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Mamlakatshunoslik fanidan ma’ruzalar matni

Kirish

Mustaqillik yillarida yangi bir avlod shakllandi. Eskicha tor dunyoqarash qoliplardan xoli bu avlod jahon haqida, unda kechgayotgan iqtisodiy, ijtimoiy-siyosiy, ma’naviy-madaniy jarayonlar to’g’risida keng va chuqur bilim olishga o’zida kuchli ehtiyoj sezmoqda. Globallashuv asrida inson o’zini faqat Vatanining emas, butun jahon hamjamiyatining teng huquqli a’zosi deb his qilmoqda, umuminsoniy qadriyatlardan bir xilda bahramand bo’lishga haqli deb hisoblamoqda. Shunday bir vaziyatda chet ellarda mamlakatimiz nomidan ish yurituvchi mutaxassis kadrlarning har jihatdan mukammal, bilimdon va zukko bo’lishi, xalqaro andozalar miqyosida fikrlashi lozimligi bugungi kun talabidir. Ayniqsa, o’zga mamlakatda Vatanimiz manfaatini himoya qiluvchi kadrlarning o’z mutaxassisligiga doir bilimlar bilan bir qatorda o’sha davlatning ma’naviy va milliy qadriyatlari, adabiyoti va san’atidan yaxshi xabardor bo’lishi zarurligi ayni haqiqatdir.

Mamlakatimizning dunyo hamjamiyatiga integrasiyalashuvi, fan va texnikaning rivojlanishi yosh avlodning ko’p madaniyatli dunyoda raqobatbardosh bo’lishi uchun bir necha chet tillarini mukammal bilishni taqozo etadi, chunki til – tili o’rganilayotgan mamlakatning tarixi, turmush tarzi, madaniyati, san’ati, iqlimi hamda ta’lim tizimini o’rganishda mayoq vazifasini o’taydi. Mazkur to’plamda biz imkon qadar “Mamlakatshunoslik” fani doirasida o’rganiladigan mavzularga doir ma’lumotlarni keltirdik. Talabalar mazkur qo’llanmadan ma’ruzalar jarayonida, shuningdek seminar darslar davomida ham foydalanishlari mumkin.

1-МАВЗУ: The earliest times and the Roman conquest to the British Isles

Plan:

1. Britain's prehistory
2. The Britons, the Beaker people, the Celts
3. The Roman invasion to the British Isles
4. The characteristic features of Roman towns and social life

Britain's prehistory

In prehistoric times Britain was joined to the rest of the continent. The first human inhabitants of Britain, and many of its animal inhabitants, came there over dry land.

Towards the end of the Ice Age the mighty prehistoric river, which joined the present-day Thames with the Rhine, overwhelmed the land joining Britain to the Continent and formed the present English Channel. In the period immediately after its formation the Channel was too stormy and full of strong currents to allow access to Britain by the nearest overseas route. The hunters of the Neolithic Age (New Stone Age) crossed the sea to Britain to the west of the Channel and settled along the western shores in their search for food. They found a country practically covered with virgin forest of oak and ash and swamps, except where the higher ground of the hills rose above the forest.

The first inhabitants of the island for whom a traditional name exists are the Iberians or Megalithic men, who probably form the basis of the present-day population in Western England, Wales, North and Western Scotland and Ireland. This race is supposed to have arrived in Britain from the region of the Mediterranean and inhabited it between 3000 and 2000 BC.

Soon after 2000 BC a new race of Apline stock came from the east of Europe. They entered the country, this time from the south-east and east. From their characteristic pottery found in their graves they are known as the Beaker Folk. The race was certainly familiar with the use and working of bronze. The two peoples were closely related in culture and the newcomers spread along the east coast. Although a certain level of civilization was reached in the Early and Middle Bronze Ages, it was spread over only a small part of Britain. The ancient people, who gradually merged together, left behind impressive monuments, connected with religious rites at Stonehenge, Avebury and other sites. The name 'Stonehenge' comes from the old English 'hengan', meaning hanging stones. Stonehenge also served as an ancient observatory.

The Britons, the Beaker people, the Celts

After 2400 BC new groups of people arrived in southeast Britain from Europe. They were round-headed and strongly built, taller than Neolithic Britons. It is not known whether they invaded by armed force, or whether they were invited by Neolithic Britons because of their military or metal working skills. Their influence was soon felt and, as a result, they became leaders of British society. Their arrival is marked by the first individual graves, furnished with pottery beakers, from which these people get their name: the "Beaker" people.

The Beaker people probably spoke an Indo-European language. They seem to have brought a single culture to the whole of Britain. They also brought skills to make bronze tools and these began to replace stone ones. But they accepted many of the old ways. Stonehenge remained the most important centre until 1300 BC. The Beaker people's richest graves were there, and they added a new circle of thirty stone columns , this time connected by stone lintels, or cross-pieces. British society continued to be centred on a number of henges across the countryside.

However, from about 1300 BC onwards the henge civilisation seems to have become less important , and was overtaken by a new form of society in southern England, that of a settled farming class. At first this farming society developed in order to feed the people at the henges, but eventually it became more important and powerful as it grew richer. The new farmers grew wealthy because they learned to enrich the soil with natural waste materials so that it did not become poor and useless. This change probably happened at about the same time that the chalk uplands were becoming drier. Family villages and fortified enclosures appeared across the land scape, in lower-lying areas as well as on the chalk hills, and the old central control of Stonehenge and the other henges was lost .

From this time, too, power seems to have shifted to the Thames valley and southeast Britain . Except for short periods, political and economic power has remained in the southeast ever since. Hill-forts replaced henges as the centres of local power, and most of these were found in the southeast, suggesting that the land successfully supported more people here than elsewhere. There was another reason for the shift of power eastwards. A number of better-designed bronze swords have been found in the Thames valley, suggesting that the local people had more advanced metalworking skills. Many of these swords have been found in river beds, almost certainly thrown in for religious reasons. This custom may be the origin of the story of the legendary King Arrhur's sword , which was given to him from out of the water and which was thrown back into the water when he died.

Soon after 700 BC Britain was invaded by the Celts, who are supposed to have come from Central Europe. A commonly accepted theory of their invasions is that they came in three distinct waves. The first group was called the Goidels or Gaels. These first Celts were driven by later invaders into the less fertile and more mountainous western and northern regions. The original language of Ireland and of North-West Scotland is thus Goidelic Celtic (Gaelic). The second wave of Celtic tribes, the Brythonic Celts or Brythons, from whose name is derived the word Britain, arrived in England between 600 and 500 BC and settled in the South of England, in Wales and in North-West England and South-West Scotland. Their language developed into the Celtic language of modern Wales.

A third wave of invaders, Belgae from Northern Gaul, containing many people of Teutonic origin, arrived about 100 BC and occupied the greater part of what are now known as the Home Counties (the central part of Great Britain). The earliest Celts were in the bronze stage of development, but later Celtic invaders brought with them a knowledge of iron working. Trade, industry and agriculture flourished, as did sheep and cattle raising. The tribal form of government prevailed.

During the Celtic period women may have had more independence than they had again for hundreds of years. When the Romans invaded Britain two of the largest tribes were ruled by women who fought from their cha riots. The most powerful Celt to stand up to the Romans was a woman, Boadicea. She had become queen of her tribe when her husband had died. She was tall, with long red hair, and had a frightening appearance. In AD 61 she led her tribe against the Romans. She nearly drove them from Britain, and she destroyed London, the Roman capital, before she was defeated and killed.

The Roman Conquest and Occupation

It was the close relations of Britain to Gaul which first attracted the notice of the Romans. Julius Caesar was the first to carry the Roman banner to the British Isles. The Greeks called the island 'Albion', and the Romans said that this meant 'white land', because the first view for most visitors was the white cliffs near Dover. One of Caesar's motives was to stop the Gauls from receiving British aid, a factor which had bothered him while he was conquering Gaul. In 55 BC he landed and engaged the Britons but soon withdrew because local opposition was strong. In the following year with an army of 25,000 he landed again and penetrated to where London now stands and defeated the Celtic tribesmen. He levied tribute upon them but again withdrew without making a permanent occupation. It was not until AD 43, nearly a hundred years later, that the Roman Emperor Claudius sent an army to Britain which conquered the southern part of the island.

In the north and west the older social order remained much untouched, while in the south-eastern region of England, where the Romans built most of their towns and where the Roman type villas were concentrated, the slave-owning system developed. Otherwise the old way of life of the British Celts did not change very much.

A further important legacy of the Roman Empire was the network of military roads, Which the Romans according to their custom built throughout the occupied region. In some parts of the country these roads to this day form the basis of road communication. The routes of some of these roads, such as Watling Street from London to Chester; Icknield Way connecting London with Cirencester, Gloucester and Caerleon in South Wales, are still used today. The towns were fortified. Most British towns with names ending with 'chester' were, in Roman times, fortified camps. Many defensive walls were built to defend the country from the attacks of the barbarians living in the north and the west of the country. Most outstanding was the wall built on the orders of Emperor Hadrian, from Solway Firth to the Tyne river, which roughly divided England from Scotland and was to keep out the Picts.

The characteristic features of Roman towns and social life

The most obvious characteristic of Roman Britain was its towns, which were the basis of Roman administration and civilisation. Many grew out of Celtic settlements , military camps or market centres. Broadly, there were three different kinds of town in Roman Britain , two of which were towns established by Roman charter. These were the coloniae, towns peopled by Roman settlers, and the municipia , large cities in which the whole population was given Roman

citizenship. The third kind, the civitas, included the old Celtic tribal capitals, through which the Romans administered the Celtic population in the countryside. At first these towns had no walls. Then, probably from the end of the second century to the end of the third century AD, almost every town was given walls. At first many of these were no more than earthworks, but by AD 300 all towns had thick stone walls. The Romans left about twenty large towns of about 5, 000 inhabitants, and almost one hundred smaller ones. These towns were built with stone as well as wood, and had planned streets, markets and shops. Some buildings had central heating. They were connected by roads which were so well built that they survived when later roads broke up. These roads continued to be used long after the Romans left , and became the main roads of modern Britain. Six of these Roman roads met in London, a capital city of about 20,000 people. London was twice the size of Paris, and possibly the most important trading centre of northern Europe, because southeast Britain produced so much corn for export.

The largest of the towns was called Londinium. It was on the river Thames, where London is today. It became the capital city. The destruction of the Roman Empire was due to a unique combination of internal and external causes. The slave-owning system hampered the development of the productive forces. Unproductive slave labour led to the economic decline of the empire. The incessant revolts of the slaves weakened the empire too. They were coupled with the attacks of the barbarian tribes from outside. *n* the fifth century the barbarian Germanic tribes brought about the overthrow of the Roman Empire in Western Europe.

Answer the questions:

1. Who resided in the territory of modern Britain?
2. Who were the first settlers of Britain?
3. How did Ice Age effect the human history?
4. How did metal making assist in developing the society in Britain?

2-МАВЗУ: The Anglo-Saxon invasion and the Vikings attacks

Plan:

1. The settlement of Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in the territory of Britain
2. The political and social status of Anglo-Saxon kingdoms
3. The Vikings attacks to the British Isles
4. The warrior kings of England

The settlement of Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in the territory of Britain

After the departure of the Romans (407) the Celts retained their independence for a short period of time. From the middle of the 5th century they were subject to the attacks of the Germanic tribes of the Jutes, the Saxons and the Angles. The Jutes and the Angles came from the Tutland peninsula (southern Denmark) and the Saxons from the territory between the Rhine and the Elbe rivers (northern Germany).

By the fifth century the German tribes were expanding into the Roman Empire, as well as into Britain. The Angles, Saxons and Jutes turned their special attention to the British Isles.

The Jutes landed in Kent somewhere in 450. They were followed by the Angles and the Saxons. The Celts offered stiff opposition and it took them more than a century for the country to be subdued. Eventually the invaders settled down and formed a number of small kingdoms. The Angles in the north and east made kingdoms called Northumbria, Mercia and East Anglia. The Saxons in the centre and south had Wessex, Sussex and Essex. The Jutes had Kent in the south-east. The Anglo-Saxons and Jutes were close to each other in speech and customs, and they gradually merged into one people. The name Jute soon died out and the invaders were generally referred to as the Anglo-Saxons.

Although the German invaders occupied most of the British Isles, certain refuge areas were left to the natives. They retained territory in West and North Wales and in the northern territory of Cumbria. The northern part of Britain was the home of the Picts and Scots, whom neither the Romans nor the Angles and Saxons had been able to conquer. After the conquest of the Picts by the Scots in the ninth century this northern territory came to be called Scotland and a united Scottish kingdom was formed in the 11th century. In the course of the struggle of the Celts against the Anglo-Saxons many legends emerged of which most famous is the legend of the Court of King Arthur.

The political and social status of Anglo-Saxon kingdoms

Anglo-Saxon society was much more backward as compared with the social organization which prevailed among the Celts in Britain. The establishment of Anglo-Saxon rule in Britain hampered the development of class relations and the formation of class society in the country. The communal organization was widespread among the newcomers.

The Anglo-Saxons settled mainly in small villages consisting of about 20(to 30 families all faithful to their leader. The churls or freemen formed the majority of the population of the communities. They received their share of land — a 'hide' — of about 120 acres from the community. Local rules (for example, how to share the great grass field between them before hay-making) were made by the 'moot'. The moot was a small meeting held on a grassy hill or under a tree. Sometimes it judged cases between the people of the village. The many villages were, as time went by, grouped into 'hundreds', and the hundreds were grouped into shires. Each hundred had an open-air court of justice, the judges being the leaders of the district, who were called aldermen. Important cases were judged by the sheriff of a shire or by a king's officer called a reeve. These cases were discussed at a shire moot which met usually twice a year.

The king's council was called the Witan. It could make laws and choose or elect new kings. Initially the king's power was mainly symbolic. Gradually class inequality increased especially after the conquest of Britain. The nobility distributed the land and cattle among the tribesmen seizing the best lands and gradually becoming great landowners. The tribal nobility could no longer cultivate the land themselves, so initially the slaves worked their fields. As slave labour was unproductive the slaves began to receive plots of land for their personal use as an incentive for better work. This was another important step in the development of serf labour.

In the 7th — 9th centuries important changes took place among the members of the Anglo-Saxon communities: land held by separate families became their private property which could be sold, inherited or used as a payment for debts. Thus in the given period feudal relations were beginning to make slow progress within the Anglo-Saxon society. However, though some peasants were already in bondage and others could hardly make their ends meet because their plots were too small, the majority of the population still consisted of free peasants.

At first the invaders spoke different dialects but little by little the dialect of the Angles of Mercia prevailed. Soon the people living in Britain were referred to as the English after the Angles and the name England became widely used as the name of the whole country. The Anglo-Saxons were pagans and remained so for some time. Tiu (Tuesday) was the god of war, Woden (Wednesday) was the supreme god and the ancestor of kings, Thor (Thursday) was the god of storm, Frigga (Friday), Woden's wife, was the goddess of nature and of love. Anglo-Saxon folklore, the greatest monument of which is The Poem of Beowulf created in the seventh century, reflected the life of society and its beliefs.

The Saxon kingdoms warred one against the other, at times one kingdom would gain supremacy, then another, but at the beginning of the ninth century Wessex became the leading kingdom and united the rest of England in the fight against the Danes. Since 829 the greater part of the country was united under the name England.

The adoption of Christianity which was officially proclaimed at the Synod of Whitby in 664 contributed to the development of class relations in the country. It served the interests of the rich Anglo-Saxons propagating their rights to rule and exploit. However, the spread of the Christian faith influenced the growth of culture and contributed to the revival of Latin, too.

The Vikings attacks to the British Isles

Having become the most powerful kingdom of England, Wessex began to face a most dangerous enemy. Towards the end of the eighth century new raiders were tempted by Britain's wealth. These were the Vikings, a word which probably means either "pirates" or "the people of the sea inlets", they were the Danes from Denmark and the Northmen from the Scandinavian peninsula. They are frequently called as the Vikings. These two Scandinavian peoples were closely related with one another, but in the main the Danes were the invaders of England and the Northmen were the invaders of Ireland and Scotland. At first they were contented with sudden invasions in small bands, but later they came in larger numbers conquering one territory after another. The kingdom of Wessex alone was left to resist them.

At first Vikings came to steal gold and silver from monasteries. Then some made their homes in Britain, and from the 860s they controlled a large area of northern and eastern England. The Saxon kings fought against them.

Like the Angle-Saxons they only raided at first. They burnt churches and monasteries along the east, north and west coasts of Britain and Ireland. London was itself raided in 842. In 865 the Vikings invaded Britain once it was clear that the quarrelling Anglo-Saxon kingdoms could not keep them out. This time they

came to conquer and to settle. The Vikings quickly accepted Christianity and did not disturb the local population.

By 875 only King Alfred in the west of Wessex held out against the Vikings, who had already taken most of England. After some serious defeats Alfred won a decisive battle in 878, and eight years later he captured London. He was strong enough to make a treaty with the Vikings. Alfred the Great defeated the Vikings and sent them away from Britain. But they returned, and in the early 11th century there was a Viking king of England, King Cnut.

The warrior kings of England

Fortunately at this time there appeared a Saxon king, whose military genius, whose capacity for learning from the enemy was one of the main reasons for the defeat of the Danes. This was Alfred, born 849 (ruled 871 — 901). King Alfred was driven first this way and then that way, sometimes winning battle but often having to retire from one place to another. However, he gathered his men and defeated the Danes by surprise attack. As a result the treaty of Wedmore was signed between Alfred and the Danes (886). According to this treaty England was divided into two parts by a line drawn, roughly speaking, from London to Chester: the Danelaw under Danish rule, lying north and east and Saxon England which remained under Alfred's rule lying south and west of the line. There were renewed attempts to defeat Alfred, but as a poet of those days sang: 'They got hard blows instead of shillings, and the axe's weight instead of tribute'.

Alfred was not only a bold warrior, but he showed that he was a wise statesman. Though he had for a time to give up the north and east of England, it was only for a time. His descendants recovered all that had been lost. He turned undefended villages into fortified towns, or boroughs. Alfred saw that the best way to keep off the Danes was by fighting them at sea, and so he built ships bigger and faster than the Danish ships, took into his service Welsh and even Danish sailors to teach his men and at last was able to guard the shores of England more or less effectually from foreign invaders. He is considered to be the founder of the English fleet.

Alfred is also important as a lawgiver and as a patron of learning. He compiled and published a code of laws from earlier laws.

Answer the questions:

1. What was the definition of the term “hide” in the Anglo-Saxon society?
2. When was Christianity introduced to the British Isles?
3. What seven new kingdoms were established in the territory of Britain?
4. Which of them were the strongest?
5. What representatives of the Anglo-Saxon society do you know?

3-МАВЗУ: The early Middle Ages. The Norman Conquest

Plan:

1. The Norman invasion and the battle of Hastings
2. The implementation of the Norman rule in the British Isles, the settlement of feudalism, language, cultural changes
3. The signing of Magna Carta and the decline of feudalism

4. The beginnings of Parliament

The Norman invasion and the battle of Hastings

Edward the Confessor (1042—66), was a descendant of the old English royal line. However, Edward had spent his youth in Normandy, so when he became king of England he brought to the court his Norman advisers and supporters, which in turn led to increased rivalry between the newcomers and the Saxons mainly represented by the Godwins.

As for Normandy itself it emerged in the ninth century when another branch of the Northmen of Scandinavia plundered the northern coast of France. Eventually they settled on land conquered from the French king and formed a territory called Normandy. They themselves were known as the Normans. The newcomers acquired the customs, traditions of the French people, as well as their language. By the 11th century feudalism had been established in France. The Normans were subordinate to their duke who in turn acknowledged the French king as their overlord though this was a formality because the king's domain was smaller than the Duchy of Normandy and his power was inferior to that of the duke.

Duke William said that he had been tricked, and prepared an army for the invasion of England. This was only a pretext, for Norman influence had already been established before the Conquest.

All through the summer of 1066 Harold waited in Sussex for the Normans to land. Early in September Harold learnt that William's ally the King of Norway had landed in the north and taken York. With his men Harold rode swiftly north and defeated the invaders at Stamford Bridge. It was a great victory but it was his last. On the first of October he learnt of the landing of William. On the 14th of October at Hastings the decisive battle took place. Therefore it is called “the battle of Hastings”. Though the Saxon army fought bravely it was defeated and Harold was killed in battle. Immediately after this victory William and his army proceeded to London and took it. He was crowned king on the 25th of December 1066 at Westminster as William I though he is widely known as William the Conqueror. This conquest opens up the period of final establishment of feudalism in England.

William the Conqueror's coronation did not go as planned. When the people shouted "God Save the King" the nervous Norman guards at Westminster Abbey thought they were going to attack William. In their fear they set fire to nearby houses and the coronation ceremony ended in disorder. Although William was now crowned king, his conquest had only just begun. And the fighting lasted for another five years. There was an Anglo-Saxon rebellion against the Normans every year until 1070. The small Norman army marched from village to village, destroying places it could not control and building forts to guard others. It was a true army of occupation for at least twenty years.

The north was particularly hard to control, and the Norman army had no mercy. When the Saxons fought back, the Normans burnt, destroyed and killed. Between Durham and York not a single house was left standing, and it took a century for the north to recover. Few Saxon lords kept their lands and those who did were the very small number who had accepted William immediately. All the others lost everything. By 1086, twenty years after the arrival of the Normans, only two of the

greater landlords and only two bishops were Saxon, William gave the Saxon lands to his Norman nobles. After each English rebellion there was more land to give away. His army included Norman and other French land seekers. Over 4.000 Saxon landlords were replaced by 200 Norman ones.

The implementation of the Norman rule in the British Isles, the settlement of feudalism, language, cultural changes

Feudal relations by the time of the Conquest had already made serious inroads in Saxon society. The Normans strengthened and organized the feudal system of society. Twenty years after the Conquest in 1086 William ordered a record, or register, of all land-holdings to be made. In this register, which Saxons called the Domesday Book, the officers who took down the records were very meticulous and merciless. Despite its ruthless character, we know now that the population of England at that time was about two million and that 90 per cent of the population were serfs. Thus this recording indicated the extent of feudalism in the country. Moreover, it may be regarded as the first population census in European history.

The feudal yoke of the Normans meant cruel suffering for the people of England. The Norman feudal lords and those of the Saxon lords who accepted Norman rule organized the increasing exploitation of the toil of free and unfree peasants (or villeins as they were called), who were obliged to pay large dues to their landlord in kind. This was accompanied by forced labour on the lord's land carried out by the villein.

Though England was a typical feudal country, it had certain peculiarities which were unique in European history. Just because England was conquered within a few years and the political institutions of feudalism were imposed from above by the conquerors, the system here reached a higher regularity and completeness than in most other countries of Europe. Elsewhere the king's ownership of all the land was a fiction. Here it was fact, and the king granted land to his vassals on his own terms, terms extremely favourable to himself. The state organization was built around William's power as a military leader of a victorious army. The king was far stronger than any baron or any likely combination of barons. England had, therefore, a development that was unique in European history. From the start the power of the state was greater and the power of the feudal nobility less. Private wars between nobles (so characteristic of France) was the exception rather than the rule and private armies and castles were watched by the Crown and prohibited as far as possible. These peculiarities of feudalism in England undoubtedly contributed to the development of the state which began to make early progress.

The Norman invaders brought their language with them too. They spoke a Norman dialect of French and it became the tongue of court circles, administration, the official language of the state. Latin was the language of the Church, law and learning. The wealthy Anglo-Saxons copied their superiors and also learned to speak French. However, the common people, the peasantry and the inhabitants of towns, continued to speak English.

The Norman conquerors had to communicate with the natives and this made them learn to speak English in time. Moreover, many of the Normans married the

Anglo-Saxons and their children grew up to know only English. In a few generations the Norman descendants knew no other tongue than English.

However, this was a slow and gradual process. In its development English borrowed many French words relating to feudal relations, administration, war, etc. Latin too exerted a positive influence. In the 14th century the enriched English language emerged as the language predominantly used in speech and writing — the official language of the State.

The main provisions of feudalism may be regarded as a contract between the king, on the one hand, and his vassals, on the other. It was recognized that the king had certain rights and duties. In the same way the vassal had his corresponding rights and duties. If the feudal contract was openly violated by the king, the barons, having exhausted all other means, could rebel against the king. This of course was a very risky thing, especially in England, where the power of the Crown was very great.

The signing of Magna Carta and the decline of feudalism

Unwillingly he submitted and on June 15, 1215, at a field called Runnymede by the river Thames John signed the programme of demands expressed by the barons in a document known as Magna Charta or the Great Charter. This document of sixty-three sections provided that the church and the barons were to retain their old rights and liberties.

This new agreement was known as "Magna Carta", the Great Charter, and was an important symbol of political freedom. The king promised all "freemen" protection from his officers, and the right to a fair and legal trial. At the time perhaps less than one quarter of the English were "free men". Most were not free, and were serfs or little better. Hundreds of years later, Magna Carta was used by Parliament to protect itself from a powerful king. In fact Magna Carta gave no real freedom to the majority of people in England. The nobles who wrote it and forced King John to sign it had no such thing in mind . They had one main aim: to make sure John did not go beyond his rights as feudal lord. Magna Carta marks a clear stage in the collapse of English feudalism. Feudal society was based on links between lord and vassal. At Runnymede the nobles were not acting as vassals but as a class. They established a committee of twenty-four lords to make sure John kept his promises. That was not a "feudal" thing to do. In addition, the nobles were acting in cooperation with the merchant class of towns. The nobles did not allow John's successors to forget this charter and its promises. Every king recognised Magna Carta, until the Middle Ages ended in disorder and a new kind of monarchy came into being in the sixteenth century. There were other small signs that feudalism was changing. When the king went to war he had the right to forty days' fighting service from each of his lords. But forty days were not long enough for fighting a war in France. The nobles refused to fight for longer , so the king was forced to pay soldiers to fight for him . (They were called "paid fighters", solidarius, a Latin word from which the word "soldier" comes.) At the same time many lords preferred their vassals to pay them in money rather than in services. Vassals were gradually beg inning to change into tenants . Feudalism, the use of

land in return for service. was beginning to weaken . But it took another three hundred years before it disappeared completely.

The beginnings of Parliament

When Henry III allowed himself to be persuaded by the Pope in 1257 to accept the kingdom of Sicily for his son Edward and asked the Council to provide the money necessary to conquer the island there was a very large opposition in the country. The barons refused the money. However, they were not united and the king made use of this. A civil war started in the country. In 1258 the barons and churchmen held an assembly and drew up the Provisions of Oxford. That document provided that the Justiciar, Chancellor, and Treasurer be appointed with their consent, and that abuses of the king's officials in local districts be ended. A Council of Fifteen was to govern England and control the ministers. Other committees were to look after finances and the church. The barons soon disagreed among themselves, however, and the king took advantage of their disputes. Then it was that a new leader of the barons appeared in the person of Simon de Montfort. In the civil war (1264—5), Simon's forces defeated those of the king at the battle of Lewes (1264) and captured the king and his son Edward.

It was under these circumstances that Simon summoned the first English parliament in January 1265. Besides the barons there were knights (2 knights from each shire) and burgesses from the towns (representatives of the well-to-do dwellers of the towns). Simon had summoned these representatives in order to gain their support and consolidate his power. However, he failed in the latter. Prince Edward escaped, defeated Simon and killed him.

Although the king was now back in power, the parliamentary experiment had made its mark. Simon's creation did not die with him. Prince Edward continued it when he became king. Two knights from each county were summoned, and two burgesses from each town. Under future kings, the custom grew. It continued calling to council not only the barons, but persons to represent the 'commons' — that is, the local com-munities. At first it was only a way of telling these leading citizens of towns what new taxes to expect. They listened; but they did not talk. However, eventually the practice changed and parliament assumed its role as a fiscal body responsible for taxation.

In the course of the 14th century parliament took its modern shape consisting of two Houses — the House of Lords and the House of Commons. In this division the knights of the shire took their places in the House of Commons with the burgesses, whereas the lords and the top clergy sat in the House of Lords.

The new king, Edward I (1272 — 1307) concentrated his efforts to conquer Wale's and subdue Scotland, unlike his predecessors who had been busy with their possessions in France. Shortly after his accession to the throne, Edward faced a rebellion in Wales led by Prince Llewelyn. After a struggle of several years he defeated the Welsh leader and extended into that region the system of English law and shires. After having suppressed a further rebellion, he placed the country under the direct control of the English ruler (1284), and introduced further changes in local government. Thus by the end of the 13th century Wales became fully subdued by England.

Attempts were made to conquer Scotland. Rival claimants to the Scotch throne submitted their claims to him. Among them were two nobles, Robert the Bruce and John Baliol. Edward I supported Baliol. However, soon that ruler rebelled against his overlord Edward I. The latter deposed Baliol of power and assumed control of Scotland himself. The Scots, however, formed an alliance with France and invaded northern England. Edward in turn invaded Scotland, and thereafter he repeated his invasions several times. Finally he left Scotland taking with him the legendary Stone of Scone, on which the Scottish kings had always been crowned and fashioned it into part of a sumptuous chair — Coronation Chair which ever since has been used at coronations of English kings. However, departing from Scotland in 1286 Edward I left an army behind and an officer to represent him. Nevertheless, the Scotch would not yield to the English yoke. Robert the Bruce headed the national uprising, killed Edward's chief officer in Scotland and drove the English out of the country. In 1306 he was crowned king. Edward responded by sending an army north. Bruce was defeated but escaped to an island between Scotland and Ireland. Though in a desperate position Bruce managed to muster an army and retake most of what the English seized. Edward I died and the new English king, Edward II, was reluctant to make a new attempt.

However, seven years later, Edward II decided to attack Robert the Bruce in Scotland. He managed to cross the border and reach the Bannock burn or stream just south of Stirling Castle, which was not taken by the Scots and remained in English hands. Here in the battle of Bannockburn, as it was named, in 1314 the English suffered a most serious defeat. As a result of this defeat Scotland maintained its independence for the next three centuries.

Answer the following questions:

1. Why did Wales start war against England?
2. What made Scotland fight for its independence?
3. How did the war with England end?
4. What can you say about details of wars between England and Scotland?

4-МАВЗУ: The Late Middle Ages. Wars, revolts, illnesses in the period

Plan:

1. The Hundred Years' War and its consequences
2. The spread of Black Death throughout England, its victims
3. The Peasants' revolt

The Hundred Years' War and its consequences

The fourteenth century was disastrous for Britain as well as most of Europe, because of the effect of wars and plagues. Probably one -third of Europe's population died of plague. Hardly anywhere escaped its effects. Britain and France suffered, too, from the damages of war. In the 1330s England began a long struggle against the French Crown. In France villages were raided or destroyed by passing armies. France and England were exhausted economically by the cost of maintaining armies.

Edward III declared war on France in 1337. His excuse was a bold one: he claimed the right to the French Crown. It is unlikely that anyone , except for the

English, took his claim very seriously, but it was a good enough reason for starting a war. The war Edward began, later called the Hundred Years War, did not finally end until 1453, with the English Crown losing all its possessions in France except for Calais, a northern French port. At first the English were far more successful than the French on the battlefield. The English army was experienced through its wars in Wales and in Scotland.

One of the important weapons was longbow and its the value of the longbow was proved in two victories, at Crecy in 1346 and at Poitiers in 1356, where the French king himself was taken prisoner. The English captured a huge quantity of treasure, and it was said that after the battle of Poitiers every woman in England had a French bracelet on her arm. The French king bought his freedom for £500,000, an enormous amount of money in those days. By the treaty of Bretigny, in 1360, Edward III was happy to give up his claim to the French throne because he had reestablished control over areas previously held by the English Crown. The French recognised his ownership of all Aquitaine, including Gascony; parts of Normandy and Brittany, and the newly captured port of Calais. But because the French king had only unwillingly accepted this situation the war did not end, and fighting soon began again. All this land, except for the valuable coastal port s of Calais, Cherbourg, Brest, Bordeaux and Bayonne, was taken back by French forces during the next fifteen years. It was a warning that winning battles was a good deal easier than winning wars.

True to the "Auld Alliance" the king of Scots had attacked England in 1346, but he was defeated and taken prisoner. English forces raided as far as Edinburgh , destroying and looting. However, Edward III allowed the French to ransom the Scots king David and, satisfied with his successes in France, Edward gave up trying to control the Scots Crown. For a while there was peace, but the struggle between the French and English kings over French territories was to continue into the fifteenth century.

The spread of Black Death throughout England, its victims

The year 1348 brought an event of far greater importance than the creation of a new order of chivalry. This was the terrible plague, known as the Black Death, which reached almost every part of Britain during 1348-9. Probably more than one third of the entire population of Britain died, and fewer than one person in ten who caught the plague managed to survive it. Whole villages disappeared, and some towns were almost completely deserted until the plague itself died out.

The Black Death was neither the first natural disaster of the fourteenth century, nor the last. Plagues had killed sheep and other animals earlier in the century. An agricultural crisis resulted from the growth in population and the need to produce more food. Land was no longer allowed to rest one year in three, which meant that it was over-used, resulting in years of famine when the harvest failed. This process had already begun to slow down population growth by 1300.

In 1348 — 9 a disastrous bubonic plague swept over England, carrying death and destruction in its wake. The Black Death in England interrupted a process that had been transforming the villages for nearly a hundred years. It was already noted above that from quite early in the 13th century under the influence of economic

changes throughout the country and the development of trade, began a process of commutation or the replacement of labour services by rents. Many of the serfs had come to an arrangement with their lords to pay money instead of services. The plan was convenient for both sides. This process of commuting services for money was spreading gradually over the country by the time of the Black Death. The effects of the plague were momentous. The great decrease in population increased wages, gave more freedom to the serfs, prostrated farming, and caused the land to decline in value. It disrupted industry and trade and depopulated whole villages. From 1347 to 1350 at least one-third of the whole population perished. In 1350 Parliament, composed almost entirely of landowners attempted to check the rise of wages by the Statute of Labourers ordering the labourers to take the old rate of wages under pain of imprisonment, slavery, death. But even these penalties could not make men obey the laws. The rise in prices went on and men could not live on the old wages.

Then the landlords tried to solve the problem in another way. They decided to revive the old practice of rendering duties to the landlord and commutation was refused to the serf. The poll taxes of 1379 and 1380 ('poll' being Middle English for 'head'), which were extremely heavy for the poor, furthered the growing discontent in the country which inevitably led to open revolt.

Alongside this development in the countryside and towns there was overwhelming discontent of the people with the church. The members of the church hierarchy were among the greatest feudal magnates and the cruelest exploiters of the peasants. Apart from exploitation, the life they led was shameful for its luxury and immorality.

The Peasants' revolt

The first fundamental attack on the position of the church came from John Wyclif (1324—84), a teacher at Oxford University. Wyclif attacked the pope and the bishops, pointing at their fine palaces, their liking for ceremony, their immorality. His followers attacked many Catholic dogmas. Wyclif spread his message by writing some of his books in English instead of Latin, the language of the church. His followers were called Lollards, because of the low and quiet way in which they said their pray-ers. Some of the Lollards went into the countryside to preach Wyclif's message to the common people. Wyclif told others to translate the Bible into English so that it could be understood by people who knew no Latin. He exposed the church in its interpretation of the Bible. Many people became Lollards, and therefore heretics. They were persecuted by the church and the feudals. The Lollards increased in numbers and joined the other discontented people in the countryside. Many of the Lollard priests, such as John Ball himself, became leaders of the peasants' revolt. Lollardry became a doctrine of social protest more and more bound with the struggle of the people not only against the church, but also against the authority and tyranny of the feudal lords in general. The programmes of the rebel peasants which also included the demands to confiscate the church lands were undoubtedly worked out under the influence of Lollardry. Wyclif's doctrines were not forgotten after his death. They were carried

to continental Europe. Hence Wyclif is regarded as a forerunner of the Reformation.

In 1381 peasant outbreaks occurred first in Essex and Kent, and soon the rioters, led by Wat Tyler, an artisan from Kent and a former soldier, were marching on London and burning the houses of landlords, officials, tax-gatherers, as they went. The peasants with Wat Tyler as leader reached London. The people of London who were also discontent opened London bridge and the rebels took complete possession of the whole city. The king, Richard II, took refuge in the Tower of London. The rebels killed the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Treasurer who had proposed the hateful poll-tax. Under the pressure of the rebels the king met them, promising to abolish feudal dues and to make everyone free man. There were also demands to establish freedom of trade for all towns, free pardon for all the participants of the revolt. The more radical rebels demanded an enlargement of the peasants' land plots, abolition of anti-labour laws and privileges for the titled nobility.

During the second meeting with the king Wat Tyler was treacherously killed and the rebels dispersed in confusion hoping that Richard II would respect his promises. However, this was not the case. Having deceived the rebels, the king and landlords began their revenge and crushed the revolt with great severity.

But though the rising had failed, there was no complete return to the old conditions. The lords had been scared. The attempt to keep wages at the old level was abandoned. There was no imposition of labour services. Moreover, the serf system inevitably collapsed and the serf was gradually becoming a free peasant or a wage labourer. Hence the peasant uprising of Wat Tyler played a most important role in breaking down the feudal relations of production. It was the first great English rebellion of peasant labour against the feudal landlords.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS:

1. Why the war between France and England is called “Hundred Years’ War”?
2. How did the war between France and England end?
3. Why did the Peasant’s revolt start in England?
4. What consequences did it have?
5. Why did the War of Roses begin?

5-мавзу. A new period in the history of Britain and the foundation of the “republic” in Britain

Plan:

1. The War of Roses and the Tudor’s coming to the throne
2. Henry VII as the founder of the Tudor reign and Henry VIII as the reformer
3. The founding of the republic in the country
4. Changes in political and social structures in the republic

The War of Roses and the Tudor’s coming to the throne

The Wars of the Roses (1455—85) started on the background of England's defeat in the Hundred Years War (1337—1453) between England and France. The term 'Hundred Years War' is a misnomer, for a series of wars occurred, not just one war, and these wars lasted, counting intervals of peace, for more than a hundred

years. However, historians have found this name to be most suitable. Fundamentally, the struggle resulted from the English possession of territory in France, which began with William the Conqueror, and from the French desire to drive out the invaders. One might add the old feudal disputes between English and French kings and the Anglo-French controversies regarding fishing in the North Sea and the English Channel. Moreover, the English king Edward III claimed the French throne because he was a grandson of the late French king. The defeat in France had brought back the most warlike nobles, who were greatly dissatisfied with their losses and who could not adjust themselves to the serious changes in the economic life of the country, which had occurred during the long struggle between England and France. For these nobles and their bands of soldiers war had become a profession. They were unfit for peaceful work. Given the lack of powerful central government and the reign of anarchy, a general outbreak of feudal strife was inevitable.

In form it was a dynastic struggle between two most powerful feudal families — the House of Lancaster which had the emblem of the red rose and the House of York with the emblem of the white rose. Hence, the name of the wars. The various noble families related to these two Houses formed ranks behind them. Towns loyal to Yorkist families closed their gates to all Lancastrians. The court shut out all Yorkists. London was filled by armed followers of both parties.

After terrible struggle and bloodshed which lasted 30 years the war ended in 1485. The battle of Bosworth, fought on August 22, 1485 ended the Wars of the Roses and with them a whole historic epoch in England. Henry of Richmond or Henry Tudor won this battle against Richard III. The latter was killed in battle. The king is dead.

Henry VII as the founder of the Tudor reign and Henry VIII as the reformer

Henry Tudor became Henry VII (1485 —1509). Moreover, Henry was wise enough to marry the heiress of the House of York. Thus Henry VII formed a new monarchy, the Tudor monarchy, which was based upon a new relationship in society.

Crushing down the old nobility, confiscating the lands of the defeated, Henry began to create a new nobility coming from the upper layers of society and directly dependent upon the Crown. It was under Henry VII, at the close of the 15th century that Britain was emerging as a centralized national state. This process continued well into the 16th century and culminated in the 17th century during the English bourgeois revolution.

The policy of the Papacy in Western Europe in the 16th century was that of an economic and political feudal power, seeking by means of intrigues to maintain a favourable position among the growing absolutist states of France, Spain and Austria. The Pope was anxious to use England to further his intrigues, but they led in the 16th century to the culmination of the long fight which had continued ever since the 12th century between the English king and the Pope. Neither the English king, who had become an absolute monarch, nor the English bourgeoisie, competing with their rivals in Europe to secure the expanding overseas colonial trade, could any longer afford to let the Pope intervene in English affairs. The

question of Henry VIII's divorce from his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, was a convenient pretext to break away from Rome.

For this purpose Henry VIII (1509—47) called parliament into session. This so-called Reformation Parliament, which stayed in session seven years (1529 — 36) aided him greatly in completing the separation from Rome. It passed several acts of which most important was the Act of Supremacy (1534) which recognized the Anglican church as the official church in the country with Henry VIII as its head. However, the new church differed little from the former Catholic church, which was a reason for further discontent in the country and which eventually led to the emergence of the Puritan movement in England. (The gentry in the House of Commons, as well as the king remembered the vast income from monastic lands. Soon after the break with Rome Henry initiated the confiscation of all monastic lands. Henry appointed the secretary of his privy council, Thomas Cromwell, as his main agent for dissolving the monasteries. In 1539 Parliament legalized the complete dissolution of all the monasteries in the country. The squires, merchants, lawyers who had supported the king in parliament received most of the lands. Hence the Reformation in England together with the dissolution of the monasteries contributed to the growing wealth and power of the bourgeoisie and the gentry.

In the 16th century Spain and Portugal were the great colonial powers. However, by the reign of Elizabeth Tudor English merchants were challenging the Spanish and Portuguese monopoly. In the long run Spain became England's main rival for Portugal's role declined.

The founding of the republic in the country

The Puritan movement in England was a further development of the Reformation. The Puritans regarded the reformation of the church in England as incomplete. They wanted even more change. They wanted to see the Anglican church purer, with a simpler form of worship. The word 'Puritan' comes from the Latin 'purus' which means 'pure'. The Puritans considered that church discipline should be more rigid and that all people should lead a more modest life. Many of the Puritans wished to replace the Anglican church by a Presbyterian one on the model of the Scotch Kirk, which was modest in service and means. Hence the close ties between the Puritans in England and the Scotch Presbyterians. The Puritan movement gave birth to such religious trends as the Quakers, the Baptists and others. Puritanism arising as a purely religious movement later developed into a mighty political movement of the seventeenth century expressing the interests of the bourgeoisie which required a modest church. The Puritans were persecuted in England and in 1593 a special act of Parliament was issued against them. Many radicals emigrated to the Netherlands and later to the new colonies of North America.

Laud, acting on behalf of Charles I and persecuting the Puritans in' England and the Scotch church deteriorated the whole explosive situation in the country. Hatred for royal power was ripening among the popular masses as well as among the bourgeoisie and the gentry.

When Laud attempted to enforce the Anglican church system throughout the kingdom, especially in Scotland the Scotch rebelled. Then Charles I invaded

Scotland in 1639. He hurriedly summoned Parliament in 1640 to vote money for an army to crush the Scotch. However, the Parliament known as the Short Parliament was a short-lived one, because within three weeks the Commons were dissolved by the king when he learned that its members insisted on discussing grievances instead of voting money. The Scotch forces then invaded northern England and pushed back the king's forces. Under such circumstances Charles 1 was forced to summon another Parliament in 1640 which came to be known as the Long Parliament for it sat for 13 years, it was restored for a short time in 1659 and finally voted its own dissolution in 1660.

The summoning of the Long Parliament in 1640 marks the beginning of the English bourgeois revolution which continued up to 1660 when monarchy was restored.

Three periods stand out clearly in the history of the revolution: first — the peaceful period from 1640 to 1642 — from the summoning of the Long Parliament to the beginning of the civil war in England.

The second period — from 1642 to 1649 — the period of two civil wars (the first one, from 1642 to 1646, the second in 1648), the execution of the king in 1649 and the proclamation of Commonwealth or republic, which marked the climax of the revolution. The third period — from 1649 to 1660 — the period of Commonwealth, which existed till 1653 when Protectorate or military dictatorship was established. The third period continued till 1660 when restoration of monarchy occurred thus marking the end of the bourgeois revolution.

Changes in political and social structures in the republic

The formation of the republic was a triumph of the bourgeoisie and gentry :over the feudal monarchy. However, at the same time the new regime suppressed all movements aimed at the further development of the revolution. The Independents headed by Cromwell preserved big landownership and levied heavy taxes in the interests of the new regime, deteriorating the position of the peasantry and the toilers of the towns. In the interests of the bourgeoisie the new republic carried out an expansionist colonial policy. Especially unpopular was Cromwell's Irish expedition of 1649—52. An uprising for independence had been raging in Ireland uninterruptedly for 8 years. It was headed by the Irish nobles and Catholic clergy. This fact offered Cromwell a good pretext — it could be fought against under the guise of fighting the papists (the supporters of the Pope) and the Catholics. Thus religion was used as a cover to carry out a typical colonial venture. Cromwell's expedition was a bloody massacre against the Irish population. His army killed thousands of Irishmen, cruelly and bloodily, and terrorized the whole population. The survivors were ousted from their lands and driven to the barren lands in the west of the country.

It was then that the new landed aristocracy was created which served as a social basis for the coming counterrevolution in England. The soldiers and officers of Cromwell's army were promised the confiscated lands of the Irish peasantry. The promise was kept. However, most of the lands were sold and resold to the rich commanders, land speculators, because the soldiers themselves had no resources to begin farming anew. Thus a new class of rich landowners was formed which

supported reaction and considered the revolution a menace to their immediate interests. Karl Marx referring to these events noted that the English republic under Cromwell met shipwreck in Ireland.

The wars in England and abroad were accompanied by a sharp decline in industry and agriculture. Prices went up. The poor suffered awful privations and died from hunger. The popular masses began to protest against the new regime. Royalist elements and the new rich tried to make use of the existing situation. The Rump Parliament, the tail-end of the Long Parliament, was becoming increasingly unpopular. The army in particular could not see that it had any further purpose, Cromwell decided it must go. On a spring day in 1653 he copied the action of Charles I. With 30 musketeers behind him he marched to the House of Commons and entered it. Then the soldiers pushed the members out, and Cromwell locked the doors behind him. Hence, Parliament was dissolved and England was to be ruled by a council of officers who established a military dictatorship. Cromwell was proclaimed Lord Protector for life. Actually these events marked the end of the republic and the revolution itself, though monarchy was fully restored some time later. Ever in this period of military dictatorship of the bourgeoisie and gentry attempts were made to restore monarchy as a convenient tool in the hands of the new classes.

Answer the questions:

1. How did Henry VII rule England?
2. What changes did Henry VIII do in the life of England when he came to the throne?
3. What problems did religion of England face in the period?
4. What struggle happened between two points of Christianity?

6-МАВЗУ: Modern Britain. Geographic peculiarities, flora and animal life of the islands.

Plan:

1. Territorial structure of Great Britain
2. Flora and fauna of the country
3. Climate and weather
4. Mineral resources

Territorial structure of Great Britain

The British Isles are situated on the continental shelf off the north-west coast of Europe and comprise a group of islands lying between latitudes 50° and 61° North and longitudes 1°45' East and 8°10' West, the prime meridian of 0° passing through the old observatory of Greenwich (London). The total area of the British Isles is 322,246 square km.

Britain, formally known as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, constitutes the greater part of the islands. It comprises the mainland of England, Wales and Scotland (Great Britain) and the northern part of Ireland (Northern Ireland). The southern part of Ireland, the second largest island of the group, is the Irish Republic or Eire. All in all there are over 5,000 islands in the system of the British Isles.

The United Kingdom's area is some 244,100 square km, of which about 99 per cent is land and the re-mainder inland water. This is nearly the same size as the Federal Republic of Germany, New Zealand and half the size of France. From south to north it stretches for over 900 km, and is just under 500 km across in the widest part and 60 km in the narrowest. Due to the numerous bays and inlets no place in Britain is as much as 120 km from the sea coast line. The combined population of the British Isles — 59.5 million people (including that of the Republic of Ireland) makes the islands one of the most densely populated parts of the earth's surface and the United Kingdom, at least, one of the most densely populated countries.

Off the north-western coast of Great Britain there is a group of islands known as the Hebrides. They are divided into the Inner and Outer Hebrides, the groups of islands, separated from each other by the Sea of the Hebrides and the Little Minch. These groups of islands represent the higher unsubmerged portions of a dissected block broadly similar to the main highland mass.

Separated from the mainland by the stormy seven-mile wide Pentland Firth there are the Orkney Islands, comprising about a hundred islands, though only a third are inhabited, by about 19,500 people. Situated about 70 miles north of the Orkneys are the Shetland Islands, which provide thin, infertile soils suitable only for rough pasture. The total population is about 18,000. In the middle of the Irish Sea there is the Isle of Man (571 square km). The island is administered by its own Manx Parliament and has a population of about 50,000 chiefly engaged in farming, fishing and tourist trade. The only settlement of any size is the holiday resort of Douglas (23,000). Another important island in the Irish Sea is Anglesey, situated off the north coast of Wales. Anglesey contains only 52,000 people, and more of the working population are now engaged in industry than in fishing and agriculture.

The Isle of Wight is in the English Channel. It is diamond-shaped, 40 km from west to east, and about half as much from north to south. The Isle of Wight lies across the southern end of Southampton Water, and is separated from the mainland by the Solent. It is linked to London by ferry and rail services.

Off the extreme south-western coast of Great Britain there is a tiny group of the Isles of Sicilly. The Channel Islands lie to the south-west on the French side of the English Channel. They are known to the French as the Isles Normandes, and their position can indeed be best seen from a map of north-west France than southern England.

The Channel Islands form an archipelago, detached by shallow waters from the Cotentin peninsula in Normandy. As part of the Duchy of Normandy, they have been attached to the English Crown since the Norman Conquest (1066). The chief islands of the group are Jersey and Guernsey. Jersey (76,000) is the largest and most populous island; it occupies 60 per cent of the total area and has almost 60 per cent of the population.

Flora of the country

The present vegetation of Great Britain owes much of its character to the influence of man. Only in the more remote parts of Ireland and the Scottish

Highlands do remnants of the natural vegetation still exist. The 'natural vegetation' in the true sense of the term has practically disappeared from Britain, and most of the present cover is loosely known as semi-natural in the unfenced rough grazing and in the woodland.

With its mild climate, a wide variety of relief and soils Britain once had a diverse pattern of vegetation. The original natural vegetation consisted of forest, fen and marsh in the wet lowlands, especially where the drainage was poor, and shrub, heath and moorland on the uplands where soils were thin. In the lowland areas the oak forest must have been the natural vegetation.

Apart from oak other trees of the wooded lowlands were ash, maple, elm and hazel. Today only a few scattered areas of extensive woodland remain, such as the New Forest in Hampshire and Sherwood Forest in Nottinghamshire, which owe their survival largely to the fact that in the Middle Ages they were set aside as 'Royal Forests' for hunting. The greatest density of woodland occurs in the north and the east of Scotland, in some parts of south-east England and on the Welsh border.

Most of Britain is agricultural land of which about one-third is arable, and the rest pasture and meadow. Areas of permanent grassland are widespread in practically all parts of Britain except East Anglia, where arable farming is predominant, and in the highest parts of Scotland and Wales. These pastures form the chief grazing lands on which cattle and sheep are reared and fattened.

The hilly moorlands provide several types of wild vegetation, such as heather, fern, other hill grasses and these are to be found in the Highlands of Scotland, the Pennines, the Lake District, the mountains of Wales and elsewhere with a surface of thin poor soils.

Fauna of the country

The island of Great Britain, along with the rest of the archipelago known as the British Isles, has a largely temperate climate. It contains a relatively small fraction of the world's wildlife. The biota was severely diminished in the last Ice Age, and shortly (in geological terms) thereafter was separated from the continent by the English Channel's formation. Since then, man has hunted the most dangerous forms (the wolf, the brown bear and the wild boar) to extinction, though domesticated forms such as the dog and the pig remain. The wild boar has subsequently been reintroduced as a meat animal.

Since the mid eighteenth century, Great Britain has gone through industrialization and increasing urbanization. A DEFRA study from 2006 suggested that 100 species have become extinct in the UK during the 20th century, about 100 times the background extinction rate. This has had a major impact on indigenous animal populations. Song birds in particular are becoming scarcer and habitat loss has affected larger mammalian species. Some species have however adapted to the expanding urban environment, particularly the red fox, which is the most successful urban mammal after the brown rat, and other animals such as common wood pigeon.

CLIMATE AND WEATHER

Weather is not the same as climate. The weather at a place is the state of the atmosphere there at a given time or over a short period. The weather of the British Isles is notoriously variable. The climate of a place or region, on the other hand, represents the average weather conditions through the year. In every part of the British Isles obvious changes are taking place as winter passes into spring, spring into summer, and so through autumn to winter.

The position of the British Isles within latitudes 50° to 61°N is a basic factor in determining the main characteristics of the climate. Within the limits of the general climatic type — maritime, temperate with no dry season and with summers only moderately warm — there is, however, room for considerable variation between one region and another.

The climate of any place results from the interaction of a number of determining factors, of which the most important are latitude, distance from the sea, relief and the direction of the prevailing winds. These factors must be distinguished from the actual features of the climate, such as temperature, precipitation, wind, sunshine, fog, the humidity of the air.

Britain has a generally mild and temperate climate, which is dominated by marine influences and is rainy and equable. Britain's climate is much milder than that in any other country in the same latitudes. This is due partly to the presence of the North Atlantic Drift which begins as the Gulf Stream, in the Gulf of Mexico, crosses the Atlantic Ocean, and so reaches the shores of Europe as a warm current, and partly to the fact that north-west Europe lies in a predominantly westerly wind-belt. This means that not only do marine influences warm the land in winter and cool it in summer, but also that the winds blowing over the Atlantic have a similar effect and at the same time carry large amounts of moisture which is deposited over the land as rain. Britain's climate is generally one of mild winters and cool summers, with rain throughout the year, although there are considerable regional changes.

Latitudes determine the main characteristics of the climate. Temperature, the most important climatic element, depends not only on the angle at which the sun's rays strike the earth's surface, but also on the duration of daylight. The greater the angle of the sun above the horizon, the greater is the heat received and the length of the period between sunrise and sunset. The length of day at London ranges from 16 hours 35 minutes on 21 June to 7 hours 50 minutes on 21 December.

MINERAL RESOURCES

The rise of Britain as an industrial nation in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries was partly due to the presence of considerable mineral resources, which provided raw materials as well as sources of power. She possessed abundant supplies of coal and an adequacy of iron ore — the two chief minerals on which the Industrial Revolution was based. Coal has been worked in Britain for 700 years, and as an industry, coal-mining has been in existence for over 300 years, twice as long as in any other European country. For over a century coal was the most important source of power and fuel in Britain. She had enough non-ferrous metals — copper, lead, ajid tin, for example, to meet her needs for a time. But in the course of the last hundred years or so the situation has gradually

changed. Many of Britain's most valuable and accessible deposits have been worked out. Moreover, coal has lost some of its former importance, and such minerals as petroleum and uranium ores have become essential materials in the modern, world. At the same time British industry has become increasingly orientated towards lighter industry, and the heavier coal-field-based industries have tended to decline as the dependence upon coal as a source of power has declined. The absence in Great Britain of high-grade iron ore, manganese, chrome, nickel and many other rare metals makes her economy greatly dependent on imported raw materials.

Answer the questions:

1. Where is the British Isles situated?
2. What is the population of the country?
3. How many countries are situated in Great Britain?
4. What is the weather like in the country?

7- MAB3У: Political life and the Royal Family

Plan:

1. Great Britain – a constitutional monarchy
2. Parliament and elections
3. Political parties and trade unions
4. The place of Britain in the world economy

GREAT BRITAIN - A CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY

Today the monarch reigns, though she does not rule. Being a constitutional monarch the Queen acts on the advice of her prime minister and does not make any major political decisions.

In Britain they look to the Queen not only as their head of state, but also as the 'symbol of their nation's unity'. The Queen personifies the State, she is head of the executive, an integral part of legislature, head of the judiciary, the commander-in-chief of all armed forces, the 'supreme governor' of the established Church of England — the Anglican church and the personal Head of the Commonwealth. The United Kingdom is governed by Her Majesty's Government in the name of the Queen.

Although the Queen is deprived of actual power, she has retained many important, though formal, functions. These include summoning, proroguing and dissolving Parliament; giving royal assent to Bills passed by both Houses of Parliament; appointing every important office holder, including government ministers, judges, officers in the armed forces, governors, diplomats and bishops and some other senior clergy of the Church of England; conferring peerages, knighthoods and other honours. She appoints the Prime Minister (usually the leader of the political party which commands a majority in the House of Commons) to form a government, foreign states and governments, to conclude treaties, etc. She gives audiences to her ministers and other officials at home As head of State the Queen has, in international affairs, the power to declare war and make peace, to recognize and overseas, receives accounts of Cabinet decisions,

reads dispatches and signs innumerable State papers; she is informed and consulted on every aspect of national life.

The royal family is the principal aristocratic house in the country closely connected with other members of the hereditary aristocracy and with big finance interests. It is one of the biggest landowners in Britain. The royal family also serves as a custodian of British standards and values, intervening when the propriety of British life seems threatened. One of the main tasks of those defending the monarchy is to preserve and strengthen conservatism, to obscure class consciousness of the masses.

The Commonwealth is an association of 49 independent states with a combined population of over 1,000 million. Commonwealth members are a representative cross-section of mankind in all stages of political and economic development. Along with Britain and such developed countries as Canada, Australia, New Zealand, it includes large developing countries as India and Nigeria, and tiny islandic states as Nauru (population — a mere 8,000) lost in the ocean expanses. The interrelations between the Commonwealth countries are very complicated and contradictory. The Commonwealth does not formulate central policies on, say, economic or foreign affairs. Nevertheless there is considerable consultation and cooperation between the member states.

PARLIAMENT AND ELECTIONS

When they speak of the British Parliament they usually mean the House of Commons. It is this House that is elected at a Parliamentary election. This reflects the leading role of the House of Commons though there is the other House in Westminster Palace, the House of Lords.

Westminster is often referred to as 'Mother of Parliaments'. But British public opinion is getting more and more concerned about the process of the shift of real power to Whitehall, a tendency of a decrease of the role of legislative organs as compared to that of executive. The most important ministries and departments of the civil service are in Whitehall, the broad street which leads down to the Houses of Parliament in Westminster. Just as the name 'Westminster' is often used to mean 'Parliament', so 'Whitehall' often means 'the Government' or 'the civil service'. The British civil service suggests to many British people bureaucracy — government by paid state officials rather than by persons elected by the people.

The electoral system of Great Britain encourages the domination of the scene by two major political parties. The whole of the United Kingdom is divided into 650 electoral districts, called 'constituencies', of approximately equal population, and each constituency elects one member of the House of Commons. Practically no person can stand any chance of being elected except under the name of a party, and a little chance except as a candidate backed by either the Labour or the Conservative Party. In every constituency each of these two parties has a local organization, whose first task is to choose the candidate, and which then helps him to conduct his local campaign.

British subjects and citizens can vote provided they are aged 18 or over, resident in the United Kingdom, registered in the annual register of electors for the constituency and not subject to any disqualification.

Voting is on the same day (usually a Thursday) in all constituencies, and the voting stations are kept open from seven in the morning until nine at night.

In a British election the candidate who wins the most votes is elected, even if he or she does not get as many as the combined votes of the other candidates. This practice is known as the notorious majority electoral system.

It is often argued that the British system of election is so unfair that it ought to be changed, by the introduction of a form of proportional representation. This is an election system which seeks to give minority parties representation in Parliament. It aims to give each party a proportion of seats in Parliament corresponding to the proportion of votes it receives in an election.

Parliament is the supreme legislative authority in Britain. The three elements of Parliament — the Queen and the two Houses of Parliament (the House of Lords and the elected House of Commons) are outwardly separate, are constituted on different principles, and they meet together only on occasions of symbolic significance, such as a coronation, or the State opening of Parliament when the Commons are summoned by the Queen to the House of Lords.

The life of Parliament is divided into sessions. Each session usually lasts for one year and is usually terminated by prorogation, although it may be terminated by dissolution. Each session begins and ends most often in October or November. Parliament is usually dissolved by proclamation either at the end of its five-year term or when a Government requests a dissolution before the terminal date.

Each House has its Leader. The Leader of the House of Commons is the member of the Government primarily responsible for organizing the business of the House, and for providing reasonable facilities for the House to debate matters about which it is concerned

The House of Commons has six administrative and executive departments: the Department of the Clerk of the House, the Department of the Serjeant-at-Arms, the Department of the Library, the Department of the Official Report, the Administration Department and the Refreshment Department.

The House of Lords consists of the Lords Spiritual and the Lords Temporal. The Lords Spiritual (26) are the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, the bishops of London, Durham and Winchester, and the 21 senior bishops of the Church of England. The Lords Temporal consist of all hereditory peers and peeresses (792), who have not disclaimed their peerages, all life peers and peeresses (348) created by the Crown under the Life Peerages Act 1958, and Lords of Appeal (law lords) (21) created life peers to assist the House in its judicial duties

POLITICAL PARTIES AND TRADE UNIONS

The existence in Britain of organized political parties each laying its own policies before the electorate has led to well-developed political divisions in Parliament. Such an electoral system is called the majority system and it gives predominance to the most powerful parties — the Conservative and Labour parties. These parties as a rule control Parliament. In this context there is a two-party system in Britain. The Conservative and Labour parties share power, they control the state mechanism, only these two parties have access to the management of the state, though in reality there exist other parties.

The Conservative party. The Conservative party of Great Britain (the official name The National Union of Conservative and Unionist Associations) — was officially organized in 1867 on the basis of political groups of the English landed aristocracy.

The Conservative party has no official permanent programme. On the eve of general elections the party issues a pre-election manifesto which states the main aspects of the home and foreign policies of the future Conservative government if the party wins the elections. However, it is necessary to emphasize the point that there is always a great gap between the pre-election promises and their actual implementation when the party comes to power.

Being a party of 'big business' the party always reduces state allocations for social security, gives priority to private enterprise by slashing funds for the nationalized sector of the economy, introduces taxation profitable for the big companies. The activity of the party is marked by further offensive of the monopolies on the social and economic rights of the working people, the anti-trade union measures, violations of basic human rights, especially in Northern Ireland.
Structurally the party consists of 650 local associations, each one covering an electoral constituency. One should remember that the House of Commons is formed by the deputies who have won majority in each of the 650 constituencies of Great Britain.

The Conservative party has no official membership, no membership cards and party dues. Formally the highest organ in the party is the annual conference. However, actual power is concentrated in the hands of the leader of the party. The leader is not elected by the annual conference, but by the MPs sitting in Parliament on behalf of the Conservative party — the so-called parliamentary party.

The party issues its own paper Newsletter, the official journals of the party are Time and Tide, Politics Today. However, one should remember that the majority of the British press supports the Conservative party. The papers and journals are owned by the big monopolies.

The Labour party. The Labour party was established in 1900 on the initiative of the trade unions and several socialist organizations (the Independent Labour party, the Fabian Society and Social-Democratic Federation). The main aim was to win working class representation in Parliament. This was initially reflected in the name of the party — Labour Representation Committee. In 1906 this Committee officially adopted the title of the Labour party. The Labour party is a classical party of social-democratic reformism.

The Labour party has always been an association of different class elements — the working class and groups of the petty bourgeoisie. The working class mass organizations, the trade unions provided the main body of the membership and the finance. The reformist politicians in alliance with the right-wing trade union leaders formed the right-wing leadership.

The party has no long term political programme which would determine the final aims and means to achieve them. Instead the party endorses current political issues containing measures, which the future Labour government intends to implement if the party takes office as a result of a majority in the general elections.

There are about 7.3 mln members in the Labour party, of which over 600 thousand are individual members and more than six million collective members. The latter as members of trade unions, cooperative organizations and other institutions which are incorporated in the Labour party automatically become its members.

Trade Unions. In nearly all industries and occupations some workers (and in some industries nearly all workers) are organized into trade unions. They have grown up gradually and independently over many years and, consequently, their form and organization vary considerably, as do their traditions. Trade unions may be organized either by occupation (for example, they may recruit clerks or fitters wherever employed) or by industry. Some are based on a combination of both principles.

The place of Britain in the world economy

The British economy is primarily based on private enterprise. However, some industries were nationalized after World War II. This was typical nationalization carried out on capitalist lines. There are some nationalized industries, accounting for about 3.8 per cent of all employees, while the nationalized sector as a whole accounts for about 5.7 per cent of GDP. Part of public transport, the power industry, the coal mines, some steel, manufacturing plants are managed by the state. The atomic industry is also within the public sector.

The national economy of Great Britain is vitally dependent on foreign trade. Moreover, this dependence is growing in recent years. About a third of the industrial products of the country is exported. With the loss of the colonies the economy has become extremely vulnerable to balance-of-payments problems.

The typical pattern of Britain's overseas trade has been a trade deficit (when imports of products exceed in value the exports of the country). This has a negative influence on the development of the country and especially on its finances. However, the trade deficit is often offset by a surplus on so-called invisible trade due to the earnings of the country from international travel, shipping, tourism and financial services.

Agriculture supplies nearly two-thirds of the country's food and employs about 2.5 per cent of Britain's employed labour force. More than two-thirds of the arable land and pastures belong to the landlords. Middle and small-scale holdings give the bulk of the agricultural produce. These holders rent the land and employ agricultural workers. Technological progress in agriculture has enhanced class differentiation in agriculture as a result of which more than half of the holders of small-scale farming units were ruined in the last two-three decades.

The structure of the economy has experienced serious changes which are quite common for all developed capitalist countries: there has been a decline in the relative importance of manufacturing and a rise in that of services. The share of industry in the GDP is 11 times more than that of agriculture.

Answer the following questions:

1. What is the state system of the country?

2. How often the Heads of States in Commonwealth meet?

3. How many houses are there in Parliament?

4. What political parties are there in the country?

5. What is the role of the Queen and the royal family?

8-МАВЗУ: Educational system of the country

Plan:

1. School education
2. Further education
3. University education
4. Famous colleges and universities

SCHOOL EDUCATION

The educational system of Great Britain is heavily class-conditioned, both historically and actually.

The educational system of the country has developed for over a hundred years. It is a complicated system, full of confusing detail, and there are wide variations as between one part of the country and another.

The British education system operates on the basis of the distribution of responsibility between the three sections: central government (the Department of Education and Science — DES), local education authorities (LEAs) and schools themselves. In other words, it is a national system locally administered, with the DES a major operational partner rather than its sole controller. The legal basis for this partnership is supplied by the 1944 Education Act.

Each school has its own board of governors, consisting of teachers, parents, local politicians, members of the local community, businessmen. Though all schools have a large measure of freedom, religious instruction, by law, is compulsory for all of them.

Compulsory education in Great Britain begins at the age of 5, and the minimum school leaving age for all pupils is 16. Education is provided both in publicly maintained (by state) schools (no tuition fees are payable in any of them), which belong to the so-called 'public sector', and in private independent schools — 'private sector', where the parents have to pay for their children. Education within the maintained schools system normally comprises two stages, i. e. primary and secondary, or, in a growing number of areas, especially in England, three stages — first (schools), middle (schools) and upper (schools). These both arrangements are often preceded by nursery education on a non-compulsory basis.

Great Britain has a great number of various types of schools. These are nursery schools (day nurseries, kindergartens, crèches, play groups), primary schools (the infant department, junior department); middle schools; secondary schools (grammar, technical, secondary modern, special); independent (private) schools, public schools, preparatory schools.

Teachers in publicly maintained schools are appointed by local education authorities or school governing bodies. There are about 540,000 teachers in maintained and independent schools, and the average pupil-teacher ratio for all schools is 17 to 1. Teachers in maintained schools must hold qualifications approved by the appropriate education department.

Education for the under-fives, mainly from three to five, is not compulsory and can be provided in nursery schools or in nursery classes attached to primary schools.

The primary school usually takes children from 5 to 11, although officially the primary stage also includes pre-school education. As a rule children transfer from primary to secondary schools at 11, but there is a growing number of middle schools which follow the first schools taking children from the age of 5 to 8, 9 or 10.

Secondary education is equally compulsory for all up to the age of 16, but pupils can stay on at school voluntarily for up to three years longer. In many areas children moving from primary to secondary schools are still selected according to their current level of academic attainment and ability, for education in various types of school.

The public school pupils are the children of the rich, influential parents. For example, two thirds of Eton's pupils are sons of old Etonians, which makes it more than any other school a hereditary club for the rich and influential. The nine most ancient and aristocratic remain among the most important public schools: Eton (1440), Harrow (1571), Winchester (1382), Westminster (1560), St Paul's (1509), Merchant Taylors' (1561), Rugby (1567), Charterhouse (1611) and Shrewsbury (1552). In spite of changes that have taken place in the last six hundred years, they still retain a great influence on the British power-structure, reproducing the ruling elite.

A number of independent preparatory schools [prep schools) prepare children for entry to the public schools. They embrace children from 8 to 13. Nearly all preparatory schools are for boys and many of them are boarding.

The social boundary separating independent private schools from those maintained by state is insurmountable for the great majority of the British people.

FURTHER EDUCATION

The following stage in the British educational system is further education. The term 'further education' can be used in a general sense to cover all post-school education, and it usually refers to post-school, non-university education. Much of the further education is broadly vocational in purpose. Young people have several options at 16. They can stay on at school, either until the age of 18 to seek to obtain the necessary qualifications for entry to higher education or certain careers or professions. A second option is to leave school but to continue full-time education in a further education college, seeking either general qualifications, or more vocationally oriented ones. Further education extends from lower level technical and commercial courses, through specialized

courses of various kinds to advanced courses, preparing a variety of professions for industry, commerce and administration.

There is a wide range of further education institutions: the polytechnics and other colleges and schools having various titles — colleges of further education, colleges of technology, colleges of commerce (short-hand, typing, book-keeping), colleges of art, agricultural colleges, drama schools, art schools, ballet schools, schools of librarianship, etc. A large proportion of further education establishments (out of about 760) are independent or private, i. e. fee-charging. Institutions of further education have links with local industry and commerce on which they strongly depend. Further education service is coordinated in different areas by Regional Advisory Councils, set up by the local education authorities in each region. The members of these Councils represent the LEAs, colleges, universities, industry and commerce.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

The principal post-school institutions of higher education are the 47 universities (including the Open University), of which 36 are in England, 8 in Scotland, 2 in Northern Ireland and 1 in Wales.

The English universities are: Aston (Birmingham), Cambridge, City (London), Durham, East Anglia, Essex, Exeter, Hull, Keele, Kent at Canterbury, Liverpool, London, Loughborough, Manchester, University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology, Newcastle upon Tyne, Nottingham, Oxford and the independent University of Buckingham.

Apart from the universities there are the 30 polytechnics is England and Wales, the 14 Scottish central institutions which provide similar studies and the Ulster Polytechnic in Northern Ireland.

British universities are independent, autonomous, self-governing institutions. Although they all receive financial support from the state (about 79 per cent of their incomes is now provided by government grants), the Department of Education and Science has no control over their regulations, curriculum, examinations, appointment of staff, or the way in which money is spent.

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland the most usual titles for a first degree are Bachelor of Arts (BA) or Bachelor of Science (BSc) and for a second degree Master of Arts (MA), Master of Science (MSc) and Doctor of Philosophy (PhD or DPhil); in Scotland Master is sometimes used for a first degree. Uniformity of standards is promoted by the practice of employing external examiners for final university examinations.

Universities are centres of research as well as teaching and many postgraduates are engaged in research for higher degrees, usually Doctorates.

Famous colleges and universities

British universities can be roughly divided into three groups: 1) Oxford and Cambridge and the older Scottish universities, 2) the redbrick universities, and 3) the new universities.

1. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge date from the twelfth and thirteenth centuries and the older Scottish universities of St Andrews, Glasgow,

Aberdeen and Edinburgh from the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. All the others were founded in the nineteenth or twentieth centuries.
Oxford and Cambridge have dominated British education for seven hundred years. In the second half of the twentieth century they have preserved an antique way of life.

Oxford and Cambridge each consist of a number of residential colleges founded at different times, most of them for men, but a few (of later foundation) for women. Oxford has five women's colleges, Cambridge three. Each college has its own building, its own internal organization, its own staff and students. In order to enter the university, one must first apply to a college and become a member of the university through the college. The colleges are not connected with any particular study and are governed by twenty to thirty 'Fellows'. Fellows of a college are 'tutors' (teachers, often called dons). They teach their own subject to those students in the college who are studying it, and they are responsible for their progress.

The university is like a federation of colleges. It arranges the courses, the lectures and the examinations, and awards the degrees. Today some of the men's colleges are coeducational. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge each have over 10,000 full-time students. Oxford is older than Cambridge, more philosophical, classical and theological. Cambridge, on the other hand, is more scientifically biased. But in many respects (especially their prestige and wealth) they look very alike, therefore they are often referred to collectively for convenience as Oxbridge. Admission to the universities is based on the old tribal patterns which guide boys from traditional schools to traditional universities. Candidates to Oxford and Cambridge are largely self-selected, much influenced by parents, school friends and family backgrounds.
The older Scottish universities were founded before Scotland was joined to England, and to a great measure they take their traditions from the continental universities.

2. The universities, which were founded between 1850 and 1930, including London University, are known as redbrick universities. They were called so because that was the favourable building material of the time, though they are rarely referred to as 'redbrick' today.

The University of London is by far the largest conventional university, with about 39,000 full-time students. It was established by the union of two colleges: University College (1827) and King's College (1831). Later many other colleges, schools and institutes were added, and it also could be called a kind of federation of colleges, but the system is entirely different. The largest of the London colleges are like universities in themselves, having many different faculties and departments. Others specialize in certain subjects, like the London School of Economics and Political Science, the Imperial College of Science and Technology, the School of Slavonic and East European Studies, the School of Oriental and African Studies, the School of Architecture.

There are also institutes attached to London University as well as to other universities. Whereas colleges within a university teach all subjects, and

schools a group of subjects, these institutes specialize more narrowly, and are often more occupied with research than with teaching undergraduates. In London University, for example, there are the Institute of Archeology, the Courtauld Institute (specializing in the history of art) and some others.

Most of the redbrick universities founded in the nineteenth century are scattered throughout the country and are to be found in Birmingham, Bristol, Exeter, Hull, Leeds, Manchester, Liverpool, Nottingham, Sheffield, Southampton and some other cities.

The redbrick universities organize their academic work in a variety of ways. Subjects are taught in individual departments which are in turn grouped into faculties covering the main subject grouping, like arts, science, engineering, social science. For example, these are the faculties at Manchester: Arts, Science, Technology, Medicine, Law, Economic and Social Studies, Business Administration, Theology, Music, Education.

3. The new universities were all founded after the Second World War. Some of them quickly became popular because of their modern approach to university courses. The first of this group was Keele University (in Staffordshire), founded in 1948. In 1961 seven new universities were approved: the universities of East Anglia, Essex, Kent, Lancaster, Sussex, Warwick, York. The traditional faculty structure in these universities has been avoided in an attempt to prevent overspecialization. One form of organization (at Sussex) is school, which embraces a range of related subjects. Some of the technological universities have boards of studies. York and Warwick have structures which are closer to the older universities.

Answer the following questions:

1. What types of schools are there in the country?
2. How many groups are British universities divided into?
3. What are famous British universities?

9-МАВЗУ: British culture, arts, sport events and festivals

Plan:

1. Literature and arts
2. Great Britain's annual, worldwide festivals
3. Sport and leisure
4. Music, theatre and cinema

LITERATURE

The home and international position of Great Britain in the 50s of the XX century brought to important changes in English literature. Two trends continued to develop — progressive and reactionary. Most significant representatives of critical realism of the time are Graham Greene (1904), Norman Lewis (1908), Basil Davidson (1914), Desmond Stewart (1924). These progressive authors are united by the common interest in preserving peace and the hatred for war. The novels by G. Greene "The Quiet American", "The Comedians", "The Honorary Consul", "The Human Factor" and others are closely connected not only with

moral problems but also with the most critical political events in the hotbeds of the globe.

The ugliness and meanness of life remains a favourite subject for novels and stage plays, as well as for films and television plays. The writers of today are interested in the small details of life. Most modern writers are observers rather than commentators. Their philosophic and aesthetic searchings took them closer to modernistic trends to a certain extent succumbed to the influence of existentialism, though some writers, among them Iris Murdoch, William Golding, Lawrence Durrell, Muriel Spark, Colin Wilson, Angus Wilson, do more than observe. The constant recurrence in modern English literature of the problem of alienation is a proof, a reflection of modern bourgeois society, its ideology and culture.

ARTS

In the second half of the nineteenth century there existed a number of trends in European continental painting — impressionism, expressionism, fauvism, which later, in the twentieth century, gave way to cub-ism, futurism and surrealism, and eventually to abstractionism. The foundation in 1885 of the New English Art Club and the Glasgow School (about the same time) was the first organized opposition against the banalities of academic painting.

The New English Art Club became the centre of English impressionism and from the 1880s until World War I the history of British painting is marked by a slow and rather tentative absorption of impressionist principles of light and colour. Instead of trying to represent nature in its entirety the impressionists selected one element — light — to be treated as an independent and organic element of style. The leading representatives of the school were Walter Sickert (1860—1942), Augustus John (1878—1961), and younger English artists Spencer Gore (1878—1914), Harold Gilman (1876—1919) and others, who founded the Camden Town Group in 1911.

Like painting, the British sculpture of the twentieth century is very different from that of the previous century and, too, is greatly influenced by expressionism and surrealism. The new expressionist trend in sculpture is represented by Williams, Butler, Chadwick and Armitage. Among the British sculptors of the period Henry Moore stands out, both in quality and originality.

Famous British festivals

Many festivals and holidays in Britain are centuries old. Every town, village and hamlet in Britain has its own traditions, some involving months of careful planning and preparations of costumes and choreography, others requiring simply a worrying desire to make a complete and utter fool of oneself.

Public holidays in the UK are commonly referred to as bank holidays. As the UK is a country made up of four more or less independent regions, official holidays vary depending on if you live in England, Wales, Scotland, or Northern Ireland.

There are eight bank holidays in England and Wales:

New Year’s Day: 1 January

Good Friday: March or April (14 April 2017)

Easter Monday: March or April (17 April 2017)

Early May: May (1 May 2017)

Spring Bank Holiday: May (29 May 2017)
Summer Bank Holiday: August (28 August 2017)
Christmas Day: 25 December
Boxing Day: 26 December

In Scotland, the summer bank holiday is earlier in August. Moreover, Scots celebrate St. Andrew's Day on 30 November and 2 January is also a bank holiday, but Easter Monday is not. All in all, there are nine bank holidays in Scotland.

In Northern Ireland, St. Patrick's Day on 17 March is a bank holiday, and so is Orangemen's Day on 12 July which commemorates the Battle of Boyne. There are a total of ten bank holidays in Northern Ireland, making it the region with the most holidays in the UK.

The UK does not have a national day, making it only one of two countries in the world without one (the other is Denmark). This is slightly ironic considering that many countries in the world have national days to celebrate independence from British rule.

Guy Fawkes Night is a holiday for England, Scotland and Wales, as opposed to one of the holidays in the UK which are shared between all four countries. Brits mark 5 November by making bonfires, setting off fireworks, and burning effigies of Guy Fawkes. Today, the popularity of Guy Fawkes Night has somewhat decreased due to dwindling interest and increased safety regulations.

Remembrance Day marks the eleventh hour on the eleventh day of the eleventh month in 1918 when the Great War was finally over. It was first commemorated in 1919, and every November it pays tribute to the men and women who have lost their lives in war.

As Remembrance Day approaches, you will notice people with felt or paper poppies pinned to their coats as a symbol of Remembrance Day. These bright red flowers have become emblematic of "Flanders' Fields" and the lives lost in World War One.

Although there isn't a specific bank holiday that celebrates the Royal Family, there are certainly celebrations. Even though her actual birthday is in April, the Queen officially celebrates her birthday on a Saturday in June with the Trooping the Colour Parade, known more simply as The Queen's Birthday Parade. Although it is a grand spectacle, a public holiday is not part of the deal.

Should something monumental, however, take place the UK might create a public holiday. For example, 2012 marked the Queen's Diamond Jubilee and 60 years on the throne — only the second monarch ever to reach the milestone, the other being Queen Victoria. To celebrate, the traditional end of May bank holiday was moved to 4 June, and 5 June also became a one-off bank holiday creating a rare four day weekend.

LEISURE AND SPORTS

Attitudes for leisure have been much influenced by the modern love of moving around and by the ease of travel.

It was the British who started the fashion for seaside holidays — not surprisingly, since nobody in Britain lives more than one hundred and twenty kilometers from the sea. The coast is the most popular objective of English people

for their annual holiday. Few English people rent houses or flats for their holidays, but one of the traditional ways of spending a summer holiday is in a boarding-house, which may have a card in its window advertising 'apartments', or 'bed and breakfast'.

The British people may be conservative about the times at which they take their holiday, but they have shown themselves very ready to take to new places. Each year more English people become familiar with some part of continental Europe. Many take their cars, often with tents and caravans, crossing the Channel in ferries; others use the travel agents' scheme for group travel and hotel booking, some of them, regrettably, being taken to hotels which have been trained to provide English food.

The English are great lovers of competitive sports. The game peculiarly associated with England is cricket. Many other games too are English in origin, but have been adopted with enthusiasm in other countries, but cricket has been seriously and extensively adopted only in the Commonwealth countries, particularly in Australia, New Zealand, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, the West Indies.

For the great mass of the British public the eight months of the football season are more important than the four months of cricket. Football is the most popular team game in Britain. The British invented it and it has spread to every corner of the world. There are plenty of amateur association football (or 'soccer') clubs, but professional football is big business. Every large town has at least one professional football club. The players are bought and sold between the clubs, and 'transfer fees' can be equivalent to dozens of thousands of pounds.

Rugby football, or 'rugger', is played with an egg-shaped ball, which may be carried and thrown (but not forward). If a player is carrying the ball he may be 'tackled' and made to fall down. Each team has fifteen players, who spend much time lying in the mud or on top of each other and become very dirty.

Next to Association Football, the chief spectator sport in English life is horse racing. Partly because of the laws which forbid such activities on Sunday, most horse racing takes place on working days and during working hours.

A popular sporting event in Great Britain is the Open Golf Championship. Golf was invented by the Scots, and its headquarters is at the Royal and Ancient Golf Club, St Andrews.

The Wimbledon Tennis Tournament, in July, at Wimbledon, south London, is regarded by many tennis players as the most important championship to win. There is great public interest in the tournament. Many tennis fans queue all night outside the grounds in order to get tickets for the finals.

No less popular is the Boat Race between Oxford and Cambridge universities, on the River Thames in London at Easter. The course is over seven kilometers.

When English people use the word 'hunting' they usually mean fox-hunting, a sport which is popular among a small but important minority. There are 'closed seasons', when it is unlawful to shoot or hunt game and certain other animals. These seasons vary, according to the animals. On the whole hunting is a sport for the rich.

However, the most popular country sport is fishing, and there are more than 4 million anglers in Britain. Many fish for salmon and trout particularly in the rivers and lochs of Scotland, but in England and Wales the most widely practiced form of fishing is for coarse fish such as pike, perch, carp, roach, dace, trench, chub and bream.

Britain was the first home of many of the modern world's most popular sports. The British cannot claim, today, that they have, as a nation, surpassing skill in any form of sport when they engage in international competition. But they care strongly about the 'sporting spirit', the capacity to play with respect for the rules and the opponents, to win with modesty and to lose with good temper.

THEATRE

The roots of modern English drama stretch back into the past, and often the process of its development is plain enough to trace. The widespread dramatization of fiction in the twentieth century is yet another link with literary tradition. There have been dramas based on the life and work of the Brontes, such as Jane Eyre and Wuthering Heights, on the Brownings (The Barrets of Wimpole Street), on Jane Austen (Pride and Prejudice and Emma), on Gaskell's Cranford and Trollope's Barchester Towers, and on Russian novels, such as War and Peace and Crime and Punishment, all testifying to the strong literary interests of the English playgoing public. Nevertheless the English stage of the twentieth century has produced on the whole theatrical rather than literary drama. One of the best qualities of the serious English drama during the twentieth century has been its tenacity, its ability to survive in small repertory theatres and converted parish halls, in private groups and diminutive London playhouses, while the West End has been increasingly given over to lavish amusement and after-dinner comedy, where commercialism has exercised a very strong influence.

Of considerable renown among the modern English playwrights are John Osborne, Robert Bolt, David Story, Edmund Bond, Nicholas Simpson and others.
There are two hundred professional companies in Britain today and many good theatres, some new, in provincial cities and towns. There is a festival theatre at Chichester, Sussex. But London is the theatrical centre. There are thirty theatres in the West End. The National Theatre Company used to perform at the Old Vic and has now moved to the new National Theatre in the South Bank Arts centre. It also tours the provinces.

CINEMA

From about 1930 until very recent times the cinema enjoyed an immense popularity in Britain, and the palatial cinemas built in the 1930s were the most impressive of the buildings to be seen in the streets of many towns. Later, the rapid spread of television brought a great change. The number of cinema-goers has dropped crucially and, as a result, 1,500 cinemas were closed. British success in cinematography became much less conspicuous. Many of the films were mostly imported from America. Some films were shot in Britain and often directed by British directors, but with American money. The British cinematography was not able to provide the cinema houses with films of its own production.

But still the great majority of films dominating the British screen are Hollywood production. Britain is pervaded with all sort of American-made thrillers, westerners, spy-films, horror-films, porno-films, and the like which have a pernicious influence on the British youth. The cinema monopolies are little concerned with the ill-effects of such films as long as they bring in profits. Commercial art which can be cheaply mass produced leaves little, if any, room for real art, the latter being not a profitable commodity. Such evil practices impede the young talented film writers, actors and producers in their effort to produce really good films.

MUSIC

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries English musicians had a great reputation in Europe, both for their talent and for their originality. Today there is a revival of interest in these neglected composers. It was their experiments in keyboard music which helped to form the base from which grew most of the great harpsichord and piano music of the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

In the following centuries England produced no composers of world rank except for Henry Purcell in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and Elgar in the twentieth century. The music of Michael Tippett, Benjamin Britten and William Walton is performed all over the world today.

Answer the questions:

1. What are well-known writers of the country?
2. What are famous composers of Great Britain?
3. Where is the theatrical centre of the country?
4. What trends of painting do you know?

10-МАВЗУ: British media and sightseeing

Plan:

1. The press and its peculiar features
2. Television and radio
3. Popular museums
4. Tourist attractions in Great Britain

The press and its peculiar features

In Great Britain, as well as in the rest of the Western world, newspapers, magazines, radio and television have long been enterprises. Two streams are distinguished here in the mass media, each with its own objectives, methods and forms of presentation: 'big media' and 'opinion press'.

The most important of the British press are national newspapers. They are distributed and sold in all parts of the country. Nearly all the national newspapers have their head offices in London, but the famous newspaper street, Fleet Street, now houses only two of them, the Daily Express and the Daily Telegraph. The rest have moved to cheaper parts of London.

The national papers are divided into two main groups: quality papers and popular papers. The former group includes The Times, The Guardian, the Daily Telegraph, the Financial Times, The Observer, the Sunday Times and the Sunday

Telegraph. Very thoroughly they report national and international news. The latter group — the News of the World, The Sun, the Daily Mirror, the Daily Express. These newspapers tend to make news sensational, they publish 'personal' articles which shock and excite. Instead of printing factual news reports, these papers write them up in an exciting way, easy to read, playing on people's emotions. Their aim of entertaining people really means appealing to the lowest level of public taste, avoiding serious political and social questions or treating them superficially.

Television and radio

One of the most powerful sound broadcasting services is the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), based at Broadcasting House in London. In a sense the BBC sets the tone in propaganda taking the stand and reflecting the views of influential circles in the West.

The BBC has four television channels: BBC 1, BBC 2, the ITV (Independent Television) and Channel 4. BBC 2 offers more serious programmes than BBC 1 — documentaries and discussions, adaptations of novels into plays and serials, operas and concerts. The programmes of BBC 1 consist mainly of lighter plays and series, humour and sport, as well as some documentaries.

The huge commercial interests of television is the responsibility of the Independent Television (ITV). The whole of ITV is controlled by the Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA). It was set up in 1954. There are fifteen different television programme companies, each serving a different part of the country. These companies get most of their money from firms who use them for advertising. ITV programmes are interrupted at regular intervals by advertisements.

Channel 4 which began broadcasting in 1982, is also controlled by the IBA and forms part of the so-called independent television network.

The BBC has four national radio channels. Radio 1 provides mainly a programme of pop music. Radio 2 has light music and entertainment, comedy as well as being principal channel for the coverage of sport. Radio 3 provides classical and twentieth century music, talks on ancient and modern plays and some education programmes. Radio 4 specializes chiefly in providing the main news reports, talks and discussions, drama, music, etc. The BBC has some 27 local radio stations and 37 commercial independent stations distributed throughout Britain.

Radio and television programmes for the week are published in the BBC periodical, Radio Times. The BBC publishes another weekly periodical The Listener, in which a selection of radio and TV talks are printed.

The BBC has a powerful external service, known as the World Service, providing programmes in about forty different languages. The activity of this service is based on wide experience and age-old traditions of the British propaganda both at home and in foreign policy. The radio and television service of the BBC is a most influential branch of the ideological 'industry'.

Both the BBC and the IBA broadcast educational programmes for children and students in schools of all kinds, as well as for preschool children, and for adults in colleges and other institutions and in their homes. Broadcasts to schools cover most subjects of the curriculum, while education programmes for adults cover

many fields of learning, vocational training and recreation. Supporting material in the form of books, pamphlets, filmstrips, computer software, and audio and video cassettes, is available to supplement the programmes. The BBC broadcasts television and radio programmes made specially for students of the Open University, most of whose 130 or so undergraduate courses contain video and audio components, some of them available on cassettes for use with correspondence texts. The BBC Open University Centre also produces educational and training audio-visual materials in collaboration with external agencies such as the Department of Education and Science, the Department of Trade and Industry.

POPULAR MUSEUMS

The national museums and art galleries in London contain some of the most comprehensive collections of objects of artistic, archeological, scientific, historical and general interest. They are the British Museum, the Victoria and Albert Museum, the Science Museum, the National Gallery, the Tate Gallery, the National Portrait Gallery, the Geological Museum, the Natural History Museum. There are national museums and art galleries in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. In Edinburgh — the National Museum of Antiquities of Scotland, the Royal Scottish Museum; in Cardiff — the National Museum of Wales; in Belfast — the Ulster Museum.

Situated in Bloomsbury, just off Tottenham Court Road, the British Museum is the world's largest muse-um and was built between 1823 and 1852. Its magnificent library has the right, by law, to one copy of every publication printed in Britain. Things to single out include the Rosetta Stone in the Southern Egyptian Gallery, and, in the manuscript room, the Magna Carta, Nelson's log book and Scott's last diary.

The Victoria and Albert Museum displays fine and applied art of all countries and periods. Worth seeking out are the costume displays, the rooms of different historical periods, the jewelry and porcelain, the celebrated Raphael cartoons belonging to the Crown and the best collection of English miniatures to be found in the country.

The National Gallery exhibits all schools of European paintings from the 13th to the 19th century and includes works by Van Dyck, Rubens, Vermeer, Holbein, El Greco, Goya, Velasquez, Gainsborough and Leonardo da Vinci. It also includes the largest collection of Rembrandts outside Holland. There are over thirty rooms in the Gallery and lectures are given regularly by experts.

The Tate Gallery is really three galleries: a national gallery of British art, a gallery of modern sculpture and a gallery of modern foreign paintings. Among the treasures to be found are modern sculpture by Rodin, Moore and Epstein

The Natural History Museum is the home of the national collections of living and fossil plants and animals. It also has collections of rocks, minerals and meteorites. The building of the Museum, which is over one hundred years old, also houses a scientific research institution.

The Science Museum houses the national collections of science, industry and medicine. Many exhibits are full size and there are many historic objects of scientific and technological significance. Additionally there are exhibits sectioned

to show their internal construction, and working models. Of great scientific and public interest are the Geological Museum, the National Maritime Museum, the London Museum and many others.

Most cities and towns have museums devoted to arts, archaeology, and natural history, usually administered by the local authorities but sometimes by local learned societies or by individuals or trustees. Both Oxford and Cambridge are rich in museums, many of them associated with the universities, such as the Ashmolean Museum in Oxford, founded in 1683, the oldest in the world, and the Fitzwilliam Museum in Cambridge. Many private art collections in historic family mansions, including those owned by the National Trust, are open to the public, while an increasing number of open air museums depict the regional life of an area or preserve early industrial remains.

A major expansion in the number of museums is taking place and many are introducing new display techniques that attract increasing numbers of visitors. Over 68 million people a year attend the 2,000 or so museums and galleries open to the public, which include the major national collections and a wide variety of municipally and independently or privately owned institutions.

Tourist attractions in Great Britain

London is not only the political, economic and cultural centre of the United Kingdom. It is the main tourist attraction of the country. There are a lot of places of interest in London which attract thousands of tourists every year. They usually want to see Westminster Abbey, the Houses of Parliament, Buckingham Palace, St. Paul's Cathedral, the Tower of London.

Westminster is now the political centre of London. In the 11th century King Edward the Confessor decided to build a great abbey church there. There are many royal tombs in the Abbey, like the tomb of Edward the Confessor himself, and memorials to famous men and women. The most popular ones are those to writers, poets and musicians in the Poet's Corner. William the Conqueror was crowned there, and since then all the coronations have taken place in the Abbey.

During the reign of Edward the Confessor the Palace of Westminster was built, too. It was the royal residence and also the country's main court. The Parliament met here since the 16th till the 19th century. The present Houses of Parliament were built after the fire in the Palace of Westminster in 1834. There are two houses in the Parliament: the House Lords and the House of Commons.St. Stephen's Tower of the Houses of Parliament contains the famous Big Ben.

Buckingham Palace is the Queen's official London residence. Londoners usually watch the Changing of the Guard in the forecourt of the palace. It lasts about 30 minutes.

St Paul's Cathedral is Sir Christopher Wren's masterpiece. It was built from 1675 to 1709. It is crowned with a huge dome. Inside the dome there is the famous Whispering Gallery. There are many memorials in the Cathedral, including memorials to Wellington and Nelson.

The Tower of London is associated with many important events in the British history. It used to be a fortress, a place, a prison, a mint. The Tower of London is famous for its prisoners, like Sir Thomas More and Guy Fawkes. The

White Tower was built by William the Conqueror to protect the city. The Tower is guarded by "Beefeaters", the Yeomen Guards.

Answer the questions:

1. What are the main tourist attractions in London?
2. What is Westminster Abbey noted for?
3. What is the history of the House of Parliament?
4. What is Buckingham Palace?
5. What is St. Paul's Cathedral famous for?
6. What is the Tower of London associated with?
7. What world-famous museums are there in London?

11-МАВЗУ: The discovery of America, the birth of a new nation

Plan:

1. Christopher Columbus' worldwide discovery
2. The first Americans
3. Explorers from Europe
4. Puritan New England
5. Colonial life in America

Christopher Columbus' worldwide discovery

The explorer Christopher Columbus made four trips across the Atlantic Ocean from Spain: in 1492, 1493, 1498 and 1502. He was determined to find a direct water route west from Europe to Asia, but he never did. Instead, he accidentally stumbled upon the Americas. Though he did not really "discover" the New World—millions of people already lived there—his journeys marked the beginning of centuries of transatlantic conquest and colonization.

Christopher Columbus, the son of a wool merchant, was born in Genoa, Italy, in about 1451. When he was still a teenager, he got a job on a merchant ship. He remained at sea until 1470, when French privateers attacked his ship as it sailed north along the Portuguese coast.

The boat sank, but the young Columbus floated to shore on a scrap of wood and made his way to Lisbon, where he studied mathematics, astronomy, cartography and navigation. He also began to hatch the plan that would change the world forever.

Christopher Columbus did not "discover" the Americas, nor was he even the first European to visit the "New World." (Viking explorers had sailed to Greenland and Newfoundland in the 11th century.)

However, his journey kicked off centuries of exploration and exploitation on the American continents. The consequences of his explorations were severe for the native populations of the areas he and the conquistadores conquered. Disease and environmental changes resulted in the destruction of the majority of the native population over time, while Europeans continued to extract natural resources from these territories.

Today, Columbus has a controversial legacy—he is remembered as a daring and path-breaking explorer who transformed the New World, yet his actions also

unleashed changes that would eventually devastate the native populations he and his fellow explorers encountered.

The First Americans

At the height of the Ice Age, between 34,000 and 30,000 B.C., much of the world's water was contained in vast continental ice sheets. As a result, the Bering Sea was hundreds of meters below its current level, and a land bridge, known as Beringia, emerged between Asia and North America. At its peak, Beringia is thought to have been some 1,500 kilometers wide. A moist and treeless tundra, it was covered with grasses and plant life, attracting the large animals that early humans hunted for their survival.

The first people to reach North America almost certainly did so without knowing they had crossed into a new continent. They would have been following game, as their ancestors had for thousands of years, along the Siberian coast and then across the land bridge.

Once in Alaska, it would take these first North Americans thousands of years more to work their way through the openings in great glaciers south to what is now the United States. Evidence of early life in North America continues to be found. Little of it, however, can be reliably dated before 12,000 B.C.; a recent discovery of a hunting lookout in northern Alaska, for example, may date from almost that time. So too may the finely crafted spear points and items found near Clovis, New Mexico.

Similar artifacts have been found at sites throughout North and South America, indicating that life was probably already well established in much of the Western Hemisphere by some time prior to 10,000 B.C.

Around that time the mammoth began to die out and the bison took its place as a principal source of food and hides for these early North Americans. Over time, as more and more species of large game vanished -- whether from overhunting or natural causes -- plants, berries and seeds became an increasingly important part of the early American diet. Gradually, foraging and the first attempts at primitive agriculture appeared. Indians in what is now central Mexico led the way, cultivating corn, squash and beans, perhaps as early as 8,000 B.C. Slowly, this knowledge spread northward.

By 3,000 B.C., a primitive type of corn was being grown in the river valleys of New Mexico and Arizona. Then the first signs of irrigation began to appear, and by 300 B.C., signs of early village life.

By the first centuries A.D., the Hohokum were living in settlements near what is now Phoenix, Arizona, where they built ball courts and pyramid-like mounds reminiscent of those found in Mexico, as well as a canal and irrigation system.

Explorers from Europe

The first Europeans to arrive in North America -- at least the first for whom there is solid evidence -- were Norse, traveling west from Greenland, where Erik the Red had founded a settlement around the year 985. In 1001 his son Leif is thought to have explored the northeast coast of what is now Canada and spent at least one winter there. While Norse sagas suggest that Viking sailors explored the Atlantic coast of North America down as far as the Bahamas, such claims remain

unproven. In 1963, however, the ruins of some Norse houses dating from that era were discovered at L'Anse-aux-Meadows in northern Newfoundland, thus supporting at least some of the claims the Norse sagas make.

In 1497, just five years after Christopher Columbus landed in the Caribbean looking for a western route to Asia, a Venetian sailor named John Cabot arrived in Newfoundland on a mission for the British king. Although fairly quickly forgotten, Cabot's journey was later to provide the basis for British claims to North America. It also opened the way to the rich fishing grounds off George's Banks, to which European fishermen, particularly the Portuguese, were soon making regular visits.
Columbus, of course, never saw the mainland United States, but the first explorations of the continental United States were launched from the Spanish possessions that he helped establish. The first of these took place in 1513 when a group of men under Juan Ponce de Leon landed on the Florida coast near the present city of St.Augustine. With the conquest of Mexico in 1522, the Spanish further solidified their position in the Western Hemisphere. The ensuing discoveries added to Europe's knowledge of what was now named America -- after the Italian Amerigo Vespucci, who wrote a widely popular account of his voyages to a "New World." By 1529 reliable maps of the Atlantic coastline from Labrador to Tierra del Fuego had been drawn up, although it would take more than another century before hope of discovering a "Northwest Passage" to Asia would be completely abandoned.

Among the most significant early Spanish explorations was that of Hernando De Soto, a veteran conquistador who had accompanied Francisco Pizzaro during the conquest of Peru. Leaving Havana in 1539, De Soto's expedition landed in Florida and ranged through the southeastern United States as far as the Mississippi River in search of riches. Another Spaniard, Francisco Coronado, set out from Mexico in 1540 in search of the mythical Seven Cities of Cibola. Coronado's travels took him to the Grand Canyon and Kansas, but failed to reveal the gold or treasure his men sought. However, Coronado's party did leave the peoples of the region a remarkable, if unintended gift: enough horses escaped from his party to transform life on the Great Plains. Within a few generations, the Plains Indians had become masters of horsemanship, greatly expanding the range and scope of their activities.

A decade later, the Frenchman Jacques Cartier set sail with the hope -- like the other Europeans before him -- of finding a sea passage to Asia. Cartier's expeditions along the St. Lawrence River laid the foundations for the French claims to North America, which were to last until 1763.

The first English immigrants to what is now the United States crossed the Atlantic long after thriving Spanish colonies had been established in Mexico, the West Indies and South America. Like all early travelers to the New World, they came in small, overcrowded ships. During their six to 12-week voyages, they lived on meager rations. Many died of disease; ships were often battered by storms and some were lost at sea. Most European emigrants left their homelands to escape political oppression, to seek the freedom to practice their religion, or for adventure and opportunities denied them at home. Between 1620 and 1635, economic difficulties swept England. Many people could not find work. Even skilled artisans

could earn little more than a bare living. Poor crop yields added to the distress. In addition, the Industrial Revolution had created a burgeoning textile industry, which demanded an ever-increasing supply of wool to keep the looms running. Landlords enclosed farmlands and evicted the peasants in favor of sheep cultivation. Colonial expansion became an outlet for this displaced peasant population.

The colonists' first glimpse of the new land was a vista of dense woods. The settlers might not have survived had it not been for the help of friendly Indians, who taught them how to grow native plants -- pumpkin, squash, beans and corn. In addition, the vast, virgin forests, extending nearly 2,100 kilometers along the Eastern seaboard, proved a rich source of game and firewood. They also provided abundant raw materials used to build houses, furniture, ships and profitable cargoes for export.

Puritan New England

Puritans were English Protestants who were committed to "purifying" the Church of England by eliminating all aspects of Catholicism from religious practices. English Puritans founded the colony of Plymouth to practice their own brand of Protestantism without interference. New England society was characterized by equality under the law for white male citizens (as demonstrated by the Mayflower Compact), a disciplined work ethic, and a strong maritime economy. The second major area to be colonized by the English in the first half of the 17th century, New England, differed markedly in its founding principles from the commercially oriented Chesapeake tobacco colonies. Settled largely by waves of Puritan families in the 1630s, New England had a religious orientation from the start. In England, reform-minded men and women had been calling for greater changes to the English national church since the 1580s. These reformers, who followed the teachings of John Calvin and other Protestant reformers, were called Puritans because of their insistence on purifying the Church of England of what they believed to be unscriptural, Catholic elements that lingered in its institutions and practices.

Many who provided leadership in early New England were educated ministers who had studied at Cambridge or Oxford but who, because they had questioned the practices of the Church of England, had been deprived of careers by the king and his officials in an effort to silence all dissenting voices.

Other Puritan leaders, such as the first governor of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, John Winthrop, came from the privileged class of English gentry. These well-to-do Puritans and many thousands more left their English homes not to establish a land of religious freedom, but to practice their own religion without persecution. Puritan New England offered them the opportunity to live as they believed the Bible demanded. In their “New” England, they set out to create a model of reformed Protestantism, a new English Israel.

The conflict generated by Puritanism had divided English society because the Puritans demanded reforms that undermined the traditional festive culture. For example, they denounced popular pastimes like bear-baiting—letting dogs attack a chained bear—which were often conducted on Sundays when people had a few leisure hours. In the culture where William Shakespeare had produced his

masterpieces, Puritans called for an end to the theater, censuring playhouses as places of decadence.

Indeed, the Bible itself became part of the struggle between Puritans and James I, who as King of England was head of the Church of England. Soon after ascending the throne, James commissioned a new version of the Bible in an effort to stifle Puritan reliance on the Geneva Bible, which followed the teachings of John Calvin and placed God's authority above the monarch's. The King James Version, published in 1611, instead emphasized the majesty of kings.

During the 1620s and 1630s, the conflict escalated to the point where the state church prohibited Puritan ministers from preaching. In the Church's view, Puritans represented a national security threat because their demands for cultural, social, and religious reforms undermined the king's authority. Unwilling to conform to the Church of England, many Puritans found refuge in the New World.

Yet those who emigrated to the Americas were not united. Some called for a complete break with the Church of England while others remained committed to reforming the national church.

Colonial life in America

The first group of Puritans to make their way across the Atlantic was a small contingent known as the Pilgrims. Unlike other Puritans, they insisted on a complete separation from the Church of England and had first migrated to the Dutch Republic seeking religious freedom.

Although they found they could worship without hindrance there, they grew concerned that they were losing their Englishness as they saw their children begin to learn the Dutch language and adopt Dutch ways. In addition, the English Pilgrims—and others in Europe—feared another attack on the Dutch Republic by Catholic Spain. Because of this, in 1620 they moved on to found the Plymouth Colony in present-day Massachusetts.

The governor of Plymouth, William Bradford, was a Separatist—a proponent of complete separation from the English state church. Bradford and the other Pilgrim Separatists represented a major challenge to the prevailing vision of a unified English national church and empire. On board the Mayflower, which was bound for Virginia but landed on the tip of Cape Cod, Bradford and 40 other adult men signed the Mayflower Compact, which presented a religious—rather than an economic—rationale for colonization. The compact expressed a community ideal of working together.

When a larger exodus of Puritans established the Massachusetts Bay Colony in the 1630s, the Pilgrims at Plymouth welcomed them and the two colonies cooperated with each other.

Puritans expected young people to work diligently at their calling, and all members of their large families—including children—did the bulk of the work necessary to run homes, farms, and businesses.

Unlike the indentured servants in Virginia, very few migrants came to New England as laborers; in fact, New England towns protected their disciplined homegrown workforce by refusing to allow outsiders in, ensuring their sons and daughters would have steady employment.

New England's labor system produced remarkable results, notably a powerful maritime-based economy with scores of oceangoing ships and the crews necessary to sail them. New England mariners sailing New England-made ships transported Virginian tobacco and West Indian sugar throughout the Atlantic World.

Answer the questions:

1. What was Christopher Columbus' contribution?
2. Who were the first inhabitants of the country?
3. What was the life like in colonial America?

12-МАВЗУ: Fighting for independence, Civil War of America

Plan:

1. Forming the new nation
2. Different lives in Northern and Southern parts of America
3. The start of Civil War and its consequences

Forming the new nation

Politically, the 1850s can be characterized as a decade of failure in which the nation's leaders were unable to resolve, or even contain, the divisive issue of slavery. In 1852, for example, Harriet Beecher Stowe published Uncle Tom's Cabin, a novel provoked by the passage of the Fugitive Slave Law. When Stowe began writing her book, she thought of it as only a minor sketch, but it widened in scope as the work progressed. Immediately upon its publication, it caused a sensation. More than 300,000 copies were sold the first year, and presses ran day and night to keep up with the demand.

Although sentimental and full of stereotypes, Uncle Tom's Cabin portrayed with undeniable force the cruelty of slavery and the fundamental conflict between free and slave societies. The rising generation of voters in the North was deeply stirred by the work. It inspired widespread enthusiasm for the antislavery cause, appealing as it did to basic human emotions -- indignation at injustice and pity for the helpless individuals exposed to ruthless exploitation.

Different lives in Northern and Southern parts of America

In 1854 the old issue of slavery in the territories was renewed and the quarrel became more bitter. The region that now comprises Kansas and Nebraska was being rapidly settled, increasing pressure for the establishment of territorial, and eventually, state governments.

Under terms of the Missouri Compromise of 1820, the entire region was closed to slavery. The Compromise of 1850, however, inadvertently reopened the question. Dominant slave-holding elements in Missouri, objected to letting Kansas become a free territory, for their state would then have three free-soil neighbors (Illinois, Iowa and Kansas). They feared the prospect of their state being forced to become a free state as well. For a time, Missourians in Congress, backed by Southerners, blocked all efforts to organize the region.

At this point, Stephen A. Douglas, the Democratic senior senator from Illinois, stirred up a storm by proposing a bill, the Kansas-Nebraska Act, which enraged all free-soil supporters. Douglas argued that the Compromise of 1850, which left Utah

and New Mexico free to resolve the slavery issue for themselves, superseded the Missouri Compromise. His plan called for two territories, Kansas and Nebraska, and permitted settlers to carry slaves into them. The inhabitants themselves were to determine whether they should enter the Union as free or slave states.

Northerners accused Douglas of currying favor with the South in order to gain the presidency in 1856. Angry debates marked the progress of the bill. The free-soil press violently denounced it. Northern clergymen assailed it. Businessmen who had hitherto befriended the South suddenly turned about-face. Yet in May 1854, the Kansas-Nebraska Act passed the Senate amid the boom of cannon fired by Southern enthusiasts. When Douglas subsequently visited Chicago to speak in his own defense, the ships in the harbor lowered their flags to half- mast, the church bells tolled for an hour and a crowd of 10,000 hooted so loudly that he could not make himself heard.

The immediate results of Douglas's ill-starred measure were momentous. The Whig Party, which had straddled the question of slavery expansion, sank to its death, and in its stead a powerful new organization arose, the Republican Party, whose primary demand was that slavery be excluded from all the territories. In 1856, it nominated John Fremont, whose expeditions into the Far West had won him renown. Although Fremont lost the election, the new Republican Party swept a great part of the North. Such free-soil leaders as Salmon P. Chase and William Seward exerted greater influence than ever. Along with them appeared a tall, lanky Illinois attorney, Abraham Lincoln.

The flow of both Southern slave holders and antislavery families into Kansas resulted in armed conflict, and soon the territory was being called "bleeding Kansas." Other events brought the nation still closer to upheaval: notably, the Supreme Court's infamous 1857 decision concerning Dred Scott. Scott was a Missouri slave who, some 20 years earlier, had been taken by his master to live in Illinois and the Wisconsin Territory, where slavery had been banned by the Northwest Ordinance. Returning to Missouri and becoming discontented with his life there, Scott sued for liberation on the ground of his residence on free soil. The Supreme Court -- dominated by Southerners -- decided that Scott lacked standing in court because he was not a citizen; that the laws of a free state (Illinois) had no effect on his status because he was the resident of a slave state (Missouri); and that slave holders had the right to take their "property" anywhere in the federal territories and that Congress could not restrict the expansion of slavery. The Court's decision thus invalidated the whole set of comprise measures by which Congress for a generation had tried to settle the slavery issue.

The Dred Scott decision stirred fierce resentment throughout the North. Never before had the Court been so bitterly condemned. For Southern Democrats, the decision was a great victory, since it gave judicial sanction to their justification of slavery throughout the territories.

The start of Civil War and its consequences

In the presidential election of 1860 the Republican Party nominated Abraham Lincoln as its candidate. Party spirit soared as leaders declared that slavery could spread no farther. The party also promised a tariff for the protection of industry and

pledged the enactment of a law granting free homesteads to settlers who would help in the opening of the West. The Democrats were not united. Southerners split from the party and nominated Vice President John C. Breckenridge of Kentucky for president. Stephen A. Douglas was the nominee of northern Democrats. Diehard Whigs from the border states, formed into the Constitutional Union Party, nominated John C. Bell of Tennessee.

Lincoln and Douglas competed in the North, and Breckenridge and Bell in the South. Lincoln won only 39 percent of the popular vote, but had a clear majority of 180 electoral votes, carrying all 18 free states. Bell won Tennessee, Kentucky and Virginia; Breckenridge took the other slave states except for Missouri, which was won by Douglas. Despite his poor electoral showing, Douglas trailed only Lincoln in the popular vote.

Lincoln's election made South Carolina's secession from the Union a foregone conclusion. The state had long been waiting for an event that would unite the South against the antislavery forces. Once the election returns were certain, a special South Carolina convention declared "that the Union now subsisting between South Carolina and other states under the name of the "United States of America' is hereby dissolved." By February 1, 1861, six more Southern states had seceded. On February 7, the seven states adopted a provisional constitution for the Confederate States of America. The remaining southern states as yet remained in the Union.

Less than a month later, on March 4, 1861, Abraham Lincoln was sworn in as president of the United States. In his inaugural address, he refused to recognize the secession, considering it "legally void." His speech closed with a plea for restoration of the bonds of union. But the South turned deaf ears, and on April 12, guns opened fire on the federal troops stationed at Fort Sumter in the Charleston, South Carolina, harbor. A war had begun in which more Americans would die than in any other conflict before or since.

In the seven states that had seceded, the people responded promptly to the appeal of the new president of the Confederate States of America, Jefferson Davis. Both sides now tensely awaited the action of the slave states that thus far had remained loyal. In response to the shelling of Fort Sumter, Virginia seceded on April 17, and Arkansas, Tennessee and North Carolina followed quickly. No state left the Union with greater reluctance than Virginia. Her statesmen had a leading part in the winning of the Revolution and the framing of the Constitution, and she had provided the nation with five presidents. With Virginia went Colonel Robert E. Lee, who declined the command of the Union Army out of loyalty to his state. Between the enlarged Confederacy and the free-soil North lay the border states, of Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky and Missouri which, despite some sympathies with the South, remained loyal to the Union.

Each side entered the war with high hopes for an early victory. In material resources the North enjoyed a decided advantage. Twenty-three states with a population of 22 million were arrayed against 11 states inhabited by 9 million. The industrial superiority of the North exceeded even its preponderance in population, providing it with abundant facilities for manufacturing arms and ammunition,

clothing and other supplies. Similarly, the network of railways in the North enhanced federal military prospects.

The South had certain advantages as well. The most important was geography; the South was fighting a defensive war on its own territory. The South also had a stronger military tradition, and hence the region initially boasted the more experienced military leaders.

General Thomas Gage, an amiable English gentleman with an American-born wife, commanded the garrison at Boston, where political activity had almost wholly replaced trade. Gage's main duty in the colonies had been to enforce the Coercive Acts. When news reached him that the Massachusetts colonists were collecting powder and military stores at the town of Concord, 32 kilometers away, Gage sent a strong detail from the garrison to confiscate these munitions.

After a night of marching, the British troops reached the village of Lexington on April 19, 1775, and saw a grim band of 70 Minutemen -- so named because they were said to be ready to fight in a minute -- through the early morning mist. The Minutemen intended only a silent protest, but Major John Pitcairn, the leader of the British troops, yelled, "Disperse, you damned rebels! You dogs, run!" The leader of the Minutemen, Captain John Parker, told his troops not to fire unless fired at first. The Americans were withdrawing when someone fired a shot, which led the British troops to fire at the Minutemen. The British then charged with bayonets, leaving eight dead and 10 wounded. It was, in the often quoted phrase of Ralph Waldo Emerson, "the shot heard 'round the world."

Then the British pushed on to Concord. The Americans had taken away most of the munitions, but the British destroyed whatever was left. In the meantime, American forces in the countryside mobilized, moved toward Concord and inflicted casualties on the British, who began the long return to Boston. All along the road, however, behind stone walls, hillocks and houses, militiamen from "every Middlesex village and farm" made targets of the bright red coats of the British soldiers. By the time the weary soldiers stumbled into Boston, they suffered more than 250 killed and wounded. The Americans lost 93 men.

While the alarms of Lexington and Concord were still resounding, the Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on May 10, 1775. By May 15, the Congress voted to go to war, inducting the colonial militias into continental service and appointing Colonel George Washington of Virginia as commander- in-chief of the American forces. In the meantime, the Americans would suffer high casualties at Bunker Hill just outside Boston. Congress also ordered American expeditions to march northward into Canada by fall. Although the Americans later captured Montreal, they failed in a winter assault on Quebec, and eventually retreated to New York.

Despite the outbreak of armed conflict, the idea of complete separation from England was still repugnant to some members of the Continental Congress. In July, John Dickinson had drafted a resolution, known as the Olive Branch Petition, begging the king to prevent further hostile actions until some sort of agreement could be worked out. The petition fell on deaf ears, however, and King George III

issued a proclamation on August 23, 1775, declaring the colonies to be in a state of rebellion.

Britain had expected the Southern colonies to remain loyal, in part because of their reliance on slavery. Many in the Southern colonies feared that a rebellion against the mother country would also trigger a slave uprising against the planters. In November 1775, in fact, Lord Dunmore, the governor of Virginia, offered freedom to all slaves who would fight for the British. However, Dunmore's proclamation had the effect of driving to the rebel side many Virginians who would otherwise have remained Loyalist.

The governor of North Carolina, Josiah Martin, also urged North Carolinians to remain loyal to the Crown. When 1,500 men answered Martin's call, they were defeated by revolutionary armies before British troops could arrive to help.

British warships continued down the coast to Charleston, South Carolina, and opened fire on the city in early June 1776. But South Carolinians had time to prepare, and repulsed the British by the end of the month. They would not return South for more than two years.

Answer the questions:

1. Who were the founders of the Independence declaration?
2. What is the role of the English language in the World?
3. What were the consequences of Civil war in the country?

13-МАВЗУ: Years of growth, the forming of an American empire

Plan:

1. Miners, railroads and cattlemen
2. Inventors and industries
3. The Golden door
4. An American Empire

Miners, railroads and cattlemen

In 1865 the frontier line generally followed the western limits of the states bordering the Mississippi River, bulging outward to include the eastern sections of Kansas and Nebraska. Beyond this thin edge of pioneer farms lay the prairie and sagebrush lands that stretched to the foothills of the Rocky Mountains. Then, for nearly 1,600 kilometers, loomed the huge bulk of mountain ranges, many rich in silver, gold and other metals. On the far side, plains and deserts stretched to the wooded coastal ranges and the Pacific Ocean. Apart from the settled districts in California and scattered outposts, the vast inland region was populated by Native Americans: among them the Great Plains tribes -- Sioux and Blackfoot, Pawnee and Cheyenne -- and the Indian cultures of the Southwest, including Apache, Navajo and Hopi.

A mere quarter-century later, virtually all this country had been carved into states and territories. Miners had ranged over the whole of the mountain country, tunneling into the earth, establishing little communities in Nevada, Montana and Colorado. Cattle ranchers, taking advantage of the enormous grasslands, had laid claim to the huge expanse stretching from Texas to the upper Missouri River. Sheep herders had found their way to the valleys and mountain slopes. Farmers

sank their plows into the plains and valleys and closed the gap between the East and West. By 1890 the frontier had disappeared.

Settlement was spurred by the Homestead Act of 1862, which granted free farms of 64 hectares to citizens who would occupy and improve the land. Unfortunately for the would-be farmers, the land itself was suited more for cattle ranching than farming, and by 1880 nearly 22,400,000 hectares of "free" land was in the hands of cattlemen or the railroads.

In 1862 Congress also voted a charter to the Union Pacific Railroad, which pushed westward from Council Bluffs, Iowa, using mostly the labor of ex-soldiers and Irish immigrants. At the same time, the Central Pacific Railroad began to build eastward from Sacramento, California, relying heavily on Chinese immigrant labor. The whole country was stirred as the two lines steadily approached each other, finally meeting on May 10, 1869, at Promontory Point in Utah. The months of laborious travel hitherto separating the two oceans was now cut to about six days. The continental rail network grew steadily, and by 1884 four great lines linked the central Mississippi Valley area with the Pacific.

The first great rush of population to the Far West was drawn to the mountainous regions, where gold was found in California in 1848, in Colorado and Nevada 10 years later, in Montana and Wyoming in the 1860s, and in the Black Hills of the Dakota country in the 1870s. Miners opened up the country, established communities, and laid the foundations for more permanent settlements. Yet even while digging in the hills, some settlers perceived the region's farming and stock-raising possibilities. Eventually, though a few communities continued to be devoted almost exclusively to mining, the real wealth of Montana, Colorado, Wyoming, Idaho and California proved to be in the grass and soil.

Cattle-raising, long an important industry in Texas, flourished after the Civil War, when enterprising men began to drive their Texas longhorn cattle north across the open public land. Feeding as they went, the cattle arrived at railway shipping points in Kansas, larger and fatter than when they started. Soon this "long drive" became a regular event, and, for hundreds of kilometers, trails were dotted with herds of cattle moving northward. Cattle- raising spread into the trans-Missouri region, and immense ranches appeared in Colorado, Wyoming, Kansas, Nebraska and the Dakota territory. Western cities flourished as centers for the slaughter and dressing of meat.

Ranching introduced a colorful mode of existence with the picturesque cowboy as its central figure. Although the reality of cowboy life, with its low pay and grueling work, was far from romantic, its mythological hold on the American imagination has remained strong, from the "dime" novels of the 1870s to the films of John Wayne and Clint Eastwood in the late 20th century.

Altogether, between 1866 and 1888, some six million head of cattle were driven up from Texas to winter on the high plains of Colorado, Wyoming and Montana. The cattle boom reached its height in 1885, when the range became too heavily pastured to support the long drive, and was beginning to be crisscrossed by railroads. Not far behind the rancher creaked the covered wagons of the farmers

bringing their families, their draft horses, cows and pigs. Under the Homestead Act they staked their claims and fenced them with a new invention, barbed wire. Ranchers were ousted from lands they had roamed without legal title. Soon the romantic "Wild West" had ceased to be.

Railroads became increasingly important to the expanding nation, and unfair railroad practices proliferated. Rail lines extended cheaper rates to large shippers by rebating a portion of the charge, operated to the disadvantage of small shippers. Also, some railroads charged arbitrarily higher rates to some shippers than to others between certain points, regardless of distance.

Moreover, while competition held down freight charges between cities with several rail connections, rates were excessive between points served by only one line. Thus it cost less to ship goods 1,280 kilometers from Chicago to New York than to places a few hundred kilometers from Chicago. And by joint action to avoid competition -- pooling -- rival companies divided the freight business according to a prearranged scheme that placed the total earnings in a common fund for distribution.

Popular resentment at these practices stimulated state efforts at regulation. These had some effect, but the problem was national in character and demanded congressional action. In 1887 President Grover Cleveland signed the Interstate Commerce Act, which forbade excessive charges, pools, rebates and rate discrimination, and created an Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC) to guard against violations of the act. In the first decades of its existence, however, the railroads used conservative Supreme Court decisions to thwart virtually all the ICC's efforts at regulation and rate reductions.

Cleveland was also active in combating the high tariff, which, adopted originally as an emergency war measure, had come to be accepted as permanent national policy under the Republican presidents who dominated the politics of the era. Cleveland, a Democrat, regarded excessive tariffs as responsible in large measure for a burdensome increase in the cost of living and for the rapid development of trusts. After many years, during which the tariff had not been a political issue, the Democrats in 1880 demanded a "tariff for revenue only," and soon the clamor for reform became insistent. In his annual message to Congress in 1887, Cleveland, despite warnings to avoid the explosive subject, startled the nation by denouncing the extremes to which the principle of protecting American industry from foreign competition had been pushed.

The tariff became the main issue of the presidential election campaign in 1888, and Republican candidate Benjamin Harrison, a defender of protectionism, won in a close race. The Harrison administration, fulfilling its campaign promises, passed in 1890 the McKinley tariff bill, a measure designed to protect established industries as well as to foster so-called "infant industries." The new tariff's generally high rates contributed to high retail prices, triggering widespread dissatisfaction.

During this period, public antipathy toward the trusts increased. The nation's gigantic corporations, subjected to bitter attack through the 1880s by such reformers as Henry George and Edward Bellamy, became a hotly debated political

issue. To break the monopolies, the Sherman Antitrust Act, passed in 1890, forbade all combinations in restraint of interstate trade and provided several methods of enforcement with severe penalties. Couched in vague generalities, the law itself accomplished little immediately after its passage. But a decade later, in the administration of Theodore Roosevelt, its effective application earned the president the nickname of "trust- buster."

Inventors and industries

The United States Steel Corporation, which resulted from this merger in 1901, illustrated a process under way for 30 years: the combination of independent industrial enterprises into federated or centralized companies.

Begun during the Civil War, the trend gathered momentum after the 1870s, as businessmen began to fear that overproduction would lead to declining prices and falling profits. They realized that if they could control both production and markets, they could bring competing firms into a single organization. The "corporation" and the "trust" were developed to achieve these ends.

Corporations, making available a deep reservoir of capital and giving business enterprises permanent life and continuity of control, attracted investors both by the anticipated profits and by the limited liability in case of business failure. In turn, the trusts, were in effect combinations of corporations whereby the stockholders of each placed stocks in the hands of trustees. Such trusts made possible large-scale combinations, centralized control and administration, and the pooling of patents. Their larger capital resources provided power to expand, to compete with foreign business organizations, and to drive hard bargains with labor, which was beginning to organize effectively. They could also exact favorable terms from railroads and exercise influence in politics.

The Standard Oil Company, founded by John D. Rockefeller, was one of the earliest and strongest corporations, and was followed rapidly by other combinations -- in cottonseed oil, lead, sugar, tobacco and rubber. Soon aggressive individual businessmen began to mark out industrial domains for themselves. Four great meat packers, chief among them Philip Armour and Gustavus Swift, established a beef trust. Cyrus McCormick achieved preeminence in the reaper business. A 1904 survey showed that more than 5,000 previously independent concerns had been consolidated into some 300 industrial trusts.

The trend toward amalgamation was manifest in other fields, particularly in transportation and communications. Western Union, earliest of the large communications combinations, was followed by the Bell Telephone System and eventually by the American Telephone and Telegraph Company. In the 1860s, Cornelius Vanderbilt consolidated some 13 separate railroads into a single line connecting New York City and Buffalo, about 800 kilometers away. During the next decade he acquired lines to Chicago, Illinois, and Detroit, Michigan -- and the New York Central Railroad System came into being. Other consolidations were already under way, and soon the major railroads of the nation were organized into trunk lines and systems directed by a handful of men.

In this new industrial order, the city was the nerve center, bringing to a focus all the nation's dynamic economic forces: vast accumulations of capital, business and

financial institutions, spreading railroad yards, smoky factories, and armies of manual and clerical workers. Villages, attracting people from the countryside and from lands across the sea, grew into towns and towns into cities almost overnight. In 1830 only one of every 15 persons lived in communities of 8,000 or more; in 1860 the ratio was nearly one in every six; and in 1890 three in every 10. No single city had as many as a million inhabitants in 1860; but 30 years later New York had a million and a half, and Chicago, Illinois, and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, each had over a million. In these three decades, Philadelphia and Baltimore, Maryland, doubled in population, Kansas City, Missouri, and Detroit, Michigan, grew fourfold, Cleveland, Ohio, six fold, Chicago tenfold. Minneapolis, Minnesota, and Omaha, Nebraska, and many communities like them -- hamlets when the Civil War began -- increased 50 times or more in population.

"The Civil War," says one writer, "cut a wide gash through the history of the country; it dramatized in a stroke the changes that had begun to take place during the preceding 20 or 30 years...." War needs had enormously stimulated manufacturing, speeding an economic process based on the exploitation of iron, steam and electric power, as well as the forward march of science and invention. In the years before 1860, 36,000 patents were granted; in the next 30 years, 440,000 patents were issued, and in the first quarter of the 20th century, the number reached nearly a million.

As early as 1844, Samuel F. B. Morse had perfected electrical telegraphy, and soon afterward distant parts of the continent were linked by a network of poles and wires. In 1876 Alexander Graham Bell exhibited a telephone instrument and, within half a century, 16 million telephones would quicken the social and economic life of the nation. The growth of business was speeded by the invention of the typewriter in 1867, the adding machine in 1888 and the cash register in 1897. The linotype composing machine, invented in 1886, and rotary press and paper-folding machinery made it possible to print 240,000 eight-page newspapers in an hour. Thomas Edison's incandescent lamp eventually lit millions of homes. The talking machine, or phonograph, too, was perfected by Edison, who, in conjunction with George Eastman, also helped develop the motion picture. These and many other applications of science and ingenuity resulted in a new level of productivity in almost every field.

Concurrently, the nation's basic industry -- iron and steel -- was forging ahead, protected by a high tariff. Previously concentrated in the Eastern states, the iron industry moved westward as geologists discovered new ore deposits, notably the great Mesabi iron range at the head of Lake Superior, which became one of the largest ore producers in the world. The ore lay on the surface of the ground and was easy and cheap to mine.

Remarkably free of chemical impurities, it could be processed into steel of superior quality at about one-tenth the previously prevailing cost.

The Golden door

The Statue of Liberty National Monument, comprising Liberty Island and Ellis Island, is located in the Upper New York Bay opposite Liberty State Park in Jersey City. "I lift my lamp beside the golden door!" is the last line of "The New

Colossus," the poem by Emma Lazarus. Many immigrants passed through the city's Communipaw Terminal and it is sometime's referred to as "America's Golden Door. The festival's name is inspired by the emigrant experience. The Central Railroad of New Jersey Terminal, also known as Communipaw Terminal and Jersey City Terminal, was the Central Railroad of New Jersey's waterfront passenger terminal in Jersey City, New Jersey. It was also serviced by the Reading Railroad, Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and Lehigh Valley Railroad during various periods in its 78 years of operation. The current terminal building was constructed in 1889 but was abandoned in 1967. The head house was later renovated. It was later added to the New Jersey Register of Historic Places and incorporated into Liberty State Park. The terminal was one of five passenger railroad terminals that lined the Hudson Waterfront during the 19th and 20th centuries, the others being Weehawken, Hoboken, Pavonia and Exchange Place, with Hoboken being the only station that is still in use.

The terminal was built in 1889, replacing an earlier one that had been in use since 1864. It operated until April 30, 1967. The station has been listed on the New Jersey Register of Historic Places and National Register of Historic Places since September 12, 1975. Additionally it is a New Jersey State Historic Site.

An American Empire American imperialism is a policy aimed at extending the political, economic, and cultural control of the United States government over areas beyond its boundaries. It can be accomplished in any number of ways: by military conquest, by treaty, by subsidization, by economic penetration through private companies followed by intervention when those interests are threatened, or by regime change. The concept of expanding territorial control was popularized in the 19th century as the doctrine of Manifest Destiny and was realized through conquests such as the Mexican–American War of 1846, which resulted in the annexation of 525,000 square miles of Mexican territory. While the US government does not refer to itself as an empire, the continuing phenomenon has been acknowledged by mainstream Western writers including Max Boot, Arthur Schlesinger, and Niall Ferguson.

Answer the questions:

1. What is the role of Industry in the development of the country?
2. Which countries were the first colonies of the country?

14-МАВЗУ: Geographical position, flora and fauna of the USA

Plan:

1. Territory and structure of the country
2. Animal life
3. Vegetation
4. Climate and weather

Territory and structure of the country

Territorial regions may vary greatly from one region to another. It is impossible to speak of the American Southwest without a focus on aridity and water erosion, of the North without its cold winters, or of the Northeast without cities and

manufacturing. The key element that establishes a total uniform region, then, is not how that section compares with others on a predetermined set of variables, but how a certain set of conditions blend there.

According to divisions there 14 regions in the United States. These are: Megalopolis, the American Manufacturing Core, the Bypassed East, Appalachia and the Ozarks, the Deep South, the Southern Coastlands, the Agricultural Core, the Great Plains and Prairies, the Empty Interior, the Southwest Border Area, California, the North Pacific Coast, the Northlands, and Hawaii.

Rigid regional boundaries do not fit the landscape of the United States. A given portion of the country may be occupied by parts of two or more regions, but the boundaries of many regions may also be fairly broad transitional zones that contain many of a region's characteristics. At times, these zones mark an area where the mix of characteristics is so subtle or complex that it is difficult to assign the area to any one region. Parts of the margin between the Agricultural Core and the Great Plains are examples of this, as are sections of the transition between the Agricultural Core and the Deep South.

Regional boundaries and regions themselves are not static. Settlement patterns shift, society develops significant new technological abilities, and political patterns are altered; regions reflecting these patterns may expand, contract, appear, or disappear. A regionalization of the United States for the year of its discovery, 1492, would have been quite different from one for 1776, 1865, or 1991. There is no reason to believe that the pattern for 2100 will be similar to that for 2000.

Several of the regions closely follow political boundaries. The reason for this in Hawaii is obvious. California is separated from most of its adjacent landscape because of its leadership role in changing the culture of America and its statewide political "solutions" to its local resource problems. Megalopolis has been defined traditionally along county lines.

Animal life

The fauna of the United States of America is all the animals living in the Continental United States and its surrounding seas and islands, the Hawaiian Archipelago, Alaska in the Arctic, and several island- territories in the Pacific and in the Caribbean. The U.S. has many distinctive indigenous species found nowhere else on Earth. With most of the North American continent, the U.S. lies in the Nearctic faunistic realm, a region containing an assemblage of species similar to northern parts of Africa and Eurasia.

An estimated 432 species of mammals characterize the fauna of the continental U.S. There are more than 800 species of bird and more than 100,000 known species of insects. There are 311 known reptiles, 295 amphibians and 1154 known fish species in the U.S. Known animals that exist in all of the lower 48 states include white-tailed deer, bobcat, raccoon, muskrat, striped skunk, barn owl, American mink, American beaver, North American river otter and red fox. The red- tailed hawk is one of the most widely distributed hawks not only in the U.S., but in the Americas.

Huge parts of the country with the most distinctive indigenous wildlife are protected as national parks. In 2013, the U.S. had more than 6770 national parks or

protected areas, all together more than 1,006,619 sq. miles (2,607,131 km2). The first national park was Yellowstone National Park in the state of Wyoming, established in 1872. Yellowstone National Park is widely considered to be the finest mega fauna wildlife habitat in the U.S. There are 67 species of mammals in the park, including the gray wolf, the threatened lynx, and the grizzly bear.

In the American prairie in the Central United States lives mostly animals adapted for living in grasslands. Indigenous mammals include the American bison, eastern cottontail, black-tailed jackrabbit, plains coyote, black-tailed prairie dog, muskrat, opossum, raccoon, prairie chicken, wild turkey, white- tailed deer, swift foxes, pronghorn antelope, the Franklin's ground squirrel and several other species of ground squirrels.

Reptiles include bullsnakes, common collared lizard, common snapping turtle, musk turtles, yellow mud turtle, painted turtle, western diamondback rattlesnake and the prairie rattlesnake. Some of the typical amphibians found in the region are the three-toed amphiuma, green toad, Oklahoma salamander, lesser siren and the plains spade foot toad. In the Rocky Mountains and other mountainous areas of the inland is where the bald eagle is most observed, even though its habitat includes all of the Lower 48, as well as Alaska.

Of the marine life, the harbor seal is the most widely distributed species of seal and found along the east coast, while the hooded seal, bearded seal, grey seal, ringed seal, and harp seal are found in the northwest. Whales are common along Atlantic coastline.

Whale species found along the entire coastline includes the Gervais' beaked whale, common minke whale, fin whale, sei whale, blue whale, humpback whale, sperm whale, dwarf sperm whale, pygmy sperm whale, killer whale, Cuvier's beaked whale, True's beaked whale, and the Blainville's beaked whale.

Vegetation

Botanists speak of something called climax vegetation, which is defined as the assemblage that would grow and reproduce indefinitely at a place given a stable climate and average conditions of soil and drainage. For most of the inhabited portions of America today, that concept has little meaning. The "natural" vegetation, if it ever existed, has been so substantially removed, rearranged, and replaced that it seldom is found now. In the Southeast, for example, the original mixed broadleaf and needle leaf forests were cut and replaced by the economically more important needle leaf forests. The grasses of the plains and prairies are mostly European imports. Their native American predecessors are gone either because they offered an inferior browse for farm animals or because they could not withstand the onslaught of modern humanity and its imported weeds. Most of what climax vegetation remains is in the West and North. There are several ways of creating vegetation regions. Perhaps the simplest is to divide the United States into three broad categories--forest, grasslands, and scrublands. Forests once covered most of the East, the central and northern Pacific Coast, the higher elevations of the West, and a broad band across the interior North. Forests of the Pacific coast, the interior West, the North, and a narrow belt in the Deep South were all needle leaf and composed of many different trees. Much of the Ohio and lower

Mississippi River Valleys and the middle Great Lakes region was covered by a deciduous broadleaf forest.

Grasslands covered much of the interior lowlands, including nearly all of the Great Plains from Texas and New Mexico to the Canadian border. This is an area of generally sub humid climate where precipitation amounts are not adequate to support tree growth. An eastward extension of the grasslands, the Prairie Wedge, reached across Illinois to the western edge of Indiana, where precipitation is clearly adequate to support tree growth.

Scrublands usually develop under dry conditions. They are concentrated in the lowlands of the interior West. Actual vegetation varies from the cacti of the Southwest to the dense, brushy chaparral of southern California and the mesquite of Texas.

The tundra of the far North is the result of a climate that is too cold and too dry for the growth of vegetation other than grasses, lichens, and mosses. Tundra exists in small areas far southward into the United States, where climatic conditions at high elevations are inhospitable to tree growth. Northward, the altitudinal tree line is found at lower elevations until, eventually, the latitudinal tree line is reached.

Climate and weather

Climate is the aggregate of day-to-day weather conditions over a period of many years. It is the result of the interaction of many different elements, the most important of which are temperature and precipitation.

Climatic patterns are a result of the interaction of three geographic controls. The first is latitude. The earth is tilted on its axis with reference to the plane of its orbit around the sun. As it makes its annual revolution around the sun, first the Northern Hemisphere and then the Southern are exposed to the more direct rays of the sun. During the Northern Hemisphere's summer, higher latitude locations have longer days, with far northern points experiencing a period of continuous daylight. Daylight periods during the winter months are shorter at higher latitudes, whereas more southerly locations have both longer days and exposure to more direct rays of the sun.

The second control is based on the relationship between land and water. Land tends to heat and cool more rapidly than water. In a tendency called continentally, places far from large bodies of water experience greater seasonal extremes of temperature than do coastal communities. Parts of the northern Great Plains experience annual temperature ranges close to 65°C; annual differences of as much as 100°C (from 50°C to -50°C) have been recorded in some locations.

The third prime geographic influence on climate is topography. Most obvious is the relationship between elevation and temperature, with higher elevations cooler than lower elevations. The influence of topography can be broader, however, because of its effect on wind flow. If a major mountain chain lies astride a normal wind direction, the mountains force the air to rise and cool. As the air mass cools, the amount of moisture that it can hold is reduced. Precipitation results if the cooling causes the relative humidity to reach 100 percent. Moisture falls on the windward side, and the lee is dry. The wettest area in North America is along the Pacific coast from Oregon to southern Alaska, where moisture-laden winds

strike mountains along the shore. Average annual precipitation is more than 200 centimeters throughout the area, and in some places exceeds 300 centimeters.
Mountains also can reduce the moderating effects of maritime conditions on temperature, as happens in the interior of the Pacific Northwest. The Western Cordillera (mountain mass) confines West Coast maritime climatic conditions to that coast. Some of the greatest variations in both precipitation and temperature to be found across a small distance anywhere in America exist between the west and east sides of parts of the Coast Ranges. The aridity of the central and northern interior West is due in large part to the barrier effect of the north- south-trending mountain ranges of the West.

East of the Rockies, the topographic effect on precipitation eventually disappears, partly because the eastern mountains are lower and thus pose less of a barrier to moving air, and partly because much of the weather of the interior is a result of conflict between two huge air masses that are unimpeded, one flowing northward from the Gulf of Mexico, and the other flowing southward out of Canada. The contact of these air masses creates what are often violent displays of weather in the region.

The interaction of these climatic controls creates a pattern of climatic regionalization. In the East, the principal element in climatic variation is temperature; in the West, it is precipitation. In the East, the divisions between the climate regions are based largely on the length of the growing season--the period from the average date of the last frost in spring to the first frost in fall--and on the average summer maximum temperature or winter minimum temperature. In the West, average annual precipitation is the key, although moderated temperatures are an important aspect of the marine West Coast climate. In the East, the more northerly areas are generally drier; in the West, they are colder. In the East, the major influence on climatic variation is latitude; in the West, it is topography.

Answer the questions:

1. Where is the USA situated?
2. What can you say about climate of it?
3. What are climatic patterns?
4. What are three geographic controls?

15-МАВЗУ: Modern American political system

Plan:

1. The role of modern America in the world policy
2. Modern American political system
3. Political parties and elections

The role of modern America in the world policy

Public opinion reports on Americans' attitudes toward foreign policy sketch a picture of retrenchment, war-weariness, and skepticism toward global engagement, even as there is also a growing concern that the world is increasingly unstable and

dangerous. Nothing about this picture is new or controversial. Some may worry about it more than others, but it is now commonly accepted that the US is downsizing its international role, and that the administration, the Congress, and the general public are more absorbed with domestic concerns than with foreign challenges or threats.

The first challenge—reaffirming the historic American commitment to freedom in the world—involves making it clear that we will do whatever we can to support people fighting for fundamental rights, even as we recognize that they must take responsibility for their own success or failure. For many reasons, democracy is seen to be on the defensive today. Authoritarian states are pushing back aggressively against groups working for greater democracy, the turmoil in the Middle East has destroyed the early promise of the Arab Spring, and China's growing economic and military power has altered the balance of forces in the world at a time when the US and many European countries have entered a period of economic and political malaise.

Committing ourselves to preserving US leadership in the world is, therefore, the second major challenge for US policy. This is not an expression of American arrogance or a reckless form of overreaching. Rather, it is the recognition of a fundamental geopolitical reality. "A world without US primacy," Samuel Huntington once wrote, "will be a world with more violence and disorder and less democracy and economic growth than a world where the United States continues to have more influence than any other country in shaping global affairs." The urgent challenge now is for the US to exercise leadership in a convincing manner so that the vacuum is not filled by hostile powers or by chaos and violence.

But continued US primacy is simply not possible unless we address a third critical challenge, which is to bring the spiraling US public debt under control. Over the last decade, the gross federal debt has nearly tripled to more than $17 trillion and now exceeds the total national GDP. While there are many reasons for the continuing surge in public debt, including the 2008 fiscal crisis and the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, the principal factor has been the growth of entitlement spending, which has gone from less than one-third of the federal budget a half-century ago to more than two-thirds today. In the words of Robert J. Samuelson, "The welfare state is taking over government." Other priorities are steadily being squeezed, from investment in infrastructure and human capital to international programs and even defense spending, which is expected to shrink by forty percent over the next decade. Richard Haass is thus entirely correct when he writes that "American profligacy at home threatens American power and security." Unless we can summon the political will and bipartisan consensus to reverse our domestic decline, no amount of strategic vision will enable the United States to exercise the kind of leadership that the world so desperately needs.

Modern American political system

"The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people."

— The United States Constitution, Amendment X, 1789

The federal entity created by the Constitution is the dominant feature of the American governmental system. But the system itself is in reality a mosaic, composed of thousands of smaller units — building blocks that together make up the whole. There are 50 state governments plus the government of the District of Columbia, and further down the ladder are still smaller units that govern counties, cities, towns, and villages. This multiplicity of governmental units is best understood in terms of the evolution of the United States. The federal system, it has been seen, was the last step in an evolutionary process. Prior to the Constitution, there were the governments of the separate colonies (later states) and, prior to those, the governments of counties and smaller units. One of the first tasks accomplished by the early English settlers was the creation of governmental units for the tiny settlements they established along the Atlantic coast. Even before the Pilgrims disembarked from their ship in 1620, they formulated the Mayflower Compact, the first written American constitution. And as the new nation pushed westward, each frontier outpost created its own government to manage its affairs.

The drafters of the U.S. Constitution left this multilayered governmental system untouched. While they made the national structure supreme, they wisely recognized the need for a series of governments more directly in contact with the people and more keenly attuned to their needs. Thus, certain functions — such as defense, currency regulation, and foreign relations — could only be managed by a strong centralized government. But others — such as sanitation, education, and local transportation — could be better served by local jurisdictions.

STATE GOVERNMENT

State governments have three branches: executive, legislative, and judicial; these are roughly equivalent in function and scope to their national counterparts. The chief executive of a state is the governor, elected by popular vote, typically for a four-year term (although in a few states the term is two years). Except for Nebraska, which has a single legislative body, all states have a bicameral legislature, with the upper house usually called the Senate and the lower house called the House of Representatives, the House of Delegates, or the General Assembly. In most states, senators serve four-year terms, and members of the lower house serve two-year terms. The constitutions of the various states differ in some details but generally follow a pattern similar to that of the federal Constitution, including a statement of the rights of the people and a plan for organizing the government. On such matters as the operation of businesses, banks, public utilities, and charitable institutions, state constitutions are often more detailed and explicit than the federal one. Each state constitution, however, provides that the final authority belongs to the people, and sets certain standards and principles as the foundation of government.

CITY GOVERNMENT

City governments are chartered by states, and their charters detail the objectives and powers of the municipal government. But in many respects the cities function independently of the states. For most big cities, however, cooperation with both state and federal organizations is essential to meeting the needs of their residents. Types of city governments vary widely across the nation. However, almost all have some kind of central council, elected by the voters, and an executive officer, assisted by various department heads, to manage the city's affairs. There are three general types of city government: the mayor-council, the commission, and the city manager. These are the pure forms; many cities have developed a combination of two or three of them.

COUNTY GOVERNMENT

The county is a subdivision of the state, usually — but not always — containing two or more townships and several villages. New York City is so large that it is divided into five separate boroughs, each a county in its own right: the Bronx, Manhattan, Brooklyn, Queens, and Staten Island. On the other hand, Arlington County, Virginia, just across the Potomac River from Washington, D.C., is both an urbanized and suburban area, governed by a unitary county administration.

In most U.S. counties, one town or city is designated as the county seat, and this is where the government offices are located and where the board of commissioners or supervisors meets. In small counties, boards are chosen by the county as a whole; in the larger ones, supervisors represent separate districts or townships. The board levies taxes; borrows and appropriates money; fixes the salaries of county employees; supervises elections; builds and maintains highways and bridges; and administers national, state, and county welfare programs.

TOWN AND VILLAGE GOVERNMENT

Thousands of municipal jurisdictions are too small to qualify as city governments. These are chartered as towns and villages and deal with such strictly local needs as paving and lighting the streets; ensuring a water supply; providing police and fire protection; establishing local health regulations; arranging for garbage, sewage, and other waste disposal; collecting local taxes to support governmental operations; and, in cooperation with the state and county, directly administering the local school system. The government is usually entrusted to an elected board or council, which may be known by a variety of names: town or village council, board of selectmen, board of supervisors, board of commissioners. The board may have a chairperson or president who functions as chief executive officer, or there may be an elected mayor. Governmental employees may include a clerk, treasurer, police and fire officers, and health and welfare officers.

OTHER LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

The federal, state, and local governments covered here by no means include the whole spectrum of American governmental units. The U.S. Bureau of the Census (part of the Commerce Department) has identified no less than 84,955 local governmental units in the United States, including counties, municipalities, townships, school districts, and special districts.

Americans have come to rely on their governments to perform a wide variety of tasks which, in the early days of the republic, people did for themselves. In colonial days, there were few police officers or firefighters, even in the large cities; governments provided neither street lights nor street cleaners. To a large extent, people protected their own property and saw to their families' needs.

Now, meeting these needs is seen as the responsibility of the whole community, acting through government. Even in small towns, the police, fire, welfare, and health department functions are exercised by governments. Hence, the bewildering array of jurisdictions.

Political Parties

Many of America's Founding Fathers hated the thought of political parties, quarreling "factions" they were sure would be more interested in contending with each other than in working for the common good. They wanted individual citizens to vote for individual candidates, without the interference of organized groups — but this was not to be.

By the 1790s, different views of the new country's proper course had already developed, and those who held these opposing views tried to win support for their cause by banding together. The followers of Alexander Hamilton called themselves Federalists; they favored a strong central government that would support the interests of commerce and industry. The followers of Thomas Jefferson called themselves Democratic- Republicans; they preferred a decentralized agrarian republic in which the federal government had limited power. By 1828, the Federalists had disappeared as an organization, replaced by the Whigs, brought to life in opposition to the election that year of President Andrew Jackson. The Democratic-Republicans became Democrats, and the two-party system, still in existence today, was born.

In the 1850s, the issue of slavery took center stage, with disagreement in particular over the question of whether or not slavery should be permitted in the country's new territories in the West. The Whig Party straddled the issue and sank to its death; it was replaced in 1854 by the Republican Party, whose primary policy was that slavery be excluded from all the territories. Just six years later, this new party captured the presidency when Abraham Lincoln won the election of 1860. By then, parties were well established as the country's dominant political organizations, and party allegiance had become an important part of most people's consciousness. Party loyalty was passed from fathers to sons, and party activities — including spectacular campaign events, complete with uniformed marching groups and torchlight parades — were a part of the social life of many communities.

By the 1920s, however, this boisterous folksiness had diminished. Municipal reforms, civil service reform, corrupt practices acts, and presidential primaries to replace the power of politicians at national conventions had all helped to clean up politics — and make it quite a bit less fun.

Why did this country end up with only two political parties? Most officials in America are elected from single- member districts and win office by beating out their opponents in a system for determining winners called "first- past-the-post" — the one who gets the most votes wins, and there is no proportional accounting. This encourages the creation of a duopoly: one party in power, the other out. If those who are "out" band together, they have a better chance of beating those who are "in." Occasionally third parties do come along and receive some share of the votes, for a while at least. The most successful third party in recent years has been H. Ross Perot's Reform Party, which had some success in the presidential elections of 1992 and 1996. Jesse Ventura became the first Reform Party candidate to win statewide office when he was elected governor of Minnesota in 1998. Third parties have a hard time surviving, though, because one or both of the major parties often adopt their most popular issues, and thus their voters.

"In America the same political labels — Democratic and Republican — cover virtually all public officeholders, and therefore most voters are everywhere mobilized in the name of these two parties," says Nelson W. Polsby, professor of political science, in the book New Federalist Papers: Essays in Defense of the Constitution. "Yet Democrats and Republicans are not everywhere the same. Variations — sometimes subtle, sometimes blatant — in the 50 political cultures of the states yield considerable differences overall in what it means to be, or to vote, Democratic or Republican. These differences suggest that one may be justified in referring to the American two- party system as masking something more like a hundred-party system."

Answer the questions:

1. How many political parties are there in the country?
2. What is the s system in America?
3. What is the role of America in modern life?

16-МАВЗУ: Education in the USA

Plan:

1. School education
2. Further education
3. University education
4. Well-known colleges and universities

School education

The age of entry to compulsory education in the U.S. varies, according to the state, between 5 and 7 years of age, 6 being the most common. The age at which compulsory schooling ends varies between 16 and 18 years of age, the most

common being 16. School education does not end until age 18, or completion of the 12th year of school and those who leave school at the end of compulsory education without earning a secondary (high school) diploma do not receive any certificate or recognition - they are considered to be secondary school drop-outs. Students may graduate a year earlier or late depending on when they entered school. Gifted students may graduate earlier because they skipped grades, and students may graduate later because they repeat grades. School years are referred to as "grades" in the United States. The length of primary education varies from four to seven years, i.e. grades 1-4, 1-7, etc. Each state determines what grade range constitutes primary education, called "elementary education". According to its length, elementary education may be followed (or not) by a number of years of middle school education (generally three years). Secondary education takes place in grades 7-12, depending upon the laws and policies of states and local school districts. There is no national structure, curriculum or governing law; all laws and policies are set and enforced by the 50 state governments and the over 14,000 local school districts. All states and school districts have set the secondary school graduation level as the completion of 12th grade, and the common name for the secondary graduation qualification is the High School Diploma. This diploma name covers a variety of awards for different curricula and standards. There are Honors/Regents, academic/college preparatory, vocational, and general/basic high school diploma tracks. There are a statewide minimum course requirement and other graduation requirements in each State which usually correspond to the general/basic track. Vocational and academic/college preparatory or honors/Regents diplomas usually have additional set curricular requirements and/or standards which aspiring graduates must meet or exceed. In addition, many US secondary school districts and private schools allow students to participate in the Advanced Placement (AP) programme of the College Board. This programme allows qualified students to take college level introductory courses in selected subjects taught by certified faculty. Examinations are offered in each AP subject at the end of an academic year; a score of 3 or higher generally results in universities awarding advanced standing in that subject - exempting the student from distribution requirements.There are currently over 35 AP subjects with more being planned. A growing number of public and private secondary schools also offer the International Baccalaureate (IB) as an optional track; completion of IB requirements usually requires an additional summer or semester of study beyond the 12th year. The contents of an individual student's programme at any grade level or upon obtaining a diploma or an online RN to BSN degree are contained in the record of studies called a Transcript. Transcripts are official documents authenticated with the seal of the school or institution and signed by the registrar.

Further education

Higher education in the U.S. is also called postsecondary education, but the latter term also refers to all formal education beyond secondary school, whether higher education (defined as degree-granting education) or not. Postsecondary education is broadly divided into two different sectors: postsecondary vocational

education and training, which is non-degree but can produce some transferable credits under certain circumstances; and higher education, which includes studies undertaken in degree-granting institutions for academic credit. However, the U.S. higher education system is not legally organized into separate university and non-university sub-systems as are some other national systems, but is comprehensive. It is a diverse and autonomous community of publicly and privately supported institutions. Current data indicate that there are 6,479 postsecondary institutions, including 4,182 non-degree institutions. Of the degree-granting higher education institutions, some 1,732 award only the associate degree plus sub-bachelor's certificates and diplomas; 702 award only the bachelor's degree; 1,094 award degrees and certificates beyond the bachelor's degree but not the research doctorate; and 654 institutions award the research doctorate. The United States does not use an official classification or typology for its higher education institutions. While different institutions offer varying levels of degrees, U.S. accreditation policies result in degrees at any given level adhering to certain minimum standards regardless of the institution that grants them. The U.S. higher education system is characterized by accessibility, diversity, and autonomy and is known for both its size and quality. The federal government has no jurisdiction or authority over the recognition of educational institutions, members of the academic professions, programmes or curricula, or degrees or other qualifications. Nearly all U.S. postsecondary institutions are licensed, or chartered, by a state or municipal government to operate under the ownership of either a government (if public) or a private corporation (if independent), and may be for-profit or not-for-profit enterprises. Religious institutions are considered independent, or private. Quality assurance is achieved via the system of voluntary accreditation by specific accrediting agencies that are recognized by the U.S. Secretary of Education and meet the standards for membership in the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA). Accreditation is a self-regulating process of quality control engaged in by the U.S. postsecondary education community to ensure minimum standards of academic capability, administrative competence, and to promote mutual recognition of qualifications within the system. Six (6) regional accreditation associations set minimum standards for institutions chartered in the states of their respective jurisdictions. In addition, there are recognized accrediting agencies for specialized institutions and programmes. While all recognized and accredited institutions are licensed or chartered by state governments, states vary greatly in the degree of supervision and quality control that they exercise, and there is relatively limited reciprocity of recognition across state borders. Accreditation by recognized agencies, therefore, remains the primary means of ensuring academic and institutional quality and the mutual acceptance of credits and qualifications across and outside the United States. Non-university level post-secondary studies (technical/vocational type): Non-university level: There is no legal distinction between "university level" and "non-university level" higher education. The level of studies is delineated by the level of qualification offered in a specific programme rather than by type of institution offering it. Educational programmes corresponding to "non-university level technical/vocational post-

secondary studies" would include all technical and occupational programmes that lead to a degree, diploma or certificate below the Bachelor's degree. Education at this level would include (1) all institutions that only award qualifications under the Bachelor's degree; (2) programmes leading to awards under the Bachelor's degree offered at institutions that also award higher degrees.

University level studies:

1. University level first stage: Associate Degree, Bachelor Degree, Advanced Certificate, First Professional Degree.
2. University level second stage: Master's Degree, Post-Master's Degree/Certificate, Diploma/Certificate, Degree of Education Specialist: The Master's degree represents the second stage of higher education and is the first advanced (graduate) degree.
3. University level third stage: Research Doctorate:

Famous universities and colleges

Harvard University is a private, not-for-profit, Ivy League research university that is the oldest school in the country. It was established in 1636 and is located in Cambridge, Massachusetts and is the most prestigious and selective school in the country. This school is regionally accredited by the NEASC.

Harvard confers 46 undergraduate degrees and 166 graduate and professional degrees within its 11 academic units. It is also a highly selective school and rigorous in terms of academic standards; transferring in is almost impossible and students who do transfer in are almost always behind schedule for their graduation timetable. Life at Harvard can be difficult, particularly considering how much emphasis is put on educational outcomes. Students often build their own internship and research opportunities and take the time to network with both classmates and faculty. Ambitious students will find the 400 student organizations to be a welcome relief from the rigors of academia, all which make up one of the best institutions of higher learning in America.

Harvard University, oldest institution of higher learning in the United States (founded 1636) and one of the nation’s most prestigious. It is one of the Ivy Leagueschools. The main university campus lies along the Charles River in Cambridge, Massachusetts, a few miles west of downtown Boston. Harvard’s total enrollment is about 20,000.

Harvard’s history began when a college was established at New Towne, which was later renamed Cambridge for the English alma mater of some of the leading colonists. Classes began in the summer of 1638 with one master in a single frame house and a “college yard.” Harvard was named for a Puritan minister, John Harvard, who left the college his books and half of his estate. At its inception Harvard was under church sponsorship, although it was not formally affiliated with any religious body. During its first two centuries the college was gradually

liberated, first from clerical and later from political control, until in 1865 the university alumni began electing members of the governing board. During his long tenure as Harvard's president (1869–1909), Charles W. Eliot made Harvard into an institution with national influence.

The alumni and faculty of Harvard have been closely associated with many areas of American intellectual and political development. By the end of the 20th century, Harvard had educated six U.S. presidents—John Adams, John Quincy Adams, Rutherford B. Hayes, Theodore Roosevelt, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and John F. Kennedy—and a number of justices, cabinet officers, and congressional leaders. Literary figures among Harvard graduates include Ralph Waldo Emerson, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Henry David Thoreau, James Russell Lowell, Henry James, Henry Adams, T.S. Eliot, John Dos Passos, E.E. Cummings, Walter Lippmann,

and Norman Mailer. Other notable intellectual figures who graduated from or taught at Harvard include the historians Francis Parkman, W.E.B. Du Bois, and Samuel Eliot Morison; the astronomer Benjamin Peirce; the chemist Wolcott Gibbs; and the naturalist Louis Agassiz. William James introduced the experimental study of psychology into the United States at Harvard in the 1870s.

Harvard's undergraduate school, Harvard College, contains about one-third of the total student body. The core of the university's teaching staff consists of the faculty of arts and sciences, which includes the graduate faculty of arts and sciences. The university has graduate or professional schools of medicine, law, business, divinity, education, government, dental medicine, design,

and public health. The schools of law, medicine, and business are particularly prestigious. Among the advanced research institutions affiliated with Harvard are the Museum of Comparative Zoology (founded in 1859 by Agassiz), the Gray Herbarium, the Peabody Museum of Archaeology and Ethnology, the Arnold Arboretum, and the Fogg Art Museum. Also associated with the university are an astronomical observatory in Harvard, Massachusetts; the Dumbarton Oaks Research Library and Collection in Washington, D.C., a centre for Byzantineand pre-Columbian studies; and the Harvard-Yenching Institute in Cambridge for research on East and Southeast Asia. The Harvard University Library is one of the largest and most important university libraries in the world.

Radcliffe College, one of the Seven Sisters schools, evolved from informal instruction offered to individual women or small groups of women by Harvard University faculty in the 1870s. In 1879 a faculty group called the Harvard Annex made a full course of study available to women, despite resistance to coeducation from the university's administration. Following unsuccessful efforts to have women admitted directly to degree programs at Harvard, the Annex, which had incorporated as the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women, chartered Radcliffe College in 1894. The college was named for the colonial philanthropist Ann Radcliffe, who established the first scholarship fund at Harvard in 1643. Until the 1960s Radcliffe operated as a coordinate college, drawing most of its

instructors and other resources from Harvard. Radcliffe graduates, however, were not granted Harvard degrees until 1963. Diplomas from that time on were signed by the presidents of both Harvard and Radcliffe. Women undergraduates enrolled at Radcliffe were technically also enrolled at Harvard College, and instruction was coeducational. Although its 1977 agreement with Harvard University called for the integration of select functions, Radcliffe College maintained a separate corporate identity for its property and endowments and continued to offer complementary educational and extracurricular programs for both undergraduate and graduate students, including career programs, a publishing course, and graduate-level workshops and seminars in women's studies. In 1999 Radcliffe and Harvard formally merged, and a new school, the Radcliffe Institute for Advanced Study at Harvard University, was established. The institute focuses on Radcliffe's former fields of study and programs and also offers such new ones as nondegree educational programs and the study of women, gender, and society.

Answer the questions:

1. What types of schools are there in the country?
2. How many groups are American universities divided into?
3. What are famous American universities?

17-МАВЗУ: Traditions, festivals, sport events and holidays of the country

Plan:

1. The importance of sport and leisure in the USA
2. Modern American festivals and holidays
3. Theatre and cinema
4. Arts and music

Sports play an important role in American society. They enjoy tremendous popularity but more important they are vehicles for transmitting such values as justice, fair play, and teamwork. Sports have contributed to racial and social integration and over history have been "a social glue" bonding the country together.

Early Americans like Benjamin Franklin and President Thomas Jefferson stressed the need for exercise and fitness promoting for example running and swimming. In the 20th century, American presidents Theodore Roosevelt, Dwight D. Eisenhower and John F. Kennedy continued to encourage physical activity.

President Dwight D. Eisenhower founded the President's Council on Youth Fitness in 1956 to encourage America's youth to make fitness a priority. The Council later became the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, including people of all ages and abilities and promoting fitness through sports and games. Today, the Council continues to play an important role in promoting fitness and healthy living in America.

The United States offers limitless opportunities to engage in sports - either as a participant or as a spectator. Team sports were a part of life in colonial North America. Native American peoples played a variety of ball games including some that may be viewed as earlier forms of lacrosse. The typical American sports of

baseball, basketball ad football, however, arose from games that were brought to America by the first settlers that arrived from Europe in the 17th century. These games were re-fashioned and elaborated in the course of the 19th century and are now the most popular sports in the United States. Various social rituals have grown up around athletic contests. The local high school football or basketball game represents the biggest event of the week for residents in many communities across the United States. Fans of major university and professional football teams often gather in parking lots outside stadiums to eat a "tailgate" picnic lunch before kickoff, and for parties in front of television sets in each other's homes during the professional championship game, the Super Bowl. Thousands of baseball fans flee the snow and ice of the North for a week or two each winter by making a pilgrimage to training camps in the South and Southwest to watch up close their favourate players prepare for the spring opening of the professional baseball season.

Individual competitions accompanied the growth of team sports. Shooting and fishing contests were part of the colonial experience, as were running, boxing, and horse racing. Golf and tennis emerged in the 1800s. Recent decades have given birth to a wide variety of challenging activities and contests such as sail boarding, mountain biking, and sport climbing, collectively referred to as "extreme sports".

Modern American festivals and holidays

Americans share three national holidays with many countries: Easter Sunday, Christmas Day, and New Year's Day. Easter, which falls on a spring Sunday that varies from year to year, celebrates the Christian belief in the resurrection of Jesus Christ. For Christians, Easter is a day of religious services and the gathering of family. Many Americans follow old traditions of coloring hard-boiled eggs and giving children baskets of candy. On the next day, Easter Monday, the president of the United States holds an annual Easter egg hunt on the White House lawn for young children. Christmas Day, December 25, is another Christian holiday; it marks the birth of the Christ Child. Decorating houses and yards with lights, putting up Christmas trees, giving gifts, and sending greeting cards have become traditions even for many non-Christian Americans. New Year's Day, of course, is January 1. The celebration of this holiday begins the night before, when Americans gather to wish each other a happy and prosperous coming year.

UNIQUELY AMERICAN HOLIDAYS

Eight other holidays are uniquely American (although some of them have counterparts in other nations). For most Americans, two of these stand out above the others as occasions to cherish national origins: Thanksgiving and the Fourth of July.

Presidents' Day: Until the mid-1970s, the February 22 birthday of George Washington, hero of the Revolutionary War and first president of the United States, was a national holiday. In addition, the February 12 birthday of Abraham Lincoln, the president during the Civil War, was a holiday in most states. The two days have been joined, and the holiday has been expanded to embrace all past presidents. It is celebrated on the third Monday in February.

Memorial Day: Celebrated on the fourth Monday of May, this holiday honors the dead. Although it originated in the aftermath of the Civil War, it has become a day on which the dead of all wars, and the dead generally, are remembered in special programs held in cemeteries, churches, and other public meeting places.

Labor Day: The first Monday of September, this holiday honors the nation's working people, typically with parades. For most Americans it marks the end of the summer vacation season, and for many students the opening of the school year.

Columbus Day: On October 12, 1492, Italian navigator Christopher Columbus landed in the New World. Although most other nations of the Americas observe this holiday on October 12, in the United States it takes place on the second Monday in October.

Veterans Day: Originally called Armistice Day, this holiday was established to honor Americans who had served in World War I. It falls on November 11, the day when that war ended in 1918, but it now honors veterans of all wars in which the United States has fought. Veterans' organizations hold parades, and the president customarily places a wreath on the Tomb of the Unknowns at Arlington National Cemetery, across the Potomac River from Washington, D.C.

Theatre and cinema

The cinema of the United States, often referred to as Hollywood, has had a profound effect on the film industry in general since the early 20th century. The dominant style of American cinema is classical Hollywood cinema, which developed from 1917 to 1960 and characterizes most films made there to this day. While Frenchmen Auguste and Louis Lumière are generally credited with the birth of modern cinema, American cinema quickly came to be the most dominant force in the industry as it emerged. Since the 1920s, the film industry of the United States has had higher annual grosses than any other country's. It produces the largest number of films of any single-language national cinema, with more than 800 English- language films released on average every year. While the national cinemas of the United Kingdom(299), Canada (206), and Australia and New Zealand also produce films in the same language, they are not considered part of the Hollywood system.

Hollywood has also been considered a transnational cinema. Classical Hollywood produced multiple language versions of some titles, often in Spanish or French. Contemporary Hollywood offshores production to Canada, Australia,and New Zealand.

Hollywood is the oldest film industry in the world, and is considered the birthplace of various genres of cinema—among them comedy, drama, action, the musical, romance, horror, science fiction and the war epic—having set an example for other national film industries. It produced the world’s first sound (talkie) as well as musical film The Jazz Singer.

In 1878, Edward Muybridge demonstrated the power of photography to capture motion. In 1894, the world's first commercial motion-picture exhibition was given in New York City, using Thomas Edison's kinescope. The United States produced the world’s first sync-sound musical film, The Jazz Singer, in 1927, and was at the forefront of sound-film development in the following decades. Since the early 20th

century, the US film industry has largely been based in and around the 30 Mile Zone in Hollywood, Los Angeles, California. Director D. W. Griffith was central to the development of a film grammar. Orson Welles's Citizen Kane (1941) is frequently cited in critics' polls as the greatest film of all time.

The major film studios of Hollywood are the primary source of the most commercially successful and most ticket selling movies in the world, such as The Birth of a Nation (1915), Gone with the Wind (1939), The Sound of Music (1965), The Godfather (1972), Jaws (1975), Star Wars (1977), E.T. the Extra-Terrestrial (1982), Jurassic Park (1993), Titanic(1997), and Avatar (2009). Moreover, many of Hollywood's highest-grossing movies have generated more box-office revenue and ticket sales outside the United States than films made elsewhere. Today, American film studios collectively generate several hundred movies every year, making the United States one of the most prolific producers of films in the world and a leading pioneer in motion picture engineering and technology.

Theater in the United States is part of the European theatrical tradition that dates back to ancient Greek theatre and is heavily influenced by the British theatre. The central hub of the US theater scene is New York City, with its divisions of Broadway, Off-Broadway, and Off-Off-Broadway. Many movie and television stars got their big break working in New York productions. Outside New York, many cities have professional regional or resident theater companies that produce their own seasons, with some works being produced regionally with hopes of eventually moving to New York. US theater also has an active community theatre culture, which relies mainly on local volunteers who may not be actively pursuing a theatrical career.

Arts and music The music of the United States reflects the country's multi-ethnic population through a diverse array of styles. It is a mixture of music influenced by West African, Irish, Scottish and mainland European cultures among others.

The country's most internationally renowned genres are jazz, blues, country, bluegrass, rock, rhythm and blues, soul, ragtime, hip hop, barbershop, pop, experimental, techno, house, dance, boogaloo, salsa, and rock and roll. The United States has the world's largest music market with a total retail value of 4,898.3 million dollars in 2014, and its music is heard around the world. Since the beginning of the 20th century, some forms of American popular music have gained a near global audience.

Native Americans were the earliest inhabitants of the land that is today known as the United States and played its first music. Beginning in the 17th century, immigrants from the United Kingdom, Ireland, Spain, Germany, and France began arriving in large numbers, bringing with them new styles and instruments. African slaves brought musical traditions, and each subsequent wave of immigrants contributed to a melting pot.

Much of modern popular music can trace its roots to the emergence in the late 19th century of African American blues and the growth of gospel music in the 1920s. The African American basis for popular music used elements derived from European and indigenous music. There are also strong African roots in the music

tradition of the original white settlers, such as country and bluegrass. The United States has also seen documented folk music and recorded popular music produced in the ethnic styles of the Ukrainian, Irish, Scottish, Polish, Hispanic, and Jewish communities, among others.

Many American cities and towns have vibrant music scenes which, in turn, support a number of regional musical styles. Along with musical centers such as Philadelphia, Seattle, Portland, New York City, San Francisco, New Orleans, Detroit, Minneapolis, Chicago, Miami, Atlanta, Nashville, Austin, and Los Angeles, many smaller cities such as Asbury Park, New Jersey have produced distinctive styles of music. The Cajun and Creole traditions in Louisiana music, the folk and popular styles of Hawaiian music, and the bluegrass and old time music of the Southeastern states are a few examples of diversity in American music.

The main styles of American architecture during the nineteenth century were Greek Revival, Gothic Revival, Second Empire, together with some Italianate and Romanesque-style designs. Greek Revival came first, led largely by Jefferson, Latrobe and Bulfinch. Neo-Gothic architectural design was exemplified by the work of Richard Upjohn (1802-78) and James Renwick (1818-95), while Romanesque-style designs were pursued by Henry Hobson Richardson (1838-86). The less widespread Beaux-Arts style - a mixture of Neo-Renaissance and Neo-Baroque architecture - was championed in particular by Richard Morris Hunt (1827-95) and Cass Gilbert (1859-1934). Meantime, the first real skyscrapers were being designed by the Chicago School of architecture (c.1880-1910), led by William Le Baron Jenney (1832-1907).

Several famous American art museums, endowed by US industrialist-philanthropists, date from around the turn of the century. They include: The Metropolitan Museum of Art New York (1870), which now owns more than 3 million works; The Museum of Fine Arts Boston (1870), whose collection now has 450,000 works; The Philadelphia Museum of Art (1876), with 200 galleries and over 225,000 objects; The Detroit Institute of Arts (early 1880s), with 100 galleries, and a collection valued at over $1 billion; The Art Institute of Chicago (1893), whose collection includes 33 masterpieces by Claude Monet!; The Frick Collection (1919), one of the world's top "bijou" art museums; The Phillips Collection (1921), another one of the world's top "small" museums; The Whitney Museum of American Art (1930), founded by Gertrude Vanderbilt Whitney (1875-1942).

An important influence on the development of American art during the early 20th century was the American photographer, editor, and art dealer Alfred Stieglitz (1864-1946), later the husband of artist Georgia O'Keeffe, who - with the help of his close colleague Edward Steichen (1879-1973) - devoted much of his energy to promoting fine art photography as well as modernist painting and sculpture in the New York area. Other early camera artists included Dorothea Lange (1895-1965) and Walker Evans (1903–1975).

Postmodernist art, exemplified by the kitsch-like innovative works of Jeff Koons, continues to hold sway in America, reflecting similar developments in Britain illustrated in the works of Damien Hirst (b.1965). However, while in

Britain and on the Continent, postmodernist art stands awkwardly alongside Michelangelo and Monet, the American art world has tended to be more product-based. To put it simply, while Europeans worry about aesthetics, Americans buy and sell art as if it were just another set of products. If this is true, the 2008-9 recession is likely to set a new value on American artworks from the 19th century, the 20th century and the contemporary era. Already, contemporary art has suffered a significant decline in financial vale, while the Warhol period seems to be doing well.

Answer the questions:

1. What are well-known writers of the country?
2. What are famous composers of the USA?
3. Where is the theatrical centre of the country?
4. What trends of American painting do you know?

18-МАВЗУ: Peculiarities of American states, their capital cities, anthems

Plan:

1. American administrative division, states of the country
2. Popular American states, their own peculiarities
3. Population

American administrative division, states of the country

Political divisions (also referred to as administrative divisions) of the United States are the various recognized governing entities that together form the United States — states, territories, the District of Columbia, and Indian reservations.

The primary first-level political (administrative) division of the United States is the state. There are 50 states, which are bound together in a union with each other. Each state holds governmental jurisdiction over a defined geographic territory, and shares its sovereignty with the United States federal government. According to numerous decisions of the United States Supreme Court, the 50 individual states and the United States as a whole are each sovereign jurisdictions.

All state governments are modeled after the federal government and consist of three branches (although the three-branch structure is not Constitutionally required): executive, legislative, and judicial. They retain plenary power to make laws covering anything not preempted by the U.S. Constitution, federal statutes, or treaties ratified by the U.S. Senate, and are organized as presidential systems where the governor is both head of government and head of state (even though this too is not required). The various states are then typically subdivided into counties. Louisiana uses the term parish and Alaska uses the term borough for what the Census terms county equivalents in those states.

Counties and county equivalents may be further subdivided into townships. Towns in New York, Wisconsin and New England are treated as equivalents to townships by the United States Census Bureau. Towns or townships are used as subdivisions of a county in 20 states, mostly in the Northeast and Midwest.

Population centers may be organized into incorporated cities, towns, villages, and other types of municipalities. Municipalities are typically subordinate to a county government, with some exceptions. Certain cities, for example, have consolidated with their county government as consolidated city-counties. In Virginia, cities are completely independent from the county in which they would otherwise be a part. In some states, particularly in New England, towns form the primary unit of local government below the state level, in some cases eliminating the need for county government entirely.

The government of each of the five permanently inhabited U.S. territories is also modeled and organized after the federal government. Each is further subdivided into smaller entities. Puerto Rico has 78 municipalities, and the Northern Mariana Islands has 4 municipalities. Guam has villages, the U.S. Virgin Islands has districts, and American Samoa has districts and unorganized atolls.

Other U.S. sub-national divisions include the District of Columbia, several minor outlying islands, and Indian reservations, all of which are administered by the Federal government. Each Indian Reservation is subdivided in various ways. For example, the Navajo Nation is subdivided into agencies and Chapter houses, while the Blackfeet

Nation is subdivided into Communities. The Federal government also maintains exclusive jurisdiction over military installations and American embassies and consulates located in foreign countries. Other special purpose divisions exist separately from those for general governance, examples of which include conservation districts and Congressional districts.

According to the U.S. Internal Revenue Service, Federal and state governments are established and recognized by the U.S. Constitution and state constitutions. Federally recognized Indian tribal governments are recognized by the U.S. Constitution, treaties, statutes and court decisions. Other entities may be recognized as governments by state law, court decision, or an examination of facts and circumstances that indicate it has the characteristics of a government, such as powers of taxation, law enforcement and civil authority.

States

The primary political entity of the United States is the state. Four states—Kentucky, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Virginia—call themselves "commonwealths." The word commonwealth in this context refers to the common "wealth", or welfare, of the public. The term has no legal impact.

In 1777 the 13 colonies that had declared independence from Great Britain one year earlier (July 1776) agreed to the formation of a confederation of states, one with an extremely limited central government. A new national frame of government came into force in 1789, when the current U.S. Constitution replaced the Articles. This constitution incorporates the doctrine of the separation of

powers, whereby the federal government is divided into three branches, as well as concepts of federalism, describing the rights and responsibilities of state governments and of the states in relationship to the federal government.

On numerous occasions the United States Supreme Court has affirmed that the 50 individual states and the United States as a whole are each sovereign jurisdictions under the Constitution. Due to the shared sovereignty between each state and the federal government, Americans are citizens of both the federal republic and of the state in which they reside. States, however, are not sovereign in the Westphalian sense in international law which says that each State has sovereignty over its territory and domestic affairs, to the exclusion of all external powers, on the principle of non-interference in another State's domestic affairs, and that each State (no matter how large or small) is equal in international law. Additionally, the 50 U.S. states do not possess international legal sovereignty, meaning that they are not recognized by other sovereign States such as, for example, France, Germany or the United Kingdom.

The 50 states of the United States of America are as follows (this list includes both the postal code abbreviation and the traditional abbreviation for each state): Alabama (AL; Ala.) Alaska (AK; Alaska) Arizona (AZ; Ariz.) Arkansas (AR; Ark.) California (CA; Calif.) Colorado (CO; Colo.) Connecticut (CT; Conn.) Delaware (DE; Del.) Florida (FL; Fla.) Georgia (GA; Ga.) Hawaii (HI; Hawaii) Idaho (ID; Idaho) Illinois (IL; Ill.) Indiana (IN; Ind.) Iowa (IA; Iowa) Kansas (KS; Kans.) Kentucky (KY; Ky.) Louisiana (LA; La.) Maine (ME; Maine) Maryland (MD; Md.) Massachusetts (MA; Mass.) Michigan (MI; Mich.) Minnesota (MN; Minn.) Mississippi (MS; Miss.) Missouri (MO; Mo.) Montana (MT; Mont.) Nebraska (NE; Neb. or Nebr.) Nevada (NV; Nev.) New Hampshire (NH; N.H.) New Jersey (NJ; N.J.) New Mexico (NM; N.Mex.) New York (NY; N.Y.) North Carolina (NC; N.C.) North Dakota (ND; N.Dak.) Ohio (OH; Ohio) Oklahoma (OK; Okla.) Oregon (OR; Ore. or Oreg.) Pennsylvania (PA; Pa. or Penn.) Rhode Island (RI; R.I.) South Carolina (SC; S.C.) South Dakota (SD; S.Dak.) Tennessee (TN; Tenn.) Texas (TX; Tex. or Texas) Utah (UT; Utah) Vermont (VT; Vt.) Virginia (VA; Va.) Washington (WA; Wash.) West Virginia (WV; W.Va) Wisconsin (WI; Wis. or Wisc.) Wyoming (WY; Wyo.)

Boston

Boston, one of the oldest cities in America, evokes a distinct European feel, still evident in the city's culture. Serving as the gateway to New England, its history is steeped in the American Revolution, and it claims the title "cradle of liberty." Once considered ultra-conservative, Boston has developed a progressive culture and attitude, but it has kept close ties to heritage and tradition presented in a new world charm. It has become one of the most exciting places in the New England, from excellent culinary hotspots to an abundnace of attractions and sights. Historical buildings, parks and cemeteries are national landmarks, and the city boasts the birthplaces of many famous patriots, presidents and politicians. The city's

architectural treasures include lovely brownstones and cobblestone streets, and authentic gaslights light the way in many neighborhoods.

The streets Bostonians use are not easy to navigate. They are believed to follow cow paths trodden in the 17th century, which gives some reason to the labyrinth of confusing one-way streets and rotaries. For those who don't mind their own two feet, Boston is considered the "walking city" of America. Driving in the city can be a torturous experience for visitors, and is not highly recommended. Even a map of Boston can be chaos for a newcomer. Making matters even worse is the Big Dig, a massive renovation of the city's roadways that is now the biggest public-works project in the United States. Fortunately, neighborhoods and districts are easily accessible by America's first underground transit system, started in the early 1800s. It's called the MBTA but Bostonians refer to it simply as the T.

The city and environs draw some 200,000 students to more than two-dozen universities, including some of the world's most famous institutions, such as Harvard and MIT. This regular influx of younger generations, including students from all over the world, has played a major role in the entrepreneurial and international spirit of the metropolis. Walk down Newbury Street or to a nightclub on Lansdowne Street and you'll hear a medley of foreign languages.

One cannot forget the slew of famous writers, artisans, politicians and industry leaders who have called "Beantown" their home and have paved the way for this eclectic and innovative city. Boston's best known residents have included everyone from Paul Revere and Cotton Mather to literary wunderkinds Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, Ralph Waldo Emerson, TS Eliot and Edgar Allen Poe. Add to that list comedian Dennis Leary, actor Matt Damon and Ben Affleck and the rock band Aerosmith and the diverse array of celebrities widens even more. And finally there is the Kennedy family, in the spotlight now for generations, are also from Boston.

For those who want to experience city living without being overwhelmed, Boston is an excellent choice. The MBTA or the "T", makes owning a car non-essential. You can take the "T" to concerts, nightclubs, sporting events, and to fine shops and restaurants. Boston is also a Mecca for continuing education and an up-and-coming hotbed of technology and financial institutions.

Boston has many neighborhoods and districts, each with unique characteristics and reasons to be explored. You can get a little bit of everything in this bayside landmark. There is Beacon Hill, or "the flat on the hill," where Boston's Brahmins once lived. With its impressive row houses and gas lit cobblestone streets it's still one of the more expensive neighborhoods in town. Walk down Charles Street and poke around the dozens of antique shops.

Population

The United States is estimated to have a population of 328,355,612 as of August 14, 2018, making it the third most populous country in the world. It is very

urbanized, with 81% residing in cities and suburbs as of 2014 (the worldwide urban rate is 54%). California and Texas are the most populous states, as the mean center of U.S. population has consistently shifted westward and southward. New York City is the most populous city in the United States.

The total fertility rate in the United States estimated for 2016 is 1.82 children per woman, which is below the replacement fertility rate of approximately 2.1. The United States Census Bureau shows a population increase of 0.75% for the twelve-month period ending in July 2012. Though high by industrialized country standards, this is below the world average annual rate of 1.1%.

There were about 125.9 million adult women in the United States in 2014. The number of men was 119.4 million. At age 85 and older, there were almost twice as many women as men (4 million vs. 2.1 million). People under 21 years of age made up over a quarter of the U.S. population (27.1%), and people age 65 and over made up one-seventh (14.5%). The national median age was 37.8 years in 2015.

The United States Census Bureau defines white people as those "having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa." It includes people who reported "White" or wrote in entries such as Irish, German, Italian, Lebanese, Near Easterner, Arab, or Polish." Whites constitute the majority of the U.S. population, with a total of about 245,532,000 or 77.7% of the population as of 2013. Non-Hispanic whites make up 62.6% of the country's population.

The American population almost quadrupled during the 20th century—at a growth rate of about 1.3% a year—from about 76 million in 1900 to 281 million in 2000. It is estimated to have reached the 200 million mark in 1967, and the 300 million mark on October 17, 2006.Population growth is fastest among minorities as a whole, and according to the Census Bureau's estimation for 2012, 50.4% of American children under the age of 1 belonged to racial and ethnic minority groups.

The non-Hispanic white population of the US is expected to fall below 50% by 2045. It has also been hypothesized in the Huffington Post that the Hispanic population of the United States citizenry will become the majority ethnic group by 2060. According to Pew Research Center study released in 2018, by 2040, Islam will surpass Judaism to become the second largest religion in the US due to higher immigration and birth rates. Hispanic and Latino Americans accounted for 48% of the national population growth of 2.9 million between July 1, 2005, and July 1, 2006. Immigrants and their U.S.-born descendants are expected to provide most of the U.S. population gains in the decades ahead.

The Census Bureau projects a U.S. population of 417 million in 2060, a 38% increase from 2007 (301.3 million), and the United Nations estimates the U.S. population will be 402 million in 2050, an increase of 32% from 2007. In an official census report, it was reported that 54.4% (2,150,926 out of 3,953,593) of

births in 2010 were non-Hispanic white. This represents an increase of 0.3% compared to the previous year, which was 54.1%.

Answer the questions:

1. Where is the USA situated?
2. What can you say about administrative divisions of it?
3. Which states were the first ones in America?
4. What is the role of America in modern life?

19-МАВЗУ: Well-known American Presidents

Plan:

1. Well-known American Presidents, their contributions to the development of the state

2. George Washington – the founder of the country

3. Abraham Lincoln's irreplaceable role in the history of the country

Of the men who have occupied the office of president of the United States, there are just a few who historians agree can be ranked among the best. Some were tested by domestic crises, others by international conflict, but all left their mark on history. This list of the 10 best presidents contains some familiar faces... and maybe a few surprises.

President George Washington

One of the last acts of the Congress of the Confederation was to arrange for the first presidential election, setting March 4, 1789, as the date that the new government would come into being. One name was on everyone's lips for the new chief of state -- George Washington -- and he was unanimously chosen president on April 30, 1789. In words spoken by every president since, Washington pledged to execute the duties of the presidency faithfully and, to the best of his ability, to "preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

When Washington took office, the new Constitution enjoyed neither tradition nor the full backing of organized public opinion. Moreover, the new government had to create its own machinery. No taxes were forthcoming. Until a judiciary could be established, laws could not be enforced. The Army was small. The Navy had ceased to exist.

Congress quickly created the departments of State and Treasury, with Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton as their respective secretaries. Simultaneously, the Congress established the federal judiciary, establishing not only a Supreme Court, with one chief justice and five associate justices, but also three circuit courts and 13 district courts. Both a secretary of war and an attorney general were also appointed. And since Washington generally preferred to make decisions only after consulting those men whose judgment he valued, the American presidential

Cabinet came into existence, consisting of the heads of all the departments that Congress might create.

Meanwhile, the country was growing steadily and immigration from Europe was increasing. Americans were moving westward: New Englanders and Pennsylvanians into Ohio; Virginians and Carolinians into Kentucky and Tennessee. Good farms were to be had for small sums; labor was in strong demand. The rich valley stretches of upper New York, Pennsylvania and Virginia soon became great wheat-growing areas.

Although many items were still homemade, the Industrial Revolution was dawning in America. Massachusetts and Rhode Island were laying the foundation of important textile industries; Connecticut was beginning to turn out tinware and clocks; New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania were producing paper, glass and iron. Shipping had grown to such an extent that on the seas the United States was second only to Britain. Even before 1790, American ships were traveling to China to sell furs and bring back tea, spices and silk.

At this critical juncture in the country's growth, Washington's wise leadership was crucial. He organized a national government, developed policies for settlement of territories previously held by Britain and Spain, stabilized the northwestern frontier and oversaw the admission of three new states: Vermont (1791), Kentucky (1792) and Tennessee (1796). Finally, in his Farewell Address, Washington warned the nation to "steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world." This advice influenced American attitudes toward the rest of the world for generations to come.

If not for **Abraham Lincoln** (March 4, 1861 – April 15, 1865), who presided during the American Civil War, the U.S. might look very different today. Lincoln guided the Union through four bloody years of conflict, abolished slavery with the Emancipation Proclamation, in Washington D.C, weeks before the Civil War officially concluded.

Franklin Roosevelt (March 4, 1933 – April 12, 1945) is the nation's longest-serving president. Elected during the depths of the Great Depression, he held office until his death in 1945, just months before the end of World War II. During his tenure, the role of the federal government was greatly expanded into the bureaucracy it is today. Depression-era federal programs like Social Security still exist, providing basic financial protections for the nation's most vulnerable. As a result of the war, the United States also assumed a prominent new role in global affairs, a position it still occupies.

Thomas Jefferson (March 4, 1801 – March 4, 1809) also played an outsized role in America's birth. He drafted the Declaration of Independence and served as the nation's first secretary of state. As president, he organized the Louisiana Purchase, which doubled the size of the United States and set the stage for the nation's westward expansion. While Jefferson was in office, the United States also fought

its first foreign war, known as the First Barbary War, in the Mediterranean, and briefly invaded present-day Libya. During his second term, Jefferson's vice president, Aaron Burr, was tried for treason.

Andrew Jackson (March 4, 1829 – March 4, 1837), known as "Old Hickory," is considered the nation's first populist president. As a self-styled man of the people, Jackson earned fame for his exploits at the Battle of New Orleans during the War of 1812 and later against the Seminole Indians in Florida. His first run for the presidency in 1824 ended in a narrow loss to John Quincy Adams, but four years later Jackson won in a landslide.

In office, Jackson and his Democratic allies successfully dismantled the Second Bank of the United States, ending federal efforts at regulating the economy. An avowed proponent of westward expansion, Jackson had long advocated for the forced removal of Native Americans east of the Mississippi. Thousands perished along the so-called Trail of Tears under relocation programs Jackson implemented.

Theodore Roosevelt (September 14, 1901 – March 4, 1909) came to power after the sitting president, William McKinley, was assassinated. At age 42, Roosevelt was the youngest man to take office. During his two terms in office, Roosevelt used the bully pulpit of the presidency to pursue a muscular domestic and foreign policy. He implemented strong regulations to curb the power of large corporations like Standard Oil and the nation's railroads. He also beefed up consumer protections with the Pure Food and Drug Act, which gave birth to the modern Food and Drug Administration, and created the first national parks. Roosevelt also pursued an aggressive foreign policy, mediating the end of the Russo-Japanese War and developing the Panama Canal.

Harry S. Truman (April 12, 1945 – January 20, 1953) came to power after serving as vice president during Franklin Roosevelt's final term in office. Following FDR's death, Truman guided the U.S through the closing months of World War II, including the decision to use the new atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in Japan.

In the years after the war, relations with the Soviet Union quickly deteriorated into a "Cold War" that would last until the 1980s. Under Truman's leadership, the U.S. launched the Berlin Airlift to combat a Soviet blockade of the German capital and created the multibillion- dollar Marshall Plan to rebuild war-torn Europe. In 1950, the nation became mired in the Korean War, which would outlast Truman's presidency.

Woodrow Wilson (March 4, 1913 – March 4, 1921) began his first term vowing to keep the nation out of foreign entanglements. But by his second term, Wilson did an about-face and led the U.S. into World War I. At its conclusion, he began a vigorous campaign to create a global alliance to prevent future conflicts. But the resulting League of Nations, a precursor to the United Nations of today, was

largely hobbled by the United States' refusal to participate after rejecting the Treaty of Versailles.

James K. Polk (March 4, 1845 – March 4, 1849) served only one term, but it was a busy one. He increased the size of the United States more than any president other than Jefferson through the acquisition of California and New Mexico as a result of the Mexican-American War, which occurred during his tenure. He also settled the nation's dispute with Great Britain over its northwest border, giving the U.S. Washington and Oregon, and giving Canada British Columbia. During his time in office, the U.S. issued its first postage stamp and the foundation for the Washington Monument was laid.

During **Dwight Eisenhower's** (January 20, 1953 – January 20, 1961) tenure, the conflict in Korea ceased (though the war was never officially ended), while at home the U.S. experienced tremendous economic growth. A number of milestones in the Civil Rights Movement took place, including the Supreme Court decision Brown v. Board of Education in 1954, the Montgomery Bus Boycott of 1955-56, and the Civil Rights Act of 1957.

While in office, Eisenhower signed legislation that created the interstate highway system and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration or NASA. In foreign policy, Eisenhower maintained a strong anti-communist policy in Europe and Asia, expanding the nation's nuclear arsenal and supporting the government of South Vietnam.

If one more president could be added to this list, it would be **Ronald Reagan**. He helped bring the Cold War to an end after years of struggle. He definitely gets an honorable mention on this list of influential presidents.

Answer the following questions:

1. How many Presidents were in the history of the USA?
2. What is the contribution of George Washington?
3. What can you say about irreplaceable place of Abraham Lincoln?

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