

**THE OUTLINE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND
NORTHERN IRELAND AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA**

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PREFACE

This book intends to present a picture of the British and American people, life and government system. The main objective is to convey basic information about the history, geography and some of the countries' institutions including the political system, the law, the mass media, the education, etc.

The book consists of 19 lectures. The material illustrates some particular aspects of British and American life. Every lecture is followed by questions to provide the minimum assignment in the UK and USA background.

The material has been compiled for advanced students of English in order to help them meet the usual requirements for the examination in the subject of "Country study".

The information included to the book may be used for either home or class work. The list of literature at the end of the book is beneficial for developing the students' ability to read and assimilate information from various sources.

LECTURE 1

1. History
2. Geographical position
3. Natural resources
4. Climate

1. History

Great Britain was the dominant industrial and maritime power of the 19th century and played a leading role in developing parliamentary democracy and in advancing literature and science.

At its peak, the British Empire stretched over one-fourth of the earth's surface. The first half of the 20th century saw the UK's strength seriously depleted in two World Wars. The second half witnessed the dismantling of the Empire and the UK rebuilding itself into a modern and prosperous European nation. As one of five permanent members of the UN Security Council, a founding member of NATO, and of the Commonwealth, the UK pursues a global approach to foreign policy.

The timeline of Britain

Neolithic, Bronze & Iron Ages: 8300 BC – 42 AD

'Britain' itself did not exist until around 6500 BC, when the English Channel formed separating Britain from the rest of Europe. The first settlers here were hunter-gatherers, who spent much of their lives travelling in search of food. Around 750 BC iron was introduced into Britain, which led the way for the production of sophisticated and durable tools and weapons.

Romano Britain: 43 – 1065 AD

In 43 AD the Roman army crossed the Channel and quickly defeated any resistance from local tribes. The Romans founded Londinium (London) and built military roads throughout the country. Within ten years, Roman rule had reached far into the territories of England and Wales. The Roman way of life continued in Britain until the 5th century, after which Britons were left more or less to fend for themselves.

Anglo-Normans & Middle Ages: 1066 – 1347

In 1066 Duke William of Normandy invaded Britain and famously defeated King Harold of England, who legend has it was shot with an arrow through the eye during the Battle of Hastings. William of Normandy went on to rule England and Scotland, radically changing the class system and changing the official language to French. In 1216, Henry III was crowned king, but was unpopular throughout his rule.

Late Medieval: 1348 – 1484

The bubonic plague – or Black Death – reached England in 1348 and quickly spread to Wales and Scotland, killing up to a third of the population by the end of 1350. The plague persistently re-emerged in Britain until the 17th century, severely affecting the country's economic balance. In order to combat the devastating effects of the plague, the ruling classes attempted to restore economic stability through parliamentary legislation.

Tudors Stuarts: 1485 – 1713

In 1485, Henry Tudor invaded England and defeated Richard III to assume sovereignty. He went on to marry Elizabeth of York – daughter of Edward IV. In 1603 Elizabeth I – the Virgin Queen – died. With Elizabeth leaving no successor, James VI, King of Scots (son of Mary, Queen of Scots), succeeded as James I, King of England, effectively making him the first King of Great Britain.

Georgians: 1714 - 1836

After the death of Queen Anne, George I became king, whose reign saw the development of the function of prime minister. Although the term ‘prime minister’ was not used at the time, Sir Robert Walpole assumed the role typical of a prime minister thanks to his successes in developing economic growth for the country.

Victorians: 1837 - 1900

Victoria – the longest reigning British monarch – became Queen in 1837, aged just eighteen. During her reign, she introduced a number of constitutional changes and the spirit of these changes led to the publishing of the people's charter, which laid out six demands including universal manhood suffrage and annual parliamentary elections. The charter was continually rejected in parliament, but today five out of the six original demands are firm parts of the British constitution.

Early 20th Century: 1901 - 1944

The early twentieth century saw advances in science and technology that were unimaginable in previous eras. Among the ground-breaking achievements of this period were: the invention of the television by the EMI-Marconi Corporation; and subsequent founding of the British Broadcasting Company (BBC); the discovery of penicillin by Alexander Fleming; and insights into the structure of the atom, which led to the development of nuclear weapons and energy.

Post World War II: 1945 - 2010

In 1945 the Labour Party won their first general election, going on to form the National Health Service, which many regard as Labour's greatest achievement. Post-war rationing continued, but the era was marked by public enthusiasm and hope for the future. Since then, Britain has faced a number of economic crises, but survives today as one of the world's leading trade and financial centres, with advanced public services and a thriving economy.

2. Geographical position

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (the UK) is a constitutional monarchy consisting of four countries: England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales. It is located off the northwestern coast of continental Europe. With a total area of about 244,110 sq km, Britain is 1000 km long and 500 km across in the widest part. The United Kingdom is bordered on the south by the English Channel, which separates it from the continent of Europe. It is bordered on the east by the North Sea, and on the west by the Irish Sea and the Atlantic Ocean. The United Kingdom's only land border with another nation is between Northern Ireland and Ireland.

The United Kingdom contains a number of small islands. These include the Isle of Wight, which lies off of England's southern coast; Anglesey, off the northwest coast of Wales; the Isles of Scilly in the English Channel; the Hebrides archipelago to the west of Scotland, consisting of the Inner and the Outer Hebrides; the Orkney Islands to the northeast of Scotland; and the Shetland Islands farther out into the North Sea from Scotland.

Great Britain is the largest island known as the British Isles. The largest and most populous division of the island of Great Britain is England, making up the south and east. Wales is on the west and Scotland is to the north. Northern Ireland is located in the northeast corner of Ireland. The capital of the United Kingdom is the city of London.

Several dependencies and dependent territories are associated with the United Kingdom. The dependencies, located close to Britain, are the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea and the Channel Islands off the northern coast of France. Both dependencies are largely self-governing and have their own legislative assemblies and systems of law. Britain is responsible for their international relations and defense.

The island of Great Britain can be divided into two major natural regions—the highland zone and the lowland zone. The highland zone is an area of high hills and mountains in the north and west. The lowland zone in the south and east consists mostly of rolling plains. The zones are divided by an imaginary line running through England from the River Exe on the southwest coast to the mouth of the River Tees on the northeast coast. The lowland zone has a milder climate and better soils for farming. Historically, most people in Britain have lived in the lowland zone rather than in the harsher highland zone.

The Thames and the Severn are the longest rivers in Britain and are almost equal in length. The Severn flows south out of the mountains of central Wales to the Bristol Channel at Bristol. It is 354 km (220 mi) long. The Thames, 338 km (210 mi) long, flows eastward out of the Cotswold Hills and weaves through the

metropolis of London. The Thames provides water to the city of London and is used to carry commercial freight. Other important rivers in England are the Mersey, which enters the Irish Sea at Liverpool; the River Humber on the east coast, into which the Trent River and several other rivers flow; and the Tyne River in northern England, which flows past Newcastle upon Tyne to the North Sea.

In Scotland the important rivers are the Clyde and the Forth, which are joined by a canal. The River Clyde flows northwest, past Glasgow, and empties into the Atlantic at the Firth of Clyde. The River Forth flows eastward into the Firth of Forth, where Edinburgh rises on its south bank. The most important rivers in Northern Ireland are the Lagan, the Bann, and the Foyle.

Most of the large lakes in the United Kingdom are located in the upland areas of Scotland and northern England, although Lough Neagh in Northern Ireland is the largest lake in the United Kingdom. Loch Lomond, on the southwestern edge of the Highlands of Scotland, is the largest on the island of Great Britain, measuring 37 km long and from 1.6 to 8 km wide. Lake Windermere is the largest of the 15 major lakes in the famous Lake District of northwestern England. It is about 1.6 km wide and more than 16 km long.

3. Natural zones and resources

Britain can be divided into eight main land regions. Seven of these regions occupy the Island of Great Britain. They are the Scottish Highlands, the Central Lowlands, the Southern Uplands, the Pennines, Wales, the Southwest Peninsular, and the English Lowlands. Northern Ireland makes up the eighth region.

The Scottish Highlands cover the northern half of Scotland. They are a region of mountain ranges, plateaus, and deep valleys. The highest point in the British Isles, 4,406 - foot (1,343 - meter) Ben Nevis, rises in the Highlands. Many bays cut into the region's Atlantic Ocean and North Sea coasts. The soil of this region is thin and poor. Most of the Highlands is a moor - an area of coarse grasses, a few small trees, and low evergreen shrubs called heather. Few people live in this region. Most of them raise sheep or fish in the seas.

The Central Lowlands lie south of the Scottish Highlands, in the valleys of the Clyde, Forth, and Tay rivers. This region is a gently rolling plain. It has Scotland's best farmland and its richest coal deposits. Most of the Scottish people live there, and most of Scotland's industry is in the lowlands.

The Southern Uplands rise gently south of the Central Low lands. This is a region of rounded, rolling hills. Sheep graze on the short grass that covers much of the hills. In the south, the uplands rise to the Cheviot Hills , which form the border between Scotland and England .

The Pennines are a region of rounded uplands that extend from the Scottish border about halfway down the length of En gland. They are also known as the

Pennine Chain or Pennine Hills, and are often called the backbone of England. Their flanks are rich in coal. West of the Pennines lies the Lake District, a scenic area of clear, quiet lakes and low mountains.

Wales lies southwest of the Pennines. It is separated from the Pennines by a narrow strip of the English Lowlands. The Cambrian Mountains cover most of Wales. Southern Wales is largely a plateau deeply cut by river valleys. Wales has large deposits of coal in the south. Most of the country's industry is near the coal fields.

The Southwest Peninsula lies south of Wales, across the Bristol Channel. It is a plateau whose surface is broken by great masses of granite. The peninsula was once famous for its tin and copper mines, but they have been nearly worked out. More important today is the region's fine white china clay, used to make pottery. The Southwest Peninsula's beauty and pleasant climate attract many artists and hundreds of thousands of vacationers every year.

The English Lowlands cover all England south of the Pennines and east of Wales and the Southwest Peninsula. This region has most of Great Britain's farmable land, industry, and people. A grassy plain called the Midlands lies in the center of the English Lowlands. The Midlands are the industrial heart of Great Britain. Birmingham, one of the world's greatest manufacturing cities, and Wolverhampton and other factory cities are near the center of the Midlands in what is called the Black Country. South of the Midlands lies the valley of the River Thames. London, Britain's capital, stands on the Thames. Most of the land north of the Thames called The Wash is low and flat. A great plain called The Fens borders The Wash.

Northern Ireland is a region of low mountains, deep valleys, and fertile lowlands. The chief natural resources are rich fields and pastures, and most of the land is used for crop farming or grazing. About a fifth of the people of Northern Ireland live in Belfast, the capital and main industrial center.

Trees grow well and quickly in the heavy soils of England, and for a long time prehistoric settlers did not have tools strong enough to cut down the heavy oak forests. Only 7 percent of England is covered by forest, 15 percent of Scotland, 12 percent of Wales, and 5 percent of Northern Ireland. Efforts have been made in Britain to grow more trees and expand the managed forest areas. Local authorities have the power to protect trees and woodlands. It is an offense to cut down trees without permission, and when trees protected by the government die they must be replaced.

Britain's soil quality varies greatly. In northern areas the soils are thin, lying right above rock formations, while the south possesses areas of rich loam and heavy clay soils. When handled carefully the soils of eastern and south central

England are very productive. While about three-fourths of the land in Britain is suitable for agriculture, only 24 percent of this land is used to grow crops. Almost all of the rest is planted with grass or used as grazing land.

Britain's *mineral resources* were historically important, but today most of these resources are either exhausted or produced in small quantities. Britain currently relies upon imports from larger, cheaper foreign supplies. Before and during the Roman occupation, about 2,000 years ago, Britain was noted for its tin mines, which were concentrated in Cornwall. The tin was mixed with copper to produce bronze, an important material in ancient times used for weapons and jewelry. Today nearly every tin mine in Britain has been exhausted and shut down.

Britain has the richest *energy sources* in the European Union, and its resources of oil and natural gas are of vital importance to the British economy. Until the 1970s small amounts of oil were produced from onshore wells, but this amount was far less than Britain needed. In 1969 large supplies of oil and natural gas were discovered in the North Sea off the eastern coast of Britain, particularly off the coast of Scotland.

4. Climate

The Atlantic Ocean has a significant effect on Britain's climate. Although the British Isles are as far north in latitude as Labrador in Canada, they have a mild climate throughout the year. This is due to the Gulf Stream, a current of warm water that flows up from the Caribbean past Britain. Prevailing southwesterly winds moving across this warmer water bring moisture and moderating temperatures to the British Isles. The surrounding waters moderate temperatures year-round, making the UK warmer in winter and cooler in summer than other areas at the same latitude. Great Britain's western coast tends to be warmer than the eastern coast, and the southern regions tend to be warmer than the northern regions. The mean annual temperature in the far north of Scotland is 6°C, and in warmer southwestern England it is 11°C. In general, temperatures are ordinarily around 15°C in the summer and around 5°C in the winter. Temperatures rarely ever exceed 32°C or drop below -10°C anywhere in the British Isles. In many areas, frosts, when the temperature dips below 0°C (32°F), are rare.

Winds blowing off the Atlantic Ocean bring clouds and large amounts of moisture to the British Isles. Average annual precipitation is more than 1,000 mm (40 in), varying from the extremes of 5,000 mm (196 in) in the western Highlands of Scotland to less than 500 mm (20 in) in the driest parts of East Anglia in England. The western part of Britain receives much more moisture than the eastern areas. It rains year-round, and in the winter the rain may change to snow, particularly in the north. It snows infrequently in the south, and when it does it is likely to be wet, slushy, and short-lived.

The climate in Great Britain is generally mild and temperate due to the influence of the Gulf Stream. The south-western winds carry the warmth and moisture into Britain. The climate in Britain is usually described as cool, temperate and humid.

British people say: "Other countries have a climate, in England we have weather."

The weather in Britain changes very quickly. One day may be fine and the next day may be wet. The morning may be warm and the evening may be cool. Therefore it is natural for the people to use the comparison "as changeable as the weather" of a person who often changes his mood or opinion about something. The weather is the favorite topic of conversation in Britain. When two Englishmen are introduced to each other, if they can't think of anything else to talk about, they talk about weather. When two people meet in the street they will often say something about weather as they pass, just to show their friendliness.

Every daily paper publishes a weather forecast. Both the radio and television give the weather forecast several times each day.

The English also say that they have three variants of weather: when it rains in the morning, when it rains in the afternoon or when it rains all day long. Sometimes it rains so heavily that they say "It's raining cats and dogs".

Rainfall is more or less even throughout the year. In the mountains there is heavier rainfall than in the plains of the south and east. The driest period is from March to June and the wettest months are from October to January. The average range of temperature (from winter to summer) is from 15 to 23 degrees above zero. During a normal summer the temperature sometimes rises above 30 degrees in the south. Winter temperatures below 10 degrees are rare. It seldom snows heavily in winter, the frost is rare. January and February are usually the coldest months, July and August the warmest. Still the wind may bring winter cold in spring or summer days. Sometimes it brings the whirlwinds or hurricanes. Droughts are rare.

This humid and mild climate is good for plants. The trees and flowers begin to blossom early in spring.

In the British homes there has been no central heating up till recently. The fireplaces are often used. But the coal is not used as it's very expensive. Britain has no good coal now and imports it itself. Many schools and universities have no central heating either, and the floors there are made of stone.

Questions

1. What are the periods of British historical outline?
2. Where is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland located?

3. What is the peculiarity of British climate?

LECTURE 2

- 1. Industry, economy.**
- 2. Population of the UK.**
- 3. Language.**
- 4. Religion.**
- 5. London.**

1. Industry, economy

Great Britain is known to be a highly-developed industrial country. The main branches of industry are ship-building, machine-building, metal industry, chemical and textile industry. The main industrial centres are London, Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, Glasgow, etc. The leading centres of the textile region are Liverpool and Manchester. Manchester is the chief cotton manufacturing city. Every town produces certain kinds of yarn and fabrics. Plants producing textile machinery not only satisfy the needs of British industry, but also export great quantities of machinery to other countries. Great Britain exports motor-cars, agricultural tractors, railway and motor vehicles, cotton and wollen fabrics and other things. About 1/4 of its gross domestic product comes from the export of goods and services. The notable growth has been seen in electrical and instrument engineering, mechanical engineering, food, paper, printing and publishing. It is the world's tenth largest steel producer and a major producer of alloys used by the aerospace, electronic, petrochemical and other industries. Its chemical industry is the 3rd largest in Europe and the 5th largest in the western world. The British aerospace industry is the 3rd largest in the world. The clothing industry, one of the largest in Europe, meets about 2/3 of domestic demand, and the wollen industry is one of the world's largest.

Great Britain is the 5th largest trading nation in the world. Export of goods and services is equivalent to 1/4 of gross domestic product. Banking, finances, insurance, business services account for 14 percent of the British economy's total output. Over 3/4 of Britain's landscape is used for agriculture.

GDP (at current market prices; International Monetary Fund (IMF), 2011): \$2.481 trillion.

Annual growth rate (IMF, 2010): +1.14%.

Per capita GDP (at current market prices; IMF, 2011): \$39,604.

Natural resources: Coal, oil, natural gas, tin, limestone, iron ore, salt, clay, chalk, gypsum, lead, silica.

Agriculture (0.6% of GDP; U.K. Office for National Statistics (ONS), 2011): Products-cereals, oilseed, potatoes, vegetables, cattle, sheep, poultry, fish.

Industry (21.9% of GDP; ONS, 2011): Types--steel, heavy engineering and metal manufacturing, textiles, motor vehicles and aircraft, construction (7.0% of GDP), electronics, chemicals.

Services (77.4% of GDP; ONS, 2011): Types--financial, business, distribution, transport, communication, hospitality.

Trade (at current prices, 2011 exchange rates; ONS, 2011): Exports of goods and services-\$782.7 billion. Major goods exports-manufactured goods, fuels, chemicals, food, beverages, tobacco. Major export markets--U.S., European Union. Imports of goods and services-\$827.6 billion. Major goods imports--manufactured goods, machinery, fuels, foodstuffs. Major import suppliers--U.S., European Union, and China.

2. Population

Most British people attribute their origins to the early invaders, calling themselves English, Scottish, Irish, Welsh, or Ulsterites. The remaining share of the population consists of minorities who arrived, for the most part, in the decades following the end of World War II in 1945.

The United Kingdom has a population of 61,383,000 (2008), with an average population density of 252 persons per sq km. The population density of the United Kingdom is one of the highest in Europe, exceeded by Netherlands and Belgium. England is the most populated part of the United Kingdom. It is also the most densely populated portion of the United Kingdom, with a population density of 384 persons per sq km. Scotland possesses 5,078,000 people, and a population density of 64 persons per sq km. Wales has 2,952,000 people, with a population density of 142 persons per sq km. Northern Ireland's population is 1,710,000, and it has 121 persons per sq km.

Britain's population is overwhelmingly urban, with 89 percent living in urban areas and 11 percent living in rural areas. England's population is densest in the London area, around Birmingham and Coventry in the Midlands, and in northern England near the old industrial centers of Leeds, Sheffield, Manchester, Liverpool, and Newcastle upon Tyne. In the 1980s and 1990s southern England, particularly the southeast, became a center of population growth, due in large part to the growth of the high-tech and service sectors of the economy.

In Wales two-thirds of the people live in the industrial southern valleys. In Scotland three-quarters of the people live in the central lowlands, around Glasgow to the west and Edinburgh to the east. About half of the people living in Northern Ireland reside in the eastern portion, in Belfast and along the coast.

The population of Greater London is about 7.2 million (2001 census), making it by far the most populous city in the United Kingdom. It is the seat of government, center of business, and the heart of arts and culture. Birmingham is the second largest city, with 976,400 people. Other large cities in the United Kingdom include Leeds with 715,500, Glasgow with 578,700, and Sheffield with 513,100. Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, has a population of about 449,000; Cardiff, the capital of Wales, has 305,200 people; and Belfast, the capital of Northern Ireland, has a population of 277,200.

3. Language

English is the official language of the United Kingdom and is the first language of the vast majority of its citizens. The use of language was extremely important to Britain's class structure for much of the 20th century. Some educated English people, regardless of their class origin, strove to free themselves of regional or local accents in order to sound like educated English-speaking people. Others, including people from East London and people in northern England, enjoyed their particular way of speaking, regarding it as warmer and friendlier than standard English. Many regional and local speech patterns and accents remained in use, and in recent decades they have become far more acceptable in all social circles. BBC broadcasters today have Scottish, Welsh, and Northern Irish regional accents.

The Celtic language, an ancient tongue, continues to be spoken in Scotland by some people, usually those in the more remote fringes of the country, especially in the Hebrides Islands. Approximately 80,000 Scots speak Scottish Gaelic, a type of Celtic language. English is the predominant language in Northern Ireland, although at least some of the Roman Catholic minority speak Irish, another Gaelic dialect, as a second language.

The ancient Celtic language of Wales is strongly tied to the cultural nationalism of the region. At the time of the 2001 census, about 21 percent of the Welsh population could speak Welsh. Welsh is spoken in northern and western Wales much more than in southern Wales, where many English people have relocated. Many schools in Wales offer bilingual education, and there is a Welsh-language television channel. In 1993, after long and considerable agitation by Welsh nationalists, the government made Welsh a joint official language with English in Wales for use in the courts, the civil service, and other aspects of the public sector.

4. Religion

The official religion in Britain is Christianity as practiced by the Anglican Church. Followers of this branch of Christianity are known as Protestants and make up the majority of the population, although there are also many Catholics.

Christians constitute about 71% of the population, but Britain is a multi-faith society and all other religions, including; Buddhism, Hinduism, Judaism, Islam and Sikhism are freely practiced. About 23% of Britain follows no particular religion.

Before the reign of King Henry VIII, Britain was once a Roman Catholic country guided in religious matters by the Vatican in Rome. In 1533 King Henry VIII founded the Anglican Church when the Vatican refused to grant him permission to divorce his first wife.

Henry was desperate for a male heir, and up until then his first wife had only borne daughters. When the Vatican refused to allow him to divorce his wife, he was infuriated and decided to establish his own faith – Church of England – and appointed himself leader.

Catholicism had a short resurgence during the reign of Queen Mary (1553), but the Anglican Church was reinstated by Queen Elizabeth in 1558 and has been the official religion ever since. Today, every sovereign must swear to uphold and protect the Anglican faith and is expected to marry a protestant.

5. London

When Aulus Plautius invaded Britain in AD43, his army made rapid progress north to the Thames, although precisely where it was crossed is unknown. The river then was very different. It was wide, shallow, fordable in places, and largely surrounded by marshland – with the exception of two gravel hillocks on its north bank where Cornhill and St Paul's Cathedral stand today. It was on these hillocks that the Romans chose to build their new city: Londinium.

Within a few years they had built a bridge across the river, close to the present London Bridge. By AD100, most of the buildings associated with a modern Roman city had been built; and by AD200, it had been walled. The city then was remarkably similar in size and shape to the present City of London, or Square Mile.

During the late 13th century, the first of several palaces was built away from the centre, south of the river. Eltham is now well-established as part of Greater London; then, though, it was the height of rurality – its palace being adapted from a manor house that was gifted to Edward, Prince of Wales – later to be Edward II. Popular with Henry VIII during the early years of his reign, it fell into a state of ruin as Greenwich Palace became more favoured by monarchs. Although Eltham's Great Hall served a somewhat ignominious time as a barn, it was not yet done for. During the 1930s, a fine private residence was built adjoining the ruins. Now in the

care of English Heritage, it is one of London's best examples of art-deco architecture.

Meanwhile, Westminster's importance continued to grow. Not only was it the home of parliament, but in 1476 William Caxton set up England's first printing press there. To the east, the established city was fast becoming a centre of commerce – a development that brought success to a great number of individuals. Among these was a merchant named Richard Whittington – four times Lord Mayor of London (not three, as legend insists). He was one of the city's greatest benefactors, his legacy surviving in the form of St Michael Paternoster Royal (which he rebuilt), in College Hill. He lived next to it, and is buried there.

As Britain became a maritime force with which to be reckoned, development spread downstream. Deptford, a few miles from the centre of London, was still only a fishing village. That was to change when, in 1513, Henry VIII established a naval dockyard there – popularly known as King's Yard. Here, Francis Drake was knighted in 1581.

As London developed, royalty felt the need to escape what was, on occasion, becoming a rather unpleasant place. In 1333, for example, a ban had been imposed prohibiting the slaughter of animals on the city's streets. Greenwich Palace was already well-established when Henry VIII was born there in 1491. As he enjoyed the hunting in Greenwich Park, it rapidly became one of his favourite homes. It was also the main summer home of Elizabeth I (where Raleigh famously covered a puddle with his cloak to prevent her feet getting wet); and was eventually gifted by James I to his queen, Anne of Denmark. She is best-remembered for having Queen's House built, although she failed to live to see it finished. It's a building that is something of a geometric Utopia: the galleried Great Hall is a perfect 40ft cube, and the ceiling is a mirror image of the finely patterned floor. The palace, meanwhile, was demolished to make way for the Royal Naval College in 1694.

London, meanwhile, continued to head south. A notable leap came during the reign of Elizabeth I, when several theatres were built in Southwark. The first, the Rose, appeared on Bankside in 1587; the most famous being the Globe of 1598 – now handsomely rebuilt.

The Great Fire in 1666 served only to demonstrate how compact London still was. (Although not so compact as to prevent Samuel Pepys burying his Parmesan cheese in his garden before fleeing.) The upside, for us at least, is the fine legacy of architecture that the rebuilding produced: not just Wren's St Paul's, but also his churches (St Stephen Wallbrook being a dummy run for the cathedral).

With the docks came industry. What was once a bleak, inhospitable area was rapidly developed, not always with pleasant consequences. Silvertown, an area south of the Royal Docks, gained a reputation for being particularly unpleasant.

The Victorians might not especially be remembered for environmental legislation, but they did pass an act during the earlier years of Victoria's reign that severely restricted industrial development in central London. Whatever developers may throw at Londoners, they have always remained fiercely protective of their open spaces. It is a brave person who tries to rob them of these, as Sir Thomas Wilson discovered in 1829 when he attempted to build on Hampstead Heath. Londoners fought tooth and nail for more than forty years to save it – a battle that only ended when Wilson died. Today, the heath remains one of London's most popular open spaces.

Questions

1. What is the relation between industry and economy in the UK?
2. What is the most populated part in Britain?
3. What is the first name of the capital of the UK?

LECTURE 3

- 1. Government structure**
- 2. The Monarchy**
- 3. The Prime Minister and the Cabinet**
- 4. The Parliament**
- 5. Political Parties**

1. Government

The United Kingdom is a parliamentary monarchy—that is, the head of state is a monarch with limited powers. Britain's democratic government is based on various historical documents, laws, and formal customs adopted over the years. Parliament, the legislature, consists of the House of Lords, the House of Commons, and the monarch, also called the crown. The House of Commons is far more influential than the House of Lords, which in effect makes the British system unicameral, meaning the legislature has one chamber. The chief executive is the prime minister, who is a member of the House of Commons. The executive branch also includes Her Majesty's Government, commonly referred to simply as "the government." The government is composed of ministers in the Cabinet, most of whom are members of the House of Commons; government departments, each of which is responsible to a minister; local authorities; and public corporations. Because the House of Commons is involved in both the legislative and executive branches of the British government, there is no separation of powers between executive and legislature as there is in the United States.

2. The Monarchy

The British monarchy has been a hereditary position since the 9th century. Primogeniture, the passing of the throne to the eldest son when a monarch dies, has been the rule of succession, and when there are no sons, the eldest daughter ascends the throne. This was the case when Elizabeth II succeeded to the throne in February 1952 upon the death of her father, George VI. Her husband, Prince Philip, has the title of Prince Consort, but no rank or privileges. The current heir to the throne is Elizabeth II's eldest son, Charles, Prince of Wales. According to the Act of Settlement of 1701, only Protestants are eligible to succeed to the throne. A regent may be appointed to rule for the sovereign if he or she is underage or incapacitated.

As the official head of state, the monarch formally summons and dismisses Parliament and the ministers of the Cabinet. The monarch also serves as head of the judiciary, commander in chief of the armed forces, and Supreme Governor of the Church of England and the Church of Scotland. In reality, the government carries out the duties associated with these functions. Theoretically, the monarch appoints all judges, military officers, diplomats, and archbishops, as well as other church officers. The monarch also bestows honors and awards, such as knighthoods and peerages. In reality, all of these appointments are made upon the advice of the prime minister. The prime minister declares war and peace and concludes treaties with foreign states in the name of the crown. The monarch serves as the ceremonial head of the Commonwealth of Nations and is the ceremonial head of state for 16 Commonwealth countries.

The real work of the monarchy consists largely of signing papers. The monarch has the right, however, to be consulted on all aspects of national life and review all important government documents. The monarch may also meet with the Privy Council, a now largely ceremonial body made up of Cabinet members that serves in an advisory capacity to the monarch. Since Britain is a democracy, the monarchy could potentially be abolished if a majority of the population decides to do so. In the early 21st century the monarchy generally remained popular, despite unpleasant media coverage surrounding the marriages and relationships of the royal family. Only Scotland had a small majority that wanted to make the United Kingdom a republic.

The royal family endorses developments in Britain by performing such ceremonial functions as cutting ribbons, opening businesses, launching ships, and laying cornerstones. Many members of the royal family are involved in charity work and maintain a public presence by visiting shelters, hospitals, and clinics.

3. The Prime Minister

The chief executive of the government is the prime minister. He or she is the leader of the party that holds the most seats in the House of Commons. The monarch goes through the ceremony of selecting as prime minister the person from the House of Commons who is head of the majority party. The prime minister presides over the Cabinet and selects the other Cabinet members, who join him or her to form the government that is part of the functioning executive. Acting through the Cabinet and in the name of the monarch, the prime minister exercises all of the theoretical powers of the crown, including making appointments. In the past, prime ministers also came from the House of Lords. Today, in the unlikely circumstance that a peer (a member of the House of Lords) is sought as a prime minister by one of the parties, he or she must first resign from the House of Lords and gain election to the House of Commons.

When legislation comes before the House of Commons, the prime minister can usually count on the support of a majority of the votes because his or her party has a majority of the seats, and party discipline tends to be strong in Britain. In some circumstances prime ministers must depend on a coalition of strong parties. This was the case during both world wars and during the worst of the Great Depression in the 1930s. At times a prime minister comes from a party that does not quite have a majority of seats in the House of Commons. In such a case, that party must rely on an alliance with smaller parties, the smaller parties voting with the party in power on necessary legislation. A government formed from a party without a majority in Parliament is called a minority government. Between 1974 and 1979, for example, a minority Labour Party government was able to stay in power because the Liberal Party generally voted with it.

The Cabinet has about 20 members, or ministers, all of whom must be members of Parliament (MPs). Members of the Cabinet are leaders of the majority party in the House of Commons or, more rarely, members of the House of Lords. Cabinet ministers who head a particular government department, such as the Ministry of Defense, are known as secretaries of state. The prime minister serves as the first lord of the treasury and as minister for the civil service. In addition to the various secretaries of state, the Cabinet includes nondepartmental ministers who hold traditional offices—such as the lord president of the council, the paymaster general, and the lord privy seal—and ministers without portfolio, who do not have specific responsibilities but are assigned to specific tasks as needed. The Lord Chancellor holds a unique position. The Lord Chancellor's executive duties as a Cabinet member include being responsible for legal affairs in the United Kingdom, but he or she is also head of the judiciary, which is a separate part of the British government. The prime minister has the power to move members of the

Cabinet from post to post, or to drop individuals from the Cabinet entirely. Former Cabinet ministers may retain their positions as members of Parliament.

Two key doctrines of Cabinet government are collective responsibility and ministerial responsibility. Collective responsibility means that the Cabinet acts unanimously, even when Cabinet ministers do not all agree upon a subject. If an important decision is unacceptable to a particular Cabinet member, it is expected that he or she will resign to signify dissent. Ministerial responsibility means that ministers are responsible for the work of their departments and answer to Parliament for the activities of their departments. The policy of departmental ministers must be consistent with that of the government as a whole. The ministers bear the responsibility for any failure of their department in terms of administration or policy.

4. The Parliament

Parliament comprises three parts: *the monarch, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons*. Parliament originated with the royal wish to gain the approval and sanction of the realm for acts of state. Later, Parliament served to supplement royal revenues by making grants of taxation—that is, by granting the monarch’s request for extra subsidies to pay for wars. The crown invited all great nobles and church leaders to attend these councils. By the end of the 13th century representatives from the counties, called knights of the shire, and representatives of the towns, called burgesses, were also being summoned to attend regularly. The knights and the burgesses eventually came to sit separately from the nobles and church leaders, in what eventually became the House of Commons. The nobles and church leaders sat in what came to be called the House of Lords.

By the end of the Middle Ages Parliament had taken on a form that would be recognized today. It legislated and approved taxes and passed laws. Long, complicated struggles between the monarch and the two houses of Parliament resulted in the government gaining power, while the crown lost power. In the 20th century the House of Commons successfully struggled to curtail the power of the House of Lords. Today the House of Lords can only delay legislation. For the past 280 years the monarch’s royal assent to legislation has been given automatically. (For more information on the history of Parliament, see *Parliament, British*.)

Parliament is elected roughly every five years and is dissolved by the crown on the advice of the prime minister, who then calls a general election. Parliamentary sessions are held each year and begin in October or November. Parliament meets at the Houses of Parliament in London, officially called the New Palace of Westminster. The Parliament of the United Kingdom legislates for the

entire nation and includes representatives from England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland.

The House of Lords today is more a place of discussion and debate than one of power, and it normally passes legislation already approved by the House of Commons. Its members are not elected. The House of Lords comprises the lords temporal, the lords spiritual, and the law lords. The lords temporal are either hereditary peers or life peers. Life peers are appointed by the monarch for the duration of the person's lifetime. These appointments are usually made in recognition of outstanding careers or contributions to society. Famous people who have been made peers are former British prime ministers Winston Churchill and Harold Wilson. The lords spiritual include the archbishops of Canterbury and York; the bishops of London, Durham, and Winchester; and the 21 next most senior bishops. The law lords assist in the judicial functions of the House of Lords. In 1999 the full membership of the House of Lords decreased by almost half as more than 650 hereditary peers were stripped of their seats by the House of Lords Act.

The House of Lords has the power to introduce bills, although bills dealing with financial matters can only originate in the House of Commons. The Lords can also offer amendments to bills passed by the House of Commons, and Commons is obligated to consider these amendments before passing a bill into law. The Lords have the right to delay legislation, and may delay bills for up to about a year. Financial bills, however, may only be delayed for a month, and they become law in 30 days whether or not the House of Lords approves of them. The terms of the Parliament Acts of 1911 and 1949 forbid the Lords from disapproving nonfinancial bills if the House of Commons has passed them in two successive sessions. The only exception is a bill to lengthen the life of a Parliament past five years, which requires the assent of both chambers.

These powers of the House of Lords are limited because most Britons believe that in a modern democracy a nonelected house should only act as a forum for opinion, one that is comparatively free from party politics and pressures. Although this house has relatively little power, many Britons would like to either abolish it completely or replace it with some form of elected second chamber.

The House of Commons is the source of real political power in the United Kingdom. Its members are democratically elected by universal suffrage of citizens over the age of 18. Certain groups that are denied the right to vote, however, include members of the House of Lords, some detained mental health patients, sentenced prisoners, and those convicted of corrupt or illegal election practices in the previous five years. In addition, certain persons are excluded from standing for election to the House of Commons. They include peers; clergy from the Church of

England, the Church of Scotland, the Church of Ireland, or the Roman Catholic Church; people sentenced to more than a year in prison; and those with unpaid bankruptcy bills.

Members of the House of Commons are elected from geographical constituencies determined by population, and each MP generally represents a constituency of 60,000 to 70,000 people. Four permanent boundary commissions exist, one each for England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. Their purpose is to keep the constituencies equal and the boundaries fair. The commissions review the constituencies every 8 to 12 years and recommend changes based on population shifts. Based on a review conducted in 1995, the elections of 1997 and 2001 were held for 659 constituencies in the United Kingdom: 529 in England, 72 in Scotland, 40 in Wales, and 18 in Northern Ireland. A subsequent review by the Boundary Commission for Scotland reduced the number of constituencies there to 59. Accordingly, the number of seats in the House of Commons was reduced to 646 as of the 2005 general elections.

British citizens living abroad may vote in British elections for up to 20 years after they have left Britain. Those temporarily living overseas as members of the military or other state service may vote in their home constituencies. In 1992 a record high of 78 percent of the electorate voted in the general election. In 1997 a reported 71 percent of the electorate voted. Voter turnout dropped to 59 percent in 2001 and then rose slightly in 2005 to 61 percent.

A session of Parliament lasts for five years unless the prime minister dissolves Parliament, which can happen for a number of reasons. Although the monarch officially dissolves Parliament, this happens only after the prime minister calls for it. The prime minister can dissolve Parliament over a major issue that he or she believes should be submitted to the voters. The prime minister also might dissolve Parliament if the tide of public opinion seems to be flowing strongly on the side of the party in office. Holding a general election when public opinion is highly supportive of the party in power enables that party to possibly gain more seats in the House of Commons, and so extend their stay in power with a stronger majority.

Parliament can also be dissolved if the government is defeated on an important piece of legislation. When a Parliamentary majority votes against the legislation it is treated as a vote of no confidence for the prime minister and his government. A specific vote by that name may be taken to indicate that the majority of MPs are against the legislation. This tradition is so deep that actual votes of no confidence are rarely taken. When the prime minister dissolves Parliament, a general election is held for all the seats in the House of Commons.

The members of the majority party sit on one side of the house, directly facing the minority party members. Each side has a so-called front bench where its

most important political leaders sit. The prime minister and his or her Cabinet colleagues sit in the majority party front bench. The opposition party front bench is occupied by what is called the Shadow Cabinet, which consists of the opposition party leader and those who would receive Cabinet posts if the opposition leader became prime minister.

Most legislation is initiated by the Cabinet in the form of public bills, or legislation pertaining to the general law, which govern the population as a whole. Individual members of Parliament may introduce private bills to address specific or local concerns, such as the railways or local authorities. Ministers of departments initiate most of the public bills relating to their department; these kinds of public bills are called government bills. When a bill is passed into law, it then receives the royal assent. Much of the Cabinet's work on legislation is accomplished in specialized committees, which debate and publish reports that help shape legislation.

Bills may be introduced into either the House of Commons or the House of Lords, except for financial bills, which may be introduced only in the House of Commons. Each bill is given three separate readings in each house. In the first reading, the bill is presented without debate. After the bill is read a second time, the house debates the bill's general principles. The bill then goes to a committee for thorough study, discussion, and amendment. At the third reading, the bill is presented to the house in its final form and a vote is taken.

If the bill is passed on the third reading, it is sent to the other house, where it goes through the same procedure. If passed by the second house, the bill is sent to the monarch for the ceremonial formality of royal assent before becoming law. If amended by either house, the amendments must be resolved by both houses before the bill is sent to the monarch. The House of Lords can delay legislation for no more than one year (30 days for financial bills). A bill originating in the House of Lords can be tabled and not considered in the Commons, but a bill originating in the Commons will become law, even without the approval of the House of Lords, if it passes Commons again in the following year's session.

5. Political Parties

The Whig and the Tory parties appeared during the time of the Revolution of 1688. Whigs believed in a strong Parliament and came from the landed classes who were allied with the merchants and Nonconformist or non-Anglican Protestants. Tory supporters came from the landed aristocracy and were defenders of the king and the Church of England. In the 1800s the Whigs merged with other parties interested in social reform to form the Liberal Party. The Tories took on the additional name of the Conservative Party in the 1830s in order to appeal to a broader electorate, and both names are used interchangeably. The Conservative

Party is still a major party in the United Kingdom, but the Labour Party, founded around the turn of the 20th century, grew to become the primary opposition to the Conservatives, taking the place of the Liberals. The Liberal Party evolved into the Liberal Democrat Party, the third most popular party in Britain.

Since its founding days, the Labour Party has drawn traditional financial and electoral support from the trade unions. The Labour Party has a socialist element, supporting state control of important industries and a more equal distribution of wealth. After World War II (1939-1945), the Labour government nationalized a number of industries and established the welfare state, which provided people with social security, unemployment insurance, and the National Health Service. Subsequent Conservative governments denationalized industries but kept the National Health Service and the main provisions of the welfare state. In recent years, trade union membership has declined, as has union influence in the Labour Party. At the same time, the Labour Party has moved toward the political center; in 1995 it gave up its commitment to socialism and the nationalization of industries. The Labour Party won the May 1997 general elections by a landslide, taking 418 of the 659 seats in Parliament. Labor retained its majority-party status following the 2001 and 2005 general elections.

The Conservative Party favors private enterprise and minimal state regulation, and accepts the mixed economy, which involves private ownership of businesses with some government control. Although a mixed economy entails more public spending than conservatives in the United States would support, the British business community is a strong supporter of the Conservative Party because it has historically supported private enterprise and a free market. In the 1980s the Conservative government under Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher sought to increase private enterprise and reduce public legislation by introducing more competition into the National Health Service and by selling off public housing. Thatcher's domestic policies were highly controversial and eventually led to the downfall of the Conservative government in the mid-1990s. Subsequently, the Conservative Party became the largest opposition party in Parliament, as the Labour Party won three straight victories (in 1997, 2001, and 2005).

The most important of Britain's minor parties is the Liberal Democrat Party, formed in 1988 from the remnants of the Liberal Party and a majority of the Social Democratic Party. The Liberal Democrats make up the third largest party in Parliament, after Labor and the Conservatives. Other parties include the Scottish Nationalist Party; Plaid Cymru, the Welsh nationalist party that seeks self-government for Wales; and parties in Northern Ireland—Sinn Féin, the Ulster Unionist Party, the Democratic Unionist Party, and the Social Democratic and Labour Party.

The current voting system is called “first past the post.” This means that the party and candidates receiving the most votes win the election and become the party in power even if they do not receive more than 50 percent of the vote. Under this system, smaller parties have proportionally less representation in Parliament than their share of the popular vote, as their candidates often do not garner enough votes in constituencies to send members to Parliament. As a result, some people support a system of proportional representation, which is used in a number of European countries. In such a system, which can take various forms, the number of seats a party receives in the legislature is proportional to the number of votes the party receives in the election. Critics of proportional representation assert that it produces too many political parties and leads to weak governments. A commission was set up in 1997 to review voting reform and consider switching to proportional representation.

Questions

1. Who is the head of the Government?
2. How many parts does the Parliament consist of?
3. What are the main political parties in Great Britain?

LECTURE 4

1. The Judiciary

2. The Government

3. Human rights

1. The Judiciary

The judicial system has its roots in the Anglo-Saxon period, when the monarch established local courts to provide justice for all subjects. Monarchs delegated the power to hear cases to royal justices, who presided over courts in the monarch’s name. The British legal system relies on common law, which is based on custom and on decisions in previous legal cases, called precedents. Common law originated in the 12th century, growing out of the rules and traditions that ordinary people had worked out over time. Through the centuries common law evolved as it incorporated legal decisions made in specific cases, and it remains the basis of British law except when superseded by legislation. Unlike the United States, Britain does not have a Supreme Court that reviews legislation to determine its constitutionality; that responsibility falls to Parliament.

Those who practice law in Britain are divided into solicitors and barristers. Solicitors perform the everyday work of the law, particularly legal matters that can be handled solely with paperwork. Barristers plead cases in court. In Scotland barristers are called advocates. Solicitors engage barristers when they believe a

client needs to go to court. Eminent barristers and, since 1996, some solicitors, may become Queen's Counselors, or QCs. When they do it is said that they 'take silk,' because they switch from wearing cotton gowns to silk gowns in court. Barristers with long and distinguished careers may be chosen to become crown judges by the lord chancellor, the head of the judicial system in England and Wales. Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own legal systems.

Britain has several layers of courts and two kinds of legal proceedings, criminal and civil. Criminal law is concerned with acts punishable by the state, such as murder. Civil law involves disputes between private parties, either individuals, organizations, or companies. The final court of appeal for both civil and criminal cases is the House of Lords, where appeals are heard by the law lords.

Criminal cases are handled in one of two ways. Petty offenses, such as simple theft or vandalism, are brought before a local magistrate, or justice of the peace (JP). These unpaid magistrates are appointed by the lord chancellor. They are members of the community who are assisted by legal experts. The vast majority of criminal cases in Britain are minor enough to be handled by JPs. More serious criminal offenses, such as murder, rape, and robbery, are sent to a Crown Court, where they are tried before a High Court or a circuit judge and a jury of local citizens. The Crown Court also hears appeals from the magistrate's court. Convictions and sentences from the Crown Court may be taken to the Court of Appeals for the Criminal Division. The final court of appeals is the House of Lords.

Civil cases are heard in county courts before a single judge. County courts hear cases dealing with families, property, contracts, and torts (violations of a legal duty imposed by the state that cause injury to an individual). Above the county courts is the High Court, which hears more complicated civil cases. High Court cases are sent to one of three divisions: the Family Division, which handles complex divorce cases, adoptions, and matters relating to children; the Chancery Division, which handles business matters and estate cases; or the Queen's Bench Division, which handles property matters and torts, as well as maritime and commercial cases. Appeals are heard by the Court of Appeals for the Civil Division, and ultimately by the House of Lords.

A more informal and less expensive alternative to civil and criminal courts is a tribunal, which handles minor cases outside of the official court system. Tribunals are made up of lay people and are regulated by the law. They settle disputes between private citizens, grievances between employers and employees, and complaints between citizens and public authorities.

2. Government

Parliament is made up of 3 elements: The Queen, the House of Commons and the House of Lords. They meet together only on occasions of symbolic significance such as the State Opening of Parliament, when the Commons are summoned by the Queen to the House of Lords.

The agreement of all 3 elements is normally required for legislation, but that of the Queen is given as a matter of course.

House of Commons

Credit: UK Parliament

The House of Commons is the lower house of the Parliament. It's a democratically elected body consisting of 646 members called Members of Parliament (MPs).

Each member is elected by and represents an electoral district of Britain known as a constituency. The Prime Minister is an MP, and part of the House of Commons.

The House of Commons is where the MPs meet to debate Bills and issues affecting the country.

House of Lords

Credit: UK Parliament

The House of Lords is the upper house of the Parliament, and here members called 'Lords' meet to debate, change Bills and scrutinise the work of the Government.

Members of the House of Lords aren't elected; they either inherit their title or are appointed by the Government or shadow cabinet. The members consist of 2 archbishops and 24 bishops of the Church of England ("Lords Spiritual") and 692 members of the Peerage ("Lords Temporal").

At the moment, the members of the 731 seat House of Lords currently outnumber the members of the 646 seat House of Commons.

Both the House of Lords and the House of Commons are situated in the Houses of Parliament in London's Westminster.

The main functions of Parliament are:

- to pass laws;
- to provide, by voting for taxation, the means of carrying on the work of government;
- to scrutinise government policy and administration, including proposals for expenditure;
- to debate the major issues of the day.

Scotland has its own parliament, and Wales an elected Assembly, which sit in Edinburgh and Cardiff respectively. Both Scotland and Wales remain part of the

United Kingdom and have continued representation in the Parliament at Westminster in London.

Credit: UK Parliament

The State Opening of Parliament is a grand affair full of tradition. Britain's Parliament closes over the summer months and the Houses of Parliament open to the public. Our government goes back to work in November, and Parliament officially opens again. The State Opening for the 2009-2010 session takes place on 18 November.

For over 500 years, the ceremony has served as a symbolic reminder of the unity of Parliament's 3 parts: the Queen, the House of Commons and the House of Lords.

First off, the Queen arrives at the Houses of Parliament. She goes to the House of Lords, where she'll make her speech. Members of both the Lords and the Commons must be present for the Queen's Speech, but the Queen can't enter the House of Commons due to its independence from the Sovereign.

Next, one of the Queen's officials called Black Rod (because of the black baton he carries) has to summon the members of the Commons. He walks from the House of Lords through the Central Lobby, which links the 2 Houses.

When Black Rod reaches the House of Commons, the door is slammed in his face and not opened again until he has banged on the door with his baton and states his name. This is a symbol of the Commons' independence from the Queen.

The MPs then join Black Rod and walk through the Central Lobby to the House of Lords, where the Queen gives her speech, setting out Parliament's business for the coming year. Although the Queen gives the speech, it's actually the Government that draws up the content.

Once she's finished her speech, the Queen leaves the Houses of Parliament and the government goes back to work. After the ceremony, each House meets separately to discuss and debate the contents of the Queen's speech.

3. Human Rights

The British perspective on human rights, if there is such a thing, is best described as deeply ambivalent - ambivalent, but also, with the passing of the Human Rights Act 1998 (HRA) which formally comes into force this autumn, hopefully on the brink of transformation. On the one hand the British judiciary are fond of allusions to the way an Englishman's rights have been protected, since time immemorial, by the common law. Until very recently it was common to find the Law Lords taking great pride in resolving a case where a lower court had made reference to the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) entirely on

common law principles and, rather smugly, pointing out that their ruling showed the superiority of that common law to such a rigid (and foreign) document. This attitude is characterised by a self serving version of English legal history of the sort pronounced by Lord Denning, as quoted by a current Law Lord in a modern human rights case:

It is important to remember that the passing of the Human Rights Act does not change this position in any way. If the same situation occurred tomorrow the most the Law Lords could do is to issue a declaration that the relevant legislation was not compatible with the rights contained in the HRA, and this declaration would empower, but would not require, the Home Secretary to use a special parliamentary procedure to amend the legislation. In the meantime the regulations would remain fully in force, and Mr Liversidge would remain in detention. This very basic point about the role of Parliamentary sovereignty cannot be too strongly made in any discussion of the UK's perspective on human rights. Indeed the point, obvious though it is, needs especial emphasis nowadays because there has of recent been somewhat of a fashion for doubting it. Although there have been, over the last few years, several occasions when senior judges have raised questions about the doctrine of absolute parliamentary sovereignty in print and in public lectures, it is noteworthy that some of the fiercest attacks on these doubts came from the man who is now Lord Chancellor. The Hobbesian nature of the UK constitution is still very firmly established.

A very good example comes from the very incorporation of the convention in the Human Rights Act. Absolutely no one doubted that fully fledged judicial review, in its American rather than English sense, was not going to be provided, but few perhaps realised how strongly the doctrine that one parliament cannot bind its successor would be taken. The Human Rights Act does not incorporate the whole of the convention; inter alia, it specifically does not incorporate Article 6 of the First protocol, which outlaws the death penalty. Britain was one of the first European nations to abandon its own use of the death penalty. There is a very strong majority of members of parliament against the death penalty, and an even stronger majority in the governing party. Yet under considerable pressure during the Commons debate on the HRA the government flatly refused to amend the bill to include article 6, precisely because this would hamper some future parliament from re-introducing capital punishment. The argument was very odd - most people think that the reason a country enshrines human rights in a constitutional document is, precisely, to prevent future governments trampling on them.

As long as parliamentary sovereignty remains so strongly entrenched in Britain's constitutional consciousness there is no full sense, of course, in which human rights can be secured. Part of the reason parliamentary sovereignty

continues to be politically so important, (even amongst those prepared to yield some degree of national sovereignty), is the slightly odd historic alignment of attitudes to judicial control in Britain. In the UK it has been a feature both of the right of the Conservative Party and the left of the Labour party to oppose a judicially enforceable Bill of rights.

Questions

1. What is the judiciary system of the UK?
2. What is called the “local government” ?
3. What is the HRA ?

LECTURE 5

- 1. School education**
- 2. Post sixteen and eighteen education**
- 3. Educational structure in Scotland**

1 School education

UK has a long and rich tradition of offering opportunity for study to International students. British education is internationally renowned for academic excellence, innovation, curriculum development and quality assurance.

UK has 2 distinct systems of courses and qualifications: One for England, Wales and Northern Ireland and one for Scotland. These are all compatible systems.

School Education in the UK is compulsory for all between ages 5-16, and is imparted in 2 kinds of schools: State funded schools and independent (fee charging) schools.

Primary School education begins compulsorily at the age of five and continues to age eleven. It extends till age 12 in Scotland and few areas of England.

State system: Most children take their primary and secondary education entirely within the State (maintained) system. In England and Wales, the responsibility is given by the Department for Education (DFE) to about 100 Local Education Authorities (LEAs). The State education system provides compulsory schooling from age 6-16 years after which the school leaving exam is taken. State schools funded by the government offer free education. Inspection of schools is a regular feature.

Private sector: There are currently approximately 2,500 non-maintained schools in England, Scotland and Wales providing education to about 7.4 per cent

of the total school population. They follow the norms laid for state run schools. The better known of the private schools are also called 'public schools'. Most private schools have a selective entry based on academic ability and they conduct classes which are more traditionally organized than those in the maintained sector. The proportion of boarding schools in the private sector (40 percent of the total) is very much higher than in the maintained sector.

Pre-School Education - Preschool education is available in both private (independent) and the state run schools. Children can enter at age 3-4.

Primary School - Most children enter the state run schools at the age of 5 years and go to secondary schools at age eleven. Independent schools admit students at age five and children stay on till age thirteen- Many international students enter at age seven and then transfer to secondary schools.

Secondary Education - All U.K. secondary schools, both state and independent, teach pupils up to age 16 years and prepare them for GCSE or equivalent qualification.

School qualifying exams

GCE O level - In 1988 a major change took place in the British school education system. GCE O-level was replaced by a new examination - the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). GCSE is taken by students from a broader ability range than the GCE-O level and the examination places more emphasis on practical and oral work. Students are judged on the work they have done during the course, as well as the final examination. Although GCSE replaces O-Level in Britain, the A-level structure in British schools remains unchanged.

2. Post sixteen and eighteen education

GCE examinations A and AS levels - Student complete compulsory education generally at 16 years and prepare for A levels or equivalent qualification in schools, sixth form colleges or colleges of further education. 'A' levels prepares students for higher education.

Students can opt for Advanced Supplementary (AS) levels for higher proficiency levels. They take one or more 'AS' levels subject to supplement or substitute an 'A' level subject. Vocational courses are also offered at the secondary school stage.

National curriculum - The national curriculum is comprised of core subjects - English, Mathematics and Science and foundation subjects - History, Geography, Technology, Foreign language, Art, Physical Education and Music. Students have to study all these 7 foundation subjects. In Wales students also study Welsh.

In Scotland students study English, Maths, Science, a Modern European Language, Social Studies, Technological Activities, Art, Music or Drama, Religious Education, Physical Education.

In Northern Ireland, students study English, Science and Technology, Mathematics, Society and Environment, Foreign Languages and Creative Studies. The evaluation is at the age of 8, 11, 14 and 16.

Post eighteen education.

Secondary education (A levels) usually gets completed by age 18. Students then go for Higher education/further education colleges (for career based courses & some degrees) or in higher education colleges for degree program.

3. Educational structure in Scotland

Scotland has 2,293 publicly funded primary schools, 389 publicly funded secondary schools in membership of the Scottish Independent Schools Council, 47 further education colleges, 21 institutes of higher education in membership of Universities Scotland and 80 independent schools, numerous training providers and private language schools. Scottish education offers flexibility and breadth of study, and there is a wide range of qualifications at different levels and many different subject from which to choose. The main organizations involved in Scottish education and training are: the Scottish Parliament and the Scottish Executive which has advisory responsibilities.

After seven years of primary education and four years of compulsory secondary education, students aged 15 to 16 may take the Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE). The Scottish Certificate of Education is recognized throughout Britain as the equivalent to GCE A-levels and is usually the entry qualification for university

There are thirty-two local authorities in Scotland and they are responsible for funding and implementing nursery, primary and secondary schooling within their areas. In Scotland, all schools are subject to regular inspection.

The Scottish qualifications authority (SQA).

The SQA is the single national body in Scotland responsible for development, accreditation, assessment, and certification of qualifications other than degrees and professional qualifications. It is also responsible for providing advice as required to the Scottish Executive on Scottish qualifications, and the education, training and assessment which contributes to the achievement of qualifications.

The Scottish council of independent schools (SCIS)

The SCIS represents over ninety-six percent of independent schools in Scotland. Among its key functions are negotiations with the Scottish Parliament, the Scottish Executive and Members of the Scottish Parliament on behalf of the independent sector.

The SCIS represents around eighty member schools all of which are registered with the Scottish Executive Education Department and are subject to inspection by HM Inspectorate of Education and by the Scottish Commission for

the Regulation of Care. Most SCIS schools follow the Scottish examination system, and some also present pupils for GCSE, AS - and A-level examinations.

Questions

1. At what age does primary education begin in the UK?
2. What is GCSE?
3. How many parts are there in the education system of the UK?

LECTURE 6

- 1. Higher education**
- 2. Types of universities.**
- 3. Oxford and Cambridge universities.**

1. Higher education

Britain has almost 100,000 international students entering schools and higher education institutions every year and is one of the most popular destinations for Indian students. Britain certainly has something glorious and rich about its higher education institutions which attract International students. This tradition, so to say, was set during the 13th and 15th centuries by renowned universities at Oxford, Cambridge, Glasgow and Aberdeen. It was in 1960 that a very large number of universities were added to the already existing ones mainly in large cities, e.g., at London, Manchester, Leeds etc. The period between 1960 and 1993 saw no further expansion and what became popular during that time is what could be termed as a 'binary' system of education. Polytechnics and universities existed side by side and degrees were granted by polytechnics as well as by universities. This seemed to be an inappropriate structure for higher education and called for reform. British higher education system has hence undergone many changes. The merger of the old universities admission system with that of the old polytechnics has created the new Universities and College Admission Systems (UCAS).

Since 1992 the Higher and Further Education Act has given the right to polytechnics to call themselves universities. In 1993 thirty universities were established. Some of these were polytechnics conducting technical and vocational courses and some non-technical courses. University status was expected to give all courses more value.

2. Types of universities

In Great Britain, new universities are founded by Act of Parliament or Royal Charter. In addition, for an institution to be allowed to award degrees, it must be recognized by the Privy Council, an advisory body to the British Head of State (i.e. the monarch).

One of the main differences between the British and the American University system is that all of Britain's universities except for the University of Buckingham, are financed by the State. In America on the other hand there are just about as many public as private institutions of higher education. The British is therefore much more similar to the German university system than the American. Yet the important fact to consider about British academic institutions is that even though they are financed by the British government, no university is actually owned by the State and in spite of the state's sponsoring of universities, fees at British university are considerably higher than they are going to be at German institutions. For more information see "student fees".

As opposed to the American and German system, students in the United Kingdom generally study only one subject instead of a combination of minor and master.

One particularity of universities in UK is that most students choose to attend institutions far away from their hometowns. Consequently most universities provide accommodation for their students or at least help them find a place to live.

There are four main types of British Universities.

1. Ancient Universities

Ancient universities in the United Kingdom and Ireland were founded during the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. Since no universities were founded in the United Kingdom and Ireland between the 16th and 19th century, the term "ancient university" generally refers to institutions of higher education that were established before the 19th century.

The ancient universities (in order of formation) are:

- University of Oxford - founded before 1167 (England)
- University of Cambridge - founded 1209 (England)
- University of St Andrews - founded 1413 (Scotland)
- University of Glasgow - founded 1451 (Scotland)
- University of Aberdeen - founded 1495 (Scotland)
- University of Edinburgh - founded 1583 (Scotland)

- University of Dublin - *founded* 1592 (Ireland; only ancient university outside the UK)

Due to their sheer age and continuous academic and scientific output, all of the ancient universities are very reputable. The two top universities in UK, which are continuously found in first and second place of the British league tables, are Oxford and Cambridge. Together they are known as Oxbridge and share a century old rivalry, which dates back to when Cambridge was *founded* by dissident Oxford scholars.

Oxbridge is often compared to the American Ivy League universities, but it is important to note that all Ivy League institutions are private universities, while Oxford and Cambridge are state-owned.

Both universities are divided into more than thirty colleges. Since each college at Oxford only offers a certain range of subjects, the choice of college often depends on the field of study. At Cambridge, on the other hand, all colleges give students to opportunity to study any subject offered by the university as a whole.

Yet in spite of the differences and rivalries, there is also much cooperation between Britain's two oldest academic institutions. Most Oxford colleges have a sister college in Cambridge. Some colleges even share a common name, but are not necessarily sister colleges. There is for instance a Trinity College at Oxford (sister college: Churchill College, Cambridge) as well as a Trinity College at Cambridge (sister college: Christ Church, Oxford).

2. Red Brick Universities

Red Brick Universities - named after the buildings they were housed in which were usually built with red brick - were *founded* in the industrial parts of the cities during the Victorian era (1837-1901) and before the Second World War. They are sometimes also called "civic universities", a movement that started in 1851 with Owens College, which later became the Victoria University of Manchester and today is called University of Manchester.

The main difference between Red Brick and ancient universities is that Red Bricks were so called non-collegiate institutions and *admitted* men without regarding their religion or social background. Furthermore they concentrated on teaching predominantly "practical subjects" often linked to engineering.

Some Red Brick universities include:

- University of Birmingham
- University of Bristol
- University of Leeds
- University of Liverpool
- University of Manchester
- University of Sheffield

3. New Universities

Two types of universities are subsumed under the term "New Universities". First of all the academic institutions founded in the 1960s after the Robins Report. Besides recommending immediate expansion of universities, the Report also suggested elevating Colleges of Advanced Technology to university status.

Due to their modern architecture and the predominant use of large stretches of plate glass in steel or concrete frames, the institutions founded in the 1960s are often called "Plate Glass Universities". Some Plate glass universities such as York and Warwick have by now out-performed some Red Brick universities, especially on the field of research, which has improved their reputation considerably.

Here is a list of Plate Glass Universities

- Aston University
- Brunel University
- University of Bath
- University of Bradford
- University of Essex
- Heriot-Watt University
- University of Kent
- University of Keele
- University of Lancaster
- Loughborough University
- University of Salford
- University of Stirling
- University of Sussex
- University of Warwick
- New University of Ulster
- University of York

The second group are the so called *Post-1992 Universities*. The term refers to former *polytechnics* that were given university status by John Major's government in 1992. They have the poorest reputation among British universities, and many of them regularly appear in bottom Tenth of league tables.

Here is a list of post-1992 universities:

- Abertay University
- Anglia Ruskin University
- University of Brighton
- Bournemouth University
- University of Central England
- University of Central Lancashire

- Coventry University
- De Montfort University
- University of Derby
- University of East London
- University of Glamorgan
- Glasgow Caledonian University
- University of Greenwich
- University of Hertfordshire
- University of Huddersfield
- Kingston University
- Leeds Metropolitan University
- University of Lincoln (formerly University of Humberside)
- Liverpool John Moores University
- London Guildhall University (now part of London Metropolitan University)
- University of Luton
- Manchester Metropolitan University
- Middlesex University
- Napier University
- University of North London (now part of London Metropolitan University)
- Northumbria University
- University of Northampton
- Nottingham Trent University
- Oxford Brookes University
- University of Paisley
- University of Plymouth
- University of Portsmouth
- Robert Gordon University
- Sheffield Hallam University
- South Bank University
- Staffordshire University
- University of Sunderland
- University of Teesside
- Thames Valley University
- University of the West of England
- University of Westminster
- University of Wolverhampton

4. Open University

Founded in 1986, the Open University is Britain's single distance-learning institution. In 2005 a total of 180,000 students, most of them based in the UK, were enrolled, which made it the largest institution of higher education in the UK by student numbers.

The Open University was rated top university in England and Wales for student satisfaction in 2005 and the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education rated teaching at the Open University as excellent that same year. Just as any other academic institution, the Open University, too, actively engages in research and awards both undergraduate and postgraduate degrees.

Its administration is based at Walton Hall, Milton Keynes in Buckinghamshire, but there are additional offices in 13 regions around the UK.

3. Oxford and Cambridge universities.

As the oldest university in the English-speaking world, *Oxford* is a unique and historic institution. There is no clear date of foundation, but teaching existed at Oxford in some form in 1096 and developed rapidly from 1167, when Henry II banned English students from attending the University of Paris.

In 1188, the historian, Gerald of Wales, gave a public reading to the assembled Oxford dons and in 1190 the arrival of Emo of Friesland, the first known overseas student, set in motion the University's tradition of international scholarly links. By 1201, the University was headed by a magister scholarum Oxonie, on whom the title of Chancellor was conferred in 1214, and in 1231 the masters were recognized as a universitas or corporation.

In the 13th century, rioting between town and gown (townspeople and students) hastened the establishment of primitive halls of residence. These were succeeded by the first of Oxford's colleges, which began as medieval 'halls of residence' or endowed houses under the supervision of a Master. University, Balliol and Merton Colleges, which were established between 1249 and 1264, are the oldest.

Less than a century later, Oxford had achieved eminence above every other seat of learning, and won the praises of popes, kings and sages by virtue of its antiquity, curriculum, doctrine and privileges. In 1355, Edward III paid tribute to the University for its invaluable contribution to learning; he also commented on the services rendered to the state by distinguished Oxford graduates.

From its early days, Oxford was a centre for lively controversy, with scholars involved in religious and political disputes. John Wyclif, a 14th-century Master of Balliol, campaigned for a bible in the vernacular, against the wishes of the papacy. In 1530, Henry VIII forced the University to accept his divorce from Catherine of Aragon, and during the Reformation in the 16th century, the Anglican churchmen

Cranmer, Latimer and Ridley were tried for heresy and burnt at the stake in Oxford.

The University was Royalist in the Civil War, and Charles I held a counter-Parliament in Convocation House, and in the late 17th century, the Oxford philosopher John Locke, suspected of treason, was forced to flee the country.

The 18th century, when Oxford was said to have forsaken port for politics, was also an era of scientific discovery and religious revival. Edmund Halley, Professor of Geometry, predicted the return of the comet that bears his name; John and Charles Wesley's prayer meetings laid the foundations of the Methodist Society.

The University assumed a leading role in the Victorian era, especially in religious controversy. From 1833 onwards The Oxford Movement sought to revitalise the Catholic aspects of the Anglican Church. One of its leaders, John Henry Newman, became a Roman Catholic in 1845 and was later made a Cardinal. In 1860 the new University Museum was the scene of a famous debate between Thomas Huxley, champion of evolution, and Bishop Wilberforce.

From 1878, academic halls were established for women and they were admitted to full membership of the University in 1920. Five all-male colleges first admitted women in 1974 and, since then, all colleges have changed their statutes to admit both women and men. St Hilda's College, which was originally for women only, was the last of Oxford's single sex colleges. It has admitted both men and women since 2008.

During the 20th and early 21st centuries, Oxford added to its humanistic core a major new research capacity in the natural and applied sciences, including medicine. In so doing, it has enhanced and strengthened its traditional role as an international focus for learning and a forum for intellectual debate.

The University of Cambridge (informally known as Cambridge University or simply as Cambridge) is a public research university located in Cambridge, England, United Kingdom. It is the second-oldest university in the English-speaking world (after the University of Oxford), and the fourth-oldest surviving university in the world. In post-nominals the university's name is abbreviated as Cantab, a shortened form of Cantabrigiensis (an adjective derived from Cantabrigia, the Latinised form of Cambridge).

The university grew out of an association of scholars that was formed in 1209, early records suggest, by scholars leaving Oxford after a dispute with townsfolk.[4] The two "ancient universities" have many common features and are often jointly referred to as Oxbridge. In addition to cultural and practical associations as a historic part of British society, they have a long history of rivalry with each other.

Cambridge has performed consistently in various league tables over the years, achieving the top spot in the world according to the QS World University Rankings in both 2010 and 2011; in 2012, the same editors ranked Cambridge second. Other results include a sixth place in the world in the 2011 Times Higher Education World University Rankings, and a fifth position in the world (and first in Europe) in the 2011 Academic Ranking of World Universities. Furthermore, Cambridge regularly contends with Oxford for first place in UK league tables. In the two most recently published rankings of UK universities by The Guardian newspaper, Cambridge was ranked first. In 2011, Cambridge ranked third, after Harvard and MIT, in the Times Higher Education World Reputation Rankings. Graduates of the university have won a total of 65 Nobel Prizes, the most of any university in the world.

Cambridge is a member of the Coimbra Group, the G5, the International Alliance of Research Universities, the League of European Research Universities and the Russell Group of research-led British universities. It forms part of the 'Golden Triangle' of British universities.

Questions

1. What is the difference between American and British education?
2. What are the types of universities in Britain?
3. Why are the Oxford and Cambridge Universities so important today?

LECTURE 7

- 1. Architecture**
- 2. Arts**
- 3. Literature**
- 4. Museums and galleries**

1. Architecture

The main styles in English architecture are Anglo-Saxon, Norman, Early English (of which Westminster Abbey is an example), Decorated, Perpendicular (15th century), Tudor (a name chiefly applied to domestic buildings of about 1485–1558), Jacobean, Stuart (including the Renaissance and Queen Anne styles), Georgian, the Gothic revival of the 19th century, Modern, and postmodern.

Anglo-Saxon (5th–11th century). Much of the architecture of this period, being of timber, has disappeared. The stone church towers that remain, such as at Earls Barton, appear to imitate timber techniques with their ‘long and short work’ and triangular arches. Brixworth Church, Northamptonshire, is another example of Anglo-Saxon architecture, dating from about 670. See also Anglo-Saxon architecture.

Norman (11th–12th century). William the Conqueror inaugurated an enormous building programme. He introduced the Romanesque style of round arches, massive cylindrical columns, and thick walls. At Durham Cathedral (1093–about 1130), the rib vaults were an invention of European importance in the development of the Gothic style.

Gothic. The three main styles, Early English, Decorated, and Perpendicular, are distinguishable by the design of their windows, and in particular by the development of vaulting and buttressing, whereby the thick walls and heavy barrel-vaults, the flat buttresses and the narrow windows of the 12th century came to be replaced by bolder buttresses with thinner walls between them, thinner vaults supported on stone ribs, and much larger windows filled with tracery.

Early English style (late 12th–late 13th century) began with the French east end of Canterbury Cathedral, designed in 1175 by William of Sens (died about 1180), and attained its English flowering in the cathedrals of Wells, Lincoln, and Salisbury. A simple elegant style of lancet windows, deeply carved mouldings, and slender, contrasting shafts of Purbeck marble. Decorated (late 13th–14th century) is characterized by a growing richness in carving and a fascination with line. The double curves of the ogee arch, elaborate window tracery, and vault ribs woven into star patterns may be seen in such buildings as the Lady Chapel at Ely and the Angel Choir at Lincoln. Exeter Cathedral is another example of the Decorated style. The gridded and panelled cages of light of the Perpendicular (late 14th–mid-16th century) style are a dramatic contrast to the Decorated period. Although they lack the richness and invention of the 14th century, they often convey an impressive sense of unity, space, and power. The chancel of Gloucester Cathedral is early Perpendicular; Kings College Chapel, Cambridge, is late Perpendicular.

Tudor and Elizabethan (1485–1603) This period saw the Perpendicular style interwoven with growing Renaissance influence. Buildings develop a conscious symmetry elaborated with continental Patternbrook details. Hybrid and exotic works result such as Burghley House, Cambridgeshire (1552–87), and Hardwick

Hall, Derbyshire (1590–97). Longleat House, Wiltshire (1568–75) is another building of the period. See also Tudor, Elizabethan, and Jacobean architecture. Jacobean (1603–25) A transition period, with the Renaissance influence becoming more pronounced. Hatfield House (1607–12) in Hertfordshire is Jacobean, as is Blickling Hall in Norfolk, redesigned around a medieval moated house and completed in 1628. Both were designed by the architect Robert Lyminge.

English Renaissance (17th–early 18th century) The provincial scene was revolutionized by Inigo Jones with the Queen's House, Greenwich (1616–35) and the Banqueting House, Whitehall (1619–22). Strict Palladianism appeared among the half-timber and turrets of Jacobean London. With Christopher Wren a restrained baroque evolved showing French Renaissance influence, for example St Paul's Cathedral (1675–1710), London. Nicholas Hawksmoor and John Vanbrugh developed a theatrical baroque style, exemplified in their design for Blenheim Palace, Oxfordshire (1705–20).

Georgian (18th–early 19th century) Lord Burlington, reacting against the baroque, inspired a revival of the pure Palladian style of Inigo Jones, as in Chiswick House, London (1725–29). William Kent, also a Palladian, invented the picturesque garden, as at Rousham, Oxfordshire. Alongside the great country houses, an urban architecture evolved of plain, well-proportioned houses, defining elegant streets and squares; John Wood the Younger's Royal Crescent, Bath, was built from 1767 to 1775. The second half of the century mingled Antiquarian and neoclassical influences, exquisitely balanced in the work of Robert Adam at Kedleston Hall (1759–70). John Nash carried neoclassicism into the new century; his designs include Regent Street, London (begun 1811) and the Royal Pavilion, Brighton (1815–21). By the dawn of the Victorian era neoclassicism had become a rather bookish Greek Revival, for example the British Museum (1823–47).

19th century

Throughout the century Classic and Gothic engaged with Victorian earnestness in the 'Battle of the Styles': Gothic for the Houses of Parliament (1840–60) (designed by Barra and Pugin), Renaissance for the Foreign Office (1860–75). Meanwhile, the great developments in engineering and the needs of new types of buildings, such as railway stations, transformed the debate. Joseph Paxton's prefabricated Crystal Palace (1850–51) was the most remarkable building of the era. The Arts and Crafts architects Philip Webb and Norman Shaw brought renewal and simplicity inspired by William Morris. See also English architecture: 19th century.

20th century

The early work of Edwin Landseer Lutyens and the white rendered houses of Charles Voysey, such as Broadleys, Windermere (1898–99), maintained the Arts and Crafts spirit of natural materials and simplicity. Norman Shaw, however,

developed an imperial baroque style. After World War I classicism again dominated, grandly in Lutyens' New Delhi government buildings (1912–31). There was often a clean Scandinavian influence, as in the RIBA building, London (1932–34), which shows growing modernist tendencies. The Modern Movement arrived fully with continental refugees such as Bertholdt Lubetkin, the founder of the Tecton architectural team that designed London Zoo (1934–38).

The strong social dimension of English 20th-century architecture is best seen in the new town movement. Welwyn Garden City was begun 1919 and developed after World War II. The latest of the new towns, Milton Keynes, was designated in 1967. Recently English architects have again achieved international recognition, for example, Norman Foster and Richard Rogers for their high-tech innovative Lloyds Building (1979–84), London. James Stirling's work maintained a modernist technique and planning while absorbing historical and contextual concerns. Recent postmodernist architecture includes the Sainsbury Wing of the National Gallery, London, designed by Robert Venturi in 1991.

2. Arts

The United Kingdom has a long history of excellence in the arts. British contributions to literature are remarkable in their richness, variety, and consistency. For many centuries in Britain and elsewhere, art and music were the domain of the nobility, who patronized the arts and set the tone and style into the Victorian era. Britain's artistic output was focused on literature in the 16th and 17th centuries, and the country came late to Renaissance influences in art and architecture that had been prevalent on the Continent since the 15th century. As a Protestant nation, Britain did not experience the full flowering of the baroque era that followed the Renaissance in Roman Catholic countries, such as Italy and Spain, during the 17th and 18th centuries. English style during the late 18th century was more reminiscent of the classical world of the Greeks and Romans. In the 19th century, a movement called romanticism sought to make art more emotional. Exotic places, the beauty of nature, and fascination with the Middle Ages were themes that became the hallmarks of romantic artists and writers.

During the Victorian era Britain became the world's first urban, industrialized society, and a vast middle class developed. More people had the time, education, and inclination to appreciate the arts, and the middle class developed an interest in literature, art, and music. A close relationship evolved between this large audience and the creators of art and literature because authors wrote about and painters depicted characters, situations, and scenes either familiar or interesting to large numbers of middle-class people. Although some of the works created were trite and ordinary, such as sweet paintings of dogs and children, many others were not.

The time and money spent on the arts continued to increase during the 20th century, particularly after World War II ended in 1945. Popular music and film have had the widest audiences, although classical music and ballet still attract significant numbers of people. In the postwar era, serious musical compositions came from modern composers such as Peter Maxwell Davies and Harrison Birtwistle. Britain attained prominence in modern sculpture through the work of Sir Jacob Epstein, Henry Moore, Barbara Hepworth, and others.

3. Literature

The earliest celebrated example of English literature is the bloody Anglo-Saxon epic *Beowulf*, written sometime between the 8th century and the late 10th century. After the Norman conquest in 1066, French was the language of the ruling elite, but native Britons still spoke English. The greatest English writer of the Middle Ages was Geoffrey Chaucer, who wrote *The Canterbury Tales* in the late 14th century. This work displayed not only the vigor and vitality of the English language, but also shaped the future of the language for centuries to come.

A great flowering of English writing took place in the late 16th century, during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I. The themes of Englishness, love, violence, and the turmoil of human emotions were explored from a nonreligious standpoint. Poetry was considered the most polished form of literary expression. *The Faerie Queene* (Books I-III, 1590; Books IV-VI, 1596), an epic poem in six books by Edmund Spenser, is one of the masterpieces of the century. The sonnet, a poetry style that uses a formal rhyme scheme, was used by Sir Philip Sidney and William Shakespeare, who excelled at this form.

A shift to spiritual themes began in the early 17th century, as seen in the writings of John Donne, who is famous not only for his religious sermons but also for his love poetry. Donne's complex and dramatic style made him one of the founders of metaphysical poetry. Amid the religious and civil turmoil of the English Revolution in the mid-17th century, Ben Jonson, a contemporary of Donne, wrote plays and poetry in a formal style that rejected the floweriness of 16th-century writing. This more classical style inspired a group of writers who became known as Cavalier Poets. The prose of John Milton also shared this classical style. His works, mostly pamphlets, supported the Puritan side of the revolution by stressing civil and religious liberty. Milton's later works, the poems *Paradise Lost* (1667) and *Paradise Regained* (1671), were written in blank verse. This unrhymed poetry focused on such religious themes as the fall of Adam and human redemption. John Bunyan wrote the popular work *The Pilgrim's Progress* (published in two parts, 1678 and 1684), which depicts Christian salvation as a journey.

This classical writing style continued from the restoration of the monarchy in 1660 to the middle of the 18th century, a century often called the Age of Enlightenment. It was during this time that the modern novel emerged as a popular form of expression. The modern novel encompassed stories about people and their relation to society, whether they lived within society's confines or not. Journalist Daniel Defoe wrote *Robinson Crusoe* (1719) and a number of other popular adventure novels. Anglo-Irish satirist Jonathan Swift authored *Gulliver's Travels* (1726), a charming and biting social commentary. Bawdy and wild aspects of 18th-century life are reflected in the novel *Tom Jones* (1749), by writer and lawyer Henry Fielding. It was also during the 18th century that writer and literary critic Samuel Johnson compiled his *Dictionary of the English Language* (1755).

Toward the end of the 18th century, a reaction against reason, rationalism, and the physical world developed. This movement (romanticism) pervaded many aspects of society. The romantic movement in literature idealized nature and was characterized by a highly imaginative and subjective approach. Emotions and exotic places, both present and past, became central to countless lengthy novels and torrents of poetry. Poet William Wordsworth found his inspiration in nature, while Samuel Taylor Coleridge and William Blake were inspired by mysticism. Lord Byron, Percy Bysshe Shelley, and John Keats wrote romantic poetry. Scottish author Sir Walter Scott, whose most famous work is *Ivanhoe* (1819), wrote more than 20 historical novels, many of them set in the Middle Ages.

Women also made their mark as writers during the romantic period. Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley is noted for the Gothic novel *Frankenstein* (1818), which took the romantic interest in emotions to the point of terror. Jane Austen wrote clever, elegant novels such as *Sense and Sensibility* (1811) and *Pride and Prejudice* (1813). Her down-to-earth main characters were reactions against the emotionalism of romantic writers.

During the last two-thirds of the 19th century, the Victorian era produced an amazing number of popular novelists and poets. This time period saw the rise of an increasingly urbanized, middle-class, and educated society that included a much larger reading audience. Many authors wrote about characters and situations well-known or easily comprehensible to their audience and became universally popular and in touch with their vast readership to a degree not matched in the 20th century. Perhaps the most famous author of this time was Charles Dickens, who portrayed the hardships of the working class while criticizing middle-class life. Writers prominent during the heart of the Victorian period include George Eliot, who, despite being a critic of Christianity, was known for her intense, moral novels; William Makepeace Thackeray, who wrote humorous portrayals of middle- and upper-class life; the Brontë sisters—Charlotte, Emily, and Anne—whose novels

tended to be autobiographical; Anthony Trollope, a keen observer of politics and upper Victorian society; and Robert Louis Stevenson, who wrote children's books, adventure stories, and poetry. The most popular of the many Victorian poets was Alfred, Lord Tennyson. Other famous poets include Matthew Arnold, Christina Rossetti, and Robert Browning and his wife, Elizabeth Barrett Browning.

As the late Victorian era gave way to early modern times at the turn of the 20th century, the focus shifted away from stories of everyday Victorian life. The novels of Thomas Hardy, H. G. Wells, and Joseph Conrad possess a certain pessimism and uncertainty about life. In the early 20th century the dark, psychological novels of D. H. Lawrence were censored for their explicit language. The poetry of T. S. Eliot expresses disillusionment with modern civilization, as do the popular novels of Aldous Huxley, who wrote *Brave New World* (1932). Exotic and foreign places are the settings of works by Rudyard Kipling and E. M. Forster. Forster's novels became popular in the 1980s and 1990s as films, including *A Room with a View* (1908) and *A Passage to India* (1924). Irish writer James Joyce and English novelist Virginia Woolf were instrumental in forging the new stream-of-consciousness writing style. The rich and memorable poetry of Dylan Thomas made him the greatest Welsh poet of the 20th century.

During the 1920s and 1930s, Evelyn Waugh and P. G. Wodehouse wrote novels satirizing British upper-class life. In the mid-20th century the works of George Orwell, such as *Animal Farm* (1945) and *Nineteen Eighty-four* (1949), focused on his fears about society. William Golding also expressed fears about the breakdown of society in his novel *Lord of the Flies* (1954). Works of fantasy were written during this period in response to the horrors of World War II. J. R. R. Tolkien is famous for his fantasy novels, particularly *The Hobbit* (1937) and its sequel, the trilogy *Lord of the Rings* (1954-1955). British writers whose work won attention in the late 20th century included novelists Iris Murdoch, Muriel Spark, and Ian McEwan; poets Ted Hughes and Seamus Heaney; and dramatists Harold Pinter, Tom Stoppard, and Michael Frayn.

4. Museums and galleries

Britain is world famous for its outstanding libraries and museums, most of which are located in London. The British Museum, one of the most spectacular museums in the world, is renowned for its extensive and diverse collections, from Egyptian mummies to important historical documents. The National Gallery houses a vast collection of British and European paintings dating from the 13th century to modern times. Next door to the National Gallery is the National Portrait Gallery with about 10,000 portraits of famous figures from British history, some dating from the 14th century. The Tate Gallery houses a vast collection of British art, as well as European works from the past two centuries. The Victoria and

Albert Museum features one of the world's largest collections of fine and applied arts, from jewelry, clocks, and pottery to fabrics, furniture, and musical instruments. The National Museum of Science and Industry contains five floors of exhibits on medicine, photography, engineering, transportation, and communications. Plant, animal, and mineral specimens from all over the world are part of the collection at the Natural History Museum, London. The Imperial War Museum features exhibits on the wars of the 20th century, and the modern Museum of London illustrates the history of the capital from its earliest times. Particularly popular is Madame Tussaud's Waxworks – a unique collection of lifelike wax figures of famous people, both living and dead.

Several museums and galleries of note are located outside London. The Ashmolean Museum of Art and Archaeology at Oxford University contains a diverse collection of rare art and relics, as does the Fitzwilliam Museum at Cambridge University. One of the world's finest collections of Pre-Raphaelite art is at the Birmingham Museum and Art Gallery. The National Gallery of Scotland in Edinburgh houses a collection of fine European paintings dating from the Renaissance, including many Scottish paintings. The Glasgow Art Gallery and Museum has an excellent collection that ranges from ancient weapons and objects to 17th-century Dutch paintings and works by French masters. The National Museum of Wales in Cardiff focuses on Welsh life, history, and culture. In Belfast, Northern Ireland, the Ulster Museum has a diverse collection that mixes the arts, history, and sciences. The Ulster Folk and Transport Museum in Holywood concentrates on the traditional life of Northern Ireland's people.

Britain has several specialized museums, including the National Railway Museum in York, with its large collection of locomotives, many from the 19th century. In recent years some museums have taken on the lively aspects of theme parks. Examples are the Jorvik Viking Centre in York, which recreates a Viking village, and the exhibits at Warwick Castle, which include wax figures, collections of weapons and torture devices, and jousting reenactments.

Britain's premier library, the British Library in London, contains a copy of nearly all significant works published in English. It was housed in the British Museum until 1997, when it moved to a new building. The famous Bodleian Library at Oxford University also contains one of the most extensive collections of English publications in the country

Questions

1. What are the main styles of British architecture?
2. In what centuries did flowering of English literature take place?
3. What is called "arts"?

LECTURE 8

1. Theatre
2. Films
3. Music

1. Theatre

Most early theatre in England was religious and evolved from the liturgical drama of the 10th and 11th centuries. Theatre became a truly popular form when the clergy encouraged the staging of mystery cycles in England from around 1350.

Mystery cycles and miracle plays were written in the vernacular in order to teach ordinary people about the Bible and Christianity. Church services and religious books were written in Latin and because most people did not receive an education, they could neither read nor understand the Latin mass.

Mystery cycles

Mystery plays were produced by local towns and were written in cycles. These followed the stories of the Bible from Creation to Doomsday. They included dramatisations of the Fall of Lucifer, Cain and Abel, Noah and the Flood, The Nativity and The Passion of Christ. Plays from only four town cycles still exist. These are from Wakefield (known as the Towneley cycle), Chester, Coventry and York. The largest was the York Cycle which contained 48 pageants.

Miracle plays

Miracle plays told the stories of the lives of different saints. At the time people believed in the power of saints to solve their problems.

Holy relics supposedly taken from the bodies of the saints (eg, bones, pieces of their hair, clothing and even skin) were kept by the church. People paid money to the church to pray to these relics. The superstitious belief that seeing or touching a holy relic would cure all ills was commonplace and was promoted by the Catholic church.

Miracle plays were popular in the 14th and 15th centuries, but in the 16th century Henry VIII banned all drama that could pose a threat to Protestantism in an attempt to stop any celebration of Catholic doctrine. As a consequence very few mystery or miracle play texts still exist.

Staging

Mystery and miracle plays were often performed on pageant wagons in town squares or in the grounds of churches.

Pageant wagons had a stage, sometimes with two levels, which could be used with the ground in front of the wagon as another performance level. Pageant wagons processed through the streets and stopped to perform at pre-arranged sites.

In some towns, however, plays were acted in a set space or 'place' surrounded by fixed stages or 'scaffolds'.

Plays were produced by tradesmen's guilds. Guilds would specialise in producing one or more plays that were appropriate to their profession. For example the carpenters might perform Noah's Ark and the Pinner (who made nails) The Crucifixion. The design of the costumes contained symbols to help the audience recognise the characters, for example God wore a white coat and had a golden face.

The Tradesmen's guilds raised the money for the plays by a system called pageant silver. All the workers in the guild were expected to contribute a set amount, no matter how small their wages.

The 18th century saw the flourishing of theatre as a popular pastime and many theatres were enlarged and new playhouses built in London and the provinces.

One of the most successful shows on the London stage in the early part of the 18th century was the ballad opera *The Beggar's Opera*. John Gay recycled popular songs of the day and wrote new lyrics that were humorous and satirical. Despite the attempt to suppress it via the 1737 Licensing Act, satire remained popular, such as those staged by Samuel Foote at the Haymarket Theatre.

This engraving shows a performance of *The Beggar's Opera* from about 1729. This comic opera was first produced at Lincoln's Inn Fields Theatre by the father of pantomime John Rich in 1728.

It was a huge success and was regularly revived throughout the century making (as was noted at the time) 'Rich gay and Gay rich'.

At this time, it was still common for members of the audience to pay a little extra to sit on the stage itself. This ensured that everyone in the house could see their fine clothes, hear their witty comments and the young gallants could get close to the actresses. When an actor had a benefit performance, they would squeeze as many seats as they could on to the stage in order to maximise their profit. The actors barely had enough room to perform and were subject to interference from the spectators.

John Gay, born in 1688, is most famous for his ballad opera *The Beggar's Opera*, first produced in 1728.

This wasn't his first attempt at writing for the stage. He had tried satire, comedy and pastoral, including *The Mohocks* in 1712 and *The What d'ye Call It* in 1715. He had also written some poetry. However, none of these works had gone down particularly well with audiences. *The Beggar's Opera* took the town by storm. Gay himself seems to have been a charming man but quite shy.

He presented himself to the world as a simple countryman, but the modesty hid a sharp eye and a sly sense of humour.

The portrait captures these qualities, as does the epitaph he wrote for himself. He worked and was friends with many of the great writers of his day, such as Alexander Pope, to whom this plate is dedicated.

Furthermore, one of the most famous satires of the time was Lilliput based on Jonathan Swift's book Gulliver's Travels which was performed on stage in 1756 with a cast of children.

Cartoons about current social or political events were popular in the 18th and 19th centuries.

As well as mocking individuals, they often featured symbolic figures representing a type of person (John Bull, for example, was the archetypal Englishman).

The below cartoon is satirising the fashion for child actors that swept the country in the late 19th century, the most famous of whom was William Henry West or Master Betty.

His success led to The Glasgow Roscius and The Little Siddons, named after Sarah Siddons. The children announcing their identities in this toy theatre take no notice of each other, and all appear to be costumed for a different play.

Shakespeare in the 18th century

Shakespeare's plays became increasingly popular during the 18th century but were reworked to suit the tastes of the day. His style was still felt to be too erratic and poets such as Alexander Pope carefully tidied up any uneven verse lines. Shakespeare's ending to King Lear was felt to be too distressing and Nahum Tate's revised version (where Cordelia and the King survive) was preferred to the original.

David Garrick rewrote the end of Romeo and Juliet so that the lovers speak to each other before dying in the tomb and turned the Taming of the Shrew into a farce. However, Garrick was also responsible for restoring much of Shakespeare's original text to other plays.

The 18th century saw the development of Shakespeare as a national symbol.

The Stratford Jubilee of 1769, organised by Garrick, celebrated 200 years since Shakespeare's birth. A wooden octagonal playhouse was constructed beside the river at Stratford-upon-Avon but no work by Shakespeare was performed. A planned procession of characters from Shakespeare's plays was postponed due to terrible weather and eventually re-enacted on the stage at Drury Lane in London where it proved an enormous hit.

2. Film

The British film industry has a long history and is noted for many critically acclaimed productions and actors. In recent decades it has become largely international. The great pull of the American box office has always lured British actors, directors, and producers to Hollywood, and conversely, British studios and locations have been used in international productions.

The film industry in Britain developed during the 1930s after the government established a quota requiring that a certain percentage of films shown in British cinemas be made in Britain. Hungarian-born director and producer Alexander Korda came to Britain during this time and was instrumental in the production and international distribution of many British films. The industry received another boost from the influx of German writers, producers, and directors escaping the Nazi government in the 1930s. During World War II, many people working in the British film industry immigrated to the United States. One of these was London-born director Alfred Hitchcock, who moved to the United States in 1939 and continued to produce popular films.

British film output after World War II tended to be literary, drawing upon classics from Charles Dickens and William Shakespeare. A number of witty comedies that appealed to the more educated and culturally conservative segment of society appeared in the late 1940s and early 1950s. These included such films as *Genevieve* (1953) and *The Belles of St. Trinian's* (1954). By the mid-1950s the Free Cinema Movement had begun, shooting low-budget films that illuminated the problems of contemporary life. Simultaneously, so-called new cinema films began to present antiestablishment and anti-middle class views with social realism using working-class themes and characters. Notable examples of new cinema films include *Look Back in Anger* (1959), based on the John Osborne play; Karel Reisz's *Saturday Night and Sunday Morning* (1960); and *The Loneliness of the Long Distance Runner* (1962). Director David Lean, who had produced many popular films in the 1940s, became noted for big, lavish epics during the 1950s, particularly *The Bridge on the River Kwai* (1957) and *Lawrence of Arabia* (1959), both of which won Academy Awards.

For a brief time London became the film production capital of the world when a number of important films were made there. These included *Tom Jones* (1963), with an award-winning screenplay by John Osborne, and *2001: A Space Odyssey* (1968) and *A Clockwork Orange* (1971), directed by Stanley Kubrick. Richard Attenborough gained fame not only for his acting but also for directing such biographical films as *Gandhi* (1982), which won multiple Academy Awards; *Chaplin* (1992), about English actor and director Charlie Chaplin; and *Shadowlands* (1993), about British author C. S. Lewis. Anthony Minghella adapted and directed the 1996 film version of Michael Ondaatje's novel *The English*

Patient and the 2003 film of Charles Frazer's novel *Cold Mountain*. Mike Leigh became known for his collaborations with actors on films such as *High Hopes* (1988) and *Vera Drake* (2004).

3. Music

London is regarded as one of the great music capitals of the world. Appreciation of music is extremely widespread, and the kinds of music regularly performed are diverse, ranging from early music to modern. Britain boasts thousands of amateur opera societies, choirs, and musical groups, including orchestras; dance, brass, and steel bands; and rock and jazz groups.

Important composers in the early 20th century included Sir Edward Elgar, who wrote choral and orchestral music, and Frederick Delius, who composed the opera *A Village Romeo and Juliet* (1900-1901). Later in the century, Ralph Vaughan Williams established himself as Britain's foremost composer, and Sir William Walton composed many important classical works, including the opera *Troilus and Cressida* (1954). In opera, Benjamin Britten and Sir Michael Tippett created several important works. Britten adapted Henry James's story "The Turn of the Screw" and Shakespeare's play *A Midsummer Night's Dream* into operas in 1954 and 1960, respectively. Tippett combined classical music with popular music—his Fourth Symphony (1977) contained elements of jazz. Thomas Adès was a rising star in the early 2000s, with operas such as *The Tempest* (2004), commissioned by the Royal Opera House. Andrew Lloyd Webber has composed musicals for the theater since the 1970s, producing such smash hits as *Jesus Christ Superstar* (1971), *Phantom of the Opera* (1986), and *Bombay Dreams* (2002).

Britain has many professional orchestras, the most famous of which are the London Philharmonic and the London Symphony. The BBC maintains six orchestras and since 1927 has sponsored the popular annual Promenade Concerts at the Royal Albert Hall. Britain has several major opera companies, the best known of which are the Royal Opera at Covent Garden and the English National Opera in London, and the Glyndebourne Opera in southeastern England. Glyndebourne presents an annual summer opera season that later tours the country.

Britain's worldwide impact in music in the second half of the 20th century, especially in the realm of popular music, was enormous. The Beatles appeared in the 1960s and were followed by other successful rock groups and singers, including names such as The Rolling Stones, The Who, Elton John, Sting, and the Spice Girls. A high-spirited kind of rock music known as Britpop became popular in the 1990s. Pop and rock music remain the most popular kinds of music in Britain, although jazz also has a large following.

Britain also has famous dance companies that rank among the world's leading troupes. These include the Royal Ballet and the English National Ballet, located in

London; the Birmingham Royal Ballet, a division of the Royal Ballet; and the Northern Ballet Theatre, a touring company based in Leeds. The leading contemporary groups are the Rambert Dance Company and the Siobhan Davies Dance Company. London hosts two contemporary dance festivals every year.

Britain hosts more than 600 professional arts festivals each year, attracting more than 4 million visitors. The two largest arts festivals in Britain are held in Scotland: The Edinburgh International Festival is a mixture of six arts festivals that takes place every August and September, and the Mayfest is held every May in Glasgow. Festivals focusing on music include the Three Choirs Festival, so-called because it takes place in three separate English cities; the Cheltenham Festival; and the Aldeburgh Festival, founded in the 1940s by composer Benjamin Britten and English tenor Sir Peter Pears.

Questions

1. What is the history of British theater?
2. Why British actors are invited so often to western projects?
3. What are the music festivals?

LECTURE 9

1. **Leisure**
2. **Sport**
3. **Media**
4. **British Icons**

1. Leisure

British people enjoy various indoor and outdoor activities in Britain.

An Euro stat survey, the EU's statistical office, discovered that people in Britain spend about 45% of their free time watching television, 24% of their free time socializing, 22-23% on sport and hobbies, and 10% on other activities. Other popular leisure activities are listening to the radio, listening to pre-recorded music, reading, DIY, gardening, eating out and going to the cinema. There are, however, many other activities. Evening classes, each meeting once a week, are flourishing immensely, and not only those that prepare people for examinations leading to professional qualifications. Many people attend classes connected with their hobbies, such as photography, painting, folk dancing, dog training, cake decoration, archaeology, local history, car maintenance and other subjects. Classes may be organized by local education authorities or by bodies like the . Workers Educational Association, and in them people find an agreeable social life as well as the means of pursuing their own hobbies. All this, together with the popularity of

amateur dramatics, can provide, some comfort for those who fear that modern mass entertainment is producing a passive society.

Other groups meet regularly for a mixture of social and religious purposes or for the pursuit of hobbies. For young people there are youth clubs, some, but not all, of them connected with churches.

Young and old spend leisure time working together for good causes, raising money for the benefit of victims of famine, flood or misfortune. All of this demands a good deal of organization and innumerable committees. Most of all money is needed, and the workers for charities spend much time in trying to extract funds from the rest of the community to supplement the subscriptions which they pay themselves. Subject to the regulations made by the public -authorities and with their permission, the supporters of a charity may organize a “flag-day”, normally not more than once a year in any town. They stand in the streets with collecting boxes into which generously disposed passers-by put money, receiving in exchange little paper “flags” to pin on their coats. Other devices are “bazaars” or “sales of work”, where homemade food and unwanted clothes are sold, and opening speeches are made by persons of importance. All these activities turn out to be social occasions. In the course of doing good the public spirited develop their social lives, meet their friends and enjoy themselves.

Public libraries, maintained by the local authorities, are well developed and progressive, and allow people everywhere to borrow books without charge. The books in the lending section are always kept on open shelves, and library staffs are very helpful in getting books on request from other libraries through the exchange system. Most libraries report an increase in borrowing over the past few years, so television does not seem to be stopping people from reading, as it was feared that it would. Many towns have well and imaginatively kept museums and art galleries, with no charge for admission at least until 1990. By then some of the national museums were charging for admission.

England is famous for its gardens, and most people like gardening. This is probably one reason why so many people prefer living in houses to living in flats. Particularly in suburban areas it is possible to pass row after row of ordinary small houses, each one with its neatly kept patch of grass surrounded by a great variety of flowers and shrubs. Some people who have no garden of their own have patches of land or “allotments” in special areas. Enthusiasts of gardening - or do-it-yourself activities - get ever-growing help from radio programmes, magazines and patient shop-keepers.

Although the task of keeping a garden is essentially individual, gardening can well become the foundation of social and competitive relationships. Flower shows and vegetable shows, with prizes for the best exhibits, are popular, and to many

gardeners the process of growing the plants seems more important than the merely aesthetic pleasure of looking at the flowers or eating the vegetables.

Two traditional British institutions, the pub and fish-and-chip shop, have been transformed in the past two or three decades. A few pubs still have gloomy walls and frosted-glass windows, ugly bars where people drink standing up. But in most of today's pubs, although the customers still buy their drinks at the bar, they usually carry them away to sit comfortably at tables in an ambience both civilised and aesthetically pleasing. Many pubs have tables outside, sometimes in well-tended gardens, with swings for children. Many of them provide food, not only sandwiches but salads and hot dishes, often very good and usually good value. The opening hours were liberalized at last in 1988, allowing pubs to stay open all day. However, some still keep to the old practice, so long imposed by law, of closing for about three hours in the afternoon. Although a lot of trouble is caused by people who get drunk, mostly at weekends, the British drink less alcohol than most other Europeans. They now drink less beer but more wine than in the past.

Fish-and-chip shops no longer wrap up their wares in newspapers, to be eaten in the street outside, but provide more commodious containers. Most offer chicken or sausages too, or quite often Chinese dishes. Some indeed are run by people who originally came from China or Hong Kong. They have their rivals like hamburger and fried chicken bars. And most of the ubiquitous Indian and Chinese restaurants are prepared to put their rice and curry, or their noodle dishes, in little boxes to take away. But these are serious meals, with a preparation time of twenty minutes, so takeaway customers can avoid delay by telephoning in advance.

For eating out in towns there is a marvellous variety of choice. Many of the Indian restaurants are very good indeed. Other restaurants are of several different nationalities, some providing simple dishes, some more ambitious. British people eat out in restaurants or hotel dining rooms more now than in the past, not only for conferences, business or club meetings, but as a family activity.

There is a strong tradition of hospitality, and most entertaining in people's homes is free and easy, informal, and without rituals. The old afternoon tea party has lost popularity, even on Sunday, partly because few people dare to eat the fattening scones, butter and jam and cakes which go with the traditional English tea. Instead, friends and relatives are asked for drinks before lunch or dinner, or for a meal which nowadays is sometimes a buffet supper eaten away from the table.

2. Sport

Sports play an important part in the life in Britain and is a popular leisure activity. Many of the world's famous sports began in Britain, including cricket, football, lawn tennis, golf and rugby

England's national sport is cricket although to many people football (soccer) is seen as UK national sport. Football is our most popular sport. Some of England's football teams are world famous, the most famous being Manchester United, Arsenal and Liverpool.

Cricket is played on village greens and in towns/cities on Sundays from April to August. The rules of cricket became the responsibility, in the 18th century, of the Marylebone Cricket Club (MCC), based at Lord's cricket ground in north London. Teams are made up of 11 players each. They play with a ball slightly smaller than a baseball and a bat shaped like a paddle. Two batters stand in front of wickets, set about 20 metres apart. Each wicket consists of three wooden rods (stumps) pushed into the ground, with two small pieces of wood (bails) balanced on top. A member of the opposing team (the bowler) throws the ball towards one of the batters, who must hit the ball so that it does not knock a bail off the wicket. If the ball travels far enough, the two batters run back and forth between the wickets while the fielders on the opposing team try to catch the ball. The game is scored according to the number of runs, which is the number of times the batters exchange places.

Football is undoubtedly the most popular sport in England, and has been played for hundreds of years. In the English Football League there are 92 professional clubs. These are semi-professional, so most players have other full-time jobs. Hundreds of thousands of people also play football in parks and playgrounds just for fun. The highlight of the English football year is the FA (Football Association) Cup Final each May.

Rugby originated from Rugby school in Warwickshire. It is similar to football, but played with an oval ball. Players can carry the ball and tackle each other. The best rugby teams compete in the Super League final each September. For many years Rugby was only played by the rich upper classes, but now it is popular all over the country. There are two different types of rugby - Rugby League, played mainly in the north of England, and Rugby Union, played in the rest of England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland. England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland, together with France and Italy, play in an annual tournament called the Six Nations. American Football derived from our game of Rugby also Baseball derived from the old English game of Rounders.

The world's most famous tennis tournament is Wimbledon. It started at a small club in south London in the nineteenth century. It begins on the nearest Monday to June 22, at a time when English often have the finest weather. Millions of people watch the Championships on TV live. It is traditional for visitors to eat strawberries and cream whilst they watch the tennis.

Horseracing, the sport of Kings is a very popular sport with meetings being held every day throughout the year. The Derby originated here, as did The Grand National which is the hardest horse race in the world. Horse racing and greyhound racing are popular spectator sports. People can place bets on the races at legal off-track betting shops. Some of the best-known horse races are held at Ascot, Newmarket, Goodwood and Epsom. Ascot, a small town in the south of England, becomes the centre of horse-racing world for one week in June. It's called Royal Ascot because the Queen always goes to Ascot. She has a lot of racehorses and likes to watch racing.

3. Media

There are three types of Mass Media: Radio, Television and the Press .

In Britain there are two broadcasting authorities in charge of radio and TV, the BBC and the IBA.

The BBC was founded in 1922 and is directed by a Board of Governors by the Government.

The British established this commission because they realised that radio and television are very important media for the "spread of information" and that this contains the danger of misuse.

The BBC has certain obligations and restrictions which should prevent to use media for the best advantage for the people as a whole:

- It must be politically neutral
- and must be commercially independent

That means, it is not allowed to broadcast commercials.

The British Broadcasting Corporation runs 4 national radio stations (Radio 1 to 4), two national TV networks (BBC 1 and BBC 2) and a number of local radio stations. On BBC 1, the main television channel of the BBC, you can find more programmes of general interest, like light entertainment, sports, news and current affairs. BBC 2 transmits more specialized programmes like documentaries, serious plays and international films. Because programmes are not financed by advertising, BBC gets its money from licence fees, sales of programmes, recordings and publications. These reporting and documentary presentations are known as "high-standard-productions" worldwide.

The second broadcasting authority is the IBA (Independent Broadcasting Authority). The IBA was appointed by the Home Secretary and set up to coordinate independent television and radio stations. The IBA controls ITV (Independent Television) and owns Channel 4 and 5, which are financed by commercial advertising. ITV broadcasts a great variety of subject matters like: news, information, current affairs and light entertainment. It is also famous for its soap operas like "Crossroads" and "Coronation Street".

Apart from the commercial breaks the content is very much like that of the BBC.

ITV programmes must also

- show impartiality in controversial matters
- be accurate in its news coverage
- observe certain standards with regard violence
- and stay within the bounds of good taste.

There are two IBA controlled TV Channels called "Channel 4" and "Channel 5". Channel 4 presents a more specialized range of programmes that are of interest to minority groups such as detailed news reports, documentaries and educational programmes. Of course the British have even more than just these channels. They also receive programmes by cable and satellite, programmes like "Sky Channel".

The special about British newspapers is the fact, that more national and regional newspapers are sold per hand than in any other Western country.

This shows the important role of the press in forming public and political opinion there.

Most British read two different types of newspapers to get a complete information, they read a National and a Regional paper. The regional or local press is very important for the Scottish and the Welsh because of their strong national identity, but these papers have not a large circulation and only local influence. The British press is considered to be an instrument for controlling and criticizing government. It's unrestricted by censorship or state control and is sometimes called "The Fourth Estate" because it has considerable influence in public affairs. "Fourth Estate" means that the press is an addition to Legislative, Executive and Judicative.

But journalists must not overstep certain limits:

- The reader must be informed fairly (factual information and commenting must not be mixed up)
 - Articles must be free from libel
 - Matters which fall under the "Official Secrets Act" must not be reported
- In 1953 the "Press Council" was set up. The aims of this commission are:
- to defend the freedom of the press
 - to maintain certain professional standards
 - and to deal with complains against newspapers

The Press in Britain can be divided into: Daily-, Sunday-, Quality- and popular papers.

The Quality Papers provide national and international news objectively reported and they cover a great variety of topics of general interest often with

background information. These articles are mostly written by experts on the subject in a formal style and should attract the educated reader.

"The Times" and "The Guardian" are for example "Quality" papers.

The Popular Papers provide sensational news so called "human interest" stories and scandals.

These papers are of lower standards, use everyday English, and the reading public comes from the middle and working class. The style is more emotional and they use big headlines and colour pictures to attract the reader.

Popular Papers are mostly printed in a special format called tabloid. It's a more handy size compared with the regular broadsheet. "The Sun" and "The Daily Mirror" are such popular papers.

The Sunday papers of the Quality and Popular Papers are very thick issues with lots of information and advertising.

"The Observer" and the "News of the World" are such Sunday Papers.

It is important to mention that the striking difference between the "quality" and the "sensational" press reflects the gap between Britain's social classes.

There is also a last group of print media called Periodicals and Weekly. They are published regularly every week or month.

The old-established weeklies, The Economist, The New Statesman, and The Spectator are respected for their quality of authorship.

4. British Icons

There are ten British icons that have become the top global symbols of this country. Some are recent while some have their origins way back in history. They all remind us, residents and tourists alike, that Britain is unique place that has been melting pot for many cultures over thousands of years. A place where tradition is cherished, innovation is admired and eccentricity is accepted. Here are the top ten British icons with a twist. They're all bright red:

Top of the Top Ten British Icons, uniquely British, the Mini was the brainchild of Sir Alec Issigonis a designer for the British Motor Corporation and was first produced in 1959. It was the British answer to the Volkswagen Beetle and became an instant icon of the 1960's. Small but deceptively spacious it was easy to park, cheap to run and very 'cool' to drive. It was seen as eco friendly long before the green movement had even put down roots. In 1969 it was the real star of the cult classic film The Italian Job. Since then it has featured in many other motion pictures and become a firm favorite with celebrities from Mick Jagger to Mr. Bean. It has even had its own international exhibition and been featured on postage stamps. More than 1.5 million were produced.

For millennia the nature of the clothes worn by women were largely dictated by a male dominated society. In 1965 a London-based designer called Mary Quant decided to launch a fashionable red skirt that was far short than anything a woman might have worn in public. She named it after her favourite car the Mini. The miniskirt was a sensation and almost overnight London seemed full of women suddenly proud of their lovely legs. Controversy raged but female liberation had won a great victory. For the first time everyday clothes could be revealing in public. The craze swept around the world making a statement of female independence and sexuality. It started in London and has remain a popular British icon ever since. There is now even a micro miniskirt which is really just a wide cloth belt.

The original red busses of London were the Routemasters that were introduced in 1958. Designed specifically for the city they were distinctive double-deckers that quickly became a British icon. Although production ceased in 1968 they were still widely used up until 2005. Tourists to London often consider a ride on one of these vehicles a 'must-do' activity and can still use them on two heritage routes which run from Olympia to Aldwych and from Trafalgar Square to Tower Hill. Various societies exist to preserve these busses and many are now owned by private individuals. City tour companies as far apart as Dubai and Montreal use either original Routemasters or replicas to add to the excitement of the journey.

This is one of the most recognisable of the top ten icons of Britain and at time one there was a red telephone box on almost every corner. Before the age of the mobile phone they were considered an essential part of life for anyone away from home. The first phone boxes were made of concrete and introduced in 1920. A competition was later held to find a better and more attractive design. This was won by Giles Gilbert Scott of the Sir John Soane's museum in 1924. To make it resilient it was made from cast iron and to make it visible it was painted in red. This would be the basic design for all future red telephone boxes until the need to save money resulted in the unloved and easily damaged modern version. Recycled kiosks can now be found around the world from Israel to Oklahoma. Many have been bought by private individuals.

The 'Red Box' is a form of briefcase used by British government ministers to carry important documents. The original was made for William Gladstone around 1860 during his time in office as Chancellor of the Exchequer. Red boxes were typically made of leather-covered wood lined with lead and satin. It is said that the hinges not the catches were next to the handle which meant it had to be locked at the bottom. If it wasn't it would fall open when lifted thus ensuring it was never taken anywhere unlocked. The most famous red box is the iconic one that is raised to show the British public and the media outside 10 Downing Street that the budget

for the year has been agreed by government officials. The original was retired in 2010 and a new and more modern red briefcase is now used.

One of the most recognised symbols in London is a red wheel bisected by a blue rectangle. It's the sign of 'The Underground', a vast network of subterranean railway tunnels that connect almost every part of the city. Casually referred to as The Tube it serves Greater London as well as parts of Buckinghamshire, Essex and Hertfordshire. As the oldest underground railway in the world it has a special place in transport history. Started in 1860, certain sections are still being extend today. Roughly 28 million people collectively make approximately one billion journeys every year.

The top guards at Buckingham Palace are known as the (Royal) Household Division. They're comprised of some of the best active soldiers in the world from seven elite British military regiments. Two of these, the Life Guards and The Blues and Royals are cavalry regiments. The remaining soldiers are from the Grenadier Guards, the Coldstream Guards, the Scots Guards, the Welsh Guards and the Irish Guards. It is the uniform of this second group that has become an icon of Britain. Dark trousers, a red tunic and the famous bearskin headgear have become synonymous with precision, courage and discipline. The bright red tunics of the British military originally got their colour from being died in crushed cochineal from the Americas.

A wonderful British icon is the traditional dessert of brilliant red strawberries coated with an avalanche of cream. Today they're usually associated with tennis and Wimbledon but were originally served at many medieval festivals and banquets to celebrate a good summer and general prosperity. They were first cultivated in the cooler provinces of the Roman Empire. Over the centuries people have used them both as a medicine and as an aphrodisiac. The tradition of strawberries and cream at Wimbledon probably dates back to the very beginning of the competition which coincided with the rapid and successful expansion of both dairy and strawberry farming in the south of England.

It's generally accepted that the modern postal service was first invented and implemented in Britain. It should not be confused with advanced courier services that had already existed for thousands of years. The premise of the royal mail was that anyone could send a letter from any location to any destination in Britain by using a prepaid stamp. This meant that thousand of post boxes would be needed with the goal of at least one in every village. The solution was the red pillar box made from cast iron and introduced in 1852. More than 150 variations have been produced over the years and it quickly became an icon of Britain and its associated countries such as Australia, India and Morocco. These Pillar Post Boxes are still widely used today even after the arrival of email and instant messaging.

The origin of the red Welsh Dragon can be traced back to early Celtic tales from between 415 and 480 AD. The first story tells of how two giant dragons are tricked into getting drunk and imprisoned in a cave. It may represent a very early truce between the original Britons and the invading Saxons that arrived shortly after the fall of the Roman Empire. A second story recorded in the *Historia Brittonum*, which was written in 830 AD, tells how a Welsh king called Vortigern (circa 470AD) releases the dragons on the advice of the boy-wizard Merlin. The Dragons continued their fight and at first the White Dragon looked like winning but was eventually defeated by the Red Dragon. At the time the meaning was clear; Vortigern would be defeated but the Welsh would succeed in defending their land against the Saxons. If this was indeed a prophesy it turned out to be accurate. After this event the red dragon quickly became a symbol of everything Welsh.

Questions

1. What is the role of sport in British society? Why?
2. What is one of the most favorite sport for British citizens?
3. What other British icons do you know?

LECTURE 10

1. **Cuisine**
2. **Festivals (1st part of the year)**
3. **Festivals (2nd part of the year)**
4. **British etiquette**

1. Cuisine

Britain is a tea-drinking nation. Every day we drink 165 million cups of the stuff and each year around 144 thousand tons of tea are imported. Tea in Britain is traditionally brewed in a warmed china teapot, adding one spoonful of tea per person and one for the pot. Most Britons like their tea strong and dark, but with a lot of milk. **Tea breaks** are when tea and biscuits are served. The traditional time for tea breaks are at 11:00 am (Eleven o'clock) and 4 pm in the afternoon.

Coffee is now as popular in Britain as tea is. People either drink it with milk or have it black and either have freshly- made coffee or instant coffee. Britain is also well known for its ale which tends to be dark in appearance and heavier than lager. It is known as "bitter" Britain's wine industry is growing from strength to strength and we now have over 300 wine producers. A growing number of British vineyards are now producing sparkling white wine as well as full bodied red wine. There are over 100 vineyard in Kent.

Fish (cod, haddock, huss, plaice) deep fried in flour batter with chips (fried potatoes) dressed in malt vinegar. This is England's traditional take-away food or as US would say "to go". Fish and chips are not normally home cooked but bought at a fish and chip shop ("chippie") to eat on premises or as a "take away".

The original pies were made with eels because at the time eels were a cheaper product than beef. About fifty years ago, mince beef pies replaced the eels and have now become the traditional pie and mash that people know. The traditional pie and mash doesn't come without its famous sauce known as liquor which is a curious shade of green and definitely non-alcoholic. The liquor tastes much nicer than it looks (it's bright green!). Bangers and Mash (mashed potatoes and sausages). Bangers are sausages in England. (The reason sausages were nicknamed bangers is that during wartime rationing they were so filled with water they often exploded when they were fried.)

3. Festivals in UK (the first half of the year)

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.

New Year

New Year's Day is the first day of the year, in the Gregorian calendar. In modern times, it is the 1st January. It is a time for looking forward and wishing for a good year ahead.

People welcome in the New Year on the night before. This is called New Year's Eve. In Scotland, people celebrate with a lively festival called Hogmanay. All over Britain there are parties, fireworks, singing and dancing, to ring out the old year and ring in the new. As the clock - Big Ben - strikes midnight, people link arms and sing a song called Auld Lang Syne. It reminds them of old and new friends.

The Door Custom.

In the old days, the New Year started with a custom called 'first footing', which was suppose to bring good luck to people for the coming year. As soon as midnight had passed and January 1st had started, people used to wait behind their doors for a dark haired person to arrive. The visitor carried a piece of coal, some bread, some money and some greenery. These were all for good luck - the coal to make sure that the house would always be warm, the bread to make sure everyone in the house would have enough food to eat, money so that they would have enough money, and the greenery to make sure that they had a long life. The visitor would then take a pan of dust or ashes out of the house with him, thus signifying the departure of the old year.

Valentine's Day

Valentine's Day (Saint Valentine's Day) is an occasion celebrated on February 14. It is the traditional day on which people express their love for each other by sending Valentine's cards, presenting flowers, or offering confectionery.

Each year in Britain, people spend around £503m on cards, flowers, chocolates and other gifts for Valentine's Day. Traditionally these were sent anonymously, but nowadays we often make it clear who is sending each 'Valentine'.

St David's Day (Wales National Day)

St David was a Celtic monk, abbot and bishop, who lived in the sixth century. He spread the word of Christianity across Wales.

The most famous story about Saint David tells how he was preaching to a huge crowd and the ground is said to have risen up, so that he was standing on a hill and everyone had a better chance of hearing him.

St David's Day is commemorated by the wearing of daffodils or leeks. Both plants are traditionally regarded as national emblems. There are many explanations of how the leek came to be adopted as the national emblem of Wales. One is that St David advised the Welsh, on the eve of battle with the Saxons, to wear leeks in their caps to distinguish friend from the enemy. Shakespeare mentions in Henry V, that the Welsh archers wore leeks at the battle of Agincourt in 1415.

St.Patrick'sDay (Ireland's Special Day)

St. Patrick's Day is celebrated in the whole of Ireland on 17 March, in honour of St Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland.

The most famous story about Saint Patrick is him driving the snakes from Ireland. He died on 17th March in AD 461 and this day has since been commemorated as St. Patrick's Day.

The national emblem of Ireland is the Shamrock. Patrick used the three-leaved shamrock to explain how the Trinity of the Father, Son and Holy Spirit could exist as separate parts of the same being. His followers took to wearing a shamrock in celebration. St Patrick's day is marked by the wearing of shamrocks (a clover-like plant), the national emblem of both Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland.

St.Patrick's Day is celebrated with parades in the large cities, the wearing of the green and drinking guinness (traditional drink of Ireland).

Mothering Sunday

The UK's version of Mother's Day - 14 March 2010

Mothering Sunday in the UK is the equivalent of Mothers' Day in other countries.

Mothering Sunday is a time when children pay respect to their Mothers. Children often give their Mothers a gift and a card. Many churches give the

children in the congregation a little bunch of spring flowers to give to their Mothers as a thank you for all their care and love throughout the year.

Mothering Sunday is not a fixed day because it is always the middle Sunday in Lent (which lasts from Ash Wednesday to the day before Easter Sunday). This means that Mother's Day in the UK will fall on different dates each year and sometimes even fall in different months.

Easter

Easter will fall on 4 April in 2010

Easter is the time for holidays, festivals and a time for giving chocolate Easter eggs. But Easter means much more....

Easter is the oldest and the most important Christian Festival, the celebration of the death and coming to life again of Jesus Christ. For Christians, the dawn of Easter Sunday with its message of new life is the high point of the Christian year.

Easter is the story of Jesus' last days in Jerusalem before his death. The Easter story includes Maundy Thursday (the Last supper leading to the Eucharist), Good Friday (the day on which Jesus was crucified) and Easter Day (the day on which Jesus came back to life).

It is a sad story because Jesus was killed. But the story has a very happy ending, because Jesus came back to life and visited his friends and followers once more. He did not die at all, but went back up to Heaven to be with God, his father.

April Fools Day

April begins with a day of fun and jokes - April Fool's Day. No one really knows when this custom began but it has been kept for hundreds of years.

St George's Day

St George's Day is celebrated in England on 23 April, in honour of St George, the patron saint of England.

A story dating back to the 6th century tells that St George rescued a maiden by slaying a fearsome fire-breathing dragon. The Saint's name was shouted as a battle cry by English knights who fought beneath the red-cross banner of St George during the Hundred Years War (1338-1453). The national emblem and national flower of England is a red rose

The flower has been adopted as England's emblem since the time of the Wars of the Roses - civil wars (1455-1485) between the royal house of Lancaster (whose emblem was a red rose) and the royal house of York (whose emblem was a white rose).

May Day

The first day of the month of May is known as May Day. It is the time of year when warmer weather begins and flowers and trees start to blossom. It is said to be a time of love and romance. It is when people celebrate the coming of summer

with lots of different customs that are expressions of joy and hope after a long winter. Traditional English May Day celebrations include Morris dancing, crowning a May Queen and dancing around a Maypole. Although summer does not officially begin until June, May Day marks its beginning. May Day celebrations have their origins in the Roman festival of Flora, goddess of fruit and flowers, which marked the beginning of summer. It was held annually from April 28th to May 3rd.

4. Festivals (the second half of the year)

Harvest Festival

Harvest Festival is a celebration of the food grown on the land. Thanksgiving ceremonies and celebrations for a successful harvest are both worldwide and very ancient. In Britain, people have given thanks for successful harvests since pagan times. They celebrate this day by singing, praying and decorating our churches with baskets of fruit and food in a festival known as 'Harvest Festival', usually during the month of September. Harvest Festival reminds Christians of all the good things God gives them. This makes them want to share with others who are not so fortunate. In schools and in Churches, people bring food from home to a Harvest Festival Service. After the service, the food that has been put on display is usually made into parcels and given to people in need.

Harvest festivals are traditionally held on or near the Sunday of the Harvest Moon. This is the full Moon that occurs closest to the autumn equinox (about Sept. 23). In two years out of three, the Harvest Moon comes in September, but in some years it occurs in October.

Halloween

On October 31st, British people celebrate Halloween, thought to be the one night of the year when ghosts, witches, and fairies are especially active. The three days between 31st October and 2nd November see pagan and Christian celebrations intertwined in a fascinating way and is a perfect example of superstition struggling with religious belief.

Currently, it is widely thought that Halloween originated as a pagan Celtic festival of the dead related to the Irish and Scottish Samhain, but there is no evidence that it was connected with the dead in pre-Christian times. These are hollowed out pumpkins with a face cut into one side. People once carved out beets, potatoes and turnips to use as lanterns on Halloween.

According to an Irish legend, jack-o-lanterns were named for a man named Jack, who could not enter heaven because he was a miser. He could not enter hell either, because he had played jokes on the devil. So instead, he had to walk the earth with his lantern until Judgment Day.

Fire was very important to the Celts as it was to all early people. In the old days people lit bonfires, to scare away evil spirits. They believed that light had power over darkness. In some places they used to jump over the fire to bring good luck.

Today, British people light candles in pumpkin lanterns and then put them outside our homes to frighten away witches and ghosts.

They play the game bobbing for apples, in which apples are placed in a tub or a large basin of water. The contestants, sometimes blindfolded, must take one bite from one of the apples without using their hands. It is not permitted to edge the apple to the side of the bowl to get hold of it.

The tradition of dressing in costume for Halloween has both European and Celtic roots. On Halloween, when it was believed that ghosts came back to the earthly world, people thought that they would encounter ghosts if they left their homes. To avoid being recognized by these ghosts, people would wear masks when they left their homes after dark so that the ghosts would mistake them for fellow spirits.

Trick or Treat.

Halloween was a time for making mischief - many parts of England still recognise Halloween as Mischief Night - when children would knock on doors demanding a treat (Trick or Treat) and people would disguise themselves as witches, ghosts, kelpies and spunkies, in order to obtain food and money from nervous householders.

Bonfire Night

The Gunpowder Plot of 1605 - A secret plan to overthrow the king.

In November 1605, the infamous Gunpowder Plot took place in which some Catholics plotted to blow up the English Parliament and King James I, on the day set for the king to open Parliament. The men were angry because the king had treated them badly and they didn't like it.

The story is remembered each 5th November when 'Guys' are burned in a celebration known as "Bonfire Night".

The Guy (effigy) is made out of old clothes stuffed with paper or straw. The Guy is a reminder of Guy Fawkes. In main town and cities, torch-lit processions are also popular on this night too. The procession leads to where the bonfire and firework displays are.

Remembrance Day

Remembrance Day is on 11 November. It is a special day set aside to remember all those men and women who were killed during the two World Wars and other conflicts. At one time the day was known as Armistice Day and was renamed Remembrance Day after the Second World War.

Remembrance Sunday is held on the second Sunday in November, which is usually the Sunday nearest to 11 November. Special services are held at war memorials and churches all over Britain. A national ceremony takes place at the Cenotaph in Whitehall, London. The Queen lays the first wreath at the Cenotaph. Wreaths are laid beside war memorials by companies, clubs and societies. People also leave small wooden crosses by the memorials in remembrance of a family member who died in war.

St Andrew's Day

St Andrew's Day is celebrated in Scotland on 30 November, in honour of St Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland. St. Andrew was one of Christ's twelve apostles. Some of his bones are said to have been brought to what is now St. Andrews in Fife during the 4th century. Since medieval times the X-shaped saltire cross upon which St. Andrew was supposedly crucified has been the Scottish national symbol.

The national emblem and national flower of Scotland is the thistle, a prickly-leaved purple flower which was first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defence. The national dress of Scotland is a kilt with shirt, waistcoat and tweed jacket, stockings with garter flashes, brogue shoes and a sporran.

Christmas

Every year in December British people celebrate the birthday of Jesus Christ. That is why they call this time of year 'Christmas' - they celebrate the 'Mass', or church service, for Christ.

Christmas is a truly magical season, bringing families and friends together to share the much loved customs and traditions which have been around for centuries. Most people are on holiday in the UK and stay at home with their family on Christmas day, the main day for Christmas celebrations in Britain. Christmas is celebrated on the 25th December, with a Christmas dinner at midday for the whole family.

During the weeks before Christmas Day, people send cards, watch nativity plays and go to carol services. They put up Christmas decorations in our homes and churches.

Boxing Day

In Britain, Boxing Day is usually celebrated on the following day after Christmas Day, which is 26 December. However, strictly speaking, Boxing Day is the first weekday after Christmas. Like Christmas Day, Boxing Day is a public holiday. This means it is typically a non working day in the whole of Britain. When Boxing Day falls on a Saturday or Sunday the following Monday is the public holiday.

Traditionally, 26 December was the day to open the Christmas Box to share the contents with the poor.

The Christmas box was a wooden or clay container where people placed gifts.

Traditionally, Boxing Day is the day when families get together. It is a day of watching sports and playing board games with the family.

Many families will go on walks in the countryside together on Boxing day.

5. British etiquette

British people place considerable value on punctuality. If you agree to meet friends at three o'clock, you can bet that they'll be there just after three. Since Britons are so time conscious, the pace of life may seem very rushed. In Britain, people make great effort to arrive on time. It is often considered impolite to arrive even a few minutes late. If you are unable to keep an appointment, it is expected that you call the person you are meeting.

Invitations

"Drop in anytime" and "come see me soon" are idioms often used in social settings but seldom meant to be taken literally. It is wise to telephone before visiting someone at home. If you receive a written invitation to an event that says "RSVP", you should respond to let the person who sent the invitation know whether or not you plan to attend.

Never accept an invitation unless you really plan to go. You may refuse by saying, "Thank you for inviting me, but I will not be able to come." If, after accepting, you are unable to attend, be sure to tell those expecting you as far in advance as possible that you will not be there.

Although it is not necessarily expected that you give a gift to your host, it is considered polite to do so, especially if you have been invited for a meal. Flowers, chocolate, or a small gift are all appropriate. A thank-you note or telephone call after the visit is also considered polite and is an appropriate means to express your appreciation for the invitation.

Introduction and Greeting

It is proper to shake hands with everyone to whom you are introduced, both men and women. An appropriate response to an introduction is "Pleased to meet you". If you want to introduce yourself to someone, extend your hand for a handshake and say "Hello, I am...." Hugging is only for friends.

Dining

When you accept a dinner invitation, tell your host if you have any dietary restrictions. He or she will want to plan a meal that you can enjoy. The evening meal is the main meal of the day in most parts of Britain.

Food may be served in one of several ways: "family style," by passing the serving plates from one to another around the dining table; "buffet style," with

guests serving themselves at the buffet; and "serving style," with the host filling each plate and passing it to each person. Guests usually wait until everyone at their table has been served before they begin to eat.

Questions

1. What is understood by “quisine”?
2. What national festivals do you know?
3. What forms of invitation are accepted in Britain?

The USA

LECTURE 11

- 1. Geographical position**
- 2. Regions**
- 3. Climate**

1. Geographical position

The United States of America is a federal republic on the continent of North America. It has an area of 9,826,630 sq km (3,794,083 sq mi) and is the third largest country in the world after Russia and Canada.

The United States consists of 48 contiguous states and the noncontiguous states of Alaska and Hawaii. In addition, the United States includes a number of outlying areas, such as the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands of the United States, which are located on the Caribbean Sea, and the islands of American Samoa and Guam, located in the Pacific Ocean. The national capital is Washington, D.C., located along the banks of the Potomac River between the states of Maryland and Virginia.

Each state is subdivided into counties, with the exception of Louisiana, where comparable political units are called parishes. Within these counties and parishes, there are communities that range in size from small villages to towns to cities. Extensive areas of urban sprawl exist in larger metropolitan areas such as Los Angeles, California; Chicago, Illinois; and New York City.

The coastal plain of the Atlantic seaboard gives way further inland to deciduous forests and the rolling hills of the Piedmont. The Appalachian Mountains divide the eastern seaboard from the Great Lakes and the grasslands of the Midwest. The Mississippi–Missouri River, the world's fourth longest river system, runs mainly north–south through the heart of the country. The flat, fertile prairie of the Great Plains stretches to the west, interrupted by a highland region in the southeast. The Rocky Mountains, at the western edge of the Great Plains, extend north to south across the country, reaching altitudes higher than 14,000 feet

(4,300 m) in Colorado. Farther west are the rocky Great Basin and deserts such as the Mojave. The Sierra Nevada and Cascade mountain ranges run close to the Pacific coast. At 20,320 feet (6,194 m), Alaska's Mount McKinley is the country's tallest peak. Active volcanoes are common throughout Alaska's Alexander and Aleutian Islands, and Hawaii consists of volcanic islands. The supervolcano underlying Yellowstone National Park in the Rockies is the continent's largest volcanic feature.

2. Regions

When examining a large geographic unit, such as the United States, geographers often divide the country into smaller regions. Dividing into parts allows us to better understand unique areas of the nation and how they combine into a whole. By analyzing regions, geographers can better understand how humans occupy and use the surface of the earth.

Regions can vary greatly in size. A region may be as small as a backyard or as large as a continent. For instance, a salesman making business calls in an unfamiliar town will need to learn about a relatively small geographic region. On the other hand, a traveler making a trip around the world or a geographer compiling statistics about a large nation will examine a region of considerably larger scope. What is important is understand how knowledge of these regions helps us more fully appreciate the world in which we live.

Regions are not as clearly defined in our real lives as they are on our maps. Sharp and distinct borders are rare. Most boundaries are transitional as regions merge comfortably into each other. The characteristics that distinguish one region gradually give way to the characteristics of its neighbor. Nonetheless, each geographic region has specific characteristics that can be experienced in the real world and that clearly differentiate it from neighboring regions. Geographers have defined two kinds of regions—uniform and functional.

A uniform region is distinguished by some characteristic—such as climate, soil, landforms, language, religion, and social customs—that is common throughout the region. Some uniform regions are natural regions—their common characteristic is a feature of the natural environment. Examples include the Rocky Mountains or the Appalachians, which both have the common characteristic of mountains. The Pacific Northwest shares a common climate: It has wet weather and mild temperatures.

Other uniform regions are classified on the basis of human or cultural characteristics. Areas that are not physically different from neighboring geographic locations might be classified as distinct regions because of factors such as the type of economy, political organization, or historical background, or because the population shares a similar ethnic or national background, language, religion, or

racial origin. Examples of such uniform regions include the Midwest, which has a common agricultural economy emphasizing the production of corn, hogs, and soybeans; the Amish religious communities of eastern Pennsylvania; the Chinatowns of New York and San Francisco; the concentrations of African Americans in most major cities; or the Hispanic cultural areas in Florida, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California.

The second type of region is the functional region. A functional region is defined by its internal organization, which usually centers on some focal point. This could be a city, a school in an educational district, a shopping center in a large market area, or a large company that employs a sizeable number of workers.

The best example of a functional area is a Metropolitan Statistical Area (MSA). The United States Bureau of the Census identifies an MSA as a central city of 50,000 people or more, the surrounding county, and all adjacent counties in which jobs or commercial activity link a significant portion of the workforce to the central city or central county. There are presently almost 300 MSAs in the United States. They range from urban giants, such as the New York City MSA, which includes 18.3 million residents (1997 estimate) in the city and in the surrounding suburbs of New York, New Jersey, and Long Island, to smaller communities, such as Enid, Oklahoma, with a population of 57,000.

The concept of a functional region is important because the United States is an urban society, and people typically live or work in a central city. They shop in the city, read the urban newspaper, watch television programs that are broadcast from the central city, and generally identify themselves as residents of a particular metropolitan area.

Moreover, an area can be a cultural uniform region, a natural uniform region, and a functional region all at the same time. For example, the Heartland region of the United States, southeast of the Great Lakes, can be categorized as a uniform region due to common natural characteristics such as the prevalence of trees, the abundance of small bodies of water, and the presence of productive soils. It also shares common cultural factors such as a mixture of agricultural and manufacturing-based economies. The Heartland is a functional region as well, unified by a system of rails, roads, and inland waterways that serve the area's economy.

3. Climate

Many people confuse weather with climate. Although the two are closely related, they have distinctly different meanings. Weather changes from day to day and sometimes from one hour to the next. It involves the temperature, precipitation, humidity, and wind factors at a particular time. Short-term decisions

about matters such as whether to play baseball during the afternoon or carry an umbrella to work are based on weather.

Climate, however, represents weather conditions over extended periods of time. Repeating cycles of precipitation and temperature, along with complex interactions of wind patterns and seasonal sun, give us our climates. Long-term decisions about storing heating fuels planning for irrigation, raising particular crops, or choosing particular features for housing designs all require a consideration of climate. The United States is a large country, and different types of climates are found in different parts of the country.

Because of its midlatitude location and vast size, the United States experiences a wide variety of climates. At one extreme are the tropical islands of Hawaii; at the other, the arctic conditions of northern Alaska. The majority of Americans live between these two extremes in a group of climatic regions with unique moisture and temperature patterns.

Geographers have traditionally divided the 48 contiguous United States into two broad patterns of continental climate: the humid East and the arid West. The dividing line most often used is 100 degrees west longitude, an imaginary north-south line extending through the Great Plains from Texas to North Dakota.

The humid east receives abundant precipitation throughout the year. Winters in the northern part are very cold with much snowfall. In the southern part, rainfall is plentiful; summers are very hot but winters are mild. Because of its bountiful moisture, the humid east has also traditionally been a very important agricultural area. Once a land of vast forests, early settlers cleared the land as they moved westward. In some areas, cleared lands were cultivated, abused, exhausted, and eroded away. In other areas, vast forests have been replanted, as in the South, the Appalachians, and parts of the Midwest.

A climatic transition zone occurs on either side of the 100 degrees west longitude line. The eastern woodlands gradually give way to tall grass prairies, which in turn give way to steppes, where short grasses flourish. Few natural tall grass prairies exist today on the Plains. Over the past few centuries, farmers cultivated and planted most of the region with corn or wheat.

In the arid West, precipitation diminishes from east to west and eventually reaches the point where it becomes impossible to raise crops without irrigation. Some desert areas of Arizona, Nevada, and southern California receive less than 125 mm (5 in) of precipitation annually. The grazing of livestock is an important agricultural activity in these areas of mesquite bushes and cacti.

Not all of the West is dry. In fact, one of the wettest areas of the United States is located in the Pacific Northwest. On the west-facing slopes of the Cascades and the Coast Ranges, moisture-laden winds blow from the Pacific Ocean and drop

their rain on the mountain slopes. This type of mountain-induced rainfall is known as orographic precipitation. It occurs when wet air rises along the slope of a mountain. As the air moves upward into cooler temperature zones, it expands and cools, releasing the moisture as precipitation. Because of this effect, the climate of the Northwest is cool and moist, and the land is covered with vast, coniferous forests.

Questions

1. What are advantages of the geographical position of the USA?
2. What is peculiar about climate?
3. Compare the geographical position of Uzbekistan and America.

LECTURE 12

- 1. Economy**
- 2. Population**
- 3. Language**
- 4. Washington D.C.**

1. Economy

The U.S. economy, the largest in the world, produces many different goods and services. This can be seen more easily by dividing economic activities into four sectors that produce different kinds of goods and services. The first sector provides goods that come directly from natural resources: agriculture, forestry, fishing, and mining. The second sector includes manufacturing and the generation of electricity. The third sector, made up of commerce and services, is now the largest part of the U.S. economy. It encompasses financial services, retail and wholesale sales, government services, transportation, entertainment, tourism, and other businesses that provide a wide variety of services to individuals and businesses. The fourth major economic sector deals with the recording, processing, and transmission of information, and includes the communications industry.

United States Economy, all of the ways goods and services are produced, distributed, and consumed by individuals and businesses in the United States. The U.S. economy is immense. In 2005 it included more than 295 million consumers and more than 20 million businesses. U.S. consumers purchase more than \$6 trillion of goods and services annually, and businesses invest over a trillion dollars more for factories and equipment. In addition to spending by private households and businesses, government agencies at all levels (federal, state, and local) spend

roughly an additional \$2 trillion a year. In total, the annual value of all goods and services produced in the United States, known as the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), was \$12.5 trillion in 2005.

Those levels of production, consumption, and spending make the U.S. economy by far the largest economy the world has ever known—despite the fact that some other nations have far more people, land, or other resources. Through most of the 20th century and continuing into the 21st century, U.S. citizens also enjoyed the highest material standards of living in the world. Some nations have higher per capita (per person) incomes than the United States. However, these comparisons are based on international exchange rates, which set the value of a country's currency based on a narrow range of goods and services traded between nations. Most economists agree that the United States has a higher per capita income based on the total value of goods and services that households consume.

American prosperity has attracted worldwide attention and imitation. There are several key reasons why the U.S. economy has been so successful and other reasons why, in the 21st century, it is possible that some other industrialized nations will surpass the U.S. standard of living. To understand those historical and possible future events, it is important first to understand what an economic system is and how that system affects the way people make decisions about buying, selling, spending, saving, investing, working, and taking time for leisure activities.

2. Population

According to the 2000 census, the United States was a nation of 282,338,631 people. In 2006 the U.S. Census Bureau estimated that the United States population had reached a milestone: 300 million people. This population count makes the United States the third most populous country in the world, after China and India. Nearly 5 percent of the Earth's inhabitants live in the United States. Historically, this nation has attracted vast numbers of immigrants from around the globe. Yet the United States remains less densely populated than other large countries or other industrialized nations—in 2007 there were 33 persons per sq km (85 per sq mi).

The population of the United States has grown continuously, from 4 million at the first national census in 1790, to 76 million in 1900, to 282 million in 2000. Its natural growth rate in 2007 was a moderate 0.6 percent compared with a 1.25 percent growth rate for the world. This U.S. growth rate reflects the 14.2 births and 8.3 deaths per 1,000 people that were occurring yearly in the United States. At this rate of growth, it would take the United States 78 years to double in population, while the world population would double in 55 years.

The diversity of the U.S. populace has been a source of friction, as well. Throughout the nation's history, some segments of American society have sought

to exclude people who differ from themselves in income, race, gender, religion, political beliefs, or sexual orientation. Even today, some citizens argue that recent arrivals to the United States are radically different from previous immigrants, can never be assimilated, and therefore should be barred from entry. There are very different understandings of what makes a person an American. The nation's motto, *E pluribus unum* ("From many, one"), describes the linguistic and cultural similarities of the American people, but it falls short as a description of the diversities among and within the major groups—Native Americans, those whose families have been Americans for generations, and more recent immigrants. This diversity is one of America's distinguishing characteristics.

3. Language

Almost every session of Congress, an amendment to the Constitution is proposed in Congress to adopt English as the official language of the United States. Other efforts have attempted to take the easier route of changing the U.S. Code to make English the official language. As of this writing, the efforts have not been successful.

Here is the text of a proposed amendment. This particular bill was introduced in the House of Representatives as H.J. Res. 16 (107th Congress):

The English language shall be the official language of the United States. As the official language, the English language shall be used for all public acts including every order, resolution, vote, or election, and for all records and judicial proceedings of the Government of the United States and the governments of the several States.

Also introduced in the 107th Congress was this text from H.R. 3333:

The Government of the United States shall preserve and enhance the role of English as the official language of the United States of America. Unless specifically stated in applicable law, no person has a right, entitlement, or claim to have the Government of the United States or any of its officials or representatives act, communicate, perform or provide services, or provide materials in any language other than English. If exceptions are made, that does not create a legal entitlement to additional services in that language or any language other than English.

The most recent efforts to promote English as the official language has come as more and more immigration from Spanish-speaking and Eastern nations (such as China and Vietnam) has brought an influx of non-English speakers to the United States. According to the 1990 Census, 13.8 percent of U.S. residents speak some non-English language at home. 2.9 percent, or 6.7 million people, did not speak English at all, or could not speak it well.

English-only proponents like U.S. English counter that English-only laws generally have exceptions for public safety and health needs. They note that English-only laws help governments save money by allowing publication of official documents in a single language, saving on translation and printing costs, and that English-only laws promote the learning of English by non-English speakers. One example offered is that of Canada, with two official languages, English and French.

According to U.S. English, the following states have existing official language laws on their books: Alabama, Alaska, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, North Carolina, North Dakota, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, Wyoming. A small handful date back more than a few decades, such as Louisiana (1811) and Nebraska (1920), but most official language statutes were passed since the 1970's.

4. Washington D.C.

The city of Washington, in the District of Columbia, and the four surrounding states of Virginia, West Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware are collectively known as the capital region. Since the days of the first American colonies, US history has been shaped here, from agitation toward independence to the battles of the Revolutionary and Civil wars, to 1960s Civil Rights milestones and current-day protest movements on issues like abortion and gay rights. Early in the seventeenth century, the first British settlements began to take root along the rich estuary of the Chesapeake Bay; the colonists hoped to find gold, but instead made their fortunes growing tobacco. Virginia, the first settlement, was the largest and most populous. Fully half of its people were slaves, brought from Africa to do the backbreaking work of harvesting tobacco. Despite its central position on the East Coast, almost all of the region lies below the Mason-Dixon Line – the symbolic border between North and South, drawn up in 1763 as the boundary between slave and free states – and until the Civil War one of the country's busiest slave markets was just two blocks from the White House. Tensions between North and South finally erupted into the Civil War, of which traces are still visible everywhere. The hundred miles between the capital of the Union – Washington DC – and that of the Confederacy – Richmond, Virginia – were a constant and bloody battleground for four long years.

Washington DC itself, with its magnificent monumental architecture, is an essential stop on any tour of the region – or of the country in general, for that matter. Virginia, to the south, is home to hundreds of historic sites, from the estates of early politicians to the Colonial capital of Williamsburg, as well as the narrow

forested heights of Shenandoah National Park, along the crest of the Blue Ridge Mountains. Much greater expanses of wilderness, crashing white-water rivers, and innumerable backwoods villages can be found in less-visited West Virginia. Most tourists come to Maryland for the maritime traditions of Chesapeake Bay – though many of its quaint old villages have been gentrified by weekend pleasureboaters. Baltimore is full of character, enjoyably unpretentious if a bit ramshackle (it has a phenomenal concentration of bars), while Annapolis, the pleasant state capital, is linked by bridge and ferry to the Eastern Shore, where Assateague Island remains an Atlantic paradise. New Castle, across the border in Delaware, is a perfectly preserved Colonial-era town, with some of the East Coast’s best and least crowded beaches nearby.

Questions

1. What is an ethnic group?
2. What is surprising about the official language of the USA?
3. Why is Washington D.C. so different from other world capitals?

LECTURE 13

- 1. American constitution(historical background)**
- 2. The Bill of rights**
- 3. American democracy**

American constitution

The Constitution of the United States is the world’s oldest charter of national government in continuous use. It was written in 1787 during the Constitutional Convention, which had been convened in the midst of the political crisis that followed the American Revolution. At that time relations were tense between the states and the acting central government, the Continental Congress. The Constitution was an effort to ease those tensions and to create a single political entity from the 13 independent former colonies—the ideal expressed in the motto of the United States, *E Pluribus Unum* (From Many, One). In 1788, after nine states ratified it, the Constitution became the law of the land. With 27 amendments—or additions—it has remained so.

Before the ratification of the Constitution, the states were governed under the Articles of Confederation, which served as a constitution. Under the articles, the central government was much weaker than the state governments. The men who drafted the Constitution favored a stronger central government. In the preamble—or introduction—to the Constitution, in which they stated their principles and

purposes, the Founders recognized the United States as a government of the people, not of the states. They saw their purpose as forming “a more perfect Union,” which, along with promoting the “general welfare,” would secure “the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity.”

One of the principal points of contention between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists was the lack of an enumeration of basic civil rights in the Constitution. Many Federalists argued, as in Federalist No. 84, that the people surrendered no rights in adopting the Constitution. In several states, however, the ratification debate in some states hinged on the adoption of a bill of rights. The solution was known as the Massachusetts Compromise, in which four states ratified the Constitution but at the same time sent recommendations for amendments to the Congress.

James Madison introduced 12 amendments to the First Congress in 1789. Ten of these would go on to become what we now consider to be the Bill of Rights. One was never passed, while another dealing with Congressional salaries was not ratified until 1992, when it became the 27th Amendment. Based on the Virginia Declaration of Rights, the English Bill of Rights, the writings of the Enlightenment, and the rights defined in the Magna Carta, the Bill of Rights contains rights that many today consider to be fundamental to America.

2. The Bill of rights

The Bill of Rights is the collective name for the first ten amendments to the United States Constitution.

The First Amendment provides that Congress make no law respecting an establishment of religion or prohibiting its free exercise. It protects freedom of speech, the press, assembly, and the right to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

The Second Amendment gives citizens the right to bear arms.

The Third Amendment prohibits the government from quartering troops in private homes, a major grievance during the American Revolution.

The Fourth Amendment protects citizens from unreasonable search and seizure. The government may not conduct any searches without a warrant, and such warrants must be issued by a judge and based on probable cause.

The Fifth Amendment provides that citizens not be subject to criminal prosecution and punishment without due process. Citizens may not be tried on the same set of facts twice, and are protected from self-incrimination (the right to remain silent). The amendment also establishes the power of eminent domain, ensuring that private property is not seized for public use without just compensation.

The Sixth Amendment assures the right to a speedy trial by a jury of one's peers, to be informed of the crimes with which they are charged, and to confront the witnesses brought by the government. The amendment also provides the accused the right to compel testimony from witnesses, and to legal representation.

The Seventh Amendment provides that civil cases also be tried by jury.

The Eighth Amendment prohibits excessive bail, excessive fines, and cruel and unusual punishments.

The Ninth Amendment states that the list of rights enumerated in the Constitution is not exhaustive, and that the people retain all rights not enumerated.

The Tenth Amendment assigns all powers not delegated to the United States, or prohibited to the states, to either the states or to the people.

The Constitution of the United States embodies the principle that out of many different peoples, one national society can be created. The Founders wanted unity and stability. But they also wanted to safeguard the rights and liberties of states and individuals by balancing power among individuals, states, and the national government. The result is a system of shared functions designed to prevent any one element from gaining too much power.

3. American democracy

United States Government, the combination of federal, state, and local laws, bodies, and agencies that is responsible for carrying out the operations of the United States. The federal government of the United States is centered in Washington, D.C.

The institutions of all governments emerge from basic principles. In the United States the one basic principle is representative democracy, which defines a system in which the people govern themselves by electing their own leaders. The American government functions to secure this principle and to further the common interests of the people.

Democracy in America is based on six essential ideals: (1) People must accept the principle of majority rule. (2) The political rights of minorities must be protected. (3) Citizens must agree to a system of rule by law. (4) The free exchange of opinions and ideas must not be restricted. (5) All citizens must be equal before the law. (6) Government exists to serve the people, because it derives its power from the people. These ideals form the basis of the democratic system in the United States, which seeks to create a union of diverse peoples, places, and interests.

To implement its essential democratic ideals, the United States has built its government on four elements: (1) popular sovereignty, meaning that the people are the ultimate source of the government's authority; (2) representative government;

(3) checks and balances; and (4) federalism, an arrangement where powers are shared by different levels of government.

Every government has a source of its sovereignty or authority, and most of the political structures of the U.S. government apply the doctrine of popular sovereignty. In previous centuries the source of sovereignty in some countries was the monarchy—the divine right of kings to rule. Americans place the source of authority in the people who, in a democratic society, reign. In this idea the citizens collectively represent the nation's authority. They then express that authority individually by voting to elect leaders to represent them in government. "I know no safe repository of the ultimate powers of the society but the people themselves," wrote Thomas Jefferson in 1820, "and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them but to inform their discretion." This was an experimental idea at the time, but today Americans take it for granted.

The second principle of U.S. democracy is representative government. In a representative government, the people delegate their powers to elected officials. In the United States, candidates compete for the presidency, the Senate, and the House of Representatives, as well as for many state and local positions. In turn these elected officials represent the will of the people and ensure that the government is accountable to its citizens. In a democracy, the people exercise power through elections, which allow adult citizens of the United States the chance to have their voices heard and to influence government. With their vote, they can remove officials who ignore their intentions or who betray their trust. Political leaders are accountable as agents of the people; this accountability is an important feature of the American system of representative government.

In order to truly work, however, representative government must represent all people. Originally, the only people allowed to vote, and thus to be represented, were white men who owned property—a small percentage of the population. Gradually, voting rights were broadened to include white men without property, blacks, Native Americans, naturalized immigrants, and women.

The third principle of American democracy is the system of checks and balances. The three branches of government—the legislative, the executive, and the judicial—restrain and stabilize one another through their separated functions. The legislative branch, represented by Congress, must pass bills before they can become law. The executive branch—namely, the president—can veto bills passed by Congress, thus preventing them from becoming law. In turn, by a two-thirds vote, Congress can override the president's veto. The Supreme Court may invalidate acts of Congress by declaring them contrary to the Constitution of the

United States, but Congress can change the Constitution through the amendment process.

The fourth principle of democracy in the United States is federalism. In the American federal system, the states and the national government divide authority. This division of power helps curb abuses by either the national or the state governments.

Questions

1. What is the Constitution?
2. What is the Bill of rights?
3. What are the essential ideas of American democracy?

LECTURE 14

- 1. Checks and balances**
- 2. Executive branch**
- 3. Legislative branch**
- 4. Judicial branch**
- 5. Political parties**

1. Checks and balances

In the United States Constitution, Article 1 Section I gives Congress only those "legislative powers herein granted" and proceeds to list those permissible actions in Article I Section 8, while Section 9 lists actions that are prohibited for Congress. The vesting clause in Article II places no limits on the Executive branch, simply stating that, "The Executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America." The Supreme Court holds "The judicial Power" according to Article III, and it established the implication of Judicial review in *Marbury v. Madison*. The federal government refers to the branches as "branches of government", while some systems use "government" to describe the executive. The Executive branch has attempted to claim power arguing for separation of powers to include being the Commander in Chief of a standing army since the American Civil War, executive orders, emergency powers and security classifications since World War II, national security, signing statements, and the scope of the unitary executive.

To prevent one branch from becoming supreme, protect the "opulent minority" from the majority, and to induce the branches to cooperate, government systems that employ a separation of powers need a way to balance each of the branches. Typically this was accomplished through a system of "**checks and**

balances", the origin of which, like separation of powers itself, is specifically credited to Montesquieu. Checks and balances allow for a system based regulation that allows one branch to limit another, such as the power of Congress to alter the composition and jurisdiction of the federal courts.

2. Executive branch

The power of the Executive Branch is vested in the President of the United States, who also acts as head of state and Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces. The President is responsible for implementing and enforcing the laws written by Congress and, to that end, appoints the heads of the federal agencies, including the Cabinet. The Vice President is also part of the Executive Branch, ready to assume the Presidency should the need arise.

The Cabinet and independent federal agencies are responsible for the day-to-day enforcement and administration of federal laws. These departments and agencies have missions and responsibilities as widely divergent as those of the Department of Defense and the Environmental Protection Agency, the Social Security Administration and the Securities and Exchange Commission.

The President has the power either to sign legislation into law or to veto bills enacted by Congress, although Congress may override a veto with a two-thirds vote of both houses. The Executive Branch conducts diplomacy with other nations, and the President has the power to negotiate and sign treaties, which also must be ratified by two-thirds of the Senate. The President can issue executive orders, which direct executive officers or clarify and further existing laws. The President also has unlimited power to extend pardons and clemencies for federal crimes, except in cases of impeachment.

The Constitution lists only three qualifications for the Presidency — the President must be 35 years of age, be a natural born citizen, and must have lived in the United States for at least 14 years. And though millions of Americans vote in a presidential election every four years, the President is not, in fact, directly elected by the people. Instead, on the first Tuesday in November of every fourth year, the people elect the members of the Electoral College. Apportioned by population to the 50 states — one for each member of their congressional delegation (with the District of Columbia receiving 3 votes) — these Electors then cast the votes for President. There are currently 538 electors in the Electoral College.

By tradition, the President and the First Family live in the White House in Washington, D.C., also the location of the President's Oval Office and the offices of the his senior staff. When the President travels by plane, his aircraft is designated Air Force One; he may also use a Marine Corps helicopter, known as Marine One while the President is on board. For ground travel, the President uses

an armored Presidential limousine, a fuel-efficient hybrid manufactured by General Motors.

The primary responsibility of the Vice President of the United States is to be ready at a moment's notice to assume the Presidency if the President is unable to perform his duties. This can be because of the President's death, resignation, or temporary incapacitation, or if the Vice President and a majority of the Cabinet judge that the President is no longer able to discharge the duties of the presidency.

The Vice President is elected along with the President by the Electoral College — each elector casts one vote for President and another for Vice President. Before the ratification of the 12th Amendment in 1804, electors only voted for President, and the person who received the second greatest number of votes became Vice President.

The Vice President also serves as the President of the United States Senate, where he or she casts the deciding vote in the case of a tie. Except in the case of tiebreaking votes, the Vice President rarely actually presides over the Senate. Instead, the Senate selects one of their own members, usually junior members of the majority party, to preside over the Senate each day.

The Cabinet is an advisory body made up of the heads of the 15 executive departments. Appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate, the members of the Cabinet are often the President's closest confidants. In addition to running major federal agencies, they play an important role in the Presidential line of succession — after the Vice President, Speaker of the House, and Senate President pro tempore, the line of succession continues with the Cabinet offices in the order in which the departments were created. All the members of the Cabinet take the title Secretary, excepting the head of the Justice Department, who is styled Attorney General.

3. Legislative branch

Established by Article I of the Constitution, the Legislative Branch consists of the House of Representatives and the Senate, which together form the United States Congress. The Constitution grants Congress the sole authority to enact legislation and declare war, the right to confirm or reject many Presidential appointments, and substantial investigative powers.

The House of Representatives is made up of 435 elected members, divided among the 50 states in proportion to their total population. In addition, there are 6 non-voting members, representing the District of Columbia, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, and five territories of the United States. The presiding officer of the chamber is the Speaker of the House, elected by the Representatives. He or she is third in the line of succession to the Presidency.

Members of the House are elected every two years and must be 25 years of age, a U.S. citizen for at least seven years, and a resident of the state (but not necessarily the district) they represent.

The House has several powers assigned exclusively to it, including the power to initiate revenue bills, impeach federal officials, and elect the President in the case of an electoral college tie.

The Senate is composed of 100 Senators, 2 for each state. Until the ratification of the 17th Amendment in 1913, Senators were chosen by state legislatures, not by popular vote. Since then, they have been elected to six-year terms by the people of each state. Senator's terms are staggered so that about one-third of the Senate is up for reelection every two years. Senators must be 30 years of age, U.S. citizens for at least nine years, and residents of the state they represent.

The Vice President of the United States serves as President of the Senate and may cast the decisive vote in the event of a tie in the Senate.

The Senate has the sole power to confirm those of the President's appointments that require consent, and to ratify treaties. There are, however, two exceptions to this rule: the House must also approve appointments to the Vice Presidency and any treaty that involves foreign trade. The Senate also tries impeachment cases for federal officials referred to it by the House.

Congress has many powers and responsibilities. The most important of these is lawmaking. Lawmaking is a long and complicated process, and takes up a large portion of representatives' and senators' time. Only a small percentage of the bills introduced to Congress actually become law.

In order to pass legislation and send it to the President for his signature, both the House and the Senate must pass the same bill by majority vote. If the President vetoes a bill, they may override his veto by passing the bill again in each chamber with at least two-thirds of each body voting in favor.

4. Judicial branch

While the Executive and Legislative branches are elected by the people, members of the Judicial Branch are appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate.

Article III of the Constitution, which establishes the Judicial Branch, leaves Congress significant discretion to determine the shape and structure of the federal judiciary. Even the number of Supreme Court Justices is left to Congress — at times there have been as few as six, while the current number (nine, with one Chief Justice and eight Associate Justices) has only been in place since 1869. The Constitution also grants Congress the power to establish courts inferior to the Supreme Court, and to that end Congress has established the United States district

courts, which try most federal cases, and 13 United States courts of appeals, which review appealed district court cases.

Federal judges can only be removed through impeachment by the House of Representatives and conviction in the Senate. Judges and justices serve no fixed term — they serve until their death, retirement, or conviction by the Senate. By design, this insulates them from the temporary passions of the public, and allows them to apply the law with only justice in mind, and not electoral or political concerns.

Generally, Congress determines the jurisdiction of the federal courts. In some cases, however — such as in the example of a dispute between two or more U.S. states — the Constitution grants the Supreme Court original jurisdiction, an authority that cannot be stripped by Congress.

The courts only try actual cases and controversies — a party must show that it has been harmed in order to bring suit in court. This means that the courts do not issue advisory opinions on the constitutionality of laws or the legality of actions if the ruling would have no practical effect. Cases brought before the judiciary typically proceed from district court to appellate court and may even end at the Supreme Court, although the Supreme Court hears comparatively few cases each year.

Federal courts enjoy the sole power to interpret the law, determine the constitutionality of the law, and apply it to individual cases. The courts, like Congress, can compel the production of evidence and testimony through the use of a subpoena. The inferior courts are constrained by the decisions of the Supreme Court — once the Supreme Court interprets a law, inferior courts must apply the Supreme Court's interpretation to the facts of a particular case.

The Supreme Court of the United States is the highest court in the land and the only part of the federal judiciary specifically required by the Constitution. The Constitution does not stipulate the number of Supreme Court Justices; the number is set instead by Congress. There have been as few as six, but since 1869 there have been nine Justices, including one Chief Justice. All Justices are nominated by the President, confirmed by the Senate, and hold their offices under life tenure. Since Justices do not have to run or campaign for re-election, they are thought to be insulated from political pressure when deciding cases. Justices may remain in office until they resign, pass away, or are impeached and convicted by Congress.

5. Political parties

Political parties are the most representative, inclusive organizations in the United States. They are made up of citizens who may differ in race, religion, age, and economic and social background, but who share certain perspectives on public issues and leaders. Parties are the engines that drive the machinery of elections:

They recruit candidates for office, organize primary elections so that party members can select their candidates for the general election, and support their candidates who reach the general election. Parties also write platforms, which state the direction that party members want the government to take. Parties have traditionally played a crucial role in educating Americans about issues and in getting out the vote.

For most of America's history, a competitive two-party system has prevailed, and third parties have been the exception. This is a result of the U.S. electoral system in which the winner takes all. Since there is no proportional representation, losers get nothing. Thus a vote for a third party is usually a lost vote.

Originally the Founders opposed political parties, believing them to be factions intent on manipulating the independent will of voters. But by the early 19th century political parties had become the most important political organizations in the United States. They made certain that their members got to the polls. They also organized members of Congress into stable voting blocs based on party affiliation. These blocs united the legislators and helped the president create a party alliance between the executive and legislative branches. Since the mid-1850s, when the Republican Party was formed, the two major parties in the United States have been the Republican and the Democratic parties. The Democratic Party traces its beginnings to the Jeffersonian Democratic-Republicans.

In the 19th century, political parties were powerful enough that they could often motivate voting turnouts of over 80 percent. Today, parties are less important. Slightly more than one-third of all Americans call themselves independents with no party affiliation, and voting in presidential contests—which traditionally have the highest turnout—has declined to 50 percent. At the same time, the platforms of the two major parties have shifted towards vague, moderate positions in order to appeal to the largest number of voters. As a result, the major parties may appear so similar that many voters lose interest.

Within American political culture, the Republican Party is considered center-right or "conservative" and the Democratic Party is considered center-left or "liberal". The states of the Northeast and West Coast and some of the Great Lakes states, known as "blue states", are relatively liberal. The "red states" of the South and parts of the Great Plains and Rocky Mountains are relatively conservative.

Questions

1. What is the system of checks and balances?
2. What are the three branches of government in the USA?
3. What are the main political parties?

LECTURE 15

- 1. Educational authorities**
- 2. School education**
- 3. Higher education.**

1. Educational authorities

Education in the United States is mainly provided by the public sector, with control and funding coming from three levels: local, state, and federal, in that order. Child education is compulsory, and there are also a large number and wide variety of higher education institutions throughout the country that one can choose to attend, both publicly and privately administered.

Public education is universally available. School curricula, funding, teaching, employment, and other policies are set through locally elected school boards with jurisdiction over school districts with many directives from state legislatures. School districts are usually separate from other local jurisdictions, with independent officials and budgets. Educational standards and standardized testing decisions are usually made by state governments.

The ages for compulsory education vary by state. It begins from ages five to eight and ends from ages fourteen to eighteen. Compulsory education requirements can generally be satisfied by educating children in public schools, state-certified private schools, or an approved home school program. In most public and private schools, education is divided into three levels: elementary school, middle school (sometimes called junior high school), and high school (sometimes referred to as secondary education).

In almost all schools at these levels, children are divided by age groups into grades, ranging from kindergarten (followed by first grade) for the youngest children in elementary school, up to twelfth grade, the final year of high school. The exact age range of students in these grade levels varies slightly from area to area.

Post-secondary education, better known as "college" in the United States, is generally governed separately from the elementary and high school system, and is described in a separate section below.

A standardized test is a test that is administered and scored in a consistent, or "standard", manner. Standardized tests are designed in such a way that the questions, conditions for administering, scoring procedures, and interpretations are consistent and are administered and scored in a predetermined, standard manner.

Any test in which the same test is given in the same manner to all test takers is a standardized test. Standardized tests need not be high-stakes tests, time-limited tests, or multiple-choice tests. The opposite of a standardized test is a non-standardized test. Non-standardized testing gives significantly different tests to

different test takers, or gives the same test under significantly different conditions (e.g., one group is permitted far less time to complete the test than the next group), or evaluates them differently (e.g., the same answer is counted right for one student, but wrong for another student).

Standardized tests are perceived as being more fair than non-standardized tests. The consistency also permits more reliable comparison of outcomes across all test takers.

2. 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 degree are contained in the record of studies leading to it and grades (marks) obtained, called a Transcript. Transcripts are official documents authenticated with the seal of the school or institution and signed by the registrar.

3. Higher 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 privately derived but popular Carnegie Classification organizes U.S. institutions according to different schemes. 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.

Questions

1. What is the education system of the USA?
2. What is called a school education in the USA?
3. What is the aim of the higher education?

LECTURE 16

- 1. University level studies.**
- 2. Research Doctorate.**
- 3. Famous Universities.**
- 4. Science.**

1. University level studies

University level first stage: Associate Degree, Bachelor Degree, Advanced Certificate, First Professional Degree.

The Associate degree is the first academic or professional degree that can be awarded in U.S. postsecondary education. Holders of this degree may apply to enter higher degree programmes at the Bachelor's level, but are not qualified to apply directly for advanced (graduate) studies programmes. Programmes of study for this degree are usually designed to take 2 years of full-time study, but some take longer to complete. Those who pursue this degree on a part-time basis also take longer than 2 years to complete their studies. The Associate degree may be awarded in the liberal arts and general studies as an academic qualification or it may be awarded in a professional occupational field. Some professional career programmes at the Associate level are terminal vocational programmes that do not lead to further study, while others do so. Associate degree programmes generally fulfil 2 years of the course requirements needed for a Bachelor's degree. Credit for Associate degree studies is usually transferable to Bachelor's degree programmes, especially where transfer agreements have been established between or among institutions. The Bachelor's degree is the second academic degree that can be awarded in U.S. postsecondary education, and is one of two undergraduate (first) degrees that qualify a student to apply to programmes of advanced (graduate) study (the other such degree is the first-professional degree). Programmes of study for this degree are designed to take between 4 and 5 years, depending on the field of study. Part-time students may take longer to complete the degree requirements. Honours programmes are offered by many institutions that award the Bachelor's degree. These generally require the completion of additional requirements such as preparation of an undergraduate thesis, honours paper or project, advanced coursework, or special examinations. Advanced certificates requiring a year or less of study following (and sometimes accompanying) completion of a Bachelor's are sometimes awarded to signify a concentration in a sub-specialization or completion of a related set of competences. First professional degrees comprise a limited number of second first degrees. Students are only admitted to first professional degree programmes after completing most, or all, of a Bachelor's degree programme in another subject. Thus, first-professional degrees are considered graduate-level degrees for purposes of admissions and student financial assistance. The study content of the first professional degree programmes is undergraduate in

nature and the degrees are prerequisites for entry-level access to certain regulated professions. Confusion sometimes arises because several first professional degrees use the term 'doctor' in the title even though they are not advanced research degrees. First professional degrees are awarded in Medicine (MD), Dentistry (DDS/DMD), Veterinary Medicine (DVM), Osteopathic Medicine (DO), Optometry (OD), Paediatrics (DPM), Chiropractic (DC), Pharmacy (D.Pharm), Divinity (M.Div), Rabbinics (MHL/Rav), and Law (JD).

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. U.S. Master's degrees may be taught (without thesis) or research (with thesis) and may be awarded in academic or professional fields. Most Master's degrees are designed to take 2 years of full-time study, although the time may vary depending upon the subject, the preparation achieved by the student at the undergraduate level, the structure of the programme, and whether the degree is pursued on a full- or a part-time basis. Research-based Master's degrees generally require completion of a series of advanced course and seminar requirements, comprehensive examinations, and an independent thesis. Non-research Master's degrees generally require completion of a special project as well as coursework and examinations. Both types of Master's degree also require the satisfaction of special requirements (such as linguistic or quantitative skill) or a combination. U.S. awards that fall between the Master's and the research doctorate may be of several types, but all of them fall within the second stage of U.S. higher education. Examples of awards given at this level include the degree of Education Specialist (E.Sp. or Ed.S.) and Certificates and Diplomas of Advanced Study (C.A.E., D.A.E.).

2. Research Doctorate

The Research Doctorate represents the third and highest stage of higher education in the United States and may be awarded in academic disciplines and some professional fields of study. This degree is not awarded by examination or coursework only, but requires demonstrated mastery of the chosen subject and the ability to conduct independent, original research. Doctoral programmes require intensive study and research in at least one subfield and professional level competence in several others. Following a series of research seminars designed to prepare the individual research proposal, come candidate examinations (covering at least two subfields in addition to the field of research focus, one of which must be in a subject outside the doctoral student's own faculty but related to his/her research). If the candidate examinations are passed at a satisfactory standard (excellent or higher), the student is advanced to candidacy for the doctorate and

selects a research committee of senior faculty who will approve the dissertation topic, monitor progress, and examine the student when the research is finished. The conduct of research and preparation of the dissertation can take anywhere from one to several years depending on the chosen subject, available research funding, and the location of the research. When the dissertation is finished and approved as a document by the chair of the research committee, that individual convenes the full committee plus any outside faculty and public guests and presides over the candidate's oral defense of the dissertation. An unanimous vote of the research committee and examiners is generally required to award the doctorate. Most doctoral degrees take at least 4 or 5 years of full-time study and research after the award of a Bachelor's degree or at least 2 to 3 years following a Master's degree. The actual time to obtain the degree varies depending upon the subject and the structure of the programme. Research Doctorates are awarded in the academic disciplines and for theoretical research in some professional fields. The most common of such degrees is the Doctor of Philosophy (PhD). There are a variety of equivalent degree titles used in some institutions and disciplines

3. Famous Universities

Yale University is an American private Ivy League research university located in New Haven, Connecticut. Yale's roots can be traced back to the 1640s, when colonial clergymen led an effort to establish a college in New Haven to preserve the tradition of European liberal education in the New World. This vision was fulfilled in 1701, when the charter was granted for a school "wherein Youth may be instructed in the Arts and Sciences [and] through the blessing of Almighty God may be fitted for Publick employment both in Church and Civil State." In 1718 the school was renamed "Yale College" in gratitude to the Welsh merchant Elihu Yale, who had donated the proceeds from the sale of nine bales of goods together with 417 books and a portrait of King George I.

Yale College survived the American Revolutionary War (1775–1783) intact and, by the end of its first hundred years, had grown rapidly. The nineteenth and twentieth centuries brought the establishment of the graduate and professional schools that would make Yale a true university. The Yale School of Medicine was chartered in 1810, followed by the Divinity School in 1822, the Law School in 1824, and the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences in 1847 (which, in 1861, awarded the first Ph.D. in the United States), followed by the schools of Art in 1869, Music in 1894, Forestry & Environmental Studies in 1900, Nursing in 1923, Drama in 1955, Architecture in 1972, and Management in 1974.

International students have made their way to Yale since the 1830s, when the first Latin American student enrolled. The first Chinese citizen to earn a degree at a

Western college or university came to Yale in 1850. Today, international students make up nearly 9 percent of the undergraduate student body, and 16 percent of all students at the University. Yale's distinguished faculty includes many who have been trained or educated abroad and many whose fields of research have a global emphasis; and international studies and exchanges play an increasingly important role in the Yale College curriculum. The University began admitting women students at the graduate level in 1869, and as undergraduates in 1969.

Yale College was transformed, beginning in the early 1930s, by the establishment of residential colleges. Taking medieval English universities such as Oxford and Cambridge as its model, this distinctive system divides the undergraduate population into twelve separate communities of approximately 450 members each, thereby enabling Yale to offer its students both the intimacy of a small college environment and the vast resources of a major research university. Each college surrounds a courtyard and occupies up to a full city block, providing a congenial community where residents live, eat, socialize, and pursue a variety of academic and extracurricular activities. Each college has a master and dean, as well as a number of resident faculty members known as fellows, and each has its own dining hall, library, seminar rooms, recreation lounges, and other facilities.

Harvard University is an American private Ivy League research university located in Cambridge, Massachusetts, United States, established in 1636 by the Massachusetts legislature.

The name Harvard comes from the college's first benefactor, the young minister John Harvard of Charlestown. Upon his death in 1638, he left his library and half his estate to the institution established in 1636 by vote of the Great and General Court of the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

In 1636 a college was founded in Cambridge by the Great and General Court of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. It was opened for instruction two years later and named in 1639 for English clergyman John Harvard, its first benefactor. The college at first lacked substantial endowments and existed on gifts from individuals and the General Court. Harvard gradually acquired considerable autonomy and private financial support, becoming a chartered university in 1780. Today it has the largest private endowment of any university in the world.

Harvard's academic programs operate on a semester calendar beginning in early September and ending in mid-May. Undergraduates typically take four half-courses per term and must maintain a four-course rate average to be considered full-time.¹ In many concentrations, students can elect to pursue a basic program or an honors-eligible program requiring a senior thesis and/or advanced course work. Students graduating in the top 4-5% of the class are awarded degrees *summa cum laude*, students in the next 15% of the class are awarded *magna cum laude*, and the

next 30% of the class are awarded *cum laude*. Harvard has chapters of academic honor societies such as Phi Beta Kappa and various committees and departments also award several hundred named prizes annually.

4. Science

Alexander Graham Bell

Though he was born in Scotland and spent some time in Ontario, Alexander Graham Bell didn't actually start inventing until he settled in Boston and became an American citizen. And it's a good thing he did, because without Graham Bell we wouldn't have one of our most valued inventions: the telephone.

With both a mother and a wife who were unable to hear, inventor Alexander Graham Bell took an active interest in the deaf. Like his father, he taught deaf people and worked as a speech therapist. In fact, he first developed his phonograph invention, a device that draws vibrations from the human voice, to help deaf students visualize sound. Eventually, this invention would evolve into what we now know as the telephone.

Henry Ford

Contrary to popular belief, Henry Ford did not invent the automobile. While his Ford Motor Company did produce the vehicle that initiated a new era in personal transportation (the Model T), the invention of the first automobile is generally credited to Karl Benz of Germany. In fact, Henry Ford's most important contribution was actually the invention of the moving assembly line.

Prior to Ford's invention, factory employees would work in groups to build one car at a time. By installing a moving assembly line in his factory, workers instead began to build cars one piece at a time – with each individual responsible for a specific job. This division of labor allowed cars to be produced both more quickly and efficiently. With the addition of the world's first automatic conveyor belt, Henry Ford's factory in Michigan was soon producing a car every 93 minutes.

Samuel F.B. Morse

Like a lot of other American inventors, Samuel F.B. Morse was fairly eclectic in his interests. He was a well-known portrait painter and the first president of the National Academy of Design. He also ran for office several times, patented three new pumps and studied electricity. Ultimately, his interests would lead him to his most famous accomplishment: inventing the electric telegraph.

Inspired by a conversation he overheard about electromagnetism on a ship ride from Europe, inventor Samuel Morse conceived the idea for an electric telegraph (though, unbeknownst to him, the idea was not exactly new). The concept of his invention was that pulses of electricity could be used to communicate information over wires.

Questions

4. Discuss educational stages of the USA and compare them with the ones in your country.
5. What are the famous universities? What is the reason of their fame?
6. What other American inventions do you know?

LECTURE 17

1. Art
2. Architecture
3. Literature

1. Art

After the Declaration of Independence in 1776, which marked the official beginning of the American national identity, the new nation needed a history, and part of that history would be expressed visually. Most of early American art (from the late 18th century through the early 19th century) consists of history painting and portraits. Painters such as Gilbert Stuart made portraits of the newly elected government officials, while John Singleton Copley was painting emblematic portraits for the increasingly prosperous merchant class, and painters such as John Trumbull were making large battle scenes of the Revolutionary War.

America's first well-known school of painting—the Hudson River School—appeared in 1820. As with music and literature, this development was delayed until artists perceived that the New World offered subjects unique to itself; in this case the westward expansion of settlement brought the transcendent beauty of frontier landscapes to painters' attention.

The Hudson River painters' directness and simplicity of vision influenced such later artists as Winslow Homer (1836-1910), who depicted rural America—the sea, the mountains, and the people who lived near them. Middle-class city life found its painter in Thomas Eakins (1844-1916), an uncompromising realist whose unflinching honesty undercut the genteel preference for romantic sentimentalism. Henry Ossawa Tanner who studied with Thomas Eakins was one of the first important African American painters.

Paintings of the Great West, particularly the act of conveying the sheer size of the land and the cultures of the native people living on it, were starting to emerge as well. Artists such as George Catlin broke from traditional styles of showing

land, most often done to show how much a subject owned, to show the West and its people as honestly as possible.

Many painters who are considered American spent some time in Europe and met other European artists in Paris and London, such as Mary Cassatt and Whistler.

After World War I many American artists also rejected the modern trends emanating from the Armory Show and European influences such as those from the School of Paris. Instead they chose to adopt academic realism in depicting American urban and rural scenes. Charles Sheeler, and Charles Demuth were referred to as Precisionists and the artists from the Ashcan school or American realism: notably George Bellows, Everett Shinn, George Benjamin Luks, William Glackens, and John Sloan and others developed socially conscious imagery in their works.

Following World War I, the completion of the Santa Fe Railroad enabled American settlers to travel across the west, as far as the California coast. New artists' colonies started growing up around Santa Fe and Taos, the artists primary subject matter being the native people and landscapes of the Southwest. Images of the Southwest became a popular form of advertising, used most significantly by the Santa Fe Railroad to entice settlers to come west and enjoy the "unsullied landscapes." Walter Ufer, Bert Greer Phillips, E. Irving Couse, William Henry Jackson, and Georgia O'Keeffe are some of the more prolific artists of the Southwest.

In the years after World War II, a group of New York artists formed the first American movement to exert major influence internationally: abstract expressionism. This term, which had first been used in 1919 in Berlin, was used again in 1946 by Robert Coates in The New York Times, and was taken up by the two major art critics of that time, Harold Rosenberg and Clement Greenberg. It has always been criticized as too large and paradoxical, yet the common definition implies the use of abstract art to express feelings, emotions, what is within the artist, and not what stands without.

The emphasis and intensification of color and large open expanses of surface were two of the principles applied to the movement called Color field Painting. Ad Reinhardt, Adolph Gottlieb, Mark Rothko, Clyfford Still and Barnett Newman were categorized as such. Another movement was called Action Painting, characterized by spontaneous reaction, powerful brushstrokes, dripped and splashed paint and the strong physical movements used in the production of a painting.

During the 1950s abstract painting in America evolved into movements such as Neo-Dada, Post painterly abstraction, Op Art, hard-edge painting, Minimal art,

Shaped canvas painting, Lyrical Abstraction, and the continuation of Abstract expressionism.

Members of the next artistic generation favored a different form of abstraction: works of mixed media. Among them were Robert Rauschenberg (1925-2008) and Jasper Johns (1930-), who used photos, newsprint, and discarded objects in their compositions. Pop artists, such as Andy Warhol (1930-1987), Larry Rivers (1923-2002), and Roy Lichtenstein (1923-1997), reproduced, with satiric care, everyday objects and images of American popular culture—Coca-Cola bottles, soup cans, comic strips. Realism has also been popular in the United States, despite modernist tendencies, such as the city scenes by Edward Hopper and the illustrations of Norman Rockwell. In certain places, for example Chicago, Abstract Expressionism never caught on; in Chicago, the dominant art style was grotesque, symbolic realism, as exemplified by the Chicago Imagists Cosmo Campoli (1923-1997), Jim Nutt (1938-), Ed Paschke (1939-2004), and Nancy Spero (1926-2009)

2. Architecture

Architecture that developed in the European colonies in America and subsequently in the United States is called American. This development covers a period of almost five centuries, beginning with the establishment of Saint Augustine in Florida in 1565, English settlement along the Atlantic Coast in 1585, and Spanish settlement in New Mexico in 1598. Settlers from France, Sweden, The Netherlands, Germany, and other countries arrived in the 1600s.

The full history of building in what became the United States reaches back 10,000 years, but European settlers almost universally ignored the many building traditions of Native American peoples. Over the five centuries after European arrival, transplanted European building traditions were gradually reshaped and redefined. They emerged as distinctly American building traditions by the early 19th century. Each of the European colonies in North America developed its own building tradition.

In the 1800s innovations in technology and the spread of railroads made possible the rapid growth of the Midwest and West. Mass-produced building parts, manufactured in the East, could be ordered from catalogs and shipped West by rail. A major fire in 1871 destroyed downtown Chicago, Illinois, and offered building opportunities for American architects, who over the next 25 years developed the first skyscrapers. This brand-new building type, devised in the United States, influenced architecture around the world from the late 1800s into the 2000s. During the 20th century architects and entrepreneurs vied to build the tallest skyscraper—a contest that continues today. Another unique building type developed in America was the single-family suburban house—a detached or stand-

alone building, as opposed to the attached or semiattached suburban house popular elsewhere. It, too, influenced architecture outside the United States.

The emigration of European architects in the 1930s and 1940s brought European modernism to the United States, and in the second half of the 20th century America became a major architectural force. By the late 1900s and early 2000s American architects worked around the globe, while architects from Japan and Spain, to mention only two examples, received commissions for major public buildings in the United States.

3. Literature

From the beginning America was unique in the diversity of its inhabitants; over time they arrived from all parts of the world. Although English quickly became the language of America, regional and ethnic dialects have enlivened and enriched the country's literature almost from the start. Today American prose encompasses a variety of traditions and voices that share a common context: the geographical region now known as the United States. Native American literatures, which were largely oral at the time of colonial settlement, stand apart as a separate tradition that is itself strong and varied.

For its first 200 years American prose reflected the settlement and growth of the American colonies, largely through histories, religious writings, and expedition and travel narratives. Biography also played an important role, especially in America's search for native heroes. Fiction appeared only after the colonies gained independence, when the clamor for a uniquely American literature brought forth novels based on events in America's past. With a flowering of prose in the mid-1800s, the young nation found its own voice. By then fiction had become the dominant literary genre in America.

In the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, American art and literature took most of its cues from Europe. Writers such as Nathaniel Hawthorne, Edgar Allan Poe, and Henry David Thoreau established a distinctive American literary voice by the middle of the 19th century. Mark Twain and poet Walt Whitman were major figures in the century's second half; Emily Dickinson, virtually unknown during her lifetime, is now recognized as an essential American poet. A work seen as capturing fundamental aspects of the national experience and character—such as Herman Melville's *Moby-Dick* (1851), Twain's *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (1885), and F. Scott Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby* (1925)—may be dubbed the "Great American Novel."

In the 20th century, American literature took its place on the world stage and began to exert influence on other literatures. Eleven U.S. citizens have won the Nobel Prize in Literature, most recently Toni Morrison in 1993. Ernest

Hemingway, the 1954 Nobel laureate, is often named as one of the most influential writers of the 20th century. Popular literary genres such as the Western and hardboiled crime fiction developed in the United States.

American literature at the beginning of the 21st century is exceptionally diverse, with rapidly growing multicultural influences. New voices continue to emerge within the Native American, African American, Asian American, and Hispanic American communities, even as writers in previously unrepresented ethnic minorities join their ranks.

Questions

1. How many American citizens won the Nobel Prize in literature?
2. What influenced American literature in the XVI cent.?
3. Describe the most successful examples of American art and architecture.

LECTURE 18

- 1. Music**
- 2. Cinema**
- 3. Awards**

1. Music

The music of the United States reflects the country's multi-ethnic population through a diverse array of styles. Rock and roll, blues, country, rhythm and blues, jazz, pop, techno, and hip hop are among the country's most internationally-renowned genres. The United States has the world's largest music industry 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 musics. 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 Seattle, New York City, New Orleans, Detroit, Minneapolis, Chicago, Nashville, Austin, and Los Angeles, many smaller cities 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.

2. Cinema

Much like American popular music, the cinema of the United States has had a profound effect on cinema across the world since the early 20th century. Its history is sometimes separated into four main periods: the silent era, Classical Hollywood cinema, New Hollywood, and the contemporary period (after 1980).

The first recorded instance of photographs capturing and reproducing motion was Eadweard Muybridge's series of photographs of a running horse, which he captured in Palo Alto, California, using a set of still cameras placed in a row. Muybridge's accomplishment led inventors everywhere to attempt forming devices that would similarly capture such motion. In the United States, Thomas Alva Edison was among the first to produce such a device, the *kinetoscope*, whose heavy-handed patent enforcement caused early filmmakers to look for alternatives.

In the United States, the first exhibitions of films for large audiences typically followed the intermissions in vaudeville shows. Entrepreneurs began travelling to exhibit their films, bringing to the world the first forays into dramatic filmmaking. The first huge success of American cinema, as well as the largest experimental achievement to its point, was *The Great Train Robbery*, directed by Edwin S. Porter.

In early 1910, director D.W. Griffith was sent by the Biograph Company to the west coast with his acting troop consisting of actors Blanche Sweet, Lillian Gish, Mary Pickford, Lionel Barrymore, and others. They started filming on a vacant lot near Georgia Street in downtown Los Angeles. The company decided while there to explore new territories and travelled several miles north to a little village that was friendly and enjoyed the movie company filming there. This place was called "Hollywood". Griffith then filmed the first movie ever shot in Hollywood, *In Old California*, a Biograph melodrama about California in the 1800s, while it belonged to Mexico. Biograph stayed there for months and made several films before returning to New York. After hearing about this wonderful place, in 1913 many movie-makers headed west to avoid the fees imposed by

Thomas Edison, who owned patents on the movie-making process. In Los Angeles, California, the studios and Hollywood grew. Before World War I, movies were made in several U.S. cities, but filmmakers gravitated to southern California as the industry developed. They were attracted by the mild climate and reliable sunlight, which made it possible to film movies outdoors year-round, and by the varied scenery that was available. There are several starting points for American cinema, but it was Griffith's *Birth of a Nation* that pioneered the filmic vocabulary that still dominates celluloid to this day.

In the early 1900s, when the medium was new, many immigrants, particularly Jews, found employment in the U.S. film industry. Kept out of other occupations by religious prejudice, they were able to make their mark in a brand-new business: the exhibition of short films in storefront theaters called nickelodeons, after their admission price of a nickel (five cents). Within a few years, ambitious men like Samuel Goldwyn, Carl Laemmle, Adolph Zukor, Louis B. Mayer, and the Warner Brothers (Harry, Albert, Samuel, and Jack) had switched to the production side of the business. Soon they were the heads of a new kind of enterprise: the movie studio. (It is worth noting that the US had at least one female director, producer and studio head in these early years, Alice Guy Blaché.) They also set the stage for the industry's internationalism; the industry is often accused of Amero-centric provincialism, but simultaneously employs a huge number of foreign-born talent: from Swedish actress Greta Garbo to Australian Nicole Kidman, from Hungarian director Michael Curtiz to Mexican director Alfonso Cuarón.

Other moviemakers arrived from Europe after World War I: directors like Ernst Lubitsch, Alfred Hitchcock, Fritz Lang, and Jean Renoir; and actors like Rudolph Valentino, Marlene Dietrich, Ronald Colman, and Charles Boyer. They joined a homegrown supply of actors--lured west from the New York City stage after the introduction of sound films--to form one of the 20th century's most remarkable growth industries. At motion pictures' height of popularity in the mid-1940s, the studios were cranking out a total of about 400 movies a year, seen by an audience of 90 million Americans per week.

During the so-called Golden Age of Hollywood, which lasted from the virtual end of the silent era in the late 1920s to towards the end of the 1940s, movies issued from the Hollywood studios like the cars rolling off Henry Ford's assembly lines. No two movies were exactly the same, but most followed a formula: Western, slapstick comedy, film noir, musical, animated cartoon, biopic (biographical picture), etc, and the same creative teams often worked on films made by the same studio - for instance, Cedric Gibbons and Herbert Stothart always worked on MGM films, Alfred Newman worked at Twentieth Century Fox for twenty years, Cecil B. De Mille's films were almost all made at Paramount,

director Henry King's films were mostly made for Twentieth-Century Fox, etc. And one could usually guess which studio made which film, largely because of the actors who appeared in it. Each studio had its own style and characteristic touches which made it possible to know this - a trait that does not exist today. Yet each movie was a little different, and, unlike the craftsmen who made cars, many of the people who made movies were artists. For example, *To Have and Have Not* (1944) is famous not only for the first pairing of actors Humphrey Bogart (1899- 1957) and Lauren Bacall (1924-) but also for being written by two future winners of the Nobel Prize in Literature: Ernest Hemingway (1899- 1961), author of the novel on which the script was nominally based, and William Faulkner (1897- 1962), who worked on the screen adaptation.

Moviemaking was still a business, however, and motion picture companies made money by operating under the so-called studio system. The major studios kept thousands of people on salary--actors, producers, directors, writers, stuntmen, craftspersons, and technicians. And they owned hundreds of theaters in cities and towns across the nation--theaters that showed their films and that were always in need of fresh material.

3. Awards

A Grammy Award (originally called Gramophone Award) – or Grammy – is an accolade by the National Academy of Recording Arts and Sciences of the United States to recognize outstanding achievement in the music industry. The annual presentation ceremony features performances by prominent artists, and some of the awards of more popular interest are presented in a widely viewed televised ceremony. It is the music equivalent to the Emmy Awards for television, the Tony Awards for stage performances, and the Academy Awards for motion pictures.

The first Grammy Awards ceremony was held on May 4, 1959, and it was set up to honor musical accomplishments by performers for the year 1958. Following the 2011 ceremony, NARAS overhauled many Grammy Award categories for 2012. The 54th Grammy Awards were held on February 12, 2012, at the Staples Center in Los Angeles, California.

The American Music Awards, (AMA) is an annual American music awards show, created by Dick Clark in 1973 for ABC when the network's contract to present the Grammy Awards expired. Unlike the Grammys, which are awarded on the basis of votes by members of the Recording Academy, the AMAs are determined by a poll of the public and music buyers.

The 40th American Music Awards was held on November 18, 2012 at the Nokia Theatre in Los Angeles. The awards recognized the most popular artists and albums from the year 2012.

The Academy Awards, officially re-branded as The Oscars, are a set of awards given annually for excellence of cinematic achievements. The Oscar statuette is officially named the Academy Award of Merit and is one of nine types of Academy Awards. Organized and overseen by the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences, the awards are given each year at a formal ceremony. The AMPAS was originally conceived by Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer studio executive Louis B. Mayer as a professional honorary organization to help improve the film industry's image and help mediate labor disputes. The awards themselves were later initiated by the Academy as awards "of merit for distinctive achievement" in the industry.

The awards were first given in 1929 at a ceremony created for the awards, at the Hotel Roosevelt in Hollywood. Over the years that the award has been given, the categories presented have changed; currently Oscars are given in more than a dozen categories, and include films of various types. As one of the most prominent award ceremonies in the world, the Academy Awards ceremony is televised live in more than 100 countries annually.

Questions

4. What is the main peculiarity of American music?
5. What do "the New Hollywood" and "post-classical cinema" terms mean?
6. Why is it so prestigious to get award in music or cinema?

LECTURE 19

- 1. Sports**
- 2. Media**
- 3. Holidays**
- 4. Customs**

1. Sports

Sports in the United States are an important part of the American culture. However, the sporting culture of the U.S. is unique from that of many other countries. Compared to any other nation, American preferences for sports differ from the rest of the world. For example, professional soccer is not as popular in the United States as it is in many parts of the world.

Baseball is the oldest of the major American team sports. Professional baseball dates from 1869 and had no close rivals in popularity until the 1960s;

though baseball is no longer the most popular sport it is still referred to as the "national pastime." Also unlike the professional levels of the other popular spectator sports in the U.S., Major League Baseball teams play almost every day from April to October. American football now attracts more television viewers than baseball; however, National Football League teams play only 16 regular-season games each year, so baseball is the runaway leader in ticket sales.

Basketball is another major sport, represented professionally by the National Basketball Association. It was invented in Springfield, Massachusetts 1891, by Canadian-born physical education teacher James Naismith.

American football, known in many anglophone countries as gridiron, is widely considered to be the most popular sport in the United States. The 32-team National Football League (NFL) is the most popular and only major professional American football league. Its championship game, the Super Bowl, is the biggest annual sporting event held in the United States. Additional millions also watch college football throughout the autumn months, and some communities, particularly in rural areas, place great emphasis on their local high school team. American football games usually include cheerleaders and marching bands which aim to raise school spirit and entertain the crowd at half-time.

Many Americans recognize a fourth sport - Ice hockey. Always a mainstay of Great Lakes and New England-area culture, the sport gained tenuous footholds in regions like the American South in recent years, as the National Hockey League pursued a policy of expansion.

The quickly growing sport of mixed martial arts has taken off in America since its introduction in the early 1990s. Today, the Ultimate Fighting Championship is one of the most profitable organizations in the country.

2. Media

Media of the United States consist of several different types of communications media: television, radio, cinema, newspapers, magazines, and Internet-based Web sites. Many of the media are controlled by large for-profit corporations who reap revenue from advertising, subscriptions, and sale of copyrighted material.

Ninety-nine percent of American households have at least one television and the majority of households have more than one. The four major broadcasters in the U.S. are the National Broadcasting Company (NBC), Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS), the American Broadcasting Company (ABC) and Fox. Public television has a far smaller role than in most other countries. However, a number of states, including West Virginia, Maryland, Kentucky, and South Carolina, among others, do have state-owned public broadcasting authorities which operate

and fund all public television stations in their respective states. The income received from the government is insufficient to cover expenses and stations also rely on corporate sponsorships and viewer contributions.

American radio broadcasts in two bands: FM and AM. Some stations are only talk radio – featuring interviews and discussions – while music radio stations broadcast one particular type of music: Top 40, hip-hop, country, etc. Radio broadcast companies have become increasingly consolidated in recent years. National Public Radio is the nation's primary public radio network, but most radio stations are commercial and profit-oriented.

Newspapers have declined in their influence and penetration into American households over the years. The U.S. does not have a national paper. The New York Times and the Wall Street Journal are sold in most U.S. cities.

The New York Times (NYT) is an American daily newspaper founded and continuously published in New York City since 1851. The New York Times has won 108 Pulitzer Prizes, more than any other news organization.

The Wall Street Journal is an American English-language international daily newspaper with a special emphasis on business and economic news. It is published in New York City by Dow Jones & Company, a division of News Corporation, along with the Asian and European editions of the Journal.

The Journal is the largest newspaper in the United States, by circulation.

3. Holidays

Federal law establishes the following public holidays for federal employees. If the holiday falls during the weekend, it may be observed on a different day.

Many government offices are closed on federal holidays and some private businesses may close as well. If you plan to visit a government office on or around a federal holiday, you should contact them to determine when they will be open. Find contact information for government departments and agencies

New Year's Day

New Year's Day 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. Many Americans make New Year's resolutions. See the New Year's resolutions that are popular every year.

Birthday of Martin Luther King, Jr.

Martin Luther King, Jr. Day is celebrated on the third Monday in January. The Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr. was an African-American clergyman who is recognized for his tireless efforts to win civil rights for all people through nonviolent means.

Washington's Birthday

Washington's Birthday is observed the third Monday of February in honor George Washington, the first President of the United States. This date is commonly called Presidents' Day and many groups honor the legacy of past presidents on this date.

Memorial Day

Memorial Day is a observed the last Monday of May. It originally honored the people killed in the American Civil War, but has become a day on which the American dead of all wars are remembered.

Independence Day

Independence Day is July 4. This holiday honors the nation's birthday - the adoption of the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776. It is a day of picnics and patriotic parades, a night of concerts, and fireworks.

Labor Day

Labor Day is 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 the start of the school year.

Columbus Day

Columbus Day is a celebrated on the second Monday in October. The day commemorates October 12, 1492, when Italian navigator Christopher Columbus landed in the New World. The holiday was first proclaimed in 1937 by President Franklin D. Roosevelt.

Veterans Day

Veterans Day is celebrated on November 11. This holiday was originally called Armistice Day and established to honor Americans who had served in World War I. It now honors veterans of all wars in which the U.S. has fought. Veterans' organizations hold parades, and the president places a wreath on the Tomb of the Unknowns at Arlington National Cemetery in Virginia.

Thanksgiving Day

Thanksgiving Day is celebrated on the fourth Thursday in November. In the fall of 1621, the Pilgrims held a three-day feast to celebrate a bountiful harvest. Many regard this event as the nation's first Thanksgiving. The Thanksgiving feast became a national tradition and almost always includes some of the foods served at the first feast: roast turkey, cranberry sauce, potatoes, and pumpkin pie.

Christmas Day

Christmas Day is a celebrated on December 25. Christmas is a Christian holiday marking the birth of the Christ Child. Decorating houses and yards with lights, putting up Christmas trees, giving gifts, and sending greeting cards have become holiday traditions even for many non-Christian Americans. Find tips to help celebrate

4. Customs

The United States has few wedding traditions that are totally unique to the U.S. Virtually all U.S. wedding traditions and customs have either been taken directly from a wide range of other countries and cultures – primarily European – or they have evolved from traditions in other nations.

This is certainly easily understood since the United States was originally populated by immigrants from many lands, primarily Europe. These immigrants brought their own wedding traditions with them, and these traditions, stirred in the melting pot of the United States, have slowly evolved into the traditional “American” wedding ceremony.

In truth, many people still retain many of their ethnic wedding traditions, and this, too, has become part and parcel of the “American” wedding ceremony. In the U.S. we are very comfortable in allowing a wide diversity of traditions and ceremonies.

There are a few things that all U.S. weddings have in common. To begin with, U.S. wedding ceremonies may be either religious or civil. Most brides prefer a large and rather elaborate ceremony if it is their first wedding

Marriages are not “arranged.” A typical U.S. wedding takes place between two people who have sought out a partner and have found someone whom they believe they can share their life with. In other words, in the United States marriages are based on LOVE. They are not arranged to strengthen family business or influence.

Old wedding traditions may have held that a prospective groom had to ask the bride’s father for his blessing, but that tradition is seldom respected any longer, if it was ever respected to a wide degree in the U.S. While a young man and a young woman hope that both sets of parents will give their blessing to a union, and often a blessing will be asked more as a courtesy than for an actual blessing, such a blessing is not required or always sought.

Wedding planning can be elaborate and time-consuming and many brides today opt to have a professional wedding planner take care of the thousand-and-one details of the glorious day. A Traditional United States wedding is a fairly large and elaborate affair, especially when it is the first wedding for the bride. Traditionally the bride wears a white wedding dress and white wedding veil.

Prior to the wedding itself, it is traditional for the Maid of Honor to throw a bridal shower as part of the bridal ceremonies. During the bridal shower the bride-to-be will receive small gifts, often of a humorous nature, often gifts for use on the honeymoon.

While a religious setting, such as a church, synagogue or mosque is not mandatory, the more traditional U.S. weddings do take place in a religious setting.

Family and friends are formally invited. Ushers seat guests, there are bride's maids, a best man, flower girls, a ring bearer, music (often chosen by the bride and/or the groom) and many other amenities designed to make the day special and memorable.

The traditional ceremony itself is often conducted by a religious leader known to the bride and/or the groom. The ceremony may include wedding vows written by the bride and the groom, in which they speak of their love and their desire to make their partner safe, happy and secure, and to be faithful to their partner and their partner alone for the rest of their lives.

At the conclusion of the ceremony, it is traditional for the official to ask if anyone present knows of any just cause why this man and this woman may not be legally married. Getting no response, the official asks the couple to exchange wedding rings, a symbol of their never-ending love and commitment to one another, and then the happy couple is pronounced, in front of family and friends (witnesses) to be husband and wife.

Traditionally the newlyweds kiss to seal their union.

As the couple leave the church they are often showered with rice or wheat (symbols of fertility) and the couple is then taken to a home, restaurant or other facility where a wedding reception takes place. Speeches and toasts are given to the new couple, wishing them every happiness.

Gifts are an important part of the U.S. wedding tradition. Gifts are given to help the new couple establish a new home together; often gifts of cash are given. A couple may "register" at a specific store where their gift needs are tracked. This allows well-wishers to not only purchase gifts that are truly useful to the new couple, but to also be assured that no one else has purchased the same gift.

Following the reception the couple traditionally goes on a honeymoon, during which their marriage is consummated. A honeymoon may last from several days to two or more weeks.

Couples who do not wish to go through the stress of an elaborate traditional wedding ceremony may choose to elope. An elopement involves much less work and much less preparation. The couple merely goes to a justice of the peace and is quietly married in a civil wedding ceremony. They may or may not include a small number of friends and/or family.

U.S. wedding ceremonies and wedding customs are among the most flexible in all the world. Whatever your wedding needs are, whatever your ideas of the perfect wedding venue, the wedding customs and wedding ceremonies that are right for you, you will find that they will all find a welcome home within the ideal of the American Wedding tradition.

Questions

1. What is a federal holiday?
2. What is the oldest team sport in the USA?
3. Compare holidays in the USA and Great Britain.

THE SEMINARS ON COUNTRY STUDY

The United Kingdom

Seminar 1

1. Historical background.
2. The Roman invasion and its outcome.
3. Geographical position of the UK (borders, dependencies and dependent territories)
4. Relief. Climate. Mineral wealth.

Self-study

1. First settlers.
2. Kings and queens of Great Britain.

Seminar 2

1. Economy. UK and EU. Trademarks.
2. Population of the UK. Ethnic minorities.
3. Language. Scottish, Welsh, and Northern Irish regional accents, Scottish Gaelic
4. Cities in Britain.

Self-study

1. Scotland. (history of country and nation, Scotland today)
2. Wales (history of country and nation, Wales today).
3. Northern Ireland (history, people, N.Ireland today)

Seminar 3

1. The British Constitution.
2. The Prime Minister. Houses of Parliament. Monarchy.
3. Parties. The Scottish national Party. Major political parties in Northern Ireland.
4. Elections in the UK.

Self-study

1. Trade unions.

2. Local government.

Seminar 4

1. The judiciary. Statute law. Magistrate's court. Crown Court.
2. High Court of Justice.
3. Human rights.

Self-study

1. The formation of the UK
2. Health and welfare.
3. Transport and transportation.

Seminar 5

1. Education in the UK.
2. School management in England and Wales.
3. School management in Scotland. School management in Northern Ireland.
4. National curriculum. Testing system.

Self-study

1. Similarities and differences in education system of Uzbekistan and the UK.
2. State funded schools and independent (fee charging) schools.

Seminar 6

1. Higher education in the UK.
2. Admission to universities.
3. Types of universities. Oxford and Cambridge universities.
4. Scientific explorers.

Self-study

1. British universities and international students.

2. Grants and scholarships

Seminar 7

1. British art, architecture,
2. Literature through centuries.
3. Nobel prize winners.
4. British scientists. British inventions.

Self-study

1. British bestsellers
2. Famous British contemporary writers.

Seminar 8

1. British theatre today.
2. Cinema. Actors.
3. Music (classical. Popular, etc.) Music awards.
4. Festivals.

Self-study

1. Britain's professional arts festivals
2. **Museums and galleries.** The British Museum, The Tate Gallery, The Victoria and Albert Museum, The National Museum of Science and Industry, etc.

Seminar 9

1. Sport. National teams.
2. Types of newspapers.
3. Radio. TV channels. National lottery.
4. British icons.

Self-study

1. Famous sports games and teams in the UK
2. Royal family and other British celebrities.

Seminar 10

1. Social life.
2. Customs. Holidays.
3. British character.

Self-study

1. Love for animals.
2. Social life of British people.

The United States of America

Seminar 11

1. Exploration of America. First settlers. The formation of the USA.
2. Geographical position of the USA
3. Natural zones and resources. The Great Lakes and the South. The Plains and the Rocky Mountains
4. Climate.

Self-study

1. Pre-colonial America.
2. Settlement pattern and Urbanization.

Seminar 12

1. Industry. Primary industries (logging, mining, fishing, farming, etc). Secondary industries (manufacturing, construction industries, food processing, textiles, automobiles, etc.)
2. Economy. Great Depression. Wall street. Federal reserve system
3. Population (melting pot). Ethnic minorities. Immigration.

4. Language. Religion.

Self-study

1. American and British English.
2. Financial centre of the USA (Wall Street, NYSE, NASDAQ, etc). Financial crisis

Seminar 13

1. American constitution(historical background).
2. Founding Fathers. (J. Madison, A. Hamilton, G. Washington)
3. The Bill of Rights. Human Rights.
4. The Civil War (causes and results)

Self-study

1. States capitals and their sightseeing.
2. Hawaii.
3. Alaska.

Seminar 14

1. Government.
2. Executive, legislative, judicial branches.
3. Political parties.
4. Elections. Voting system.

Self-study

1. Presidents.
2. Wars in American history.

Seminar 15

1. American education.

2. Curriculum.
3. School life. Education stages (Nursery school and kindergarten. Elementary school. Secondary school). Mixed and separate schools.
4. Testing system.

Self-study

1. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)
2. The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB)
3. The National Rural Education Association (NREA)

Seminar 16

1. University level studies.
2. Degrees. University life. . Public universities. Private Universities.
3. Famous Universities. Higher education for international students.
4. Scientific life. Famous American scientists and laureates.

Self-study

1. American dream.
2. US Nobel Prize winners.

Seminar 17

1. American art. Architecture,
2. American literature. Modern American writers. Bestsellers.
3. Architecture in cities.

Self-study

1. National parks.
2. American trademarks.
3. Food and health.

Seminar 18

1. Music (blues, country, etc.).
2. Cinema. Hollywood.
3. Awards.

Self-study

1. History of US film industry
2. Popular music styles in the USA.

Seminar 19

1. Sport in the USA. Popular sports games. Championships.
2. Media (American TV and radio).
3. Holidays and customs.
4. American lifestyle.

Self-study

1. Monuments and their history.
2. Famous American women.

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