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Навчальний посібник з дисципліни «Лінгвокраїнозавство країн основної іноземної мови» спрямовано на вдосконалення практичної підготовки майбутніх фахівців з іноземної мови (учителів англійської мови, перекладачів-референтів) шляхом розширення їхнього словникового запасу в процесі вивчення країнознавчої тематики та синтезування вмінь у різних видах мовленнєвої діяльності.

Навчальний посібник складається з 11 розділів, кожний з яких присвячений окремому аспекту історії та культури Сполученого Королівства Великої Британії та Північної Ірландії. Активізація лінгвокраїнознавчого матеріалу здійснюється за допомогою системи різнорівневих вправ та тестових завдань у кінці кожного розділу шляхом зіставлення й знаходження спільного і відмінного з іншими англомовними країнами.Багатий фактичний матеріал текстів може використовуватися студентами для поглиблення знань, отриманих на лекціях, а також під час самостійного опрацювання тем за навчальною програмою.

Навчальний посібник призначено для студентів та викладачів фахових факультетів вищих навчальних заходів України, а також для всіх, хто цікавиться історією та культурою Великої Британії та інших англомовних країн.

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Preface

Students are more connected to the world than ever before, through social media, online gaming, and popular culture that is more international than ever. Unfortunately, there is a difference between being connected to the world through popular culture and the Internet, and having an actual understanding of the world outside of one's home country.

The purpose of this manual is to help students be competent in a county study of the UK through a language and develop their communicative competence.

This study attempts to review the history, geography, arts and culture of the UK in a concise and objective manner. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, called the United Kingdom, GB or UK, is a sovereign state in Northern Europe. It unites England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland as one Kingdom. It is a member of the United Nations, the Commonwealth, NATO and the G8. It has the sixth largest economy in the world[1]

The country study of the UK is a fascinating field in its own right, but it also provides a valuable perspective for the contemporary study of the language. The historical account promotes a sense of identity and continuity, and enables us to find coherence in many fluctuations and conflicts of present-day English language use. It is mainly focused on its dominant social, political, economic, and cultural aspects.

The manual consists of a preface, introduction, 11 chapters: 1) General information about the UK; 2) National symbols; 3) Physical and human geography; 4) Prehistory and history of the UK; 5) System of government; 6) System of education; 7) Traditions, customs and public holidays; 8) Arts and culture; 9) Sport; 10) Mass media; 11) British accents and dialects. Appendices include a table of historical events, a glossary of geographical names, a concise country study guide.

Sources of information include country study books, scholarly journals, foreign and domestic newspapers, official reports of government and international organizations, and numerous periodicals and international affairs.

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1 Gross domestic product. Available at : http://siteresources.worldbank.org/DATASTATISTICS/Resources/GDP.pd

Introduction

Dear students, this study is aimed to help you broaden your professional outlook as future teachers of English, linguists, interpreters and translators. If you still cannot give a quick answer to the following questions, such as

- How many times the UK is smaller than the USA?
- What is highest temperature ever recorded in England?
- What is England's oldest recorded tourist attraction?
- How long was French the official language of the UK?
- What schools are called state schools?
- What dish is more traditional than fish 'n chips?
- Do British police carry guns?
- Where can the world's largest second-hand book market be found?
- What art collection in the UK is one of the world's most important, rivalling with that of the Louvres Museum and New York Metropolitan Museum?
- What is the oldest and largest royal residence in the world still in use?

The book will be a great resource for you. If you want to be successful in country studies I'd also recommend you some pieces of advice.

Hopefully these ideas will help you get motivated to study[2].

Prepare Your Study Space

Find a quiet space where you won't be distracted. This could be a library, a cafe, a room in your house, or anywhere else that is free from excessive noise and interruptions. Avoid places where you're likely to run into your friends.

Stock up on study supplies. Make sure you have all the pens, pencils, paper, highlighters, and Post-Its you need. You don't want to interrupt your study time to get more.

Keep a small stash of water and snacks by your side. People are more productive when they're hydrated and taking steady sips of water will help stave off thirst. Small snacks like peanuts, granola bars or fruit will help keep you energized.

[2] How to get motivated to study. Available at http://www.wikihow.com/Get-Motivated-to-Study

Avoid fast food and pastries. This includes pizza, hamburgers, nachos, doughnuts, muffins, cinnamon rolls, and croissants. These foods will give you a short energy rush that quickly turns into sleepiness.

Wear comfortable clothing. Little things like having to pull up your trousers can eat away at your concentration. Wear clothes that are familiar, fit loosely, and don't constrict you.

If you have long hair, tie it back so that it doesn't fall into your eyes.

Put your cellphone on silent. You do not want to be taking calls from friends and family members when you're trying to study. Let them know in advance that you need time to study, if you think they'll be concerned. Better yet, just place it on silent and keep it somewhere out of view so you won't be tempted to keep taking a sneak peek.

Author-compiler, Olena Babenko

Chapter 1

General information about the UK

Fact File

Official name: The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

Total area: 243,610 square km

Population: 61,855,000

Official language: English; both English and Scots Gaelic in Scotland; both English and Welsh in Wales

Ethnic groups: white 92.4% (of which English 81.5%, Scottish 9.6%, Irish 2.4%, Welsh 1.9%, Ulster 1.8%), black 2% (of which West Indian 1%, African 0.8%), Indian 1.8%, Pakistani 1.3%, Bangladeshi 0.5%, Chinese 0.4%, others 1.9%)

National anthem: 'God, Save the Queen'

Capital: London

Largest cities: London, Birmingham, Glasgow

Government: Parliamentary system, Constitutional monarchy, Unitary state

Monarch: Queen Elizabeth II

Longest river: The Severn (354km long)

Highest mountain: Ben Nevis (1,344 metres high)

Currency: pound sterling

National holiday: 2nd Saturday in June (1926) Birthday of Queen Elizabeth II

The **United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland**, commonly known as the **United Kingdom** (**UK**) or **Britain** is a sovereign state in Europe. Lying off the north-western coast of the European mainland, it includes the island of Great Britain (the name of which is also loosely applied to the whole country), the north-eastern part of the island of Ireland,

and many smaller islands. Northern Ireland is the only part of the UK that shares a land border with another sovereign state—the Republic of Ireland. Apart from this land border, the UK is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean, with the North Sea to its east, the English Channel to its south and the Celtic Sea to its south-southwest, giving it the 12th longest coastline in the world. The Irish Sea lies between Great Britain and Ireland. With an area of 242,500 square kilometres (93,600 sq mi), the UK is the 78th-largest sovereign state in the world and the 11th-largest in Europe. It is also the 21st-most populous country, with an estimated 65.1 million inhabitants. Together, this makes it the fourth most densely populated country in the European Union[3].

The United Kingdom is **a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary system of governance.** The current monarch—since 6 February 1952—is Queen Elizabeth II. The capital of UK and its largest city is London, a global city and financial centre with an urban area population of 10,3 million, the fourth-largest in Europe and second-largest in the European Union. Other major urban areas in the UK include the regions of Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Glasgow and Liverpool.

The UK consists of four countries: **England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland**. The latter three have devolved administrations, each with varying powers, based in their capitals, Edinburgh, Cardiff, and Belfast, respectively. The nearby Isle of Man, Bailiwick of Guernsey and Bailiwick of Jersey are not part of the United Kingdom, being Crown dependencies with the British Government responsible for defence and international representation.

The relationships among the countries of the United Kingdom have changed over time. Wales was annexed by the Kingdom of England under the Acts of Union of 1536 and 1542. A treaty between England and Scotland resulted in 1707 in a unified Kingdom of Great Britain,

[3] The UK. available at https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Kingdom

which merged in 1801 with the Kingdom of Ireland to form the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. In 1922, five-sixths of Ireland seceded from the country, leaving the present formulation of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The UK has fourteen Overseas Territories. These are the remnants of the British Empire which, at its height in the 1920s, encompassed almost a quarter of the world's land mass and was the largest empire in history. British influence can be observed in the language, culture, and legal systems of many of its former colonies.

The United Kingdom is a developed country and has the world's fifth-largest economy by nominal GDP and ninth-largest economy by purchasing power parity. The UK is considered to have a high-income economy and is categorised as very high in the Human Development Index, ranking 14th in the world. It was the world's first industrialised country and the world's foremost power during the 19th and early 20th centuries. The UK remains a great power with considerable economic, cultural, military, scientific, and political influence internationally. It is a recognised nuclear weapons state and its military expenditure ranks fourth or fifth in the world. The UK has been a permanent member of the United Nations Security Council since its first session in 1946. It has been a leading member state of the European Union (EU) and its predecessor, the European Economic Community (EEC), since 1973. However, on 23 June 2016, a national referendum on the UK's membership of the EU resulted in a 51.9% vote to exit. The UK is also a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, the Council of Europe, the G7 finance ministers, the G7 forum, the G20, NATO, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and the World Trade Organization (WTO).

England is a country that is part of the United Kingdom. It shares land borders with Scotland to the north and Wales to the west. The Irish Sea lies

northwest of England and the Celtic Sea lies to the southwest. England is separated from continental Europe by the North Sea to the east and the English Channel to the south. The country covers much of the central and southern part of the island of Great Britain, which lies in the North Atlantic; and includes over 100 smaller islands such as the Isles of Scilly, and the Isle of Wight.

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

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

the North East, and Yorkshire, which each developed as major industrial regions during the 19th century[4].

The Kingdom of England—which after 1535 included Wales—ceased being a separate sovereign state on 1 May 1707, when the Acts of Union put into effect the terms agreed in the Treaty of Union the previous year, resulting in a political union with the Kingdom of Scotland to create the Kingdom of Great Britain. In 1801, Great Britain was united with the Kingdom of Ireland through another Act of Union to become the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. In 1922 the Irish Free State seceded from the United Kingdom, leading to the latter being renamed the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.





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

[4] 2011 Census - Population and Household Estimates for England and Wales, March 2011.Available at http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20160105160709/http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/dcp171778_270487.pdf

Welsh national identity emerged among the Celtic Britons after the Roman withdrawal from Britain in the 5th century, and Wales is regarded as one of the modern Celtic nations. Llywelyn ap Gruffudd's death in 1282 marked the completion of Edward I of England's conquest of Wales, though Owain Glyndŵr briefly restored independence to Wales in the early 15th century. The whole of Wales was annexed by England and incorporated within the English legal system under the Laws in Wales Acts 1535–1542. Distinctive Welsh politics developed in the 19th century. Welsh Liberalism, exemplified in the early 20th century by Lloyd George, was displaced by the growth of socialism and the Labour Party. Welsh national feeling grew over the century; Plaid Cymru was formed in 1925 and the Welsh Language Society in 1962. Established under the Government of Wales Act 1998, the National Assembly for Wales holds responsibility for a range of devolved policy matters.

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

Although Wales closely shares its political and social history with the rest of Great Britain, and the vast majority of the population speaks English, the country has retained a distinct cultural identity and is officially bilingual. Over 560,000 Welsh language speakers live in Wales, and the language is spoken by a majority of the population in parts of the north and west. From

the late 19th century onwards, Wales acquired its popular image as the "land of song", in part due to the eisteddfod tradition. At many international sporting events, such as the FIFA World Cup, Rugby World Cup and the Commonwealth Games, Wales has its own national teams, though at the Olympic Games, Welsh athletes compete as part of a Great Britain team. Rugby union is seen as a symbol of Welsh identity and an expression of national consciousness.





Scotland (/ˈskɒt.lənd/; Scots: [ˈskɔt.lənd]; Scottish Gaelic: Alba [ˈal̪ˠapə] (listen)) is a country that is part of the United Kingdom and covers the northern third of the island of Great Britain. It shares a border with England to the south, and is otherwise surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean, with the North Sea to the east and the North Channel and Irish Sea to the south-west. In addition to the mainland, the country is made up of more than 790 islands, including the Northern Isles and the Hebrides.

Edinburgh, the country's capital and second-largest city, was the hub of the Scottish Enlightenment of the 18th century, which transformed Scotland into one of the commercial, intellectual, and industrial powerhouses of Europe. Glasgow, Scotland's largest city, was once one of the world's leading industrial cities and now lies at the centre of the Greater Glasgow conurbation. Other major urban areas are Aberdeen and Dundee. Scottish waters consist of a large sector of the North Atlantic and the North Sea,

containing the largest oil reserves in the European Union. This has given Aberdeen, the third-largest city in Scotland, the title of Europe's oil capital.
The Kingdom of Scotland emerged as an independent sovereign state in the Early Middle Ages and continued to exist until 1707. By inheritance in 1603, James VI, King of Scots, became King of England and King of Ireland, thus forming a personal union of the three kingdoms. Scotland subsequently entered into a political union with the Kingdom of England on 1 May 1707 to create the new Kingdom of Great Britain. (The Treaty of Union was agreed in 1706 and enacted by the twin Acts of Union 1707, passed by the Parliaments of both kingdoms, despite popular opposition and anti-union riots in Edinburgh, Glasgow, and elsewhere). The union also created a new Parliament of Great Britain, which succeeded both the Parliament of Scotland and the Parliament of England. (In 1801, Great Britain itself entered into a political union with the Kingdom of Ireland to create the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; the Parliament of Ireland merging with that of Great Britain to form the Parliament of the United Kingdom. Since the creation of the Irish Free State in 1922, the United Kingdom has comprised Great Britain and Northern Ireland).

The monarchy of the United Kingdom continues to use a variety of styles, titles and other royal symbols of statehood specific to pre-union Scotland, including: the Royal Standard of Scotland, the Royal coat of arms used in Scotland together with its associated Royal Standard, royal titles including that of Duke of Rothesay, certain Great Officers of State, the chivalric Order of the Thistle, and, since 1999, reinstating a former ceremonial role for the Crown of Scotland. Scotland's legal system has also remained separate from those of England and Wales and Northern Ireland, and Scotland constitutes a distinct jurisdiction in public and private law. The continued existence of legal, educational, religious and other institutions

distinct from those in the remainder of the UK have all contributed to the continuation of Scottish culture and national identity since the 1707 union.

Following a referendum in 1997, a Scottish Parliament was re-established, in the form of a devolved unicameral legislature comprising 129 members, having authority over many areas of domestic policy. The Scottish National Party, (SNP), which supports Scottish independence, won an overall majority in the 2011 Scottish Parliament general election and legislated for an independence referendum which was held on 18 September 2014; a majority of 55% to 45% rejected independence on an 85% voter turnout. The UK Conservative Party won an overall majority in the 2015 UK general election and legislated for a referendum on the UK's membership of the European Union which was held on 23 June 2016; within Scotland, a majority of 62% to 38% rejected withdrawal from the EU on a 67% voter turnout. Scotland is represented in the UK Parliament by 59 MPs and in the European Parliament by 6 MEPs. Scotland is also a member nation of the British–Irish Council, and the British–Irish Parliamentary Assembly.



Northern Ireland (Irish: Tuaisceart Éireann[6] [ˈt̪ˠuəʃcəɾˠt̪ˠ ˈeːɾʲən̪ˠ] (listen); Ulster Scots: Norlin Airlann) is a top-level constituent unit of the United Kingdom in the northeast of Ireland. It is variously described as a country, province, region, or "part" of the United Kingdom, amongst other terms. Northern Ireland shares a border to the south and west with the Republic of Ireland. In 2011, its population was 1,810,863, constituting about

30% of the island's total population and about 3% of the UK's population. Established by the Northern Ireland Act 1998 as part of the Good Friday Agreement, the Northern Ireland Assembly holds responsibility for a range of devolved policy matters, while other areas are reserved for the British government. Northern Ireland co-operates with the Republic of Ireland in some areas, and the Agreement granted the Republic the ability to "put forward views and proposals" with "determined efforts to resolve disagreements between the two governments".

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

For most of the 20th century, when it came into existence, Northern Ireland was marked by discrimination and hostility between these two sides in what First Minister of Northern Ireland David Trimble called a "cold house" for Catholics. In the late 1960s, conflict between state forces and chiefly Protestant unionists on the one hand, and chiefly Catholic nationalists on the other, erupted into three decades of violence known as the Troubles, which claimed over 3,500 lives and caused over 50,000 casualties. The 1998 Good Friday Agreement was a major step in the peace process, including the decommissioning of weapons, although sectarianism and religious

segregation still remain major social problems and sporadic violence has continued.

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

Prominent artists and sports persons from Northern Ireland include Van Morrison, Rory McIlroy, Joey Dunlop, Wayne McCullough and George Best. Some people in Northern Ireland prefer to identify as Irish (e.g., poet Seamus Heaney and actor Liam Neeson) while others prefer to identify as British (e.g. actor Kenneth Branagh). Cultural links between Northern Ireland, the rest of Ireland, and the rest of the UK are complex, with Northern Ireland sharing both the culture of Ireland and the culture of the United Kingdom. In many sports, the island of Ireland fields a single team, a notable exception being association football. Northern Ireland competes separately at the Commonwealth Games, and people from Northern Ireland may compete for either Great Britain or Ireland at the Olympic Games.

Exercises

I. Work in pairs. Read the statements and say if they are true or false. Begin each sentence with the following phrases.

1. The UK is an island state: it is composed of some 5,500 islands, small and large.

2. Great Britain and Ireland are separated by the Irish Sea.

3. Highland Britain consists of Scotland, most of Wales, the Pennines and the Lake District.

4. The swiftest flowing river in the British Isles is the Sprey.

5. The highest mountains are in Scotland and Wales: Ben Nevis is 1,343 metres and Snowdon is 1,085 metres.

6. There are many lakes in Great Britain.

7. The House of Commons plays the major role in law-making.

8. The minimum voting age is 18, and the voting is taken by secret ballot.

II. Answer the following questions.

1. What is the official name of Great Britain now?
2. What sea separates the two main islands?
3. What influences the climate of the British Isles?
4. What are the largest cities of Great Britain?
5. Who is the head of the state?
6. What makes London important for the life of Great Britain?
7. Who designed St. Paul's Cathedral?
8. What is the historic part of London?
9. What part can be called the center of London?
10. What industries are developed in Great Britain?
11. What is the political system of the United Kingdom?
12. What is understood by the Commonwealth?
13. Is Great Britain a republic or monarchy?
14. What are the main countries of the UK and their capitals?
15. Which countries of the UK occupy the two main islands?
16. What is the area of the UK?
17. Which river is associated with the name of Shakespeare?
18. Which is the swiftest flowing river in the UK?
19. Which is the highest point in the British Isles?
20. What is the population of London?

21. What parts does London consist of?

22. Which river runs through Londo

III.Test Your Knowledge on the UK .

1.What is the official name of Britain?

a) The United Kingdom b) The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland c) Great Britain

2. Where is the UK situated?

a) On Victoria Island b) On New Zealand Island c) On the British Isles

3. What parts does the UK consist of?

a) England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland b) England, Scotland, Wales c) England, Wales, Northern Ireland

4. What is the capital of Britain?

a) Washington b) Edinburgh c) London

5. What is the oldest part of London?

a) The City b) The West End c) The East End

6. What river is the British capital situated on?

a) On the Severn b) on the Thames c) on the Mississippi

7. What is the capital of Scotland?

a) Belfast b) Edinburgh c) Cardiff

8. What is the capital of Wales?

a) Belfast b) Edinburgh c) Cardiff

9. What is the capital of Northern Ireland?

a) Belfast b) Edinburgh c) Cardiff

10. What is the symbol of England?

a) The thistle b) The daffodil c) The red rose

11. What is the symbol of Scotland?

a) The thistle b) The daffodil c) The red rose

12. What is the symbol of Wales?

a) The thistle b) The daffodil c) The red rose

13. What is the symbol of Northern Ireland?

a) The red hand and the shamrock b) The daffodil c) The thistle

14. What is Edinburgh famous for?

a) for its art galleries b) for its music and theatre festivals c) for its monuments

15. What is Wales called?

a) A “Land of Song” b) A “Land of Music” c) A “Land of Art”

16. When do British people celebrate Christmas?

a) On the 7th of January b) On the 25th of December c) On the 19th of January

17. In 55BC Julius Caesar led a Roman invasion of Britain. It was unsuccessful and for nearly _____ years Britain remained separate from the Roman Empire

a)50; b)100; c)200; d)300.

18. Match the flower symbols with the parts of the UK

a) rose 1) Wales

b)thistle 2)Northern Ireland

c)shamrock 3)England

d)daffodil 4)Scotland

19.What is the capital of Northern Ireland?

a)London b) Derry c)Belfast d) Dublin

20. How many counties are there in Northern Ireland?

a)6 b)8 c)9d)10

IV. Test yourself *. Do You Belong In England, Scotland, Wales, Or Northern Ireland? Test is available at https://www.buzzfeed.com/tabathaleggett/do-you-belong-in-england-scotland-wales-or-northern-ireland?utm_term=.kwOxJmMr89#.elqqNVMoZJ

V. Creative assignments.

1. Look at the pictures and explain what it is, where it is, why it is a tourist attraction and worth visiting.









2. Tell the story of Lady Godiva and the life of Boudicca from the first person.

3. Study the British timeline (available at http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/interactive/timelines/british/index_embed.shtm. Choose the period at least 200 hundred years and describe it in 100 words.

3.

Chapter 2

National symbols

Every country has its specific culture and peculiarities which can be found in their symbols. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland **consists of four countries:** England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Each of them has its symbols and usually there are two types of them official and **unofficial ones.**

England is the main part of the UK as **there is its capital — London city** The floral emblem and at the same time the symbol of England is the red rose. **This flower has become a symbol since the Civil war which is called War of roses (1455-1485). The winner was the Royal Family with a red rose as a family symbol.** Besides the floral symbol England has the national animal of England and it is a lion.

The national flower in Scotland is the Thistle or sometimes it is called Scottish Bluebell. It**became the symbol in the 15th century** when this prickly-leaved violet flower was used as the defense of the border of the country. Scotland also **has its national animal** and it is a unicorn

Wales has the symbol spring flower daffodil.

There are many versions about the origin of this symbol, but the main was told by Shakespeare in his poem in which Welsh archers wore this flower in the battle of Agincourt in 15th century for easy distinguishing from the enemies. Sometimes it is possible to find the leek as the symbol of Wales. Welsh national animal is a red dragon **which is also on the welsh flag.**

And the Northern Ireland also has its own flower symbol it is shamrock. The legend told that with the help of this three-leaf plant St. Patrick explained the Trinity. He said that the Father, the Son and the Holy Spirit can’t exist separately as the shamrock can’t be with one leave. And later his followers used **to wear the shamrock on St. Patrick's Day.**

Besides the flower symbols every part of the UK has its own patron. It is possible to call them the saint symbols.

In England St. George is a patron and in his honor every year **on the 23rd April a national day, the Day of St. George, is celebrated there.** The national day in Wales is on the 1st March **and this day dedicated to St. David** who is the patron of Wales. The patron of Scotland is St. Andrew and Scotsmen **celebrate on the** 30th November the national day, St. Andrew day. **St. Patrick is a saint patron of the Northern Ireland and on the 17th of March it is a great holiday, the day of St. Patrick.**

All the floral and saint symbols of the UK countries can be called unofficial and **the official symbols** are their flags and emblems. The official symbol of England is the Cross of St. George the red crosses on the white ground. The national flag of Wales is**called the Welsh dragon**. **There is a red dragon** on the white and green ground. The national flag of the Scotland is the Cross of St. Andrew the white diagonal crosses on the blue ground. And the national flag of Northern Ireland is the Cross of St. Patrick red diagonal crosses on the white ground.

Besides the individual symbols and the emblems the UK has the common symbol the Union Jack. It is a flag which unites the peculiarities of the patrons **of England**, Wales and Scotland[5].

1.Exercises.

Answer the following questions to the text.

1. What symbols does the English (Scottish, Welsh) flag contain?
2. Describe the flag of the Northern Ireland.
3. What is the origion of the of the “three lions of Anjou” and where is the symbol used?

[5] The symbols of the UK. Available at http://tooday.ru/?l=eng&r=1&t=the_symbols_of_the_uk-simvolyi_obedinennogo_korolevstva-e1

4. What alternative names for England and the English do you know?
5. What are the national anthem and the unofficial anthems of the parts of the UK?
6. What are the the major landmarks of London (Edinburgh, Cardiff, Belfast)?
7. What imprint did the Roman Empire leave on the British Isles?

2.Tests.

1. Great Britain is comprised of …

a) England, Ireland and Scotland,

b) England, Wales and Hebrides,

c) Scotland, Wales and Anglesey,

d) England, Scotland and Wales.

2. Great Britain is a …

a) group of islands,

b) country,

c) state,

d) island.

3. The Union Flag of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is wrongly called …

a) the Union John,

b) the Union Jack,

c) the Union Jean,

d) the Union Jodo.

4. Two major symbols of Britain are…

a) Britannia and John Bull,

b) John Bull and the Union Flag,

c) Britannia and Queen Elizabeth,

d) Queen Elizabeth and the Union Flag.

5. Who is John Bull?

a) the national icon of Great Britain,

b) the former President of Great Britain,

c) a literary and cartoon character,

d) a famous poet.

6. The main island of Great Britain has an area of …

a) about 230 km2,

b) about 300 km2,

c) about 200 km2,

d) about 250 km2.

7. Great Britain doesn't include …

a) the Isle of Man and the Isles of Scilly,

b) the Isle of Wight and the Channel Islands,

c) the Isle of Man and the Hebrides,

d) the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man.

8. The full name of the United Kingdom is …

a) the United Kingdom of Great Britain,

b) the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland,

c) the United Kingdom of Great Britain and England,

d) the United Kingdom of England, Scotland, and Wales.

9. The Ireland regained independence in the …

a) 1990s,

b) 1950s,

c) 1920s,

d) 1980s.

10. The United Kingdom is …

a) a constitutional monarchy,

b) a state,

c) an absolute monarchy,

d) a limited monarchy.

11. The UK's current monarch and head of state is …

a) Queen Catherine,

b) Queen Elizabeth I,

c) Queen Elizabeth II,

d) King Arthur.

12. The United Kingdom monarch also reigns in 15 countries that are known as…

a) Commonwealth Realms,

b) Commonwealth Kingdoms,

c) Commonwealth Countries,

d) Commonwealth States.

13. How many members does House of Commons compose?

a) 333,

b) 569,

c) 501,

d) 659.

14. Another name of the Church of England is…

a) “Lords of God”,

b) “Lords Spiritual”,

c) “Lords Sacred”,

d) “Lords Devotional”.

15. The most important national symbol of England is…

a) the Lions of Anjou,

b) the Tigers of Anjou,

c) the Seals of Anjou,

d) the Eagles of Anjou.

16. The national anthem for the UK is …

a) “Land of Hope and Glory”,

b) “In God We Trust”,

c) “God Save The Queen”,

d) “Flower of the World”.

17. The most populous and the most ethnically diverse nation in the UK is in …

a) Wales,

b) Scotland,

c) Ireland,

d) England.

18. What is the capital of the UK?

a) Dublin,

b) Glasgow,

c) London,

d) Cardiff.

19. How many airports are in London?

a) 4,

b) 3,

c) 5,

d) 6.

20. Tower Bridge is …

a) the official London residence and principal workplace of the British monarch,

b) a large, mainly Gothic church, in the City of Westminster,

c) a monument in Trafalgar Square in central London,

d) a combined bascule and suspension bridge in London, over the River Thames.

21. Westminster Abbey is …

a) the official London residence and principal workplace of the British monarch,

b) a large, mainly Gothic church, in the City of Westminster,

c) a monument in Trafalgar Square in central London,

d) a combined bascule and suspension bridge in London, over the River Thames.

22. Nelson’s Column is …

a) the official London residence and principal workplace of the British monarch,

b) a large, mainly Gothic church, in the City of Westminster,

c) a monument in Trafalgar Square in central London,

d) a combined bascule and suspension bridge in London, over the River Thames.

23. Buckingham Palace is …

a) the official London residence and principal workplace of the British monarch,

b) a large, mainly Gothic church, in the City of Westminster,

c) a monument in Trafalgar Square in central London,

d) a combined bascule and suspension bridge in London, over the River Thames.

24. The lady is believed to have ridden naked through the streets of Coventry in 1057. Who was this lady?

a) Lady Boudicca.

b) Lady Victoria,

c) Lady Godiva,

d) Lady Elizabeth.

25. Complete the sentence: The Statue of …locates by London's Westminster Bridge.

a) Elizabeth,

b) Godiva,

c) Victoria,

d) Boudicca.

26. The "Iron Lady" is …

a) Queen Elizabeth II,

b) Margaret Thatcher,

c) Angela Eagle,

d) Alison Smith.

27. Complete the sentence: … is a popular global racquet sport played by two (singles) or four players (doubles) in a four-walled court with a small, hollow rubber ball.

a) Football,

b) Cricket,

c) Soccer,

d) Squash.

28. Snooker is …

a) a billiards-based game played on a large baize-covered table,

b) a sport in which two or four players hit a lightweight ball back and forth using table tennis rackets,

c) a two-player strategy board game played on a chessboard,

d) a group of strategy board games between two players.

29. Who is often called the “Bard of Avon”?

a) JRR Tolkien,

b) W. Shakespeare,

c) JK Rowling,

d) G. Chaucer.

30. The “Land of Songs” is …

a) Ireland,

b) Scotland,

c) England,

d) Wales.

3. Creative assignments. Tell the tale behind the flag named “the Red Dragon” and the prophecy related to it.

Chapter 3

Physical and human geography




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

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

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

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

Wales accounts for less than a tenth of the total area of the UK, covering 20,779 square kilometres (8,020 sq mi). Wales is mostly mountainous, though South Wales is less mountainous than North and mid Wales. The main population and industrial areas are in South Wales, consisting of the coastal cities of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport, and the South Wales Valleys to their north. The highest mountains in Wales are in

Snowdonia and include Snowdon (Welsh: Yr Wyddfa) which, at 1,085 metres (3,560 ft), is the highest peak in Wales. The 14, or possibly 15, Welsh mountains over 3,000 feet (910 metres) high are known collectively as the Welsh 3000s. Wales has over 2,704 kilometres (1,680 miles) of coastline. Several islands lie off the Welsh mainland, the largest of which is Anglesey (Ynys Môn) in the northwest.

Northern Ireland, separated from Great Britain by the Irish Sea and North Channel, has an area of 14,160 square kilometres (5,470 sq mi) and is mostly hilly. It includes Lough Neagh which, at 388 square kilometres (150 sq mi), is the largest lake in the British Isles by area.[138] The highest peak in Northern Ireland is Slieve Donard in the Mourne Mountains at 852 metres (2,795 ft).

Climate

The United Kingdom has a temperate climate, with plentiful rainfall all year round. The temperature varies with the seasons seldom dropping below −11 °C (12 °F) or rising above 35 °C (95 °F). The prevailing wind is from the south-west and bears frequent spells of mild and wet weather from the Atlantic Ocean, although the eastern parts are mostly sheltered from this wind since the majority of the rain falls over the western regions the eastern parts are therefore the driest. Atlantic currents, warmed by the Gulf Stream, bring mild winters; especially in the west where winters are wet and even more so over high ground. Summers are warmest in the south-east of England, being closest to the European mainland, and coolest in the north. Heavy snowfall can occur in winter and early spring on high ground, and occasionally settles to great depth away from the hills.

There is no consistent system of administrative or geographic demarcation across the United Kingdom. Each country of the United Kingdom has its own arrangements, whose origins often pre-date the UK's

formation. Until the 19th century there was little change to those arrangements, but there has since been a constant evolution of role and function, most significantly the devolution of powers to Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

The organisation of local government in England is complex, with the distribution of functions varying according to local arrangements. Legislation concerning local government in England is the responsibility of the UK's parliament and the government, as England has no devolved legislature. The upper-tier subdivisions of England are the nine regions, now used primarily for statistical purposes. One region, Greater London, has had a directly elected assembly and mayor since 2000 following popular support for the proposal in a referendum It was intended that other regions would also be given their own elected regional assemblies, but a proposed assembly in the North East region was rejected by a referendum in 2004. Below the regional tier, some parts of England have county councils and district councils and others have unitary authorities; while London consists of 32 London boroughs and the City of London. Councillors are elected by the first-past-the-post system in single-member wards or by the multi-member plurality system in multi-member wards.

For local government purposes, Scotland is divided into 32 council areas, with wide variation in both size and population. The cities of Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen and Dundee are separate council areas, as is the Highland Council which includes a third of Scotland's area but only just over 200,000 people. Local councils are made up of elected councillors, of whom there are 1,223; they are paid a part-time salary. Elections are conducted by single transferable vote in multi-member wards that elect either three or four councillors. Each council elects a Provost, or Convenor, to chair meetings of the council and to act as a figurehead for the area. Councillors are subject to a code of conduct enforced by the Standards Commission for Scotland. The

representative association of Scotland's local authorities is the Convention of Scottish Local Authorities (COSLA).

Local government in Wales consists of 22 unitary authorities. These include the cities of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport which are unitary authorities in their own right.Elections are held every four years under the first-past-the-post system. The most recent elections were held in May 2012, except for the Isle of Anglesey. The Welsh Local Government Association represents the interests of local authorities in Wales.

Local government in Northern Ireland has since 1973 been organised into 26 district councils, each elected by single transferable vote. Their powers are limited to services such as collecting waste, controlling dogs and maintaining parks and cemeteries. On 13 March 2008 the executive agreed on proposals to create 11 new councils and replace the present system.The next local elections were postponed until 2016 to facilitate this.

1.Exercises

Answer the following questions to the text.

1. What symbols does the English (Scottish, Welsh) flag contain?
2. Describe the flag of the Northern Ireland.
3. What is the origion of the of the “three lions of Anjou” and where is the symbol used?
4. What alternative names for England and the English do you know?
5. What are the national anthem and the unofficial anthems of the parts of the UK?
6. What are the the major landmarks of London (Edinburgh, Cardiff, Belfast)?
7. What imprint did the Roman Empire leave on the British Isles?

1. **Tests**

1. What's the capital of the Republic of Ireland?
    a) Cardiff
    b) Dublin
    c) London
    d) Belfast

2.Where in Britain can you find Loch Ness?
    a) England
    b) Wales
    c) Scotland
    d) Northern Ireland

3.What is the capital of Scotland?
    a) Glasgow
    b) Aberdeen
    c) Edinburgh
    d) Inverness

4.What is the highest mountain in Britain?
    a) Snowdon
    b) Ben Nevis
    c) Ben Macdhui
    d) Scafell Pike

5.In which part of Britain can you find the Snowdonia National Park?
    a) England
    b) Wales
    c) Scotland
    d) Northern Ireland

6.Which island lies between England and Ireland?
    a) The Isle of Man
    b) The Isle of Skye

c) Sheltand Islands

d) Jersey

7.Which part of Britain is not in the flag of the UK?

a) England

b) Wales

c) Scotland

d) Northern Ireland

8.What is the flag of the UK called?

a) Tricolore

b) Union Jack

c) Stars and Stripes

d) United Kingdom

9.In which part of the UK is Dartmoor?

a) England

b) Wales

c) Scotland

d) Northern Ireland

10.In which part of the UK is the Lake District?

a) England

b) Wales

c) Scotland

d) Northern Ireland

3. Creative assighments. Please complete a blind map of the UK.



Chapter 4

Prehistory and history of the UK

The **history of the British Isles** has witnessed intermittent periods of competition and cooperation between the people that occupy the various parts of Great Britain, Ireland, and the smaller adjacent islands, which together make up the British Isles.

Today, the British Isles contain two sovereign states: the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom. There are also three Crown dependencies: Guernsey, Jersey and the Isle of Man. The United Kingdom

comprises England, Northern Ireland, Scotland, andWales, each country having its own history, with all but Northern Ireland having been independent states at one point. The history of the formation of the United Kingdom is very complex.

The British monarch was head of state of all of the countries of the British Isles from the Union of the Crowns in 1603 until the enactment of the Republic of Ireland Act in 1949, although the term "British Isles" was not used in 1603. Additionally, since the independence of most of Ireland, historians of the region often avoid the term *British Isles* due to the complexity of relations between the peoples of the archipelago (see: *Terminology of the British Isles*).



Prehistoric

Palaeolithic and Mesolithic periods

The Palaeolithic and Mesolithic, also known as the Old and Middle Stone Ages, were characterised by a hunter-gatherer economy and a reliance on stone tool technologies.

Palaeolithic

The Lower Palaeolithic period in the British Isles saw the region's first known habitation by early hominids, specifically the extinct Homo heidelbergensis.

One of the most prominent archaeological sites dating to this period is that of Boxgrove Quarry in West Sussex, southern England.

Mesolithic (10,000 to 4,500 BC)

By the Mesolithic, Homo sapiens, or modern humans, were the only hominid species to still survive in the British Isles.

Neolithic and Bronze Ages (4500 to 600BC)

In the British Isles, the Neolithic and Bronze Ages saw the transformation of British and Irish society and landscape. It saw the adoption of agriculture, as communities gave up their hunter-gatherer modes of existence to begin farming.

Iron Age (1200BC to 600AD)

As its name suggests, the British Iron Age is also characterised by the adoption of iron, a metal which was used to produce a variety of different tools, ornaments and weapons.

In the course of the first millennium BC, immigration from continental Europe resulted in the establishment of Celtic languages in the islands, eventually giving rise to the Insular Celtic group. What languages were spoken in the islands before is unknown, though they are assumed to have been Pre-Indo-European.

Classical period

From AD 40 to about AD 410, southern Britain was a part of the Roman Empire, with archaeologists referring to this area as "Roman Britain", and this time span the "Romano-British period" or the "Roman Iron Age".

In and around the same time period, Ireland was being invaded and settled by Gaels.

Medieval period

Main articles: Medieval England, Medieval Scotland, Medieval Wales, Early medieval Ireland, and Late medieval Ireland

Early medieval

The Early medieval period saw a series of invasions of Britain by the Germanic-speaking Saxons, beginning in the 5th century. Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were formed and, through wars with British states, gradually came to cover the territory of present-day England. Around 600, seven principal kingdoms had emerged, beginning the so-called period of the Heptarchy. During that period, the Anglo-Saxon states were Christianised (the conversion of the British ones had begun much earlier). In the 9th century, Vikings from Denmark and Norway conquered most of England. Only the Kingdom of Wessex under Alfred the Great survived and even managed to re-conquer and unify England for much of the 10th century, before a new series of Danish raids in the late 10th century and early 11th century culminated in the wholesale subjugation of England to Denmark under Canute the Great. Danish rule was overthrown and the local House of Wessex was restored to power under Edward the Confessor for about two decades until his death in 1066.

Late Medieval

Bayeux Tapestry depicting events leading to the Norman conquest of England, which defined much of the subsequent history of the British Isles

In 1066, William, Duke of Normandy said he was the rightful heir to the English throne, invaded England, and defeated King Harold II at the Battle of Hastings. Proclaiming himself to be King William I, he strengthened his regime by appointing loyal members of the Norman elite to many positions of authority, building a system of castles across the country and ordering a census of his new kingdom, the Domesday Book. The Late Medieval period was characterised by many battles between England and France, coming to a head in the Hundred Years' War from which France emerged victorious. The monarchs throughout the Late Medieval period belonged to the houses of Plantaganet, Lancaster and York.

Early modern period

Major historical events in the early modern period include the English Renaissance, the English Reformation and Scottish Reformation, the English Civil War, the Restoration of Charles II, the Glorious Revolution, the Treaty of Union, the Scottish Enlightenment and the formation of the First British Empire.

19th century

Union of Great Britain and Ireland

The Kingdom of Ireland was a settler state; the monarch was the incumbent monarch of England and later of Great Britain. The Lord Lieutenant of Ireland headed the government on behalf of the monarch. He was assisted by the Chief Secretary of Ireland. Both were responsible to the government in London rather than to the Parliament of Ireland. Before the Constitution of 1782, the Irish parliament was also severely fettered, and decisions in Irish courts could be overturned on appeal to the British House of Lords in London.

Ireland gained a degree of independence in the 1780s thanks to Henry Grattan. During this time the effects of the penal laws on the primarily Roman Catholic population were reduced, and some property-owning Catholics were granted the franchise in 1794; however, they were still excluded from becoming members of the Irish House of Commons. This brief period of limited independence came to an end following the Irish Rebellion of 1798, which occurred during the British war with revolutionary France. The British government's fear of an independent Ireland siding against them with the French resulted in the decision to unite the two countries. This was brought about by legislation in the parliaments of both kingdoms and came into effect on 1 January 1801. The Irish had been led to believe by the British that their loss of legislative independence would be compensated for with Catholic Emancipation, i.e. by the removal of civil disabilities placed upon Roman

Catholics in both Great Britain and Ireland. However, King George III was bitterly opposed to any such Emancipation and succeeded in defeating his government's attempts to introduce it.

Napoleonic Wars

During the War of the Second Coalition (1799–1801), Britain occupied most of the French and Dutch overseas possessions, the Netherlands having become a satellite state of France in 1796, but tropical diseases claimed the lives of over 40,000 troops. When the Treaty of Amiens ended the war, Britain agreed to return most of the territories it had seized. The peace settlement was in effect only a ceasefire, and Napoleon continued to provoke the British by attempting a trade embargo on the country and by occupying the city of Hanover, capital of the Electorate, a German-speaking duchy which was in a personal union with the United Kingdom. In May 1803, war was declared again. Napoleon's plans to invade Britain failed, chiefly due to the inferiority of his navy, and in 1805 Lord Nelson's Royal Navy fleet decisively defeated the French and Spanish at Trafalgar, ending any hopes Napoleon had to wrest control of the oceans away from the British.

The British HMS Sandwich fires to the French flagship Bucentaure (completely dismasted) into battle off Trafalgar. The Bucentaure also fights HMS Victory (behind her) and HMS Temeraire (left side of the picture). In fact, HMS Sandwich never fought at Trafalgar, it is a mistake from Auguste Mayer, the painter.

In 1806, Napoleon issued the series of Berlin Decrees, which brought into effect the Continental System. This policy aimed to eliminate the threat from the British by closing French-controlled territory to foreign trade. The British Army remained a minimal threat to France; it maintained a standing strength of just 220,000 men at the height of the Napoleonic Wars, whereas France's armies exceeded a million men—in addition to the armies of

numerous allies and several hundred thousand national guardsmen that Napoleon could draft into the French armies when they were needed. Although the Royal Navy effectively disrupted France's extra-continental trade—both by seizing and threatening French shipping and by seizing French colonial possessions—it could do nothing about France's trade with the major continental economies and posed little threat to French territory in Europe. France's population and agricultural capacity far outstripped that of Britain.

Top French leaders argued that cutting the British off from the European mainland would end their economic hegemony, but Great Britain possessed the greatest industrial capacity in the world, and its mastery of the seas allowed it to build up considerable economic strength through trade to its possessions from its rapidly expanding new Empire. . In terms of economic damage to Great Britain, the blockade was largely ineffective. As Napoleon realized that extensive trade was going through Spain and Russia, he invaded those two countries. He tied down his forces in Spain, and lost very badly in Russia in 1812. The Spanish uprising in 1808 at last permitted Britain to gain a foothold on the Continent. The Duke of Wellington and his army of British and Portuguese gradually pushed the French out of Spain, and in early 1814, as Napoleon was being driven back in the east by the Prussians, Austrians, and Russians, Wellington invaded southern France. After Napoleon's surrender and exile to the island of Elba, peace appeared to have returned, but when he escaped back into France in 1815, the British and their allies had to fight him again. The armies of Wellington and Blucher defeated Napoleon once and for all at Waterloo.

Signing of the Treaty of Ghent With the United States (1814), by A. ForestierSimultaneous with the Napoleonic Wars, trade disputes and British impressment of American sailors led to the War of 1812 with the United States. A central event in American history, it was little noticed in Britain, where all attention was focused on the struggle with France. The British could

devote few resources to the conflict until the fall of Napoleon in 1814. American frigates also inflicted a series of embarrassing defeats on the British navy, which was short on manpower due to the conflict in Europe.

A stepped-up war effort that year brought about some successes such as the burning of Washington, D.C., but the Duke of Wellington argued that an outright victory over the U.S. was impossible Because the Americans controlled the western Great Lakes and had destroyed the power of Britain's Indian allies. A full-scale British invasion was defeated in upstate New York. Peace was agreed to at the end of 1814, but not before Andrew Jackson, unaware of this, won a great victory over the British at the Battle of New Orleans in January 1815 (news took several weeks to cross the Atlantic before the advent of steam ships). The Treaty of Ghent subsequently ended the war with no territorial changes. It was the last war between Britain and the United States.

George IV and William IV

Britain emerged from the Napoleonic Wars a very different country than it had been in 1793. As industrialisation progressed, society changed, becoming more urban and less rural. The postwar period saw an economic slump, and poor harvests and inflation caused widespread social unrest. Europe after 1815 was on guard against a return of Jacobinism, and even liberal Britain saw the passage of the Six Acts in 1819, which proscribed radical activities. By the end of the 1820s, along with a general economic recovery, many of these repressive laws were repealed and in 1828 new legislation guaranteed the civil rights of religious dissenters.

A weak ruler as regent (1811–20) and king (1820–30), George IV let his ministers take full charge of government affairs, playing a far lesser role than his father, George III. His governments, with little help from the king, presided over victory in the Napoleonic Wars, negotiated the peace

settlement, and attempted to deal with the social and economic malaise that followed. His brother William IV ruled (1830–37), but was little involved in politics. His reign saw several reforms: the poor law was updated, child labour restricted, slavery abolished in nearly all the British Empire, and, most important, the Reform Act 1832 refashioned the British electoral system.

There were no major wars until the Crimean War (1853–56). While Prussia, Austria, and Russia, as absolute monarchies, tried to suppress liberalism wherever it might occur, the British came to terms with new ideas. Britain intervened in Portugal in 1826 to defend a constitutional government there and recognising the independence of Spain's American colonies in 1824. British merchants and financiers, and later railway builders, played major roles in the economies of most Latin American nations.

Whig reforms of the 1830s

The Whig Party recovered its strength and unity by supporting moral reforms, especially the reform of the electoral system, the abolition of slavery and emancipation of the Catholics. Catholic emancipation was secured in the Catholic Relief Act of 1829, which removed the most substantial restrictions on Roman Catholics in Great Britain and Ireland.

The Whigs became champions of Parliamentary reform. They made Lord Grey prime minister 1830–1834, and the Reform Act of 1832 became their signature measure. It broadened the franchise and ended the system of "rotten borough" and "pocket boroughs" (where elections were controlled by powerful families), and instead redistributed power on the basis of population. It added 217,000 voters to an electorate of 435,000 in England and Wales. The main effect of the act was to weaken the power of the landed gentry, and enlarge the power of the professional and business middle-class, which now for the first time had a significant voice in Parliament. However, the great majority of manual workers, clerks, and farmers did not have enough property to qualify to vote. The aristocracy continued to dominate the government, the

Army and Royal Navy, and high society. After parliamentary investigations demonstrated the horrors of child labour, limited reforms were passed in 1833.

Chartism emerged after the 1832 Reform Bill failed to give the vote to the working class. Activists denounced the "betrayal" of the working classes and the "sacrificing" of their "interests" by the "misconduct" of the government. In 1838, Chartists issued the People's Charter demanding manhood suffrage, equal sized election districts, voting by ballots, payment of Members of Parliament (so that poor men could serve), annual Parliaments, and abolition of property requirements. The ruling class saw the movement as pathological, [clarification needed] so the Chartists were unable to force serious constitutional debate. Historians see Chartism as both a continuation of the 18th century fight against corruption and as a new stage in demands for democracy in an industrial society. In 1832 Parliament abolished slavery in the Empire with the Slavery Abolition Act 1833. The government purchased the slaves for £20,000,000 (the money went to rich plantation owners who mostly lived in England), and freed the slaves, especially those in the Caribbean sugar islands.

Leadership

Prime Ministers of the period included: William Pitt the Younger, Lord Grenville, Duke of Portland, Spencer Perceval, Lord Liverpool, George Canning, Lord Goderich, Duke of Wellington, Lord Grey, Lord Melbourne, and Sir Robert Peel.

Victorian era

Queen Victoria (1837–1901)

The Victorian era was the period of Queen Victoria's rule between 1837 and 1901 which signified the height of the British Industrial Revolution and the

apex of the British Empire. Scholars debate whether the Victorian period—as defined by a variety of sensibilities and political concerns that have come to be associated with the Victorians—actually begins with the passage of the Reform Act 1832. The era was preceded by the Regency era and succeeded by the Edwardian period. Victoria became queen in 1837 at age 18. Her long reign saw Britain reach the zenith of its economic and political power, with the introduction of steam ships, railroads, photography, and the telegraph. Britain again remained mostly inactive in Continental politics.

Foreign policy

Free trade imperialism

The Great London Exhibition of 1851 clearly demonstrated Britain's dominance in engineering and industry; that lasted until the rise of the United States and Germany in the 1890s. Using the imperial tools of free trade and financial investment, it exerted major influence on many countries outside Europe, especially in Latin America and Asia. Thus Britain had both a formal Empire based on British rule as well as an informal one based on the British pound.

Russia, France and the Ottoman Empire

One nagging fear was the possible collapse of the Ottoman Empire. It was well understood that a collapse of that country would set off a scramble for its territory and possibly plunge Britain into war. To head that off Britain sought to keep the Russians from occupying Constantinople and taking over the Bosporous Straits, as well as from threatening India via Afghanistan. In 1853, Britain and France intervened in the Crimean War against Russia. Despite mediocre generalship, they managed to capture the Russian port of Sevastopol, compelling Tsar Nicholas I to ask for peace.

The next Russo-Ottoman war in 1877 led to another European intervention, although this time at the negotiating table. The Congress of Berlin blocked Russia from imposing the harsh Treaty of San Stefano on the

Ottoman Empire. Despite its alliance with the French in the Crimean War, Britain viewed the Second Empire of Napoleon III with some distrust, especially as the emperor constructed ironclad warships and began returning France to a more active foreign policy.

American Civil War

During the American Civil War (1861–1865), British leaders favoured the Confederacy, a major source of cotton for textile mills. Prince Albert was effective in defusing a war scare in late 1861. The British people, however, who depended heavily on American food imports, generally favoured the Union. What little cotton was available came from New York, as the blockade by the US Navy shut down 95% of Southern exports to Britain. In September 1862, Abraham Lincoln announced the Emancipation Proclamation. Since support of the Confederacy now meant supporting the institution of slavery, there was no possibility of European intervention.The British sold arms to both sides, built blockade runners for a lucrative trade with the Confederacy, and surreptitiously allowed warships to be built for the Confederacy. The warships caused a major diplomatic row that was resolved in the Alabama Claims in 1872, in the Americans' favour.

Empire expands

In 1867, Britain united most of its North American colonies as the Dominion of Canada, giving it self-government and responsibility for its own defence, but Canada did not have an independent foreign policy until 1931. Several of the colonies temporarily refused to join the Dominion despite pressure from both Canada and Britain; the last one, Newfoundland, held out until 1949. The second half of the 19th century saw a huge expansion of Britain's colonial empire, mostly in Africa. A talk of the Union Jack flying "from Cairo to Cape Town" only became a reality at the end of the Great War. Having possessions on six continents, Britain had to defend all of its empire

and did so with a volunteer army, the only great power in Europe to have no conscription. Some questioned whether the country was overstretched.

The rise of the German Empire since its creation in 1871 posed a new challenge, for it (along with the United States), threatened to usurp Britain's place as the world's foremost industrial power. Germany acquired a number of colonies in Africa and the Pacific, but Chancellor Otto von Bismarck succeeded in achieving general peace through his balance of power strategy. When William II became emperor in 1888, he discarded Bismarck, began using bellicose language, and planned to build a navy to rival Britain's.

Ever since Britain had wrested control of the Cape Colony from the Netherlands during the Napoleonic Wars, it had co-existed with Dutch settlers who had migrated further away from the Cape and created two republics of their own. The British imperial vision called for control over these new countries, and the Dutch-speaking "Boers" (or "Afrikaners") fought back in the War in 1899–1902. Outgunned by a mighty empire, the Boers waged a guerrilla war (which certain other British territories would later employ to attain independence). This gave the British regulars a difficult fight, but their weight of numbers, superior equipment, and often brutal tactics, eventually brought about a British victory. The war had been costly in human rights and was widely criticised by Liberals in Britain and worldwide. However, the United States gave its support. The Boer republics were merged into the Union of South Africa in 1910; this had internal self-government, but its foreign policy was controlled by London and it was an integral part of the British Empire.

20th century to present

1900–1945

At the turn of the century, Britain was involved in the Second Boer War in South Africa.

Queen Victoria, who had reigned since 1837, died in 1901 and was succeeded by her son, Edward VII, who, in turn, was succeeded by George V in 1910.

In 1914, Britain entered the First World War by declaring war on Germany. Nearly a million Britons were killed in the war, which lasted until Germany's surrender on 11 November 1918.

Home Rule in Ireland, which had been a major political issue since the late 19th century but put on hold by the war, was somewhat resolved after the Irish War of Independence brought the British Government to a stalemate in 1922. Negotiations led to the formation of the Irish Free State. However, in order to appease Unionists in the north, the north-eastern six counties remained as part of the U.K., with its own Parliament at Stormont in Belfast.

Having been in power for much of the early 20th century under Prime Ministers Campbell-Bannerman, Asquith and Lloyd George, the Liberal party suffered a sharp decline from 1922; the newly formed Labour party, whose leader Ramsay Macdonald led two minority governments, swiftly became the Conservatives' main opposition, and Britain's largest party of the left.

King Edward VIII succeeded his father George V in January 1936, but was quickly met with difficulties due to his love affair with Wallis Simpson, an American who had already been married twice. In December, he decided to abdicate in order to be able to marry Simpson, and his brother George VI was crowned king.

In order to avoid another European conflict, Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain attempted to appease German Chancellor Adolf Hitler, who was expanding his country's territory across Central Europe. Despite proclaiming that he has achieved "peace for our time", Britain declared war on Germany on 3 September 1939, following Hitler's invasion of Poland two days earlier. The U.K. thus joined the Allied forces in opposition to the Axis forces of

Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy. For the first time, civilians were not exempt from the war, as London suffered nightly bombings during the Blitz. At the war's end in 1945, however, the U.K. emerged as one of the victorious nations.

1945–1997

Winston Churchill, who had been leader of the wartime coalition government, suffered a surprising landslide defeat to Clement Attlee's Labour party in 1945 elections. Attlee created a Welfare State in Britain, which most notably provided free healthcare under the National Health Service. By the late 1940s, the Cold War was underway, which would dominate British foreign policy for another 40 years.

In 1951, Churchill and the Tories returned to power; they would govern uninterrupted for the next 13 years. King George VI died in 1952, and was succeeded by his eldest daughter, Elizabeth II.

Churchill was succeeded in 1955 by Sir Anthony Eden, whose premiership was dominated by the Suez Crisis, in which Britain, France and Israel plotted to bomb Egypt after its President Nasser nationalised the Suez Canal. Eden's successor, Harold Macmillan, split the Conservatives when Britain applied to join the European Economic Community, but French President Charles de Gaulle vetoed the application.

Labour returned to power in 1964 under Harold Wilson, who brought in a number of social reforms, including the legalisation of abortion, the abolition of capital punishment and the decriminalisation of homosexuality. In 1973, Conservative Prime Minister Edward Heath succeeded in securing U.K. membership in the European Economic Community (EEC), what would later become known as the European Union. Wilson, having lost the 1970 election to Heath, returned to power in 1974; however, Labour's reputation was harmed by the winter of discontent of 1978-9 under Jim Callaghan, which

enabled the Conservatives to re-take control of Parliament in 1979, under Margaret Thatcher, Britain's first female Prime Minister.

Although Thatcher's economic reforms made her initially unpopular, her decision in 1982 to retake the Falkland Islands from invading Argentine forces, in what would become known as the Falklands War, changed her fortunes and enabled a landslide victory in 1983. After winning an unprecedented third election in 1987, however, Thatcher's popularity began to fade and she was replaced by former chancellor John Major in 1990.

Tensions between Protestants and Catholics in Northern Ireland came to a head in the late 1960s, when nationalist participants in a civil rights march were shot by members of the B Specials, a reserve police force manned almost exclusively by unionists. From this point the Provisional Irish Republican Army, also known as the Provos or simply the IRA, began a bombing campaign throughout the U.K., beginning a period known as The Troubles, which lasted until the late 1990s.

Prince Charles, the Prince of Wales and Elizabeth's eldest son married Lady Diana Spencer in 1981; the couple had two children, William and Harry, but divorced in 1992, during which year Prince Andrew and Princess Anne also separated from their spouses, leading the Queen to call the year her 'annus horribilis'. In 1997, Diana was killed in a car crash in Paris, leading to a mass outpouring of grief across the United Kingdom, and indeed the world.

On the international stage, the second half of the 20th century was dominated by the Cold War between the Soviet Union and its socialist allies and the United States and its capitalist allies; the U.K. was a key supporter of the latter, joining the anti-Soviet military alliance NATO in 1949. During this period, the U.K. became involved in several Cold War conflicts, such as the Korean War (1950–1953). In contrast, the Republic of Ireland remained neutral and provided troops to U.N. peace-keeping missions.

1997–present

In 1997, Tony Blair was elected prime minister in a landslide victory for the so-called 'New Labour', economically following 'Third Way' programmes. Blair won re-election in 2001 and 2005, before handing over power to his chancellor Gordon Brown in 2007. After a decade of prosperity both the U.K. and the Irish Republic were affected by the global recession, which began in 2008. In 2010, the Conservative party formed a coalition government with the Liberal Democrats, with Tory leader David Cameron as Prime Minister. In 2015 polling suggested a hung parliament was the most likely outcome in the General Election; however the Conservatives secured a slim majority.

After 9/11, the U.K. supported the U.S. in their "War on Terror", and joined them in the War in Afghanistan (2001-present) and the invasion of Iraq. London was attacked in July 2005. The UK also took a leading role in the 2011 military intervention in Libya.

Periods

Prehistoric Britain (Prehistory–AD 43)

Prehistoric Scotland

Prehistoric Wales

Roman Britain (44–407)

Sub-Roman Britain (407–597)

Britain in the Middle Ages (597-1485)

Anglo-Saxon England (597–1066)

Scotland in the Early Middle Ages (400–900)

Scotland in the High Middle Ages (900-1286)

Norman Conquest of England (1066)

Scotland in the Late Middle Ages (1286–1513)

Wars of Scottish Independence (1296–1357)

Early modern Britain

Tudor period (1485–1603)

Tudor conquest of Ireland

English Renaissance

Elizabethan era (1558–1603)

First British Empire (1583–1783)

Jacobean era (1567–1625)

Union of the Crowns (1603)

Caroline era (1625–1642)

English Civil War (1642–1651)

English Interregnum (1651–1660)

Restoration (1660)

Glorious Revolution (1688)

Scottish Enlightenment

Kingdom of Great Britain (1707–1800)

Second British Empire (1783–1815)

Georgian era

History of the United Kingdom (1801-)

United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (1801–1922)

Britain's Imperial Century (1815–1914)

Regency (1811–1820)

Victorian era (1837–1901)

Edwardian period (1901–1910)

Britain in World War I (1914–1918)

Coalition Government 1916–1922

United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (1922 -)

Conservative Government 1922–1924

Conservative Government 1924–1929

Labour Government 1929–1931

National Government (1931–1940)

Britain in World War II (1939–1945)

History of the United Kingdom (1945–present)

Premiership of Margaret Thatcher (1979–1990)

Premiership of Tony Blair (1997–2007)

Premiership of Gordon Brown

Premiership of David Cameron

History of the Republic of Ireland (1922 to present)

Irish civil war

1. **Exercises.Complete the missing parts of the table.**

Timeline history of the British Isles

Date	States/Peoples					Events
pre-6th c. BC	Prehistoric Britain, Prehistoric Ireland					
6th to 1st c. BC	British Iron Age, Iron Age tribes in Britain, Insular Celtic					
	Gauls	Brythons	Picts	Gaels		
???	Gallia Lugdunensis (Roman province)					
43 AD		Britannia (Roman province)				???
410	???		Anglo-Saxon England	Hen Ogledd		
638						Viking raids
843					Kingdom of Strathclyde	
???	Kingdom of Brittany					
???				Danelaw		
911	Duchy of Normandy					
927						
1054		Kingdom of England		Kingdom of Alba		???
1079					Kingdo	
1098		??		Kin		Norman

<table>
<tr><td></td><td rowspan="11">Bailiwick of Guernsey</td><td rowspan="11">Bailiwick of Jersey</td><td rowspan="11">Isle of Man</td><td rowspan="2"></td><td rowspan="11">gdom of Norway</td><td rowspan="11">m of Man and the Isles</td><td rowspan="2"></td><td>invasion of Ireland</td></tr>
<tr><td>1171</td><td rowspan="10">Lordship of Ireland</td><td rowspan="10"></td></tr>
<tr><td>1204</td><td rowspan="3">???</td></tr>
<tr><td>1266</td></tr>
<tr><td>1282</td><td>Wars of Scottish Independence</td></tr>
<tr><td>1333</td></tr>
<tr><td>1469</td><td>Poynings' Law</td></tr>
<tr><td>???</td><td>???
Tudor conquest of Ireland
Union of the Crowns</td></tr>
<tr><td>1607</td><td rowspan="3">???</td><td rowspan="2">Kingdom of Ireland</td><td>Flight of the Earls
Plantation of Ulster
???</td></tr>
<tr><td>1641</td><td rowspan="2">Confederate Ireland</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>1649</td><td>Commonwealth of England</td><td>Cromwellian conquest of Ireland</td></tr>
<tr><td>???</td><td colspan="4">Commonwealth of England, Scotland and Ireland</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>1660</td><td>Kingdom of England</td><td colspan="2">Kingdom of Scotland</td><td>Kingdom of Ireland</td><td>Penal Laws
Revolution of 1688
Battle of the Boyne</td></tr>
<tr><td>1707</td><td colspan="4">???</td><td>Acts of Union</td></tr>
</table>

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<tr><td></td><td rowspan="7"></td><td rowspan="7"></td><td rowspan="7"></td><td colspan="3"></td><td></td><td>1707
Battle of Culloden
Irish Rebellion of 1798</td></tr>
<tr><td>1801</td><td colspan="4" rowspan="3">United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland</td><td rowspan="3"></td><td>Act of Union 1800
Catholic Emancipation
Irish Potato Famine</td></tr>
<tr><td>1919</td><td rowspan="2">Irish Republic</td><td>Irish War of Independence
Partition of Ireland</td></tr>
<tr><td>1921/2</td><td rowspan="3">??</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>1937</td><td colspan="3" rowspan="2">United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland</td><td rowspan="3">Ireland</td><td>The Emergency
Battle of Britain
The Troubles
Celtic Tiger</td></tr>
<tr><td>???</td><td>Wales</td><td></td><td>Scotland</td><td>???</td></tr>
</table>

2. Tests

1. The Official London residence of the Queen and the largest “working” royal palace in the world is:

a) Nelson’s Column
b) King William’s Palace
c) Buckingham Palace
d) The National Gallery

2.The Queen Elizabeth I was the fifth but not the last monarch of the Tudor dynasty.

a) It’s possible
b) True
c) It’s impossible
d) false

3.Choose the period of Elizabeth I reign:

a) 1586-1683
b) 1677-1700
c) 1533-1603
d) 1845-1934

4.When did Civil War break out ?

a) 1746
b) 1642
c) 1656
d) 1789

5.The highest of the Industrial Revolution period of great social, economic, and technological change in the United Kingdom is …

a) The Victorian Era
b) The Elizabethan Era
c) The Elizabethan II Era
d) The Era of Freedom

6.Who was the first monarch to use the title Empress of India?

a) Elizabeth I

b) Elizabeth
c) Victoria II
d) Victoria (Alexandrina Victoria)

7. Find the person and who he/she was:

a) Elizabeth I	1	Empress of India
b) Victoria	2	The Queen of England and Ireland (1558-until her death)
c) Margaret Thatcher	3	The Lord Protector and Head of State
d) Oliver Cromwell	4	Prime minister, Conservative Party leader

8.When was Christianity in Britain adopted?

a) 6th century
b) 5-6th century
c) 2-3d century
d) 1-2nd century

9.Choose the right symbols:

a) England	1	Britannia and John Bull
b) Scotland	2	The Lions of Anjou
c) Wales	3	3 King William I “The Lion”
d) Great Britain	4	The Red Dragon on the flag

10.The National Assembly for Wales was established in:

a) 1789
b) 1998
c) 1897
d) 1999

11.What is the capital of Wales?

a) London
b) Taff
c) Cardiff
d) Newport

12.Newport, Cardiff, Swansea are the largest cities of…

a) England
b) Wales
c) Scotland
d) These are not the cities

13.The beginning of undivided Saxon rule in England:

a) 829
b) 987
c) 564
d) 888

14.To combine the date and the event:

a) 1066 1 Elizabethan Era
b) 1660 2 Victorian Era
c) 1839-1902 3 The restoration of monarchy
d) 1533-1603 4 The battle of Hastings

3. Creative assignments.

Write a short summary on the alternative history of the UK (or one of its parts) and present it in class.

Chapter 5

System of Government



Her Majesty's Government (HMG; Welsh: Llywodraeth Ei Mawrhydi), commonly referred to as the British government, is the central government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

The government is led by the Prime Minister, who selects all the remaining ministers. The prime minister and the other most senior ministers belong to the supreme decision-making committee, known as the Cabinet. The government ministers all sit in Parliament, and are accountable to it. The government is dependent on Parliament to make primary legislation, and since the Fixed-terms Parliaments Act 2011, general elections are held every five years to elect a new House of Commons, unless there is a successful vote of no confidence in the government in the House of Commons, in which case an election may be held sooner. After an election, the monarch (currently Queen Elizabeth II) selects as prime minister the leader of the party most likely to command a majority of MPs in the House of Commons.

Under the uncodified British constitution, executive authority lies with the monarch, although this authority is exercised only by, or on the advice of, the prime minister and the cabinet. The Cabinet members advise the monarch as members of the Privy Council. They also exercise power directly as leaders of the Government Departments.

The current prime minister is Theresa May, who took office on 13 July 2016. She is the leader of the Conservative Party, which won a majority of seats in the House of Commons in the general election on 7 May 2015, when David Cameron was the party leader. Prior to this, Cameron and the Conservatives led a coalition government from 2010 to 2015 with the Liberal Democrats, in which Cameron was prime minister.

A key principle of the British Constitution is that the government is responsible to Parliament. This is called responsible government.

Britain is a constitutional monarchy in which the reigning monarch (that is, the King or Queen who is the Head of State at any given time) does not make any open political decisions. All political decisions are taken by the government and Parliament. This constitutional state of affairs is the result of a long history of constraining and reducing the political power of the monarch, beginning with the Magna Carta in 1215.

Parliament is split into two houses: the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The House of Commons is the lower house and is the more powerful. The House of Lords is the upper house and although it can vote to amend proposed laws, the House of Commons can usually vote to overrule its amendments. Although the House of Lords can introduce bills, most important laws are introduced in the House of

Commons - and most of those are introduced by the government, which schedules the vast majority of parliamentary time in the Commons. Parliamentary time is essential for bills to be passed into law, because they must pass through a number of readings before becoming law. Prior to introducing a bill, the government may run a public consultation to solicit feedback from the public and businesses, and often may have already introduced and discussed the policy in the Queen's Speech, or in an election manifesto or party platform.

Ministers of the Crown are responsible to the House in which they sit; they make statements in that House and take questions from members of that House. For most senior ministers this is usually the elected House of Commons rather than the House of Lords. There have been some recent exceptions to this: for example, cabinet ministers Lord Mandelson (First Secretary of State) and Lord Adonis (Secretary of State for Transport) sat in the Lords and were responsible to that House during the government of Gordon Brown.

British Parliament

Since the start of Edward VII's reign, in 1901, the prime minister has always been an elected member of Parliament (MP) and therefore directly accountable to the House of Commons. A similar convention applies to the Chancellor of the Exchequer: it would likely be politically unacceptable for the budget speech to be given in the Lords, with MPs unable to directly question the Chancellor, especially now that the Lords have very limited powers in relation to money bills; the last Chancellor of the Exchequer to be a member of the House of Lords was Lord Denman, who served as interim Chancellor of the Exchequer for one month in 1834.

Under the British system the government is required by convention and for practical reasons to maintain the confidence of the House of Commons. It requires the support of the House of Commons for the maintenance of supply (by voting through the government's budgets) and in order to pass primary legislation. By convention if a government loses the confidence of the House of Commons it must either resign or a General Election is held. The support of the Lords, while useful to the government in getting its legislation passed without delay, is not vital. A government is not required to resign even if it loses the confidence of the Lords and is defeated in key votes in that House. The House of Commons is thus the responsible House.

The prime minister is held to account during Prime Minister's Question Time (PMQs) which provides an opportunity for MPs from all parties to question the PM on any subject. There are also departmental questions when ministers answer questions relating to their specific departmental brief. Unlike PMQs both the cabinet ministers for the department and junior ministers within the department may answer on behalf of the government, depending on the topic of the question.

During debates on legislation proposed by the government, ministers—usually with departmental responsibility for the bill—will lead the debate for the government and respond to points made by MPs or Lords.

Committees of both the House of Commons and House of Lords hold the government to account, scrutinise its work and examine in detail proposals for legislation. Ministers appear before committees to give evidence and answer questions.

Government ministers are also required by convention and the Ministerial Code, when Parliament is sitting, to make major statements regarding government policy or issues of national importance to Parliament. This allows MPs or Lords to question the government on the statement. When the government instead chooses to make announcements first outside Parliament, it is often the subject of significant criticism from MPs and the Speaker of the House of Commons.

British monarchy



The British monarch, currently Queen Elizabeth II, is the head of state and the sovereign, but not the head of government.

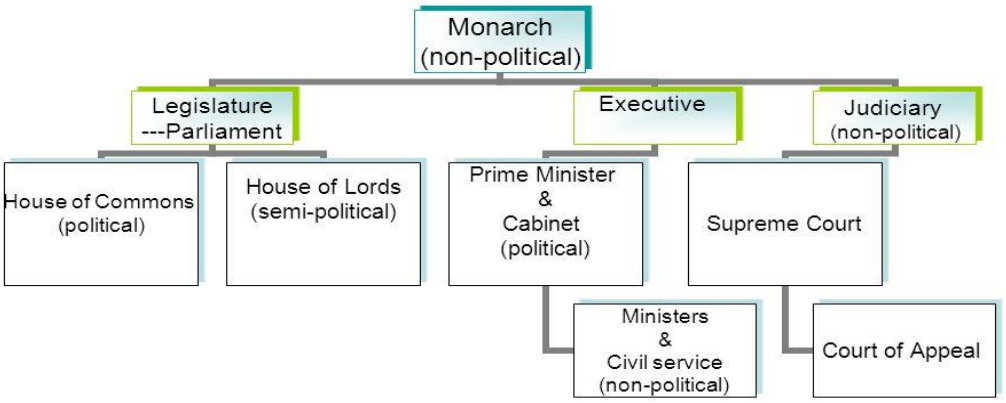
The monarch takes little direct part in governing the country, and remains neutral in political affairs. However, the legal authority of the

state that is vested in the sovereign and known as the Crown remains the source of the executive power exercised by the government.

In addition to explicit statutory authority, in many areas the Crown also possesses a body of powers known as the Royal Prerogative, which can be used for many purposes, from the issue or withdrawal of passports to declaration of war. By long-standing custom, most of these powers are delegated from the sovereign to various ministers or other officers of the Crown, who may use them without having to obtain the consent of Parliament.

The head of the government, the prime minister, also has weekly meetings with the monarch, when she "has a right and a duty to express her views on Government matters. ... These meetings, as with all communications between The Queen and her Government, remain strictly confidential. Having expressed her views, The Queen abides by the advice of her ministers.".

A 1 Basic Structure of UK Central Government



Royal Prerogative powers include, but are not limited to, the following:

Domestic powers

The power to dismiss and appoint a prime minister. This power is exercised by the monarch herself. By strong convention she must appoint the individual most capable of commanding a majority in the House of Commons.

The power to dismiss and appoint other ministers. This power is exercised by the prime minister alone.

The power to grant Royal Assent to bills, making them valid laws. This is exercised by the monarch, who also theoretically has the power to refuse assent, although no monarch has refused assent to a bill passed by Parliament since Queen Anne in 1708.

The power to commission officers in the Armed Forces

The power to command the Armed Forces of the United Kingdom. This power is exercised by the Defence Council in the Queen's name.

The power to appoint members to the Her Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council

The power to issue and withdraw passports. This is exercised by the Home Secretary.

The Prerogative of mercy (though capital punishment has been abolished, this power is still used to remedy errors in sentence calculation)

The power to grant honours

The power to create corporations via Royal Charter

Foreign powers

The power to ratify and make treaties.

The power to declare war and conclude peace with other nations.

The power to deploy the Armed Forces overseas

The power to recognise states

The power to credit and receive diplomats

Even though the United Kingdom has no single constitutional document, the government published the above list in October 2003 in order to increase transparency, as some of the powers exercised in the name of the monarch and which are part of the Royal Prerogative. However, the complete extent of the Royal Prerogative powers, many of them originating in ancient custom and the period of absolute monarchy, or modified by later constitutional practice, has never been fully set out.

Government departments

Government ministers are supported by 560,000.Civil Servants and other staff working in the 24 Ministerial Departments and their executive agencies. There are also an additional 26 non-Ministerial Departments with a range of further responsibilities.

Main entrance of 10 Downing Street, the residence and offices of the First Lord of HM Treasury

The prime minister is based at 10 Downing Street in Westminster, London. Cabinet meetings also take place here. Most government departments have their headquarters nearby in Whitehall.

Since 1999, certain areas of central government have been devolved to accountable governments in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. These are not part of Her Majesty's Government, and are accountable to their own institutions, with their own authority under the Crown. By contrast, there is no devolved government in England.

Local government

Refurbishment notice at Old Fire Station, Oxford, showing HM Government support.

Up to three layers of elected local authorities (such as County, District and Parish Councils) exist throughout all parts of the United Kingdom, in some places merged into Unitary Authorities. They have limited local tax-raising powers. Many other authorities and agencies also have statutory powers, generally subject to some central government supervision.

Limits of government power

The government's powers include general executive and statutory powers, delegated legislation, and numerous powers of appointment and patronage. However, some powerful officials and bodies, (e.g. HM judges, local authorities, and the Charity Commissions) are legally more or less independent of the government, and government powers are legally limited to those retained by the Crown under Common Law or granted and limited by Act of Parliament, and are subject to European Union law and the EU competencies that it defines. Both substantive and procedural limitations are enforceable in the Courts by judicial review.

Nevertheless, magistrates and mayors can still be arrested for and put on trial for corruption, and the government has powers to insert commissioners into a local authority to oversee its work, and to issue directives that must be obeyed by the local authority, if the local authority is not abiding by its statutory obligations.

By contrast, as in every other EU member state, EU officials cannot be prosecuted for any actions carried out in pursuit of their official duties, and foreign country diplomats (though not their employees) and foreign

Members of the European Parliament are immune from prosecution in the UK for anything at all. As a consequence, neither EU bodies nor diplomats have to pay taxes, since it would not be possible to prosecute them for tax evasion. This caused a dispute in recent years when the US Ambassador to the UK claimed that London's congestion charge was a tax, and not a charge (despite the name), and therefore he did not have to pay it - a claim the Greater London Authority disputed.

Similarly, the monarch is totally immune from criminal prosecution and may only be sued with her permission (this is known as sovereign immunity). The monarch, by law, is not required to pay income tax, but Queen Elizabeth II has voluntarily paid it since 1993, and also pays local rates voluntarily. However, the monarchy also receives a substantial grant from the government, the Sovereign Support Grant, and her inheritance from the Queen Mother was exempt from inheritance tax.

In addition to legislative powers, HM Government has substantial influence over local authorities and other bodies set up by it, by financial powers and grants. Many functions carried out by local authorities, such as paying out housing benefit and council tax benefit, are funded or substantially part-funded by central government.

Even though the British Broadcasting Corporation is supposed to be independent of the government on a day-to-day level and is supposed to be politically unbiased, some commentators have argued that the prospects of the BBC having its funding cut or its charter changed in future charter renewals in practice cause the BBC to be subtly biased towards the government of the day (or the likely future government as an election approaches) at times.

Neither the central government nor local authorities are permitted to sue anyone for defamation. Individual politicians are allowed to sue people for defamation in a personal capacity and without using government funds, but this is relatively rare (although George Galloway, who was a backbench MP for a quarter of a century, has sued or threatened to sue for defamation a number of times). However, it is a criminal offence to make a false statement about any election candidate during an election, with the purpose of reducing the number of votes they receive (as with libel, opinions do not count).

The political system of the United Kingdom: short summary[6]

Here is Expatica's short introduction to the political system of the United Kingdom, and some notable UK political parties of influence.

Are the islands called the United Kingdom or just Britain? And what about England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland – are they separate countries?

These questions are often asked by bemused internationals, and, depending on whom you ask, you will most likely get a different answer. The 'countries' of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have distinct cultures and proud independent histories that identify them. Acts of Union passed centuries ago brought these countries into one political union.

This union is what is formally known as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland – which is often considered a bit of a mouthful. The historical significance of the Union is important because it underpins some of the political dynamics of the country and possibly contributes as to why it has become so multi-cultural.

[6] The political system of the United Kingdom. Available at http://www.expatica.com/uk/about/The-political-system-of-the-United-Kingdom_103179.html

Norman Tebbit, once Member of Parliament, voiced a controversial opinion in 1990 that suggested that a person's origins were indicated by which national sports team they supported.

If you put this to the test today and ask a Scot which rugby team they support, their answer likely won't be England or Wales. Such proud differences are friendly, but the reasons for them stretch back across centuries of historical conflict.

The politics in the United Kingdom operate within a 'constitutional monarchy' similar to some other countries like Spain, Sweden, Thailand, Denmark, Japan, and the Netherlands to name a few. Whilst the Queen is head of state, the Prime Minister is head of government. Since 1999, the UK government has shared executive powers with the devolved governments of the Scottish Parliament, Welsh Assembly and Northern Ireland Assembly.

Each of the United Kingdom parliaments or assemblies has elected political parties.

In England, the most dominant are the Labour, Conservative and Liberal Democratic parties. Meanwhile in the other regions notable parties are: The Scottish National Party in Scotland, Plaid Cymru in Wales, and various unionist parties and Sinn Fein in Northern Ireland.

The UK Parliament in London is at the heart of the political system in Britain and is the legislative body for the UK and British overseas territories. Parliament has two legislative parliamentary bodies, the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

The House of Lords includes three types of members, Bishops from the Church of England, nobility (British honours system) and Law Lords (Judges). Its members are not elected and appointed by the Queen on the advice of the Prime Minster. The House of Commons consists of

democratically elected Members of Parliament from various different political parties. Elections are held every five years.

Below are brief introductions to the most well-known political parties in the United Kingdom.

Political parties in England

The Conservative Party (or Tory party) was in government for two-thirds of the twentieth century, but it has been in opposition since losing the 1997 election to the Labour Party. Its modern politics are considered to be 'centre-right'.

The Labour Party was founded at the start of the twentieth century. In 1997 it won the general election under Tony Blair, its first since 1974. The Party describes itself as the 'democratic socialist party' and is considered to be 'centre-left'.

The Liberal Democrats (Lib Dems.) are the third-largest party in the UK parliament. However the Party has never been in government. Their ideology is described as giving 'power to the people' with politics considered to be 'centre/centre-left'.

United Kingdom Independence Party (UKIP) has had a growing influence in the United Kingdom. The party's principal aim is the withdrawal of the UK from the European Union.

British National Party (BNP) is a 'far right' political party which is hugely controversial in the United Kingdom. It aims to protect native British homogeneity by reducing UK immigration.

The Green Party's radical politics are underpinned by core values to do with ensuring we look after the natural environments around us.

Political parties in Scotland

Parties represented in Scottish parliament are, the Scottish National Party, Labour, Conservatives, Liberal Democrats and the Scottish Green Party.

The Scottish National party is the largest party in the Scottish Parliament since elections in 2007. It is a ‘centre-left’ political party.

Political parties in Wales

Parties represented in the Welsh Assembly include, Welsh Labour, Plaid Cymru, Conservatives and the Liberal Democrats.

Currently Plaid Cmyru and Welsh Labour work together as a coalition government.

Political parties in Northern Ireland

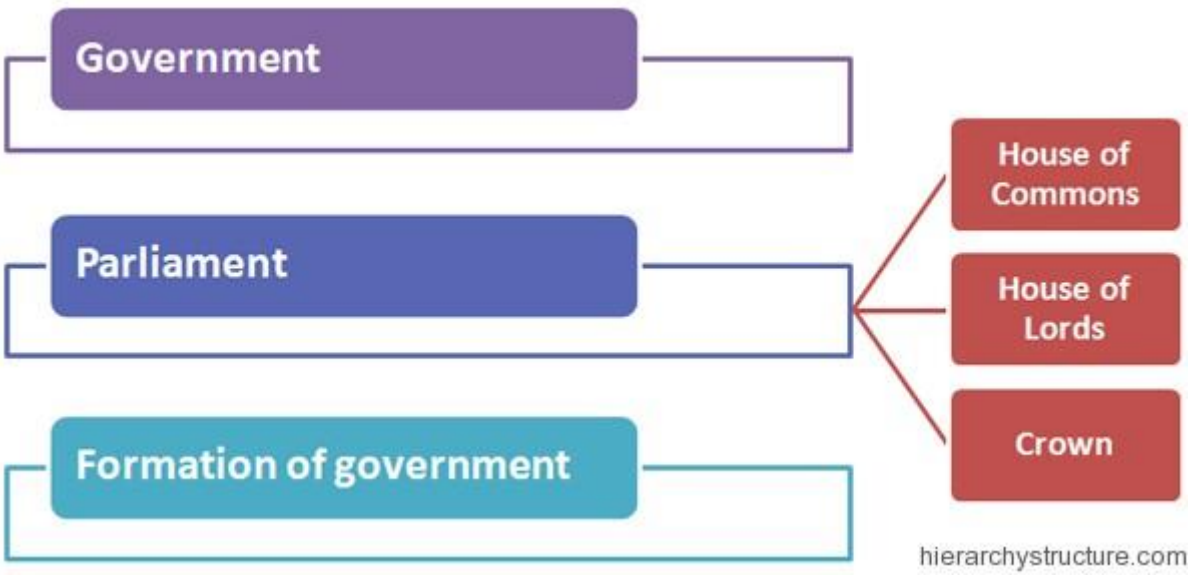
The Northern Ireland Assembly elects the Northern Ireland Executive which consists of a number of key ministers, including the First Minister. Each party has a share of ministerial positions.

Key political parties are: The Ulster Unionist Party, Democratic Unionist Party, Sinn Féin and Social Democratic and Labour Party.

For up to date in-depth news coverage on British and international politics it is worth watching Panorama on the BBC or alternatively tuning into Radio Four’s Today programme, broadcast every morning. Meanwhile if you are more into reading, The Spectator is a good read and a highly rated magazine for coverage of both British and world politics.

British politics is rarely boring. It is said a week is not long in politics especially with the British media’s speed in creating spins on new dramatic stories.

1. **Exercises. Complete the missing parts of the table.**



2. **Tests.**

TEST

1.Adult citizens of the UK, and citizens of the Commonwealth and the Irish Republic who are resident in the UK, can vote in all public elections

a) True
b) False

2.You must treat everyone equally, regardless of sex, race, age, religion, disability, class or sexual orientation

a) True
b) False

3.How many members does a jury have in Scotland?

a) 12
b) 14
c) 15
d) 18

4.To be able to vote in a parliamentary, local or European election, you must register and your name must be on the electoral register

a) True

b) False

5.King Henry VIII's daughter Mary was a devout Catholic and persecuted Protestants, which is why she became known as

a) Catholic Mary
b) Scary Mary
c) Bloody Mary
d) Killer Mary

6.It is an offence not to have an MOT certificate if your vehicle is more than _____ year(s) old

a) one
b) two
c) three
d) five

7.In 55BC Julius Caesar led a Roman invasion of Britain. It was unsuccessful and for nearly _____ years Britain remained separate from the Roman Empire

a) 50
b) 100
c) 200
d) 300

8.How frequently are MPs elected?

Every 2 years (or earlier if there is an election)

Every 5 years (or earlier if there is an election)

Every 3 years (or earlier if there is an election)

Every 4 years (or earlier if there is an election)

9.The Grand National is a Horse Race

a) True
b) False

10. If you are resident in the UK, your car or motor cycle must be registered at the Driver and Vehicle Licensing Agency (DVLA)

a) Yes, this is correct

b) No, if you buy a used car, you don't have to register it

11.The UK was one of the first countries to sign the European Convention in _____

a) 1880

b) 1910

c) 1930

d) 1950

12.When was the first Union flag created?

a) 1506

b) 1556

c) 1606

d) 1656

13.There will be a fresh election, called a by-election, in his or her constituency if an MP

(Choose any 2 answers)

a) gets sick

b) dies

c) goes abroad

d) resigns

14.What must you buy if you have a device that can be used for watching or recording TV programmes?

a) A video player

b) Beer and popcorn

c) A TV licence

d) A set of speakers

15.Small claims can also be issued online through Money Claims Online

a) Yes, it can be issued from www.moneyclaim.gov.uk

b) No, it cannot be done online

16.The English Parliament developed naturally out of the daily political needs of the English King and his government, particularly when the King

a) wanted to get married

b) was the heir apparent

c) wanted to raise money

17.The House of Lords is normally more _____ of the government than the House of Commons

a) powerful

b) successful

c) independent

18.What kind of bird do people usually eat on Christmas Day?

a) Duck

b) Chicken

c) Turkey

d) Ostrich

19.The Speaker is chosen by other MPs in a secret ballot

a) True

b) False

How is the Speaker elected?

20.The Archbishop of Canterbury chooses him/her

a) The Queen chooses him/her

b) The PM chooses him/her

c) by fellow MPs

21.The London Eye is situated on the southern bank of the River _____

a) Tyburn

b) Walbrook

c) Thames

d) Fleet

22.Henry VIII was most famous for

(Choose any 2 answers)

a) breaking away from the Church of Rome

b) bringing peace in the UK

c) marrying six times

d) his great skills of art

e) writing poems for the nation

23.The First World War ended on the eleventh hour, of the eleventh day, of the eleventh month in 1918

a) True

b) False

24.People cannot apply to join the civil service through an application process, like other jobs in the UK

a) True

b) False

3. **Creative assignments.** Read the article "Brexit: All you need to know about the UK leaving the EU" by By Brian Wheeler & Alex Hunt (http://www.bbc.com/news/uk-politics-32810887)

Answer the guestions.

1. What does Brexit mean?
2. Why is Britain leaving the European Union?
3. What was the breakdown across the UK?
4. What is the European Union?
5. So when will Britain actually leave it?
6. Who is going to negotiate Britain's exit from the EU?

   If you were a journalist what questions would you ask to the Prime Minister, Theresa May?

Chapter 6
System of Education

The education system in the UK is divided **into four main parts**, primary education, secondary education, further education and higher education. Children in the UK have to legally attend primary and secondary education which runs from about 5 years old until the student is 16 years old[7]. The education system in the UK is also split into "key stages" which breaks down as follows:

Key Stage 1: 5 to 7 years old

Key Stage 2: 7 to 11 years old

Key Stage 3: 11 to 14 years old

Key Stage 4: 14 to 16 years old

Generally key stages 1 and 2 will be undertaken at primary school and at 11 years old a student will move onto secondary school and finish key stages 3 and 4.

Students are assessed at the end of each stage. The most important assessment occurs at age 16 when students pursue their GCSE's or General Certificate of Secondary Education. Once students complete their GCSE's they have the choice to go onto further education and then potential higher education, or finish school and go into the working world.

Primary Education

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[7] UK Education System. Available at

http://www.internationalstudent.com/study_uk/education_system/

Primary education begins in the UK at age 5 and continues until age 11, comprising key stages one and two under the UK educational system. Please visit the British Council page for more information on primary education.

Secondary Education

From age 11 to 16, students will enter secondary school for key stages three and four and to start their move towards taking the GCSE's - learn more about secondary education in the UK and what it will involve. Primary and secondary education is mandatory in the UK; after age 16, education is optional.

Further Education

Once a student finishes secondary education they have the option to extend into further education to take their A-Levels, GNVQ's, BTEC's or other such qualifications. UK students planning to go to college or university must complete further education.

Higher Education

Probably the most important subject area on this site, this explains more about the higher education system in the UK and how it works for international students. Most international students will enter directly into the UK higher education system, after completing their home country's equivalent to the UK's "further education."

Entry Requirements

Each level of education in the UK has varying requirements which must be satisfied in order to gain entry at that level - learn more about the education entry requirements for the UK.

England[8]

Education in England may differ from the system used elsewhere in the United Kingdom .Basically, there are two systems: one covering England,

[8] England. Available at http://www.learnenglish.de/culture/educationculture.html

Wales and Northern Ireland and one covering Scotland. The two education systems have different emphases. Traditionally the English, Welsh and Northern Irish system has emphasised depth of education whereas the Scottish system has emphasised breadth. Thus English, Welsh and Northern Irish students tend to sit a small number of more advanced examinations and Scottish students tend to sit a larger number of less advanced examinations. It should be noted that local English practice can vary from this general picture although Scottish practice is well nigh universal.

Education in Wales

Nowadays education in Wales differs slightly from the system used in England. The statutory national key stage tests in Wales were, until 2000, the same as in England and were managed by the School Curriculum and Assessment Authority (SCAA). In 2000, the National Assembly for Wales took responsibility for these tests in Wales, at which point they were developed by test agencies on behalf of the Awdurdod Cymwysterau, Cwricwlwm ac Asesu Cymru (ACCAC), whilst the tests in England were developed for the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA). In 2002, the Welsh Assembly decided to cease the tests at Key Stage One. Instead, optional teacher assessment materials were provided to schools in 2003 for use in English, mathematics and Welsh . These had been adapted from materials that had originally been developed by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) and the other test agencies to be used as statutory assessment materials for 2003. At the end of 2003, the Daugherty Report was commissioned by the Welsh Assembly to undertake a review of the country's assessment procedures. The interim report by the committee was perceived by the media as supporting a complete abolishment of the assessments at key stages two and three.

The school Years in England and Wales

In general, the cut-off point for ages is the end of August, so all children must be of a particular age on the 1st of September in order to begin class that month.

- Primary Education
  - Infant School or Primary School
    - Reception, age 4 to 5
    - Year 1, age 5 to 6
    - Year 2, age 6 to 7 (KS1 National Curriculum Tests - England only)
  - Junior School or Primary School
    - Year 3, age 7 to 8
    - Year 4, age 8 to 9
    - Year 5, age 9 to 10
    - Year 6, age 10 to 11 (Eleven plus exams in some areas of England, Key Stage 2 National Curriculum Tests)
- Secondary Education
  - Middle School, High School or Secondary School
    - Year 7, old First Form, age 11 to 12
    - Year 8, old Second Form, age 12 to 13
    - Year 9, old Third Form, age 13 to 14 (Key Stage 3 National Curriculum Tests, known as SATs (Standard Assessment Tests))
  - Upper School or Secondary School
    - Year 10, old Fourth Form, age 14 to 15
    - Year 11, old Fifth Form, age 15 to 16 (old O Level examinations, modern GCSE examinations)
  - Upper School, Secondary School, or Sixth Form College
    - Year 12 or Lower Sixth, age 16 to 17 (AS-level examinations)
    - Year 13 or Upper Sixth, age 17 to 18 (A2-level examinations. Both AS-levels and A2-levels count towards A-levels .)

In some regions of England, pupils attend a Lower (Primary) School before going to, a Middle School between 8 and 12 or, more commonly 9 and 13, and then a High School or Upper School. Other, more vocational qualifications offered including GNVQs and BTECs .

Education in Scotland

Education in Scotland differs from the system used elsewhere in the United Kingdom . Basically, there are two systems: one covering England , Wales , or Northern Ireland and one covering Scotland . The two education systems have different emphases. Traditionally, the English, Welsh and Northern Irish system has emphasised depth of education whereas the Scottish system has emphasised breadth. Thus English, Welsh and Northern Irish students tend to sit a small number of more advanced examinations and Scottish students tend to sit a larger number of less advanced examinations.

THE SCHOOL YEARS IN SCOTLAND

In general, the cut-off point for ages is the end of August, so all children must be of a particular age on the 1st of September in order to begin class that month.

- Nursery School
  - Year 1, age 3 - 5.
- Primary School
  - Primary 1, age range 4 - 6.
  - Primary 2, age range 5 - 7.
  - Primary 3, age range 6 - 8.
  - Primary 4, age range 7 - 9.
  - Primary 5, age range 8 - 10.
  - Primary 6, age range 9 - 11.

    - Primary 7, age range 10 - 12.
- Secondary School
    - First year, age range 11 - 13.
    - Second year, age range 12 - 14.
    - Third year, age range 13 - 15.
    - Fourth year, age range 14 - 16.
    - Fifth year, age range 15 - 17.
    - Sixth year, age range 16 - 18.

Note that the age ranges specify the youngest age for a child entering that year and the oldest age for a child leaving that year. Also note that children may leave school at the end of any school year after they reach 16 years of age and that they may attend Scottish universities when they are 17. Therefore two sets of national examinations are held. The first set, the Standard Grade examinations, take place in the Fourth year of secondary school and show basic education level. The second set, the Higher examinations take place in the Fifth and Sixth years. A third level, Advanced Higher, is sometimes taken by students intending to study at an English university, or those wishing to pass straight into second year at a Scottish university, and covers the gap between the Scottish "Higher" level and the English "Advanced" level courses, although there is not always a one-to-one mapping.

Education in Northern Ireland

Education in Northern Ireland differs slightly from the system used elsewhere in the United Kingdom . The Northern Irish system emphasises a greater depth of education compared to the English and Welsh systems. The majority of examinations sat, and education plans followed, in Northern Irish schools are set by the Council for Curriculum, Examinations and Assessment (CCEA).

School holidays in Northern Ireland are also considerably different to the rest of the United Kingdom . Northern Irish schools generally only get 1 day off for the half term holiday (in February, May and October. Christmas holidays usually only consist of a week or so, the same with the Easter vacation, compared to Englands two weeks. The major difference however is that Northern Irish summer holidays are considerably longer with the entirety of July and August off giving a nine week summer holiday.

THE SCHOOL YEARS IN NORTHERN IRELAND

In general, the cut-off point for ages is the end of August, so all children must be of a particular age on the 1st of September in order to begin class that month.

- Primary Education
  - Primary School
    - Primary 1, age 4 to 5
    - Primary 2, age 5 to 6
    - Primary 3, age 6 to 7
    - Primary 4, age 7 to 8
    - Primary 5, age 8 to 9
    - Primary 6, age 9 to 10
    - Primary 7, age 10 to 11 (Eleven plus exams to determine secondary school placement.)
- Secondary Education
  - High School or Grammar School
    - First Form, age 11 to 12
    - Second Form, age 12 to 13
    - Third Form, age 13 to 14
    - Fourth Form, age 14 to 15

- Fifth Form, age 15 to 16 (old O-Level examinations, modern GCSE examinations)
  - High School, Grammar School, or Sixth Form College
- Lower Sixth, age 16 to 17 (AS-level examinations, where applicable)
- Upper Sixth, age 17 to 18 (A-levels)

Primary education

Primary or elementary education is the first years of formal, structured education that occurs during childhood. In most Western countries, it is compulsory for children to receive primary education (though in many jurisdictions it is permissible for parents to provide it).

Primary education generally begins when children are four to seven years of age. The division between primary and secondary education is somewhat arbitrary, but it generally occurs at about twelve years of age (adolescence); some educational systems have separate middle schools for that period. Primary and secondary education together are sometimes (in particular, in Canada and the United States) referred to as " K-12 " education, (K is for kindergarten, 12 is for twelfth grade).

Typically, primary education is provided in schools , where (in the absence of parental movement or other intervening factors) the child will stay, in steadily advancing classes, until they complete it and move on to secondary schooling. Children are usually placed in classes with one teacher who will be primarily responsible for their education and welfare for that year. This teacher may be assisted to varying degrees by specialist teachers in certain subject areas, often music or physical education. The continuity with a single teacher and the opportunity to build up a close relationship with the class is a notable feature of the primary education system. Over the past few decades,

schools have been testing various arrangements which break from the one-teacher, one-class mold.

The major goals of primary education are achieving basic literacy and numeracy amongst all their students, as well as establishing foundations in science, geography, history and other social sciences . The relative priority of various areas, and the methods used to teach them, are an area of considerable political debate.

Traditionally, various forms of corporal punishment were an integral part of early education in the UK. This practice has now been outlawed in the UK.

Kindergarten

The German expression kindergarten usually refers to the first level of official education , according to the K-12 educational system. Kindergarten is usually administered in an elementary school .

The equivalent in England and Wales is reception . The Australian equivalent of this is the preparatory grade (commonly called 'grade prep' or 'prep'), which is the year before the first grade. In the state of New South Wales , however, it is called kindergarten. At least in Victoria , kindergarten (distinct from grade prep) is a form of, and used interchangeably with, pre-school .

The first kindergarten was opened in 1837 in Bad Blankenburg , Germany by Friedrich Wilhelm August Fröbel .

The first kindergarten in the United States was established by Margarethe (Margaretta) Meyer Schurz (wife of activist/statesman Carl Schurz), in Watertown, Dodge County, Wisconsin .

Youngsters , usually aged 4-6 attend kindergarten to learn the finer points of meeting friends (and enemies), professional authority (in the form of a teacher), playtime , naptime , drawing , music , sometimes the basics of reading and writing , and various other activities. For children who previously have spent

most of their time at home, kindergarten often serves the purpose of training them to be apart from their parents without anxiety.

The youngster continues to Grade 1 after kindergarten.

The actual word "kindergarten", as one may guess, translates to "children's garden". Many private businesses in the USA name their day-care businesses 'Kindergarten' or 'Kindergarden'. Kindergarten establishment (day-care) in Germany are for pre-school children of all ages and are often run by churches, city or town administrations. Kindergartens (German plural Kindergärten) in Germany are not a part of the actual school system, such as in the USA.

Kindergartens often last only for half a day (morning or afternoon), though in many locations there are full-day kindergartens.

Elementary school

The elementary school consists of the first seven years of school, that is, grades 1 through 5 or 6, as well as kindergarten , a preliminary year of school before grade 1 (known in England and Wales as ' Reception '). Originally, however, it was studied after primary school in the 19th century, (some schools that have only the youngest students are called primary schools to this day). Also known as grammar school in the United States it is a major segment of compulsory education. Until the latter third of the 20th century, however, grammar school (or elementary school) was grades 1 through 8. After grammar school, one usually attends high school . (In many districts, grades 5-8 or 5-9 were called " middle school ", or further separated into " intermediate school ", "middle school", and/or " junior high school ".)

Secondary education

Secondary education, or secondary school , is a period of education which follows directly after primary education (such as intermediate school or elementary school), and which may be followed by tertiary or "post-secondary" education. The purpose of a secondary education can be to

prepare for either higher education or vocational training . The exact boundary between primary and secondary education varies from country to country and even within them, but is generally around the seventh to the tenth year of education, with middle school covering any gaps. Secondary education occurs mainly during the teenage years. Primary and secondary education together are sometimes (in particular, in Canada and the United States) referred to as " K-12 " education, (K is for kindergarten , 12 is for twelfth grade).

Grammar schools in the United Kingdom

In education in the United Kingdom , a grammar school is a secondary school attended by pupils aged 11 to 18 to which entry is controlled by means of an academically selective process consisting, largely or exclusively, of a written examination . After leaving a grammar school, as with any other secondary school, a student may go into further education at a college or university .

The examination is called the eleven plus . Partly due to the failure to fully implement the tri-partite system prescribed by the 1944 Education Act, the examination came to be seen as delivering a pass/fail result with the academically selected pupils passing and attending grammar schools and the remaining pupils being deemed to have failed and being consigned to the poorly funded schools euphemistically designated Secondary Modern Schools .

This arrangement proved politically unsustainable, and, over the period 1960 to 1975, non-selective ("comprehensive") education was instituted across a substantial majority of the country. The eleven plus examination had been championed by the educational psychologist Cyril Burt and the uncovering of his fraudulent research played a minor part in accelerating this process.

To understand grammar schools in the UK, some history is needed. After World War II , the government reorganised the secondary schools into two

basic types. Secondary moderns were intended for children who would be going into a trade and concentrated on the basics plus practical skills; grammar schools were intended for children who would be going on to higher education and concentrated on the classics, science, etc. This system lasted until the 1960s, at which point changes in the political climate led to the general acceptance that this was a discriminatory system which was not getting the best out of all children. This was partly because some authorities tended to prioritise their budgets on the grammar schools, damaging the education prospects of children attending secondary moderns.

The decision was taken to switch to a single type of school designed to give every child a complete education. That is why this new type of school is called a comprehensive school. However the timetable of the changeover was left to the local authorities, some of whom were very resistant to the whole idea and thus dragged their feet for as long as possible. The result is that there is now a mixture. Most authorities run a proper comprehensive system, a few run essentially the old system of secondary moderns and grammar schools (except the secondary moderns are now called "comprehensives"). Some run comprehensive schools along side one or two remaining grammar schools.

The Labour government that came to power in 1997 instituted measures that allowed parents to force a local referendum on whether to abolish grammar schools in their area. The form of this referendum depends on whether there is still a full two-tier system running, in which case all parents with children at primary schools in the area are eligible to vote, or whether there are only a few grammar schools in the area, in which case only those parents with children at primaries that regularly send children to the grammar school are eligible. By 2003, only a few referenda had taken place and none of these had delivered the requisite majority for conversion.

The debate over selective education has been widened by other measures introduced by the Labour government, allowing schools to select a portion of

their intake by "aptitude" for a specific subject. There are many who think that selection allows children to receive the form of education best suited for their abilities, while "one-size-fits-all" comprehensives fail everybody equally. One of the greatest attacks on the comprehensive system is that it leads, in essence, to selection on the grounds of wealth as the good schools are generally located in areas with expensive housing, so children from poor areas are denied the possibility of attending them. Conversely, there are many who think that the selection of children at 11 divides them into "successes" and "failures" at that age, and is therefore wrong. The current Labour government, from the party that originally championed comprehensive education, appears to favour the first of these groups, and their introduction of local referenda on grammar schools has been attacked by opponents of selective education as an unworkable system designed to give the semblance of choice while maintaining the status quo.

Private schools generally give the same sort of education as grammar schools, but there are exceptions; Gordonstoun for one. In areas where the local authority provides a comprehensive education – which some parents don't like for various reasons – independent schools are particularly common.

Higher education

Higher education is education provided by universities and other institutions that award academic degrees, such as university colleges, and liberal arts colleges .

Higher education includes both the teaching and the research activities of universities, and within the realm of teaching, it includes both the undergraduate level (sometimes referred to as tertiary education) and the graduate (or postgraduate) level (sometimes referred to as quaternary education). Higher education differs from other forms of post-secondary education such as vocational education . However, most professional

education is included within higher education, and many postgraduate qualifications are strongly vocationally or professionally oriented, for example in disciplines such as law and medicine.

Degrees and graduation

There is a three-level hierarchy of degrees (Bachelor, Master , Doctor) currently used in the United Kingdom.

A graduate student (also, grad student or grad in American English , postgraduate student or postgrad in British English) is an individual who has completed a bachelor's degree (B.A., B.S./B.Sc., or another flavor) and is pursuing further higher education , with the goal of achieving a master's degree (M.A., M.S./M.Sc., M.Ed., etc.) or doctorate (Ph.D., Ed.D., D.A., D.Sc., D.M.A., Th.D., etc.) In the United States, graduate education can also refer to those pursuing a post-master's Educational Specialist degree or post-master's Certificate of Advanced Study. The term usually does not refer to one in medical school and only occasionally refers to someone in law school or business school.

Admission

Admission to do a research degree in the UK typically requires the sponsorship of a professor. Admission to do a master's degree (based on coursework) depends upon having an undergraduate degree, generally in a related subject.

Life

Postgraduate work at universities in the UK is very intense.

Funding

It is very difficult to obtain funding for postgraduate study in the UK. There are a few scholarships for master's courses, but these are rare and dependent on the course and class of undergraduate degree obtained. Most master's students are self-funded.

Funding is available for some Ph.D. courses. There is more funding available to those in the sciences than in other disciplines

Costs

The costs for a normal education in the United Kingdom are as follows:

- Primary: No Charge
- Secondary: No Charge
- Further (Secondary) Education in either a sixth form or college: No Charge if under 19 in that particular academic year or on a low income.
- Higher / Tertiary Education (University): A tuition fee per year (varies from £1,000 to £9,000).

Primary and Secondary education can also be charged for, if a fee-paying (public) school is attended by the child in question.

Public schools in the UK

A public school, in common British usage, is a school which is usually prestigious and historic, which charges fees, does not arbitrarily restrict admissions, and is financed by bodies other than the state, commonly as a private charitable trust. Often but not always they are boarding schools. Confusingly to a non-native English speaker a public school is actually a private school! In British usage, a government-run school (which would be called a 'public school' in other areas, such as the United States) is called a state school.

Many of the independent schools in the UK do not refer to themselves as public schools . Many choose to use the term independent school. In part this is due to a sense that some 'minor' public schools have many of the social associations and traditions of public schools but without the quality of teaching and extracurricular activities.

The term 'public' (first adopted by Eton) historically refers to the fact that the school was open to the paying public, as opposed to, a religious school that was only open to members of a certain church, and in contrast to private education at home (usually only practical for the very wealthy who could afford tutors).

Public schools played an important role in the development of the Victorian social elite. Under a number of forward-looking headmasters leading public schools developed a curriculum based heavily on classics and physical activity for boys and young men of the upper and upper middle classes. They were schools for the gentlemanly elite of Victorian politics, armed forces and colonial government. Often successful businessmen would send their sons to public school as a mark of participation in the elite (it was Martin Wiener's opposition to this tendency which inspired his 1981 polemic "English Culture and the Decline of the Industrial Spirit: 1850-1980", which became a huge influence on the Thatcher government's opposition to old-school gentlemanly Toryism and, by default, a key reason for the recent upsurge of privately-educated pop singers in the UK).

Public schools often relied heavily on the maintenance of discipline by older boys, both to reduce staffing costs and as preparation for military or public service.

While under the best circumstances the Victorian public schools were superb examples of education, the reliance on corporal punishment and the prefect system could also make them awful. The classics-based curriculum was criticised for not providing skills in sciences or engineering.

The public school system influenced the school systems of the British empire to an extent. Recognisably 'public' schools can be found in many Commonwealth countries.

Today most public schools are highly selective on academic grounds, as well as financial grounds (ability to pay high fees) and social grounds (often a family connection to the school is very desirable in admissions).

SLANG PECULIAR TO OR ORIGINATING FROM PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The following list includes some commonly used slang terms, and some historic slang, used at public schools in the UK:

Term	**Meaning**	**Specificity**
ABROAD	Out of the sick room.	Winchester
BAD EGG	A nasty and unpleasant person.	-
BEARDS!	An exclamation of surprise.	The Leys
BEDDER	A bedmaker and cleaner.	Also used in Cambridge University
BIBBLING	Six strokes of the cane	Winchester
BRUSHING	Flogging.	Christ's Hospital
CARRELL	A booth for private study	St Paul's School
CHEESE	A dandy.	Cambridge
CHINNER	Wide grin	Winchester
CLIPE	To tell tales.	-
COXY	Conceited	-
EXECUTION	Flogging by the Head Master with a birchrod.	Eton
FAG	A junior boy who acts as servant for a sixth-former.	-
GOD	A prefect or sixth former.	Eton
GOOD EGG	A trustworthy or reliable person (later inversion of BAD EGG).	-
MAJOR	Such as Smith Major, the elder brother.	-

MAXIMUS	Such as Smith Maximus, the eldest brother (of three or more).	-
MINIMUS	Such as Smith Minimus, the youngest brother (of three or more).	-
MINOR	Such as Smith Minor, the younger brother.	-
MUZZ	To read.	Westminster
NEWBIE	New boy; now a general term.	-
PEPPER	To fill in the accents on a Greek exercise.	-
PLEB	A junior boy.	-
QUILL	To flatter.	Winchester
RAG	A misdemeanour, hence:	-
RAG WEEK	where sponsored 'misdemeanours' are common.	Also used at some universities
SAPPY	Severe flogging.	-
SHELL	A boy in the youngest year	Harrow, St. Edward's, Winchester; org. from Westminster.
TITCHING	caning	Christ's Hospital

Exercises. Answer the questions.

1. What are the basic features of education in the UK and its parts?
2. What are the main stages of education in Britain?
3. What pre-school institutions do children under 5 go to?
4. What types of secondary schools in Britain do you know?
5. How do public scools differ from comprehensive ones?
6. What are the most popular private schools in the UK?
7. Do you think British schoolchildren have equal opportunities in getting high quality education?

8. What do state schools in Britain provide their pupils with?
9. 2What can parents choose?
10. When do children start primary school?
11. When do pupils take a national exam called GCSE?
12. What prepares pupils for a national exam called «A» level?
13. How long do students study for a degree?
14. Whom do universities and colleges of higher education accept?

Tests

1. How many universities and institutions of higher education are in Scotland?

a. 9

b. 19

c. 24

d. 14

2.The department of education is divided into …

a) 7 districts

b) 5 districts

c) 4 districts

d) 11 districts

3.Policy decisions are made by the ……..

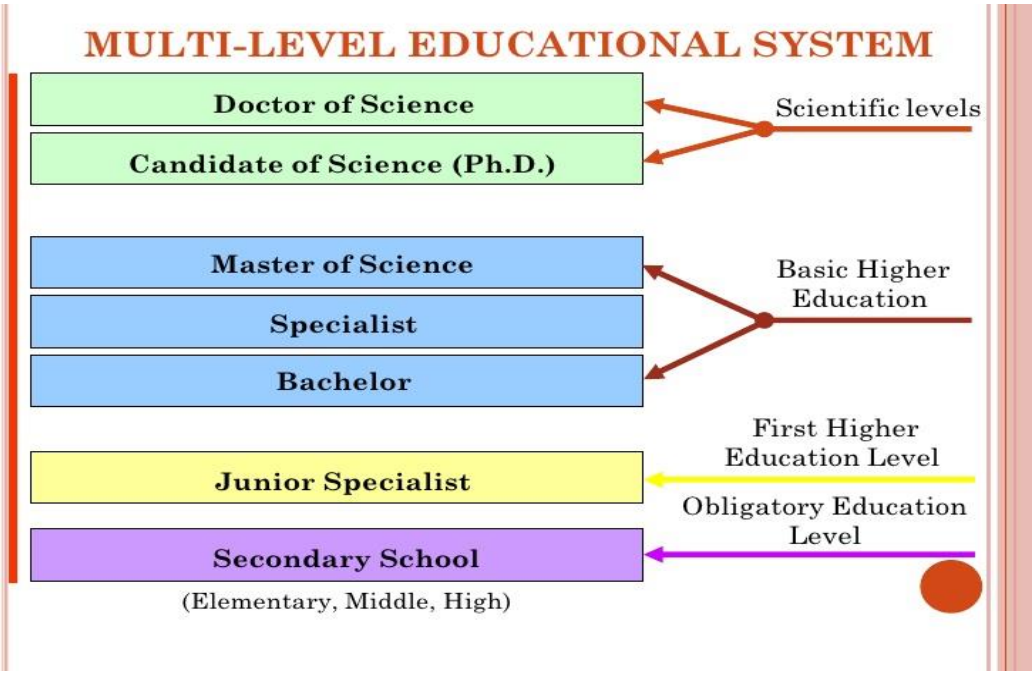
a) 10-member state Board of Education

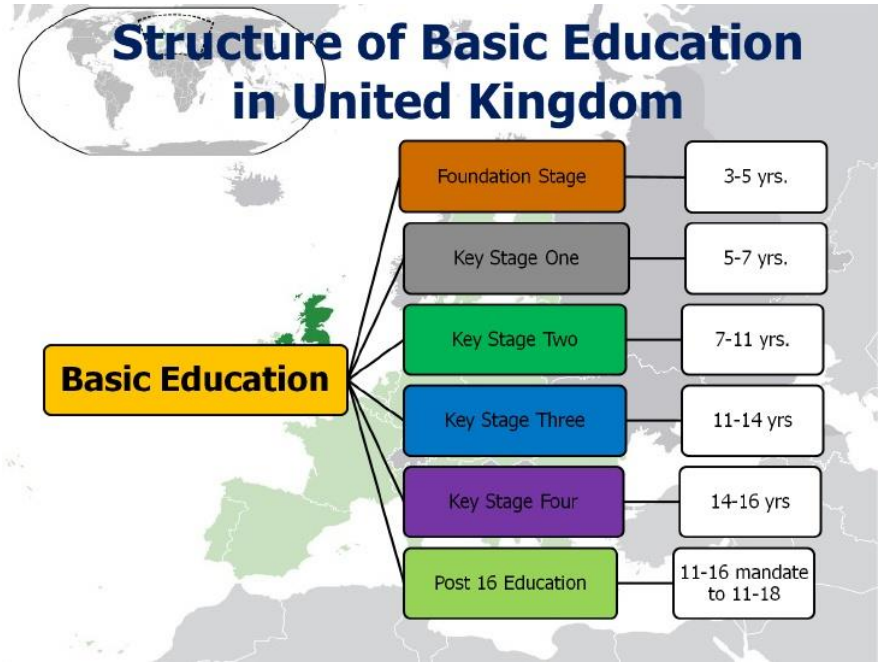
b) 11-member state Board of Education

c) 14-member state Board of Education

d) 15-member state Board of Education

3. Creative assighments. Work out a plan on the international partnership between your faculty and faculty in one of the parts of the UK? Compare the system of education in the UK and Ukraine.


MULTI-LEVEL EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM
Doctor of Science
Candidate of Science (Ph.D.)
Scientific levels
Master of Science
Specialist
Bachelor
Basic Higher Education
First Higher Education Level
Junior Specialist
Obligatory Education Level
Secondary School
(Elementary, Middle, High)


Structure of Basic Education in United Kingdom
Basic Education
Foundation Stage
3-5 yrs.
Key Stage One
5-7 yrs.
Key Stage Two
7-11 yrs.
Key Stage Three
11-14 yrs
Key Stage Four
14-16 yrs
Post 16 Education
11-16 mandate to 11-18

Chapter 7

Traditions, customs and public holidays

There are lots of events you can get involved with in the UK, from street parties to traditional festivals!

On ‘bank holidays’, most shops, businesses and institutions are closed. Some of the events below are bank holidays, but not all – and there are different dates in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Please visit the gov.uk website for a list of all bank holidays.

There are many more events across the UK, throughout the year. You can find out more at Visit Britain and Discover Northern Ireland, or browse our Holidays, festivals and events section for even more ideas – and to read about other international students' experiences!

So what's going on in 2016? Scroll down or jump straight to:

January

1st – New Year’s Day. On New Year’s Eve (31 December), it is traditional to celebrate midnight with your friends or family and to sing ‘Auld lang syne’, a folk song with words by the Scottish poet Robert Burns. The party can last well into New Year’s Day! Many people make ‘New Year’s resolutions’, promising to achieve a goal or break a bad habit in the coming year.

In Scotland, the celebration of the new year is called Hogmanay. There are big parties across the country – expect lots of music, dancing, food and fireworks – but Edinburgh hosts some of the biggest.

25th – Burns’ Night (Scotland). Many Scottish people hold a special supper (dinner) on Burns’ Night, a celebration of Robert Burns, with toasts and readings of his poetry. Men might wear kilts, there may be bagpipe music, and people will almost certainly eat haggis (the traditional Scottish

dish of sheeps' heart, liver and lungs) with neeps (turnips) and tatties (potatoes).

February

8th – Chinese New Year. Outside Asia, the world's biggest celebration of Chinese New Year is in London – each year there is a parade through Chinatown in the West End, with free performances of music, dance and acrobatics, a feast of food and fireworks. There are many more events around the UK, so find out what's on in your area – cities including Manchester, Nottingham, Liverpool and Birmingham usually host colourful street parties.

Find out more in Chinese New Year.

9th – Shrove Tuesday or 'Pancake Day'. Lent is the traditional Christian period of fasting, which lasts for 40 days. Shrove Tuesday is the day before Lent, when households would traditionally use up their eggs, milk and sugar by making pancakes. Nowadays, even if they are not religious, many people still make and eat pancakes on this day.

Some towns in the UK also hold 'pancake races', where contestants toss pancakes in a frying pan while running for the finish line. One of the most famous is in Olney, Buckinghamshire, where it's believed the first Pancake Day race took place in 1445. Find out more about Shrove Tuesday traditions in How to celebrate Pancake Day.

14th – Valentine's Day. Love is in the air! Historically the Feast of St Valentine, nowadays this is a celebration of romance. Many people in the UK go out for dinner with their sweethearts, and give them a Valentine's card, chocolate or flowers. If you're single, you might receive an anonymous card from a 'secret admirer'! Find out how students mark the event in our Valentine's Day article.

March

1st – St David's Day (Wales). St David is the patron saint of Wales, and March 1 is a celebration of Welsh culture. People in Wales might wear a

daffodil and eat cawl, a soup of seasonal vegetables and lamb or bacon. Events are held across Wales, including a large parade in Cardiff.

6th – Mother's Day. Mother's Day is a day to celebrate motherhood, and to thank mothers for everything they do throughout the year. Many people give their mothers a card or gift, treat them to a day out or cook a meal.

17th – St Patrick's Day (Northern Ireland). The Feast of St Patrick is a national holiday in Ireland, and is now celebrated by Irish communities all around the world. In the UK, there are St Patrick's Day events in cities including Birmingham, Nottingham, Manchester and London, as well as Belfast. Many people go out with friends, wearing green or a shamrock symbol (the lucky clover) and drinking Guinness, the Irish dark beer. Get top tips with our feature How to celebrate St Patrick's Day in style.

23rd – Holi Day. The 'festival of colours', the end of the winter season in the Hindu calendar, falls on this day in 2016. In several places in the UK, including London, Manchester, Bristol and Belfast, people celebrate the event by running through the streets and throwing coloured paint all over each other! Check out Celebrating Holi in the UK to find out more.

25th–28th – Easter weekend. Easter is a Christian holiday celebrating the resurrection of Jesus Christ. It is always on a Sunday in March or April (called Easter Sunday), and the previous Friday (Good Friday) and following Monday (Easter Monday) are bank holidays. People celebrate Easter in different ways, but many give each other chocolate eggs and eat 'hot cross buns' (sweet buns with a cross design), while children decorate eggs or take part in Easter egg hunts.

April

1st – April Fools' Day. For one day of the year, it is acceptable – even encouraged! – to play tricks, pranks and practical jokes. Even newspapers, TV

and radio shows often feature fake stories on April 1. It's customary to reveal the joke by saying 'April fool!' (the person who falls for the joke is the 'fool'), and to stop playing tricks at midday.

23rd – St George's Day (England). The legend is that St George was a Roman soldier who killed a dragon to rescue a princess. He is now the patron saint of England, and this is England's national day. You might still see St George's Cross (a red cross on a white background, England's national flag) or events with morris dancing (an English folk dance), but it is not a bank holiday and most people don't hold special celebrations.

April 23 is also known as William Shakespeare's birthday, when events take place to honour the playwright... and 2016 will be the 400th anniversary of his death. The British Council is hosting a year-long programme of events to mark this occasion with Shakespeare Lives. Check out our dedicated Shakespeare Lives section on Education UK, or visit www.shakespearelives.org to see how you can get involved.

St George's Day at Wrest Park (Photo ©VisitBritain/Grant Pritchard)

May

1st – Beltane. Beltane (or Beltain) is the Celtic festival of fire, which celebrates fertility and marks the start of summer. With its roots in ancient Scotland, Ireland and the Isle of Man, modern versions of the event are becoming more popular – some of the largest are in Edinburgh, Thornborough in Yorkshire and Butser Ancient Farm in Hampshire, where the traditional 30-foot Wicker Man is burned at sunset.

2nd and 30th – Bank holidays. There are two Mondays in May when people have the day off work or school and (if we're lucky!) spend some time outdoors enjoying the spring sunshine.

June

13th – The Queen's Official Birthday. Although the Queen's real birthday is on the 21st of April, it has been a tradition since 1748 to celebrate

the king or queen's birthday in June. A military parade known as Trooping the Colour is held in London, attended by the Royal Family. (Click here to see footage of the procession!)

19th – Father's Day. Father's Day is a day to show appreciation to fathers, grandfathers, stepfathers and fathers-in-law. Many people in the UK give their father a card or gift, have a meal together or go out for drinks.

21st – Summer solstice. The ancient monument of Stonehenge in Wiltshire has its true moment in the sun as people celebrate the longest day and shortest night of the year. Stand inside the monument facing northeast, toward a stone outside the circle called the Heel Stone, and you'll see the sun rise like a blazing fire – a sight that brings in pagans and sun-lovers of all beliefs!

27th–July 10th – Wimbledon Tennis Championships. Wimbledon, the world's oldest tennis tournament, is a summer highlight for sports fans. Held at the All England Club in London since 1877, Wimbledon is known for the tennis players' white dress code and the tradition for spectators to eat strawberries and cream. Find out more in Sport in the UK.

July

5th – Eid al-Fitr. Marking the end of the month-long fast of Ramadan, Eid al-Fitr is widely celebrated by Muslim communities in the UK. Each community usually organises its own events, but there are some large celebrations and feasts in city centres, such as in London and Birmingham.

29th–6th August – Eisteddfod. The National Eisteddfod is Wales' biggest artistic event and one of Europe's oldest cultural festivals. This is a chance to hear Welsh music and literature, see dance and theatre performances, shop for books and crafts, and much more.

August

5th–29th – Edinburgh Festival Fringe. The largest arts festival in the

world, ‘the Fringe’ features over 40,000 performances and more than 2,500 shows at 250 venues. Any type of performance may participate, across theatre, comedy, music and dance, and many students visit Edinburgh to put on their own shows. For more, read our Edinburgh Festivals guide.

27-28th – Notting Hill Carnival. Held in west London over a bank holiday weekend, Notting Hill Carnival is Europe’s biggest street festival. Around 1 million people go to see colourful floats and dancers in flamboyant costumes, hear music from salsa to reggae, and taste Caribbean food from street stalls. Bring your party spirit, enough cash and a lot of patience – it can be very crowded.

September

16th–20th – London Fashion Week. London Fashion Week sets the global fashion agenda, alongside the other big shows in Paris, Milan and New York. These are for industry insiders, but you can get tickets to London Fashion Weekend for a taste of the fashion show experience. There are two each year – the first London Fashion Week is in February, with the Weekend on 19-23 February. Students get involved too, with events including student and graduate showcases and networking opportunities. Find out more in our London Fashion Week article.

October

31st – Halloween. The modern way of celebrating Halloween is based on the Christian feast of All Hallows’ Eve and the Celtic festival of Samhain. Children go trick-or-treating (knocking on neighbours’ doors to ask for sweets) or carve pumpkins, while older students go to parties and Halloween events at pubs, clubs or Students’ Unions. The important thing is to dress up as gruesomely as you dare!

If you want to get really spooky, check out our Haunted UK article to find out how to visit the scariest locations in the UK.

November

All month – Movember. If you're seeing more moustaches than usual, you're not imagining it – throughout November, the charity campaign of Movember invites men to grow a moustache and raise awareness of men's health issues.

5th – Bonfire night. Historically, this marks the anniversary of Guy Fawkes' plot to blow up the House of Lords and assassinate King James I in 1605 – the failed 'gunpowder plot' is remembered in the children's rhyme 'Remember, remember the 5th of November; gunpowder, treason and plot'. Today, it is commemorated with spectacular displays of fireworks.

There will be firework displays in most cities, but one of the best places to be is in the medieval town of Lewes, East Sussex – here, the fireworks are accompanied by colourful parades, music, costumes and the traditional 'guy', an effigy made of straw or paper to burn on the bonfire.

Find out more in An international student's guide to Bonfire Night.

11th – Remembrance Day. Each year in the UK, November 11 is a memorial day to honour members of the armed forces. The aim is to remember those who lost their lives in battle, so many peace campaigners also support the event. The Royal British Legion charity sells paper poppy flowers to raise funds for veterans and their families (the poppy is a symbol of Remembrance Day), and it is customary to observe a two-minute silence at 11am.

30th – St Andrew's Day (Scotland). Honouring its patron saint, St Andrew's Day is Scotland's national day. There are many events across Scotland, including traditional meals, poetry readings, bagpipe music and country dancing. This is a great opportunity to go to a ceilidh – a party with Gaelic folk music and dancing. Fortunately, there is usually a 'dance caller' to teach the steps!

30th – Diwali. Diwali (or Deepavali) is the Festival of Lights for

Hindu, Sikh and Jain communities. Cities including Leicester (which hosts one of the biggest Diwali celebrations outside India), London and Nottingham have extravagant street parties with traditional food, music, crafts and dancing – and of course, displays of lights, lanterns, candles and fireworks. Read Celebrating Diwali in the UK to find out more.

December

London's Trafalgar Square in December (Photo ©VisitBritain/Britain on View)

Throughout December, there are countless winter markets and festive visitor attractions across the UK. Look out for events advertised in local magazines and at your school, college or university, or check out our December Diary countdown! Some of our favourites are:

Winter Wonderland in London's Hyde Park. In addition to a traditional Christmas market, this huge site features carnival rides, two circuses, an ice skating rink, fake snow and an exhibition of ice sculptures… and enough hot chocolate and mulled wine to keep you warm.

Hogwarts in the snow, a wintry version of the Harry Potter tour at Warner Bros. Studios in Leavesden (near London). Watch snow fall over the original model of Hogwarts castle, and see the Great Hall set for Christmas dinner.

Birmingham's Frankfurt Christmas Market, the largest German market outside Germany and Austria, complete with glühwein (mulled wine), wursts (sausages), pretzels and sweet treats. You can also shop for unique gifts from local artists at the Craft Fair.

The winter festival at the Eden Project in Cornwall. Usually an educational ecology park, in December the Eden Project is transformed with Christmas trees, a choir, real reindeer and an ice rink, with ice skating classes for all ages.

Belfast's Christmas Market. If you're studying in Northern Ireland,

visit the multicultural market outside Belfast's City Hall for festive food and drink from around the world, crafts, gifts and Christmas decorations.

Pantomimes. The traditional Christmas 'panto' is a mix of slapstick comedy and musical theatre, with silly costumes and audience participation. Pantomimes are usually for children, but it's worth seeing one for a uniquely British experience.

24th–1st Jan – Hanukkah. Jewish communities across the UK will be celebrating Hanukkah (Chanukah), the Festival of Lights, from December 6 to 14 in 2015. In London, the Menorah in Trafalgar Square is the largest in Europe. It's usually lit by the Mayor of London on the first day of Hanukkah, at an event with free doughnuts and live music.

25th – Christmas. Most people in the UK celebrate Christmas, even if they are not religious. There will be Christmas trees, presents, carol singing, mulled wine (warm, spiced red wine), mince pies (small pies with a sweet fruit filling) and if it snows, snowmen and snowball fights! The traditional Christmas dinner is a whole roast turkey with roast potatoes, vegetables, gravy and Christmas pudding for dessert (a steamed sponge pudding with dried fruit) – but each family has its own variations. Read our students' guide to a UK Christmas.

26th – Boxing Day. The day after Christmas is called Boxing Day, and is a bank holiday in the UK. It's believed to have been named after the 'Christmas box' of money or gifts which employers used to give to servants and tradesmen. Nowadays, there are no particular Boxing Day customs, but most people spend the day with their families, going for a walk, watching sports or eating the Christmas leftovers.

1. **Exercises.** What do you know about…

   The most important festival of the year for most British families?

   Traditions connected with Cristmas in Britain?

A morris dance?

Hogmanay ans its traditions?

The festival connected with the beginning of spring?

The Eisteddfods, the Welsh tournaments of singers and poets?

clans and tartans in Scotland?

The habit of tea drinking in Britain?

2.Test. How well do you know the holidays and festivals celebrated in Britain?[9]

1. St David's Day is a British festival which is predominantly celebrated in which country?

a) England
b) Wales
c) Northern Ireland
d) Scotland

2. The May Day bank holiday in England is celebrated each year on the first Monday in May. Festivities include crowning a May Queen, dancing around a May pole, and which other activity?

a) Cheese rolling
b) Pea shooting competition
c) Strawberry harvest
d) Morris dancing

3. The mighty Scottish people practice their strength at an outdoor festival held each year in the highlands. Which activity includes a log of wood roughly 20 feet (6m) tall and weighing approximately 175 pounds?

a) Caber tossing
b) Pooh sticks
c) Haggis hunting
d) Speed sawing

[9]British Holidays and Festivals. Available at http://www.funtrivia.com/playquiz/quiz3594072924d10.html

4. St Patrick is the patron saint of Ireland and his feast day is celebrated each year on 17th March. Which plant is normally worn on this special day?

a) Thistle
b) Shamrock
c) Rose
d) Daffodil

5. Remembrance Day is a solemn occasion in November where we remember all the fatalities from both World Wars, and other conflicts which have happened since? What is it more commonly called in Britain?

a) Rose Day
b) Forget-me-not Day
c) Lily Day
d) Poppy Day

6. "Remember, remember, the fifth of November, gunpowder, treason and plot." Which building did the traitor Guy Fawkes unsuccessfully try to destroy in 1605, leading us to celebrate each anniversary by letting off fireworks?

a) Buckingham Palace
b) St Paul's Cathedral
c) Westminster Abbey
d) Houses of Parliament

7. The 21st June sees another celebration in Britain, mainly followed by pagans and druids, but more recently by ordinary people wanting to experience something special. Thousands of people flock to which location to see the sun rise over the horizon on the longest day of the year?

a) Avebury Circle
b) Lindisfarne
c) Stonehenge

d) Ring of Brodgar

8. On which bank holiday is the Notting Hill Carnival celebrated each year?

a) Easter bank holiday

b) Spring bank holiday

c) Early May bank holiday

d) Summer bank holiday

9. Which famous Scottish poet has a celebration named after him which normally falls on or around 25th January?

a) J. M. Barrie

b) Sir Arthur Conan Doyle

c) John Buchan

d) Robert Burns

10. Mothering Sunday in Britain is celebrated on the third Sunday in Lent, while Father's Day is celebrated in which month?

a) March

b) June

c) September

d) April

2. **Creative assignments.** Make up a V diagramme to compare holidays in English-speajing countries.
3. **Make up puzzles on festifals and holidays in the UK.**

Chapter 8

Arts and culture

The culture of Great Britain: General information

The culture of Great Britain is the pattern of human activity and symbolism associated with the United Kingdom and its people. It is influenced by the UK's history as a developed island country, a liberal democracy and a major power, its predominantly Christian religious life, and its composition of its countries, each of which has distinct customs, cultures and symbolism.

Literature,music,music, cinema, art, theatre, media, television, philosop hy and architecture are influential and respected across the world. The United Kingdom is also prominent in science and technology. Sport is an important part of British culture; numerous sports originated in the country, including football. The UK has been described as a "cultural superpower", and London has been described as a world cultural capital.

The Industrial Revolution, with its origins in the UK, had a profound effect on the socio-economic and cultural conditions of the world. As a result of the British Empire, significant British influence can be observed in the language, culture and institutions of a geographically wide assortment of countries, including Australia, Canada, India, Republic of Ireland, New Zealand, Nigeria, Pakistan, South Africa and the United States. These states are sometimes collectively known as the Anglosphere, and are among Britain's closest allies. In turn the empire also influenced British culture, particularly British cuisine.

The cultures of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are diverse and have varying degrees of overlap and distinctiveness.

The Arts. Literature

At its formation, the United Kingdom inherited the literary traditions of England, Scotland and Wales, including the earliest existing native literature written in the Celtic languages, Old English literature and more recent English literature including the works of Geoffrey Chaucer, William Shakespeare and John Milton.

The early 18th century is known as the Augustan Age of English literature. The poetry of the time was highly formal, as exemplified by the works of Alexander Pope, and the English novel became popular, with Daniel Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe* (1721), Samuel Richardson's *Pamela* (1740) and Henry Fielding's *Tom Jones*(1749).

From the late 18th century, the Romantic period showed a flowering of poetry comparable with the Renaissance 200 years earlier and a revival of interest in vernacular literature. In Scotland the poetry of Robert Burns revived interest in Scots literature, and the Weaver Poets of Ulster were influenced by literature from Scotland. In Wales the late 18th century saw the revival of the eisteddfod tradition, inspired by Iolo Morganwg. *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* (1792) by Mary Wollstonecraft, is one of the earliest works of feminist philosophy.

In the 19th century, major poets in English literature included William Blake, William Wordsworth, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, Alfred Lord Tennyson, John Keats, Elizabeth Barrett Browning, Percy Shelley and Lord Byron. The Victorian period was the golden age of the realistic English novel, represented by Jane Austen, the Brontë sisters (Charlotte, Emily and Anne), Charles Dickens, William Thackeray, George Eliot and Thomas Hardy.

World War I gave rise to British war poets and writers such as Wilfred Owen, Siegfried Sassoon, Robert Graves and Rupert Brooke who wrote (often paradoxically), of their expectations of war, and/or their experiences in the trench. The most widely popular writer of the early years of the 20th

century was arguably Rudyard Kipling. To date the youngest ever recipient of the Nobel Prize for Literature, Kipling's novels include *The Jungle Book*, *The Man Who Would Be King* and *Kim*, while his inspirational poem *If—* is a national favourite. Like William Ernest Henley's poem *Invictus*, it is a memorable evocation of Victorian stoicism, a traditional British virtue.

Notable Irish writers include Oscar Wilde, James Joyce, Bram Stoker, Jonathan Swift, George Bernard Shaw and W. B. Yeats. The Celtic Revival stimulated a new appreciation of traditional Irish literature. The Scottish Renaissance of the early 20th century brought modernism to Scottish literature as well as an interest in new forms in the literatures of Scottish Gaelic and Scots. The English novel developed in the 20th century into much greater variety and it remains today the dominant English literary form.

Other globally well-known British novelists include George Orwell, C. S. Lewis, Robert Louis Stevenson, Arthur Conan Doyle, H. G. Wells, D. H. Lawrence, Mary Shelley, Lewis Carroll, J. R. R. Tolkien, Virginia Woolf, Ian Fleming, Walter Scott, Agatha Christie, J. M. Barrie, Joseph Conrad, Graham Greene, E. M. Forster, Aldous Huxley, Roald Dahl, Helen Fielding, Arthur C. Clarke, Alan Moore, Ian McEwan, Anthony Burgess, Evelyn Waugh, William Golding, Salman Rushdie, Douglas Adams, P. G. Wodehouse, Martin Amis, Anthony Trollope, Beatrix Potter, A. A. Milne, Philip Pullman, Terry Pratchett, H. Rider Haggard, Neil Gaiman and J. K. Rowling. Important British poets of the 20th century include Rudyard Kipling, W. H. Auden, Ted Hughes, Philip Larkin, John Betjeman and Dylan Thomas. In 2003 the BBC carried out a UK survey entitled *The Big Read* in order to find the "nation's best-loved novel" of all time, with works by English novelists Tolkien, Austen, Pullman, Adams and Rowling making up the top five on the list.

Theatre

From its formation in 1707, the United Kingdom has had a vibrant tradition of theatre, much of it inherited from England and Scotland. The West End is the main theatre district in the UK, which is located in the West End of London. The West End's Theatre Royal in Covent Garden in the City of Westminster dates back to the mid 17th century, making it the oldest London theatre.

In the 18th century, the highbrow and provocative Restoration comedy lost favour, to be replaced by sentimental comedy, domestic tragedy such as George Lillo's The London Merchant (1731), and by an overwhelming interest in Italian opera. Popular entertainment became more important in this period than ever before, with fair-booth burlesque and mixed forms that are the ancestors of the English music hall. These forms flourished at the expense of legitimate English drama, which went into a long period of decline. By the early 19th century it was no longer represented by stage plays at all, but by the closet drama, plays written to be privately read in a "closet" (a small domestic room).

In 1847, a critic using the pseudonym *Dramaticus* published a pamphlet describing the parlous state of British theatre. Production of serious plays was restricted to the patent theatres, and new plays were subjected to censorship by the Lord Chamberlain's Office. At the same time, there was a burgeoning theatre sector featuring a diet of low melodrama and musical burlesque; but critics described British theatre as driven by commercialism and a 'star' system.

A change came in the late 19th century with the plays on the London stage by the Irishmen George Bernard Shaw and Oscar Wilde, who influenced domestic English drama and vitalised it again. The Shakespeare Memorial Theatre was opened in Shakespeare's birthplace Stratford upon Avon in 1879; and Herbert Beerbohm Tree founded an Academy of Dramatic Art at Her

Majesty's Theatre in 1904. Producer Richard D'Oyly Carte brought together librettist W. S. Gilbert and composer Arthur Sullivan, and nurtured their collaboration. Among Gilbert and Sullivan's best known comic operas are *H.M.S. Pinafore, The Pirates of Penzance* and *The Mikado*. Carte built the West End's Savoy Theatre in 1881 to present their joint works, and through the inventor of electric light Sir Joseph Swan, the Savoy was the first theatre, and the first public building in the world, to be lit entirely by electricity.

Sadler's Wells, under Lilian Baylis, nurtured talent that led to the development of an opera company, which became the English National Opera(ENO), a theatre company, which evolved into the National Theatre, and a ballet company, which eventually became the English Royal Ballet.

First performed in 1952, Agatha Christie's The Mousetrap has seen more than 25, 000 performances in London's West End.

Making his professional West End debut at the Garrick Theatre in 1911, flamboyant playwright, composer and actor Noël Coward had a career spanning over 50 years, in which he wrote many comic plays, and over a dozen musical theatre works. In July 1962, a board was set up to supervise construction of a National Theatre in London and a separate board was constituted to run a National Theatre Company and lease the Old Vic theatre. The Company was to remain at the Old Vic until 1976, when the new South Bank building was opened. A National Theatre of Scotland was set up in 2006. Today the West End of London has a large number of theatres, particularly centred on Shaftesbury Avenue. A prolific composer of musical theatre in the 20th century, Andrew Lloyd Webber has been referred to as "the most commercially successful composer in history". His musicals which include; *The Phantom of the Opera*, *Cats*, *Jesus Christ Superstar* and *Evita*, have dominated the West End for a number of years and have travelled

to Broadway in New York and around the world as well as being turned into films. Lloyd Webber has worked with producer Sir Cameron Mackintosh, lyricist Sir Tim Rice, actress and singer Sarah Brightman, while his musicals originally starred Elaine Paige, who with continued success has become known as the First Lady of British Musical Theatre.

The Royal Shakespeare Company operates out of Stratford-upon-Avon, producing mainly but not exclusively Shakespeare's plays. Important modern playwrights include Nobel laureate Harold Pinter, Tom Stoppard, Alan Ayckbourn, John Osborne, Michael Frayn and Arnold Wesker.

Music

While the British national anthem "God Save the Queen" and other patriotic songs such as "Rule, Britannia!" represent the United Kingdom, each of the four individual countries of the UK also has their own patriotic hymns. Edward Elgar's "Land of Hope and Glory", and Hubert Parry's "Jerusalem" set to William Blake's poem *And did those feet in ancient time*, are among England's most patriotic hymns. Scottish patriotic songs include "Flower of Scotland", "Scotland the Brave" and "Scots Wha Hae"; patriotic Welsh hymns include "Bread of Heaven", set to the tune "Cwm Rhondda", and "Land of My Fathers"; the latter is the national anthem of Wales. The patriotic Northern Irish ballad *Danny Boy* is set to the tune "Londonderry Air". The traditional marching song, "The British Grenadiers", is often performed by British Army bands, and is played at the Trooping the Colour. Written by British Army bandmaster F. J. Ricketts, the "Colonel Bogey March" is often whistled, becoming part of British way of life during World War II. George Frideric Handel composed *Zadok the Priest* in 1727 for the coronation of George II, which has been performed at every subsequent British coronation, traditionally performed during the sovereign's anointing. Jeremiah Clarke's "Trumpet Voluntary" is popular for wedding music, and has featured in royal weddings.

Other notable British composers: Henry Purcell, Ralph Vaughan Williams, Benjamin Britten, Gustav Holst, William Byrd, Thomas Tallis, Henry Wood, John Taverner, John Blow,Arthur Sullivan, William Walton, John Stafford Smith, Henry Bishop, Ivor Novello, Malcolm Arnold, Michael Tippett and John Barry have made major contributions to British music, and are known internationally. Living composers include Sir George Martin, Harrison Birtwistle, Andrew Lloyd Webber, Oliver Knussen, Harry Gregson Williams, Mike Oldfield, John Rutter, James MacMillan, Joby Talbot, John Powell, David Arnold, Anne Dudley, Trevor Horn, John Murphy, Henry Jackman, Brian Eno, Clint Mansell, Craig Armstrong and Michael Nyman.

The traditional folk music of England has contributed to several genres, such as sea shanties, jigs, hornpipes and dance music. It has its own distinct variations and regional peculiarities. Wynkyn de Worde's printed ballads of Robin Hood from the 16th century are an important artefact, as are John Playford's *The Dancing Master* and Robert Harley's *Roxburghe Ballads*collections. Some of the best known songs are *Greensleeves*, *Scarborough Fair* and *Over the Hills and Far Away*. Thebagpipes have long been a national symbol of Scotland, and the Great Highland Bagpipe is widely recognised. Scottish folk songs include, *The Bonnie Banks o' Loch Lomond*, *Will Ye Go, Lassie, Go?* while *Auld Lang Syne* is sung throughout the English-speaking world to celebrate the start of the New Year, especially at Hogmanay in Edinburgh.

From the mid-16th century, nursery rhymes began to be recorded in English plays. Some of the best known nursery rhymes from Britain include; Twinkle Twinkle Little Star, Roses are red, Jack and Jill, Cock a doodle doo, Baa, Baa, Black Sheep, The Grand Old Duke of York, London Bridge Is Falling Down, Hey Diddle Diddle, Three Blind Mice, Little Miss

Muffet, Pat-a-cake, Pop Goes the Weasel, One, Two, Buckle My Shoe, Peter Piper, Hickory Dickory Dock, One for Sorrow, This Old Man, Simple Simon, Old Mother Hubbard, Little Bo Peep, Sing a Song of Sixpence, Mary, Mary, Quite Contrary, Old King Cole and Humpty Dumpty.

Christmas carols in English first appear in a 1426 work by John Awdlay, a Shropshire chaplain who lists twenty five "caroles of Cristemas", probably sung by groups of 'wassailers', who went from house to house. Some of the most notable carols from the UK include; We Wish You a Merry Christmas, O Come All Ye Faithful, The First Noel, God Rest You Merry, Gentlemen, The Holly and the Ivy, I Saw Three Ships, Deck the Halls, In the Bleak Midwinter, Joy to the World, Once in Royal David's City, Hark! The Herald Angels Sing, What Child Is This?, Good King Wenceslas, Here We Come A-Caroling and While Shepherds Watched Their Flocks. Themusic of Christmas has always been a combination of sacred and secular, and every year in the UK there is highly publicised competition to be the Christmas number one single, which has led to the production of music which still provides the mainstay of festive playlists. During WWII, Vera Lynn was known as the Forces' Sweetheart, with "We'll Meet Again", sung to British troops, among the songs most associated with her. The UK single and album charts are revealed every Sunday on BBC Radio 1, with Elton John's "Candle in the Wind 1997" the best-selling single in the UK, and Queen's *Greatest Hits* the best-selling album.

The United Kingdom supports a number of major orchestras including the BBC Symphony Orchestra, the Royal Philharmonic Orchestra, the Philharmonia, the London Symphony Orchestra and the London Philharmonic Orchestra. London is one of the world's major centres for classical music: it has several important concert halls and is also home to the Royal Opera House, one of the world's leading opera houses. British traditional music has

also been very influential abroad. The Brit Awards, the BPI's annual pop music awards, take place at The O2 Arena every February.

The UK was one of the two main countries in the creation and development of many genres of popular music, including; rock music; The Beatles,The Rolling Stones, The Who, The Kinks; hard rock; Led Zeppelin, Cream, Def Leppard, Whitesnake; progressive rock; Pink Floyd, Genesis, Yes; glam rock; Queen, Elton John, David Bowie, T. Rex, blues rock; The Yardbirds, The Animals, Eric Clapton, Dire Straits; heavy metal; Black Sabbath, Deep Purple, Iron Maiden, Motörhead, Judas Priest; punk rock; Sex Pistols, The Clash, Billy Idol; new wave; The Police, Elvis Costello,Culture Club, Duran Duran; goth rock; The Cure, Siouxsie and the Banshees; art rock; The Moody Blues, Emerson, Lake and Palmer, Procol Harum, Peter Gabriel, Kate Bush; folk rock; Van Morrison, Cat Stevens, Donovan, Mumford & Sons; soft rock; The Hollies, blue-eyed soul; Dusty Springfield, Tom Jones, Steve Winwood; disco; Bee Gees; synth pop; Depeche Mode, Eurythmics, Pet Shop Boys; reggae; UB40; pop rock; Rod Stewart, Phil Collins, Sting, Joe Cocker, Robert Palmer, Bonnie Tyler; alternative rock; The Smiths, New Order, Radiohead, Coldplay; symphonic rock; ELO, Muse; Britpop; Oasis, Blur, The Verve; soul; Sade, Amy Winehouse, Adele.

The UK has also pioneered various forms of electronic dance music including dubstep, acid house, uk garage, drum and bass and trip hop, with acts including; The Prodigy,Massive Attack, Jamiroquai, The Chemical Brothers, Gorillaz, Calvin Harris and Fatboy Slim. Other notable British artists in pop music include; Spice Girls, George Michael, Seal,Leona Lewis, One Direction, Ed Sheeran and Robbie Williams. In 2009, British artists topped the decade end ranking, with "Chasing Cars" by Snow Patrol announced as the most widely played song of the decade in the UK,

and *Back to Bedlam* by James Blunt the best selling album of the 2000s in the UK. Since the mid 2000s, British rap is becoming increasingly popular, mainly within the youth of large cities such as London, Manchester, Birmingham, Nottingham, Leeds and Sheffield. Popular British R&B artists include Taio Cruz, Jay Sean, M.I.A. and Jessie J.

British popular music

British popular music and popular music in general, can be defined in a number of ways, but is used here to describe music which is not part of the art/classical music or Church music traditions, including folk music, jazz, pop and rock music. These forms of music have particularly flourished in Britain, which, it has been argued, has had an impact on popular music disproportionate to its size, partly due to its linguistic and cultural links with many countries, particularly the former areas of British control such as United States, Canada, and Australia, but also a capacity for invention, innovation and fusion, which has led to the development of, or participation in, many of the major trends in popular music. This is particularly true since the early 1960s when the British Invasion led by The Beatles, helped to secure British performers a major place in development of pop and rock music, which has been revisited at various times, with genres originating in or being radically developed by British musicians, including: blues rock, heavy metal music, progressive rock, punk rock, electric folk, folk punk, acid jazz, drum and bass, grime and Britpop.

Early British popular music

Commercial music enjoyed by the people can be seen to originate in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries with the arrival of the broadside ballad, which were sold cheaply and in great numbers until the nineteenth century. Further technological, economic and social changes led to new forms of music in the nineteenth century, including the brass band, which produced a popular and communal form of classical music. Similarly, the Music

hall sprang up to cater for the entertainment of new urban societies, adapting existing forms of music to produce popular songs and acts. In the 1930s the influence of American Jazz led to the creation of British dance bands, who provided a social and popular music that began to dominate social occasions and the radio airwaves.

1950s

By 1950 indigenous forms of British popular music were already giving way to the influence of American forms of music including jazz, swingand traditional pop, mediated through film and records. The significant change of the mid-1950s was the impact of American rock and roll, which provided a new model for performance and recording, based on a youth market. Initially this was dominated by American acts, or re-creations of American forms of music, but soon distinctly British forms began to appear, first in the uniquely British take on American folk music in the Skiffle craze of the 1950s, in the beginnings of a folk revival that came to place an emphasis on national traditions and then in early attempts to produce British rock and roll.

1960s

By the early 1960s the British had developed a viable national music industry and began to produce adapted forms of American music in beat music and British blues which would be re-exported to America by bands such as The Beatles and Rolling Stones. This helped to make the dominant forms of popular music something of a shared Anglo-American project. The development of British blues rock helped revitalised rock music and led to the growing distinction between pop and rock music. In the mid-1960s, British bands were at the forefront in the creation of the hard rock genre. While pop music continued to dominate the singles charts, rock began to develop into

diverse and creative sub-genres that characterised the form throughout the rest of the twentieth century.

1970s

In the 1970s British musicians played a major part in developing the new forms of music that had emerged from blues rock towards the end of the 1960s, including folk rock and psychedelic rock. Several important and influential sub-genres were created in Britain in this period, by pursuing the possibilities of rock music, including electric folk and glam rock, a process that reached its apogee in the development of progressive rock and one of the most enduring sub-genres in heavy metal music. While jazz began to suffer a decline in popularity in this period, Britain began to be increasingly influenced by aspects of World music, including Jamaican music, resulting in new music scenes and sub-genres. In the middle years of the decade the influence of the pub rock and American punk rock movements led to the British intensification of punk, which swept away much of the existing landscape of popular music, replacing it with much more diverse new wave and post punk bands who mixed different forms of music and influences to dominate rock and pop music into the 1980s.

1980s

Rock and pop music in the 1980s built on the post-punk and new wave movements, incorporating different sources of inspiration from sub-genres and what is now classed as World music in the shape of Jamaican and Indian music, as did British Jazz, as a series of black British musicians came to prominence, creating new fusions like Acid Jazz. It also explored the consequences of new technology and social change in the electronic music of synthpop. In the early years of the decade, while sub-genres like heavy metal music continued to develop separately, there was a considerable crossover between rock and more commercial popular music, with a large number of more "serious" bands, like The Police and UB40,

enjoying considerable single chart success.[14] The advent of MTV and cable video helped spur what has been seen as a Second British Invasion in the early years of the decade, with British bands enjoying more success in America than they had since the height of The Beatles' popularity in the 1960s. However, by the end of the decade there was a fragmentation, with many new forms of music and sub-cultures, including Hip Hop and House music, while the single charts were once again dominated by pop artists, now often associated with the Hi-NRG hit factory of Stock Aitken Waterman. The rise of the Indie rock scene was partly a response to this, and marked a shift away from the major music labels and towards the importance of local scenes like Madchester and sub-genres, like gothic rock.

1990s

In the 1990s, while the singles charts were dominated by boy bands and girl groups like Take That, and Spice Girls,[16] British soul and Indian-based music also enjoyed their greatest level of mainstream success to date, and the rise of World music helped revitalise the popularity of folk music. Electronic rock bands like The Prodigy and Chemical Brothers began to achieve a high profile. Alternative rock reached the mainstream, emerging from the Madchester scene to produce dream pop, shoegazing, post rock and indie pop, which led to the commercial success of Britpop bands like Blur and Oasis; followed by a stream of post-Britpop bands like Travis and Feeder, which led the way for the international success of bands including Snow Patrol and Coldplay.

2000s to present

At the beginning of the new millennium, while talent show contestants were one of the major forces in pop music, British soul maintained and even extended its high profile with figures like Joss Stone, Amy Winehouse and Adele, while a new group of singer/songwriters, including KT

Tunstall and James Blunt, achieved international success. New forms of dance music emerged, fusing hip hop with garage to form grime. There was also a revival of garage rock and post punk, which when mixed with electronic music produced new rave.

British rock describes a wide variety of forms of music made in the United Kingdom. Since around 1964, with the "British Invasion" of the United States spearheaded by the Beatles, British rock music has had a considerable impact on the development of American music and rock music across the world.

Initial attempts to emulate American rock and roll took place in Britain in the mid-1950s, but the terms "rock music" and "rock" usually refer to the music derived from the blues-rock and other genres that emerged during the 1960s. The term is often used in combination with other terms to describe a variety of hybrids or subgenres, and is often contrasted with pop music, with which it shares many structures and instrumentation. Rock music has tended to be more oriented toward the albums market, putting an emphasis on innovation, virtuosity, performance and song writing by the performers.

Although much too diverse to be a genre in itself, British rock has produced many of the most significant groups and performers in rock music internationally, and has initiated or significantly developed many of the most influential subgenres, including beat music, progressive rock, art rock, heavy metal music, punk, post punk, new romanticism, and indie rock.

Early British rock and roll

In the 1950s, Britain was well placed to receive American rock and roll music and culture. It shared a common language, had been exposed to American culture through the stationing of troops in the country, and shared many social developments, including the emergence of distinct youth sub-cultures, which in Britain included the Teddy Boys. Trad Jazz became popular, and many of its musicians were influenced by related American styles, including Boogie

Woogie and the Blues. The skiffle craze, led by Lonnie Donegan, utilised amateurish versions of American folk songs and encouraged many of the subsequent generation of rock and roll, folk, R&B and beat musicians to start performing. At the same time British audiences were beginning to encounter American rock and roll, initially through films including *Blackboard Jungle* (1955) and *Rock Around the Clock* (1955). Both films contained the Bill Haley & His Comets hit "Rock Around the Clock", which first entered the British charts in early 1955 - four months before it reached the US pop charts - topped the British charts later that year and again in 1956, and helped identify rock and roll with teenage delinquency.[8] American rock and roll acts such as Elvis Presley, Little Richard and Buddy Holly thereafter became major forces in the British charts.

The initial response of the British music industry was to attempt to produce copies of American records, recorded with session musicians and often fronted by teen idols. British rock and rollers soon began to appear, including Wee Willie Harris and Tommy Steele. The bland or wholly imitative form of much British rock and roll in this period meant that the American product remained dominant. However, in 1958 Britain produced its first "authentic" rock and roll song and star, when Cliff Richard reached number 2 in the charts with "Move It".[9]British impresario Larry Parnes fashioned young singers to the new trend, giving them corny names such as Billy Fury, Marty Wilde and Vince Eager. At the same time, TV shows such as *Six-Five Special* and *Oh Boy!*, both produced by Jack Good, promoted the careers of British rock and rollers like Marty Wilde and Adam Faith. Cliff Richard and his backing band The Shadows were the most successful home grown rock and roll based acts of the era. Other leading acts included Joe Brown, and Johnny Kidd & The Pirates, whose 1960 hit song "Shakin' All Over" became a rock and roll standard. The first American rock

and roll artist to hit British stages and appear on television was Gene Vincent in December 1959, soon joined on tour by his friend Eddie Cochran. The producer Joe Meek was the first to produce sizeable rock hits in England, culminating with The Tornados' instrumental "Telstar", which went to number one in both the UK and USA.

The development of British rock in the 1960s and early 1970s

In late 1950s Britain a flourishing culture of groups began to emerge, often out of the declining skiffle scene, in major urban centres in the UK like Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham and London. This was particularly true in Liverpool, where it has been estimated that there were around 350 different bands active, often playing ballrooms, concert halls and clubs. These beat bands were heavily influenced by American groups of the era, such as Buddy Holly and the Crickets (from which group The Beatles derived their name), as well as earlier British groups such as The Shadows. After the national success of the Beatles in Britain from 1962, a number of Liverpool performers were able to follow them into the charts, including Gerry & The Pacemakers, The Searchers, and Cilla Black. Among the most successful beat acts from Birmingham were The Spencer Davis Group and The Moody Blues; The Animals came from Newcastle, and Them, featuring Van Morrison, from Belfast. From London, the term *Tottenham Sound* was largely based around The Dave Clark Five, but other London bands that benefited from the beat boom of this era included the Rolling Stones, The Kinks and The Yard birds. The first non-Liverpool, non-Brian Epstein-managed band to break through in the UK were Freddie and the Dreamers, who were based in Manchester, as were Herman's Hermits and The Hollies. The beat movement provided most of the bands responsible for the British invasion of the American pop charts in the period after 1964, and furnished the model for many important developments in pop and rock music, particularly through their small group format - typically lead guitar, rhythm

guitar, bass guitar, drums, and often keyboards, either with a lead singer or with one of the other musicians taking lead vocals and the others providing vocal harmonies.

The Beatles and the "British Invasion"

The Beatles themselves were less influenced by blues music than the music of later American genres such as soul and Motown. Their popular success in Britain in the early 1960s was matched by their new and highly influential emphases on their own song writing, and on technical production values, some of which were shared by other British beat groups. On 7 February 1964, the CBS Evening News with Walter Cronkite ran a story about The Beatles' United States arrival in which the correspondent said "The British Invasion this time goes by the code name Beatlemania". A few days later, they appeared on The Ed Sullivan Show.[17] Seventy five percent of Americans watching television that night viewed their appearance thus "launching" the invasion with a massive wave of chart success that would continue until the Beatles broke up in 1970. On 4 April 1964, the Beatles held the top 5 positions on the *Billboard* Hot 100 singles chart, the only time to date that any act has accomplished this. During the next two years, Peter and Gordon, The Animals, Manfred Mann, Petula Clark, Freddie and the Dreamers, Wayne Fontana and the Mindbenders, Herman's Hermits, The Rolling Stones, The Troggs, and Donovan would have one or more number one singles in the US. Other acts that were part of the "invasion" included The Who, The Kinks, and The Dave Clark Five;[18] these acts were also successful within the UK, although clearly the term "British Invasion" itself was not applied there except as a description of what was happening in the USA. So-called "British Invasion" acts influenced fashion, haircuts and manners of the 1960s of what was to be known as the "Counterculture". In particular, the Beatles' movie *A Hard Day's Night* and fashions from Carnaby

Street led American media to proclaim England as the centre of the music and fashion world. The success of British acts of the time, particularly that of the Beatles themselves, has been seen as revitalising rock music in the US and influenced many American bands to develop their sound and style. The growth of the British music industry itself, and its increasingly prominent global role in the forefront of changing popular culture, also enabled it to discover and first establish the success of new rock artists from elsewhere in the world, notably Jimi Hendrix and, in the early 1970s, Bob Marley.

Heavy metal music

Heavy metal (or simply **metal**) is a genre of rock music that developed in the late 1960s and early 1970s, largely in the United Kingdom and the United States.[2] With roots in blues rock and psychedelic rock, the bands that created heavy metal developed a thick, massive sound, characterized by highly amplified distortion, extended guitar solos, emphatic beats, and overall loudness. Heavy metal lyrics and performance styles are often associated with masculinity, aggression, and machismo.

The first heavy metal bands such as Led Zeppelin, Deep Purple and Black Sabbath attracted large audiences, though they were often derided by critics, a status common throughout the history of the genre. During the mid-1970s, Judas Priest helped spur the genre's evolution by discarding much of its blues influence; Motörhead introduced a punk rock sensibility and an increasing emphasis on speed. Bands in the New Wave of British Heavy Metal such as Iron Maiden and Saxon followed in a similar vein. Before the end of the decade, heavy metal fans became known as "metalheads" or "headbangers".

During the 1980s, glam metal became a commercial force with groups like Mötley Crüe and Poison. Underground scenes produced an array of more extreme, aggressive styles: thrash metal broke into the mainstream with bands such as Metallica, Megadeth, Slayer, and Anthrax, while other styles of the

most extreme subgenres of metal like death metal and black metal remain subculturalphenomena. Since the mid-1990s, popular styles such as groove metal (e.g., Pantera), which blends extreme metal with hardcore punk, and nu metal (e.g., Slipknot), which often incorporates elements of grunge and hip hop, have further expanded the definition of the genre.

Antecedents: 1950s to mid-1960s

Heavy metal's quintessential guitar style, built around distortion-heavy riffs and power chords, traces its roots to early 1950s Memphis electric blues guitarists such as Joe Hill Louis, Willie Johnson, and particularly Pat Hare, who captured a "grittier, nastier, more ferocious electric guitar sound" on records such as James Cotton's "Cotton Crop Blues" (1954); the late 1950s instrumentals of Link Wray, particularly "Rumble" (1958); the early 1960s surf rock music of Dick Dale, including "Let's Go Trippin'" (1961) and "Misirlou" (1962); and The Kingsmen's version of "Louie, Louie" (1963), which made it a garage rock standard.

Cream performing on the Dutch television program Fanclub in 1968

However, the genre's direct lineage begins in the mid-1960s. American blues music was a major influence on the early British rockers of the era. Bands like The Rolling Stones and The Yardbirds developed blues rock by recording covers of many classic blues songs, often speeding up the tempos. As they experimented with the music, the UK blues-based bands—and the U.S. acts they influenced in turn—developed what would become the hallmarks of heavy metal, in particular, the loud, distorted guitar sound. The Kinks played a major role in popularising this sound with their 1964 hit "You Really Got Me".

In addition to The Kinks' Dave Davies, other guitarists such as The Who's Pete Townshend and The Yardbirds' Jeff Beck were experimenting with feedback. Where the blues rock drumming style started out largely as simple shuffle beats on small kits, drummers began using a more muscular, complex, and amplified approach to match and be heard against the increasingly loud guitar. Vocalists similarly modified their technique and increased their reliance on amplification, often becoming more stylized and dramatic. In terms of sheer volume, especially in live performance, The Who's "bigger-louder-wall-of-Marshalls" approach was seminal.

The combination of blues rock with psychedelic rock formed much of the original basis for heavy metal. One of the most influential bands in forging the merger of genres was the British power trio Cream, who derived a massive, heavy sound from unison riffing between guitarist Eric Clapton and bassist Jack Bruce, as well as Ginger Baker's double bass drumming. Their first two LPs, *Fresh Cream* (1966) and *Disraeli Gears* (1967), are regarded as essential prototypes for the future style. The Jimi Hendrix Experience's debut album, *Are You Experienced* (1967), was also highly influential. Hendrix's virtuosic technique would be emulated by many metal guitarists and the album's most successful single, "Purple Haze", is identified by some as the first heavy metal hit.

During the late sixties, many psychedelic singers such as Arthur Brown, began to create outlandish, theatrical and often macabre performances; which in itself became incredibly influential to many metal acts. Vanilla Fudge, whose first album also came out in 1967, has been called "one of the few American links between psychedelia and what soon became heavy metal".

Origins: late 1960s and early 1970s

Critics disagree over who can be thought of as the first heavy metal band. Most credit either Led Zeppelin or Black Sabbath, with American

commentators tending to favour Led Zeppelin and British commentators tending to favour Black Sabbath, though many give equal credit to both. A few commentators—mainly American—argue for other groups including Iron Butterfly, Steppenwolf or Blue Cheer.

In 1968, the sound that would become known as heavy metal began to coalesce. That January, the San Francisco band Blue Cheer released a cover of Eddie Cochran's classic "Summertime Blues", from their debut album *Vincebus Eruptum*, that many consider the first true heavy metal recording.[90] The same month, Steppenwolf released its self-titled debut album, including "Born to Be Wild", which refers to "heavy metal thunder" in describing a motorcycle. In July, another two epochal records came out: The Yardbirds' "Think About It" (from the 1967 Yardbirds album *Little Games*)—B-side of the band's last single—with a performance by guitarist Jimmy Page; and Iron Butterfly's *In-A-Gadda-Da-Vida*, with its 17-minute-long title track, a prime candidate for first-ever heavy metal album.

The Jeff Beck Group, whose leader had preceded Page as The Yardbirds' guitarist, released its debut record that same month: *Truth* featured some of the "most molten, barbed, down In October, Page's new band, Led Zeppelin, made its live debut. The Beatles' *White Album*, which also came out that month, included "Helter Skelter", then one of the heaviest-sounding songs ever released by a major band. The Pretty Things' rock opera *S.F. Sorrow*, released in December, featured "proto heavy metal" songs such as "Old Man Going" and "I See You".

In this counterculture period MC5, who began as part of the Detroit garage rock scene, developed a raw distorted style that has been seen as a major influence on the future sound of both heavy metal and later punk music. The Stooges also began to establish and influence a heavy metal and later punk sound, with songs such as "I Wanna Be Your Dog", featuring pounding

and distorted heavy guitar power chord riffs. Pink Floyd released two of their heaviest and loudest songs to date; "Ibiza Bar" and "The Nile Song", which was regarded as "one of the heaviest songs the band recorded". King Crimson's debut album included 21st Century Schizoid Man, which was considered heavy metal by several critics.

Mainstream: late 1970s and 1980s

Punk rock emerged in the mid-1970s as a reaction against contemporary social conditions as well as what was perceived as the overindulgent, overproduced rock music of the time, including heavy metal. Sales of heavy metal records declined sharply in the late 1970s in the face of punk, disco, and more mainstream rock.[117] With the major labels fixated on punk, many newer British heavy metal bands were inspired by the movement's aggressive, high-energy sound and "lo-fi", do it yourself ethos. Underground metal bands began putting out cheaply recorded releases independently to small, devoted audiences.

Motörhead, founded in 1975, was the first important band to straddle the punk/metal divide. With the explosion of punk in 1977, others followed. British music papers such as the *NME* and *Sounds* took notice, with *Sounds* writer Geoff Barton christening the movement the "New Wave of British Heavy Metal". NWOBHM bands including Iron Maiden, Saxon, and Def Leppard reenergized the heavy metal genre. Following the lead set by Judas Priest and Motörhead, they toughened up the sound, reduced its blues elements, and emphasized increasingly fast tempos.

By 1980, the NWOBHM had broke into the mainstream, as albums by Iron Maiden and Saxon, as well as Motörhead, reached the British top 10. Though less commercially successful, other NWOBHM bands such as Venom and Diamond Head would have a significant influence on metal's development. In 1981, Motörhead became the first of this new breed of metal bands to top the UK charts with *No Sleep 'til Hammersmith*.

The first generation of metal bands was ceding the limelight. Deep Purple had broken up soon after Blackmore's departure in 1975, and Led Zeppelin broke up following drummer John Bonham's death in 1980. Black Sabbath plagued with infighting and substance abuse, while facing fierce competition with their opening band, the Los Angeles band Van Halen. Eddie Van Halen established himself as one of the leading metal guitarists of the era—his solo on "Eruption", from the band's self-titled 1978 album, is considered a milestone.

Cinema

The UK has had a large impact on modern cinema, producing some of the greatest actors, directors and motion pictures of all time, including Sir Alfred Hitchcock, Charlie Chaplin, David Lean, Laurence Olivier, Vivien Leigh, Audrey Hepburn, John Gielgud, Sean Connery, Richard Burton, Vanessa Redgrave, Michael Caine, Anthony Hopkins and Daniel Day-Lewis. The BFI Top 100 British films is a poll conducted by the British Film Institute which ranks what they consider to be the 100 greatest British films of all time. Two of the biggest actors in the silent era were Charlie Chaplin and Stan Laurel. English photographer Eadweard Muybridge pioneered motion picture, while pioneering Scottish documentary maker John Grierson coined the term "documentary" to describe a non-fiction film in 1926. Hitchcock's first thriller, *The Lodger: A Story of the London Fog* (1926), helped shape the thriller genre in film, while his 1929 film, *Blackmail*, is often regarded as the first British sound feature film. *The 39 Steps* (1935) features a signature Hitchcock cameo, and established the quintessential English 'Hitchcock blonde' Madeleine Carroll as the template for his succession of ice cold and elegant leading ladies. Sir Alexander Korda's *The Private Life of Henry VIII* (1933), was the first British production

to be nominated for the Academy Award for Best Picture. Boris Karloff played the leading role in several major Hollywood horror films in the 1930s. Famous for recording many motion picture film scores, the London Symphony Orchestra first performed film music in 1935.

The first British Academy Film Awards ceremony took place in 1947. Sir Laurence Olivier starred in and directed *Henry V* (1944), and *Hamlet* (1948), the latter being the first non-American film to win theAcademy Award for Best Picture and also picked up the BAFTA Award for Best Film. The third Shakespearean film directed by Olivier was*Richard III* (1955). The British film-making partnership of Powell and Pressburger made a series of influential films in the 1940s and 1950s, with *The Red Shoes* (1948) their most commercially successful film. Carol Reed directed *The Third Man* (1949), regarded among the best British films of the 20th century.

David Lean emerged as a major filmmaker in the 1940s with *Brief Encounter* (1945) and *Great Expectations* (1946), and his first big-screen epic *The Bridge on the River Kwai* (1957) won seven Academy Awards. Towards the end of the 1950s, Hammer Films embarked on their series of influential and wildly successful horror films, including lavish colour versions of *Frankenstein* (1957), *Dracula* (1958) and *The Mummy* (1959), with actors Peter Cushing and Christopher Lee at the forefront. *The Dam Busters* (1955), recreates the true story of theRAF's raid on dams in Nazi Germany using Sir Barnes Wallis's invention the "bouncing bomb". The *Carry On* series, which consists of 31 comedy motion pictures, commenced in 1958. A West Country native where many well-known English pirates hailed from, Robert Newton's portrayal of Long John Silver in 1950s films popularised the stereotypical West Country pirate accent.[65] Films that explored the "Swinging London" phenomenon of the 1960s included, *Alfie* (1966), *Blowup* (1966) and *Bedazzled* (1967). The *James*

Bond film series began in the early 1960s, with Sean Connery in the leading role. Bond, portrayed by Connery, was selected as the third-greatest hero in cinema history by the AFI. After The Beatles films *A Hard Day's Night* (1964) and *Help!* (1965), it became standard for each new pop group to have a verité style feature film made about them.*A Man for All Seasons* (1966), based on Sir Thomas More, is listed by the Vatican as being among the greatest religious movies of all time.

Other major British films of the 1960s included *Lawrence of Arabia* (1962), *Tom Jones* (1963), *Zulu* (1964) and *Those Magnificent Men in Their Flying Machines* (1965). Four of the decade's Academy Award winners for best picture were British productions, including six Oscars for the film musical *Oliver!* (1968), based on Charles Dickens' classic *Oliver Twist*. The caper film *The Italian Job* (1969), starring Michael Caine, is regarded as one of the greatest British films ever, with the line "You were only supposed to blow the bloody doors off!" by Caine voted favourite film one-liner in a poll.[68] Other British actors in starring roles in 1960s films included Richard Burton, Peter Sellers, Audrey Hepburn (played Cockney flower girl Eliza Doolittle in *My Fair Lady*, 1964), Julie Christie, Peter Ustinov, Rex Harrison, Alec Guinness, David Niven and Julie Andrews, whose portrayal of English nanny Mary Poppins is named one of the greatest movie characters. Ken Russell's *Women in Love* (1969) starred Glenda Jackson, who won the Academy Award for best actress.

In the 1970s, Ronald Neame directed the festive favourite *Scrooge* (1970). *A Clockwork Orange* (1971), based on Anthony Burgess' novella of the same name, starred Malcolm McDowell as the leader of a gang of thugs in a dystopian future Britain.[70] The British horror film *The Wicker Man* (1973), starring Christopher Lee, is considered a cult classic. Two adaptations of Agatha Christie stories *Murder on the Orient*

Express(1974) and *Death on the Nile* (1978) were critically acclaimed. British musical comedy film *The Rocky Horror Picture Show* (1975) featuring Tim Curry, is the longest-running theatrical release in film history. In the mid-1970s, seminal British comedy team Monty Python switched their attention to films, beginning with *Monty Python and the Holy Grail* (1975), followed by *Monty Python's Life of Brian* (1979), the latter regularly voted the funniest film of all time by the British public. Hollywood blockbusters that were filmed at major British studios in 1977–79, include *Star Wars* (featuring Alec Guinness, and 'the dean of special effects' John Stears) at Elstree Studios, *Superman* (featuring Terence Stamp) at Pinewood, and *Alien* (directed by Ridley Scott) at Shepperton.

British films won back to back Academy Award for best picture in the 1980s, with *Chariots of Fire* (1982), followed by *Gandhi* (1983). John Hurtwon the BAFTA Award for Best Actor for his titular role as 19th-century Englishman Joseph Merrick in *The Elephant Man* (1980). Richard Marquand directed *Star Wars Episode VI: Return of the Jedi* in 1983, the only non-American to direct a Star Wars film. The 1985 dark comedy fantasy film, *Brazil*, is regarded as one of the best British films of the mid 1980s, while the 1987 black comedy, *Withnail and I*, has been described as "one of Britain's biggest cult films".[75] During the late 1980s, a number of young British actors who were becoming major stars, such as Gary Oldman, Daniel Day-Lewis, Colin Firth, Tim Roth and Rupert Everett, were dubbed the 'Brit Pack'.

The 1990s saw a large number of traditional British period dramas, including *Sense and Sensibility* (1995), *Restoration* (1995), *Emma* (1996),*Mrs. Brown* (1997), *The Wings of the Dove* (1997), *Shakespeare in Love* (1998) and *Topsy-Turvy* (1999). Anthony Minghella's biggest directorial success was *The English Patient* (1996), winning nine Academy Awards. English film

composer Michael Nyman wrote the critically acclaimed score for *The Piano* (1993). Elton John and lyricist Sir Tim Rice collaborated to write music for Disney's *The Lion King* (1994), winning the Academy Award for Best Original Song, as did Phil Collins for Disney's *Tarzan* (1999). Scottish composer Craig Armstrong wrote the award winning score for the modern version of Shakespeare's *Romeo + Juliet* (1996). BAFTA award winning British films included Danny Boyle's drama *Trainspotting* (1996) that centres on life in Edinburgh, the 1997 comedy *The Full Monty* set in Sheffield, and the biographical drama *Elizabeth* (1998). Richard Curtis's 1994 film *Four Weddings and a Funeral* set a pattern for British-set romantic comedies, including *Sliding Doors* (1998) and *Notting Hill* (1999).

At the start of the 21st century, three major international British successes were the romantic comedies Bridget Jones's Diary (2001), sequel Bridget Jones: The Edge of Reason (2004), and Richard Curtis's directorial debut Love Actually(2003). In 2000, Leavesden Film Studios began filming the first instalment of the Harry Potter film series. English composer Clint Mansell's score for Requiem for a Dream has been well received, and its main theme Lux Aeterna has gained wide usage in popular culture and has featured in a number of film trailers. Famous for his creation Mr. Bean, the much celebrated comedian Rowan Atkinsonstarred in Johnny English (2003). Wallace and Gromit creator and four time Academy Award winning animator Nick Park directed Chicken Run (2000) and Wallace & Gromit: The Curse of the Were-Rabbit (2005). Helen Mirren starred as Elizabeth II in The Queen (2006), winning Academy and Bafta Awards for best actress. Acclaimed British sci-fi films, 28 Days Later (2002), and Children of Men (2007), depict a dystopian Britain. Danny Boyle's Slumdog Millionaire (2008) was the most successful British film of the decade, receiving critical acclaim and won eight Academy Awards.

Based on Mark Millar's comic, the superhero action comedy-film Kick-Ass (2010), directed by Matthew Vaughn and starring Aaron Taylor-Johnson as the title character, won the Empire Award for Best British Film. Historical drama The King's Speech (2010), featuring Colin Firth as George VI, received widespread acclaim and was hailed as the most successful independent British film ever. In 2012, the twenty-third James Bond film Skyfall became the highest-grossing film of all-time in the UK. Daniel Radcliffe, Emma Watsonand Rupert Grint of the Harry Potterfilm series at a London premiere

The five most commercially successful British directors in recent years are David Yates, Christopher Nolan, Mike Newell, Ridley Scott and Paul Greengrass. Other contemporary British film directors include Guy Ritchie, Alan Parker, Tony Scott, Terry Gilliam, Richard Attenborough, Kenneth Branagh, Paul W. S. Anderson, Tom Hooper, Edgar Wright, Matthew Vaughn, Richard Curtis, Danny Boyle, Gareth Edwards, Steve McQueen and Sam Mendes.

British actors and actresses have always been significant in international cinema. Well-known currently active performers include the likes of Catherine Zeta-Jones, Ian McKellen, Clive Owen, Jude Law, Rachel Weisz, Ewan McGregor, Kate Winslet, Hugh Grant, Colin Firth, Daniel Radcliffe, Daniel Craig, Emma Watson, Keira Knightley, Ralph Fiennes, Orlando Bloom, Tilda Swinton, Christian Bale, Jason Statham, Idris Elba, Paul Bettany, Sacha Baron Cohen, Emma Thompson, Kate Beckinsale, Michael Sheen, Helena Bonham Carter, Hugh Laurie, Ben Kingsley, Christopher Lee, Alan Rickman, Jason Isaacs, John Hurt, Emily Blunt, Benedict Cumberbatch, Sienna Miller, Bill Nighy, Carey Mulligan, Ray Winstone, Peter O'Toole, Jeremy Irons, Gary Oldman, Helen Mirren, Liam Neeson, Tim Roth, Robert Pattinson, Julie Andrews,Sean Bean, Gemma Arterton, Gerard Butler, Tom Hiddleston, Maggie

Smith, Russell Brand, Andrew Garfield, Henry Cavill, Simon Pegg,Chiwetel Ejiofor, Tom Hardy, Emilia Clarke, Patrick Stewart, Daniel Day-Lewis, Judi Dench, Anthony Hopkins and Michael Caine.

Hollywood films with a British dimension have had enormous worldwide commercial success. Many of the highest-grossing films worldwide of all time have a British historical, cultural or creative theme. Films based on British historical events; RMS *Titanic*, Piracy in the Caribbean, Mutiny on the Bounty, The Great Escape, historical people; William Wallace, Lawrence of Arabia, King Arthur,Elizabeth I, British stories; *The Lord of the Rings*, *Harry Potter*, *James Bond*, *The Chronicles of Narnia*, *Sherlock Holmes*, *Frankenstein*, *A Christmas Carol*, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory*, *Treasure Island*, *The War of the Worlds* among many others, while British video game *Tomb Raider* featuring English archaeologist Lara Croft, has been made into feature films. British influence can also be seen with the 'English Cycle' of Disney animated films, which feature *Alice in Wonderland*, *Peter Pan*, *The Jungle Book*, *Robin Hood*, *The Hundred and One Dalmatians*, *The Sword in the Stone*, *The Rescuers* and *Winnie the Pooh*.

Broadcasting

The UK has been at the forefront of developments in film, radio and television. Broadcasting in the UK has historically been dominated by the taxpayer-funded but independently run British Broadcasting Corporation (commonly known as the *BBC*), although other independent radio and television (ITV, Channel 4, Five) and satellite broadcasters (especially BSkyB which has over 10 million subscribers) have become more important in recent years. BBC television, and the other three main television channels are public service broadcasters who, as part of their license allowing

them to operate, broadcast a variety of minority interest programming. The BBC and Channel 4 are state-owned, though they operate independently.

Many successful British TV shows have been exported around the world, such as *Pop Idol* (created by Simon Fuller), *Who Wants to Be a Millionaire?*, *Britain's Got Talent* (created by Simon Cowell), *The X Factor*, *Hell's Kitchen* (created by Gordon Ramsay), *The Office* (created byRicky Gervais and Stephen Merchant), *Ramsay's Kitchen Nightmares*, *Strictly Come Dancing*, *Doctor Who*, *Downton Abbey* and *Top Gear*. The British Film Institute drew up a list of the 100 Greatest British Television Programmes in 2000, voted by industry professionals. In 2004 the BBC conducted a nationwide poll to find "Britain's Best Sitcom". International football tournaments, such as the World Cup, are historically the most viewed sports events among the public, while *Match of the Day* is the most popular weekly football show.

The United Kingdom has a large number of national and local radio stations which cover a great variety of programming. The most listened to stations are the five main national BBC radio stations. BBC Radio 1, a new music station aimed at the 16–24 age group. BBC Radio 2, a varied popular music and chat station aimed at adults is consistently highest in the ratings. BBC Radio 4, a varied talk station, is noted for its news, current affairs, drama and comedy output as well as *The Archers*, its long running soap opera, and other unique programmes. The BBC, as a public service broadcaster, also runs minority stations such as BBC Asian Network, BBC Radio 1Xtra and BBC Radio 6 Music, and local stations throughout the country. Talk sport is one of the biggest commercial radio stations in the UK.

Visual arts

From the creation of the United Kingdom, the English school of painting is mainly notable for portraits and landscapes, and indeed portraits in

landscapes. Among the artists of this period are Sir Joshua Reynolds (1723–1792), George Stubbs (1724–1806), and Thomas Gainsborough (1727–1788). William Hogarth painted far more down-to-earth portraits and satires, and was the first great English printmaker.

The late 18th century and the early 19th century was perhaps the most radical period in British art, producing William Blake (1757–1827), John Constable (1776–1837) and J. M. W. Turner (1775–1851), three of the most influential British artists, each of whom have dedicated spaces allocated for their work at the Tate Britain.

The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood (PRB) achieved considerable influence after its foundation in 1848 with paintings that concentrated on religious, literary, and genre subjects executed in a colourful and minutely detailed style. PRB artists included John Everett Millais, Dante Gabriel Rossetti and subsequently Edward Burne-Jones. Also associated with it was the designer William Morris, whose efforts to make beautiful objects affordable (or even free) for everyone led to his wallpaper and tile designs to some extent defining the Victorian aesthetic and instigating the Arts and Crafts movement.

Visual artists from the United Kingdom in the 20th century include Lucian Freud, Francis Bacon, David Hockney, Bridget Riley, and the pop artists Richard Hamilton and Peter Blake. Also prominent amongst twentieth-century artists was Henry Moore, regarded as the voice of British sculpture, and of British modernism in general.[96] Sir Jacob Epstein was a pioneer of modern sculpture. In 1958 artisplt Gerald Holtom designed the protest logo for the British CND, which later became a universal peace symbol used in many different versions worldwide. As a reaction to abstract expressionism, pop art emerged originally in England at the end of the 1950s.

Known for his thickly impasted portrait and figure paintings, Lucian Freud was widely considered the pre-eminent British artist of his time. Freud was depicted in Francis Bacon's 1969 oil painting, *Three Studies of Lucian Freud*, which was sold for $142.4 million in November 2013, the highest price attained at auction to that point, and the highest ever for a British painter. The 1990s saw the Young British Artists, Damien Hirst and Tracey Emin.

Randolph Caldecott, Walter Crane, Kate Greenaway, John Tenniel, Aubrey Beardsley, Roger Hargreaves, Arthur Rackham, John Leech, George Cruikshank and Beatrix Potter were notable book illustrators. In the late 1960s, British graphic designer Storm Thorgerson co-founded the English graphic art group Hipgnosis, who have designed many iconic single and album covers for rock bands. His works were notable for their surreal elements, with perhaps the most famous being the cover for Pink Floyd's *The Dark Side of the Moon*. The subversive political artwork of Banksy (pseudonym of the renowned English graffiti artist whose identity is concealed) can be found on streets, walls and buildings all over the world, and has also featured in TV shows. Arts institutions include the Royal College of Art, Royal Society of Arts, New English Art Club, Slade School of Art, Royal Academy, and the Tate Gallery (founded as the National Gallery of British Art).

Museums exhibiting English art

The **British Museum** is a museum in London dedicated to human history and culture. Its permanent collection, numbering some 8 million works, is among the largest and most comprehensive in existence[3] and originates from all continents, illustrating and documenting the story of human culture from its beginnings to the present.

The British Museum was established in 1753, largely based on the collections of the physician and scientist Sir Hans Sloane. The museum first

opened to the public on 15 January 1759 in Montagu House in Bloomsbury, on the site of the current museum building. Its expansion over the following two and a half centuries was largely a result of an expanding British colonial footprint and has resulted in the creation of several branch institutions, the first being the British Museum (Natural History) in South Kensington in 1881. Some objects in the collection, most notably the Elgin Marbles from the Parthenon, are the objects of controversy and of calls for restitution to their countries of origin.

Until 1997, when the British Library (previously centred on the Round Reading Room) moved to a new site, the British Museum housed both a national museum of antiquities and a national library in the same building. The museum is a non-departmental public body sponsored by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport, and as with all other national museums in the United Kingdom it charges no admission fee, except for loan exhibitions. Since 2002 the director of the museum has been Neil MacGregor.

The history of the British Museum began with the English physicist Hans Sloane, who died aged 93 in 1753. During his life, he had collected many important things from all around the world. When he died, he did not want his collection to be split up between his relatives. He sold his collection to the parliament of King George II. The parliament set up the British Museum to hold the collection.[4] By the time he died, Sloane had collected over 80,000 objects from all over the world including Egypt, Greece, Rome and the Americas. The collection was mostly books and manuscripts. There were many important archaeological pieces included as well.

The government looked at many possible places to build the new museum, including Buckingham House, which later became Buckingham Palace. Eventually a building called Montagu House was chosen. The

Museum opened on the 15th of January 1759, although all visitors had to be shown around by stewards. Over the years the museum began to concentrate more and more on historical objects and sculptures. For this reason they were given the Rosetta Stone by King George III in 1802. The Rosetta Stone had previously been important to French historians trying understand the Hieroglyph language written by the Ancient Egyptians. In 1816 the Museumacquired the Elgin Marbles from Thomas Bruce, 7th Earl of Elgin. Elgin had taken them from the Parthenon in Athens, Greece several years earlier. Many people disagreed with the way Elgin took them from Greece. They compared his acts to looting and vandalism. People still argue about this issue today. In 1822 King George III donated the entire Royal Library to the museum. This contained over 65,000 books and pamphlets. In 1823 the original building was demolished and work began on new buildings to hold the ever growing collection. Some of the space was freed up when the National Gallery opened in 1824, as many of the Museum's paintings and drawings were moved there.

New building and expansion

The Museums collection continued to get bigger over the following years, and more and more buildings were added to hold the new objects. Important discoveries by people working for the British Museum included the Mausoleum of Halicarnassus by Charles Newton in 1857 and the Temple of Artemis in 1869. Many things found at these sites were taken to the Museum, where they have remained ever since. In 1852 the British Museum's famous round Reading Room was opened. It had enough space to display a million books at once. The collection continued to get bigger and bigger. Eventually the Natural History Museum was set up in 1887 to hold the natural parts of the Museum's collection. It was around this time that electric lights were first put in the Museum. It was one of the first public places in England to do so.[12] In the early 1900s the Museum's board of directors

bought all the houses surrounding it, knocked them all down and built over them. In 1939, just before the start of World War II, most of the Museum's exhibits were taken to other places because the directors were worried the Nazismight bomb the Museum during the Blitz. The exhibits were stored in old London Underground stations, as well as other places. The evacuation proved to be a good idea, as parts of the Museum were destroyed by bombs in 1940.

Much of the 1950s was spent fixing the parts of the Museum destroyed by the bombing, and bringing back the pieces that had been taken away. During all this time the collection continued to get bigger, although space was slowly running out for all the books being brought in. The British Library was set up in 1973 to deal with this problem. In 1972 the Museum was loaned the Tutankhamun collection from the Museum of Cairo. They held a big exhibition called 'The Treasures of Tutankhamun' and it attracted over 1.5 million people to come and see it. In 1998 the central courtyard, which had been unused before, was turned into the Great Court with the Reading Room at its centre. The Great Court has over 2 acres of space under its roof. This makes it the largest covered public space in Europe.[16] It was opened by Queen Elizabeth II in January 2000.[16] Since then the Museum has collected more things to do with history, rather than more modern pieces. They now have a large collection of Roman British, Ancient Greek and Ancient Egyptian artefacts, as well as objects from many other cultures and times around the world.

Because of its extremely large size the Museum's collection is split into many parts, called *departments*. The departments have changed many times over the years. They are sometimes merged together, split into smaller departments or renamed and changed altogether.

Department of Ancient Egypt and Sudan

The British Museums department of Ancient Egypt and Sudan is one of the biggest collections of Ancient Egyptian art in the world. Only the Egyptian Museum in Cairo has a bigger collection. They cover Egyptian and Sudanese history from around 10000 BC all the way to the 12th century AD, a period of around 12,000 years.[18]

Around 150 of the objects in the Egyptian department were part of the first collection which was given to the Museum by Hans Sloane in 1753. In 1801 the British defeated the French, led by Napoleon Bonaparte, at the battle of the Nile. After the battle, British forces took lots of Ancient Egyptian artifacts from the defeated French. They were given to the British Museum in 1803. These objects included the famous Rosetta Stone.

The department continued to get bigger, paying for archaeologists to go to Egypt and Sudan. They did this until 2001 when the Egyptian government made it much harder for Museums to take historical artefacts back to their own country.[20] The collection now has over 110,000 exhibits.

Department of Greece and Rome

The British Museum's department of Greece and Rome is one of the biggest collections of Ancient Greek and Roman objects in the world. The objects come from nearly 4000 years of European history, from 3200 BC all the way to the4th century AD.

It contains parts of two of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World; the Mausoleum at Halikarnassos and the Temple of Artemis at Ephesos. It also had many pieces taken from the Parthenon in Athens, Greece. Like the rest of the Museum the department gets most of its collection from excavations or the acquiring of private collections. Some of the earliest objects in the collection were bought from the collection of Sir William Hamilton in 1772. In recent years the Museum's rules on how it can get objects have become much stricter. Other countries rules on allowing

Museums to take objects away have also got stricter. This has meant the British Museum has gradually taken fewer items each year in recent times.

Department of the Middle East

The British Museum Department of the Middle East has the largest collection of Mesopotamian art in the world, outside Iraq. It has some 300,000 objects, covering the Neolithic period until present. It has objects from all over the Middle East including Mesopotamia (Iraq), Anatolia (Turkey), Levant (Syria, Lebanon and Jordan) and some pieces from central Asia. The Assyrian and Sumerian collections are also some of the biggest in the world.

Key objects in the collection include:

- The Cyrus Cylinder, a cylindrical scroll from 539 BC. Written on it is the story of Cyrus, king of Babylon. He gave rights back to the people of Assyria after the previous king enslaved them and burned their temples.
- Several ten feet tall statues of lions and bulls with human heads.
- The fifteen foot high bronze gates of the fortress of Galawat.

National Gallery

The National Gallery, London is an art gallery in London, England, which has one of the finest collections of European paintings in the world. What makes this gallery so important is that, although there are bigger galleries, *The National Gallery* has many paintings of very high quality and also because it has paintings by famous artists whose works are very rare. These rare paintings include works by Duccio, Masaccio, Uccello, , Leonardo, Giorgione, Michelangelo, Caravag gio, Vermeer, Chardin, Klimt,Rousseau and Redon.

The National Gallery is on Trafalgar Square, which is one of the busiest tourist places in London. It is a grand building of pale grey limestone, with a central dome and a large Classical style porch (*portico*) like an Ancient

Greek temple. To the left side, the gallery has a large new building called *The Sainsbury Wing*.

History

In 1823 a collector called Sir George Beaumont offered to give his famous collection of paintings to the British Government to start a public art gallery. In 1824 another famous collection of paintings was on sale. The owner, John Julius Angerstein, had died. It looked as if his paintings would be sold outside England. Then there was another offer of paintings from a third collector, The Reverend Holwell Carr. The Parliament had to make a quick decision.

The Parliament voted that a national collection should be started and a gallery should be built. They gave 60,000 Pounds Sterling to buy the Angerstein paintings. They got 38 pictures and were able to display them publicly in the Angerstein House.

The collection grew quickly with the Beaumont and Holwell Carr paintings, and others, being bought or given. A new gallery was needed. In 1831 the plans of the architect William Wilkins were accepted. The site which looks over Trafalgar Square was chosen, old buildings were demolished and the magnificent new gallery was opened on April 9, 1838.

When *the National Gallery* opened, there was a strong opinion that paintings of the High Renaissance period of the late 1400s to Baroquepaintings of the 1600s were the finest type of art. The word *primitive* was used to describe Italian paintings from the 1300s and early 1400s. Luckily, the director of the Gallery, Sir Charles Eastlake, thought it was important to collect some of these *primitive* paintings, as well as the more popular High Renaissance paintings. That is how the *National Gallery* came to own so many very rare works from the Late Middle Ages and Early Renaissance periods.

In the 1870s the Gallery was lucky to get two collections of paintings by famous Dutch artists. The building had to be made larger to house them.

The Gallery was also given paintings by famous British artists; soon there were so many that most of them were moved out to a new gallery called the Tate.

By the 20th century, it was getting more difficult to buy very important paintings; there were other galleries in the United States and Germany who were trying to buy the same paintings. So the *National Gallery* began to buy works by more modern painters and soon had a collection of 19th and early 20th century paintings. This is not a large part of the *National Gallery's* collection, but it does show small works by many very important artists, particularly the Impressionists.

National Portrait Gallery (London)

The **National Portrait Gallery** (**NPG**) is an art gallery in London housing a collection of portraits of historically important and famous British people. It was the first portrait gallery in the world when it opened in 1856. The gallery moved in 1896 to its current site at St Martin's Place, off Trafalgar Square, and adjoining the National Gallery. It has been expanded twice since then. The National Portrait Gallery also has three regional outposts at Beningbrough Hall, Bodelwyddan Castle and Montacute House. It is unconnected to the Scottish National Portrait Gallery in Edinburgh, with which its remit overlaps. The gallery is a non-departmental public body sponsored by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport.

The gallery houses portraits of historically important and famous British people, selected on the basis of the significance of the sitter, not that of the artist. The collection includes photographs and caricatures as well as paintings, drawings and sculpture. One of its best-known images is the Chandos portrait, the most famous portrait of William Shakespeare although there is some uncertainty about whether the painting actually is of the playwright.

Not all of the portraits are exceptional artistically, although there are self-portraits by William Hogarth, Sir Joshua Reynolds and other British artists of note. Some, such as the group portrait of the participants in the Somerset House Conference of 1604, are important historical documents in their own right. Often, the curiosity value is greater than the artistic worth of a work, as in the case of the anamorphic portrait of Edward VI by William Scrots, Patrick Branwell Brontë's painting of his sisters Charlotte, Emily and Anne, or a sculpture of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert in medieval costume. Portraits of living figures were allowed from 1969. In addition to its permanent galleries of historical portraits, the National Portrait Gallery exhibits a rapidly changing selection of contemporary work, stages exhibitions of portrait art by individual artists and hosts the annual BP Portrait Prize competition.

The three people largely responsible for the founding of the National Portrait Gallery are commemorated with busts over the main entrance. At centre is Philip Henry Stanhope, 5th Earl Stanhope, with his supporters on either side, Thomas Babington Macaulay, 1st Baron Macaulay (to Stanhope's left) andThomas Carlyle (to Stanhope's right). It was Stanhope who, in 1846 as a Member of Parliament (MP), first proposed the idea of a National Portrait Gallery. It was not until his third attempt, in 1856, this time from the House of Lords, that the proposal was accepted. With Queen Victoria's approval, the House of Commons set aside a sum of £2000 to establish the gallery. As well as Stanhope and Macaulay, the founder Trustees included Benjamin Disraeli and Lord Ellesmere. It was the latter who donated the Chandos portrait to the nation as the gallery's first portrait. Carlyle became a trustee after the death of Ellesmere in 1857.

For the first 40 years, the gallery was housed in various locations in London. The first 13 years were spent at 29 Great George Street,Westminster. There, the collection increased in size from 57 to 208 items, and the number

of visitors from 5,300 to 34,500. In 1869, the collection moved to Exhibition Road and buildings managed by the Royal Horticultural Society. Following a fire in those buildings, the collection was moved in 1885, this time to the Bethnal Green Museum. This location was ultimately unsuitable due to its distance from the West End, condensation and lack of waterproofing. Following calls for a new location to be found, the government accepted an offer of funds from the philanthropist William Henry Alexander. Alexander donated £60,000 followed by another £20,000, and also chose the architect, Ewan Christian. The government provided the new site, St Martin's Place, adjacent to the National Gallery, and £16,000. The buildings, faced in Portland stone, were constructed by Shillitoe & Son. Both the architect, Ewan Christian, and the gallery's first director, George Scharf, died shortly before the new building was completed. The gallery opened at its new location on 4 April 1896. The site has since been expanded twice. The first extension, in 1933, was funded by Lord Duveen, and resulted in the wing by architect Sir Richard Allison that runs along Orange Street.

The collections of the National Portrait Gallery were stored at Mentmore Towers in Buckinghamshire during the Second World War, along with pieces from the Royal Collection and paintings from Speaker's House in the Palace of Westminster.

In February 1909, a murder–suicide took place in a gallery known as the *Arctic Room*. In an apparently planned attack, John Tempest Dawson, aged 70, shot his 58 year–old wife, Nannie Caskie; Dawson shot her from behind with a revolver, then shot himself in the mouth, dying instantly. His wife died in hospital several hours later. Both were American nationals who had lived in Hove for around 10 years. Evidence at the inquest suggested that Dawson, a wealthy and well–travelled man, was suffering from a Persecutory delusion. The incident came to public attention in 2010 when the Gallery's

archive was put on-line as this included a personal account of the event by James Donald Milner, then the Assistant Director of the Gallery.

21st century

The second extension was funded by Sir Christopher Ondaatje and a £12m Heritage Lottery Fund grant, and was designed by London based architects Edward Jones and Jeremy Dixon. The Ondaatje Wing opened in 2000 and occupies a narrow space of land between the two 19th-century buildings of the National Gallery and the National Portrait Gallery, and is notable for its immense, two-storey escalator that takes visitors to the earliest part of the collection, the Tudor portraits.

In January 2008, the Gallery received its largest single donation to date, a £5m gift from Aston Villa Chairman and U.S. billionaire Randy Lerner.
In January 2012, HRH the Duchess of Cambridge announced the National Portrait Gallery as one of her official patronages. Her portrait was unveiled in January 2013.

In addition to the busts of the three founders of the gallery over the entrance, the exterior of two of the original 1896 buildings are decorated with stone block busts of eminent portrait artists, biographical writers and historians. These busts, sculpted by Frederick R. Thomas, depict James Granger, William Faithorne, Edmund Lodge, Thomas Fuller, The Earl of Clarendon, Horace Walpole, Hans Holbein the Younger, Sir Anthony van Dyck, Sir Peter Lely, Sir Godfrey Kneller, Louis François Roubiliac, William Hogarth, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Sir Thomas Lawrence and Sir Francis Chantrey.

The National Portrait Gallery's total income in 2007–2008 amounted to £16,610,000, the majority of which came from government grant-in-aid (£7,038,000) and donations (£4,117,000). As of 31 March 2008, its net assets amounted to £69,251,000.[16] In 2008, the NPG had 218 full-time equivalent employees. It is an exempt charity under English law.

Tate Britain

Tate Britain (known from 1897 to 1932 as the **National Gallery of British Art** and from 1932 to 2000 as the **Tate Gallery**) is an art gallery situated on Millbank in London. It is part of the Tate network of galleries in England, with Tate Modern, Tate Liverpool andTate St Ives. It is the oldest gallery in the network, having opened in 1897. It houses a substantial collection of the works of J. M. W. Turner.

The gallery is situated on Millbank, on the site of the former Millbank Prison. Construction, undertaken by Higgs and Hill, commenced in 1893, and the gallery opened on 21 July 1897 as the National Gallery of British Art. However, from the start it was commonly known as the Tate Gallery, after its founder Sir Henry Tate, and in 1932 it officially adopted that name. Before 2000, the gallery housed and displayed both British and modern collections, but the launch of Tate Modern saw Tate's modern collections move there, while the old Millbank gallery became dedicated to the display of historical and contemporary British art. As a consequence, it was renamed Tate Britain in March 2000.

The front part of the building was designed by Sidney R. J. Smith with a classical portico and dome behind, and the central sculpture gallery was designed by John Russell Pope. Tate Britain includes the **Clore Gallery** of 1987, designed by James Stirling, which houses work by J. M. W. Turner. The Clore Gallery has been regarded as an important example of Postmodern architecture, especially in the use of contextual irony: each section of the external facade

Quotes liberally from the building next to it in regard to materials and detailing.

Crises during its existence include flood damage to work from the River Thames, and bomb damage during World War II. However, most of the

collection was in safe storage elsewhere during the war, and a large Stanley Spencerpainting, deemed too big to move, had a protective brick wall built in front of it.

In 2012, Tate Britain announced that it had raised the £45 million required to complete a major renovation, largely thanks to a £4.9 million grant from the Heritage Lottery Fund and £1 million given by Tate Members. The museum stayed open throughout the three phases of renovation. Completed in 2013, the newly designed sections were conceived by the architects Caruso St John and included a total of nine new galleries, with reinforced flooring to accommodate heavy sculptures. A second part was unveiled later that year, the centrepiece being the reopening of the building's Thames-facing entrance as well as a new spiral staircase beneath its rotunda. The circular balcony of the rotunda's domed atrium, closed to visitors since the 1920s, was reopened. The gallery also now has a dedicated schools' entrance and reception beneath its entrance steps on Millbank and a new archive gallery for the presentation of temporary displays.

Victoria and Albert Museum

The **Victoria and Albert Museum** (often abbreviated as the **V&A**), London, is the world's largest museum of decorative arts and design, housing a permanent collection of over 4.5 million objects. It was founded in 1852 and named after Queen Victoria and Prince Albert. The V&A is located in the Brompton district of the Royal Borough of Kensington and Chelsea, in an area that has become known as "Albertopolis" because of its association with Prince Albert, the Albert Memorial and the major cultural institutions with which he was associated. These include the Natural History Museum, the Science Museum and the Royal Albert Hall. The museum is a non-departmental public body sponsored by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport. Like other national British museums, entrance to the museum has been free since 2001.

The V&A covers 12.5 acres (51,000 m^2) and 145 galleries. Its collection spans 5,000 years of art, from ancient times to the present day, from the cultures of Europe, North America, Asia and North Africa. The holdings of ceramics, glass, textiles, costumes,
silver, ironwork, jewellery, furniture, medieval objects, sculpture, prints and p rintmaking, drawings and photographs are among the largest and most comprehensive in the world. The museum owns the world's largest collection of post-classical sculpture, with the holdings of Italian Renaissance items being the largest outside Italy. The departments of Asia include art from South Asia, China, Japan, Korea and the Islamic world. The East Asian collections are among the best in Europe, with particular strengths in ceramics and metalwork, while the Islamic collection is amongst the largest in the Western world.

Since 2001, the museum has embarked on a major £150m renovation programme, which has seen a major overhaul of the departments, including the introduction of newer galleries, gardens, shops and visitor facilities.
The V&A has its origins in the Great Exhibition of 1851, with which Henry Cole, the museum's first director, was involved in planning; initially it was known as the **Museum of Manufactures**, first opening in May 1852 at Marlborough House, but by September had been transferred to Somerset House. At this stage the collections covered both applied art and science. Several of the exhibits from the Exhibition were purchased to form the nucleus of the collection. By February 1854 discussions were underway to transfer the museum to the current site and it was renamed as the **South Kensington Museum**. In 1855 the German architect Gottfried Semper, at the request of Cole, produced a design for the museum, but it was rejected by the Board of Trade as too expensive. The site was occupied by Brompton Park House; this was extended including the first refreshment rooms opened

in 1857, the museum being the first in the world to provide such a facility. The official opening by Queen Victoria was on 22 June 1857. In the following year, late night openings were introduced, made possible by the use of gas lighting. This was to enable in the words of Cole "to ascertain practically what hours are most convenient to the working classes" —this was linked to the use of the collections of both applied art and science as educational resources to help boost productive industry. In these early years the practical use of the collection was very much emphasised as opposed to that of "High Art" at the National Gallery and scholarship at the British Museum. George Wallis(1811–1891), the first Keeper of Fine Art Collection, passionately promoted the idea of wide art education through the museum collections. This led to the transfer to the museum of the School of Design that had been founded in 1837 at Somerset House, after the transfer it was referred to as the Art School or Art Training School, later to become the Royal College of Art which finally achieved full independence in 1949. From the 1860s to the 1880s the scientific collections had been moved from the main museum site to various improvised galleries to the west of Exhibition Road. In 1893 the "Science Museum" had effectively come into existence when a separate director was appointed.

The laying of the foundation stone of the Aston Webb building (to the left of the main entrance) on 17 May 1899 was the last official public appearance by Queen Victoria. It was during this ceremony that the change of name from the South Kensington Museum to the **Victoria and Albert Museum** was made public. *London Gazette* of the time ended: "I trust that it will remain for ages a Monument of discerning Liberality and a Source of Refinement and Progress."

The exhibition which the museum organised to celebrate the centennial of the 1899 renaming, "A Grand Design", first toured in North America from 1997 (Baltimore Museum of Art, Museum of Fine Arts,

Boston, Royal Ontario Museum, Toronto, Museum of Fine Arts, Houston and the Fine Arts Museums of San Francisco), returning to London in 1999. To accompany and support the exhibition, the museum published a book, *Grand Design*, which it has made available for reading online on its website.

1900–1950

The opening ceremony for the Aston Webb building by King Edward VII and Queen Alexandra took place on 26 June 1909. In 1914 the construction commenced of the Science Museum signalling the final split of the science and art collections. Since then the museum has maintained its role of one of the world's greatest decorative arts collections.

In 1939 on the outbreak of World War II, most of the collection was sent to a quarry in Wiltshire, to Montacute House in Somerset, or to a tunnel near Aldwych tube station, with larger items remaining in situ, sand-bagged and bricked in. Between 1941 and 1944 some galleries were used as a school for children evacuated from Gibraltar. The South Court became a canteen, first for the Royal Air Force and later for Bomb Damage Repair Squads.

Before the return of the collections after the war, the *Britain Can Make It* exhibition was held between September and November 1946, attracting nearly a million and a half visitors. This was organised by the Council of Industrial Design established by the British government in 1944 "to promote by all practicable means the improvement of design in the products of British industry". The success of this exhibition led to the planning of the Festival of Britain (1951). By 1948 most of the collections had been returned to the museum.

Since 1950

In July 1973, as part of its outreach programme to young people, the V&A became the first museum in Britain to present a rock concert. The V&A

presented a combined concert/lecture by British progressive folk-rock band Gryphon, who explored the lineage of mediaeval music and instrumentation and related how those contributed to contemporary music 500 years later. This innovative approach to bringing young people to museums was a hallmark of the directorship of Roy Strong and was subsequently emulated by some other British museums.

In the 1980s, Sir Roy Strong renamed the museum as "The Victoria and Albert Museum, the National Museum of Art and Design". Strong's successor Elizabeth Esteve-Colloversaw a turbulent period for the institution in which the museum's curatorial departments were re-structured, leading to public criticism from some staff. Esteve-Coll's attempts to make the V&A more accessible included a criticised marketing campaign emphasising the café over the collection.

In 2001, "FuturePlan" was launched, which involves redesigning all the galleries and public facilities in the museum that have yet to be remodelled. This is to ensure that the exhibits are better displayed, more information is available and the museum meets modern expectations for museum facilities; it should take about ten years to complete the work.

The museum also runs the Museum of Childhood at Bethnal Green and used to run the Theatre Museum in Covent Garden and Apsley House. The Theatre Museum is now closed and the V&A Theatre Collections are now displayed within the South Kensington building.

Regional partnerships

The V&A has no museums or galleries of its own outside London. Instead it works with a small number of partner organisations in Sheffield, Dundee and Blackpool to provide a regional presence.

The V&A is in discussion with the University of Dundee, University of Abertay, Dundee City Council and the Scottish Government with a view to opening a new £43 million gallery in Dundee that would use the V&A brand

although it would be funded through and operated independently. As of 2013, with costs estimated at £45 million, it is the most expensive gallery project ever undertaken in Scotland. The **V&A Dundee** will be on the city's waterfront and is intended to focus on fashion, architecture, product design, graphic arts and photography. It is planned that it could open within five years. Dundee City Council is expected to pay a major part of the running costs. The V&A is not contributing financially, but will be providing expertise, loans and exhibitions.

Plans for a new gallery in Blackpool are also under consideration.[32] This follows earlier plans to move the theatre collection to a new £60m museum in Blackpool, which failed due to lack of funding. he V&A exhibits twice a year at the Millennium Galleries in partnership with Museums Sheffield.

International partnerships

The V&A is one of 17 museums across Europe and the Mediterranean participating in a project called *Discover Islamic Art*. Developed by the Brussels-based consortium Museum With No Frontiers, this online "virtual museum" brings together more than 1200 works of Islamic art and architecture into a single database.

Victorian period

The Victorian parts of the building have a complex history, with piecemeal additions by different architects. Founded in May 1852, it was not until 1857 that the museum moved to the present site. This area of London was known as Brompton but had been renamed South Kensington. The land was occupied by Brompton Park House, which was extended, most notably by the "Brompton Boilers", which were starkly utilitarian iron galleries with a temporary look and were later dismantled and used to build the V&A

Museum of Childhood. The first building to be erected that still forms part of the museum was the Sheepshanks Gallery in 1857 on the eastern side of the garden. Its architect was civil engineer Captain Francis Fowke, Royal Engineers, who was appointed by Cole. The next major expansions were designed by the same architect, the Turner and Vernon galleries built 1858-9 to house the eponymous collections (later transferred to the Tate Gallery) and now used as the picture galleries and tapestry gallery respectively. The North and South Courts, were then built, both of which opened by June 1862. They now form the galleries for temporary exhibitions and are directly behind the Sheepshanks Gallery. On the very northern edge of the site is situated the Secretariat Wing, also built in 1862 this houses the offices and board room etc. and is not open to the public.

An ambitious scheme of decoration was developed for these new areas: a series of mosaic figures depicting famous European artists of the Medieval and Renaissance period. These have now been removed to other areas of the museum. Also started were a series of frescoes by Lord Leighton: *Industrial Arts as Applied to War* 1878–1880 and *Industrial Arts Applied to Peace*, which was started but never finished. To the east of this were additional galleries, the decoration of which was the work of another designer Owen Jones, these were the Oriental Courts (covering India, China and Japan) completed in 1863, none of this decoration survives, part of these galleries became the new galleries covering the 19th century, opened in December 2006. The last work by Fowke was the design for the range of buildings on the north and west sides of the garden, this includes the refreshment rooms, reinstated as the Museum Café in 2006, with the silver gallery above, (at the time the ceramics gallery), the top floor has a splendid lecture theatre although this is seldom open to the general public. The ceramic staircase in the northwest corner of this range of buildings was designed by F. W. Moody and has architectural details of moulded and coloured pottery. All the work

on the north range was designed and built in 1864–69. The style adopted for this part of the museum was Italian Renaissance, much use was made of terracotta, brick and mosaic, this north façade was intended as the main entrance to the museum with its bronze doors designed by James Gamble & Reuben Townroe having six panels depicting: Humphry Davy (chemistry); Isaac Newton (astronomy); James Watt (mechanics); Bramante (architecture); Michelangelo (sculpture); Titian (painting); thus representing the range of the museums collections, Godfrey Sykes also designed the terracotta embellishments and the mosaic in the pediment of the North Façade commemorating the Great Exhibition the profits from which helped to fund the museum, this is flanked by terracotta statue groups by Percival Ball. This building replaced Brompton Park House, which could then be demolished to make way for the south range.

The interiors of the three refreshment rooms were assigned to different designers. The Green Dining Room 1866–68 was the work of Philip Webband William Morris, displays Elizabethan influences, the lower part of the walls are panelled in wood with a band of paintings depicting fruit and the occasional figure, with moulded plaster foliage on the main part of the wall and a plaster frieze around the decorated ceiling and stained-glass windows by Edward Burne-Jones. The Centre Refreshment Room 1865–77 was designed in a Renaissance style by James Gamble,[49] the walls and even the Ionic columns are covered in decorative and moulded ceramic tile, the ceiling consists of elaborate designs on enamelled metal sheets and matching stained-glass windows, the marble fireplace was designed and sculpted by Alfred Stevens and was removed from Dorchester House prior to that building's demolition in 1929. The Grill Room 1876–81 was designed by Sir Edward Poynter,[51] the lower part of the walls consist of blue and white

tiles with various figures and foliage enclosed by wood panelling, above there are large tiled scenes with figures depicting the four seasons and the twelve months these were painted by ladies from the Art School then based in the museum, the windows are also stained glass, there is an elaborate cast-iron grill still in place.

With the death of Captain Francis Fowke, Royal Engineers the next architect to work at the museum was Colonel (later Major General) Henry Young Darracott Scott, also of the Royal Engineers. He designed to the north west of the garden the five-storey School for Naval Architects (also known as the science schools), now the Henry Cole Wing in 1867–72. Scott's assistant J.W. Wild designed the impressive staircase that rises the full height of the building, made from Cadeby stone the steps are 7 feet (2.1 m) in length, the balustrades and columns are Portland stone. It is now used to jointly house the prints and architectural drawings of the V&A (prints, drawings, paintings and photographs) and Royal Institute of British Architects (RIBA Drawings and Archives Collections); and the Sackler Centre for arts education, which opened in 2008. Continuing the style of the earlier buildings, various designers were responsible for the decoration, the terracotta embellishments were again the work of Godfrey Sykes, although sgraffito was used to decorate the east side of the building designed by F. W. Moody, a final embellishment were the wrought iron gates made as late as 1885 designed by Starkie Gardner, these lead to a passage through the building. Scott also designed the two Cast Courts 1870–73 to the southeast of the garden (the site of the "Brompton Boilers"), these vast spaces have ceilings 70 feet (21 m) in height to accommodate the plaster casts of parts of famous buildings, including Trajan's Column (in two separate pieces). The final part of the museum designed by Scott was the Art Library and what is now the sculpture gallery on the south side of the garden, built 1877–83, the exterior mosaic panels in the parapet were designed by Reuben Townroe who also designed

the plaster work in the library,[60] Sir John Taylor designed the book shelves and cases, also this was the first part of the museum to have electric lighting. This completed the northern half of the site, creating a quadrangle with the garden at its centre, but left the museum without a proper façade. In 1890 the government launched a competition to design new buildings for the museum, with architect Alfred Waterhouse as one of the judges; this would give the museum a new imposing front entrance.

Edwardian period

The main façade, built from red brick and Portland stone, stretches 720 feet (220 m) along Cromwell Gardens and was designed by Aston Webb after winning a competition in 1891 to extend the museum. Construction took place between 1899 to 1909. Stylistically it is a strange hybrid, although much of the detail belongs to the Renaissance there are medieval influences at work. The main entrance consisting of a series of shallow arches supported by slender columns and niches with twin doors separated by pier isRomanesque in form but Classical in detail. Likewise the tower above the main entrance has an open work crown surmounted by a statue of fame, a feature of late Gothic architecture and a feature common in Scotland, but the detail is Classical. The main windows to the galleries are also mullioned and transomed, again a Gothic feature, the top row of windows are interspersed with statues of many of the British artists whose work is displayed in the museum.

Prince Albert appears within the main arch above the twin entrances, Queen Victoria above the frame around the arches and entrance, sculpted by Alfred Drury. These façades surround four levels of galleries. Other areas designed by Webb include the Entrance Hall and Rotunda, the East and West

Halls, the areas occupied by the shop and Asian Galleries as well as the Costume Gallery. The interior makes much use of marble in the entrance hall and flanking staircases, although the galleries as originally designed were white with restrained classical detail and mouldings, very much in contrast to the elaborate decoration of the Victorian galleries, although much

The Museum survived the Second World War with only minor bomb damage. The worst loss was the Victorian stained glass on the Ceramics Staircase, which was blown in when bombs fell nearby; pock marks still visible on the façade of the museum were caused by shrapnel from the bombs.

In the immediate post-war years there was little money available for other than essential repairs. The 1950s and early 1960s saw little in the way of building work; the first major work was the creation of new storage space for books in the Art Library in 1966 and 1967. This involved flooring over Aston Webb's main hall to form the book stacks, with a new medieval gallery on the ground floor (now the shop, opened in 2006). Then the lower ground-floor galleries in the south-west part of the museum were redesigned, opening in 1978 to form the new galleries covering Continental art 1600–1800 (late Renaissance, Baroque through Rococo and neo-Classical). In 1974 the museum had acquired what is now the Henry Cole wing from the Royal College of Science. In order to adapt the building as galleries, all the Victorian interiors except for the staircase were recast during the remodelling. To link this to the rest of the museum, a new entrance building was constructed on the site of the former boiler house, the intended site of the Spiral, between 1978 and 1982. This building is of concrete and very functional, the only embellishment being the iron gates by Christopher Hay and Douglas Coyne of the Royal College of Art. These are set in the columned screen wall designed by Aston Webb that forms the façade.

Recent years

A few galleries were redesigned in the 1990s including the Indian, Japanese, Chinese, iron work, the main glass galleries and the main silverware gallery which was further enhanced in 2002 when some of the Victorian decoration was recreated. This included two of the ten columns having their ceramic decoration replaced and the elaborate painted designs restored on the ceiling. As part of the 2006 renovation the mosaic floors in the sculpture gallery were restored—most of the Victorian floors were covered in linoleum after the Second World War. After the success of the British Galleries, opened in 2001, it was decided to embark on a major redesign of all the galleries in the museum; this is known as "FuturePlan", and was created in consultation with the exhibition designers and masterplanners Metaphor. The plan is expected to take about ten years and was started in 2002. To date several galleries have been redesigned, notably, in 2002: the main Silver Gallery, Contemporary; in 2003: Photography, the main entrance, The Painting Galleries; in 2004: the tunnel to the subway leading to South Kensington tube station, New signage throughout the museum, architecture, V&A and RIBA reading rooms and stores, metalware, Members' Room, contemporary glass, the Gilbert Bayes sculpture gallery; in 2005: portrait miniatures, prints and drawings, displays in Room 117, the garden, sacred silver and stained glass; in 2006: Central Hall Shop, Islamic Middle East, the new café, sculpture galleries. Several designers and architects have been involved in this work. Eva Jiřičnádesigned the enhancements to the main entrance and rotunda, the new shop, the tunnel and the sculpture galleries. Gareth Hoskins was responsible for contemporary and architecture, Softroom, Islamic Middle East and the Members' Room, McInnes Usher McKnight Architects (MUMA) were

responsible for the new Cafe and designed the new Medieval and Renaissance galleries which opened in 2009.

Recently, controversy surrounded the museum's proposed building of an £80 million extension called The Spiral, designed by Daniel Libeskind, which was criticised as out of keeping with the architecture of the original buildings. The Spiral's design was described by some as looking like jumbled cardboard boxes. In September 2004, the museum's board of trustees voted to abandon the design after failing to receive funding from the Heritage Lottery Fund.

The central garden was redesigned by Kim Wilkie and opened as the John Madejski Garden, on 5 July 2005. The design is a subtle blend of the traditional and modern, the layout is formal; there is an elliptical water feature lined in stone with steps around the edge which may be drained to use the area for receptions, gatherings or exhibition purposes. This is in front of the bronze doors leading to the refreshment rooms, a central path flanked by lawns leads to the sculpture gallery; the north, east and west sides have herbaceous borders along the museum walls with paths in front which continues along the south façade; in the two corners by the north façade there is planted an American Sweetgum tree; the southern, eastern and western edges of the lawns have glass planters which contain orange and lemon trees in summer, these are replaced by bay trees in winter.

At night both the planters and water feature may be illuminated, and the surrounding façades lit to reveal details normally in shadow, especially noticeable are the mosaics in the loggia of the north façade. In summer a café is set up in the south west corner. The garden is also used for temporary exhibits of sculpture, for example a sculpture by Jeff Koons was shown in 2006. It has also played host to the museum's annual contemporary design showcase, the V&A Village Fete since 2005.

The collection departments are further divided into sixteen display areas, whose combined collection numbers over 6.5 million objects, not all items are

displayed or stored at the V&A. There is a repository at Blythe House, West Kensington, as well as annex institutions managed by the V&A, also the Museum lends exhibits to other institutions. The following lists each of the collections on display and the number of objects within the collection.

Walker Art Gallery

The **Walker Art Gallery** is an art gallery in Liverpool, which houses one of the largest art collections in England, outside of London. It is part of the National Museums Liverpool group, and is promoted as "the National Gallery of the North" because it is not a local or regional gallery but is part of the national museums and galleries administered directly from central government funds.

The Walker Art Gallery's collection dates from 1819 when the Liverpool Royal Institution acquired 37 paintings from the collection of William Roscoe, who had to sell his collection following the failure of his banking business, though it was saved from being broken up by his friends and associates.

In 1843, the Royal Institution's collection was displayed in a purpose-built gallery next to the Institution's main premises. In 1850 negotiations by an association of citizens to take over the Institution's collection, for display in a proposed art gallery, library and museum, came to nothing.

The collection grew over the following decades: in 1851 Liverpool Town Council bought Liverpool Academy's diploma collection and further works were acquired from the Liverpool Society for the Fine Arts, founded in 1858. The competition between the Academy and Society eventually led to both collapsing.

William Brown Library and Museum opened in 1860, named after a Liverpool merchant whose generosity enabled the Town Council to act upon an 1852 Act of Parliament which allowed the establishment of a public

library, museum and art gallery, and in 1871 the council organised the first Liverpool Autumn Exhibition, held at the new library and museum.

The success of the exhibition enabled the Library, Museum and Arts Committee to purchase works for the council's permanent collection, buying around 150 works between 1871 and 1910. Works acquired included WF Yeames' 'And when did you last see your father?' and Rossetti's 'Dante's Dream'.

Designed by local architects Cornelius Sherlock and H. H. Vale, the Walker Art Gallery was opened on 6 September 1877 by Edward Henry Stanley, 15th Earl of Derby. It is named after its founding benefactor, Sir Andrew Barclay Walker (1824–1893), a former mayor of Liverpool and wealthy brewer born in Ayrshire who expanded the family business to England and moved to live in Gate acre.

In 1893, the Liverpool Royal Institution placed its collection on long-term loan to the gallery and in 1948 presented William Roscoe's collection and other works. This occurred during post-war reconstruction when the gallery was closed, re-opening in 1951. During the Second World War the gallery was taken over by the Ministry of Food and the collection was dispersed for safety.

Extensions to the gallery were opened in 1884 and 1933 (following a two-year closure) when the gallery re-opened with an exhibition including Picasso and Gauguin. In 2002 the gallery re-opened following a major refurbishment.

In 1986, the gallery achieved national status, as part of the National Museums and Galleries on Merseyside. The Walker Art Gallery houses a collection including Italian and Netherlandish paintings from 1300–1550, European art from 1550–1900, including works by Giambattista Pittoni, Rembrandt, Poussin and Degas, 18th and 19th-century British art, including a major collection of Victorian painting and many Pre-

Raphaelite works, a wide collection of prints, drawings and watercolours, 20th-century works by artists such as Lucian Freud, David Hockney and Gilbert and George and a major sculpture collection.

The first John Moores Contemporary Painting Prize exhibition was held in 1957. Sponsored by Sir John Moores, founder of Littlewoods, the competition has been held every two years ever since and is the biggest painting prize in the UK.

There is a regular programme of temporary exhibitions which in 2009-10 has included Aubrey Williams, Bridget Riley, Sickert and Freud.

In 2004, the gallery staged *The Stuckists Punk Victorian*, the first national museum exhibition of the Stuckist art movement.[8] The Gallery also takes part in the Liverpool Biennial.

The gallery is located on William Brown Street (the only street in the UK to consist of nothing other than museums, galleries and libraries) in a neo-Classical building.The neighbouring area includes the William Brown Library, World Museum Liverpool, St. George's Hall, Wellington's Column, Lime Street Station and the entrance to the Queensway Tunnel. The other major art gallery in Liverpool is Tate Liverpool, at the Albert Dock, which houses modern art.

On 17 December 2011, the Walker Art Gallery got a new addition to its collection - a statue of a priest vandalised by Banksy. The renowned graffiti artist has sawn off the face of an 18th-century replica stone bust and glued on a selection of bathroom tiles. The resulting 'pixellated' portrait is entitled 'Cardinal Sin' and is believed to be a comment on the abuse scandal in the Church and its subsequent cover-up. This piece of art is displayed in Room three, which is one of the 17th-century Old Master galleries.

As of 2 July 2013, the La Masseuse sculpture by Edgar Degas, previously owned by Lucian Freud, found a permanent home at the Walker Art Gallery,

thanks to the donation-in-payment system put in place by the Arts Council England.

The **Yale Center for British Art** at Yale University in downtown New Haven, Connecticut, houses the largest and most comprehensive collection of British art outside the United Kingdom. The collection of paintings, sculpture, drawings, prints, rare books, and manuscripts reflects the development of British art and culture from the Elizabethan period onward.

The Center was established by a gift from Paul Mellon (Yale College Class of 1929) of his British art collection to Yale in 1966, together with an endowment for operations of the Center, and funds for a building to house the works of art. The building was designed by Louis I. Kahn and constructed at the corner of York and Chapel Streets in New Haven, across the street from one of Kahn's earliest buildings, the Yale University Art Gallery, built in 1953. The Yale Center for British Art was completed after Kahn's death in 1974, and opened to the public on April 19, 1977. The exterior is made of matte steel and reflective glass; the interior is made of travertine marble, white oak, and Belgian linen. Kahn succeeded in creating intimate galleries where one can view objects in diffused natural light. He wanted to allow in as much daylight as possible, with artificial illumination used only on dark days or in the evening. The building’s design, materials, and sky-lit rooms combine to provide an environment for the works of art that is simple and dignified.

The Center is affiliated with the Paul Mellon Centre for Studies in British Art in London, which awards grants and fellowships, publishes academic titles, and sponsors Yale’s first credit-granting undergraduate study abroad program, Yale-in-London.

The collection consists of nearly 2,000 paintings and 200 sculptures, with an emphasis on the period between William Hogarth's birth (1697) to J. M. W. Turner's death (1851). Other artists represented include Thomas Gainsborough, George Stubbs, Joseph Wright, John Constable, Joshua

Reynolds, Thomas Lawrence, Robert Polhill Bevan, Stanley Spencer, Barbara Hepworth, and Ben Nicholson.

The collection also has works by artists from Europe and North America who lived and worked in Britain. These include Hans Holbein, Peter Paul Rubens, Anthony van Dyck, Canaletto, Johann Zoffany, John Singleton Copley, Benjamin West, and James McNeill Whistler.

Some areas of emphasis of the collection are small group portraits, known as "conversation pieces", including those by Hogarth, Gainsborough, Zoffany and Arthur Devis; landscape paintings by Gainsborough, Richard Wilson, Constable, Richard Parkes Boningtonand Turner; and British sporting and animal paintings, featuring George Stubbs, John Wootton, Benjamin Marshall, and Alfred Munnings. Other genres include marine paintings, represented by Samuel Scott and Charles Brooking; London cityscapes; travel art from India, scenes of Shakespearean plays, and portraits of actors.

Sculptors represented include Louis-Francois Roubiliac, Joseph Nollekens, Francis Chantrey, Jacob Epstein, and Henry Moore.

The collection of 20,000 drawings and watercolors and 31,000 prints features British sporting art and figure drawings. It includes works by Hogarth, Paul Sandby, Thomas Rowlandson, William Blake, John Constable, Samuel Palmer, Richard Parkes Bonington, John Ruskin, J. M. W. Turner, Walter Sickert, Duncan Grant, Paul Nash, Edward Burra, Stanley Spencer, Augustus John, Gwen John, and the Pre-Raphaelites.

The Center's collection of rare books and manuscripts comprises 35,000 volumes, including maps, atlases, sporting books, and archival material of British artists. It also has some 1,300 leaves originating in illustrated incunabula. The collection also includes a complete set of William Morris’s Kelmscott Press publications as well as a growing collection of contemporary artists’ books. The core of the collection of illustrated books is

the material amassed by Major J. R. Abbey, one of the first collectors of British color-plate books, and includes more than 2,000 volumes describing British life, customs, scenery, and travel during the period 1770–1860. The Center's collection also contains a significant number of early maps and atlases.

The four-floor Center offers a year-round schedule of exhibitions and educational programs, including films, concerts, lectures, tours, symposia, and family programs. It also provides numerous opportunities for scholarly research, including residential fellowships. Academic resources of the Center include the reference library (40,000 volumes) and photo archive, conservation laboratories, and a study room for examining works on paper from the collection.

The Center is open to the public free of charge six days a week, and is a member of the North American Reciprocal Museums program.

Noted artists of the English school

William Blake (28 November 1757 – 12 August 1827) was an English poet, visionary, painter and printmaker. He was born in London and died there.

During his lifetime he was not very well known. Today Blake's work is thought to be important in the history of both poetry and the visual arts. His most famous poem is "And did those feet in ancient time" which, more than 100 years later, was put to music by Hubert Parry. The hymn is called "Jerusalem".

Blake was voted 38th in a poll of the 100 Greatest Britons organized by the BBC in 2002.

John Constable (East Bergholt, Suffolk 11 June 1776 – London, 31 March 1837) was an English painter and artist.

His family had plenty of money because his father owned a business running corn mills. Constable's father wanted his son to take over the business

after him, but Constable started painting at an early age, and convinced his father to let him follow art as a career.He married Maria Bicknell in 1816, and they had seven children. She died in 1829 of tuberculosis.

His paintings are treasures of British art, but in his lifetime his work was appreciated more in France. Constable's most famous painting, *The Hay Wain* (now in the National Gallery in London), was first shown at the Paris Salon in 1824. He had to wait until he was 52 years old before the Royal Academy voted that he should be a member.

Constable was influenced by the French painter Claude Lorrain. His most famous paintings are landscapes showing the countryside around Dedham and Flatford, where his father's mills were.

Constable's idea was to use nature itself, rather than imagination. He told Leslie, "When I sit down to make a sketch from nature, the first thing I try to do is to forget that I have ever seen a picture".

Although Constable produced paintings throughout his life for the market of patrons and R.A. exhibitions, on-the-spot studies were essential. He never just followed a formula. "The world is wide", he wrote, "no two days are alike, nor even two hours; neither were there ever two leaves of a tree alike since the creation of all the world; and the genuine productions of art, like those of nature, are all distinct from each other".

Constable painted many full-scale preliminary sketches of his landscapes in order to test the composition in advance of finished pictures. These large sketches, with their free and vigorous brushwork, were revolutionary at the time. The sketches for *The Leaping Horse* and *The Hay Wain* study convey a vigour missing from his finished oil paintings of the same subjects. Compare the composition of this preliminary study with the finished painting: *The Hay Wain* final. Possibly more than any other aspect of Constable's work, the oil sketches reveal him to be an avant-garde painter,

one who showed that landscape painting could be taken in a totally new direction.

Constable's watercolours were also remarkably free for their time. The almost mystical *Stonehenge*, 1835, with its double rainbow, is often considered to be one of the greatest watercolours ever painted.[2] When he exhibited it in 1836, Constable appended a text to the title: "The mysterious monument of Stonehenge, standing remote on a bare and boundless heath, as much unconnected with the events of past ages as it is with the uses of the present, carries you back beyond all historical records into the obscurity of a totally unknown period".

In addition to the full-scale oil sketches, Constable completed numerous studies of landscapes and clouds, to become more scientific in his recording of atmospheric conditions. *The Chain Pier*, 1827, for example, prompted a critic to write: "the atmosphere possesses a characteristic humidity about it, that almost imparts the wish for an umbrella".

The sketches were the first ever done in oils directly from the subject in the open air. To convey the effects of light and movement, Constable used broken brushstrokes, often in small touches, which he worked over lighter passages. This gave an impression of sparkling light over the landscape. One of the most expressionistic and powerful of all his studies is *Seascape Study with Rain Cloud*, painted in around 1824 at Brighton, which captures with slashing dark brushstrokes an exploding shower at sea. Constable also became interested in painting rainbow effects, for example in *Salisbury Cathedral from the Meadows*, 1831, and in *Cottage at East Bergholt*, 1833.

To the sky studies he added notes, often on the back of the sketches, of the prevailing weather conditions, direction of light, and time of day, believing that the sky was "the key note, the standard of scale, and the chief organ of sentiment" in a landscape painting. In this habit he is known to have been influenced by the pioneering work of the meteorologist Luke Howard on

the classification of clouds. "I have done a good deal of skying", Constable wrote to Fisher on 23 October 1821.

Constable once wrote in a letter to Leslie, "My limited and abstracted art is to be found under every hedge, and in every lane, and therefore nobody thinks it worth picking up". He could never have imagined how influential his honest techniques would turn out to be. Constable's art inspired not only contemporaries like Géricault and Delacroix, but the Barbizon School, and the French impressionists of the late nineteenth century.

Thomas Gainsborough

Thomas Gainsborough (14 May 1727 – 2 August 1788) was an 18th-century English portrait and landscape painter. He was born in Sudbury, Suffolk, England. He was the youngest son of John Gainsborough. When he was 13, he surprised his father by how well he drew with the pencil. Impressed, his father let him go to London to study art in 1740. In the 1740s, Gainsborough married Margaret Burr and began painting portraits more than landscapes. He had two daughters. In 1774, Gainsborough and his family moved to London. In 1780, he painted portraits of King George III. He died of cancer in London on 2 August 1788 at age 61 years.

In painting portraits he sometimes painted with brushes on sticks six feet long. This put him at the same distance from subject and canvas, set at right angles to each other.

William Hogarth

William Hogarth (10 November 1697 – 26 October 1764) was an English painter, printmaker, pictorial satirist, social critic and editorial cartoonist.

He is said to have started western sequential art. His work ranged from realistic portraits to comic strip-like series of pictures called "modern

moral subjects". His work is so well known that satirical political illustrations in this style are often referred to as "Hogarthian".

Harlot's Progress

In 1731, he completed a series of moral works which made him recognised as a great and original genius. This was *A Harlot's Progress*. It was first done as paintings, which are now lost. Then the series was published as engravings. In the six scenes, the fate of a country girl who became a prostitute in town is traced out. At the start, the girl meets a bawd, a woman who persuades her to take up prostitution. At her shameful end, the girl dies of venereal disease and there follows a merciless funeral ceremony. The engraving show vivid scenes of drunken and loose behaviour. The series was an immediate success.

A Rake's Progress showed in eight pictures the reckless life of Tom Rakewell, the son of a rich merchant. Tom wastes all his money on luxurious living, whoring, and gambling, and dies in Bedlam. The original paintings of *A Rake's Progress* is displayed in the gallery room at Sir John Soane's Museum, London.

Marriage à-la-mode

In 1743–1745 Hogarth painted the six pictures of *Marriage à-la-mode* (National Gallery, London), a pointed skewering of upper class 18th century society. This moralistic warning shows the miserable tragedy of an ill-considered marriage for money. This is regarded by many as his finest project and may be among his best planned story serials. Marital ethics were the topic of much debate in 18th century Britain. Marriages of convenience, and their unhappiness, came in for particular criticism.

The series shows the story of the fashionable marriage of the son of bankrupt Earl Squanderfield to the daughter of a rich but miserly city merchant. It starts with the signing of a marriage contract at the Earl's

mansion and ending with the murder of the son by his wife's lover, and the suicide of the daughter after her lover is hanged at Tyburn.

Industry and Idleness

In the twelve prints of *Industry and Idleness* (1747) Hogarth showed the lives of two apprentices, one of whom is dedicated and hard working, the other idle. The industrious apprentice becomes Sheriff and Lord Mayor of London. The idle turns one to crime. In the end, he is executed at Tyburn. The idle apprentice is sent to the gallows by the industrious apprentice himself.

This shows the work ethic of Protestant England, where those who work hard get rewarded, and those who do not end badly,

Beer Street and Gin Lane

Beer Street and *Gin Lane* (1751) was his warning on alcoholism. They were two engravings designed to be seen side by side. Hogarth engraved *Beer Street* to show a happy city drinking the 'good' beverage of English beer. On the other side was *Gin Lane*. This showed the effects of drinking gin which, as a harder liquor, caused more problems for society. People are shown as healthy, happy and prosperous in *Beer Street*, while in *Gin Lane* they are scrawny, lazy and careless.

The woman at the front of *Gin Lane* who lets her baby fall to its death, echoes the tale of Judith Dufour who strangled her baby so she could sell its clothes for gin money. The prints were published in support of what would become the Gin Act of 1751.

Hogarth's friend, the magistrate Henry Fielding, may have got Hogarth to help with propaganda for the Gin Act: *Beer Street* and *Gin Lane*were issued shortly after Fielding's work *An Enquiry into the Causes of the Late Increase of Robbers, and Related Writings*.

The Four Stages of Cruelty

Other prints were his outcry against inhumanity in *The Four Stages of Cruelty* (published 21 February 1751). Hogarth depicts the cruel treatment of animals, and suggests what will happen to people who carry on in this manner. In the first picture there are scenes of torture of dogs, cats and other animals. The second shows one of the characters from the first painting, Tom Nero, has now become a coach driver, and his cruelty to his horse has caused it to break its leg. In the third painting Tom is shown as a murderer, with the woman he killed lying on the ground, while in the fourth, titled *Reward of Cruelty*, the murderer is shown being dissected by surgeons after his execution. The method of execution, and the dissection, reflect the 1752 Act of Parliament. This allowed the public dissection of criminals who had been executed for murder.

Hogarth wished to stop "that barbarous (mean) treatment of animals, the very sight of which renders [makes] the streets of our metropolisso distressing to every feeling mind".

Humours of an Election

The Humours of an Election is a series of four oil paintings and later engravings by Hogarth. They show what went on in the 1754 election of a Member of Parliament. The oil paintings were created in 1755.

At this time each constituency elected two MPs, and there was a property qualification for voters, so only a minority of the male population was enfranchised. There was no secret ballot, so bribery and threats were used to raise votes.

The originals are held by Sir John Soane's Museum, London.

Hogarth was also a popular portrait painter. In 1746 he painted actor David Garrick as Richard III. He was paid £200, “which was more,” he wrote, “than any English artist ever received for a single portrait”. In the same

year a sketch of Simon Fraser, 11th Lord Lovat, afterwards beheaded on Tower Hill, had an exceptional success.

Hogarth's portrait of his friend, the philanthropic Captain Coram (1740; Thomas Coram Foundation for Children, now Foundling Museum), and his unfinished oil sketch of *The Shrimp Girl* (National Gallery, London) are highly regarded. There are also portraits of his wife and his two sisters and of many others.

Laurence Stephen "L.S." Lowry

Laurence Stephen "L.S." Lowry (1 November 1887 – 23 February 1976) was an English artist born in Stretford, Lancashire. Many of his drawings and paintings depict Pendlebury, where he lived and worked for more than 40 years and also Salford and its surrounding areas.

Lowry is famous for painting scenes of life in the industrial districts of North West England in the mid-20th century. He developed a distinctive style of painting and is best known for his urban landscapes peopled with human figures often referred to as "matchstick men". He painted mysterious unpopulated landscapes, brooding portraits and the unpublished "marionette" works, which were only found after his death.

Due to his use of stylised figures and the lack of weather effects in many of his landscapes he is sometimes characterised as anaïve "Sunday painter", although this is not the position of the galleries that have organised retrospectives of his works.

A large collection of Lowry's work is on permanent public display in the Lowry, a purpose-built art gallery on Salford Quays named after him. Lowry rejected five honours during his life – including a knighthood in 1968 and consequently holds the record for the most rejected British honours. On 26 June 2013 a major retrospective opened at the Tate Britain in London, his first

at the Tate, and in 2014 his first solo exhibition outside the UK was held in Nanjing, China.

Lowry was awarded an honorary Master of Arts degree, by the University of Manchester in 1945, and Doctor of Letters in 1961. In April 1955 Lowry was elected as an Associate Member of the Royal Academy of Arts and in April 1962 became a full Royal Academician[35]and at the end of December of the same year his membership status evolved to that of Senior Academician having reached the age of 75. He was given the freedom of the city of Salford in 1965. In 1975 he was awarded honorary Doctor of Letters degrees by the Universities of Salford and Liverpool. In 1964, the art world celebrated his 77th birthday with an exhibition of his work and that of 25 contemporary artists who had submitted tributes at Monk's Hall Museum, Eccles. The Hallé Orchestra performed a concert in his honour and Prime Minister, Harold Wilson, used Lowry's painting *The Pond* as his official Christmas card. Lowry's painting *Coming Out of School*was depicted on a postage stamp of highest denomination in a series issued by the Post Office depicting great British artists in 1968.

Lowry twice declined appointment to the (Order of the British Empire): as an Officer (OBE) in 1955, and as a Commander (CBE) in 1961. He turned down a knighthood in 1968, and appointments to the Order of the Companions of Honour (CH) in 1972 and 1976. He holds the record for the most honours declined.

Lowry's work is held in many public and private collections. The largest collection is held by Salford City Council and displayed at The Lowry. Its collection has about 400 works. X-ray analyses have revealed hidden figures under his drawings – the "Ann" figures. *Going to the Match* is owned by the Professional Footballers' Association (PFA) and is temporarily on display at the National Football Museum.

The Tate Gallery in London owns 23 works. The City of Southampton owns *The Floating Bridge*, *The Canal Bridge* and *An Industrial Town*. His work is featured at MOMA, in New York. The Christchurch Art Gallery Te Puna o Waiwhetu in Christchurch, New Zealand has *Factory at Widnes* (1956) in its collection. The painting was one of the gallery's most important acquisitions of the 1950s and remains the highlight of its collection of modern British art.

During his life Lowry made about 1,000 paintings and over 8,000 drawings. The lists here are some of those that are considered to be particularly significant.

Paul Nash

Paul Nash (11 May 1889 – 11 July 1946) was a British surrealist painter and war artist, as well as a photographer, writer and designer of applied art. Nash was among the most important landscape artists of the first half of the twentieth century. He played a key role in the development of Modernism in English art.

Born in London, Nash grew up in Buckinghamshire where he developed a love of the landscape. He entered the Slade School of Artbut was poor at figure drawing and concentrated on landscape painting. Nash found much inspiration in landscapes with elements of ancient history, such as burial mounds, Iron Age hill forts such as Wittenham Clumps and the standing stones at Avebury in Wiltshire. The artworks he produced during World War One are among the most iconic images of the conflict. After the war Nash continued to focus on landscape painting, originally in a formalized, decorative style but, throughout the 1930s, in an increasingly abstract and surreal manner. In his paintings he often placed everyday objects into a landscape to give them a new identity and symbolism.

During World War Two, although sick with the asthmatic condition that would kill him, he produced two series of anthropomorphic depictions of aircraft, before producing a number of landscapes rich in symbolism with an intense mystical quality. These have perhaps become among the best known works from the period. Nash was also a fine book illustrator, and also designed stage scenery, fabrics and posters

He was the older brother of the artist John Nash.

From 1942 onwards, Nash often visited the artist Hilda Harrisson at her home, Sandlands on Boars Hill near Oxford, to convalesce after bouts of illness. From the garden at Sandlands, Nash had a view of the Wittenham Clumps, which he had first visited as a child and had painted both before World War One and again, as a background, in 1934 and 1935. He now painted a series of imaginative works of the Clumps under different aspects of the moon. Paintings such as *Landscape of the Vernal Equinox* (1943) and *Landscape of the Moon's Last Phase* (1944) show a mystical landscape rich in the symbolism of the changing seasons and of death and rebirth. In his final years, Nash produced a series of paintings, including *Flight of the Magnolia*(1944), which he called 'Aerial Flowers' that combined his fascination with flying and his love of the works of Samuel Palmer. Nash also returned to the influence of William Blakethat had so affected his early art, for example in the series of gigantic sunflowers including *Sunflower and Sun* (1942), *Solstice of the Sunflower* (1945) and *Eclipse of the Sunflower* (1945), based on Blake's 1794 poem "Ah! Sun-flower".

Samuel Palmer (27 January 1805 – 24 May 1881) was a British landscape painter, etcher and printmaker. He was also a prolific writer. Palmer was a key figure in Romanticism in Britain and produced visionary pastoral paintings.

From the early 1860s he gained some measure of critical success for his later landscapes, which had a touch of the early Shoreham work about them –

most notable is the etching of *The Lonely Tower* (1879). He became a full member of the Water Colour Society in 1854, and its annual show gave him a yearly goal to work towards. His best late works include a series of large watercolours illustrating Milton's poems *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso* and his etchings, a medium in which he worked from 1850 onwards, including a set illustrating Virgil.

Palmer's later years were darkened by the death in 1861, at the age of 19, of his elder son Thomas More Palmer – a devastating blow from which he never fully recovered. He lived in various places later in his life, including a small cottage and an unaffordable villa both inKensington, then a cottage at Reigate. But it was only when a small measure of financial security came his way, that was he able to move to Furze Hill House in Redhill, Surrey, from 1862. He could not afford to have a daily newspaper delivered to Redhill, suggesting that his financial circumstances there were still tight.

Samuel Palmer died in Redhill, Surrey, and is buried with his wife in Reigate churchyard.

Samuel Palmer was largely forgotten after his death. In 1909, many of his Shoreham works were destroyed by his surviving son Alfred Herbert Palmer, who burnt "a great quantity of father's handiwork ... Knowing that no one would be able to make head or tail of what I burnt; I wished to save it from a more humiliating fate". The destruction included "sketchbooks, notebooks, and original works, and lasted for days". It wasn't until 1926 that Palmer's rediscovery began through a show curated by Martin Hardie at the Victoria & Albert Museum, *Drawings, Etchings and Woodcuts made by Samuel Palmer and other Disciples of William Blake*. But it took until the early 1950s for his reputation to recover, stimulated by Geoffrey Grigson's 280-page book *Samuel Palmer* (1947) and later by an exhibition of the Shoreham work in 1957 and by Grigson's 1960 selection of Palmer's writing. His reputation

rests mainly on his Shoreham work, but some of his later work has recently received more appreciation.

The Shoreham work has had a powerful influence on many English artists after being rediscovered. Palmer was a notable influence on F.L. Griggs, Robin Tanner, Graham Sutherland, Paul Drury, Joseph Webb, Eric Ravilious, the glass engraving of Laurence Whistler, and Clifford Harper. He also inspired a resurgence in twentieth-century landscape printmaking, which began amongst students at Goldsmiths' College in the 1920s. (See: Jolyon Drury, 2006)

In 2005 the British Museum collaborated with the Metropolitan Museum of Art to stage the first major retrospective of his work, timed to coincide with the bicentenary of Palmer's birth. The show ran from October 2005 – January 2006, and at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, March – May 2006.

Sir Stanley Spencer

Sir Stanley Spencer KCB CBE RA (30 June 1891 – 14 December 1959) was an English painter.[1] Shortly after leaving the Slade School of Art, Spencer became well known for his paintings depicting Biblical scenes occurring as if in Cookham, the small Thames-side village where he was born and spent much of his life. Spencer referred to Cookham as "a village in Heaven" and in his biblical scenes, fellow-villagers are shown as their Gospel counterparts. Spencer was skilled at organising multi-figure compositions such as in his large paintings for the Sandham Memorial Chapel and the *Shipbuilding on the Clyde* series, the former being a World War Onememorial whilst the latter was a commission for the War Artists' Advisory Committee during World War Two. As his career progressed Spencer often produced landscapes for commercial necessity and the intensity of his early visionary years diminished somewhat while elements of eccentricity came more to the fore. Although his compositions became more

claustrophobic and his use of colour less vivid he maintained an attention to detail in his paintings akin to that of the Pre-Raphaelites.

Spencer's works often express his fervent if unconventional Christian faith. This is especially evident in the scenes that he based in Cookham which show the compassion that he felt for his fellow residents and also his romantic and sexual obsessions. Spencer's works originally provoked great shock and controversy. Nowadays, they still seem stylistic and experimental, whilst the nude works depicting his futile relationship with Patricia Preece, such as the *Leg of mutton nude,* foreshadow some of the much later works ofLucian Freud. Spencer's early work is regarded as a synthesis of French Post-Impressionism, exemplified for instance by Paul Gauguin, plus early Italian painting typified by Giotto. Whilst a student Spencer allied with a, short-lived, group who called themselves the "Neo-Primitives" which was centred on David Bomberg and William Roberts. In later life Spencer remained an independent artist and did not join any of the artistic movements of the period, although he did show three works at the *Second Post-Impressionist Exhibition* in 1912.

Whilst in Gloucestershire before World War Two, Spencer had embarked on a series of, eventually, over 100 pencil works, known as the *Scrapbook Drawings*. In 1950, the outgoing president of the Royal Academy, Sir Alfred Munnings got hold of some of these drawings and initiated a police prosecution against Spencer for obscenity.[29] It was reported in the press that the, unnamed, owner of the pictures agreed to destroy them. Spencer also appears to have removed some drawings from his private scrapbooks and continued to ensure that the Leg of mutton nude would not be exhibited during his lifetime. He was awarded the CBE and the new President of the Royal Academy, Sir Gerald Kelly, who had supported Spencer in the obscenity case, persuaded him to rejoin the Royal Academy, as an Associate

before being elected an Academician. Spencer visited his elder brother Harold in Northern Ireland in 1951, 1952 and 1953, painting portraits of Harold's daughter, Daphne, and urban scenes there, most notably *Merville Garden Village near Belfast* in 1951.

In the spring of 1954, the Chinese government invited various western delegations to visit China for the fifth anniversary celebrations of the "Liberation" of October 1949. Members of the hastily assembled "cultural delegation" included Stanley Spencer, Leonard Hawkes, Rex Warner, Hugh Casson and AJ Ayer. Spencer told Zhou Enlai that "I feel at home in China because I feel that Cookham is somewhere near, only just around the corner." Towards the end of 1955, a large retrospective of Spencer's work was held at the Tate and he began a series of large paintings centred on the work *Christ Preaching at Cookham Regatta*, which were intended for the Church-House.

In his later years Spencer was seen as a "small man with twinkling eyes and shaggy grey hair, often wearing his pyjamas under his suit if it was cold." Spencer became a "familiar sight, wandering the lanes of Cookham pushing the old pram in which he carried his canvas and easel." A scene of Spencer pushing his easel along in a pram, and surrounded by angels, was the subject of the painting *Homage to Spencer* by the artist Derek Clarke.[44] The pram, black and battered, has survived to become the most curious exhibit in the Stanley Spencer Gallery in Cookham, which is dedicated to its owner's life and works.

In 1958 Spencer painted *The Crucifixion* which was set in Cookham High Street and first displayed in Cookham Church. The painting employed a similar composition and viewpoint to an earlier painting, *The Scarecrow, Cookham* (1934) but with the two gargoyle-like carpenters nailing Christ to the cross and a screaming crucified thief, was by far the most violent of all Spencer's paintings. Spencer was made an Honorary Doctor of Letters

by Southampton University in 1958, three days before he received his knighthood atBuckingham Palace.

The memorial stone for Stanley Spencer and his first wife, Hilda, in Cookham churchyard.

In December 1958 Spencer was diagnosed with cancer. He underwent an operation at the Canadian War Memorial Hospital on theCliveden estate in 1959. After his operation, he went to stay with friends in Dewsbury. There, over five days from July 12 to July 16 he painted a final self-portrait. *Self-Portrait* (1959) shows a fierce, almost defiant individual. Lord Astor made arrangements so that Spencer could move into his childhood home, Fernlea, and he died of cancer at nearby Cliveden in December that year. At the time of his death*Christ Preaching at Cookham Regatta* remained unfinished at his home.[6] Spencer was cremated and his ashes laid in Cookham Churchyard, beside the path through to Bellrope Meadow. A discreet stone memorial marks the spot. The commemorative wording is: - *To the memory of Stanley Spencer Kt. CBE RA, 1891 – 1959 and his wife Hilda, buried in Cookham cemetery 1950. Everyone that loveth is born of God and knoweth God: He that loveth not knoweth not God, for God is love.*

Joseph Mallord William Turner

Joseph Mallord William Turner, RA (baptised 14 May 1775[a] – 19 December 1851) was an English Romantic landscape painter, water-colourist, and printmaker. Turner was considered a controversial figure in his day, but is now regarded as the artist who elevated landscape painting to an eminence rivalling history painting. Although renowned for his oil paintings, Turner is also one of the greatest masters of British watercolour landscape painting. He is commonly known as "the painter of light" and his work is regarded as a Romantic preface to Impressionism. Some of his works are cited as examples of abstract art prior to its recognition in the early twentieth century.

Joseph Mallord William Turner (Covent Garden, London, 23 April 1775[1] – Chelsea, London, 19 December 1851) was an English painterand artist. He was one of the greatest artists of landscape painting, with a great mastery of light and colour.[2]

His father was a maker of wigs. His mother was ill with mental problems, and the young Turner was sent to live with his uncle in Brentford, where he first started to paint.

Turner became a student at the Royal Academy of Art school in London when he was 14 years old. He was accepted into the Academy a year later. He had a watercolour painting in 1790 in the Academy's important art show. He had only been studying for a year. In 1802, at the age of only 28, he was elected a member of the Royal Academy, and later became its Professor of Perspective.

In 1802, Turner travelled around Europe, visiting France and Switzerland. He also went to the Louvre in Paris. During his life, he often travelled across Europe, visiting Venice in Italy several times. As his personal style developed, he began to produce paintings that were generalised or exaggerated in form and colour, rather than realistic or detailed. These caused much argument as to their artistic value, but nowadays are his best loved works. On his death, he left 300 oils and 20,000 watercolours to the British nation. Some of his watercolours are the most abstract or generalised of his paintings.

Turner never married, although he had two children with his mistress Sarah Danby. For much of his life, he lived with his father, who helped him in his studio until he died in 1829.

In his early career, Turner was influenced by the painters Claude Lorrain and Nicolas Poussin, who painted "historical" landscapes.

Turner became interested in natural catastrophes, and natural phenomena such as sunlight, storm, rain, and fog. He was fascinated by the

violent power of the sea. His paintings revolve around the light of the sun, shown in infinite variety. His work showed some of the ideas of the impressionists decades before they arrived on the scene. Monet, in particular, studied Turner's methods.

His most famous paintings include *The Fighting Temeraire tugged to her last berth to be broken up*. Often called just *The Fighting Temeraire*, this is a picture of a famous warship that was used in the Battle of Trafalgar. Other pictures include *Rain, Steam and Speed*, which shows a steam train crossing a bridge, and *Snowstorm* which shows a steamship in a snowstorm trying to get into a harbour. In order to get the right feeling into this painting, he had himself tied to a ship's mast during a storm, so that he could see what it was like. Some of his most famous paintings show the roughness of nature, with bleak landscapes and violent storms.

But also there is beauty and a sense of calmness in pictures such as Crossing the Brook, a stunning scenic view of the Tamar Valley and River from New Bridge near Gunnislake in Cornwall, painted in 1815, a view which can still be admired today.

As he grew older, Turner's behaviour became a bit odd, and he became depressed quite often. He died in Chelsea on 19 September 1851, and was buried next to the painter Joshua Reynolds in St Paul's Cathedral.

Even while Turner was alive, some people thought he was a genius. Some people complained that the pictures he painted when he was older were not realistic, and some even joked that they could have been painted with a mop. However, most think that his way of painting shows complete mastery.

Arthur Lowe (1865 – 1940) was born in Nottingham, England but lived most of his life in Kinoulton in the Vale of Belvoir. He was a member of the Nottingham Society of Artists, exhibiting there first in 1898, exhibited twice at the Royal Academy (the first time in 1900, exhibiting one work

called *October*, the second time was in 1916 with a work called *Autumn*), five times at the Royal Birmingham Society of Artists, four times at the Walker Art Gallery, Liverpool, 99 times at Nottingham Castle Museum and Gallery, Nottingham, and twice at the Royal Cambrian Academy. In 1936, aged over 70 years, he held his first London one-man show exhibiting more than 200 works at the New Burlington Galleries, Old Bond St, London.

Arthur Lowe spent practically his whole life in or near Nottingham. He received his early training at the Nottingham School of Art. Later he attended the Slade and St. John's Wood schools after which he returned to his native county where he was to remain amid tranquil and beautiful surroundings for the rest of his life.

Arthur Lowe died in Kinoulton, 3 February, 1940.

A posthumous exhibition was held in 1943 showing over 250 of his paintings at the Laing Art Gallery (Newcastle) before his wife, Mary Lowe, donated and distributed his life's works to various galleries and museums around northern England.

Lowe's paintings are held in the permanent collections of the Ferens Art Gallery (Hull), Laing Art Gallery (Newcastle), Shipley Art Gallery (Gateshead) and the Sunderland Museum(Sunderland), Bolton Museum (Bolton), Tullie House Museum and Art Gallery (Carlisle), Darlington Art Gallery (Darlington), Graves Art Gallery (Sheffield), South Shields Museum & Art Gallery (County Durham), The Beacon (Whitehaven) and York Art Gallery, (York).

Architecture

The architecture of the United Kingdom includes many features that precede the creation of the United Kingdom in 1707, from as early as Skara Brae and Stonehenge to the Giant's Ring, Avebury and Roman ruins. In most towns and villages the parish church is an indication of the age of the settlement. Many castles remain from the medieval period such as; Windsor

Castle (longest-occupied castle in Europe), Stirling Castle (one of the largest and most important in Scotland), Bodiam Castle (moated castle), and Warwick Castle. Over the two centuries following the Norman conquest of England of 1066, and the building of the Tower of London, castles such as Caernarfon Castle in Wales and Carrickfergus Castle in Ireland were built.

English Gothic architecture flourished from the 12th to the early 16th century, and famous examples include Westminster Abbey, the traditional place of coronation for the British monarch, which also has a long tradition as a venue for royal weddings; Canterbury Cathedral, one of the oldest and most famous Christian structures in England; Salisbury Cathedral, which has the tallest church spire in the UK; and Winchester Cathedral, which contains the longest nave and overall length of any Gothic cathedral in Europe.

In the United Kingdom, a listed building is a building or other structure officially designated as being of special architectural, historical or cultural significance. About half a million buildings in the UK have "listed" status.

In the 1680s, Downing Street was built by Sir George Downing, and its most famous address 10 Downing Street, became the residence of the Prime Minister in 1730. One of the best known English architects working at the time of the foundation of the United Kingdom was Sir Christopher Wren. He was employed to design and rebuild many of the ruined ancient churches of London following the Great Fire of London. His masterpiece, St Paul's Cathedral, was completed in the early years of the United Kingdom. Buckingham Palace, the official London residence of the British monarch, was built in 1705.

In the early 18th century baroque architecture – popular in Europe – was introduced, and Blenheim Palace was built in this era. However, baroque was quickly replaced by a return of the Palladian form. The Georgian

architecture of the 18th century was an evolved form of Palladianism. Many existing buildings such as Woburn Abbey and Kedleston Hall are in this style. Among the many architects of this form of architecture and its successors, neoclassical and romantic, were Robert Adam, Sir William Chambers, and James Wyatt. The aristocratic stately home continued the tradition of the first large gracious unfortified mansions such as the Elizabethan Montacute Houseand Hatfield House. During the 18th and 19th centuries to the highest echelons of British society, the English country house served as a place for relaxing, hunting and running the countryside. Many stately homes have become open to the public; Knebworth House, now a major venue for open air rock and pop concerts Alton Towers, theme park and the most popular in the UK, and Longleat, the world's first safari park outside Africa.

In the early 19th century the romantic medieval gothic style appeared as a backlash to the symmetry of Palladianism, and such buildings as Fonthill Abbey were built. By the middle of the 19th century, as a result of new technology, construction was able to develop incorporating steel as a building component; one of the greatest exponents of this was Joseph Paxton, architect of the Crystal Palace. Paxton also continued to build such houses as Mentmore Towers, in the still popular retrospective Renaissance styles. In this era of prosperity and development British architecture embraced many new methods of construction, but ironically in style, such architects as August Puginensured it remained firmly in the past.

At the beginning of the 20th century a new form of design arts and crafts became popular, the architectural form of this style, which had evolved from the 19th century designs of such architects as George Devey, was championed by Edwin Lutyens. Arts and crafts in architecture is symbolised by an informal, non-symmetrical form, often with mullioned or lattice windows, multiple gables and tall chimneys. This

style continued to evolve until World War II. Following the Second World War, reconstruction went through a variety of phases, but was heavily influenced by Modernism, especially from the late 1950s to the early 1970s. Many bleak town centre redevelopments—criticised for featuring hostile, concrete-lined "windswept plazas"—were the fruit of this interest, as were many equally bleak public buildings, such as the Hayward Gallery. Many Modernist inspired town centres are today in the process of being redeveloped, Bracknelltown centre being a case in point. However, in the immediate post-War years many thousands (perhaps hundreds of thousands) of council houses in vernacular style were built, giving working-class people their first experience of private gardens and indoor sanitation.

Modernism remains a significant force in UK architecture, although its influence is felt predominantly in commercial buildings. The two most prominent proponents are Lord Rogers of Riverside and Norman Foster. Rogers' iconic London buildings are probably Lloyd's Building and the Millennium Dome, while Foster created the 'Gherkin' and the City Hall. Completed in 2012, the Shard London Bridge is the tallest building in the European Union. Other major skyscrapers under construction in London include The Pinnacle, and Heron Tower. Modernist architect Nicholas Grimshaw designed the Eden Project in Cornwall, which is the world's largest greenhouse.

Many ancient standing stone monuments were erected during the prehistoric period, amongst the best known are Stonehenge, Devil's Arrows, Rudston Monolith and Castlerigg. With the introduction of Ancient Roman architecture there was a development of basilicas, baths, amphitheatres, triumphal arches, villas, Roman temples, Roman roads, Roman forts, stockades and aqueducts. It was the Romans who founded the first cities and towns such as London, Bath, York,

Chester and St Albans. Perhaps the best known example is Hadrian's Wall stretching right across northern England. Another well preserved example is the Roman Baths at Bath, Somerset. Early Medieval architecture's secular buildings were simple constructions mainly using timber with thatch for roofing. Ecclesiastical architecture ranged from a synthesis of Hiberno—Saxonmonasticism, to Early Christian basilica and architecture characterised by pilaster-strips, blank arcading, baluster shafts and triangular headed openings. After the Norman conquest in 1066 various Castles in England were created so law lords could uphold their authority and in the north to protect from invasion. Some of the best known medieval castles include the Tower of London, Warwick Castle, Durham Castle and Windsor Castle amongst others.

Throughout the Plantagenet era an English Gothic architecture flourished—the medieval cathedrals such as Canterbury Cathedral, Westminster Abbey and York Minster are prime examples.[17] Expanding on the Norman base there was also castles, palaces, great houses, universities andparish churches. Medieval architecture was completed with the 16th century Tudor style; the four-centred arch, now known as the Tudor arch, was a defining feature as were wattle and daub houses domestically. In the aftermath of the Renaissance, the English Baroque style appeared, which architect Christopher Wren particularly championed.[18] English Baroque is a casual term, sometimes used to refer to the developments in English architecture that were parallel to the evolution of Baroque architecture in continental Europe between the Great Fire of London (1666) and the Treaty of Utrecht (1713). Queen Anne Style architecture flourished in England from about 1660 to about 1720, even though the Queen's reign covered only the period 1702-1714. Buildings in the Queen Anne style are strongly influenced by Dutch domestic architecture: typically, they are simple rectilinear designs

in red brick, with an undemonstrative charm. Georgian architecture followed in a more refined style, evoking a simple Palladian form; the Royal Crescent at Bath is one of the best examples of this. With the emergence of romanticism during Victorian period, a Gothic Revival was launched—in addition to this around the same time the Industrial Revolution paved the way for buildings such as The Crystal Palace. Since the 1930s various modernist forms have appeared whose reception is often controversial, though traditionalist resistance movements continue with support in influential places.

Prehistoric architecture is found throughout Scotland. Skara Brae is a large stone-built neolithic settlement, located on the Bay of Skaill on the west coast of Mainland, Orkney. Nicknamed the "British Pompeii", Skara Brae is Europe's most complete neolithic village and the level of preservation is such that it has gained UNESCO World Heritage Sitestatus in 1999. Celtic tribes during the Bronze Age left few physical remnants of their dwellings, but stone Christian monuments and Celtic crosses have endured erosion.Protohistorical Scotland during the Roman Empire was, unlike the rest of Great Britain, broadly untouched by the Romans, but there are the remains of Roman forts at *Trimontium*and *Inchtuthil*.

Scotland is known for its "dramatically placed castles, fused onto defensive ridges and rocky islands". Many of these date from Scotland in the Middle Ages. In contrast to England, which embarked on Elizabethan houses, Scotland saw the building of castles and fortified houses continue well into the 17th century, and many were constructed in a building-boom following the Scottish Reformation. The most distinctive Scottish fortification at this time was the tower house. The grandest medieval Scottish castles are composed of a series of courtyards, with a keep at their centre, but the lone keep-towers were more common, particularly amongst Scottish feudal barons.

Some of Scotland's most famous medieval fortifications include Castle Stalker and Stirling Castle. More recent, Jacobean era castles includeEdinburgh Castle and Craigievar Castle. The arrival of the cannon made high-walled castles defensively impractical and obsolete, but the fortification genre evolved into a style in its own right; Scots Baronial Style architecture has an emphasis on turrets and strong vertical lines drawn from tower houses, and constitutes one of Scotland's "most distinctive contributions to British architecture".

The new political stability, made possible by the Act of Union, allowed for renewed prosperity in Scotland, which led to a spate of new building, both public and private, during the 18th century. Scotland produced "the most important British architects of this age": Colen Campbell, James Gibbs and Robert Adam were Scots interpreting the first phase of Classical forms of ancient Greece and Rome inPalladian architecture. Edinburgh's New Town was the focus of this classical building boom, resulting in the city being nicknamed "The Athens of the North" on account both of its intellectual output from the Scottish Enlightenment and the city's neo-classical architecture. Together with Edinburgh's Old Town, it constitutes one of the United Kingdom'sWorld Heritage Sites.

Christian architecture in Scotland has a distinct style; The Royal Institute of British Architects have stated that "Scottish churches are peculiarly plain, low and often quite humble buildings". The Scottish Reformation revolutionised church architecture in Scotland, because the Scottish Calvinists rejected ornamental places of worship and few churches escaped their attention.[28] This tradition of geometric purity became prominent in Scottish architecture thereafter, but never became popular in England. Similarly, Scotland has produced some of the most idiosyncratic of architects such as James, John and Robert Adam, Alexander Thomson and Charles Rennie Mackintosh, which all relate to popular trends

in Scottish architecture; all however created Scottish stylistic interpretations and often deliberately injecting traditional Scottish forms into their work. The Adam brothers were leaders of the first phase of the classical revival in the Kingdom of Great Britain.

Wales

Cromlechs and other prehistoric architecture exits in Wales. Examples include Bryn Celli Ddu a neolithic site on the Isle of Anglesey, and Parc Cwm long cairn on the Gower Peninsula.

As stated by Sir Simon Jenkins, "Wales has a very long and porous border with England", which had a major influence upon the architecture of Wales. Many Welsh landmark buildings were designed and built by Englishmen, such as the Romanesque-revival Penrhyn Castle near Bangor, a design by Thomas Hopper that blended Norman, Regency and early-Victorian architecture for an English MP who had inherited a vast Welsh estate. However...

Contemporary architecture has appeared in Wales from Cardiff Bay to Caernarfon, and has a tradition of mixing traditional Welsh materials in to modern construction techniques.

The first known dwelling in Northern Ireland are found at the Mount Sandel Mesolithic site in County Londonderry and date to 7000 BC. Counties Fermanagh and Tyrone are especially rich in Stone Age archaeology. Early Christian art and architecture is found throughout Northern Ireland, as well as monastic sites, gravestones, abbeys, round towers and Celtic crosses.

Northern Ireland has some of the largest and finest castles in Ireland, the earliest of which date back to the Norman invasion of Ireland. Examples of Norman architecture in Northern Ireland include Carrickfergus Castle.

Other medieval castles include Greencastle, Jordan's Castle, Dunluce Castle, Dundrum and Harry Avery's Castle. Enniskillen Castle dates back to early modern Ireland. Fortified homes andbawns continued to be built well into the 17th century, a result of the Plantation of Ulster; examples include Benburb Castle, Castle Caulfield, Monea Castle, and Castle Balfour. Much of the architecture of Derry dates from the Plantation of Ulster, including its defensive walls. St. Columb's Cathedral....

Northern Ireland in the 18th and 19th centuries produced two varieties of architecture, constructed along the divide of societal privilege; "sumptuous" manor houses of the landed gentry include Castle Ward and Hillsborough Castle; for many however, domestic life was restricted to "humble cottages". The National Trust for Places of Historic Interest or Natural Beauty and the Ulster Folk and Transport Museum maintain and conserve farm and village buildings of historical interest, including many of the ancestral homes of the 17-plusPresidents of the United States who have Ulster ancestry. The city of Armagh has Georgian architecture by way of the Armagh Observatory and the city's Georgian quarter; the Catholic St Patrick's Cathedral and Anglican St Patrick's Cathedral are two landmarks in Armagh.

During the Victorian era, Belfast flaunted its economic prowess with "splendid" Victorian architecture, among them Belfast City Hall, Queen's University Belfast, Belfast Castle, the Belfast Botanic Gardens, Albert Memorial Clock, and the ornate Crown Liquor Saloon. Early 20th century landmarks include a number of schools built for Belfast Corporation in the 1930s by R S Wilshere. Notables include the severe, sturdy, 1936 brick built Belfast School of Music on Donegall Pass and the Whitla Hall at Queen’s University Belfast, designed by John McGeagh. Belfast has examples of art deco architecture such a such as the Bank of Ireland and Sinclair’s department store on Royal Avenue and the Floral Hall at Bellevue. Many of Belfast's oldest buildings are found in the Cathedral Quarter. Prominent Northern Irish

architects include R S Wilshere and McGeogh, cinema architect James McBride Neil, and Dennis O'D Hanna, part of the "Ulster Unit" group of self-consciously modern artists and craftspeople, promoted by poet and curator John Hewitt.

Scotland

Prehistoric architecture is found throughout Scotland. Skara Brae is a large stone-built neolithic settlement, located on the Bay of Skaill on the west coast of Mainland, Orkney. Nicknamed the "British Pompeii", Skara Brae is Europe's most complete neolithic village and the level of preservation is such that it has gained UNESCO World Heritage Sitestatus in 1999. Celtic tribes during the Bronze Age left few physical remnants of their dwellings, but stone Christian monuments and Celtic crosses have endured erosion. Protohistorical Scotland during the Roman Empire was, unlike the rest of Great Britain, broadly untouched by the Romans, but there are the remains of Roman forts at *Trimontium*and *Inchtuthil*.

Performing arts

Large outdoor music festivals in the summer and autumn are popular, such as Glastonbury, V Festival, Reading and Leeds Festivals. The UK was at the forefront of the illegal, free rave movement from the late 1980s, which led to pan-European culture of teknivals mirrored on the UK free festival movement and associated travelling lifestyle. The most prominent opera house in England is the Royal Opera House at Covent Gardens. The Proms, a season of orchestral classical music concerts held at the Royal Albert Hall, is a major cultural event held annually. The Royal Ballet is one of the world's foremost classical ballet companies, its reputation built on two prominent figures of 20th century dance, *prima ballerina* Margot Fonteyn and choreographer Frederick Ashton. Irish dancing is popular in Northern Ireland

and among the Irish diaspora throughout the UK; it's costumes feature patterns taken from the medieval Book of Kells. The Edinburgh Festival Fringe is the world's largest arts festival. Established in 1947, it takes place in Scotland's capital during three weeks every August alongside several other arts and cultural festivals. The Fringe mostly attracts events from the performing arts, particularly theatre and comedy, although dance and music also feature.

The circus is a traditional form of entertainment in the UK. Chipper field's Circus dates back more than 300 years in Britain, making it one of the oldest family circus dynasties. Philip Astley is regarded as the father of the modern circus. Following his invention of the circus ring in 1768, Astley's Amphitheatre opened in London in 1773. As an equestrian master Astley had a genius for trick horse-riding, and when he added tumblers, tightrope-walkers, jugglers, performing
dogs, and a clown to fill time between his own demonstrations – the modern circus was born. The Hughes Royal Circus was popular in London in the 1780s, while Pablo Fanque's Circus Royal, among the most popular circuses of Victorian England (which showcased the circus performer William Kite) inspired John Lennon to write Being for the Benefit of Mr. Kite! on The Beatles' album, *Sgt. Pepper's Lonely Hearts Club Band*. Joseph Grimaldi, the most celebrated of English clowns, is considered the father of modern clowning.

The **Royal Opera House** is an opera house and major performing arts venue in Covent Garden, central London. The large building is often referred to as simply **"Covent Garden"**, after a previous use of the site of the opera house's original construction in 1732. It is the home of The Royal Opera, The Royal Ballet, and the Orchestra of the Royal Opera House. Originally called the Theatre Royal, it served primarily as a playhouse for the first hundred years of its history. In 1734, the first ballet was presented. A year

later,Handel's first season of operas began. Many of his operas and oratorios were specifically written for Covent Garden and had their premieres there.

The current building is the third theatre on the site following disastrous fires in 1808 and 1856. The façade, foyer, and auditoriumdate from 1858, but almost every other element of the present complex dates from an extensive reconstruction in the 1990s. The Royal Opera House seats 2,256 people and consists of four tiers of boxes and balconies and the amphitheatre gallery. Theproscenium is 12.20 m wide and 14.80 m high. The main auditorium is a Grade 1 listed building as noted by Theatres Trust.

The foundation of the **Theatre Royal, Covent Garden** lies in the letters patent awarded by Charles II to Sir William Davenant in 1660, allowing Davenant to operate one of only two patent theatre companies (*The Duke's Company*) in London. The letters patent remained in the possession of the Opera House until shortly after the First World War, when the document was sold to an American university library.

n 1728, John Rich, actor-manager of the Duke's Company at Lincoln's Inn Fields Theatre, commissioned *The Beggar's Opera* from John Gay. The success of this venture provided him with the capital to build the Theatre Royal (designed by Edward Shepherd) at the site of an ancient convent garden, part of which had been developed by Inigo Jones in the 1630s with a piazza and church. In addition, a Royal Charter had created a fruit and vegetable market in the area, a market which survived in that location until 1974. At its opening on 7 December 1732, Rich was carried by his actors in processional triumph into the theatre for its opening production of William Congreve's*The Way of the World*.

During the first hundred years or so of its history, the theatre was primarily a playhouse, with the *Letters Patent* granted by Charles II giving

Covent Garden and Theatre Royal, Drury Lane exclusive rights to present spoken drama in London. Despite the frequent interchangeability between the Covent Garden and Drury Lane companies, competition was intense, often presenting the same plays at the same time. Rich introduced pantomime to the repertoire, himself performing (under the stage name *John Lun*, as Harlequin) and a tradition of seasonal pantomime continued at the modern theatre, until 1939.

In 1734, Covent Garden presented its first ballet, *Pygmalion*. Marie Sallé discarded tradition and her corset and danced in diaphanous robes. George Frideric Handel was named musical director of the company, at Lincoln's Inn Fields, in 1719, but his first season of opera, at Covent garden, was not presented until 1734. His first opera was *Il pastor fido* followed by *Ariodante* (1735), the première of *Alcina*, and*Atalanta* the following year. There was a royal performance of *Messiah* in 1743, which was a success and began a tradition of Lentenoratorio performances. From 1735 until his death in 1759 he gave regular seasons there, and many of his operas and oratorios were written for Covent Garden or had their first London performances there. He bequeathed his organ to John Rich, and it was placed in a prominent position on the stage, but was among many valuable items lost in a fire that destroyed the theatre on 20 September 1808. In 1792 the architect Henry Holland rebuilt the auditorium, within the existing shell of the building but deeper and wider than the old auditorium, thus increasing capacity.

Rebuilding began in December 1808, and the second Theatre Royal, Covent Garden (designed by Robert Smirke) opened on 18 September 1809 with a performance of *Macbeth* followed by a musical entertainment called *The Quaker*. The actor-manager John Philip Kemble, raised seat prices to help recoup the cost of rebuilding and the cost of an increased ground rent introduced by the landowner, the Duke of Bedford, but the move was so unpopular that audiences disrupted performances by beating sticks, hissing,

booing and dancing. The *Old Price Riots* lasted over two months, and the management was finally forced to accede to the audience's demands.

During this time, entertainments were varied; opera and ballet were presented, but not exclusively. Kemble engaged a variety of acts, including the child performer *Master Betty*; the great clown Joseph Grimaldi made his name at Covent Garden. Many famous actors of the day appeared at the theatre, including the tragediennes Sarah Siddons and Eliza O'Neill, the Shakespearean actors William Charles Macready, Edmund Kean and his son Charles. On 25 March 1833 Edmund Kean collapsed on stage while playing Othello, and died two months later.

In 1806, the pantomime clown Joseph Grimaldi (*The Garrick of Clowns*) had performed his greatest success in *Harlequin and Mother Goose; or the Golden Egg* at Covent Garden, and this was subsequently revived, at the new theatre. Grimaldi was an innovator: his performance as *Joey* introduced the clown to the world, building on the existing role of Harlequin derived from the *Commedia dell'arte*. His father had been ballet-master at Drury Lane, and his physical comedy, his ability to invent visual tricks and buffoonery, and his ability to poke fun at the audience were extraordinary.

Early pantomimes were performed as mimes accompanied by music, but as Music hall became popular, Grimaldi introduced the pantomime dame to the theatre and was responsible for the tradition of audience singing. By 1821 dance and clowning had taken such a physical toll on Grimaldi that he could barely walk, and he retired from the theatre. By 1828, he was penniless, and Covent Garden held a benefit concert for him.

In 1817, bare flame gaslight had replaced the former candles and oil lamps that lighted the Covent Garden stage. This was an improvement, but in 1837 Macready employed limelight in the theatre for the first time, during a

performance of a pantomime, *Peeping Tom of Coventry*. Limelight used a block of quicklime heated by an oxygen and hydrogen flame. This allowed the use of spotlights to highlight performers on the stage.

The Theatres Act 1843 broke the patent theatres' monopoly of drama. At that time Her Majesty's Theatre in the Haymarket was the main centre of ballet and opera but after a dispute with the management in 1846 Michael Costa, conductor at Her Majesty's, transferred his allegiance to Covent Garden, bringing most of the company with him. The auditorium was completely remodelled and the theatre reopened as the **Royal Italian Opera** on 6 April 1847 with a performance of Rossini's *Semiramide*.

In 1852, Louis Antoine Jullien the French eccentric composer of light music and conductor presented an opera of his own composition, *Pietro il Grande*. Five performances were given of the 'spectacular', including live horses on the stage and very loud music. Critics considered it a complete failure and Jullien was ruined and fled to America. Costa and his successors presented all operas in Italian, even those originally written in French, German or English, until 1892, when Gustav Mahler presented the debut of Wagner's Ring cycle. The word "Italian" was then quietly dropped from the name of the opera house.

On 5 March 1856, the theatre was again destroyed by fire. Work on the third theatre, designed by Edward Middleton Barry, started in 1857 and the new building, which still remains as the nucleus of the present theatre, was built by Lucas Brothers and opened on 15 May 1858 with a performance of Meyerbeer's *Les Huguenots*.

The Royal English Opera company under the management of Louisa Pyne and William Harrison, made their last performance at Theatre Royal, Drury Lane on 11 December 1858 and took up residence at the theatre on 20 December 1858 with a performance of Michael Balfe's *Satanella* and continued at the theatre until 1864.

The theatre became the **Royal Opera House** (ROH) in 1892, and the number of French and German works offered increased. Winter and summer seasons of opera and ballet were given, and the building was also used for pantomime, recitals and political meetings.

During the First World War, the theatre was requisitioned by the Ministry of Works for use as a furniture repository.

From 1934 to 1936, Geoffrey Toye was Managing Director, working alongside the Artistic Director, Sir Thomas Beecham. Despite early successes, Toye and Beecham eventually fell out, and Toye resigned.

During the Second World War the ROH became a dance hall. There was a possibility that it would remain so after the war but, following lengthy negotiations, the music publishersBoosey & Hawkes acquired the lease of the building. David Webster was appointed General Administrator, and Sadler's Wells Ballet was invited to become the resident ballet company. The Covent Garden Opera Trust was created and laid out plans "to establish Covent Garden as the national centre of opera and ballet, employing British artists in all departments, wherever that is consistent with the maintenance of the best possible standards ..."

The Royal Opera House reopened on 20 February 1946 with a performance of *The Sleeping Beauty* in an extravagant new production designed by Oliver Messel. Webster, with his music director Karl Rankl, immediately began to build a resident company. In December 1946, they shared their first production, Purcell's *The Fairy-Queen*, with the ballet company. On 14 January 1947, the Covent Garden Opera Company gave its first performance of Bizet's *Carmen*.

Before the grand opening, the Royal Opera House presented one of the Robert Mayer Children's concerts on Saturday, 9 February 1946.

Royal Albert Hall is a concert hall on the northern edge of South Kensington, London, best known for holding The Proms concerts annually each summer since 1941. It has a capacity (depending on configuration of the event) of up to 5,272 seats. The Hall is a registered charity held in trust for the nation and receives no public or government funding.

Since its opening by Queen Victoria in 1871, the world's leading artists from several performance genres have appeared on its stage and it has become one of the UK's most treasured and distinctive buildings. Each year it hosts more than 350 events including classical concerts, rock and pop, ballet and opera, sports, award ceremonies, school and community events, charity performances and banquets.

The Hall was originally supposed to have been called **The Central Hall of Arts and Sciences**, but the name was changed by Queen Victoria to **Royal Albert Hall of Arts and Sciences** when laying the foundation stone, as a dedication to her deceased husband and consort Prince Albert. It forms the practical part of a national memorial to the Prince Consort – the decorative part is the Albert Memorial directly to the north in Kensington Gardens, now separated from the Hall by the road Kensington Gore.

In 1851, the Great Exhibition (for which the Crystal Palace was built) was held in Hyde Park, London. The exhibition was a great success and led Prince Albert, the Prince Consort, to propose the creation of a permanent series of facilities for the enlightenment of the public in the area, which came to be known as Albertopolis. The Exhibition's Royal Commission bought Gore House and its grounds (on which the Hall now stands) on the advice of the Prince. Progress on the scheme was slow and in 1861 Prince Albert died, without having seen his ideas come to fruition. However, a memorial was proposed for Hyde Park, with a Great Hall opposite.

The proposal was approved and the site was purchased with some of the profits from the Exhibition. Once the remaining funds had been raised, in April 1867 Queen Victoria signed the Royal Charter of the Corporation of the Hall of Arts and Sciences which was to operate the Hall and on 20 May, laid the foundation stone. The Hall was designed by civil engineers Captain Francis Fowke and Major-General Henry Y.D. Scott of the Royal Engineers and built by Lucas Brothers.[3] The designers were heavily influenced by ancient amphitheatres, but had also been exposed to the ideas of Gottfried Semper while he was working at the South Kensington Museum. The recently opened *Cirque d'Hiver* in Paris was seen in the contemporary press as the design to outdo. The Hall was constructed mainly of Fareham Red brick, withterra cotta block decoration made by Gibbs and Canning Limited of Tamworth. The dome (designed by Rowland Mason Ordish) on top was made of wrought iron and glazed. There was a trial assembly made of the iron framework of the dome in Manchester, then it was taken apart again and transported to London via horse and cart. When the time came for the supporting structure to be removed from the dome after re-assembly in situ, only volunteers remained on site in case the structure dropped. It did drop – but only by five-sixteenths of an inch. The Hall was scheduled to be completed by Christmas Day 1870 and the Queen visited a few weeks beforehand to inspect.

The official opening ceremony of the Hall was on 29 March 1871. A welcoming speech was given by Edward, the Prince of Wales; Queen Victoria was too overcome to speak although she did comment that it reminded her of the British constitution.

A concert followed, when the Hall's acoustic problems became immediately apparent. Engineers first attempted to solve the strong echo by suspending a canvas awning below the dome. This helped and also sheltered

concertgoers from the sun, but the problem was not solved: it used to be jokingly said that the Hall was "the only place where a British composer could be sure of hearing his work twice".

Initially lit by gas, the Hall contained a special system where its thousands of gas jets were lit within ten seconds. Though it was demonstrated as early as 1873 in the Hall,[6] full electric lighting was not installed until 1888. During an early trial when a partial installation was made, one disgruntled patron wrote to *The Times* newspaper declaring it to be "a very ghastly and unpleasant innovation".

In 1936, the Hall was the scene of a giant rally celebrating the British Empire, the occasion being the centenary of Joseph Chamberlain's birth. In October 1942, the Hall suffered minor damage during World War II bombing but was left mostly untouched as German pilots used the distinctive structure as a landmark.

In 1949 the canvas awning was removed and replaced with fluted aluminium panels below the glass roof, in a new attempt to solve the echo; but the acoustics were not properly tackled until 1969 when a series of large fibreglass acoustic diffusing discs (commonly referred to as "mushrooms" or "flying saucers") was installed below the ceiling.

The Royal Ballet is an internationally renowned classical ballet company, based at the Royal Opera House in Covent Garden, London, UK. The largest of the four major ballet companies in Great Britain, the Royal Ballet was founded in 1931 by Dame Ninette de Valois, it became the resident ballet company of the Royal Opera House in 1946 and was granted a royal charter in 1956, becoming recognised as Britain's flagship national ballet company.

The Royal Ballet was one of the foremost ballet companies of the 20th century, and continues to be one of the world's most famous ballet companies to this day, generally noted for its artistic and creative values. The company

employs approximately 100 dancers and has purpose built facilities within the Royal Opera House. The official associate school of the company is the Royal Ballet School, and it also has a sister company, the Birmingham Royal Ballet, which operates independently. The Prima ballerina assoluta of the Royal Ballet is the late Dame Margot Fonteyn.

In 1926, the Irish-born dancer Ninette de Valois founded the Academy of Choreographic Art, a dance school for girls. Her intention was to form a repertory ballet company and school, leading her to collaborate with the English theatrical producer and theatre owner Lilian Baylis. Baylis owned the Old Vic and Sadler's Wells theatres and in 1925 she engaged de Valois to stage dance performances at both venues.

Sadler's Wells reopened in 1931 and the Vic-Wells Ballet and Vic-Wells Ballet School were established in premises at the theatre. These would become the predecessors of today's Royal Ballet, Birmingham Royal Ballet and Royal Ballet School. Prior to her return to Britain, Ninette de Valois had been a member of the Ballets Russes, one of the most renowned and influential ballet companies of the 20th century. The company disbanded in 1929 following the death of its founder Serge Diaghilev. When de Valois formed the Vic-Wells Ballet, she employed some of the company's former stars, including Alicia Markova and Anton Dolin, who joined as Principal dancers, and Tamara Karsavina, who worked with the company as an advisor. The Founder Musical Director was the conductor and composer Constant Lambert who had considerable artistic as well as musical influence over the early years of the company.

After losing the link with the Old Vic theatre, in 1939 the company was renamed Sadler's Wells Ballet and the school became Sadler's Wells Ballet School.[4] Both continued at Sadler's Wells Theatre until 1946, when the company was invited to become the resident ballet company of the newly re-

opened Royal Opera House in Covent Garden, under the direction of David Webster. The company relocated to the opera house the same year in 1946, with their first production at the venue being *The Sleeping Beauty*.

Following the relocation of the company, the school moved to its own premises in 1947. A sister company was established to continue performances at Sadler's Wells, called the Sadler's Wells Theatre Ballet, under the direction of John Field. In 1955, the sister company temporarily lost its link with Sadler's Wells and returned to the Royal Opera House as a touring unit of the main company.

In 1956, a Royal Charter was granted for both companies and the school; they were subsequently renamed the Royal Ballet, Sadler's Wells Royal Ballet and the Royal Ballet School.

The Sadler's Wells Royal Ballet returned to Sadler's Wells Theatre in 1970, while continuing to tour the country. In 1987, however, the company was invited to become the resident ballet company at the Birmingham Hippodrome. It relocated to Birmingham in 1990, being renamed Birmingham Royal Ballet and it ceased to be part of the Royal Ballet in 1997 when it was made independent of the Royal Opera House, with Sir Peter Wright as Artistic Director. Birmingham Royal Ballet retains close relationships with both the Royal Ballet and Royal Ballet School, although it now has its own associate ballet school, Elmhurst School for Dance.

In 1964 the Royal Ballet established "Ballet for All" under the direction of Peter Brinson. Between 1964 and 1979 "Ballet for All" toured throughout the country, presenting around 150 performances per annum and reaching around 70,000 people each year. In 1976 the Royal Opera House established its schools' matinee programme.

Today the Royal Ballet remains the resident ballet company at the Royal Opera House, conducting its own tours internationally, and it continues to be the parent company of the Royal Ballet School, which is now based

at White Lodge, Richmond Park and premises in Floral Street which are adjacent to and have direct access to the Royal Opera House.

Chipperfield's Circus is a long-running English family show based on the 300-year old Chipperfield dynasty.

It can be traced back to a James Chipperfield who exhibited performing animals at the Thames Frost Fair of 1684. Through the 19th century, the circus toured the whole of England, with its growing menagerie and teams of acrobats and clowns. After World War II, under the management of Jimmy Chipperfield, it became one of the biggest circuses inEurope, with a tent that could hold 6000 people. Jimmy Chipperfield then diversified into safari parks and fairground supplies, and since his death in 1990, Chipperfield's Circus has toured only intermittently, sometimes featuring members of the extended Chipperfield family.

Born in a caravan, 1824, at St. Martin at Oak, Norfolk. Son of James William Chipperfield and Harriet Amy (née Coan).

Commenced clowning for his father being then engaged in a "Liliputian Circus". Reputedly entered a den of animals at Wombwells when only 14-years-old. First ventured on his own when he acquired an "educated" pony.

He married Elizabeth Jones in 1846. His daughter appeared as the youngest tight-rope dancer in the country. Introduced to Britain Zulus and Kaffirs from Africa and the Aztecs from Mexico. Also entered the marrionette business. Gradually worked his way to the front rank of showland with his menagerie, establishing his winter quarters in Norwich.

Exhibited Robert Tippney, the "living skeleton". On the road all his life and claimed to be England's oldest showman. Died at his home, Schwanfelder Street, Beeston, Leeds, in 1913, aged 89 years. (Source: Source: John Turner, Victorian Arena)

Animal trainer and menagerie proprietor. Son of James William Chipperfield. Born in 1846 in Tottenham Court Road, London. A member of the third generation of the show family he performed in every village and town in the country and was a noted trainer of animals. "I can train anything from a rabbit to an elephant", was one of his favourite expressions. Aged over 68 when he died. Source: John Turner, Victorian Arena

The **Edinburgh Festival Fringe** (**The Fringe**) is the world's largest arts festival, with the 2012 event spanning 25 days totalling over 2,695 shows from 47 countries in 279 venues. Established in 1947 as an alternative to the Edinburgh International Festival, it takes place annually in Scotland's capital, in the month of August. The Fringe is a showcase for the performing arts, particularly theatre and comedy (which has seen substantial growth in recent years), although dance and music are also represented. In 2012, 36% of shows were comedy and 28% theatrical productions. Theatrical productions range from the classics of ancient Greece to William Shakespeare, Samuel Beckett and contemporary works. In 2012, 1,418 shows were having their world premiere.

The Fringe is an unjuried festival – with no selection committee, and therefore any type of performance may participate. The Fringe has often showcased experimental works that might not be invited to a more conservative arts festival. In addition to ticketed, programmed events, the Festival has included a street fair, located primarily on the Royal Mile. The Festival is organized by the Festival Fringe Society, which publishes the programme, sells tickets, and offers advice to performers. Their offices are on the Royal Mile.

The Board of Directors is drawn from members of the Festival Fringe Society, who are often Fringe participants themselves - performers or administrators. Elections are held once a year, in August, and Board members serve a term of three years. The Board appoints the Fringe CEO (formerly

known as the Fringe Administrator or Director) and operates under the chairmanship of a well-known public personality. The first chairman was Lord Grant, a High Court judge, who gave way in 1970 to the actor Andrew Cruikshank. He was succeeded in 1983, by Dr. Jonathan Miller, and then by Elizabeth Smith, Baroness Smith (widow of former Labour Leader John Smith).

The first full-time Fringe chief was former teacher, John Milligan, who left in 1976 to run the Craigmillar Festival. He was succeeded by writer and historian Alistair Moffat, who left in 1981 to become Head of Arts at Scottish Television. He was replaced by Michael Dale, who departed in 1986 to become Head of Events for the Glasgow Garden Festival. He was succeeded by his deputy, Mhairi Mackenzie-Robinson, who left in 1993 to pursue a career in business. Hilary Strong served in the position until 1999, when she then became director of the Greenwich Theatre. She was followed by Paul Gudgin (2000-2007), Jon Morgan (2007-2008), and Kath Mainland, the current CEO.

The 2011 Fringe sold 1,877,119 tickets for 41,689 performances of 2,542 shows, in 258 venues, over 25 days, for an average of more than 75,000 admissions and 1,360 performances per day. There were an estimated 21,192 performers, from 60 countries participating. There were 607 free shows.

Early years

The Fringe started life when eight theatre companies turned up uninvited to the inaugural Edinburgh International Festival in 1947. Seven performed in Edinburgh, and one undertook a version of the medieval morality play "Everyman" in Dunfermline Abbey, about 20 miles north, across the river Forth, in Fife. These groups aimed to take advantage of the large assembled theatre crowds to showcase their own, alternative, theatre. The Fringe got its

name the following year (1948) after Robert Kemp, a Scottish playwright and journalist, wrote during the second Edinburgh International Festival: ‘Round the fringe of official Festival drama, there seems to be more private enterprise than before ... I am afraid some of us are not going to be at home during the evenings!’

The Fringe did not benefit from any official organization until 1951, when students of the University of Edinburgh set up a drop-in centre in the YMCA, where cheap food and a bed for the night were made available to participating groups. It was 1955 before the first attempt was made to provide a central booking service.

Formal organization progressed in 1959, with the formation of the Festival Fringe Society. A constitution was drawn up, in which the policy of not vetting or censoring shows was set out, and the Society produced the first guide to Fringe shows. Nineteen companies participated in the Fringe in that year.

The artistic credentials of the Fringe were established by the creators of the Traverse Theatre, John Calder, Jim Haynes and Richard Demarco in 1963. While their original objective was to maintain something of the Festival atmosphere in Edinburgh all year round, the Traverse Theatre quickly and regularly presented cutting edge drama to an international audience on both the Edinburgh International Festival and on the Fringe during August. It set a standard to which other companies on the Fringe aspired. The Traverse is occasionally referred to as 'The Fringe venue that got away', reflecting its current status as a permanent and integral part of the Edinburgh arts scene.

Problems began to arise as the Fringe became too big for students and volunteers to deal with. Eventually in 1969 the Society became a constituted body, and in 1970 it employed its first administrator, John Milligan, who left in 1976.

Between 1976 and 1981, under the direction of Alistair Moffat, the number of companies performing rose from 182 to 494, thus achieving its position of the largest arts festival in the world. At this point, the Fringe operated on only two full-time members of staff. In 1988 the Society moved from 170 High Street to its current expanded headquarters on the Royal Mile.Eclecticism ruled the 1990s with acts like The Jim Rose Circus and Tokyo Shock Boys.

Statistics for 2011 Edinburgh Festival Fringe concluded that it was the largest on record: there were over 40,000 performances of over 2,500 different shows in 258 venues. Ticket sales amounted to around 1.8 million. There are now 12 full-time members of staff.

Of the shows, theatre had been the largest genre in terms of number of shows until 2008, when it was overtaken by comedy, which has been the major growth area over the last 20 years. The other genres are, in order of number of shows: Music, Dance & Physical Theatre, Musicals & Opera, and Children's Shows, in addition to assorted Events and Exhibitions.

It is possible to sample shows before committing to a full performance. For many years, the Fringe Club (variously in the High Street from 1971 and at Teviot Row Student Union from 1981) provided nightly showcases of Fringe fare to allow audiences to sample shows. The Fringe Club closed down in 2004, and various venues still provide "the Best of the Fest" and similar. The best opportunity used to be afforded by "Fringe Sunday", started in the High Street in 1981 and moved through pressure of popularity to Holyrood Park in 1983. Fringe Sunday was held on the second Sunday of the Fringe when companies performed for free. Having outgrown even Holyrood Park, this showcase took place on The Meadows until 2008. Alternatively, on any day during the Fringe the pedestrianised area of the High Street around St Giles' Cathedral and the Fringe Office becomes the focal point for theatre

companies to hand out flyers, perform scenes from their shows, and attempt to sell tickets. Many shows are "2 for 1" on the opening weekend of the Festival.

According to the Fringe Society there were 258 venues in 2011, although over 80 of them housed events or exhibitions, which are not part of the main performing art genres that the Fringe is generally known for.

Over the first 20 years each performing group had its own performing space, or venue. However, by around 1970 the concept of sharing a venue became popular, principally as a means of cutting costs. It soon became possible to host up to 6 or 7 different shows per day in a hall. The obvious next step was to partition a venue into two or more performing spaces; the majority of today's venues fit into this category. This approach was taken a stage further by the early 1980s with the arrival of the "super-venue" – a location that contains multiple performing spaces. The Assembly Rooms started the trend in 1981, taking over the empty Georgian building that had once hosted the International Festival Club, and the following year The Circuit was prominent; it was in fact a "tented village", that was situated on a piece of empty ground, popularly known as "The Hole in The Ground", once the site of a church building (Poole's Synod Hall) converted to a cinema, where the Saltire complex was subsequently built in the early 1990s. The new Traverse Theatre opened here in 1993.

Venues now come in all shapes and sizes, with use being made of every conceivable space from proper theatres (e.g. Traverse or Bedlam Theatre), custom-made theatres (e.g. Music Hall in the Assembly Rooms), historic castles (C venues), to lecture theatres (theSpaceUK, Pleasance, George Square Theatre and Sweet ECA), conference centres, other university rooms and spaces, temporary structures (The Famous Spiegeltent and the Udderbelly), churches and church halls (Paradise in Augustines), schools, a public toilet, the back of a taxi, and even in the audience's own homes.

The groups that operate the venues are also very diverse: some are commercial and others not-for-profit; some operate year-round, while others exist only to run venues at the Fringe. Many are based in London.

From the performers' perspective, the decision on where to perform is typically based on a mixture of cost, location (close proximity to other venues is seen as a plus), and the philosophy of the venue – some of whom specialise in amateur, school or college productions, some of whom are semi or wholly professional.

The professionalism of venues and of organisations has greatly increased. The church hall at Lauriston Place, used by Edinburgh University Theatre Company as Bedlam Theatre, was taken over by Richard Crane and Faynia Williams from the University of Bradford in 1975 to house "Satan's Ball". This was an ambitious benchmark production which inspired others. By 1980 when William Burdett-Coutts set up the Assembly Theatre in the Assembly Rooms on George Street (formerly the EIF Festival Club), the investment in staging, lighting and sound meant that the original amateur or student theatricals were left behind. There was still theatre done on a shoestring, but several cultural entrepreneurs had raised the stakes to the point where a venue like Aurora (St Stephen's Church,Stockbridge) could hold its head up in any major world festival. In 2009, the Space UK launched their multi-space complex at the Royal College of Surgeons. In 2011, a new all-year-round multi-arts festival venue, containing ten performance spaces, opened in the former Royal Dick Veterinary School under the name Summerhall .

Computerised box office

A computerised booking system was first installed in the early 1990s, allowing tickets to be bought at a number of locations around the city. The Internet arrived in 2000 with the launching of its official website, which sold

over half a million tickets online by 2005. In the following year, a Half Price Ticket Tent was added in association with Metro, offering special ticket prices for different shows each day, selling 45,000 tickets in its first year.

Several venues use their own ticketing systems; this is partly due to issues of commissions and how ticket revenue is distributed, and was reinforced by the 2008 failure of the main box office.

In 2008 the Fringe faced the biggest crisis in its history when the computerised ticketing system failed. The director of the Fringe resigned and the Board decided that the post of "Director" (invented in 1992 after years of being called "Fringe Administrator") would be abolished and replaced by a Chief Executive, thus reinforcing the Fringe chief's basic administrative function. A report into the failure was commissioned from accountancy firm Scott-Moncrieff.

The events surrounding the failed box office software led to the resignation of Fringe Director Jon Morgan after only one full year in post. The resultant financial loss suffered by the Fringe Society has been estimated at £300,000 which it was forced to meet from its reserves.These events attracted much comment from the UK and world media. More debts emerged as the year went on, and an independent report criticised the Board and the current and previous Fringe Directors for a failure of management and an inability to provide the basic service.

To make matters worse, Fringe Sunday – a vast free showcase of events held on the Meadows – was cancelled as a sponsor could not be secured. After an interim period, when Tim Hawkins from Brighton held the reins, established Edinburgh Book Festival and Fringe manager Kath Mainland was appointed in February 2009 to stabilise the situation, and became the Fringe's first Chief Executive.

Notable shows

Edinburgh has spawned many notable original shows and helped establish the careers of many writers and performers.

In 1960, Alan Bennett, Dudley Moore, Peter Cook and Jonathan Miller performed at the Royal Lyceum theatre in *Beyond the Fringe*, introducing a new wave of British satire and heralding a change in attitudes towards politicians and the establishment. Ironically, this show was put together by the Edinburgh International Festival as a rebuff to the emerging Fringe. But its title alone helped publicise "the Fringe", especially when it went on to London's West End and New York's Broadway for the next 12 months.

Tom Stoppard's play, *Rosencrantz and Guildenstern Are Dead* was first performed in its full version at the 1966 Fringe.

It has also launched or advanced the careers of a number of noted actors, such as Derek Jacobi, who starred in a sixth-form production of*Hamlet,* which was very well regarded.

During the 1980s, the Festival Fringe attracted a number of major touring companies. Joint Stock Theatre Company, arguably the leading innovative touring company at that time, brought two productions to the Fringe. These were *The Great Celestial Cow* by Sue Townsend and *Fire in the Lake* by Karim Alrawi. In 1986, the Fringe saw the breakout performance of Craig Ferguson as "Bing Hitler", a "parody of all the über-patriotic native folk singers who seemed to infect every public performance in Scotland."

2003 saw a very successful production of *12 Angry Men* staged at the Assembly Rooms using established comedians in the roles of the twelve jurors. It starred Owen O'Neill in the role made famous by Henry Fonda, Juror #8. Stephen Frost, Phil Nichol and Bill Bailey also featured.

A 2004 version of *One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest* was beset by problems, including the lead actor Christian Slater contracting chicken pox

and the original director, Guy Masterson, quitting the project before it opened. Masterson was replaced by Terry Johnson.

In 2005, a production of Neil Simon's *The Odd Couple* starring Bill Bailey and Alan Davies was staged at the Assembly Hall, the meeting place on the Mound of the Church of Scotland. This had been taken over by Assembly Theatre and transformed into an 840-seat theatre.

The Tattoo set-up at Edinburgh Castle served as the 6,000-seat venue for a one-off performance by Ricky Gervais of his stand-up show *Fame* in 2007. Gervais was accused of greed and taking audiences away from smaller shows. Gervais donated the profits from the show to Macmillan Cancer Support.

The Proms, more formally known as **The BBC Proms**, or **The Henry Wood Promenade Concerts presented by the BBC**, is an eight-week summer season of daily orchestral classical music concerts and other events held annually, predominantly in the Royal Albert Hall in London. Founded in 1895, each season currently consists of more than 70 concerts in the Albert Hall, a series of chamber concerts at Cadogan Hall, additional Proms in the Park events across the United Kingdom on the last night, and associated educational and children's events. In 2009 the total number of concerts reached 100 for the first time. In the context of classical music festivals, Jiří Bělohlávek has described the Proms as "the world's largest and most democratic musical festival".

Prom is short for *promenade concert*, a term which originally referred to outdoor concerts in London's pleasure gardens, where the audience was free to stroll around while the orchestra was playing. In fact this tradition has been revived in parks and stately homes around the UK at promenade concerts such as the Battle Proms. In the context of the BBC Proms*Promming* now refers to the use of the standing areas inside the hall (the arena and gallery) for which ticket prices are much lower than for the

reserved seating. Single-concert standing Promming tickets for either the Arena or Gallery can be bought only on the day of the concert, which can give rise to long queues for well-known artists or works. Proms concert-goers, particularly those who stand, are sometimes described as "Promenaders", but are most commonly referred to as "Prommers". Prommers can buy full-season tickets instead for guaranteed entry to every concert in the season (until 20 minutes before the concert is due to start), although not the assurance of a particular standing position. A number of Prommers are particularly keen in their attendance. In 1997, one programme in the BBC documentary series *Modern Times* covered this dedicated following of enthusiasts.

Origins and Sir Henry Wood

Promenade concerts had existed in London's pleasure gardens since the mid 18th century, but on 10 August 1895 impresario Robert Newman arranged the first series of indoor promenade concerts, in the Queen's Hall in Langham Place. Newman's idea was to encourage an audience for concert hall music who, though not normally attending classical concerts, would be attracted by the low ticket prices and more informal atmosphere. In addition to promenading; eating, drinking and smoking were all allowed. He stated his aim to Henry Wood in 1894 as follows:

I am going to run nightly concerts and train the public by easy stages. Popular at first, gradually raising the standard until I have created a public for classical and modern music.

Dr George Cathcart, an otolaryngologist, gave financial backing to Newman for the series (called "Mr Robert Newman's Promenade Concerts") on condition that Henry Wood be employed as the sole conductor. Wood, aged 26, seized this opportunity and built the "Queen's Hall Orchestra" as the ensemble specially devoted to performing the promenade concerts. Dr. Cathcart also stipulated (contrary to Newman's preference) the adoption of

French or Open Diapason concert pitch, necessitating the acquisition of an entirely new set of wind instruments for the orchestra, and the re-tuning of the Queen's Hall organ. This coincided with the adoption of this lower pitch by other leading orchestras and concert series.[8] Although the concerts gained a popular following and reputation, Newman went bankrupt in 1902, and the banker Edgar Speyer took over the expense of funding them. Wood received a knighthood in 1911. In 1914, anti-German feeling forced Speyer out of his post. After Speyer, music publishers Chappell & Co. took control of the concerts

Although Newman remained involved in artistic planning, it was Wood's name which became most closely associated with the Proms. As conductor from the first concert (which opened with Wagner's *Rienzi* overture) in 1895, Sir Henry was largely responsible for building the repertoire heard as the series continued from year to year. While including many popular and less demanding works, in the first season there were substantial nights devoted to Beethoven or Schubert, and a programme of new works was given in the final week. Distinguished singers including Sims Reeves and Signor Foli appeared. In the first two decades Wood firmly established the policy of introducing works by contemporary composers (both British and international) and of bringing fresh life to unperformed or under-performed works. A bronze bust of Sir Henry Wood recovered from the ruins of the bombed-out Queen's Hall in 1941, and now belonging to the Royal Academy of Music,[12] is still placed in front of the Organ for the whole Promenade season. Though the concerts are now called the BBC Proms, and are headlined with the BBC logo, the tickets are subtitled "BBC Music presents the Henry Wood Promenade Concerts".

In 1927, following Newman's sudden death in the previous year, the BBC – later based at Broadcasting House next to the hall – took over the running of the concerts. This arose because William Boosey, then managing director of

Chappell & Co. (the Prom. proprietors), detested broadcasting and saw the BBC's far-reaching demands and intentions in the control of musical presentation as a danger to the future of public concerts altogether. He decided to disband the New Queen's Hall Orchestra, which played for the last time at a Symphony concert on 19 March 1927. He found it more expedient to let the Queen's Hall to the broadcasting powers, rather than to continue the Promenade concerts and other big series independently in an unequal competition with what was effectively the Government itself. So the Proms. were saved, but under a different kind of authority. The personnel of the New Queen's Hall Orchestra effectively continued until 1930 as 'Sir Henry J. Wood and his Symphony Orchestra.' When the BBC Symphony Orchestra (BBC SO) was formed in 1930, it became the main orchestra for the concerts. At this time the season consisted of nights dedicated to particular composers; Mondays were Wagner, Fridays were Beethoven, with other major composers being featured on other days. There were no Sunday performances.

With the outbreak of World War II in 1939, the BBC withdrew its support. However private sponsors stepped in to maintain the Proms, always under Sir Henry Wood's direction, until the Queen's Hall was devastated beyond repair during an air raid in May 1941. The Proms were therefore moved to their current home, the Royal Albert Hall, at which point the BBC resumed control. The London Symphony Orchestra had sometimes assisted in the series since (after 1927) the New Queen's Hall Orchestra had ceased to function, and in 1942 Sir Henry Wood also invited the London Philharmonic Orchestra under its new leader Jean Pougnet to participate in this and subsequent seasons.[14] In 1944, under increased danger from bombing, the Proms moved again, this time to the Bedford Corn Exchange (home of the BBC Symphony Orchestra since 1941) which hosted the concerts until the end of the War.

Post-war

Wood continued his work with the Proms until his death in 1944.[15] During the War Sir Adrian Boult and Basil Cameron also took on conducting duties for the Proms,[16] and after the War maintained them until the advent of Malcolm Sargent as Proms chief conductor in 1947. Sargent held this post until 1966; his associate conductor from 1949 to 1959 wasJohn Hollingsworth. Sargent was noted for his immaculate appearance (evening dress, carnation) and his witty addresses where he good-naturedly chided the noisy Prommers. Sir Malcolm championed choral music and classical and British composers, especially Samuel Coleridge-Taylor. The charity founded in his name, CLIC Sargent, continues to hold a special Promenade Concert each year shortly after the main season ends. CLIC Sargent, the Musicians' Benevolent Fund and further musical charities (chosen each year) also benefit from thousands of pounds in donations from Prommers after most concerts. When asking for donations, Prommers from the Arena regularly announce to the audience the running donations total at concert intervals through the season, or before the concert when there is no interval.

After Wood's death, Julian Herbage acted as *de facto* principal administrator of the Proms for a number of years, as a freelance employee after his retirement from the BBC, with assistance from such staff as Edward Clark and Kenneth Wright.[17] During the tenure of William Glock as Controller of the Proms, beginning in 1960, the Proms repertory expanded both forwards in time, to encompass then contemporary and avant-garde composers such as Boulez, Berio, Carter, Dallapiccola, Peter Maxwell Davies, Gerhard, Henze, Ligeti, Lutosławski, Lutyens, Maw, Messiaen, Nono, Stockhausen, and Tippett, as well as backwards to include music by past composers such as Purcell, Cavalli, Monteverdi, Byrd, Palestrina, Dufay, Dunstaple and Machaut, as well as less-often performed works of Johann Sebastian Bach and Joseph Haydn. From the 1960s, the number of guest orchestras at the Proms also began to increase, with the first major

international conductors (Leopold Stokowski, Georg Solti and Carlo Maria Giulini) performing in 1963, and the first foreign orchestra, the Moscow Radio Symphony Orchestra, performing in 1966. Since that time, almost every major international orchestra, conductor and soloist has performed at the Proms. In 1970, Soft Machine's appearance led to press attention and comment as the first "pop" band to perform there.

Since 1990

The Proms continue today, and still present newly commissioned music alongside pieces more central to the repertoire and early music. Innovations continue, with pre-Prom talks, lunchtime chamber concerts, children's Proms, Proms in the Park either appearing, or being featured more heavily over the past few years. In the UK, all concerts are broadcast on BBC Radio 3, an increasing number are televised on BBC Four with some also shown on BBC One and BBC Two. The theme tune that used to be played at the beginning of each programme broadcast on television (until the 2011 season) was an extract from the end of the "Red" movement of Arthur Bliss's *A Colour Symphony*. It is also possible to hear the concerts live from the BBC Proms website. The Last Night is also broadcast in many countries around the world.
In 1996, a related series of eight lunchtime chamber concerts was started, taking place on Mondays during the Proms season. In their first year these were held in the Britten Hall of the Royal College of Music (just across Prince Consort Road from the Albert Hall). The following year they moved slightly further afield, to the Henry Cole Lecture Theatre at the Victoria and Albert Museum. In 2005 they moved further again, to the new Cadogan Hall, just off London's Sloane Square. These allow the Proms to include music which is not suitable for the vast spaces of the Albert Hall.
From 1998 to 2007, the *Blue Peter* Prom, in partnership with long-running BBC television programme *Blue Peter*, was an annual fixture. Aimed at

children and families, the Prom is informal, including audience participation, jokes, and popular classics. High demand for tickets – which are among the lowest priced in the season – saw this Prom be split in 2004 into two Proms with identical content. In 2008, the Blue Peter Prom was replaced with a *Doctor Who* Prom which was repeated in both the 2010 and 2013 seasons.

The 2004 season also featured the Hall's newly rebuilt pipe organ. It took two years to complete the task (2002–2004) and was the work of Noel Mander, Ltd., of London. It was the first complete restoration of the instrument since Harrison and Harrison's work in 1936.

The tradition of Promming remains an important aspect of the festival, with over 1000 standing places available for each concert, either in the central arena (rather like the groundlings in the pit at Shakespeare's Globe) or high in the hall's gallery. Promming tickets cost the same for all concerts (still only £5 in 2013), providing a considerably cheaper option for the more popular events. Since the tickets cannot be bought in advance (although there are full-season tickets, first weekend and weekly passes available), they provide a way of getting into otherwise sold-out concerts.

In 2010, the Proms Archive was introduced on the BBC Proms webpage, to allow for a systematic searching of all works that have been performed and all artists who have appeared at The Proms since their inception. On 1 September 2011 a Prom given by the Israel Philharmonic Orchestra was severely affected by interruptions from pro-Palestinian protesters. While the Palestine Solidarity Campaign had urged a boycott, they denied being behind the disruption inside the Royal Albert Hall. For the first time ever, the BBC took a Prom concert off the air.

Folklore

Much of the folklore of the United Kingdom pre-dates the UK. Though some of the characters and stories are present across Britain, most belong to specific countries or regions. Common folkloric beings

include pixies, giants, elves, bogeymen, trolls, goblins and dwarves. While many legends and folk-customs are thought to be ancient, such as the tales featuring Offa of Angeln and Weyland Smith, others date from after the Norman invasion; Robin Hood and his Merry Men of Sherwood and their battles with the Sheriff of Nottingham being, perhaps, the best known.

During the High Middle Ages tales originated from Brythonic traditions, notably the Arthurian myth. Deriving from Welsh source; King Arthur, Excalibur and Merlin, while the Jersey poet Wace introduced the Knights of the Round Table. These stories are most centrally brought together within Geoffrey of Monmouth's *Historia Regum Britanniae*. Another early figure from British tradition, King Cole, may have been based on a real figure from Sub-Roman Britain. Many of the tales and pseudo-histories make up part of the wider Matter of Britain, a collection of shared British folklore.

The Loch Ness Monster is a cryptid that is reputed to inhabit Loch Ness in the Scottish Highlands. The legendary monster has been affectionately referred to by the nickname *Nessie* since the 1950s. TheLeprechaun figures large in Irish folklore. A mischievous fairy type creature in emerald green clothing who when not playing tricks spend all their time busily making shoes, the Leprechaun is said to have a pot of gold hidden at the end of the rainbow, and if ever captured by a human it has the magical power to grant three wishes in exchange for release. In mythology, English fairy tales such as *Jack and the Beanstalk* helped form the modern perception of giants as stupid and violent, while the legendary dwarf Tom Thumb is a traditional hero in English folklore. English fairy tale *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* is one of the most popular fairy tales in the English language. Some folk figures are based on semi or actual historical people whose story has been passed down centuries; Lady Godiva for instance was said to have ridden naked on horseback through Coventry, the heroic English

figure Hereward the Wake resisted the Norman invasion, Herne the Hunter is an equestrian ghost associated with Windsor Forest and Great Park, and Mother Shipton is the archetypal witch. The chivalrous bandit, such as Dick Turpin, is a recurring character, while the colourful English pirates Blackbeard and Calico Jack are renowned. The Gremlin is part of RAF folklore dating from the 1920s, with gremlin being RAF slang for a mischievous creature that sabotages aircraft, meddling in the plane's equipment. Legendary figures from 19th century London whose tales have been romanticized include Sweeney Todd, the murderous barber of Fleet Street, and serial killer Jack the Ripper. On 5 November, people in England make bonfires, set off fireworks and eat toffee apples in commemoration of the foiling of the Gunpowder Plot centred on Guy Fawkes, which became an annual event after *The Thanksgiving Act* of 1606 was passed. The Guy Fawkes mask is an emblem for anti-establishment protest groups.

Halloween is a traditional and much celebrated holiday in Scotland and Ireland on the night of 31 October. The name *Halloween* is first attested in the 16th century as a Scottish shortening of the fuller *All-Hallows-Even*, and according to some historians has its roots in the gaelic festival Samhain, where the Gaels believed the border between this world and the otherworld became thin, and the dead would revisit the mortal world. In 1780, Dumfries poet John Mayne makes note of pranks at Halloween; *"What fearfu' pranks ensue!"*, as well as the supernatural associated with the night, *"Bogies"* (ghosts). The bard of Scotland Robert Burns' 1785 poem "Halloween" is recited by Scots at

Halloween, and Burns was influenced by Mayne's composition. In Scotland and Ireland, traditional Halloween customs include; Guising — children disguised in costume going from door to door requesting food or coins – which became practice by the late 19th century, turnips hollowed-out

and carved with faces to make lanterns, holding parties where games such as apple bobbingare played.

Other practices in Ireland include lighting bonfires, and having firework displays. Further contemporary imagery of Halloween is derived

from Gothic and Horror literature(notably Shelley's *Frankenstein* and Stoker's *Dracula*), and classic horror films (such as Hammer Horrors). Mass transatlantic Irish and Scottish migration in the 19th century popularised Halloween in North America

Tests

Edmund Spencer (1552-1599):

Literature Test

1. In which of his works does Spencer celebrate his love for Elizabeth Boyle whom he later married? Choose the correct answer.

A) Amoretti;

B)Prothalamion;

C)Epithalamion;

D) Astrophel;

E)None of the above.

2. Who said “my master Spencer”? Choose the correct answer.

A) Dryden;

B)Cowley;

C)Thompson;

D) Gray;

E)None of the above.

3. “Faerie Queen” is modeled after … Fill in the gaps and choose the correct answer.

A) Homer’s Odyssey;

B) Ariosto’s Orlando Furiose;

C) Virgil’s Aeneid;

D) Aristotle’s Poetics;

E) None of the above.

4. What was the ambition of Edmund Spencer? Choose the correct answer.

A) To be arrival of Chaucer;

B) To write something on the life of Ariosto;

C) Earn favor in court;

D) Express the dreams of English chivalry;

E) None of the above.

5. Which is the only prose work of Spencer? Choose the correct answer.

A) Essays of Elia;

B) Vicar of Wakefield;

C) View of the State of Ireland;

D) Shepherd’s calendar;

E) None of the above.

6. Who is being referred to in the expression of Spencer’s “Gloriana”, Raleigh’s “Cynthia” and Shakespear’s “Fair Vestal”?

A) England

B) Elizabeth I

C) Queen Mary

D) Queen Anne

E) None of the above.

7.In the “Faerie Queen” Spencer had employed _____verse form.

A) Terza Rima

B)Ottave Rhyme

C)Heroic-couplet

D) Spenserian Stanza

E)None of the above.

8. Spencer’s “The Sheoherd’s Calendar” consists of twelve:

A) Months

B)Pictures

C)Stories

D) Ecologues

E) None of the above

9. When Sidney died Spencer published an elegy in 1595. What is its name?

A) Epithalamion

B) Amoretti

C) Astrophel

D) Orlando furioso

E) None of the above

10. What is Spencer’s “Mother Hubbard’s Tale”?

A) An Elegy

B) A Satire on Society

C) A poem mourning the loss of youth

D) Ballad

E) None of the above

Test on the writers of Scotland

1. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.
Which of these authors belong to the writers who have written both in Scots and in English?
A) William Shakespeare, Geoffrey Chaucer
B)Jane Austen Charlotte Brontë
C)Sir Arthur Conan Doyle, Sir Walter Scott
D) Charles Dickens, Oscar Wilde

2. Choose the correct letter.
Who is regarded as a pioneer of the Romantic movement?
A) Sir Arthur Conan Doyle
B) Sir Walter Scott
C) Robert Louis Stevenson
D) Robert Burns

3. Choose the correct letter.
Robert Burns' memory is celebrated by Burns clubs across the world; his birthday is an unofficial «National Day» for Scots and those with Scottish ancestry, celebrated with Burns suppers.
A)True
B)False
C)Hardly ever
D)Impossible

4. Choose an appropriate personality for this statement.

He is most famously known for his stories about the detective Sherlock Holmes, which are generally considered a major innovation in the field of crime fiction.

A) Ian Rankin

B)Sir Arthur Conan Doyle

C)Sir Walter Scott

D)Robert Louis Stevenson

5. Match writers with their wide-spread works:

1. Sir Arthur Conan Doyle	a) «Treasure Island», «The Black Arrow»
2. Sir Walter Scott	b) «Auld Lang Syne», «Poems, Chiefly in the Scottish dialect»
3. Robert Louis Stevenson	c) «A Study in Scarlet», «The Mystery of Cloomber»
4. Ian Rankin	d) «Waverley», «Ivanhoe»
5. Robert Burns	e) «The Flood», «Knots and Crosses»

6. Choose the correct letter.

When was Edinburgh named the world's first City of Literature by the United Nations' cultural body UNESCO?

A)in 2000

B)in 2002

C)in 2004

D)in 2007

7. Look at the pictures and find the appropriate names for each Scottish writer given below:

1.

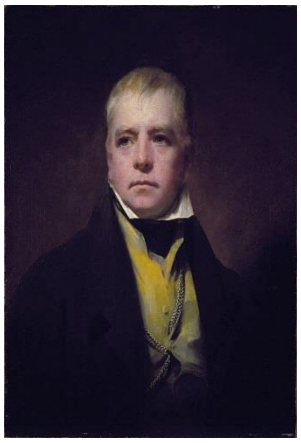


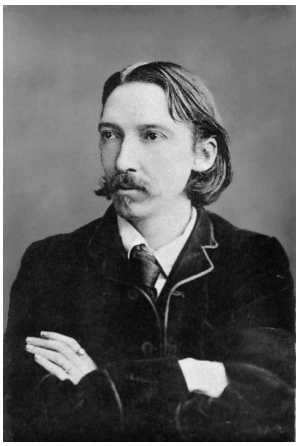
2.



3.

4.





A) Robert Louis Stevenson

B) Sir Walter Scott

C) Sir Arthur Conan Doyle

D) Robert Burns

8. Match the dates of birth with the Scottish authors:

1. Sir Walter Scott	a) 1759-1796
2. Robert Louis Stevenson	b) 1771-1832
3. Robert Burns	c) 1850-1894
4. Sir Arthur Conan Doyle	d) 1859-1930

9. Continue the sentence.

Famous Robert Louis Stevenson's work «Kidnapped» is…

A)a tale of piracy, buried treasure, and adventure, originally called the Sea-Cook.

B)a historical novel that tells of David Balfour's pursuit of his inheritance during the intrigues of Jacobite troubles between England and Scotland.

C)a short novel about a dual personality much depicted in plays and films.

D)a masterful tale of revenge set in Scotland and America.

10. Continue the sentence.

Robert Burns' poem *Auld Lang Syne* is often sung at…

A)Hogmanay

B) Scotland's National Day

C)Edinburgh Festival Fringe

D)Scotland's Independent Day

11. Choose the incorrect letter.

A)1783 Robert Burns started composing poetry in a traditional style using the Ayshire dialect of Scots.

B)Conan Doyle won his doctorate in 1885.

C)Walter Scott in 1814 wrote «Ivanhoe», a romance which did not name its author.

D)Ian Rankin is best known for his Inspector Rebus novels, which are mostly set in Edinburgh.

12. Choose the correct letter.

Which of modern Scottish authors said the following?: «I write because I love it, I enjoy it, I've spent most of my life trying to do it better, and I can make a living from it: beats a day job.»

A)J.K. Rowling

B)Ian Banks

C)Dame Muriel Spark

D)Ian Rankin

13. Choose the correct letters.

What authors were named in 2008 by Times Newspaper as «the 50 greatest British writers since 1945»?

A)Dame Muriel Spark

B)Ian Rankin

C)J.K. Rowling

D)Ian Banks

14. Choose the correct letters.

Whom was the idea for a world city of literature spearheaded by?

A)by James Boyle

B)by Ian Rankin

C)by Dame Muriel Spark

D)by Ian Banks

15. Choose the correct letter.

Dame Muriel Spark is the author *«The Comforters», «Robinson» «Memento Mori» « The Takeover».*

A)False

B)Hardly ever

C)True

D)Impossible

16. Choose the incorrect statement.

A)Rowling was working as a researcher and bilingual secretary for Amnesty International when she conceived the idea for the *Harry Potter* series on a delayed train from Manchester to London in 1990.

B)Spark began writing seriously after the war, under her married name, beginning with poetry and literary criticism.

C)Ian Banks was a signatory to the Declaration of Calton Hill, which calls for Scottish independence.

D)Ian Rankin is best known by his several pieces of literary criticism.

17. Choose the correct letter.

Who received Order of the British Empire (OBE) in the City Chambers in Edinburgh from the Lord Provost?

A)J.K. Rowling

B)Ian Rankin

C)Ian Banks

D)Dame Muriel Spark

18. Choose the correct letter.

Who preferred firmly to reject Catholicism and Christianity in general to become an outspoken agnostic?

A)Conan Doyle

B)Robert Burns

C)Dame Muriel Spark

D)Ian Banks

19. Description of which book is given here. He has never played sport while flying on a broomstick. He`s never worn a cloak of invisibility, befriended a giant, or helped hatch a dragon. This boy is known for his miserable life with the Dursleys, his horrible aunt and uncle, and their abominable son, Dudley. Write down the answer.

20. Choose the correct letter.
Which of the authors survived a childhood bout of polio that would leave him in his right leg for the rest of his life?
A)Walter Scott
B)Conan Doyle
C)Kenneth Grahame
D)Robert Burns

21. Choose the correct letter.
Whose both books («Reluctant Dragon» and «The Wind in the Willows») were later adapted into Disney films?
A)J. M. Barrie
B)Kenneth Grahame
C)John Buchan
D)R.M. Ballantyne

22. Match writers with their wide-spread works:

1. J. M. Barrie	a) «*The Thirty-Nine Steps*»
2. John Buchan	b) «*The Wind in the Willows*»
3. RM Ballantyne	c) «Peter Pan»
4. Kenneth Grahame	d) «*The Coral Island*»

23. Choose the correct letter.

Who was made a baronet by George V in 1913, and a member of the Order of Merit in 1922?

A)Kenneth Grahame

B)J. M. Barrie

C)John Buchan

D)Ian Banks

24. Look at the pictures and find the appropriate names for each Scottish writers given below:

1.



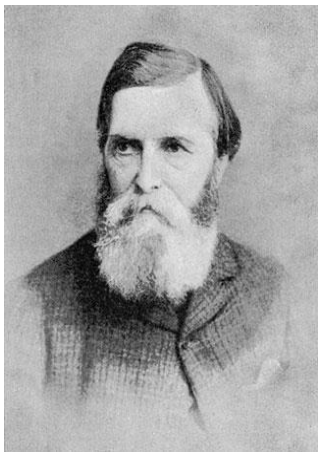
2.



3.

4.





A) Ian Banks

B) John Buchan

C) Kenneth Grahame

D) J. M. Barrie

25. Choose the correct letter.

After a brief legal career Buchan simultaneously began both his writing career and his political and diplomatic career, serving as a private secretary to the colonial administrator of various colonies in Southern Africa.

A)False

B)True

C)Impossible

D)Hardly ever

26. Choose the correct letter.

Whose books became best-selling book series in history?

A)J.K. Rowling

B)Kenneth Grahame

C)J. M. Barrie

D)Ian Banks

27. Choose the correct letter.

Who is the author of such famous works as «The Body Snatcher», «The master of Ballantrae», «Wier of Hermiston»?

A)Ian Banks

B)Ian Rankin

C)Robert Louis Stevenson

D)Walter Scott

28. Match the dates of birth with the Scottish authors:

1.Kenneth Grahame	a) 1875- 1940
2. J. M. Barrie	b) 1860-1937
3. John Buchan	c)1859-1932
4. Ian Rankin	d) 1960

29. Choose the incorrect statement.

A) Kenneth Grahame was a Scottish writer, most famous for «*The Wind in the Willows»* (1908), one of the classics of children's literature.

B) James Hogg is best known today for his novel «*The Private Memoirs and Confessions of a Justified Sinner».*

C) Sir James Matthew Barrie, 1st Baronet, was a Scottish author and dramatist, best remembered today as the creator of «*The Coral Island»*.

D) John Buchan wrote propaganda for the British war effort in the First World War.

30. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

Who prefers to write only in English, with rare use of a dialect in dialogues and only when it’s necessary to the story?

A)Dame Muriel Spark

B)Ian Rankin

C)Kenneth Grahame

D)Robert Burns

Tests on Literature

Directions: each of the questions or incomplete statements below is followed by five suggested answers or completions. Select the one that is best in each case.

1. A dreamer, ever tilting at windwills, he tries to reassure his long-suffering companion, Sancho Panza, telling him: 'And even if everything were to turn out exactly the opposite of what I imagine, no malice could ever obscure the glory of having kindled this endeavour.'

A) Grendel

B) Candide

C)King Arthur

D) El Cid

E) Don Quixote

2. I seye for me, it is a greet disese
   Wher-as men han ben in greet welthe and ese,
   To heren of hir sodeyn fal, allas!
   And the contrarie is Ioye and greet solas,
   As whan a man hath been in povre estaat
   And clymbeth up, and wexeth fortunat,
   And there abydeth in prosperitee,
   Swich thing is gladsom, as it thinketh me.

   - Chaucer

In line 3, ‘hir’ is best glossed as

A) them
B) they
C) their
D) her
E) hers

3. Which of the following is the best paraphrase of line 8?
A) I think of myself as somewhat glad about such things.
B) such a thing is heartening, it seems to me.
C) Such things are glorious, reminding me of them.
D) Switch from being glad to thinking of me.
E) Things are made better by thinking glad thoughts.
4. The passage alludes to the
A) great chain of being
B) Neoplatonic doctrine of recollection
C) theory of the humours
D) Biblical parable of the mustard seed
E) wheel of fortune

5. Which of the following is NOT associated with the 1890s?
A) The Yellow Book
B) The Rhymers Club
C) Thomas Carlyle
D) Oscar Wilde
E) Decadence

6. Which is written by William Carlos Williams?

7. Which is by Wallace Stevens?

8. Which is by Robert Frost?

A) The trees that have it in their pent-up buds
To darken nature and be summer woods –
Let them think twice before they use their powers
To blot out and drink up and sweep away
These flowery waters and these watery flowers
From snow that melted only yesterday.

B) I placed a jar in Tennessee,
And round it was, upon a hill.
It made the slovenly wilderness
Surround that hill.

C) I have seen them riding seaward on the waves
Combing the white hair of the waves blown back
When the wind blows the water white and black.

D) Now the grass, tomorrow
the stiff curl of wildcarrot leaf
One by one objects are defined –
It quickens: clarity, outline of leaf

But now the stark dignity of
entrance – Still, the profound change

has come upon them: rooted, they
grip down and begin to awaken.

E) The ‘age demanded’ chiefly a mould in plaster,
Made with no loss of time,
A prose kinema, not, not assuredly, alabaster
Or the ‘sculpture’ of rhyme.

9. His own motivations are entirely idealistic: ‘I thought that if I could bestow animation upon lifeless matter, I might in process of time (although I now found it impossible) renew life where death had apparently devoted the body to corruption.’ Finally, as he expires in the Arctic, he makes his most forceful statement on the dangers of scientific ambition, but he berates only himself and his own failures, while stating that others might well succeed.

The passage above is from a discussion of

A) Edgar Allan Poe’s *The Fall of the House of Usher*
B) Franz Kafka’s *Metamorphosis*
C) Ann Radcliffe’s *The Mysteries of Udolpho*
D) Joseph Conrad’s *Heart of Darkness*
E) Mary Shelley’s *Frankenstein*

10. Philip Larkin once said, ‘Deprivation is for me what daffodils were for Wordsworth.’ Larkin meant that, for him, deprivation was
A) a sound of anxiety
B) a stimulus to poetry
C) a transitory state

D) a petty distraction
E) an occasion for self-doubt

11. The novel he wrote about the lives of the Okies has come to symbolize the heartbreaking plight of the dispossessed. It has been called ‘a vivid parallel’ to the situation of the American homeless today, ‘a story of people at the bottom of the world.’

The novel under discussion above is

A) Hemingway’s *For Whom the Bell Tolls*
B) Dreiser’s *An American Tragedy*
C) Ellison’s *Invisible Man*
D) Lewis’ *Main Street*
E) Steinbeck’s *The Grapes of Wrath*

12. It seemed to Winterbourne that he had been in a manner presented. He got up and stepped toward the young girl, throwing away his cigarette. ‘This little boy and I have made acquaintances,’ he said, with great civility. In Geneva, as he had been perfectly aware, a young man was not at liberty to speak to a young unmarried lady except under certain rarely-occurring conditions; but here at Vevey, what conditions could be better than these? – a pretty American girl coming and standing in front of you in a garden. This pretty American girl, however, on hearing Winterbourne’s observation, simply glanced at him; she then turned her head and looked over the parapet, at the lake and the opposite mountains. He wondered whether he had gone too far; but he decided that he must advance farther, rather than retreat.

In line 2, ‘presented’ most nearly means

A) restricted

B) introduced

C) dismissed

D) approved

E) observed

13. In context, Winterbourne’s decision to ‘Advance farther’ means that he will

A) assume an attitude of haughty indifference

B) observe the code of manners of Geneva society

C) pursue a conversation with the young lady

D) get the little boy to speak to the young lady

E) change the residence from Geneva to Vevey

14. The ‘pretty American girl’ of the passage is

A) Cather’s Antonia

B) Nabokov’s Lolita

C) Crane’s Maggie

D) James’s Daisy Miller

E) Dreiser’s Carrie Meeber

15. If he do bleed,

I’ll gild the faces of the grooms withal,

For it must seem their guilt.

Which of the following is used in a double sense in these lines from *Macbeth*?

A) ‘bleed’

B) ‘faces’

C) ‘grooms’

D) ‘withal’

E) ‘guilt’

16. Which speaker is Robinson Crusoe?

17. Which speaker is Lemuel Gulliver?

18. Which speaker is Oroonoko?

19. Which speaker is Tom Jones?

A) And why (said he) my dear Friends and Fellow-sufferers, should we be Slaves to an unknown People? Have they vanquished us nobly in Fight? Have they won us in Honourable Battle? And are we by the Chance of War become their Slaves? This would not anger a noble Heart; this would not animate a Soldier’s Soul: no, but we are bought and sold like Apes or Monkeys, to be the sport of Women, Fools and Cowards, and the Support of Rogues and Runagades, that have abandoned their own Countries for Rapine, Murders, Theft and Villanies. Do you not hear every day how they upbraid each other with Infamy of Life, below the wildest Salvages? And shall we render Obedience to such a degenerate Race, who have no one human Vertue left, to distinguish them from the vilest Creatures?

B) I discover’d a Locker with Drawers in it, in one of which I found two or three Razors, and one Pair of large Sizzers, with some ten or a Dozen of good Knives and Forks; in another I found about Thirty six Pounds value in

Money, some *European* Coin, some *Brazil*, some Pieces of Eight, some Gold, some Silver.

I smile'd to me self at the Sight of this Money. O Drug! said I aloud, what art thou good for? Thou art not worth to me, no not the taking off of the Ground; one of those Knives is worth all this Heap; I have no Manner of use for thee, e'en remain where thou art, and go to the Bottom as a Creature whose Life is not worth saving. However, upon second Thoughts, I took it away…

C) Sure Fortune will never have done with me till she hath driven me to distraction. But why do I blame Fortune? I am myself the cause of all my misery. All the dreadful mischiefs which have befallen me are the consequences only of my own folly and vice. What thou hast told me, Partridge, hath almost deprived me of my senses! And was Mrs. Waters, then – but why do I ask? for thou must certainly know her – If thou hast any affection for me, nay, if thou hast any pity, let me beseech thee to fetch this miserable woman back again to me. Oh, good Heavens! Incest – with a mother!

D) I replied that England (the dear Place of my Nativity) was computed to produce three Times the Quantity of Food, more than its Inhabitants are able to consume, as well as Liquors extracted from Grain, or pressed out of the Fruit of certain Trees, which made excellent Drink; and the same Proportion in every other Convenience of Life. But, in order to feed the Luxury and Intemperance of the Males, and the Vanity of the Females, we sent away the greatest Part of our necessary Things to other Countries, from whence in Return we brought the Materials of Diseases, Folly, and Vice, to spend among ourselves. Hence it follows of Necessity, that vast Numbers of our People are

compelled to seek their Livelihood by Begging, Robbing, Stealing, Cheating, Pimping, Forswearing, Flattering, Suborning, Forging, Gaming, Lying, Fawning, Hectoring, Voting, Scribling, Stargazing, Poysoning, Whoring, Canting, Libelling, Free-thinking, and the like Occupations: Every one of which Terms, I was at much Pains to make him understand.

E) I told the Christian reader – I say Christian – hoping he is one – and if he is not, I am sorry for it – and only beg he will consider the matter with himself, and not lay the blame entirely upon this book, - I told him, Sir – for in good truth, when a man is telling a story in the strange way I do mine, he is obliged continually to be going backwards and forwards to keep all tight together in the reader's fancy – which, for my own part, if I did not take heed to do more than at first, there is so much unfixed and equivocal matter starting up, with so many breaks and gaps in it, - and so little service do the stars afford which, nevertheless, I hang up in some of the darkest passages, knowing that the world is apt to lose its way, with all the lights the sun itself at noonday can give it – and now, you see, I am lost myself! – But 'tis my father's fault; and whenever my brains come to be dissected, you will perceive, without spectacles, that he has left a large uneven thread, as you sometimes see in an unsalable piece of cambric, running along the whole length of the web.

20. By nature trees do rot when they are grown.
And plums and apples thoroughly ripe do fall,
And corn and grass are in their season mown,
And time brings down what is both strong and tall.
But plants new set to be eradicate,
And buds new blown, to have so short a date,
Is by His hand alone that guides nature and fate.

The stanza contrasts

A) sowing the seeds and reaping the harvest
B) the wages of sin and the rewards of righteousness
C) geologic time and the normal span of a human life
D) cycles of mutability in the natural world and the permanence of the afterlife
E) death as a result of natural process and death as a result of divine intervention

21. As used in line 5, 'eradicate' is
A) a present indicative
B) a past participle
C)a subjunctive mood
D) an infinitive form
E) an imperative form

22. The stanza is from
A) John Crowe Ransom's *Bells for John Whiteside's Daughter*
B) Walt Whitman's *When Lilacs Last in the Dooryard Bloom'd*
C) Emily Dickinson's *I felt a Funeral, in my Brain*
D) Wallace Stevens' *To an Old Philosopher in Rome*
E) Anne Bradstreet's *In Memory of My Dear Grandchild Elizabeth Bradstreet*

23. It happened this young imp to arrive at Naples… the very walls and windows whereof shewed it rather to be the Tabernacle of Venus than the Temple of Vesta. There was all things necessary and in readiness that might

either allure the mind to lust, or entice the heart to folly; a court more meet for an atheist than for one of Athens; for Ovid than for Aristotle; for a graceless lover than for a godly liver; more fitter for Paris than Hector, the meter for Flora than Diana.

John Lyly

Which of the following is used in a way that is no longer idiomatic?

A) ‘happened’

B) ‘the very walls’

C) ‘to be’

D) that might’

E) ‘either’

24. Flora here represents

A) health

B) wealth

C) chastity

D) licentiousness

E refinement

25. All of the following literary devices occur in the passage EXCEPT

A) litotes

B) allusion

C) alliteration

D) antithesis

E) parallelism

26. In order to secure my credit and character as a tradesman, I took care not only to be in reality industrious and frugal, but to avoid all appearances of the contrary. I dressed plainly; I was seen at no places of idle diversion; I never

went out a-fishing or shooting; a book, indeed, sometimes debauch'd me from my work; but that was seldom, snug, and gave no scandal: and to show that I was not above my business, I sometimes brought home the paper I purchas'd at the stores, thro' the streets on a wheelbarrow. Thus being esteem'd in industrious thriving young man, and paying duly for what I bought, the merchants who imported stationery solicited my custom, others propos'd supplying me with books, and I went on swimmingly.

The writer bases his discussion on the relationship between

A) credit and character
B) appearance and reality
C) failure and success
D) industriousness and frugality
E) borrowing and begging

27. In line 8, 'above' means
A) too busy with
B) tired of
C) superior to
D) overburdened by
E) unprepared for

28. In line 14, 'custom' means
A) tax
B) inspection
C) business

D) manners

E) recommendation

29. The author of the passage is

A) Thomas Shepard

B) Benjamin Franklin

C) Thomas Jefferson

D) Jonathan Edwards

E) Booker T. Washington

30. Tom Bertram had of late spent so little of his time at home, that he could be only nominally missed; and Lady Bertram was soon astonished to find how very well they did even without his father, how well Edmund could supply his place in carving, talking to the steward, writing to the attorney, settling with the servants, and equally saving her from all possible fatigue or exertion in every particular, but that of directing her letters.

The earliest intelligence of the travellers' safe arrival in Antigua after a favourable voyage, was received; though not before Mrs. Norris had been indulging in very dreadful fears, and trying to make Edmund participate them whenever she could get him alone; and as she depended on being the first person made acquainted with any fatal catastrophe, she had already arranged the manner of breaking it to all the others, when Sir Thomas's assurances of their both being alive and well, made it necessary to lay by her agitation and affectionate preparatory speeches for a while.

Of the five persons mentioned in the passage, which have traveled to Antigua?

A) Mrs. Norris and Edmund

B) Tom Bertram and Sir Thomas

C) Lady Bertram and Edmund

D) Mrs. Norris and Tom Bertram

E)Lady Bertram and Sir Thomas

31. The modern equivalent of the word ‘intelligence,’ as it is in line 10, is

A)awareness

B) ability

C) wit

D) news

E) intuition

32. Which of the following verbs is used in the passage in a way that is no longer idiomatic?

A) ‘received’

B) ‘trying’

C) ‘participate’

D) ‘depended’

E) ‘arranged’

33. The passage contrasts

A) Lady Bertram’s complacency with Mrs. Norris’ apprehensiveness and officiousness

B) Tom Bertram’s goodness and dependability with Edmund’s erratic behaviour

C)Sir Thomas’ profligacy with Mrs. Norris’ parsimoniousness

D) Edmund’s scholarliness with Mrs. Norris’ pedantry

E)Lady Bertram's intelligence and insight with Edmund's obtuseness and stubbornness

34. The author of the passage is

A) Henry Fielding

B) Jane Austin

C) Emily Bronte

D) George Eliot

E) Thomas Hardy

35. Written with surprising accuracy and realism, especially given that the author had never participated in war, ___ undercut the presumptions of glory and heroism that historians of the time brought to their accounts of seemingly every battle in the great national struggle.

Which of the following correctly completes the sentence?

A) Mailer's *The Naked and the Dead*

B) Heller's *Catch-22*

C) Hemingway's *A Farewell to Arms*

D) Faulkner's *Soldiers' Pay*

E) Crane's *The Red Badge of Courage*

36. Many of his plays build toward specific and irrevocable acts of aggression that lead to the pivotal characters' being either appropriated, like Stanley in *The Birthday Party*, or expelled, like Davies in *The Caretaker*.

The sentence above discusses

A) O'Neill

B) Brecht

C) Pinter

D) Bechett

E) Ionesco

37. The first sentence looks complete, but the lowercase opening is an indication that it is not. The beginning is to be found on the last page of the book, which hence does not end with a full stop: ‘A way a lone a last a loved a long the’

The passage above is from a description of

A) Pynchon’s *Gravity’s Rainbow*

B) Joyce’s *Finnegans Wake*

C) Woolf’s *To the Lighthouse*

D) Morrison’s *Song of Solomon*

E) Faulkner’s *The Sound and the Fury*

38. Alas! what ails poor Geraldine?
Why stares she with unsettled eye?
Can she the bodiless dead espy?
And why with hollow voice cries she,
‘Off, woman, off! this hour is mine –
Though thou her guardian spirit be,
Off, woman, off! ‘tis given to me.’

Geraldine can best be described as a

A) medusa

B) lamia

C) seraph

D) chimera

E) griffin

39. The author is

A) Gray

B) Blake

C) Poe

D) Browning

E) Coleridge

40. We are not now that strength which in old days
Moved earth and heaven, that which we are, we are;
One equal temper of heroic hearts,
Made weak by time and fate, but strong in will
To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield.

The speaker is

A) Tennyson's Ulysses

B) Marlowe's Faustus

C) Keats's Hyperion

D) Byron's Don Juan

E) Shakespeare's Lear

41. Without wiping away the tears, taking a deep breath, or even bending his knees – he leaped. As fleet and bright as a lodestar he wheeled toward Guitar and it did not matter which one of them would giver up his ghost in the killing arms of his brother. For now he knew what Shalimar knew: If you surrendered to the air, you could *ride* it.

The final image of the passage suggests

A) defiance
B) humility
C) defeat
D) transcendence
E) fear

42. The author is

A) Ernest Gaines
B) Sonia Sanchez
C) August Wilson
D) Toni Morrison
E) Zora Neale Hurston

43. The game the characters play in their shabby little bunker resembles an endless, stalemated chess match. Though Hamm can neither see nor stand, he barks out orders like a ham actor from his throne-like chair. The shuffling, whiningly obedient Clov cannot sit. The bond that connects the men may be that of king and knave, of father and son, of Godot's Pozzo and Lucky – or given the many Shakespearean allusions, of Lear and his fool, of Prospero and Caliban. The roles taken by Hamm and Clov parody the self-perpetuating roles that anyone must play to ward off the universe's meaninglessness, silence, and 'infinite emptiness.'

Prospero and Caliban appear in Shakespeare's
A) *The Taming of the Shrew*
B) *The Tempest*

C) *Measure for Measure*
D) *The Merchant of Venice*
E) *As You Like It*

44. The passage focuses on

A) denouement of the play
B) intricacies of the plot
C) relationship of the characters
D) hubris of the hero
E) catharsis achieved by the audience

45. The passage is from a discussion of

A) Beckett's *Endgame*
B) Ibsen's *A Doll's House*
C) Strindberg's *The Father*
D) Garcia Lorca's *Blood Wedding*
E) Albee's *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?*

46. Its author intended the book as 'a picture of myself.' And for the rest of his life – to the scandal of many – he actually referred to himself by the name of the novel or sometimes as 'Yorick,' the hapless preacher-jester who rides slowly through the story on a 'lean, jackass of a horse.' The scandal lay first in the book's sheer exuberant nonsense and mostly in its author's wildly suggestive indecency – this was a novel, after all, that began with the ill-timed question 'Pray my dear, have you not forgot to wind up the clock?'

The book described above is

A) Joseph Andrews
B) Pendennis
C) Don Quixote
D) David Copperfield
E) Tristram Shandy

47. If you're anxious for to shine in the high aesthetic
line as a man of culture rare,
You must get up all the germs of the transcendental
terms, and plant them everywhere.

Though the Philisitne may jostle, you will rank as an
apostle in the high aesthetic band,
If you walk down Piccadilly with a poppy or a lily in
your medieval hand.

The movement alluded to is most closely associated with which of the following?

A) Wordsworth, Coleridge, and De Quincey
B) Keats, Shelley, and Hazlitt
C) Wilde, Pater, and Whistler
D) Tennyson, Browning, and Arnold
E) T. S. Eliot, Pound, and T. E. Hulme

48. The passage implies that those 'anxious for to shine' are

A) botanists
B) soldiers
C) historians

D) rakes
E) poseurs

49. It is mainly the story of two young women, Amelia Sedley and Becky Sharp. Amelia, says Chesterton, suffers throughout the novel 'from that first watercolour sketch of the two schoolgirls, in which Amelia is all the water and Rebecca all the colour.'

The novel discussed above is

A) Dickens' *Great Expectations*
B) Lawrence's *Women in Love*
C) Austen's *Emma*
D) Thackeray's *Vanity Fair*
E) Woolf's *The Waves*

50. Identify the author of the work. Base your decision on the content and style of the passage.

The poets of the seventeenth century, the successors of the dramatists of the sixteenth, possessed a mechanism of sensibility which could devour any kind of experience. They are simple, artificial, difficult, or fantastic, as their predecessors were; no less nor more than Dante, Guido Cavalcanti, Guinicelli, or Cino. In the seventeenth century a dissociation of sensibility set in, from which we have never recovered; and this dissociation, as is natural, was aggravated by the influence of the two most powerful poets of the century, Milton and Dryden.

A) Wallace Stevens

B) Ezra Pound

C) Edith Wharton

D) William Carlos Williams

E) T. S. Eliot

51. Midas, they say, possessed the art of old
Of turning whatsoe'er he touched to gold;
This modern statesmen can reverse with ease –
Touch *them* with gold, *they'll turn to what you please*.

Which of the following best describes the lines above?

A) They satirize venal politicians.

B) They commend the diplomacy of modern statesmen.

C) They predict a world in which materialism will vanish.

D) They deride those who adopt poverty as a way of life.

E) They purport to present rules of good behaviour.

52. 'A frivolous society can acquire dramatic significance only through what its frivolity destroys,' she writes. And in this 'society of irresponsible pleasure-seekers' that she satirizes in *The House of Mirth*, holding it partly accountable for the death at 28 of the beautiful, luxury-loving, moneyless heroine, Lily Bart.

The 'she' referred to above is

A) Virginia Woolf

B) Iris Murdoch

C) Katherine Anne Porter

D) Edith Wharton

E) Margaret Drabble

53. According to the author, 'The line of demarcation and stratification between the rich and the poor in Lycurgus was as sharp as though cut by a knife or divided by a high wall.' This sense of a greatly superior life lived by the rich and their offspring, and of his slim chance of sharing in it, causes Clyde Griffiths, the poor nephew of Samuel Griffiths (the collar-manufacturing tycoon of Lycurgus), to plan to drown his pregnant and proletarian sweetheart.

The passage above is from a discussion of

A) Crane's *The Red Badge of Courage*

B) Dreiser's *An American Tragedy*

C) Hawthorne's *The Marble Faun*

D) Fitzgerald's *Tender Is the Night*

E) Hemingway's *The Sun Also Rises*

54. GRACE

How much, preventing God! how much I owe
To the defenses thou hast round me set:
Example, custom, fear, occasion slow,
These scorned bondmen were my parapet.
I dare not peep over this parapet
To gauge with glance the roaring gulf below,
The depths of sin to which I had descended,
Had not these me against myself defended.

----- Ralph Waldo Emerson

In the context of this poem, ‘preventing’ means

A) condemning
B) ignoring
C) evading
D) enticing
E) anticipating

55. In line 3, ‘Example, custom, fear, occasion slow’ served to

A) provide security for the speaker’s financial obligations
B) earn the speaker’s contempt for their servility
C) make the speaker too timid to express original ideas
D) restrain the speaker’s self-destructive impulses
E) shield the speaker from guilty recollections

56. His hero Septimus Harding, a benign clergyman, plunges into a crisis of soul when the sensational press unjustly assails him as an avaricious wastrel. No sooner has this tiny storm abated than the new bishop, Dr. Proudie, arrives with his despotic wife and slimy, ambitious chaplain, Obadiah Slope.
The passage above is from a discussion of novels by
A) Dickens
B) Trollope
C) Fielding
D) Thackeray
E) James

Questions 57-59 refer to the following works.

A) *The House of the Seven Gables*

B) *The House of Life*

C) *The Fall of the House of Usher*

D) *Bleak House*

E)*Heartbreak House*

57. Which is by Nathaniel Hawthorne?

58. Which is by Charles Dickens?

59. Which is by Edgar Allan Poe?

60. You seldom find him making love in any of his scenes or endeavoring to move the passions; his genius was too sullen and saturnine to do it gracefully, especially when he knew he came after those who had performed both to such an height. Humour was his proper sphere: and in that he delighted most to represent mechanic people. He was deeply conversant in the ancients, both Greek and Latin, and he borrowed freely from them. But he has done his robberies as openly, that one may see he fears not to be taxed by any law.

Which of the following accurately describes the passage above?

A) Arnold is discussing Wordsworth.

B) Dryden is discussing Jonson.

C) Swift is discussing Pope.

D) Shelley is discussing Shakespeare.

E) Eliot is discussing Milton.

Chapter 9

Sport

The United Kingdom has given birth to a range of major international sports including: association football, rugby (union and league), cricket, netball, darts, golf, tennis, table tennis, badminton, squash, bowls, rounders, modern rowing, hockey, boxing, snooker, billiards, curling and even baseball. This had meant that in the infancy of many sports, England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland formed among the earliest separate governing bodies, national teams and domestic league competitions. After 1922 some sports formed separate bodies for Northern Ireland though some continued to be organised on an All-Ireland basis.

As a result, notably in certain teams sports such as association football and Rugby, but also in the multi-sport Commonwealth Games, international sporting events are contested not by a team representing the United Kingdom, but by teams representing the separate "home nations". At Olympic level, however, the United Kingdom is represented by a single national organising committee the British Olympic Association, and competes as Great Britain and Northern Ireland (although some Northern Ireland athletes are eligible for, and compete on behalf of, Ireland).

For more information on most sports you may wish, therefore, to consider reading the Sport in England, Scotland, Wales or Northern Ireland articles.

Major individual sports include athletics, golf, Cycling, motorsport, and horse racing. Tennis is the highest profile sport for the two weeks of the Wimbledon Championships, but otherwise struggles to hold its own in the country of its birth. Many other sports are also played and followed to a lesser degree. There is much debate over which sport has the most active participants with swimming, athletics, cycling all found to have wider active

participation than association football in the 2010 Sport England Active People survey

Popularity[



Association footballer David Beckham

Sport	TV Viewing	Participating	Interested In
Association football	90%	65.5%	85%
Rugby Union	21%	0.78%	25%
Tennis	18%	1.8%	23%
Cricket	80%	78%	75%
Athletics	18%	7.8%	23%
Snooker	10%	0.1%	11%
Motor racing	13%	NA	18%
Rugby League	12%	0.2%	15%
Boxing	11%	0.5%	14%
Golf	11%	2.5%	16%
Darts	9%	0.2%	8%
Swimming	NA	9.4%	NA
Gym	NA	11%	17%
Badminton	NA	1.8%	NA
Squash	NA	0.8%	NA

Watersport	NA	0.03%	NA
Field Hockey	NA	0.4%	8%
Lawn Bowls	NA	0.6%	NA

Tests

1. How often do you play sports?
2. What is your favourite sport?
3. Do you play any sport professionally?
4. Are you a member of any sports team ?
5. What sports are you good at?
6. Do you like to exercise ?
7. Do you go jogging?
8. Do you like team sports ? What are your favourite team sports?
9. Do you watch sports on TV?
10. Can you swim?
11. What sports did/do you play in school?
12. What is your favourite winter sport?
13. What is your favourite summer sport?
14. What sport is the most dangerous ?
15. What sport is the most expensive ?
16. Have you ever tried any extreme sport ?
17. What do you think about extreme sports?
18. What new sports would you like to try?
19. What is the most popular sport in your country?
20. Who is your favourite sportsman/sportswoman?
21. Are there any sportsmen/sportswomen in your country that are successful worldwide ?
22. Are there good sports facilities in your city/town/village?

Creative assignments. Make a list of idioms which come from the world of sport.

Do sport quizzes. They are available at https://www.englishclub.com/esl-games/vocabulary/crossword-sports-1.htm

Chapter 10

Mass media

The media play a central role in Britain's daily life, informing and educating, questioning and challenging – and of course – entertaining. In recent years the availability of more radio frequencies, together with satellite, cable and microwave transmissions, has already made a greater number of local, national and international services possible. The transition from analogue to digital transmission technology is now expanding this capacity enormously. The Internet is providing, increasingly, an additional medium for information, entertainment and communication.

Television and Radio

Broadcasting in Britain has traditionally been based on the principle that it is a public service accountable to people. While retaining the essential public service element, it now also embraces the principles of competition and choice:

· the BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), which broadcasts television and radio programmes;

· the ITC (Independent Television Commission), which licenses and regulates commercial television services, including cable and satellite services.

· the Radio Authority, which licenses and regulates commercial radio services, including cable and satellite.

The three bodies work to broad requirements and objectives defined and endorsed by Parliament, but are otherwise independent in their daily conduct of business.

Television viewing is by far Britain's most popular leisure pastime: over 97 per cent of households have at least one TV set. British television productions are sold world – wide.

BBC

The BBC provides two complementary national terrestrial television networks: BBC 1 and BBC 2, which transmit 24 hours a day. It also provides a range of digital channels, including BBC News 24 and BBC Choice. BBC Network Radio serves an audience of 29 each week, transmitting 24 hours a day on its five national networks. BBC has 39 local radio stations serving England and the Channel Islands, and regional and community radio services in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. BBC World Service broadcasts by radio in English and 42 other languages world – wide. It has a global weekly audience of at least 140 million listeners. BBC Worldwide Television is responsible for the BBC's commercial television activity. It is one of Europe's largest exporters of television programmes. It also runs an advertiser – funded, 24 – hour international news and information channel; and an entertainment and drama channel broadcast to subscribers in continental Europe and Africa.

The BBC's domestic services are financed predominantly from the sale of annual television licences; there are no paid advertisements. BBC World Service radio is funded by a government grant, while BBC Worldwide Television is self – financing.

Independent Television

The ITC licenses and regulates three commercial television services – Channel 3 and Channel 4 (in Wales the corresponding service is S4C), which complement each other, and Channel 5 – all financed by advertising and sponsorship. Channel 3 programmes are supplied by 15 regionally based licensees and an additional licensee providing a national breakfast – time service. Licences for Channel 3 and 5 are awarded for a ten – year period by competitive tender to the highest bidder who has passed a quality threshold.

Independent Radio

Independent radio programme companies operate under licence to the

Radio Authority and are financed mainly by advertising revenue. There are three independent national services: Classic FM, broadcasting mainly classical music; Virgin 1215, playing broad – based rock music; and Talk Radio UK, speech – based service. About 200 independent local radio services are also in operation. Stations supply local news and information, sport, music and other entertainment, education and consumer advice.

Teletext, Cable and Satellite Services

The BBC and independent television both operate a Teletext service, under which information is displayed as "pages" of text and graphics on receivers equipped with the necessary decoders.

Cable services are delivered through underground cables and are paid for subscription. Cable franchises have been granted covering areas comprising 83 per cent of all homes and nearly all urban areas in Britain. In mid – 1999 there were about 12.1 million homes able to receive such services, and 3 million subscribing homes. Digital technology is being introduced which will support up to 500 television channels. Cable also has the capacity for computer – based interactive services, such as home shopping and email.

Many British – based satellite television channels have been set up to supply programmes to cable operators and viewers with satellite dishes. Some offer general entertainment, while others concentrate on specific areas of interest, such as sport, music, children's programmes and feature films. The largest satellite programmer is BSkyB (British Sky Broadcasting) which, with around 7 million subscribers, dominates paid – for television in Britain. It launched its digital satellite service in 1998, carrying more than 140 channels.

Satellite television and cable services are funded mainly by subscription income.

The Press

National newspapers have an average total circulation of over 13 million on weekdays and about 14 million on Sundays, although the total

readership is considerably greater. There are 10 national morning daily papers and 10 national Sundays – five "qualities", two "mid – market" and three "populars". There are about 1,350 regional and local newspapers, and over 7,000 periodical publications.

There is no state control or censorship of the newspaper and periodical press, which caters for a range of political views, interests and level of education. Where they express pronounced views and show obvious political leanings in their editorial comments, these may derive from proprietorial and other non – party influences.

A non – statutory Press Complaints Commission deals with complaints by members of the public about the content and conduct of newspapers and magazines, and advises editors and journalists. In 1995, the Government rejected proposals for statutory regulation of the press and for legislation to give protection to privacy. Instead, it endorsed self – regulation under the Commission and recommended tougher measures to make self – regulation more effective.

Working practices throughout the newspaper industry have become more efficient with the widespread used of advanced computer – based technology. Publishers have been able to reduce production costs by using computer systems for editing and production processes.

Mass media

Getting information is one of daily necessities of a human being. The main source of information for millions of people is mass media. Mass media includes newspapers and magazines, advertising and radio, and, of cause, television. They influence the way people look at the world and make them change their views. Some people say, "News is not what happens – it is what you see or read in mass media". In other words, mass media shapes public opinion.

Millions of people watch TV and read newspapers and magazines in their spare time. Television dominates one's life if the family watches it most of the time. Television informs, educates and entertains people, but it is also a habit-forming drug impossible to result.

Various TV shows, such as quiz, and music programs attract a large audience. During TV quiz programs the questions are answered by the viewers at home.

Then there are daily TV serials known as soap operas. Some people find them boring; others consider them to be good entertainment and relaxation.

There is also a lot of advertising on TV. A lot of commercial firms buy the time to advertise their goods and services. Advertising often annoys the general public. A films, a goo basketball or football match may be interrupted several times with advertisements for a soap powder or new perfume.

Some people say there is too much violence on television, which has a bad influence on young viewers.

There is now more crime and violence in our society than ever before. Everyone is worried. Everyone is scared to go out at night. Old people are scared to walk round the corner to the local shops. There are dangerous times we live in. This is also the time when more and more people are watching violent films on television. Certainly, there is a direct connection between the films that people watch on TV and the violence that is in the streets. In the other words, it is television that is teaching people how to be violent. Little by little, television cuts us off from the real world. We get so lazy, we choose to spend a fine day in semi-darkness, rather than go out into the world itself. Television may be a splendid medium of communication, but it prevents us from communicating with each other.

But it is hardly fair that TV doesn't try to raise the cultural level of

the people or develop their artistic taste. Many TV programs are excellent: they are made in good taste and with great professional skill. TV is very close friend of many people who are lonely or suffer from different diseases and cannot leave their home. In this case TV is a unifying force.

There are some channels in Russia, such as Channel 1, Russia, TNT, STS, NTV, REN-TV etc.

British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and the Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA) control broadcasting in the United Kingdom. The BBC receives its income from the government, but the private companies controlled by the IBA earn money from advertising.

Some people think that the only way to be in the known of everything is to read newspapers and magazines.

Newspapers are packed with the latest news, information, fashion and facts. They cater to a variety of political views, interests and levels of education.

There are two main types of newspapers in Great Britain: the "popular" papers and the "quality" papers.

The popular papers are less in size, with many pictures, big headlines and short articles. They are easy to read. They are such papers as "Daily Express", "Daily Mirror", "Daily Star", "The Sun" and others.

The "quality" papers are for more serious readership. These papers are bigger in size, with larger articles and more detailed information. The "quality" papers are – "The Times", "Daily Telegraph", "Financial Times" etc.

Creative assignments. Read the article "Mass Media and Its influence on society" By M. A Mughal. (available at http://thedailyjournalist.com/pen-and-pad/mass-media-and-its-influence-on-society/)

Do you agree with the thesis that in the last five decades or so, the media and its influence on the societies, has grown exponentially with the advance of technology? Why? Why not?

Chapter 11

British accents and dialects

To speak of the British accent, in most parts of the world, means to speak of an extremely formal type of English known as Received Pronunciation (RP) or "The Queen's English". What may come as a surprise to those visiting the UK for the first time is how uncommon this accent is amongst the British population, including those in positions of authority. Indeed, there are an incredible number of different British accents on this small island, indicating not only which part of the country the speaker is from, but also providing some idea of their upbringing and social class. For people outside of the UK some regional accents will be almost impossible to understand and it is quite useful for anyone studying English to gain as much exposure to different types of British accent as possible; this is particularly true if you aim to study or work here.

The difference between British accents and dialects

It is useful to first distinguish between accent and dialect. When we talk about accent, we are focusing on pronunciation. Dialect concerns not only pronunciation, but also expressions and phrases exclusive to certain regions. For an idea of the variations in dialect vocabulary one only has to consider the fifteen different names for the humble bread roll. This can prove confusing even for the native population. Indeed, anyone hoping for a sweet treat rather than a sandwich should avoid asking for a "barm cake" or "stottie cake" in the North of England.

Whilst it is *usually* possible for a native British English speaker to understand the accent of someone from another part of the country, particularly strong regional accents will sometimes be accompanied by subtitles- even in documentaries broadcast to a UK audience. It could be argued that dialects present a greater barrier to understanding than accents on their own. Although

people encounter a variety of different British accents simply by watching television, their exposure to regional dialects is less.

Many Youtube users from the UK (and all around the world!) have uploaded videos of themselves reading from a list of words and answering a few simple questions to provide others with an idea of both pronunciation and dialect in their region. Check out a couple of examples from Liverpool in the north and Bristol in the south of England.

The north-south divide: bath or baaath?

Perhaps the easiest indicator of which part of the country a person comes from is their pronunciation of the "a" sound in words such as "bath" and "grass". The "long a", which has been compared to the sound a person makes when the doctor examines their throat, is almost exclusively found in the South East of England. In contrast, using the short "a" for these words (/æ/ as in cat) tends to identify the speaker as coming from north of Hemel Hempstead, or thereabouts. People from the South West and East Anglia tend to use a combination of these sounds. However, regional accents are very hard to detect in people who have had a middle/upper class upbringing. This phonological map of the UK provides more detail on the differences in pronunciation by region.

British Accents[10]

The United Kingdom is probably the most dialect-obsessed nation in the world. With countless accents shaped by thousands of years of history, there are few English-speaking nations with as many varieties of language in such a small space.

Here is a list of the most important types of British English. While this is not a complete list by any means, it will give you an overview of the

[10] British Accents .Available at http://dialectblog.com/british-accents/

accents and dialects most often discussed on this site and elsewhere.

Received Pronunciation

Received Pronunciation is the closest to a "standard accent" that has ever existed in the UK. Although it originally derives from London English, it is non-regional. You've probably heard this accent countless times in Jane Austen adaptations, Merchant Ivory films, and Oscar Wilde plays. It emerged from the 18th- and 19th-Century aristocracy, and has remained the "gold standard" ever since.

Features:

Non-rhoticity, meaning the r at the ends of words isn't prounounced (mother sounds like "muhthuh").

Trap-bath split, meaning that certain a words, like bath, can't, and dance are pronounced with the broad-a in father. (This differs from most American accents, in which these words are pronounced with the short-a in cat.

The vowels tend to be a bit more conservative than other accents in Southern England, which have undergone significant vowel shifting over the past century.

Speech Samples:

Actress Dame Judi Dench

Former prime minister Margaret Thatcher

Author Christopher Hitchens

Cockney

Cockney is probably the second most famous British accent. It originated in the East End of London, but shares many features with and influences other dialects in that region.

Features:

Raised vowel in words like trap and cat so these sounds like "trep" and "cet."

Non-rhoticity: see explanation above under Received Pronunciation, above.

Trap-bath split: see explanation above under Received Pronunciation.

London vowel shift: The vowel sounds are shifted around so that Cockney “day” sounds is pronounced IPA dæı (close to American “die”) and Cockney buy verges near IPA bɒı (close to American “boy”).

Glottal Stopping: the letter t is pronounced with the back of the throat (glottis) in between vowels; hence better becomes IPA be?ə (sounds to outsiders like “be’uh”).

L-vocalization: The l at the end of words often becomes a vowel sound Hence pal can seem to sound like “pow.” (I’ve seen this rendered in IPA as /w/, /o,/ and /ɯ/.)

Th-Fronting: The th in words like think or this is pronounced with a more forward consonant depending on the word: thing becomes “fing,” this becomes “dis,” and mother becomes “muhvah.”

Speech Samples:

Actor Ray Winstone

Heavy metal rocker Steve Harri

Estuary English (Southeast British)

Estuary is an accent derived from London English which has achieved a status slightly similar to “General American” in the US. Features of the accent can be heard around Southeast England, East Anglia, and perhaps further afield. It is arguably creeping into the Midlands and North.

Features:

Similar to Cockney, but in general Estuary speakers do not front th words or raise the vowel in trap. There are few hard-and-fast rules, however.

Glottal stoppingof ‘t’ and l-vocalization (see above) are markers of this

accent, but there is some debate about their frequency.

Speech Samples:

Comedian Russell Brand

Celebrity Chef Gordon Ramsay

Comedian Ricky Gervais

West Country (Southwest British)

West Country refers to a large swath of accents heard in the South of England, starting about fifty miles West of London and extending to the Welsh border.

Features:

Rhoticity, meaning that the letter r is pronounced after vowels. So, for example, whereas somebody from London would pronounce mother as "muthah," somebody from Bristol would say "mutherrr". (i.e. the way people pronounce the word in America or Ireland).

Otherwise, this is a huge dialect area, so there's tons of variation.

Speech Samples:

Comedian Stephen Merchant

Archaeologist Phil Harding (from Wiltshire)

Comedian Justin Lee Collins (Another Bristol Accent) (also from Bristol)

Midlands English

Midlands English is one of the more stigmatized of Englishes. Technically, this can be divided into East Midlands and West Midlands, but I won't get into the differences between the two just now. The most famous of these dialects is Brummie (Birmingham English).

Features:

The foot-strut merger, meaning that the syllable in foot and could is pronounced with the same syllable as strut and fudge. (IPA ʊ).

A system of vowels otherwise vaguely reminiscent of Australian accents, with short i in kit sometimes verging toward IPA kit (“keet”) and extremely open “loose” dipthongs.

A variety of unusual vocabulary: some East Midlands dialects still feature a variant of the word “thou!”

Speech samples:

Geezer Butler of Black Sabbath

Northern England English

These are the accents and dialect spoken north of the midlands, in cities like Manchester, Leeds, and Liverpool. Related accents also found in rural Yorkshire, although there are some unique dialect features there that I won’t get into now.

Features:

The foot-stut merger: (see the Midlands description above).

Non-rhoticity, except in some rural areas.

The dipthong in words like kite and ride is lengthened so that kite can become something like IPA ka:ɪt (i.e. it sounds a bit like “kaaaait”)

Unique vocab includes use of the word mam to mean mother, similar to Irish English.

Speech Samples:

Bernard Sumner, of New Order

Actor/comedian Craig Charles

Singer Joe Cocker

Geordie

Geordie usually refers to both the people and dialect of Newcastle-Upon-Tyne, in Northeast England. The word may also refer to accents and dialects in Northeast England in general. I would classify this as a separate region from the rest of Northern England because it’s so radically different

from the language spoken in nearby cities.

Features

The foot-stut merger(see the Midlands description above).

Non-rhoticity (in the cities at least)

The /ai/ dipthong in kite is raised to IPA ɛɪ, so it sounds a bit more like American or Standard British “kate.”

The /au/ dipthong in “about” is pronounced IPA u: (that is, “oo”) in strong dialects. Hence bout can sound like “boot.”

Speech Samples:

Singer Cheryl Cole

This video gives a good idea of the “classic” Geordie accent”

Welsh English

This refers to the accents and dialects spoken in the country of Wales. The speech of this region is heavily influenced by the Welsh language, which remained more widely spoken in modern times than the other Celtic languages.

Features:

Usually non-rhotic.

English is generally modelled after Received Pronunciation or related accents, but with many holdovers from the Welsh language.

Syllables tend to be very evenly stressed, and the prosody of the accent is often very “musical”.

The letter r is often trilled or tapped.

Some dialect words imported from the Welsh language.

Speech Samples:

Singer Tom Jones

Actor Rhys Ifans

Rocker Gruff Rhy (Cardiff Accent)

Scottish English

This is the broad definition used to describe English as it is spoken in the country of Scotland. Note that Scottish English is different than Scots, a language derived from Northumbrian Old English that is spoken in Scotland as well. That being said, Scots has a strong influence on how English in Scotland is spoken.

Features:

Rhotic, with trilled or tapped r's.

Glottal stopping of the letter t when in between vowels (similar to Cockney and related accents).

Monopthongal pronounciations of the /ei/ and /ou/ dipthongs, so that that face becomes IPA fe:s and goat becomes IPA go:t.

Speech Samples:

Actor Peter Mullan (Glasgow)

Actor Ewen Bremner (Edinburgh)

Conclusion

This list is woefully incomplete. I can't count the smaller dialect areas that aren't covered here (East Anglia, Urban Cardiff, Cornish English, Northumberland, etc.) However, I've attempted to list the accents and dialects you'll see referenced the most on this blog and elsewhere.

Test.

How well do you know your cockney rhyming slang?

(https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/quiz/2012/mar/29/cockney-rhyming-slang-quiz)

1.Porky pies means

a) Thighs
b) Lies
c) Goodbyes

2.Derby Kelly means ...

a) Telly
b) Belly
c) Smelly

3.Mince pies means …

a) Eyes
b) Ties
c) Lies

4.Cat and mouse means ...

a) Spouse
b) House
c) Louse

5.Deaf and dumbs means …

a) Plums
b) Sums
c) Slums

6.Donkey's ears means …

a) Fears
b) Tears
c) Years

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Timeline of English history

1st century BC[11]

Year	Date	Event
55 BC		Roman General Julius Caesar invaded Great Britain for the first time, gaining a beachhead on the coast of Kent.
54 BC		Caesar invaded for the second time, gaining a third of the country. These two invasions are known as Caesar's invasions of Britain.

Centuries: 1st ·2nd ·3rd ·4th ·5th ·6th ·7th ·8th ·9th ·10th ·11th ·12th ·13th · 14th ·15th ·16th ·17th ·18th ·19th ·20th

1st century

Year	Date	Event
43		Aulus Plautius led an army of forty thousand invading Great Britain. Emperor Claudius makes Britain a part of the Roman Empire. This is known as the Roman conquest of Britain.

2nd century

- c. **120**
- Car Dyke constructed over newly drained East Anglian Fens.
- Governor Quintus Pompeius Falco suppresses a revolt by the Brigantes.
- Stationed for several years in Eboracum – present-day York, in northern England – Rome's Ninth Legion suddenly vanished from the records in AD 120
- **122**
- Emperor Hadrian visits Britain and appoints Aulus Platorius Nepos as governor.
- Construction of Hadrian's Wall begins.
- Construction of London forum completed.
- **130**
- Town centre of Wroxeter redeveloped.
- **139**
- Newly appointed Governor Quintus Lollius Urbicus advances to the Clyde-Forth line, reconstructing Corstopitum as a base.
- **142**
- Emperor Antoninus Pius orders the construction of the Antonine Wall.
- **154**
- Governor Gnaeus Julius Verus suppresses a revolt by the Brigantes.

[11] Timeline of English history. available at https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Timeline_of_English_history

- Antonine Wall overrun.
- **155**
- Fire destroys much of central St Albans.
- **158**
- Refortification of Hadrian's Wall begins.
- **160**
- Antonine Wall reoccupied.
- **163**
- Antonine Wall abandoned. Governor Sextus Calpurnius Agricola rebuilds forts along Hadrian's Wall.
- **175**
- 5,500 conscripted Sarmatian cavalry stationed in northern Britain.
- **180**
- Northern tribes breach Hadrian's Wall and ravage the countryside.
- Governor Ulpius Marcellus launches punitive campaigns to the north.
- **185**
- Marcellus forced to retreat to Hadrian's Wall.
- Roman army in Britain mutinies. Helvius Pertinax appointed as governor, and suppresses mutiny.
- **187**
- Pertinax resigns, after becoming unpopular with the army
- **192**
- Clodius Albinus, Governor of Britain, briefly proclaimed Emperor, but instead acquiesces to the rival claim of Septimius Severus.
- **196**
- Albinus proclaims himself "Augustus" and invades Gaul, seeking to overthrow Severus.
- **197**
- 19 February - Albinus defeated at the Battle of Lugdunum in Gaul; Severus appoints Virius Lupus as governor.
- Maeatae launch raids against Hadrian's Wall.

3rd century

- **206**
- Governor Lucius Alfenus Senecio repairs Hadrian's Wall and appeals for help from the Emperor against the northern tribes.
- **208**
- Emperor Septimius Severus and his son Caracalla take personal command of the army in Britain
- **209**

- Severus and Caracalla lead an expedition against the Caledonii, and build forts at Cramond and the Tay estuary.
- **210**
- Caracalla leads an expedition against the rebellious Maeatae tribe.
- **211**
- 4 February - Severus dies at York, while preparing another expedition against the northern rebels
- Caracalla, now Emperor, abandons territory north of Hadrian's Wall, and returns to Rome.
- c. **214**
- Britain divided into two provinces, Britannia Superior and Britannia Inferior, with administrative centres at London and York respectively.
- c. **220**
- Saxons raid south-east coast; forts built at Reculver and Branodunum (Brancaster)
- **255**
- Work begins on a riverside wall in London
- **259**
- Rebel leader Latinus Postumus proclaims Britain as part of his "Empire of the Gauls".
- **270**
- Construction of forts along the Saxon Shore begins in response to increased raiding.
- **273**
- Stone walls built around St Albans
- **274**
- Postumus' Gallic Empire is reabsorbed into the Roman Empire under Aurelian.
- **277**
- Imperial edict lifts restrictions on British wine production.
- General Victorinus puts down revolt, and settles Burgundian and Vandal prisoners in Britain.
- Britannic Empire 286-296
- **287**
- Mausaeus Carausius takes power in Britain and proclaims himself Emperor
- **289**
- Carausius defeats Emperor Maximian in a naval battle.
- **293**
- Finance minister Allectus murders Carausius and seizes power; employs Frankish mercenaries.
- **296**

- Julius Constantius defeats Britons near Silchester, killing Allectus; prevents retreating Franks from sacking London.
- **297**
- Re-building of forts near Hadrian's Wall begins.
- Constantius returns to Gaul.
- First mention on record of the Picts attacking from the north in Eumenius' Panegyrici Latini.

4th century

Year	Date	Event
368		Great Conspiracy: A year-long series of raids by the Picts and Saxons began, which forced the Roman abandonment of Hadrian's Wall and caused the death of their military commander Fullofaudes.
383		Romans began to withdraw from Great Britain.

5th century

Year	Date	Event
410		Picts from the north, Gaels from the west and the Saxons, who had been a nuisance to the Romans for 50 years, attacked the unprotected British Celts.
449		The Angles, Saxons, Jutes, and Frisians began to occupy Great Britain. Led by Hengist. (Marks the beginning of Old English)

6th century

Year	Date	Event
500		Beginning of Heptarchy (Seven kingdoms Kent, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria.)
597		Saint Augustine of Canterbury arrived in England to begin the conversion of the English, by baptizing King Ethelbert of Kent, thus introducing the influence of Latin.

7th century

Year	Date	Event
664		The Synod of Whitby aligned the English with Roman rather than Celtic Christianity. (How to celebrate

		holidays such as Easter and perform practices within the Church.)

8th century

Year	Date	Event
716		Æthelbald becomes King of Mercia, marking the beginning of that kingdom's ascendancy over the other Saxon realms.
730		The venerable Bede produced the ecclesiastical history of the English people.
757		Offa becomes King of Mercia, to rule until 796.
787		The Scandinavian invasion began with raids along the northeast sea coast.
793		Vikings raided Lindisfarne.

9th century

Year	Date	Event
825		Battle of Ellendun: King Egbert of Wessex defeats the Mercians, ending the Mercian Supremacy.
842		Vikings raid London, Rochester, and Southampton.
878		*Battle of Ethandun*: A Viking defeat took place which would result in the Treaty of Wedmore and the establishment of the Danelaw.
895		A Danish fleet was captured by Alfred the Great.

10th century

Year	Date	Event
910	5 August	Battle of Tettenhall
927		Æthelstan **unites** the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy into the **Kingdom of England**.
937		Battle of Brunanburh
980		Vikings begin a new wave of raids on England.
991	10 August	Battle of Maldon: Danes defeat the English army. Payment of Danegold.

11th century

Year	Date	Event
1016		Cnut the Great of Denmark becomes king of all England.

1043		Edward the Confessor becomes king of all England.
1054		The Great Schism/Split of the Roman Catholic Church
1066		*Battle of Fulford*: English forces were defeated by Norse invaders in northeastern England.
		Battle of Stamford Bridge: The remaining Norse under Harald Hardrada were defeated by the bulk of England's army under the command of its king.
		Battle of Hastings: England's remaining forces were defeated by invaders from Normandy. This was known as the Norman Conquest, which causedWilliam the Conqueror to be crowned king of England and permanently changed the English language and culture.
1086		Work commenced on the Domesday Book.

12th century

Year	Date	Event
1135		The Anarchy began, a civil war resulting from a dispute over succession to the throne that lasted until 1153.
1138		The Battle of the Standard, an engagement in which the English defeated an invading Scottish army led by King David I.
1164		The Constitutions of Clarendon, a set of laws which governed the trial of members of the Catholic Church in England, were issued.
1170		Archbishop of Canterbury Thomas Becket was assassinated.
1192		*Crusades*: King Richard I was captured by Austrian Duke Leopold V, Duke of Austria while returning from the Holy Land.
1194		Richard was ransomed and returned to England.

13th century

Year	Date	Event
1209		King John was excommunicated from the Catholic Church by Pope Innocent III.
1215		The Magna Carta was signed.

1237		The Treaty of York was signed, fixing the border between Scotland and England.
1264		*Battle of Lewes*: Rebel English barons led by Simon de Montfort, 6th Earl of Leicester defeated King Henry III.
1267		Henry recognised the authority of Llywelyn ap Gruffudd in Gwynedd.
1277		England annexed Gwynedd.
1279		The Statute of Mortmain was issued.
1287		Rhys ap Maredudd led a revolt against English rule in Wales.
1294		Madog ap Llywelyn led a revolt against English rule in Wales.
1297		*Battle of Stirling Bridge*: The Scots, led by William Wallace, defeated the English.

14th century[edit]

Year	Date	Event
1305		William Wallace was executed by the English on a charge of treason.
1314		*Battle of Bannockburn*: Scotland won a decisive victory over England.
1328		The Treaty of Edinburgh-Northampton, under which England recognised Scottish independence, was signed.
1348		The Black Death arrived in England.
1356		*Battle of Poitiers*: First of the three major battles of the Hundred Years' War took place near Poitiers, France.
1381		*Peasants' Revolt*: Also called Wat Tyler's Rebellion or the Great Rising, was a major uprising across large parts of England led by Wat Tyler.
1392		The Statute of Praemunire 1392 was issued.

15th century[edit]

Year	Date	Event
1403	21 July	*Battle of Shrewsbury* was a battle waged between an army led by the Lancastrian King, Henry IV, and a rebel army led by Henry "Harry Hotspur" Percy from Northumberland.[6]

1415	25 October	*Battle of Agincourt* was a major English victory in the Hundred Years' War[a] that occurred on Saint Crispin's Day, near modern-day Azincourt, in northern France.
1485		Battle of Bosworth Field (Battle of Bosworth): the last significant battle of the Wars of the Roses, the civil war between the Houses of Lancaster and York. Richard III, the last Plantagenet king was killed, succeeded by Henry VII.
1487		*Battle of Stoke* was the decisive engagement in an attempt by leading Yorkists to unseat Henry VII of England in favour of the pretender Lambert Simnel.

16th century[edit]

Year	Date	Event
1513		*Battle of Flodden Field*: Invading England, King James IV of Scotland and thousands of other Scots were killed in a defeat at the hands of the English.
1521		Lutheran writings begin to circulate in England.
1526		Lord Chancellor Cardinal Thomas Wolsey ordered the burning of Lutheran books.
1529		King Henry VIII severed ties with the Catholic Church and declared himself head of the church in England.
1534		Henry VIII issued the Act of Supremacy.
		Henry VIII issued the Treasons Act 1534.
1535		Thomas More and Cardinal John Fisher were executed.
1536		William Tyndale was executed in Antwerp.
		Henry VIII issued the Dissolution of the Monasteries.
1549		*Prayer Book Rebellion*: A rebellion occurred in the southwest.
1553		The Act Against Sectaries 1553 was issued.
1559		The Act of Supremacy 1559 was issued.
1571		The Treasons Act 1571 was issued.
		The Act Prohibiting Papal Bulls from Rome 1571 was

		issued.
1588	8 August	The Spanish Armada was destroyed.
1589		The English Armada (*or Counter Armada*) was defeated by Spain.
1593		The Act Against Papists 1593 was issued.

17th century[edit]

Year	Date	Event
1601		Catholic plot against the Earl of Essex Includes some of the plotters from the gunpowder plot
1603		King James VI of Scotland ascends to the English throne, becoming James I of England and uniting the crowns - but not the parliaments - of the two kingdoms
1605	5 November	*Gunpowder Plot*: A plot in which Guy Fawkes and other Catholic associates conspired to blow up King James VI and I and the Parliament of Englandwas uncovered.
1618		Walter Raleigh was executed.
1639		*Bishops' Wars*: A war with Scotland began which would last until 1640.
1640		*Long Parliament*: The Parliament was convened.
1642		The English Civil War began (see timeline of the English Civil War).
1649	January	*Trial and execution of Charles I*
1649		*Interregnum* began with the First Commonwealth
1653 - 1659		*the Protectorate* under the Lord Protector Oliver Cromwell and later (1658) his son Richard Cromwell
1659		*Second Commonwealth* a period of great political instability
1660		*Restoration of the monarchy: After a chaotic short revival of the Commonwealth of England, the monarchy was restored in May 1660, after*

		agreeing to the Declaration of Breda, largely through the initiative of General George Monck.
1666	2–5 September	*Great Fire of London* : A major conflagration that swept through the central parts of London.
1688		Glorious Revolution:[7] Also called the **Revolution of 1688**, was the overthrow of James II by a union of English Parliamentarians with the Dutchstadtholder William III of Orange-Nassau (William of Orange).

18th century[edit]

Year	Date	Event
1701		The Act of Settlement 1701, which required the English monarch to be Protestant, was passed.
1702	8 March	William III died and was succeeded by Anne.
1704	4 August	Gibraltar was captured by a combined Dutch and English fleet under the command of Admiral of the Fleet George Rooke.
	13 August	*Battle of Blenheim*: A combined English and Dutch army under the command of John Churchill, 1st Duke of Marlborough defeated the French army in Bavaria.
1706	22 July	The Treaty of Union was agreed between representatives of the Parliament of England and the Parliament of Scotland.
1707		The Acts of Union 1707 were passed in the Parliament of England and Parliament of Scotland, ratifying the Treaty of Union.
	1 May	The Kingdom of Great Britain came into being.[8][9][10][11]
1713	11 April	Signing of the Treaty of Utrecht ends the War of the Spanish Succession.
1714	1 August	Queen Anne dies. Accession of George I, Elector of Hanover.
1719		*Battle of Glen Shiel*: A Spanish invasion force and

		their Jacobite allies were defeated.
1744		An attempted French invasion of southern England was stopped by storms.
1755		Samuel Johnson published his *A Dictionary of the English Language*.
1764		The Castle of Otranto was written, which was the first ever story classed as a gothic horror story.
1775	19 April	American War of Independence begins.
1779		The world's first iron bridge was built in Shropshire.
1783	4 September	American War of Independence ends with Treaty of Paris.

19th century[edit]

date	**event**		1805		Naval Battle of Trafalgar 21st October.
1807		The Slave Trade Act 1807 was passed.			
1815		*Napoleonic Wars*: The Napoleonic Wars ended.			
1819		*Peterloo Massacre*: A massacre took place.			
1825		The Stockton and Darlington railway, the world's first public passenger railway, opened.			
1829		The Catholic Relief Act 1829 was passed.			
1832		The Great Reform Act was passed, doubling the franchise.			
1834		The New Poor Law was passed.			
1838		The Slavery Abolition Act 1833 entered into force.			
		The Chartism movement began.			
1842		The first peacetime income tax			

		was introduced.
1846		The Corn Laws were repealed.
1848		*The Communist Manifesto* was published.
		The Chartism movement ended.
1859		*On the Origin of Species* was published
1863		The first underground train went into operation in London.
1867		The 1867 Reform Act doubled the franchise.
1868		The last public execution was carried out.
1870		The Education Act 1870 was passed, introducing universal education.
		Religious dissenters and women were first allowed to enter the Universities of University of Oxford andCambridge.
1880		The Elementary Education Act 1880 was passed, making primary schooling compulsory and extending it to girls.
1884		The Reform Act 1885 was passed.
1896		The *Daily Mail* was first published.

20th century[edit]

Year	Date	Event
1914	4 August	*World War I*: Great Britain declares war on Germany.
1918	11 November	*World War I* ended.

1936	5–31 October	The *Jarrow March* protest.
1939	3 September	British entry into *World War II*.
1945	8 May	*World War II* ended in Europe.
1948	5 July	The National Health Service came into being.
1952	6 February	Death of King George VI. Accession of Queen Elizabeth II (beginning of second Elizabethan era).
1965	24 January	Death of Winston Churchill.
1966	30 July	England wins the FIFA World Cup.
1973	1 January	Joined European Union.
1982	11 October	The *Mary Rose* was raised from the seabed.
1994	6 May	The Channel Tunnel opened.

21st century[edit]

Year	Date	Event	
2004		The population of England reaches fifty one million.	
2005	7 July	A series of co-ordinated terrorist bombings strikes London's public transport system during the morning rush hour, killing more than fifty people and injuring hundreds.	
2012	25 Jul - 12 Aug	London hosts the Olympic Games for the third time.	
2015	9 September	Queen Elizabeth II becomes longest-reigning UK monarch.	
2016	23 June	The United Kingdom votes to leave the EU.	2016 13 July. Theresa May becomes second female Prime Minister.

78 Interesting Facts About . . .
the United Kingdom

1. The word “Britain” is derived from the name of a Celtic tribe, the Brythons.[t]
2. The word “England” comes from “Angle-land,” or land of the Angli, or Angles, a Viking tribe that came across the North Sea and settled in the east and north. The French name for England, Angleterre, also literally means “Land of the Angles."[t]
3. At its zenith in the 18th century, the British Empire stretched 20% of the world’s surface and contained a quarter of the world’s population.[l]



Windsor Castle was built by William the Conqueror in A.D. 1080 and is the oldest continually inhabited royal residence in Britain

4. Windsor Castle is the largest royal home in the world. It is also the oldest continually inhabited royal residence in Britain, having been built by William the Conqueror around A.D. 1080.[cc]
5. For the British, the position of monarch probably ranks as one of history’s least safe occupations. English kings have been killed in battle (Harold), beheaded (Charles I), assassinated (William II), murdered by a wicked uncle (Edward V), and knocked off by the queen and her lover (Edward II).[l]
6. Nowhere in England is more than 75 miles (121 km) from the sea.[s]

7. London is one of only two cities above the 50th parallel with a population of more than five million. Moscow is the other.[q]
8. Among European countries, only Ireland and Finland have a higher rate of heartattacks than Britain.[o]
9. The United Kingdom recently named chicken tikka masala as its national dish, which is a spicy curry created in Britain and is unheard of in India itself.[y]
10. According to the Soil Association, a leading organic-food campaign, more than 85% of the people in Britain want pesticide-free food.[l]
11. The New England Historic Genealogical Society in both Britain and the United States estimates that up to 50 million Americans can trace their ancestry back to King Edward III.[z]
12. The first fish and chips restaurant was opened in 1860 in London by a Jewish immigrant named Joseph Malin.[c]



Every day, the British drink 165 million cups of tea, more than 20 times that of the average American

13. Every day, the British drink 165 million cups oftea, which is over 20 times more than the average American.[l]
14. Prince William once paid $320 (£200) for Kate Middleton during a "slave auction" at a Harry Potter-themed party.[j]
15. When she married Prince William at age 29, Catherine Middleton became the oldest spinster ever to marry a future British king. She and Prince William are also distantly related (12th cousins).[x]
16. About 30% of today's Londoners were born outside the United Kingdom.[r]
17. There is only a 21-mile (34-km) gap between England and France, and the countries are connected by the Channel Tunnel, which opened in 1994. It is the world's second longest underground tunnel; Japan's Seikan Tunnel is the first.[h]
18. Britain has an annual cheese-rolling competition that involves running

down Coopers Hill after a Double Gloucester round. The winner gets to keep the cheese.[k]

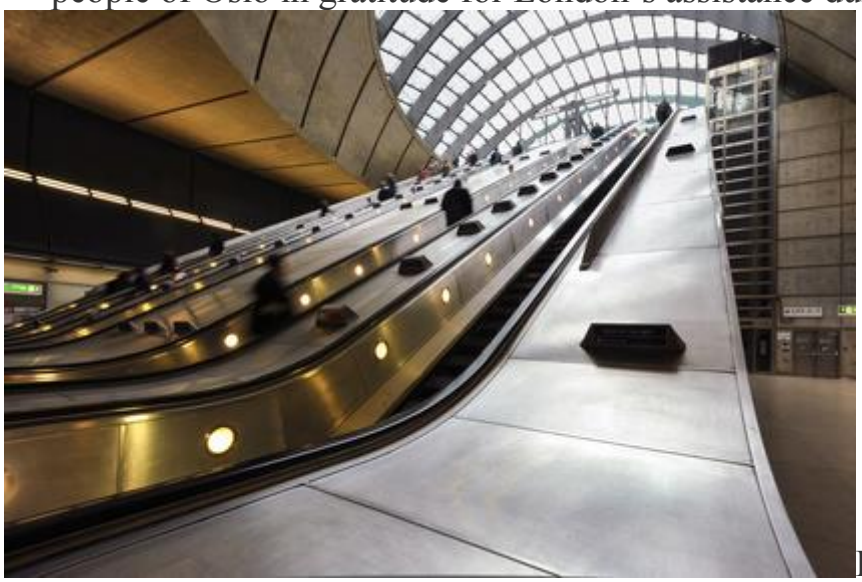
19. Big Ben does not refer to the famous clock, but actually to the bell.[p]
20. It is thought that St. Patrick may have brought the early knowledge of whisky distilling from Ireland around the mid-5th century. The Scots call it *uisque baugh* in Gaelic, or "water of life," and it is one of the United Kingdom's top five exports, along with cars, computers, aircraft, and oil.[bb]
21. The full, official name of the Tower of London is "Her Majesty's Royal Palace and Fortress of London." It is home to the Queen of England's jewels. Among the 25,578 gems is the 530-carat Cullinan diamond at the top of the Royal Sceptre, the largest part of what was (until 1985) the largest diamond ever found.[l]

There is a British legend that says there must be 6 ravens in residence at all times at the Tower of London, or else the British Monarchy and Tower will fall

22. The most celebrated residents of the Tower of London today are the ravens. There must be six ravens in residence at any one time by a Royal Decree put in place by Charles II. According to an old legend, if the birds should leave, the British Monarchy and the White Tower will crumble and fall. To be on the safe side, the Tower usually keeps eight birds at all times.[l]
23. It is illegal to import haggis from the UK into the U.S., as the American government has declared that sheep lungs are unfit for human

consumption.[ee]

24. The 1.5-mile journey from Westray to Papa Westray in the UK's Orkney Islands is the shortest scheduled flight in the world. The trip takes less than two minutes.[ee]
25. Britain's most remote pub is the Old Forge on Inverie, Scotland. It is 107 miles (172 km) from the nearest city, Inverness, and has no road access.[ee]
26. Champagne was invented in England by scientist Christopher Merret in 1662.[f]
27. An estimated 2 billion people around the world viewed the wedding ceremony of Prince William and Catherine Middleton on April 29, 2011.[i]
28. James Bond's code "007" was inspired by the author Ian Fleming's bus route from Canterbury to London.[l]
29. The Ghost Research Foundation has determined that with 500 recorded cases of ghostly encounters, York is the most haunted city in England and one of the most haunted in the world.[m]
30. Kate Middleton is an eighth cousin seven times removed to the first U.S. President George Washington and a thirteenth cousin once removed from American World War II hero General George Patton.[dd]
31. More languages (300) are spoken in London than in any other country in the world.[a]
32. The Christmas tree in Trafalgar Square is presented every year by the people of Oslo in gratitude for London's assistance during World War II.[aa]



London's "Tube" has 409 escalators which cover a distance roughly equivalent to several trips around the world

33. The London subway, or the "Tube," is one of the oldest in the world. The 409 escalators in the Tube cover a distance every week which is approximately equivalent to several trips around the globe.[b]
34. A new breed of mosquito was found in the Tube tunnels in 1998. Scientists

believed it mutated from the bird-biting form that colonized the London Underground when it was built in last century and, as it would not mate with its aboveground cousin, it has evolved into a separate species.[w]

35. The most famous of all British pop bands, and maybe in the world, "The Beatles" were once known as "Johnny and the Moondogs." Johnny was, of course, John Lennon. He legally changed his middle name from Winston (after Winston Churchill) to Ono in honor of his then girlfriend and later wife, Yoko Ono.[e]
36. Britain is the only country in the world which doesn't have its name on its postage stamps.[g]
37. Over 27 tons (59,523 lb.) of strawberries and 7,000 liters (1,849 gal.) of cream are consumed every year during the two weeks of Britain's Wimbledon Tennis Championships.[l]
38. The sport of football, or soccer, supposedly got its start in England when Anglo-Saxon farmworkers plowing a field unearthed the skull of a Danish warrior killed in battle a few years earlier. To show their still bitter feelings towards the Danes and to amuse themselves, they began kicking the skull among them. This early form of football was called "kicking the Dane's head."[u]
39. As far back as the Anglo-Saxons, the English brewed and drank beer in great quantities. A favorite drink was mead, ale mixed with honey. A record of taxes on beer in the late 1600s indicates the average Englishman drank three quarts per week.[u]
40. English Cockneys call the telephone "dog and bone" and a wife "trouble and strife."[u]
41. Six of the 10 wettest counties in the UK are in Scotland. Almost every low-pressure system that barrels east out of the North Atlantic passes over Scotland.[s]
42. Nazi officer Rudolf Hess was the last prisoner held in the Tower of London, for four days in 1941.[u]
43. Until 1832, England only had two universities: Oxford and Cambridge.[v]

The Queen of England is the only British citizen who travels without a passport

44. Queen Elizabeth II travels with her own toilet seat and feather pillows, and she is the only person in Britain who travels without a passport. She is also the only person for whom Harrods used to close its doors to the public for one day a year so she could do her Christmas shopping.[bb]
45. Queen Elizabeth II feeds her corgis herself with fillet of beef from a silver platter with a silver fork. A royal "pooper scooper" takes care of the "afters" with a different sort of platter and gets paid to do to his duties full-time![bb]
46. The famous stone London Bridge of "London Bridge is falling down" fame was eventually replaced by a stronger concrete version, and its original stones were taken to the United States and reassembled to make a bridge over a river in Lake Havasu, Arizona.[v]
47. Guglielmo Marconi did not invent radio, but he was the first to invent a radio transmitter. When he could not find a buyer in Italy, he turned to England, his mother's country, and on July 27, 1896, he gave the first-ever public demonstration of a radio. He won the Nobel Prize for Physics in 1909 and on July 21, 1937, the day of his funeral, radio transmitters went silent for two minutes in tribute.[e]
48. The British coronation ceremony is over 1,000 years old. Since the coronation of William the Conqueror on Christmas Day in A.D. 1066, Westminster Abbey has been the setting. The coronation of Queen Elizabeth II in 1953 was the first to be televised.[cc]
49. The historical King Arthur may have been Magnus Maximus, or Prince Macsen of Welsh legend, who was one of the greatest figures in Britain toward the end of the Roman Empire. He was also an uncle by marriage of the Welsh King, Coel Godhebog, who is believed to be the Old King Cole of nursery rhymes.[l]
50. Probably built around 3000 B.C., Stonehenge has stood on England's Salisbury Plain for more than 5,000 years and is older than the famous

Great Pyramids of Egypt.[l]

51. Golf is Scotland's national game. It was invented on the grounds of St. Andrews, and the earliest record of the game dates from 1457, when James II banned it because it interrupted his subjects' archery practice. Mary, Queen of Scots, enjoyed golf and was berated in 1568 for playing so soon after the murder of her husband Lord Darnley.[cc]
52. At the end of the 19th century, an eager hill walker named Sir High Munro published a list of 545 Scottish mountains measuring over 3,000 feet (914 m) high. New surveys have revised this to 283. Today, any Scottish mountain over the magical 3,000-ft mark is called a "Munro," and many hill walkers now set themselves the target of "bagging," or summiting all 283. By 2010, 4,500 people had bagged all 283 "Munros."[l]
53. In medieval times, Magpie Lane was Oxford, England's red light district, where the "nymphs of the pavement" would tout for business. The street was previously called Gropecunt Lane.[l]



The London Eye is the tallest observation wheel in the world, and its 330-lb hub weighs more than 20 times the weight of Big Ben

54. The London Eye is the tallest observation wheel in the world, and each rotation takes about 30 minutes. Its hub weighs 330 tons, more than 20 times the weight of Big Ben.[r]
55. The artistic antihero Banksy is now world famous for his guerrilla graffiti and stencil street art, but his true identity is a closely guarded secret. It is generally believed he was born in 1974 in Yate, 12 miles from Bristol, England. His documentary,*Exit through that Gift Shop*, about an L.A. street artist, was nominated for an Oscar in 2011.[l]
56. England's Much Wenlock games, held annually since 1850, are based on

the games of ancient Greece and were brainchild of the town's local doctor William Penny Brookes. In 1890, Baron Pierre Coubertin visited the games and consulted Brookes extensively, before launching the modern Olympic Games in Athens in 1896. Brookes was effectively left out of the story until 1994, when Juan Antonio Samaranch, then IOC president, visited Much Wenlock and paid tribute to Dr. Brookes as the "founder of the Modern Olympic Games."[l]

57. Robin Hood was most likely never a real person. He was a composite hero, based on real outlaws in the English medieval period whose stories were woven together by minstrels and storytellers. It was only at the end of the 16th century that playwright Antony Munday elevated Robin Hood from a yeoman to a displaced Saxon earl as a symbol of the gentry's dissatisfaction with the crown.[1]
58. On the chilly day of his execution, England's dethroned King Charles II reportedly wore two shirts to avoid shivering and being regarded as a coward.[1]
59. The Cornish pasty was originally a mix of cooked vegetables (now available in meat varieties too) that tin miners in Cornwall, England, carried underground and left on a ledge, ready for mealtime. So the pasties weren't mixed up, they were each marked with their owners' initials. Before going back to the surface, the miners traditionally left the last few crumbs of the pasty as a gift for the spirits of the mines, known as "knockers," to ensure a safe shift the next day.[1]
60. In the 16th century, Britain's Queen Elizabeth I decreed that mutton could be served only with bitter herbs, intending to stop people from eating the sheep in order to help the wool trade. Her subjects discovered mint sauce improved the taste of the meat, and it's been a favorite condiment for roast lamb ever since.[1]
61. The word "pub" is short for "public house," and the tradition has only officially been around since the 19th century. However, places selling beer have been around for much longer, and the "oldest pub in Britain" is a hotly contested title. One of Britain's oldest pubs, with the papers to prove it, is Ye Olde Trip to Jerusalem in Nottingham, which was serving ale to departing crusaders in the 12th century. The Royalist Hotel in Stow-on-the-Wold in Gloucestershire claims to have been selling beer since around A.D. 947, while another pub, Ye Fighting Cocks in St. Albans (Hertfordshire), claims to date back to the 8th century, although 13th seems more likely.[1]
62. Until 1877, lecturers at Oxford University were not allowed to marry, and women were not granted degrees until 1920.[y]
63. In 2012, British author E.L. James' *Fifty Shades of Gray* became the fastest-selling paperback ever. Journalists were delighted to report on the beating and outstripping of previous record holder *Harry Potter*.[1]

J.K. Rowling is one of only 5 female billionaires in the world, and her Harry Potter books have sold 400 million copies around the world

64. J.K. Rowling, author of the Harry Potter books, is the first writer in the world to become a billionaire. The seven books have sold a total of 400 million copies in her native England and around the world and are published in 55 languages, including Latin and ancient Greek. Rowling is only one of five self-made female billionaires in the world.[n]
65. Many of the inhabitants of the Isle of Man argue that it is not a part of England, nor even the United Kingdom. They say that they have their own government, Tynwald, arguably the world's oldest democrat parliament, which has run continuously since the year 979.[y]
66. Cardiff, Wales, is home to the world's oldest record shop, Spillers, founded in 1894.[y]
67. Wales is actually home to a town called Llanfairpwllgwyngyll-gogerychwyrndrobwllllllandysiliogogogoch, which translates as "St. Mary's Church in the hollow of the white hazel near a rapid whirlpool and the Church of St. Tysilio near the cave." It is commonly shortened to Llanfairpwill.[y]
68. According to a group of revisionist scholars and literary figures known as "Anti-Stratfordians," William Shakespeare did not write his famous plays and sonnets at all, but his name was simply a nom de plume. One of the wildest theories is that Sir Francis Bacon was the author. U.S. congressman Ignatius Donnelly once proposed that the word "honorificabilitudninitatibus," which appears in *Love's Labour Lost*, was actually an anagram for the Latin "Hi ludi F Baconis nati tuti orbi," or "These plays, F. Bacon's offspring, are preserved for the world."[d]
69. Completed in 2012, London's The Shard, at 1,107 feet (350 m), is Europe's tallest building.[i]
70. Cheshire, the oldest named English cheese, has appeared on English menus since Roman times.[m]

71. London's smallest house, 3 feet wide (0.9 m) at its narrowest point, is located at 10 Hyde Place, now part of Tyburn Convent. Despite being such a small target, it was still damaged by German bombs during World War II.[r]
72. Halloween is one of many traditions that have their roots in Scottish pagan tradition. On October 31, Halloween used to be celebrated as All Hallows, or All Saints' Day. This was also an important date on the Celtic calendar, celebrated as Samhuinn (the Feast of the Dead), during which spirits are said to come back to haunt the living. On Halloween in Scotland today, trick-or-treating is called *guising*. Originally, the *guisers*had to sing or recite a poem to earn a reward or sweets.[o]
73. Gretna Green, the Scottish town nearest the English border, has a reputation as "Scot-land's Las Vegas." Many young couples from England choose to dash across the border to get married there because under Scottish law, people do not need to get their parents' consent at the age of 16, whereas in England, parental consent is required until one is 18.[o]



There have been over 1,000 reported sightings of the Loch Ness monster with the last one being on November 2, 2011

74. Loch Ness is the largest body of fresh water in the United Kingdom. It is even deeper than the North Sea and it never freezes. Its most famous resident, the Loch Ness monster, or Nessie, may be a plesiosaur. There have been over 1,000 reported sightings, with the last one being on November 2, 2011.[t]
75. William Burke and William Hare are the world's most notorious body snatchers. Over a 12-month period during 1827–1828, they murdered over a dozen people in Edinburgh, Scotland, and sold their corpses to a local anatomy school desperate for fresh bodies to dissect.[o]
76. Golf isn't Scotland's only homegrown sport. The sport of *shinty*, or *camanachd* in Gaelic, was introduced by Irish missionaries over 2,000

years ago. It is a fast passing game played between two teams for 90 minutes and looks like a cross between field hockey, golf, and rugby. One theory says that the curved sticks, called *camans*, that are used by the players inspired the invention of the golf club.[s]

77. Nearly 28 million Americans define themselves as having Scottish ancestry, including the Bush presidents. Other famous Americans with Scottish blood include Theodore Roosevelt, Jack Daniels, John Wayne, Marilyn Monroe, and Jim Morrison.[y]
78. Scottish Gaelic is one of only four Celtic languages to survive into the modern age. Welsh, Breton, and Irish Gaelic are the other three.[s]

Date	Events
2200 B.C.	The building of Stonehenge begins.
700	Celtic tribes begin invasion of Britain.
55–54	Britain invaded by Romans led by Julius Caesar. He introduces chickens to the British Isles.
450	Angles, Saxons, and Jutes begin invasion of Britain.
793	Viking raiders destroy the monastery at Lindisfarne.
937	Athelstan becomes first king of a united England.
9th century	Kenneth McAlpin declares himself ruler of both the Scots and the Picts and unites Scotland north of the Firth of Forth into a single kingdom.
1017	Canute becomes first Danish king of England.
1050	Edward the Confessor begins building Westminster Abbey.
1066	William, Duke of Normandy, defeats King Harold of England at the Battle of Hastings and becomes the first of the Norman kings.
1135	Civil war breaks out when King Henry I dies

	without an heir.
1154	Henry II becomes first Plantagenet King of England and ruler of Angevin empire. He introduces system of common law which is still used in England today.
1170	Archbishop Thomas Becket is murdered in Canterbury Cathedral by four of Henry II's knights.
1215	Rebellious barons force King John to sign the Magna Carta.
1249	The first Oxford college, University College, is founded.
1295	Edward I summons first representative English parliament.
1337	The Hundred Years' War with France begins when English King Edward III claims throne of France.
1349–1351	The Black Death kills one-third of the population of England.
1380s	Geoffrey Chaucer begins writing *The Canterbury Tales*.
1453	The French defeat English at the Battle of Castillon, which marks the end of the Hundred Years' War.
1455	The War of the Roses breaks out between the houses of Lancaster and York.
1474	William Caxton publishes the first book printed in England, *The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye*.
1497	John Cabot becomes the first English explorer to visit the New World.
1534	King Henry VIII breaks with the Roman Catholic Church.
1558	Elizabeth I becomes queen.
1577	Sir Francis Drake embarks on voyage to

	circumnavigate the globe.
1585	Sir Walter Raleigh establishes the first English colony in Roanoke, Virginia.
1588	English navy defeats the Spanish Armada.
1592	William Shakespeare's first play, *Henry VI*, is performed.
1603	Elizabeth I dies and is succeeded by James I, first Stuart king and first ruler of a unified British Isles.
1605	Guy Fawkes and his group of Catholic sympathizers attempt to carry out the failed bombing of the House of Lords on November 5th.
1611	The King James Version of the Bible is published.
1620	Pilgrims set sail in the Mayflower for New England.
1649	Charles I is executed; period of English Commonwealth begins under Oliver Cromwell.
1660	Charles II takes up the throne to begin the Restoration. He orders the body of Oliver Cromwell dug up.
1666	Great Fire destroys much of London.
1688	The Glorious Revolution ousts James II and brings William of Orange and his wife Mary to the throne.
1714	Queen Anne dies; George I becomes first Hanoverian king.
1745–1746	"Bonnie Prince Charlie" Stuart is defeated at Culloden in Scotland. This also marks the end of the Scottish clan system.
1776	American colonies formally declare independence from England.

1782	James Watt invents the steam engine, signaling the start of the Industrial Revolution.
1783	American Revolutionary war ends when England formally gives up the colonies in the Treaty of Paris. Last of British troops evacuate New York, ending British rule in America.
1788	The English establish a colony in Australia.
1801	First British national census is taken.
1813	Duke of Wellington defeats the French under Napoleon Bonaparte at the Battle of Waterloo.
1829	Sir Robert Peel creates the first English police force, known as "bobbies," in his honor.
1833	Slavery is outlawed in the British Empire.
1837	Victoria becomes queen, opening what will become the longest royal reign in English history. The British Empire reaches the height of its power.
1851	Charles Dickens writes *David Copperfield*.
1863	The London Underground ("the Tube") is opened.
1870	Education Act establishes first state schools; schools are made compulsory for all children to age 11.
1884	Telephones are introduced to Britain.
1888	First football game between Celtic and Rangers takes place in Glasgow.
1909	Lord Robert Baden Powell forms the "British Boy Scouts."
1912	The RMS *Titanic* sinks.
1914–1918	World War I takes place.
1919	The right to vote is given to British women over the age of 30.
1921	Ireland is divided into the Irish Free State (later the Republic of Ireland) in the south and

	Ulster in the north.
1922	First national radio service begins.
1926	Britain's first-ever strike takes place: a 9-day walkout in support of the coal miners. The workers lose.
1928	Vote is given to all men and women over 21.
1931	Great Depression hits England.
1936	First scheduled television service begins.
1939	World War II begins; England declares war on Germany.
1948	National Health Service is established.
1953	Elizabeth II is crowned in Westminster Abbey.
1963	The Beatles become the world's most popular musical group.
1973	England joins the European Economic Community.
1979	Margaret Thatcher is elected Britain's first, and so far only, female prime minister.
1981	Prince Charles of Wales marries Lady Diana Spencer in a "fairy tale" wedding at St. Paul's Cathedral.
1982	England defeats Argentina in a war over Falkland Islands.
1992	Elizabeth II agrees to pay taxes for the first time.
1994	The Channel Tunnel (a.k.a. the Chunnel), under the English Channel, is opened, linking England and France.
1997	Mad Cow Crisis happens in United Kingdom.
2003	Britain joins the U.S. and other countries in the "Coalition of the Willing" to invade Iraq, despite large anti-war protests.

2005	The Civil Partnership Act comes into effect, allowing same-sex couples to have legal recognition of their relationships.
2011	Prince William marries Catherine Middleton in Westminster Abbey.
2012	London becomes the only city to host an Olympic games three different times.
2014	Scottish citizens vote “Nay” on the referendum for independence and decide to keep Scotland a part of the United Kingdom.

Glossary of Country Study terms and abbreviations

Albion (Ancient Greek: Ἀλβιών) is the oldest known name of the island of Great Britain. Today, it is still sometimes used poetically to refer to the island.

Assimilation is a policy of integrating an 'ethnic minority' group into the majority society through educational practices that make no concessions to the language and culture of that group.

Assisted Places Scheme (APS) A policy implemented where it was possible for pupils to transfer from maintained to independent schools with the government paying part of the fees

Bachelor of Education (BEd) A first degree leading to a teaching qualification after a three or four year course involving periods of teaching practice.

A **bank holiday** is a public holiday in the United Kingdom.

The **Beefeaters** are ceremonial guardians of the Tower of London. They are the **Yeomen Warders** of Her Majesty's Royal Palace and Fortress the Tower of London, and Members of the Sovereign's Body Guard of the Yeoman Guard Extraordinary.

Boxing Day is a public holiday in the United Kingdom, Canada, New Zealand and Australia.

The **British Isles** are a group of islands off the north-western coast of continental Europe that consist of the islands of Great Britain, Ireland and over six thousand smaller isles.

Catchment Area A geographical area from which a school accepts its pupils.

Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE) The former second tier of examination commonly used in secondry mdoern schools; ceased to exist upon arrival of GCSE in 1988 Child-Centred Education A notion of teaching

emphasised in the Plowden Report (1967), also referred to as progressive education. Teaching is based on the child's needs, learning style and personality and not just his or her academic achievements.

Comprehensive school A secodary school for for all children regardless of ability.Department for Education and Science (DES) which was responsible for education in England and Wales.

City of London or Square Mile is an original central city of London, now primarily a financial and banking center.

Cockney is a Londoner born in a particular small area of east London, within hearing the bells of Bow Church.

Comprehensive school A secodary school for for all children regardless of ability.Department for Education and Science (DES) which was responsible for education in England and Wales.

Danelaw is the area controlled by the Viking (Danes and Norsemen) from the 9th to the late 11th century, comprising about half of England.

Domesday Book is an extremely comprehensive survey and inventory made by the Normans after they took control of England.

Easter Bunny is an Americanized version of the ancient fertility symbol of a hare.

The **East End** is traditionally the home of the true Londoner, the Cockney, this is an area of close communities that now reflects the melting-pot of nationalities and cultures that makes up our capital city. The East End sits outside of the traditional **Roman boundaries of the City of London**.

The **Industrial Revolution** was the transition to new manufacturing processes in the period from about 1760 to sometime between 1820 and 1840.

Iron Lady is the nickname of Margaret Hilda Thatcher (13 October 1925 – 8 April 2013) was the first female Prime Minister of the United Kingdom from 1979 to 1990.

Normans are descendants of the mixed Scandinavian and Frankish people, inhabiting Normandy in France from the 10th century, who invaded England in 1066.

Public schools are private, fee-paying schools, despite the name.
Dispersal The policy of re-locating 'immigrant' pupils and their families to avoid creating ethnic 'clusters' of population
Eleven-Plus (11-plus) Examination taken by children at about age 11. The results determined which schools children were sent to. Only the top 20-25% went to what was considered to be the best schools, the grammar schools.
EPA Educational Priority Area; geographical area of social deprivation
ESL English as a Second Language; the current terminology is EAL
EAL English as an Additional Language
Fifth year From the former secondary school age-group labelling system. now year 11
Further Education (FE) Post-school education apart from that given in universities.
GCE General Certificate of Education
HMI Her Majesty's Inspectorate
Independent schools Public or private fee-paying schools that are independent of state intervention or funding from central government
Inner London Education Authority Established in 1964 after the merger of the London (ILEA)
County Council with the Greater London Council. It was the largest LEA in the UK responsible for school and colleges in inner London Boroughs.. Abolished in the 1988 Education Reform Act.
ITT MFL booklet: A Recent History of Primary and Secondary Education in England 24In-Service Training of Teachers Continuing education and training for teachers. (INSET) topromote their ongoing professional development and extend their knowledge and skill base.
Integration Education of children with special educational needs (SEN) alongside those in ordinary schools.
Local Education Authority (LEA) Part of the local government structure responsible for running state education in a particular geographical area in England and Wales.

Mixed ability teaching Children of different levels of ability taught together in the same class

New Commonwealth Former British colonies, excluding English speaking countries

NFER National Foundation for Educational Research

NUT National Union of Teachers, a major teacher Trades Union

Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) Established in 1992 to improve standards of achievement and quality of education through regular independent inspection, public reporting and informed independent advice.

Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) Organisation of parents and teachers at a particular school. Main activities include fund raising and organising social events. Aim to facilitate mutual understanding.

Pastoral System Academic and social support and guidance system for pupils in Secondary Schools.

Postgraduate Certificateof Education (PGCE) Certificate taken graduates that qualifies them to teach. Normally involves a one year full time course with teaching practice.

Preparatory School Private fee-paying school for children aged between 8 and 11(for girls) or 13 (for boys) years. Prepares children for entrance.