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PREFACE

To the Teacher

Lectures on the History of the target language Country are a special textbook for second year students of English as a Foreign Language. A host of facts presented within themes will not only provide students with information about the United States and United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, but also stimulate cross-cultural exchange.

The primary goal of this textbook is to provide the students an overview of British and American culture and traditions and to improve the reading comprehension of nonnative speakers of English. The content strives to create a general portrait of the U.K and the U.S, both their virtues and shortcomings. The book answers many questions that students ask about these nations and helps them understand British and Americans better.

Although the book is a high intermediate to advanced reader, I have tried to deal with sophisticated ideas in the easiest language possible. In this book, the vocabulary has been simplified and the sentences shortened to make the content accessible to a greater number of students. The vocabulary and the structures used in the textbook have been carefully controlled at an intermediate level, and every effort has been made to keep the language natural. The readings are long enough and difficult enough to challenge advanced students. However, with sufficient in-class assistance, students in the intermediate range will also be able to understand and enjoy them.

Here are some salient features that make the edition more effective teaching tool:

- Prereading discussion questions strengthen the background brought by students to reach reading and introduce some of the vocabulary used in the chapter.

- Pre-reading “Guess” questions arouse curiosity and give students some specific information to look for as they read.
- “Check your comprehension” questions now follow each section for the readings. These questions encourage students to reflect upon what they’ve learned, and teachers can use them as a starting point for general discussion, paired conversation, or writing assignments.
- Vocabulary lists contain brief notes that clarify confusing word forms, such as irregular plurals and words used only in the plural.



To the Student

This edition of “All about the USA and the UK” has two main goals. The first is to introduce you to the lifestyles, attitudes, customs, and traditions of Americans and British. The second is to increase your knowledge of the most widespread American and British custom of all- the custom of communicating in English.

The readings discuss both strengths and weaknesses of American and British culture. However, its primary intent is to describe and analyze rather than evaluate. It is left to you, the reader, to compare American and British ways with those of other cultures and to form opinions about American and British lifestyles.

If your past instruction in English has been in British English, do not worry. The switch to American English will not present major problems. In terms of sentence structure, these two versions of English are almost the same. British English has more irregular verbs than American English (*learnt* versus *learned*, for example). These are some minor spelling differences (such as *colour* versus *color*) and some differences in vocabulary. (The British *lift* is the American *elevator*; a British *vest* is an American *undershirt*.) Still, you will find that British and American English are very much the same language.

As you probably know, English is rapidly becoming the global language of our shrinking world. It is spoken by about 1.5 billion people and is the language of international communication in business, diplomacy, technology, sports, travel, and entertainment. Wherever you go and whatever you do, your knowledge of English will come in handy.

I hope that the book will help you improve your understanding of English and the people who speak in this language as a mother tongue.

CHAPTER 1 History of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

BRITISH EMPIRE



British Empire consisted of United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the former dominions, colonies, and other territories throughout the world. From the late 1500s to the middle of the 20th century these territories owed **allegiance** (*be indebted or obliged for devotion and loyalty*) to the British Crown. At its height in the early 1900s, the British Empire included over 20 percent of the world's land area and more than 400 million people. The foundations of the British Empire were laid during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1558-1603). Under Elizabeth, English support for naval (*related or belonging to a navy or warships*) exploration increased dramatically, and in 1580 Sir Francis Drake became the first Englishman to sail around the world. Overseas commercial and trade interests were also established in the form of the English East India Company in 1600. However, because England was at war with Spain, which had a large colonial empire in the Americas, English colonization in the Americas remained almost unknown in the 16th century. The first real venture (*a business enterprise that involves risk, but could lead to profit*) was the attempted settlement of Roanoke Island off the North American coast in 1585 by Sir Walter Raleigh. This settlement did not **survive**, and the English did not attempt further **exploration** and **colonization** in the Americas until 1604, after peace had been made with Spain. In the 17th and 18th centuries, Britain established its first empire, which was centered in the Caribbean

and in North America. It began with the establishment of tobacco plantations in the West Indies and religious colonies along the Atlantic coast of North America. England established a presence in India during the 17th century with the activities of the East India Company. Although this presence became larger and more entrenched (*firmly held and hard to change, firmly established and unlikely to change, well protected and by surrounding it with trenches*) during the 17th and 18th centuries, India did not come under direct British rule until 1858.

An important factor in the first empire was **mercantilism**¹, an economic policy based on protected trade monopolies and governmental control of manufacturing. Under this system, colonies were established mainly to increase the wealth of the home country. They were either used as sources of **raw materials** or as markets for products of the home country. The intention was to keep the amount of the home country's exports higher than the amount of its imports; since the home country would be selling more than it was buying, its **capital reserves** would grow. Because this system required strict governmental control, the English began to regulate the affairs of its colonies closely. In 1651 the English parliament passed the Navigation Act. The document **stipulated** (*make a specific demand*) that colonies must use only English ships to import and export their goods.

17th century North America

The first permanent (*never changing or not expected to change*) English **settlement** in North America was established in 1607 at Jamestown, Virginia. In 1620 the Pilgrims² landed in Massachusetts Bay and founded Plymouth Colony, the first permanent English settlement in New England. The colonists set up a Puritan³ **community**, forming the Massachusetts Bay Company in 1628. Other religious colonies were established in Rhode Island (1636), where the colony was

¹ Economic theory and system: an early modern European economic theory and system that actively supported the establishment of colonies that would supply materials and markets and relieve home nations of dependence on other nations; commercialism

² Someone who goes on a journey to a holy place for religious reason

³ Someone who lives by a strict and pure moral or religious code, especially who suspicious of pleasure

based on the principle of **religious toleration**⁴; Connecticut (1639), based on Congregationalist⁵ **religious beliefs**; and Maryland (1634), a haven for Roman Catholics.

These colonies stayed close to the coastline, never penetrating⁶ far inland, and in fact each was linked more closely to England than to the other colonies. However, because of the distances involved, effective government from England was impossible, so colonial governors were authorized to form assemblies elected from among the colonists to act as a **legislative** body and advise the **executive**.

English presence was gradually extended further down the eastern coastline. In 1664 New Amsterdam was **seized** (*take hold of something*) from the Netherlands and renamed New York. The Dutch inhabitants were the first large, established community overseas to be brought forcefully under English rule. In 1681 William Penn, under a royal grant, formed the colony of Pennsylvania.

After 1688 wars with France led to further English **expansion**. Colonies in New England grew steadily, and the Hudson's Bay Company was established near Hudson Bay to participate in the fur trade. This growing English presence intensified friction (*disagreement or conflict*) in the 1690s with New France, based in the nearby St. Lawrence Valley. As a result of the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1714), in which England (by now Great Britain) and its allies fought against France and Spain, British forces **captured** the French American **possessions** of Acadia and Newfoundland. The Spanish islands of Gibraltar and Minorca were seized in the same conflict, giving Britain for the first time a territorial presence in the Mediterranean Sea. The Peace of Utrecht⁷ (1713) resolved the war, and officially ceded (*to surrender or give up something*) the conquered lands to the British. It also extended British rights to supply slaves and

⁴ Capacity for recognizing and accepting religious or social characteristics that differ from one's own

⁵ Church self-governing: a system of church organization in which church is self governing

⁶ Enter or pass through something

⁷ Historic university city in the central Netherlands

other trade goods to the Spanish Americas, and as a result, established Britain's status as an overseas power approximately equal to its main European competitors.

The West Indies The first British foothold (= firm base for progress) in the West Indies was Saint Christopher (later Saint Kitts), acquired (= get a possession) in 1623. The English plantations established in the West Indies were worked initially by white **indentured servants**⁸ from England. The West Indian tobacco boom (experience significant increase in trade) gradually decreased and was replaced by sugar production, which required a larger labor force that was provided by slaves from Africa. This began the transformation of the islands into a plantation economy based on slavery.

In 1655 the English conquered the Spanish colony of Jamaica—the first English colony taken by force. During the 1660s, semi-legitimate English privateers (*private vessels commissioned by a government to attack possessions or trade of a rival country*) raided Spanish trade and settlements. In 1670 England and Spain signed the **Treaty** of Madrid, in which Spain finally acknowledged (*recognize somebody or something legally*) English possessions in the Caribbean. The sugar economy expanded, and the Royal Africa Company was formed in 1672 to bring large numbers of African slaves to the Caribbean. The plantation owners obtained labor, but at the cost of anxiety (*worry*) about their own security; by the 1670s slaves had become the largest proportion of the population in the English islands.

The 18th century

During the early 1700s, public interests⁹ in overseas affairs faded (disappear slowly). With the accession of the Hanoverian George I (1714), the system of parliamentary party government took hold. In 1712, Sir Robert Walpole became Britain's first prime minister. During his long **premiership** (1721-1742), Sir

⁸ Immigrant working as unpaid servant: an immigrant to North America between the 17th and 19th centuries to work for an employer for a number of years in exchange for passage and accommodation

⁹ Common benefit: the general benefit of the public

Robert Walpole adopted a policy of *laissez-faire*, in which the government did not interfere in economic affairs. Nevertheless, significant developments occurred. The Transportation Act of 1718 subsidized¹⁰ the transportation of **convicted criminals** from Britain to North America. Georgia, originally a **refuge**¹¹ for debtors, became the 13th American colony in 1732, while the New England seaboard began to fill out and extend further into the interior. Britain **threatened** to bump up against French settlement in Americas. Sugar emerged (*come out*) as the chief import into Britain and fueled (stimulated) the West Indian plantation economy.

Walpole left office in 1742 and for the next 40 years, none of his **successors**, with the exception of Lord North, enjoyed long periods of power. The greatest of them was William Pitt. In the Seven Years War with France, which broke out in 1756, Pitt put new life into the military, and his policy contributed greatly to substantial imperial gains, notable Canada and much of India.

The Seven Years' War

During the Seven Years' War in Europe (1756-1763), Britain made large imperial gains at the expense of France. The North American segment (component part) of the Seven Years' War was known as the French and Indian War. Britain **launched** (begin an attack, campaign) against French possessions in North America in 1754, and in 1758 the British captured the French **fortress** of Louisburg, which gave them access to French territory in the St. Lawrence Valley. In the following year Québec was captured, marking the end of the French presence in Canada. In the Caribbean, British forces captured many of the French possessions, including the large sugar-producing islands of Martinique¹² and Guadeloupe¹³.

¹⁰ Give money to: to contribute money to somebody or something, especially to give a government grant to a private company, organization, or charity to help it to continue to function

¹¹ Shelter for protection: a sheltered or protected state safe from something threatening, harmful, or unpleasant

¹² Island in the eastern Caribbean Sea, an overseas department of France

¹³ Island off the Baja California coast of Mexico in the Pacific Ocean

At the Treaty of Paris in 1763, which ended both the Seven Years' War and the French and Indian War, the British handed Guadeloupe and Martinique back to France, but retained control of Canada. This was especially important to the British in guaranteeing the security of the New England colonies. Relations between Parliament and Crown went through an unsettled period in the reign of George III. He and Lord North, as prime minister, took the blame for the loss of the American colonies. The war of Independence ended with Britain's recognition of American right to self-government in 1783. The **humiliation** was softened by economic development at home where the Industrial Revolution was in full swing.

The American Revolution

For the British, an expanded empire meant new responsibilities and new costs. The British government wanted American revenues (profit) to pay for American necessities, and consequently increased **taxation** with the Stamp Act (1765). Although the British considered the act to be perfectly fair, many American colonists saw it as a violation of their rights. After riots¹⁴ in the colonies, the Stamp Act was **repealed** (officially end the validity of a law), but other taxes soon replaced it, setting off a controversy in which the colonies united against Britain in the Continental Congress. A **skirmish** (brief fight between two armed forces) at Concord, Massachusetts, in April 1775 turned into general fighting, and in July 1776 the Congress **issued** the Declaration of Independence. During the American Revolution that followed, the Congress controlled most of the land area, but the British were secure in their stronghold in New York until their position was weakened by a defeat at Saratoga (1777), which encouraged France to intervene (become involved) on behalf of the rebellious colonists. British resistance ended when General Charles Cornwallis surrendered (declare oneself defeated) with his army at Yorktown, Virginia, in October 1781. In 1793, revolutionary France declared war, and was not finally defeated until 1815. The demands of the war stimulated the new, steam-powered industries. After 1815, there was frequent

¹⁴ Violent disturbance: a public disturbance during which a group of angry people becomes noisy

unrest as an increasingly urban and industrial society found its interests poorly represented by a parliament composed chiefly of Landowners.

This defeat marked not only the end of the American war, but also the end of the First British Empire.

AFTER YOU READ

- A.** *Debate these issues in small groups. Then choose one and write about it.*
1. What role did the British Empire play on the World Arena? How did it contribute to the development of the World Civilization?
 2. What is good and what is bad about colonization of Americas?
 3. Do you think wealth and possessions make a country important? If not, what does?
 4. What is rebellion? What is revolution? How do people express their disagreement or dissatisfaction about the government's decision or policy in democratic society?
 5. Do you think it is a good idea to send convicted criminals to an unexplored island?
 6. Why did Europeans compete to establish settlements in America?
 7. What is the difference between slave and indentured servant?

CHAPTER 2

THE SECOND BRITISH EMPIRE



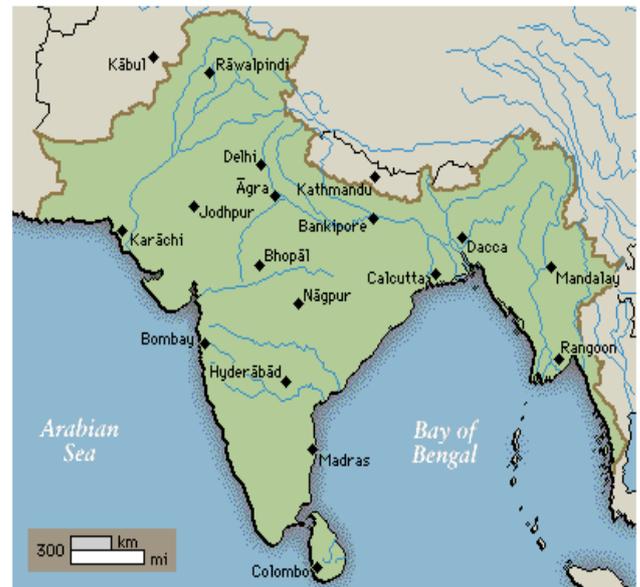
Trade in India and Ceylon

This German map of India and Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) illustrates regional European trade in the early 1730s. Elements of the map **reveal** the fierce competition among European trading companies for dominance over southern Asia at the time.

After the loss of the American colonies, British commerce turned from the Americas to the east in its search both for **spices** for re-export and, increasingly, for markets to sell ever-growing amounts of British manufactured goods. The Industrial Revolution had transformed the British economy from a primarily agricultural one to mechanized manufacturing, and as a result had increased the amount of British products available for export. The **quest** (search) for new markets for international trade was the economic incentive behind the Second British Empire. Free trade, the belief that international trade should not be **restricted** (limit) by any one nation, replaced the old colonial system, which had relied on mercantilist ideas of protected commerce.

The Second British Empire, **focused** more on Asia and Africa, continued to expand in the 1800s and early 1900s and reached its apex (highest point) at the end of World War I. However, a growing nationalism among the British colonies gradually weakened the power of the empire, and Britain was eventually **forced** to grant independence to many of its former colonies.

India's **boundaries** were gradually expanded after the British government took over the administration of India from the English East India Company in 1858. British India eventually came to include what are now the independent countries of Pakistan, Bangladesh, Myanmar (formerly known as Burma), and Sri Lanka (Ceylon).



British India, 1858

Although the first empire was centered in the Americas, the English were also active in India in the 17th century. The English East India Company founded trading posts known as factories at Surat (1612) and Madras, now Chennai, (1639) under the **auspices** (support) of the native Mughal Empire¹⁵. Rapid expansion followed, and in 1690 the company set up a new factory further up the River Hugli, on a site that became Calcutta (now Kolkata). By 1700 the company was extending its commercial activities in Bengal and had established itself as a leading player in Indian politics.

After the death of the Mughal emperor Aurangzeb in 1707, the Mughal Empire in India entered a period of instability. During this time the East India Company—while remaining above all a commercial organization—entered more directly into politics in order to **preserve** its position. Then, during the 1740s and 1750s, the East India Company fought the French Companies des Indes for **primacy** (superiority) in India during the Carnatic Wars. A series of engagements **culminated** in the Battle of Plessey in June 1757, in which the British defeated

¹⁵ Mughal Empire was founded by Babur, born in Akhsi near Namangan city in Uzbekistan. Babur's army had a failure in the war with Shaybaniykhān and changed its direction to Afghanistan.

their Indian and French **rivals** (competitor, opponent) and established the East India Company as the dominant power in the important region of Bengal.

Australia

Though English expeditions had landed in Australia in the late 1600s, original assessments of the usefulness of the continent were not enough to motivate a large-scale interest in colonization. It was the more thorough explorations of Captain James Cook in the 1770s, coupled with the loss of the American colonies around the same time that changed this. Though remote, Australia became important to the British, both as a strategic port near East Asia, and as a **destination** for British convicts (prisoner) after the loss of the American colonies. As a result, a British fleet composed mainly of convicts was **dispatched** (to instruct somebody to go somewhere in order to carry out a task) to Botany Bay in the Australian region of New South Wales, resulting in the foundation of Sydney in 1788.

Consolidation (Strengthening position)

In the years following the American Revolution, the British government attempted to **consolidate** (strengthen) and **tighten** control over its territory in India and Canada. The India Act of 1785 **subjected** the East India Company's administration to the **scrutiny** (careful inspection, investigation) of a board of control. Under the governor-generalship (1786-1793) of Lord Cornwallis, Britain put administration in India into the hands of a professional civil service within the East India Company, though the company itself remained a trading concern. The Canada Act of 1791 attempted to **ease** (comfort) tensions between French and British inhabitants in Canada somewhat by separating the region into Upper Canada, primarily English speaking, and Lower Canada, primarily French speaking.

19th century - The Napoleonic Wars. Britain's involvement in wars with France after 1793 gave a **fresh spur** (stimulus, motivation) to the growth of its empire. In 1794 Britain again captured the French sugar-producing islands in the Caribbean. This resulted in a **glut**¹⁶ of sugar on the British market and contributed indirectly to British legislation in 1807 **abolishing** the slave trade, by **virtue** of the fact that production was so high that few new slaves were needed.

Britain's Mediterranean position and its **route** (way, road, highway) to the east were secured during the Napoleonic Wars (1799-1815), primarily due to the naval **triumphs** (victory) of British Admiral Horatio Nelson. First, Nelson stopped Napoleon's **invasion** of Egypt at the Battle of the Nile, which gave control of the entire Mediterranean to the British. Then, at the Battle of Trafalgar, Nelson destroyed a French fleet on its way to land troops in Italy. By **decimating** (almost destroy something) the French navy, Nelson ended any possible threat to the British islands from Napoleon and **ensured** British naval **superiority** for much of the 19th century.

America was not a theater of operations until **friction** (disagreement) over trading rights and boundaries led to the War of 1812, during which the Americans seized York (now Toronto) in Upper Canada, and the British sacked¹⁷ Washington, D.C. The inability of American forces to make significant advances into Canada **confirmed** the survival of British North America.

During the Napoleonic Wars, the Netherlands **sided**¹⁸ with France, and Britain seized several Dutch possessions, including the Cape Colony, in South Africa; Ceylon (later Sri Lanka), off the Indian coast; Java, in Indonesia; and parts of Guiana, in South America. Though Java was returned to the Dutch, most of

¹⁶ supply market with too much: to supply a market with an excess of something, especially a product, leading to a fall in price

¹⁷ to destroy and plunder place: to destroy a captured town or city and plunder its goods and valuables

¹⁸ align with or against somebody: to align with or against one or other of the persons, teams, groups, or factions in a contest or dispute

these possessions were **retained** (hold, recollect) by the British under the agreement reached at the Congress of Vienna in 1815.

The **accession** of Victoria in 1837 was the beginning of an era of **unprecedented** material progress. There were many causes but the most potent were the creation of a modern banking system, new means of communication, railways and steamships, and the use of the same power, steam, to build a factory system to produce consumer goods on an **enormous** (huge, massive) scale.

Early industry development produced great national wealth but its description was extremely uneven and the condition of the poor improved slowly. Legislation to improve working conditions, education and public health did not **keep pace** with the growth of industrial cities. The 1840s saw much immigration from Ireland (where there was famine) and from areas of **political unrest** in continental Europe; a second wave of immigration from the continent occurred after 1880, including Jewish refugees.

Abroad, there was war with Russia in the Crimea (1854-56); most wars however were fought to conquer or **pacify** colonies. The 19th century Empire included India, Canada, Australia, and territories in Africa and East Asia. After 1870 the Suez Canal **enabled** Britain to control the empire more efficiently, she became a 40% **shareholder** in 1875 and the controlling power in Egypt in 1882.

South Africa. The **acquisition** (new possession) of the Cape Colony from the Dutch during the Napoleonic Wars allowed the British to establish a strong presence in southern Africa. Thousands of British colonists began to arrive after 1820, and English became the official language in 1822. Slavery, which had been heavily relied upon by the Dutch, was abolished in 1833. In 1843 the British established the coastal colony of Natal.

The Boers, who were **descendants** of the original Dutch and German settlers, resented British rule, and thousands of the Boers migrated north,

eventually founding the interior African republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State¹⁹. The most serious imperial wars were the Boer Wars of 1881 and 1899-1902. British opinion was deeply divided, and liberal government elected in 1905 **negotiated** a Union of South Africa, by which South Africa enjoyed the same autonomy, which had been agreed for Canada (1867), Australia (1901) and later New Zealand (1907). The Statute of Westminster (1931) **clarified** the domination status of these countries

India - In India, Lord Arthur Wellesley, later the **Duke** of Wellington made a series of **conquests**, so that by 1805 Britain in effect controlled Delhi and had made the native Mughal emperor into a **puppet**. In 1828 English replaced Persian as the official language of government in India, and Christian missionary activity increased. British superiority was finally completed with the conquest of the Punjab and Sind regions in the 1840s.

However, the Indian population gradually began to **resent** (annoy) British rule, feeling that the British had no respect for native cultures and traditions. These feelings came to a head in the Sepoy Rebellion of 1857, in which Indian soldiers (called sepoys) under the command of the East India Company staged an armed uprising. The rebellion was put down by the British, but not before extensive loss of life on both sides. As a result, the British gave up trying to anglicize India and focused on governing efficiently while working in **tandem** (in partner or in corporation) with traditional elements of Indian society. After 1858 India **ceased** (stop) to be administered through the East India Company and was brought directly under British government, with a **viceroy**²⁰ and a separate secretary of state in London who served in the Cabinet.

Burma

During the 19th century, Britain was using its strong armies in India to expand into Southeast Asia. The Burmese Konbaung dynasty had expanded the

¹⁹ former province in east central South Africa, and Afrikaner republic in the 19th century

²⁰ governor representing sovereign in colony

borders of Burma (now Myanmar) greatly, until they began to bump up against British India. Attempted Burmese **incursions**²¹ into India resulted in the First Anglo-Burmese War (1824-1826), in which the Burmese were overpowered by the British and were forced to **cede** (surrender) several coastal areas to them. Over the course of the Second and Third Anglo-Burmese Wars (1852 and 1885) Britain established its dominance in the region, conquering all of Burma. In 1886 Burma was officially made a province of India.

The Beginning of Responsible Government

An empire based on free trade required less regulation than one based on mercantilist principles. As a result, the concept of responsible government, or government by the citizens of a colony, **emerged**. It was applied in the British North American colonies during the 1840s, and in 1867 Canada was confederated. Confederation allowed Britain to withdraw (remove) its military presence while retaining control of foreign affairs and external defense. In the 1850s the new Australian colonies of South Australia, Western Australia, Victoria, and Queensland that had been established in the 1830s and 1840s were **accorded** responsible government, along with the **existing** colony of New South Wales. However, their fragmented character delayed federation until 1901. Britain did not grant responsible government to its colonies in southern Africa because of **tensions** (stress, conflict, pressure) between the settlers and the native Africans. However, in the 1850s Britain withdrew (remove) from overseeing the interior republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

The mid-1800s was an era of relative stability in imperial affairs. However, Britain did continue its aggressive trading policy, which often led to conflict. The primary examples of this were the conflicts with China over the British importation of opium into China, which led to the Opium Wars in the mid-19th century and the British acquisition of Hong Kong in 1841.

²¹ raid: a brief, hostile and usually sudden invasion of somebody's territory

New Imperialism

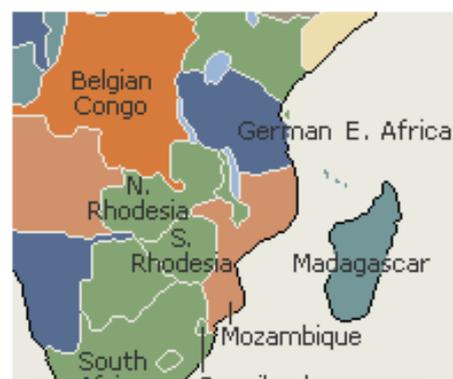


British writer and politician Benjamin Disraeli was known for his **eccentric** style of radical conservatism and dedication to Queen Victoria and the British Empire. Disraeli became prime minister in 1874.

His most important act in office was to **prevent** Russia from **gaining** strategic advantages in the Mediterranean after its victory in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-1878, thereby preserving the balance of power in the region **in favor of** the British.

The government of Benjamin Disraeli (1874-1880) adopted a more active British policy overseas. This so-called New Imperialism was characterized by much more aggressive imperial expansion and defense of British interests overseas. Though it was sometimes the result of local instability, as in 1882 when British troops occupied Egypt in order to preserve control of the Suez Canal, it was more often fueled by the British government's desire to extend its empire.

After the occupation of Egypt, a race to establish colonies in Africa **ensued**. Britain, which competed principally against France and Germany, made a series of **claims** (demand) in West Africa in the 1880s, mainly in the Niger River Valley.



Additional colonies were established in southern Africa, where the activities of Cecil Rhodes led to the **annexation** (added) of Bechuanaland (now Botswana) in 1885 and the founding of Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) in 1890. The most **resolute** (determined) opponents of British expansion were the Boers of the

Transvaal and the Orange Free State in southern Africa, until the British finally defeated them in the Boer War (1899-1902).

In East Africa, British explorers were active from the 1850s in the search for the source of the Nile, and in 1864 Sir Samuel Baker discovered Lake Albert; the acquisition of Uganda in 1894 eventually secured Britain's political dominance in the region. About the same time, British settlement in Kenya began.



This drawing describes Cecil John Rhodes, the main leader of British expansion in Africa, as the Colossus of Rhodes²². He is straddling (spread legs apart) Africa, with one foot on Cape Town, South Africa, and the other on Cairo, Egypt. The drawing was first published in the English magazine *Punch* in 1892.

The British government of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, who took office in 1905, followed a less active imperial style. Britain granted self-government to the Transvaal and the Orange Free State in 1907, which **paved the way** (provide something with hard surface to make it suitable for walking) for the establishment of the Union of South Africa in 1910.

During World War I (1914-1918) the British Empire remained essentially united. The Dominions were loyal to Britain at first, apart from a minor and easily repressed Boer revolt (rebellion, protest) in 1914. However, the Easter Rebellion in Ireland in 1916 marked the beginning of an increasing desire for independence in many of the colonies.

²² One of the Seven Wonders of the World was built about 280 BC. Standing 30 m (100 ft) high, it was built to guard the entrance to the harbor at Rhodes.

Troops from the Dominion countries were **prominent** (outstanding, leading) in World War I, but as the **sacrifices** of war increased after 1916, loyalty to Britain waned (decrease). **Conscription**, a system by which private citizens were forced to join the armed services, was rejected in Australia in 1917 and was strongly opposed in French Québec.

The war expanded the British Empire to its greatest extent. The Treaty of Versailles in 1919 gave Britain most of the German Empire in Africa, while the collapse of the Ottoman Empire in the Middle East led to the British acquisition of Palestine and Iraq in 1918.

However, the war also **accelerated** (go or progress faster) support for nationalist movements in the colonies, and the British government found that it could do little to stop this **trend**. After World War I Britain was **exhausted** (weaken). As a result, during the 1920s and 1930s Britain searched for policies that would both reduce the cost of the empire and the risk of its falling apart. It granted independence to Egypt in 1922 and to Iraq in 1932. The demands of the Dominions for full constitutional autonomy were granted in the Statute of Westminster in 1931, which eliminated (get rid of) all control by the British Parliament over dominion government. The statute also established the British Commonwealth of Nations as an association of equal and independent states united by common allegiance to the British Crown. After the Irish Revolution (1912-1922), southern Ireland had been granted dominion status as the Irish Free State, though in 1937 it withdrew from the empire and became the Ireland.

In India **discontent** (dissatisfaction) with British rule increased throughout this period, **culminating** in the Amritsar Massacre, in which the British army fired demonstrators, killing nearly 400. Though the British colonial government passed constitutional reforms in 1919 and 1935, tensions remained high. In its African colonies, Britain did not **cope with** nationalism and concentrated on administering the populations indirectly and inexpensively through existing local institutions.

Nevertheless, there was occasional African resistance (opposition) to colonial control, especially where the British raised new taxes or **interfered** with traditional practices.

Decolonization in South and Southeast Asia



If the British Empire still **clung** (hold onto something tightly) to a fragile **equilibrium** (state of balance between forces) in 1939, World War II (1939-1945) upset it. Some British possessions, including Hong Kong and Burma, were conquered by Japan.

There was a **revolt** in India in August 1942, and some dissidence (disagreement) in the Indian Army. Although India nevertheless contributed extensively to the Allied war effort, by 1945 the British colonial government in India was a spent force. The Dominions entered the war alongside Britain in 1939, but afterwards showed their **determination** to judge the nature and limits of their participation. In the colonies still directly under British authority, especially those in Africa and the Caribbean, the British government sought (attempt) to develop a more progressive image in keeping with a war supposedly being fought on behalf of freedom. Colonial Development and **Welfare** Acts were passed in 1940 and 1945, and Prime Minister Winston Churchill joined with United States President Franklin Delano Roosevelt in issuing the Atlantic Charter in 1941, which declared the right of self-determination for all countries. While Britain was quite successful overall at mobilizing its empire for the war, the promises it issued and the actions it took to elicit this mobilization **ultimately** hastened (quicken) its end.

On July 1, 1997, more than 150 years of British administration in Hong Kong came to an end, as the British returned the former crown colony to Chinese rule. The Britannia royal yacht carried the last British governor of Hong Kong,

Christopher Patten, and Prince Charles of Wales from Victoria Harbor back to the United Kingdom.

The results of these actions were seen quickly in Asia, where India and Pakistan gained independence in 1947, and Ceylon and Burma in 1948. Only Burma did not remain a member of the Commonwealth. Of Britain's Asian possessions, only Hong Kong was still under British control after 1950, and it was returned to the People's Republic of China in 1997. In 1948 Britain also gave up its control over Palestine. In Africa, Britain **assumed** that self-government would be much longer in coming. Riots in Accra in February 1948, however, forced a relatively rapid transition in the Gold Coast, which in 1957 became the independent nation of Ghana. In the 1950s the British government recognized the winds of change in Africa, and many African nations gained independence in the late 1950s and early 1960s: Sudan (1956), Nigeria (1960), Sierra Leone (1961), Tanganyika (1961, later Tanzania), Uganda (1962), Kenya (1963), Zambia (1964), Malawi (1964), The Gambia (1965), Botswana (1966), and Swaziland (1968). These and other transfers of power were for the most part very smooth, with the exception of Rhodesia, where a revolt by white settlers led to years of guerrilla warfare before Zimbabwe was legally established in 1980.

There were no such troubles in the West Indies, although the various islands gained their independence as separate, and not always **viable**, units. Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago became independent in 1962, and the other islands followed thereafter.

Throughout this process, British governments did not resist (oppose) decolonization, provided that it was possible to transfer power to friendly **regimes** and the circumstances were not humiliating to **national pride**. Where British **prestige** (respect, glamour) was hurt, as in the war with Argentina over the Falkland Islands (Islas Malvinas) in 1982, the response was militant (aggressive). With the end of the empire, a multiracial, coequal **Commonwealth of Nations**

evolved (develop gradually), which had modest utility but generally cooperative feelings. Today there are 54 Commonwealth nations, and even most of those states that left the Commonwealth for one reason or another (such as South Africa and Pakistan) have found cause to return.



AFTER YOU READ:

Debate these issues in small groups. Then choose one and write about it.

1. Should a government have the right to force a citizen of the colonial country to go to war and kill an enemy? What if that person's religion forbids killing?
2. Which country was the most important rival of British Empire in India?
3. Do you think it is a good idea to dispatch convicts to an unexplored island?
4. Why did not the condition of the poor keep pace with the industry development in colonial territories?
5. Why did Britain's politicians begin to realize that they could no longer play the world stage?
6. What stimulated the new steam-powered industries?
7. Is it a good idea to force the citizens of colonial countries to join the armed services?

CHAPTER 3 HENRY VIII



Henry VIII (1491-1547), king of England (1509-1547), the image of the Renaissance king, German artist Hans Holbein painted him hands on hips, legs astride, showing **confidence** and power. Henry VIII had six wives, fought many wars in Europe, and even tried to become Holy Roman Emperor in order to extend his control to Europe. He increased the power of royal government, using Parliament to **sanction** his actions.

Henry ruled through powerful ministers who, like his six wives, were never safe in their positions. His greatest achievement was to **initiate** the Protestant Reformation in England. He **rejected** the authority of the pope and the Roman Catholic Church, **confiscated** church lands, and promoted religious reformers to power.

Born at Greenwich Palace in London on June 28, 1491, Henry was the second son of Henry VII and Elizabeth of York. Although a willful child, Henry was a capable (gifted) student and studied languages, philosophy, mathematics, astronomy, and writing and speaking under his first tutor, English poet and satirist John Skelton. He was good at athletics, hunting and wrestling. Henry loved music and could play, sing, and dance. When he was 11, Henry's elder brother Arthur died. He was now **heir** to the throne and was made Prince of Wales in 1503, the year in which his mother and grandmother died. Henry now came under the influence of his father, a stern and greedy man who left his son a healthy treasury and a secure crown upon his death in 1509.

Henry **inherited** a kingdom isolated from the rest of Europe and poor in natural resources. It was protected on three sides by water, but to the north lived

the Scots, an ancient enemy **allied** (united) with France, England's bitter rival. Henry VII's chief concerns had been to control the independence of the nobility and to enrich the crown. He accomplished the first by **executing** opponents and confiscating their property, the second by raising taxes and by avoiding expensive wars. When Henry VIII became king, he began to expand England's power in Europe. He married his brother's widow, Catherine of Aragón, and entered into an **alliance** (union) with King Ferdinand of Spain. Whereas his father had avoided war to save money, Henry and his allies were eager for confrontation (opposition). In 1513 Henry led a victorious campaign against the French. Henry's forces conquered the Scots at the Battle of Flodden Field where the king of Scotland, James IV, was killed.

To Henry's mind, the greatest failure of his **reign** was his inability to produce a male heir. Henry had affairs with ladies of his court until he fell in love with Anne Boleyn, one of the great beauties of the age and a woman of strong will, shrewd (sharp) political instincts, and Protestant religious beliefs. From 1527 Henry was looking for a way out of his marriage, arguing from biblical authority that the union with his brother's widow was **invalid** (not acceptable or correct). However, the **divorce** (separation) was a political impossibility Henry found another way to accomplish his goal. Previously the **clergy** had owed allegiance only to the pope. By parliament acts Henry gained the power to **appoint** his own bishops; he used it to appoint one of Anne Boleyn's friends, Thomas Cranmer, as **archbishop** of Canterbury. The king accepted small changes in Catholic religious **beliefs** and practices. The Bible was translated into English, **priests** were allowed to marry, and the temples (church) of saints were destroyed.

Thomas Cromwell, one of the king's advisers, began a confiscation of the wealth of the Catholic Church. The crown then took possession of all their property, paying small pensions to the approximately 10,000 monks and nuns who were **deprived** of their homes. English people who favored these views supported Henry's reformation. Henry also received support from people who were **adopting**

the new religious views of German reformer Martin Luther. His ideas, which were very different from some of the major conception of the Catholic Church, had filtered into England through merchants and had begun to find adherents (supporter), especially in cities. These Protestant religious views were also becoming popular at both Oxford and Cambridge universities.

The Reformation in England was not accomplished without opposition. Despite the legislation of king and Parliament, most of the nation clung²³ to the Catholic Church. Throughout the 1530s and into the 1540s more than 300 people were executed for **treason**, most for rebelling against the new religious order. Among Henry's councilors, Sir Thomas More refused to recognize the king as supreme head of the church and was executed for his Catholicism, along with a number of bishops and prominent nobles. In 1536 a serious rebellion, known as the **Pilgrimage of Grace**, occurred in the northern counties. The rebellion combined economic grievances with an attachment to the institutions of the Catholic Church. It represented the most serious threat to Henry's reign, although it was ultimately quelled. In most **parishes** (administrative district), however, there was a slow acceptance of Protestant innovations. Ultimate power, however, remained in the king's hands, and Henry used it to become involved in the series of unsuccessful marriages for which he is famous. Jane Seymour finally provided Henry with his male heir, the future Edward VI, although she died in childbirth.

As Henry aged he became bitter and angry. One by one he had either killed his old councilors or driven them from royal service. In 1542 he again entered into continental warfare, joining Emperor Charles V in his war against France. That same year the Scots invaded England and were again defeated, this time at Solway Moss where their king, James V was seriously **wounded**. James's death freed England from the threat of invasion for the next generation. The wars of Henry's old age were no more successful than those of his youth, and to pay for these wars

²³ Retain ideas or customs: to refuse to give up something such as belief or tradition that you have grown fond of or used to

Henry had to sell the monastic lands, raise taxes, and **debase the coinage**²⁴. His popularity diminished (reduce) with his strength. He died on January 28, 1547, and was **succeeded** by his ten-year-old son, Edward VI.

People remember him as the warrior king who restored England's honor. Catholic writers pictured him as the devil. English Protestants credited him as the founder of their religion. Henry VIII became legend because he

- reestablished the power of the English crown,
- defeated the Scots and made his kingdom safe from armed invasion,
- strengthened the navy and made his kingdom safe from attacks by sea.



AFTER YOU READ

Debate these issues in small groups. Then choose one and write about it.

1. What do you think about the first marriage of Henry VIII?
2. Why did Henry consider his first marriage invalid?
3. Why did many kings and queens have a reputation of being very cruel and ruthless?
4. Is a revolutionary leader a hero or a traitor? When is it morally right for people to revolt?
5. Do you think it is important for political leaders to be moral people in their personal lives?
6. Have you ever heard of a king or queen who had never put the law in execution against political and religious leaders?

²⁴ to reduce the value or quality of the currency by producing more fake (not real) coins

CHAPTER 4

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

EARLY CULTURAL INTERACTION



United States History, story of how the republic developed from colonial beginnings in the 16th century, when the first European **explorers** arrived, until modern times. As the nation developed, it expanded **westward** from small settlements along the Atlantic Coast, eventually including all the territory between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. At the same time, the population and the economy of the United States grew and changed dramatically. The population diversified as immigrants arrived from all countries of the world. Early American history began in the **collision** of European, West African, and Native American peoples in North America. Europeans “discovered” America by accident, and then created empires out of the conquest of **indigenous** peoples and the **enslavement** of Africans. Yet conquest and enslavement were accompanied by centuries of cultural interaction—interaction that spelled **disaster** for Africans and Native Americans and **triumph** for Europeans.

Native Americans

The lands and human societies that European explorers called a New World were in fact very old. The earliest immigrants to the area now known as the U.S. were the Native Americans. They came to the Western **Hemisphere** from Asia about 15,000 years ago or perhaps even earlier. The Native Americans who greeted the first Europeans had become **diverse** peoples. They spoke between 300 and 350 distinct languages, and their societies and ways of living varied tremendously (extremely). The Aztecs of Mexico and the Incas of Peru built great empires. In what is now the United States, the Mississippians built cities surrounded by farmland between present-day St. Louis, Missouri, (where their city of Cahokia was larger than medieval London) and Natchez, Mississippi. The Mississippians' "Great Sun" king ruled authoritatively and was carried from place to place by servants, preceded by flute-players. The Pueblo peoples of the Southwest lived in large towns, irrigated their dry land with river water, and traded with peoples as far away as Mexico and California.

In the East, peoples lived in similar ways. All of them grew much of their food. Women farmed and gathered food in the woods. Men hunted, fished, and made war. None of these peoples kept domestic animals; they **relied** (depend) **on** abundant wild game for protein. All lived in family groups, but owed their principal loyalties to a wider network of kin (family) and to their **clans** (group of families). Some formed alliances called confederacies for the purposes of keeping peace among neighbors and making war on outsiders. Even within these confederacies, however, everyday political organization seldom extended beyond villages, and village **chiefs** ruled their independent-minded people by **consent** (agreement).

West Africans In Central and West Africa, the great inland kingdoms of Mali and Ghana were influenced (and largely converted) by Islam, and these kingdoms had traded with the Muslim world for hundreds of years. From the

beginning, slaves were among the articles of trade. These earliest enslaved Africans were criminals, war captives (prisoner), and people sold by their relatives to settle debts. New World demand increased the slave trade and changed it. Some of the coastal kingdoms of present-day Togo and Benin entered the trade as **middlemen** (agent, broker). They **conducted raids** into the interior and sold their captives to European slavers. Nearly all of the Africans enslaved and brought to America by this trade were natives of the western coastal rain forests and the inland forests of the Congo and Central Africa.

About half of all Africans who were **kidnapped**, enslaved, and sent to the Americas were Bantu-speaking peoples. Others were from smaller ethnic and language groups. Most had been farmers in their homeland. The men hunted, fished, and tended animals, while women and men worked the fields cooperatively and in large groups. They lived in kin-based (family based) villages that were parts of small kingdoms. They practiced polygamy (men often had several wives, each of whom maintained a separate household), and their societies tended to give very specific spiritual duties to women and men. Adolescent girls and boys were inducted into secret societies in which they learned the sacred and separate duties of women and men. These secret societies provided supernatural help from the spirits that governed tasks such as hunting, farming, fertility, and childbirth. Although formal political leaders were all men, older, **privileged** women exercised great power over other women. Thus enslaved African peoples in the New World came from societies in which women raised children and governed one another, and where men and women were more nearly equal than in America or Europe.

Western Europeans In the century before Columbus sailed to America; Western Europeans were unlikely candidates for worldwide exploration. The Chinese possessed the wealth and the **seafaring** (navigation) skills that would have **enabled** them to explore, but they had little interest in the world outside of China. The Arabs and other Islamic peoples also possessed wealth and skills. But they expanded into territories that were next to them—and not across **uncharted** (not

mapped, unknown) oceans. The Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople in 1453 and by the 1520s had nearly reached Vienna. These conquests gave them control over the overland trade routes to Asia as well as the sea route through the Persian Gulf. The conquests also gave them an expanding empire to occupy their attention.

Western Europeans, on the other hand, were developing the necessary wealth and technology and a **compelling** need to explore. A group of new monarchs were making nation-states in Britain and in continental Europe—states with large **treasuries** and military establishments. The population of Western European nations was growing, providing a tax base and a labor force for new classes of large landholders. These “elites” provided markets for goods that were **available** only through trade with Asia. When the expansion of Islam gave control of eastern trade routes to Islamic middlemen, Western Europeans had strong **incentives** to find other ways to get to Asia.

They were also developing sailing technology and knowledge of **currents** and winds to travel long distances on the open sea. The Portuguese led the way. They copied and improved upon the designs of Arab sailing ships and learned to mount cannons (artillery weapon) on those ships. In the 15th century they began exploring the west coast of Africa—by passing Arab merchants to trade directly for African gold and slaves. They also colonized the Madeira Islands, the Azores, and the Cape Verde Islands and turned them into the first European slave plantations.

The European explorers were all looking for an ocean route to Asia. Christopher Columbus sailed for the monarchs of Spain in 1492. He used the familiar prevailing winds to the Canary Islands, off the northwest coast of Africa, and then sailed on. In about two months he landed in the Caribbean on an island in the Bahamas, thinking he had reached the East Indies. Columbus made three more voyages. He died in 1506, still believing that he had discovered a water route to Asia.

The first European voyages to the northern coast of America were old and forgotten: The Norsemen (Scandinavian Vikings) sailed from Greenland and stayed in Newfoundland for a time around 1000. Some scholars **argue** that European fishermen had discovered the fishing waters off eastern Canada by 1480. But the first recorded voyage was made by John Cabot, an Italian navigator in the service of England, who sailed from England to Newfoundland in 1497. Giovanni da Verrazzano, in 1524, and Jacques Cartier, in 1534, explored nearly the whole Atlantic coast of the present United States for France. By that time, Europeans had **scouted** the American coast from Newfoundland to Brazil. While they continued to look for shortcuts to Asia, Europeans began to think of America for its own **sake**. Spain again led the way: Hernán Cortés invaded Mexico in 1519, and Francisco Pizarro did the same in Peru in 1532.

Cultural Interaction What was to become American history began in a biological and cultural collision of Europeans, Native Americans, and Africans. Europeans initiated this contact and often dictated its terms. For Native Americans and Africans, American history began in **disaster**.

Native Americans suffered heavily because of their **isolation** from the rest of the world. Europe, Africa, and Asia had been trading knowledge and technologies for centuries. Societies on all three continents had learned to use iron and kept domestic animals. Europeans had **acquired** gunpowder, paper, and navigational equipment from the Chinese. Native Americans, on the other hand, had none of these. They were often helpless against European conquerors with horses, firearms, and—especially—**armor** and weapons.

Europeans used the new lands as sources of **precious** metals and plantation agriculture. Both were complex operations that required labor in large, closely supervised groups. Attempts to enslave indigenous peoples **failed**, and attempts to force them into other forms of bound labor were slightly more successful but also failed because workers died of disease. Europeans turned to the African slave trade

as a source of labor for the Americas. During the colonial periods of North and South America and the Caribbean, far more Africans than Europeans came to the New World. The slave trade brought wealth to some Europeans and some Africans, but the growth of the slave trade **disrupted** African political systems, turned slave raiding into full-scale war, and robbed many African societies of their young men.



After You Read

Debate these issues in small groups. Then choose one and write about it.

1. When Hollywood made a movie about Pocahontas, it added a fictitious romance between John Smith and the young Indian princess. Should writers change historical facts to make a movie a more interesting story? Is it okay to blend fact and fiction?
2. Do newcomers to an area have a right to push earlier residents off the land? Does land really belong to any particular group of people?
3. If you had lived in the seventeenth century, would you have left your country and go to America? Explain why or why not.
4. Is it fair to blame Columbus for what happened to Native Americans after his death?
5. People seem to need two opposing elements in their lives: adventure and security. Columbus seemed to prefer adventure. Which is more important to you?
6. It is ironic (the opposite of what is expected) that Columbus became famous for something he never knew he did. Look up the word *irony* in the dictionary. Then write something ironic that occurred in your life.
7. Search the Internet for more information about Columbus. Summarize some of the new information you discovered.

CHAPTER 5 DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

Declaration of Independence, document in American history used by the 13²⁵ British North American colonies to proclaim their independence from Great Britain. The Declaration of Independence was **adopted** in final form on July 4, 1776. The document transformed the colonists' struggle with Great Britain from a defense of their rights as Englishmen to a revolution aimed at overthrowing the existing form of government. It did not **establish** a structure of government and should not be **confused** with either the Articles of Confederation or the Constitution of the United States. For the American colonists, the declaration was an **announcement** to the rest of the world that the colonies were independent from Great Britain; it also provided a **rationale** (underlying reason) for this action. The goal was to **solidify** internal support for their struggle and to encourage external assistance from European powers such as France.

A number of events led to the Declaration of Independence. The British-American triumph in the French and Indian War (1754-1763) was particularly significant because it not only caused France to lose its North American empire, but also led to changes in Britain's relationship with its own colonies.

After the war, the British government decided to reorganize its overseas empire. The country was heavily in debt because of war **expenses**; it needed money and felt that the colonies should pay a share of the defense of the colonies. In addition, the British found it difficult to maintain control over the American colonies without a more centralized administrative system in North America. During the French and Indian War, several colonies had refused to cooperate fully in the war effort when their own borders were not immediately at risk. **Smuggling** was also so violent that the American customs service cost the British more money to run than it earned in **revenue**.

²⁵ Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Virginia

The British government decided to maintain a 10,000-man army to protect the colonies from Native Americans and from any new French threat. The army could also help to maintain British authority in the distant colonies. Parliament ordered the customs office to collect the taxes **levied** on imports, usually called duties, more efficiently and passed the Sugar Act in 1764 and the Stamp Act in 1765 to raise revenue in the colonies to pay for one-half of this army. The rest of the money was to come from the British treasury. These laws made economic sense to the British, who did not see them as direct threats to American liberty.

Colonial Americans viewed the **measures** quite differently. Some colonists objected (protest) to the unaccustomed British enforcement of customs collections and others spoke publicly against the Sugar Act. But the Stamp Act led to the most serious resistance. This law, passed by Parliament in 1765, required the **purchase** of revenue stamps for legal documents and many other paper products. American protestors objected to the fact that Parliament, which contained no colonial representation, had passed a tax on the colonists to raise revenue.

Angry colonists formed patriotic organizations called the Sons of Liberty and encouraged Americans to resist (oppose) the tax by whatever means necessary. **Mobs** (crowds) appeared throughout the colonies, forcing stamp distributors to resign and discouraging merchants from importing British goods. A Stamp Act Congress met in New York City to discuss colonial **grievances** (complaint) and **petition** (request) the king and Parliament to withdraw the tax. After the congress, the colonists organized a boycott of British products, and the Stamp Act became virtually unenforceable. Parliament **repealed** the **measure** in 1766, responding to pressure by British business interests and a change of administration in Great Britain.

During the Stamp Act **controversy** (conflict), colonial Americans struggled to explain their resistance. They **admitted** the right of Parliament to regulate commerce through external or indirect taxation, but **denied** its right to raise

revenue through internal or direct taxation such as the Stamp Act. The Americans also disagreed with the British over the concept of representation. British officials claimed that Americans had ‘virtual representation,’ arguing that Parliament protected America’s best interests even though colonists did not vote for members of the House of Commons. To emphasize their point, the British immediately followed the repeal of the Stamp Act with the passage of a Declaratory Act in 1766. This act asserted Parliament’s right to **legislate** for the colonies in all cases whatsoever. Many colonists refused to accept the idea that they were represented in Parliament, and ignored the Declaratory Act just as they had the Stamp Act. As a protest against a tax placed on imported tea by the British crown, a group of American colonists, led by Samuel Adams, staged the Boston Tea Party. On December 16, 1773, the colonists, some dressed as Native Americans, boarded three British ships and **tossed** the tea cargo into Boston Harbor.

The Stamp Act controversy set the pattern for future conflict over imperial policy. In 1767 Great Britain passed the Townshend Acts, which placed duties on a variety of items imported by the colonies. These acts also **suspended** the New York colonial assembly for violations of the Quartering Act of 1765, a measure that required the colonies to provide housing and supplies for British troops. Once again the colonists formed committees, arranged a boycott, and **pressured** Parliament to **repeal** the acts. Rising tensions also led to the Boston Massacre, a violent confrontation in March 1770 between a mob of Boston residents and British troops guarding the **Customs House**. The incident ended with the deaths of five colonists and was used as **propaganda** to promote anti-British **sentiment** in the colonies.

Three years later Parliament passed another Tea Act in an effort to aid the British East India Company, a large commercial trading firm that had experienced financial difficulties. This measure granted the East India Company a monopoly of the tea trade, but actually lowered the price of tea in the colonies because it did not require the company to pay customs duties to the British treasury. However, the

new Tea Act faced great opposition because it required collection of the import duties on tea, forcing colonists to accept English taxation and hurting the business of merchants who were competitors of the East India Company.

On December 16, 1773, an organized mob in Boston **dumped** East India Company tea into the harbor in what has become known as the Boston Tea Party. More ‘tea parties’ followed in other ports. To punish the colonists for this destruction of property, Parliament in 1774 passed a series of laws that the colonists called the Intolerable Acts. But protests grew stronger as other colonies also felt **threatened** and came to the defense of Massachusetts. Groups called Committees of Correspondence organized communication networks to publicize British actions and encourage demonstrations of opposition. Soon these committees and some colonial legislatures issued a call for an all-colony congress to discuss other appropriate responses to Britain’s actions. The Continental Congress first met in Philadelphia from September to the end of October 1774. It was attended by 56 delegates from 12 of the 13 colonies. This body did not plan for war; instead, it debated about how to carry their resistance to Great Britain. The group told Great Britain what kind of treatment the colonies demanded concerning taxation, trade, and the right to make their own laws. But British colonial policies did not change. The First Continental Congress passed a resolution on October 14 called the Declaration of Rights and Grievances, which denied the power of Parliament to tax the colonies and presented the king of England with a list of grievances. On October 20 the congress also set up a Continental Association, composed of committees from each colony, to enforce the boycott of British imports and institute a ban on exports if Parliament did not repeal the Intolerable Acts.

Representatives to the Continental Congress declared that they had written both measures as loyal Englishmen. In the first document, they expressed the hope that “their fellow subjects in Great Britain” would restore the relationship they had previously held with the colonies. The **resolution** for the Continental Association

opened with the phrase “We, his majesty’s most loyal subjects...” Between 1765 and the beginning of 1775 the story of the resistance movement remains focused on colonial protest and actions taken as British subjects.

On April 19, 1775 General Thomas Gage, the royal governor of colonial Massachusetts, ordered British troops to march on the small towns of Lexington and Concord, not far from Boston. The soldiers were told to capture resistance leaders and destroy arms and supplies. Farmers throughout Massachusetts armed themselves, practiced drills. A battle began when the British troops exchanged fire in Lexington with a small company of minutemen, the colonial volunteers who were prepared to fight at a moment’s notice. The Americans were defeated at Lexington, but won a victory at North Bridge in Concord. More importantly, the colonial troops **inflicted** heavy losses on the British as they returned to Boston.

The First Continental Congress had planned to meet again in May 1775 if the king did not address colonial grievances. When the Second Continental Congress **convened** as scheduled, American militia had surrounded Boston, and a full-scale war **loomed**. In July, they sent one last **plea** to the king, often called the Olive Branch Petition, asking him to repeal the hated laws. Soon thereafter they also issued a “Declaration of the causes and necessity for taking up arms,” explaining the reasons for their actions and promising to stop fighting as soon as the British government met their demands. But King George III ignored their appeals; in August 1775 he **issued** a proclamation declaring the colonies to be in a state of **rebellion** and ordering all of his officers and loyal subjects to suppress the revolt ‘and bring the traitors to justice.’ During the following year, the Continental Congress **edged** toward the Declaration of Independence.

By the spring of 1776 local Committees of Correspondence and some state legislatures began to call openly for independence. The Second Continental Congress appointed a committee to **draft** a statement of independence after Richard Henry Lee of Virginia introduced his independence resolution on June 7,

1776. The five members of the committee, pictured here, relied on Thomas Jefferson to draft (write preliminary version) most of the document.



Jefferson's belief in the social contract came from British political philosopher John Locke, who argued that people should rebel if their natural rights were violated.

Representatives officially voted for independence on July 2, 1776 and then on July 4 formally adopted the Declaration of Independence. The New York delegation **abstained** (not vote) from the voting because they had not yet received orders from the New York convention to support the measure. After the vote on July 2, representatives then began to debate the actual text of the declaration. On July 4, 1776, the Continental Congress voted to accept the final version of the Declaration of Independence. New York again abstained, although its delegation was authorized to ratify the independence resolution on July 9, 1776. Most of the delegates signed an official copy on August 2, with three absent members adding their signatures later. A few delegates such as John Dickinson continued to have doubts about the wisdom of independence and never actually signed the document.

In 1775, the Second Continental Congress declared war on Great Britain and named Washington commander in chief of the Revolutionary Army. Washington's job was very difficult. His army was small, poorly fed, and **inadequately** clothed.

The men suffered greatly during terribly cold winters. Washington had to fight the Revolutionary War with poorly equipped, untrained soldiers. The Americans had undisciplined militia and only the beginnings of a regular army or even a government. But Americans had powerful advantages that in the end were **decisive**.

In the Treaty of Paris of 1783, the British recognized the independence of the United States. When the new country formed a stronger national government, George Washington was **unanimously** chosen as its first president. He took office in 1789 and was reelected in 1792. In 1796, he refused a third term and **retired** from political life. He died 2 years later and was buried at Mount Vernon. Today more than a million tourists visit this beautiful site every year.

After You Read.

1. Is a revolutionary leader a hero or a traitor? When is it morally right for people to revolt?
2. Washington, who worked so hard for freedom, was himself a slave owner. (He did, however, free his slaves in his will.) Does that make Washington less of a hero?
3. Read about one of these people, and then write your reaction to their decisions and / or actions: Thomas Jefferson, George Washington, and Lord Charles Cornwallis.
4. Search the Internet for more information about the American Revolution. Summarize some of the new information you discovered.

CHAPTER 6 THE CIVIL WAR



Abraham Lincoln was an **outspoken** opponent of slavery who became the Republican Party's nominee for president of the United States in 1860. Soon after Lincoln's election as president, seven Southern states **seceded** from the Union because they feared that Lincoln would abolish slavery. Four more states had followed by the time Lincoln delivered his first **inaugural** address on March 4, 1861.



Although Americans admire George Washington, the greatest American hero is certainly Abraham Lincoln. Why? Americans like to believe that people who are honest and hardworking can achieve success no matter how humble their beginnings. Abraham Lincoln is a perfect example of what Americans call a self-made man.

Abraham Lincoln was born on February 12, 1809, in a log cabin in Kentucky. His parents were uneducated and poor. Stories about Abraham Lincoln's youth demonstrate his honesty. (In fact, he earned the nickname "Honest Abe.") Abraham Lincoln eventually became a lawyer; he had very little formal

education. But he did have a brilliant mind and great moral strength. He had the **courage** to do what he felt was right, no matter how great the sacrifice. In 1860, shortly before the Civil War, he said, “Let us have faith that right makes might; and in that faith let us, to the end, dare to do our duty as we understand it.”

Lincoln had become known nationally when he **staked** out the Republican position on slavery in the territories and held his own in a series of public debates in a Senate race with Douglas in 1858. He was also known for a speech in which he stated that the United States could not long endure as a “house divided” between Northern free-labor capitalism and Southern slavery. On the crucial question of slavery in the territories, Lincoln assured the South that no president could constitutionally **dismantle** the institution in the states. But he would preserve the territories for free labor, thus putting slavery “in the course of ultimate **extinction**.”

White Southerners fully realized what had happened: National politics now **pitted** the North against the South, and the North had a **solid** (unanimous) and growing majority. The South would never again control the federal government or see it controlled by friendly Northerners. Many saw no alternative to seceding from the Union.

Southerners justified secession with what was called the compact theory. This theory held that the Constitution had created not a **perpetual** union but a compact between independent states that **retained** their sovereignty. The compact could be broken in the same way that it had been created: with state conventions called for that purpose. By this means South Carolina seceded from the Union in late December 1860. By February 1 (before Lincoln’s inauguration) six more states from the Deep South had left the Union.

Northerners—including President Buchanan, Stephen Douglas, and other Democrats—denied the right of secession. The more lawyerly among them reminded the South that the Constitution was written “to form a more perfect

Union” than the Articles of Confederation. The Constitution had stated that “the union shall be perpetual (everlasting).” Thus secession was a legal impossibility. And in practical terms, Northerners argued, secession would be a fatal disaster to the American republic. Republics had a history of splitting into smaller parts and descending into anarchy. Secession, Lincoln argued, was revolution. Many Southerners agreed and claimed that they were exercising their **sacred** (holy) right to revolt against oppressive government.

Congress tried to come up with compromise measures in early 1861, but there was no way of compromising in the argument over secession. The seven states of the lower South (South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas) formed themselves into the Confederate States of America. Their Constitution was nearly identical to the Constitution of the United States, although it affirmed state sovereignty, guaranteed slavery, and limited the president to a single six-year term.

South Carolina was the first state to secede from the Union on December 20, 1860. It was also the site of the first battle of the Civil War. On April 12, 1861, Confederate artillery bombarded Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor.

In his inaugural address, Lincoln was **conciliatory** without compromising on secession. He also hinted that the national government would use force to protect military garrisons in the Confederate states—in particular, Fort Moultrie in Charleston Harbor in South Carolina. When he tried to resupply the garrison (which had moved to the stronger Fort Sumter), the South Carolina militia fired thousands of artillery rounds into the fort, forcing its surrender. With that, the Civil War began.

With the beginning of the war, Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas seceded and joined the Confederacy. Unionist legislative majorities kept the remaining slave states of Maryland, Kentucky, Delaware, and Missouri from joining the rebel states. Meanwhile the western counties of Virginia seceded from

that state when Virginia seceded from the Union and became the new state of West Virginia. Thousands of men from these border states, however, traveled south and joined the Confederate Army.

On paper, the North possessed overwhelming military superiority over the South. The North had a free population of about 22 million. The South had a population of 9 million, including almost 4 million slaves. The North was a modern industrial power; the South was overwhelmingly rural. The North possessed nine-tenths of the nation's industrial capacity, four-fifths of its bank capital, and three-fourths of its taxable wealth. The North financed 60 percent of its war effort through the sale of bonds in its prosperous region. Its paper currency inflated by only 80 percent during the whole war. The South, on the other hand, had to finance the war by printing paper money that inflated 9,000 percent in four years.

Yet the South had advantages as well. To succeed, the South did not have to invade and conquer the North. The South had only to prevent the North from invading and conquering the Confederacy. In a similar situation during the American Revolution, the British had far greater military superiority over the Americans than the Union possessed over the Confederacy, but the British failed to **subdue** the American revolutionaries. Many predicted that the Union would fail as well. The South had only to **prolong** the war until the North gave up and went home. In addition, the South's economic backwardness was an advantage: Northern armies had to operate in hostile territory in which transportation and communications were very difficult. Finally, improved weapons (most notably rifled muskets that were accurate at more than 300 yards) gave a lethal advantage to entrenched defenders over opponents who attacked them across open ground. Union soldiers did most of the attacking.

Differing objectives of North and South and the topography of the contested ground helped determine the nature of the war. In the west, Northern armies used

the Mississippi and Tennessee rivers (navigable streams that ran into the South) to capture Confederate territory and to control the river system. By the spring of 1863 the Union controlled all of the Mississippi River except a Confederate stronghold at Vicksburg, Mississippi. That city fell in July, and the Confederacy was cut in half.

In July 1863 Confederate and Union forces fought a **brutal** (terrible, cruel) three-day battle at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. Both sides suffered heavy losses, but the fight was considered a Union victory and a turning point in the American Civil War. The battle marked the last time that the Confederate Army invaded the North.

In northern Virginia, however, the South defended land with Chesapeake inlets and east–west rivers that the Union had to cross. In this theater the South also had General Robert E. Lee, an almost mystically skilled commander who constantly outthought his attackers and forced them to **assault** him under bad conditions. On two occasions, Lee invaded Northern territory. He suffered defeats at the Battle of Antietam (in Maryland) in 1862 and the Battle of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, in 1863. For the remainder of the war he fought defensively. General Ulysses S. Grant took control of the Union Army opposed to Lee in early 1864 and attacked Lee that spring. In horrific battles at the Wilderness, Spotsylvania, and Cold Harbor (all in northern Virginia), Grant took heavy **casualties** before trapping and attacking Lee at Petersburg, south of Richmond, Virginia.

Ulysses S. Grant, the Union Army's greatest general, led his troops to victory in the American Civil War. President Abraham Lincoln selected Grant to lead the Union forces on March 9, 1864, following a string of unsuccessful commanders. At the same time, Union General William Tecumseh Sherman marched from Chattanooga, Tennessee, to Atlanta, Georgia.



After a month long attack, he captured and burned Atlanta. While Atlanta and Petersburg were besieged (=attacked), Northern voters reelected Lincoln in 1864 in an election that was regarded as a referendum on the war.

While Grant and Lee faced each other at Petersburg, Sherman left Atlanta and set out across country to Savannah, Georgia, destroying everything in his path that was of military value and much that was not. Sherman then turned north, burned the South Carolina capital at Columbia and kept moving into North Carolina. Before Sherman could join Grant, Lee's army fled Petersburg. Grant caught him at Appomattox, and Lee surrendered. In terms of human suffering, the Civil War was by far the most painful the U.S. has ever been involved in. About 620,000 (360,000 Union and 260,000 Confederate) soldiers died in battle and another 500,000 suffered from war-related injuries or illnesses. The number of Civil War deaths was almost as high as the total number of American lives lost in all other wars that the U.S was involved in from 1775 to 1995.

On January 1, 1863, U.S. President Abraham Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, ordering that all slaves in rebel territory be freed. The Proclamation marked a radical departure in policy, but reflected the overwhelming public sentiment in the North. About 3 million people were freed by the terms of the document, which is regarded as one of the most important state documents of the United States.

In a preliminary Emancipation Proclamation, issued after the Northern victory at Antietam in September 1862, Lincoln declared that slaves in all states that remained in rebellion on January 1, 1863, would be "forever free." In January 1865 Congress passed the 13th Amendment, which ended slavery forever. It was ratified and became part of the Constitution in December 1865.

The Civil War had long-term economic and social results as well. The South was the theater of war, and the physical destruction of that region was **enormous** (huge). White Southerners lost their plantation labor system and their huge

investment in slaves. Egyptian and Indian cotton had entered world markets during the war, and American cotton never regained its prewar dominance. The South remained the poorest region of the United States for a very long time.

Disfranchised groups often saw their positions improve as a result of the war. Irish and German immigrants had experienced (and returned) the hostility of native-born Americans in the decades before the war. About one in four Union soldiers was an immigrant, and their help in defeating the South temporarily eased anti-immigrant feeling.

Northern women saw new possibilities open up during and after the war. In wartime they often took jobs previously done by men on farms and in factories, and thousands served in the Union nursing corps. Partly as a result, postwar women's political and reform groups were larger and more militant (aggressive) than the groups that preceded them.

Finally and perhaps most importantly, the Civil War was a watershed in the history of African Americans. The war permanently ended slavery. At the same time, it raised questions about the economic, social, and political place of African Americans in the United States. The Bureau was formed in 1865 to provide food and medical and legal assistance to the newly emancipated blacks, as well as to needy whites. The bureau also established schools, supervised labor relations, and protected blacks from violence.

In 1866 they passed two laws over the president's vetoes: the Civil Rights Act to protect the rights of freed slaves and an act that extended the life of the Freedmen's Bureau. The bureau was designed as a relief organization for blacks and whites who were left destitute by the war. It also helped blacks by establishing schools, supervising labor relations, and protecting them from violence and intimidation.

Southern Democrats, white landowners, and white voters generally opposed Republican rule. They tried to **dismantle** Republican power by terrorizing blacks to prevent them from voting. Without black votes, the Democrats would be able to defeat the Republican Party and reclaim their power. The best-known terrorist group was the Ku Klux Klan²⁶, formed in 1866 to suppress black suffrage and restore white supremacy. Klan members attacked Freedmen’s Bureau officers, white Republicans, and black voters. Republicans in Congress tried to **combat** terrorism with three “enforcement acts” of 1870 and 1871. The acts sought to protect voters, supervise elections, and punish those who **impeded** black suffrage. Federal efforts virtually suppressed the Ku Klux Klan, but violence and intimidation continued, and ex-Confederate hostility to emancipation **seethed**.

Emancipation was a momentous experience; to former slaves, it represented autonomy and freedom from white control. Freedom brought waves of migration within the former Confederacy. Newly freed peoples moved to cities or to other plantations, sought out family members from whom they had been separated, and secured legal marriages, sometimes in mass ceremonies. They also formed new institutions. Black churches provided former slaves with spiritual support. Seeking literacy for themselves and their children, former slaves started freedmen’s schools. The Freedmen’s Bureau and Northern philanthropy (charity) helped establish more than 4,000 African American schools and some advanced institutions, such as Howard University in Washington, D.C. In several locales, blacks struggled for integrated public facilities. In 1875 Congress passed a Civil Rights Act to bar segregation in public places. Typically, former slaves sought not integration with whites but freedom from white interference.

²⁶ Former Confederate soldiers founded the Ku Klux Klan (KKK) after the American Civil War (1861–1865). The KKK used violence and intimidation to prevent blacks from voting and holding office, and to keep them segregated.

A **paramount** black goal was to own land, which signified independence, but Southern whites retained control over the land. Reconstruction did not redistribute land in the South, and most former slaves lacked the resources to buy it. From 1865 to 1866, newly freed African Americans began to sign labor contracts with planters to do field work in exchange for wages, housing, food, and clothing. But they found the new system too similar to slavery, and planters disliked it, too. The labor system that evolved, sharecropping, seemed preferable. Under this system, landowners divided plantations into small units and rented them to blacks for a portion of the crop, usually one-third or one-half. Former slaves favored the new **sharecropping** system, which provided more independence than the wage system. Planters also appreciated the sharecropping system because they retained control of their land and split the risk of planting with sharecroppers. Owners of large plantations held on to their powerful positions in society.

After the Civil War, hope of economic opportunity **lured** (attracted) migrants and immigrants west to the Great Plains and Rocky Mountain region. Settlers battled Native Americans for desirable lands, carved out farms, and built mines and ranches. By the end of the century, the Western territories had turned into states, and their residents had become part of a rapidly industrializing economy.

In December 1890 troops under the command of U.S. Army General Nelson A. Miles took a band of captive Sioux to a cavalry camp along Wounded Knee Creek. When the soldiers attempted to disarm the band, shots were fired, and within a short time the federal troops had killed between 150 and 370 Sioux men, women, and children. The Native Americans of the Great Plains included diverse tribes—among them the Blackfoot, Sioux, Dakota, Cheyenne, Comanche, Arapaho, Navajo, and Apache. After the Civil War, the Native Americans confronted a growing stream of settlers—prospectors, ranchers, and farm families. The newcomers brought with them new diseases that **ravaged** (ruin) the tribes.

The settlers also killed off the buffalo and thus damaged the Native American economy.

In the late 19th century, Congress developed a new policy toward Native Americans. Instead of isolating them on reservations, as had been done in the mid-1800s, the new policy sought to assimilate Native Americans into the cultural mainstream. Congressional policymakers responded to pressure from two different groups. First, some people sought to suppress Native American culture by converting Native Americans to Christianity and turning them into farmers. Second, land-hungry settlers and speculators wanted the Native Americans removed from desirable land in the reservations.

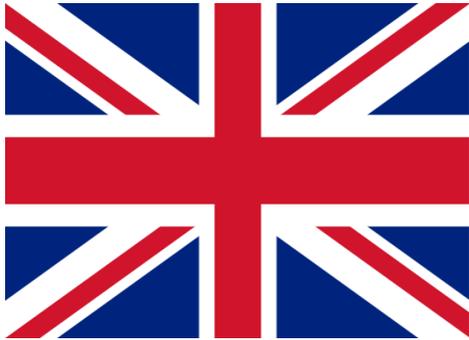
The Dawes Severalty Act, passed by Congress in 1887, addressed both concerns. The law broke up reservations and encouraged private farms. Native Americans families received individual plots of land, carved from reservations, as well as farm equipment. These families were to give up their communal way of life on the reservations and become independent farmers. But few Native Americans profited from the Dawes Act; the greatest **beneficiaries** were land speculators, who under the law were able to buy the best pieces of reservation land.

After You Read

Debate these issues in a small groups. Then choose one and write about it.

1. Did the South have the right to secede? Can part of a country declare independence?
2. What were the two main causes of the American Civil War?
3. How did the Civil War influence the life of African Americans and Native Americans?
4. Why did white landowners and white voters try to prevent blacks from voting?
5. What problems did the Native Americans face after the Civil War?

Chapter 7 The land of the U.K. and its population



United Kingdom, constitutional monarchy in northwestern Europe, officially the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Great Britain is the largest island known as the British Isles. England is the largest and most populous division (administrative region) of the island of Great Britain, 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 second largest island in the British Isles.

The Unified Kingdom of Great Britain came into being on 1 May 1707, when the parliaments of England and Scotland **ratified** the Treaty of Union. At that time Wales was a part of Scotland and Northern Ireland joined the union later in 1800. People often **confuse** the names for this country, and frequently make mistakes in using them. *United Kingdom*, *UK*, and *Britain* are all **proper** terms for the entire nation, although the term *Britain* is also often used when talking about the island of Great Britain. It is always correct to call people from England, Scotland, or Wales *British*, although people from England may also properly be called *English*, people from Scotland *Scottish*, and people from Wales *Welsh*.

Devisions

Devisions	Capital	Area (km ²)	Population (2004 estimate)
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England	London	130,410	50,094,000
Northern Ireland	Belfast	14,160	1,710,000
Scotland	Edinburgh	78,790	5,078,000
Wales	Cardif	20,760	2,952,000

The United Kingdom is a small nation in physical size (244,110 sq km or 94,251 sq mi), and is roughly the size of Oregon or Colorado, or twice the size of New York State. It is located in northern Europe and warmed by the Gulf Stream flowing out of the North Atlantic Ocean. The climate, in general, is mild, chilly, and often wet. Preindustrial settlements **clustered** in southern England, where the climate was milder, the growing season longer, and the rich soil and steady rainfall produced bountiful harvests. Rain or overcast skies can be expected for up to 300 days per year. These conditions make Britain **lush** and green, with rolling **plains** in the south and east and rough hills and mountains to the west and north. Despite its relatively small size, Britain is highly **populated**, with more than 63 million people. It is highly developed economically, leading in the arts and sciences, advanced in technology, **prosperous** and peaceful. In general, British citizens belong to one of the more wealthy states of Europe and enjoy a high standard of living.

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 Sicily 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. Several **dependencies** and dependent territories are associated with the United Kingdom. The dependencies²⁷, located

²⁷ Anguilla, Bermuda, British Antarctic Territory, British Indian Ocean Territory, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Channel Islands (Guernsey and Jersey), Falkland Islands (Islas Malvinas), Gibraltar, Isle of Man, Montserrat, Pitcairn Island, Saint Helena, South Georgia Islands, South Sandwich Islands, Sovereign Base Areas of Akrotiri and Dhekelia in Cyprus, Turks and Caicos Islands

close to Britain, are the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea and the Channel Islands off the northern coast of France. Britain's dependent territories are **scattered** throughout the world and are the **remains** of the former British Empire. They are generally small in area and without many resources. The former colonies have **opted** to remain under British control for a variety of reasons. Today Britain assists the territories economically, with the understanding that they may become independent when they wish. Most are **locally self-governing**, although the queen appoints a governor for each territory who is responsible for **external affairs** and **internal security**, including the police and public service. The ultimate responsibility for their government rests with the foreign and **commonwealth** secretary, a minister in the British Cabinet. The United Kingdom has experienced difficulties with some of its territories—Argentina has made **claims** to the Falkland Islands (Islas Malvinas) and Spain has made claims to Gibraltar. China's claim to the former dependent territory of Hong Kong was **satisfied** in July 1997 when Britain's **lease** ran out and China assumed control of the area.

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 highland zone.

Britain's population is **overwhelmingly** urban, with 89 percent living in **urban** areas and 11 percent living in **rural** areas. The Industrial Revolution built up major urban areas, and most of Britain's people live in and around them to this day. 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 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 great American novelist and humorist Mark Twain described the typical Englishman or woman as a “person who does things because they have been done before” and the typical American as “a person who does things because they haven’t been done before”. The average British man wears a **bowler hat** and carries an umbrella. He waits in a queue for the bus, eats fish and chips, and drinks a lot of tea. He has a servant and has great respect for the Queen.

People think of the British as being perfectly polite and proper, always knowing which knife and fork to use, always saying “*please*”, “*thank you*” and “*excuse me*”. Britons are also famous for their **reserve** and their “stiff upper lip”, i.e. for not giving their opinion or showing their feelings in public, which makes them seem formal and distant. It is said that the British are “*quant*” a word which means old-fashioned, but in a nice way. This impression comes partly from differences in how some countries speak English. British English has words and structures that have not been used in the U.S. for a long time, and so it sounds old-fashioned or **formal**. A favorite British adjective is “*lovely*”, which is used to describe anything, including the weather. Other British words, like “*holiday*”, “*smashing*” and “*brilliant*” make Americans smile.

As a nation, the Brits tend not to use superlatives and may not appear terribly animated when they speak. This does not mean that they do not have strong emotions; merely that they do not choose to put them on public display. They are generally not very openly demonstrative, and, unless you know someone well, may not appreciate it if you put your arm around their shoulder.

The view of Britain as a country where everyone **behaves** in a strange but nice way is not realistic, and people who have been to Britain have some negative impressions to add to the positive. The British are **snobbish** and do not seem very friendly. The famous British reserve seems cold to other people who are more used to an open, enthusiastic way of communicating

The mixture of ethnic groups and cultures make it difficult to define “Britishness” nowadays and a debate rages within the nation as to what now really constitutes being a Briton.

Ethnic group	Population	% of total*
White British	50,366,497	86%
White (other)	3,096,169	5.3%
Indian	1,053,411	1.8%
Pakistani	977,285	1.6%
White Irish	691,232	1.2%
British Mixed	677,117	1.2%
Black Caribbean	565,876	1.0%
Black African	485,277	0.8%
Bangladeshi	283,063	0.5%
Other Asian (non-Chinese)	247,644	0.4%
Chinese	247,403	0.4%
Other	230,615	0.4%
Black (others)	97,585	0.2%

** Percentage of total UK population, according to the 2001 Census*

The UK's *de facto* official language is English. It is **estimated** that 95% of the UK's population are monolingual English speakers. 5.5% of the population are estimated to speak languages brought to the UK as a result of relatively recent immigration. South Asian languages, including Bengali, Tamil, Punjabi, Hindi and Gujarati, are the largest grouping and are spoken by 2.7% of the UK population. According to the 2011 **census**, Polish has become the second largest language spoken in England and has 546,000 speakers.

Four Celtic languages are spoken in the UK: Welsh; Irish; Scottish Gaelic; and Cornish. It is **compulsory** for pupils to study a second language up to the age of 14 in England, and up to age 16 in Scotland. French and German are the two most commonly taught second languages in England and Scotland. All pupils in Wales are taught Welsh as a second language up to age 16, or are taught in Welsh.



AFTER YOU READ

Debate these issues in small groups. Then choose one and write about it.

1. Do you think it is good if a country's population consists of various nationalities and national majorities?
2. What is good and what is bad about the British dependencies?
3. Do you think the British people are sociable, conventional people who join groups and try to behave like everyone else in the group?
4. In 1995, Mel Gibson (American actor, film director, producer and screenwriter) directed, produced, and starred in *Brave heart*, a biopic of Sir William Wallace, a Scottish nationalist who was executed in 1305 for, "high treason," against King Edward I of England. Gibson received two Academy Awards, Best Director and Best Picture. *Brave heart* influenced the Scottish nationalist movement and helped to revive the film genre of the historical epic; the Battle of Sterling Bridge sequence is considered by critics to be one of the all-time-best-directed battle scenes. This film is popular in Uzbekistan too. What do you think of Scottish and Irish people who are still struggling for freedom?
5. There is a proverb or an old saying like "Englishman's house is his castle" or "East or west home is best". They say the British are very conservative and do not like to change their lifestyle and permanent house. If we consider this as a true fact, what about the early immigrants who found the first English settlement in America?

CHAPTER 8 A LAND OF DIVERSITY



E Pluribus Unum is the United States **motto**, appearing on the nation's coins and paper money, and on many of its public monuments. It means "From many, one." First used to unify the 13 British colonies in North America during the American Revolution (1775-1783), this phrase acquired new meaning when the United States received wave after wave of immigrants from many lands. These immigrants had to find ways to reconcile their varied backgrounds and fit together under a constitution and a set of laws. That process of creating one society out of many different backgrounds is one of the biggest stories of the American experience.

"What then is the American, this new man?" asked one of thousands of immigrants who came to North America in the 18th century. "He is an American, who leaving behind him all his ancient **prejudices** and manners, receives new ones from the new mode of life he has embraced, the new government he obeys, and the new rank he holds. The American is a new man, who acts upon new principles...Here individuals of all nations are melted into a new race of men." Michel Guillaume Jean de Crèvecoeur, who wrote under the pseudonym (pen name) J. Hector St. John, wrote these words more than 200 years ago. In 1759, at the age of 24, Crèvecoeur emigrated from France to the American colonies.

Learning English quickly and making a success of himself as a farmer in upstate New York, he married an English woman and became a celebrated observer of the American scene. Amazed at the mingling of people from many parts of the world, Crèvecoeur pointed to a family headed by an Englishman who had married a Dutch woman, whose son married a French woman, and whose four sons had each married a woman of a different nationality. “From this **promiscuous** (heterogeneous, mixed) breed that race now called Americans has arisen,” he proclaimed.

A hundred years later, on the other side of the continent, Harriett Lane Levy wrote of growing up as a Jew. In her San Francisco neighborhood, she remembered, “The baker was German; the fish man, Italian; the grocer, a Jew; the butcher, Irish; the steam laundryman, a New Englander. The vegetable vendor and the regular laundryman who came to the house were Chinese.”

The United States began as an immigrant society, and it has continued to be a **mingling** of immigrants ever since. Even Native Americans, the first people to live in North America, descended from people who arrived from Asia many thousands of years ago. Since 1820, 63 million immigrants have arrived in the United States. Never in the history of the world has a country been **braided** together from so many strands of people arriving with different languages, histories, and cultures.

How could a nation of such diversity **meld** (combine) together so many different humans? Alexis de Tocqueville, another Frenchman who traveled to the United States, was fascinated with this question. He knew that the nation had to find some kind of glue to bind together so many different peoples. He found that glue in the American political system that had developed by the 1830s—a politics of participation based on the notion that to be legitimate and lasting, a government had to derive its power from the people. These principles were part of the political system created by the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States. This system aimed to create “one federated whole,” but this was an

ideal yet to be accomplished. Today, the American people are still reaching for that ideal.

The goal of *E pluribus unum* has been closely connected with an ongoing debate: What is the meaning of the three resounding words that open the Constitution of the United States—“We, the people.” Every generation has faced the question, how wide is the circle of “we”? The various answers to that question have defined the degree of democracy in the United States. Creating one from the many, then, has been inseparable from deciding how democratic the nation will be. There is great diversity in the **ethnic makeup** of America. Nevertheless, many writers have generalized about typical American values, attitudes, and beliefs. For example, Mortimer B. Zuckerman, editor-in-chief of the U.S., *New & World Report* sees his country as “a unique culture of self-reliance, independence, resourcefulness, pragmatism, and novelty.” He goes on to describe his fellow Americans in greater detail: “We are comfortable with changes and with people who make things happen. In America the new is better than the old; taking charge is valued over playing it safe; making money is superior to inheriting it; education and **merit** (ability) are favored over family ties.”

How did the population of the United States grow to today’s 300 million, the third largest in the world (after China and India)? In the colonial era, the average American woman gave birth to eight children; in the 1990s, she had two children. This **profound** (great) revolution in the biological history of the nation connects with another major change in U.S. society—women working outside the home. The connection between changing **birthrates** and the shifting composition of the labor force is very powerful. Or consider life **expectancy**. People live much longer than they did in the early years of the United States, raising questions about how to **maintain** (keep on) the social security system and provide care for the elderly. This is just one example of how the people, the economy, and the government are bound together.

The most important characteristic of the U.S.A. can be stated in one word: diversity. This diversity is often highlighted and celebrated at school and

community festivals. Racially, the U.S. is about 72.4% white, 12.6% black, 4% Asian and Pacific Islander, and 1% Native American (including Eskimo and Aleut). Hispanics (Latino) are roughly 16.3% of the entire American population, making Spanish-Speaking people the nation's largest **minority**.

Regional variations also add diversity to the American character. Travel around the country and you'll notice differences in language, diet, **recreation** (hobby, pleasure), and even regional character. Some Americans can tell what part of the country other Americans come from just by listening to their accents. Cooking styles also vary from place to place, influenced by the different immigrant groups that have settled in that area and by the edible plants, fish, seafood, and wildlife native to each region. Recreation also varies from place to place, influenced by climate, geography, and ethnic traditions. In addition attitudes and behavior may differ somewhat from one region of the country to another. For example, New Englanders are commonly described as serious and **self-reliant**, Southerners as **gracious** and **leisurely**, and Westerners are considered more **conservative** than Californians and less **sophisticated** than New Yorkers. Of course, many residents of a particular region do not fit these generalizations.

With a birth rate of 13 per 1,000, 35% below the world average, its population growth rate is positive at 0.9%, significantly higher than those of many developed nations. In **fiscal** year 2012, over one million immigrants (most of who entered through family reunification) were granted legal residence. Mexico has been the leading source of new residents for over two decades; since 1998, China, India, and the Philippines have been in the top four sending countries every year.

The United States has a very diverse population—31 ancestry groups have more than one million members. White Americans are the largest racial group; German Americans, Irish Americans, and English Americans constitute three of the country's four largest ancestry groups. Black Americans are the nation's largest racial minority and third largest ancestry group. Asian Americans are the country's second largest racial minority; the three largest Asian American ethnic groups are Chinese Americans, Filipino Americans, and Indian Americans.

In 2010, the U.S. population included an estimated 5.2 million people with some American Indian or Alaska Native ancestry (2.9 million exclusively of such ancestry) and 1.2 million with some native Hawaiian or Pacific island ancestry (0.5 million exclusively). The census counted more than 19 million people of "Some Other Race "who were" unable to identify with any" of its five official race categories in 2010.

The population growth of Hispanic and Latino Americans (the terms are officially interchangeable) is a major demographic trend. The 50.5 million Americans of Hispanic descent are identified as sharing a distinct "ethnicity" by the Census Bureau; 64% of Hispanic Americans are of Mexican descent. Between 2000 and 2010, the country's Hispanic population increased 43% while the non-Hispanic population rose just 4.9%. Much of this growth is from immigration; as of 2007, 12.6% of the U.S. population was foreign-born, with 54% of that figure born in Latin America.

Fertility is also a factor; as of 2010 the average Hispanic (of any race) woman gave birth to 2.35 children in her lifetime, compared to 1.97 for non-Hispanic black women and 1.79 for non-Hispanic white women (both below the replacement rate of 2.1). Minorities (as defined by the Census Bureau as all those beside non-Hispanic, non-multiracial whites) constituted 36.3% of the population in 2010, and over 50% of children under age one, and are projected to constitute the majority by 2042. This contradicts the report by the National Vital Statistics Reports, based on the U.S. census data, which concludes that, 54% (2,162,406 out of 3,999,386 in 2010) of births were non-Hispanic white.

About 82% of Americans live in urban areas (including suburbs); about half of those reside in cities with populations over 50,000. In 2008, 273 incorporated places had populations over 100,000, nine cities had more than one million residents, and four global cities had over two million (New York City, Los Angeles, Chicago, and Houston).

There are 52 metropolitan areas with populations greater than one million. Of the 50 fastest-growing metro areas, 47 are in the West or South. The metro

areas of Dallas, Houston, Atlanta, and Phoenix all grew by more than a million people between 2000 and 2008.

English (American English) is the de facto national language. Although there is no official language at the federal level, some laws—such as U.S. naturalization requirements—standardize English. In 2010, about 230 million, or 80% of the population aged five years and older, spoke only English at home. Spanish, spoken by 12% of the population at home, is the second most common language and the most widely taught second language. Some Americans advocate making English the country's official language, as it is in at least 28 states.

Both Hawaiian and English are official languages in Hawaii, by state law. While neither has an official language, New Mexico has laws providing for the use of both English and Spanish, as Louisiana does for English and French. Other states, such as California, mandate the publication of Spanish versions of certain government documents including court forms. Many jurisdictions with large numbers of non-English speakers produce government materials, especially voting information, in the most commonly spoken languages in those jurisdictions.

Several **insular** territories grant official recognition to their native languages, along with English: Samoan and Chamorro are recognized by American Samoa and Guam, respectively; Carolinian and Chamorro are recognized by the Northern Mariana Islands; Spanish is an official language of Puerto Rico and is more widely spoken than English there.

The great American novelist and humorist Mark Twain described the typical Englishman or woman as a “person who does things because they have been done before” and the typical American as “a person who does things because they haven’t been done before”. Americans love to try something new out of curiosity and believe that newer may be better.

As a nation of immigrants, the U.S. has had a continental **influx** of people with a pioneering spirit, with the courage to make major changes in their lives. In the mid nineteenth century, this spirit led American settlers to make the long, difficult, and dangerous journey westward in search of gold or free land. The desire

to make a fresh start in a new place is still noticeable throughout the nation. About 42 million Americans change residences every year. Some moves are due to changing jobs or going off to college. Other people move from big cities to suburbs (or vice versa). Some move to find adventure or a more pleasant climate. The pioneering spirit of Americans is evident in the working world, too. Employees change jobs and even careers as opportunities change.

√ *Check Your* How many Americans change their residence every year?

Comprehension

Englishman, on the other hand, tries to remain in the place where he was born. They have proverbs such as: “East or West home is best”, or “Englishman’s house is his castle” and so on. They are very devoted to their traditions and keep their lifestyle unchanged.

Americans love science and technology, and so do the British. The U.S. has embraced the age of communication with great enthusiasm. From preschoolers to senior citizens, Americans are learning to use computers – at school, at work, and at home. Robots, lasers, and other inventions of modern technology fascinate them. Americans subsidize all kinds of space exploration, from outside the Earth to inside the atom, in order to uncover the secrets of the universe.

Love of change is closely tied to faith in improvement. Americans have always been optimistic, believing in the perfectibility of people, the basic goodness of their country, and the ability of American ingenuity to improve the quality of life. But people have come to realize that, if life can become better, it can also become worse. The dangers of air and water pollution, nuclear power, and overpopulation have become clear.

Watching Americans in action, foreigners sometimes see behavior that seems rude, **misguided**, or just plain silly. The following traits are characteristically, but certainly not exclusively, American.

Hurry, Hurry, Hurry. Almost every American wears a watch and, in nearly every room in an American home, there is a clock. “Be on time”. ”Don’t waste

time”. “Time is money”. “Time waits for no one”. All these familiar sayings reflect the American **obsession** with promptness and efficiency. Students displease their teachers and employers displease their bosses when they arrive late. This desire to get the most out of every minute often makes Americans **impatient** when they have to wait. The pressure to make every moment count sometimes makes it difficult for Americans to relax.

The desire to save time and do work more quickly and easily leads Americans to buy many kinds of machines. These range from office equipment such as calculators, photocopier machines, and computers to dozens of home and personal appliances such as microwave ovens.

After visiting the U.S. in the 1830s, the French historian Alexis de Tocqueville wrote, “I know of no country.... Where the love of money has taken stronger hold.....” Americans are often accused of being materialistic, of valuing wealth and **possessions** above all else. Money is valued both as a symbol of success and also for a more obvious reason **purchasing power**. Many items that didn’t even exist 50 years ago are now considered necessities in the American home. In addition, purchases are made in order to “**keep up with the Joneses**”, to show friends that one can afford a bigger house or a fancier car. Also, advertising encourages people to keep buying things for beyond what they need. In the mid-nineteenth century, the American author Henry David Thoreau advised his countryman, “Simplify your needs!” However, Americans have moved in the opposite direction. Now, just as Thoreau predicted, many find that their possessions own them. They must work hard to earn enough money to buy and maintain the many possessions they consider necessities.

Yes, Americans love to make a lot of money and spend it on themselves – to buy things that save time, give them pleasure, or serve as status symbols. However, Americans are also very generous and willing to donate money to good causes. The American character includes a strong sense of obligation to help those in need.

√ *Check Your Comprehension* What is the definition of the idiom “keep up with the Joneses”?

Say What You Mean, and Mean What You Say. Americans believe that “honesty is the best policy”. They are direct and assertive. They ask for what they want. In many cultures, respect for those in position of authority keeps people from expressing their true feelings or intentions. In the U.S.A., however, children often argue with their parents and citizens express opposition to actions of the government.

Most Americans take pride in the great variety found in the country’s geography and population. Covering 3,700, 000 square miles (9,590, 000 square kilometers), the U.S. is the fourth-largest nation in the world (after Russia, China, and Canada). 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 Chihuahuahua and Mojave. The Sierra Nevada and Cascade mountain ranges run close to the Pacific coast, both ranges reaching altitudes higher than 14,000 feet (4,300 m).

The lowest and highest points in the continental United States are in the state of California, and only about 80 miles (130 km) apart. At 20,320 feet (6,194 m), Alaska's Mount McKinley is the tallest peak in the country and in North America. Active volcanoes are common throughout Alaska's Alexander and Aleutian Islands, and Hawaii consists of volcanic islands. The super volcano underlying Yellowstone National Park in the Rockies is the continent's largest volcanic feature.

The United States, with its large size and geographic variety, includes most climate types. To the east of the 100th meridian, the climate ranges from humid continental in the north to humid subtropical in the south. The southern tip of Florida is tropical, as is Hawaii. The Great Plains west of the 100th meridian are semi-arid. Much of the Western mountains are alpine. The climate is arid in the Great Basin, desert in the Southwest, Mediterranean in coastal California, and oceanic in coastal Oregon and Washington and southern Alaska. Most of Alaska is subarctic or **polar**. Extreme weather is not uncommon—the states bordering the Gulf of Mexico are **prone** to hurricanes, and most of the world's **tornadoes** occur within the country, mainly in the Midwest's Tornado Alley.



After You Read

Debate these issues in small groups. Then choose one and write about it.

1. Americans are usually described as sociable, conventional people who join groups and try to behave like everyone else in the group. However, some American books and movies have made a hero of a person who fights the majority will and tries to accomplish something good independently. What's better to be a joiner or a loner?
2. Why do some people believe that the U.S. is a dangerous where you cannot walk in the streets or subways without fear of being attacked?
3. What advantages and disadvantages of expressing one's opinion openly?
4. How did the great American novelist Mark Twain describe the typical Englishman or woman and the typical American?
5. Do you think wealth and possessions make a person important? If not, what does?
6. In the 1980s, a Russian immigrant and popular entertainer named Yakov Smirnov became famous for his three-word reaction to the U.S. Whenever something surprised him, he said, "What a country!" What surprises you about the U.S.? Why?

CHAPTER 9 FAMILY LIFE



As the couple leaves church after a wedding ceremony, guests shower them with rice. The ancient custom of rice-throwing was originally used to bless the married couple with fertility.

KEY WORDS AND WORD COMBINATIONS: *bride, groom, spouse, wedding, average age, elope, get engaged, propose, fiancée, date, social contact, ethnic background, marriage ceremony, perform wedding, divorce, marriage license, wedding party, exchange vows, nuclear family, single-parent families, divorce rate, alimony, date, cohabitation, No – fault divorce,*

Marriage socially recognized and approved union between individuals, who commit to one another with the expectation of a stable and lasting intimate relationship. It begins with a ceremony known as a wedding, which formally unites the marriage partners. A marital relationship usually involves some kind of contract, either written or specified by tradition, which defines the partners' rights and obligations to each other, to any children they may have, and to their relatives. In most contemporary industrialized societies, marriage is certified by the government.

“Marriage halves our grief, doubles our joy, and quadruples our expenses”, says a well-known proverb. It also decreases both freedom and loneliness. Today’s Americans and the British seem willing to take the bad with the good because the institution of marriage continues to be popular. By middle age, about 90% of Americans and the British have been married at least once.

However, the countries’ single adult population is large as the married population. Only 56% of Americans are married and living with their spouse.

A wedding is the occasion when people get married. Marriage is the state of being married, though the word can also mean the wedding ceremony.

Attitudes to marriage have changed a lot over the last 50 years. Many people in Britain and the U.S. now live together without getting married. This was once called “living in sin” and was not socially acceptable. Marriage is still popular, though people tend to be older when they get married. People can marry at 18 or at 16 if their parents agree, but the average age is, in the U.S., 23 for women and 26 for men, and in Britain 26 and 28 respectively.

In past times, if parents did not approve of a marriage, the couple eloped (=went away and got married secretly).

Before getting married couples get engaged. It is traditional for the man to propose (= ask his girlfriend to marry him) and, if she accepts, to give his new fiancée an engagement ring. Today many couples decide together to get married.

Although people try to be practical in most matters, when they choose a spouse, the decision is usually based upon feelings of love rather than practical considerations. In the U.S., parents do not arrange marriages for their children. Teenagers usually begin dating in high school and eventually find partners through their own social contacts. They want to “fall in love” before they think about marriage. Most parents encourage their children to marry someone of the same race and religion. Still, when young adults move away from their parents’ home to

attend college or to work in another city, they often date and then marry a person from a different ethnic background.

In societies in which individuals choose their own partners, young people typically date prior to marriage. Dating is the process of spending time with prospective partners to become acquainted. Dates may take place in groups or between just two individuals. When dating becomes more serious it may be referred to as courtship. Courtship implies a deeper level of commitment than dating does. During courtship the individuals specifically contemplate marriage, rather than merely enjoy one another's company for the time being.

Courtship may lead to engagement, also known as betrothal—the formal agreement to marry. Couples usually spend some period of time engaged before they actually marry. A woman who is engaged is known as the man's fiancée, and the man is known as the woman's fiancé (both can be pronounced as [fi`ɑ:nseɪ]). Men typically give an engagement ring to their fiancée as a symbol of the agreement to marry.

In the past, dating, courtship, and engagement were distinct stages in the selection of a marital partner. Each stage represented an increasing level of commitment and intimacy. Although this remains true to some degree, since the 1960s these stages have tended to blend into one another. For example, modern dating and courtship often involve sexual relations. Studies indicate that more than three-quarters of young people in the United States have had sexual intercourse by the age of 19. Furthermore, the contemporary mate-selection process frequently includes the practice of cohabitation—living together in an unmarried sexual relationship. Cohabitation has a long history among poor people, but has become popular among young, middle-class adults only since the 1960s. Cohabitation often precedes marriage, but in some cases, people continue to cohabit without marrying.

In general, people tend to date and marry people with whom they have characteristics in common. Thus, mate selection typically results in homogenous

marriage, in which the partners are similar in a variety of ways. Characteristics that couples tend to share include race, ethnicity, religion, economic status, age, and the level of prestige of their parents.

In England, the bride's parents traditionally pay for the wedding. With more couples getting married later in life, some couples are paying for the majority of their wedding together.

The couple then set a date and decides who will perform the marriage ceremony and where it will be held. In the U.S. judges and religious leaders can perform weddings. Religious weddings are often held in a church or chapel, but the ceremony can take place anywhere and couples often choose somewhere that is special to them. In Britain many couples still prefer to be married in church, even if they are not religious. Others choose a civil ceremony at a registry office or a hotel.

Traditionally, the family of the bride (= the woman is to be married) paid for the wedding, but today the couple usually pay part of the cost. A traditional wedding with a hundred or more guests is expensive. Before the wedding, the couples send out printed invitations and guests buy a gift for them, usually something for their home. In the U.S. couples register at a store by leaving there a list of presents they would like. Guests go to the store to look at the list and buy a present. In Britain couples send a wedding list to guests or, as in America, open a bride's book in a store.

Before a wedding take place in a church it must be announced there on three occasions. This called the reading of the banns. Some religious groups refuse to allow a couple to marry in church if either of them has been divorced, but they may agree to bless the marriage after a civil ceremony.

The night before the wedding the bride and bride-groom or groom (= her future husband) often go to separate parties given for them by friends. At the groom's stag party guests drink alcohol, joke about how the groom is going to lose

his freedom. The hen party for the bride, called in the U.S. a bachelorette party, is usually quieter.

To be legally wed, a couple need only fulfill the requirements set by the state in which the ceremony is performed. State laws determine who may get a marriage license. In most states, teenagers 18 or older can marry without parental consent, but 16 and 17 year olds must have parental permission. In most states, those under age 16 are not allowed to marry. Marriages between first cousins or people more closely related are forbidden in many states. Most states require medical examinations and certificates before issuing a marriage license, and some refuse licenses to people with certain physical or mental illnesses.

Some people play a special role as part of the wedding party. The groom's closest male friend acts as the best man and stands next to him during the ceremony. Other friends act as ushers and show guests where to sit. The bride's closest woman friend is chief bride's maid (Am E maid of honor) or matron of honor if she is married, and other friends and children are bride's maids.

Many woman choose to have a white wedding, so called because the bride wears a long white wedding dress, with a veil (= a piece of thin material) covering her face. Her wedding clothes should include something old; something new, something borrowed, and something blue, to bring luck. The bridesmaids wear matching dresses specially made for the occasion and, like the bride, carry bouquets of flowers. The bridegroom, the best man and other men may wear morning dress (= a long tailed jacket, dark trousers and top hat) or in the U.S. a tuxedo (= a black suit with a white shirt). Women guests dress smartly and often wear hats.

There are, of course, endless variations on American and British weddings. Some weddings combine British customs with those of the couple's native countries. Many weddings blend customs from different cultures because the bride and groom are from different ethnic or religious backgrounds. Other couples

discard tradition and “do their own thing”. Some couples want their weddings to reflect their interests or display their talents. They may, for example, write their own wedding vows. They may get married on a mountaintop or a beach and wear blue jeans. Many couples have gotten married in front of the Statue of Liberty. One couple even held their wedding ceremony in an amusement park on a roller coaster!

On the wedding day the bride traditionally arrives at the church a few minutes late and enters with her father who will give her away to her husband. Some brides today find this offensive. A wedding march is played as the bride enters. Traditional pieces of music played during the procession are the wedding march from Wagner’s opera *Lohengrin* and orchestral music from Mendelssohn’s *A Midsummer Night’s Dream*, but today many couples select other music. Typically, the person performing the ceremony talks about the importance of marriage, and a friend of the couple may read a poem. Then the bride and groom exchange vows (= promise to stay together and support each other). The groom places a wedding ring on the third finger of the bride’s left hand, and sometimes the bride gives him a ring too. The couples are then declared man and wife. They sign the register (= the official record of marriages) and as they leave the church guests throw rice or confetti (= small pieces of colored paper in lucky shapes, such as horseshoes and bells) over them.

The happy couple and their guests then go to the bride’s home or a hotel for the wedding reception. This may be a formal meal or a party. The bride and groom and their parents greet the guests, who, in the U.S. say congratulations to the groom and felicitations to the bride. There are often speeches by the best man, the bride’s father and the bridegroom. The bride and groom together cut a wedding cake, which usually has several tiers (= layers), each covered with white icing (American frosting) with figures of a bride and groom or miniature wedding bells on top. Before the newly-weds leave for their honeymoon (= a holiday to celebrate their marriage) the bride throws a bouquet of flowers backward over her head to a group

of single women standing behind her. Supposedly, the one who catches the bouquet will be the next to marry.

At some weddings, the groom throws his bride's garter to the single men. Catching the garter also means an approaching marriage. Some guests take home a slice of cake in a little box. Some people believe that if a single woman sleeps with this piece of cake under her pillow she will dream of the man she is going to marry. The car the couple leaves in has usually been decorated by their friends with the words "just married" and with old tin cans or shoes tied to the back.

Society in Britain and the U.S. is traditionally based on a nuclear family living in the same house and closely involved in each other's lives. Fifty years ago, the typical family was a husband and a wife, and two or three children. The father spent all day at work and made most of the decisions about how the money he earned was spent. The mother stayed at home to manage the house and look after the children. Children were expected to obey their parents. Some older couples still have traditional marriages, with the man as breadwinner (money earner) and the woman as home maker.

Many modern families live rather differently, and because of this some people think that the family unit is dying and society is being weakened. Many couples still get married, but others live together without getting married. A few years ago, couples living together usually got married when they wanted to start a family (= have children), but this happens less now. Another trend is for people to get married later in life and to have fewer children, so the size of the average family is shrinking.

Many families are disturbed each year as a result of divorce. In the U.S. about half of all married couples get divorced. In Britain the divorce rate has more than doubled since the early 1980s. Many children are brought up in single-parent families (=families in which children are looked after by their mother or father, not both) and only see the other parent occasionally. Other children have two homes

and divide their time between them. If their parents remarry the children may have to fit into a step-family. They may later have half-brothers or half sisters from the new marriage. Families in which some children are adopted (=legally and permanently made part of another family) or fostered (=looked after by another family for a period of time) because their own parents can't take care of them are not uncommon.

The U.S. divorce rate is twice that of Europe and three times higher than Japan's. What goes wrong? The fact that divorce is so common in the U.S. does not mean that Americans consider marriage a casual, unimportant relationship. Just the opposite is true. Americans expect a great deal from marriage. They seek physical, emotional, and intellectual compatibility. They want to be deeply loved and understood. It is because Americans expect so much from marriage that so many get divorced. They prefer no marriage at all to a marriage without love and understanding. With typical American optimism, they end one marriage hoping that the next will be happier. No – fault divorce laws in many states make it easier than ever to get a divorce.

When a couple gets divorced, the court may require the man to pay his former wife a monthly sum of money called alimony. The amount of alimony depends on the husband's income, the wife's needs, and the length of the marriage. If the woman is working and earns a good salary, she may receive no alimony at all. Occasionally the court decides that a woman should pay her husband alimony. If the woman has supported her husband during the marriage, the court may decide that she must continue to support him after the divorce.

An increasing number of organizations are recognizing that there are different family structures. For instance, family tickets to amusement parks, etc, used to be based on two adult and children, but now there are special deals for families with only one adult and children.

Many mothers now have jobs, and young children spend part of the day being cared for by a child minder or at a daycare center. Some politicians and religious leaders, and many ordinary people, still believe that the traditional family in which the mother stays at home is best and criticize mothers who work. But most younger women today are not content to be full – time homemakers. Today’s young woman wants marriage, but she also wants to keep her own identity.

The majority wives, even those with children, work outside the home. As a result, the older idea that housework, cooking, and child care are “women’s work” is being discarded. In the contemporary marriage, the husband and wife share both financial and domestic responsibilities. In most families, the working wife probably still handles the large share of the housework, cooking and childcare, but she gets some help from her husband.

QUESTIONS AFTER YOU READ

1. What is a bride’s book?
2. In what cases do the bride and groom elope?
3. Who pays for the wedding?
4. What does the bride throw to her wedding guests?
5. How has women’s liberation affected the American and British marriage?
6. Why do so many Americans get divorced?
7. How has American and British family life changed as a result of American and British mothers working outside the home?
8. How does the mobility of Americans affect families?

CHAPTER 10 AMERICAN AND BRITISH ETIQUETTE



KEY WORDS AND WORD COMBINATIONS: *acceptable behavior, compliment, harassment, insult, condolences, social situation, multi-ethnic, multi-racial, respect and consideration, tolerant, humble, timid culture, apologize, nonnative speaker, ethnic slur, handshake, casual acquaintance, domineering person, specific comment, pick ones nose, belch, yawn, simply manner*

How do people know what is considered good manners in a particular culture? In the seventeenth-century court of King Louis XIV, it was easy. Visitors were given *une etiquette* (=a ticket) listing rules of acceptable behavior. And that was the origin of today's English word *etiquette*, which refers to the proper way to behave in social situations.

Children are taught good manners, or simply manners (= polite ways of behaving), so that when they are older they will automatically show respect and consideration for other people.

In Britain good manners were once seen as proof of a person's worth, as in the old saying "a manner makes man". Though attitudes have become more tolerant over the years, people still tend to judge others according to how they behave. People may be said to have no manners if they are rude or behave without thought for others. For instance, somebody who picks their nose in front of others,

or belches (= lets out gas from the stomach through their mouth), or yawns without putting their hand in front of their mouth, or who speaks rudely to somebody, will attract criticism. On the other hand, a person who is polite and courteous, who considerate towards other people, who says little about their own achievements and who respects the privacy of others, is much more likely to win approval and respect.

Ideas about appropriate personal behavior vary from country to country, and it can be difficult in a foreign country to know what its people consider to be good manners.

British and American parents often tell their children that “please” is the magic word: if the children remember to say “please”, their parents are more likely to give them the things they ask for. “Please” is used in many situations. People generally say “please” whenever they ask for something, whether it is for goods in a shop, for help, for a favor or for information.

People are also taught to say “thank you” or “thanks” when somebody has given them something or done something for them. In a shop many British people say “thank you” several times at the checkout, e.g. when the operator tells them the total cost of their goods, when he or she gives them their change or gives back their credit card, and sometimes again before they leave.

After receiving a present, it is good manner to say “thank you” and sound pleased. Some people add a specific comment, e.g. “That great – red is my favorite color!” When a person is sent by mail it is polite to a thank-you note, a short letter or card to thank the person who sent it and tell them how much you like it. It is also polite to write and say “thank you” after you have been invited out for a meal or been to stay with somebody.

Americans believe that all people are entitled to equal opportunity and respect. No one is privileged, and no one is worthless. A person who acts very humble and timid will make his or her American friends uncomfortable. On the

other hand, a domineering person will have trouble keeping American friends. A polite but assertive manner is socially acceptable. No matter what your status is in relation to another person, feel free to look directly into his eyes and speak your true feelings. Occasionally, it is a social necessity to tell a “white lie” and compliment someone on something you don’t really like. But, most of the time, you can express your true opinions. Americans won’t mind if you disagree with them as long as you show respect for them and their ideas.

Here are some suggestions that may help you make friends:

Don’t be “nosy”. Americans, like people everywhere, enjoy talking about themselves. Friendly interest is considered good manners as long as one doesn’t ask for extremely personal information such as age, weight, income, or the cost of valuable possessions (home, car, jewelry, etc.). Asking these kinds of questions sounds “nosy”, which is an insult. It’s fine to ask a person’s line of work.

Don’t smoke without permission. Nonsmokers don’t want the smell of the health risks of secondhand smoke. Smokers who must have a cigarette or cigar should excuse themselves and go outside to smoke.

Don’t go too close. When conversing with casual acquaintances, Americans tend to stand closer than Asians do and farther apart than people from the Middle East, southern Europe, and Latin America. What difference does distance make? Standing too close may give the impression of forced intimacy or an attempt to dominate. Standing too far away seems formal, aloof, and cold. When in the U.S., notice the distance between people in public situations. Keep your distance from others similar to what you observe.

Don’t touch. Except for a brief, firm handshake as part of an introduction or a farewell, Americans don’t usually touch people they don’t know well, so hands off!

Don’t make ethnic slurs. The U.S. is a multi-ethnic, multi-racial culture, and there is considerable social interaction among different groups. Don’t say anything

negative about any ethnic group. Your new friend's spouse or brother-in-law may be a member of that group.

Good manners are important at meal times, though people worry less about table manners than they once did now that many meals are less formal. When eating at a table with other people, it is considered polite to keep your napkin (= a piece of material or paper used to wipe your mouth) below the table on your lap, to chew with your mouth closed and not talk with food in your mouth, to keep your elbow off the table, and to eat fairly slowly. It is bad manner to take a lot of food all at once, or to take more until it is offered. It is also better to ask somebody to pass the salt, etc. rather than to reach across the table for it.

When invited to a meal at somebody else's house people often take a bottle of wine, chocolates, or flowers, as a gift. Apart from this, it is not usual to give presents to people you do not know well. It is not considered polite to look round other people's houses without being invited to do so, and people usually ask where the toilet is rather than going to look for it. Many people do not smoke and visitors should ask permission before they smoke in somebody's house. Close friends are much less formal in each other's houses and may get their own drinks and help to clear away the meal.

Formal and informal manners

Good manners do not have to be formal. It is friendly as well as polite to say "hello" or "good morning" to somebody you meet, to say "please" and "thank you" to family and friends as well as to strangers, and to apologize if you hurt or upset somebody. A warm tone of voice and a smile are also important.

People shake hands when they are introduced to somebody for the first time but, except in business, rarely do so when they meet again. Nowadays, unless there is a great age difference, most adults use each other's first names straightaway. In shops and banks, on aircraft, etc. customers are often addressed respectfully as "Sir" or "Madam" to show that they are important to the company. People are

expected to arrive on time for both business and social events and it is considered bad manners to be late or not to telephone to let people know if you are delayed.

Manners are expected even in situations when it is impossible to talk. A well-mannered driver may, for instance, slow down to allow somebody to cross the road or make a gesture of thanks when another driver lets him or her pass. Airlines encourage passengers to consider others and to leave the washroom clean after use.

Congratulations, Condolences, and Apologies

In general, it is polite to say “congratulations!” (with a lot of enthusiasm) when a person has accomplished something. Examples of these kinds of occasions include graduation, job promotion, the birth of a child, and the purchase of a home. When congratulations are in order, it is sometimes also appropriate to give a gift, especially when invited to a birthday, graduation, wedding, or anniversary party.

Equal attention must be given to good manners on sad occasions. If a coworker, classmate, or neighbor experiences a death in the family it is appropriate to express sympathy (condolences). In doing so, the words die or death should be avoided. It is best to simply say, “I was so sorry to hear about your loss” (or “about your father”). It’s also customary to send a sympathy card, but if you don’t know the mourner’s religion, be sure to select a card without religious symbols. Most customs regarding mourning relate to the family’s religion and vary from one group to another, so don’t send flowers or food unless you know it’s appropriate.

The simple words “I’m sorry” display good manners in a great many difficult social situations. “I’m sorry” has two main uses: (1) to express sympathy to someone who has had a bad experience and (2) to express regret for bothering someone or causing a problem. Other expressions of an apology are “Excuse me” and “Pardon me”. People use these expressions when they are trying to get out of a crowded elevator or stopping a stranger to ask directions.

Classroom Etiquette

The relationship between student and teacher is less formal in the U.S. than in Britain, especially at the college level. American college students do not stand up when their teacher enters the room. Students are generally encouraged to ask questions during class, stop by the professor's office, phone, or e-mail if they want to discuss something. Most teachers let students enter class late or leave early when necessary.

Despite the lack of formality, students are still expected to be polite and considerate of their teacher and classmates. When students want to ask questions, they usually raise a hand and wait to be called on. But if professor is giving a lecture that is the wrong time to interrupt with a question. When the teacher or a student is speaking to the class, it's rude to begin whispering to another classmate. When a test is being given talking to a classmate is not only rude but also risky. Most American and British teachers assume that students who are talking to each other during a test are cheating. The result may be a test grade of zero.

Language Etiquette

Americans are usually tolerant of nonnative speakers who have trouble understanding English. But they become a little annoyed when a person does something incorrectly because of misunderstanding what was said. No one wants soap when he asked for soup. So if you don't understand what is said to you, politely ask the person to repeat or explain.

For the confused nonnative English speaker, there are several ways to ask for help, for example, "Could you please repeat that?" or "Would you please speak more slowly?" If a definition is need, ask "What does the word _____ mean?" To find out how to express a particular idea in English, ask "How do you say _____ in English?"

Here are a few more polite English expressions that must be part of your English vocabulary. The polite response to a compliment is "Thank you". (A smile

and a nod is not enough). The response to “Thank you”, is of course, “You are welcome”. If someone asks “How are you”, don’t start talking about your medical problems. Just say “Fine, Thanks. How are you?” What do Americans say when someone sneezes? Believe it or not, they say “God bless you” or simply “Bless you”.

One final point: When in a group, it quite rude to converse in a language that some of the people can’t understand. Those who don’t speak the language will feel left out. If it becomes necessary to switch to a language that not everyone present understands, then it’s polite to translate or summarize what was said.

QUESTIONS AFTER YOU READ:

How do American adults affect American manners?

When you introduce two people, what are some rules about whose name goes first?

Name several occasions when it’s appropriate to say “Congratulations!”

How has women’s liberation affected manners between the sexes?

Name some things students can do and shouldn’t do in an American classroom?

What are three questions that a casual acquaintance should not ask an American?

When should you send a sympathy card to your friend?

What are two things you should not do in an American classroom?

CHAPTER 11 RELIGION

KEY WORDS AND WORD COMBINATIONS: *multi-faith community, Freedom of worship, religious persecution, pray, religious diversity, denomination, sect, Protestantism, ethic, polygamy, congregation, Amish, Mormon, Separation of church and state, human destiny, chapel, priest, Bible Belt, spiritual satisfaction, religious prejudice, skullcap, mosque*

Religious freedom

Modern Britain is a multi-faith community, in which many religions are practiced, but the main religion is Christianity. Freedom of worship is generally accepted, though in Northern Ireland religious tensions contributed greatly to the troubles. It is said that as many as 75 % of adults believe in God, though only about 4 % go to church regularly. Many people are christened, some get married in church, and many have a Christian funeral service, but otherwise they have little interest in religion. White British people rarely discuss religion and feel that person's religious beliefs are a private matter.

The U.S. is well known for its many traditional churches and less formal religions, though almost all are Christian. Freedom of worship is a result of the separation of Church and State that is written into the First Amendment of the Constitution. This happened because many people, including the Pilgrim Fathers, went to America to avoid religious persecution in Europe.

American Protestants are very religious, though the Catholic Church has more members than any one Protestant group. Religious beliefs are strong: it is said that 96 % of Americans believe in God, 90 % pray and 41 % go to church regularly. Churches are centers of social events and business activities, as well as places of worship.

Prayers are said at football games, and some teams kneel together on the field before a game. Today, about 86 % of Americans are Christian (approximately 59 % Protestant and 27 % Catholic). However, this is a nation with great religious

diversity. American Christians are divided into many different groups, including Roman Catholic, the various national denominations of the Eastern Orthodox churches, and hundreds of different Protestant denominations and sect. The largest Protestant groups are the Southern Baptist Convention, The United Methodist Church and the National Baptist Convention.

Perhaps the greatest influence that Protestantism has had on American life come from its philosophy regarding a person's relationship to work. The philosophy commonly called the Protestant work ethic – stress the moral value of work, self-disciplines, and personal responsibility. According to this ethic, people prove their worth to themselves and to God by working hard, being honest and thrifty, and avoiding luxury, excessive pleasure, and waste. The accumulation of wealth is not considered evil unless it leads to life of idealness and sin. The Protestant work ethic has much in common with capitalism and with the American emphasis on financial success, practicality, efficiency, and self-sufficiency.

Two interesting Protestant groups founded in the U.S. are the Mormons and Christian Scientists. The Mormons (officially known as the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints) were organized in New York in 1830. Because it was customary for Mormon men to have more than one wife, Mormons were forced out of several established communities. They traveled westward and settled in the unpopulated valley of the Great Salt Lake in Utah, where they built a successful community. Then the federal government passed laws against polygamy and refused to admit Utah as a state until 1896, after the Mormons discounted this practice. Today, there are 4.8 million Mormon Church members in the U.S. Most of them live in Utah and in eastern Idaho, where they are the major religious sect.

The Christian Science Church was founded by Mary Baker Eddy in 1879. Christian Scientists believe that healing of sickness results from spiritual understanding rather than standard medical treatment. The Christian Science movement now has about 3,000 congregations in 57 countries. About two thirds of these are in the U.S.

Another interesting Protestant group is the Amish. Originally from Switzerland, this group (about 40.000 people) is now centered in the U.S. and Canada within the U.S., they have developed farming communities in 23 states, mostly in Pennsylvania and the Midwest states of Ohio, Indiana, Iowa and Illinois. The Amish are easy to spot. Their clothing is old-fashioned and plain. The men have beards and wear wide – brimmed hats and the women wear long dresses and bonnets. Jewelry and buttons are not allowed. The Amish travel in horse-drawn wagons because their religion forbids them to use cars. They have no telephones or electricity in their homes. Amish children are educated through eighth grade only and are trained to be farmers.

Church and State

The established (=official) church in England is the Church of England. In Scotland it is the Presbyterian Church of Scotland, known by Scots as “the Kirk”. Over 60 % of English people describe themselves as “C of E”, even if they never go to church. Many national and local events include prayers. The church is also involved to some extent in political life as archbishops and some bishops sit in the House of Lords. Some people believe that politics and religion should be kept apart, but others believe that the Church should be much more active in demanding social justice Christian religious education is provided in all British state schools, though it is not compulsory.

Despite the fact that only 10 % of the population is Roman Catholic, they make up the biggest active congregation. The most important Catholic Church is Westminster Cathedral in London.

Many immigrants came to the American colonies to escape religious persecution. Therefore, it was natural that the nation’s founders demanded legal guarantees of religious freedom. The First Amendment of the Constitution forbids the establishment of an official national religion and prohibits state federal interference with religious institutions or practices.

Separation of church and state has been interpreted to mean that any institution supported by the federal government or a state government must be free from the influence of religion. In many communities where Christian symbols once decorated public buildings, citizens have filed lawsuits claiming that the presence of these symbols on public property is unconstitutional. There have been many other arguments about exactly what violates separation of church and state. Can a state government spend public funds to bus children to parochial schools? Can parents who send their children to parochial schools receive tax credits because they are not using the public schools? These matters are often hotly debated in legislative bodies, courtrooms, school districts, and election campaigns.

And, what about prayer in the public schools? At one time, it was common for schools to begin the school day with a prayer. But atheists (=people who don't believe in any God) objected, saying that required time for prayer violated separation of church and state. The government, they said, must not support any particular religion. But, in addition, it must avoid imposing upon people the idea of religion itself, the belief that a supernatural being influences human destiny. In 1963, the Supreme Court banned compulsory prayer in public schools. After that, it was assumed that any worship in public buildings was forbidden. However, in recent years, American high school students have been allowed to organize prayer clubs just as they are allowed to form other extracurricular special-interest groups. But these prayer sessions must be voluntary student-run, conducted outside of class time.

Of course, religious people want their government to behave in ways that their religion considers moral. When the laws of a religion and the laws of the state contradict each other, heated arguments develop. The best example is the issue of abortion. In 1973, the U.S. Supreme Court said that states could not make abortion illegal. Thus began the continuing struggle between those who are "pro – choice" (=those who believe that a woman should have the legal right to end a pregnancy) and those who are "pro – life" (=those who consider it murder to abort a human

fetus). At present, abortion in the early month of pregnancy is legal in the U.S. But members of the “religious right” (more conservative religious people) continue to push for a change in this Supreme Court decision and often demonstrate outside medical clinics that perform abortions.

Although Americans strongly believe in separation of church and state, the vast majority have always been believers in God. Therefore, although it may seem inconsistent, many official American ceremonies and documents make reference to God. Sessions of Congress and state legislatures begin with prayers. The national motto (printed on U.S. money) is “In God We Trust”. The pledge of Allegiance to the flag calls the United States “one nation under God”. These examples reflect the general American attitude – that there is a God, but that people are free to believe in God or not and to worship in whatever way they choose.

Christian churches

Protestant groups in Britain other than the Church of England are called Free or Nonconformist Churches. Most consider high moral standards to be important and discourage drinking alcohol, gambling, and sex outside marriage. The Free Churches include the United Reformed Church, the Baptist church, which is particularly strong in Wales and the Methodist Church. Members of these churches worship in a chapel.

A growing economical movement has tried to remove barriers between the established and free churches, and in many places there are ecumenical services at which members from all faiths are welcome. Hopes that the Church of England and the Roman Catholic Church might be reunited were dashed in the 1990s when the Church of England began admitting women priests.

In the U.S. the Catholic Church has over 60 million members. The largest Protestant group is the Baptists, with nearly 37 million members. The largest Protestant groups include Methodists, Lutherans and Presbyterians. Episcopalians,

who are part of the Anglican Communion, number only 2.5 million. Part of the Deep South is called the *Bible Belt* because Protestants there are fundamentalists (=believe the exact words of the Bible). Their preaching (=teaching) is sometimes rudely called “Bible – bashing”.

People who have not found spiritual satisfaction within the traditional churches may join a sect such as the *Jehovah’s Witnesses, the Christian Scientists, the Mormons or the *Seventh – Day Adventists. Others join a charismatic church, such as the Pentecostal Church, where emotions are freely expressed and spiritual healing is practiced. In the U.S. there are over 10 million Pentecost lists. Smaller churches in the U.S. include the Shakers, the Amish, the Minorities and the Hutterites. America also has strong religious groups that are not churches, for example the *Promise Keepers.

Cults have gained a bad reputation in Britain too, mainly because of widely – publicized stories about brainwashing (=replacing an individual’s ideas with a new set of rules and attitudes) and the requirement that members of cults break off all contact with their families.

Other faiths

The main non – Christian faiths in Britain and the U.S. are Judaism and Islam, though in Britain especially the religions came originally from India, Pakistan, Bangladesh or the Middle East and have brought up their families in their traditional faith.

Britain’s relatively small Jewish community enjoys more freedom from religious prejudice than Jews in many other countries. The U.S. has about 6 million Jews and there are synagogues (=buildings where Jews worship) in many towns and cities. Jewish men may be recognized in the street if they are wearing a skullcap (=a small circle of cloth on the head). Men from some branches of Judaism wear long black coats and black hats.

Both Britain and the U.S. now have large numbers of Muslims. In general, people outside Islam know little about Muslim beliefs and practices and are sometimes excessively influenced by media reports. There are many mosques (=buildings where Moslems worship) in areas where Muslims have settled, though sometimes the building doesn't look like a traditional mosque. In Britain Muslims fought for the right to have Islamic state schools, similar to those for Jews and Roman Catholics.

1. Free Church – any Christian religious group in Britain that is not part of the Church of England or the Roman Catholic Church.
2. Nonconformist (in England and Wales) any member of a Protestant Church which doesn't follow the beliefs and practices of the Church of England. For example, members of the Baptists, Methodist, and Presbyterian Churches, or of the United Reformed Church are all Nonconformists.
3. United Reformed Church – a Christian Church formed in Britain in 1972 when the Presbyterian Church in England joined with the Congregationalist Church in England and Wales.
4. Baptist – a member of the largest group of protestant Christians in the U.S. with over 38 million members around the world including a small number in Britain. The group was found in England in the early 17th century by people who disagreed with other Protestants about the ceremony of baptism.
5. Methodist Church – the largest of the Protestant Free Churches in Britain and the U.S. It was established in 1739 by John Wesley as part of the Church of England but it became separate from it in 1795. It was introduced into the U.S. in the 18th century and today has over 50 million members around the world. It emphasizes the importance of moral issues, both personal and social.

6. Jehovah's Witness a member of a Christian organization started in the U.S. in the 1870s. Jehovah's Witnesses believe that the end of the world is near and that when it comes everyone except them will be destroyed. They also refuse to do military service, do not celebrate birth days or Christmas and believe in the absolute truth of the Bible.

7. Branch Davidians – a U.S. religious group, based in Waco, Texas which believe that Christ would soon return to earth. Their leader was David Koresh. In 1993 members of the group killed four U.S. government officers who were trying to enter their building. The building was then surrounded for 51 days until the Branch Davidians began a fire in which 82 of them died (33 from Britain)

8. Evangelists – a Protestant Christian who travels to different places and holds religious meetings to persuade people to become Christians or better Christians

QUESTIONS AFTER YOU READ:

1. In terms of numbers of members, what are the three main religions in the U.S. and the U.K.?
2. What does separation of church and state mean? Give some examples.
3. How does separation of church and state protect religious groups?
4. How does separation of church and state protect the rights and freedom of individual citizens?
5. What evidence supports the idea that most Americans believe in God?
6. Over the last several millennia, has religion increased human misery or human happiness?

CHAPTER 12 EDUCATION

KEY WORDS AND WORD COMBINATIONS: *academic, commitment, compulsory, curriculum, elementary, evaluate, grade, kindergarten, motivation, parochial, shortage, specialist, subsidize, teamwork, vocational, junior, senior, extracurricular activity, fagging, educator, enroll, alumni, anxiety, obtain, campus, credit, degree, elective, faculty, fraternity, freshmen, junior, recognized qualification, reputation, socializing, senior, sophomore, sorority, transcript, transfer, tuition, undergraduate*

Education is a subject about which many people care deeply. Most believe that the state should provide education free of charge and to a high standard. At election time, politicians who promise to spend more on education are popular with voters. Recently, there has been a lot of debate about students having to pay their own fees at university, as well as their living expenses. Some people are afraid that poorer students will not receive enough financial help and will be discouraged from going on higher education.

Both in U.K., and the U.S., everyone has the right and the obligation to become educated. Even children with physical or mental disabilities are entitled to be educated to whatever extent they can be. A lot of money is spent to provide special services and equipment for students who need extra help. In the U.S., for example, special assistance is provided to children who speak little or no English. In some schools, they attend English as a second Language (ESL) classes for part of their school day and study other subjects in classes with English speaking students. In schools where a sizable number of students speak a language other than English, a bilingual program may be offered. In transitional bilingual programs students study English, but some academic subjects are taught in the native language. Some bilingual programs continue to teach student at least one subject in the native language indefinitely to help them maintain fluency and literacy in their native language as well as English.

American elementary and secondary education is vast and complex enterprise. From kinder garden through high school, about 72 million students are enrolled in school. To educate this huge number of students, more than 3 million teachers are employed. They are by far the largest professional group in the country.

In order to develop an educated population (a necessity in a democracy), all states have compulsory school attendance laws. These laws vary from one state to another, but they generally require school attendance from ages 6 – 16. However, most students attend school at least until high school graduation, when they are 17 or 18 years old. About 83 % of American adults are high school graduates.

British law require all children to be in full – time education from the age 5 to 16, but parents like, if possible, to send younger children to a nursery school or play school from the age 2 or 3. The availability of preschool education varies from area to area, and parents often have to pay for it. Most children go to state schools near their home. Britain has several different school systems. Depending on where they live, children may go to an infant school from age 5 to 7 and then a junior school until they are 11. Others attend a primary school from age 5 to 11. They enter the reception class as “rising fives”, just before their fifth birthday. Most primary schools are mixed taking both boys and girls.

At 11 children, begin their secondary education. There are about 4800 secondary schools in U.K. Children go to a grammar school, comprehensive school or high school depending on their ability, their parent’s wishes, and what schools there are nearby. Some are single – sex schools. In a few cities, children can go to a city technology college, a school partly funded by industry. Some students leave school at 16 but may stay on for a further two years in the sixth form.

Public schools are for high academic standards and to provide pupils with the right social background for top jobs in the Establishment. A much higher proportion of students from public schools win university places, especially to

Oxford and Cambridge Universities, than from state schools. Former public school student may also have an advantage when applying for jobs because of the old school tie, the old boy network through which a former public school pupil is more likely to give a job to somebody from a public school, especially his own public school, than to someone from a school in the state system. Some people send their children to public school mainly for this reason; others believe public schools provide a better education than state schools. Public schools have at various times also been associated with strict discipline, bullying (a problem that is common in schools where some children use their strength or important positions to hurt or frighten smaller or weaker children) and occasionally home sexuality.

The British education system aims to educate the whole person, so that each child develops his or her personality as well as gaining academic knowledge.

American education has been greatly influenced by John Dewey, a famous twentieth – century philosopher. Dewey believed that the only worthwhile knowledge was information that could be used. He considered it pointless to make students memorize useless facts that they would quickly forget. Rather, he felt, schools should teach thinking process and skills. Dewey also influenced teaching techniques. Children learn best by doing, he said. Applying this idea today, science classes involve experimentation; the study of music involves making music; democratic principles are practiced in the students' council; school projects encourage creativity and team work. Children don't spend the day working silently and alone. They often work in groups, share ideas, and complete projects together.

In G.B. most primary and secondary schools offer a range of extra – curricular activities (=activities outside normal lessons), including sports, music, community service and trips to places of interest. Secondary schools also give careers, advice and help students to prepare for having job by arranging short periods of work experience with local businesses.

Many Americans send their children to a nursery school or to day care or pre-school at an early age. As in Britain, U.S. schools are divided into primary and secondary, but these words are rarely used. It is more common to talk about elementary school, junior high school, and the grade, or year group. Students are in elementary schools taught from kinder garden till the end of sixth grade. Grades seven and eight are taken at junior high school, and ninth to the twelfth grades at high school.

About 86 % of American children receive their elementary and high school education in public schools. These schools have important characteristics in common

- They are supported by state and local taxes do not charge tuition.
- Most are neighborhood schools, open to students who live in the district.
- They are coeducational, which means that boys and girls attend the same schools and have nearly all their classes together. By providing girls with equal educational opportunity, public schools have helped to create self-sufficient American women
- They are locally controlled. The individual states, not the federal government, are responsible for education. Public schools are required to follow some state guidelines regarding, for example, curriculum (what students study) and teacher qualifications. But most decisions about a school district's are made by an elected board of education and the administrators that board hires. This system creates strong ties between the district's schools and its local community.
- Americans believe in separation of church and state. Therefore, American public schools are free from the influence of any religion. As a result, children of many different religions feel comfortable attending public schools. This secular public school system helps a diverse population share a common cultural heritage.

Private schools can be divided into two categories: Parochial (supported by a particular religious group) and independent (not affiliated with any religious

group). Private schools charge tuition and are not under direct public control, although many states set educational standards for them. To attend a private school, a student must apply and be accepted. Parochial (mostly Catholic) schools make up the largest group of private schools.

There are many private schools in the U.S. some of which are boarding schools. Some, like Philips Exeter Academy and the Bath Academy, are very similar to Britain's public schools (=private schools). They are very expensive, have a high reputation, and many of their students come from rich and well – known families. Children often go to the same school as their parents. Many of the most famous schools of this sort are in New England.

Some U.S. private schools give special attention to a particular area of study. There are, for example, schools for people who are good at music or art. Military schools are often chosen by parents who are in the armed forces, or who think their children need a lot of discipline.

Private schools in the U.S. are often single – sex and their student usually wear a uniform. This is unusual in public schools.

Public schools are, in most of Britain, independent schools and, despite their name, not part of the state education system. Schools run by the state are called state schools. In Scotland however, which has a separate education system from the rest of Britain, the term public school refers to a state school. Only about 10 % of children attend independent public schools, and their parents have to pay fees that may amount to several thousand pounds year. A small number of children from less wealthy families win scholarships, in which case their fees are paid for them.

Many of Britain's 200 public schools are very old. They include Eton, Harrow, Winchester and, for girls Cheltenham Ladies' College and Roe dean. Public schools were originally grammar schools which offered free education to the public and were under public management. This was in contrast to private

schools which were privately owned by the teachers. Since the 19th century, the term public school has been applied to grammar schools that began taking fee – paying pupils as well as children paid for from public funds.

Most pupils go to public school at the age of 13, after attending private prep schools. The majority of public schools are boarding schools where students live during term – time. Most have a house system, with boarders living in one of several houses under the charge of a housemaster. In a few schools younger pupils have to do small jobs for the senior pupils. This is sometimes called fagging.

Since 1988 the subjects to be taught in state schools have been laid down in the National Curriculum, which also sets the standards to be achieved. Children have to study the core subjects of English, mathematics and science, and also the foundation subjects of technology, geography, history, art, music and physical education.

Older children take a foreign language. The National Curriculum does not apply in Scotland, and school there are free to decide how much time they devote to each subject. Children do standard assessment tests (SATs) at ages 7, 11 and 14. At 16, students take exams for the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) or the Scottish Certificate of Education. Some may take GNVQs (General National Vocational Qualifications) in work-related subjects. Some students go on study for ‘A’ levels in the three or four subjects.

Many people worry that the education system fails to make sure that all children reach minimum standards of literacy (=reading and writing) and in numeracy (=number skills), and there are often demands for more attention to be paid to the three R’s (reading, writing and arithmetic). Standards at individual schools are watched closely by parents and the government. Schools are visited regularly by OFSTED inspectors, and schools whose pupils are not making adequate progress or in which discipline is poor risk being closed down. School

performance tables enable parents to compare one school with another, but many people feel that it is unfair to base a comparison on exam results alone.

Education standards are often said to be falling. This usually happens after GCSE and A level result are announced: if there are a lot of students with high grades people say that the exams are too easy. Others think that standards are rising and that it is now much harder to achieve good grades.

The quality of a child's education depends largely on where he or she goes to school. In the U.S.A., facilities and resources vary a lot from one school district to another. In education, (as in many other areas) money to operate schools comes from local property taxes. (In G.B. from central government and the council tax) As a result, poorer communities have less money to spend on books, equipment, and teachers salaries. All these factors affect the quality of education. In areas where the community is stable, the funding good, and the school environment orderly, a hard working student can get an excellent education.

Another problem is a serious shortage of qualified teachers. Teaching is a hard job, and the rewards are not what they should be. Starting salaries for teachers are much lower than for employees in many other occupations requiring a college degree. Teaching is a time – consuming job; lesson – planning and paper – grading are often done at home. It is common for teachers to devote 60 hours a week to their job. Considering all these factors, it's not surprising that many young adults choose other occupations.

Teachers and schools shouldn't be blamed for all the problems. Students themselves are also responsible for how much they learn. Many students do not study enough. Elementary schools are encouraging more studying nowadays by retaining students (requiring them to repeat a grade). In high school, some students are distracted by part – time jobs, school activities, TV, and socializing. Others do not keep up with their schoolwork because of emotional problems, drinking or use

of illegal drugs, or lack of motivation. About 11 % drop out between the ages of 16 and 18.

Would public schools (state schools in G.B.) improve if they had more competition? Some pupils, parents, politicians and educators support the idea of giving parents greater choice in selecting their children's schools. One such plan involves giving parents vouchers that can be used to pay part of the tuition at a private school. Tuition tax credits (deductions from state taxes) have also been provided to help parents afford private school tuition.

Parents who are dissatisfied with the regular public schools in their community may choose charter schools or even home schooling. Charter schools have special agreements with their state board of education that free them from some of the restrictions placed upon regular public schools. Therefore, they are able to experiment with new teaching methods. There are about 1.700 charter schools in the U.S.A. today, and the numbers are growing. Home schooling is a popular movement as well. About 1.5 million American children are taught at home.

Improving the school system is one of the nation's top priorities. In most states, teachers and school administrators are developing (or have developed) standards. They are also improving assessment – ways of finding out if students have met these standards. Tests that evaluate students also evaluate schools.

Schools with low pass rates are expected to make changes that will lead to improvement. While Americans look for ways to make elementary and secondary education better, they are encouraged by the fact that 65 % of the nation's high school graduates choose to continue their formal schooling at a college or university and by some standards, American education seems very successful.

Higher Education

“The more you learn, the more you earn,” Americans often say. Whenever we may go, almost all jobs that pay well require some education or technical training beyond high school. In this high-tech society, college graduates out earn those without a college education, and people with advanced degrees are likely to earn even more. Though some college degrees are worth more than others in the job market, in general education pays off.

Americans talk about “going to college” even if the institution they attend is a university. To Americans the phrase “going to university” sounds pretentious.

A college education is not just preparation for a career, however. In addition to taking courses in their major field of study, students enroll in elective courses. They may take classes that help them understand more about people, nature, government, or the arts. Well – rounded people are likely to be better citizens, better parents, and more interesting and interested individuals.

Although two – thirds of American high school graduates enroll in college, recent high school graduates no longer dominate the college campuses. Adults of all ages return to the classroom, either for new vocational skills or for personal growth. Nowadays, almost 20 % of American college students are over 35. Some 500.000 college students are over 50. But smaller percentages of British students go on to further or higher education than in U.S.A. In G.B. many students go to University and study for a bachelor’s degree. Others study for a certificate or diploma at a college of further education. Most courses at these colleges train people in a particular skill and combine periods of study with work experience. Some people return to education later in life and attend evening classes run by adult education institutes. Open learning schemes enable people to obtain recognized qualifications, such as a degree from the Open University or a qualification in accountancy, without having to leave their job. In Britain most universities receive some money from the state. The oldest and most famous are

Oxford and Cambridge. Others much respected universities include London, Durham and St. Andrew's. Some universities such as Birmingham and Manchester are called redbrick universities because they were built in the 19th century with brick rather than stone. The newer universities have their buildings grouped together on a campus. In the U.S. the most famous universities are those in the Ivy League, including Harvard and Yale, but many others have good reputation. Large universities often put most emphasis on research. Smaller colleges tend to concentrate on teaching undergraduates, and many students prefer these colleges because they offer smaller classes and more personal attention from teachers. There are many private colleges and universities in the U.S. but most students choose a public institution because the costs are lower. All universities charge tuition, and students pay extra for room and board. Prices range from a few hundred dollars a year to well over \$25000 at some private colleges. Student whose families cannot afford to pay the full amount apply for financial aid. Many students receive a financial aid package which may be a combination of grants from the government a scholarship, a student loan and work – study (=a part time job at the college).

The U.S. has about 3.700 institutions of higher learning. About 1.600 of these are 2-year schools. More than 2.000 are 4- year schools, many of which also have graduate programs. With so many colleges to choose from, how do prospective students find the right one for their needs? Information about schools is easy to obtain from school guidance counselors, college guidebooks, public libraries, the Internet, and the schools themselves. Most colleges offer classes only for undergraduate students studying for a bachelor's degree. Community colleges offer two-year courses leading to an associate's degree, and afterwards students transfer to a different college or university to continue their studies. Universities are larger than colleges and also offer courses for graduate students who study in graduate school. Many universities also have separate professional schools, e.g. a medical school or a law school.

American high school students who want to study at a college or university have to take a standardized test, e.g. the SAT (Scholastic Aptitude test) or the ACT (American College Test). Students from countries outside the U.S. who are not native speakers of English must also take the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). Each college or university decides on the minimum score it will accept, though test scores are never the only factor taken into account. Students apply direct to between three and six colleges in their last year of high school. Each college has its own application form and most include a question for which the student must write an essay. The student also has to send a transcript (=an official list of all the subjects studied and the grades received) and letters of reference.

The U.S. academic year may be divided into two semesters of about 15 weeks or three quarters of about 10 weeks each. Students take courses in a variety of subjects, regardless of their main subject, because the aim of the liberal arts curriculum is to produce well – rounded people with good critical skills. At the end of their sophomore (=second) year students choose a major (= main subject) and sometimes a minor (= additional subject) which they study for the next two years students take four or five courses each semester from the course catalog. Courses may consist of discussion sections or lab sessions.

Students are given grades at the end of each course. The highest grade is A; the lowest is F, which means that the student has failed the course and will not get credit for taking it. To check a student's overall progress, the university calculates a grade point average (GPA). Students who finish their degree with high GPA may be awarded Latin honors of which the highest is *summa cum laude*.

In Britain a first degree, which is usually an honors degree, generally takes three years. Most courses end with exams called finals. Results are given as classes (=grades); a first is the highest class, second are often split between upper second and lower second, and below that is a third. Graduates may add the letters BA (Bachelor Arts) or BS (Bachelor of Science) after their name. Some graduates go on to study for a further degree, often a master's degree or a doctorate.

Students in Britain formerly had their tuition fees paid by the state and received a government grant to help pay their living expenses, and from 1999 most will also have to pay £ 1000 a year towards tuition fees. The new arrangements have caused a great deal of concern both among students and among members of the public who believe that education should be free.

At most British universities the academic year is divided into three terms. Students study a main subject throughout their degree course, which is usually a mix of compulsory courses and electives. Teaching methods vary between universities. Most students have lectures and seminars (=discussion groups) and three are practical for those doing a science subject. At some universities, students have individual tutorials or supervisions.

In Britain a professor is the person in charge of a department or a senior member of staff. Graduate students working towards a high degree may colleges or universities and have a doctorate are addressed as professors and teach undergraduate courses at larger universities. These grad students are called as teaching assistants. In return, Teachers do not have to pay for their own tuition and get a small amount of money to live on.

American universities offer three kinds of graduate degrees: master's degrees, Ph.D. degrees, and professional degrees (for example, in medicine, law, or engineering). In most fields, a master's degree can be earned in 1 or 2 academic years of study beyond the B.S. or B.A. Earning a Ph.D. degree (doctor of philosophy) usually takes at least 3 years beyond the master's. To receive a Ph.D. in most fields, students must pass oral and written examinations and produce a long and comprehensive research paper that makes an original contribution to their field. In some fields, Ph.D. candidates must also be able to read one or two foreign Requirements are different for professional degrees.

In recent years, the graduate student population has become much more diverse than ever before. It now includes more women, foreign students. Also, the

variety of degree programs offered has expanded greatly. Today's graduate students can choose from master's degrees in at least 1.000 fields and Ph.D.s in about 100 fields.

Student Life

A college community is an interesting and lively place. Students become involved in many different extracurricular activities. Among these are athletics, college newspapers, musical organizations, political groups, and religious groups. Many religious groups have their own meeting places, where services and social activities are held. Most colleges have a student union, where students can get together for lunch, study sessions, club meetings, and socializing.

On many campuses, social life revolves around fraternities (social and, in some cases, residential clubs for men) and sororities (similar clubs for women). Some are national groups with chapters at many schools. Their names are Greek letters, such as Alpha Delta Phi.

Sports are an important part of life on most campuses. Most coeducational and men's schools belong to various athletic leagues. Teams within these leagues compete against one another for the league championship. Football is the college sport that arouses the national interest.

Younger students are often thought to be lazy and careless about money but this situation is changing. In Britain reduced government support for higher education means that students can no longer rely on having their expenses paid for them. Formerly students received a grant towards their living expenses. Now most can only get a loan, which has to be paid back. From 1999, they will also have to pay £ 1000 towards tuition fees. In the U.S., students already have to pay for tuition and room and board. College costs vary quite a bit, depending upon the type of school. At expensive private schools, annual costs (including tuition, room, board, books, travel to and from home, etc.) may exceed \$30.000. Public universities are much cheaper. At these schools, tuition is significantly higher for

out-of-state students are much cheaper than for permanent residents of that state. Tuition at community colleges averages about \$ 1.500, approximately half the in-state tuition at public, 4-year schools..

For most students, the college years are exciting and rewarding, but they are certainly not easy or carefree. Just about all college students face the pressure of making important career decisions and anxiety about examinations and grades. Many students have additional problems – too little money, not enough sleep, and a feeling of loneliness because they are far from home. Still, many people look back on their college years as the happiest time of their lives. Many alumni feel great loyalty to their former schools. Throughout their lives, they cheer for their school’s athletic teams, donate money to help the institution grow, and go back to visit for homecoming festivities.

For those who need financial assistance, help is available. There are three main types of financial aid: scholarships (grants), which are gifts that student do not repay; loans to students or their parents; and student employment (work/study), a part-time job that the school gives the student for the academic year. Most financial aid is need-based; that is, only student who need the money receive it. Financial assistance to excellent students who do not need the money (commonly called merit-based aid) is limited.

Funds for all this aid come from three main sources – the federal government, state government, and private contributors. Every college and university has a financial aid office to help students find out what kind of aid they might be eligible for and to assist them in completing the complicated application forms. Aliens who are permanent residents are eligible for government assistance, but foreign students are not.



AFTER YOU READ:

A. Discuss these questions in small groups.

1. Why do people go to college? List reasons mentioned in the reading and others you can think of.
2. What are some steps you can take to find the right American collage?
3. What are three differences between a collage and university?
4. What are four requirements most Ph.D. applicants must fulfill?
5. What makes collage fun?
6. Why is it sometimes stressful?
7. What are three kinds of financial aid?
8. Which one do you think students like most?
9. In you opinion, until what age school attendance must be required?
10. Do you think school attendance must be required at a university level?
11. In what ways are American schools different from in G.B.?
12. Who sets guidelines for American public and British state schools?
13. What is the major goal of American public and British state schools?
14. What are some differences between public (state) and private schools?
15. What were John Dewey's ideas about what and how students should learn?
16. How are the upper elementary grades different from the lower grades?
17. What are extracurricular activities?
18. What changes do you recommend to improve American and British schools?

CHAPTER 14 HALLOWEEN



KEY WORDS AND WORD COMBINATIONS: *safety chain, play a prank, trick-or-treat, devil, witch, ghost, pagan, scary, bonfire, superstition, turnip, pumpkin, Devil, soul, heaven, hell, jack-o'-lantern, haunted house, scarecrow*

A Typical Halloween Scene

It was a cool autumn evening. Mrs. Brown was sitting in her living room, reading. Suddenly, there was a loud knock on her door, then two or three more knocks. Mrs. Brown put the safety chain on her door. Then she opened the door a little and looked out. There stood three children wearing masks and costumes. When they saw her, they all shouted, "Trick or treat! Money or eat!"

Mrs. Brown dropped a candy bar into each child's bag. One boy was wearing a big hat, a plain shirt, blue jeans, and high boots, the holster on his belt a toy gun in it. Mrs. Brown asked him, "Who are you?"

"I am American cowboy," he answered.

“And I am a skeleton,” said the third child. The “skeleton” was wearing a black shirt and black pants with stripes of white tape of them.

“Thanks for the candy,” shouted the children as they ran off to ring another doorbell.

“You are welcome,” said Mrs. Brown. “Have fun, and do not play any pranks.”

Every year on October 31, Halloween scenes like this occur throughout the U.S.A. American children love to dress up in costumes and go trick-or-treat. If an adult refuses to supply a treat-candy, cookies, fruit, or money-the children may play a trick. Typical Halloween pranks are soaping windows, writing on doors with crayons (=colored pencil), over-turning garbage cans, sticking pins into doorbells to keep them ringing, throwing raw eggs, and spraying shaving cream on cars.

√ *Check Your Why does Mrs. Brown give the children candy?*

Comprehension

The Origins of Halloween Customs

Few holidays tell us much of past as Halloween. Its origins date back to a time, when people believed in devils, witches and ghosts. Many Halloween customs are based on beliefs of the ancient Celts, who lived more than 2,000 years ago in what is now Great Britain, Ireland, and Northern France.

The name *Halloween* is a short way of saying *All Hallows' Eve*, which means “the night before the Roman Catholic holiday of *All Saints' Day*”. Although Halloween got its name from a Christian festival, its customs are of pagan origin. They come from two different sources: an ancient Celtic festival in honor of Samhain, lord of death, and a Roman festival in honor of Pomona, goddess of gardens and orchards. The Halloween colors, black and orange, suggest both ideas: death and harvest.

Masquerading, begging, and other Halloween customs are now mainly enjoyed by children. But many hundreds years ago, these customs were performed quite seriously by adults as part of their religion. The scary part of Halloween

comes from the Celts, who lived in the British Isles and northern France during ancient and medieval times. The Celts worshiped gods of nature. They feared coming of winter, associating it with death and evil spirits. Every year on October 31, the last day of the year on the old pagan calendar, the Druids (Celtic priests and teachers) built huge bonfires to scare away the bad spirits of evil and death. They threw animals and crops into the fire as gifts for the evil spirits. The Celtic people also dressed in ugly, scary costumes. They believed that if they disguised themselves, the spirits, the spirit wouldn't harm them. According to traditional beliefs, ghosts rose from their graves on this evening, and witches flew through the air on broomsticks or black cats. Also, the spirits of dead relatives and friends were expected to return to the Earth for a visit. The Druids built bonfires on hilltops to guide these spirits back home.

Many fears and superstitions grew up about this day. An old Scotch superstition was that witched – those who had sold their souls to the devil – lift in their beds on Halloween night a stick made by magic to look like themselves. Then they would fly up the chime (= barrel, wooden container) attended by a black cat.

From the Druids religion come the custom of masquerading and the symbols of Halloween: ghosts, skeletons, devils, witches, black cats, and owls. The jack-o'-lantern is also of Celtic origin. It was an Irish custom to hollow out turnips and place lighted candles inside them to scare away from the house. In the U.S., people now use the native pumpkin. Pumpkins grow in a great variety of size-up to 1,092 pounds! To make a pumpkin into a jack-o'-lantern, remove the pulp and seeds. Then, cut holes in the hollow pumpkin to make the eyes, nose, and mouth. Put a candle inside it, light the candle, and put the jack-o'-lantern by the window. Why this light is called a jack-o'-lantern? An Irish story tells about an unhappy man named Jack. He was not welcome in heaven because he was stingy (=mean), and he could not go to hell because he had played jokes on the devil. One evening at the local pub, the Devil appeared to take his soul. Clever Jack persuaded the Devil to "have one drink together before we go". To pay for his drink the devil turned

himself into a sixpence. Jack immediately put it into his wallet. The Devil could not escape from it because it had a catch in the form of a cross. Jack released the Devil only when the latter promised to leave him in peace for another year. Twelve months later, Jack played another practical joke on the Devil, letting him down from a tree only on the promise that he would never pursue him again. Finally, Jack's body wore out. He could not enter heaven because he was a miser. He could not enter hell either, because he played jokes on the Devil. Jack was in despair. He begged the Devil for a live coal to light his way out of the dark. He put it into a turnip and, as the story goes, is still wandering around the earth with his lantern.

People in England and Ireland once carved out beets, potatoes, and turnips to make jack-o'-lanterns on Halloween. When the Scots and Irish came to the United States, they brought their custom with them. But they began to carve faces on pumpkins because they were plentiful in autumn than turnips. Nowadays, British carve faces on pumpkins, too.

In Ireland, and other parts of Great Britain, it was believed, that fairies spirited away young wives, whom they returned dazed and amnesic 366 days later. The Irish also introduced the 'trick-or-treat' custom hundreds of years ago. Groups of farmers would travel from house to house asking for food the village Halloween party. They would promise good luck to generous contributors and threaten those who were stingy.

The Druid holiday of Samhain also celebrated the harvest. This part of the celebration became even more significant after 55B.C, when the Romans invaded England and brought with them harvest festival of Pomona. After that, nuts and fruit-especially apples became part of the Samhain ceremonies. Today, Halloween time, Americas and the British honor the harvest by displaying cornstalks and pumpkins; eating nuts, autumn fruits, and pumpkin pies; and playing games with apples. One of the most popular Halloween game is bobbing for apples. In this game, apples float in a large tub of water. One at a time, children bend over the tub and try to catch an apple in their mouths without using their hands.

In Wales, they believed that the devil appeared in the shape of a pig, a horse, or a dog. On that night, every person marked a stone and put it in a bonfire. If a person's stone was missing the next morning, he or she would die within a year.

Much later, when Christianity came to Great Britain and Ireland, the Church wisely let people keep their old feast. But it gave a new association when in the 9th century a festival in honor of all saints (All Hallows) was fixed on November 1. In the 11th century All Souls' Day to honor the souls of the dead, particularly those died during the year.

Halloween Celebrations Today

Halloween is celebrated by nearly all American and the British children, and over 70% of adults also participate in some Halloween activity. College students and other young adults may attend masquerade parties or Halloween parades. Many families carve pumpkins and decorate the outside of their homes with the traditional Halloween symbols. Businesses get into the act, too. Store windows display jack-o'-lanterns, scarecrows, and witches. Servers in restaurants and salespeople in supermarkets and bookstores are often in costume. Many nightclubs and bars encourage customers to come in costume by offering prizes for the best disguises.

Part of the fun of Halloween is to get scared out of four wits. This can be done by visiting a haunted house. Supposedly, the spirits of dead people "live" in haunted houses. These spirits try to scare away living residents or visitors so that the spirits can enjoy their afterlife (which really means a life after death) in peace. Why do spirits hate the living? The living always want to clean up and brighten their surroundings, while ghosts and skeletons prefer dust, spiders, cobwebs (=spider's web), and darkness. These days, it's hard to find a real haunted house. But every year shortly before Halloween, many charities and communities create fake haunted houses. They hire actors to dress up in scary costumes and hide inside. Customers pay a few dollars each to walk through these places and have

“ghosts” surprise them with a loud “Boo!” and “skeletons” clang chains in their ears. Children usually love these haunted houses, but sometimes their parents are scared to death! For those who have no haunted house nearby, another way to share a good scare is to go with friends to see a horror movie in a theatre or rent one and watch it together on Halloween night (in a dark room, of course).

Most American and the British children have a wonderful, exciting day on Halloween. If Halloween falls on a school day, they sometimes bring their costumes to school and spend the last few hours of the school day with spooks (=ghost) instead of with books. After school and perhaps on into the evening, they go trick-or-treating. Often, there’s a party at a friend’s home or at a local community center. At most Halloween parties, prizes are given for the best costumes. Bobbing for apples, telling fortunes (=predicting the future), playing scary games, and snacking on caramel-covered apples, candy; apple cider, and pumpkin pie are all part of the fun. Some communities build a bonfire, just as the Celts did. Children may sit around the bonfire telling scary stories while roasting hot dogs or toasting marshmallows. Halloween which began hundreds years ago as an evening of terror, is now an occasion of great fun.

However, some words of warning are needed. Halloween is a time when children can become overexcited and careless, and it is a time when care is especially needed. To be sure that cars will see children after dark, parents should dress them in light-colored costumes or put reflecting tape on their clothing. To be sure that the kids see the cars, parents should enlarge the eye-holes in masks by cutting them with scissors. When trick-or-treating, children should go in groups. Younger children should go with older children or an adult. Kids should be told never to go inside the house or apartment of a stranger but to wait outside for their treats. Even if no treat is given, children should be told not to damage property. Kids should stop trick-or-treating by 8:00 p.m. when they get home with their candy, parents should inspect it and throw out anything not wrapped and sealed. (There have been rare incidents of harmful ingredients found in Halloween treats.)

On Halloween night, adults should be careful, too. Robbers could take advantage of the casual, open-door Halloween spirit to gain access to strangers' homes. Note that Mrs. Brown (the woman at the beginning of this reading) did not completely open her door until she was sure that uninvited visitors were children.



After You Read

Debate these issues in small groups. Then choose one and write about it.

1. Is Halloween good or bad for children? What kind of behavior does it encourage?
2. Should Halloween customs be changed to make the holiday safer and less destructive? If so, what changes should be made?
3. In your opinion is it a good idea to frighten children when they misbehave?
4. Do the Uzbek or any other nation have a holiday of scary activities?

CHAPTER 15 THANKSGIVING AND NATIVE AMERICANS

KEY WORDS AND WORD COMBINATIONS: *cranberry, sauce, Pilgrim, survive, explore, cope with, suffer, deer, separatist, colonist, settle, wilderness, insufficient, descendant, harvest festival, feast, squash, imitate, glassware, silverware, role-playing costumed guide*

Thanksgiving Day is on the fourth Thursday in November. It is a time for big family reunions and big dinners, a time to eat turkey, stuffing, corn, cranberry sauce, and pumpkin pie. But between endless bites of food, Americans also take time to feel grateful for whatever is good in their lives. Some people thank fate or their loved ones. And most people remember the small group of English colonists who gave Americans this delicious and meaningful holiday. Today's Thanksgiving holiday was inspired by a harvest festival in Plymouth, Massachusetts, almost 400 years ago. The small group of colonists of the second permanent English settlement in the New World, had very little by today's standards, but they were thankful for receiving what they valued most – a good harvest and the freedom to live and worship as they pleased.

The Plymouth colonists began their journey to America in September of 1620 on a ship called the *Mayflower*. Some of the passengers were members of a persecuted religious sect. They were called *Separatists* because they had separated from the Church of England in order to practice their religion in ways they considered closer to the message of the Bible. In search of greater religious freedom, some members of this group went to live in Holland for several years, but they were unhappy there, too. So they made plans to come to America, where they would be free to live as they chose. They returned to England to prepare for the journey. Many years later, the separatists came to be called Pilgrims because of their travels in search of religious freedom. Today, Americans commonly refer to all of the Plymouth residents as Pilgrims, but only about half of the colonists were

Separatists. The others came to America, not for religious freedom, but for adventure or new opportunity.

The pilgrim leaders knew that, in order to survive, every society needed rules for proper behavior. So, 41 men aboard the *Mayflower* held a meeting. They chose their first governor and signed the *Mayflower Compact*, an agreement to make laws for their colony and to obey them. It was the first formal agreement for self-government in America.

One spring morning in 1621, a friendly Native American walked into the little village of Plymouth and introduced himself. Later, he brought the chief (Massasoit). The colonists gave gifts to their new friends. The members of Massasoit's tribe taught the Pilgrims how to hunt and fish. Because of this help, that fall the colonists had a good harvest. To celebrate, they decided to have a harvest festival.



Massasoit and about 90 of his men came to share the celebration. The Indians sent hunters out to bring back deer meat for the feast. Some of the Pilgrim men also went hunting and returned with wild birds such as ducks, geese, and turkeys.

The women of Plymouth prepared dishes from corn, squash (=citrus fruit drink), and pumpkins. The meal was cooked and served out-of-doors. The holiday combined feasting and entertainment. The colonists performed a military display with their guns, and the Indians probably danced. The celebration lasted three days and was a great success.

Today, when Americans celebrate Thanksgiving, they like to think that they are imitating that 1621 harvest festival in Plymouth. And in some ways they are. The foods that are eaten are those that were part of the Plymouth diet – such as turkey, squash, corn, the meal that the Plymouth colonists shared with their Indian neighbors. To start with, the wild turkey that the Pilgrims hunted was somewhat different from today’s domesticated turkey. (Wild turkeys, for example, can fly, but today’s commercially produced turkeys cannot.) Next, the Plymouth colonists didn’t have enough sugar to make the sweetened cranberry (=sour tasting red bush tree fruit) sauce that is considered an essential part of today’s Thanksgiving meal. If they had cranberries at all, they were probably cut into pieces, not mashed and served in pie. Also, for today’s Thanksgiving dinner, most Americans set a beautiful table with a fancy tablecloth and the finest dishes, glassware, and silverware they have. The Pilgrims (like most early-seventeenth-century people) did not have forks. They picked up most of their food with their fingers, and then wiped their hands on very large napkins. And, of course, few Americans eat their Thanksgiving dinner outside, as the Pilgrims did.

Every year, about 500,000 tourists take a journey into early American history by visiting Plymouth, Massachusetts. This modern city offers many opportunities for reliving the Pilgrim experience. In Plymouth Harbor, sightseers tour Mayflower II, a recently built ship similar to the original Mayflower. They see the famous Plymouth Rock. Then they spend a few hours walking through a recreation of the original Plymouth village as it looked in 1627. The site, called Plymouth Plantation, is just a few miles from the location of the original village. Plymouth Plantation is “inhabited” by role-playing costumed guides who speak in many different English dialects, as the real Plymouth residents did. They also demonstrate a wide range of activities that were part of village life in the 1620s.

A Famous Pilgrim Story

In 1858, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, a famous poet, wrote a long poem about the Pilgrims of Plymouth Colony. He called it “The Courtship of Miles

Standish.” The colonists Longfellow wrote about were real people. However, the story he told, about two men in love with the same woman, was invented. Still, it is a famous American story and well worth retelling.

Captain Miles Standish came to America with the Pilgrims, but he was not a Puritan. He was a soldier. Although he was very brave in battle, Standish was timid with women. After his wife died, he was lonely and wanted to marry a Puritan girl named Priscilla Mullens. But he was too shy to ask her. Instead, Standish asked his best friend, John Alden, to propose marriage for him. Never were two friends so different. Standish was a short stocky, middle-aged man. Alden was a young man and very handsome. While Standish was a man of action, Alden was a scholar. It only one way these two men were alike: they both loved the same woman.

Poor John! He also loved Priscilla, but he wanted to be a loyal friend. Hiding his own feelings, he went to Priscilla and asked her to marry Miles Standish. He told her how kind the captain was. He talked about Standish’s bravery in battle and about his fine family. When John finished talking, Priscilla asked him a question: “Why don not you speak for yourself, John?”

John did not take Priscilla’s advice. Instead, he returned to his friend and told him what Priscilla had said. The captain became very angry. “You have betrayed me!” he shouted. A short time later, Standish left for a battle against hostile natives. While the captain was gone, John and Priscilla grew to love each other more and more. However, John did not ask her to marry him because he did not want to be unfaithful friend. Then a message arrived saying that Standish had been killed in battle. After that John proposed marriage to Priscilla.

As the wedding ceremony ended, the guests saw a familiar figure standing in the doorway, a figure they thought was a ghost. It was Captain Miles Standish! He had not been killed after all. He had come apologize for his anger. At the end of the story, John, Priscilla, and Miles were reunited as friends. What about the real

colonists? Standish eventually remarried, and John and Priscilla had 11 children. One of their descendants was the famous poet Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.

QUESTIONS AFTER YOU READ:

1. Why did the Separatists decide to immigrate to another continent?
2. What did the pilgrim leaders do in order to survive?
3. What difficulties did the Pilgrims have to cope with life in the wilderness?
4. How did the pilgrims survive?
5. Compare the Plymouth Thanksgiving of 1621 with today's typical American Thanksgiving.
6. Was John Alden a loyal friend, or did he betray Miles Standish?

CHAPTER 16 THE WINTER HOLIDAY SEASON

KEY WORDS AND WORD COMBINATIONS: *needy, generosity, forgiveness, virgin, anoint, pagan celebration, variation, customary, inscribe, mispronounce, mistletoe, North Pole, gravy, jolly, beard, chimney, sleigh, reindeer, entertainment, carol*

Each year, hundreds of thousands of people all over the world send and receive Christmas cards. Most of people think that exchanging cards at Christmas a very ancient custom but it is not right. In fact it is barely 100 years old.

There are about 2 billion Christians worldwide. They believe in Jesus's ideas of equality, caring for the weak and needy, generosity, forgiveness, and love and kindness to all. They also believe that Jesus Christ is the Son of God, born to the Virgin Mary, and that he was sent to Earth to save the human race.



The word *Jesus* means, “Savior” or “help of God”. The word Christ means “anointed one,” someone set apart for special honor.

Jesus was born in Bethlehem in ancient Judea. The year A.D. 1, from which most modern calendars are dated, is supposed to be the year of his birth. However, Jesus was actually born several years earlier. No one knows the exact year or day, but Christians have celebrated his birth on December 25 since the fourth century. This date was probably selected so that Christmas would replace pagan celebrations of the beginning of winter.

Since the majority citizens of the U.S. (86% of Americans) and the U.K. are Christians, December 25 is a religious and a legal holiday. Most of the Christmas customs that Americans and the British enjoy today are variations of traditions;

Exchanging gifts. *The* first Christmas gifts were birthday gifts that the three Wise Men brought to the infant Jesus. In the U.S., and the U.K., it is customary to exchange gifts with family members and close friends. Both children and adults get Christmas presents, although children usually get many more. The idea of exchanging illustrated greeting and presents is, however, ancient. So the first commercial card was produced in Britain in 1843 by Henry Cole, founder of the Victoria and Albert Museum, London. The hand colored print was inscribed with the words ‘A Merry Christmas and Happy New Year’. It was horizontally rectangular, printed on stout cardboard by lithography.

Receiving toys from Santa Claus. Many American and British children believe that on Christmas Eve, Santa Claus (a fat, jolly man who wears a red suit and has a long white beard) slides down their chimney to bring them gifts. According to the story, Santa Claus flies through the air in a sleigh (a fancy sled) pulled by eight reindeer. Several days or weeks before Christmas, children tell Santa what toys they want by writing him letters or visiting him in a local department store. Then, on Christmas Eve, many youngsters lie awake listening for Santa Claus and his sleigh. Some children even leave him a snack of milk and cookies.

Where did this legend come from? Santa Claus is the American name for St. Nicholas, a generous fourth-century bishop who lived in what is now Turkey. It was his custom to go out at night and bring gifts to the poor. After his death, his fame spread throughout Europe. Dutch immigrants brought the idea of St. Nicholas, whom they called *Sinter Klaas*, to the U.S., where the name was mispronounced and finally changed the roly-poly man in red that we know today. Santa’s sleigh and reindeer came from an old Norse legend. So, today’s Santa Claus is a blend of several different cultures.

Hanging Stockings. As in Great Britain, American children hang stockings hoping that Santa will fill them with candy and toys. Traditionally, stockings were hung near the fireplace, but today children hang them wherever they think Santa will see them!

Decorating the Home with Holiday Plants. The winter custom of decorating homes and churches with evergreens began in ancient times. Branches of fir or spruce (=qarag'ay) were thought to bring good luck and guarantee the return of spring. The early Germans believed that in winter, evil spirits killed plants and trees and caused green leaves and flowers to disappear. Bringing evergreens into their homes was supposed to protect them from death.

Germans of the sixteenth century probably started the custom of decorating trees. In the nineteenth century, the idea spread throughout Europe and the U.S... Every year the people of Norway give the city of London a present. It is a big Christmas tree and it stands in Trafalgar Square. Also in central London, Oxford Street and Regent Street always have beautiful decorations at the New Year and Christmas. Thousands of people come to look at them. Every year, Americans spend about \$460 million buying Christmas trees. The modern American tree is usually covered with colored glass balls and strings of colored lights. The star on top represents the star in the East.

Both in the U.S. and the U.K., the spirit of Christmas arrives at least a month before the holiday itself. Starting in November, streetlights and store windows began to display the traditional Christmas colors, red and green. Santa Claus, shepherds, angels, and Nativity scenes appear in shop windows. Winter scenes with snowmen, sledges, skaters, and skiers decorate greeting cards and store windows.

The manufacture and sale of Christmas items is big business. Stores depend on Christmas shoppers for about one-fourth of their annual sales. Smart shoppers

buy their gifts in advance, before the Christmas rush makes shopping a chore. Some shop on the internet to avoid crowds. Christmas is often very expensive.

A tradition feature of Christmas in Britain is the Christmas tree. Queen Victoria's husband, Prince Albert, brought the German tradition (he was German) to Britain. He and the Queen had a Christmas tree at Windsor Castle in 1841. A few years after, nearly every house in Britain had one. In the U.S., decorated trees stand in about two-thirds of American homes. Traditionally people decorate their trees on Christmas Eve – that's December 24th. They take down the decorations twelve days later, on Twelfth Night (January 5th).

An older tradition is Christmas mistletoe (a traditional Christmas decoration). People put a piece of this green plant with its white berries over a door. Mistletoe brings good luck, people say. Also, at Christmas British people kiss their friends and family under the mistletoe.

Those who live away try to get back home because Christmas is a family celebration and it is the biggest holiday of the year. As Christmas comes nearer, everyone is buying presents for relatives and friends. At Christmas people try to give their children everything they want. And the children count the weeks, then the days, to Christmas. They are wondering what presents on December 24th Father Christmas brings their presents in the night. Then they open them on the morning of the 25th.

There is another name for Father Christmas in Britain – Santa Claus. That comes from the European name for him – Saint Nicholas. In the traditional story he lives at the North Pole. But now he lives in big shops in towns and cities all over Britain. Well, that's where children see him in November and December. Then on Christmas Eve he visits every house. He climbs down the chimney and leaves lots of presents. Some people leave something for him, too a glass of wine and some biscuits, for example. In the U.S., people leave their stockings outdoors, because they believe that Father Christmas puts presents into the stockings.

In Britain, the most important meal on December 25th is Christmas dinner. Nearly all Christmas food is traditional, but a lot of the traditions are not very old. For example, there were no turkeys in Britain before 1800. And even in the nineteenth century, goose was the traditional meat at Christmas, but not now.

A twenty first-century Christmas dinner is roast turkey with carrots, potatoes, peas, Brussels sprouts and gravy. There are sausages and bacon, too. Then, after the turkey, there is Christmas pudding. Some people make this pudding months before Christmas. A lot of families have their own Christmas pudding recipes. Some, for example, use a lot of brandy. Others put in a lot of fruit or add a silver coin for good luck. Real Christmas pudding always has a piece of holly on the top. Holly bushes and trees have red berries at Christmas time, and so people use holly to decorate their houses for Christmas. The holly on the pudding is part of the decoration.

The poinsettia plant is another familiar Christmas decoration. Its star-shaped red leaves symbolize the holiday. This plant is native to Central America and Mexico. It was named after Joel R. Poinsett, who served as the first U.S. ambassador to Mexico (from 1825 to 1829). An Amateur botanist, he brought the plant back with him when he returned to the United States.

Going Caroling. In the early days of the Christian Church, the bishops sang carols on Christmas Day. Now, soloists and choirs on the radio, on TV, in church, and in school all help fill the winter air with beautiful music. Copying an old English custom, many Americans go caroling – walking with friends from house to house singing the traditional holiday songs.

Sending Christmas Cards. The custom of sending Christmas cards began in London in 1843 and came to the U.S. in 1875. Today, most Americans (Christians and non-Christians) send dozens of season's greetings cards to relatives, friends, and business associates.

Other Christmas Traditions:

Crackers are also usual at Christmas dinner. These came to Britain from China in the nineteenth century. Two people pull a cracker. Usually there is a small toy in the middle. Often there is a joke on a piece of paper, too. Most of the jokes in Christmas crackers are not very good. Here is an example:

Customer: Waiter, there is a frog in my soup.

Waiter: Yes, sir, the fly's on holidays.

A pantomime is a traditional English entertainment at Christmas. It is meant for children, but adults enjoy it just as much. It is a very old form of entertainment, and can be traced back to the 16th century Italian comedies. There have been a lot of changes over the years. Singing and dancing and all kinds of jokes have been added; but the stories that are still fairy tales, with a hero, a heroine, and a villain. In every pantomime there are always three main characters. These are the “principal boy”, the “principal girl”, and the “dame”. Pantomimes are changing all the time. Every year, someone has a new idea to make them more exciting or more up-to-date.

Attending Traditional Christmas Theatrical Productions. Americans of all religions enjoy performances of three traditional Christmas works. One of these is *Messiah*, an oratorio written by the German composer George Frederick Handel and performed by a chorus, orchestra, and solo singers. Another classic work performed during the Christmas season is the Russian composer Peter Ilich Tchaikovsky's ballet the *Nutcracker*. It is a favorite with children because it tells the delightful story of a little girl's Christmas dream about her toys coming to life. Finally, there is *A Christmas Carol*, a story written by the nineteenth-century English author Charles Dickens. It is traditionally performed as a play and tells the tale of a man named Ebenezer Scrooge. Scrooge is selfish, lonely, and rich. With the help of ghosts from his past, present, and future life, he regains the spirit of Christmas – the ability to care about others and enjoy helping them.

Happy Hanukkah!

While Christians brighten winter with Christmas color and lights, Jews throughout the world celebrate their Festival of Lights – Hanukkah. This holiday celebrates the triumph of religious freedom. In 168 B.C., the Syrian king conquered Judea and tried to force the Jews to worship pagan gods. Three years later, a small group of Jews defeated the powerful Syrian armies.

When the Jews recaptured Jerusalem and rededicated their holy temple, they relit the eternal lamp. They had only day's supply of the special oil needed for that lamp. But miraculously, the light burned for eight days, until fresh oil was available. In memory of this miracle, Jews celebrate Hanukkah for eight days and light candles in a special holder called a menorah. The date of Hanukkah is determined by the Hebrew calendar, but the holiday always occurs in December. So, for Americans of both the Christian and Jewish faiths, the year ends in a spirit of joy.

An African Festival

During the winter holiday period, African-Americans, along with Africans in many other countries, celebrate Kwanza. This holiday was developed in the U.S.A. in 1966 but is based in part upon a traditional African harvest festival. The name Kwanza means “first fruits of the harvest” in Swahili, an East African language. The festival begins on December 26 and lasts for 7 days. Each day is dedicated to discussion of one of these principles: unity, self-determination, collective responsibility, cooperative economics, purpose, creativity, and faith. Kwanza customs include lightening candles and exchanging gifts, especially handmade ones.

On December 31, community members dress in African clothing and share a feast of traditional African foods. This celebration includes musical and dance performances, an assessment of the past years, and commitments for the coming year.

Kwanza provides an opportunity for African-Americans to reestablish their links to an African past and their connections to their contemporary community. It is celebrated by about 5 million African-Americans and about 10 million others in Africa, Canada, the Caribbean, and parts of Europe.

December 26th is Boxing Day. Traditionally boys from shops in each town asked for money at Christmas. They went from house to house on December 26th and took houses made of wood with them. At each house people give them money. This was a Christmas present. So the name of December 26th does not come from the sport of boxing – it comes from the boy's wooden boxes. Now, Boxing Day is an extra holiday after Christmas day.

Traditionally Boxing Day Hunts is a day for foxhunting. The huntsmen and huntswomen ride horses. They use dogs, too. The dogs (fox hounds) follow the smell of the fox. Then the huntsmen and huntswomen follow the hounds. Before a Boxing Day hunt, the huntsmen and huntswomen drink not wine. But the tradition of the December 26th hunt is changing. Now, some people want to stop Boxing Day Hunts (and other hunts, too). They do not like foxhunting. For them it is not a sport – it is cruel.

Happy New Year!

“Ring out the old, ring in the new”, wrote Alfred Lord Tennyson, the nineteenth century English poet. And that is exactly what Americans do every December 31. New Year's Eve is a time for noise and fun. At home or in restaurants, most Americans drink and dine with friends. One popular New Year's Eve drink is eggnog, made with eggs, milk or cream, nutmeg, and sugar. Throughout the Christmas season, eggnog is a popular party beverage. Another is, of course, champagne – the drink that symbolizes a celebration. At midnight on New Year's Eve, bells ring, horns blow, and friends toast each other with champagne. It is also customary to exchange kisses. Everyone celebrates the disappearance of old Father Time, replaced by the baby New Year. New Year's

Eve festivities often continue until two or three o'clock in the morning. Many people travel from one party to another to celebrate with several different groups of friends. In U.K. it is not as widely or as enthusiastically observed as Christmas. Some people ignore it completely and go to bed at the same time as usual on New Year's Eve.

The New Year arrives earlier in the East than in other parts of the U.S.. When midnight comes to New York, it is 11 p.m. in Los Angeles. The contiguous (connected) 48 states span four time zones; Alaska and Hawaii add two more.

What do Americans do on New Year's Day? Many sleep late because they stayed up all night long. Many watch TV, which offers spectacular parades and football games between champion college teams. From ancient times to the present, New Year's customs have been connected with saying good-bye to the past and looking forward to a better future. Therefore, New Year's Day often inspires people to start new programs and give up bad habits. Some people make New Year's resolutions, promises to improve their behavior. People talk about "turning over a new leaf", referring to a clean, blank page or a fresh start. Typical New Year's resolutions are to spend less money, give up smoking, begin a diet, or be nicer to others. It is safe to assume that about half of them are forgotten by January 31!

Chinese and Jewish New Year's Holidays

Many Chinese-Americans celebrate the New Year holiday established by China's ancient lunar calendar more than 4,000 years ago. The 15-day Chinese New Year begins with Yuan Tan and concludes with the Festival of Lanterns, held at the time of the full moon between January 21 and February 19. During this period, Chinatown sections in major American cities look very festive, with paper and glass lanterns decorating houses and colorful marchers parading in the streets.

Rosh Hashanah (which means "head of the year") is the traditional Jewish New Year. It occurs in September or October. Rosh Hashanah is a very solemn

holiday, marking the beginning of 10 days set aside for self-appraisal, repentance, and promises to be a better person in the coming year.

In most cultures, the closing of one calendar year and the opening of another is a happy, yet serious, occasion. To Americans, it is a time for fun and reflection, a time to look both ways, to review the past with nostalgia and look forward to the future with hope.

QUESTIONS AFTER YOU READ

1. What event does Christmas celebrate?
2. How does gift-giving relate to the birth of Christ and the spirit of the holiday?
3. What does Hanukkah celebrate?
4. Why are lights important?
5. Where did Kwanza originate?
6. What is the major theme of the New Year's holiday?
7. How do Americans celebrate?
8. What does the star on top of the Christmas tree represent?

CHAPTER 17 PATRIOTIC HOLIDAYS

KEY WORDS AND WORD COMBINATIONS: *honor, general tribute, cemetery, grave, gesture, wreath, ex-serviceman, artificial poppy, mourning, Tomb of the Unknowns, Declaration of Independence, execute, treason, lead, bullet, parchment, commemorate, adopt a resolution, horizontal stripe, liberty, five-pointed, contribute, devotion*

Memorial Day, originally established to honor the Civil War dead, now honors all Americans who lost their lives in military service. Unofficially, the holiday has been extended its military connection to become a day of general tribute to the dead. On Memorial Day, cemeteries are crowded with families who come to decorate the graves of their loved ones.

Shortly after the bitter and bloody Civil War between the northern and southern states, the women of Columbus, Mississippi, put flowers on the graves of both Confederate and Union soldiers. By doing so, they honored the war dead who were their enemies along with their Confederate defenders. Northerners saw this gesture as a symbol of national unity. In 1868, Decoration Day – now called Memorial Day – became a legal holiday. Today, in every state except Alabama, Memorial Day is celebrated on the last Monday in May. Parades and military exercises mark the occasion. Also, in much of the country, Memorial Day is the first warm-weather holiday. People get out the barbecue grill and start planning outdoor fun. But, hopefully, they remember the meaning behind the day.

Remembrance Day is observed throughout Britain in commemoration of the million or more British soldiers, sailors and airmen who lost their lives during the two World Wars. On that day special services are held in the churches and wreaths (=garland) are laid at war memorials throughout the country and at London's Cenotaph (a war memorial in Whitehall, London, commemorating the dead of the two World Wars), where a great number of people gather to observe the two-minute silence and to perform the annual Remembrance Day ceremony. The

silence begins at the first stroke of Big Ben booming 11 o'clock, and is broken only by crash of distant artillery and perhaps by the murmur of a passing jet. When the two-minute silence is over, members of the Royal Family or their representatives and political leaders come forward to lay wreaths at the foot of the Cenotaph. Then comes the march past the memorial of ex-servicemen and women, followed by an endless line of ordinary citizens who have come here with their personal wreaths and their sad memories.

On that day artificial poppies, a symbol of mourning, are traditionally sold in the streets everywhere, and people wear them in their button-holes. The money collected in this way is later used to help the men who had been crippled during the war and their dependents.

Veterans Day, like Memorial Day, is a serious holiday honoring men and women who have served in the military. Originally, the holiday was called *Armistice Day*. It was established by President Woodrow Wilson in 1919 to commemorate the signing of the armistice (on November 11, 1918) that brought an end to World War I. In 1954, President Dwight Eisenhower a bill changing the name of the holiday to Veterans Day and extending its significance so that it now honors American veterans of all wars. The holiday is celebrated on November 11 throughout the U.S. and in other countries as well. The armistice between the opposing forces in World War I was signed in the eleventh month, on the eleventh day, at 11 a.m. Some people still observe two minutes of silence at that time.

On Veterans Day, the flag is displayed, and veterans march in parades in many communities. Special services are held at the *Tomb of the Unknowns* in Arlington National Cemetery. The *Tomb of the Unknowns* is special to Americans because the unidentified members of the military buried there symbolize everyone who has died in defense of the U.S. Large crowds also gather for services at the Vietnam Veterans Memorial (commonly called *the Wall*) in Washington, D.C.

On this holiday, veterans' organizations in many countries sell paper poppies (red flowers) to raise money for needy veterans. Poppies became associated with World War I because of a famous poem by John McCrae. He wrote about a World War I Belgian battle site, now an American military cemetery: "In Flanders fields the poppies blow / between the crosses, row on row." The Poppies symbolize the contrast the beautiful, peaceful landscape and the bloody battlefield it once was.

Independence Day, the most important patriotic holiday in the U.S., celebrates the birth of the nation. In 1776, the 13 American colonies were in the midst of the Revolutionary War against Great Britain. On July 2, the Second Continental Congress (which had representatives from all 13 colonies) passed a resolution of independence. Two days later, this body adopted the Declaration of Independence – a document that declared the colonies free and independent. In taking these actions, these revolutionary leaders were risking their lives, and they knew it. If the colonies had lost the war, these members would probably all have been executed for treason. Benjamin Franklin told the other members of the Continental Congress, "We must all hang together, or assuredly we shall all be hung separately".

The Declaration of Independence was written by Thomas Jefferson, who later became the young nation's third president. The document listed that the colonists had suffered at the hands of Great Britain and its king George III. Its most famous paragraph summed up ideals that are still held by Americans today: *(See Chapter "George Washington" for details)*

After making a few changes on Jefferson's draft, on July 4, 1776, the members of the Continental Congress accepted the revised version. The document was quickly printed and announced to the public on July 8. The news of independence was greeted enthusiastically by most colonists. The following day, in New York City, an excited crowd pulled down a statue of King George III. Later, its lead was melted down to make bullets for the war.

On July 19, Congress ordered the Declaration on Independence written on parchment in special script. The members of the Continental Congress signed this fancy document. Today, this original signed copy is on display in the National Archives in Washington, D.C. Among the 56 signatures, one name stands out. It is the large, fancy signature of John Hancock, president of the Second Continental Congress. Today, his name is often used as a synonym for the word signature. When asked to sign a legal document, Americans are sometimes told, “Put your John Hancock right here”.

Since Independence Day is a summer holiday and off from almost everyone, many families enjoy picnics or beach outings. The occasion is also commemorated by colorful and noisy firework displays, parades, and, in some communities, patriotic speeches. The flag is flown, and blue ribbons are used for decoration at public ceremonies.

On the Fourth of July weekend is the celebration of the national bird, the bald eagle. (No, this majestic bird isn't bald. The white feathers on its head just make it look that way.) At one time, about half a million of these huge birds flew in the skies of North America. By 1963, bald eagles were close to extinction. Only 417 breeding pairs remained in the contiguous 48 states. Hunters, pesticides, power lines, and loss of habitat causes this decline. Then DDT was banned, and the Endangered Species Act led to protective measures. Today, the U.S.A. is home to about 6,000 pairs of these powerful birds, and they are being taken off the endangered species list. Americans are delighted. They laugh when they recall that Benjamin Franklin wanted the national bird to be the turkey. The high-flying eagle seems much more appropriate for a nation so proud of its power and independence.

Flag Day, June 14, is the birthday of the American flag. It is a minor honoring a major American symbol. On this date in 1777, the Continental Congress adopted a resolution stating that the flag of the new nation should have 13 horizontal stripes (7 red ones and 6 white ones) to symbolize the 13 colonies and 13 white stars on a blue background to symbolize the unity and equality of

these colonies. According to George Washington, the red striped symbolized Great Britain and the alternating white stripes represented the separation between Great Britain and its former colonies. White was also the symbol of liberty.

Who made the first American flag? A young widow, who was a Philadelphia seamstress and flag-maker, probably did. Almost 100 years later, Betsy Ross's grandson went public with this family story: Early in 1777, George Washington and two other men came to the Philadelphia home of Betsy Ross with a design and asked her to make a flag for the new country. She followed their plan excepting for making the stars five-pointed instead of six-pointed. When Betsy Ross's story became known throughout the country, more than 2 million people contributed to a fund for the preservation of her home. Today, it remains a popular tourist attraction.

The American flag has been redesigned many times. Today, it still contains 13 stripes in honor of the original colonies. But now there are 50 stars (one for each state) arranged in 9 rows, alternating 6 stars in one row and 5 stars in the next. Because of its design, the American flag has been nicknamed the Stars and stripes. It is sometimes also called Old Glory.

In school, children memorize and often recite the following Pledge of Allegiance to the flag: *"I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the Republic for which it stands one nation under God indivisible with liberty and justice for all."*²⁸ Americans recite this pledge while standing and

²⁸ America, the meaning of the pledge

I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the Republic for which it stands one nation under God indivisible with liberty and justice for all.

"I pledge allegiance" – I promise to be true / "to the flag" – to the sign of our country

"of the United States of America" – a country made up of fifty states, each with certain rights of its own /

"and to the Republic" – a country where the people elect others to make laws for them

holding the right hand over the heart to show devotion to the flag and the nation it represents.

In 1814, the American flag inspired a lawyer and amateur poet named Francis Scott Key to write “The Star Spangled Banner”, the poet that was later set to music and became the national anthem. During the War of 1812 between Great Britain and the United States, Key was on a ship in Baltimore harbor watching the British attack Fort McHenry. As long as Key saw the American flag flying over the fort, he knew his country had not lost the battle. He wrote “the bombs bursting in air / gave proof through the night / that our flag was still there.” (The bombs lit up the sky and allowed him to see the flag.) When this terrible night ended and dawn finally came, to his great joy, Key saw that Stars and Stripes still flew “o’er the land of the free and the home of the brave.” Key set his poem to music, using the melody of an old British song. More than 100 years later, in 1931, Congress declared “The Star Spangled Banner” the national anthem.

The American flag is a symbol of the country – its government, its people, and its ideals. As such, most people agree that it should be handled with respect. There are many rules and customs about proper handling of the flag. It is usually displayed only between sunrise and sunset. If displayed after dark, it must be lit up. It can be flown at half-mast to honor someone who just died. When a soldier dies his or her coffin is covered with the flag, and is given to the family. It should never touch the ground nor be stepped on. The flag has also been used as a symbol of protest, especially during the Vietnam War, when some people burnt the flag to show that they were ashamed of their country’s actions. Occasionally people who

“for which it stands” – the flag means the country / “one nation under God” – a country whose people believe in a supreme being / “indivisible” – the country cannot be split into parts

“with liberty and justice” – with freedom and fairness

“for all” – for each person in this country, both you and me

are angry about government action or critical of American life in general still show disrespect to the flag by burning it in public or stepping on it.

There have been many efforts to pass laws or amend the Constitution to make it illegal to desecrate the flag. However, objectors to such laws that handling the flag disrespectfully is a form of free speech and should be allowed. It is an interesting debate, which goes to the basic question of what American rights are and what they should be. On patriotic holidays, the American flag flies in front of many homes and reminds many Americans of their valuable Constitutional rights and freedoms.

Each of the U.S. states also has its own flag. State flags may show the state flower or bird, or other emblem.

The Union Jack

The flag of the United Kingdom is commonly known as the Union Jack. (Jack is a sailing term for a flag.) It has been used as the British flag since 1603, when Scotland and England were united. The original design combined the red cross of England with the white diagonal cross on a blue background of Scotland. The red diagonal cross of Ireland was added in 1801, when Ireland became part of the United Kingdom. Wales is not represented on the Union Jack because it is a principality of England. The red dragon, which is now often used as the national flag of Wales, dates from the 1950s.

The Union Jack is most often seen flying from public buildings or at sports events. Children may wave small Union Jacks when a member of the royal family visits their town during national celebrations. Strings of small flags are hung across the street as bunting.

The Union Jack is less important to British people than the Stars and Stripes is to Americans. Many people feel a stronger loyalty to the national flags of England, Scotland, Wales or Northern Ireland. The flag of the European Union, a circle of gold stars on a blue background, is sometimes also seen in Britain, e.g. on

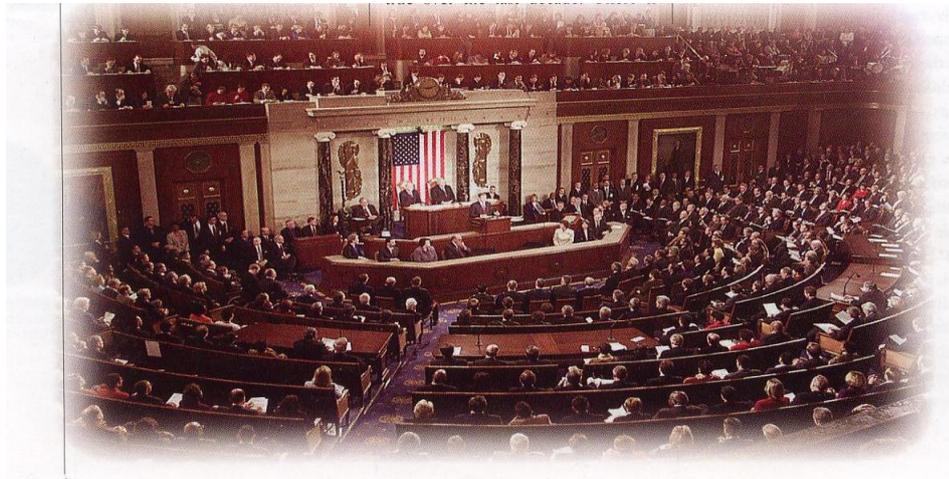
car number plates. Each country in the U.K., has its own national emblem such as red rose, daffodil, thistle, and shamrock.

QUESTIONS AFTER YOU READ:

1. What are four Veterans customs?
2. Why is the Fourth of July an important American Holiday?
3. What happened on July 4, 1776?
4. On Memorial Day, who is remembered?
5. Why are patriotic holidays so important?
6. Who wrote the Declaration of Independence?
7. Why do Americans sometimes ask, “Put your John Hancock right here” when they need one’s signature?
8. Who wanted the national bird to be the turkey not the bald eagle?
9. What does the U.S. flag symbolize? And what about the Union Jack?
10. Why is the Fourth of July an important American Holiday?
11. What happened on July 4, 1776?
12. On Memorial Day, who is remembered?

CHAPTER 18 THE GOVERNMENT

THE LEGISLATIVE



Britain is a constitutional monarchy. That means it is a country governed by a king or queen who accepts the advice of a parliament. It is also a parliamentary democracy. That is, it is a country whose government is controlled by a parliament which has been elected by the people. In other words, the basic system is not so different from anywhere else in Europe. The highest positions in the government are filled by members of the directly elected parliament. In Britain, as in many European countries, the official head of state, where a monarch (as in Belgium, the Netherlands and Denmark) or a president (as in Germany, Greece and Italy) has little real power.

However, there are features of the British system of government which makes it different from that in other countries and which are not “modern” at all. The most notable of these is the question of the constitution. Britain is almost alone among modern states in that it does not have “a constitution” at all. Of course, there are rules, regulations, principles and procedures for the running of the country – all the things, that political scientists and legal experts study and which are known collectively as “the constitution”. But there is no single written document which can be appealed to as the highest law of the land and the final

orbiter in any matter of dispute. Nobody can refer to article ‘6’ or ‘the first amendment’ or anything like that, because nothing like that exists. Instead, the principles and procedures by which the country is governed and from which people’s rights are derived come from a number of different sources. For example, Magna Carta (or the Magna Carta) was a document that King John was forced to sign by the English barons at Runnymede (a field beside the River Thames) in 1215. It restricted the king’s power and gave new rights to the barons and the people. Some of these rights are basic to Modern British law, e.g. the right to have a trial before being put in prison.

They have been built up, bit by bit, over the centuries. Some of them have never been written down at all. For example, there is no written law in Britain that says anything about who can be the Prime Minister or what the powers of the Prime Minister are, even though he or she is probably the most powerful person in the country. Similarly, there is no single written document which asserts people’s rights. Some rights which are commonly accepted in modern democracies (for example, the rights not to be discriminated against on the basis of sex or race) have been formally recognized by Parliament through legislation. Nevertheless, it is understood that these latter rights are also part of the constitution.

Daniel Webster, the nineteenth – century American statesman, once said: “We may be tossed upon an ocean where we can see no land – nor perhaps the sun or stars. But there is a chart and a compass for us to study, to consult, and to obey. That chart is the Constitution”.

One of the reasons why the colonists in North America began the American Revolution was that the British government had not respected rights that people in America thought important. As a result, when the colonists had won the war and were forming a new government, they wanted to limit its powers. They therefore wrote a document, called the Constitution, describing the new system of government and how it would work.

Leaders from each state met in Philadelphia in 1787 to write the Constitution. This meeting is known as the Constitutional Convention. There was a lot of discussions and compromise, and it was especially difficult to get agreement between large states and smaller ones, and between states with and without slaves. Finally, the Convention agreed on a document, but it could not be put into effect until nine states had ratified (=formally agreed to) it. People living in each state discussed whether the Constitution would benefit or harm them. In some states the decision was made quickly, but in others, such as New York and Virginia, the United States was then composed ratified the Constitution. It was signed by representatives from each state, including some of the most important figures in early American history: George Washington, Alexander Hamilton, Benjamin Franklin and James Madison.

The constitution defines three branches of government. They are *the legislative* branch, which enacts (makes) laws; *the executive* branch, which enforces those laws, and *the judicial* branch, which interprets them (=decides what they mean). The separation of powers between the three branches was designed to provide a series of checks and balances, so that no branch would become too powerful. The constitution said that it was a responsibility of the U.S. government to protect individual states. It also set a rather difficult process by which it could be amended (=changed)

THE EXECUTIVE

The Federal System

The United States is organized as a federal system. This means that the power to govern is divided between the national (federal) government, located in Washington, D.C., and the state governments. Laws passed by Congress (federal laws) must be authorized by the U.S. Constitution. That is what is meant by the statement that the United States government gets all its power from the Constitution. All matters over which the federal government does not have power

can be regulated only by the individual states (such as ownership of property, divorce, and education).

The original purpose of a national central government was to perform those tasks that could not be performed efficiently by each state individually. For example, dealing with foreign nations, establishing a monetary system, and regulating commerce between states could be done better by a single national authority. Other governmental responsibilities, such as public school systems, local roads, and police and fire protection, were left to the states and their subdivisions.

While the federal government's power is limited by the Constitution, the individual states are given the power to pass any law that is not prohibited by the Constitution. In those areas where both the state and the federal government have the power to pass laws, state laws can not conflict with those passed by the federal government.

Most state governments are quite similar in structure to the national government. Each is headed by an elected executive called a governor. The legislative branch may be called a state legislature or general assembly, or have some other name, but it generally functions much as Congress does. Most of the state legislatures also have two houses. The state court systems generally follow the three-level federal court plan, which provides for a trial court, an appellate (appeals) court, and a supreme court.

States are divided into smaller governmental units, such as counties, cities, towns, and villages. These units can pass laws that are authorized by the state in which they are located, and they are responsible for making and enforcing these laws within their boundaries.

The President is the head of state of the U.S. and the nation's chief executive. He (the President has so far always been a man) decides U.S. policy on foreign affairs and is the commander-in-chief of the armed forces. He can appoint heads of government departments and federal judges. Congress must ask the

President to approve new laws, although it is possible to pass a law without the President approval. Each year, the president gives a State of the Union Address to Congress (speech of the President about his government's successes, plans and policies). The President works in what may be the most famous office in the world, the Oval Office in the White House in Washington D.C. He must see that all national laws are carried out. Of course, a very large staff of advisers and other employees assist the president. In fact, the executive branch employs almost 3 million people located all over the world. The most important group of advisers is called the cabinet. The cabinet consists of the heads of the 14 departments of the executive branch, such as the Secretaries of Education, Defense, and Agriculture. Cabinet members are chosen by the President with the approval of the Senate.

The president also appoints ambassadors and other consular heads who represent the U.S. abroad. In addition, he appoints judges of the federal courts. The vice president is the only other elected person in the executive branch. One important constitutional duty of the person holding this office is to serve as president of the Senate. The vice president's most important function is to become president upon the death, resignation, or disability of the president. Out of 37 presidents elected, eight have died in office, and one resigned. In each case, the vice president became president

The Constitution requires that a president should be at least 35 years old and have been born in the U.S. It is often said that the President is directly elected by the people, and this is true in comparison with countries like Britain where the Prime Minister is elected by Members of Parliament. In fact, although people vote for one of the candidates for President, an electoral college makes the final choice.

Americans have a lot of respect for the office of President, and they are shocked when the president is believed to have done something wrong or illegal. In such a case it is possible for Congress to impeach the President (=remove him from his job).

In 1999 President Bill Clinton was tried by the Senate after admitting that he had had a sexual relationship with Monica Lewinsky, having earlier denied it. Many Americans continued to support him and the Senate decided that he was not guilty of “high crimes and misdemeanors” (=offences for which a person can be impeached)

Prime minister - Originally, the king or queen could choose anyone they liked to be chief or “Prime” Minister, and for a long time the Prime Minister could come from either the House of Lords or the House of Commons. In recent years the Prime Minister has always come from the Commons and the king or queen gives the job to the leader of the party with the largest number of MPs. Lord Home, who became leader of the Conservative Party in 1963, was the first politician to be allowed to renounce a peerage (=give up an inherited title and status) to become Prime Minister (as Sir Alec Douglas – Home).

The Prime Minister is by tradition First Lord of the Treasury and Minister for the Civil Service. He or she chooses and presides over the Cabinet and heads the government. The Prime Minister also chooses senior ministers and recommends their appointment to the king or queen. While other ministers are responsible for particular government department, the Prime minister is concerned with policy as a whole. Cabinet committees usually report directly to him or her. The Prime Ministers has regular meetings with the sovereign to inform him or her of the activities of the government.

The face and voice of the Prime Minister, informally called the PM, are familiar to everyone in the country through television, radio and newspapers. Public image is now very important, and specialist advisers are employed to make sure that the Prime Minister’s appearance, manner and tone of voice show qualities that they think will appeal to the public. The prime minister usually lives at 10 Downing Street, above the office used by the Cabinet, and is often photographed outside the front door.

In Britain, the cabinet is a committee responsible for deciding government policy and for coordinating the work of government departments. It consists of about 20 ministers chosen by the Prime Ministers and meets for a few hours each week at Downing Street. Its members are bound by oath not to talk about the meeting. Reports are sent to government departments but these give only summaries of the topics discussed and decisions taken. They do not mention who agreed or disagreed. The principle of collective responsibility means that the Cabinet acts unanimously (=all together), even if some ministers do not agree.

When a policy has been decided, each minister is expected to support it publicly or resign. In recent years, prime ministers have changed the members of their Cabinet quite often in Cabinet reshuffles. Some members are dropped, new ones are brought in, and the rest are given new departmental responsibilities.

The leader of the main opposition party forms a shadow cabinet of shadow ministers, each with their own area of responsibility, so that there is a team ready to take over immediately if the party in power should be defeated.

Committees are appointed by the Cabinet to examine issues in more detail than the Cabinet has time for. Members of these committees are not necessarily politicians. The Cabinet office led by the Secretary to the Cabinet, the most senior civil servant in Britain, prepares agendas for cabinet meetings and committees.

In the U.S. the Cabinet consists of the heads of the 14 departments that make up the executive branch of the federal government. Each president appoints the department heads, called secretaries, from his own party, and they advise him on policy. Since the Cabinet was not established by the Constitution, the President may add, remove or combine government departments, and can decide when to ask the Cabinet for advice, and whether or not to follow it.

State governments are usually organized in a similar way to the national government, and most have a cabinet.

Local government

For administrative purposes Britain is divided into small geographical areas. The oldest and largest divisions in England and Wales are called counties. In Scotland, the largest divisions are regions. Counties and regions are further divided into districts. Parishes, originally villages with a church, are the smallest units of local government in England. These are called communities in Scotland and Wales. Northern Ireland is sometimes known as the Six Counties, but local government there is based on districts. Boroughs were originally towns large enough to be given their own local government. Now, only boroughs in London have political power, which they took over in 1985 when the Greater London Council was abolished.

Counties and districts are run by councils which have power given to them by central government. A system of local councils was first established in the 19th century, but since then there have been many changes to their structure and power. In 1992 a Local Government Commission made a decision to replace some counties by unitary authorities.

The first unitary authorities were created in 1995. Since then, all of Wales and Scotland and many parts of England have become unitary authorities.

Councils consist of elected representatives, called councilors. They are elected by the local people for a period of four years (in Scotland for three years). Counties, districts and parishes are divided into areas, often called wards, each ward electing one councilor or in some cases more. Most councilors belong to a political party and, especially at country level, people vote for them as representatives of a party, not as individuals. Country councils meet in a council chamber at the local town hall or country hall. Councilors elect a chairperson from amongst themselves. In cities, he or she is called the Lord Mayor. Members of the public are allowed to attend council meetings.

In 1998 further changes to local government structure were proposed. The most widely discussed proposal is that mayors should be directly elected by the

people. It has already been decided that the people of Greater London will elect their mayor.

State government is similar in its organization to federal, or national, government. In most states, a state constitution explains the powers of the three branches of state government. These are the executive, the legislative and the judicial, as in the federal government. In a state, the executive branch is headed by a governor, and the person beneath him or her is the lieutenant governor. State laws are made by a legislature, which usually has two houses, a Senate and a House of Representatives, though the names of the houses may be different in some states. The judicial branch usually consists of a state supreme court and several lower courts.

U.S. states have traditionally had many power and considerable direct influence on the lives of their citizens. State governments organize their own system of courts and set local income tax and sales tax. They decide at what age residents can for example, drink alcohol or get married, and what students must study in school. Even actions that are illegal in all or most states are the subject of laws at the state rather than the federal level. For example, murder is illegal everywhere in the U.S. but every state has its own law against murder, and the punishment for this crime is different in every state.

Country government - States are divided into counties. Most counties include several towns, although a large city might occupy a whole county, or even lie across the border between two or more counties. The county government is located in a town or city called the county seat. The structure of county government varies from state to state, but most have a Board of Commissioners, sometimes called a Board of Supervisors. The Board and other county officials are usually elected.

Services provided by a county government depend on whether the county is urban, consisting mainly of a large city or several towns, or rural, consisting of a

few small towns and areas of county. In urban areas, city and county governments may work together to provide services for the area. In rural counties, the county government may provide some services, e.g. schools that would in an urban county be the responsibility of the city. County governments are responsible for repairing country roads. Counties usually have a sheriff's department, a kind of police department. Its officers are called sheriff's deputies. People who are accused of a crime are prosecuted in county courts by the district attorney.

Towns and cities - America's cities, towns, villages and other municipalities vary greatly. They range from small towns of a few hundred people to cities of millions. For that reason there is no single model of local government, every municipal area decides for itself the form its government should have. Most towns and cities have an elected mayor as their head. A city council is made up of members elected from different areas of the city and makes ordinances (=local laws).

A municipal government usually has its own police force and courts, runs local schools, takes care of the roads, and may also provide services like public transport, water and electricity. There is often a separate elected body called the school board, which controls the way schools are run.

As there are so many offices in local government it is fairly easy to become an elected official at this level. Although many ambitious politicians see local office as the first step towards a more important position, many ordinary people get involved in local politics because they want to contribute to their community. Only a few places now maintain the custom of a town meeting, a chance for everyone in the town to meet once a year to talk about matters of concern to the community. But most city council and school board meetings are open to the public and the meetings are often well attended.

Since laws are made at several different levels of government they vary greatly across the country. A person, who moves to a new state, or even to a new

town in the same state, will have a different amount of income tax taken out of his or her pay. In some towns it is illegal to sell alcohol, and so there may be a restaurant on one side of the road that serves wine and another across the street, across the city limits, that is not allowed to do so. People who like to gamble take trips to Nevada or New Jersey because gambling is legal there but illegal in many other states. Although these differences can be confusing they rarely cause serious difficulty. Americans place great value of the fact that they can decide the rules they live by.

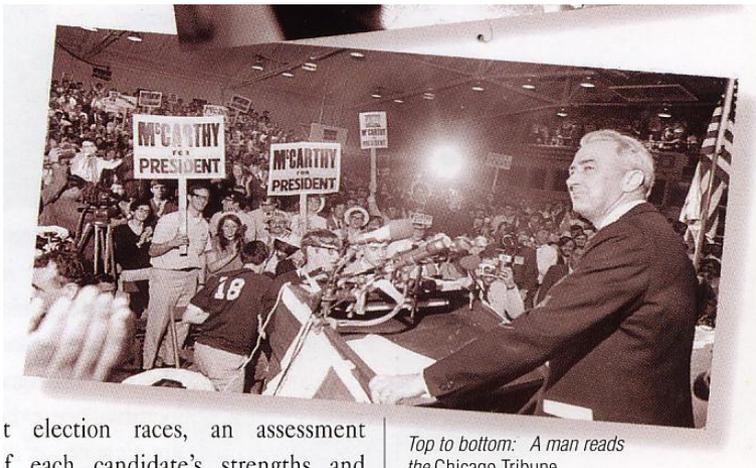


After You Read

Debate these issues in small groups. Then choose one and write about it.

1. In a federal system, should the individual states have the right to leave the federation (the national government) and become independent?
2. Should the national government protect children from pornographic material on TV, in movies, in popular songs, or in magazines? Or do law making pornography illegal violate freedom of speech?
3. To what extent should the government regulate the sale and ownership of handguns?
4. Compare the job of the U.S. president with the job of the head of the state in the U.K. Which person has more power. Who has the more difficult job?
5. Would you ever want to run for political office? Explain why or why not.
6. In other countries that you know about, is the government limited in what it can force citizens to do or prevent citizens from doing? Compare freedom and human rights in the U.S. and one other country.

CHAPTER 19 ELECTIONS AND POLITICAL PARTIES



Every four years, Americans participate in a unique and exciting ritual—selecting the nation’s president and vice president. Beginning early in a presidential election year, people who would like to “run” for the office of president try to win delegates to their party’s national political convention. Delegates are chosen from each state. Some are selected at state caucuses (=local meeting of voters and party officials) and others by party conventions. But most are chosen by primary elections. Primaries give voters an opportunity to indicate whom they want to be their party’s presidential candidate. In a primary election, a presidential candidate is running against other candidates in the same political party, competing for that state’s delegate votes.

The summer before the election, each of the two major political parties – The Democrats and the Republicans – holds a national convention lasting about four days. At these conventions, delegates select the people who will be candidates for president and vice president. The number of delegates from each state is determined by its population and its support for that party in previous elections. The total number of delegates at a convention ranges from about 2,000 to about 4,000.

Convention business usually begins with the creation and acceptance of the party’s platform. A platform is a general statement of the party’s philosophy, positions, and goals on issues of national and international concern. A majority of

the convention delegates must vote in favor of the various planks of the platform in order for them to be accepted. (A plank is a statement on one subject).

The next order of business is the nomination of prospective presidential candidates. A speaker nominates each nominee, telling that person's strength and accomplishments. Each nominating speech is followed by a long, noisy demonstration. Bands play and thousands of delegates wave flags and signs, sing, yell, and clap. When the convention quiets down, a seconding speech is given for each nominee. This is also followed by a noisy display of support.

After the nominations, the delegates get down to the serious work of choosing their party's presidential candidate. What qualities are delegates looking for in their candidate? The most important qualification is the ability to win the election. In addition, delegates consider a nominee's integrity, philosophy, and talent for leadership. Votes are taken alphabetically by state. At some conventions, one nominee gets the majority of delegate votes on the first roll call. At others, several roll calls may be necessary before one nominee wins the majority of votes. Sometimes, state delegations bargain with the major nominee. Delegates may agree to switch their votes in exchange for some political favor or governmental position. For example, an agreement might be made that, in exchange for a state's votes, the nominee will recommend a certain person to be the vice presidential candidate. Eventually, enough deals are made that one person receives a majority of the votes and becomes the party's presidential candidate.

In recent years, more and more states have held primary elections. As a result, it has become common for one candidate to win a majority of the delegate's votes during the primaries. In that event, the party's presidential candidate has already been chosen before the convention even begins.

After the presidential candidate is selected, the vice presidential candidate must be chosen. Traditionally, the convention officially elects whomever the presidential candidate wants as his running mate. It is customary (and good

politics) for a party's presidential and vice presidential candidates to come from different parts of the country and to have somewhat different political views. That way, the team appeals to voters with different viewpoints and concerns. At the convention, the two candidates are formally nominated, elected as the party's candidates, and cheered greatly before and after they give their acceptance speeches. Finally, the convention adjourns (=ends).

√*Check your comprehension* What are the three major jobs of a national convention?

Campaigning for the general election traditionally begins on Labor Day in early September. From that time until Election Day, in early November, voters are bombarded from all sides – by radio, television, newspapers, mail, and personal communications – with political material. Long standing friendships and even marriages can become battlegrounds as Americans argue about issue and candidates. Ordinarily soft-spoken people become outspoken supporters of their candidate. Neighborhood political workers from each party knock on doors and give voters information about the candidates they support.

Each candidate tries to convince a majority of the American voters that he is best qualified to lead the country for the next 4 years. Since the candidate has only 2 months in which to do this, he must campaign very hard, day and night. All of the recourses of modern communication are used to acquaint the voters with the candidates' views and personalities. Television has become a powerful influence. The candidate who lacks personal appeal on TV is at a great disadvantage. In 1960, a series of televised debates between Richard Nixon and John Kennedy probably influenced enough voters to change the election results. It has been said that if Abraham Lincoln were alive today, he probably wouldn't be elected president because he was not handsome.

Although modern communications have better acquainted voters with candidates and issues, the resulting costs of election campaigns have created a serious problem. The various candidates who participated in the 1996 presidential campaign spent a combined total of more than \$ 400 million. About \$ 152 million of this total was contributed by the federal government. To receive government campaign money, candidates must raise an equal amount from private donations. Accepting private donations means that the person elected has many “friends” who may expect political favors in return for their financial help. Also, sometimes very well-qualified people cannot raise enough money to campaign for the presidency.

Campaigning is extremely expensive, and a candidate must receive a majority of the electoral votes to be elected; therefore, only the candidates of the two major parties can expect to win. Still, third parties play an important role in American politics by focusing attention on particular issues and by influencing the policies of the major parties.

Critics often ask, “Does it matter who wins? Are there any real differences between the two political parties?” No candidates can hope to win by appealing to only one or two groups of voters, such as farmers or businesspeople. Because of the need for broad appeal, the philosophies of both parties usually take a middle course so as not to offend any large groups of voters. The government does change somewhat depending on which party is in power, but it does not change as much as political campaign speeches might lead one to believe.

During the election campaign, one hears a lot of political labels, such as reactionary, *conservative*, moderate (middle-of-the-road), *liberal*, and radical. Most Democrats are moderates or liberals. Most Republicans are moderates or conservatives. People sometimes refer to liberals as being to the left and conservatives as being to the right. In terms of specific programs, Democrats (or Liberals) tend to favor more spending for social programs to help poorer people and less spending for military programs. Republicans’ (or conservatives’) goals tend to be the opposite. Traditionally, Democrats have also favored a stronger

federal government while Republicans have emphasized states' rights. The Democratic Party is generally considered more supportive of the poor and the middle-class worker. Republican policies generally support big business and the rich.

Each party has a familiar symbol. For the Democrats, it is a donkey known for its stubbornness. The Republican symbol is an elephant, an animal that is supposed to have a long memory. These symbols were created by Thomas Nast, a famous nineteenth-century political cartoonist. The Republican Party is also called the GOP (Grand Old Party).

To preserve free democratic elections, candidates in all elections are allowed to express their opinion publicly. They may even severely criticize other candidates and their viewpoints, without fear of punishment. This is true even when an opponent is an incumbent president (=one who is currently holding office).

The Political Parties in the U.K

The British political system relies on having at least two parties in the House of Commons able to form a government. Historically, the main parties were the Tories and the Whigs. More recently these parties became known as the *Conservative Party* and the *Liberal Party*. The Conservative Party's main rival is now the *Labor Party*, but there are several other smaller parties. The most important is the *Liberal Democratic Party*, which developed from the old Liberal Party and the newer Social Democratic Party. Wales and Scotland have their own nationalist parties, Plaid Cymru (The Party of Wales) and the Scottish National Party. Northern Ireland has several parties, including the Ulster Unionist Party, the Ulster Democratic Unionist Party and the Social Democratic and Labor Party.

The Conservative Party is on the political right and the Labor Party on the left. The Liberal Democrats are generally closer to Labor in their opinions than to

the Conservatives. Each party has its own emblem and color: the Conservatives have a blue torch, Labor a red rose, and Liberal Democrats a yellow bird.

In order to have closer contact with the electorate (=people who have the right to vote in elections), the Conservative Party sets up constituency associations, local party offices coordinated by Conservative Central Office. These raise money for the party and promote its policies. By contrast, the Labor Party began outside Parliament amongst trade unions and socialist organizations, and tried to get representatives into Parliament to achieve its aims. Both parties now have many local branches which are responsible for choosing candidates for parliamentary and local government elections.

Conservative supporters are traditionally from the richer sections of society, especially landowners and business people. The Labor Party originally drew its support from the working classes and from people wanting social reform. It has always had support from the trade unions, but recently has tried to appeal to a wider group, especially well-educated and professional people. The Liberal Democratic Party draws most of its voters from these people who are unwilling to vote Labor.

Support for the main parties is not distributed evenly throughout Britain. In England, the south has traditionally been Conservative, together with the more rural areas, while the north and inner cities have been Labor. In Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland the situation is complicated by the existence of the nationalist parties. Wales is traditionally a Labor region, though Plaid Cymru is strong. Scotland, formerly a Conservative area, is now also overwhelmingly Labor, though many people support the Scottish Nationalist Party. After the 1997 election the Conservative Party had no MPs representing Welsh or Scottish constituencies. Support for the Liberal Democratic Party is not concentrated in any one area. In a first-past-the-post system, where the winner in an election is the candidate with the most votes in each constituency, a strong geographical base is important. In the 1992 election, over 17% of all the votes cast were for the Liberal Democratic Party

but these were spread too thinly and the party won only 3% of the seats in Parliament.

At present, political parties do not have to say where they obtain their money. The Labor Party receives a lot of its money from trade unions, whereas the Conservative Party receives gifts from individuals, especially businessmen, and sometimes from people living outside Britain. The Labor Party would like to have a law passed that forced parties to reveal the source of large donations and to prevent money being sent from abroad.

A party conference is organized each year by the national office of each party, to which constituency offices send representatives. Prominent members of the party give speeches, and representatives debate party policy. Conferences are usually lively events and receive a lot of attention from the media. They also give party leaders the opportunity to hear the opinions of ordinary party members. Before an election, each party prepares a detailed account of its ideas and intended policies and presents them to the electorate in an election manifesto.

The Labor leader is elected at the party conference by representatives of trade unions, individual members of the party and Labor MPs. The Liberal Democrats' leader is also elected by party members but by a postal vote. But the Conservative leader is elected only by Conservative MPs in a secret ballot.

In debates in Parliament, MPs from different parties argue fiercely against each other. However, representatives of all parties cooperate in arranging the other of business so that there is enough time for different points of view to be expressed. Another example of cooperation between parties is the pairing system. An MP of one party is paired with an MP of another party, and when there is to be a vote and the two MPs know that they would vote on opposite sides, neither of them will be present to vote. In this way, the difference in numbers between the two sides is maintained while MPs are free to do other parliamentary work.

The parties are managed by several MPs or peers (=members of the House of Lords) chosen from within their party. The Government Chief Whip and the Opposition Chief Whip meet frequently and are “the visual channels” through which arrangements for debates are made. Junior whips act as links between the Chief Whips and party members.

The main parties hold regular meetings at which party policy is discussed. Conservative MPs belong to the 1922 Committee which meets once week and provides an opportunity for MPs to give their opinions on current issues. Meetings of the Parliamentary Labor Party are generally held twice a week and are open to all Labor MPs and Labor members of the House of Lords. Liberal Democrat MPs and peers also meet regularly. In addition, the parties have their own specialist committees that deal with different areas of policy.

On Tuesday following the first Monday in November, voters cast their ballots for president and vice president. A party’s presidential and vice presidential candidates is voted for as a team, not individually. The entire House of Representatives, one-third of the Senate, and many state and local officials are also elected at this time. Thanks to voting machines and computers, Americans usually know most of the winners by late evening. In fact, the television networks often predict the results of an election as soon as the polls close. They do this by conducting exit polls – asking voters in scientifically selected precincts how they voted.

The number of electors for each state is equal to the total number of representatives and senators, who represent that state in Congress. (In addition, the District of Columbia has three electoral votes). Thus, states with large populations have more electoral votes. In all states except Maine and Nebraska, the candidate who receives the largest number of popular votes receives all of the state’s electoral votes. With this system, it is possible for a candidate to receive more popular votes than an opponent but fewer electoral votes and, therefore, lose the election. This can happen when a candidate loses by small margins in states with

many electoral votes and wins by large margins in states with few electoral votes (as shown in the chart below). Only three American presidents have reached the White House by losing the popular vote but winning the majority of electoral votes.

This happened in 2000, when George W. Bush was elected. When the Electoral College votes, it is also possible, in some states, for an elector not to cast his ballot for the candidate who won the popular vote in that state. However, since electors are important members of their political parties, this rarely happens.

Sample of Popular and Electoral Votes from the 2000 Presidential Election

States	Popular Vote		Electoral Vote
	Democrat (Al Gore)	Republican (George Bush)	
Iowa	634,475	629,521	7 Democrat
Kansas	391,026	614,419	6 Republican
Utah	201,732	512,161	5 Republican
Wisconsin	1,240,266	1,234,167	11 Democrat
Totals	2,467,499	2,990,268	18 Democrat 11 Republican

To be elected, candidates for president and vice president must receive a majority of the votes in the Electoral College. If no candidate receives a majority, the House of Representatives chooses the president from the top three candidates. Each state has one vote for president. The Senate chooses the vice president from

the two top candidates. Each senator has a vote. This has only happened once, in 1824, when John Quincy Adams was elected.

The Electoral College method of choosing the president has been criticized as old-fashioned and undemocratic. However, states with small populations do not want to change it. They have a greater proportional vote in the Electoral College than they would have if the president were chosen by popular vote.

The newly elected president and vice president are inaugurated (formally sworn in) on January 20 following the election. The inauguration is nationally televised and is followed by a parade and many parties. The president then moves into the White House and appoints members of the cabinet (the president's closest advisers, who are also the heads of the various departments of the executive branch). Between the election and the inauguration, the outgoing president meets with newly elected president and his staff to plan for a smooth transition from one administration to the next. Because the outgoing president is only awaiting the end of his term, he is often referred to as a "lame duck". Sometimes the new president and the majority of the members of Congress do not keep promises made during the campaign.

Since the two major parties are not extremely different, there is seldom a sudden shift in national policy when a new president from a different party takes office. Change occurs only with the passage of time, as the new administration becomes accustomed to its powers.

Elections to Parliament

Each of the 659 Members of Parliament, or MPs, in the House of Commons represents a particular part of the United Kingdom called a constituency. The county is divided into areas of roughly equal population (about 90000 people). Cities have several constituencies MPs are expected to be interested in the affairs of their constituency and to represent the interests of local people, their constituents, in Parliament. Many hold regular surgeries, sessions at which they are

available for local people to talk to them. People may also write to their MP if they want to protest about something.

Anyone who wants to become an MP must be elected by the people of a constituency. Before an election one person is chosen by each of the main political parties to stand for election in each constituency. People usually vote for the candidate who belongs to the party they support, rather than because of his or her personal qualities or opinions. Only the candidate who gets the most votes in each constituency is elected. This system is called first past the post.

In a general election, when elections are held in all constituencies, the winning party, which forms the next government, is the one that wins most seats in Parliament (=has the most MPs), even though it may have received fewer votes overall than the opposition parties. In 1992, for example, the Conservative Party gained more than half the total number of seats but fewer than half of all the votes cast. A proposal that Britain should use a system of proportional representation, whereby seats in Parliament would be allocated according to the total number of votes cast for each party, has been put forward on various occasions.

General elections in United Kingdom

By law, a general election must take place every five years. The government decides when to hold an election, and the Prime Minister may decide to go to the country earlier than is illegally necessary if there seems to be a good chance of winning.

General elections are always held on Thursdays. After the date has been fixed, anyone who wants to stand for Parliament (=be a candidate for election) has to leave a deposit of £500 with the Returning Officer, the person in each constituency responsible for managing the election. The local offices of the major parties pay the deposit for their own candidates. If a candidate wins more than 5% of the votes, he or she gets the deposit back. Otherwise candidates lose their deposit. This is intended to stop people who do not seriously want to be MPs from

taking part in the election. Sometimes people, who feel very strongly about an issue, e.g. protecting the lives of unborn babies, become candidates and campaign specifically about that issue. A few people become candidates for a joke, especially in the constituency which the Prime Minister is defending, because they know that they will get a lot of publicity. One candidate, `Lord` David Sutch, has stood against the Prime Minister in most elections since 1966.

Before an election takes place candidates' campaign for support in the constituency. The amount of money that candidates are allowed to spend on their campaign is strictly limited. Leading members of the government and the opposition parties travel throughout the country addressing meetings and "meeting the people", especially in marginal constituencies where only a slight shift of opinion would change the outcome of the voting. Local party workers spend their time canvassing, going from house to house to ask people about how they intend to vote. At national level the parties spend a lot of money on advertising and media coverage. They can not buy television time: each party is allowed a number of strictly timed party political broadcasts. Each also holds a daily televised news conference.

By-elections

If an MP dies or resigns, a by-election is held in the constituency which he or she represented. By-elections are closely watched by the media as they are thought to indicate the current state of public opinion and the government's popularity.

Anyone over the age of 18 has the right to vote at elections, provided that they are on the electoral register. This is a list of all the adults living in a constituency. A new, revised list is compiled each year. Copies are available for people to look at in local public libraries. Voting is not compulsory but the turnout (=the number of people voting) at general elections is usually high, about 75%.

About a week in advance of an election everyone on the electoral register receives a polling card. This tells them where their polling station is, i.e. where they must go to vote. On the day of the election, polling day, voters go to the polling station and are given a ballot paper. This lists the names of all the candidates for that constituency, together with the names of the parties they represent. Each voter then goes into a polling booth where nobody can see what they are writing, and puts a cross next to the name of one candidate only the one they want to elect. Polling stations, often local schools or church halls, are open from 7 a.m. to 10 p.m. to give everyone an opportunity to vote. During a general election, people leaving the polling station may be asked by professional analysts called pollsters how they voted. Similar exit polls taken all over the country are used to predict the overall election result.

After the polls close, the ballot papers from all the polling stations in a constituency are taken to a central place to be counted. In most constituencies counting takes place the same evening, continuing for as long as necessary through the night. If the number of votes for two candidates is very close, the candidates may demand a recount. Several recounts may take place until all the candidates are satisfied that the count is accurate. Finally, the Returning Officer makes a public announcement giving the number of votes cast for each candidate and declaring the winner to be the MP for the constituency. On general election night, television and radio keep everyone informed of the results throughout Britain and make predictions about the overall result and the size of the winning party's majority in Parliament.

CHAPTER 20 THE WORLD OF AMERICAN AND BRITISH BUSINESS



"It's not enough to just show up. You have to have a business plan."

Both the U.S.A. and the U.K. are capitalistic countries. In a capitalistic economy, businesses are privately owned and operated. The government role in the business world is limited. Its main function is to protect each part of the economy – big – business, small business, workers, and consumer – from abuse. In American capitalism, even such basic needs as transportation, communications, and health care are provided by private companies.

In a capitalist economy, prices vary with changes in supply and demand. When there are more apples available than people want to buy, the price of apples goes down, when there is a shortage, the price goes up. Of course, prices of goods and services are also affected by the cost of producing them.

Under ideal conditions, a free economy (with limited government controls) is good for everyone. Workers can choose their **careers**; they can change jobs to get higher **wages**, better working conditions, or professional advancement; and they can form unions with other workers to demand better treatment from their **employer**. Manufacturers, whole sales, and retailers can also do well in a capitalist system. They **profit** when their business is successful.

Competition is an essential element of capitalism. In order to compete, businesses must operate efficiently, economically, and creatively. Because of competition, customers receive high-quality merchandise at the lowest possible prices. When there is a lack of competition in an industry, a **monopoly** may develop. This can happen when a company buys its competitors or when a company sells its products below cost while in order to drive competitors out of business. To prevent such abuses, there are national laws prohibiting most monopolies.

In a capitalistic economy, disagreements between employees and employers can lead to work stoppages called **strikes**. A strike occurs when unionized **employees** refuse to work until their demands are satisfied. A strike in a vital industry can disrupt the entire national economy. For example, if there is a strike in the transportation industry, companies that depend on trains or trucks to transport raw materials and /or finished products must shut down. Their employers are, therefore, laid off. When workers' incomes are greatly reduced, they do not spend as much. This, in turn, affects the income of business that usually sells those workers. Also, when large numbers of workers go on strike, the public may be greatly inconvenienced. Strikes can shut down transportation or cut off food or fuel supplies to large areas.

Although capitalism has made most people prosperous, not all have benefited. Foreign competition and factory automation have caused many semiskilled workers who were earning good wages in manufacturing industries, such as automobile production, to lose their jobs. Many of those able to get new employment had to settle for lower paying jobs.

At the end of the twentieth century, several multinational treaties greatly expanded the idea of competition to what is called a "free global economy". This means that businesses in different countries can export their goods to the U.S. and other countries without paying tariffs (taxes imposed upon imports in order to favor the goods of the importing country). A free global economy is good for the

consumer who can purchase cheaper merchandise from countries where the cost of doing business is lower than it is in the U.S. However, it is not good for American workers who may lose their jobs as a result of that competition.

Today's American capitalism benefits most workers as well as business owners. However, not everyone is prosperous in the U.S. About 12 % of the population has earnings below the poverty line established by the government. Some people cannot get a decent – paying job for reasons such as illness or disability, old age, drug or alcohol addiction, or lack of education or job – related skills. Most people with marketable job skills can earn a living in the U.S., and there are many opportunities for learning these skills.

American businesses need huge amounts of money to develop new products, purchase new equipment, build factories, and pay other expenses of doing business. This money is known as capital. Much of it comes from **investors** (capitalists), who expect to receive a profitable return on the money that they invest. Without investors, the American economy would not be able to grow and produce the goods that consumers want. In other words, a capitalist economy depends on capitalists to keep it growing.

Most investments take one of two forms – **stocks** or **bonds**. Stockholders purchase **shares** of a business if the business does well; they share in the profits of the company by receiving dividends. On the other hand, people who purchase bonds lend their money to a business in exchange for a fixed rate of return (a percentage of the face value of bond) known as interest. Both stockholders and bondholders hope that the value of their investments will increase. Stocks and bonds are traded on national exchanges. The New York Stock Exchange is located on Wall Street in New York City. As a result, the world of investors is commonly known as Wall Street. Stock prices are usually affected by the profits of the company, the general economic climate, and the outlook for the company is the

near future. Bond prices are primarily influenced by interest rates. If interest rates rise, bond prices usually fall and vice versa.

In recent years, there has been a huge growth in the volume of stocks and bond sales. Between 1990 and 1999, the numbers of shares of stock traded on exchanges each year rose from about 4.5 billion to more than 350 billion. On an average trading day, more than a billion shares of stock change hands on the New York Stock Exchange and on the NASDAQ (=National Association of Securities Dealers Automated Quotation) Stock Exchange. It is not unusual for each of those exchanges to handle more than 2 billion shares in a day. In 1987, the value of all stocks traded on stock exchange was \$ 1.9 trillion. By 1999, that figure had jumped to more than \$ 14 trillion.

In 1980, only about 27 million Americans owned stocks. Today, more than 120 million individuals are stockholders. And many more are indirectly involved in the markets through their participation in pensions plans, **credit** unions, and insurance plans. In fact, most of the stocks and bonds that are traded are owned not by individuals but by large investors such as banks, insurance companies, pension funds, and mutual funds (companies that invest in many different businesses in order to minimize risk).

The Cashless Society

When people buy merchandise or service, they often do not pay for their purchases with cash. One very popular method of making payment is by check. Most Americans have checking accounts and have access to their money at the many ATMs (automatic teller machines) found all over the country.

Another form of payment is the use of cards. One type of credit is issued by a particular store to its regular customers. At the end of each month, the customer receives a bill showing the charge purchases made during that period and how much is owed. The customer must pay the balance within three or four weeks. If the payment is late, the customer is usually charged a late fee. Most credit cards

permit the user to pay only a small portion of the total due. If the customer does this, interest is charged on the unpaid balance.

Yet another type of credit card is issued by banks or other financial institutions. Some of the most widely used are Master Card, Visa, American Express, and Discover. These cards can be used for purchases at any business establishment that has agreed to accept them. The merchant sends the sales slip to the issuing institution, which pays the amount of the charge (less a discount) to the merchant and then bills the cardholder. As with store credit cards, interest is charged on any unpaid balance.

The easy availability of credit has given American consumers tremendous purchasing power. But it has also led to a huge amount of **debt**. Americans now owe more than \$ 700 billion for credit purchases (not including mortgage loans). Most people pay their debts regularly. But if they have unexpected problems such as unemployment or an illness, there may not be enough money to make the payments. If payments are not made for several months, the seller may sue the debtor in court to take legal action to repossess the merchandise.

The debtor who thinks that there is little chance to repay the debts may choose to go into **bankruptcy** to be relieved of them. If the debtor has any sizable **assets**, these may be sold to partially pay the creditors. Then, the debtor no longer has the obligation to pay back the rest of the debts. While bankruptcy may sound like an attractive solution, it is available only once every 6 years, and it results in a loss of credit to the bankrupt person. That is, the person will be unable to get loans or credit cards for a long period of time, until he can show the ability and willingness to pay debts. About 1 million Americans go into bankruptcy each year. However, most people pay their bills regularly, and the economy is greatly strengthened by the billions of dollars of credit purchases made each year.

A recent development in the cashless society is the issue of debt cards. Like credit cards, debt cards can be used to make purchases. However, they don't

involve credit. When a debt card is used, money is immediately deducted from the user's bank account and paid to the seller. The use of a credit or debit card is necessary in purchases made by telephone or on the Internet. Debt cards are a way of doing business without increasing one's indebtedness.

Another way of making purchases without cash is by obtaining a Loan. A person wishing to buy an expensive item such as a car or house can borrow the money and pay it back over a period of years. The payments are usually made each month until the amount due has been paid with interest. For example, a car may be paid over a five year period. A loan taken out to buy a house (a mortgage) may be paid back over 25 to 30 years. These loans enable Americans to buy the things they need and want before they have all the money to pay for them. Low – cost loans enable many Americans to go to college. Many college loans allow students to delay repayment until after graduation.

Using a bank account in Britain

Most adults in Britain have a bank account. People use a current account for their general expenses. Current account holders are given a check book containing a number of crossed checks, checks with two vertical lines down the middle. These checks can only be paid into the bank account of the person to whom they are made payable. Some check books have checks with stubs on which to write the name of the person the check was paid to; others have a list at the back. It is possible to withdraw money from an account by check, but most people use a cash dispenser, a machine set in the wall outside a bank or supermarket.

Many people receive their salaries by automated transfer direct from their employer's account into their own. Similarly, customers can ask their bank to pay bills by standing order or direct debit. Banks send their customers regular statements. **Cash dispensers** can supply a mini statement, a record of the most recent transactions or a note stating the balance. People who have an overdraft

(=have spent more money than was in their account) pay bank charges, but otherwise banking is free.

Some people also have deposit account in which they put money they want to save and on which they receive interest. Some types of deposit account have restrictions on how often money can be taken out of them.

Banks issue a variety of plastic cards. These include cash cards for getting money out of a cash dispenser, check cards to guarantee that check will be honored, debit cards which allow goods to be paid for at a later date.

The high – street banks offer bank loans for individuals and small businesses. Merchant banks deal with company finance on a large scale. Recently banks have also begun to offer services such as mortgages (a type of loan for along period from 15 to 30 years), insurance, and buying and selling shares. They also buy and sell travelers check and foreign currency. Bank customers are being encouraged to use telephone banking or telebanking, and to check their accounts and give instruction over the telephone. Computer banking is being developed. Although the bank manager was once an important and respected person in society, banks have in recent years become unpopular because of high charges on overdrafts and poor interest rates for savers. Some banks invested badly and lost money, so people are less willing to trust them with their money. Complaints to the banking ombudsman (=a person appointed by the government to investigate complaints) have increased.

Recent Trends in Business

Many changes in the way business operate have occurred over the past 50 years. Some of the most interesting are the increased use of computers; the increase in business ownership, especially of franchises; the increasing number of businesses owned by women and minorities; and the growing number of home – based business.

Computers in Business: Although computers have been used by businesses for many years, until recently only large companies could afford to own them. The 1980s saw a breakthrough in computer development when personal computers were introduced. They require little maintenance and can be operated by office personnel with a minimum of training. Because of their widespread use, mass – produced programs have been developed that can keep track of inventory and sales, keep payroll records, and even generate checks. Today, a business can hardly afford not to have its own computer.

Small Business Trends: Every year, increasing number of Americans go into business for themselves. They called entrepreneurs. In the 1960s, there were about 8 million individually owned companies; in 1999, about 17 million Americans owned their own businesses. For the person who wants to be his/her own boss, American capitalism provides the exciting (though risky) opportunity to try it.

Many people who want become entrepreneurs do so by purchasing a franchise. A company that has developed a successful business may decide to license other companies to operate similar business under the same name. That license is called a franchise. The original company is known as the franchisor, and the licensed companies are franchisees. Each franchisor pays the franchisor for the right to use the franchise name and ideas. The franchisor assists its franchisees in selecting a site for the business, purchasing equipment, and learning how to operate the business. Advertising is done on a national basis. The franchisor controls the product sold, so consumers know the product will be the same whether they buy it in New York or California.

In the U.S., there are more than 500.000 franchised businesses with sales exceeding \$ 700 billion annually. That is more than one – third of all retail sales in the U.S. Although the most well – known franchises are fast – food businesses, franchises are available in many industries, such as real estate brokerages, video rental stores, automotive parts stores, and travel and employment agencies. Why do so many people choose to buy franchises? A franchise is the least risky way to

go into business for oneself. The franchise's national reputation, advertising, training program, and business experience give the franchisee a big advantage over independent businesses.

Woman and Minority Business Ownership: The growing trend toward business ownership by women and minorities is partly due to the influence of the civil rights and women's movements, which have encouraged these groups to go into fields offering greater opportunity for advancement. In 1999, about 9 million women owned businesses, while members of minority groups owned another 2 million.

Home – based Businesses: Home – based business and people doing their employers work from home is also on the rise. This has been brought about largely by the expanded use of personal computers and their ability to connect with other computers to obtain information and relay data to a central business. There are now 4 million people operating their businesses out of their home and it is estimated that number will increase rapidly during the first decade of the twenty – first century.

American capitalism has proved to be one of the most productive economic systems in history. In a capitalistic system, people try to produce better goods and services because there are financial rewards for doing so. In addition, the freedom of choice that capitalism provides appeals to the independent American character. With few exceptions, no outside power tells an entrepreneur how much to charge for goods or services, and people are free to decide how they will earn and spend their income. The American economy is based upon the belief that every individual knows what is best for himself and must take responsibility for his decisions. Risks exist, but so do opportunities for advancement. Most Americans gladly accept both.

The Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution began in Britain in about 1750 and within 100 years the country developed from the agricultural society into an industrial nation with trading links across the world. Industry had a great effect on British social and economic life, as many people moved from the countryside to work in the rapidly growing towns.

In the U.S., the Industrial Revolution brought similar changes. In 1790 only 5 % of Americans lived in cities but by 1940 more than half had moved to urban areas. Starting a factory required a lot of money and a new class of rich people, called capitalists, began to appear.

British industry raises nearly £ 120000 million each year. The most important products are food items, followed by transport equipment, machinery and motor vehicles. Heavy industries include coal mining, engineering, manufacturing of cars, ships and aircraft, and steel and chemical production. Light industries include the manufacture of small electronic and household goods. Many privately – owned companies operate from industrial estates or business parks on the edge of towns.

The performance of heavy industry has declined since 1945 and many businesses have closed. This has resulted in high unemployment in northern England and in south Wales. The government designated these areas as development areas, and offered grants to new firms setting up business there. Hopes that the old industries would be replaced by sunrise industries (=industries making electronic equipment) in many cases proved false. Several foreign car manufactures and electronic companies built factories in Britain in the 1980s, but some have since been forced to close because of world economic problems. In the 1990s British companies suffered because of the high value of the pound.

The government became closely involved in industry after World War II when the labour Party nationalized (=transferred to state ownership) major

industries. In the 1980s the Conservatives privatized these industries again. Some industries, such as shipping, survive with difficulty without government funding.

The Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) is the government department dealing with industry. The CBI (Confederation of British Industry) represents the interests of industry to the DTI.

In the 1960s and 1970s Britain was well known for its bad industrial relations, relationships between management and workers. In the coal mining and car manufacturing industries there was frequent industrial action which took the form of a strike or a work-to-rule (=a way of working in which all the rules are followed exactly, making production less efficient). Since the 1980s there have been fewer strikes, partly because of restrictions placed on unions by the Conservative government of Margaret Thatcher.

In the U.S. there were many strikes after World War II, which caused congress to restrict the right of workers to strike. Strikers now risk being **dismissed** from their jobs, as happened to some air traffic controllers in 1981.

Problems and Challenges

Computers and robots are increasingly important in production processes and factory workers need higher technical skills to operate equipment. Many managers now take business study courses at university.

Efforts are being made to clean up industry. Many industries have caused damage to the environment, especially through air pollution and **acid rain**. Waste products may also be dangerous, and finding a safe place to dump (=leave) this toxic waste is a serious problem.

As international trade becomes easier because of associations like the European Union and the North American Free Trade Agreement, foreign companies and multinationals are keen to build factories in countries belonging to these groups to take advantage of the free trade between them. These companies provide many new jobs but also enter into competition with existing companies and may eventually cause factories to close. In the future it seems likely that competition will become even **fiercer** and many companies will have to reduce cost still further and find new markets to survive.



After You Read

1. Which is better: to borrow money from a bank in order to start your own business or to wait until you have enough to go into business with your own money?
2. Is it better to be employed by a company or self-employed?
3. Should government employees (teachers, police, and firefighters) be allowed to go on strike, or is this too harmful to society?
4. Would you like to own your own business some day? Why or why not?
5. Do you use a credit or debt card? Does it help you or create problems for you?
6. Do you think people should ever borrow money? Under what circumstance do you consider this a good idea?
7. Another trend in the American work place concerns how people dress. In the 1990s, “casual Friday” became very popular. Do you think that the way people dress affects how they work? Explain.

SELF STUDY MATERIALS:

§ ENGLAND

After the withdrawal of the Roman legions, 5th century Celtic Britain was invaded by Scandinavian and Teutonic tribes, collectively called the English. In the course of the next 150 years, the English conquered the east and centre of the country, pinning down the Celtic Britons on the higher lands to the west. More than 200 years passed before the prevailing tribes recognized one king.

Then the Danish invasion came, their incomplete defeat by Alfred the Great, the consolidation of the kingdom under Alfred's successors and the North Conquest led by William, duke of Normandy, who was crowned king in 1066. When William died in 1087, he left Normandy to his eldest son Robert, thus separating it from England. The French dialect known as Anglo Norman was spoken by the ruling class in England for two centuries after the conquest.

The Norman heritage was preserved also in the overlap between French and English feudal lords. Henry II, the founder of the Plantagenet dynasty, was feudatory lord of half France. But most of the French possessions were lost by Henry's son John. Thereafter the Norman baronage came to regard themselves as English.

The ambitions of Edward III began and those of Henry V renewed the Hundred Years War (1338-1453) with French, which ended with the loss of all the remaining French possessions except Calais.

The dynastic struggle between the rival houses of York and Lancaster culminated in the Tudor ascendancy and clerical factions. Henry VII was a unifying monarch preparing the way for Henry VIII who forced the church to lay the rule. Tudor power reached its zenith with Elizabeth I when England, allied with other Protestant powers, humbled the Spanish Armada. (Henry King VIII (1491-1547) was a very important monarch. Under him Britain became independent of the Roman Catholic Church; it got richer and more powerful. In 1534 the

Parliament named Henry head of the Church of England and gave the King all the power in the country. He had six wives. Henry's daughter, Elizabeth (1533-1603) became the queen in 1558. She never married and is remembered as a very popular and strong Queen. She is known for saying "I know I have the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a king... ". During her reign England became very important in European politics, the Spanish Armada was defeated, arts and especially theatre developed.

Elizabeth's death brought on a great struggle for supremacy between Crown and Parliament. There followed the Civil War, the execution of Charles I, the rule by Protector Cromwell by military dictatorship, and the restoration of the Stuart monarch on terms which conceded financial authority and thus decision-making power to Parliament.

The attempt of James II to restore the royal prerogative led to the intervention of William the Orange. James fled the country and the crown was taken by William and his wife Mary as Queen. The accession of William involved England in a protracted war against France but before peace was achieved, the 1688 revolution was confirmed by the Hanoverian succession, and the history of England was merged with that of G.B by the union with Scotland in 1707.

§ SCOTLAND

Earliest evidence of human settlement in Scotland dates from the Middle Stone Ages. Hunters and fishermen on the west coast were succeeded by farming communities who made as Shetland. The Romans were active in the first century AD but made so little impact on hostile tribes they built Hadrian's Wall between the Tyne and Solway Firth as their northern frontier. At this time, the Picts with their own language and culture consolidated their strength beyond the firth of Clyde, but it was the southern Scots, a Celtic people from Ireland, who gave their name to the land.

In 843 Kenneth Mac Alpine united the Scots and the Picts to found the kingdom of Scotland. A legal and administrative uniformity was established by David I whose 29-year reign ended in 1153. His successor maintained an understanding with England which allowed for two countries of peace, but in 1286 Edward I of England asserted his claim as overlord of Scotland and appointed his son nominee to succeed to the crown.

Resistance to English rule was led by Robert Bruce, who turned back the English at Bannockburn. His son, David II, was less successful in the battlefield, but defended independence by clever diplomacy. He died in 1371 and was succeeded by his nephew Robert, the first king of the Stuart line.

The reigns of five James's occupied the country and a half between the death of Robert III in 1406 and the accession of Mary. This was the time when the alliance between France and Scotland was cemented by common hostility to England.

James IV reinforced a peace agreement with Henry VII by marrying his daughter Margaret in 1503. Religious differences put a strain on the alliance, and when Henry VII invaded France, James attacked England only to be killed in the Battle of Flooded.

The young James V was assailed by conflicting pressures from pro-French and pro-English factions but having secured his personal rule, he entered into two successive French marriages. His second wife, Mary, was the mother of Mary, Queen of Scots, who married the Dauphin in 1558. Protestant opposition to French influence was bolstered by Elizabeth I of England who sent troops, Mary was then in France. Returning to Scotland after her husband's death in 1561, she was beset by religious enemies and forced to take refuge in England, where she was the nearest heir (=successor) to Elizabeth. Her son James VI survived the animosity between his own and his mother's followers to make an alliance with England. With the execution of his mother by a nervous Protestant establishment in England

James became heir (=successor) to the English throne to which he succeeded in 1603.

The crowns of England and Scotland were now worn by the same monarch but for a century more the two countries remained independent. Reflecting the religious and political divisions of the Civil War in England, which led to the execution of Charles I Scottish armies fought for both sides. The Scots soon united, however, to accept Charles II as their king. Having established dominance in England, Cromwell moved against Scotland forcing Charles II into exile. His restoration in 1660 was welcomed in both kingdoms. His successor James VII of Scotland and James II of G.B and Ireland was less astute (ayyor, makkor, hiylakor) in managing religious and political differences. The collapse of his regime in 1688 and the arrival of William of Orange confirmed the Protestant ascendancy in Scotland and England. The union of parliament, which followed in 1707, brought Scotland more directly under English authority but in many respects the country retained its own system of government.

The remaining supporters of James VII, the Jacobins, led two abortive risings on behalf of James's son and grandson (the old and new Pretenders) but were defeated decisively at Culloden (Colloden) in 1746.

§ WALES

After the Roman evacuation, Wales divided into tribal kingdoms. Cunedda Wledig, a prince from southern Scotland, founded a dynasty in the north-west district of Gwynedd to become the centre point for Welsh unity. Offa's Dyke, the defensive earthwork built in the time of King Offa of Mercia, was the dividing line between England and Wales but over the next two centuries a succession of Welsh kings deferred to the English monarchy. With the accession of Llewelyn (1194-1240) the house of Gwynedd overcame rival claims from Powys and Deheubarth to forge a stable political state under English suzerainty. But when Llewelyn ap

Gruffydd (1246-82) intrigued against Edward I, Wales was annexed and Edward's infant son, born at Caernarvon, was made Prince of Wales.

In the Tudor period, Welsh loyalty to Henry VIII, who was of Welsh descent, was fully reciprocated. The Act of Union in 1536 made English law general and admitted Welsh representatives to Parliament.

§ NORTHERN IRELAND

Northern Ireland is part of the U.K. the Government of Ireland Act 1920 granted Northern Ireland its own bicameral parliament (Stormont), and between 1921 and 1972 it had full responsibility for local affairs except for such matters as defense and the armed forces, foreign and trade policies, and taxation and customs. However, in the late 1960s a Civil Rights campaign and reactions to it escalated into serious rioting and sectarian violence involving the Irish Republican Army (IRA, an illegal organization aiming to unify Northern Ireland with the Republic of Ireland) and loyalist paramilitary organizations. The Northern Ireland government resigned and direct rule by the U.K government began in 1972. The Northern Ireland parliament was abolished in 1973. The Northern Ireland Constitution Act 1973 provided for devolved government on a power-sharing basis, but this collapsed in May 1974.

Under the Northern Ireland Act 1974 the U.K parliament approves all laws for Northern Ireland and the Northern Ireland departments are under the direction and control of a U.K Cabinet Ministers, the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland.

Attempts have been made by successive governments to find a means of restoring greater power to Northern Ireland's political representatives on a widely acceptable basis, including a Constitutional Convention (1975-76), a Constitutional Conference (1979-1980) and 78-member Northern Ireland Assembly elected by proportional representation in 1982. This was dissolved in 1986, partly in response to Unionist reaction to the Anglo-Irish Agreement signed on 15 November, 1985,

which established an Intergovernmental Conference of British and Irish ministers to monitor political, security, legal and other issues of concern to the nationalist community.

On 15 December, 1993 the Prime Minister of the U.K and the Republic of Ireland (John Major and Albert Reynolds) issued a joint declaration as a basis for all-party talks to achieve a political settlement, inviting Sinn Fein (“Over selves Alone”, pro-Republican nationalist party and the political wing of the IRA) to join the talks in an All-Ireland Forum 3 months after the cessation of terrorist violence. The IRA announced a complete cessation (=interruption, stop) of military operations on 31 August 1994. On 13 October 1994 the anti IRA Combined Loyalist Military Command also announced a ceasefire dependent upon the continued cessation of all nationalist republican violence.

On 22 February 1995 the British and Irish Prime ministers (John Major and John Bruton) announced new joint U.K-Irish proposals for a settlement in Northern Ireland contained in 2 documents.

The proposal envisaged an elected single-chamber 90-members Northern Ireland assembly with a north-south body comprising members of this assembly and representatives of the Irish government.

On 28 November 1995, John Major and John Bruton agreed on a start to preliminary talks involving Northern Ireland’s main political parties while a 3-member international body headed by former US Senators George Mitchell prepared a report on “the arrangements necessary for the removal from the political equation” of paramilitary arms. The Mitchell report, published on 24 January 1996, set out 6 principles to which all parties should adhere, including a commitment to renounce violence verifiable disarmament of all paramilitaries and a pledge to adhere to any agreement reached through all-party negotiations. Concluding that the paramilitaries “will not decommission any arms prior to all party negotiations” the commission recommended that negotiations and decommissioning of weapons

should proceed at the sometime. However, John Major suggested that, “In the absence of prior decommissioning, there may will be another way forward”, proposing elections to a temporary body which could be used a forum for negotiations.

On 9 February 1996, the IRA exploded a bomb in the Docklands area of London (the first of several incidents) and announced the end of their cease-fire (=stop).

Elections were held on 30 May to constitute a 110-member-forum to take part in talks with the British and Irish government. Each of the 18 Northern Ireland constituencies returned 5 delegates. The 10 parties receiving the most votes cast; the Social Democratic and Labor Party, 21 with 21.4%; the Democratic Unionist party, 24 with 18.8%; Sinn Fein, 17 with 15.5%; the Alliance Party, 7 with 6.5%, the United Kingdom Unionist Party 3 with 3.7%; the Progressive Unionist Party, 2 with 3.5%; the Ulster Democratic Party, 2 with 2.2%; the Northern Ireland Women’s Coalition, 2 with 1%; Labor, 2 with 0.8%. The electorate was 1.1m.

Opening Plenary talks, excluding Sinn Fein, began under the chairmanship of Senator Mitchell on 12 June 1996, with Gen. Jon de Chastelain (Canada) and Harri Holkeri (Finland) as deputies.

Talks resumed on 3 June 1997 under the newly elected Labor Government in which Dr Marjorie (“Mo”) Mowlam was appointed as Secretary of State for Northern Ireland. The Government stated its intention that substantive negotiations should begin in September 1997, with a view to reaching a conclusion by May 1998, when the final outcome would be put to the Ireland, North and South, for approval in concurrent referendums. A restoration of the IRA cease-fire was declared from 20 July 1997; the Government indicated it would assess whether it was genuine over a period of some six weeks. Sinn Fein was invited to enter the talks on 29 August. The talks resumed on 9 September, when Sinn Fein affirmed their commitment to the six Mitchell principles of democracy and non-violence.

Under the chairmanship of George Mitchell, a marathon negotiation struggle on 9-10 April 1998 led to agreement on a frame work for sharing power designed to satisfy Protestant demands for a reaffirmation of their national identity as British Catholic desires for a closer relationship with the predominantly Catholic Republic of Ireland and Britain's wish to return to Northern Ireland the powers London assumed in 1972 when the local Stormont legislature was disbanded.

Under the Good Friday Agreement, there is to be a democratically elected legislature in Belfast, a ministerial council giving the governments of Northern Ireland and Ireland joint responsibilities in areas like tourism, transportation and the environment, and a consultative council meeting twice a year to bring together ministers from the British and Irish parliament, and the three assemblies being created in Northern Ireland and in Scotland and Wales. The Irish Government is moving to eliminate from its constitution its territorial claim on Northern Ireland.

The critical issues of police and judicial-system reform the release of paramilitary prisoners, and the dismantling of the vast underground arsenals of weaponry in the province are the subject of further study and recommendations. In the referendum on 22 May 1998, 71.12% of votes in Northern Ireland were cast in favor of the Good Friday peace agreement and 94.4 % in the Republic of Ireland.

As a consequence, in June Northern Ireland's 1.2 voters elected the first power sharing administration since the collapse of the Sunning dale Agreement in 1974.

In August 1998, a breakaway faction of the IRA exploded a bomb in the centre of Omagh, causing extensive mayhem. The outrage increased public demands for a workable peace. In September, Gerry Adams, leader of Sinn Fein, declared that violence must be "a thing of the past". But IRA blockage on the decommissioning of arms continues to hold up the transfer of powers from London to Belfast.

§ The Declaration of Independence

In Congress, July 14th, 1776

When, in the course of human events, it became necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation. We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends it is rights of the people to alter or to abolish it and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its

powers in such form as to them shall seem most likely to affect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing in variably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient suffering of these colonies; and such is now the necessity, which constrains them to alter their former system of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

The Gettysburg Address

By Abraham Lincoln

Speech at the Dedication of the
National cemetery at Gettysburg

November 19, 1863

Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot allow this ground. The brave men living and

dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here; but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work, which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

§ I HAVE A DREAM

I say to you today, my friends, though, even though we face the difficulties of today and tomorrow, I still have a dream. It is a dream deeply rooted in the American dream. I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up, live out the true meaning of its creed: “We hold these truths to be self evident, that all men are created equal”.

I have dream that one day on the red hills of Georgia sons of former slaves and the sons of former slave-owners will be able to sit down together at the table of brotherhood. I have a dream that one day even the state of Mississippi, a state sweltering with the heat of injustice, sweltering with the heat of oppression, will be transformed into an oasis of freedom and justice.

I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character. I have a dream.... I have a dream that one day in Alabama, with its vicious racists, with its governor having his lips dripping with the words of interposition and nullification, one day right there in Alabama little black boys and black girls will be able to join hands with little white boys and white girls as sisters and brothers.

I have a dream today... I have a dream that one day every valley shall be exalted, every hill and mountain shall be made low. The rough places will be made plain, and the crooked places will be made straight. And the glory of the Lord shall be revealed, and all flesh shall see it together. This is our hope. This is the faith that I go back to the South with. With this faith we will be able to hew out of the Mountain of despair a stone of hope. With this faith we will be able to transform the jangling discords of our nation into a beautiful symphony of brotherhood. With this faith we will be able to work together, to stand up for freedom together, knowing that we will be free one day.

Excerpts from Dr. Martin Luther King’s “I have a dream” speech

§ RELIGIOUS HOLIDAYS

Easter

Although the Christian religion gave the world Easter as we know it today, the celebrations owes its name and many of its customs and symbols to a pagan festival called Eostre. Eostre, the Anglo-Saxon goddess of springtime and sunrise, got her name from the word east, where the sun rises. Every spring northern European peoples celebrated the festival of Eostre to honor the awakening of new life in nature. Christians related the rising of the sun to the resurrection of Jesus and their own spiritual rebirth. On Easter, both American and British Christians, together with Christians around the world, celebrate the Resurrection (the coming to life again) of Jesus Christ, the founder of Christianity and, according to Christian beliefs, the Son of God. Easter is always on a Sunday, but the date varies from year to year. Symbols of rebirth new life and fertility are common Easter decorations. These include the Easter bunny and colored, elaborately decorated eggs. The egg, for instance, was a fertility symbol long before the Christian era. The ancient Persians, Greeks and Chinese exchanged eggs at their spring festivals. In Christian times the egg took on a new meaning symbolizing the tomb from which Christ rose. The ancient custom of dyeing eggs at Easter time is still very popular. Easter bunny is also originated in pre-Christian fertility lore. The rabbit was the most fertile animal ancient Europeans knew, so they selected it as a symbol of new life. Today children enjoy eating candy bunnies and listening to stories about the Easter bunny, who supposedly brings Easter eggs in fancy basket. It's also traditional to wear new spring clothes on Easter, and many communities have an Easter parade. Easter has also become a very popular time for vacations, since many schools close for several days or more.

Passover

American and British Jews join Jews everywhere in celebrating this important holiday. It celebrates freedom and is based upon a story from the Old

Testament of the Bible. In the story, Jews who were once slaves in Egypt were led to freedom by a great Jewish hero, Moses. Most Jews celebrate Passover for eight days, but for Reform Jews and Israeli Jews it's a seven-day holiday. The date of Passover is determined by the Jewish calendar, but it always begins between March 27 and April 24, and is often the same week as Easter. The holiday begins with a special feast called a seder, at which the story of the escape from Egypt is retold. During the holiday, observant Jews eat no bread or other products made with yeast. Instead, they eat flat bread called matzos.

Saint Patrick's Day

On March 17, Irish and Americans of Irish descent – who number about 37 million! – honor their patron saint, who brought Christianity to a pagan nation. The holiday is celebrated by church services, parades, banquets, and “the wearing of the green,” a color in the flag of Ireland, a country commonly called The Emerald Isle.

Saint David's Day

March 1st is a very important day for Welsh people. It is St. David's Day. He is the “patron” or national saint of Wales. On March 1st, the Welsh celebrates St. David's Day and wear daffodils in the buttonholes of their coats or jackets.

Midsummer's Day

Midsummer's day, June 24th, is the longest day of the year. On that day you can see a very old custom at Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, England. Stonehenge is one of Europe's biggest stone circles. A lot of stones are ten or twelve meters high. It is also very old. The earliest part of Stonehenge is nearly 5,000 years old. But what was Stonehenge? A holy place? A market? Or was it a kind of calendar? Many people think that Druids used it for a calendar. The Druids were the priest in Britain 2,000 years ago. They used the sun and the stones at Stonehenge to know the start of months and seasons. There are Druids in Britain today, too. And every June 24th a lot of them go to Stonehenge. On that morning the sun shines on one

famous stone – the Heel stone. For the Druids this is a very important moment in the year. But for a lot of British people it is just a strange old custom.

Pancake Day

Pancake Day is the popular name for Shrove Tuesday (=confess), the day proceeding the first day of Lent. In medieval times the day was characterized by merrymaking and feasting, a relic of which is the eating of pancakes. Whatever religious significance Shrove Tuesday may have possessed in the olden days, it certainly has none now.

The origin of the festival is rather obscure, as is the origin of the custom of pancake eating. It is said that, since the ingredients of the pancake were all forbidden by the Church during Lent then they just had to be used up the day before. In some books it is suggested that the pancake was a “thin flat cake eaten the pangs of hunger before going to be shriven” (to confession). Some historians link up Shrove Tuesday with the Mardi Gras (Fat Tuesday) festivals of warmer countries. These jollifications were an integral element of seasonal ritual for the purpose of promoting fertility and conquering the malign forces of evil, especially at the approach of spring.

The most consistent form of celebration in the old days was the all-over-town ball game or tug-of-war in which everyone let rip before the traditional feast, tearing here and tearing there, struggling to get the ball or rope into their part of the town. It seems that several dozen towns kept up these ball games until only a few years ago.

Today the only custom that is consistently observed throughout Britain is pancake eating, though here and there other customs still seem to survive. Among the latter, Pancake Races, the Pancake Greaze custom and Ashburn’s Shrovetide Football are the best known. Shrovetide is also the time of Student Rags.

Pancake races often formed part of old-time Shrove Tuesday revelry, and the old custom has survived to this day in a few places. The most famous race takes

place at Olney, Buckinghamshire, and is said to date from 1445. The Pancake Bell is rung to summon competitors, and starting time is five minutes before noon. Only women are eligible, and they must wear an apron and head-covering. The course is over a distance of 415 yards, during which the pancake must be tossed three times. The prize is a prayer book from the vicar and kiss from the bellringer! Other Pancake Races are held at Bodian, Sussex, and North Somercotes, Linkonshire.

At Westminster School, London, Shrove Tuesday is the occasion of the Pancake Greaze custom. The cook, preceded by a verger carrying the silver-topped mace, takes his frying-pan to the Lower School and tosses a pancake over a high iron bar which separates the Lower School from the Upper School. There is a glorious scramble, and the boy who secures the whole or largest part, of the pancake receives the traditional guinea. The cook is awarded ten shillings for his part in the proceedings.

HOLIDAYS TO EXPRESS LOVE

Valentine's Day

On February 14, Americans and the British send or give greeting cards called valentines. The holiday is primarily about romantic love, but many people also send valentines to their children and parents. In elementary school, children commonly exchange valentines with friends and teachers. Most valentines are decorated with a red heart. Many also show a picture of Cupid (the young son of the Roman goddess, Venus) with his bow and arrow. According to the myth, if Cupid's arrow hits a person in the heart, that person falls in love. This holiday originated in Europe in the 1400s, but today it is more popular in the United States than anywhere else. Traditional Valentine's Day gifts are flowers or a heart-shaped box of chocolate candy.

Saint Valentine was a martyr but this feast goes back to pagan times and the Roman feast of Lupercalia. The names of young unmarried girls were put into a vase. The young men each picked a name, and discovered the identity of their

brides. This custom came to Britain when the Romans invaded it. But the church moved the festival to the nearest Christian saint's day: this was Saint Valentine's Day. The first Valentine of all was a bishop, a Christian martyr (=sufferer), who before he was put to death by the Romans sent a note of friendship to his jailer's blind daughter.

Mother's Day

The purpose of this holiday is to honor one's mother and give her a day of rest. It is celebrated on the second Sunday in May. On this day, mothers and grandmothers receive greeting cards, gifts, and flowers. Also, moms may be served breakfast in bed and taken out for dinner to give them a day off from cooking.

Father's Day

Father's Day customs are similar to those of Mother's day. Dad gets cards, gifts, and a day of rest. This holiday is celebrated on the third Sunday in June.

§ HOLIDAYS JUST FOR FUN

Groundhog Day

According to legend, February 2 is the date the groundhog (a small, furry animal) wakes up from hibernation (a long winter sleep). People who live in colder parts of the United States eagerly wait this moment because, tradition says, the groundhog is a weather forecaster. If he sticks his head out of his hole on a sunny day and sees his shadow, he'll be frightened and run back in to hibernate a little longer.

Bank Holiday

On Bank holiday the townsfolk usually flock into the country and to the coast. If the weather is fine many families take a picnic – lunch or tea with them and enjoy their meal in the open. Seaside towns near London, such as Southend, are invaded by thousands of trippers who come in cars and coaches, trains and bicycles. Great amusement parks like Southend Kursaal do a roaring trade with their scenic railways, shooting galleries, water-shoots, Crazy houses and so on. Trippers will wear comic paper hats with slogans, and they will eat and drink the weirdest mixture of stuff you can imagine, sea food like cockles, mussels, whelks, fish and chips, candy floss, tea, fizzy drinks, everything you can imagine.

Bank holiday is also an occasion for big sports meeting at places like the White City Stadium, mainly all kinds of athletics. There are also horse race meetings all over the country, and most traditional of all, there are large fairs with swings, roundabouts, a Punch and Judy show, hoop-la stalls and every kind of side-show including, in recent, bingo. There is also much boating activity on the Thames.

April Fools' Day

When the French first adopted the Gregorian calendar in 1564, some people still used old calendar and celebrated New Year's Day on April 1. These people

were called April fools. Today on April 1, American and British people celebrate this holiday by playing innocent tricks on family members, friends, coworkers, and classmates. This holiday is especially popular with kids, and the tricks and jokes are done in a fun-loving spirit.

§ NATIONAL ANTHEM OF THE U.S.A

Oh, say can you see, by the dawn's early light,
What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming?
Whose broad stripes and bright the perilous fight,
O'er the ramparts we watched, were so gallantly streaming?
And the rockets' red glare, the bombs bursting in air,
Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there.
O say, does that star-spangled banner yet wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?

On the shore, dimly seen through the mists of the deep,
Where the foe's haughty host in dread silence reposes,
What is that which the breeze, o'er the towering steep,
As it fitfully blows, now conceals, now discloses?
Now it catches the gleam of the morning's first beam,
In full glory reflected now shines on the stream:
'This the star-spangled banner! O long may it wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave.

And where is that band who so vauntingly swore
That the havoc of war and the battle's confusion

A home and a country should leave us no more?
Their blood has wiped out their foul footsteps' pollution.
No refuge could save the hireling and slave
From the terror of flight, or the gloom of the grave:
And the star-spangled banner in triumph doth wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave.

Oh! Thus be it ever, when freemen shall stand
Between their loved homes and the war's desolation!
Blest with victory and peace, may the heaven-rescued land
Praise the Power that hath made and preserved us a nation.
Then conquer we must, when our cause it is just,
And this be our motto: "In God is our trust."

And the star-spangled banner in triumph shall wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave!

§ GOD SAVE THE QUEEN (KING)

God save the Queen
God save our gracious Queen,
Long live our noble Queen,
God save the Queen!
Send her victorious,
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign over us;
God save the Queen!
O Lord our God arise,
Scatter her enemies
And make them fall;
Confound their politics,
Frustrate their knavish tricks,
On Thee our hopes we fix,
Oh, save us all!
Thy choicest gifts in store
On her be pleased to pour;
Long may she reign;
May she defend our laws,
And ever give us cause

To sing with heart and voice,
God save the Queen!
Not in this land alone,
But be God's mercies known,
From shore to shore!
Lord make the nations see,
That men should brothers be,
And form one family,
The wide world over!
From every latent foe,
From the assassins blow,
God save the Queen!
O'er her thine arm extend,
For Britain's sake defend,
Our mother, prince, and friend,
God save the Queen!

The words of the national anthem of Great Britain were first printed in Gentleman's Magazine in 1745, their author unknown. The composer of the melody to which they are sung is also unknown; interestingly, the same tune is also used for the national anthem of the country of Liechtenstein. The piece was being referred to as Britain's national anthem by the early 19th century.