birds, such as grouse.
• Association football is the most popular spectator sport in the UK. It is controlled by separate football associations in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The top British clubs are, e.g., Arsenal, Chelsea, Manchester United or Celtic.
• Horse racing takes two main forms:
flat racing: the Derby, run at Epsom, is an outstanding flat racing event;

National Hunt (steepleschase and hurdle) racing: the Grand National, run at Aintree near Liverpool, is the world’s most famous steepleschase.

Horse racing and football pools are popular forms of gambling, together with the National Lottery, by far the most popular gambling activity in the UK. Gambling seems to be a national passion.

Gambling

Answer these questions 2:

1. Which British museum or gallery would you go to if you were interested in:
   a. decorative arts?
   b. 20th-century art?
   c. industry?
   d. railways?
   e. exhibits from the antiquity?
   f. British art from the 19th century?
   g. mineralogy and anthropology?
   h. 15th-century Italian painting?

2. What are the Proms?

3. Which types of books are most widely read in the UK?

4. Which are the leading British libraries?

5. Which sports were invented by the British?

6. Which sports and games are
   a. most popular as spectator sports?
   b. done actively by most people?

7. What are the most popular forms of gambling?

8. What is British people’s attitude to:
   a. drama?
   b. music?
   c. sports?

For reflection 2:

1. Which facts support the claim that British people are enthusiastic readers?

2. Are sports associated with particular environments or social groups? If so, which ones?

3. Can you find explanation for the fact that some sporting activities are popular with both men and women, but there are differences in the scale of popularity between the sexes?
Tasks 2:

1. Make a survey of:
   a. the leading art institutions;
   b. the major sports played in the UK.
   Briefly characterise each of them.

2. Explain these terms: a. professional theatre; b. amateur dramatics; c. multiplex cinema; d. live music performance; e. symphony orchestra vs. chamber orchestra; f. choral music; g. prize; h. snooker; i. regatta.

3. Find out basic information about cultural life and sports in the Czech Republic. Concentrate on:
   - government bodies responsible for them and ways of funding;
   - leading art institutions;
   - internationally renowned festivals;
   - popular sports.
   Try to find differences and similarities between the situation in the UK and in the Czech Republic.

4. Find out more information about one of these and prepare a short presentation:
   a. one of the art institutions or festivals mentioned in the chapter;
   b. one of the sports played in Britain but not so well known here.

5. Consider which of the facts presented in this chapter your pupils / students should be taught. How would you present them and what sort of visual, audio or video aids could you use? Be prepared to discuss the problem in the tutorial.

In this chapter, you have been informed about the government bodies responsible for culture and sports and ways in which they are funded. You have learned the names of the leading art institutions and festivals and what they concentrate on. You have also got acquainted with sports popular in the UK.
I do hope you've found the topics discussed in this chapter interesting – even if either culture or sports are outside your interest. There may have been new words in the text, but the context has certainly helped. Besides, this is the last but one chapter – and that’s great, isn’t it?

Both the spheres of culture and sports are quite extensive, and the chapter could only have provided you with basic information. Still, it may serve as a starting point for a more in-depth study if you are interested.

Don’t forget to revise – and you can add information to what you learned about London in Chapter 1!

Further reading:


10: EVERYDAY LIFE IN BRITAIN

In this chapter you will learn about:

- trends in the family and in housing in the UK;
- eating habits and catering establishments;
- popular leisure time activities;
- special days and holidays.

After studying this chapter, you will be able to:

- distinguish between the types of dwelling British people live in;
- understand trends and changes in various aspects of everyday life in the UK;
- compare the typical aspects of housing, eating, spending leisure time and celebrating various special days in the UK and in the Czech Republic;
- realise the differences between such misleading pairs of words as sausage – párek or marmalade – marmeláda;
- decide which facts to teach your pupils / students and how to present them.

Key words: housing, family, eating habits, holiday, leisure

Time for study: cca.3 hours

Family and housing

The average number of children per family is 1.8 in the UK. There is a rapid increase in the number of one-person households, and the proportion of single parent households is also growing. The reason for this trend is the high divorce rate (cca.13 divorces per 1,000 married people in 2000); it is lower in Scotland than in England and Wales. Cohabitation has become increasingly common in the last three decades, and the number of children born out of wedlock is growing too (cca.40 % of all children).

British people’s mobility is higher than in this country: on the average, they move once in every 7 to 10 years.

Owning a house is almost everybody’s dream in Britain. There are two reasons for this:

- desire for privacy;
- perceiving a house as a status symbol.

Between 60 and 70 per cent of all dwellings are owner-occupied. The rest of homes are rented from local authorities (or new town corporations) or private owners, or they may be attached to a job or business. Rents are
high, as well as house prices; many homes are therefore purchased with a mortgage.

**Mortgage loan**

Mortgage loans are usually obtained through banks and building societies; they are repayable over 20 to 25 years. The price of an average house equals around nine times average gross annual earnings, but it depends on the area in which the dwelling is situated (e.g. a detached house in London cost nearly £285,000, while only over £90,000 in Wales in the year 2000).

Most houses are built by organisations, not individuals. Therefore all houses on an estate are usually built to the same design.

**Social housing**

Another consequence of high house prices is the necessity to provide social housing. It is financed from government subsidies to local authorities for the cost of council houses. Numerous housing associations also provide social housing.

In the 1970s, about two thirds of all tenants lived in council houses, built and rented by local councils and let at subsidised rents. Since the 1980s, tenants have been encouraged to buy these houses at a lower cost.

The main types of dwellings, ranked according to popularity, are:

- **Detached houses**, mostly found in the commuter belts around large cities. Typically, professional people live in them.
- **Semi-detached houses**, mostly found in suburbs.
- **Terraced houses**, found especially in inner cities, many of them renovated.
- **Flats** are the least desirable type of dwelling. Many highrise blocks built in the 1950s and ‘60s have since been pulled down and replaced with lowrise housing. Although the UK is densely populated, it has one of the lowest ratios of flat dwellers.

![Types of dwellings (2000)](image)

*Based on: BRITAIN 2001, p. 345*

**Interior**

Most houses have two storeys. There are one or two living rooms (front and back) and a kitchen downstairs, and two to three bedrooms, a toilet and a bathroom upstairs. Most houses now have central heating and double-glazed windows.
There are about half a million homeless people in the UK. It is the legal duty of local councils to find temporary accommodation for those who are eligible for assistance (e.g. they lost their homes as a result of an increase in house prices or inability to continue repaying the mortgage because they are unemployed). The priority is given to parents with children, pregnant women, elderly and ill people. Others can be assisted in hostels run by charities, but many “sleep rough” on the streets or in “cardboard cities”. It is, however, one of the government’s targets to reduce rough sleeping to as close to zero as possible.

### Eating habits and catering facilities

Most parties and celebrations in Britain are not mainly centred around food. Yet there seems to be an increasing interest in enjoying eating and also in foreign and healthy food today.

The British eat a lot of *fried and roasted food; eggs* are an important part of their diet; and they are the world’s biggest consumers of *sugar* (more than 5 kilos per person per year!). *Beer* is the most popular alcoholic drink (*cider* in the West Country), but more *wine* is drunk today than in the past. Large amounts of *soft and hot drinks* are drunk, but more coffee than tea is now bought in British shops.

#### Daily meals in Britain:

- Nowadays, most people’s **breakfast** consists of cornflakes or another kind of cereal and/or toast and marmalade or jam.
- ‘**Elevensies**’ is just a cup of coffee or tea and some biscuits taken at around 11 am – though people drink coffee or tea at any time.
- **Lunch** is taken between 1 and 2 pm and it is lighter than the midday meal on the continent.
• For some people, tea means a cup of tea or coffee and a snack at around 4 pm, while for urban working people and many Scots and Irishmen, it is the evening meal taken at around 6 pm. Others may call their evening meal supper. The word dinner suggests a bigger meal eaten at around 8 pm, and it is often associated with certain formality (cf. Christmas dinner).

It is mostly the richest section of society that goes to expensive restaurants regularly. Many of the dishes on the menu are in foreign languages, which adds an exotic flavour to the occasion. Nowadays, larger towns and cities have restaurants serving dishes from all over the world.

British food is served in cheaper eating places, such as fish-and-chip shops or in pubs. The workman’s cafe (or “caff” pronounced [kaef]) is also called a “greasy spoon”, because it mostly serves the popular fry-up (i.e. several items fried together). There are also many fast food restaurants in the UK, e.g. international chains like MacDonals.

The pub is a unique British phenomenon. Today British pubs serve not only alcoholic and soft drinks, but also hot food. They are marked by an informal atmosphere: there is no waiter service, people ask for everything at the bar. Pub games, especially darts, are available and frequently also a TV set. The landlord is usually a tenant, as most pubs are owned by breweries. A true pub should look old and has to be closed at the advertised closing time.

Do you feel like having a cup of coffee or tea now? You can make use of the break to consider your personal and your family’s eating habits, and perhaps also the types of dwellings that Czech people prefer.

When you feel rested, go through the first part of this chapter again, with that knowledge in mind. Then do the exercises.

Answer these questions 1:

1. How do you understand these expressions? a. status symbol; b. owner-occupied house; c. council house; d. subsidy; e. semi-detached house; f. terraced houses; g. house vs. cottage; h. tea (two meanings); i. cake – tart – pie; j. sleep rough; k. cohabitation.

2. Which three trends can be traced in the contemporary British family? What are their causes?

3. Why do most British people long to have a house of their own?

4. What is the ratio between owner-occupied and rented dwellings?

5. What is a mortgage and how does it function?
6. Why is social housing necessary and who provides it?
7. Which types of dwellings can be found in:
   a. inner cities?  
   b. commuter belts?  
   c. residential areas built in the 1950s and ‘60s?  
   d. suburbs?
8. What does the interior of a typical British house look like?
9. What are the main causes of homelessness?
10. Who assists homeless people?
11. Where would you go if you:
    a. wanted to have a cheap meal?
    b. liked fried food?
    c. were hungry and had a lot of money?
    d. wanted to try British food?
    e. wanted to get quick refreshments?
12. What kinds of food do British people like?

**For reflection 1:**
1. Why do you think the detached house is the most desired type of dwelling, and the flat is the least desirable?
2. Why do you think that British cuisine has had a poor reputation?

**Tasks 1:**
1. Write down a survey of Czech daily meals and typical Czech catering establishments, and compare it with a survey of British ones.
2. The words below have either a slightly or a considerably different meaning in Czech and in English. Explain what the difference consists in:
   a. sausage – párek  
   b. toast – topinka  
   c. pudding – pudink  
   d. cabbage – zelí  
   e. cider – mošt  
   f. jam – džem  
   g. marmalade – marmeláda  
   h. sandwich – obložený chlebíček.

**Leisure time activities, holidays and special days**

*Popular leisure time activities* have changed in the past fifty years. Nowadays, the **Number One pastime** in Britain is
- watching television and video.
It is closely followed by:
- reading books;
- meeting friends at a party, for drink or for a drive;
• gardening is in the eighth position;
• walking, cycling and hiking (especially young people enjoy these activities);
• keeping pets, especially cats and dogs, is a national passion.

Annual holiday

Most people’s annual paid holiday is four weeks long. The traditional type of holiday used to be spending a week or two at a seaside resort, but today it is usually bank-holiday weekends that are spent there. In summer, over one-third of British people spend their holiday abroad: Spain and Greece are popular destinations. Most foreign holidays are package tours, but rich people may take a skiing holiday in some continental mountain resort in winter. Some other types of holiday are hiking in the country and sleeping at youth hostels; or a “working holiday”, e.g. taking part in an archaeological dig.

Public holidays

Britain has fewer public holidays than any other country in Europe or North America. Most of them occur on a Monday (e.g. Easter Monday, May Day, the first Monday in May; Spring Bank Holiday, the last Monday in May, or Summer Bank Holiday, the last Monday in August). Many special occasions are not holidays at all: besides the above-mentioned Bank Holidays, only New Year’s Day (January 1), Christmas Day (December 25) and Boxing Day (December 26) are holidays.

Special days

• New Year’s Eve (December 31) has always been noisily celebrated in Scotland, where it is called Hogmanay. In other parts of the UK, parties are held for friends.
• Burns’s Night (January 25), which commemorates the birth of the Scottish national poet, Robert Burns (1759-96), is another special day for Scotland. It is celebrated by eating haggis and drinking whisky.
• St Valentine’s Day (February 14) is an internationally celebrated day of lovers.
• St Patrick’s Day (March 17) is a special day for the Irish, wherever they live, when they should wear something green.
• There are very few customs associated with Easter: sweet hot cross buns are eaten in some families on Good Friday and, naturally, children eat huge numbers of Easter eggs.
• Trooping the Colour on the Queen’s Official Birthday is performed on Horse Guards Parade, London, on a June Saturday. It is a military parade during which the chosen regiment carries (“troops”) the regimental flag (“colour”) before the Sovereign ceremonially.
- **Hallowe’en** (October 31) is a children’s holiday that is associated with ghosts and witches.

- **Guy Fawkes’ Day** (November 5) commemorates the Gunpowder Plot of 1605. It is celebrated with ‘bonfire parties’ and public firework displays. Some children make a ‘guy’ out of old clothes stuffed with newspapers, put it into an old pram and ask passers-by for “a penny for the guy”.

- **Christmas** is one of the few occasions when many customs are observed by most people, even in spite of the holiday’s considerable commercialisation. A huge number of Christmas cards are exchanged and decorations are put around the house before Christmas. **Christmas Eve** is a working day, with perhaps parties held at work. Celebrations start on **Christmas Day**: in the morning, presents are unwrapped. **Christmas Dinner** is served at around 2 pm; it consists of roast turkey, roast potatoes and vegetables, followed by Christmas pudding and Christmas cake. **On Boxing Day**, parents take their children to a pantomime in the afternoon. For most people, Christmas is the only time when the whole family can be together.

**Answer these questions 2:**

1. What used to be the most popular way of spending holidays in the past, and how have the preferences changed? How does it compare with popular ways of spending holidays in the Czech Republic?

2. Have Czech people more or fewer public holidays than the British? Is there any type of holiday and special occasion that does not exist in the Czech Republic and vice versa?

3. What differences can you find between celebrating these special occasions in Britain and in the Czech Republic?
   a. New Year’s Eve;  
   b. Easter;  
   c. Christmas.

4. Do you know any other special days that are celebrated in the UK?

**For reflection 2:**

1. What used to be, in your opinion, the most popular leisure time activities before TV viewing became widespread?

2. How do you think the commercialisation of Christmas manifests itself? Is the situation the same or different in the UK and in the Czech Republic?

**Tasks 2:**

1. Write a Calendar of Special Days mentioned in this chapter, and compare it with a list of special days printed in calendars here.

2. Explain these terms: a. package tour; b. youth hostel; c. Bank Holiday; d. Christmas pantomime; e. Trooping the Colour.

3. Find out:
   a. the recipe for haggis or Christmas pudding and how these dishes are served;
   b. recipes for two traditional English dishes;
c. more about British pubs and drinks served there (e.g. different kinds of beer);
d. more about customs associated with:
4. Some of the topics discussed in this chapter seem to be appropriate for all ages and even for near beginners. Decide which facts you should teach your pupils / students; how to present them in the most attractive way; and what visual and other aids to use for the presentation. Be prepared to discuss this problem in the tutorial.

**Correspondence task 4:**

Choose one topic from the tasks for highly interested students in Chapters 8, 9 and 10, and write up to 300 words about it.

This chapter deals with the character of the British family; the main aspects of and problems connected with housing; British people’s eating habits, their daily meals, some catering establishments they have at their disposal; top leisure time activities and special days and holidays.

**The last chapter covered at last!** You’ve done a lot of work and you can be proud of yourself! But remember: knowledge that isn’t revised is soon forgotten. You can make use of the brief surveys you’ve written in the course of your studies to revise the basic facts – but the best way of learning anything is to teach it. That’s why you’ve been guided to adapt the texts for your pupils or students throughout the course, and you may also have made use of the exercises following each chapter to revise the topics. If you have devised your own ways of revision, please share them with your colleagues in our last tutorial.

I hope you’ve found the course both useful and interesting. Best wishes of success in your work, from

*Your tutor.*

**Further reading:**


GLOSSARY

This glossary only contains special terms connected with the topics discussed here and rarely used expressions.

A
adjourn [əˈdʒɔrn] odročit (zasedání parlamentu, schůzi); adjournment [əˈdʒɔrnmənt] odročení
allowance [əˈlauəns] dávka (sociální)
amendment [əˈmendmənt] pozměňovací návrh, doplněk zákona
angling [ˈæŋgliŋ] chytání ryb na udici v řekách či jezerech provozované jako sport
appeal [əˈpi:l] odvolání (k soudu vyšší instance)
archbishop [əˈbɪʃp] arcibiskup
archdeacon [əˈdiːkən] arcijáhen, duchovní v anglikánské církvi stojící níže než biskup;
archdeaconry [əˈdiːkənri] arcijáhenství, oblast pod správou arcijáhna
archipelago [əˈkeɪpələɡo] souostroví (a moře, které je obklopuje)
assent [əˈsɛnt] souhlas, schválení
asset [əˈset] aktivum, přínos

B
baptism [ˈbæptɪzəm] křest
barrister [ˈbærɪsta] právník, který je oprávněn vést obhajobu u vyšších soudů (srov. solicitor)
benefit [ˈbenɪfɪt] 1. prospěch, užitek; 2. peněžní dávka, příspěvek
biofuel [ˈbaɪoːfjuːl] biopalivo
bishop [ˈbɪʃəp] biskup
boost [buːst] pozvednout, podporovat
borough [ˈbaːrə] 1. město nebo obvod s vlastním zástupcem v parlamentě; 2. administrativní součást Londýna
by-election [ˈbai iːlɛkʃn] doplňovací volby

C
Calvinist [ˈkælvinɪst] kalvínský, tj. v duchu učení Jana Kalvína (1509-64), který ustavil v Ženevě přísnou presbyteriánskou vládu; propagoval autoritu Bible a tzv. predestinaci, tj. víru v absolutní předurčení člověka ke spasení nebo k zatracení
campus [ˈkæmpəs] areál, pozemky a budovy vysoké školy
capitation allowance [ˈkeptɪteɪʃn əlauəns] platba stejné sumy peněz za každou osobu
cargo [ˈkɑːɡoʊ] náklad (lodi, letadla apod.)
certificate [ˈsətɪfɪkət] 1. vysvědčení; 2. osvědčení
chamber orchestra [ˈtʃeɪmboʊər kɪstrə] komorní orchestr
Chancellor of the Exchequer [ˈtʃænθəl əv ði ɪks ˈɛkə] britský ministr financí (doslova: kancléř pokladu)
chauvinist [šauvinist] člověk, který projevuje agresivní a nerozumnou víru, že jeho země je lepší než jiné
china clay [činai] kaolin
choir [kwaio] pěvecký sbor
choral [ko:ral] sborový
cider [sai'də] alkoholický nápoj vyrobený z jablečné šťávy
circulation [sə'klən] zde: náklad (novin), počet výtisků
civil servant [sivl sə:vənt] zaměstnanec ve státní službě; civil service [sivl sə:vis] státní správa
coadeducational [kəuedʒə'kiəʃənl] určený pro chlapce i dívky
cohabitation [kə'heibənion] soužití ve společné domácnosti bez sňatku
commodity [kə'modət] výrobek, zboží jako předmět obchodu
common law [kə'mon lo:] angloamerické obecné právo založené na starých zvycích a dřívějších rozhodnutích soudců
community service [kə'mju:nətio navətə sə:vis] obecně prospěšná práce uložená jako trest za přestupek
conditional discharge [kən di'sə:zdʒə dżə] podmíněné propuštění
constituency [kən'situənsi] volební obvod
conurbation [kənə'beiən] městská aglomerace
Crown dependencies [kraun də'pendənsiz] Normandské ostrovy a ostrov Man: mají vlastní vládu, Koruna (tj. britská vláda) pouze zodpovídá za jejich obranu a zahraniční politiku
culprit [kəlprit] viník, pachatel
curate [kjuə'ret] pomocník anglikánského farního kněze
curriculum [kə'rɪkjoʊləm], (pl. curricula) školní osnovy
custody [kastədi] vazba (soudní či policejní)

D
dean [di:n] děkan
deanery [di:noiri] skupina farností pod správou děkana
dependant [di'pendant] závislá osoba, rodinný příslušník
devolution [di'vəlu:ʃən] decentralizace; devolve [di'volv] decentralizovat, přenést pravomoc na nižší úroveň
dignitary [dignitəri] hodnostář (zejména církevní)
diocese [diəsisis] diecéze
dissenter [di'senta] 1. rebelant; 2. odpadlík od anglikánské církve
dissolve [di'solv] rozpustit
district [distrik] okres
Druidism [dru:idizm] náboženství dávných Keltů
dwelling [dwelɪŋ] obydlí
egalitarian [ˌiɡəˌlætər] rovnostářský
electoral register [iˌlektərəl ˈredʒɪstrə] seznam voličů v určitém obvodu
episcopal [ˌɪpɪskɔpəl] 1. biskupský; 2. (církev) s hierarchií biskupů a arcibiskupů (srov. presbyterian)
executive [ɪˌɡɛkˈʃətɪv] výkonný (orgán, moc apod.)

F
Fellow [ˈfɛləu] člen akademické obce na Oxfordské a Cambridgeské univerzitě
fervour [ˈfɛvər] vroucnost, zápal
flat racing [flæt ræziŋ] rovinný dostih
Foreign Secretary [ foʊrən ˈsekrətri] britský ministr zahraničí (srov. Home Secretary)
freight [friːt] náklad (lodní apod.)

G
| Good ˈfrɛid| Velký Pátek
| Gross ˈɡræs| hrubý národní produkt (tzn. celková hodnota poskytnutých služeb a zboží vyrobeného v určité zemi za jeden rok)
grouse [ɡrəʊs] (pl. grouse) tetřívek
guardian [ɡɑːdɪən] poručník (nezletilého dítěte)

H
haggis [ˈheɡis] skotský pokrm sestávající především z ovčích vnitřností a ovesných vloček a uvařený v ovčím žaludku
highbrow [ˈhaɪb्रau] intelektuální, zajímající se o vážné umění; opak: lowbrow [ˈləubrau]
high tech [hai ˈtek] týkající se nebo používající vyspělé technologické postupy, zvláště v elektronice
Hogmanay [ˈhɒɡməneɪ] (skot.) poslední den v roce a oslavy nového roku, které se tento den pořádají ve Skotsku
Home Secretary [ˈhɑːm ˈsekrətri] britský ministr vnitra (srov. Foreign Secretary)
hot cross bun velikonoční mazanec, který se jí horký na Velký Pátek
hurdle [ˈhɑːdl] překážka na běžecké nebo dostihové dráze

I
impartiality [ˌɪmpəˈʃæləti] nestrannost
incapacitate [ˈɪnkeɪˈseɪtət] vyřadit, učinit neschopným; incapacity [ˈɪnkeɪˈseɪtɪ] neschopnost
infallible [ɪnˈfɛlsəbl] neomylný
instalment [ɪnˈstəlmənt] 1. splátka; 2. část seriálu
J
jam [džæm] zavařenina (džem) z jakéhokoli druhu ovoce kromě citrusových plodů (srov. marmalade)
journal [džə:nl] odborný časopis
judge [dʒadʒ] soudce
judicial [dʒuˈdiʃəl] 1. soudní; 2. soudcovský; judiciary [dʒuˈdiʃəri] soudnické, justice
Justice of the Peace [dʒəstis əv ˈpiːs] smírčí soudce (bez právnické kvalifikace; soudí u soudů nejnižšího stupně)

L
landfill gas [ˈlændfil ɡæs] plyn pocházející ze skládek odpadků v zemi
lawcourt [loʊˈkoʊt] soudní dvůr
lay [lei] laik, neodborník; laický
legislative [ledʒɪˈstɪtɪv] zákonnodárný; legislature [ledʒɪˈstreɪʃə] zákonnodárný orgán / sbor
life sentence [ˈlaɪf ˈsɛntəns] odsouzení na doživotí
loan [loʊn] půjčka

M
magistrate [ˈmeɪdʒɪstreɪt] = Justice of the Peace
maisonette [ˈmeɪzənət] byt o dvou podlažích s vlastním vnitřním schodištěm
marmalade [ˈmaːməleɪd] džem z citrusového ovoce, zvláště pomerančů (srov. jam)
mass [mæs] mše, zejména katolická
metropolitan county area [ˈmɛtəˌrɒpəlɪtən ˈkɔʊnti ˈeərə] hustá založená oblast kolem městské aglomerace
minister [ˈmɪnɪstə] 1. ministr (vládní); 2. duchovní, pastor
monetary [ˌmænɪtri] peněžní, měnový
mortgage [ˈmoʊɡidʒ] hypotéka
mosque [ˈmɒsk] mešita

N
news agency [ˈnjuːz əˈdʒɛnsi] tisková kancelář, zpravodajská agentura
newsagent [ˈnjuːzədʒənt] majitel prodejny novin

O
offence [ˈɒfəns] přestupek, zločin
offshore equipment [ˈɔfʃɔːr ɪˈkwɪpment] vybavení pro ropné plošiny
oilseed rape [ˈɔɪlsid ˈreɪp] řepka olejná
ordain [ɔrˈdeɪn] vysvětit na kněze
orphan [ˈɔrfn] sirotěk
Oxbridge = Oxford and Cambridge Universities
P

parish [ˈpærɪʃ] farnost

pedigree [ˈpedɪgrɪ] 1. plemenný; 2. čistokrevný

peer [pɪə] člen britské Sněmovny lordů; peerage [piəridʒ] hodnost nebo titul peera

Pentecostal [ˈpɛntəkɔstəl] týkající se skupiny křesťanských církví, které zdůrazňují dar Ducha Svatého, např. schopnost léčit nemocné

plateau [ˈplætəʊ] náhorní rovina

polling day [ˈpəuliŋ deɪ] den voleb; polling station [ˈpəuliŋ steiʃn] volební místnost

pope [ˈpəup] papež

precedent [ˈpresidənt] precedens, soudní rozhodnutí závazné pro budoucnost

presbyterian [ˈprɛsbiəriən] presbyteriánský (tzn. týkající se církve bez hierarchie biskupů a arcibiskupů); (srov. episcopal)

probation [ˈprəbiəʃən] podmíněné propuštění, podmíněné prominutí trestu

prorogue [ˈprəraʊɡ] přerušit a odložit na příští termín; prorogation [ˈprərəʊɡeɪʃn] přerušení a odložení na příští termín

proxy [ˈprəksi]: by proxy prostřednictví zástupce

public school [ˈpʌblɪk skuːl] soukromá škola pro studenty od 13 do 18 let, v níž se platí školné

Q

quarterly [ˈkwɔːtəli] čtvrtletní(k)

R

reincarnation [rɪˈnaːʃən] převtělování, reinkarnace

rent [rent] nájemné

S

savoury [ˈseɪvəri] slaný, nikoli sladký; pikantní

screening [ˈskrɪnɪŋ] zde: zdravotní vyšetření

self-righteousness [ˈself raiəˈθʊznəs] přesvědčení o vlastní morálnosti a dobrotě

share [ʃeə] akcie; shareholder [ˈshaʊərəld] akcionář, podílník

Shrove Tuesday [ʃrəʊv ˈtjuːzdei] masopustní úterý

single-tier [ˈsɪŋgl tɪə] obsahující pouze jednu úroveň (např. v administrativním systému); (srov. two-tier)

snooker [ˈsnuːkə] druh kulečníkové hry

soap opera [ˈsɔʊp ˈɒprə] komerční rozhlasový nebo televizní seriál pojednávající o událostech v denním životě určité skupiny lidí a o jejich problémech

solicitor [ˈsɒliˌsɪtə] právní poradce; advokát, který nevystupuje před vyšším soudem (srov. barrister)

sophisticated [ˈsɒfɪstɪkeɪtɪd] vysoce kultivovaný, intelektuálně na výši

squad [ˈskwɔd] zde: policejní oddíl, který se zabývá určitým zločinem nebo typem zločinů
statute [stæːt] schválený zákon; statute law [ˈstæːt leɪ] zákonné právo vtělené do všech schválených zákonů

steeplechase [stiːplɛs] překážkový dostih

stipendiary magistrate [stæipiˈdɛri] placený kvalifikovaný právník, který pracuje jako poradce u trestních soudů nejnižšího instance

stock [stɔk] (fin.) cenný papír, akcie; stock exchange [ˈstɔk ɪksəˈʃeindʒ] burza

subsidy [ˈsabsədi] podpora, subvence

surgery [ˈsə:dʒəri] 1. lékařská ordinace; 2. chirurgie, chirurgický zákrok

surplus [ˈsəːpləs] přebytek

synagogue [ˈsinəgog] synagoga

T

temperate [ˈtempərət] (o podnebi) mírný

temple [ˈtempl] chrám

terrace [ˈterəs] souvislá řada podobných domů, řadové domy

timber [ˈtɪmboʊ] stavební dříví

topical [ˈtɒpɪkl] aktuální

two-tier [ˈtuː tɪə] dvoustupňový (srov. single-tier)

U

unitary [juːˈnətri] = single-tier

V

vestment [ˈvestmənt] slavnostní nebo obřadní roucho

vicar [ˈvɪkə] anglikánský kněz stojící v čele farnosti

vice versa [ˌvaɪs(ɪ) ˈvɪːsə] naopak, obráceně

vineyard [ˈvɪnəd] vinice, vinohrad

W

waste [weist] odpad

wedlock [ˈwedlɒk]: born out of wedlock narozený nesezdaným rodičům

welfare state [ˈwelfeɪr ˈsteɪt] stát poskytující občanům sociální zabezpečení

wharf [wɔːf] (pl. wharfs / wharves) dok, přístaviště, nábřeží pro nakládání a vykládání zboží

worsted [ˈwʊstid] látka vyrobená z příze z česané vlny
KEY TO EXERCISES

Chapter 1

Tasks 1

1. The UK’s a. location: off the northwestern coast of the European Continent; area: cca.244,000 sq km; c. parts: England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland.

2. a. parts of London: the City: the oldest part; business and banking centre; the West End: the centre of governmental institutions, shopping and entertainment; the East End: now an area of skyscrapers and expensive flats; the Port of London + workers’ area in the past.
   b. parts of England: Southern England: agricultural area in the eastern part, scenic beauty areas + seaside resorts in the western part and in the south-east; the Midlands: large industrial areas + attractive areas for tourists; Northern England: industrial areas (now depressed) + scenic beauty areas.

3. a. England is one part of Britain, which consists of England, Scotland and Wales; the UK, or Britain: Great Britain plus Northern Ireland. b. Crown dependencies: a term applied to the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man, whose governments decide about the law, police, education and other matters, but rely on the British Crown for their foreign policy and defence; commuter belt is the area around a city where people live and from which they travel to work in the city.

Answer these questions:

1. The climate is temperate and oceanic; the warm Gulf Stream protects northern ports from freezing up in winter; the weather is marked by few extremes, but it is extremely changeable.

2. The flag consists of the crosses of the patron saints of England, Scotland and Ireland.

3. Ethnic identity is most strongly felt by the inhabitants of the Celtic Fringe and by non-white people.

4. As the British are generally very mobile people, they identify themselves with larger geographical areas rather than a town or village (e.g. the people living in the North of England).

5. Class identity manifests itself in different attitudes and daily habits, or in the choice of friends; this stems from different education and upbringing.

For reflection (possible answers):

1. The density of population depends on the terrain, the location of towns, cities and industries, the character of the soil (e.g. sparsely populated mountainous areas) etc.

2. The use of the Welsh language was never forbidden, unlike the use of Scottish Gaelic and Irish Gaelic.

3. Upper and middle class southerners may have considered the North of England to be an area inhabited by uneducated and coarse workers because the region used to be an important centre of heavy and textile industries in the past.

4. Most people of Celtic origin had to fight for their independence and against English rule in different times in past centuries; non-white people form ethnic minorities living amidst white people, and such groups usually try to preserve their ethnic identity. The English are the most numerous nation and, for centuries, they held the dominant position in the British Isles; they considered themselves British, rather than English.

5. The stereotypical image of the British: conservative and reserved people, proud of their country and the Empire; tea-drinkers loving their privacy and their pets; formal, even cold in behaviour.
Tasks 2:

1. *England*: a dominant position; mainly a lowland and hilly country, uplands in the north and south-west; the most populous. *Scotland*: 3 geographical areas different in character; the lowest density of population (⇐ large mountainous areas of great scenic beauty; *Wales*: mostly mountainous and hilly + plateaus and wide river valleys, with beautiful National Parks; the industrial south-eastern coastal strip; *Northern Ireland*’s terrain resembles a saucer; the densely inhabited eastern coastal strip.

3. a. the *area* of: *Northern Ireland*: 14,120 sq km; *Scotland*: cca. 75,000 sq km; *Wales*: 21,000 sq km; b. *geographical areas of Scotland*: 1. the southern uplands: hilly ⇒ sheep farming; small towns; 2. the central Lowlands: fertile plains + largest towns, 80% of the population; 3. the Highlands + islands and archipelagoes: sparsely populated; c. *National Parks*: the Lake District in England, Snowdonia and others in Wales; d. *population*: see the table in 1.4; e. *flag*: the Union Jack; *anthem*: God Save the Queen.

4. a. *conurbation*: a large area consisting of various towns that have expanded and joined together; b. *archipelago*: a group of many islands and the sea surrounding them; c. *climate*: the regular pattern of such weather conditions as temperature or the amount of rain; *weather*: the condition of the atmosphere at a certain place and time; d. *identity*: 1. who a person is; 2. the fact of being the same as others in a group; e. *egalitarian*: showing or holding a belief in equal rights and opportunities for everybody; f. *multicultural society*: a society including people of several different races, religions, languages or national traditions; g. *stereotype*: a fixed idea or image of a particular type of person, nation etc. which is often not true in reality; h. *patriotism*: love of one’s country and willingness to defend it; *chauvinism*: an aggressive and unreasonable belief that one’s own country is better than all others; i. *canal*: an artificial waterway cut through land for boats or ships to travel along or to carry water to fields; *channel*: a natural stretch of water joining two seas.

Chapter 2

Answer these questions 1:

1. The *British economic system* is a mixture of private and public enterprise.


3. Chief *financial services*: banking, investment, insurance, stock and foreign exchange trading; *tourism*: travel, hotel and catering; *computing*: software development, provision of computer systems; *business*: e.g. market research, advertising, management consultancy.

4. The UK’s chief *business partners*: the EU, the USA, Japan, other Western European countries.

5. The UK’s *energy resources*: coal, nuclear power, North Sea oil and gas + renewable sources; *raw materials*: some coal, construction and industrial minerals (china clay, potash, salt); metal ores + timber must be imported.


7. *Manufacturing areas*: the Midlands; southern England, central Scotland, Wales (electronics); northern and north-western England, Scotland and Northern Ireland (textiles); Scotland and Northern Ireland (shipyards).

8. See 2.5.

For reflection 1 (possible answers):

1. *State-controlled industries*: the Post Office, British Nuclear Fuels, the Civil Aviation Authority; probably for fear that private owners might misuse them.
2. To ensure regular checks by independent authorities on how the privatised industries are managed and run.

3. Changes in the economic structure: heavy industries lost their leading position in the economy as a result of the competition of those states which have extensive material resources and cheap labour at their disposal; financial services kept their importance, and other services as well as high tech industries replaced the traditional ones because Britain has the necessary expertise, skilled people and other assets.

4. The reasons for the loss of the leading position in the world economy: the damage and costs of the two World Wars; the loss of the Empire; investments abroad instead of in British industries; the traditionally stable financial system and the open regulatory regimes made it possible for Britain to keep its position in the spheres of finance and trade.

5. The UK has always had a surplus of certain commodities and a lack of others; the possession of a large overseas empire also heightened the importance of trade.

6. Surplus in the service sector ⇐ the fastest growing part of the economy while manufacturing underwent restructuring and numerous changes in the 20th century.

Answer these questions 2:

1. British agriculture is highly mechanised and highly efficient.

2. The size of most farms is cca.40 hectares, but smallholdings are encouraged.

3. Most farms are owner-occupied, and in Northern Ireland most farms are family farms.

4. The proportion between livestock and crop production is about half and half.

5. Farm animals: cattle (northern and central England, Wales, Northern Ireland, south-western and north-eastern Scotland); sheep (hilly and moorland areas); pigs and poultry (indoors); pedigree livestock.

6. Crops: see 2.6. B.

7. Sea fish: cod, haddock; fresh-water fish: salmon, trout; shellfish: lobsters, crabs, oysters.

8. Railways and road transport (wider roads, more by-passes, greater use of buses) need to be modernised.

9. Cars, coaches, goods vehicles (lorries, vans etc.), pedal cycles (motorcycles, bicycles etc.) etc. are used in road transport; the motor car is not only a means of transport, but also a status symbol.

10. Trams are more environment-friendly than motor vehicles; other means of transport in cities: light rail systems, buses, underground railways, taxis.


12. Services and forestry are expanding; certain sectors of manufacturing, trade, fishing and other industries are important for the economy.

For reflection 2 (possible answers):

1. Railways were obviously too costly and inefficient when they were controlled by the state; their use is encouraged for ecological reasons and to ease the heavy traffic on British roads.

2. Air transport is quicker and more comfortable than ship transport, especially when long distances have to be covered.
3. *Woodlands* cover a small part of the UK; they must be expanded both for economic reasons (timber is an important raw material) and for ecological and health reasons (woods are homes of wildlife, and the green lungs of the country).

**Tasks 2:**
2. a. *shareholder*: an owner of shares in a business company; b. "*high tech*” industries: branches of industry that involve advanced developments in technology; c. *Gross National Product*: the annual total value of goods produced and services provided in a country; d. *open regulatory regime*: a transparent system of checks and controls; e. *stock exchange*: the place where stocks and shares are publicly bought and sold; f. *environmentally beneficial and organic farming*: farming that does not endanger the environment, but has a helpful effect on it; it does not use artificial chemicals; g. *smallholding*: a small piece of land used for farming; h. *pedigree livestock*: farm animals descended from a known line of specially chosen animals of the same breed; i. *bus*: a large vehicle that carries passengers along a fixed route, usually over short distances about a town or city; *coach*: a comfortable bus, usually a single-decker, for carrying passengers over long distances; j. *containerised cargo services*: transporting goods in closed boxes of standard size.

4. *Nationalisation* was an important part of the political programme of the Labour Party, which had won the 1945 elections; in the 1980s, the Conservative Party was in office and its leader, Mrs Thatcher, tried to boost the ailing British economy by *denationalising* the state-controlled industries as they were inefficient and loss-making.

**Chapter 3**

Answer these questions:
1. The *British constitution* is made up of statutes and common law, various conventions and EU legislation.
2. The *legislative* (Parliament), the *executive* (government) and the *judicial* (lawcourts) powers.
3. The *chief functions of Parliament*: passing laws, supervising government policy and administration, debating important issues.
4. The House of Commons is the *most important part of Parliament* because it consists of representatives of British people, directly elected by them.
5. *MPs* are *elected* for up to 5 years; the “*life*” of *Parliament* is divided into one-year sessions.
6. The *Queen* personifies the state; everything is done in her name, but she has no real power.
7. See 3.2.2.A.
8. Unelected *peers* are to be gradually *replaced* by people from various regions representing different sections of society.
9. *Voters* must be 18 or over; their names must be on the electoral register and they must not be legally incapacitated to vote.

For reflection (possible answers):
1. A country in which the sovereign is the formal head of the state, but which has a system of laws according to which it is governed is a *constitutional monarchy*; in a *parliamentary democracy*, the supreme legislative body (or its dominant part) is elected by all people, and the country allows freedom of speech, political opinion and religion.
2. Each MP has to clearly declare his or her being a member of a particular party by sitting on the right or on the left.

3. The British two-party system, enabled by the way of choosing the winner in each constituency, makes it possible to have a clear winner of every general election and to set up a stable government with a clear-cut programme to pursue; the system is, however, disadvantageous for smaller parties, which means that a considerable number of British citizens have no representation in Parliament. – The system of proportional representation ensures equal opportunities for all parties, but it seldom leads to the clear victory of one party and unstable, often quarrelsome coalition governments have to be formed, or it may even be impossible to set up a functional government.

4. It means that the Queen represents the state, but has no real power.

Tasks:
1. a. British Parliament: the Sovereign, the House of Commons (over 650 MPs; the Speaker), the House of Lords (cca.1000 members: Lords Spiritual: 2 Archbishops, 24 senior bishops; Lords Temporal: cca.750 hereditary peers, over 300 life peers, over 20 law lords; the Lord Chancellor); b. devolved legislatures: the Scottish Parliament (129 MPs), the Welsh Assembly (60 members), the Northern Ireland National Assembly; c. process of legislation: in each House, the bill is introduced, goes through 2 readings, the committee and report stages, and it is approved; then the Queen signs it.

2. a. adjourn: stop a meeting or a session of Parliament for a period of time, postpone it; b. prorogue: bring a session (of Parliament) to a close by postponing the next meeting to a particular day; c. electoral register: an official list of all voters’ names in a constituency; d. devolution: the transfer of power or authority from a central body to smaller ones; e. hereditary peers: members of the House of Lords who inherited the right of membership from their fathers; life peers: those who were granted the right by the Sovereign for the duration of their lives; law lords represent the Highest Court of Appeal in the UK; f. shadow cabinet: members of the opposition who are likely to become Cabinet Ministers if their party comes into power; g. constituency: a district that has its elected representative in the House of Commons; h. frontbenchers: government ministers and members of the shadow cabinet; backbenchers: those who do not hold any government post; i. bill: a proposed law presented to parliament for discussion; Act of Parliament: a law made by parliament; j. by-election: an election of a new MP in a single constituency whose previous MP has died or resigned; general election: a national election to choose a government.

3. The Conservative Party: right of centre, standing for internal law and order, national defence, minimal government interference in the economy, etc.; similar to the Czech ODS in terms of economics, but more socially conservative and in this way closer to the KDU-ČSL. The Labour Party: centrist, standing for full social services, less government involvement in the economy, etc.; probably mainly the Czech ODS, but also containing elements of the Czech ČSSD. The Liberal Democratic Party: centrist or left of centre, standing for the EU, environmental protection, greater powers for local government, etc.; probably the Czech Green Party.

Chapter 4
Answer these questions 1:
1. a. Parliament supervises government policy and administration, and government ministers are members of the House of Commons or the House of Lords; b. the Cabinet (15 to 20 ministers) is the most important part of the Government (90 to 100 people).

2. The Government is formed by the leader and members of the party that has won the general election.

3. Collective responsibility: if a minister does not agree with government policy and action, (s)he must resign.
4. The *Prime Minister* is the leader of his or her party and the head of the executive; (s)he controls the Cabinet, the Cabinet Office and the monarch’s power of patronage; (s)he determines Cabinet decisions.

5. The *Cabinet Office* is informed about all the state affairs, as it helps run the machinery of the government, preparing all necessary materials for ministers; it also keeps ministers in touch with each other.

6. *Civil servants* are officials employed in all government departments other than the armed forces; they have to be politically impartial because they serve ministers of the government party, no matter whether it is Labour or Conservative.

7. The two-tier authorities were mostly replaced by single-tier councils, obviously in order to simplify the system of *local government* and to lower the costs.

8. *Local councils* are financed from the council tax and central government grants; they are elected for 4 years.

9. The responsibilities of: a. the British *central government*: home and foreign policy and action; b. *local councils*: local matters, e.g. education, police, housing or social services.

10. a. Britons realise the necessity and advantages of the UK being a member of *the EU*, but they are afraid of “dissolving in Europe”; b. it is bitter for them to realise that *the USA* has replaced their country as the world superpower.

11. To *defend* the UK and its interests.

12. The British *armed forces* assist in humanitarian and peacekeeping operations; their flexibility and mobility need increasing.

For reflection 1 (possible answers):

1. There are historical, traditional and cultural ties between the UK and the *Commonwealth countries*, and it may still be prestigious to be a member of this association.

2. The bitter feeling that the UK is dependent on the USA in many respects, especially in foreign policy.

Answer these questions 2:

1. The functions of a *ministry of justice* are shared by the Home Office (police, prisons) and the Lord Chancellor’s Department (management of courts, appointment of legal officers).


3. *Judicial officers*: judges decide cases in lawcourts; barristers present cases in the Crown Court; solicitors arrange legal matters for clients and they may prepare cases for barristers; lay and stipendiary magistrates judge less serious cases in lower lawcourts.

4. a. (a) Government ministers, (c) judges and (e) life peers are *appointed* by the Queen; (b) MPs and (d) local councillors are *elected* by British citizens; (e) hereditary peers *inherit* the right of membership of the House of Lords from their fathers.

5. a. The *executive* power (Government) administers the country and puts laws into effect; the *legislative* power (Parliament) passes laws and supervises government policy and administration; the *judicial* power administers justice and thus helps keep law and order in the country;

   b. a *barrister* has higher legal qualifications and can appear as counsel for the prosecution or for the defence in the Crown Court; a *solicitor* has lower legal qualifications (see question 3 above);

   c. the former *British Empire* consisted of dominions and colonies that were either
forcefully annexed or gained as a result of winning a war; the Commonwealth is a voluntary association of independent states which are free to resign from it; d. lay magistrates are not qualified lawyers, while stipendiary magistrates are legally qualified and salaried; they advise their lay colleagues on legal matters.

For reflection 2 (possible answers):
1. a. A single-party government is more stable than a coalition government; it can also put its programme into effect more easily than a coalition consisting of parties with slightly or considerably different programmes; however, a strong and functional opposition is necessary to prevent the government party from usurping too much power and ruling autocratically; b. compulsory military service is costly and inefficient, because most young men hate it; it was, however, considered advantageous both for them (it was believed to teach them discipline and to provide free professional training for them) and for the country (every male citizen was believed to be prepared to defend his country).
2. The Czech system of justice is based on the Roman law and a written code of law; we have a Ministry of Justice and the structure of lawcourts is slightly different.
3. Prisoners are maintained at the expense of tax-payers; besides, offenders can turn into hardened criminals in prisons; that is why imprisonment should only be reserved for criminals who are potentially dangerous for society if they are free.

Tasks:
1. a. The Government (90 to 100 ministers, their deputies etc.) and the Cabinet (15 to 20 most important ministers); b. administrative division: formerly: the first tier: counties (regions in Scotland) + metropolitan county areas; the second tier: districts; now: see 4.1.2; c. the Commonwealth of Nations has no formal organisation; all member states recognise the British Queen as the head of the Commonwealth; 16 of them recognise her as the head of state, and in all except the UK she is represented by a Governor; the Commonwealth heads of government meet every 2 years; their meetings, consultations and co-operation are organised by the Commonwealth Secretariat in London; d. armed forces: the Army (cca.110,000), the Royal Navy (cca.43,000), the Royal Air Force (cca.55,000); e. see the table in 4.3; f. the British police consists of 50 police forces organised on a local basis; each one has its Criminal Investigation Department (CID) and is headed by a chief constable; the Metropolitan Police Force ensures certain national police functions, and 2 national bodies were set up in 1998 (the National Criminal Intelligence Service and the National Crime Squad).
2. a. Cabinet ministers: the Prime Minister, the Foreign Secretary, the Home Secretary, the Chancellor of the Exchequer; b. MPs are elected for 5 years, local councillors for 4 years; c. forms of punishment: imprisonment (life sentence), conditional discharge, being put on probation, fine, community service.
3. a. patronage: the right or power to appoint people to or recommend them for important positions; b. single-tier council: unitary, i.e. consisting of only one level; c. council tax is based on the value of property and the number of people living in it; d. statute: an Act of Parliament, approved by both Houses of Parliament and signed by the Queen; e. common law is based on old customs and decisions made by judges; statutory law comprises all Acts of Parliament; f. precedent: an earlier decision or case that is regarded as an example or a rule to be followed in similar circumstances later; g. code of law: a set of laws arranged in a system; h. community service: some work done for the good of the community as a form of punishment for minor offences; i. the “Met” is the Metropolitan Police Force, which polices Greater London; j. New Scotland Yard: the headquarters of the Met’s CID.
Chapter 5

Answer these questions 1:
1. See 5.1.
2. Organisations administering state education: the Local Educational Authorities at the local level; the Department for Education and Skills formulates the general educational policy; and the National Curriculum determines learning objectives and basic requirements.
3. Educational priorities: developing understanding and applying the acquired knowledge to specific tasks.
4. The school year is divided into 3 terms (2 in the Czech Republic), and the length of holidays differs too, though Czech children have all the holidays mentioned in the text; the lessons start and finish earlier here than in England and Wales.
5. 16-year-olds can start higher education, do professional training or acquire some vocational qualification.

Tasks 1:
1. Pre-school education: expanding, but no countrywide system; its aim: to provide children with basics of reading and writing.
2. See 5.2.3-5.

Answer these questions 2:
1. Public schools are boarding schools divided into houses, each one looked after by a housemaster and prefects; nowadays, many admit day students or are day schools; some are coeducational; the emphasis on academic achievement is growing.
2. Universities enjoy academic freedom (appoint their staff, select their students, award their own degrees).
3. Students are selected on the basis of their A-level results and an interview.
4. Most Bachelor courses last for 3 years; Master courses 1 to 2 years; acquiring a PhD takes up to 3 years.
5. The Open University is a non-residential form of studies for adult students of all ages; teaching is organised through TV and radio programmes and distance-learning methods; residential summer courses are required sometimes.
6. a. free: state primary and secondary schools; b. tuition fees: private primary and secondary schools (including City Technology Colleges) and higher education; c. maintained by local authorities: state primary and secondary schools and higher education colleges; d. independent: private primary and secondary schools and universities.

Tasks 2:
1. a. The oldest public schools were founded for the sons of rich middle-class parents, which means that they served the public; b. British universities are largely independent of state and local control, and they consist of a number of colleges (Oxbridge) or the traditional faculties (arts, sciences etc.); higher education colleges are maintained by local authorities and most of them are specialised (e.g. teacher training or agriculture).
2. a. coeducational school; boys and girls study together there; b. boarding school: pupils or students can live there during the term; c. Fellow: a senior member of some university or college; d. tutorial: a period of teaching in a university that involves discussion between an individual student or a small group of students and a tutor; e. sandwich course: studies interrupted by periods of practice outside education; f.
college: 1. see Task 1.b; 2. one of the semi-independent institutions (small universities) that Oxford and Cambridge are divided into; g. redbricks: the universities mostly founded in industrial cities in the 19th century, mostly built of red brick; h. campus: the buildings of a university or college and the land around them.

3. See 5.3.

4. Both systems consist of the same types of schools and cater for the same ages, but the state system is free of charge and coeducational, while the private system is only partly coeducational and requires school fees; there may also be differences in the organisation and quality of individual schools.

5. See 5.4.1.

Chapter 6

Answer these questions 1:

1. The British welfare state was set up in 1948, in order to take care of all citizens unable to look after themselves.

2. The social security programme is financed from general taxation and employers’ and employees’ contributions.

3. The 5 main social benefits are: State Retirement Pensions (payable weekly to women of 60 and over and men of 65 and over); Jobseekers’ Allowance (JSA, weekly to unemployed people, capable of work and seeking it actively); Income Support (monthly to people with especially low incomes and not entitled to receive pensions or JSA); benefits for families (weekly to parents with children); sickness and disability benefits (weekly to sick employees and disabled people).

4. Men at 65 and women at 60, but pension age for women will have moved up by 2010.

5. Ways of raising income after retiring: by doing some paid work after retiring, by contributing to a pension fund or by taking a life insurance policy during the working life.

6. a. the unemployed: for up to 6 months; b. parents with children: until their children are 16 (19, if they study full-time); c. ill people: from the 4th day of sickness for up to 28 weeks.

7. By encouraging them to take up part-time work because if they move off JSA, they can claim the Back to Work bonus.

8. Personal social services are administered by local authorities, in co-operation with charities; they are provided for older and disabled people, persons with mental health problems and/or learning disabilities and for families.

For reflection 1 (possible answers):

1. The British welfare state was set up after the Labour Party came to power in 1945 because it was part of its programme, together with extensive nationalisation.

2. State Retirement Pensions require most money because the number of elderly and old people is steadily growing as a result of improved living conditions and medical care.

3. Means tests and medical tests of incapacity are necessary because Income Support and disablement benefits can easily be misused by dishonest people.

Answer these questions 2:

1. The NHS system is organised centrally because the Department of Health is directly responsible for it, but it is administered locally, by health authorities and health boards.

2. It is financed through general taxation and national insurance contributions paid by employees, employers and self-employed people.
3. The causes of difficulties the NHS system struggles with: the growing number of old people and the increasing cost of equipment and operations; consequences: shortage of nurses whose pay is quite low, long waiting lists for operations, sometimes even inadequate hygiene.

4. The charges: for every prescription, for most types of dental treatment, for sight tests and glasses.

5. Reforms: hospitals can become self-governing trusts or registered charities; GPs can control their own budgets + the money they obtain from the government depends on the number of registered patients.

6. Co-operation between local authorities and charities: food cooked by local authority people is distributed by volunteers; Citizens Advice Bureaus are financed by central and local authorities but staffed by volunteers.

For reflection 2 (possible answers):

1. GPs are in the closest contact with patients; it is usually a GP who sends patients to specialists or for hospital treatment; GPs probably enjoy greater trust as family doctors who know a lot about their patients, but specialists’ income is higher, which means they enjoy a greater social prestige.

2. As they do not have to wait; instant and quality care is ensured if you can pay for everything or have contributed to a private medical insurance scheme.

3. If more patients are registered with a GP, (s)he will try to deal with them more efficiently and not so many GPs have to be financed from government funds.

Tasks:

1. The structure of the welfare state: the National Insurance System (5 main groups of benefits) + the National Health System (GPs + specialists and hospitals).

3. Social services, e.g.: accompanying older and disabled people to doctors’ surgeries or to various offices; helping them fill in forms; giving them baths regularly in their homes; doing their shopping; co-operation between the NHS and the private health sector, e.g.: providing volunteers for some of the social services mentioned above; possibility to chat over the phone with volunteers for elderly or bed-ridden people.

4. a. welfare state: (a country that has) a system of caring for its citizens through a range of benefits and services; b. benefit: 1. an advantage that something gives; 2. money provided by the government to people entitled to receive it; c. guardian: a person who is legally responsible for an orphan or for somebody unable to manage his or her own affairs; d. cost-efficient system: a system in which no money is wasted, but all expenses are made use of for the highest profit or benefit of the people concerned; e. charity: an organisation for helping people in need; f. meals-on-wheels: a service in which meals are taken by car to old or sick people in their own homes.

Chapter 7

Answer these questions 1:

1. The British are not very religious: their active participation in organised religion is rather low, though most of them believe in God and agree with compulsory religious instruction at schools; no widespread anti-clericalism in Britain, but no “Christian” political party either.

2. The established church has been made official for a country.

3. The Church of England and the Church of Scotland, though the latter is a national, rather than an established church; there is no equivalent of such a church in the Czech
Republic (in the 17th century, after 1620, and in the 18th century, it used to be the Catholic Church).

4. They are also actively involved in voluntary work and in the provision of social services.

5. The Anglican Church is subject to Parliament; the Queen is its formal head and she formally appoints its dignitaries; its leading dignitaries are members of the House of Lords; even if the Church can regulate its own worship, serious matters relating to it have to be submitted to Parliament.

6. They are both national and Protestant churches, but the Anglican Church has an episcopal character and is, in many respects, closer to the Catholic Church than the Church of Scotland; this church has a presbyterian, i.e. more democratic form of government and the Calvinist tradition is quite strong in it.

Answer these questions 2:

1. The Free Churches’ structure and forms of worship are more informal; they stress individual silent prayer and studying the Bible, and they reject what they call “worldly pleasures”.

2. Four major Free Churches: the Methodist Church: the largest; a democratic organisation with lay preachers; the Baptists prefer adult baptism and are pacifists; the United Reformed Church has a puritan, Calvinist character; the Religious Society of Friends (Quakers) has no formal liturgy or ordained ministers; the Quakers emphasise social work and are also pacifists.

3. Recent developments: the rise of Pentecostalism and the fact that this movement, Catholicism and eastern faiths seem to attract British people more than Protestant religions.

4. Common features: the episcopal character and organisation and a number of doctrines; differences: the Anglican Church does not recognise the Pope as its head, while the Catholic Church accepts him as its infallible head; the Catholic mass and liturgical books also differ from the Anglican services and books in some respects.

5. Some Protestant churches allow women priests, e.g. the Anglican Church and the Church of Scotland.

6. All Protestant churches except the Anglican Church have a democratic form of government, as its members are elected by the congregation, while the Anglican Church dignitaries are appointed by the Queen.

7. Non-Christian religious communities: see 7.5; the Muslim and Buddhist ones are the largest.

8. a. a mosque is a Muslim place of worship; b. a church is a Christian one; c. a temple is a general term; d. a synagogue is a Jewish place of worship.

For reflection (possible answers):

1. Free Churches are free from the supervision of the established Anglican Church, and free to pursue their own version of Protestantism; they do not conform to Anglican religious doctrines.

2. Some British converts to Catholicism have claimed that they dislike the Protestant self-righteousness; others may have been attracted by a greater colourfulness and religious fervour of Catholic masses; eastern faiths may attract people by their exotic character, but also by the idea of reincarnation, which seems to fill in certain gaps in Christian doctrines; Pentecostalism may attract people by the belief in miraculous powers and by enthusiastic services.
Tasks:
1. The 3 strands of belief within the Anglican Church: see 7.2.1; the High Church is quite close to the Catholic Church; the Low Church is close to the Church of Scotland and to the Free Churches.
2. a. episcopal: governed by a hierarchy of bishops; b. presbyterian: governed by elders (i.e. officials) who are all equal in rank; c. Druidism: the religion of ancient Celts; its chief principle was the belief that the soul is immortal and passes at death from one person into another, and it was orientated to pacifying and controlling the forces of nature; d. worldly pleasures: all sorts of entertainment, but also such activities as eating, drinking or sex; e. dissenter: a person who does not agree with opinions that are officially or generally accepted; f. hierarchical structure: a system in which people are organised into different levels of importance from highest to lowest.

Chapter 8

Answer these questions 1:
1. Large multinational corporations own British newspapers.
2. Papers are financially independent of political parties, but each one expresses a certain political outlook; there is no governmental control over the press.
3. The Press Association is the national news agency of the UK and the Irish Republic.
4. Most editorial and printing offices are in London, but no longer in the Fleet Street area.
5. The Sunday Times is a separate paper with its own staff, not the Sunday edition of The Times.
6. While national papers mostly inform about nationwide home affairs and foreign news, regional papers mainly deal with local matters; national and international news is of minor importance in local papers.
7. National dailies: quality (full and reliable information on a wide range of topics), mid-market (neither too highbrow, nor too lowbrow), popular papers (mainly concerned with entertaining human interest stories; political, economic and cultural news is of minor importance); popular magazines: leisure-time information and entertainment; business and professional titles: mostly high-quality journals of opinion.

For reflection 1 (possible answers):
1. Many people prefer watching pictorial news reported and debated on the screen to buying and reading newspapers; this results in the decrease in the number of published and sold copies of newspapers.
2. People probably have more leisure to read papers on Sundays, and the entertainment potential of Sunday papers may also be higher than that of dailies.
3. Mid-market papers obviously cater for people who are neither intellectuals nor have only basic education, like secretaries or clerks.
4. The Press Complaints Commission may deal with cases like this: in pursuit of a sensational piece of news, a journalist may have endangered or even disrupted somebody’s marriage or spread a rumour that may lead to a person losing his or her job; this body can be called self-regulatory because it is made up of newspaper editors and journalists who try to ensure that their own colleagues behave ethically.

Tasks 1:
1. a. periodical: printed material issued regularly, especially a magazine concerned with an academic subject; journal: a magazine concerned with a particular subject or profession; magazine: a periodical containing articles, photographs etc., mostly of
general interest; *newspaper*: a set of regularly printed sheets of paper containing topical news, articles, advertisements etc.;

b. a *national paper* is available across the country; a *regional* one caters for a particular area; a *daily* appears every day except on Sundays, when *Sunday papers* are published;
c. a *quarterly* is published 4 times a year;
d. the *newsagent’s* is a store that sells newspapers, magazines etc.; a *news agency* is an organization that collects news and supplies it to newspapers and TV and radio companies;
e. a *newspaper supplement* is an extra separate section, often in the form of a magazine, that is sold with a newspaper.

3. The *papers with the highest circulation* are: The News of the World (a popular Sunday paper) and The Sun (a popular daily); these two are followed by a mid-market daily (The Daily Mail) and its “sister” among Sunday papers (The Mail on Sunday).

**Answer these questions 2:**

1. The *public authorities*: the BBC, the ITV, the Radio Authority (see 8.2).

2. The *government* decides the level of licence fees (= the main source of the BBC’s income) and appoints its board of governors; it has the right to veto the BBC’s programmes, but it does not interfere in this matter.

3. The BBC is *financed* from licence fees and from the commercial activities of BBC Worldwide; the ITV is financed from advertising.

4. *BBC Worldwide* is an international broadcaster, distributor and coproducer of BBC programmes that works on a commercial basis.

5. *BBC ONE*’s programmes are of general interest, while *BBC TWO*’s programmes cater for more sophisticated people interested in, e.g., serious drama or music and in extending their knowledge.

6. The *main independent TV companies*: ITV (Channel 3)’s programmes can be compared to those of BBC ONE; the character of Channel 4 resembles that of BBC TWO; Channel 5 mostly focuses on entertainment.


8. *ITV (Channel 3)* is made up of 15 regionally based TV companies, which supply programmes in 14 TV geographical regions.

9. *The Independent Television News* is a news service that supplies news to all TV companies which ITV (Channel 3) is made up of; the largest of them are Granada Media and Carlton.

10. The BBC World Service broadcasts in 42 *foreign languages*, and there are radio stations and TV companies broadcasting in *Welsh and Gaelic*.

**For reflection 2** (possible answers):

1. The BBC’s deserved reputation for impartiality and objectivity in news reporting, as well as the wide range and high quality of programmes that it broadcasts have obviously helped it to achieve the *dominant position* in British broadcasting; its being a public service broadcaster may have contributed to this too.

2. The *BBC World Service* acquired international fame thanks to the principles of democracy it propagated during World War II and the Cold War.

3. The main *promoters of learning and culture* in the UK are BBC TWO, Radio 3 and Channel 4.
4. The competition with independent broadcasting and the popular press has led to a 
decline in the quality of BBC programmes and quality papers.

Tasks 2:
1. *public service broadcaster:* a radio station or TV channel that does not work on a 
   commercial basis; it is at least partially controlled (and/or financed) by the state; b. 
   *licence fee:* the money that has to be paid for using, owning or doing something; c. 
   *in-depth news programme:* very thorough reporting and/or commenting on various 
   events; d. *soap opera:* a TV or radio drama with continuing episodes about the events 
   and problems in the daily lives of the same group of characters; e. *ITC* = the 
   Independent Television Commission (see 8.2); *ITV* = Independent Television (see 
   8.2.2); *ITN* = Independent Television News (see 8.2.2).

Chapter 9

Answer these questions 1:
1. *Government bodies:* the Department for Culture, Media and Sport; the National 
   Assemblies for Wales and Northern Ireland and the Scottish Parliament.
2. *Arts and Sports Councils and Regional Arts Boards* are independent bodies that 
   distribute government funds to arts and sports organisations at the local level; *Arts 
   Centres* organise specialist art events and educational activities, while *Sports Centres* 
   ensure that sporting opportunities are available to everybody.
3. They are financed from government funds, proceeds from the National Lottery and 
   sponsoring.
4. The majority of arts organisations are concentrated in London.
5. a. *choral music festivals:* the Three Choirs Festival (+ the Eisteddfod); b. *drama and 
   opera:* the Edinburgh International Festival; c. *pop and rock:* the Glastonbury Festival; 

For reflection 1 (possible answer):
1. E.g. by organising courses for foreigners in Britain or by arranging exhibitions of 
   British arts abroad.

Task 1:

Answer these questions 2:
1. a. *decorative art:* the Victoria and Albert Museum; b. *20th-century art:* Tate Modern; c. 
   *industry:* the National Museum of Science and Industry; d. *railways:* the Railway 
   Museum in York; e. *exhibits from antiquity:* the British Museum; f. *British art from the 
   19th century:* Tate Britain and the National Gallery; g. *mineralogy and anthropology:* 
   the Natural History Museum; h. *15th-century Italian painting:* the National Gallery.
2. The *Proms* are Promenade Concerts, an annual season of concerts of classical music 
   held at the Royal Albert Hall.
3. Detective fiction and romantic novels are *most widely read* in the UK.
4. The British Library, the national Libraries of Scotland and Wales and the Bodleian and 
   the Cambridge University Library are the leading British libraries.
5. E.g. football, golf, lawn tennis, rowing and horse racing were *invented by the British.*
6. a. Most popular spectator sports: football and horse racing; b. marathons, half-marathons, lawn tennis and angling are done actively by most people.

7. Horse racing, football pools and the National Lottery are the most popular forms of gambling.

8. a. + b. amateur dramatics, attendance at live music performances and listening to recorded music are the chief pastimes, though serious drama and classical music are minority interests; c. the British love sports and games because they are fond of competition and gambling.

For reflection 2 (possible answers):
1. The large number of published and sold books, as well as the number of books borrowed from public libraries support the claim that British people are enthusiastic readers.

2. E.g. cricket is mostly played in schools, colleges and universities, and rowing also often takes place at universities; the traditional home of rugby league is among the working people in northern England; foxhunting and shooting grouse are upper-class sports.

Tasks 2:

2. a. professional theatre: a theatre whose ensemble consists of actors and actresses who studied at drama schools and acting is a job for them; b. amateur dramatics: acting and producing plays by people who are not professional actors and actresses and who do not receive money for it; c. multiplex cinema: a large cinema with several separate screens; d. live music performance is given during a concert, not in a studio; e. symphony orchestra: a large orchestra which performs large-scale orchestral works; chamber orchestra: a small group of musicians, especially one that plays early classical music; f. choral music is composed for or sung by an organised group of singers (a choir); g. prize: an award given to the winner of a competition, race etc.; h. snooker: a game played with 15 red balls and 7 balls of other colours on a special table; i. regatta: a sporting event at which races between boats are held.

Chapter 10

Answer these questions 1:
1. a. status symbol: an object (e.g. a car or a house) whose possession is thought to show somebody’s high social rank; b. owner-occupied house: a house which its resident owns; c. council house: a house built and owned by a local council that lets it at a subsidised rent; d. subsidy: money paid (especially by a government) to help support an organisation or to reduce the costs of producing goods so that their prices can be kept low; e. semi-detached house: a house joined to another house by one shared wall; f. terraced houses: a continuous row of similar houses joined together in one block; g. house: a building constructed for one family to live in; cottage: a small simple house, especially in the country; h. tea: 1. a drink made by pouring boiling water onto leaves of the tea bush or another plant; 2. a light meal taken in the afternoon, usually with sandwiches, biscuits or cakes, and tea to drink; i. cake: a general expression for a sweet food of various sizes and shapes (koláč, dort); tart: a shallow cake containing fruit or other sweet filling, usually not covered with pastry; pie: meat or fruit cooked in a dish lined with pastry and with a covering of pastry; j. sleep rough: sleep outdoors; k. cohabitation: man and woman living together without being married.

2. Trends in the contemporary family: increase in the number of one-person households and in the proportion of single parent households (reasons for both trends: the high divorce rate, the greater permissiveness of society, women’s economic emancipation);
the growing occurrence of cohabitation and the increasing number of children born out of wedlock.

3. A house is a status symbol and British people long for privacy.

4. The ratio between owner-occupied and rented dwellings is approximately 65% to 35%.

5. A mortgage is a loan for buying a house or other property that can be obtained through a bank or a building society; it has to be repaid within 20 to 25 years, and the property does not belong to the buyer until (s)he has paid the last instalment.

6. Social housing is provided by local authorities to people with very low incomes; the reasons why it is necessary are the high prices of houses and high rents.

7. a. inner cities: mostly terraced houses; b. commuter belts: mostly detached but also semi-detached houses; c. residential areas: flats in blocks of flats and high-rises; d. suburbs: mostly semi-detached houses.

8. The interior of a British house: 2 storeys; 1 or 2 living rooms + kitchen downstairs, 2 or 3 bedrooms, toilet + bathroom upstairs.

9. The main causes of homelessness: high prices of houses, high rents, losing one’s job and inability to go on repaying the mortgage.

10. Local councils and charities help homeless people.

11. a. cheap meal: a fish-and-chip shop, a workman’s cafe or a fast-food restaurant; b. fried food: the same as in a.; c. rich people: expensive restaurants; d. British food: a pub or a fish-and-chip shop; e. quick refreshments: a fast-food restaurant or a fish-and-chip shop.

12. British people like: fried and roasted food, eggs, sweet things; beer and soft and hot drinks.

For reflection 1 (possible answers):

1. A detached house ensures privacy; it also usually has a garden and it is a status symbol; a flat is the very opposite of this most desired type of dwelling.

2. The reason for the poor reputation of British cuisine: the British did not give much attention to food in the past; their main concerns may have been to prepare hearty and wholesome food and they did not bother about refinement or subtleties.

Tasks 1:

2. a. a British sausage is a mixture of minced meat and other ingredients which is not smoked; many resemble Czech jitrnice and are served cooked, usually fried; the Czech párek is smoked; b. toast is a grilled slice of white bread, brown and crisp, eaten with butter and jam or marmalade; the Czech topinka is usually fried in fat and spread with garlic; c. pudding: 1. another word for “dessert”; 2. a cooked sweet or savoury dish eaten hot, e.g. bread and butter pudding (žemlovka), rice pudding (trýžový nákyp), steak and kidney pudding (nákyp z masa a ledvinek); what the Czechs call pudink resembles English custard [kastəd], which is, however, more runny; d. cabbage: this word is often used for what we call zeli and kapusta; e. cider is an alcoholic drink made from the juice of apples, while mošt is a soft drink; f. jam is made from any kind of fruit except citrus fruit; g. marmalade is made from citrus fruit, especially oranges; the Czech word džem resembles English custard [kastəd], which is, however, more runny; h. sandwich consists of two or three slices of bread with one or two layers of meat, cheese or salad in between; the Czech obložený chlebíček can be called canapé [kænpeɪ].
Answer these questions 2:

1. The traditional type of holiday was spending a week of two at a seaside resort; nowadays, annual holidays are usually spent abroad, mostly in Spain or Greece; most Czech people also like spending their holidays at a warm sea, but quite a few people long for more exotic places now.

2. Czech people have more public holidays than the British; we celebrate special “state holidays”, like October 28th, but, e.g., we do not have an equivalent of the Trooping the Colour parade.

3. a. New Year’s Eve is celebrated as noisily here as the Scottish Hogmanay; b. more traditional customs are connected with Easter here than in Britain; c. Christmas Eve is a holiday here; Christmas Dinner is served at a different time and different food is eaten; presents are unwrapped at a different time too.

4. E.g. Shrove Tuesday (also called Pancake Day), when pancakes are eaten and pancake races held; or the Remembrance Day (November 11), which commemorates all soldiers killed in both World Wars and more recent conflicts.

For reflection 2 (possible answers):

1. Gardening and keeping pets used to be very popular pastimes in the past.

2. The commercialisation of Christmas manifests itself, e.g., by the frenetic Christmas shopping which starts as early as October and is boosted by advertising everywhere, Christmas lights and decoration in streets etc.; the situation seems to be very similar in both the UK and the Czech Republic.

Tasks 2:

2. a. package tour: a holiday organised by a travel agent, for which one pays a fixed price that includes the cost of transport, accommodation and often some meals; b. youth hostel: a building in which cheap and simple food and accommodation are provided for especially young people on walking or riding holidays; c. Bank Holiday: a day on which banks are officially closed and which is a public holiday; d. Christmas pantomime: a type of play with music, dancing and jokes, based on a fairy story and usually performed at Christmas; the “principal boy”, or young hero, is always played by a woman and the older female character by a man; e. Trooping the Colour is a military parade performed on Horse Guards Parade, London, to celebrate the Queen’s Official Birthday.
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