Université de Lomé

Domaine : Lettres, Langues et Arts

Etablissement : FLLA

SYLLABUS DE COURS

1.

Domaine : Lettres, Langues et Arts

Parcours : Licence en Anglais

Etablissement : Faculté des lettres, langues et arts (FLLA)

Code et intitulé de l'UE : ANG 114 : Civilisation britannique : Aspects géographiques et institutions politiques

Crédits : 4

Langue d'enseignement : Anglais

Public cible : Cette UE s'adresse aux étudiants inscrits en Licence en Anglais

Semestre : Semestre 2 (Mousson)

Prérequis : Néant

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Disponibilité : Voir emploi du temps

2. DESCRIPTION DE L'UNITE D'ENSEIGNEMENT

2.1- OBJECTIFS DE L'UNITE D'ENSEIGNEMENT

Objectif général :

Cette UE vise à présenter aux étudiants les aspects géographiques et les institutions politiques du Royaume Uni.

Objectifs spécifiques :

- Apprécier la superficie, l'impact des différents peuplements et la population du Royaume Uni ;
- Connaître le fonctionnement des institutions politiques du Royaume Uni ;
- Montrer la corrélation entre le climat et le temps/les saisons et la végétation et les sols ;
- Mesurer la contribution des différents types d'industries, du tourisme, de l'agriculture et de la pêche dans l'économie britannique.

2.2- CONTENU DE L'UNITE D'ENSEIGNEMENT

Langue d'enseignement : Anglais

Bref descriptif de l'enseignement : (Dire succinctement le contenu de l'enseignement : Max 10 lignes)

Ce cours offre aux apprenants une vue globale de quelques aspects géographiques et des institutions politiques du Royaume Uni. Il donne un aperçu général sur sa composition et sa répartition inégale de la population, ses infrastructures routières, ferroviaires, aéronautiques, marines et industrielles piliers de son économie. Ce cours renseigne aussi et surtout sur le fonctionnement des institutions politiques du Royaume Uni à savoir la Monarchie, le pouvoir exécutif et le pouvoir législatif, le pouvoir et le rôle des médias surtout dans le processus électoral.

Plan du contenu d'enseignement

Séance	Objectifs	Titres des chapitres et sous-chapitres
1.	Apprécier la superficie, l'impact des différents peuplements et la population du Royaume Uni	**Course Objectives** **Chapter One: Introduction** **Chapter Two: Population and Language** 2.1. Settlements 2.1.1. Prehistoric Settlements 2.1.2. Recent Settlements 2.1.2.1.The Celts
2.	Apprécier la superficie, l'impact des différents peuplements et la population du Royaume Uni	2.12.2. The Romans 2.12.3. The Anglo-Saxons 2.12.4. The Danes 2.12.5. The Normans 2.12.6. The Norsemen 2.2. Languages of Britain
3.	Apprécier la superficie, l'impact des différents peuplements et la population du Royaume Uni	**Chapter Three: The United Kingdom: Brief Outline** 3.1. Great Britain 3.1.1. England 3.1.2. Scotland 3.1.3. Wales 3.2. Northern Ireland 3.3. The Republic of Ireland 3.4. Isles of Scilly 3.5. Isle of Man 3.6. Channel Islands
4.	Connaître le fonctionnement des institutions politiques du Royaume Uni	**Chapter Four: The British Institutions: The Monarchy – The Parliament – The Government** 4.1. The Monarchy 4.1.1. The Monarch (The Queen) 4.1.2. Political Functions of the Queen/Monarch 4.2. The Legislature (Parliament) 4.2.1. Understanding Parliament 4.2.2. The House of Commons 4.2.2.1. Place of the MPs in the House of Commons
5.	Connaître le fonctionnement des institutions politiques du Royaume Uni	4.2.2.2. Parliamentary Electoral System 4.2.2.3. About Elections in the UK 4..2.2.4. Role of Media in General Election 4.2.3.The House of Lords 4.2.3.1. The Role of the House of Lords 4.2.3.2. Composition of the House of Lords 4.2.3.1. Lords Temporal 4.2.3.2. Lords Spiritual 4.2.3.3. Organization of the House of Lords 4.2.3.4. The Work in the House of Lords 4.2.3.5. The Lord Chancellor
6.	Connaître le fonctionnement des institutions politiques du Royaume Uni	4.3. The Executive (Government) 4.3.1. The Functions of the PM 4.3.2. The Cabinet (16 to 24 Senior Ministers) 4.3.3. The Ministers 4.3.3.1. Ministers with Portfolio 4.3.3.2. Ministers without Portfolio 4.3.3.3. Junior Ministers or Parliamentary Secretaries

7.	Montrer la corrélation entre le climat et le temps/les saisons et la végétation et les sols	**Chapter Five: Climate – Landscape – Agriculture** 5.1. Climate and Weather 5.1.1. Climate 5.1.2. Weather 5.2. Landscape 5.2.1. Vegetation 5.2.2. Forestry 5.2.3. Welsh Mountains 5.2.4. Highlands of Scotland
8.	Montrer la corrélation entre le climat et le temps/les saisons et la végétation et les sols	5.2.5. Soils 5.3. Agriculture 5.3.1. Farming 5.3.1.1. Fruit Farming 5.3.1.2. Pig Farming 5.3.1.3. Sheep Farming 5.3.1.4. Poultry Farming 5.3.1.5. Fishing
9.	Mesurer la contribution des différents types d'industries, du tourisme, de l'agriculture et de la pêche dans l'économie britannique	**Chapter Six: Industry and Tourism** 6.1. Industrial Revolution 6.1.1. Coal Mining 6.1.2. Copper 6.1.3. Steel 6.1.4. Shipbuilding 6.1.5. Textiles 6.1.6.Tin
10.	Mesurer la contribution des différents types d'industries, du tourisme, de l'agriculture et de la pêche dans l'économie britannique	6.1.7. Motor Car Industry 6.2. Tourism 6.3.Trade **Chapter Seven: Towns – Transports** 7.1. Towns 7.1.1. East Anglia 7.1.2. Birmingham
11.	Mesurer la contribution des différents types d'industries, du tourisme, de l'agriculture et de la pêche dans l'économie britannique	7.1.3. Black Country 7.1.4. Bristol 7.1.5. Belfast 7.1.6. Dublin 7.1.7. Edinburgh 7.1.8. Cardiff 7.1.9. Glasgow 7.1.10. Liverpool 7.1.11. London
12.	Mesurer la contribution des différents types d'industries, du tourisme, de l'agriculture et de la pêche dans l'économie britannique	7.1.12. Manchester 7.1.13. Southampton 7.2. Transports 7.2.1. Railways 7.2.2. Road Transport 7.2.3. Motorways 7.2.4. Airports 7.2.5. Seaports

2.3- MODALITES D'EVALUATION

- **Contrôle continu** : Les contrôles continus peuvent survenir dès la quatrième séance. Les types d'activités d'évaluation retenus pour cette UE sont les devoirs de maison ou les devoirs sur table. Ces activités comptent pour 50% dans la validation de l'UE.

- **Examen final** : le type d'activité d'évaluation pour cette UE est un examen écrit. L'examen final compte pour 50% dans la validation de l'UE.

2.4- BIBLIOGRAPHIE

1. Halimi, Suzy, 1994. *La Grande Bretagne : Histoire et Civilisation*. Nancy : Presses universitaires de Nancy.
2. Johnstone, Mary, 1971. *British Isles*. New York: McGraw-Hill Ltd.
3. Pasquier, Marie-Claire et all, 1972. *L'Angleterre d'aujourd'hui par les textes*. Paris : Armand Colin.
4. Peacock, Herbert L., 1980. *A History of Modern Britain: 1815-1979*. London: Heinemann Educational Books.

3. DEVELOPPEMENT DU CONTENU ET ACTIVITES D'APPRENTISSAGE

UNIVERSITE DE LOME

FACULTE DES LETTRES LANGUES ET ARTS

DEPARTEMENT D'ANGLAIS

INTRODUCTION TO BRITISH CIVILISATION

Semestre II

Compilé par: Dr Kokou Henekou, Dr Nouhr-Dine D. Akondo, Dr Pamessou Walla, Dr Komi Bafana, Dr Senyo Amevor

Séance : 1

Objectif : Apprécier la superficie, l'impact des différents peuplements et la population du Royaume Uni

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Present Situation Analysis (PSA); Course description and objectives; course outline; modes of assessment

Contenu :

Chapter One: Introduction

Two large islands, Great Britain and Ireland, together with several off-shore smaller ones, make up the British Isles. These islands rise up from the continental shelf of north-western Europe. Only the narrow English Channel separates Great Britain from France, while the North Sea lies between Britain and northern European counties.

The land area occupied by the British Isles is about 121.000 square miles divisions are: England, Scotland, and Wales. Ireland is divided into the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland.

Great Britain and Northern Ireland are joined in political alliance, and make up what is called the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. It is a constitutional monarchy, unlike the Republic of Ireland, which is a quite separate political unit. The Isle of Man and Channel Islands are dependencies of the British crown, but are self-governing.

The name Britain is sometimes used for the whole of British Isles, and sometimes just for Great Britain. It has no very precise meaning. The term British Isles is geographical not political. Politically, the British Isles comprise the United Kingdom and Republic of Ireland.

The population of the United Kingdom is over 67 million (67, 530,172 in 2019). In common with the other countries of Western Europe, its population has increased as improvements in medicine and public health mean that more babies survive and people live longer. During the 19th century the death rate spectacularly decreased, but the birth rate remained the same. Consequently the population almost trebled. After 1880, the birth rate began to fall, which meant the population did not grow so rapidly, although it did continue to increase. The rates of birth and death are now fairly stable, but as the birth rates is higher than the death rate the population still continues to grow.


Highlands and Islands
Inverness
Grampian
Aberdeen
SCOTLAND
Tayside
Dundee
Fife
Central
Stirling
Edinburgh
Glasgow
Lothian
Strathclyde
Borders
North East
Newcastle
Dumfries and Galloway
NORTHERN IRELAND
Belfast
North West
Yorkshire and the Humber
Hull
Manchester
Liverpool
IRELAND
East Midlands
Nottingham
Norwich
West Midlands
Birmingham
WALES
ENGLAND
East
Oxford
Bristol
London
Cardiff
Dover
South West
South East
Portsmouth
WWW.FREEWORLDMAPS.NET
Plymouth

Chapter Two: POPULATION AND LANGUAGE

2.1- Settlements

2.1.1. Prehistoric Settlements

The first immigrants into Britain lived during the Old Stone Age. They were hunters and gatherers of food, and disappeared at the end of Ice Age.

They were succeeded by people of Middle Stone Age, also hunters. But these people had domesticated dogs to help in chase. Neither of these groups left any impression on landscape. In about 2500 BC people of the New Stone Age entered Britain. They were farmers – a product of the first agricultural revolution – keeping flocks and herds and raising crops on a system of shifting cultivation. They seem to have lived in well-organized societies: their burial mounds the long barrows, are numerous on the chalk and limestone uplands of the south-east, indicating that these easily cleared lands were the most favoured for settlement. Five hundred years later a new group of people came into Britain, and introduced the use of metal. These technical advances originated in the Middle East and Mediterranean countries. The Bronze Age immigrants were also farmers, and left the first recognizable fields. Agriculture advanced to the point where settled communities became possible. The chalk and limestone areas were, still the most densely populated, as the burial mounds show. The Bronze Age lasted for nearly 1500 years, until the arrival of the Celtic Iron Age immigrants.

2.1.2. – Recent Settlements

2.1.2.1. The Celts.

The Celts settled in Britain in about 500 B.C. They were iron users, and the first of the Iron Age invaders to come into Bronze Age Britain. They settled on the light chalk-lands, which were easily cleared for their forest vegetation. They used a light plough to cultivate the land, and the outline of their square fields overgrown by grass, can still be seen on the chalk hills. They soon abandoned the hills, however, in favour of the more fertile valleys. The Celtic language and culture gradually spread through the country, and still survives in the north and West? These people built the bank and ditch earthworks and hill forts which are especially common on the chalk-lands. They were built against later about 75 B.C. They were also used against the Roman. Although the Celts did practise agriculture, cattle-rearing was their mainstay. They lived in small groups of six or eight families which formed a tribe, and lived in small hamlets.

While the Anglo-Saxons were establishing themselves in south-East England, this Celtic system continued in the north and west, where there were three kingdoms: Cornwall (which survived until the 10th century), Wales (lasting until the 12th century), and Strathclyde (lasting until the 16th century, and until the 18th century in the highlands of Scotland.

Activités :

Exercises
Answer these questions.

1. What is the land area of the British Isles?
2. How many inhabitants constitute the population of Britain today?
3. Is there any difference between Great Britain and the British Isles? Why?

4. What did people of Old Stone Age practice as activities for survival?
5. Compare Old Stone Age people to New Stone Age people in terms of occupations.
6. Which are the three kingdoms founded by the Celts?
7. How many tribes make up the Anglo-Saxons? Which are they?
8. How did the Anglo-Saxons organize their agriculture?
9. State some achievements made by the Romans.
10. What consists of the Normans' commercial farming?
11. What are the languages spoken in the British Isles?

Séance : 2

Objectif : Apprécier la superficie, l'impact des différents peuplements et la population du Royaume Uni

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Retour sur quelques points importants de la séance passée sous forme de questions & réponses ; cours

Contenu :

2.1.2.2 – The Romans.

When the Romans arrived in Britain in about 50.B.C they found a population of perhaps a quarter of a million people, settled in small agricultural villages.

The Romans came as conquerors to administer the country, not to settle it.

They built roads which were centred on London, the Roman capital, and crossing point of the River Thames. The main routes connected London with other strategic point: Ermine street led to York and Hadrian's Wall; Witling Street to Chester and the welsh borderland: and Fosse Way connected Gloucester and Lincoln. These were the main routes, but there were also at least 5,000 miles (8.046 km) of secondary roads. The roads, by taking a straight course, passed through previously empty lands, such as the thickly-forested clay lands. The Romans also built villas. These were the centres of large agricultural estates, worked by native British. Towns began to grow in this era, especially London, which had a population about 20,000. Other towns only reached to 5,000. The towns were centres for Roman officials and Romanized Britons, and were not part of the way of life of the ancient Britons, which continued virtually unchanged throughout the roman occupation. The Romans remained in Britain for over 400 years, at least from 54 B.C. until A.D. But after their departure, their roads and villas crumbled, and only scattered evidence of their occupation remains.

2.1.2.3. – The Anglo-Saxons

Anglo-Saxon marauders had troubled the Romans, but they did not arrive as settlers until after the Roman withdrawal, during the 5th century A.D. It is not clear whether the invasion was a military one or consisted of a series of unconnected skirmishes. From northern Europe, they landed along the east coast of Britain from the Tweed to Southampton water. It seems they made their way inland along the rivers. In about A.D. 500 their advance westwards was halted by British force at Badon Hill near Bath, and a treaty was made.

There is evidence of how the Anglo Saxons did not adopt much of the language of the Britons, but introduced a new language, the basis of modern English. Their social system was also different. The Anglo Saxons were agriculturalists, practising co-operation in farming and living in large villages. They held land in common for grazing, shared plough teams, and divided large field up amongst the villagers. They used a heavy plough which needed eight oxen to pull. It was difficult to turn so they ploughed the land long strips. Their fields were very large and usually three in number. One field was under wheat, one under Barbley, and one left fallow. Each villager owned a few strips of each field. From the lengths and acres of these long strips came the English system of measurements.

The term Anglo-Saxons is a composite name, as they consisted of Saxons, Angles, and Jutes. The Angles who gave their name to England, the English language, and the ancient Kingdom of East Anglia, lived in much the same way as the Saxons – as co-operative farmers in compact villages. The Jutes settled in Kent and the south-east. They did not live in villages, but in scattered farms, and small hamlets. That is still the pattern of settlement in this part of the country. Their buildings were of wood, so none of them have survived to the present days.

2.1.2.4. – The Danes

During the 9th and 10th centuries, invaders one more landed on the coasts of Britain. The Danes landed along the east coast from Yorkshire to the Thames. They were warring invaders, under leaders who expected grants of land in recognition of their services. They were usually given a parish, consisting of a village and its land, and became the Thegn or overlord. At its maximum, the area of Danelaw extended south-west as far as Oxfordshire.

2.1.2.5. The Normans

When the Normans arrived in Britain they found a system of villagers and overlords already established by the Danes. They took this over, replacing the Thegn with the Lord of the Manor. The pattern of life and settlement which the Normans found was consolidated by the Normans into a rigid system of king, nobility, and peasant, which lasted for three hundred years. The ravages of the Black Death in 1348, and the drastic reduction in population, led to greater freedom and enterprise for farmers, since labour was so short it had to be hired. Thus commercial farming had its beginnings.

Sheep-farming spread, at first producing wool for export, then for manufacture into cloth England. This laid the foundations of England’s wealth.

2.1.2.6. The Norsemen.

At the same time as the Danes were establishing their state in eastern England during the 9th century A.D. the Norsemen were settling on the islands fringing on Scotland, the Isle of Man, and north-west England. They also settled along the coast of Wales and Ireland, where they established small coastal towns which became ports and the capitals of small coasts kingdoms. But they did not make much difference to the over-all pattern of life in Britain.

2.2 – Languages of Britain.

The languages spoken by people and understood by nearly everybody in the British Isles, is English. This was the language of the Anglo-Saxon settlers, which was later modified by the French of Norman conquerors, and changed through time and usage. The languages of the earlier Celtic inhabitants were not forgotten, although the people speaking them retreated to the north and west of the country, as the Anglo-Saxon extended their territory. The number of people now speaking these Celtic languages is very small only about 1.400.000, living in Wales, Ireland and north-west Scotland. The Cornish language had effectively died out by about 1800, and Manx is seldom spoken any more on the Isle of Man. In Scotland, Gaelic-speakers are confined to the extreme north west of the highlands and the islands, and in Ireland the west is similarly the stronghold of the original language. In Wales, many more people speak the native language, but only in the mountain areas of the north, west, and centre is it the language of everyday conversation. All these areas are rural and their populations are diminishing as young people leave to find employment in the cities. Consequently the number of people speaking the Celtic languages is decreasing.

Activités :

Exercises
Answer these questions.

1. What is the land area of the British Isles?
2. How many inhabitants constitute the population of Britain today?
3. Is there any difference between Great Britain and the British Isles? Why?
4. What did people of Old Stone Age practice as activities for survival?
5. Compare Old Stone Age people to New Stone Age people in terms of occupations.
6. Which are the three kingdoms founded by the Celts?
7. How many tribes make up the Anglo-Saxons? Which are they?
8. How did the Anglo-Saxons organize their agriculture?
9. State some achievements made by the Romans.
10. What consists of the Normans' commercial farming?
11. What are the languages spoken in the British Isles?

Séance : 3

Objectif : Apprécier la superficie, l'impact des différents peuplements et la population du Royaume Uni

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Recap of some major points of previous course through a series of Q&A; course

Contenu :

Chapter Three: The United Kingdom: Brief Outline

The United Kingdom consists of England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland. It is the official title of the kingdom ruled by Queen Elisabeth II. It was first used in 1801 when Irelands was united with Great Britain, forming the United Kingdom of Great and Ireland; union of four countries under a common flag called "The Union Jack". The National Anthem

of the UK is “God Save the Queen” or “King”. In 1992 the Irish Free State was created, and the United Kingdom became the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Each of the member states has become independent, especially in home affairs, health, agriculture, and fisheries, education, and development. Scotland has its own separate legal system. Wales has had a secretary of state only since 1964. the Isle of Man also has its own very ancient parliament, the House of Keys, and the Channel Islands need only adopt British legislation if people so desire.

3.1 – Great Britain

Great Britain is made up of England Scotland, and Wales. The name was used when King James VI of Scotland succeeded to the throne of England in 1603, uniting the kingdoms. It was formally adopted in 1707 with the union of the countries two parliaments. Wales had been united with England since 1301: consequently, it was automatically included in the union.

3.1.1. – England

England has an area of 50,871 square miles (131,755 sq km) and a population of 45 million. Its capital is London. It is the largest most densely populated, and most prosperous of the countries of the United Kingdom. This is because it contains the greatest amount of lowland and productive agricultural land. It has much easier communications, and greater resources or coal, iron ore and other industrial necessities. Its name is derived from “land of the Angles,” the people who entered eastern England from the continent in the 6th century A.D.

3.1.2. – Scotland.

The area of Scotland is 30,405 square miles (78,749 sq km), one-third of the area of the British Isles. However, only one-tenth of the population, some 5,179,344 live there. It is a wet land of mountains and moors, with most of the good agricultural land and industrial raw materials concentrated in its central valley, where 80 per cent of the populations live. The mountains and long sea inlets make communications difficult, especially in the north-west, which is one of the remotest parts of the country. The name Scotland comes from “Scotia” after the tribe which settled there from Ireland during the 11th century. The older name is Caledonia. Scotland is part of the United Kingdom, and is governed from Westminster. But the Scottish Home Office deals with some aspects of home affairs. Scottish law and the education system, for example, are different from the English pattern. The capital of Scotland is Edinburgh.

3.1.3 – Wales.

The capital Wales is Cardiff. It is a mountainous country, except for the coastal plains of the south, where agriculture; industry, and most of the people are concentrated. It is principally, the monarch’s eldest son being by tradition created “Prince of Wales”. It area is 8,018 squares miles (20,766.5 sq km). it is therefore a small country, and its border with England is not marked by any clear physical feature. In fact, the country of Monmouth is part of England, but for administration purposes is part of Wales. Despite this, the Welsh language

and culture have survived more strongly than the language and culture of any other Celtic areas. The Welsh name for the country is Cymru. Its population is 2,644,023.

3.2 – Northern Ireland

This part of Ireland is formed by the six counties of Antrim, Down, Armagh, Tyrone, Fermanagh, and Londonderry. As a political unit it is part of the United Kingdom. It has an area of 5,459 square miles (14, 139 sq km).

Northern Ireland has the largest lake in the British Isles, Lough Neagh. It has a Stormont, near Belfast, which deals with most aspects of home affairs. Northern Ireland also sends twelve representatives to the parliament at Westminster. Belfast, the capital, and Londonderry are the only large cities cattle and poultry. The leading industries of Northern Ireland are linen making and shipbuilding. These are centred in Belfast, which also processes agricultural produce and has an aircraft industry. Londonderry is a shirt-making centre. In recent years the synthetic fibres industry has come to Northern Ireland, and is now very large.

3.3 – The Republic of Ireland

Since 1921, the Republic has been politically Independent of the United Kingdom, and in 1949 it even ceased to be a member of the British Commonwealth. However, there are still close commercial ties between the two, and the large population of Britain forms a natural market for Irish agricultural produce, Ireland consists of central plain covered by thick clays left by melting ice. It is very badly drained and there are large areas of bog land. Surrounding this, and edging the coast, are mountains. The highest are in the north, west, and south (in Donegal, Connemara, Kerry, and Killarney). Much of the mountain and bog land is uninhabited, but the farmed land is quite densely settled.

Three-quarters of the people of Ireland live in the rural areas. Since the hamlets broke up because of the famine, most people have lived in scattered farms. The capital Dublin, with a population of over half a million, is the only large city in the republic. The only other towns of any size are Cork, Limerick, and Waterford. Apart from these, the rural settlements called towns usually contain about 1,000 people. The mild, damp climate of Ireland makes it ideal for pastoral farming. Grass grows well, and animals can be kept outside during most of the year. Dairy cattle are kept all over Ireland, and butter and cheese are made locally. But much of Ireland is not sufficiently accessible to make commercial dairying possible. The Golden Vale of Limerick and Tipperary, the Valleys of Cork and Waterford, and the north of the central plain are the most important regions. Beef cattle are often kept in the areas near and in the boggier areas of central plain. Many are kept in areas near Dublin, from where they are exported to England. Sheep farming is leading enterprise in the mountain regions. Horses are bred and trained all over Ireland, but County Kildare is the main centre. The only crops which grow well are potatoes and oats, as the climate is too wet for other cereals. Manufacturing in Irish Republic is mainly concerned with processing agricultural produce. It includes making butter and cheese, meat canning, brewing, and distilling. The famous Guinness breweries stand on the banks of the River Liffey in Dublin, and Irish whiskey is made in several centres to be exported all over the world.

3.4 – Isles of Scilly.

The Scillies are a group of low, rocky Islands made of granite, which just project above the sea never rising to grater height than 300 feet (610m) above sea level. They lie off the south-west tip of Cornwall, 25 miles (40 km) from Lands End. This position, surrounded by the warm waters of the North Atlantic, means that winters are exceptionally mild and the air is damp throughout the year. The mild winters mean that spring flowers and vegetables are ready very early in the year. The high cost of transporting these fragile goods over the long distances to London and Midlands, usually by air, is offset by the high prices these goods command early in the season. Daffodils are grown in fields surrounded by high stone walls which protect them from Atlantic storms. St. Mary's is the largest Island.

3.5.- Isle of Man.

The Isle of Man has an area of 221 square miles (572 sq km) and a population of 50.000. Most of the island is highland rising to over 2,000 feet (610m) in Snaefell. It is cut by many Valleys, the largest of which runs east-west, dividing the highland in two and linking Douglas, the largest town (on the east coast) with Peel, the west coast port. The highland is edged by a platform of flatter ground, which ends in cliffs at the sea coast. Only in the north is there lowland of any size; most islanders depend on the tourist trade for their income. They work in hotels, restaurants, and provide tourist entrainments. Farms send most of their produce to the resorts in summer, and market gardening and dairy farming are important. The highland, farms are large hill-sheep runs. Some lead and zinc is still mined, but this does not employ many people. Douglas is the largest town, with 20 000 people. It is the chief port, lying on a sheltered bay on the east coast. Ramsey also lies on the east side and is the centre of the northern lowland. All small coastal towns cater for tourists. The Island has its own language, Manx, related to Scottish and Irish Gaelic, although it is no longer spoken. It also has its own parliament, the Tynwald, which is an inheritance from the Scandinavians who conquered the island in the 9th century.

3.6 – Channel Islands.

By far the largest of the Channel islands are Jersey and Guernsey. The other islands are very small: Alderney, Sark, herm, Jethou, and Lithou. Nearly all of the 105.000 inhabitants live on the two large ones. The islands lie off the French coast, and are a continuation of Brittany.

They are rocky, plateau land, rising from the sea in steep cliffs. Only on market gardening. In the north of Gernsey, where soils are light and sandy, there is the greatest concentration of glasshouses in the world, and early tomatoes are the main crop. Tomatoes are also grown and sent of London and the Midlands by air. Dairy farming occupies the rest of the farmland and both Jersey and Guernsey breeds are famous for their excellent milk. The tourist trade has grown during the 20th century to become a leading industry. The islands attract half a million visitors a year from Britain and large numbers of people are employed in catering for visitors. The Channel Islands have been attached to Britain since 1066, but are outside customs regulations. They are only covered by British law when they are specifically mentioned in an Act of Parliament.

Activités:

Answer the following questions.

1. What is different between Great Britain and the United Kingdom?
2. Name the capitals of the isles forming the United Kingdom.
3. When was the United Kingdom created?
4. How do we call the common flag of the UK?
5. What is the national anthem of UK?
6. What is the largest isle of Great Britain?
7. What is the most populated isle of Great Britain?
8. What is the least populated isle of Great Britain?
9. Which isle of Great Britain is known as the land of mountains and moors?
10. Which isle of Great Britain is ruled by the Monarch's eldest son?
11. Discuss the economy of Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland, the Isle of Man and Channel Islands.

Séance : 4

Objectif : Connaître le fonctionnement des institutions politiques du Royaume Uni

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Recap of some major points of previous course through a series of Q&A; course

Contenu :

Chapter Four: THE BRITISH INSTITUTIONS: THE MONARCH – THE PARLIAMENT – THE GOVERNMENT.

Britain in 1984 was almost the only country in Europe that managed without written constitution. Some fragmentary definitions of 1688 still survived. The constitution of the UK developed over time and is not written down in one place. It consists of various elements including statutes (laws made by parliament), important court cases and established practices. The key principles of the constitution are the rule of law and the sovereignty of parliament.

In the 1960s Walter Bagehot wrote about two special qualities of the British who accept established values without questioning their validity. By "deference", he meant the readiness of each social stratum, in a highly stratified society, to acknowledge the superiority of higher social strata, each in its predetermined place through deference as complicated by the fluidity of the strata.

Constitutionally the U.K. has four main institutions:

1- The monarchy: the act of ruling the United Kingdom of Great Britain.
2- The Legislature (HC) : This concerns the ruling of the UK by law,
3- The Executive: the Government's everyday management of State affairs.
4- The Judiciary (H. Laws): This institution sees to people's equality before the law.

4.1 – The Monarchy

The British Monarchy is one of the oldest and the most flexible. First, it is a hereditary institution. On the death of the Sovereign the Crown passes to the eldest son or the eldest

daughter, if there is no son. There is no interval between the death of a sovereign and his successor. The Coronation of a Succeeding Crown takes place at Westminster Abbey in London in the presence of the House of Commons and the House of Lords, the greatest public persons of the U.K. and of other commonwealth nations and representatives of certain powers, these are largely exercised on the advice of ministers. The monarchy's political power has declined over centuries, and as we shall see, it is now almost, but not completely, extinct. Monarchs change but the monarchy survives. The state as a legal entity is commonly called the Crown. The Sovereign is the embodiment of the idea of National Unity. Note that the King's wife is Queen, but the Queen's husband has no particular title.

4.1.1 – The Monarch (The Queen)



Fig1: Destiny Stone, involved in the enthronement of every new monarch.

She has several official titles. In the UK, her official title is "Elizabeth the second, by the grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and other Realms and territories; Queen Elizabeth II is the Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of Faith" in common practice, Queen Elizabeth II is referred to simply as the "Queen" to differentiate her from her mother, who was called "Queen Elizabeth". The real name of the Queen is Elizabeth Alexandra Mary Windsor.

She belongs to Britain's Royal House (family) of Windsor, and is the daughter of King George VI and Queen Elizabeth, the Queen Mother, who passed away recently. She was born on April 21, 1926, in London. Her Birthday is officially celebrated in Britain on the third Saturday of June each year. The queen was married to Prince Philip, the son of Prince and princess Andrew of Greece, on November 20, 1947, in Westminster Abbey in London.

The queen, being a member of the house of Windsor, retains the name of Winsdor. Her official residences include Buckingham Palace of Holy Sandingham in Norforlk, England and Bal Moral Castle in Aberdeenshire, Scotland. The Queen has 3 sons and 1 daughter.

Can the queen abdicate?

Technically speaking, it is the monarch's duty to rule to death in accordance with the time-honored traditions and rules of succession. She can abdicate the throne with the consent of the British Parliament and the Parliament of the other nations that recognize her as their Head of state.

4.1.2. – Political Functions of the Queen/Monarch

The queen is head of State but not head of government. She invites the leader of the political party having a majority in the House of Commons to become Prime Minister and to form a government. The queen summons prorogues, and dissolves to bills of laws passed by the H.Cs and the H.Ls.

The queen gives appointments on the advice of the Prime Minister, to important state officials including government ministers, judges, officers of the Armed Forces, governors, diplomats and all high posts in the Church of England. She remits partially or completely the punishment imposed on a person convicted of a crime. She also plays a great role in international relations. She is the embodiment of "the Crown" (the State as a legal entity). Thus, as Head of State, she receives ambassadors and high commissioners of foreign countries accredited to the UK. The Queen is informed about cabinet decisions and consulted on aspects of national life. She shows impartiality in decisions and consulted on aspects of national life. She shows impartiality in the discharge of her duties. The beginning of a new session, called "the State Opening of Parliament" is a fine ceremonial occasion, beginning with the royal carriage procession from Buckingham Palace to the Palace of Westminster.

4.2 – The Legislature (parliament)

4.2.1 – Understanding Parliament

The British Parliament, like parliament in other countries, is often referred to as "the legislature", the body which makes law. It essential function could probably be best described as to discuss what the Government has done, is doing and intends to do, and on occasion to try to show up the Government's errors and even try to persuade Government to change or modify its politicies. Nevertheless, new laws can only come into force when they have passed through parliament, and the way it deals with bills (that is, proposals for new laws) gives a good illustration of parliament's working.

The UK parliament is based on two chamber system, the elected House of Commons and the House of Lords. The House of Commons and the House of Lords sit separately, and are constituted on different principles. However;, the legislative process involves both houses. The two Houses share the same building, the palace of Westminster (the seat of parliament) in London.

The Parliament has three main functions:

1- To propose debates and pass laws or make amendments (examine proposals for new laws) to existing laws;

2- To scrutinize government policies and administration, try to show government its errors and persuade it if necessary to change its policies;

3- To provide funds necessary to enable the government to carry out its projects.

Parliament is free to make laws as it pleases, provided the laws do not go against the wishes (or interest) of the majority of people. It can also unmake, change or modify laws when necessary. When laws passed by parliament receive the Royal Assent and are published by the appropriate authority, they cannot be contested before any law court. Parliament is consulted before the ratification of all important international treaties and agreements but in principle, this right is exercised by the Monarch as Head of state on the advice of the government (P.M.). The parliament has a lifetime of 5 years during which it may be dissolved by the queen on the advice of the P.M. and a new general election is held (for the House of Commons' normally 20 days after dissolution.

4.2.2 – The House of Commons

The house of commons is an elected Assembly of men and women representing their people in the law-making body. They are called Members of Parliament; in short M.P. The H.C has 650 Members of Parliament (M.P) who each represent a particular part of the country, a constituency.

4.2.2.1 – Place of the MPs in the House of Commons

In the H.C ministers forming the cabinet sit on the front bench, and other M.Ps from their partly sit behind them (back-benchers). The main opposition party sits similar arrangement facing them in the house, with their leader and her/his shadow cabinet on the front benches. M.P from smaller parties sit on the opposition benches. In the centre is the Speaker, who keeps order during debates.



Fig 2: UK Parliament showing the place of MPs (Speaker's place, front benchers, backbenchers and Media.)



Fig3: MPs in session in the UK parliament.

Activités:

Answer the questions below:

1. Name the institutions that form the British Constitution.
2. Name four British royal families.
3. Which royal family does Queen Elizabeth II belong to?
4. Who is the current monarch of UK?
5. Where and when does the coronation of the British monarch take place?
6. What is the official residence of Queen Elizabeth II in England and in Scotland?
7. Who is the husband and who are the children of Queen Elizabeth II?
8. State some political functions of the Monarch.
9. What are the two chambers of the British parliament? What are the roles of each chamber?
10. How do we call the members of the 1st chamber and those of the 2nd chamber? Are they all elected? Are they all paid? Why?
11. Discuss the British General Election. Why? When? Which day? The term, etc.
12. British elections take place at four levels. Which are they?
13. What is the difference between by-election and general election?
14. Who is qualified to vote and who is qualified to stand for British election?
15. In which place do the House of Commons and the House of Lords work together?
16. Who is the speaker in the House of Commons? What are his functions?
17. Who is the Head of the British government? What are his duties?
18. What are the different types of ministers in British government? What are their various functions?
19. What is the difference between the minister with portfolio and the minister without portfolio?
20. What is the Woolsack? What is its significance in the past and today?

Séance : 5

Objectif : Connaître le fonctionnement des institutions politiques du Royaume Uni

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Recap of some major points of previous course through a series of Q&A; course

Contenu :

4.2.2.2. – Parliamentary Electoral System

A general election normally occurs when:

a – a government has completed 5 years term of office;

b-a government has been defeated on a matter of confidence in the House of Commons.

Here the Prime Minister hands in his resignation on behalf of this government to the Crown. The Crown accepts, proclaims the dissolution of parliament and announces the date of general election which must take place not less than 20 days after the dissolution. In practice a period of 3 to 5 weeks is devoted to electoral campaign. Election usually takes place on Thursday.

4.2.2.3. – About Elections in the U.K.

The UK is a parliamentary democracy, in which the whole population elects representatives to the bodies that make the laws governing the country Elections are held for all levels of government:

- At the local level, councillors to serve on district, borough, city, country and unitary councils;
- At the regional level, for members of greater Authority, the National Assembly for Wales, the Scottish parliament and, until its suspension in October 2002, the northern Ireland assembly;
- At the national level (i.e. general elections), for members of the House of Commons (MPs) in the parliament at Westminster;
- At the supranational level, for British representative (MPs) art the European Parliament.

An election allows the population to decide who should represent their view and interest. Elections are held at regular intervals to enable the population to change their representative if they no longer feel that the current post-holder best represents those views and interests. These intervals are specified by law:

- General elections must be no more than five years apart;
- Elections to the regional assemblies are held every four years;
- Elections to local authorities are held at three or four-yearly intervals, though some councils have elections by thirds, i.e. one-third of the councillors is elected each year:
- When a seat falls vacant between elections, a by-election is held. Any citizen of the United Kingdom or Northern of Ireland may stand for election, provided they are aged 21 years or over and not subject to disqualification, for instance by being a member of house of Lords.

A candidate for election does not have to belong to a political party, but in practice most candidates are members of a party and campaign for election as a representative of their party's policies.

The right to vote in elections in Britain is given to person who is:

a- A citizen of the UK
b- 18 years of age or over;
c- Registered on the National Register of voters.

4.2.2.4 – Role of Media in General Election

The press, radio and TV, known collectively as the mass media, constitute the major source of political information for the British public. The press has a much longer history than radio and television, and although it is no longer the principal source of political knowledge for the majority of British people, it continues to play a vital role in helping "to advance interest by publishing facts and opinions without democratic electorate cannot make possible

judgements. Its role is to discuss what the government may wish to conceal (hide), to encourage the public to see issues in ways different from those in which they are presented by the government, exposing the government policy to sustained and critical commentary and debate. The press makes a vital contribution to the political process. Newspapers have their own political orientations. They influence the electorate on behalf of the parties they support. However it is against the code of behaviour to exercise violence on candidates during the campaign. Parties have an equal share of broadcasting time on radio and TV, in the order of 15 minutes once or twice a week.

4.2.3 – The House of Lords

The House of Lords is the second chamber of the UK house of parliament Members of the House of Lords (known as 'Peers') consist of Lord Spirituals, Members of the House of Lords Temporal. They are not elected. Originally, they were drawn from the various groups of senior and influential nobility in Britain who drawn from the various groups of seniors and influential nobility in Britain who advised the monarch throughout the country's early history. They were 689 peers in total in May 2003.



Fig 4: A view of the House of Lords.

4.2.3.1 The Role of the House of Lords

The Role of the House of Lords

In general, the functions of the House of Lords are similar to those of the House of Commons in legislating, debating and questioning the executive. There are two important exceptions: members of the House of Lords do not represent constituencies, and are not involved in matters of taxation, long seen as the responsibility of the commons. Amendments have to be

agreed to by both Houses. The house of Lords is as active as the commons in amending bills, and spends two-thirds of its time revising legislation.

4.2.3.2 – Composition of the House of Lords

The composition of the House of Lords is different from that of the House of Commons. There were a traditionally large number of conservative peers in the Lords but this is no longer the case since the majority of hereditary peers were excluded from membership of the House following the House of Lords party. A distinctive feature of House of Lords is the presence of crossbench peers who are not affiliated to any party group. Even those who are aligned may not attend the House of Lords change more frequently than they do in the House of Commons.

Some Lords are former members of the House of Commons who have been elevated to the lords in recognition of distinguished service in politics or because one of the political parties wishes to have them in the House. People who have especially distinguished themselves in other parts of public life, such as industry, the trade unions, education, science, the arts and local government, are often brought into the House of Lords. The House of Lords comprises:

4.2.3.1. – Lords Temporal

Hereditary peers and peeresses seat in the House of Lords if they are 21 years of age or over. The succeeding peer or peers may, within 12 months of succession, renounce his/her peerage life. Peers who renounce their peerage forgo their right to sit in the House of Lords. They, however, maintain their right to stand election to the House of Commons and to be appointed to public offices.

Up to 1958, the Lords temporal were all either hereditary peers (those who inherited their tiles) or Law Lords (appointed for life to discharge the judicial functions of the House). In 1958 the life peerages Act was passed, which entitled the queen to give non-hereditary titles peerage to both men and women. The queen exercises this prerogative on the advice of the prime minister. From May 2000 an appointment commission has operated a nomination system for cross-benchers peers. The first of these nominated peers (sometimes referred to as a people‘s peers) were appointed in April 2001.

Since the House of Lords Act of 1999, only 92 peers sit by virtue of hereditary peerage, 75 of whom were elected by their respective party groups. The remaining 17 are office holders or have ceremonial offices. The most senior judges also sit in the House of Lords as Lords of Appeal (‘Law Lord’).

4.2.3.2.2 The Lords Spirituals

Until the reformation in the 16th century, the Lords spirituals ‘made up the majority of members of House of Lords. They included archbishops, bishops and mitered abbots. However, with the dissolution of monasteries in the 16th century, there were no abbots to attend the House; and with limitations being placed on them, the number of spiritual peers is now reduced to 26. They include the Archbishops of Century and York, the Bishops of Durham, London and Winchester, and the 21 next most senior Church of England Bishops.

4.2.3.3. – Organization of House of Lords

The speakership of the House of Lord has traditionally been performed by the Lord Chancellor. The Lord Chancellor's power as speaker has been very limited compared with those of the speaker of the House of Commons, since the Lord themselves control the proceedings under the guidance of the leader. The House of Lords business is expected to be conducted in an orderly and polite fashion without the need for an active Speaker. The Lords Chancellor sits on a special seat called the Woolsack, except when the House is in committee, where he does not called the Woolsack, except when the house powers to call the house to order. This has been due in part to the Lord Chancellor's constitutionally unique prerogatives. Before the reforms announced on the 12th June 2003 the Lord Chancellor had been simultaneously a cabinet Minister with departmental responsibilities, the speaker of the House of Lords and the Head of the judiciary in England and Wales. The government is now intent on a separation of these powers and on the abolition of the office of Lord Chancellor. The proposed reforms include:

- A new department for Constitutional Affairs incorporating most responsibilities of the Lord Chancellor's department;
- A new 'Supreme Court to replace the existing system of law Lords operating as a committee of the House of Lords;
- An independent commission to recommend candidates for appointment as judges;
- Changes to standing orders enabling a new speaker – who is not a Minister - to be chosen in the House of Lords. A select committee on the speakership of the House was appointed in July 2003 to consider future arrangements.

Other office holders in the House of Lords include government ministers and whips, the Leader and chief whip of the main opposition party, and two chairmen of committees. The leader of the House occupies a special position in the House of Lords: as well as leading the party in government he has a responsibility to the house as a whole. It is to him, and not to the Lord Chancellor, that members have to turn for advice and leadership on points of order and procedure. These office holders and officers, together with the law lords, receive salaries. All other members of the House of Lords are unpaid but they are entitled to reimbursement of their expenses, within maximum limits for each day on which they attend the House. The clerk of the Parliament, a role like that of chief executive, is head of the administration. The Gentleman Usher of Black Rod has ceremonial and royal duties and is in charge of security, access and domestic matters.

Members of the House of Lords are not elected and, with the exception of bishops who leave the house on retirement, they retain their seats for life.

4.2.3.4 - The Work in the House of Lords

The HL meets on Mondays in the Palace of Westminster on about 120 days each year. The chamber is far less austere and proceedings are conducted in a more leisurely way than in commons.

4.2.3.5. – The Lord Chancellor

The Lord Chancellor has both political and judicial responsibilities. He is a member of the cabinet and presides over the HL. He is also head of the judiciary with responsibility for a wide range of judicial appointments and for the full machinery for courts. Although he seldom sits as a judge himself, he arranges who shall sit to hear cases in the HLs and the judicial committee of the privy cases (Legal aid criminal case being the responsibility of the Home Office), and he is the minister responsible of law reform in which capacity he is advertised by the law Commission, whose members he also appoints. His duties are wide-ranging and through them the legislative, executive, judicial branches of government are linked.

The Lord Chancellor sits on Woolsack, and presides over the meetings in the HLs. The Woolsack is a seat stuffed with wool on which the Lord Chancellor sits. It was introduced by King Edward III (1327-77) and originally stuffed with English Wool as reminder of England's traditional source of Wealth-the wool trade- as a sign of prosperity. Today the Woolsack is stuffed with wool from each of the countries of the commonwealth, to symbolize unity. The Lord Chancellor is assisted by a deputy speaker appointed by crown or by a deputy Chairman appointed by the HLs. His position is closest to that of the speaker in the HLs, but there is important difference between them. The Lord Chancellor is not outside controversy. As head of the judiciary he is a member of the cabinet, and he takes part in debates on behalf of the opening of a new parliamentary session to hear the government's intentions. When the queen is seated on the throne in the HLs, he is sent to summon the commons from their own chamber to hear her speech. Lords receive no salary for their parliamentary work.

Activités:

Answer the questions below:

1. Name the institutions that form the British Constitution.
2. Name four British royal families.
3. Which royal family does Queen Elizabeth II belong to?
4. Who is the current monarch of UK?
5. Where and when does the coronation of the British monarch take place?
6. What is the official residence of Queen Elizabeth II in England and in Scotland?
7. Who is the husband and who are the children of Queen Elizabeth II?
8. State some political functions of the Monarch.
9. What are the two chambers of the British parliament? What are the roles of each chamber?
10. How do we call the members of the 1st chamber and those of the 2nd chamber? Are they all elected? Are they all paid? Why?
11. Discuss the British General Election. Why? When? Which day? The term, etc.
12. British elections take place at four levels. Which are they?
13. What is the difference between by-election and general election?
14. Who is qualified to vote and who is qualified to stand for British election?
15. In which place do the House of Commons and the House of Lords work together?
16. Who is the speaker in the House of Commons? What are his functions?
17. Who is the Head of the British government? What are his duties?

18. What are the different types of ministers in British government? What are their various functions?
19. What is the difference between the minister with portfolio and the minister without portfolio?
20. What is the Woolsack? What is its significance in the past and today?

Séance : 6

Objectif : Connaître le fonctionnement des institutions politiques du Royaume Uni

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Recap of some major points of previous course through a series of Q&A; course

Contenu :

4.3. - The Executive (Government)

After a general election, the leader of the party which has most seats in the House of Commons becomes Prime Minister and chooses ministers to be responsible for industrial departments. These include the chancellor of Exchequer, who is responsible for Treasury (finance ministry), the Foreign Secretary, responsible for Foreign and Commonwealth Office, and the Home Secretary, responsible for Domestic Affairs. They and other ministers form the cabinet, which advises the PM.

4.3.1 – The Functions of the PM

Once the PM is appointed, he advices the sovereign on the exercise hi/her prerogatives. This means that the PM fulfils the following functions:

He chooses the cabinet and determines its size. He selects the ministers, accepts or rejects their resignation or dismiss. He can be described as architect who decides the shape of the cabinet. He can also determine the policy the cabinet shall follow. He presides over the cabinet meetings, allocates ministry. He makes recommendations to the Queen for the appointment to High Civil posts, public Corporations like BBC and the distinctions. He makes recommendations for the appointment to High Judiciary forces such as Lord Chief Justice and Lord of Appeal.

4.3.2 – The Cabinet (16 to 24 Senior Ministers)

The cabinet stands today at very centre of power in Britain. It is the most important and authoritative part of government. Although any minister wields greater influence on the formulation of policy than the ordinary MP, it is the Cabinet that is the centre of political authority in Britain. It is "combining committee – a hyphen which joins the Legislative part of the State to the Executive part of the State." It is made up of a number of ministers chosen by parliament and coordinates the function of various ministers. Cabinet meetings are strictly confidential and its members are bound by oaths not to disclose any information about sittings.

4.3.3 – The Ministers

There are three kinds that concept of portfolio helps understand. The word portfolio came into English from the Italian language, in the early 18th century. The original was portfolio, something in which one carried sheets of paper. And this was its first meaning in English: a receptacle or case in which to carry loose papers, prints, drawings and the like, a meaning it still has. Much later it was applied to the set of one's investment no doubt seen as a collection of bits of valuable paper.

By the early 19th century, it was beginning to be applied to a container that had within it the official papers of a government department. By an obvious extension it was soon applied to the job of the minister of a department, as "ministers were appointed to the portfolios of Foreign affairs, war, commerce, justice and finance.

4.3.3.1 – Ministers with Portfolio

They have various ministries and are usually members of the Cabinet. They may have special titles as in the case of Chancellor of Exchequer who is responsible for the finance; or the Lord Chancellor who is Minister of justice and keeper of the Great Seal.

4.3.3.2 - Ministers without Portfolio

Later it proved necessary to appoint people to the British cabinet without department responsibilities, who instead had a roving or variable assignment, or brought useful skills or experience to bear. They were dubbed minister without portfolios, which has led to a perennial parliamentary joke about such persons spotted carrying empty portfolios. One recent minister without portfolio is even said to have had "minister without portfolio" written on his portfolio. Ministers without portfolio have no fixed responsibility but are ready to perform duties the PM may give them.

4.3.3.3 – Junior Ministers or Parliamentary Secretaries

They take part in parliamentary debates whereby they answer questions put to various ministers on government policies and help with ministerial duties.

Activités:

Answer the questions below:

1. Name the institutions that form the British Constitution.
2. Name four British royal families.
3. Which royal family does Queen Elizabeth II belong to?
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17. Who is the Head of the British government? What are his duties?
18. What are the different types of ministers in British government? What are their various functions?
19. What is the difference between the minister with portfolio and the minister without portfolio?
20. What is the Woolsack? What is its significance in the past and today?

Séance : 7

Objectif : Montrer la corrélation entre le climat et le temps/les saisons et la végétation et les sols

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Recap of some major points of previous course through a series of Q&A; course

Contenu :

Chapter Five: CLIMATE- LANDSCAPE- AGRICULTURE

5-1 Climate and Weather

5-1-1 Climate

It is the average weather conditions of a place, usually measured over a year, and which includes temperature and rainfall in particular. The climate of Britain is very mild for its latitude. This is because the air most frequently crossing Britain comes from the west. It crosses the North Atlantic Ocean and the exceptionally warm waters of the North Atlantic Drift. In winter the sea cools down much more slowly than the land, which means that air from over the sea is warm, making winters (especially in the west) comparatively mild. In summer the sea heats up more slowly than the land, so air from over the sea is cool, keeping summer temperatures down. The east of the country is more often affected by air from over the continent, which is very cold in winter but· hot in summer. It therefore has a greater range of temperature than the west. Naturally, it is colder in the north than in the south, but as the islands do not extend over a great range of latitude the difference is not large, about 3°C. The average rainfall of Britain is high, ranging from about 25 inches (64 cm.) in the south-east to more than 100 inches (254 cm.) in the mountainous west. Most rain comes from depressions, which frequently cross the country. The damp air coming off the Atlantic gives mores rain in the west, as the mountains force the air to rise. As it rises, it cools, the water vapour it contains condenses; and rain falls. As the air moves eastwards it loses its water content

leaving less moisture to be deposited in the east. The south-east of the country, having warmer summers, also more summer thunderstorms.

This is because the warmed air rises in convection currents, carrying water vapour, and falls in heavy showers when condensation takes place.' The east has a lighter and more evenly distributed rainfall than the west, which has a winter maximum. Britain's climate is not a sunny one, because of the cloud brought by the damp air from the west. The best sunshine periods occur on the south, and these decrease north-westwards.

5. 1.2 - Weather.

Weather is the daily condition of the atmosphere which includes temperature, rainfall and wind. British weather is very changeable, as it depends on whatever airstream may be affecting Britain at the moment. Most air crossing. Britain comes from the west and is damp, as it has spent a long time over the Atlantic Ocean. If it comes from the north, it is also cool. When a north-westerly airstream crosses the country, the air is fresh and clear, and visibility is very good. Then the wind is strong and gusty, and big, puffy white clouds blow quickly across the sky, leaving patches of blue. Short sharp showers tend to occur, sometimes accompanied by thunder. They are heavy, with large raindrops and in winter may be snow or sleet. In winter this air brings cold, raw conditions and in summer accounts for many days with bright periods and showers. Air from the south-west is also damp, but mild. It brings the warmer days both in summer and winter. Visibility is poor, and round the coasts fog is common. Airstreams from over the continent are much less frequent. In winter they bring ·the coldest weather recorded, and days are usl1ally' foggy or gloomy. In summer very hot, dry air can come to Britain from the continent, but this is rare. Depressions and anticyclones add variety and changeability to the weather.

5. 2 - Landscape

5. 2. 1 - Vegetation.

The natural vegetation of Britain, before man arrived and cleared land for cultivation, was forest. The dominant trees of the forest varied with the conditions of climate and soil, but (except in the highlands of Scotland) the trees were deciduous, part of a great belt of deciduous forest which extended across Europe in these latitudes. Over most of lowland Britain, the oak tree predominated. However, on the chalk lands of the south-east, the beech took over as the dominant tree. On the limestone uplands of northern England, where the ground was too dry for oak, ash predominated. In the highlands of Scotland, the Scots pine, a coniferous tree, was the dominant species. Trees did not grow in very wet areas, where blanket bog, cotton grass and sphagnum moss flourished. Also, on coasts exposed to salt-laden winds, trees were unable to survive and heath-land took over - as it does on poor soils in other areas. At high altitudes above 3,000 feet (914 m.), the vegetation is made up of Arctic and alpine species, capable of withstanding the cold conditions of winter. Hardly any of this natural vegetation has survived undisturbed. There are places in Scotland with stands of pine, and also some stands of oak in England, which might be remnants of natural vegetation, but it is more likely that they are re-growths after being once cut.

5. 2. 2 - Forestry

When men first came to Britain it was a heavily forested country. But these forests were gradually c1eared as the population increased and more land had to be farmed. In the Middle Ages, sheep grazing was introduced into England, and sheep eat young trees. Forests steadily diminished until today only 4 percent of Britain is forested. During World War l, this lack of trees was a serious handicap, and the Forestry Commission was established to replant trees. Land which is too poor for agriculture, mainly in the highlands, has been re-afforested with coniferous trees. A few years after planting, the trees have to be thinned, and thinnings are sent to saw-mills and paper mills. Coniferous trees take only 50 to 60 years to mature, whereas deciduous trees take 150 years. Apart from Forestry Commission plantings, the most densely wooded parts of Britain are south-east England, the Forest of Dean, and the eastern Grampians of Scotland.

5. 2. 3 - Welsh Mountains

The highest mountain of Wales is Snowdon, 3,560 feet (1085 m.) above sea· level. The .highlands of Central and North Wales show ail the effects of glaciations in a mountain area. The ancient rocks which make up these highlands yield some useful materials: slate is quarried in North Wales, for instance, to be used for roofing and facing· buildings. One of the chief natural resources of Wales is water. Associated with some water supply schemes are hydroelectric generating stations. The mountains themselves are open moorland, used for sheep-grazing. They have a very sparse population, which is steadily declining. On the borders, cattle are reared and more crop grown.

5. 2. 4 - Highlands of Scotland

The highlands of Scotland are among the wildest and remote parts of Britain. They rise to 4,004 feet (1220 m.) in Ben Nevis, the highest mountain in Britain. The extreme north-west of the mainland and the Hebrides are made of ancient rocks and are fairly flat, but the main mass of the highlands is mountainous and cut across by the deep trench of Glen More. The whole area was severely glaciated during the Ice Age, and shows ail the usual features of glaciated mountains. The deeply scoured valleys of the west coast have been flooded by the sea to give a fiord coastline. In the east the ancient rocks disappear under younger, softer rocks, giving lower land. The coastline of the east is much lower and more regular. The west coast climate is mild and wet. But in the mountains, rainfall becomes very heavy, with much snow and frost and little sunshine. The lack of good soil and the adverse climate make very poor conditions for agriculture. There is a little land fit for cultivation in the west, where croft farming is carried out in the inaccessible coastlands and islands. The rest of the land is divided into large estates, which are either runs for hill sheep, grouse moors, or el se are forested. The Forestry Commission has planted most of these forests within the last 50 years. The east coast is more fertile, and lowland extends along the coast, widening out in three areas: the Caithness lowland, centred on Wick and Thurso; the Moray Firth lowlands, centred on Inverness; and the Aberdeen lowlands. On these "highland edges," more land is ploughed up for oats and root crops, and cattle are fattened for beef. The Scottish highlands are the most sparsely populated part of Britain.

Activités:

Answer these questions:

1. What is the difference between weather and climate?
2. What characterizes British climate?
3. How does British vegetation look like?
4. Why has Great Britain lost most of its forests? Which solution has it implemented to ensure land coverage?
5. Why does one say the British soils are varied?
6. What is the highest mountain in British highlands?
7. What are the useful materials the Welsh highlands yield? What for?
8. Why is it difficult to practice agriculture in the highlands of Scotland?
9. What are the different types of British soils?
10. What is the difference between acid soils and alkaline soils?
11. Name the hard rocks that form the hills.
12. When did the British people discover agriculture? How did that discovery change the British life?
13. What is farming? What is mixed farming?
14. Why do British people practice mixed farming?
15. Compare grain crops, root crops and vegetables.
16. What is the purpose of pig farming, sheep farming and poultry farming?
17. Which tools do British use for fishing? What are the different fishes they fish?
18. What does British fish processing consist of?

Séance : 8

Objectif : Montrer la corrélation entre le climat et le temps/les saisons et la végétation et les sols

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Recap of some major points of previous course through a series of Q&A; course

Contenu :

5. 2. 5 - Soils

The soils of Britain are very varied. In areas of heavy rainfall, the minerals and lime in the soil get washed out very quickly', making soils very acid. In drier areas this happens more slowly and the soils are more alkaline. The composition of soils is influenced both by climate and by the underlying rocks. In the west of Britain, the rocks are old and hard and produce rather acid soils, poor in mineral content. The chalks and lime stones of the east yield alkaline soils, rich in minerals, particularly lime. The heavy rainfall of western Britain therefore intensifies the difference between the acid soils of the west and the alkaline soils of the comparatively dry east.

Sandstones are made from small grains of sand, originally worn from older rocks and washed into the sea by rivers. The grains collect on the sea floor, and are gradually cemented together. Sandstone is resistant to erosion, so it often forms highland. The soils that develop on it tend to be thin and infertile, giving rise to heath or moorland vegetation.

The scarp lands of England are alternating hills and valleys, extending from Yorkshire in the north to Devon in the south. The hills are called escarpments, and have one steep slope, which rises abruptly from the plain, called the 'scarp' slope; the other side of the escarpment is a gentler slope, called the "dip." Between the escarpments are broad vales, and these hills and vales form the pattern of the country over most of southern and eastern England.

The harder rocks form the hills, as they resist weathering, whereas the softer rocks (mainly clays) are worn away to form the valleys. The hard rocks forming the hills are chalk, limestone, and sandstone. They slope gently Eastwards, which is why the hills have one steep west-facing slope and a gentle east facing one. In the south, the rocks have been folded into domes and hollows. The Weald is a dome and the Hampshire and London basins are the down folds.

5. 3 - Agriculture.

There have been several agricultural revolutions. The first, the Neolithic Revolution, came with the discovery of cultivation. This led to man setting in agricultural villages, and giving up the nomadic life of a hunter. The invention of techniques such as ploughs capable of turning new ground led to mirror revolutions, but the term 'agricultural revolution' usually refers to the 18thcentury revolution in Britain. This began with discoveries of still more efficient ways of cultivation and was the beginning of the seed drill and horse drawn hoe, by Jethro Tull, the discovery of ways to make cheap, pipes for draining filed, and the development by Townsend of the four-year rotation of crops system which did away with the wasteful fallow year when land was left uncultivated in order to 'rest'. There was also a great improvement in the quality of livestock by controlled breeding. A new light plough and new crops such as clover (which can be ploughed into the soil to restore its fertility) were introduced from the European mainland. Experimentation under a system of open fields was impossible: in order to put these new discoveries into practice it was necessary to enclose the fields. The enclosure of fields by hedges had been happening ever since the 14th century, but during the second half of the 18th century hundreds of enclosure acts were passed by parliament, authorizing enclosure of the fields into consolidated holdings. Thus each man's land was now in one parcel, rather than scattered in strips throughout the open fields, and it and enclosed by hedges. Eventually farmers began to move away from the compact villages and build farmhouses on their own farms. Many poor people received no land at enclosure' and became landless labourers. Some of them drifted into the growing industrial towns. Thus the agricultural revolution set the pattern of today's rural scene.

5. 3. 1 - Farming

The science of cultivating land in order to grow crop and rear animals is commonly known as farming. Ali farms in Britain practise missed farming, as they ail grow a variety of crops or else grow crops and keep animals. Only a few farms specialize in one thing, usually poultry. In fact no two farms are alike, as differences in soil, climate, and the nearness of the farm to roads or markets make for great variety. However, a difference can be seen between farming in the east and west of the country. The west is wetter and generally has more acid soils. It grows few grain crops, as these thrive in drier and sunnier conditions, and so are grown on the east. The only grain to grow well in the west is oats, as they do not mind wet, acid

conditions. Root crops, however, flourish in the west as moisture increases their bulk, although too much can be a disadvantage. Grass also grows well in the west, as it requires frequent rain. Being shallow-rooted, it tends to shrivel in dry periods. Root crops are plants with bulbous roots, such as turnips, swedes, and Mongols. They are mainly grown as winter fodder for animals, as they keep well. Potatoes, beet root, carrots, parsnips, and some turnips are grown for human consumption. Sugar beet is also a root crop. The sugar is extracted from the root, and the tops ~re used as animal fodder.

5. 3. 1. 1 - Fruit Farming

Two types of fruits are grown in Britain: orchard fruits, and small (or soft) fruits. Of the orchard fruits grown, 60 per cent are apples. Over half of them go to make cider. These grow in the cider-making counties of Herefordshire, Somerset, and Devon. Kent, Worcestershire, and Gloucestershire grow eating apples, plums, pears, and cherries. These are the fruit-growing counties of Britain. Orchard fruits require much attention, as they have to be pruned to prevent them growing too high for easy picking, and sprayed regularly to destroy insect pests and prevent diseases. The other danger to fruit trees is frost, which is harmful when the trees are in blossom. For this reason most fruit trees are planted on slopes, as cold air flows down the slope and does not harm the trees. The fruit has to be carefully picked so that it is not bruised, and it is put in special storage chambers, which keep it fresh until it is needed, so that ail the fruit does not come on to the market at the same time, causing a glut. Soft or small fruit grows on bushes or along the ground, not on trees. Such fruits are grown in Kent and the neighbouring areas of Essex, Sussex, and Middlesex. It is also grown in the Wash region centring on Wisbech. Worcester, Gloucester, and Hereford are also important centres, as are parts of Hampshire, Devon, and Cornwall, and the Carse of Gowrie in Scotland. About 40 per cent of the small fruit acreage is under strawberries, and the remainder grows currants, gooseberries, and raspberries. The problem with small fruit is that the ripening period is very short and a glut occurs for about a fortnight each year when east fruit comes into season. Many are tinned, made into jam, or quick-frozen.

5.3.1.2 - Pig Farming

Most pigs are kept as a subsidiary on dairy farms where butter and cheese are made, and they are fed on the skim milk. They are most numerous in Northern Ireland ad in the lowlands of England. In recent years some farms have changed over to exclusive pig-keeping. They are slaughtered for pork (the fresh meat) or else 'cured' for bacon.

5. 3. 1. 3 - Sheep Farming

Sheep are concentrated in the upland areas of Britain - Wales, the Lake District, the Pennines, the Southern Uplands, and the fringes of the Scottish highlands. South-west England, Kent and Romney Marsh, the North York Moors, and the Yorkshire Wolds also support a large number of sheep. Ireland has relatively few sheep, and these are kept on the unproductive uplands. Each mountain area has its own breed of sheep. In Wales, the Welsh mountain sheep predominate; in the Lake District, Herdwicks; in the Scottish Highlands, the Scottish Blackface; in the southern uplands, the Cheviot; and in the Pennines, the Swale dale. Sheep stay out on the mountains ail year, and are only brought down to the valleys for lambing, shearing, dipping, and mating. They are kept for both their wool and mutton.

5. 3. 1. 4 - Poultry Farming

Poultry used to be kept on most farms, and were left free to roam the farmyard, picking up their own food. But since World War II, most poultry have been kept on specialized poultry farms. The development of battery farming, keeping hens in a confined space and controlling their feeding, has led to the production of cheap eggs and poultry. Chicken is now much cheaper than butcher's meat. However, poultry must be kept in large quantities in batteries to make this possible, and many small poultry farmers have been forced out of business, as they could not compete with the prices of large-scale produces. Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland export eggs and poultry, both live and already killed. Turkeys, mainly in demand at Christmas, are raised in Norfolk and in Ireland. Poultry are kept throughout the lowlands of Britain, and Lancashire has a very high concentration of the birds.

5. 3. 2 - Fishing

The British Isles are surrounded by shallow seas, less than 300 feet (91 m.) deep, and in many places much shallower. Over the Dogger Bank, for example, the sea is less than 100 feet (3D. m.) deep. Fish thrive in shallow water, as there is plenty of food for them. They live on plankton - tiny sea creatures. Some fish find their food at the bottom of the sea. The flat fish, such as plaice and sole, actually live on the sea floor. Others, such herring and'" mackerel, live and feed near the surface. The fish living at the bottom of the sea are caught by trawlers. The trawl is a bag-shaped net, which is dragged along the sea bed. Most trawlers make long trips, often lasting three weeks or more, to Iceland, Greenland, and Newfoundland. They have freezers on board, so that fish 'arriving back at the port are still fresh. The bigger fish of the sea bed, such as cod and halibut, are caught on long lines with hundreds of hooks. The fish that swim near the surface are caught by drifters. The huge drift net is weighted at the bottom and kept up by corks at the surface. The nets are upright, and the fish swim into them and are unable to get out. Herring and mackerel swim in shoals, so thousands are caught at one time. Fishermen now use radar to help them find shoals. Britain's chief fishing ports are Hull, Grimsby, Lowestoft, Yarmouth, Aberdeen, and Fleetwood where the trawler fleets are based. Fish must be distributed quickly from the ports if it is to be sold fresh. Special trains take it to the big city markets such as Billingsgate, London's famous fish market. It can also be preserved in a variety of ways, and fish processing plants line the docks, to freeze, tin, smoke, or salt the fish. Fish also goes to make meal for animal food and fertilizer.

Activités:

Answer these questions:

1. What is the difference between weather and climate?
2. What characterizes British climate?
3. How does British vegetation look like?
4. Why has Great Britain lost most of its forests? Which solution has it implemented to ensure land coverage?
5. Why does one say the British soils are varied?
6. What is the highest mountain in British highlands?
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15. Compare grain crops, root crops and vegetables.
16. What is the purpose of pig farming, sheep farming and poultry farming?
17. Which tools do British use for fishing? What are the different fishes they fish?
18. What does British fish processing consist of?

Séance : 9

Objectif : Mesurer la contribution des différents types d'industries, du tourisme, de l'agriculture et de la pêche dans l'économie britannique

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Recap of some major points of previous course through a series of Q&A; course

Contenu :

Chapter 6: INDUSTRY AND TOURISM

6. 1 - Industrial Revolution

In the century from 1750 to 1850, industry in Britain mechanized and concentrated into factories and workshops. The speed of industrial development and the technical advances achieve were greater than anything previously know. This laid the foundation of Britain's industrial economy making it an industrial rather than an agricultural nation. Two technical advances in particular enormously speeded industrial development. These were the steam power to drive machines. The first discovery made engineering materials available in large quantities, and the second provided a source of power for many operations to be conducted much more rapidly. It led to manufacturing being concentrated in factories and to the growth of industry and towns on the coalfields, as coal was the fuel used to raise steam. The third great change brought about between 1750 and 1850 was in transport. Roads were improved and made serviceable in ail weathers, and canals were built. The improvement of roads made travelling conditions for passengers much more pleasant, but the canals were most important to industry, as they made it possible to transport bulky goods and raw materials over long distances.

6. 1. 1 - Coal Mining

The mining of coal began on a large scale at the beginning of the 19th century and reached a maximum output of 287 million tons by 1913. Of this, 94 million tons was exported or used overseas by British shopping. This output and trade was reduced by World War l, and never afterwards recovered its former level. After the setback of World War II, the export trade almost disappeared and only survives for anthracite, the world. About 5 million tons are

export each year from South Wales. In 1947 the coal industry was nationalized, and since 1958 it has been subjected to several cut-backs.

The most productive areas are the York, Derby and Nottinghamshire, and Leicestershire fields. These are the cheapest to mine as they have the highest output per miner. The Yorkshire field is the largest in Britain. Its seams are thick and unbroken, which make them easy to mine, and the eastern section of the field has only recently been exploited. It is therefore equipped with the most up-to-date machinery and uses the latest mining techniques, all of which increase efficiency. This is also true of the Leicestershire field. In all other coalfields the best seams have long since been worked out, and early mining done with little planning has made it unsafe or impossible to work some areas of the field.-The largest of the Scottish fields the central (or Lanark), ,has been extensively mined over a long period - from the beginning of the industrial revolution. He Northumberland and Durham fields supply local heavy industry, and used to be one of the biggest exporting field, owing to its situation on the· eat coast. Exports were mainly to Scandinavia. Mining has now been extended for four miles (6 km.) under the North Sea. Nearly two-thirds of ail coal now mined is used to make gas and coke. At the present rate of consumption, the reserves of coal should last a thousand years if a way is found to exploit the many deep and thin seams, which at present are uneconomic to mine.

6. 1. 2 - Copper

The production of copper in Britain reached its peak during the mid-19th century. Devon and Cornwall produced half the world's supply of copper, and Anglesey was another mining centre. But by the end of the century, British ores were almost exhausted and difficult to mine. By that time, also, rich new sources of copper had been found in Chile and the United States. By the mid-20th century copper mining in Britain had ceased completely. Copper bars are still imported.

6. 1.3 - Steel

Sheffield is one of the oldest iron-working centres in Britain, and Sheffield cutlery has been famous since the Middle-Ages. Today, Sheffield is famous for steel rather than iron. It was in Sheffield that good-quality steel was first made. At the beginning of the 19th century, alloy steels were first made in Sheffield, and these are still its specialty. Alloy steels are steels to which small quantities of other metals have been added to give them special qualities. Manganese, for example, is added to give toughness, and chromium and nickel are added for making stainless steels. The steel used to be made from local iron-ore, but this is now exhausted, and pig iron is brought in from Middles borough and Scunthorpe. It also uses a lot of scrap iron and steel in its furnaces, from the city's engineering industries. Sheffield has more steel furnaces than any other British city and has remained a leading steel city, despite local resources being exhausted, by concentrating on quality rather than quantity. Sheffield has pioneered many new techniques in the iron and steel industry, and is now the headquarters of British Iron and Steel Research Association. Apart from steel, Sheffield's .industries include tool-making, engineering, and the making of cutlery and silverware.

6. 1. 4 - Shipbuilding

Shipbuilding is one of Britain's oldest industries, and one in which she led the world until the 20th century. At present the tonnage of ships launched in Britain is remaining static, while world production is increasing, so that Britain is supplying a smaller proportion of the world's shipping and has been overtaken by Japan, Germany, and Sweden. These countries, especially Japan, can build ships more quickly and more cheaply than Britain, and have more modern shipyards capable of building larger ships. Britain's shipyards were founded in the days of smaller ships. As the size of ships increased, the industry became concentrated on the large estuaries of the Clyde, Tyne, Wear, Mersey, and Belfast Lough. One-third by tonnage of British shipping is launched from the Clyde. Second to this comes Tyneside. But even these estuaries are neither deep enough nor wide enough to build and launch the very large bulk carriers which have been much in demand since World War II. However, smaller bulk carriers have been built as well-suited to building the ~ new container ships. Apart from a sheltered waterway, the other requirement of the ship-building industry is a large supply of steel. This heavy raw material must be found locally, as transportation costs are very high. This is why the industry thrived where iron and steel works were close at hand, such as on Clydeside and Tyneside.

6. 1. 5 - Textiles

The making of textiles is one of the oldest industries in the world. Until the late 18th century it was a "cottage" or "domestic" industry: in other words, people made textiles in their own homes. At first they naturally used the raw materials to hand. Throughout most of Britain this meant wool, but linen was also made from home-grown f1ax. Weil before the industrial revolution and the development of textile manufacture in factories, other raw materials, first silk and then cotton, were imported into Briti3in. Certain areas of the country specialized in the making of textiles. The Cotswolds and West Country, Devon, East Anglia, and the Pennine districts of Yorkshire and Lancashire made woollens and worsteds; Ireland, eastern Scotland, and Norwich made linens. Mixtures of linen, and cotton, were being made in Norwich by 1600, ·and soon afterwards in south Lancashire too. But cotton manufacture grew with the industrial revolution. The mechanization of the textile industry began in the cotton branch of the industry, from which it spread to other textiles. The machines were initially driven by direct water power, but quickly converted to steam with the industry in areas where coal supplies were available to raise the stream, and to the dominance of Yorkshire and Lancashire. It also necessitated the use of factory premises where power was available. Textiles have been one of Britain's chief sources of income since the early Middle Ages, when first wool, then wool cloth, was exported to the continent ¬especially to Flanders. Since the beginning of the 19th century, textiles have dominated British trade. Raw cotton and wool have been imported, and cotton and wool cloth, silk, linen, and other goods exported. In its heyday, before World War l, the textile industry accounted for almost three-quarters of British trade, and exports of cotton alone made up a quarter of British export.

6.1.6 - Tin

Tin has been mined in Cornwall since before the Roman Conquest, when Phoenician traders would take it to the Mediterranean. In the Middle Ages, it was used as a soldering material,

and for making pewter. British tin production reached its peak in the 19th century, when it was sent from Cornwall to the developing tin-plating industry of South Wales. But the discovery of huge quantities of tin ore in Malaysia and Bolivia, which could be mined much more cheaply than the British ores, led to the rapid decline of tin-mining. However some ore is still mined in Cornwall, and as world prices rise, it has become worthwhile to re-open some of the old tin mines.

Activités:

Answer these questions:

1. What is industrial revolution? When does it happen in Britain? How does it boost British economy?
2. Name some metal, mining and natural resources that favoured industrial revolution in the UK.
3. What are the productive areas of coal mining in the UK?
4. From which countries does UK import copper?
5. What are the products of steel industry?
6. Which countries compete GB in shipbuilding?
7. Name some British shipyards.
8. Mention some raw materials used in British textiles.
9. Tin is used for which purpose in Britain?
10. How many pieces are used to make a motor car? Name some. Where are motor cars built in Britain?
11. Name some touristic sites of Great Britain. What are touristic facilities in Britain?
12. What is the difference between import and export?
13. Who are British trade partners?
14. What is the difference between a favourable trade balance and an unfavourable trade balance? Which one fits the British trade?

Séance : 10

Objectif : Mesurer la contribution des différents types d'industries, du tourisme, de l'agriculture et de la pêche dans l'économie britannique

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Recap of some major points of previous course through a series of Q&A; course

Contenu :

6. 1. 7 - Motor Car Industry

The motor car industry is vital to Britain's economy, as motor cars are the greatest single export, with commercial vehicles and tractors in second place. The motor car industry is a growth industry. The demand for cars is steadily growing, and during the sixties ail the leading manufacturers increased their production. This led to the expansion of existing factories and the building of new ones. The traditional centre of the car industry is the Midlands, centred on Birmingham and Coventry. But the government policy of bringing growth industries to developing areas has encouraged manufacturers to build on Merseyside

and in central Scotland. Making a motor car is an assembly· industry. There are over 10,000 pieces in a motor car, and these are Collected at the assembly plant and fitted together, Many parts have previously been assembled (into things like batteries, radiators, and engines) before going for final assembly. The variety off metal goods and engineering products required are all made there, and the network of communications (especially roads) is very good. This is also true of the London area, the other main centre of car assembly.

6. 2 - Tourism

Tourism has become one of Britain's biggest industries. More tourists visit Britain each year, and it is one of the fastest-growing industries. It is concentrated in a few centres, of which London is by far the most important follow by Stratford-upon-Avon, Oxford, Cambridge, and Edinburgh. Tourism is increasing ail over the world, as people have more leisure and more money to spend on it. The problem is to provide facilities for the tourists, especially hotel accommodation and air transport, at peak times.

A national park is an area by law set aside for the preservation of its scenery, wild life, and historic objects lin such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for future generations'. The first was established in 1949, and there are now ten in ail in England and Wales: the Lake District; Snowdonia; Exmoor; Dartmoor; the Peak District; North York Moors; the Cheviots; Brecon Beacons; the Yorkshire dales; and the Pembrokeshire coast. These areas cannot just be 'fossilized' in order to preserve them as they include inhabited countryside and farmland. Amenities, therefore, have to be provided for the people living in them. These areas are specially protected from building development. Any new houses built in national parks have to be of local building materials, to preserve the appearance of the area. Large new building schemes are only allowed under very special circumstances. In addition to national parks there are also areas designated areas of outstanding natural beauty" which are similarly protected.

Most resort towns in Britain are on the coast. Some of them are quite large towns, such as Bournemouth, Blackpool, Scarborough, and Torquay. They cater mainly for summer visitors, and are often quiet and half deserted in winter. Many of them have fine beaches, with piers and amusement parks. There are also some inland towns which cater for tourists. These are mainly health spa towns, which people used to visit to take the waters, as at Bath and Harrogate. On retirement, many people settle in resort towns and their resident population is therefore.

6.3 - Trade

The trade of the United Kingdom is still concerned with importing food and raw materials, and exporting manufactured goods. However, imports of food have decreased as agricultural production increases at home. It now accounts for only one-third of Britain's imports. Raw materials make up one-quarter of the imports, which is a smaller proportion than formerly. But the import of crude oil has increased greatly, and now accounts for 10 per cent of all imports. It provides fuel and is also a raw material for the chemical industry. The import of manufactured goods has also increased. Today, the greatest exchanges of goods are between the highly industrialized nations. As each one becomes more specialized in its manufactures, more exchange is required. About 30 per cent of Britain's imports are on manufactured goods,

and these form 85 per cent of her imports. Engineering products form 45 per cent of exports, with vehicles and aircraft accounting for 15 per cent. Manufactured chemicals are also a big item, accounting for 10 per cent of exports. Britain's leading trading partners are the United States, Australia, New Zealand, Scandinavia, and Canada. Trade with the United States and Common Market countries is increasing, but Commonwealth countries· still account for 38 per cent of Britain's imports and take 42 per cent of her exports. Britain's re-export, or entrepôt trade has declined since World War II. She imports more, by value, than she exports. This is offset by 'invisible exports' – money from overseas investment – and services such as banking and insurance, and tourism. The trade of the Irish Republic consists of the export of agricultural produce, especially live cattle, and the import of manufactured goods and raw materials. The United Kingdom takes three-quarters of the Republic's exports and provides half the imports.

Chapter Seven: TOWNS – TRANSPORT

7.1. Towns

Most towns grew out villages. Ten or twelve villages were grouped together for the administration of the law, into “hundreds” under the Anglo-Saxon system

The meeting place of the “hundred court” was in the largest or most central village, and this also became a place for trade and grew into a market town.

Market towns were found all over England in the Middle Ages, spaced 7 to 10 miles (11 to 16 km) apart – the distance people were capable of walking to market.

With the development of road and railways, the distance it was possible to travel to market (and back) in one day greatly increased, and many market towns decayed while the prosperity of the remaining ones increased. The market towns having the best communications were the ones to survive. In many market towns, industry began with the processing of goods traded at the market, and the provision of goods to the surrounding agricultural areas. At the industrial revolution, industry thrived where local provided the fuel for industry. Again many small industrial towns decayed, but those in favourable areas expanded enormously. Towns now perform many services other than provide markets, administration, and industry. Some are purely residential, like the dormitory towns’ around the large conurbations, or else are resorts and service centres for surrounding areas. Most towns perform several or all of these functions, although one may predominate over the others. A town is not an administrative division: the urban district fulfils this function, except in Ireland where a township is a unit of administration

Since the end of World War II, the government has designated some twenty-five new towns. The purpose of these towns is to relieve the pressure of population in the big conurbations without causing a sprawl of the already continuously built up areas. New towns lie in a ring outside the Green Belts which surround the conurbations, and they provide homes for the overspill population of the cities. They have been planned along garden city lines so that more attractive accommodation is available than could be found in the cities. The idea has

now been extended, so that some older established towns are rapidly being expanded and developed in the same way as new towns.

The ring of new towns around London includes Crawlay, Bracknell, Stevenage, Hemel Hempstead, Welwyn, Hatfield, Harlow, and Basildon. In the north-east lie Newton Aycliffe, Peterlee, and Washington (all in Country Durham). Killingworth and Framlingham are on Tyneside. In the Midlands there are Redditch and Dawley. Other new towns include Skelmersdale in Lancashire; Runcorn in Cheshire; Cwmbran in Wales; East Kilbride, Cumbernauld and Irvine near Glasgow; and Livingstone and Glenrothes in the east of Scotland.

7.1.1. East Anglia

East Anglia is the best farming land in Britain. The climate is sunny and dry: warn in summer, and frosty in winter. The gently rolling country is well drained and soils are very rich. Arable farming is the most important, producing barley, wheat, and sugar beet. For a long time East Anglia was cut off from the rest of the country by the marshes of the Fenland on the west, and by forests on the south, so it developed its own character. It was probably the most densely populated part of Britain at the time of the Norman Conquest, and prospered on the wool trade of the Middle Ages, when this was Britain's most valuable product. Norwich was one of England's greatest cities. The towns of East Anglia are market towns for an agricultural land. Their industries process local agricultural produces. They include brewing, flour-milling, and the making of mustard, starch, fertilizers, leather, and agricultural machinery. Not all of East Anglia is fertile. There are areas of infertile sands, such as the Breckland, which are either heath or have been planted trees.

7.1.2. Birmingham

Birmingham with a population of over one million is the largest city of the Midlands. It is sometimes called the city of a thousand trades, as its industries cover the whole range of metal and engineering products, from large machine tools to screws, nuts, and bolts, it is probably the greatest metal working area in the world, doing everything from smelting and refining metals to producing the finished articles. It specializes in making brass, precious metals, jewellery and electro-plating. The goods Birmingham produces are expensive in proportion to their small size and weight, as it cannot afford to manufacture goods requiring bulky raw materials which are costly to transport overland. Birmingham is equidistant from the four major estuaries of the Thames, Severn. Mersey, and Humber, with their ports of London, Bristol, Liverpool, and Hull. All of these serve Birmingham to some degree, as also does Southampton, it is well connected to road, railway, and canal to other parts of the country and being in the centre if the country, it is in an excellent position of distributing small goods and parts to be used in other industries elsewhere. Birmingham grew rapidly in the days of the industrial revolution, and much of its housing is in urgent need of replacement. Birmingham has a massive rebuilding programme. The whole central area has already been cleared and re-planned.

Activités:

Answer the questions hereafter:

1. How do towns grow?
2. What is the distance between traditional market towns?
3. What is a multifunctional town in Britain?
4. What are the new towns created in UK?
5. Why does East Anglia offer best farming land in Britain? What are its farming produces?
6. Why is Birmingham known as a city of a thousand trades?
7. What is Black Country? Why this name? Why is this name out of date today?
8. What was Bristol heyday in the past?
9. Which industries does Belfast develop?
10. Which raw materials does Dublin import and which finished goods does it export?
11. Name some industries developed in Edinburgh.
12. Which trade contributed to Cardiff's growth in the past?
13. How does GB solve the problem of population housing congestion in Glasgow? What are the products of Glasgow's industry?
14. Discuss the growth of infrastructures in Liverpool.
15. State the multifunctional nature of London as the capital and largest city in Britain.
16. Discuss Manchester and Southampton as important ports in Britain.
17. Compare British railway transport and road transport.
18. What is a motorway? How many motorways are there in Britain?
19. Name some British airports and seaports.
20. How do we call the vehicles used in airports, seaports, motor transport and rail transport?

Séance : 11

Objectif : Mesurer la contribution des différents types d'industries, du tourisme, de l'agriculture et de la pêche dans l'économie britannique

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Recap of some major points of previous course through a series of Q&A; course

Contenu :

7.1.3. Black Country

The Black Country is the name given to a group of towns which he north and west of Birmingham and are now joined to it. It was blackened by smoke from coast, which used to power the iron foundries and blast furnaces. But the name is now out-of-date, as electric power has replaced coal. The towns composing the group are West Bromwich. Walsall, Wolverhampton, Wednesbury, Oldbury, Dudley, Bilston and Tipton. They lie on the South Staffordshire coalfield and were originally engaged in heavy industry, using local coal and iron. As the local ore became exhausted, and steel more sought after than iron, the towns began to manufacture smaller metal goods, ranging from simple things such as baths and

buckets to complicate machine tools and switchgear. Little heavy industry is now centred there apart from iron steel smelting at Bilston.

7.1.4. Bristol

Bristol is a city of half a million people, standing on the River Avon. The old centre is 8 miles (13 km), upstream from the Bristol Channel. Bristol is now only Britain's eleventh most important port, but in its heyday it ranked second to London. In the 17th and 18th centuries, its position on the west side of the country gave it a great advantage in the developing trade with North America. Until 1807, when slave trading was abolished, it took part in a three-cornered-trade which carried cloth and metal goods to West Africa in exchange for slaves, who were taken across the Atlantic to America, where they were traded for sugar, rum, and tobacco. These goods were finally brought back to the port of Bristol. Cocoa was also brought in from West Africa, and tobacco processing, sugar refining, and chocolate making were all established in the city. During the 19th century the pattern of Britain's trade altered with the development of industry centring on the coalfields of the north and the Midlands. Bristol was too far away from these areas to serve them as a port, and lost their trade to Liverpool. The old-established industries are still the most important in Bristol, although aircraft manufacture has now come to the city. Motorways and the Severn Bridge link Bristol with London, south Wales and the Midlands. This, combined with the development of industries along the Severn estuary, will help to expand both the port and the city and re-establish its importance.

7.1.5. Belfast

Belfast is the capital of Northern Ireland, and contains one-third of the country's people. It has a population of about half a million. It grew very quickly during the 19th century, when many people left the land to find work in the towns especially after the Irish famine from 1845. The linen and shipbuilding industries grew rapidly, and centred in Belfast. The city is almost entirely built of red brick. It is situated at the head of Belfast Lough, a deep sea inlet. The Belfast shipyards can launch the largest ships in the United Kingdom, into the deep, calm waters of the Lough. Steel for the shipbuilding industry and for the aircraft works has to be imported. It comes by sea from Lanarkshire in Scotland. Belfast handles three-quarters of the trade of Northern Ireland. As well as being sheltered, Belfast Lough has a difference of only 9 feet (2,74m) between high and low tides. This means it is unnecessary to construct docks. A straight deep-water channel was dredged in 1837, and Queen's island was created out of the dredged materials. This now houses the shipyards and aircraft works. Belfast also has bacon and ham curing plants, vegetable canneries, and creameries, using local agricultural produce. The built up area had spread along the shores of Lough and down the Lagan valley. It is hemmed in on the north side of the valley by the steep edge of the Antrim Plateau.

7.1.6 – Dublin

Dublin is the capital city of the Republic of Ireland. It lies on the River Liffey near where it enters Dublin Bay. The Bay is protected by Howth Head to the north and the Wicklow Mountains, which reach the sea, to the south. Some of the city's buildings mostly date from the late 18th and early 19th centuries, when many elegant squares of Georgian houses were constructed. The docks and industrial districts are built on land reclaimed from Dublin Bay.

Dublin is the chief port of Ireland, importing food, coal, manufactured goods, and raw materials for Ireland's manufacturing industries, (which are mostly situated in Dublin). Ham, bacon and live cattle, pigs and sheep are Ireland's leading exports, and these are all exported via Dublin. Many of Dublin's industries are based biscuits, jam, and chocolate. But metal working, engineering, and the manufacture of wool, cotton, clothing, and footwear are also important. Dun Longhair, lying 5 miles (8 km) south east of the city, but now joined to it, is the city's passenger port, with daily sailings to Holyhead, a 3½ hour journey. There are also services from Dublin to Liverpool and Glasgow.

7. 1. 7- Edinburgh

Edinburgh, with a population of half a million, is the capital of Scotland. The old heart of the city clusters round the Castle Rock, which was an easy site to defend, and which guarded the main lowland route into Scotland at its narrowest pint between, the Pentland hills and the Firth of Forth. Edinburgh houses government offices and an old famous university. The demands of the capital and university for books, journals, papers, and other publications has given rise to papermaking, printing, publishing, and book binding industries. Other industries are concerned with food processing, including brewing, flour-milling, and biscuit making. But the electronics industry now employs more people than any other.

7. 1. 8 – Cardiff

Cardiff, with a population of more than a quarter of a million, is the capital of Wales and also its largest city. It lies on the fertile plain of Gwent in Glamorgan, where the two rivers Taff and Rhymney reach the sea. Both of these rivers carve valleys which support coal mining and heavy industry. Cardiff forms the outlet for these valleys, and the city grew with the expansion of the coal trade during the 19th century, when coal from South Wales was exported all over the world.

7. 1 9 – Glasgow

Glasgow lies at the lowest bridging point of the River Clyde, and so became the place where many routes met in order to cross the river. It became a market, which grew into the major trading and commercial centre for all the west of Scotland. It particularly grew during the 18th century, when trade with America increased. It became a boom town in the 19th century, with the development of heavy industry. People flocked into the city to find work, and tenements were built to house them. But there was little open space between them, and Glasgow is now badly overcrowded, with the worst housing problems in Britain. To try and solve these, four new towns have been built to house Glasgow people: Cumbernauld, East Kilbride, Irvine, and Livingstone. The central areas of the city are also being re-developed. Iron and steel manufacture and all forms of heavy engineering, are found within the city, as well as the manufacture of many consumer goods, including furniture, confectionery, biscuits, and hosiery. Shipyards extend down the Clyde estuary from the west of the city, and many of the other industries serve shipbuilding-for example, the manufacture of marine engines and boilers, and the production of the many fitments required on a passengers ship. Glasgow is the leading port of Scotland, but the river the Americas, importing iron ore (for the iron and steel industry of Clyde valley), grain (which is milled at the quayside), sugar (refined at the out-port of Greenock), tobacco (processed in Glasgow), and cotton (spun into

thread in Paisley). Exports from Glasgow are of machinery, whisky, and iron and steel goods. The city also provides services such as shopping, entertainment, and hospital treatment for an area extending as far as the western highlands and islands.

7.1.10 – Liverpool

Liverpool is Britain's second port, handing about one-quarter of the country's trade. London is the only port with a larger trade. However, Liverpool's rise to the position of a great port has been accomplished within the last 200 years. It began with Liverpool's participation in the trade triangle which sent cheap manufactures goods to West Africa to be exchanged for slaves, who were transported across the Atlantic, sold in the West Indies, the ships finally returning with molasses, tobacco and cotton to complete the triangle (see also Bristol). By the time the slave trade was abolished in 1807, industry was well established in south-east Lancashire, and Liverpool became what it has remained, the chief importing port for raw cotton. However, it is not just the Lancashire, but Cheshire industrial areas which are served by Liverpool, but areas much farther away, such as Yorkshire and the Midlands. The growth of the port is a result of the large "hinterland" supplies, and its good communications with this hinterland. In the 18th century it was linked by canal with Yorkshire and the Midlands, and Manchester. Now rail freight liners deliver directly to Liverpool and the M. 6 motorway, while trans-Pennine motorways have improved the port's roads connections with its hinterland still further? The Mersey estuary narrows towards the sea, so the tide is forced through a fairly narrow channel, keeping it scoured of silt, but making the entrance to the port rather hazardous. Approaching ships take on pilots at Anglesey or the Isle of Man to guide them through the shallows. The high range of the tide – over 30 feet; (9m) – means that it is necessary to construct docks on the Liverpool side of kept at a controlled depth. There are now thirty docks on the Liverpool side of the Mersey, and the port includes several docks on the south side as well. The Port has special equipment to handle its enormous quantity and variety of cargoes, such as bulk unloading equipment for sugar and ores, container berths, and a floating jetty for oil tankers. Liverpool's leading industries are port industries; based on bulky imported goods, such as flour-milling, sugar refining, soap making, and the manufacture of rubber and cattle food. Liverpool handles 30 per cent of Britain's passenger traffic, mostly people bound for, or arriving from, North America.

7.1. 11 – London

London is far larger than any other in Britain, and is one of the greatest cities of the world. The Romans originally built Londinium at a point where the Thames could be bridged and the open sea was within easy reach. It was on the main route from Dover and the south coast ports to Chester and the north. There are low gravel hills whose firm land was good for building. St. Paul's Cathedral and Leaden hall market now stand on these hills.

London has now spread outwards in all directions, and its growth can be traced by looking at the buildings in the London streets. Tall houses with pillared porticos, elegant squares, and crescents, are typical of the 18th and 19th centuries. Victorian terraced rows stretching beyond the central districts show later periods of expansion, while the remoter suburbs are composed of more modern streets of semi-detached houses with gardens. It was not until the railways, buses, and underground railway system developed that the huge spread of London

was made possible. The appearance of London has changed greatly since World War II, when large parts of the city were damaged or destroyed, and had to be rebuilt. Building techniques using concrete, steel, and glass have made it possible to build high structures more easily. So the skyline of London has changed, as tall hotels and office blocks have been built at its centre. In many London boroughs large blocks of flats have been built to replace derelict property. One reason why London has grown so large is that its site has great advantages, and performs a great variety of functions. Its site is at the lowest crossing point of the Thames. This made it a focus of routes for south east England, and there are no considerable barriers to communications in any direction, making it the road and rail centre for the whole of the country. The mouth of the Thames is opposite the mouth of the Rhine, which encouraged trade with the great ports of Europe. The marshy land of the Thames Valley made it possible to excavate dock basins for large ships, and they extend downstream from the centre of the city. Apart from being the political capital of Britain and the Commonwealth, London is the country's major port and handles much entrepôt trade (that is, importing goods which are to be re-shipped to other ports). Manufacturing industries employ about 40 per cent of London's working population.

London is a national and international centre of finance, and is also a great cultural centre, with museums, theatres, and art galleries. There are good shopping facilities, and the city attracts many tourists.

The two most important aspects of London's growth are the port and the manufacturing industries. The port of London extends from the mouth of the Thames, below the Isle if Grain, to Teddington, a distance of 92 miles (149 km). By the 18th century, the river wharves and jetties which formed the port of London were so crowded that ships had to wait for berths, and could only come up river with the tide. Eventually, docks were dug out of the marshy banks of the Thames downstream from London (the water in the docks can be kept deep at all times. The newest development is at Tilbury, where there are seven container ship berths which increase the handing capacity by ten times, the docks handle three-quarters of London's exports, but three-quarters of the imports come to riverside wharves and jetties. No sea-going ships can come above London Bridge, apart from specially designed coal-carrying ships which bring coal to the power stations and gasworks along the Thames. Goods are unloaded onto barges, which are then pulled, often six at a time, by rugs. They mainly go to the city area, where there are many general and specialized wharves. The largest import by weight of the port of London is oil, yet no tankers come above Purfleet. Below this are the oil jetties and refineries of Thames Haven, Shell Haven, and the Isle of Grain. The port also handles raw materials imported for London's manufacturing industries. Many of these industries, especially those in the central areas, are old-established. Furniture making, the clothing trade, and a variety of engineering industries are found immediately north of the city and often carried out in converted houses or small workshops. Much of the work is outwork, done by people in their own homes. The manufacturing area of north-west London is quite different. The factories are never and larger, mostly built in the 20th century. They make consumer goods (which are goods bought directly by ordinary families); food, and durable (such as record players, or washing machines). Although the manufacturing industries have grown in London, this is not the main reason for the city's expansion. The greatest increase has been in the number of people employed in what are called the service industries, such as

transport, shops, building, gas, and electricity, and in the professional ranks of administration and finance. Many of these service industries are based in offices. Office headquarters are attracts to London it is a great commercial and financial centre. Hundreds of firms which operate mainly in other parts of the country also keep an office in London. London is also a great financial centre not only for Britain but for the rest of the world. Banks and insurance firms have their head offices in London. It is indeed, the growth of office which largely accounts for the growth of London. Offices have taken over much of the central area, and houses haves spread farther and farther out. The enormous size of London has created many problems for town planners, while transport and traffic also create many problems and headaches. A Green Belt was drawn round London new towns are built beyond this to house the overspill population.

Activités:

Answer the questions hereafter:

1. How do towns grow?
2. What is the distance between traditional market towns?
3. What is a multifunctional town in Britain?
4. What are the new towns created in UK?
5. Why does East Anglia offer best farming land in Britain? What are its farming produces?
6. Why is Birmingham known as a city of a thousand trades?
7. What is Black Country? Why this name? Why is this name out of date today?
8. What was Bristol heyday in the past?
9. Which industries does Belfast develop?
10. Which raw materials does Dublin import and which finished goods does it export?
11. Name some industries developed in Edinburgh.
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15. State the multifunctional nature of London as the capital and largest city in Britain.
16. Discuss Manchester and Southampton as important ports in Britain.
17. Compare British railway transport and road transport.
18. What is a motorway? How many motorways are there in Britain?
19. Name some British airports and seaports.
20. How do we call the vehicles used in airports, seaports, motor transport and rail transport?

Séance : 12

Objectif : Mesurer la contribution des différents types d'industries, du tourisme, de l'agriculture et de la pêche dans l'économie britannique

Consignes / activités d'introductions : Recap of some major points of previous course through a series of Q&A; course

Contenu :

7.1.12 – Manchester

The city of Manchester grew with the Lancashire cotton industry, and its fortunes have always been ted to this industry. It lies at the centre of a semicircle of predominantly cotton-spinning towns: Bolton, Bury, Rochdale, Oldham, and Stockport. This position meant that cotton goods could be easily collected, packed and stored. It led to the city's development as a commercial centre serving the industry. Today Manchester is one of the country's leading ports, due to the building of the Manchester ship Canal, completed in 1894. Although it lies 36 miles (58 km) from the sea, it is nevertheless the sixth port of Britain. The canal was built partly out of the small River Irwell, a tributary of the Mersey on which Manchester stands, and partly by excavating a channel through open country. The port of Manchester thus extends 36 miles (58 km) from Eastham locks to the terminal docks in Salford. The canal brought many industries to the area, and these often relied directly on imported materials, such as oil refining at Stanton, and steel manufacture at Irlam. It was also the site of the first industrial estate in Britain, at Trafford Park, where more than 200 factories employ some 18,000 people. The Manchester conurbation houses over two million people, well deserving its title "capital of the north." As well as being the north's commercial centre, it is also its cultural centre, with theatres and its own orchestra. It is a manufacturing city, and engineering and clothing are leading industries.

7.1. 13 – Southampton

Southampton is a large port and industrial town at the head of Southampton Water the large estuary of two rivers, the test and the Itchen. Southampton itself lies between the two rivers where they flow into the estuary, so has an exceptionally long waterfront. The double high tides – Southampton has four high tides a day mans that the construction of docks is unnecessary as the water level does not change much. This situation is created by the presence of the Isle of Wight off Southampton water. The tide moves up the channel and divides to come round each side of the island. Southampton is the chief long distance passenger port of Britain. Most passengers are bound for North America, but it also serves South Africa, and there are ferry links with Cherbourg and Le Havre and a new roll-on-roll-off ferry service to Spain. Being opposite the main passenger ports of the continent many ships make Southampton a port of call, Southampton also imports food-stuffs; especially fruit from South Africa and bananas from the West Indies, for which it has liner train connections with London. It also exports manufactured gods, some of which come from the Midlands. However most of Southampton's trade is in oil, handling 22 million tonnes a year. This is imported at Fawley and Hamble, near the mouth of the estuary, and is discharged at jetties built out into the deepened centre of the estuary. The Fawley oil refinery is the largest in the country and supplies chemical works nearby, which produce synthetic rubber and ethylene,

which is sent by pipeline to the Severn estuary, where it is manufactured into polythene. Fawley is also connected by pipeline to London.

In Southampton itself many people work in ship-repairing and in the docks, but pharmaceuticals and electronics are growing industries.

7. 2 – Transports

7.2. 1 – Railways

The first railway built in Britain was the Stockton-Darlington line, opened in 1825. Like many of the early railways, it was built to transport coal from the mines to the coast for export. The first passenger line ran from Liverpool to Manchester and was opened in 1830. From 1840 until World War I, the building of railways boomed. No place in Britain was more than 15 miles (24 km) from a railway line. In the period between the two world wars, with the development of the internal combustion engine, competition between railways and the roads for both passengers and goods was fierce. Many of the smaller branch lines were closed. After World War II, the railways were nationalized and in the 1960s a drastic reorganization of the railways took place with further closures of uneconomic lines and stream lining of the mainline services. This programme included the introduction of diesel engines and the electrification of lines connecting London with Birmingham, Manchester and Liverpool, greatly speeding the journeys between these towns. Average speeds of 70 and 80 M.P.H. are now quite common. Railways are best suited to transporting heavy, bulky goods. Half of railway freight coal and coke. Rail transport is also cheaper over long distances.

7.2.2 – Road Transport

The great advantage of road transport is that it can carry people and goods from door to door without the changes or re-loading usually necessitated by rail and water transport tracks and the motorways, the road pattern of Britain follows the medieval tracks and the planned roads of the 18th century. The number of vehicles using the roads increases every year, and tripled between 1950 and 1970. This means that many roads have become overcrowded. Four times more goods are now transported by road than by rail. With the closure of branch railway lines and their replacement by bus services, together with the increase in the number of car owners, the majority of passengers travel by road also. Over short distances it is cheaper and more convenient than any other form of transport.

7. 2. 3 – Motorways

A motorway is a road specially constructed for fast-moving, non-stop traffic. It has separate carriageways in each direction and no intersection. The traffic which can use it is limited by law to fast-moving and mechanically propelled vehicles. The first motorway in Britain was the M.1. This way opened in 1959, linking London and the Midlands. It has since been extended northwards, while the M. 6 links the Midlands with the north-west. The M. 5 links the Midlands and the south-west, and now connects with the M. 6. The Midlands are thus the pivot of the motorway system, with all the main interchanges in those regions. Sections of other proposed motorways are opened or else under construction, notably the M.4 which connects London with South Wales via the Seven Bridge. Motorways enormously speed road transport, especially deliveries of heavy and awkward loads.

7.2. 4 – Airports

Many towns have their own small airports. But the size and speed of modern airplanes used for international travel means that only big airports can handle this traffic. London is served by Heathrow and Gatwick, but there are plans for a third airport. Prestwick, near Glasgow, Shannon, near Limerick in western Ireland and Manchester's Ringway Airport all handle international traffic. Airports have to be built some way outside the city, where there is a sufficient area of flat, unoccupied ground. But this presents problems of transporting passengers rapidly into the centre of the city. Another major problem with airports is the associated noise.

7. 2. 5 – Seaports

The trade of Britain is concentrated on a few big ports. London and Liverpool between them handle more than half the total foreign trade. Each of these ports serves a large area. London serves the whole country for many goods, and Liverpool serves a huge industrial area, taking in Lancashire, Yorkshire, and the Midlands. The original sites were sheltered harbours, but with the increasing size of ships these have had to be expanded. Ports that could not do this have perished. Ports have also specialized in either exporting or importing. London is primarily an importing port and handles over half the re-export trade. This is called entrepôt trade, and involves the import of goods destined for other countries, their storage and warehousing, then re-export to their ultimate destination. At Liverpool and Glasgow there is an excess of exports over imports, but at every other port in the country imports exceed exports. Much of this is accounted for by huge-imports of oil. These are so large that they make up almost two-thirds by weight of London's total trade, and have put the large oil-importing ports of Milford Haven, Southampton, and the Medway ports into third, fourth, and fifth positions in tonnage of trade. Oil tankers are the largest ships in the world. Some of them are so large that they can only berth in a few ports: for example, the largest tankers off-load half their cargo at Milford Haven, then go on to Southampton and other oil ports. In Scotland the large tankers cannot berth at Grangemouth, but off-load at Finnart on the west coast on Loch Long, and from there the oil is piped the Grangemouth, refineries. During the 1960s, a completely new type of port, the container port, was developed. Such ports handle mixed cargoes that cannot simply be piped into the hold of a bulk carrier (as oil, wheat, and iron ore can be). In the past, these cargoes have all arrived at the ports in different sizes and shapes of container, each of which has to be separately packed into the hold of the ship. This means a lot of handling, which takes times and costs money. Goods handled at container ports arrive packed in containers of a standard size. The container ships are designed so that these containers slot into the hold, with the result that the ship can be loaded in half the time. The development of special liner trains has also made the handling of goods more efficient. Goods are unloaded from the ship directly onto trains whose tankers can be lifted onto Lorries of final delivery by road. Most large ports have a container section or else are developing one. The container port of London is at Tilbury docks.

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End