

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС
ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ**

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАХОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ ИНТЕГРАЛЛАШГАН КУРСИ №1 КАФЕДРАСИ

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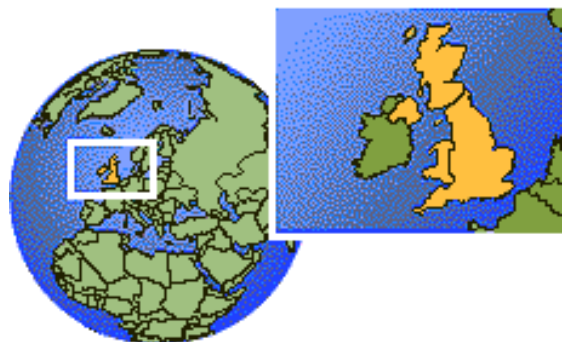
THEME 1: NOTES ON GEOGRAPHY OF THE UK

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Key words: the United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy; climate in the UK is generally mild and temperate; the humid and mild climate of Great Britain is good for plants and flowers; population density of the United Kingdom is one of the highest in the world; most of the British are descendants of Celts, Romans, Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Danes and Normans; English is the official language; Britain has much rainfall, rivers and lakes; England is the largest, most populace, and wealthiest division of the United Kingdom; London is the largest city in Britain; coal is the most valuable mineral resource of Wales; Scotland is an administrative division of the Kingdom; Northern Ireland is an integral part of the United Kingdom.

I. Territory and Climate

The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy in northwestern Europe, and its official name is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Great Britain is the largest island in the cluster of islands, known as the British Isles. England is the largest and most populous division of the island of Great Britain, making up the south and east. Wales is on the west and Scotland is on the north. Northern Ireland is located in the northeast corner of Ireland, the second largest island in the British Isles.



The capital of the United Kingdom is the city of London, situated near the southeastern tip of England.

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The United Kingdom is bordered on the south by the English Channel, which separates it from the continent of Europe. It is bordered on the east by the North

Sea and on the west by the Irish Sea and the Atlantic Ocean. The United Kingdom's only land border with another nation is between Northern Ireland and Ireland.



The topography of the UK.

1.1. Climate of the UK

The climate in the UK is generally mild and temperate due to the influence of the Gulf Stream. The southwestern winds carry the warmth and moisture into Britain. The climate in Britain is usually described as cool, temperate and humid. The weather is so changeable that the English often say that they have no climate but only weather. Therefore it is natural for them to use the comparison “as changeable as the weather” of a person who often changes his mood or opinion about something. The weather is the favorite topic of conversation in the UK. As the weather changes with the wind, and Britain is visited by winds from different parts of the world, the most characteristic feature of Britain's weather is its variability. The English also say that they have three variants of weather: when it rains in the morning, when it rains in the afternoon or when it rains all day long. Sometimes it rains so heavily that they say “It's raining cats and dogs”.

Rainfall is more or less even throughout the year. In the mountains there is heavier rainfall than in the plains of the south and east. The driest period is from March to June and the wettest months are from October to January.



The average range of temperature (from winter to summer) is from 5 to 23 degrees above zero. During a normal summer the temperature sometimes rises above 30 degrees in the south. Winter temperatures which is below 10 degrees are rare. It seldom snows heavily in winter, frost is rare. January and February are usually the coldest months, while July and August the warmest ones. Still the wind may bring winter cold in spring or summer days. Sometimes it brings whirlwinds or hurricanes. Droughts are rare there.

So, we may say that the British climate has three main features: it is mild, humid and changeable. That means that it is never too hot or too cold. Winters are extremely mild. Snow may come but it melts quickly. In winter the cold is a humid cold, not dry. This humid and mild climate is good for plants. Trees and flowers begin to blossom early in spring.

1.2. Vegetation and wild life

The humid and mild climate of Great Britain is good for plants and flowers. The UK was originally a land of vast forests, mainly oak and beech in the Lowlands and pine and birch in the High lands, with great stretches of marshland and smaller areas of moors. In the course of time, much forest land was cleared and almost all the Lowlands outside the industrial areas were put under

cultivation. Today only about six percent of the total land area remains wooded. Extensive forests remain in eastern and northern Scotland and in southeastern and western England. Oak, elm, ash, and beech are the commonest trees in England, while Scotland has much pine and birch. The Highlands with thin soil are largely moorland with heather and grasses. In the cultivated areas that make up most of Britain there are many wild flowers, flowering plants and grasses.

Trees grow well and quickly in the heavy soils of England, and for a long time prehistoric settlers did not have tools strong enough to cut down the heavy oak forests. Over the centuries the expanding human population cut back the forests, so that today only 10.7 percent of the United Kingdom is forested, roughly 3 million hectares (6 million acres). In contrast, 25 percent of Europe is forested.

Only 8 percent of England is covered by forest, 15 percent of Scotland, 12 percent of Wales, and 6 percent of Northern Ireland. Britain's forests produce about 15 percent of the total wood the country consumes, and Britain imports substantial amounts of wood and wood products. Efforts have been made in Britain to grow more trees and expand the managed forest areas. Local authorities have the power to protect trees and woodlands. It is an offense to cut down trees without permission, and trees protected by the government.

The fauna or animal life of the UK is much like that of northwestern Europe, to which it was once joined. Many larger mammals such as bear and wolf have been hunted to extinction, others are now protected by law. About 50 land mammals are still found in the UK. There are many foxes. Otter's are common along rivers and streams, and seals live along parts of the coast. Hedgehogs, hares, rabbits, rats and mice are numerous. Deer live in some of the forests in the Highlands of Scotland and in England. There are several small lizards, two or three kinds of snakes, and several kinds of frogs and toads. Some 230 kinds of birds' live in the UK, another 200 are regular visitors, and many are songbirds. The most numerous are blackbird, sparrow and starling. Robin Redbreast is the national bird of the UK. The number of ducks, geese and other water fowl has diminished during recent years. Partridges, pheasants and other large and rare birds are protected by law. Gulls and other sea birds nest near the coast.

II. Population and Major Cities

2.1. People.

The United Kingdom has a population of 64,182 million of whom 32.029m are men and 32.153m women. (2015 estimate), with an average population density of 259.16 persons per sq. km. The population density of the United Kingdom is one of the highest in the world, exceeding most Asian and European nations. The English, the Scots, the Welsh and the Irish who constitute the British nation inhabit the UK.

England is the most populated part of the United Kingdom, which means more than four-fifths of the United Kingdom's population, resides in England. It is also the most densely populated portion of the United Kingdom, with its

population density.

Rank	Name	Population (2015)	Percent of UK	Area	Pop.density (2015)	Population (2015)
1	England	53,012,456	83.9%	130,395 km ²	406.55/km ²	53,865,800
	- South East	8,634,750	13.7%	19,095 km ²	452.20/km ²	8,792,600
	- Greater London	8,173,941	12.9%	1,572 km ²	5199.71/km ²	8,416,500
	- North West	7,052,177	11.2%	14,165 km ²	497.86/km ²	7,103,300
	- East	5,846,965	9.3%	19,120 km ²	305.80/km ²	5,954,200
	- West Midlands	5,601,847	8.9%	13,000 km ²	430.00/km ²	5,674,700
	- South West	5,288,935	8.4%	23,829 km ²	221.95/km ²	5,377,600
	- Yorkshire and the Humber	5,283,733	8.4%	15,420 km ²	342.65/km ²	5,337,700
	- East Midlands	4,533,222	7.2%	15,627 km ²	290.09/km ²	4,598,700
	- North East	2,596,886	4.1%	8,592 km ²	302.24/km ²	2,610,500
2	Scotland	5,295,000	8.4%	78,772 km ²	67.22/km ²	5,327,700
3	Wales	3,063,456	4.8%	20,779 km ²	147.43/km ²	3,082,400
4	Northern Ireland	1,810,863	2.9%	13,843 km ²	130.81/km ²	1,829,700
	United Kingdom	63,181,775	100%	243,789 km²	259.16/km²	64,105,700

Britain is a multicultural society; it is made up of people from many different racial and cultural backgrounds. The biggest group in society is often called the mainstream. In Britain the mainstream is the white population from England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland. These mainstream groups are of mixed origin, but consist entirely of white people. Other racial or cultural groups that are present in smaller numbers are often called ethnic minorities. In Britain ethnic minorities include the families of former immigrants from South Asia and the Caribbean, as well as people from China, Italy and many other countries

About nine-tenths of the people live in cities and towns. About 35 percent of the urban residents live in England's seven metropolitan areas. Greater London, the largest metropolitan area, has about 6 million people, which is about 10 percent of Britain's total population. The six other metropolitan areas are as follows, with the largest city of each area shown in parentheses: Greater Manchester (Manchester), Merseyside (Liverpool), South Yorkshire (Sheffield), Tyne and Wear (Newcastle upon Tyne), West Midlands (Birmingham), and West Yorkshire (Leeds). About 48 million people, or more than four-fifths of the population, live in England. London and England as whole have great influence over the rest of the United Kingdom because of their large populations.

Ethnic minorities	Population	% of total*
White	54,153,898	92.1%
Black	1,148,738	2.0%
Mixed race	677,117	1.2%
Indian	1,053,411	1.8%
Pakistani	747,285	1.3%

Bangladeshi	283,063	0.5%
Other South Asian	247,644	0.4%
Chinese	247,403	0.4%
Other (inc. East Asian, Arab, Oceanic, Latin American)	230,615	0.4%

2. 2. Ancestry.

Celtic-speaking people lived in what is now Britain by the mid 600's B.C. Over the next 1,700 years, the land was invaded by the Romans, Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Danes, and Normans. Most of the British are descendants of these early peoples. Since the 1950's, many immigrants have come to Britain from countries that belong to the Commonwealth. The Commonwealth is an association of countries and other political units that were once part of the British Empire. Many immigrants have come from Commonwealth countries in Asia and the West Indies. Most of the newcomers have settled in cities and towns already facing housing shortages.

2.3. The largest cities of Great Britain are London, Birmingham, Glasgow, Liverpool, Bristol, Leeds, and Cardiff, Manchester, Sheffield, and Edinburgh. The most important ports are: London, Liverpool, Southampton, Belfast, Glasgow and Cardiff.

The capitals are: London in England, Edinburgh in Scotland, Cardiff in Wales and Belfast in Northern Ireland.

England is the largest, most populace, and wealthiest division of the United Kingdom. It makes up 130,410 sq km (50,352 sq mi) of the United Kingdom's total 244,110 sq km (94,251 sq mi). The area of Scotland is 78,790 sq km (30,420 sq mi), the area of Wales is 20,760 sq km (8,020 sq mi), and the area of Northern Ireland is 14,160 sq km (5,470 sq mi). This means that England makes up 53.4 percent of the area of the United Kingdom, Scotland 32.3 percent, Wales 8.5 percent, and Northern Ireland 5.8 percent.

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

Ra nk	City	Location	Pop.	Ra nk	City	Location	Pop.
1	London	London	7,172,091	11	Coventry	West Midlands	303,475
2	Birmingham	West Midlands	970,892	12	Kingston upon Hull	Yorkshire and the Humber	301,416

3	Glasgow	Scotland	629,501	13	Bradford	Yorkshire and the Humber	293,717
4	Liverpool	North West England	469,017	14	Cardiff	Wales	292,150
5	Leeds	Yorkshire and the Humber	443,247	15	Belfast	Northern Ireland	276,459
6	Sheffield	Yorkshire and the Humber	439,866	16	Stoke-on-Trent	West Midlands	259,252
7	Edinburgh	Scotland	430,082	17	Wolverhampton	West Midlands	251,462
8	Bristol	South West England	420,556	18	Nottingham	East Midlands	249,584
9	Manchester	North West England	394,269	19	Plymouth	South West England	243,795
10	Leicester	East Midlands	330,574	20	Southampton	South East England	234,224

2.4. Language.

English is the official language of the United Kingdom and is spoken throughout most of the country. English developed chiefly from the language of the Anglo-Saxon and Norman invaders.

English is not the only language. Scottish, Welsh and Irish are also used. Less than a fifth of the people of Wales speak both English and Welsh, a language that developed from one of the languages of the Celts. A few people of Wales speak only Welsh. Thousands of people in Scotland speak the Scottish form of Gaelic, which is another Celtic language. The Irish form of Gaelic is spoken by a small number of people in Northern Ireland. The national currency is pound.

III. Rivers and Mountains

3.1. Rivers and lakes.

Britain has much rainfall, rivers and lakes. Rivers in central and eastern Britain tend to flow slowly and steadily all year long because they are fed the frequent rain. Many have been navigable, and from the earliest times they have served peoples interested in either commerce or invasion. The Highlands act as a divide and determine whether rivers flow west to the Irish Sea or east to the North Sea. Rivers and streams moving westward down from the Highlands tend to be swift and turbulent; rivers flowing eastward tend to be long, graceful, and gentle, with slowly moving waters.

The rivers are of great importance for communication and especially for carrying goods. England is mostly a lowland country. There are upland regions in the north and the southwest, but the rest of England is almost flat. Northern England, Midlands and Southern England—each part of England is different. The Lake District in Northern England with its lakes, mountains and valleys is a favorite holiday area. On either side of the Pennines the plains of Yorkshire and Lancashire stretch to the sea. In Yorkshire swift rivers flow down from the hills into valleys called “dales”.

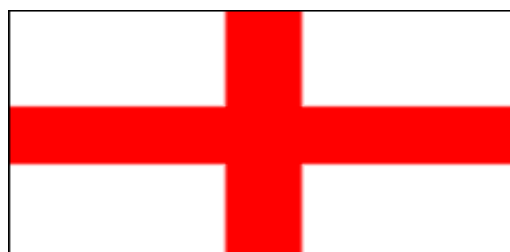
The Thames and the Severn are the longest rivers in Britain. The Thames, 338 km (210 mi) long, flows eastward out of the Cotswold Hills and weaves through the metropolis of London. The Thames provides water to the city of London and is used to carry commercial freight. The Severn flows south out of the mountains of central Wales to the Bristol Channel at Bristol. It is 290 km (180 mi) long. Other important rivers in England are the Mersey, which enters the Irish Sea at Liverpool; the River Humber on the east coast, into which the Trent River and several other rivers flow; and the Tyne River in northern England, which flows past Newcastle upon Tyne to the North Sea.

In Scotland the important rivers are the Clyde and the Forth, which are joined by a canal. The River Clyde flows northwest, past Glasgow, and empties into the Atlantic at the Firth of Clyde. (Firth is the Scottish name for an arm of the sea that serves as the broad estuary of a river.) The River Forth flows eastward into the Firth of Forth, where Edinburgh rises on its south bank. The most important rivers in Northern Ireland are the Lagan, the Bann, and the Foyle.

Many British rivers have drowned, or sunken, mouths called estuaries, up which the ocean tides flow. These rivers include the Clyde and Forth of Scotland; the Humber, Mersey, and Thames of England; and the Severn of England and Wales. The estuaries of these rivers make excellent harbors. Bristol, Hull, Liverpool, London, Southampton, and other cities on or near estuaries are important ports.

There are many lakes in Great Britain. On the northwest side of the Pennine system lies the Lake District, containing the beautiful lakes which give it its name. This district is widely known for its association with the history of English literature and especially with the name of William Wordsworth (1770-1859), the founder of the Lake School of poets.

Lough Neagh (pronounced lahk nay) in Northern Ireland is the largest lake in the British Isles. It is about 18 miles (29 kilometers) long and about 11 miles (18 kilometers) wide. Loch Lomond in Scotland is the largest lake on the island of Great Britain. It is 23 miles (37 kilometers) long and 5 miles (8 kilometers) wide at its widest point. England's biggest lakes are in the Lake District. The largest, Windermere, is about 10 miles (16 kilometers) long and up to 1 mile (1.6 kilometers) wide.



4. England

England (Latin Anglia), political division of the island of Great Britain,

constituting, with Wales, the principal division of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. England occupies the entire island east of Wales and south of Scotland, another division of the United Kingdom. Established as an independent monarchy many centuries ago, England in time achieved political control over the rest of the island, all the British Isles, and vast sections of the world, becoming the nucleus of one of the greatest empires in history. The capital, largest city, and chief port of England is London, with a population (2015 preliminary) of 8,538,689.



Westminster palace, London

It is also the capital of Great Britain and the site of the headquarters of the Commonwealth of Nations.

England is somewhat triangular in shape, with its apex at the mouth of the Tweed River. The eastern leg, bounded by the North Sea, extends generally southeast to the North Foreland, the northern extremity of the region called the Downs. The western leg of the triangle extends generally southwest from the mouth of the Tweed along the boundary with Scotland, the Irish Sea, Saint Georges Channel, and the Atlantic Ocean to Lands End, the westernmost extremity of England and of the island. The northern frontier extends from Solway Firth on the west along the Cheviot Hills to the mouth of the Tweed on the east. The base of the triangle fronts the English Channel and the Strait of Dover. The total area of England is 130,439 sq km (50,363 sq mi), 57 percent of the area of the island. This total, approximately the size of the state of North Carolina, includes the region of the Scilly Isles, southwest of Lands End in the Atlantic Ocean; the Isle of Wight, located off the southern coast; and the Isle of Man, located in the Irish Sea.

4.1. The Land

One of the principal physiographic features of England, as well as of the entire island of Great Britain, is the deeply indented coast. Most of the indentations are excellent natural harbors, easily accessible to deepwater shipping, a factor that has been decisive in the economic development and imperial expansion of England. By virtue of the high tides that prevail along the eastern coast, a number of rivers and their estuaries provide this region with safe anchorages. The most important of these belong to such ports as Newcastle upon Tyne, on the Tyne River; Middlesbrough, on the Tees River; Hull, on the Humber River; Great Yarmouth, on the estuary of the Yare River; and London, on the Thames River. The most important harbors on the southern coast include those of Dover, Hastings, Eastbourne, Brighton, Portsmouth, Bournemouth, and Plymouth. The western coast, considerably more broken than either the eastern or southern coast, also has numerous anchorages. Of outstanding commercial importance are

the harbor of Bristol, at the confluence of Bristol Channel and the Severn River; and Liverpool Harbor, at the mouth of the Mersey River.

The terrain of England is diversified. The northern and western portions are generally mountainous.

The principal highland region, the Pennine Chain (or Pennines), forms the backbone of northern England. It is composed of several ranges extending south from the Cheviot Hills to the valley of the Trent River and numerous spurs and extensions that radiate in all directions. The extreme elevation of the Pennine Chain and the highest summit in England is Scafell Pike (978 m/3210 ft above sea level). A large portion of the area occupied by the Pennine Chain comprises the Lake District, one of the most picturesque regions in England. The terrain east of Wales and between the southern extremities of the Pennine Chain and Bristol Channel is an extension of the rolling plain that occupies most of central and eastern England. Much of the western part of this central region is known as the Midlands; it contains an area that is known as the Black Country because of its intensive industrial development. To the east lies The Fens, a vast drained marsh area. To the south of Bristol Channel an elevated plateau slopes upward, culminating in the barren uplands and moors of Cornwall and Devon. Dartmoor (about 610 m/about 2000 ft above sea level), one of the wildest tracts in England, is situated in this region. Successive ranges of chalk hills, seen from the English Channel as white cliffs, project eastward from Devon to the Strait of Dover.



4.2. Climate

As a result of the relative warmth of the nearby seas, England has a moderate climate, rarely marked by extremes of heat or cold. The mean annual temperature ranges between 11.1° C (52° F) in the south and 8.9° C (48° F) in the northeast. Seasonal temperatures vary between a mean of about 16.1° C (61° F) during July, the hottest month of the year, and 4.4° C (40° F) during January, the coldest month. The average January and July temperatures for the city of London are 4.5° C (40° F) and 18° C (64° F), respectively. Fogs, mists, and overcast skies are frequent, particularly in the Pennine and inland regions. Precipitation, heaviest during October, averages about 760 mm (about 30 in) annually in most of England.

4.3. Natural Resources

England has some agricultural and mineral resources but must rely on imports of both. Approximately two-fifths of the land area is arable, with the richest soils found in the east. Substantial reserves of iron ore are concentrated in Cumbria, Staffordshire, and Lancashire. Waterpower resources are small and mostly concentrated in the highlands of Cumbria, in northern England.

4.4. Plants and Animals

In early times, England, like most of the island of Great Britain, was heavily forested, chiefly with oak and beech in the lowlands and pine and birch in the mountainous areas. Woodlands now constitute less than 4 percent of the total land area. Various types of fruit trees are cultivated, including the cherry, apple, and plum. A common shrub is a species of furze known locally as gorse. Numerous varieties of wildflowers are also found.

Among the chief indigenous fauna of England are several species of deer, fox, rabbit, hare, and badger. The most widespread bird is the meadow pipit, and sparrows are abundant. Grouse are found in the northern counties. Other familiar species are the crow, pigeon, rook, starling, and several members of the thrush family. Reptiles, of which only four species occur on the entire island of Great Britain, are rare in England. The most common freshwater fishes found in England are trout and salmon.

4.5. Population

The great majority of the people of England, like those of the British Isles in general, are descended from early Celtic and Iberian peoples and later invaders of the islands, including the Romans, Anglo-Saxons, Danes, and Normans. After 1945 substantial numbers of blacks and Asians immigrated into the country. England, once a nation of small rural villages, has become highly urban since the early 19th century.

4.6. London



1. The City of London, the largest financial centre in Europe.
2. Manchester Town Hall. Many towns and cities in the UK have impressive town or city hall buildings as administrative headquarters for local government

When we think of Paris, Rome, Madrid, and Lisbon and other European capitals, we think of them as “cities”.

When we think of the whole of modern London, the capital city of England and the United Kingdom, that great area covering several hundred square kilometers, we do not think of it as “a city”, not even as a city and its suburbs. Modern London is not one city that has steadily become larger through the centuries; it is a number of cities, towns, and villages that have, during the past centuries, grown together to make one vast urban area.

London is situated upon both banks of the River Thames, it is the largest city in Britain and one of the largest in the world. Its population is about 7 million people and one more million travel in each day to work.

People who work in London and live in suburbs are called commuters. They commute by train or bus from the suburbs because buying a house or a flat, near the centre is very expensive. In fact more and more people and firms move away from the capital. London is a cosmopolitan, multicultural city. Every seventh Londoner was born outside Britain.

London dominates the life of Britain. It is a big port and most important commercial, manufacturing and cultural centre. There is little heavy industry in London, but there is a wide range of light industry in Greater London.

The City is the heart of London, extends over an area of about 2.6 square kilometers. About half a million people work in the City, but only less than 6000 live here. It is the financial centre of the UK with many banks, offices and the Stock Exchanges. But the City is also a market for goods of almost every kind, from all parts of the world.

The West End can be called the centre of London. Here are the historical palaces as well as the famous parks. Hyde Park with its Speaker's Corner is also here. Among other parks are Kensington Gardens, St. James's Park. In the West End are Buckingham Palace which is the Queen's residence, and the Palace of Westminster which is the seat of Parliament. The best-known streets here are Whitehall with important Government offices, Downing Street the London residence of the Prime Minister and the place where the Cabinet meets, Fleet Street where most newspapers have their offices, Harley Street where the highest-paid doctors live and some others. The name “West End” came to be associated with wealth, luxury and goods of high quality. It is area of the largest department store, cinemas and hotels.

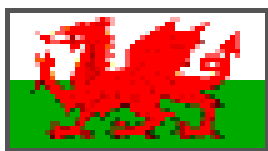
There are over 40 theatres, several concert halls, many museums including the British Museum and the best art galleries. It is in the West End that the University of London is centred with Bloomsbury as London's student quarter. Visitors with plenty of money to spend and who come chiefly for enjoyment are likely to pass most of their time in the West End.

The port of London is to the east of the City. Here were kilometers of docks and the great industrial areas that depended upon shipping. This is the East End of London, formerly unattractive in appearance but now changing because of the introduction of new industries and very expensive housing.

London has changed greatly in recent years. Many industries and firms have moved away. The docks were closed and part of the old port in east London has been converted into a business and residential area called Docklands. Many tall

buildings have appeared such as Canary Wharf towers, 244 meters, the tallest building in Britain and one of the tallest buildings in Europe. Many offices in it were damaged, though no one was killed when a bomb exploded there in 1996. The Millennium Dome a very large structure with a round roof for exhibitions has been built to celebrate the end of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century.

V. Wales



Wales is the part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, forming administratively a part of England and occupying a broad peninsula on the western side of the island of Great Britain. Wales also includes the island of Anglesey, which is separated from the mainland by the narrow Menai Strait. Wales is bounded on the north by the Irish Sea; on the east by the English counties of Cheshire, Shropshire, Hereford and Worcester, and Gloucester; on the south by Bristol Channel; and on the west by Saint Georges Channel and Cardigan Bay. The maximum north-south extent of the Welsh mainland is about 220 km (about 137 mi); in an east-west direction the distance varies between 60 and 155 km (36 and 96 mi). The total area of Wales is 20,768 sq km (8019 sq mi). Cardiff is the capital, principal seaport, and shipbuilding center.

5.1. Land and Resources

Wales has an irregular coastline with many bays, the largest of which is Cardigan Bay. Except for narrow, low-lying coastal regions, mainly in the south and west, Wales is almost entirely mountainous. The principal range is the Cambrian Mountains, which extend north and south through central Wales. Other major highland areas are the Brecon Beacons in the southeast and the Snowdon massif, in the northwest, which reaches an elevation of 1085 m (3560 ft), the greatest in England and Wales.

The Dee River, which rises in Bala Lake, the largest natural lake in Wales, and flows through northern Wales and England, is the principal river. In the south numerous rivers flow through steep valleys, including the Usk, Wye, Teifi, and Towy.

5.2. Plants and Animals

Most plant and animal life is similar to that of England. Wales has abundant ferns and mosses in low-lying, wet areas. Grasslands predominate at higher elevations. Some wooded areas, including stands of mountain ash, oak, and various coniferous species, are found in the mountains at elevations up to 305 m (1000 ft). At higher elevations chiefly small shrubs, coarse grasses, and alpine flora subsist. Among the few animals found in Wales but not in England are the pine marten and the polecat.

5.3. Climate

The climate of Wales, like that of England, is mild and moist. The average daily temperature in July is 15.6° C (60° F), and in January it is 5.6° C (42° F).

Annual rainfall varies with elevation, ranging from about 762 mm (about 30 in) in certain coastal regions to more than 2540 mm (more than 100 in) in the Snowdon massif.

5.4. Natural Resources

Coal is the most valuable mineral resource of Wales; deposits are located mainly in the south. Falling demand for coal since the 1940s has resulted in the closure of many Welsh mines. Some high-grade anthracite is found, but output consists principally of bituminous coal. Slate and limestone are also commercially important and limited amounts of manganese, gold, lead, uranium, copper, zinc, and fireclays are also found. Much of the soil of Wales is of infertile rocky or leached types. The most fertile soils are in the southeast and in a few coastal areas. Much of the electricity generated by the country's large waterpower resources is exported to England.

5.5. Population

The people of Wales, like those of Great Britain in general, are descendants of various stocks, including Celts, Scandinavians, and Romans.

According to preliminary 2015 census data, the population of Wales is 3,082,400. The population density is approximately 147.43 people per sq km. About three-quarters of the population are concentrated in the mining centers in the south.



5.6. Principal Cities

The major cities of Wales are Cardiff (population, 2015 preliminary, 315,040), the capital, principal seaport, and shipbuilding center; Swansea (230,180), a seaport and center of the tin-plate industry; Newport (136,789), an industrial center; and Rhondda (240,117), a center of the Welsh coal-mining region.

Cities, towns & districts	Population	Males (% of total)
London	7,074,265	49.12
Birmingham	1,020,589	49.42
Leeds	726,939	49.43
Glasgow	616,430	47.73
Sheffield	530,375	49.73
Bradford	483,422	49.32
Liverpool	467,995	48.80
Edinburgh	448,850	48.29
Manchester	430,818	49.33
Bristol	399,633	49.59
Kirklees	388,807	49.17
Fife	349,300	48.44
Wirral	329,179	47.89
North Lanarkshire	325,940	48.58
Wakefield	317,342	49.53
Cardiff	315,040	49.09
Dudley	312,194	49.62

Wigan	309,786	49.50
East Riding	308,689	48.87
South Lanarkshire	307,450	48.37
Coventry	306,503	49.43
Belfast	297,300	n/a
Leicester	294,830	49.64
Sunderland	294,261	48.79
Sandwell	292,196	49.09
Doncaster	291,804	49.28
Stockport	291,080	48.55
Sefton	289,739	47.75
Nottingham	283,969	49.38
Newcastle-upon-Tyne	282,338	49.19
Kingston-upon-Hull	266,775	49.63
Bolton	265,449	49.30
Walsall	262,593	49.55
Plymouth	255,826	49.20
Rotherham	255,342	49.49
Stoke-on-Trent	254,438	49.57
Wolverhampton	244,453	49.28
Rhondda, Cynon, Taff	240,117	49.40
South Gloucestershire	235,129	50.01
Derby	233,708	49.59
Swansea	230,180	49.04
Salford	229,179	49.56
Aberdeenshire	227,430	49.70
Barnsley	227,213	49.14
Tameside	220,722	49.39
Oldham	220,172	48.95
Trafford	218,893	49.05
Aberdeen	217,260	48.88
Southampton	214,859	50.42
Highland	208,700	49.06
Rochdale	207,563	49.09
Solihull	203,922	48.89
Gateshead	200,968	48.88
Milton Keynes	197,131	49.85
North Tyneside	193,619	47.97
Calderdale	192,844	48.79
Northampton	192,382	49.30
Portsmouth	190,370	50.96
Warrington	189,012	49.59
North Somerset	185,340	48.68
Bury	181,873	49.54
Luton	181,468	50.15
St Helens	179,483	49.19
Stockton-on-Tees	179,009	49.20
Renfrewshire	178,550	48.28
York	175,095	48.75
Thamesdown	174,598	49.93
Southend-on-Sea	172,266	48.13
New Forest	169,513	48.40
Caerphilly	169,125	49.11
Carmarthenshire	169,108	48.65
Bath & North East Somerset	164,725	48.77
Wycombe	164,045	49.87
Basildon	163,280	49.24
Bournemouth	160,749	47.46
Peterborough	158,674	49.95
North East Lincolnshire	158,503	48.97
Chelmsford	156,601	49.26
Brighton	156,124	49.22
South Tyneside	156,078	48.69

Charnwood	155,724	49.92
Aylesbury Vale	154,927	49.73
Colchester	154,176	49.35
Knowsley	154,053	48.58
North Lincolnshire	152,767	49.39
Huntingdonshire	152,742	49.35
Macclesfield	152,604	48.86
Blackpool	152,459	48.46
West Lothian	150,770	49.20
South Somerset	150,710	48.87
Dundee	150,250	47.75
Basingstoke & Deane	147,914	49.67
Harrogate	147,635	47.66
Dumfries & Galloway	147,600	48.58
Middlesbrough	146,778	48.97
Flintshire	144,918	49.30
Rochester-upon-Medway	144,478	49.40
The Wrekin	144,154	49.60
Newbury	143,727	49.67
Falkirk	143,040	48.57
Reading	142,851	50.62
Wokingham	142,361	50.53
Windsor & Maidenhead	141,548	49.73
Maidstone	140,664	49.23
Redcar & Cleveland	139,785	48.98
North Ayrshire	139,520	48.14
Blackburn	139,491	49.25
Neath Port Talbot	139,459	48.81
Poole	139,226	48.40
Wealden	138,030	47.73
Arun	137,978	47.52
Bedford	137,451	49.82
Oxford	137,343	50.40
Lancaster	136,948	48.61
Newport	136,789	48.86
Canterbury	136,481	48.67
Preston	134,818	49.84
Dacorum	134,733	49.29
Cherwell	132,687	49.28
Perth & Kinross	132,570	48.23
Thurrock	132,283	49.75
Tendring	132,265	47.53
Kings Lynn & West Norfolk	131,214	49.20
St Albans	130,267	49.42
Bridgend	130,080	48.47
South Cambridgeshire	128,422	49.44
Braintree	126,236	49.51
Norwich	126,221	49.02
Thanet	125,543	47.45
Isle of Wight	125,466	48.19
Mid Sussex	125,329	49.30
South Oxfordshire	124,637	49.32
Guildford	124,567	49.39
Elmbridge	124,539	48.42
Stafford	124,531	49.51
Powys	124,418	49.65
East Hertfordshire	123,553	50.00
Torbay	123,413	46.94
Wrexham Maelor	123,308	48.51
East Devon	123,105	46.90
East Lindsey	123,058	48.27
Halton	123,038	49.15
Warwick	122,506	49.16

East Ayrshire	122,350	48.31
Newcastle-under-Lyme	122,314	49.17
North Wiltshire	121,747	50.06
South Kesteven	119,951	48.66
Epping Forest	119,512	48.89
Vale of Glamorgan	119,358	48.71
Reigate & Banstead	119,307	49.10
Chester	119,221	48.91
Mid Bedfordshire	118,945	49.57
Suffolk Coastal	118,681	49.10
Horsham	118,569	49.08
Nuneaton & Bedworth	118,340	49.91
Gwynedd	117,775	48.56
Swale	117,562	49.97
Havant & Waterloo	117,341	48.42
Teignbridge	116,743	48.22
Cambridge	116,701	50.13
Vale Royal	115,233	49.25
Amber Valley	115,224	49.72
North Hertfordshire	114,941	49.53
South Ayrshire	114,630	47.81
Waverley	114,133	48.49
Broadland	113,896	49.15
Crewe & Nantwich	113,670	49.80
Breckland	113,654	48.90
Ipswich	113,642	48.96
Pembrokeshire	113,597	48.78
Vale of White Horse	112,545	50.63
Salisbury	112,534	48.43
Gedling	112,194	49.01
Eastleigh	111,732	49.50
Broxtowe	111,429	49.55
Stratford-on-Avon	111,211	48.71
South Bedfordshire	110,949	49.72
Angus	110,780	48.78
East Hampshire	110,761	48.64
East Dunbartonshire	110,750	48.87
Conway	110,596	47.48
Sevenoaks	110,476	48.86
Slough	110,462	49.49
Bracknell Forest	110,092	50.62
West Lancashire	109,763	49.23
West Wiltshire	108,889	49.35
Ashfield	108,558	49.52
Lisburn	108,400	n/a
Scarborough	108,258	47.76
Stroud	108,022	49.15
Wychavon	108,009	48.93
Waveney	107,731	48.29
Exeter	107,729	49.34
Dover	107,398	48.75
Test Valley	107,182	49.47
Gloucester	106,834	49.92
Erewash	106,818	49.65
Cheltenham	106,692	49.14
Bassetlaw	106,303	49.62
Scottish Borders	106,100	48.16

VI. Scotland

Scotland is an administrative division of the Kingdom of Great Britain, occupies the northern third of the island of Great Britain. Scotland is bounded on

the north by the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by the North Sea; on the southeast by England; on the south by Solway Firth, which partly separates it from England, and by the Irish Sea; and on the west by North Channel, which separates it from Ireland, and by the Atlantic Ocean.



As a geopolitical entity Scotland includes 186 nearby islands, a majority of which are contained in three groups—namely, the Hebrides, also known as the Western Islands, situated off the western coast; the Orkney Islands, situated off the northeastern coast; and the Shetland Islands, situated northeast of the Orkney Islands. The largest of the other islands is the Island of Arran. The area, including the islands, is 78,772 sq km (30,414 sq mi).

Edinburgh (population 500,213 in 2015y) is the capital of Scotland as well as a major industrial area and seaport.

6.1. The Land

Scotland has a very irregular coastline. The western coast in particular is deeply penetrated by numerous arms of the sea, most of which are narrow submerged valleys, known locally as sea lochs, and by a number of broad indentations, generally called firths. The principal firths are the Firth of Lorne, the Firth of Clyde, and Solway Firth. The major indentations on the eastern coast are Dornoch Firth, Moray Firth, the Firth of Tay, and the Firth of Forth. Measured around the various firths and lochs, the coastline of Scotland is about 3700 km (about 2300 mi) long.

6.2. Physiographic Regions

The terrain of Scotland is predominantly mountainous but may be divided into three distinct regions, from north to south: the Highlands, the Central Lowlands, and the Southern Uplands.

More than one-half of the surfaces of Scotland are occupied by the Highlands, the most rugged region on the island of Great Britain. Consisting of parallel mountain chains with a general northeastern-southwestern trend and broken by deep ravines and valleys, the Highlands are noted for their scenic grandeur. Precipitous cliffs, moorland plateaus, mountain lakes, sea lochs, swift-flowing streams, and dense thickets are common to the Highlands, the most sparsely inhabited section of Scotland. The region is divided in two by a depression, known as the Glen More, or Great Glen, which extends from Moray Firth to Loch Linnhe. To the northwest of this lie heavily eroded peaks with fairly uniform elevations ranging from 610 to 915 m (about 2000 to 3000 ft). In the Highlands southeast of the Great Glen the topography is highly diversified. This region is traversed by the Grampian Mountains, the principal mountain system of Scotland. The highest peak

of the Grampians is Ben Nevis (1343 m/4406 ft), the highest summit in Great Britain.



Ben Nevis, in Scotland, is the highest point in the British Isles

To the south of the Highlands lies the Central Lowlands, a narrow belt comprising only about one-tenth of the area of Scotland, but containing the majority of the country's population. The Central Lowlands are traversed by several chains of hills, including the Ochil and Sidlaw hills, and by several important rivers, notably the Clyde, Forth, and Tay.

The terrain of the Southern Uplands, a region much less elevated and rugged than the Highlands, consists largely of a moorland plateau traversed by rolling valleys and broken by mountainous outcroppings. Only a few summits in the Southern Uplands exceed 762 m (2500 ft) in elevation, the highest being Merrick (843 m/2765 ft) in the southwest. Adjoining the Southern Uplands region along the boundary with England are the Cheviot Hills.

6.3. Rivers and Lakes

Scotland is characterized by an abundance of streams and lakes (lochs). Notable among the lakes, which are especially numerous in the central and northern regions, are Loch Lomond (the largest), Loch Ness, Loch Tay, and Loch Katrine. Many of the rivers of Scotland, in particular the rivers in the west, are short, torrential streams, generally of little commercial importance. The longest river of Scotland is the Tay; the Clyde, however, is the principal navigational stream, site of the port of Glasgow. Other chief rivers include the Forth, Tweed, Dee, and Spey.

6.4. Climate

Like the climate of the rest of Great Britain, that of Scotland is subject to the moderating influences of the surrounding seas. As a result of these influences, extreme seasonal variations are rare, and temperate winters and cool summers are the outstanding climatic features.

Low temperatures, however, are common during the winter season in the mountainous districts of the interior. In the western coastal region, which is subject to the moderating effects of the Gulf Stream, conditions are somewhat milder than in the east. The average January temperature of the eastern coastal region is 3.9° C (39°F), and the average January temperature of the western coastal region is 3.1° C (37.5°F); corresponding July averages are 13.8°C (56.8°F) and 15°C (59°F). The average January and July temperatures for the city of Edinburgh are 3.5°C (38°F)

6.6. Natural Resources

Scotland, like the rest of the island of Great Britain, has significant reserves of coal. It also possesses large deposits of zinc, chiefly in the south. The soil is generally rocky and infertile, except for that of the Central Lowlands. Northern Scotland has great hydroelectric power potential and contains Great Britain's largest hydroelectric generating stations. Beginning in the late 1970s, offshore oil deposits in the North Sea became an important part of the Scottish economy.

6.7. Population

The people of Scotland, like those of Great Britain in general, are descendants of various racial stocks, including the Picts, Celts, Scandinavians, and Romans. Scotland is a mixed rural-industrial society. Scots divide themselves into Highlanders, who consider themselves of purer Celtic blood and retain a stronger feeling of the clan, and Lowlanders, who are largely of Teutonic blood.

Although Scotland takes up one third of the territory of the British Isles, its population is not very big. It is the most northern part of the island of Great Britain and is not far away from the Arctic Circle. That's why it is not densely populated: its population is a little over 5 million people.

Shipbuilding is one of its most important industries; other industries are iron and steel, heavy and light engineering and coal-mining. It is the centre of the working class movement and has glorious revolutionary traditions.

Glasgow was a grim city because of the greyness of the houses many of which were not suitable for living and needed repairs or rebuilding. But now this city is rapidly changing, turning into an important cultural centre. Glasgow is sometimes called “the friendly city”. Scotland had been an independent state and was joined into the UK in 1707, after a long struggle for its independence.

Edinburgh has been the capital since the 15th century, when its fortified castle was the centre of Scotland's resistance to its enemies. Edinburgh is the cultural centre of Scotland. It is associated with the names of George Gordon Byron and Walter Scott, Robert Louis Stevenson, Robert Burns and Arthur Conan Doyle, creator of Sherlock Holmes. It is also associated with the world-famous Edinburgh Festival of Music and Drama. The Festival was first held in 1947 and has been held annually ever since.

VI. Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland, integral part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland situated in the northeastern portion of the island of Ireland. Northern Ireland is bounded on the north and northeast by the North Channel, on the southeast by the Irish Sea, and on the south and west by the Republic of Ireland. It includes Rathlin Island in the North Channel and several smaller offshore islands. Northern Ireland is also known as Ulster, because it comprises six of the nine counties that constituted the former province of Ulster. The total area of Northern Ireland is 14,148 sq km (5463 sq mi).





For seven centuries Ireland was a colony of Britain. Due to the colonial policy of Great Britain the Irish nation was forcefully partitioned. As a result of the hard struggle of the Irish people for independence the larger part of Ireland (26 counties) gained the status of a British dominion in 1921. Much later, in 1949 it was officially proclaimed an independent state, the Irish Free State of Eire. The industrial northeast (Northern Ireland with its 6 counties) was retained by Great Britain as its smallest component. But certain forces of both the Irish Republic and Northern Ireland are for the reunification of the country, against social deprivation which is at its worst among Catholics. They believe that British withdrawal from Ireland are the only way to achieve peace. The Protestants in Northern Ireland wish to retain her links with Britain. If one asks an Irishman away from home what he misses most about Ireland, he will probably tell you “the greenness”. Irish poets put it in a different way when they call Ireland “the Emerald Isle”.

7.1. Land and Resources

Northern Ireland has an extreme northern to southern extension of about 135 km (about 85 mi) and an extreme eastern to western extension of about 175 km (about 110 mi). The shoreline is characterized by numerous irregularities and is about 530 km (about 330 mi) long. The major indentations are Lough Foyle in the north and Belfast, Strangford, and Carlingford loughs in the east. A striking feature of the northern coast is the Giant's Causeway, a rock formation consisting of thousands of closely placed, polygonal pillars of black basalt.

The country consists mainly of a low, flat plain in the approximate center of

which is Lough Neagh (about 390 sq km/about 150 sq mi), the largest lake in the British Isles. Other important lakes are Lough Erne and Upper Lough Erne.

Apart from several isolated elevations, three major areas of considerable height are the Sperrin Mountains in the northwest, the Antrim Plateau along the northeastern coast, and the Mourne Mountains in the southeast. The highest point in the country is Slieve Donard (852 m/2796 ft), a peak in the Mourne Mountains.

The chief rivers are the Foyle River, which forms part of the northwestern boundary and flows into Lough Foyle at Londonderry, and the Upper Bann and Lower Bann rivers. The former rises in the Mourne Mountains and empties into Lough Neagh; the latter flows out of Lough Neagh to the North Channel. Among the many other rivers are the Main, Blackwater, Lagan, Erne, and Bush. Because of the generally flat terrain, drainage is poor, and the areas of marshland are extensive.

7.2. Climate

The climate of Northern Ireland is mild and damp throughout the year. The prevailing westerly winds from the Gulf Stream are largely responsible for the lack of extreme summer heat and winter cold. The average annual temperature is approximately 10°C (50°F); temperatures average about 14.4°C (about 58°F) in July and about 4.4°C (about 40°F) in January. Rainfall is distributed evenly during the year. The annual precipitation frequently exceeds 1016 mm (40 in) in the north and is about 760 mm (about 30 in) in the south. The level of humidity is high.

Is the grass really greener in Ireland? The fact is that the winds usually blow in from the Atlantic Ocean and make the air and soil warm and damp. Grass grows well in such a climate and it makes the island look so beautiful. There are low hills and peaks of rocks in the northwest, while the northeast sector of the island is a plateau. The Mourne Mountains in the southeast slope down to Lough Neagh, is the largest lake in the British Isles. The rivers of Ireland are short but deep. The largest river is the Shannon.

7.3. Natural Resources

The most valuable natural resources of Northern Ireland are its fertile soil and rich pasturelands. Natural waterpower is abundant. The chief minerals are basalt, limestone, sand and gravel, granite, chalk, clay, and shale; bauxite, iron ore, and coal also are found in small amounts. Peat is important as a fuel.

7.4. Plants and Animals

In general, the plants and animals of Northern Ireland are similar to those of the island as a whole. The only distinctive plant is a species of wild orchid, *Spiranthes stricta*, found in the valleys of the Upper and Lower Bann Rivers. Distinctive species of animal life include the pollan, a freshwater variety of whitefish found in Lough Neagh and Lough Erne.

7.5. Population

The majority of the people is of Scottish or English ancestry and is known

commonly as the Scotch-Irish. The remainder of the population is Irish, principally native to Ulster.

English is the sole official language. Unlike the Republic of Ireland, Northern Ireland does not encourage the use of the Gaelic language.

The capital and largest city of Northern Ireland is Belfast (population, 2015 preliminary, 297,300), which is surrounded by heavy industries including shipbuilding and textiles. The other major city in Northern Ireland is Londonderry.

The whole economy of Northern Ireland is closely integrated with that of Great Britain. It has its roots in three basic industries-agriculture, textiles and shipbuilding. The largest industry is agriculture conducted for the most part on small family farms. It occupies about 72 percent of the land area. Belfast, the capital of Northern Ireland is the leading industrial centre and a large port. Its chief industries are the production of linen and other textiles, clothing, shipbuilding, engineering. In Ireland the national musical instrument is the harp.

Regions of the UK

I. The Highland zone

II. The Lowland zone

III. The Scottish Highlands

IV. The Central Lowlands

V. The Southern Uplands

VI. The Pennines

VII. Wales

VIII. The Southwest Peninsula

IX. The English Lowlands

X. Northern Ireland

Geographically the island of Great Britain is subdivided into 2 main regions: Lowland Britain and Highland Britain. Lowland Britain comprises southern and eastern England. Highland Britain consists of Scotland, most of Wales, the Pennines (or the Pennine Chain) and the Lake District. The highland zone is an area of high hills and mountains in the north and west. The lowland zone in the south and east consists mostly of rolling plains. The zones are divided by an imaginary line running through England from the River Exe on the southwest coast to the mouth of the River Tees on the northeast coast. The lowland zone has a milder climate and better soils for farming. Historically, most people in Britain have lived in the lowland zone rather than in the harsher highland zone.

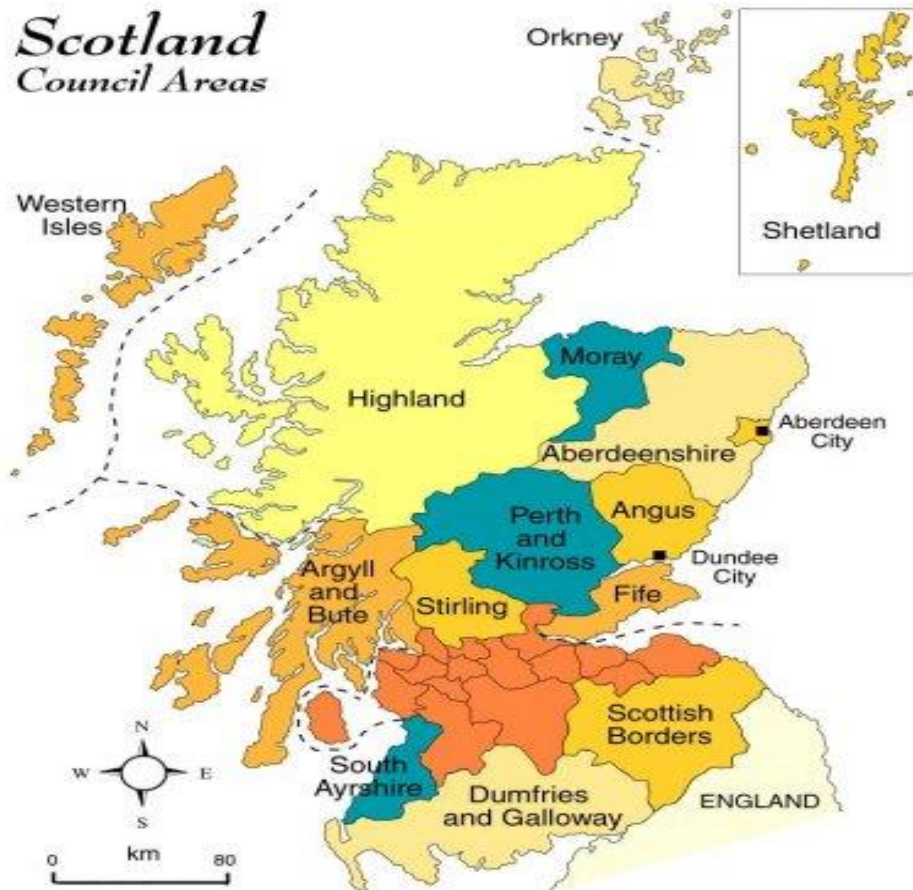
I. The Highland zone contains what is often called rough country, consisting to a large extent of rugged hills, mountains, and eroded areas frequently broken by valleys and plains. The highest elevations in the family of British Isles are in the highland zone; the highest point is Ben Nevis (4,406 ft), located in the Highlands of Scotland. The highland zone is cooler than the lowland zone, and receives more rainfall and less sunlight. In many places farming is impossible. Even where it is feasible, the soil is often thin and stony, with a hard rock formation below. Rainwater often cannot escape readily; so many areas tend to be waterlogged. Wales, Scotland, and parts of England are

located in the highland zone. The parts of England in the highland zone include the Pennine Chain of mountains, extending down into northern England and into the southwestern peninsula. The Pennine Chain is sometimes called the backbone of England. It is a massive upland area extending 260 km (160 mi) north to south, starting at the Cheviot Hills on England's border with Scotland and ending in the Midlands of central England. It is made up of several broad, rolling, windswept moorlands separated by deep river valleys. Many of England's major industrial areas lie on the flanks of the Pennine Chain, where there are many coalfields. To the west of the northern Pennines are the Cambrian Mountains. This region contains the Lake District, famous for its lakes and scenic beauty.

II. The Lowland zone is a great plain with a gentle, undulating surface and extensive areas of almost-level ground. It receives less rain and more sunshine than the highland zone and much of the soil in the zone is fertile. Most of the lowland region is less than 150m (500 ft) above sea level, and the hills rarely reach more than 300 m (1,000 ft) above sea level. It has been extensively inhabited, farmed, and grazed for thousands of years. Most of Britain's population lives densely packed into the lowland zone, which covers most of England. The metropolis of London and most of Britain's large cities are located in the lowland zone.

The flattest lands in the lowland zone are in the east, particularly on the large, hump-shaped area called East Anglia. The broad, rolling Midland Plain is south of the Pennine Chain. Northwest of this plain, on the western side of the Pennines, is the Lancashire-Cheshire plain. Another plain extends from the eastern slope of the Pennines to the sea. It is broken in the north by the Yorkshire Moors, a high wasteland overgrown with coarse plants.

Several chains of low hills break up the lowland plain. They are sometimes called scarp lands or escarpments, meaning that they tend to drop steeply on one side and slope gently downward on the other side. One of these upland ridges, the South Downs, runs along the southern coast eastward from the Salisbury Plain. Running parallel to this ridge, south of the Thames valley, are the North Downs. In between the North Downs and the South Downs is a region called The Weald, an area of scenic, gentle hills. Another elevated chain is the Chiltern Hills, which stretch southwest from the central part of the lowland plain. The Cotswold Hills lie to the west near Wales. The Cotswold's and the plain's northern hills have a limestone base, while the Downs have a chalk base.



Britain can be divided into eight main land regions. Seven of these regions occupy the island of Great Britain. They are (1) the Scottish Highlands, (2) the Central Lowlands, (3) the Southern Uplands, (4) the Pennines, (5) Wales, (6) the Southwest Peninsula, and (7) the English Lowlands. Northern Ireland makes up the eighth region.

III. The Scottish Highlands cover the northern half of Scotland. They are a region of mountain ranges, plateaus, and deep valleys. The highest point in the British Isles, 4,406-foot (1,343-meter) Ben Nevis, rises in the Highlands. Many bays cut into the region's Atlantic Ocean and North Sea coasts. Some narrow bays, called sea lochs, are flanked by steep mountain slopes and reach far inland. Most of the Highlands are a moor—an area of coarse grasses, a few small trees, and low evergreen shrubs called heather. The soil of this rugged, windswept region is thin and poor. Most of people raise sheep, or they fish in the seas.

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

V. The Southern Uplands rise gently south of the Central Lowlands. This is a region of rounded, rolling hills. Sheep graze on the short grass that covers much of the hills. Their fleece goes to Scotland's woolen mills in the region's

Tweed Valley. In the south, the Uplands rise to the Cheviot Hills, which form the border between Scotland and England.

VI. The Pennines are a region of rounded uplands that extend from the Scottish border about halfway down the length of England. They are also known as the Pennine Chain or Pennine Hills, and they are often called the backbone of England. Their flanks are rich in coal. West of the Pennines lies the Lake District, a scenic area of clear, quiet lakes and low mountains. The Lake District is one of England's most famous recreation areas.

VII. Wales lies southwest of the Pennines. It is separated from the Pennines by a narrow strip of the English Lowlands. The Cambrian Mountains cover most of Wales. These mountains are especially rugged and beautiful in the north and are more rounded in central Wales. Southern Wales is largely a plateau deeply cut by river valleys. Most of the people live on the narrow coastal plains or in the deep, green river valleys. These are the, best areas for crop farming and raising dairy cattle. The rest of the land is too steep for raising crops and is used mostly for grazing sheep and some beef cattle. Wales has large deposits of coal in the south, though most of its mines have been closed. Much of the country's industry is centered in the large coastal towns.

VIII. The Southwest Peninsula lies south of Wales, across the Bristol Channel. It is a plateau whose surface is broken by great masses of granite. Near much of the coast, the plateau ends sharply in magnificent cliffs that tower above the sea. Tiny fishing villages lie in sheltered bays along the coast. The region has mild winters and summers that are not too dry. This climate helps make agriculture important in the fertile lowland areas. Farmers grow vegetables and raise dairy cattle.

The peninsula was once famous for its tin and copper mines, but most of these metals have been worked out. More important today is the region's fine white china clay, used to make pottery. The Southwest Peninsula's beauty and pleasant climate attract many artists and retired people and thousands of vacationers every year.

IX. The English Lowlands cover all England south of the Pennines and east of Wales and the Southwest Peninsula. This region has most of the United Kingdom's farmable land, industry, and people. The Lowlands consist chiefly of broad, gently rolling plains, broken here and there by low hills and ridges. Much of the land is a patchwork of fields and meadows, bordered by tall hedges, stone fences, or rows of trees.

A grassy plain called the Midlands lies in the center of the English Lowlands, just south of the Pennines. Parts of the Midlands extend along the western and eastern borders of the Pennines. The Midlands are the industrial heart of the United Kingdom. Birmingham and the surrounding communities form the country's chief manufacturing center.

South of the Midlands, a series of hills and valleys crosses the land to the valley of the River Thames. London, the United Kingdom's capital and great commercial and cultural center, stands on the Thames. Most of the land north of the Thames and up to a bay of the North Sea called The Wash is low and flat. This area has some of the country's richest farmland. A great plain called The Fens borders The Wash. In The Fens, near Ely, is the lowest point on the island of Great Britain. It ranges from sea level to 15 feet (4.6 meters) below sea level, depending on the tide of the North Sea.

South of the Thames, low chalk hills and valleys cross the land. Where the hills reach the sea, they form great white cliffs. The most famous cliffs are near Dover. On clear days, people in Calais, France, can look across the Strait of Dover and see the white cliffs of Dover gleaming in the sun.

X. Northern Ireland is a region of low mountains, deep valleys, and fertile lowlands. The land is lowest near the center and rises to its greatest heights near the north and south coasts. The chief natural resources are rich fields and pastures, and most of the land is used for crop farming or grazing. About a fifth of the people of Northern Ireland live in Belfast, the capital and main industrial center.

▣ **Key words:** geographically the island of Great Britain is subdivided into 2 main regions; the Highland zone is called rough country; the Lowland zone is a great plain; the Scottish Highlands cover the northern half of Scotland; the Central Lowlands lie south of the Scottish Highlands; the Southern Uplands rise gently south of the Central Lowlands; the Pennines are a region of rounded uplands; Wales lies southwest of the Pennines; the Southwest Peninsula lies south of Wales, across the Bristol Channel; the English Lowlands cover all England; Northern Ireland is a region of low mountains.

7.6. Interesting facts:

The chief rivers of GB are: the Severn, Thames.

The largest cities of GB are London, Birmingham, Glasgow, Sheffield, Liverpool, Manchester, and Bristol, Leeds, Edinburgh, Bristol serves the industrial Midlands.

Glasgow is the principal Scottish port.

Leith is the port of the city of Edinburgh.

Belfast is the principal port in Northern Ireland.

Portsmouth is a naval port with developed shipbuilding.

Milford Haven is one of the major oil ports in GB.

Liverpool is the second largest port and the major export outlet of the UK.

Manchester is an inland port. Petroleum is both the main important and exports.

Southampton is Britain's largest port for ocean going liners.

Newcastle upon Tyne and the other Tyne ports serve the industries and the most important coal shipping, largest ship-repairing centre in the country.

Hull serves the industrial centers of Yorkshire and Midlands.

Middles rough is one of the largest importing centers in Britain for iron ore and exports mainly steel. Swansea has the largest ports serving South Wales.

Questions:

- | | |
|--|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. What is the territory of the UK? (Borders of the UK.)2. What is the climate of the UK?3. Name the major rivers and lakes of the UK.4. What can you say about the major metropolitan areas of the UK?5. What is the population of the UK?6. Speak about England.7. Speak about Scotland.8. Speak about Wales.9. Speak about Northern Ireland.10. What can you say about the vegetation and the wild life of the UK? | <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. What are the regions of the UK? (Show them from the map)2. Speak about the Highland zone.3. Where situated the Lowland zone?4. Where Ben Nevis, the highest point in the British Isles is situated?5. This region is a gently rolling plain. Which one is this?6. What forms the border between Scotland and England?7. What is the backbone of England?8. In which region there can be find large deposits of coal?9. In which regions farming is possible?10. ... is a region of low mountains, deep valleys, and fertile lowlands. |
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THEME 2: NATIONAL SYMBOLS: FLAGS, FLORAL AND ANIMAL EMBLEMS, SIGHTSEEING PLACES OF THE UK.

I. The Union Jack

II. UK's Patron Saints and Floral Emblems.

III. Sightseeing places of the UK

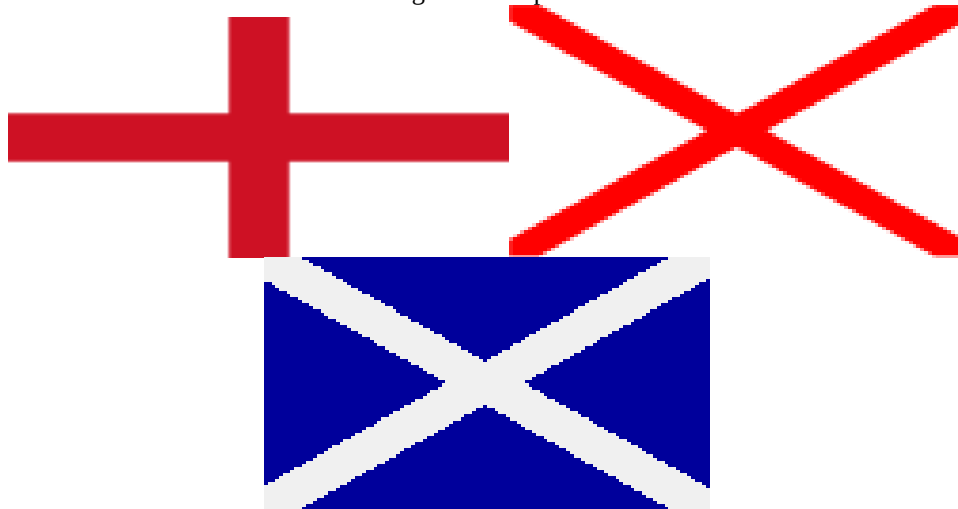
Key words: Union Jack is the flag of the UK; plants and flowers are symbols; England – rose; Northern Ireland – shamrock; Scotland – thistle; Wales – daffodil; Eisteddfod is an annual competition. Britain is rich in the places of interest; the Saxon King Alfred encouraged the arts and culture; Inigo Jones was the first man to bring the Italian Renaissance style to Great Britain; the number of festivals held in Britain every summer; Britain is now one of the world's major theatres centers; British people are proud of ceremonies of the national capital – London; every nation has its own National Dress; Sport plays more important part in people's life in Britain.

I. The Union Jack

The flag of the UK is known as the Union Jack. It has its history. It all began in 1603 when Scotland was joined to England and Wales.



The flag is made up of 3 crosses.



The upright cross is the Cross of St. George the patron saint of England. The white diagonal cross is the cross of St. Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland. The red diagonal cross is the cross of St. Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland. All of them are on the blue background. (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 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 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.

II. UK's Patron Saints and Floral Emblems.

The humid and mild climate of Great Britain is good for plants and flowers. Some of them have become symbols in the UK. You probably know that the **poppy** is the symbol of peace, the **red rose** is the national emblem of England,

and the **thistle** is the national emblem of Scotland and the Edinburgh International Festival. The **daffodils** and the **leek** are the emblems of Wales; the **shamrock** (a kind of **clover**) is the emblem of Ireland.



The national emblem of England is the rose and St. George. The flower has been adopted as England's emblem since the time of the Wars of the Roses (1455-1485) - civil wars between the royal house of Lancaster (whose emblem was a red rose) and the royal house of York (whose emblem was a white rose). The Yorkist regime ended with the defeat of King Richard III by the future Henry VII at Bosworth on 22 August 1485, and the two roses were united into the Tudor rose (a red rose with a white centre) by Henry VII when he married Elizabeth of York.

The national flower of Northern Ireland is the shamrock and St. Patrick, a three-leaved plant similar to clover. An Irish tale tells of how Patrick used the three-leaved shamrock to explain the Trinity. He used it in his sermons to represent how the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit could all exist as separate elements of the same entity. His followers adopted the custom of wearing a shamrock on his feast day. (1st picture below)

The Scottish national flower is the thistle and St. Andrew, (2nd picture below) a prickly-leaved purple flower that was first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defense. The three flowers - rose, thistle and shamrock - are often displayed beneath the shield on the Royal Coat of Arms.

Well, there are numerous stories regaling how this prickly flower gained the honor, but no one knows for sure.



The most popular story has it that sometime during the 13th Century, around 1263, the King of Norway, King Haakon IV, decided to carry on a campaign against the Scots. During one of those battles, the Scots knowing the highlands well took rest in the fields surrounded by the Prickly Purple Thistle. The Norse,

believing that they had darkness as an advantage, set on attacking while the Scots slept. They removed their protective footwear in order not to make noise and crept up on the resting Scots. The "Barefooted Norsemen" found them being scratched and scarred by the prickly flower and cried out in pain, thus awaking the sleeping Scots who then defeated the Norse. Since then the Thistle has been seen as a reminder to all that no one can mess with the Scots without feeling the pain of the Thistle.

So when did the Scottish start using the Thistle as its Emblem? Well the Thistle appeared in coins and drawings both prior to the Norse invasion and after their defeat. The Thistle is believed to have become the official emblem of Scotland during the reign of Alexander III. The Thistle as an emblem was later adopted by King James V as the emblem for the Order of the Thistle, in the 16th Century. The Order of the Thistle was originally to represent the King and 12 of his Knights and was to be modeled after their Savior Jesus Christ and his 12 disciples. The Order of the Thistle was later revised and opened to others including women.

You will see the Thistle in the form of pins, broaches, and Skean Dhu's (Skean Dhu is the knife which is worn in the top of a stocking as part of traditional Scottish highland dress). You will also see it on flags and plaques. The Thistle is often surrounded by the words "Nemo me impune lacessit" which is found on the Order of the Thistle and means "No one harms me without punishment", and reminds us of the Norsemen who tried to attack the sleepy Scots and were stung by the beautiful purple, yet prickly Thistle.



Welsh national flower is usually considered to be the daffodil, which is traditionally worn on St. David's Day. However, the **humble leek** is also considered to be a traditional emblem of Wales, possibly because its colours, white over green, echo the ancient Welsh standard. The **red dragon** of Cadwallader, which is now often used as the national flag of Wales, dates from the 1950s.

St. David is the patron saint of Wales. He was a monk who lived on bread, water, herbs and leeks and died on March 589 A. D. The **leek** had been

recognised as the emblem of Wales since the middle of the 16th century. Its association with Wales can in fact be traced back to the battle of Heathfield in 633 AD, when St. David persuaded his countrymen to distinguish themselves from their Saxon foes by wearing a leek in their caps. It was decided that from 1984, British £1 coins would feature different reverse designs for each of the four parts of the United Kingdom. All £1 coins dated 1985 feature on the reverse the Welsh Leek. Nowadays, the leek is worn on March 1 (St. David's Day—the Welsh national holiday) and at international rugby matches. The **daffodil** is also a Welsh national emblem because its Welsh name is translated as a type of leek.

A favourite souvenir for the tourists is a **Welsh love spoon**. They are made of wood and are carved very beautifully. Originally, they were made by young men as a love token for their sweethearts. There are many different designs demonstrating the skill and love of the hopeful suitor. If the girl kept this present, all was well, but if she sent it back, she did not want him. As in many other customs, the eating of food seems to have a lot to do with the choice of a spoon as a gift. The practice of using a particular utensil to eat led perhaps to the spoons being chosen, first for its utilitarian use, but then as a symbol of a desire to help one's lover. No longer to be used for eating, the spoons were given long handles and could be hung on the wall as reminders or as decorations. Elaborate patterns and intricate designs began to proliferate, and Welsh love spoons began to appear in every conceivable size and shape, and in different kinds of wood.

The **Red Dragon of Wales** (y ddraig goch), although perhaps of Chinese origin, was introduced to Britain by the Romans some eighteen hundred years ago. Initially a military standard, in time this mythical beast developed into the flag of a nation. The Welsh may be the only people to have entered this millennium with the "same" flag as they entered the current one.

Today despite the dominance of its neighbour England, the people of Wales have never ceased to be Welsh. The language culture and flag have all survived. The Welsh flag is seen perhaps now more than ever before in its history. Abroad you will see the Welsh flag still following the Welsh Regiments in the Falklands, in the Gulf and in Bosnia. At home the Welsh flag is to be seen flying in most towns as well on a massive scale at Rugby matches and other national events.



Wales has always been known as a country of **music and song**. As well as the many male-voice choirs and famous rugby match singing, some of the greatest opera singers, like Geraint Evans, and pop singers, like Tom Jones, are also Welsh. Since the 12th century we have records of an annual competition (or **Eisteddfod** [ais'teSvad] in Welsh), which was held to find the best poets, writers and musicians in the country. Originally only professionals took part, but now

the Eisteddfod is open to the public and, because all the events are in Welsh, it encourages a strong interest in the Welsh arts.

Now Eisteddfod is a festival of Welsh culture. It includes competitions in prose, poetry and singing. The Eisteddfod now includes local crafts, orchestral and brass band contests and even ambulance work! Many local communities organize their own Eisteddfod, and the National Eisteddfod is held in August each year, alternately in a northern or a southern town.



1. The Statue of Britannia in Plymouth. Britannia is a national personification of the UK.
2. Britannia, featured on Royal Mint gold bullion coin

Britannia is a national personification of the United Kingdom, originating from Roman Britain. Britannia is symbolised as a young woman with brown or golden hair, wearing a Corinthian helmet and white robes. She holds Poseidon's three-pronged trident and a shield, bearing the Union Flag. Sometimes she is depicted as riding the back of a lion. At and since the height of the British Empire, Britannia has often associated with maritime dominance, as in the patriotic song Rule, Britannia! The lion symbol is depicted behind Britannia on the British fifty pence coin and one is shown crowned on the back of the British ten pence coin. It is also used as a symbol on the non-ceremonial flag of the British Army. The bulldog is sometimes used as a symbol of the United Kingdom and has been associated with Winston Churchill's defiance of Nazi Germany.

I. Places of Interest of the UK

1.1. Westminster Abbey

It is safe to say that the three most famous buildings in England are Westminster Abbey, the Tower of London and St. Paul's Cathedral. Westminster Abbey is a fine Gothic building, which stands opposite the Houses of Parliament. It is the work of many hands and different ages. The oldest part of the building dates from the eighth century. It was a monastery - the West Minster. In the 11th

century Edward the Confessor after years spent in France founded a great Norman Abbey. In 200 years Henry III decided to pull down the Norman Abbey and build a more beautiful one after the style then prevailing in France.



Westminster Abbey is used for the Coronation of all British Monarchs who are also made the head of the Church of England

Since then the Abbey remains the most French of all English Gothic churches, higher than any other English church (103 feet) and much narrower. The towers were built in 1735-1740. One of the greater glories of the Abbey is the Chapel of Henry VII, with its delicate fan vaulting. The Chapel is of stone and glass, so wonderfully cut and sculptured that it seems unreal. It contains an interesting collection of swords and standards of the “Knights of the Bath”. The Abbey is famous for its stained glass.

Since the far-off time of William the Conqueror Westminster Abbey has been the crowning place of the kings and queens of-England. The Abbey is sometimes compared with a mausoleum, because there are tombs and memorials of almost all English monarchs, many statesmen, famous scientists, writers and musicians. If you go past the magnificent tombstones of kings and queens, some made of gold and precious stones, past the gold and-silver banners of the Order of the Garter, which are hanging from the ceiling, you will come to Poets Corner. There many of the greatest writers are buried: Geoffrey Chaucer, Samuel Johnson, Charles Dickens, and Alfred Tennyson, Thomas Hardy and Rudyard Kipling. Here too, though these writers are not buried in Westminster Abbey, are memorials to William Shakespeare and John Milton, Burns and Byron, Walter Scott, William Makepeace Thackeray and the great American poet Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. Here in the Abbey there is also the Tomb of the Unknown Warrior, a symbol of the nation's grief. The inscription on the tomb reads: Beneath this stone rests the body of a British Warrior unknown by name or rank brought from France to lie among the most illustrious of the land. In the Royal Air Force Chapel there is a monument to those who died during the Battle of Britain, the famous and decisive air battle over the territory of Britain in the Second World War.

1.2. St. Paul's Cathedral.

St. Paul's Cathedral is the work of the famous architect Sir Christopher Wren. It is said to be one of the finest pieces of architecture in Europe. Work on Wren's masterpiece began in 1675 after a Norman church, old St. Paul's, was destroyed in

the Great Fire of 1666. For 35 years the building of St. Paul's Cathedral went on, and Wren was an old man before it was finished.



1. Trafalgar Square in London is one of the most famous public places in the United Kingdom.
2. Canterbury Cathedral, one of the oldest and most famous Christian structures in the UK

From far away you can see the huge dome with a golden ball and cross on the top. The interior of the Cathedral is very beautiful. It is full of monuments. The most important, perhaps, is the one dedicated to the Duke of Wellington². After looking round you can climb 263 steps to the Whispering Gallery, which runs round the dome. It is called so, because if someone whispers close to the wall on one side, a person with his hear close to the wall on the other side can hear what is said. But if you want to reach the foot of the ball, you have to climb 637 steps. As for Christopher Wren, who is now known as “the architect of London”, he found his fame only after his death. He was buried in the Cathedral. Buried here are Nelson, Wellington and Sir Joshua Reynolds. Those who are interested in English architecture can study all the architectural styles of the past 500 or 600 years in Cambridge. The Chapel of King's College is the most beautiful building in Cambridge and one of the greatest Gothic buildings in Europe. It is built in the Perpendicular style. Its foundation stone was laid in 1446, but it was completed sixty nine years later. The interior of the Chapel is a single lofty aisle and the stonework of the walls is like lace. The Chapel has a wonderful fan-vaulting which is typical of the churches of that time. We admire the skill of the architects and craftsmen who created all these wonderful buildings.

1.3. The Tower of London.

The Tower on the north bank of the Thames is one of the most ancient buildings of London. It was founded in the 11th century by William the Conqueror. But each monarch left some kind of personal mark on it. For many centuries the Tower has been a fortress, a palace, a prison and royal treasury. It is now a museum of arms and armour, and as one of the strongest fortresses in Britain, it has the Crown Jewels. The grey stones of the Tower could tell terrible stories of violence, and injustice. Many sad and cruel events took place within the walls of the Tower. It was here that Thomas More, the great humanist, was falsely accused and executed. Among famous prisoners executed at the Tower were Henry VIII wives Ann Boleyn and Catherine Howard. When Queen Elizabeth was a princess, she was sent to the Tower by Mary Tudor (Bloody Mary) and kept prisoner for

some time.

The ravens whose forefathers used to find food in the Tower still live here as part of its history. There is a legend that if the ravens disappear the Tower will fall. That is why the birds are carefully guarded. The White Tower was built by William the Conqueror to protect and control the City of London. It is the oldest and the most important building, surrounded by other towers, which all have different names. The Tower is guarded by the Yeomen Warders, popularly called "Beefeaters". There are two letters, E. R., on the front of their tunics. They stand for the Queen's name Elizabeth Regina. The uniform is as it used to be in Tudor times. Their everyday uniform is black and red, but on state occasions they wear a ceremonial dress: fine red state uniforms with the golden and black stripes and the wide lace collar, which were in fashion in the 16th century. Every night at 10 p.m. at the Tower of London the Ceremony of the Keys or locking up of the Tower for the night takes place. It goes back to the Middle Ages. Five minutes before the hour the Headwarder comes out with a bunch of keys and an old lantern. He goes to the guardhouse and cries: "Escort for the keys". Then he closes the three gates and goes to the sentry, who calls: "Halt, who comes there?" The Headwarder replies: "The Keys". "Whose Keys?" demands the sentry? "Queen Elizabeth's Keys", comes the answer. "Advance Queen Elizabeth's Keys. All's well". The keys are finally carried to the "Queen's House" where they are safe for the night. After the ceremony everyone who approaches the gate must give the password or turn away.



1.4. Art Galleries.

If you stand in Trafalgar Square with your back to Nelson's Column, you will see a wide horizontal front in a classical style. It is the National Gallery. It has been in this building since 1838 which was built as the National Gallery to house the collection of Old Masters Paintings (38 paintings) offered to the nation by an English private collector, Sir George Beaumont.

Today the picture galleries of the National Gallery of Art exhibit works of all the European schools of painting The National Gallery which existed between the 13th and 19th centuries. The most famous works among them are "Venus and Cupid" by Diego Velazquez, "Adoration of the Shepherds" by Nicolas Poussin, "A Woman Bathing" by Harmensz van Rijn Rembrandt, "Lord Heathfield" by Joshua Reynolds, "Mrs Siddons" by Thomas Gainsborough and many others. In 1897 the Tate Gallery was opened to house the more modern British paintings. Most of the National Gallery collection of British paintings were transferred to the Tate, and

only a small collection of a few masterpieces is now exhibited at Trafalgar Square. Thus, the Tate Gallery exhibits a number of interesting collections of British and foreign modern painting and also modern sculpture. The collection of Turner's paintings at the Tate includes about 300 oils and 19,000 water-colours and drawings. He was the most traditional artist of his time as well as the most original: traditional in his devotion to the Old Masters and original in his creation of new styles. It is sometimes said that he prepared the way for the Impressionists. The modern collection includes the paintings of Henri Matisse and Pablo Picasso, Marc Chagall and Salvador Dali, Francis Bacon and Graham Sutherland, Peter Blake and Richard Hamilton, the chief pioneers of pop art in Great Britain. Henry Moore is a famous British sculptor whose works are exhibited at the Tate too. One of the sculptor's masterpieces – the “Reclining Figure”- is at the Headquarters of UNESCO in Paris.

II. Famous People Artistic and Cultural Life of the UK

Artistic and cultural life in Britain is rather rich. It passed several main stages in its development. The Saxon King Alfred encouraged the arts and culture. The chief debt owed to him by English literature is for his translations of and commentaries on Latin works.

Art, culture and literature flowered during the Elizabethan age, during the reign of Elizabeth I. It was the period of English domination of the oceans. It was at this time that William Shakespeare lived.



William Shakespeare, famed playwright

The empire, which was very powerful under Queen Victoria, saw another cultural and artistic heyday as a result of industrialization and the expansion of international trade. But German air raids caused much damage in the First World War and then during the Second World War. The madness of the wars briefly interrupted the development of culture. Immigrants who have arrived from all parts of the Commonwealth since 1945 have not only created a mixture of nations, but have also brought their cultures and habits with them. Monuments and traces of past greatness are everywhere. There are buildings of all styles and periods.

A great number of museums and galleries display precious and interesting

finds from all parts of the world and from all stages in the development of nature, man and art. London is one of the leading world centers for music, drama, opera and dance. Festivals held in towns and cities throughout the country attract much interest. Many British playwrights, composers, sculptors, painters, writers, actors, singers and dancers are known all over the world. The British Council promotes knowledge of British culture and literature overseas. It organizes British participation in international exhibitions and encourages professional interchange in all cultural fields between Britain and other countries. The countries that make up the United Kingdom have all long been sources of much prose and verse. The English playwright and poet William Shakespeare is arguably the most famous writer in the English language; other world-famous writers who lived and wrote in the United Kingdom include Daniel Defoe, Sir Walter Scott, Jane Austen, Charles Dickens, the Brontë sisters, Thomas Hardy, Joseph Conrad, Sir Arthur Conan Doyle, H. G. Wells, Virginia Woolf, D. H. Lawrence, J. R. R. Tolkien, George Orwell, Graham Greene and Dylan Thomas. Contemporary British writers include Salman Rushdie and J. K. Rowling. Important playwrights include Christopher Marlowe, Ben Jonson and, more recently Alan Ayckbourn, Harold Pinter and Tom Stoppard. Important poets include Geoffrey Chaucer, John Milton, William Blake, Robert Burns, William Wordsworth, Lord Byron, John Keats, Lord Tennyson, T. S. Eliot, R. S. Thomas, Wilfred Owen, John Betjeman, W. H. Auden and Ted Hughes.

2.1. Inigo Jones and Christopher Wren.

Inigo Jones was the first man to bring the Italian Renaissance style to Great Britain. He had studied in Italy for some years, and in 1615 became Surveyor-General of the works. The style he built in was pure Italian with as few modifications as possible. His buildings were very UN - English in character, with regularly spaced columns along the front. His two most revolutionary designs were the Banqueting House in Whitehall and the Queen's House at Greenwich. The plan of the latter, completely symmetrical, with its strict classical details and the principal rooms on the first floor, influenced architecture in Britain. But not during the life time of Inigo Jones. All those who followed him had to adapt this new foreign building technique to English ways and English climate, English building materials and English craftsmen. Christopher Wren was the man who did it. He was a mathematician, an astronomer and, above all, an inventor. He invented new ways of using traditional English building materials, brick and ordinary roofing tiles, to keep within the limits of classical design. He, like Inigo Jones, was appointed Surveyor-General to the Crown when he was about thirty years old, and almost immediately he started rebuilding the churches of London, burnt down in the Great Fire of 1666. Wren's churches are chiefly known by their beautiful spires which show in their structure the greatest engineering cunning. But Ch. Wren also influenced the design of houses, both in town and in the country. The best-known buildings designed by Ch. Wren are St. Paul's Cathedral in London and the Sheldonian Theatre in Oxford. The period of the Industrial Revolution had no natural style of its own. Businessmen wanted art for their money. The architect was

ta provide a facade in the Gothic style, or he was to turn the building into something like a Norman castle, or a Renaissance palace, or even on Oriental masque. For theatre and opera houses the theatrical Baroque style was often most suitable. Churches were more often than not built in the Gothic style. The twentieth century has seen great changes in Britain's architecture.

2.2. Festivals of Music and Drama

Post-war years have witnessed a significant increase in the number of festivals of music and drama though not enough has been done to involve the general public in these activities. Some of the festivals, however, are widely popular and it is with these that the book deals. A number of other festivals of music and drama, less well known but sufficiently important to be mentioned, are also included in the list below.

2.3. The Bath Festival

The number of festivals held in Britain every summer goes on and on increasing but few are as well established or highly thought of, particularly in the wider European scene, as the Bath Festival. In June when the city is at its most beautiful the festival attracts some of the finest musicians in the world to Bath, as well as thousands of visitors from Britain and abroad.

Under the artistic direction of Sir Michael Tippett, composer, conductor and one of the greatest minds in British music today, the festival presents a programme of orchestral and choral concerts, song and instrumental recitals and chamber music, so well suited to the beautiful 18th - century halls of Bath. The range of music included is wide and young performers are given opportunities to work with some of the leading names in their fields.

But the festival is not all music. The programme usually includes lectures and exhibitions, sometimes ballet, opera, drama, or films, as well as tours of Bath and the surrounding area and houses not normally open to the public, often a costume ball, maybe poetry - the variety is endless. Much goes on in the city at festival time and many organisations produce a bewildering complexity of events to cater for all tastes from bicycle races and beer gardens to a mammoth one-day festival of folk and blues.

2.4. The Welsh Eisteddfod

No country in the world has a greater love of music and poetry than the people of Wales. Today, Eisteddfod is held at scores of places throughout Wales, particularly from May to early November. The habit of holding similar events dates back to early history and there are records of competitions for Welsh poets and musicians in the twelfth century. The Eisteddfod sprang from the Gorsedd, or National Assembly of Bards. It was held occasionally up to 1819, but since then has become an annual event for the encouragement of Welsh literature and music and the preservation of the Welsh language and ancient national customs.

The Royal National Eisteddfod of Wales is held annually early in August, in North and South Wales alternately, its actual venue varying from year to year.

It attracts Welsh people from all over the world. The programme includes male and mixed choirs, brass-band concerts, many children's events, drama, arts and crafts and, of course, the ceremony of the Crowning of the Bard.

Next in importance is the great Llangollen International Music Eisteddfod, held early in July and attended by competitors from many countries, all wearing their picturesque and often colourful national costumes. It is an event probably without parallel anywhere in the world. There are at least twenty-five other major Eisteddfods from May to November.

In addition to the Eisteddfod, about thirty major Welsh Singing Festivals are held throughout Wales from May until early November.

2.5. The Edinburgh Festival

It is a good thing that the Edinburgh Festival hits the Scottish Capital outside term time. Not so much because the University hostels - and students' digs - are needed to provide accommodation for Festival visitors but because this most exhilarating occasion allows no time for anything mundane. It gives intelligent diversion for most of the twenty - four hours each weekday in its three weeks (it is not tactful to ask about Sundays - you explore the surrounding terrain then). The programmes always include some of the finest chamber music ensemble and soloists in the world. There are plenty of matinees; evening concerts, opera, drama and ballet performances usually take place at conventional times - but the floodlit Military Tattoo at Edinburgh Castle obviously doesn't start till after dusk, and late night entertainments and the Festival Club can take you into the early hours of the morning.

In recent years, about 90,000 people have flocked into Edinburgh every year during the three weeks at the end of August and early September. The 90,000, of course, does not include the very large numbers of people who discover pressing reasons for visiting their Edinburgh relations about this time, nor the many thousands who come into the city on day trips from all over the country.

They wouldn't all come, year after year, to a city bursting to capacity if they didn't find the journey eminently worthwhile. They find in Edinburgh Festival the great orchestras and soloists of the world, with top-class opera thrown in; famous ballet companies, art exhibitions and leading drama; the Tattoo, whose dramatic colour inspires many a hurried claim to Scottish ancestry.

Since the Festival started in 1947 as a gesture of the Scottish renaissance against post-war austerity, much has blossomed around it. Every hall in the city is occupied by some diversion: and you may find Shakespeare by penetrating an ancient close off the Royal Mile, or plainsong in a local church. "Fringe" events bring performing bodies from all over Britain and beyond, and student groups are always prominent among them, responsible often for interesting experiments in the drama. Then there is the International Film Festival, bringing documentaries from perhaps 30 countries; Highland Games, and all sorts of other ploys from puppet to photo shows.

2.6. The Art of Acting

From the fall of the Roman Empire until the 10th century, acting hardly existed as an art in Western Europe; only the wandering minstrels gave entertainment in castles and at fairs. In England, the first real actors were amateurs who performed Miracle and Morality plays, which were religious in character. In the Elizabethan age, the first professional theatres were opened. At the time of Shakespeare there were at least six companies of actors. Shakespeare himself joined the Earl of Leicester's company, which under James I became known as the 'King's Men'. There were also companies of boy actors. All the women's parts were played by boys. It was very difficult for most actors to earn a living on the stage, even in a London company, and many of them fell into debt. When Shakespeare arrived in London in 1586, the acting was very crude and conventional. There was almost no scenery, and the actors were dressed in the costumes of their day. But when 'The Globe' was opened to the public in 1599, it started the golden age of the theatre in England.

In the first half of the 17th century the influence of the Puritans was bad for the popular theatre, and it was not before the restoration of the monarchy in 1660 that theatre going again became a popular habit. The most popular plays were comedies. The first part played by an actress was that of Desdemona. Nell Gwynn was the first English actress.

By the beginning of the 18th century the most popular type of play was the sentimental comedy. The acting was artificial probably due to the influence of French actors.

But, later, under the influence of David Garrick and some other actors, acting became much more naturalistic. David Garrick was one of the greatest actors known. But even at his time acting was not very popular. An actor whose acting had offended the audience had to ask pardon on his knees before a full house before he could continue in his profession. During the 19th century acting became more and more naturalistic. Like in Shakespeare's time, the best actors understood the importance of the teamwork of the company. One of the most famous actors of that time was Henry Irving. He was the first actor to be knighted. By the 1920s naturalistic acting reached a peak in the performance of Sir Gerald Du Maurier. He hardly appeared to be acting at all.

At present most acting still continues to be naturalistic. Designers make the settings as realistic as possible. Modern producers and directors Peter Hall, Peter Brook and others are trying out new styles of acting. Some go back to Greek methods, with a revival of the chorus; others are making use of the audience in helping to interpret the play.

2.7. British Drama Theatre Today

Britain is now one of the world's major theatres centres. Many British actors and actresses are known all over the world. They are Dame Peggy Ashcroft, Glenda Jackson, Laurence Olivier, John Gielgud and others.

Drama is so popular with people of all ages that there are several thousand amateur dramatic societies. Now Britain has about 300 professional theatres.

Some of them are privately owned. The tickets are not hard to get, but they are very expensive. Regular seasons of opera and ballet are given at the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden in London. The National Theatre stages modern and classical plays, the Royal Shakespeare Company produces plays mainly by Shakespeare and his contemporaries when it performs in Stratford-on-Avon, and modern plays in its two auditoria in the City's Barbican Centre. Shakespeare's Globe Playhouse, about which you have probably read, was reconstructed on its original site. Many other cities and large towns have at least one theatre.

There are many theatres and theatre companies for young people: the National Youth Theatre and the Young Vic Company in London, the Scottish Youth Theatre in Edinburgh. The National Youth Theatre, which stages classical play mainly by Shakespeare and modern plays about youth, was on tour in Russia in 1989. The theatregoers warmly received the production of Thomas Stearns Eliot's play 'Murder in the Cathedral'. Many famous English actors started their careers in the National Youth Theatre.

III. British Royal Ceremonies.

British people are proud of pageants and ceremonies of the national capital – London. Many of them are world famous and attract numerous tourists from all over the world. They include daily ceremonies and annuals. Changing of the Guard at Buckingham Palace at 11.30 a. m., Ceremony of the Keys at 10 p. m. in the Tower, Mounting the Guard at the Horse Guards Square are most popular daily ceremonies. Of those which are held annually the oldest are the most cherished are: the glorious pageantry of Trooping the Colour, which marks the official birthday of the Queen (the second Saturday in June); Firing the Royal Salute to mark anniversaries of the Queen's Accession on February 6 and her birthday on April 21; opening of the Courts marking the start of the Legal Year in October; and Lord Mayor's Show on the second Saturday in November, when the newly elected Lord Mayor is driven in the beautiful gilded coach pulled by six white horses to take the Royal Court of Justice where he takes his oath of office and becomes second in importance in the City only to the Sovereign (Queen).

3.1. Trooping the Colour

Trooping the colour is one of the most magnificent military ceremonies in Britain and perhaps in the world. It is held annually on the reigning monarch's "official" birthday, which is the second Saturday in June.

Queen Elizabeth II is Colonel – in – Chief of the Household Division of five regiments of foot Guards and two regiments of Mounted Guards. The Trooping marks the official birthday of the Queen and each year the colour (flag) of one of the five regiments of Foot Guards is displayed to the music of massed bands.

The ceremony stemmed from the need of soldiers to recognize the colours of their regiment in battle. The Parade is complex and precise and all seven regiments of the Household division take part, but only one colour is trooped each year.

Wearing the uniform of one of these regiments the Queen leaves

Buckingham Palace and rides down the Mall to the Horse Guards Parade accompanied by the sovereign's Mounted Escort from the two Household Cavalry Units – the Life Guards wearing scarlet tunics with white plumes in their helmets and the Blues and Royals in blue tunics with red Plumes.

Precisely as the clock on the Horse Guards Building strikes 11, the Queen takes the Royal Salute. After inspecting her troops, the sovereign watches a display of marching to the tune of massed bands before the solemn moment when the Colour is trooped by being carried along the motionless ranks of guardsmen lined up to await the Queen. The Colour is then “trooped” or displayed before her.

Afterwards, she returns to the Palace at the head of the Guards deputed to mount the Palace Guard. Royal Family appears on the balcony of Buckingham Palace to acknowledge the fly-past of the Royal Air Forces at 1 p. m. Only one Colour is “trooped” annually, that of each regiment in strict rotation. Originally it was called “lodging” the Colour: each regiment's own Colour being laid up, to music known as a “Troop”.

The five regiments of Foot Guards can be identified by the plumes in their caps or bearskins, and by the spacing of the buttons on their tunics. The Grenadier Guards have white plumes and evenly spaced buttons: the Cold streams, red plumes and buttons in pairs: the Scots Guards, no plumes and buttons in threes: the Irish Guards, blue plumes and buttons in fours: the Welsh Guards, white – and – green plumes and buttons in fives. The Guards have been carrying out their duty of guarding the sovereign since 1660 (the time of the restoration of Monarchy).

3.2. Changing the Guard

The spectacular ceremony of Changing the Guard at Buckingham Palace attracts numerous spectators from the country and tourists from different parts of the world. The Guard is changed at 11.30 a.m. daily. It is formed from one of the regiments of Foot Guards. A band leads the new guard from Wellington or Chelsea barracks to the palace forecourt and after the ceremony it leads the old guard back to their barracks.

The history of the Foot Guards goes back to 1656, when Charles II of England, during his exile in Holland, recruited a small bodyguard, which was merged in the regiment of guards enrolled at the Restoration in 1660. On St. Valentine's Day, 1661, on Tower Hill, what had been the Lord General's Regiment of Foot Guards, formed by Oliver Cromwell in 1650, took its arms as an “extraordinary guard” for the Sovereign. Having marched from Cold stream, near Berwick – upon – Tweed, it acquired the title of the Cold stream Guards. Its motto of *nulli secundus* sufficiently denoted its denial of precedence to the first Guards. The latter acquired their title of Grenadier Guards and their bearskin headdress – later adopted by the rest of the Guards brigade – by virtue of their defeat of Napoleon's grenadier guards at Waterloo.

In 1661 the Scots Fusilier Guards became known for the first time as the Scots Guards. In 1707 they were put on the same footing as the other two Guards

regiments.

In 1900 Queen Victoria, pleased with the fighting quality of the Irish regiments in the South African War, commanded the formation of the Irish Guards. In 1915 the representation nature of the brigade was rounded off by the formation of the Welsh Guards.

The Brigade of Guards serves as a personal bodyguard to the Sovereign. When the Queen is in residence at Buckingham Palace, there is a guard of four sentries. Only two are on duty when she is away from London. When the Queen is in residence at Windsor Castle, another Changing the Guard ceremony takes place in the Quadrangle there at 10 a. m. daily.

3.3. Mounting the Guard.

Mounted Guard takes part in another colourful ceremony which is held at 11 a. m. on weekdays and 10 a. m. on Sundays at the Horse Guards, a square facing Whitehall. The entrance to the Horse Guards is guarded by two mounted troopers who are at their posts daily from 10 a. m. to 4 p. m. The guard is formed by units of the Household Cavalry (Mounted Guard) – the Life Guards and the Royals (the Blues and Royals). When the Queen is in London, an officer, a corporal of horse, 16 troopers and a trumpeter on a grey horse take part in the ceremony. The Royals can be identified by the red plumes on their helmets and by their blue uniforms. The Life Guards wear white plumes and red tunics.

3.4. The Ceremony of the Keys.

Every night at 9.53 p. m. the Chief Warder of the Yeomen Warders (Beefeaters) of the Tower of London lights a candle lantern and then makes his way towards the Bloody Tower. In the Archway his Escort awaits his arrival. The Chief Warder, carrying the keys, then moves off with his Escort to the West Gate, which he locks, while the Escort “presents arms”. Then the Middle and Byward are locked.

The party then returns to the Bloody Tower Archway, and there they are halted by the challenge of the sentry. “Halt!” he commands. “Who goes there?” The Chief Warder answers, “The keys”. The sentry demands, “Whose keys?” “Queen Elizabeth’s keys”, replies the Chief Warder. “Advance, Queen Elizabeth’s keys; all’s well”, commands the sentry.

Having received permission to proceed through the Archway, the party then forms up facing the Main guard of the Tower. The order is given by the officer - in - charge to “Present Arms”. The Chief Warder doffs his Tudor - style bonnet and cries, “God preserve Queen Elizabeth”. “Amen”, answer the Guard and Escort.

At 10 p. m. the bugler sounds the “Last Post” (signal to return). The Chief Warder proceeds to the Queen’s House, where the keys are given into the custody of the Resident Governor and Major.

The Ceremony of the Keys dates back 700 years and has taken place every night during that period, even during the blitz of London in the last war. On one particular night, April 16, 1941, bomb blast disrupted the ceremony, knocking

out members of the Escort and Yeomen Warders. Despite this, the duty was completed. Only a limited number of visitors are admitted to the ceremony each night. Application to see it must be made at least forty – eight hours in advance at the Constable's office in the Tower. Visitors with the permission are admitted at 9.40 p. m. and leave at 10 p. m.

3.5. The Lord Mayor's Show.

The splendid civic event known as the Lord Mayor's show is watched by many thousands of people, who throng the streets of the City of London to see this interesting procession and admire its glittering pageantry. The ceremony is the gesture of pride in the City's history and strength as a world commercial centre. The ceremony seems still more bright and colourful because it is always held on the second Saturday in November when the city is often wrapped in mist or rain.

Its origin dates back more than six hundred years, when it began as a waterborne procession with ornate barges sailing down the river Thames. Dressed in his fur – trimmed scarlet gown, a "Cap Dignity", and wearing the great 5 feet long gold chain of office the newly elected Lord Mayor first watches a cavalcade of decorated floats pass by his stand at his official residence, the Mansion House. Then he steps into his gilded State Coach and takes up his position of honour at the rear of the procession. Accompanied by the Pikemen in their half – armour the Lord Mayor is driven in his Gilded coach from Guildhall, past St. Paul's Cathedral, down Fleet street to the Royal Court of Justice, where he takes his oath of office before the Lord Chief Justice. The tradition of taking oath ("declaration") originated in 1230 during the reign of Henry III and the final declaration was made before the Barons of the Exchequer.

The Lord Mayor's coach, weighing 4 tons and pulled by six horses was built in 1757 and was painted by the famous Florentine painter Giovanni Cipriani. A bodyguard of Pikemen and Musketeers march beside the coach. Many people in the procession wear traditional historic costumes. Each year a theme relating to London life or history is chosen and floats decorated with tableaux on this theme precede the Lord Mayor's coach. The Lord Mayor who is also the City's Chief Magistrate, is selected by the liverymen of the City Companies (guilds). One of the most distinguished of London's Lord Mayors was Dick Whittington (1423) who held office four times. After the oath has been taken, the entire procession returns via Victoria Embankment to the original point of departure.

On the following Monday evening the Lord Mayor gives a splendid Inaugural banquet at Guildhall. This has two traditions – a first course of turtle soup and speech from the Prime minister.

This glittering occasion is attended by many of the most prominent people in the country and is usually televised. The Prime Minister delivers a major political speech and the toast of the hosts on behalf of the guests is proposed by the Archbishop of Canterbury.

Half the cost of the Show and Banquet is paid by the Mayor and the other half is met by the two Sheriffs. One can imagine how high the costs are but a

Lord Mayor regards such financial sacrifices as worthwhile because of the prestige, since in his year of office he is second in importance in the City only to the Sovereign. The official residence of the Lord Mayor in Mansion House, which was designed in Palladian style in the 18th century, but has been altered since. The Guildhall, dating from the 15th century is the place where the Lord Mayor, Alderman and the City fathers conduct the City's affairs. Important banquets and ceremonial occasions are held there. The City has not only its own Mayor, but also its own government and its own police force. Even the sovereign (Queen) has to stop at the City's frontiers until the Lord Mayor allows admittance.

IV. National Dress in Britain

4.1. Scottish National Dress.

Clans and Tartans.

The Gaelic word "clan" means "family" or "descendants" and the great clans of the 16th and 17th centuries were indeed very similar to enormous families, ruled by powerful chiefs. Sometimes there were fierce battles between different clans but nowadays the McDonalds and the McKenzies, the Campbells and the Lindsays all live in peace with each other. It is possible to find people with these surnames in many English-speaking countries, and they all feel they share the same background. The wearing of tartans or coloured checks was common in the Highlands before the defeat by the English in 1745. Originally, the tartan was worn as a single piece of cloth, drawn in at the waist and thrown over the shoulder. The kilt did not become popular until the beginning of the 18th century. Each clan has its own tartan and, since the first international gathering of the clans in 1972, many people have become interested in traditional forms of Scottish dress. Tartans are now part of international fashion. Many people in Scotland have the name McDonald or McKenzie. "Mac" means "son of" and people with this name usually feel they belong to the same family or clan. Campbell or Cameron is other common surnames. Common boys names are; Angus, Donald or Duncan, and girls names are; Morag, Fiona or Jean. The names Jimmy and Jock are so common that many English people call a man from Scotland "a Jimmy" or "a Jock"

One of the most famous national costumes in the world is that worn in Scotland, the kilt; however some people say that the kilt is not as traditional as some would have it. Be that as it may it is certainly what people associate with Scotland, along with whisky and haggis that is. Some people consider it very bad luck to wear a kilt in a tartan that does not belong to your family. Just to remind you should you visit Scotland any time - the men do not wear skirts - they wear kilts – and don't you forget it!

The kilt is a relic of the time when the clan system existed in the Highlands. Everybody in the clan had the same family name, like MacDonald or MacGregor (Mac means "son of"). The clan had its own territory and was ruled by a chieftain. Each clan had its own tartan. The national dress for Scotsmen includes a piper kilt in the tartan cloth of his clan and the sporran, a pouch worn in front of the kilt.



Gentlemen

Today traditional dress for men in Scotland is a kilt with shirt, waistcoat and tweed jacket, stockings with garter flashes, brogue shoes and a sporran. A bonnet is often worn displaying the clan crest.

Ladies

Traditionally ladies don't wear kilts; they do however wear dresses or pleated skirts in a tartan material. More often though they wear a light plaid or shawl of tartan material.

4.2. Welsh National Dress

Welsh National dress is relatively young and not as famous as Scottish National dress. Still they do have a National costume, but it's the way the ladies dress that is most well known, in fact there isn't really a National costume for men although recently through the rise of nationalism in Wales a tartan has been created and tartan trousers or kilts are often worn.



For the ladies the typical Welsh costume consists of a hat, made of black felt, with a high crown and wide brim, which is worn over a lace cap. A red flannel shawl is worn over a crisp white blouse, and a full skirt made of wool with a black and white check pattern and a starched, white apron. Proper Welsh

ladies always wore black woolen stockings and black shoes and carried a basket, made from willow withies.

4.3. Irish National Dress

With the revival of Irish dancing, the traditional Irish costume has become associated with the bright flamboyant costumes worn by traditional Irish dancers.



However in ancient Ireland people were more likely to be seen wearing 'leine' (Irish for shirt), trews (Irish for trousers) and long cloaks fastened with a brooch. All in all there are a lot of myths and legends surrounding many of the so called 'traditional' costumes. Often when you do some real historical research you will find that they aren't that old or traditional.

4.4. English National Dress.

Unfortunately the English don't really have a traditional National Dress as such. In one notorious episode during the Miss World pageant the English contestant came out wearing a Beefeater's costume, it was very embarrassing I can tell you. There have been calls over the years to create a costume, but as usual no-one can decide on what it should look like. Even Henry VIII got in on the act and commissioned an artist called Van Dyck to create an English National Costume, this also failed. So for lack of anything else I will leave you with the following picture of the nearest thing - a Beefeater costume as worn by Miss England



Dressing for the Occasion

When invited to a formal/business function there is nothing worse than discovering you've dressed incorrectly. If you receive an invitation that gives no

indication of dress requirements, telephone your host and ask. The following will guide you on formal wear.

Semi-formal	
Men	Women
• Good quality dark suit. • White shirt, dark tie. • Dark socks and black shoes	• Ballet or cocktail-length dress.
Formal	
• Tuxedo preferred - Dark suit acceptable in some situations. Ask your host. • Do not wear tails	• Long dress
Black Tie	
• Tuxedo (dinner jacket). • White dress shirt, cuff links and studs • Cummerbund (wide silk belt) • Black silk socks • Black patent leather shoes	• Long dress • Sheer stockings • Peau-de-soie pumps (i.e., heavy silk or silk-like material shoes) dyed to match dress or evening sandals
White Tie	
• Tails • White wing shirt, cuff links and studs • White bow tie • White cummerbund or white vest • White gloves (optional) • Black silk socks • Black patent leather shoes	• Long dress • Sheer hose • Peau-de-soie pumps dyed to match dress or evening sandals • Long, white gloves

Play it safe. For the men colourful ties and cummerbunds are not businesslike. For the ladies low-cut, slinky, sexy dresses are not suitable for business functions.

4.5. Music and Musicians

The people living in the British Isles are very fond of music, and it is quite natural that concerts of the leading symphony orchestras, numerous folk groups and pop music are very popular. The Promenade concerts are probably the most famous. They were first held in 1840 in the Queen's Hall, and later were directed by Sir Henry Wood. They still continue today in the Royal Albert Hall. They take place every night for about three months in the summer, and the programmes include new and contemporary works, as well as classics. Among them are symphonies and other pieces of music composed by Benjamin Britten, the famous English musician. Usually, there is a short winter season lasting for about a

fortnight. The audience may either listen to the music from a seat or from the “promenade”, where they can stand or stroll about, or, if there is room, sit down on the floor. Concerts are rarely given out-of-doors today except for concerts by brass bands and military bands that play in the parks and at seaside resorts during the summer. Folk music is still very much alive. There are many folk groups. Their harmony singing and good humor win them friends everywhere. Rock and pop music are extremely popular, especially among younger people. In the 60s and 70s groups such as the Beatles, the Rolling Stones, the Who, Led Zeppelin and Pink Floyd became very popular and successful. The Beatles, with their style of singing new and exciting, their wonderful sense of humor became the most successful pop group the world has ever known. Many of the famous songs written by John Lennon and Paul McCartney are still popular. Some of the more recent pop groups are Oasis, Dire Straits, Eurhythmics, and Spice Girls. British groups often set new trends in music. New stars and styles continue to appear. One of the most popular contemporary musicians and composers is Andrew Lloyd Webber. The musicals and rock operas by A. L. Webber have been a great success both in Britain and overseas. The famous English composer of the 19th century was Arthur Sullivan. Together with William Gilbert, the writer of the texts, he created fourteen operettas of which eleven are regularly performed today. In these operettas the English so successfully laugh at themselves and at what they now call the Establishment that W. S. Gilbert and A. Sullivan will always be remembered.

4.6. The National Musical Instrument of the Scots

The bagpipe was known to the ancient civilizations of the Near East. It was probably introduced into Britain by the Romans. Carvings of bagpipe players on churches and a few words about them in the works of Chaucer and other writers show that it was popular all over the country in the Middle Ages. Now bagpipes can be seen and heard only in the northern counties of England, in Ireland and in Scotland where it was introduced much later.



Bagpipes have been used in most European countries. It is also native to India and China. In Scotland the bagpipe is first recorded in the 16th century during the reign of James 1, who was a very good player, and probably did much to make it popular. For long it has been considered a national Scottish instrument. The sound of the bagpipes is very stirring. The old Highland clans and later the Highland regiments used to go into battle to the sound of the bagpipes. The

bagpipe consists of a reed pipe, the “chanter”, and a wind bag which provide a regular supply of air to the pipe. The wind pipe is filled either from the mouth or by a bellows which the player works with his arm. The chanter has a number of holes or keys by means of which the tune is played.

Questions:

1. What is the Union Jack?
2. What other national emblems do the countries have?
3. What can you say about their history?
4. How did these things become as the national emblems of the countries?
5. What is Eisteddfod?
6. What are the three most famous buildings in England?
7. Which building stands opposite the Houses of Parliament?
8. Whose work is St. Paul's Cathedral?
9. On the north bank of the Thames there is a ...
10. When was built the National Gallery?
11. Name the world-famous writers who lived and wrote in the United Kingdom.
12. Who were Inigo Jones and Christopher Wren?
13. When is held the Royal National Eisteddfod?
14. British Royal Ceremonies are the followings...
15. Whose national dresses are the Clans and Tartans?
16. What is the English's traditional national dress?
17. What is a bagpipe?
18. Tell the similarities and dissimilarities of rugby and soccer.
19. Who invented the speed of table tennis?

THEME 3: HISTORY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

I. British History Timeline	II. The Medieval Period	3.1 Postwar problems
1.2 The Celts	2.1 The Tudor Dynasty	IV. World War II.
1.3 The Roman Period.	2.3 The Growing Empire	V. Decline of the Empire
1.4 The Germanic Invasions, the English Kingdoms	2.4 The Napoleonic Wars	VI. European Unity
	2.5 The Victorian Age	VII. Thatcher
	III. World War I	

Key words: Celtic culture, Roman invasions, forming of Londinium, Germanic Invasions, the English Kingdoms: Essex, Wessex, Angles, Saxons, Kent, Northumbria, spreading of Christianity, Vikings, Norsemen, Medieval Period, English class system, The Tudor dynasty, The Act of Union, Napoleon Bonaparte a man of endless ambitions, Battle of Waterloo, World War I and II, independent

Commonwealth countries, European Unity, Margaret Thatcher is a Conservative Party leader.

I. British History Timeline



These charts above and below cover the most important periods of British history. They show the chief inhabitants or invaders of England till the Middle Ages, then the royal houses of England (until 1603) and of Britain (after 1603). Only monarchs or rulers mentioned in the text appear on the chart.

The Celts	900 B.C.-55 B.C.	
The Romans	55 B.C.-450 A.D.	
The Anglo-Saxons	450-661	Up to (8 th century)
The Viking Invaders	8 th -11 th centuries	
The Normans	1066-1154	William the Conqueror (1066-1087)
The Plantagenet	1154-1399	Henry II (1154-1189) Edward I (1212-1307)
The Houses of York and Lancaster	1399-1485	
The Tudors	1485-1603	Henry VII (1484-1509) Henry VIII (1509-1547) Mary I ('Bloody Mary') (1553-1558) Elizabeth I (1558-1603)
The Stuarts (The Civil War)	1603-1649 1628-1649)	James I (1603-1625) Charles I (1625-1649)
The Republic	1649-1660	Oliver Cromwell (1649-1660)
The Stuarts	1660-1714	William and Mary (1688-1702)
The Hanoverians	1714-1901	George I, II, III, IV (1714-1830) ('Georgian period') Victoria (1837-1901) ('Victorian' period)
The House of Saxe- Coburg	1901-1910	Edward VII (1901-1910) ('Edwardian' period)
The House of Windsor	1910-	Elizabeth II (1952-)

1. Old English AD 5-6th Centuries Anglo-Saxon [Germanic tribes of Jutes, Saxons, and Angles] overran all England except Cornwall and Cumberland. They formed Independent kingdoms including Northumbria, Mercia, Kent, Wessex. The Celts were forced to move north and west. St. Augustine converted C.597 England to Christianity. Many religious terms were borrowed from Latin. 9-10th The Danes and Norwegians invaded North and East England and introduced many Norse words into the English language. It was the languages of Anglo-Saxon and then Danes that formed the basis of the English Language.

2. Middle English 11-15th Norman Conquest. England passed into French hands under William the Conqueror. French was used as the language of government business and the ruling classes for 300 years.

3. Early Modern 15-16th 1475 the spread of printing, which helped to English, stabilize the written language. In 1525 New Testament was translated into English. The revival of interest in Classical Latin and Greek led to many learned words being introduced into English. 1536-1543 Acts of Union united England and Wales after conquest.

4. Later M.E. 18-19th 1707 Act of Union between England and Scotland under Queen Anne. The countries became known as GB. 1755 First major English dictionary was published. Samuel Johnson writes it. It attempted to fix and refine the Language further. The growth of British colonial power led to the spread of English as a world language and many varieties of English appeared in North America, South Africa, and Australia.

5. Present day English 20th Present day English is an international language spoken in most parts of the world.

1.2. The Celts

Two thousand years ago there was an Iron Age Celtic culture throughout the British Isles. It seems that the Celts, who had been arriving from Europe from the eighth century BC onwards, intermingled with the people who were already there. We know that religious sites that had been built long before of the arrival of the Celts continued to be used in the Celtic period.

For people in Britain today, the chief significance of the prehistoric period (for which no written records exist) is its sense of mystery. This sense finds its focus most easily in the astonishing monumental architecture of this period, the remains of which exist throughout the country. Wiltshire, in southwestern England, has two spectacular examples: Silbury Hill, the largest burial mound in Europe and Stonehenge. Such places have a special importance for anyone interested in the cultural and the religious practices of prehistoric Britain. We know very little of these practices. But there are some organizations today (for example the Order of Bards, Ovate and Druids – a small group of eccentric intellectuals and mystics who base their beliefs on them

1.3. The Roman Period.

In 55 B.C. the Roman people conquered Britain. The Romans imposed their

own way of life and culture, making use of the existing Celtic aristocracy to govern and encouraging this ruling class to adopt Roman life style and the Roman language (Latin). The Roman province of Britannia covered most of present-day England and Wales. They exerted an influence without actually governing there over only the southern part of Scotland. It was during this time that a Celtic tribe called the Scots migrated from Ireland to Scotland, where they became allies of the Picts (another Celtic tribe and opponents of the Romans. This division of the Celts into those who experienced direct Roman rule (the Britons in England and Wales) and those who did not (the Gaels in Ireland and Scotland) may help to explain the development of two distinct branches of the Celtic group of languages.

The remarkable thing about the Romans is that, despite their long occupation of Britain, they left very little behind. To many other parts of Europe, they bequeathed a system of law and administration, which forms the basis of the modern system and a language, which developed into the modern Romance family of languages. In Britain, they left neither. More over, most of their villas, baths and temples, their impressive network of roads, and the cities they founded, including Londinium (London), were soon destroyed or fell into disrepair. Almost the only lasting reminder of their presence is place-names like Chester, Lancaster and Gloucester, which include variants of the Roman word castra (a military camp)

1.4. The Germanic Invasions, the English Kingdoms



One reason why Roman Britain disappeared so quickly is probably that its influence was largely confined to the towns. In the countryside, where most people lived, farming methods had remained unchanged and Celtic speech continued to be dominant.

The Roman occupation had been a matter of colonial control rather than large-scale settlement. But, the people could not keep their land free for a long time. In the early 5th century a number of the Germanic tribes from northwestern Europe invaded to England and settled in large numbers. The Angles, Saxons and Jutes attacked the coasts of Britain. After long wars with the Britons they settled on the British Isles. The Britons fought bravely against the enemies and defeated their land. But the enemies were stronger. They took houses, fields and cattle from the Britons.

Two of these tribes the Angles and the Saxons had the southeast of the country in their grasp. In the west of the country their advance was temporarily holded by an army of (Celtic) Britons under the command of the legendary King

Arthur. Nevertheless, by the end of the sixth century, they and their way of life predominated in nearly all of England and in parts of southern Scotland. The Celtic Britons were either Saxonized or driven westwards, where the language survived in southwest Scotland Cornwall.

The Angels got most of the land and became the strongest tribe. The Britons went to the mountains in the west of the Isles and settled there. This part of Britain is called Wales now. Later the 2 peoples the Angels and the Saxons grew into one and were called Anglo-Saxons. They called their speech English and their country Angleland later England, that is the Land of the English, The Anglo-Saxons formed many Kingdoms like Kent, Essex, Wessex, East Anglia, Sussex, Nothumbria, Mercia. They are countries of Great Britain now. These kingdoms were at war with each other. The stronger kings took the land from the weaker kingdoms.

The Anglo-Saxons had little use for towns and cities. But they had a great effect on the countryside where they introduced new farming methods and founded villages which formed the basis of English society for the next thousand or so years.

The Anglo-Saxons were pagan when they came to Britain. Christianity spread throughout Britain from two different directions during the sixth and seventh centuries, it came directly from Rome when St. Augustine arrived in 597 and established his headquarters at Canterbury in the south-east of England, and it had already been introduced into Scotland and northern England from Ireland, which had become Christian more than 150 years earlier. Although Roman Christianity eventually took over the whole of the British Isles, the Celtic model persisted in Scotland and Ireland for several hundred years. It was less centrally organized, and had less need for a strong monarchy to support it. This partly explains why both secular and religious power in these two countries continued to be both more locally based and less secure than it was elsewhere in Britain throughout the medieval period.

Britain experienced another wave of Germanic invasions in the eighth century. These invaders, known as **Vikings, Norsemen or Danes**, came from Scandinavia. The Anglo-Saxons fought fiercely against them and they were confined to northern England, in an area that became known as the Dane law. In the ninth century Vikings settled the extreme north and west of Scotland, and also some coastal regions of Ireland. Their conquest of England was halted when King Alfred of the Saxon kingdom of Wessex defeated them. This resulted in an agreement which divided England between Wessex, in the south and west, and the 'Danelaw' in the north and east. By the 10th century all of England, except the Dane law, was one kingdom under the kings of Wessex. In 1066, one of the most famous dates in English history, England was again invaded, and William the Conqueror, a Norman duke, defeated King Harold II at the Battle of Hastings to become king. Shortly afterwards, a survey of land ownership was carried out in order to calculate the value of lands belonging to king and his barons (=lords), and the results were recorded in the Domes day Book.

However the cultural differences between Anglo-Saxons and Danes were

comparatively small. They led roughly the same way of life and spoke to varieties of the same Germanic tongue (which combined to form the basis of modern English). Moreover, the Danes soon converted to Christianity. These similarities made political unification easier, and by the end of the tenth century England was one kingdom with a Germanic culture throughout. Most of modern-day Scotland was also united by this time, at least in name, in a (Celtic) Gaelic kingdom.

Houses and Homes through History

Celtic	Roman	Saxon	Viking	Tudor	Georgian	Victorian	Today
							
500 BC	AD 43	450	793	1485	1714	1837	1990+

II. The Medieval Period (1066-1485)

The successful Norman invasion of England in 1066 brought Britain into the main stream of western European culture. Previously most links had been with Scandinavia. Only in Scotland did this link survive; the western isles (until the thirteenth century) and the northern islands (until the fifteenth century) remaining under the control of Scandinavian kings. Throughout this period the English kings also ruled over areas of land on the continent and were often at war with the French kings in disputes over ownership.

Unlike the Germanic invasions, the Norman invasion was small-scale. There was no such thing as a Norman village, or area of settlement. Instead, the Norman soldiers who had been part of the invading army were given the ownership of land and of the people living on it. A strict feudal system was imposed. Great nobles, or barons, were directly responsible to the king. Under them were peasants tied by a strict system of mutual duties and obligations to the local lord and forbidden to travel without his permission. The peasants were French speaking Saxons. The lords and the barons were the French-speaking Normans. This was the beginning of the English class system.

The strong system of government, which the Normans introduced, meant that the Anglo-Norman kingdom was easily the most powerful political force in the British Isles. Not surprisingly therefore, the authority of the English monarch gradually extended to other parts of these islands in the next 250 years. By the end of the thirteenth century, a large part of eastern Ireland was controlled by Angle Norman lords in the name of the English king and the whole of Wales were under his direct rule (at which time the custom of naming the monarch's eldest son the 'Prince of Wales' began). Scotland managed to remain politically independent in the medieval period, but was obliged to fight occasional wars to do so.

The cultural story of this period is different. Two hundred and fifty years after the Norman Conquest, it was a Germanic language (Middle English) and not the Norman French) language which had become the dominant one in all classes of society in England. Furthermore, it was the Anglo-Saxon concept of common law, and not Roman law, which formed the basis of the legal system.

Despite English rule, Saxon or Norman never settled northern and central Wales in great numbers. As a result the (Celtic) Welsh language and culture remained strong. Eisteddfods, national festivals of Welsh song and poetry, continued throughout the medieval period and still take place today. The Anglo-Norman lords of eastern Ireland remained loyal to the English king but, despite laws to the contrary, mostly adopted the Gaelic language and customs.

The political independence of Scotland did not prevent a gradual switch to English language and customs in the lowland (southern) part of the country. First, the Anglo Saxon element here was strengthened by the arrival of many Saxon aristocrats fleeing the Norman Conquest of England. Second, the Celtic kings saw that the adoption of an Anglo-Norman style of government would strengthen royal power. By the end of this period a cultural split had developed between the lowlands, where the way of life and language was similar to that in England, and the highlands, where (Celtic; Gaelic culture and language prevailed – and where, because of the mountainous landscape, the authority of the king was hard to enforce the English monarch increased in this period. The strength of the great barons had been greatly weakened by the Wars of the Roses. Bubonic plague (known in England as the Black Death) contributed to the reduction of their power. It killed about a third of the population in its first outbreak in England in the middle of the 14th century and continued to reappear periodically for another 300 years. The shortage of labor which this caused, and the increasing importance of trade in the towns, helped to weaken the traditional ties between feudal lord and peasant.

2.1. The Tudor dynasty (1485 – 1603) established a system of government departments, staffed by professionals who depended for their position on the monarch. As a result, the feudal barons were no longer needed for implementing government policy. Parliament was traditionally split into two ‘Houses’. The House of Lords consisted of the feudal aristocracy and the leaders of the Church; the House of Commons consisted of representatives from the towns and the less important landowners in rural areas. It was now more important for monarchs to get the agreement of the Commons for policy-making because that was where the newly powerful merchants and landowners (the people with the money) were represented.

Unlike in much of the rest of Europe, the direct cause of the rise of Protestantism in England was political and personal rather than doctrinal. Henry VIII wanted a divorce, which the Pope would not give him. Also, by making himself head of the ‘Church of England’, independent of Rome, all church lands came under his control and gave him a large new source of income.

This rejection of the Roman Church accorded with a new spirit of patriotic confidence in England. The country had finally lost any realistic claim to lands in France, thus becoming more consciously a distinct ‘island nation’. At the same time, increasing European exploration of the Americas and other parts of the world meant that England was closer to the geographical center of western civilization instead of being, as previously, on the edge of it. It was in the last

quarter of this adventurous and optimistic century that Shakespeare began writing his famous plays.

It was therefore patriotism as much as religious conviction that had caused Protestantism to become the majority religion in England by the end of the century. It took a form known as Anglicanism, which was not so very different from Catholicism in its organization and ritual. But in the lowlands of Scotland it took a more idealistic form. Calvinism, with its strict insistence on simplicity and its dislike of ritual and celebration, became the dominant religion. It is from this date that the stereotype of the dour, thrifty Scot developed. However, the Scottish highlands remained Catholic. There, Protestantism was identified with the English, who at that time were making further attempts to control the whole of the country.

2.2. The Growing Empire.

In the late 1600, Britain and France had begun to challenge each other for commercial and colonial control of North America. Troops, traders, and settlers of both nations battled in the New World. British and French trading companies also competed for control in India. In Europe, Britain had fought France in a series of wars. But none of these conflicts had settled the rivalry between the two countries. Another war was inevitable. The Act of Union 1800 united the Kingdom of Great Britain with the Kingdom of Ireland, which had been gradually brought under English control between 1541 and 1691, to form the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Independence for the now Republic of Ireland in 1922 followed the partition of the island of Ireland two years previously, with six of the nine counties of the province of Ulster remaining within the UK, which then changed to the current name in 1927. The dominant industrial and maritime power of the 19th century, the United Kingdom is often credited with being the nation that "created the modern world", by playing a leading role in developing Western ideas of property, capitalism, and parliamentary democracy as well as making significant contributions to literature, the arts, and science and technology. At its zenith, the British Empire stretched over one-quarter of the Earth's surface and encompassed a third of its population, making it the largest empire in history. The first half of the 20th century, however, saw the Empire's strength seriously depleted from the effects of World War I and World War II. The second half witnessed the dismantling of the Empire and the United Kingdom rebuilding itself into the modern, prosperous, and technologically advanced nation it is today.



The British Empire in 1897.

2.3. The Napoleonic Wars.

The French Revolution began in 1789. At first, many British approved the revolution as a triumph of liberty for the French people. But they changed their mind after the revolution grew more violent. Then the new French government seized Belgium and threatened the Netherlands. In 1793, Britain and France again went to war.

Beginning in 1799, Napoleon Bonaparte, a man of endless ambitions, led the French. At the height of his glory in 1812, Napoleon controlled most of Europe. In 1803, he began a plan to invade Britain. But in 1805, Admiral Horatio Nelson of Britain won a great victory over the French and Spanish fleets at Trafalgar, off the southern coast of Spain. The Battle of Trafalgar crushed Napoleon's naval power and ended all his hopes of invading Britain. Napoleon next tried to defeat Britain by striking at its dependence on trade. He ordered all countries under his control to close their markets to Britain. Britain struck back with a naval blockade of France and its allies. But British interference with United States shipping brought on the War of 1812 between Britain and the United States. Napoleon was finally defeated in 1815 in the Battle of Waterloo.

2.4. The Victorian Age.

In 1837, an 18-year-old woman named Victoria became queen. She reigned for 63 years, until 1901—the longest reign in British history. This period is called the Victorian Age. During this period, the British Empire reached its height. It included about a quarter of the world's land and about a quarter of the world's people. Wealth poured into Britain from its colonies. British industry continued to expand, and the country was called the workshop of the world. Railways and canals covered Britain, and telephone and telegraph lines linked the big cities. Literature and science flourished.

III. World War I

World War I began in 1914. The Allies—Britain, France, the United States, and other countries—fought the Central Powers—Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire, and Bulgaria. The war was caused chiefly by political and economic rivalry among the various nations. Part of this rivalry was between Britain and Germany. German industry was growing rapidly, and Germany also had built a powerful navy.

Britain entered the war on Aug. 4, 1914, after German troops invaded neutral Belgium on their way to attack France. The fighting lasted until 1918, when the Allies finally defeated Germany.

The war had a shattering effect on Britain. About 750,000 members of the British armed forces died. German submarines sank almost 8 million short tons (7 million metric tons) of British shipping. The war also created severe economic problems for Britain and shook its position as a world power.

3.1. Postwar problems.

British industry thrived briefly after World War I, but the prosperous times

ended in 1920. During the war, Britain's factories produced war goods, and the country lost some of its markets to competitors. Two of Britain's best customers before the war—Germany and Russia—could not afford its goods after the war. In addition, the United States and Japan had taken much of its export business. With the decline in foreign trade, a depression swept Britain.

Meanwhile, the Irish question had become explosive. In 1919, Irish leaders declared Ireland independent. In 1921, southern Ireland agreed to become a British dominion. That is, it would be a self-governing member of the British Empire, while maintaining its allegiance to the Crown. The new dominion was called the Irish Free State. Most of the people of Northern Ireland were Protestants, and they did not want to be part of the Roman Catholic Irish Free State. Northern Ireland remained in the United Kingdom, which was renamed the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

IV. World War II.

In March 1939, Germany seized the rest of Czechoslovakia. On September 1, Germany invaded Poland and World War II began. Two days later, Britain and France declared war on Germany. In April 1940, German troops invaded Denmark and Norway. Chamberlain resigned on May 10, and Churchill became prime minister. That same day, Germany attacked Belgium, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands and advanced toward France.

Churchill told the British people he had nothing to offer but "blood, toil, tears, and sweat" to win "victory at all costs." Germany conquered France in June, and Britain stood alone against the Nazi war machine.

Britain prepared for invasion, and Churchill urged the British people to make this "their finest hour." He inspired them to heights of courage, unity, and sacrifice. Hundreds of German planes bombed Britain nightly. German submarines tried to cut Britain's lifeline by torpedoing ships bringing food and other supplies to the island country. Severe rationing limited each person's share of food, clothing, coal, and oil. The British refused to be beaten, and Hitler gave up his invasion plans.

In June 1941, Germany invaded the Soviet Union. In December, Japan attacked Pearl Harbor, in Hawaii, and the United States entered the war. Britain, the United States, the Soviet Union, and the other Allies finally defeated Germany and Japan in 1945. Near the end of the war, Britain helped establish the United Nations. About 360,000 British servicemen, servicewomen, and civilians died in the war. Great sections of London and other cities had been destroyed by German bombs. The war had shattered Britain's economy. The United States and the Soviet Union came out of the war as the world's most powerful nations.

V. Decline of the Empire.

World War II sealed the fate of the British Empire, though Britain had begun loosening control over its empire earlier. In 1931, Britain granted independence within the empire to Australia, Canada, the Irish Free State, New Zealand, Newfoundland, and South Africa. These countries became the first members of

the Commonwealth of Nations, an association of countries and dependencies that succeeded the empire.

After World War II, the peoples of Africa and Asia increased their demands for independence. Britain could no longer keep control of its colonies. In 1947, India and Pakistan became independent nations within the Commonwealth. In 1948, Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) became an independent Commonwealth country. That same year, Burma achieved independence—and left the Commonwealth. In 1949, the Irish Free State declared itself the independent Republic of Ireland and also left the Commonwealth. That same year, Newfoundland became a province of Canada.

VI. European Unity.

While Britain was breaking up its empire during the postwar years, other nations of Western Europe joined together in various organizations to unite economically and politically. Britain was reluctant to join them. Throughout history, Britain had preferred to stay out of European affairs—except to keep the balance of power in Europe. By joining the new organizations, Britain feared it might lose some of its independence and felt it would also be turning its back on the Commonwealth.

In the years after World War II, Britain's foreign policy was closely allied with that of the United States. Britain joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)—a defense alliance of European and North American nations—and fought in the Korean War (1950-1953).

VII. Thatcher.

Elections in 1979 returned the Conservatives to power. Conservative Party leader Margaret Thatcher replaced Callaghan as prime minister. She became the first woman ever to hold the office. She served as prime minister for the next 11 years, longer than any other person in the 1900s.

As prime minister, Thatcher worked to reduce government involvement in Britain's economy. For example, the government sold its interests in many industries to private citizens and businesses. The government also sold thousands of public-housing units to their tenants, promoting home ownership. Direct taxes were reduced.

In 1982, Thatcher won praise for her decisive handling of a conflict with Argentina. Since 1833, Britain has ruled the Falkland Islands, which lie about 320 miles (515 kilometers) east of the southern coast of Argentina. But Argentina has long claimed ownership of the islands. In April 1982, Argentine troops invaded and occupied the Falklands. Britain then sent troops, ships, and planes to the islands. British and Argentine forces fought air, sea, and land battles for control of the Falkland Islands. The Argentine forces surrendered to Britain in June 1982.

In 1985, Thatcher and Prime Minister Garret Fitzgerald of Ireland signed the Anglo-Irish Agreement, an agreement that established an advisory conference for Northern Ireland. The conference, consisting of officials of Britain and Ireland,

gave Ireland an advisory role in Northern Ireland's government.

By the mid-1980s, Britain's productivity had improved, but unemployment, inflation, and other economic problems continued. During the late 1980s, unemployment declined, but inflation began to rise. Britain was importing more than it exported. Roads, hospitals, and schools were declining through lack of public investment. The number of homeless people was increasing. In 1990, the economy entered a recession and the unemployment rose.

Questions:

1. Name the periodical division of the British history.
2. Who were the first settlers in British Isles?
3. Who built the British Kingdoms?
4. How the British Empire came into existence?
5. What was the role of Britain in the World Wars?
6. Who was Margaret Thatcher?
7. Speak about the Battle of Waterloo.
8. What can you say about Napoleon Bonaparte?
9. The Act of Union, European Union, What are they?
10. Who built the Tudor dynasty and speak about it.

Theme 4: STATE STRUCTURE, GOVERNMENT OF THE UK

I. Legislation (Parliament).

- 1.1. The House of Lords
- 1.2. The House of Commons

II. Prime Minister.

III. Local Governments

VI. Judicial Branches

- 4.1. Courts in England and Wales

- 4.2. Courts in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

V. Elections and Political Parties

- 5.1. The Conservative Party.
- 5.2. The Liberal Democrats and the Labor Party.
- 5.3. General Elections.

Key words: Britain is a constitutional monarchy; Parliament is responsible for making laws; the Lords can suggest changes in laws; the House of Commons is the main place where new laws are examined; the king or queen could choose anyone they liked to be chief; Britain is divided into small geographical areas; there are several types of courts in GB; elections and political parties: conservative, liberal democrats, labor parties.

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 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.



I. Legislation (Parliament).

In the United Kingdom the institution responsible for making laws, discussing major issues affecting the country and raising taxes is called Parliament. The word Parliament comes from "parley", a discussion. The British Parliament is one of the oldest in the world and is the most important part of Britain's system of government. It meets in the Palace-of Westminster, beside the River Thames in London, This is also known as the Houses of Parliament. The main functions of Parliament are: to pass laws; to provide, by voting taxation, the means of carrying on the work of government; to scrutinize government policy and administration; to debate the major issues of the day. In carrying out these functions Parliament helps to bring the relevant facts and issues before the electorate. By custom, Parliament is also informed before all-important international treaties and agreements are ratified.

A Parliament has a maximum duration of five years, but in practice general elections are usually held before the end of this term. Parliament is dissolved and rights for a general election are ordered by the Queen on the advice of the Prime Minister. The life of a Parliament is divided into sessions. Each usually lasts for one year – normally beginning and ending in October or November. The adverse number of "sitting" days in a session is about 168 in the House of Commons and about 150 in the House of Lords. At the start of each session the Queen's speech to Parliament outlines the Government's policies and proposed legislative programme.

Parliament consists of three parts the monarchy (the King or Queen), the House of Lords, and the House of Commons. The monarchy is much older than Parliament itself. Since 1066 there have been 35 Kings and 5 Queens. However, since 1689 the monarch's power has been reduced by Parliament. Today, viridian constitutional monarchy, this means that although the King or Queen exists, he or

she does not make any major political decisions.

The Queen is involved in some acts of government, including summoning and dissolving (=ending) parliament, and giving the royal assent (=final stage) to new laws. She also formally appoints the Prime Minister, senior ministers, judges and diplomats. She is expected to be completely impartial and not to support any political party. Instead, the monarch acts on the advice of government minister's. Even the important speech the King or Queen Reads at the opening of each new Session of Parliament is written by the Prime Minister. Nevertheless, the current monarch, Queen Elizabeth, does have some influence. Her opinions on important subjects can affect the way the Government acts; though she rarely expresses them publicly.



Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II.
The Mall looking onto Buckingham Palace, the official residence of the British Monarch

When the Queen was born on 21 April 1926, her grandfather, King George V, was on the throne and her uncle was his heir. The death of her grandfather and the abdication of her uncle (King Edward VIII) brought her father to the throne in 1936 as King George VI. Elizabeth II came to the throne on 6 February 1952 and was crowned on 2 June 1953. Since then she made many trips to different countries and to the UK also. The Queen is very rich, as are other members of the royal family. In addition, the government pays for her expenses as Head of the State, for a royal yacht, train and aircraft as well as for the upkeep of several palaces. The Queen's image appears on stamps, notes and coins.

1.1. The House of Lords is the older of the two Houses of Parliament and was originally made up of nobles who advised the King. There are 780 members of House of Lords but today the average daily attendance is less than 400. These members are not elected, but have inherited their seats from their fathers or been given them by the Government. Members of the Royal Family, bishops of the Church and important law judges can also sit in the House of Lords.

The House of Lords consists of the Lords Spiritual and the Lords Temporal. The Lords Spiritual are the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, and the 24 next most senior bishops of the Church of England. The Lords Temporal consists of all hereditary peers of England, Scotland, Great Britain and the United Kingdom;

all other life peers. Peerages, both hereditary and life are created by the Sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister. They are usually granted in recognition of service in politics or other walks of life. The Lords Temporal consisted of 758 hereditary peers and 408 life peers. The House is presided over by the Lord Chancellor, who takes his place on the woolsack as the Speaker of the House.



The Palace of Westminster, seat of the two houses of the Parliament of the United Kingdom—the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

The division of Parliament into two Houses goes back over some 700 years when feudal assembly ruled the country. In modern times, real political power rests in the elected House although members of the House of Lords still occupy important cabinet posts.

The Lords can suggest changes in laws, but it cannot reject laws that the Commons wants to pass.

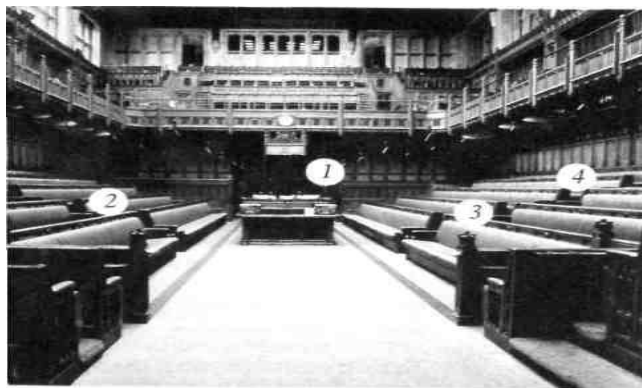
1.2. The House of Commons first met in the thirteenth century when towns sent representatives to the King to vote on new taxes, the name 'common' means 'ordinary, not noble or royal'.

The modern House of Commons consists of 651 Members of Parliament (MPs) who are all elected by voters in each of Britain's 651 parliamentary constituencies. These MPs come from several different political parties, but the majority of them belong to either the Conservative or the Labor party. The House of Commons is the main place where new laws are examined, debated and passed. The chamber in which the MPs meet is quite small. In fact, it has benches for only 437 so when there is an important debate it is very crowded. The chairman of the Commons, called the Speaker, sits in the centre at the back on a high chair and makes sure that the rules of the House are followed. The party which is in government (the one which has the most MPs elected) sits on the benches to the right of the Speaker. The main opposition party sits opposite. There are two red lines on the floor in front of the benches. MPs must not cross these during a debate. This is one of many historical traditions in the British Parliament; MPs used to carry swords into the chamber and the distance between the two red lines is too wide for a sword fight! Today, the only weapons allowed in the chamber are words. However, the Speaker frequently has to shout "Order! Order!" to control the MPs. Below the Speaker's chair there is a large table. This is where the Prime Minister and other ministers stand when they make speeches to the House. MPs that hold government positions sit on the benches at the front and are

called 'frontbenchers'. MPs that do not hold any office with the Government or the main-opposition party sit behind them and are called 'backbenchers'. In spite of the fact that the British parliamentary system has been the model for many other countries, some people believe that it should be reformed.



They think that the monarchy is old-fashioned and expensive and that the unelected House of Lords is undemocratic. MPs in the Commons are also frequently criticized for following the orders of their parties and not properly representing the people in their constituencies as the world enters the 21st century,



has the time come for change.

- 1 The Speaker's chair - he keeps order during debates.
- 2 The Government sits here. Cabinet Ministers sit on the Front Bench.
- 3 The Opposition sits on this side. The Shadow Cabinet faces the Cabinet.
- 4 Other MPs sit here according to their party.

II. Prime Minister

Originally, the king or queen could choose anyone they liked to be chief or "Prime" Minister, and for a longtime, 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.

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 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.

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.

III. 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 powers given to them by central government.



Manchester Town Hall, used for the local governance of Manchester,
is an example of Victorian era Gothic revival architecture.

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.

IV. The Judicial Branch.

For historical reasons a different system of laws is used in Scotland from that in England and Wales. Northern Ireland law is similar to that in England.

Civil and Criminal Law. Civil law concerns disagreements between individuals over rights and responsibilities. Many civil cases relate to business contracts. The *plaintiff* (=the person who claims to have been wronged accused) in the hope of winning *damages* (=a financial payment) or an *injunction* (=a court order preventing the defendant from doing something that is causing harm). Taking a case to court is expensive, but people who do not have enough money may qualify for legal aid. A basic principal of law in Britain is that anyone accused is innocent until proved guilty, so it is the job of the prosecution to prove beyond reasonable doubt that the defendant has broken the law as stated in the charge. If this cannot be proved the accused person must be acquitted (=allowed to go free, with no blame attached).

4.1. Courts in England and Wales.

Every town has a **Magistrates' Court**, where minor cases are judged and more serious cases are examined briefly before being passed to higher courts. Three magistrates called **Justices of the Peace**, who are specially trained members of the public advised by a legally qualified clerk, hear cases. Young people under 17 are sent to special **juvenile courts**.

More serious criminal cases are heard in the **Crown Court**, which sits at a number of towns in England and Wales. A judge and a jury hear cases. At the end of a trial the jury decides whether the defendant is guilty or not guilty. If the verdict is "guilty" the judge decides the punishment.



The Royal Courts of Justice of England and Wales.

Minor civil cases, such as divorce and bankruptcy proceedings, are heard in the **County Court**. More serious cases are heard in the High Court and Justice. This is divided into the Chancery Division, the Queen's Bench and the Family Division. One or more judges sitting together hear cases. Appeals against decisions of the County Courts also go to the High Court.

Appeals from the Crown Court or the High Court go to the **Court of Appeal**. A few cases in which a question of law is in doubt are passed often on to the House Lords. Here the Lord Chancellor and Lords of Appeal, often called law-lords, make a final decision.

4.2. Courts in Scotland and Northern Ireland.



The High Court of Justiciary—the supreme criminal court of Scotland.

Members of the public called law justices hear criminal cases in Scotland in District Courts. More serious cases go to regional **sheriff courts**, and are heard by the sheriff and a jury. Juries in Scotland can give a verdict of guilty or not guilty, or decide that the case is not proven. This verdict is given when there is not sufficient evidence to convict the accused but when it is probably that he or she is guilty. Appeals go to the High Court of Justifier in Edinburgh.

Civil cases begin in the sheriff court and may go on appeal to the Court of Session. This is divided into two Houses. The **Inner House** hears appeals from the sheriff courts, while the **Outer House** hears cases that were too serious to go to sheriff court.

In "Northern Ireland magistrates hear minor cases. County Courts hear most civil cases and **Crown Courts** most serious criminal cases. They also act as courts of appeal from the Magistrates' Courts. The higher court in "Northern Ireland is the **Supreme Court of Judicature**.



Parliament House, Edinburgh is the seat of the supreme courts of Scotland
Parliament Buildings in Stormont, Belfast, seat of the Northern Ireland Assembly

V. Elections and Political Parties.

Political parties first emerged in Britain at the end of the 17th century. The Conservative and Liberal parties are the oldest and until the end of the 19th century they were the only parties elected to the House of Commons. The main British political groupings are the Conservative and Labour Parties and the Party of Liberal Democrats. The Conservative Party is the present ruling party, the Labour Party-the opposition to the Conservative-and the party of Liberal Democrats is called 'conservatively oriented'. The Social Democratic Party was formed in 1981 and made an alliance with the Liberal Party in 1988. There are also some other parties: the Scottish National and Welsh Nationalist Parties, the Communist Party of Britain and the Communist Party of Great Britain. Because of the electoral method in use, only two major parties obtain seats in the House of Commons. People belonging to smaller political parties join one of the larger parties and work from within to make their influence felt. The exception to this are members of the Scottish National and Welsh Nationalist Parties, who, because their votes are concentrated in specific geographical areas, can manage to win seats although their total support is relatively small.

5.1. The Conservative Party.

The Conservative Party, often called the Tory Party, is one of those which can trace its roots back to this early period. Today the Tory Party is that of big business, industry, commerce and landowners. Most of the money needed to run the party comes from large firms and companies. The party represents those who believe in private enterprise as opposed to state-owned undertakings. There is some division within the party itself: the more aristocratic wing and the lower-middleclass group. The Tories are a mixture of the rich and privileged-the monopolists and landowners. The Conservative Party is the most powerful and is often called a party of business directors. The word "Tory" means an Irish highwayman and was applied to the conservative's by their opponents but later

they adopted the name to describe themselves. The Tories opposed the ideas of the French Revolution, Parliamentary Reform and the development of Trade Unionism. They represent colonial policy. In home policy they opposed the tendencies of the Labor Party to nationalize gas, electricity, coal and the railways. Today the Conservative Party can broadly be described as the party of the middle and upper classes.

5.2. The Liberal Democrats and the Labor Party.

The Conservative Party and the Liberal Party are more than three hundred years old. The Tories called the Liberals “Whigs”. A “whig” was a Scottish preacher who could go on for 4 or 5 hours at a time preaching moralizing sermons. In the middle of the 19th century the Liberal Party represented the trading and manufacturing classes. Its slogan at that time was “Civil and Religious Liberty”. William Gladstone headed the first administration (1868-74) and for long periods the Liberals had a Parliamentary majority. During the second half of the 19th century many working people looked at the Liberal Parties an alternative to the Conservatives and their policy.

At the end of the 19th century and in the first two decades of the 20th century with the rise of the Labour Party, the Liberals lost the support of working-class voters. In 1988 the Liberal Party made an alliance with Social Democrats and the Party of Liberal Democrats was formed. The Labour Party, formed in 1900, was the one which drew away working people's support; It was founded by the Trades Unions. When the Labor Government was first elected in 1945 it showed a considerable change in policy from the Tories. Since 1924 the Labor Party has been in and out of power five times with the Conservatives forming the government for the rest of the time. The social system has remained unchanged. As a result of divisions within the Labor Party its right-wing members broke away in 1981 to form a new organization, the Social Democratic Party; The latter fought the 1983 and 1987 elections in an alliance with the Liberals, but only a small number of their MPs were elected. The Party of Social and Liberal Democrats formed in 1988 from the Liberal Party and the Social Democrats is a British political party of the centre. It is the third largest party, but it is quite small.

5.3. General Elections.

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

General elections are always held on Thursdays. After the date has been fixed, anyone who stands for Parliament (=be a candidate for election) has to leave a deposit of £500 with the ***Retu Officer***, the person in each constituency responsible for managing the election. The local offices major parties pay the deposit for their own candidates. If a candidate wins more than 5% of the votes 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 sorry about an issue, e.g. protecting the lives of unborn babies, become candidates.

Do you know? The major political parties in Britain are:

The Conservative Party (the Tory Party)

The Labour Party

The Liberal Party

The Social Democratic Party (the SDP)

The Social, Democratic and Liberal Party (also called the Social and Liberal Democrats)

Questions:

1. What is Monarchy?
2. Who is the monarch and what is his/her job?
3. Who is the prime minister?
4. Speak about the parliament? (What other countries are based on the parliamentary system?)
5. Compare the two houses of the parliament.
6. What can you say about the Judicial Branch of this country?
7. Compare the courts in the countries of the UK.
8. What kinds of the political parties do exist in the UK?
9. Speak about the general elections.
10. Are there some similarities and dissimilarities in the electing process of UK and Uzbekistan?

THEME 5: EDUCATION SYSTEM OF THE UK

I. Pre-primary and Primary Education	2.5 Social, Cultural and Sporting Life
II. Schooling	III. Secondary Education
2.1 Life at School	3.1 Life at College and University
2.2 School Uniform	3.2 Oxbridge
2.3 Does and Don'ts	3.3 Student Life.
2.4 Public Schools - for Whom?	

Key words: nursery, primary, secondary, higher education are the pattern of Education in the UK; public school differs from private school; tests, detentions, activities are the cores of student life; scholarship is a lovely thing of students; Universities are the proud of the UK.

I. Pre-primary and Primary Education

In some areas of England there are nursery schools for children under 5 years of age. Some children between two and five receive education in nursery classes or in infant's classes in primary schools. Many children attend informal

pre-school play-groups organized by parents in private homes. Nursery schools are staffed with teachers and students in training. There are all kinds of toys to keep the children busy from 9 o'clock in the morning till 4 o'clock in the afternoon while their parent's are at work. Here the baby's play, lunch and sleep. They can run about and play in safety with someone keeping an eye on them. For day nurseries which remain open all the year rounds the parents' pay according to their income. The local education authority's nurseries are free. But only about three children in 100 can go to them: there aren't enough places, and the waiting lists are rather long. Most children start school at five in a primary school. A Primary school may be divided into two parts-infants and juniors. At infant's school reading, writing and arithmetic are taught for about 20 minutes a day during the first year, gradually increasing to about 2 hours in their last year. There is usually no written timetable. Much time is spent in modeling from clay or drawing, reading or singing. By the time children are ready for the junior school¹⁶ they will be able to read and write, do simple addition and subtraction of numbers. At seven children go on from the infant's school to the junior school. This marks the transition from play to "real work". The children have set periods of arithmetic, reading and composition which are all Eleven Plus subjects. History, Geography, Nature Study, Art and Music, Physical Education, Swimming are also on the timetable. Pupils are streamed, according to their ability to learn, into A, B, C and D streams. The least gifted are in the D stream. Formerly towards the end of their fourth year the pupils wrote their Eleven Plus Examination. The hated 11+ examination was a selective procedure on which not only the pupils future schooling but their future careers depended. The abolition of selection at Eleven - Plus Examination brought to life comprehensive schools where pupils can get secondary education.

II. Schooling

Great Britain does not have a written constitution, so there are no constitutional provisions for education. The system of education is determined by the National Education Acts. Schools in England are supported from public funds paid to the local education authorities. These local education authorities are responsible for organizing the schools in their areas. Let's outline the basic features of public education in Britain. Firstly, there are wide variations between one part of the country and another. For most educational purposes England and Wales are treated as one unit, though the system in Wales is a little different from that of England. Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own education systems. Secondly, education in Britain mirrors the country's social system: it is class-divided and selective. The first division is between those who pay and those who do not pay. The majority of schools in Britain are supported by public funds and the education provided is free. They are maintained Schools, but there is also a considerable number of public schools. Parent's have to pay fees to send their children to these schools. The fees are high. As a matter of fact, only very rich family's can send their children to public schools. In some parts of Britain they still keep the old system of grammar schools, which are selective. But most

secondary schools in Britain which are called comprehensive schools are not selective - you don't have to pass an exam to go there. Another important feature of schooling in Britain is the variety of opportunities offered to schoolchildren. The English school syllabus is divided into Arts (or Humanities) and Sciences, which determine the division of the secondary school pupils into study groups: a Science pupil will study Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics (Maths), Economics, Technical Drawing, Biology, Geography; an Art pupil will do English Language and Literature, History, foreign languages, Music, Art, Drama. Besides these subjects they must do some general education subjects like Physical Education (PE), Home Economics for girls, and Technical subjects for boys, General Science. Computers play an important part in education. The system of options exists in all kinds of secondary schools. The National Education Act of 1944 provided three stages of education: primary, secondary and further education. Compulsory schooling in England and Wales lasts 11 years, from the age of 5 to 16. British schools usually have prayers and religious instruction. The National Curriculum which was introduced in 1988 sets out in detail the subjects that children should study and the levels of achievement they should reach by the ages of 7, 11, 14, and 16, when they are tested. Until that year headmasters and headmistresses of schools were given a great deal of freedom in deciding what subjects to teach and how to do it in their schools so that there was really no central control at all over individual schools. The National Curriculum does not apply in Scotland, where each school decides what subjects it will teach. After the age of 16 a growing number of school students are staying on at school, some until 18 or 19, the age of entry into higher education in universities, Polytechnics or colleges. Schools in Britain provide careers guidance. A specially trained person called careers advisor, or careers officer helps school students to decide what job they want to do and how they can achieve it. British university courses are rather short, generally lasting for 3 years. The cost of education depends on the college or university and speciality which one chooses.

Class	School	Age
	Nursery school playgroup or kindergarten	3 4
Reception class Year 1	Infant school	5 6
Year 2 Year 3 Year 4 Year 5 Year 6	Primary school Junior school	7 8 9 10 11
Year 7 Year 8 Year 9 Year 10 Year 11	Secondary school	12 13 14 15 16

Year 12	Sixth form college	17
Year 13		18
First year (fresher)	University or Polytechnic	19
Second year		20
Third/final year		21
Post-graduate	University	23

2.1. Life at School

The school year is divided into terms, three months each, named after seasons: autumn term, winter term and spring term. The autumn term starts on the first Tuesday morning in September. In July schools break up for eight weeks. Life at school is more or less similar everywhere. Each group of 30 pupils is the responsibility of a form tutor. Each school day is divided into periods³ of 40-50 minutes, time for various lessons with 10-20 minutes' breaks between them. It might be interesting for you to see the "Bell Times" at Lawns wood school in Leeds.

Bell Times

8.40 a.m. - School begins

8.45 a.m. - Registration

8.50 a.m. - As sembly bell

9.00 a.m. - Pupils move to lessons

9.05 a.m. - Lesson 1

9.45 a.m. - Lesson 2

10.25 a.m. - Lesson 3

11.05 a.m. - Break

11.25 a.m. - Pupils move to lessons

11.30 a.m. - Lesson 4

12.10 p.m. - Lesson 5

12.50 p.m. - Lunch time

1.40 p.m. - Afternoon school begins

1.45 p.m. - Registration

1.50 p.m. - Lesson 6

2.30 p.m. - Lesson 7

3.10 p.m. - End of normal lessons

3.10 p.m.-Start of additional lessons, clubs, societies, team practice, detentions, Etc.

On important occasions such as end of term or national holiday, called in English schools speech-days pupils are gathered in the assembly area or hall. Most of the pupils' time is spent in a classroom equipped with desks and a blackboard, nowadays often called chalkboard because normally it is brown or green. The desks are arranged in rows, the space between the rows is called an aisle. In addition to classrooms there are laboratories for Physics, Chemistry and Biology. Technical rooms are for Woodwork, Metalwork, and Technical Drawing. There are rooms for computer studies. Many young people use them for school exercise. They are now able to write their own games as well. The Physical

Education lessons are conducted at the gymnasium, games-hall or at the playground in front of the school building. There are also language laboratories and housecraft rooms. Every school has a library and a school canteen. In student common room boys and girls can relax during the breaks and lunchtime. The Staff common room is for teachers. In case of illness a schoolchild may go to the sick room. Pupils at many secondary schools in Britain have to wear a school uniform. This usually means a white blouse for girls (perhaps with a tie), with a dark-coloured skirt and pullover. Boys wear a shirt and tie, dark trousers and dark-coloured pullovers. Pupils also wear blazers-a kind of jacket-with the school badge on the pocket. They often have to wear some kind of hat on the way to and from school-caps for boys, and berets or some other kind of hat for girls. Shoes are usually black or brown. And no high heels! Young people in Britain often don't like their school uniform, especially the hats and shoes. Sometimes they do not wear the right clothes. Schools will often give them a warning the first time that this happens but then will punish them if they continue not to wear the correct uniform. Senior student don't have to wear their school uniform. It sounds logical to say that the school's function is to train a pupil's mind and his character should be formed at home. Teachers would be pleased if the problem could be solved so easily. But children don't leave their characters at home when their minds go to school. Many of them have personality problems of one kind or another. The pupils who violate various school regulations may be punished in the following ways: for lateness, truancy they may be reported to the Headmaster or named in school assembly. They may be detained in school after ordinary hours. Corporal punishment has recently been banned in state schools. But in most public schools it is still allowed. Caning is the usual punishment for serious misbehavior in class, damage and vandalism. Many teachers remark that standards of discipline have

2.2. School Uniform

The pupils at most secondary schools in Britain, have to wear a school uniform. This usually means a white blouse for girls (perhaps with a tie), with a dark-coloured skirt and pullover. The colours may be grey, brown, navy blue, dark green or similar. Boys wear a shirt and tie, dark trousers and dark-coloured pullovers. Pupils of both sexes wear blazers - a kind of jacket - with the school badge on the pocket. They often have to wear some kind of hat on the way to and from school - caps for the boys, and berets or some other kind of hat for the girls. Shoes are usually black or brown and should be sensible - no high heels!

Young people in Britain often don't like their school uniform, especially the hats and shoes. Sometimes they do not wear the right clothes. Schools will often give them a warning the first time that this happens but will then punish them if they continue not to wear the correct uniform.

2.3. Does and Don'ts

A school, like any other organized group or community, must have basic rules and procedures if it is to function effectively. Here are some of the

regulations functioning at Lawnswood school in Leeds.

Rules

1. Appropriate school dress must be worn on all school occasions.
2. Bicycles shall not be ridden in the school grounds.
3. Ball games may not be played in areas close to unprotected windows.
4. Radios and tape-recorders of any type must not be brought to school.
5. No pupil is allowed to smoke on the school premises or on school visits, or to bring cigarettes, matches or lighters onto school premises. Chewing-gum is not allowed in school.
6. Pupils must move about the corridors and staircases in an orderly manner; running in corridors and on staircases is forbidden.

Procedures

1. Punctuality. Pupils must be in form room's by 8.45 a.m. and before 1.45 p.m.
2. Lates. Pupils arriving late for registration will obtain a late form from their Form Tutor. Pupils arriving after 9.00 a.m. must report immediately to the Office in their building.
3. Notices. Notices may be displayed on school notice boards only with the permission of a member of Staff.
4. Classes left unsupervised. If a member of Staff does not arrive to take a lesson, the class will wait no longer than five minutes and then report the non-arrival to the Staff room.
5. Safe-keeping. Pupils should never bring valuable articles or large sums of money to school: money must be kept on one's person. In general, pupils are responsible for the safekeeping of their own property.
6. Lost property. All personal property should be named. A pupil discovering the loss of any article of value will report the fact immediately and those finding property should hand it to a member of Staff.
7. Absences. If pupils are absent, their parents should inform the school by letter, otherwise a card will be sent to their home after two days. On returning to school after any absence, pupils must give to their Form Tutor a note from their parents explaining their absence. Leave of absence can only be granted under certain circumstances (e. g. careers interviews, non-school examinations, family holiday) and should be requested in advance by letter from the parents to the Head of House.
8. Breakages. Any pupil responsible for damage to school property (furniture, windows, etc.) will inform the Deputy Head or Head of House immediately.

These rules and procedures are very much like the rules of Your School, aren't they? Many children in Britain earn pocket money. But it is against the law for children in Britain to work more than two hours on a schooldays. Jobs such as delivering daily newspapers or working in shops and supermarkets on Saturdays (when they can work longer hours) are popular with children.

2.4. Public Schools - for Whom?

About five per cent of children are educated privately in what is rather

confusingly called public schools. These are the schools for the privileged. There are about 500 public schools in England and Wales, most of them single-sex. About half of them are for girls. The schools, such as Eton, Harrow, Rugby and Winchester, are famous for their ability to lay the foundation of a successful future by giving their pupils self-confidence, the right accent, a good academic background and, perhaps most important of all, the right friends and contacts. People who went to one of the public schools never call themselves school-leavers. They talk about “the old school tie” and “the old boy network”. They are just old boys or old girls. The fees are high and only very rich family’s can afford to pay so much. Public schools educate the ruling class of England. One such school is Gordonstoun, which the Prince of Wales, the elder son of the Queen, left in 1968. Harrow School is famous as the place where Winston Churchill was educated, as well as six other Prime Ministers of England, the poet Lord Byron, the playwright Richard Brinsley Sheridan and many other prominent people. Public schools are free from state control. They are independent. Most of them are boarding schools. The education is of a high quality; the discipline is very strict. The system of education- is the same: the most is able to go ahead. These schools accept pupils from preparatory schools at about 11 or 13 years of age usually on the basis of an examination, known as Common Entrance. There are three sittings of Common Entrance every year in February, June and November. Scholarships are rarely awarded on the results of Common Entrance. The fundamental requirements are very high. At 18 most public school leavers gain entry to universities.

2.5. Social, Cultural and Sporting Life

Each school or sixth-form college has its School or College Council. It helps to plan the policy for the whole school. It organizes the social and cultural life at the school. School Councils in many schools and colleges are chaired by a student and have a majority of student members. They run discos and parties, stage drama productions and decorate the student common room. Music-making is part of school life. Some students help in local hospitals, homes for the handicapped and elderly people. There are many clubs and societies. Very popular, especially with senior pupils, is a school debating society. Most clubs meet regularly: daily, weekly or monthly, at lunch time or after school. Extra-curricular activities include various outings, visits to places of interest and dances. School choirs and orchestras give regular concerts. Sports are very popular too: running, jogging, swimming, self-defense, football, soccer, badminton, aerobics, rugby, etc. There are many national voluntary youth organizations in Britain. You have probably read about the Scout and Girl Guides Associations. There are some clubs run by the churches. There three pre-service organizations (the Sea Cadet Corps, Army Cadet Force and Air Training Corps) are not very large. Their activities are related to the work of the armed forces. But the largest youth organizations, as you probably know, are the associations of the Boy Scouts and the Girl Guides. There are about 1,300,000 boys and girls in them. The movement of Boy Scouts was founded by General Baden - Powell in

1908 and began to spring up in almost every town and village of the British Isles. Its aim is to help a Scout (a boy from 8 to 18) to develop into a good man and a useful citizen. He must be able to handle sails, to use a compass, to lay and light a fire out of doors, he must know first aid and develop his interest in music, literature, drama, arts and films. A Scout is a friend to animals, he is "clean in thought, word and deed". He must obey the Scout Law.

The Girl Guides Association was founded by Lord Baden Powell in 1910. It is divided into three sections: Brownies (from 7, 5 to 11), Guides (age 11-16) and Rangers (age 16-21). The programme of training is planned to develop intelligence and practical skills including cookery, needle work and childcare. The training and the Law are much the same as those of the Scouts. Like a Scout a Girl Guide must be a friend to animals. She must be "pure in thought, word and deed". She must be loyal to God and the Queen. There are several youth organizations associated with political parties. The Youth Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament (YCND) unites thousands of young people of Great Britain. It co-operates with the National Union of Students and many other youth organizations. It organizes mass rallies and meetings, demonstrations, marches of protest, festivals.

III. Secondary Education

After the age of 11, most children go to comprehensive schools of which the majorities are for both boys and girls. About 90 per cent of all state-financed secondary schools are of this type. Most other children receive secondary education in grammar and secondary modern schools. Comprehensive schools were introduced in 1965. The idea of comprehensive education, supported by the Labour Party, was to give all children of whatever background the same opportunity in education. At 16 students in England and Wales take GCSE examinations. In 1988 these examinations replaced the GCE and O-levels which were usually passed by about 20 per cent of school students. GCSE examinations are taken by students of all levels of ability in any of a range of subjects, and may involve a final examination, and assessment of work done by the student during the two-year course, or both of these things. Of Some comprehensive schools, however, do not have enough academic courses for sixth-formers. Student's can transfer either to a grammar school or to a sixth-form College get the courses they want. At 18 some students take A - level GCE examinations usually in two or three subjects. But some pupils want to stay on at school after taking their GCSE, to prepare for a vocational course or for work rather than for A-level examinations.

In Scotland students take the SCE examinations. Later, they can take examinations called Highers after which they can go straight to a university. Secondary education in Northern Ireland is organized along selective lines according to children's abilities. One can hardly say that high quality secondary education is provided for all in Britain. There is a high loss of pupils from working-class families at entry into the sixth form you are a working-class child at school today, the chance of your reaching the second year of a sixth-form

course is probably less than that for the child of a professional parent. Besides, government cuts on school spending caused many difficulties.

3.1. Life at College and University



America's 19 World Heritage Sites include the University of Virginia, one of many highly regarded public universities supported by taxpayers at the state level of government

The academic year in Britain's universities, Polytechnics, Colleges of Education is divided into three terms, which usually run from the beginning of October to the middle of December, from the middle of January to the end of March, and from the middle of April to the end of June or the beginning of July.

There are about one hundred universities in Britain. The oldest and best-known universities are located in Oxford, Cambridge, London, Leeds, Manchester, Liverpool, Edinburgh, Southampton, Cardiff, Bristol, and Birmingham. Good A-Level results in at least two subjects are necessary to get a place at A University. However, good exam passes alone are not enough. Universities choose their students after interviews. For all British citizens a place at a university brings with it a grant from their local education authority. English universities greatly differ from each other. They differ in date of foundation, size, history, tradition, general organization, methods of instruction, and way of student life. After three years of study a university graduate will leave with the Degree of Bachelor of Arts, Science, Engineering, Medicine, etc. Later he may continue to take a Master's Degree and then a Doctor's Degree. Research is an important feature of university work. The two intellectual eyes of Britain, Oxford and Cambridge Universities, date from the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The Scottish universities of St.Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh date from the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In the nineteenth and the early part of the twentieth centuries the so-called Redbrick universities were founded. These include London, Manchester, Leeds, Liverpool, Sheffield and Birmingham. During the late sixties and early seventies some 20 'new' universities were set up. Sometimes they are called "concrete and glass" universities. Among them are the universities of Sussex, York, East Anglia and some others. During these years the Government set up thirty Polytechnics.

The Polytechnics, like the universities, offer first and higher degrees. Some of them offer full-time and sandwich courses. Colleges of Education provide two-year courses in teacher education or sometimes three years if the graduate

specializes in some particular subject. Some of those who decide to leave school at the age of 16 may go to a further education college where they can follow a course in typing, engineering, town planning, cooking, or hairdressing, full-time or part-time. Further education colleges have strong ties with commerce and industry. There is an interesting form of studies which is called the Open University. It is intended for people who study in their own free time and who attend lectures by watching television and listening to the radio. They keep in touch by phone and letter with their tutors and attend summer schools. The Open University students have no formal qualifications and would be unable to enter ordinary universities. Some 80,000 overseas students study at British universities or further education colleges' or train in nursing, law, banking or in industry.

3.2. Oxbridge



Oxford University in Oxfordshire, England

Oxford and Cambridge are the oldest and most prestigious universities in Great Britain. They are often called collectively Oxbridge. Both universities are independent. Only the education elite go to Oxford or Cambridge. Most of their student's are former public schools leavers. The normal length of the degree course is three years, after which the students take the Degree of Bachelor of Arts (B.A.). Some courses, such as the dreaming spires of Oxford languages or medicine, may be one or two years longer. The students may work for other degree as well. The degrees are awarded at public degree ceremonies. Oxford and Cambridge cling to their traditions such as the use of Latin at degree ceremonies. Full academic dress is worn at examinations. Oxford and Cambridge universities consist of a number of colleges. Each college is different, but in many ways they are alike. Each college has its name, its coat of arms. Each college is governed by a Master. The larger ones have more than 400 members; the smallest colleges have less than 30. Each college offers teaching in a wide range of subjects. Within the college one will normally find a chapel, a dining hall, a library, rooms for undergraduates, fellows and the Master, and also rooms for teaching

purposes. Oxford is one of the oldest universities in Europe. It is the second largest in Britain after London. The town of Oxford is first mentioned in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle in 911 A.D. and it was popular with the early English kings (Richard Coeur de Lion was probably here). The University's earliest charter is dated to 1213. There are now twenty-four colleges for men, five for women and another five which have men and women members, many from overseas studying for higher degrees. Among the oldest colleges are University College, All Souls and Christ Church. The local car industry in East Oxford gives an important addition to the city's outlook. There a great deal of bicycle traffic both in Oxford and Cambridge. Cambridge University started during the 13th century and grew until today. Now there are more than thirty colleges. On the banks of the Cam willow trees drown their branches into the water. The colleges line the right bank. There are beautiful college gardens with green lawns and lines of tall trees. The oldest college is Peterhouse, which was founded in 1284, and the most recent is Robinson College, which was opened in 1977. The most famous is probably King's College because of its magnificent chapel, the largest and the most beautiful building in Cambridge and the most perfect example left of English fifteenth-century architecture.



1. Queen's University, Belfast, built in 1849 and one of the oldest higher education institutions in the United Kingdom

2. King's College, part of the University of Cambridge

Its choir of boys and undergraduates is also very well known. The University was only for men until 1871, when the first women's college was opened. In the 1970s, most colleges opened their doors to both men and women. Almost All College's are now mixed. Many great men studied at Cambridge, among them Desiderius Erasmus, the great Dutch scholar, Roger Bacon, the philosopher, Milton, the poet, Oliver Cromwell, the soldier, Newton, the scientist, and Kapitza, the famous Russian physicist. The universities have over a hundred societies and clubs, enough for every interest one could imagine. Sport is part of student's life at Oxbridge. The most popular sports are rowing and punting.



Eton College is probably the most famous public (i.e. private) school in the world

3.3. 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 most 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.

Many students in Britain go to a university away from their home town. They usually live in a hall of residence for their first year, and then move into digs (=a rented room in a private house) or share a house with other students. They may go back home during vacations, but after they graduate most leave home for good. In the U.S. too, many students attend colleges some distance from where their parents live. They may live on campus in one of the dorms (=halls), or off campus in apartments and houses which they share with housemates. Some students,

especially at larger universities, join a fraternity or sorority, a social group usually with its own house near the campus. Some people do not have a good opinion of them because they think that students who are members spend too much time having parties. Many U.S. colleges and universities encourage an atmosphere of political correctness to try to help students get on together.

In Britain the interests of student are represented by a student's union which liaises with the university on academic matters, arranges social events and provides advice to students. Individual unions are affiliated with (=linked to) the NUS (National Union of Students). The student union building is usually the centre of student life and has a bar and common room, and often a restaurant and shops. British universities have a wide range of societies, clubs and social activities including sports, drama and politics. One of the highlights (=main events) of the year is rag week, a week of parties and fund - raising activities in support of various charities.

Especially in their first year, US students spend a lot of time on social activities. When social activities take up too much time, students skip lectures (=miss them) or cut class and take after the vocation. Generally, students must keep a C average to remain in school. In the U.S. this has the effect of lowering their courses grades, but most U.S. universities expect this behaviour from students and do little to stop it. Students are though to be old enough to make their own decisions about how hard they work and to accept the consequences. A few students drop out but the majority tries hard to get good grades and good degree. Even some students complete college in less than 4 years by attending summer sessions.

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: (1) scholarships (grants), which are gifts that student do not repay; (2) loans to students and or their parents; and (3) 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.

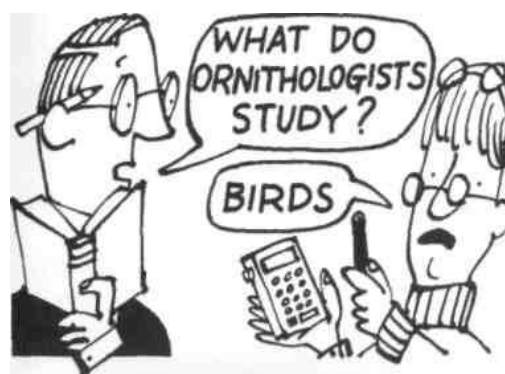
Funds for all this aid come from three main sources - the federal government, state government, and private contributors. Every college and university has a financial aid office to help students find out what kind of aid they might be eligible for and to assist them in completing the complicated application forms. Aliens who are permanent residents are eligible for government assistance, but

foreign students are not.

Words game

Here is a list of people and things they study. Match the people in the left-hand column with the subjects in the right-hand column. Work with a partner and ask and answer like this:

sociologists	animal life
geologists	living things
archaeologists	people in groups
zoologists	rocks
botanists	ancient things
biologists	the stars
linguists	plant life
astronomers	languages
etymologists	animals and plants in their natural
naturalists	the origins of words



Questions:

1. What are the stages of the education system of the UK?
2. What is the public and private education in the country?
3. By whom the education is run (is funded) in the country?
4. When children begin schooling?
5. What is further education?
6. In what other countries we can find such types of the education system?
7. What kind of Universities do you know in the country?
8. Can you compare the students' life in the UK with other countries?

THEME 6: HOLIDAYS, TRADITIONS, CUSTOMS IN THE UK

I. National days of the UK

II. Holidays of the UK

- 2.1. Christmas Day
- 2.2. Boxing Day
- 2.3. New Year
- 2.4. Halloween
- 2.5. Easter
- 2.6. What and when are 'Bank'

III. Life Style of the UK

I. Living standards in the Countries

- 1.1. City Life.
- 1.2. Rural life.
- 1.3. Food and drink

II. Wedding ceremony

III. Families and Family Life

Holidays?

2.7. Pancake Day

2.8. Guy Fawkes Night

2.9. Remembrance Day (Poppy Day)

3.1. Life and work

Key words: every nation and country has its own customs and traditions; houses are decorated with evergreens at Christmas Day; 'Christmas Box' is money; New Year is launched with a party; Halloween associates with witches and ghosts; Easter is spring feast; banks are legally closed in bank holidays; Pancake Day is the eve of the Lenten fast; 'Guy Fawkes Night' is also known as 'Bonfire Night' or 'Firework Night'; Remembrance Day is commemoration of British soldiers and airmen. Great amount of the population of the United Kingdom lives in urban areas; little amount of people lives in rural areas; British cooking is simple; wedding is a day when the couple's dreams come true; family includes parents and their children; many British people wish to live in a village.

I. Living standards

I. National days of the UK

Every nation and country has its own customs and traditions. In Britain traditions play a more important part in the life of the people than in other countries. Englishmen are proud of their traditions and carefully keep them up. It has been the law for about 300 years that all the theaters are closed on Sundays. No letters are delivered; only a few Sunday papers are published. Up to this day an English family prefers a house with a garden to a flat in a modern house with central heating. English people like gardens. Sometimes the garden in front of the house is a little square covered with cement painted green in imitation of grass and a box of flowers. Holidays are especially rich in old tradition and are different in Scotland, Ireland, Wales and England. Christmas is a great English national holiday and in Scotland it isn't kept at all, except by clerks in banks; all the shops mills and factories are working. But 6 days later on New Year's Eve the Scottish begin to enjoy them. People invite their friends to their houses and sit.

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

St. David's Day (1 March) is the **National Day of Wales**. St. David (c.520-588), the patron saint of Wales, was the founder and first abbot-bishop of Menvia, now St. David's in Dyfed, South Wales. The wearing of daffodils or leeks by patriotic Welsh people commemorates the day. Both plants are

traditionally regarded as the national emblems of Wales.

St. Patrick's Day (17th March) is an official **Bank Holiday in Northern Ireland**. The work of St. Patrick (c.389-c.461) was a vital factor in the spread of Christianity in Ireland. Born in Britain, he was carried off by pirates, and spent six years in slavery before escaping and training as a missionary. The day is marked by the wearing of shamrocks (a clover-like plant), the national badge of both Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland.

England's National day is St. George's Day (23 April). St. George is the patron saint of England. A story that first appeared in the 6th century tells that St. George rescued a hapless maid by slaying a fearsome fire-breathing dragon! The saint's name was shouted as a battle cry by English knights who fought beneath the red-cross banner of St. George during the Hundred Years War (1338-1453). Today the red cross of St. George still flies above every English parish church to mark the saint's day.

II. Holidays of the UK

2.1. Christmas Day

In Britain, Christmas Day is normally spent at home, with the family, and it is regarded as a celebration of the family and its continuity. Preparations start well in advance, with the sending of Christmas cards and the decoration of a Christmas tree in a prominent place in the home. Although it is now a firmly established tradition, Queen Victoria's husband, Prince Albert, who introduced the custom from his native Germany in 1840, first popularized the Christmas tree.

Some houses are decorated with evergreens (plants which do not lose their leaves in winter); a wreath of holly on the front door and garlands of holly, ivy and fir indoors. Bunches of mistletoe are often hung above doorways - any couple passing underneath must exchange kisses! Traditional food is prepared: sweet mince pies, a rich Christmas cake and the Christmas pudding. Everyone has their own favorite recipe, but they're all packed full of spices, nuts, dried fruit and brandy.

Presents are bought and wrapped, and traditionally placed under the Christmas tree on Christmas Eve. Christmas is both a secular and a religious holiday, and many families like to attend a midnight service at church on Christmas Eve, or celebrate Christmas in church on Christmas morning.

The excitement begins for children on Christmas Eve, when they hang up their stockings (an old sock or, more ambitiously, pillow cases) around the fireplace or at the foot of the bed for Father Christmas to fill with presents. The English Father Christmas or Santa Claus is first recorded in his traditional red and white outfit in a woodcut of 1653, but the story of Santa arriving in his reindeer-drawn sleigh and descending down the chimney to fill children's stockings with presents derives from the United States.

Practically everyone sits down to a Christmas dinner in the early afternoon of Christmas Day, traditionally roast turkey, but some families prefer goose or roast beef. The Christmas pudding, brought to the table flaming hot, follows the turkey. Brandy is poured over the pudding, and then lit. After dinner, everyone

relaxes by going for a walk, playing games, enjoying their presents or watching television.

2.2. Boxing Day

Boxing Day (26 December) is so-called because it's a time when trades people receive a 'Christmas Box' - some money in appreciation of the work they've carried out all year. Traditionally a time for visiting family and friends and indulging in more feasting, Boxing Day is a popular day for football matches and other sporting fixtures. The day is a public holiday, so shops and banks are closed. More recently, some shops have broken with tradition and now open on Boxing Day to encourage shoppers who can't wait to spend their Christmas money.

2.3. New Year

New Year is often launched with a party - either at home with family and friends or a gathering in the local pubs and clubs. Merry-making begins on New Year's Eve and builds up to midnight. The stroke of midnight is the cue for much cheering, hooting, whistling, kissing and the drinking of toasts. Tradition has it that the first person over the threshold on New Year's Day will dictate the luck brought to the household in the coming year. This is known as First Footing. At midnight on 31 December, particularly in Scotland and northern England, 'first footers' (traditionally a tall, dark, good-looking man) step over the threshold bringing the New Year's Luck. The first footer usually brings a piece of coal, a loaf and a bottle of whisky. On entering he must place the fuel on the fire, put the loaf on the table and pour a glass for the head of the house, all normally without speaking or being spoken to until he wishes everyone 'A Happy New Year'. He must, of course, enter by the front door and leave by the back.

In Wales the back door is opened to release the Old Year at the first stroke of midnight. It is then locked up to 'keep the luck in' and at the last stroke the New Year is let in at the front door.

In Scotland the New Year remains the greatest of all annual festivals. Called 'Hogmanay' (a word whose meaning has never been satisfactorily established), it's marked by an evening of drinking and merrymaking, culminating at the stroke of midnight when huge gatherings of people at Edinburgh's Tron Kirk and Glasgow's George Square greet the New Year by linking arms and singing 'Auld Lang Syne'.

2.4. Halloween

Halloween (31 October) and its associations with witches and ghosts derives from the Celtic Old Year's Night - the night of all witches, when spirits were said to walk the earth. Witches and supernatural beings are still remembered all over Britain, when bands of children roam the streets in ghoulish costumes, carrying Halloween lanterns - pumpkins hollowed out with a ghostly face cut into one side, which glows when a candle is placed inside. In recent years the custom of 'trick or treating' has gained in popularity. Although we commonly associate this

practice with America, the custom is originated in England as 'Mischief Night' when children declared one 'lawless night' of unpunished pranks (usually May Day eve or Halloween). Halloween parties (usually for children) include games such as apple bobbing, where apples are either floated in water or hung by a string. The object of the game is for the players to put their hands behind their back and try to seize an apple with their teeth alone.

2.5. Easter

Easter day is named after the Saxon goddess of spring, Eostre, whose feast took place at the spring equinox. Easter is now the spring feast of the Christian church, commemorating the resurrection of Jesus. It falls on a Sunday between 22 March and 25 April, according to the church calendar. Traditionally Easter eggs, dyed and decorated or made of chocolate, are given as presents symbolizing new life and the coming of spring.

Egg rolling competitions take place in northern UK on Easter Monday; hard-boiled eggs are rolled down a slope, with the winner being - according to local preference - the one which rolls the furthest, survives the most rolls, or is successfully aimed between two pegs! The best-publicized event takes place at Avenham Park in Preston, Lancashire. Easter parades are also part of the Easter tradition, with those taking part wearing Easter bonnets or hats, traditionally decorated with spring flowers and ribbons.

2.6. What and when are 'Bank' Holidays?

Many public holidays in the United Kingdom are known as 'bank' holidays - so called because these are days on which banks are legally closed. Most fall on a Monday. In England and Wales there are six bank holidays: New Year's Day, Easter Monday, May Day (not necessarily 1 May), Spring and Late Summer Holidays at the end of May and August respectively, and Boxing Day. There are also two common law holidays on Good Friday and Christmas Day. In Scotland there are nine public holidays: New Year's Day, January 2, Good Friday, Easter Monday, May Day (not necessarily 1 May), Spring and Summer Holidays at the end of May and the beginning of August respectively, Christmas Day and Boxing Day. In Northern Ireland there are seven bank holidays: New Year's Day, St. Patrick's Day (17 March), Easter Monday, May Day (not necessarily 1 May), Spring and Late Summer Holidays at the end of May and August respectively, and Boxing Day. There are also two common law holidays on Good Friday and Christmas Day and a public holiday on the anniversary of the Battle of the Boyne (12 July). There are holidays in lieu of those public holidays which fall at weekends. Shops, museums and other public attractions, such as historic houses and sports centers, may close on certain public holidays, particularly Christmas Day. As this varies, it is advisable to check with the individual establishment beforehand.

2.7. Pancake Day

Pancake Day

Ash Wednesday is the day in February when the Christian period of Lent begins. This refers to the time when Christ went into the desert and fasted for forty days. Although not many people actually give up eating during this period, on Pancake Tuesday, the day before Ash Wednesday, they eat lots of pancakes. These are made from flour, milk and eggs, and fried in a hot pan.



Pancake Day or 'Shrove Tuesday' (the Tuesday which falls 41 days before Easter) is the eve of the Lenten fast. On this day in earlier times all Christians made their compulsory confessions or 'shriffs' from which the name 'Shrove Tuesday' derives, and took their last opportunity to eat up all the rich foods prohibited during Lent. Thus all eggs, butter and fat remaining in the house were made into pancakes, hence the festival's usual nickname of Pancake Day. Though the strict observance of Lent is now rare, everyone enjoys eating the customary pancakes and some regions celebrate the day with pancake races. The oldest and most famous is held at Olney in Buckinghamshire. The race is run over 415 yards (about 380 metres) by women over sixteen, wearing a cap and apron. They must 'toss' their pancake (flip it over in the frying pan) at least three times during the race. The winner receives a kiss from the Pancake Bell Ringer (church bells were traditionally rung to remind parishioners to come to confession) and a prayer book from the vicar!

2.8. Guy Fawkes Night.

In 1605 Guy Fawkes, a Roman Catholic, and his fellow conspirators attempted to blow up King James I and the Houses of Parliament, as they disagreed with the King's Protestant policies. They succeeded in storing some 30 barrels of gunpowder in a cellar under the Houses of Parliament, but before Parliament opened on November 5th, the 'gunpowder plot', as it has come to be known, was discovered. Guy Fawkes and his colleagues were executed for reason. Since then, the 5th of November has been celebrated in England by the burning of stuffed figures of Guy Fawkes on bonfires, usually accompanied by firework displays. These may be large organized events open to members of the public, or smaller, private gatherings of family and friends held in people's gardens. 'Guy Fawkes Night' is also known as 'Bonfire Night' or 'Firework Night'. In the days leading up to the 5th of November children traditionally take their homemade Guys out onto the streets of their town or village and ask passers-by for 'a penny for the

Guy'. This money is supposedly used as a contribution towards their fireworks.

2.9. Remembrance Day (Poppy Day)

Remembrance Day is observed throughout Britain in commemoration of the million or more British soldiers and airmen who lost their lives during the two World Wars. On that day, the second Sunday in November, special services are held in the churches and wreaths are laid at war memorials throughout the country and at London's Cenotaph, 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 11 o'clock, and is broken only by the crash of distant artillery and perhaps by the murmur of a passing jet. 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 buttonholes. The money collected in this way is later used to help the men who had been crippled during the war and their dependants. In the past the day was known as Armistice Day and was marked on the 11 of November, as that was the day when armistice (agreement to stop military actions) sought by German from Allies, came into force in 1918. Armistice Day was kept since 1919 – 1938. Two minutes silence was observed throughout the British Commonwealth starting at 11 a. m. the ceremony lapsed during the Second World War, but was resumed in 1945. The following year it was decided to observe a Remembrance Day for both World Wars. It was to be held annually on Remembrance Sunday (the second Sunday in November). The most magnificent ceremony is held at the Cenotaph in London, a memorial to those who died during the two world wars. On Remembrance Day the ceremony is attended by the Queen and royal family, statesmen and politicians, representatives of the armed forces and Commonwealth.

III. Life Style of the UK

3.1. City Life.

About 90 percent of the population of the United Kingdom lives in urban areas. A number of important cities grew rapidly in the 1700's and early 1800's during the Industrial Revolution. But today, many of those cities—including London, Birmingham, Liverpool Manchester, and Leeds—are in decline. They are faced with such problems as falling employment, rising crime, and poor housing. They are losing population as people move from the inner cities into the suburbs and beyond. The industries that supported the growth of the large cities have declined or disappeared. New industries, such as electronics, have developed outside the cities, many near motorways (expressways) or near research establishments and universities. The British government in 1988 launched an

urban renewal program called Action for Cities. The purpose of the program is to revive the inner cities by means of new housing and new development. The government also established areas called enterprise zones to attract new businesses to inner cities. Businesses within enterprise zones receive tax cuts and other advantages. But people continue to move away to find jobs, and the inner cities do not attract enough private investment. The cost of such basic services as street lighting and road repair is increasingly falling upon fewer people. And many of these people are the members of society who can least afford such costs—the elderly, single parent families, the poorly paid, and the unemployed.



3.2. Rural life.

About 10 percent of the population of the United Kingdom lives in rural areas. At one time, the rural areas were devoted mainly to farming. But the availability of convenient transportation enables people to work in a city and live in the countryside. In many rural communities, full-time farmers are outnumbered by retired people, commuters, and workers who serve the needs of tourists. The attractiveness and variety of rural Britain is one of the tourist industry's prime assets. These qualities also attract many retired people. In some rural areas, more than a fifth of the population is over retirement age. These areas include the counties of Cornwall, Devon, Dorset, East and West Sussex, and the Isle of Wight; the Scottish Borders; and parts of rural Wales.

3.3. Food and drink.

Most British cooking is simple. A typical meal includes roast beef, mutton, or pork with potatoes and one or more other vegetables. Since the 1960s, the British have increased their consumption of poultry, fresh fruit, and frozen vegetables. Consumption of lamb, beef, veal, bread, potatoes, eggs, butter, and sugar has fallen. Pizza houses, Chinese restaurants, and hamburger places that offer take away and fast food have grown in popularity. They rival the shops offering fish and chips, a popular meal of fried fish and French fried potatoes. The traditional Sunday midday meal of roast beef and Yorkshire pudding, a battercake baked in meat fat, is still a family favorite, however, The British diet tends to be high in fat, salt, and sugar and low in fiber. These eating habits can contribute to a variety of health problems, including heart disease. The country has a high level of heart disease, especially in northern Britain. There is evidence, however, that health considerations have begun to influence food consumption. People are drinking more low-fat milk instead of whole milk and eating more whole grain bread, which has more fiber than white bread. Tea with milk and sugar is the most popular hot beverage. Beer, including ale and lager, is the favorite alcoholic drink.

A high proportion of beer drinking takes place in pubs (public houses), which provide a focus of social life for many people.

II. Wedding Ceremony

It is a day when the couple's dreams come true. It is a day when new life's days begin so, each person wants his or her wedding to be the most wonderful and unforgettable day in his life. That's why the couple tries to look smart especially the bride pays attention to her appearance as she is the fiancée of her wedding ceremony.

Attitudes to marriage have changed for many times over the last 50 years. Many people in Britain 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. In Britain people can marry at the age 18 or 16 if their parents agree, but the average age is 26 for women and 28 for men. But in our country people married at the age 18 (for women) and at 20 (for men).

Before wedding ceremony there are some customs, to be held as we know. In Britain the custom of becoming engaged is still generally retained, though many young people dispense with it, and the number of such couples is increasing. It's traditional for the man to propose and if she accepts, to give his new fiancée an engagement ring. As a rule, an engagement is announced as soon as a girl has accepted a proposal of marriage, but in some cases it is done a good time afterwards. Rules of etiquette dictate that the girl's parents should be the first to hear the news; in practice, however, it is often the couple's friends who are taken into confidence before either of the parents. If a man has not yet met his future in-laws he does so at the first opportunity, whereas his parents usually write them a friendly letter. It is then up to the girl's mother to invite her daughter's future in-laws, to a meal or drinks. Quite often, of course, the man has been a frequent visitor at the girl's house long before the engagement, and their families are already well acquainted. When a girl accepts a proposal, the man generally gives her a ring in token of the betrothal. It is worn on the third finger of the left hand before marriage and together with the wedding ring after it. Engagement rings range from expensive diamond rings to rings with Victorian semi-precious stones costing only a few pounds. In most cases the engagement itself amounts only to announcements being made to the parents on the both sides and to friends and relations, but some people arrange an engagement party, and among the better-off people it is customary to put an announcement in the newspaper. In the book *Etiquette* the author writes that "as soon as congratulations and the first gaieties of announcement are over, a man should have a talk with the girl's father about the date of their wedding, where they will live, how well off he is and his future plans and prospects". Nowadays this is often not done, one of the reasons being that today the young people enjoy a greater degree of financial independence that they used to, to be able to decide these matters for themselves. However, in working class families, where the family ties are still strong and each member of the family is more economically dependent upon the rest, things are rather different. Quite

often, particularly in the larger towns, the couple will have no option but to live after marriage with either the girl's or the man's people. Housing shortage in Britain is still acute, and the rents are very high. It is extremely difficult to get unfurnished accommodation, whereas a furnished room, which is easier to get, costs a great deal for rent. In any case, the young couple may prefer to live with the parents in order to have a chance to save up for things for their future home. But if the young people, particularly those of the higher paid section of the population, often make their own decisions concerning the wedding and their future, the parents, particularly the girl's, still play an important part in the ensuing activities, as we shall see later. The period of engagement is usually short, three or four months, but this is entirely a matter of choice and circumstances.

But in Uzbekistan it is held like a big occasion which is also named as engagement the important thing of this day is breaking the bread. Traditionally, mother finds a girl (fiancée) for her son and if the boy and the girl like each other the engagement will be held soon after 1 or 2 months later the wedding can be held.

But nowadays boys find their spouse themselves as in Britain and in other countries as well.

When they choose a spouse, the decision is usually some based upon feelings of love rather than on practical considerations.

In Britain the couple after the engagement sets a date and decides who will perform the marriage ceremony and where it will be held. Religious weddings are often held in a church or chapel, but the ceremony can take place anywhere and couples often choose some place that is special to them. 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 wedding is held by the family of the bride. Nowadays the couple usually pays part of the cost. Before the wedding, the couples send out printed invitations to the guests and the guests buy a gift for them, usually something for their home. On the wedding day the brides choose white dress with, a veil covering her face. The bride's clothes should include something old or new to bring luck. The bridesmaids wear matching dresses specially made for the occasion and like bride, carry bouquets of lovers.

The groom and his friend wear a long tail jackets, dark trousers and top hat. The groom's closest 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 guests usually wear smart clothes and the women wear hats.

On the wedding day the parents and close relatives of the bride and groom arrive a few minutes before the bride. The bridegroom and his best man should be in their places at least ten minutes before the service starts. The bridesmaids and pages wait in the church porch with whoever is to arrange the bride's veil before she goes up the aisle.

The bride traditionally arrives at the church a few minutes later and enters with her father. She goes in on her father's right arm, and the bridesmaids follow her according to the plan at the rehearsal the day before. The bridesmaids and

ushers go to their places in the front pews during the ceremony, except for the chief bridesmaid who usually stands behind the bride and holds her bouquet.

When the bride enters the traditional pieces of music are played from Wagner's opera *Lohengrin* and the orchestral music from Mendelssohn's *A Midsummer Night's Dream* is heard. But, nowadays many couples chose other music.

Then the bride and groom promise to live together and support each other. After it 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 as a husband and wife.

After the ceremony the couples go into the vestry to sign the register with their parents, best man, bridesmaids and perhaps a close relation such as a grandmother. The bride throws back her veil or removes the front piece (if it is removable), the verger gives a signal to the organist and the bride and groom walk down the aisle followed by their parents and those who have signed the register. The bride's mother walks down the aisle on the left arm of the bridegroom's father, and the bridegroom's mother walks down on the left arm of the bride's father (or whoever has given the bride away). Guests wait until the wedding procession has passed them before leaving to go on to the reception.

After it, as they leave the church, the guests throw small pieces of coloured paper in lucky shapes such as horseshoes and bells over them. But in our weddings when the couple enter the wedding place the grooms relatives especially his mother, throws sweets over them. It's done for the couple's life to be sweet in the future.

In Britain the happy couple and their guests then go to the bride's home or a hotel for the wedding party. This may be a formal meal or a party. There the best man and the bride's father often give speech. One of the most interesting things in the wedding is cutting the wedding cake and it's done by the bride and the groom. After this party the couple leaves for their honeymoon. Before leaving the bride throws a bouquet of flowers backward over her head to a group of single women standing behind her, the one who'll catch the bouquet will be the next to marry. In our weddings the bride kicks one of her friend. It also means that the girl who is kicked will be the next to marry.

At some wedding in Britain, the groom throws his bride's garter to 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 women sleeps with this piece of cake under her pillow she will see in her dream the man she is going to marry. But it used to be the custom in Scotland when the bride left her home to throw an old shoe after her to signify that her father no longer had a legal right over her. The English bride sometimes carries a horseshoe of silver paper. Horseshoes are considered to bring luck. Because they are made of iron which is believed to have the power of driving evil away. So, after the wedding party the couple leaves for their honeymoon in the car which has been decorated with old tin cans or shoes tied to the back and with the word "just married" by their friends.

III. Families and Family Life

After the marriage a new life begins. It is a Family life. Let me explain the meaning of the word "family". The family is one of the oldest human institutions - existed for about 300000 years, continually being changed with the times. In all nations family life is the basis of individual security and cultural continuity. A family includes, as usual parents and their children, grand parents, aunts, uncles and cousins, as well as more distant relatives. But when British people use the word family they often mean only mothers, father and their children. In a general social context "the family" is usually taken to mean this nuclear family.

Society in Britain 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 spends all day a 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 couple still have traditional marriages, with the man as bread winner (money earner) and the woman as home maker, as in our country.

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, 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 mothers now have jobs, part of the day being cared for and young children spend by a child minder or at a daycare centre. 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 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. Nowadays, in our country many mothers also have jobs and they also do their housekeeping responsibilities.

In Britain the majority wife, 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. British wife enjoys being out in the working world. Her husband discovers that cooking and child care can be fun and can bring him closer to his family. He may also find that it is nice to have his wife's help in supporting the family. Of course, problems can develop in the two income family if the husband expects his working wife to be the perfect homemaker or the wife expects her husband to help with household chores. Most women today will not tolerate a husband who considers himself the boss. But in our country a husband plays the most important role in the family life as they are

the boss of the family. That's why, before going somewhere or doing something all the wives will ask permission from their husbands. In Britain members of the same family may live close to each other and see each other regularly, but many don't. Family loyalty is still important, and many people feel they need it. But it is not part of British or American culture for old people to live with younger members of their family. Most elderly people live in their own homes and when they can not care for themselves, move into an old peoples home or a nursing home. In the US retired grandparents may move to the Sun Belt (one of the southern or southwestern states), where the climate is warm.

Indian, Pakistan and Bangladesh families in Britain often have contact with their relatives and live with them in the same house. In some of these families women play a more traditional role of mother and homemaker, though many have jobs. Some families are very child-cantered (put the children's interests first). The closest families eat meals at the same time and spend their free time together. Some families, however, only see each other for a short time in the evening, and though the children are still considered important they to fit in with the lives of their parents. The average day for many families begins with getting the children up and ready for school. There is usually a rush for everyone to use the bathroom, find clean clothes, eat breakfast, and catch the bus. In the mean time the parents have to get ready for work themselves. Early mornings are a scramble for many families. The school day usually ends at about 3 p.m. in the US and 4 p.m. in Britain, and the working day at 5 p.m. or later, so many parents' have to make arrangements for younger children to be cared for after school. They may go to an after-school club (Am E after school centre) or stay with a neighbor's children. Older children often do activities like sports or music at their school, or go home and do their homework. Children often also have to do chores (=small jobs around the house). In many families, the children eat when they get home and their parents eat later. In the evenings the children play or go and see friends. If every one is staying in they may watch television together. Many parents make an effort to spend quality time with their children, an hour or so each day when they give them their full attention. At the weekend families may go to sports games together, go shopping or go on trips to museum, parks, etc. In school holidays (vacations) they may visit other family members or go to the beach.

3.1. Life and work

For many British people the ideal place to live is a village set in attractive countryside. To those living in towns, villages conjure up images of peace, a slow pace of life, pretty cottages and a country pub. But living in a village may be inconvenient, especially for people without a car, as many village shops have been forced to close and public transport services are limited. Most people now live in towns, in city suburbs or in larger villages, which have become dormitory communities for nearby towns.

Some cities, such as Bath, Chester, York and London, are very old. Newcastle, Manchester and Birmingham are industrial towns, which have had good and bad times according to the changing patterns of industry. New towns

like Milton Keynes were built to relieve overcrowding in older cities. Aberdeen, Glasgow, Swansea, Bristol and Liverpool all developed as ports.

Important industries in Britain today include gas and oil production from the North Sea, engineering, pharmaceuticals, textile manufacture, food processing, electronics, tourism and insurance. Along the coasts fishing is an important source of income. Coal mining is now much less widespread than before, much of the coal produced is used in power stations to generate electricity. The main centers of the steel industry are in south Wales, northern England and the Midlands.

Factories are often located together on an industrial estate on the edge of a town. Many service industries are still based in or near London, but modern telecommunications have allowed companies to move to places where rents are cheaper and there are people needing jobs.

Questions:

1. What kinds of holidays are celebrated in the UK?
2. What are the national days of the countries of the UK?
3. Who popularized Christmas tree the first in the UK?
4. Why the 26th of December is called a boxing day?
5. Who is a first footer?
6. When the game apple bobbing is played?
7. When falls the Easter?
8. In the bank holidays banks are And why?
9. Who was Guy Fawkes?
10. What holidays do we have in our country (Uzbekistan) which is like to those holidays given above?
11. How can you describe the way of life of the British people?
12. Can you tell how they conduct their wedding ceremony?
13. Do we (Uzbekistan) have any similarities and dissimilarities with their wedding ceremony?
14. Compare the life and work of UK with other country.
15. What is the role of the men and the women in the British family?

THEME 7: SPORTS AND RECREATION IN THE UK

Key words:

Sport plays more important part in people's life in Britain; types of sports; Gambling and Betting; Football; Rugby; Cricket; Table tennis;

1. Gambling and Betting;
2. Football;
3. Rugby;
4. Cricket;
5. Table tennis;

Sport probably plays a more important part in people's life in Britain than it does in most other countries. For a very large number it is their main form of entertainment. Millions take part in some kind of sport at least once a week. Many millions more are regular spectators and follow one or more sports. There are hours of televised sport each week. Every newspaper, national or local, quality or popular, devotes several pages entirely to sport.

The British are only rarely the best in the world at particular sports in modern times. However, they are one of the best in the world in a much larger number of different sports than any other country (British individualism at work again). My course paper looks at the most publicized sports with the largest followings. But it should be noted that hundreds of other sports are played in Britain, each with its own small but enthusiastic following. Some of these may not be seen as a sport at all by many people. For most people with large gardens, for example, croquet is just an agreeable social pastime for a sunny afternoon. But to a few, it is a deadly serious competition. The same is true of the game such as indoor bowling, darts or snooker. Even board games, the kind you buy in a shop, have their national championships. Think of any pastime, however trivial, which involves some element of competition and, somewhere in Britain, there is probably a 'national association' for it which organizes contents.

The British are so fond of competition that they even introduced it into gardening. Many people indulge in an informal rivalry with their neighbours as to who can grow the better flowers or vegetables. But the rivalry is sometimes formalized. Though the country, there are competitions in which gardeners enter their cabbage, leeks, onions, carrots or whatever in the hope that they will be judged 'the best'. There is a similar situation with animal. There are hundreds of dog and cat shows throughout the country at which owners hope that their pet will win a prize. There are a lot of such specific kinds of sport in the United Kingdom but I want to stop my thought on consideration of more widespread.

The British are great lovers of competitive sports; and when they are neither playing nor watching games they like to talk about them, or when they cannot do that, to think about them. Modern sport in Britain is very different. 'Winning isn't everything' and 'it's only a game' are still well known sayings which reflect the amateur approach of the past. But to modern professionals, sport is clearly not just a game. These days, top players in any sport talk about having a 'professional attitude' and doing their 'job' well, even if, officially, their sport is still an amateur one. The middle-class origins of much British sport means that it began as an amateur pastime - a leisure-time activity which nobody was paid for taking part in. Even in football, which has been played on a professional basis since 1885, one of the first teams to win the FA (Football Association) Cup was a team of amateur players (the Corinthians). In many other sports there has been resistance to professionalism. People thought it would spoil the sporting spirit. May be they are right.

Many kinds of sport originated for England. The English have a proverb, "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy".



Tennis originated in the UK. The Wimbledon Championships Grand Slam tournament is held in London every July.

They do not think that play is more important than work; they think that Jack will do his work better if he plays as well, so he is encouraged to do both. Association football or soccer¹ is one of the most popular games in the British Isles played from late August until the beginning of May. In summer the English national sport is cricket. When the English say: “that's not cricket” it means: “that's not fair”, “to play the game” means “to be fair”.



The Royal and Ancient Golf Club of St Andrews regarded as the worldwide "Home of Golf"

Golf is Scotland's chief contribution to British sport. It is worth noting here an interesting feature of sporting life in Britain, namely, its frequently close connection with the social class of the players or spectators except where a game may be said to be a “national” sport. This is the case with cricket in England which is played and watched by all classes. This is true of golf, which is everywhere in the British Isles a middleclass activity. Rugby Union, the amateur variety of Rugby football, is the Welsh national sport played by all sections of society whereas, elsewhere, it too is a game for the middle classes. Association football is a working-class sport as are boxing, wrestling, snooker, darts and dog-racing. As far as fishing is concerned it is, apart from being the most popular British sport from the angle of the number of active participants, a sport where what is caught determines the class of a fisherman. If it is a salmon or trout it is upper-class, but if it is the sort of fish found in canals, ponds or the sea then the angler is almost sure to be working-class. Walking and swimming are the two most popular sporting activities, being almost equally undertaken by men and women. Snooker (billiards), pool and darts are the next most popular sports among teenagers. Aerobics (keep-fit exercises) and yoga, squash and cycling are among the sports where participation has been increasing in recent years. There are several places in Britain associated with a particular kind of sport. One of them is Wimbledon—a suburb to the south of London where the All-England Lawn Tennis Championships are held in July (since 1877). The finals of the tournament are played on the Centre Court. The other one is Wembley—a stadium in north London where international

football matches, the Cup Finals and other events have taken place since 1923. It can hold over 100,000 spectators. The third one is Derby, the most famous flat race in the English racing calendar, which has been run at Epsom near London since 1780.



England's new Wembley Stadium.
It is the largest and most expensive football stadium ever built.

1. Gambling and Betting.

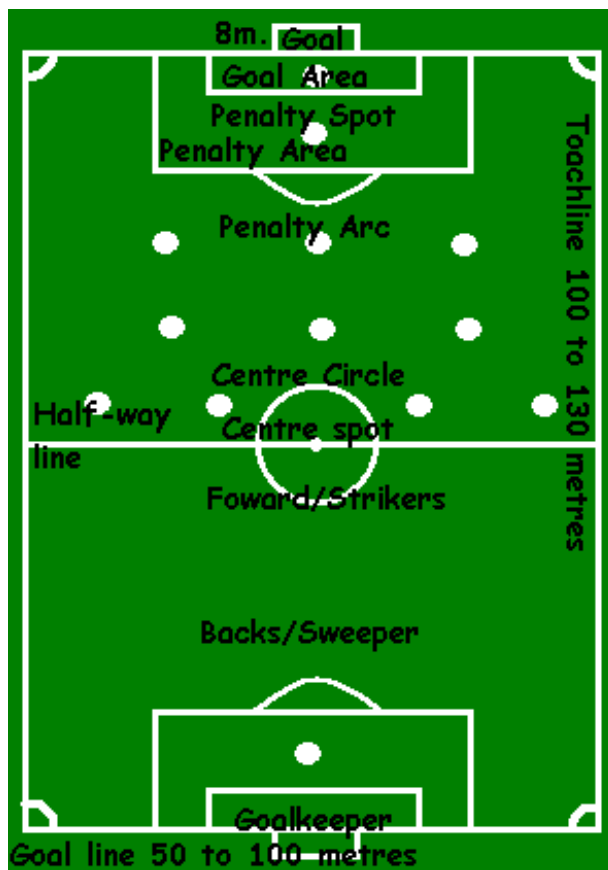
The English have never been against a gamble though most of them know where to draw the line and wisely refrain from betting too often. Since the war the most popular form of gambling is no doubt that of staking a small sum on the football pools. (The word “pool” is connected with the picture of streams of money pouring into a common fund, or “pool” from which the winner’s are paid after the firm has taken its expense and profit). Those who do so receive every week from one of the pools firms a printed form; on this are listed the week's matches. Against each match, or against a number of them, the optimist puts down a 1, a 2 or an x to show that he thinks the result of the match will be a home win, an away win or a draw. The form is then posted to the pools firm, with a postal order or cheque for the sum staked (or, as the firms say, “invested”). At the end of the week the results of the matches are announced on television and published in the newspapers and the “investor” can take out his copy of his coupon and check his forecast.

2. Football

Football is the most popular team game in Britain. The British invented it and it has spread to every corner of the world. There is no British team. England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland compete separately in European and World Cup matches. The English and Welsh clubs have together formed a League with four divisions. The Scottish League has three divisions. The champions of the English First Division and the Scottish Premier Division qualify to play in the European Cup competition.

British football has traditionally drawn its main following from the working class. In general, the intelligentsia ignored it. But in the last two decades of the twentieth century, it has started to attract wider interest. The appearance of fanzines is an indication of this. Fanzines are magazines written in an informal but often highly intelligent and witty style, published by the fans of some of the clubs. One or two books of literary merit have been written which focus not only on players, teams and tactics but also on the wider social aspects of the game.

Light-hearted football programmes have appeared on television which similarly gives attention to 'off-the-field' matters. There has also been much academic interest.



At the 1990 World Cup there was a joke among English fans that it was impossible to find a hotel room because they had all been taken by sociologists.

Many team sports in Britain, but especially football, tend to be men-only, 'tribal' affairs. In the USA, the whole family goes to watch the baseball. Similarly, the whole family goes along to cheer the Irish national football team. But in Britain, only a handful of children or women go to football matches. Perhaps this is why active support for local teams has had a tendency to become violent. During the

1970s and 1980s football hooliganism was a major problem in England. In the 1990s, however, it seemed to be on the decline. English fans visiting Europe are now no worse in their behavior than the fans of many other countries.

For the great mass of the British public the eight months of the football season are more important than the four months of cricket. There are plenty of amateur association football (or 'soccer') clubs, and professional football is big business. The annual Cup Final match, between the two teams which have defeated their opponents in each round of a knock-out contest, dominates the scene; the regular 'league' games, organized in four divisions, provide the main entertainment through the season and the basis for the vast system of betting on the football pools. Many of the graffiti on public walls are aggressive statements of support for football teams, and the hooliganism of some British supporters has become notorious outside as well as inside Britain.

Football has been called the most popular game in the world, and it certainly has a great many fans in Britain. And now I want to mention the English terminology for football.

Association football (or soccer) is the game that is played in nearly all countries. A team is composed of a goalkeeper, two backs, three half-backs and five forwards.

Association football remains one of the most popular games played in the

British Isles. Every Saturday from late August until the beginning of May, large crowds of people support their sides in football grounds up and down the country, while an almost equally large number of people play the game in clubs teams of every imaginable variety and level of skill. Over the last 20 years though, the attendance at football matches has fallen away sharply. This is because of changing lifestyles and football hooligans about I have already written but I want to add that violence at and near the football grounds increased, there was an ever-increasing tendency for people to stay away, leaving the grounds to football fans.

After serious disturbances involving English supporters at the European Cup Finals in Brussels in 1985 which led to the deaths of 38 spectators, English clubs were withdrawn from European competitions for the 1985-1986 seasons by the Football Association. The Cup Final at Wembley remains, though, an event of national importance. Here is a drawing of a football field, or "pitch", as it is usually called.

The football pitch should be between 100 and 130 metres long and between 50 and 100 metres wide. It is divided into two halves by the halfway line. The sides of the field are called the touchlines and the ends are called the goal-lines. In the middle of the field there is a centre circle and there is a goal at each end. Each goal is 8 metres wide and between 21/2 and 3 metres high. In front of each goal is the goal area and the penalty area. There is a penalty spot inside the penalty area and a penalty arc outside it. A game of football usually lasts for one and a half hours. At half time, the teams change ends. The referee controls the game. The aim of each team is obviously to score as many goals as possible. If both teams score the same number of goals, or if neither team scores any goals at all, the result is a draw.

The final of the football competition takes place every May at the famous Wembley stadium in London. Some of the best-known clubs in England are Manchester United, Liverpool and the Arsenal. In Scotland Rangers, Celtic or Aberdeen usually wins the cup or the championship.

Today, many people are only interested in football because of the pools and the chance of winning a lot of money.

3. Rugby

There is another game called rugby football, so called because it originated at Rugby, a well-known English public school. In this game the players may carry the ball. Rugby football (or 'soccer') is played with an egg-shaped ball, which may be carried and thrown (but not forward). The ball is passed from hand to hand rather than from foot to foot. If a player is carrying the ball he may be 'tackled' and made to fall down. Each team has fifteen players, who spend a lot of time lying in the mud or on top of each other and become very dirty, but do not need to wear such heavily protective clothing as players of American football.

There are two forms of rugby - Rugby Union, which is strictly amateur, and Rugby League, played largely in the north, which is a professional sport. Rugby Union has fifteen players, while Rugby League has thirteen, but the two games are basically the same. They are so similar that somebody who is good at one of them can quickly learn to become good at the other. The real difference between them is a matter of social history. Rugby union is the older of the two. In

the nineteenth century it was enthusiastically taken up by most of Britain's public schools. Rugby league split off from rugby union at the end of the century. There are two versions of this fast and aggressive ball game: rugby union and rugby league. Although it has now spread to many of the same places in the world where rugby union is played (rugby union is played at top level in the British Isles, France, Australia, South Africa and New Zealand; also to a high level in North America, Argentina, Romania and some Pacific islands). Rugby can be considered the 'national sport' of Wales, New Zealand, Fiji, Western Samoa and Tonga, and of South African whites. Its traditional home is among the working class of the north of England, where it was a way for miners and factory workers to make a little bit of extra money from their sporting talents. Unlike rugby union, it has always been a professional sport.

Because of these social origins, rugby league in Britain is seen as a working class sport, while rugby union is mainly for the middle classes. Except in south Wales, there, rugby union is a sport for all classes, and more popular than football. In Wales, the phrase 'international day' means only one thing — that the national rugby teams are playing. Since 1970, some of the best Welsh players have been persuaded to 'change codes'. They are 'bought' by one of the big rugby league clubs, where they can make a lot of money. Whenever this happens it is seen as a national disaster among the Welsh.

Rugby union has had some success in recent years in selling itself to a wider audience. As a result, just as football has become less exclusively working class in character, rugby union has become less exclusively middle class. In 1995- it finally abandoned amateurism. In fact, the amateur status of top rugby union players had already become meaningless. They didn't get paid a salary or fee for playing, but they received large 'expenses' as well as various publicity contracts and paid speaking engagements.

4. Cricket

Do you know how to play cricket?

If you don't live in England, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa or the West Indies you won't learn it at school. English people love cricket. Summer isn't summer without it. Even if you do not understand the rules, it is attractive to watch the players, dressed in white playing on the beautiful green cricket fields. Every Sunday morning from May to the end of September many Englishmen get up very early, and take a lot of sandwiches with them. It is necessary because the games are very long. Games between two village teams last for only one afternoon. Games between counties last for three days, with 6 hours play on each day. When England plays with one or other cricketing countries such as Australia and New Zealand it is called a test match and lasts for 5 days. Cricket is played in schools, colleges and universities and in most towns and villages by teams which play weekly games. Test matches with other cricketing countries are held annually. Cricket is also played by women and girls. The governing body is Women's Cricket Association, founded in 1926. Women's cricket clubs have regular weekend games. Test matches and other international matches take place. The women's World Cup is held every four years. Cricket is played by two teams of 11 each. One team must bat and the other team must field. When the first team fin-

ished batting, the second team must begin. The batsman must all the time guard his “wicket”, three rather ridiculous pieces of wood which are pushed into the ground. The game is very slow. In many ways this is the most English of all sports. It is a game for a hot June day with a slight breeze and the feeling that there is no hurry in the world.

5. Table Tennis

Eighty years ago, Mr. E. Goode of Putney, South London, went to the chemist's to buy some aspirins. In the shop, he almost forgot about his tablets as he stood looking at the pimpled rubber mat on the counter. It had given him a fantastic new idea. He paid for his aspirins and the rubber mat. Then he rushed home, cut the rubber mat to the right shape and size and stuck it to his plain wooden table tennis bat. The thin layer of rubber helped him put a very fast spin on the ball. When he became the English champion, everyone started. Copying him, putting rubber layers on their bats, and soon Mr. Goode's clever idea completely changed the style and speed of table tennis.

Table tennis was first invented in England in about 1880. At first the game had several strange names: Gossima, Whiff Whaff and Ping Pong. It wasn't until 1926 that the International Table Tennis Association was formed with international championships and rules. One of the rules was that the rubber linings of the bat (Mr. Goode's invention) couldn't be more than two millimeters thick on each side. Although the game was invented in England British players don't have much chance in international championships. It's the Chinese with their fantastic speed and power who win almost every title. They often use a pen holder grip, not the “shake-hands” technique popular in Europe and the States. Their style is athletic and they often play standing several metres away from the table. Table tennis looks more like gymnastics when the Chinese start playing, with the ball flying over the net at speeds of over 150 kilometers per hour. But don't forget that it's thanks to an Englishman that table tennis is the fast and skilful game it is today. It's the pimpled rubber lining that allows players to get a good spin on the ball. Mr. Goode's headache eighty years ago was a turning point in the history of the game!

THEME 8: ECONOMY, MASS MEDIA AND OTHER SECTORS OF THE UK.

I. Manufacturing.

II. Agriculture.

III. Mining.

IV. Fishing.

V. Energy Sources.

VI. International Trade.

VII. Transportation.

VIII. Science, engineering and innovation

Key words: economy, manufacturing and trading, finance, insurance, real estate, the most important service industry, community, social, personal services, government, transportation and communication, utilities, steel producer, automobiles, buses, trucks, and motorcycles, heavy machinery for industry,

farming, and mining, the imports include avocados, bananas, oranges, peppers, pineapples, raising of a variety of crops and animals, a major world producer of petroleum, coal, and natural gas, fuel-burning plants.

The United Kingdom is an important manufacturing and trading nation. In fact, Britain can survive only by manufacturing and trading. The country's farms produce only about two-thirds of the food needed by the people. Except for coal, natural gas, and oil, Britain has few natural resources. The country must import about a third of its food and many of the raw materials it needs for manufacturing.

Service industries account for about two-thirds of the United Kingdom's gross domestic product (GDP). The GDP is the total value of goods and services produced within the country annually. More than 70 percent of British workers are employed in service industries. The country's service industries are concentrated in and near its largest cities, especially London.

Finance, insurance, and real estate are the most important service industry in Britain. This industry accounts for a larger portion of the United Kingdom's GDP than any other industry. Most of the country's financial companies operate in London, one of the world's leading financial cities. Major financial institutions in London include the Bank of England, the United Kingdom's national bank; the London Stock Exchange; and Lloyd's of London insurance society.

Community, social, and personal services rank second among the service industries in the United Kingdom. This industry employs more British workers than any other service industry. It includes such activities as education and health care, and advertising and data processing.

Wholesale and retail trade is the third most important service industry in Britain. The most valuable wholesale trading activities include the distribution of petroleum and textiles. Aberdeen and London are important centers of petroleum refining and distribution. Leeds is the chief center of the British clothing industry. Retail trade is centered in London, which has thousands of small shops and attracts millions of tourists yearly.

Tourism is another of Britain's important service industries. It is a growing source of income and employment. Other large service industries in the United Kingdom include government, transportation and communication, and utilities.



The Bank of England; the central bank of the United Kingdom.

I. Manufacturing.

The United Kingdom is a leading industrial nation. Most British industries

are in central England, the London area, the Scottish Central Lowlands, the Newcastle upon Tyne area, and southern Wales. Early factories were located near the coal fields because coal powered the steam engines that moved the machinery. Today, the use of electricity, oil, and gas has enabled many new industries to develop far from the coal fields, especially in southern England.

Britain ranks as an important steel producer. It exports nearly half of its finished steel. The rest is used in Britain to make hundreds of products. Much steel is used in automobiles, buses, trucks, and motorcycles.

Britain also produces heavy machinery for industry, farming, and mining. The country is one of the world's largest producers of tractors. Other products include cranes, earth movers, road graders, harvesters, and drilling machines. British factories also make railway equipment, household appliances, and machine tools. The city of Sheffield is famous for its high-quality knives and hand tools.

British Aerospace makes a wide range of jet aircraft. It is the largest aerospace company in Europe. Rolls-Royce is world famous for airplane engines as well as luxury automobiles. Space satellites and weapons defense systems are also produced in Britain. Aerospace equipment and heavy machinery are major British exports.

An increasing percentage of Britain's manufactured goods consist of sophisticated electronic equipment. Much of this equipment is exported. Factories produce such items as cable television equipment, data processing equipment, fiber-optic communications systems, radar devices, and undersea telephone cables. The chemical industry in Britain produces a variety of products—from industrial chemicals to plastics and soap. Britain is the fourth largest exporter of pharmaceuticals. The country's pottery industry is centered in Stoke-on-Trent. Outstanding names in British pottery include Worcester, Spode, and Wedgwood.

The United Kingdom is one of the world's chief centers of printing and publishing. British companies print paper money and postage stamps for many countries. Books published in Britain are exported to countries throughout the world.

II. Agriculture.

Britain imports about a third of its food supply. The imports include avocados, bananas, oranges, peppers, pineapples, and other items that cannot be easily grown in Britain's climate.

The United Kingdom has about 240,000 farms. They average about 175 acres (71 hectares) in size. About two-thirds of Britain's farmers own the farms on which they live. The rest rent their farms. About half the people who operate or work on farms do so on a part-time basis.

Many British farmers practice mixed farming—that is, they raise a variety of crops and animals. Methods of mixed farming vary from farm to farm. In the rough highlands of Scotland, Wales, and western England, grass grows much better than farm crops. There, farmers use most of their land for grazing. The land in southern and eastern England is drier and flatter, and it is more easily worked. Farmers in eastern England use most of their land for raising crops.

Britain's most important crops are barley, potatoes, rapeseed, sugar beets, and wheat. Farmers in southern and eastern England grow almost all the country's rape-seed, sugar beets, and wheat and most of its barley. Potatoes are grown throughout the United Kingdom. Farmers in southern England grow most of Britain's fruits and garden vegetables. One of the most productive regions is the county of Kent in southeastern England. It is called the Garden of England and is famous for the beautiful blossoms of its apple and cherry orchards.in springtime. Farmers in Kent also grow hops, which are used in making beer.

Sheep are Britain's chief livestock. Farmers in almost every part of the country raise sheep for meat and wool. British farmers also raise beef cattle, dairy cattle, and hoys. Chickens are raised mainly in special mass-production plants.

III. Mining.

The United Kingdom is a major world producer of petroleum, coal, and natural gas. These three fuels account for about 85 percent of the value of total mineral production in the country.

Petroleum is Britain's most valuable mineral. British oil wells produce about 650 million barrels of petroleum a year. In the past, the country had to import petroleum to meet its needs. But during the 1970's, Britain began producing petroleum from wells in the North Sea. Today, Britain's oil wells provide nearly all the petroleum that the country uses and also supply petroleum for export.

Britain's largest coal-mining region lies near the River Trent in central England. Coal from this area is an important source of fuel for the country's electric power plants.

Britain obtains natural gas from deposits below the North Sea. These deposits provide enough gas to meet most of the country's needs.

Britain's next most important minerals, in order of value, are sand and gravel, limestone, and clays. The Southwest Peninsula has fine china clay, used in making pottery. Southeastern England has large deposits of chalk, used for cement. Other British minerals include sandstone and gypsum.

IV. Fishing.

The United Kingdom is an important fishing nation. The British fishing industry supplies about 685,000 short tons (621,000 metric tons) of fish yearly. About half this catch comes from the waters surrounding Britain, especially the North Sea. British fishing crews also fish as far away as the Grand Banks of Newfoundland. The principal catches include cod, haddock, herring, mackerel, plaice, pollock, sand lance, sole, and whiting. Large catches of shellfish are also brought in. The United Kingdom's main fishing ports are on the east coast and in the southwestern part of the island of Great Britain.

Fishing is an important industry in the United Kingdom, which is one of Europe's most productive fishing nations. This fishing boat empties a catch of shellfish at a Scottish port.

V. Energy Sources.

Fuel-burning plants provide about 80 percent of Britain's electric power. Nuclear energy provides most of the remaining electricity. In 1956, Britain opened

the world's first large-scale nuclear power station at Calder Hall, Cumbria, in northwestern England. Natural gas fields under the North Sea provide most of the country's natural gas needs. Petroleum deposits off the coast of Scotland supply enough oil to meet the United Kingdom's needs.

VI. International Trade.

The United Kingdom ranks as a leading trading nation. Britain once imported chiefly raw materials and exported mostly manufactured products. However, manufactured goods now account for about three-fourths of British imports and also about three-fourths of its exports. Britain exports aerospace equipment, chemicals and pharmaceuticals, machinery, motor vehicles, petroleum, and scientific and medical equipment. Its imports include chemicals, clothing, foods (especially fish, fruit, vegetables, meat, coffee, and tea), machinery, metals, motor vehicles, paper and newsprint, petroleum products, and textiles.

Most of the United Kingdom's trade is with other developed countries. France, Germany, and the United States are Britain's leading customers and suppliers. A growing proportion of the country's trade is with members of the European Community, which the United Kingdom joined in 1973. Other trade partners include Canada, Ireland, Japan, Norway, Saudi Arabia, Sweden, and Switzerland.

The value of Britain's imports of goods usually exceeds the value of its exports. British banks and insurance companies make up part of the difference by selling their services to people and firms in other lands. Another important source of income is the spending by the more than 15 million tourists who visit the United Kingdom each year. The British merchant fleet also brings in money by carrying cargoes for other countries. The income from all these invisible exports exceeds \$200 billion a year.



London is Europe's largest financial Centre and one of the world's three largest financial centres alongside New York and Hong Kong.

VII. Transportation.

Roads and railways carry most passenger and freight traffic within the United Kingdom. An excellent system of high-speed motorways links major cities and towns. Bus systems provide local and intercity transportation. Lorries (trucks) carry about 80 percent of the inland freight.

An extensive rail network crisscrosses the United Kingdom. The railroads are owned by the government and provide excellent high-speed passenger service, as well as freight hauling.

Britain has a large merchant fleet. The ships in the fleet carry British-made goods to ports throughout the world and bring back needed imports. British ships also carry freight for other countries. There are about 80 ports of commercial significance throughout the United Kingdom.

The country's inland waterways are used to carry freight, as well as for recreational boating. The Thames, which flows through London, is Britain's busiest river and one of the busiest in the world.

Ferry services connect coastal and island communities. Hovercrafts (vehicles that ride over water on a cushion of air) carry passengers mainly across the English Channel between England and France. In 1987, work began on a railway tunnel to link Britain and France beneath the channel. The tunnel was scheduled for completion in 1994.



The Forth Railway Bridge, Scotland, is an iconic feature of the rail network.

A North Sea oil rig helps produce petroleum, the United Kingdom's most valuable mineral. Oil wells in the North Sea yield enough petroleum for the country's needs and for export.

British Airways, the United Kingdom's largest airline, operates flights to all parts of the world. Smaller airlines provide service within Britain and to other countries. Britain's largest airports are Heathrow and Gatwick, both near London, and those at Birmingham, Glasgow, and Manchester.

VIII. Science, engineering and innovation

The United Kingdom led the industrial revolution and has produced scientists and engineers credited with important advances, including;

The laws of motion and illumination of gravity, by English physicist, mathematician, astronomer, natural philosopher, alchemist and theologian, Sir Isaac Newton

The unification of electromagnetism, by James Clerk Maxwell

The discovery of hydrogen, by Henry Cavendish

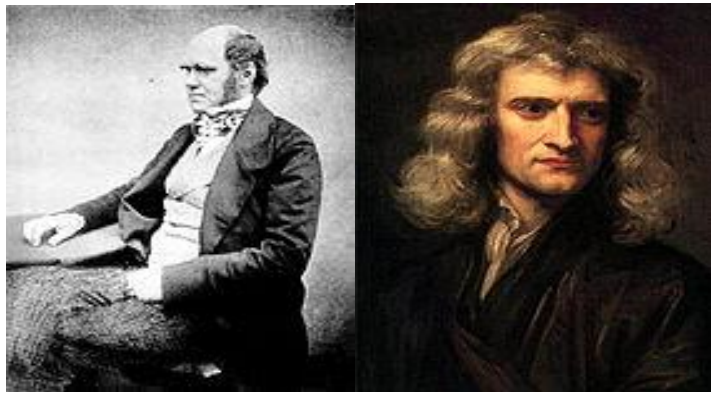
The steam locomotive, by Richard Trevithick and Andrew Vivian

The theory of aerodynamics, by Sir George Cayley

The world's first working television system, and colour television, by Scottish engineer and inventor John Logie Baird

The invention of the jet engine, by Frank Whittle

Evolution by natural selection, by Charles Darwin



Charles Darwin, Sir Isaac Newton

The Turing machine, by Alan Turing, the basis of the modern computer
 The invention of the hovercraft, by Christopher Cockerell
 The electric motor, by Michael Faraday, who largely made electricity viable for use in technology
 First practical telephone, by Scottish inventor Alexander Graham Bell
 The structure of DNA, by Francis Crick and others
 The invention of the World Wide Web, by Tim Berners-Lee
 The invention of the incandescent light bulb, by Joseph Swan
 The creation of postage and modern postal service, by Sir Rowland Hill
 The discovery of penicillin, by Scottish biologist and pharmacologist, Sir Alexander Fleming

Notable civil engineering projects, whose pioneers included Isambard Kingdom Brunel, contributed to the world's first national railway transport system. Other advances pioneered in the UK include the marine chronometer, the jet engine, the modern bicycle, electric lighting, the steam turbine, stereo sound, motion picture, the screw propeller, the internal combustion engine, military radar, electronic computer, aeronautics, soda water, ivf, nursing, antiseptic surgery, vaccination and antibiotics.

Questions:

1. What industries are accounted as the GDP of the UK?
2. What is the most important service industry of the UK?
3. Where the most industries are situated in Britain?
4. For what the steel is much used in the country?
5. Outstanding names in British pottery include... .
6. In agriculture the imports include... .
7. How many farms are there in the United Kingdom?
8. What is the mixed farming style?
9. What is the most valuable mineral?
10. Most of the United Kingdom's trade with other developed countries is...
11. United Kingdom's largest airline is....
12. Name Britain's largest airports.

Mass Media in the UK

I. Media in Britain

II. Television (Telly) and Radio

2.1. Radio

2.2. BBC

2.3. Independent Television

2.4. Independent Radio

2.5. Teletext, Cable and Satellite Services

2.6. TV Licence

III. The Press

3.1. Newspapers

3.2. Digital Broadcasting

Key words: media play a central role in Britain's daily life; Britain is one of the world's foremost exporters of TV productions; radio in the UK is dominated by BBC Radio; The BBC provides regular television broadcasts; there are three independent national services in Britain; many British – based satellite television channels; people pay to watch the television in the UK; the press in Britain is free to comment; one can buy a digital box or a new TV;

I. Media in Britain

The media play a central role in Britain's daily life, informing and educating, questioning and challenging – and of course – entertaining. In recent years the availability of more radio frequencies, together with satellite, cable and microwave transmissions, has already made a greater number of local, national and international services possible. The transition from analogue to digital transmission technology is now expanding this capacity enormously. The Internet is providing, increasingly, an additional medium for information, entertainment and communication.

The UK has a large and diverse media, and the prominence of the English language gives it a widespread international dimension. Britain has about 100 daily newspapers. About 15 have nationwide circulation. Their main offices are in London.

The British Post Office provides many services in addition to handling mail. For example, local post offices sell TV licenses, dog licenses, and national insurance stamps. People can draw pensions and family allowances and also bank their savings at the post offices.

II. Television (Telly) and Radio

Britain is one of the world's foremost exporters of TV productions which continue to win large numbers of international awards, especially for documentaries, nature programmes and drama serials.

The BBC is the UK's publicly-funded radio and television broadcasting corporation, and is the oldest broadcaster in the world. Funded by the compulsory television licence, the BBC operates several television channels and radio stations both in the UK and abroad.

Do you ever listen to the World Service? It's an international BBC radio station. The BBC World Service radio channel is broadcast in 33 languages around the world. It broadcasts programmes in English, Russian and even in Uzbek.

BBC News is also broadcast around the world.

The BBC channels are commercial free while the other three have commercials. All the channels offer a mixture of drama, light entertainment,

films, sport, educational, children's and religious programmes, news and current affairs, and documentaries.

The main, free-to-air television channels in the UK are BBC1, BBC2, ITV1 (STV in Scotland), Channel 4 and Five. The main satellite broadcaster is British Sky Broadcasting, the vast majority of digital cable services are provided by NTL:Telewest (created by the merger of NTL and Telewest in March 2006), and free-to-air digital terrestrial television by Freeview.

2.1. Radio

People in Britain listen to an average 15 hours and 50 minutes of radio each week. The BBC has five national radio networks which together transmit all types of music, news, current affairs, drama, education, sport and a range of feature programmes.

Radio in the UK is dominated by BBC Radio, which operates 10 national and 40 regional radio stations. The most popular radio station, by number of listeners, is BBC Radio 2 which specialises in popular music aimed at the 'middle aged' age bracket; it is closely followed by BBC Radio 1, aimed at the 15-24 aged bracket and the previous market leader. Commercial radio tends to be regionalised, although Virgin Radio, Classic FM and talk SPORT are broadcast nationally. Popular regional stations include Capital Radio in London; Heart in London and Midlands; Galaxy in Birmingham and the north of England; Magic in London and the north of England; and Radio Clyde in Glasgow.

Broadcasting in Britain has traditionally been based on the principle that it is a public service accountable to people. While retaining the essential public service element, it now also embraces the principles of competition and choice:

- The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), which broadcasts television and radio programmes;
- The ITC (Independent Television Commission), which licenses and regulates commercial television services, including cable and satellite services.
- The Radio Authority, which licenses and regulates commercial radio services, including cable and satellite.

The three bodies work to broad requirements and objectives defined and endorsed by Parliament, but are otherwise independent in their daily conduct of business.

Television viewing is by far Britain's most popular leisure pastime: over 97 per cent of households have at least one TV set. British television productions are sold world – wide.

The channels:

BBC1 has been broadcasting since 1936. It specialized in general interest programmes, Light entertainment, sports and children's programmes.

BBC2 covers minority and specialist interests as well as music, serious drama, travel programme and foreign films in the original languages.

BBC3 Broadcasting is approximately 33% informative and 66% entertainment, sport and films.

BBC4 Began in 1982. It shows 25% educational programmas and encourages innovation and experiments.

The BBC fact-file.

- The letters BBC stand for the British Broadcasting Corporation.
- The BBC began in 1922.
- It started to make international radio programmes in 1932.
- More than 30.000 people work for the BBC and 3.350 of them help to make radio programmes for countries outside' Britain
- Everyone in Britain with a TV has to buy a license each year. The money from these licenses goes to the BBC but it doesn't pay for the World Service. The British, government pays for all international radio programmes.



BBC Television Centre.

2.2. BBC

The BBC has been providing regular television broadcasts since 1936. The BBC provides two complementary national terrestrial television networks: BBC 1 and BBC 2, which transmit 24 hours a day. It also provides a range of digital channels, including BBC News 24 and BBC Choice. BBC Network Radio serves an audience of 29 each week, transmitting 24 hours a day on its five national networks. BBC has 39 local radio stations serving England and the Channel Islands, and regional and community radio services in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. BBC World Service broadcasts by radio in English and 42 other languages world – wide. It has a global weekly audience of at least 140 million listeners. BBC Worldwide Television is responsible for the BBC's commercial television activity. It is one of Europe's largest exporters of television programmes. It also runs an advertiser – funded, 24 – hour international news and information channel; and an entertainment and drama channel broadcast to subscribers in continental Europe and Africa.

The BBC's domestic services are financed predominantly from the sale of annual television licences; there are no paid advertisements. BBC World Service radio is funded by a government grant, while BBC Worldwide Television is self – financing.

2.3. Independent Television

The ITC licenses and regulates three commercial television services – Channel 3 and Channel 4 (in Wales the corresponding service is S4C), which complement each other, and Channel 5 – all financed by advertising and sponsorship. Channel 3 programmes are supplied by 15 regionally based licensees and an additional licensee providing a national breakfast – time service. Licences for Channel 3 and 5 are awarded for a ten – year period by competitive tender to the highest bidder who has passed a quality threshold.

2.4. Independent Radio

Independent radio programme companies operate under licence to the Radio Authority and are financed mainly by advertising revenue. There are three independent national services: Classic FM, broadcasting mainly classical music; Virgin 1215, playing broad – based rock music; and Talk Radio UK, speech – based service. About 200 independent local radio services are also in operation. Stations supply local news and information, sport, music and other entertainment, education and consumer advice.

4.5. Teletext, Cable and Satellite Services

The BBC and independent television both operate a Teletext service, under which information is displayed as “pages” of text and graphics on receivers equipped with the necessary decoders.

Cable services are delivered through underground cables and are paid for subscription. Cable franchises have been granted covering areas comprising 83 per cent of all homes and nearly all urban areas in Britain. In mid – 1999 there were about 12.1 million homes able to receive such services, and 3 million subscribing homes. Digital technology is being introduced which will support up to 500 television channels. Cable also has the capacity for computer – based interactive services, such as home shopping and email.

Many British – based satellite television channels have been set up to supply programmes to cable operators and viewers with satellite dishes. Some offer general entertainment, while others concentrate on specific areas of interest, such as sport, music, children’s programmes and feature films. The largest satellite programmer is BSkyB (British Sky Broadcasting) which, with around 7 million subscribers, dominates paid – for television in Britain. It launched its digital satellite service in 1998, carrying more than 140 channels.

Satellite television and cable services are funded mainly by subscription income.

2.6. TV Licence

People pay to watch the telly in the UK, no matter how much or how little they watch TV.

In the UK, if you use a TV or any other device to receive or record TV programmes (for example, a VCR, set-top box, DVD recorder or PC with a broadcast card) - you need a TV Licence. You are required by law to have one.

Currently a TV Licence costs £142.50 for colour and £48.00 for black and white. (Last updated April 2009)

There are no advertisements during BBC programmes.

III. The Press

3.1. Newspapers

There are about 130 daily and Sunday newspapers, over 2,000 weekly newspapers and some 7,000 periodical publications, 10 national morning daily papers and 10 national Sundays – five “qualities”, two “mid – market” and three “populars” in Britain. There are about 1,350 regional and local newspapers. The press in Britain is free to comment on matters of public interest, subject to law.

Daily Newspapers sell 322 copies per 1000 people in the UK, the eighth highest rate in the world.

British newspapers include the following:

- The Daily Mail
- The Daily Telegraph
- The Financial Times
- The Independent
- The Scotsman
- The Times
- Western Mail and Echo
- The Sun
- The Mirror
- The Herald



As we said in Britain there are 10 national daily newspapers and most people read one of them every day. Daily newspapers are published on every day of the week except Sunday. Sunday newspapers are larger than daily newspapers. All the Sunday newspapers are national. Most national newspapers in Britain express a political opinion, most of them right-wing, and people choose the newspaper that they read according to their own political beliefs.

Fleet Street in London used to be the home of most national daily and Sunday newspapers and that is why people often say “Fleet Street” to mean “the press” even now. In the 1980s most of the newspapers moved to new buildings in different parts of London to use new printing technologies.

British newspapers, according to their meaning, can be divided into two groups: quality and popular. Quality newspapers are more serious and cover home and foreign news while popular newspapers like shocking, personal stories.

These two groups of papers can be distinguished easily because the quality newspapers are twice the size of the popular newspapers. The quality daily papers are “The Times”, “The Guardian”, “The Daily Telegraph” and the “Financial Times”.

“The Times”, founded in 1785, is considered to be the most authoritative newspaper voice in the country and is said to be the paper of the Establishment.

“The Guardian” appeals to well-educated readers interested in intellectual and social affairs.

“The Daily Telegraph” is bought by educated upper-middle and middle-class readers.

The “Financial Times”, printed on pink papers, is read by businessmen.

The “popular” press consists of the “Daily Mail”, the “Express”, “the Daily Star” and “The Sun”.

National newspapers have an average total circulation of over 13 million on weekdays and about 14 million on Sundays, although the total readership is considerably greater. There is no state control or censorship of the newspaper and periodical press, which caters for a range of political views, interests and level of education. Where they express pronounced views and show obvious political leanings in their editorial comments, these may derive from proprietorial and other non – party influences.

A non – statutory Press Complaints Commission deals with complaints by members of the public about the content and conduct of newspapers and magazines, and advises editors and journalists. In 1995, the Government rejected proposals for statutory regulation of the press and for legislation to give protection to privacy. Instead, it endorsed self – regulation under the Commission and recommended tougher measures to make self – regulation more effective.

Working practices throughout the newspaper industry have become more efficient with the widespread use of advanced computer – based technology. Publishers have been able to reduce production costs by using computer systems for editing and production processes.

3.2. Digital Broadcasting

The country is moving over to digital broadcasting.



You can buy a digital box (costs about £40 to £60 and plugs into TV) or a new TV. Additional free digital services include the existing channels BBC1, BBC2, ITV, Channel 4 and Channel 5, and adds BBC3, BBC4, BBC News 24, as well as ITV2, ITV3, ITV4 and a whole load of other channels including the American Channel ABC1 and the BBC's digital channels BBC6 and BBC7. There are about 30 channels in all, known as 'Freeview' channels. You can also get a wide range of digital radio channels, so you can 'watch' radio on your TV! Many people have to get a better aerial to receive digital television.

Questions:

1. What types of the Newspapers are there in GB?
2. What are the ABC, BBC, CBS, and NBC?

3. How the television companies finance?
4. When the BBC began working?
5. With what the quality and popular newspapers are distinguished?

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA



Theme 9: Geography of the USA

I. Territory

II. Climate of the USA.

III. Population and Major Cities

IV. Rivers and Lakes

V. Vegetation

VI. Animals

VII. Resources and

Environmental

Protection.

Key words: countries, border, north, south, east, west, climate, chief metropolitan areas, rivers, seas, mountains, forests, rain, people, descent, whites, blacks, urban places, suburbans. The fifty states divided into six distinctive regions: The Northeast, The Middle Atlantic, The South, The Midwest, The Southwest, The West; the Northeast is not well suited for farming; manufacturing and shipping are the dominant industries in the Middle Atlantic region; the South is very conducive to farming, agriculture is the primary industry; the Midwest is the largest region, with its very fertile land that is ideal for farming; the Southwest is famous with its deserts; West is a place of new beginnings and

opportunities.

I. Territory of the USA

The United States of America is the fourth largest country in the world (after Russia, Canada and China). It occupies the southern part of North America and stretches from the Pacific to the Atlantic Ocean. It also includes Alaska in the north and Hawaii in the Pacific Ocean. The total area of the country is about nine and a half million square kilometers. The USA borders on Canada in the north and Mexico in the south. It also has a sea boarder with Russia.

The USA is made up of 50 states and the District of Columbia, a special federal area where the capital of the country, Washington, is situated. In the United States each of 50 states has its own government. The seat of the central (federal) government is Washington DC. According to the US Constitution the powers of the government are divided into 3 branches: the executive, headed by the President, the legislative, exercised by the Congress, and the juridical. The Congress consists of the Senate and the House of Representatives. There are two main political parties in the USA: the Republican and the Democratic.



Mount Hood, a dormant volcano in the Pacific Northwest

II. Climate of the USA

The United States has a broad range of climates, varying from the tropical rain forest of Hawaii and the tropical savanna of Florida to the sub arctic and tundra climates of Alaska. East of the United States has humid subtropical climate and the NE of the United States has humid continental climate. Extensive forests are found in both these regions. West of the United States has the steppe climate and the grasslands of the Great Plains; trees are found along the watercourses. In the SW United States are the deserts of the basin and range province, with the hottest and driest spots in the United States. Along the Pacific coast is the Mediterranean-type climate of South California and, extending north into SE Alaska, the marine West Coast climate. The Pacific Northwest is one of the wettest parts of the United States and is densely forested.

The Rocky Mountains, Cascades, and Sierra Nevada have typical highland climates and are also heavily forested.

III. Population and Major Cities

Us population is more than 326,090,029. (2015). It is the third most populous country in the world. It is very urbanized; with 81% residing in cities and suburbs

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

The total fertility rate in the United States estimated for 2014 is 1.86 children per woman, which is below the replacement fertility rate of approximately 2.1. Compared to other Western countries, in 2012, U.S. fertility rate was lower than that of France (2.01), Australia (1.93) and the United Kingdom (1.92). However, U.S. population growth is among the highest in industrialized countries, because the differences in fertility rates are less than the differences in immigration levels, which are higher in the U.S. The United States Census Bureau shows population increase of 0.75% for the twelve-month period ending in July 2012. Though high by industrialized country standards, this is below the world average annual rate of 1.1%.

There were over 158.6 million women in the United States in 2009. The number of men was 151.4 million. At age 85 and older, there were more than twice as many women as men. People under 20 years of age made up over a quarter of the U.S. population (27.3%), and people age 65 and over made up one-eighth (12.8%) in 2009. The national median age was 36.8 years.

The United States Census Bureau defines White people as those "having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa. It includes people who reported "White" or wrote in entries such as Irish, German, Italian, Lebanese, Near Easterner, Arab, or Polish." Whites constitute the majority of the U.S. population, with a total of about 245,532,000 or 77.7% of the population as of 2013. There are 62.6% Whites when Hispanics who describe themselves as "white" are taken out of the calculation. Despite major changes due to illegal and legal immigration since the 1960s and the higher birth-rates of nonwhites, the overall current majority of American citizens are still white, and English-speaking, though regional differences exist.

The American population almost quadrupled during the 20th century—at a growth rate of about 1.3% a year—from about 76 million in 1900 to 281 million in 2000. It reached the 200 million mark in 1968 and the 300 million mark on October 17, 2006. Population growth is fastest among minorities as a whole, and according to the Census Bureau's estimation for 2012, 50.4% of American children under the age of 1 belonged to minority groups.

Hispanic and Latino Americans accounted for 48% of the national population growth of 2.9 million between July 1, 2005, and July 1, 2006. Immigrants and their U.S.-born descendants are expected to provide most of the U.S. population gains in the decades ahead.

The Census Bureau projects a U.S. population of 417 million in 2060, which is a 38% increase from 2007 (301.3 million). However, the United Nations projects a U.S. population of 402 million in 2050, an increase of 32% from 2007. In an official census report, it was reported that 54.4% (2,150,926 out of 3,953,593) of births in 2010, were non-Hispanic white. This represents an increase of 0.34% compared to the previous year, which was 54.06%.

The biggest group in society is often called the mainstream. In the US, it is white people whose ancestors come from Europe, especially northern Europe and

besides that Native Americans, African Americans and Hispanics are the main ethnic minorities.



Major metropolitan areas (cities which densely populated) include New York city, New-York state (more than 20,092,883 people), Los Angeles city, California state (about 13,262,220 people) Chicago city, Illinois state (about 9,554,598 people), and Miami (more than 5,929,819 people), Houston (6,490,180 people), Philadelphia (about 6,051,170 people), Washington DC (about 6,033,737 people), Boston (about 4,732,161people), Detroit (more than 4,296,611people), Dallas (more than 4,296,611 people), San Francisco (more than 3,263,431people), Atlanta (more than 5,614,323people) and Pittsburg (more than 2,355,968people).

The biggest state is Alaska; the smallest one is Rhode-Island. Farming land is 33, 2%, desert land is 26, 9%, and forestland is 26, 6, cities, mountains and other lands are 12, 2%.

Leading population centers based on 2015 U.S. Census Bureau estimates

Rank	Metropolitan Statistical Area	2015 Estimate	2010 Census	Change	Encompassing Combined Statistical Area
1	New York-Newark-Jersey City, NY-NJ-PA Metropolitan Statistical Area	20,092,883	19,567,410	+2.69%	New York-Newark, NY-NJ-CT-PA Combined Statistical Area
2	Los Angeles-Long Beach-Anaheim, CA Metropolitan Statistical Area	13,262,220	12,828,837	+3.38%	Los Angeles-Long Beach, CA Combined Statistical Area
3	Chicago-Naperville-Elgin, IL-IN-WI Metropolitan Statistical Area	9,554,598	9,461,105	+0.99%	Chicago-Naperville, IL-IN-WI Combined Statistical Area
4	Dallas-Fort Worth-Arlington, TX Metropolitan Statistical Area	6,954,330	6,426,214	+8.22%	Dallas-Fort Worth, TX-OK Combined Statistical Area
5	Houston-The Woodlands-Sugar Land, TX Metropolitan Statistical Area	6,490,180	5,920,416	+9.62%	Houston-The Woodlands, TX Combined Statistical Area
6	Philadelphia-Camden-Wilmington, PA-NJ-DE-MD Metropolitan Statistical Area	6,051,170	5,965,343	+1.44%	Philadelphia-Reading-Camden, PA-NJ-DE-MD Combined Statistical Area
7	Washington-Arlington-Alexandria, DC-VA-MD-WV Metropolitan Statistical Area	6,033,737	5,636,232	+7.05%	Washington-Baltimore-Arlington, DC-MD-VA-WV-PA Combined Statistical Area
8	Miami-Fort Lauderdale-West Palm Beach, FL Metropolitan Statistical Area	5,929,819	5,564,635	+6.56%	Miami-Fort Lauderdale-Port St. Lucie, FL Combined Statistical Area
9	Atlanta-Sandy Springs-Roswell, GA Metropolitan Statistical Area	5,614,323	5,286,728	+6.20%	Atlanta-Athens-Clarke County-Sandy Springs,

					GA Combined Statistical Area
10	Boston-Cambridge-Newton, MA-NH Metropolitan Statistical Area	4,732,161	4,552,402	+3.95%	Boston-Worcester-Providence, MA-RI-NH-CT Combined Statistical Area
11	San Francisco-Oakland-Hayward, CA Metropolitan Statistical Area	4,594,060	4,335,391	+5.97%	San Jose-San Francisco-Oakland, CA Combined Statistical Area
12	Phoenix-Mesa-Scottsdale, AZ Metropolitan Statistical Area	4,489,109	4,192,887	+7.06%	
13	Riverside-San Bernardino-Ontario, CA Metropolitan Statistical Area	4,441,890	4,224,851	+5.14%	Los Angeles-Long Beach, CA Combined Statistical Area
14	Detroit-Warren-Dearborn, MI Metropolitan Statistical Area	4,296,611	4,296,250	+0.01%	Detroit-Warren-Ann Arbor, MI Combined Statistical Area
15	Seattle-Tacoma-Bellevue, WA Metropolitan Statistical Area	3,671,478	3,439,809	+6.73%	Seattle-Tacoma, WA Combined Statistical Area
16	Minneapolis-St. Paul-Bloomington, MN-WI Metropolitan Statistical Area	3,495,176	3,348,859	+4.37%	Minneapolis-St. Paul, MN-WI Combined Statistical Area
17	San Diego-Carlsbad, CA Metropolitan Statistical Area	3,263,431	3,095,313	+5.43%	
18	Tampa-St. Petersburg-Clearwater, FL Metropolitan Statistical Area	2,915,582	2,783,243	+4.75%	
19	St. Louis, MO-IL Metropolitan Statistical Area	2,806,207	2,787,701	+0.66%	St. Louis-St. Charles-Farmington, MO-IL Combined Statistical Area
20	Baltimore-Columbia-Towson, MD Metropolitan Statistical Area	2,785,874	2,710,489	+2.78%	Washington-Baltimore-Arlington, DC-MD-VA-WV-PA Combined Statistical Area
21	Denver-Aurora-Lakewood, CO Metropolitan Statistical Area	2,754,258	2,543,482	+8.29%	Denver-Aurora, CO Combined Statistical Area
22	Charlotte-Concord-Gastonia, NC-SC Metropolitan Statistical Area	2,380,314	2,217,012	+7.37%	Charlotte-Concord, NC-SC Combined Statistical Area
23	Pittsburgh, PA Metropolitan Statistical Area	2,355,968	2,356,285	-0.01%	Pittsburgh-New Castle-Weirton, PA-OH-WV Combined Statistical Area

IV. Rivers and Lakes

Rivers respond to the quantity and seasonal pattern of precipitation in a region. The streams of the eastern United States, principal among which are the Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, and Savannah, receive rainfall in every month and therefore are reliable avenues for waterborne commerce. Rivers of the interior, such as the Ohio, Tennessee, Illinois, and Mississippi, often flood in spring and decrease in size during the hot weeks of late summer and the snow months of winter. Some flow regulation and flood control have been achieved on these rivers through a costly and controversial system of dams and levees. Argument over water projects is even more heated in the western United States, where mountain snowmelt is the principal source of water for the eastward-flowing Missouri, Platte, Arkansas, and Rio Grande rivers and the westward-flowing Colorado, Sacramento, Snake, and Columbia rivers. Most of these rivers shrink in volume as they flow away from their mountain sources; some, like the Colorado, are

dammed and diverted for so many urban or agricultural uses that they no longer carry water to the sea. Along the Pacific seaboard are a few coastal streams that have their seasonal peaks during the winter rainy season. In Alaska the drainage system is dominated by the Yukon, a river as long as the Rio Grande but considerably greater in volume.

Major lakes are Lake Superior, Lake Michigan, Lake Huron, Lake Erie, and Lake Ontario. The surface water sources of the nation also include the five Great Lakes, which occupy an interconnected set of glacially scoured basins and together serve as a major transportation artery. Glaciers also left tens of thousands of smaller lakes throughout the northeastern United States, the upper Midwest, and much of Alaska. Among the larger of these are Champlain, Winnepesaukee, and Cayuga in the northeast and Winnebago, Red, and Mille Lakes in the Midwest. The Great Salt Lake of Utah and many smaller salt basins of the Mountain states are remnants of much larger Ice Age lakes. Many groundwater aquifers, especially those of the Great Plains, are also relics of wetter climates of the past.



V. Vegetation

Because of the plants respond directly to local climate and to a lesser degree to local topography, the indigenous vegetation of the United States is marked by great diversity. In regions other than those dominated by forests are a wide variety of plants that are adapted to colder or drier conditions.

At the time European settlement began, about one-half of the United States was covered by forests. Today, because of extensive human modification, about 30 percent of the country's land area is forested. Similarly, grasslands and other natural vegetative cover decreased in extent as the continent was settled.

Northern Alaska, located in the northernmost part of the United States, is characterized by windswept tundra, a region of lichens, mosses, hardy low shrubs, and flowering plants. Inland and to the south, the growing season lengthens and

certain trees can survive. A few species of needle-leaf trees, notably spruces and firs, dominate a vast but slow-growing evergreen forest, interspersed with lichen-covered rocky areas, grassy swamps, and aspen-choked fire scars. This forest, known as the taiga, stretches southeast from interior Alaska and has small outliers in northern New England and the Great Lakes region. South of the taiga the growing season is still longer and more tree species can survive. Here is found a mixed forest containing needle-leaf and broadleaf trees, and including pines, maples, elms, birches, and oaks, as well as hickory, beech, and sycamore. This type of mixed forest covered the region around the Great Lakes and most of the New England and Middle Atlantic states when European settlers arrived.

Still farther south, the frost-free season exceeds six months, rainfall becomes more reliable, and the forest reaches its maximum diversity. The Great Smoky Mountains National Park in western North Carolina and eastern Tennessee contains more tree species than the entire continent of Europe. The Gulf of Mexico coast is even warmer than this mountainous area, but its plains and low hills do not support as complex a forest. Moreover, the sandy soils and hot summers encourage fires, which suppress oaks and other hardwoods and favor the fast-growing pines that now represent the major forest resource of the nation. Other species found here include southern magnolia, pecan, red gum, and black gum (tupelo). A number of subtropical and tropical trees flourish in southern Florida. Along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, salt marshes and groves of cypress and mangrove help to armor the shore against the eroding forces of wind and water.

The diversity of the forest also decreases west of the Appalachian Mountains. First, the mountaintop spruces, firs, and mountain ashes disappear. Then, rainfall decreases in quantity and reliability, and fires become more frequent. The lush bottomland hardwood forests of the Mississippi Valley slowly dwindle in size and complexity. Oak-hickory forests give way to isolated stands of oak and then to tall grass prairies, which, before cultivation, occupied the present Corn Belt from Indiana to the eastern Great Plains.

Farther west, the climate becomes still drier, and the tall bluestem grasses yield to shorter grass and wheat grass ranges. The grasses of the northern Great Plains grow only during the short summer and flower in late summer or early autumn. By contrast, the grasses of the southern Great Plains grow rapidly in spring, flower early, and then go dormant during the hot, dry summers. Both kinds of grass become less productive as rainfall continues to diminish toward the west. Shrubby sagebrush (in the north) and mesquite and juniper (in Texas) are typical invaders on poorer grasslands that have been overgrazed or protected from fires.

A gradual transition to true desert vegetation is interrupted by the Rocky Mountains and other ranges, the elevation of which both increases rainfall and decreases temperature and evaporation. Trees become prominent on the lower and middle slopes. Hardy pines and junipers dominate at lower elevations, giving way to aspens, firs, and spruces at higher elevations. Still higher, the spruces and firs become stunted and widely spaced. Above this zone is treeless tundra, outwardly similar to Arctic vegetation, although the two kinds of tundra have different patterns of solar radiation, day length, and diurnal (day-to-night) temperature changes. Shrubby low-lying deserts alternate with forested (and occasionally tundra- or ice-capped) mountains across all of the Mountain states and into the

Pacific states. This region is agriculturally productive only when massive investments are made in irrigation. Death Valley, which lies below sea level, is but one of the many nearly barren lowlands. Vegetation in these regions includes species such as sagebrush, juniper, rabbit brush, mesquite, creosote bush, and yucca; the cactus "forests" that form a popular image of deserts are actually found on the slopes of mountain ranges in the Mojave Desert of southern Arizona and California. On the higher but still relatively dry Colorado Plateau are found ponderosa and piñon pines.

The hot, dry summers and mild, moist winters of coastal southern California produce distinctive shrub vegetation known as chaparral. The plants here have adapted to rainy winters, dry summers, autumn fires, and thin soils. Farther north on the western slopes of the coastal hills and Sierra Nevada, the winter rainy season is longer; forests of giant sequoia and redwood occupy this favored location, where there is enough rain to permit rapid growth but a long enough dry season to discourage competition from numerous species. Still farther north, in western Oregon and Washington, a true rain forest appears as the dry periods shrink to less than a few weeks in midsummer. This luxuriant forest consists primarily of a great variety of needle-leaf trees: Douglas firs, true firs, hemlocks, cedars, spruces, and pines, each occupying its own preferred elevation zone here, and together constituting the second richest forest resource for the nation. The coastal forests of Alaska have fewer species than the rich rain forest to the south but a faster growth than the taiga to the north.

The natural vegetation of Hawaii is conditioned by its isolation, which has served to limit the number of species, and by the interplay of its mountains and the moist trade winds. Forests dominated by guava trees on the windward (northeast) coasts of the islands grade upward to a rich but swampy rain forest at moderate elevations, where the annual rainfall may exceed about 10,000 mm (about 400 in). The high mountains support shrub forest, and patches of tundra are found on the summits of the highest peaks, Mauna Loa and Mauna Kea. The dry leeward (southwest) coasts are virtual deserts, with spiny koa and kiawe shrubs growing on the slightly wetter slopes.

VI. Animals

Animals depend, either directly or indirectly, on plants for their survival. Each major vegetation region thus has its own characteristic kinds of animal life. In the Arctic areas and regions of mountain tundra are found burrowing marmots, ground squirrels, cold-water fish such as grayling and trout, and an occasional bear. Alaskan coastal waters are the habitat of a number of large mammals, including walrus and fur seals. Caribou and elk spend summers on the tundra but migrate into the conifer forest for winter. Many birds migrate even farther, going from the Polar Regions to the Tropics each winter. The hardwood forests of the eastern United States contain moose, black bears, deer, foxes, raccoons, skunks, squirrels, and a diversity of small birds. Along the Gulf of Mexico coast live larger and more colourful birds such as pelicans, flamingos, and green kingfishers, as well as alligators and warm water fish such as catfish. Several varieties of venomous snakes are also found here.

Bison (buffalo) are popularly associated with the grasslands, although in fact

they once ranged over most of eastern North America before being nearly exterminated by hunting; they now exist only in captivity or in protected areas. Gophers, rabbits, prairie dogs, ferrets, ants, and other burrowing creatures are best suited to the grasslands, which were once swept by fires. The mountainous western states, especially Alaska, are the last refuges in the United States of most big-game animals. Here may be found elk, pronghorn, moose, deer, bighorn sheep, mountain goats, timber wolves, and, in a few remote areas, brown bears. The Kodiak bear, the largest carnivore in North America, is found in Alaska. The deserts have few plants, fewer small animals, and almost no large animals. Kangaroo rats, lizards, and wide-ranging birds are typical animals in this harsh region. The animals of Hawaii include many endemic species (those not found elsewhere), but many of these have been driven to near extinction by human alteration of the habitat and by competition from introduced animals. Hawaii's only indigenous mammal is the bat.

VII. Resources and Environmental Protection

The United States is exceedingly rich in natural resources. The country's climate is favorable for a diversity of crops and forest products. The Corn Belt, a region stretching from western Ohio to central Nebraska, is the largest expanse of prime farmland in the world. Significant deposits of many important minerals, including more than a fifth of the world's coal, are present within the country's borders. Despite this wealth, the United States cannot produce all the resources needed by its large industrial economy. The country imports more than 80 percent of its asbestos, chromium, cobalt, magnesium, platinum, tin, and tungsten. The United States now produces about 65 percent of its petroleum needs, but new domestic discoveries tend to be small and costly to recover, especially in the geologically complex mountain regions and the deep waters of the continental shelf.

Agricultural exports have helped compensate for mineral imports, but the price is high. More than a third of the nation's topsoil has been lost to erosion. Gullies and other obvious scars common in the 1930s can now be repaired by modern heavy machinery, but soil losses caused by less noticeable sheet erosion are still high on more than half the nation's farmland. Many observers have also expressed concern about the rapid conversion of prime cropland to urban and other nonfarm uses.

Despite these trends, the environmental picture of the United States is not all bleak. Because of government regulations, water pollution diminished considerably during the 1970s; forests are growing more rapidly than they are being cut in most regions; and substantial areas have been set aside as wilderness preserves and national parks. The federal government and most of the states have adopted laws that require investigation and public disclosure of the environmental impact of proposed projects. These procedures have helped to increase public awareness of the environmental costs of certain activities. In the future the questions of acid rain, toxic waste disposal, water supply, and climate change will continue to be major national environmental issues.

Regions of the USA

I. The Northeast.
II. The Middle Atlantic.
III. The South.

IV. The Midwest
V. The Southwest
VI. The West

In a country that covers over 9 million square kilometers, it is not surprising to learn that regions that are separated by large distances will be noticeably different. Not only are there great differences in climate and landscape, but also in the people who live in each of these regions. The fifty states that make up the United States can be divided into six distinctive regions which are described below.

I. The Northeast

(Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island). The first immigrants (or settlers) to the United States came to the Northeast region in the 17th century. These were mostly English Protestants, looking for freedom to practice their religion and political reform. Because the winters are cold and harsh, and the land not very flat or fertile, this region is not well suited for farming. Eventually manufacturing and trade became the most important contributors to the regional economy. This region is well known for its culture (with excellent theaters and museums) as well as its educational system (with some of the most highly rated and respective universities in the country). This region is also known for its mixture of ethnic groups, including Irish, Italian, and many eastern Europeans.



II. The Middle Atlantic

(New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Washington, DC, and Maryland). The first settlers in this region were more diverse than in the Northeast. Not only were English Protestants included, but also English Catholics, Dutch, and Swedes. Although the weather is not quite as cold, farming was still difficult, so manufacturing and shipping became the dominant industries. Some of the most highly populated American cities (including the largest, New York City) are located in the Mid Atlantic, as is the nation's capital (Washington DC). Today finance, communications, and pharmaceuticals are some of the most important industries in the region. The Mid-Atlantic region lies along the Atlantic Ocean to the south of New England. The region is also called the East Coast. The East Coast is the country's main business area. To other Americans, East Coast people seem to have a fast and aggressive lifestyle. The largest cities New York (the largest city of the USA and the world) and Pennsylvania the center of heavy industry. Most of the factories produce iron, glass, and steel.

III. The South

(Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana, and parts of Missouri, Texas and Oklahoma). The first southerners were English Protestants, like the northeasterners, but they were less independent and revolutionary in their nature. With temperate weather and sprawling lands, the south was very conducive to farming and soon agriculture became the primary industry. Southerners are probably the most distinctive of all American regional groups, with more relaxed attitudes and traditional ways than their neighbors to the north. They are known for their hospitality. The climate and the landscape have led this region to become popular with American tourists, and also with retirees. Today farming has become less prominent, and manufacturing and tourism have contributed greatly to the economy. The South differs from other regions of the USA. Perhaps the most difference is its geographic situation.

Because there are days are drier and sunnier than other regions. Southerners call their land as the land of yellow sunlight. The South has many poor areas. The people are traditionally very religious, and the religion is often called the Bible belt. The hot climate means that people have a slower lifestyle, so other Americans sometimes think Southerners are lazy. They also criticize the South for its past treatment of slaves. Much has now changed, with some African Americans (state), having good jobs and with the growth of lively cities like Atlanta.

IV. The Midwest

(Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, Illinois, Minnesota, Iowa, parts of Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Kansas, Nebraska and eastern Colorado). The Midwest is the largest of the regions, with the most variation in weather. However, the land is almost entirely flat, and also very fertile, making it ideal for farming. The region is known as the nation's "breadbasket" because of its abundant production of oats, wheat, and corn. The first immigrants were Americans from the east coast, as well as Europeans from Sweden, Norway, and Germany. Midwesterners are known for being honest, straightforward people of traditional values. The area is not densely populated, with fewer big cities than its neighbors to the east. The largest city is Chicago, known for its port, and for being a connection (through railroad lines and airline hubs) between the eastern and western United States.

V. The Southwest

(Western Texas, parts of Oklahoma, New Mexico, Arizona, and Nevada). This region has had the least influence by European immigrants. Much of its culture has been defined by Native Americans (also known as American Indians) and by the Spanish (most of the Southwest previously belonged to Mexico). The land is generally flat and dry, and the weather is very hot. The region has many deserts. The nation's greatest natural wonder, the Grand Canyon, is located in this region. Also located here is Las Vegas, one of the world's premier gambling centers.

VI. The West

(Western Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, Utah, California, Nevada, Idaho, Oregon, Washington, Alaska, and Hawaii). The first settlers in the West were the Spanish who established Catholic missions along the coast. This region has probably the most variation in landscape and climate. Mountain chains run from north to south, creating temperate, wet areas to the west, and harsher, drier areas to the east. This region contains much undeveloped land which is enjoyed by the locals for recreation. The west has the most varied mixture of immigrants of all the other regions. In some areas, Mexican and Asian influences are dominant over European influences. Westerners are known as the least traditional of Americans, and the most tolerant of change and differences. California is the nation's most populous state, and is famous for its movie productions.

The US is traditionally divided into 6 regions. But there is one state either, New England in the Northeast is the smallest region and has a cold climate. There are many small towns, and Boston is the only major city. New Englanders, sometimes called true Yankees, are proud of their history. The Pilgrim Fathers settled in the area, and the American Revolution began there. This region includes 5 states along the Atlantic seaboard plus Vermont. This region maintains to shipbuilding, fishing and trade. The cultural life of this region was very strong. Too older colleges and universities were blossomed, such as Howard University (Massachusetts), Yale University (Connecticut), Brown University (Rhode Island) and Dart Mouth College (New Hampshire). There the industry of electronics is developed they produce radio, TV-sets, computers etc.

Americans consider the West to be a place of new beginnings and opportunities. The Pacific Northwest has emerged recently as the most fashionable part of the US. It is in Seattle from where Bill Gates controls the electronic world.

Questions:

1. What is the territory of the USA? (Borders of the USA.)
1. What is the climate of the USA?
2. Name the major rivers and lakes of the USA.
3. What can you say about the major metropolitan areas of the USA?
4. What is the population of the USA?
5. How many whites and blacks live in the country?
1. Speak about the Northeast (the Middle Atlantic, the South, the Midwest, the Southwest, and the West) region of the USA.
2. How many regions are there in the USA and name them?
3. Show from the map the regions and the countries they include.
4. With what the Northeast is famous?
5. What is the dominant industry in the Mid Atlantic region?
6. What is the distinctive feature of the southerners from other region's people?
7. What kind of region is the Northeast?
8. Show all the regions separately from the map given above.

THEME 10: HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

- I. America before colonial times**
- II. European Discovery.**
 - 2.1. The Vikings.
- III. The Colonial Heritage**
 - 3.1. The Thirteen Colonies.
 - 3.2. Life in Colonial America
 - 3.3. Economic and social opportunity.
 - 3.4. The Colonists and Government.
- IV. The Movement for Independence**
 - 4.1. Colonial Reaction.
 - 4.2. The Declaration of Independence.
 - 4.3. Victory over a Great Empire.
 - 4.4. Forming a New Nation.
 - 4.5. Establishing a Government.
 - 4.6. Expansion.
- 4.7. Social Reform.
- V. The Civil War and Reconstruction**
 - 5.1. The Civil War
 - 5.2. Reconstruction.
 - 5.3. Industrialization and Reform.
 - 5.4. Development of New Products.
 - 5.5. Natural Resources.
- VI. A New Place in the World.**
 - 6.1. The United States in the War.
 - 6.2. Depression and a world in conflict.
- VII. The United States in World War II**
 - 7.1. The War Effort.
 - 7.2. Postwar Society.
 - 7.3. Poverty and Discrimination.
 - 7.4. The United States since 1960.

The history of the United States is the story of a great nation that was carved out of a wilderness by a brave and freedom-loving people. The men and women who built the United States came from almost every part of the world. They represented many different nationalities and religions. Through the years, the people and their descendants learned to live and work together, and to take pride in being Americans. This spirit of cooperation and pride helped make the United States the huge, powerful, and wealthy nation it is today. It also helped the country and its people survive many challenges and hardships - including dangers in the wilderness, wars, social turmoil, and economic depressions.

I. America before colonial times.

For thousands of years, Indians were the only inhabitants of the Western Hemisphere. Most scientists believe they wandered into North America from Asia about 15,000 years ago. They spread across the hemisphere to the tip of South America. Probably about 6,000 years ago, Eskimos—another Asian people—moved to the Western Hemisphere. They soon spread eastward across the Arctic part of North America. They remained only in the far north, near the Arctic Circle.

The first Americans

Indigenous people



Chief Quannah Parker

As many as 80 million Indians may have been living in America when Columbus reached the New World. As many as 65 million Indians lived between what is now Mexico and the tip of South America. As many as 15 million Indians lived in what are now the United States and Canada. The American Indians formed hundreds of tribes, with many different languages and ways of life. Some tribes in the south including the Aztec, Inca, and Maya established advanced civilizations

They founded cities that had huge, magnificent buildings. They also accumulated gold, jewels, and other riches. Most American Indians, in the north of Mexico, lived in small villages. They hunted game and raised such crops as maize (corn), beans, and squash. Some tribes traveled in search of food and never established permanent settlements.

II. European Discovery.

2.1. The Vikings.

About A.D. 1000, Vikings from Greenland explored part of the North American mainland-probably what is now Newfoundland, Canada. Led by Leif Ericson, they were probably the first white people to reach the mainland of the continent. But the Vikings did not establish permanent settlements, and their voyages were soon forgotten.



The Mayflower, which transported Pilgrims to the New World, arrived in 1620

Before Columbus' voyage, Europeans did not know the Western Hemisphere existed. During the 1400's, Europeans became interested in finding a short sea route to the Far East-a region of spices and other valuable goods.

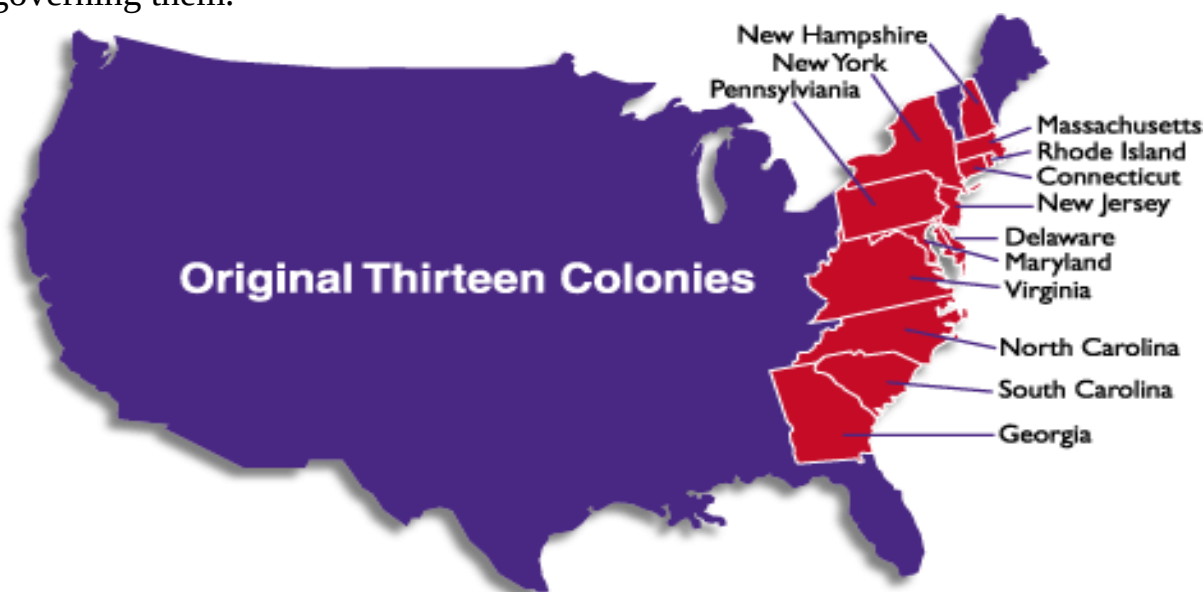
Columbus, an Italian navigator, believed he could find a short route to the East by sailing west. Financed by the Spanish king and queen, he set sail westward from Spain on August 3, 1492. Columbus reached land on October 12, and assumed he had arrived in the Far East. Actually, he landed on San Salvador, one of the islands just east of the North American mainland.

Columbus died in 1506. He believed that he had sailed to an unknown land in the Far East. Other Europeans called this unexplored area the **New World** and honored Columbus as its discoverer. Europeans also called the Western Hemisphere **America**, after Amerigo Vespucci. An Italian, Vespucci claimed he made voyages to the New World for Spain and Portugal beginning in 1497.

III. The Colonial Heritage

3.1. The Thirteen Colonies.

In the early 1600's, the British king began granting charters for the purpose of establishing colonies in America. The charters went to companies of merchants and to individuals called **proprietors**. The merchants and proprietors were responsible for recruiting people to settle in America and, at first, for governing them.



By the mid-1700's, most of the settlements had been formed into 13 British colonies. Each colony had a governor and legislature, but each was under the ultimate control of the British government. (You can see it on the map given above.) The 13 colonies stretched from what is now Maine in the north to Georgia in the south. They included the New England Colonies of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire in the far north; the Middle Colonies of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware; Virginia and Maryland along Chesapeake Bay; and the Southern Colonies of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia in the far south.

3.2. Life in Colonial America

Europeans knew that a person who went to America faced great hardship and danger. But the New World also offered people the opportunity for a new start in life. As a result, many people were eager to become colonists. Some

Europeans came to America seeking religious freedom. Other Europeans became colonists for economic reasons. Some were well enough off, but saw America as a place where they could become rich. Many poor Europeans also became colonists. Most of them came to America as indentured servants. An indentured servant agreed to work for another person, called a master, in America. In return, the master paid for the servant's transportation and provided the servant with food, clothing, and shelter. Most agreements between servants and masters lasted about four years, after which the servants were free to work for themselves.

3.3. Economic and social opportunity.

Colonial America, like Europe, had both wealthy upper-class people and poor lower-class people. But in Europe, old traditions made economic and social advancement rare. America had no such traditions. Advancement was possible for everyone willing to work hard except slaves. In the New World, land was plentiful and easy to obtain, and there were many opportunities to start new businesses. Indentured servants often obtained land or worked in a trade after their period of service ended. Often, they or their sons became well-to-do merchants or landowners. The colonies had a great need for professional people, such as lawyers, physicians, schoolteachers, and members of the clergy. Because little training was required for these jobs, they were open to almost everyone.

3.4. The Colonists and Government.

The colonists rejected the old idea that government was an institution inherited from the past. Instead, they regarded it as something they themselves had created for their own use. The colonists lived under British rule. But to them, laws made in Britain meant little until they were enforced on the spot. They often ignored British laws. This independent attitude would soon lead to a clash between the Americans and the British.

IV. The Movement for Independence

4.1. Colonial Reaction.

The colonists bitterly opposed the new British policies. They claimed that the British government had no right to restrict their settlement or deny their freedom in any other way. They also strongly opposed British taxes. The colonists were not represented in Parliament. Therefore, they argued, Britain had no right to tax them.

4.2. The Declaration of Independence.

On July 4, 1776, the Second Continental Congress officially declared independence and formed the United States of America by adopting the Declaration of Independence. Written by Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, the declaration was a sweeping indictment of the king, Parliament, and the British people. It also set forth certain self-evident truths that were basic to the revolutionary cause. It said that all men are created equal, and are endowed by their Creator with rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. To protect those rights, men organized governments, and the governments derived their

powers from the consent of the governed. But when a government ceased to preserve the rights, it was the duty of the people to change the government, or abolish it and form a new one.

Thus the colonists were fighting for philosophical principles as well as specific objectives. The spirit aroused by the Declaration of Independence was an important factor in the ultimate American victory.



Declaration of Independence, by John Trumbull, 1817–18

4.3. Victory over a Great Empire.

The Americans were challenging the world's most powerful empire in the Revolutionary War. They lacked a well-trained army, officers who were accustomed to commanding troops, and munitions and money. But they had the advantage of fighting on their home territory. The British, on the other hand, had well-trained and well-equipped troops and officers, but they were fighting in an unfamiliar land thousands of miles from home. The American cause was also helped by aid from France and other European nations that opposed Britain. The Revolutionary War raged on through the 1770s. Then, on Oct. 19, 1781, the Americans won a decisive victory at the Battle of Yorktown in Virginia. Thousands of British soldiers surrendered there. Within months, the British government decided to seek peace. Two years of peace negotiations and occasional fighting followed. Finally, On Sept. 3, 1783, the Americans and the British signed the Treaty of Paris of 1783, officially ending the Revolutionary War.

4.4. Forming a New Nation.

The original 13 colonies made up the first 13 states of the United States. Eventually, the American land west of the Appalachian Mountains was divided into territories.

In 1787, American leaders got together and wrote the Constitution of the United States. The Constitution became the country's basic law and welded it together into a solid political unit. The men who wrote it included some of the most famous and important figures in American history. Among them were George Washington and James Madison of Virginia, Alexander Hamilton of New York, and Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania.

4.5. Establishing a Government.

The American people began setting up a new system of government as soon as they declared their independence. Each of the new states had its own constitution before the Revolutionary War ended. The state constitutions gave the people certain liberties, usually including freedom of speech, religion, and the press. In 1781, the states set up a federal government under laws called the

4.6. Expansion.

During the early 1800s, settlers by the thousands moved westward over the Appalachian Mountains into the new states and territories. Many of these pioneers even settled beyond the country's western boundary. They flocked into Texas, California, and other western lands belonging to Mexico. Americans also settled in the Oregon Country, a large territory between California and Alaska claimed by both Britain and the United States. During the mid-1800's, the United States gained control of the Mexican lands and the southern part of the Oregon Country, and the nation extended from coast to coast.

The pioneers were brave, hardy people who went west in search of a better life. They were attracted by the West's open land, good farmland, and rich mineral and forest resources. Through hard work, they settled the Western wilderness—as earlier Americans had done in the East. The pioneers included Easterners from both the North and South. Many other pioneers came from Europe. Some people went west in search of religious freedom. The best known of these were the Mormons, who settled in Utah in 1847.

4.7. Social Reform.

During the Expansion Era, many Americans came to believe that social reforms were needed to improve their society. Churches and social groups set up charities to aid the poor and teach them how to help themselves. Reformers worked to reduce the working day of laborers from the usual 12 or 14 hours to 10 hours. Prohibitionists—convinced that drunkenness was the chief cause of poverty and other problems—persuaded 13 states to outlaw the sale of alcohol between 1846 and 1855. Dorothea Dix and others worked to improve the dismal conditions in the nation's prisons and insane asylums. Other important targets of reformers were women's rights, improvements in education, and the abolition of slavery.

V. The Civil War and Reconstruction.

5.1. The Civil War

It began on April 12, 1861, when Southern troops fired on Fort Sumter, a military post in Charleston Harbor. Both sides quickly prepared for battle after the Fort Sumter clash. The North had superior financial and industrial strength, and a larger population than the South. But the South fought valiantly to defend its cause. The South gained the upper hand at first, but the North gradually turned the tide. Finally, Confederate resistance wore down, and Union armies swept through the South. On April 9, 1865, General Robert E. Lee—the commander of the Confederate Army—surrendered to the Union commander General Ulysses S. Grant at Appomattox Court House in Virginia. The last Confederate troops surrendered on May 26.

The four years of bloody fighting between the North and South had staggering effects on the nation. About 360,000 Union troops and perhaps 260,000 Confederate troops all Americans—died in the conflict. No other war in history has taken so many American lives. Property damage was enormous,

especially in the South. Many Southern cities, towns, plantations, factories, and railroads lay in ruin. The war also took an emotional toll on the nation. It caused deep and long-lasting feelings of bitterness and division between the people of the North and the South.

5.2. Reconstruction.

Toward the end of the Civil War, the North set out to establish terms under which Confederate States would be readmitted to the Union. The process, through which the South returned, as well as the period following the war, is called Reconstruction.

Northerners divided into two groups over Reconstruction policy. One group, called the moderates, wanted to end the bitterness between the North and South and favored avoiding harsh treatment of the rebels. Members of the other group, the radicals, believed the South should be punished. They also wanted a policy that would ensure that blacks received better treatment in the South than they had before the war.

5.3. Industrialization and Reform.

The industrial growth that began in the United States in the early 1800s continued steadily up to and through the Civil War. Still, by the end of the war, the typical American industry was small. Hand labor remained widespread, limiting the production capacity of industry. Most businesses served a small market and lacked the capital needed for business expansion.

After the Civil War, however, American industry changed dramatically. Machines replaced hand labor as the main means of manufacturing, increasing the production capacity of industry tremendously. A new nationwide network of railroads distributed goods far and wide. Inventors developed new products the public wanted, and businesses made the products in large quantities. Investors and bankers supplied the huge amounts of money that business leaders needed to expand their operations. Many big businesses grew up as a result of these and other developments. They included coal mining, petroleum, and railroad companies; and manufacturers and sellers of such products as steel, industrial machinery, automobiles, and clothing.

The industrial growth had major effects on American life. The new business activity centered in cities. As a result, people moved to cities in record numbers, and the cities grew by leaps and bounds. Many Americans amassed huge fortunes from the business boom, but others lived in extreme poverty. The sharp contrast between the rich and the poor and other features of American life stirred widespread discontent. The discontent triggered new reform movements, which—among other things—led to measures to aid the poor and control the size and power of big business.

The industrial growth centered chiefly in the North. The war-torn South lagged behind the rest of the country economically. In the West, frontier life was ending. America's role in foreign affairs also changed during the late 1800's and early 1900's. The country built up its military strength and became a world power.

5.4. Development of New Products.

Inventors created, and business leaders produced and sold, a variety of new products. The products included the typewriter (1867), barbed wire (1874), the telephone (1876), the phonograph (1877), the electric light (1879), and the gasoline automobile (1885). Of these, the automobile had the greatest impact on the nation's economy. In the early 1900's, Ransom Eli Olds and Henry Ford began turning out cars by mass production. Automobile prices dropped, and sales soared. The number of automobiles owned by Americans jumped from 8,000 in 1900 to almost 3,500,000 in 1916.

5.5. Natural Resources.

America's rich and varied natural resources played a key role in the rise of big business. The nation's abundant water supply helped power the Industrial machines. Forests provided lumber for construction and wooden products. Miners took large quantities of coal and iron ore from the ground. Andrew Carnegie and other business leaders made steel from these minerals. Steel played a vital role in the industrialization process. It was used to build machines, railroad tracks, bridges, automobiles, and skyscrapers. Other industrially valuable minerals included copper, silver, and petroleum. Petroleum—the source of gasoline—became especially important after the automobile came into widespread use in the early 1900s.

VI. A New Place in the World.

6.1. The United States in the War.

After World War I began in 1914, the United States repeatedly stated its position of neutrality. But increasingly, German acts of aggression brought America closer to joining the Allies. On May 7, 1915, a German submarine sank the British passenger ship Lusitanian. The attack killed 1,198 people, including 128 American passengers. Wilson and other Americans bitterly protested this killing of defenseless civilians, and Germany agreed to stop such attacks.

Wilson won reelection to the presidency in November 1916, using the slogan, "He Kept Us out of War." But three months later, German submarines began sinking American merchant ships. This and other acts of aggression led the United States to declare war on Germany on April 6, 1917.

World War I ended in an Allied victory with the signing of an armistice on Nov. 11, 1918.

6.2. Depression and a world in conflict.

The United States suffered through the Great Depression that followed the stock market crash of 1929 for more than 10 years. During the depression, millions of workers lost their jobs and large numbers of farmers were forced to abandon their farms. Poverty swept through the nation on a scale never before experienced.



An abandoned farm in South Dakota during the Great Depression, 1936

The Great Depression was not limited to the United States. It struck almost every other country in the world. In some countries, the hard times helped bring to power dictators who promised to restore the economy. The dictators included Adolph Hitler in Germany and a group of military leaders in Japan. Once in power, both Hitler and the Japanese rulers began conquering neighboring lands. Their actions led to World War II, the most destructive conflict in the history of man. The United States fought in the war from 1941 to 1945, and played a key role in defeating Germany and Japan.

Victory in World War II brought a spirit of great relief and joy to the United States. The postwar economy boomed. More people shared in the prosperity than ever before, creating a huge, well-to-do middle class. Even so, Americans still faced problems. Chief among them were the new threat of nuclear war, the growing strength of Communism, and discontent among Americans who did not share in the prosperity.

VII. The United States in World War II.

World War II began on Sept. 1, 1939, when German troops overran Poland. France, Great Britain, and other nations (called the Allies) went to war against Germany. At first, America stayed out of the war. But on Dec. 7, 1941, Japanese planes bombed the U.S. military base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. The United States declared war on Japan on December 8, and on Germany and Italy—Germany's chief ally—three days later.

7.1. The War Effort.

The American people backed the war effort with fierce dedication. About 15 million American men served in the armed forces. They ranged from teen-agers to men well over 40. About 338,000 women served in the armed forces. At home, automobile plants and other factories were converted into defense plants where airplanes, ships, weapons, and other war supplies were made. The country had a shortage of civilian men, and so thousands of women worked in the defense plants. With a combination of humor and admiration, people called the women defense workers "Rosie the Riveter." Even children took part in the war effort. Boys and girls collected used tin cans, old tires, and other "junk" that could be recycled and used for war supplies.

7.2. Postwar Society.

After World War II, the United States entered the greatest period of economic growth in its history. Periods of inflation (rapidly rising prices) and

recession (mild business slumps) occurred. But overall, businesses and people prospered. Prosperity spread to more Americans than ever before, resulting in major changes in American life. However, not all people shared in the prosperity. Millions of Americans—including a high percentage of the nation's blacks—continued to live in poverty. The existence of poverty amid prosperity brought on a period of active social protest that has continued to the present day.

7.3. Poverty and Discrimination.

In spite of the general prosperity, millions of Americans still lived in poverty. The poor included members of all races, but the plight of the nation's poor blacks seemed especially bleak. Ever since emancipation, blacks in both the North and South had faced discrimination in jobs, housing, education, and other areas. A lack of education and jobs made poverty among blacks widespread.

7.4. The United States since 1960.

The period of U.S. history since 1960 has been marked by a continuation of many postwar trends. For much of the period, the country's foreign policy remained focused on the containment of Communism. The economy continued to expand, despite recurring periods of inflation and recession. The movement of people from cities to suburbs continued steadily. The 1970 U.S. Census showed that, for the first time, more Americans lived in suburbs than in cities.

The country continued to be a leader in scientific and technological advancements. It made great strides in medicine that helped reduce human suffering, and its technological skill provided the means for a new and exciting field of exploration—outer space.

At the same time, events and new public attitudes brought dramatic social changes to the United States. The black civil rights movement grew in intensity in the 1960s. Many other groups—including American Indians, Mexican Americans, and women—also began demanding fuller rights. In the mid-1960's, many Americans began challenging U.S. foreign-policy decisions. Protesters of all kinds staged demonstrations to try to bring about change. Most demonstrations were conducted peacefully. But in some cases, they led to violence.

Crime and violence soared in the United States after 1960, and pollution threatened the environment. Concern over political corruption grew in the 1970,s and helped bring about the first resignation of an American President, Richard M. Nixon.

As in every other period of history, the list of the nation's problems was long. But at the same time, most Americans maintained a deep pride in their country. In 1976, the American people celebrated the **bicentennial** (200th anniversary) of its founding. In 1987, they observed the bicentennial of the signing of the Constitution of the United States. Both occasions were marked with parades, reenactments of related historical events, and other patriotic celebrations.

▣ **Key words:** the history of the United States is the story of a great nation; Indians were the only inhabitants, they founded cities; Columbus landed on San

Salvador1492 and believed that he had sailed to an unknown land; settlements had been formed into 13 British colonies; the colonies had a great need for professional people and opposed the new British policies; on July 4, 1776 the United States of America is formed by adopting the Declaration of Independence; the American people began setting up a new system; the Civil War began on April 12, 1861; after the Civil War industry changed; world wars brought changes in American life.

Questions:

1. When did Columbus discover the new land?
2. How the new nation was formed?
3. What is expansion?
4. How was the Civil war begun?
5. How did the States come into the World Wars?
6. What is the discrimination?
7. What is bicentennial?
8. What is inflation and recession?

Theme 11: Government of the USA

I. The Constitution

1.1. The Tremble is an Introduction

1.2. The Body

II. The Legislative (Congress)

 **Key words:** the constitution of the USA is the oldest written one; the constitution defines three branches of government; amendment is a change; there are 6 main goals and articles in the constitution; the legislative is congress; congress includes the senate and the house of representatives; the job of congress is pass laws; the president is the chief executive; cabinet is the group of advisers; there are several types of courts and each type of them has its own jurisdiction.

1.1. The job of Congress

III. The Executive

IV. The Judicial Branches

I. The Constitution



The United States Capitol

The Constitution of the United States was adopted on June 21, 1788. It is the oldest written constitution still in use. It is the basic law from which the U.S. government gets all its power. It is the law that protects those who live in the USA.

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 US government to protect individual states. It also set a rather difficult process by which it could be amended (=changed). Compared with other constitutions, the US one is brief and simple. The entire Constitution, with its amendments, is just over 7,000 words long. It does not attempt to spell out every detail of how government will operate. The Founders wisely left it to generations to work out such details in the process of actually running the government.

1.1. The Tremble is an Introduction. It states the major goals to be served by government. They are:

1. "To form a more perfect union"
2. "To establish justice"
3. "To insure domestic tranquility"
4. "To provide for the common defense"
5. "To promote the general welfare"
6. "To secure the blessings of liberty"

1.2. The Body of the Constitution is divided into seven main parts called articles. Each article is divided into section and covers specific topics. Articles 1, 2, 3, 4, divide the national government into three branches-the Legislative, the Executive, and the Judicial Branches.

Article 1 describes the Legislative branch to carry out legislative power to "a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a senate and House of Representatives".

Article 2 organized the Executive Branch to carry out laws passed by Congress. The article details the powers and duties of the president.

Article 3 sets up the Federal court system. The Article makes the Supreme Court head of the Judicial Branch and gives Congress the power to create lower courts.

Article 4 explains how the state and national governments are linked to each other.

Article 5 contains the supremacy clause. This clause states that the Constitution, laws passed by Congress "shall be the Supreme law of the land".

Article 6 says the Constitution goes into union after it's ratified by nine states. The third part of the Constitution consists of amendments, or changes, in the Constitution. Since 1789 26 amendments have been added to the Constitution.

The Constitution is based on six **major principles** of government. The principles have a continuing impact on the character of the American system of government and politics. The principles are:

Popular sovereignty
Federalism

Checks and balances
Judicial review

II. The Legislative (Congress).

In the USA the legislative branch is called Congress. It is made up of two groups of legislators - the Senate and the House of Representatives. A member of the Senate is addressed as Senator. Members of the House of Representatives are called congressmen or congresswomen from each state. The Senate has 100 members - two senators from each state. Both senators represent the entire state. Senators are elected for six year terms. Every two years, one - third of all senators face reelection.



The House of Representatives are taking resolution

The lower house, which is called the House of Representatives, has 435 members, all of whom are elected every two years. The number of representatives from each state is determined by that state's population. While the seven smallest states have only one representative, California, the most populous state, had 52 representatives in the 108 Congress (2002-2004). For the purpose of electing representatives, each state is divided into congressional districts. The districts within a state are about equal in population. One representative is elected from each district. One of the representative's major duties is to protect the interests of the people in that district.

2.1. The job of Congress is pass laws (Before a law is passed, it is called a bill. In order to become a law, a bill must be approved by a majority of each house of Congress and by the president. If the president vetoes (disapproves of) a bill, it can still become law if at least two-thirds of the members of each house of Congress override the veto by voting for it when it is voted on again).

When both the House of Representatives and the Senate have passed the same version of a bill they must ask for the President's approval. The President has three choices: to sign the bill, in which case the bill becomes law; to do nothing, in which case the bill becomes law after ten days; or to veto the bill and send it back to Congress without his approval. If the President vetoes a bill, it still has one more change: if two-thirds of the members of the House of Representatives and the Senate vote for the bill, they can override the veto and the bill becomes law.

III. The Executive.

The President is the head of state of the US and the nation's chief executive. He (the President has so far always been a man) decides US 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 south façade of the White House, home and workplace of the U.S. president

The president also appoints ambassadors and other consular heads that 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.

The Constitution requires that a president should be at least 35 years old and have been born in the US. It is often said that the President is directly elected by the people, and this is true in compassion 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).

The most important group of advisers is called the **Cabinet**. The cabinet consists of the heads of the 14 departments that make up the executive branch of the federal government, such as the Secretaries of State, Treasury, Defence, Justice, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, Labour, Health and Human Services, Housing and Urban Development, Transportation, Energy and Education. The State Department ranks ahead of others. The political power of the Secretary of the State is the second only to that of the president. He must maintain peace and negotiates economic and political treatness. Cabinet members are chosen by the President with the approval of the Senate.

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.

IV. The Judicial Branch.

The judicial system is one of the three branches of the US federal government. But the legal system operates at many levels, since as well as federal courts there are state, country and city courts. Each type of court has its own jurisdiction, i.e. it deals with certain kinds of cases. Some courts hear only criminal cases. Other courts are for civil cases, in which two people disagree over something. Cases are first heard in trial courts. The person accused in a criminal trial, and both sides involved in a civil trial, have the right to appeal against the court's decision, and if they do the case goes to a court of appeals.

Some trial courts have limited jurisdiction. Many states, for example, have family courts where people get divorced, and small claims courts, which hear cases involving small sums of money. States have trial courts of general jurisdiction, which can hear a wider range of cases. These are often called courts of common pleas. State courts of appeals are called superior courts or district courts, and most states have a supreme court. This is the highest court in the state and hears only the most serious appeals.

States have their own criminal court, but some crimes are federal offences, i.e. against federal law. Crimes may fall under federal jurisdiction if more than one state is involved, e.g. if cars are stolen in one state and then sold in another.

The highest court is the Supreme Court in Washington, DC, which can hear almost any case on appeal. In fact, it hears only those cases that involve an important principle. When the Supreme Court decides such a case, it sets a precedent, which lower courts will use to decide similar cases.

The almost powerful person in court is the judge. Most courts have only one judge, but some higher courts have several. In the US Supreme Court, the nine judges are called justices, and the most senior is the **Chief Justice of the United States**. Many state judges are elected, but the President appoints federal judges.

Questions:

1. What is separation of the US government?
2. When the constitution was adopted?
3. Name the parts of the constitution.
4. What is the legislative branch of the government?
5. What is job of the Congress?
6. What is the executive branch of the government?
7. What is the judicial branch of the government?
8. What is the bill?
9. Who are the members of the Cabinet?

10. What types of courts exist in the USA?

National Emblems of the USA

1 Stars and Stripes the Flag of the USA 2. National Symbols of the country

Key words: national emblems, stars and stripes, the bald eagle, The Statue of Liberty, a present from France to the USA, Old Glory, the Pledge of Allegiance.

The national anthem of the United States is "The Star Spangled Banner". The words were written during the Anglo-American war of 1812-1814 and set to the music of an old song. Every state has its own flag, its own emblem and its own anthem too.

The Statue of Liberty is the symbol of American democracy. It stands on Liberty Island in New York. It is one of the first things people see when they arrive in New York by sea. This National Monument was a present from France to the USA. France gave the statue to America in 1884 as a symbol of friendship. Liberty carries the torch of freedom - in her right hand. In her left hand she is holding a tablet with the inscription "July 4, 1776" - American Independence Day.

The Stars and Stripes



Great Seal of the US

The flag of the United States consists of 13 equal horizontal stripes of red (top and bottom) alternating with white, with a blue rectangle in the canton bearing 50 small, white, five-pointed stars arranged in nine offset horizontal rows of six stars (top and bottom) alternating with rows of five stars. The 50 stars on the flag represent the 50 U.S. states and the 13 stripes represent the Thirteen Colonies.

The United States flag is commonly called "the Stars and Stripes" or "Old Glory," with the latter nickname coined by Captain William Driver, a 19th

century shipmaster. The US flag is an important symbol to all Americans. During the revolution against Britain George Washington asked Betsy Ross to make a flag as an encouragement for his soldiers. This flag had 13 stripes, seven red and six white, and in one corner 13 white stars on a blue background to represent the 13 states. On 14 June 1777 it became the flag of the independent US. (The first one above.) As each new state became part of the US an extra star was added. Today, the flag, called Old Glory or the Stars and Stripes is widely seen in the US. (The second one above.) Government offices and schools have flags flying from flagpoles, and many people have flags outside their houses especially on Independence Day. Children start the school day by saying the Pledge of Allegiance, a promise to be loyal to the flag and to their country. When somebody important dies, flags are flown at half mast. When a soldier dies his or her coffin is covered with the flag is given to the family. Each of the US states also has its own flag. State flags may show the state flower or bird, or other emblem. You can find the information about this at the end of this book.

The Great Seal of the United States is used to authenticate certain documents issued by the United States federal government. The phrase is used both for the physical seal itself (which is kept by the United States Secretary of State), and more generally for the design impressed upon it. The Great Seal was first used publicly in 1782.

The design on the obverse of the great seal is the national coat of arms of the United States. It is officially used on documents such as United States passports, military insignia, embassy placards, and various flags. As a coat of arms, the design has official colors; the physical Great Seal itself, as affixed to paper, is monochrome.

The design on the reverse depicts an unfinished pyramid, and an image of an eye. The pyramid has 13 steps and appears unfinished. It was designed to represent the United States, an unfinished nation. The eye is supposed to represent the all seeing eye of God, overlooking the new country. On the first step of the pyramid are the Roman numerals MDCCLXXVI. Which translate to 1776, the year of the country's formation. On the bottom is a Latin phrase that translates to "Order of a new day". This phrase was chosen to represent a new form of government, unlike any formed before.

Since 1935, both sides of the Great Seal appear on the reverse of the one-dollar bill. The Seal of the President of the United States is directly based on the Great Seal, and its elements are used in numerous government agency and state seals.



The bald eagle is the national bird of the USA

The eagle became the national emblem of the country in 1782. It has an olive branch (a symbol of peace) and arrows (a symbol of strength). You can see the eagle on the back of a dollar bill.

Questions:

1. What is the Stars and Stripes?
2. What other national emblems does the country have?
3. What can you say about their history?
4. How did these things become as the national emblem?

THEME 12: EDUCATION SYSTEMS OF THE USA

I. The general pattern of education	3.2. Electives
II. School grades	IV. Extracurricular activities
1.1. Preschool.	V. Standardized testing
1.2. Primary and Secondary Education.	VI. Education of students with special needs.
1.3. Elementary school	VII. Post-secondary education
1.4. Middle School	VIII. Public or private schools
1.5. High school	XIX. Contrasts between American & British Education.
III. Basic curricular structure	
3.1. Science	

Key words:

The general pattern of education in the USA is 8-4 plan organization; the U.S. uses ordinal numbers for naming grades; there is no program for public preschool in the United States; schooling is compulsory for all children; elementary school begins with kindergarten; in middle school students begin to enroll in class schedules; high school runs from grades 9 through 12; under the No Child Left Behind Act all American states must test students.

I. The general pattern of education

The general pattern of education in the USA is an eight-year elementary school, followed by a four-year high school. This has been called 8—4 plan organization. It is preceded, in many localities, by nursery schools and kindergartens. It is followed by a four-year college and professional schools. This traditional pattern, however, has been varied in many different ways. The 6—3—3 plan consists of a six-year elementary school, a three-year junior high school, and a three-year senior high school. Another variation is a 6—6 plan organization, with a six-year elementary school followed by a six-year secondary school.

American education provides a program for children, beginning at the age of 6 and continuing up to the age of 16 in some of the states, and to 18 in others.

The elementary school in the United States is generally considered to include the first six or eight grades of the common-school system, depending upon the organization that has been accepted for the secondary school. It has been called the "grade school" or the "grammar school". There is no single governmental agency to prescribe for the American school system; different types of organization and of curriculum are tried out.

The length of the school year varies among the states. Wide variation exists also in the length of the school day. A common practice is to have school in session from 9:00 to 12:00 in the morning and from 1:00 to 3:30 in the afternoon, Monday through Friday. The school day for the lower grades is often from 30 minutes to an hour shorter. Most schools require some homework to be done by elementary pupils.

II. School grades

The U.S. uses ordinal numbers for naming grades, unlike Canada, Australia, and the United Kingdom where cardinal numbers are preferred. Thus, when asked what grade they are in, typical American children are more likely to say "fourth grade" rather than "Grade 4." The following are the typical ages and grade groupings in public and private schools. Many different variations exist across the country.

Standard educational pattern

Level/Grade	Typical age
Preschool	
Various programs such as Head	Under 5
Elementary school	
Kindergarten	5-6
1 st Grade	6-7
2 nd Grade	7-8
3 rd Grade	8-9
4 th Grade	9-10
5 th Grade	10-11
Middle school	
6 th Grade	11-12
7 th Grade	12-13
8 th Grade	13-14
High school	
9 th Grade	14-15 (Freshman year)
10 th Grade	15-16 (Sophomore year)
11 th Grade	16-17 (Junior year)

12 th Grade	17-18 (Senior year)
Post-secondary education	
Tertiary education (College or University)	ages vary
Vocational education	ages vary
Postgraduate education	

1.1. Preschool.

There are no mandatory public preschool or programs in the United States. The federal government funds the Head Start preschool program for poor children, but most families are on their own with regard to finding a preschool or child care.

1.2. Primary and Secondary Education.

Schooling is compulsory for all children in the United States, but the age range for which school attendance is required varies from state to state. Most children begin primary education with kindergarten at the age of 5 or 6, depending upon eligibility requirements in their district, and complete their secondary education at the age of 18 when their senior year of high school ends. Typically, mandatory education starts with first grade (kindergarten is rarely compulsory). Some states allow students to leave school at age 16, before finishing high school; other states require students to stay in school until age 18. Most parents send their children to either a public or private institution. According to government data, one-tenth of students are enrolled in private schools. Approximately 85% of students enter the public schools, largely because they are "free" (tax burdens by school districts vary from area to area). Students attend school for around eight hours per day, and anywhere from 175 to 185 days per year. Most schools have a summer break period for about two and half months from June through August. This break is much longer than the one student in many other nations received. Originally, "summer vacation", as it is colloquially called, allowed students to participate in the harvest period during the summer. However, this is now relatively unnecessary and remains largely by tradition; it also has immense popular support. Parents may also choose to educate their own children at home; 1.7% of children are educated in this manner. Proponents of home education invoke parental responsibility and the classical liberal arguments for personal freedom from government intrusion. Few proponents advocate that home schooling should be the dominant educational policy. Most home schooling advocates are wary of the established educational institutions for various reasons. Some are religious conservatives who see nonreligious education as contrary to their moral or religious systems. Others feel that they can more effectively tailor a curriculum to suit an individual student's academic strengths and weaknesses, especially those with learning disabilities. Still others feel that the negative social pressures of schools (such as bullying, drugs, crime, and other school-related problems) are detrimental to a child's proper development. Parents often form groups to help each other in the home

schooling process, and may even assign classes to different parents, similar to public and private schools. Opposition to home schooling comes from varied sources, including teachers' organizations and school districts. The National Education Association, the largest labor union in the United States, has been particularly vocal in the past. Opponents' stated concerns fall into several broad categories, including fears of poor academic quality, loss of income for the schools, and religious or social extremism, or lack of socialization with others.

1.3. Elementary school (Kindergarten through Grade 5/6)

Elementary school, "grade school", "grammar school", and "public school" are all interchangeable names for schools that begin with kindergarten or first grade and end either with fifth or sixth grade. Elementary school provides a common daily routine for all students except the most disadvantaged (those with learning disabilities, mental illnesses, or those students who do not speak English). Sometimes gifted or advanced students receive separate education as well. Students do not choose a course structure and remain in a single classroom throughout the school day, with the exceptions of physical education ("P.E." or "gym"), music, and/or art classes. Education is relatively unstandardized at this level. Teachers, most of whom are women, receive a book to give to the students for each subject and brief overviews of what they are expected to teach. In general, a student learns basic arithmetic and sometimes rudimentary algebra in mathematics, English proficiency (such as basic grammar, spelling, and vocabulary), and fundamentals of other subjects. Social studies and sciences are often underdeveloped, largely because most elementary teachers have a degree in English or education. Social studies may include basic events and concepts in American and world history and, in some places, state or local history; science varies widely.

1.4. Middle School (Grades 6/7 through 8)

It is common in the United States for old High School campuses to be turned into middle schools, as is the case with Leonia Middle School "Middle school", "junior high school", and "intermediate school" are all interchangeable names for schools that begin in 6th or 7th grade and end in 8th, though they sometimes include 9th grade as well. The term "junior high school" and the arrangement beginning with 7th grade are becoming less common. At this time students begin to enroll in class schedules where they take classes from several teachers in a given day, unlike in elementary school where most classes are taught by the same teacher. The classes are usually a strict set of science, math, English, and social science courses, interspersed with a reading and/or technology class. Every year from kindergarten through ninth grade usually includes a mandatory physical education (P.E.) class. Student-chosen courses, known as electives, are generally limited to only one or two classes.

1.5. High school (Grades 9 through 12)

High school runs from grades 9 through 12. Some school districts deviate from this formula. The most widely seen difference is to include 9th grade in middle school, though it is a relatively old practice which is disappearing. Also,

many districts will use an older high school as a separate campus for 9th grade, allowing these students to adjust to a high school environment. In high school, students obtain much more control of their education and often may even choose their core classes.

III. Basic curricular structure.

Most students in the United States, unlike their counterparts in other developed nations, do not begin to specialize into a narrow field of study until their sophomore year of college. Some schools do encourage students to take electives in the areas they are considering for a career. Generally, at the high school level, they take a broad variety of classes without special emphasis. The curriculum varies widely in quality and rigidity; for example, some states consider 70 (on a 100-point scale) to be a passing grade, while others consider it to be as low as 60 or as high as 75. The following are the typical minimum course sequences that one must take in order to obtain a high school diploma; they are not indicative of the necessary minimum courses or course rigor required for attending college in the United States:

3.1. Science

- Biology, chemistry, and physics;
- Mathematics (usually three years minimum, including algebra, geometry, algebra II, and/or precalculus/trigonometry);
- English (four years);
- Social Science (various history, government, and economics courses, always including American history);
- Physical education (at least one year).

Many states require a "Health" course in which students learn anatomy, nutrition, and first aid; the basic concepts of sexuality and birth control; and why to avoid substances like illegal drugs, cigarettes, and alcohol.

3.2. Electives

High schools offer a wide variety of elective courses, although the availability of such courses depends upon each particular school's financial situation.

Common types of electives include:

- Visual arts (drawing, sculpture, painting, photography, film);
- Performing Arts (drama, band, orchestra, dance);
- Shop (woodworking, metalworking, automobile repair);
- Computers (word processing, programming, graphic design);
- Athletics (football, baseball, basketball, track and field, swimming, gymnastics, water polo, soccer);
- Publishing (journalism, yearbook);
- Foreign languages (French, German, and Spanish are common; Chinese, Latin, Greek and Japanese are less common).

Not all schools require the same rigor of course work. Most high and middle schools offer "honors" or "gifted" classes for motivated and gifted students, where the quality of education is usually higher and more demanding. There are

also specialized magnet schools with competitive entrance requirements.

If funds are available, a high school may provide Advanced Placement or International Baccalaureate courses, which are special forms of honors classes. AP or IB courses are usually taken during the third or fourth years of high school, either as a replacement for a typical third-year course (e.g., taking AP U.S. History as a replacement for standard U.S. History), a refresher of an earlier course (e.g., taking AP Biology in the fourth year even though one already took Biology as a freshman), or simply as a way to study something interesting during one's senior year (e.g., AP Economics).

Most postsecondary institutions take AP or IB exam results into consideration in the admissions process. Because AP and IB courses are supposed to be the equivalent of freshman year college courses, postsecondary institutions may grant unit credit which enables students to graduate early. Other institutions use examinations for placement purposes only: students are exempted from introductory course work but may not receive credit towards a concentration, degree, or core requirement. Institutions vary in the selection of examinations they accept and the scores they require to grant credit or placement, with more elite institutions tending to accept fewer examinations and requiring higher scoring. Both public schools and private schools in wealthy neighborhoods are able to provide many more AP and IB course options than impoverished inner-city high schools, and this difference is seen as a major cause of the differing outcomes for their graduates.

Also, in states with well-developed community college systems, there are often mechanisms by which gifted students may seek permission from their school district to attend community college courses full time during the summer, and during weekends and evenings during the school year. The units earned this way can often be transferred to one's university, and can facilitate early graduation. Early college entrance programs are a step further, with students enrolling as freshmen at a younger-than-traditional age.

IV. Extracurricular Activities.

High school football games in the United States are major events for the school and often the community.

Many students, mostly in middle and high schools, participate in extracurricular activities. These activities can extend to large amounts of time outside the normal school day; home schooled students, however, are not normally allowed to participate. Student participation in sports programs, drill teams, bands, and spirit groups can amount to hours of practices and performances. Most states have organizations which develop rules for competition between groups. These organizations are usually forced to implement time limits on hours practiced as a prerequisite for participation.

Sports programs and their related games, especially football and/or basketball, are major events for American students and for larger schools can be a major source of funds for school districts. Schools may sell "spirit" shirts to wear to games; school stadiums and gymnasiums are often filled to capacity, even for non sporting competitions.

The North Mesquite High School band performs at a marching band

competition, one of many types of extracurricular activities engaged in by American students

High school athletic competitions often generate intense interest in the community, though a greater prevalence is seen in rural areas. Elite high school athletes command significant media attention and fierce competition between university athletic programs for their skills. Many state high school championship tournaments in these two sports are attended by tens of thousands each year.

In addition to sports, many non athletic extracurricular activities are usually present in American schools, both public and private. Activities include student government, school newspapers, and various academic groups such as writing clubs, debate teams, quiz teams, club sports (not provided with the same funds or privileges as other sports programs), peer groups, and various other activities. Although individually such programs might not be available in all schools, taken as a whole, these programs are available to the vast majority of students

V. Standardized Testing

Under the No Child Left behind Act, all American states must test students in public schools statewide to ensure that they are achieving the desired level of minimum education, such as on the Regents Examinations in New York; students being educated at home or in private schools are not included. The Act also requires that students and schools show "adequate yearly progress." This means they must show some improvement each year. During high school, students, usually in their junior year (grade 11), may take one or more standardized tests depending on their postsecondary education preferences and their local graduation requirements (some students choose not to take the tests at all). In theory, these tests evaluate the level of knowledge and learning aptitude they have attained. The SAT and ACT are the most common standardized tests that students take when applying to college. A student may take the SAT, ACT, or both depending upon the college the student plans to apply to for admission. However, not all students move on to postsecondary education, and may not need to take the tests.

VI. Education of Students with Special Needs.

In the United States, education of the mentally retarded, blind, and deaf is structured to adhere as closely as possible to the same experience received by normal students. Blind and deaf students usually have separate classes in which they spend most of their day, but may sit in on normal classes with guides or interpreters. The mentally retarded are required to attend the same amount of time as other students; however, they also usually spend most of their day in separate classrooms, commonly known as special education or specialised. The government funds their study.

VII. Post-secondary Education

Post-secondary education in the United States is known as college or university and commonly consists of four years of study at an institution of higher learning. Like high school, the four undergraduate grades are commonly called freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior years (alternately called first year, second year, etc.). Students traditionally apply to receive admission into college,

with varying difficulties of entrance. Schools differ in their competitiveness and reputation; generally, public schools are viewed as more lenient and less prestigious than the more expensive private schools. Admissions criteria involve test scores (the SAT and ACT) and class ranking as well as extracurricular activities performed prior to the application date. Also, many colleges consider the rigor of previous courses taken along with the grades earned. Certain test scores, class rank, or other numerical factors hardly ever have absolute, required levels, but often have a threshold below which admission is unlikely.

Once admitted, students engage in undergraduate study, which consists of satisfying university and class requirements to achieve a bachelor's degree. The most common method consists of four years of study leading to a Bachelor of Arts (BA), a Bachelor of Science (BS), or sometimes (but very rarely) another bachelor's degree such as Bachelor of Fine Arts (BFA). Some students choose to attend a community college for two years prior to further study at another college or university. In most states, community colleges are operated either by a division of the state university or by local special districts subject to guidance from a state agency. Though rarely handing out actual degrees, community colleges may award an Associate of Arts (AA) degree after two years. Those seeking to continue their education may transfer to a four-year college or university (after applying through a similar admissions process as those applying directly to the four-year institution,). Some community colleges have automatic enrollment agreements with a local four-year college, where the community college provides the first two years of study and the university provides the remaining years of study, sometimes all on one campus. The community college awards the associate's degree and the university awards the bachelor's and master's degrees. Homer statue at the University of Virginia Graduate study, conducted after obtaining an initial degree and sometimes after several years of professional work, leads to a more advanced degree such as a master's degree, which could be a Master of Arts (MA), Master of Science (MS), or other less common master's degrees such as Master of Business Administration (MBA), Master of Education (MEd), and Master of Fine Arts (MFA). After additional years of study and sometimes in conjunction with the completion of a master's degree, students may earn a Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) or other doctoral degree, such as Doctor of Arts, Doctor of Education or Doctor of Theology. Some programs, such as medicine, have formal apprenticeship procedures like residency and interning which must be completed after graduation and before one is considered to be fully trained. Other professional programs like law and business have no formal apprenticeship requirements after graduation (although law school graduates must take the bar exam in order to legally practice law). Entrance into graduate programs usually depends upon a student's undergraduate academic performance or professional experience as well as their score on a standardized entrance exam like the GRE (graduate schools in general), the LSAT (law), the GMAT (business), or the MCAT (medicine). Many graduate and law schools do not require experience after earning a bachelor's degree to enter their programs; however, business school candidates may be considered deficient without several years of professional work experience. Only 8.9 percent of students ever receive postgraduate degrees, and most, after obtaining their bachelor's degree, proceed

directly into the workforce.

VIII. Public or Private Schools

Unlike most other industrialized countries, the United States does not have a centralized educational system on the national scale; students in most areas have a choice between free taxpayer-funded public schools and private schools. Public school systems are supported by a combination of local, state, and federal government funding. Because a large portion of school revenues come from local property taxes, public schools vary widely in the resources they have available per student. Class size also varies significantly from one district to another. Curriculum decisions in public schools are made largely at the local and state levels; the federal government has limited influence. In most districts schools are run by a locally elected school board. The school board appoints an official called the superintendent of schools to manage the schools in the district. The largest public school system in the United States is in New York City, where more than one million students are taught in 1,200 separate public schools. Because of its immense size - there are more students in the system than residents in eight US states - the New York City public school system is nationally influential in determining standards and materials like text books. All public school systems are required to provide an education free of charge to everyone of school age in their districts. Not every individual public school, however, is open to all interested students. Large cities such as New York often have "magnet schools" which cater to gifted students or to students with special interests, such as science or performing arts. Admission to some of these schools is highly competitive. Private schools in the United States include parochial schools affiliated with religious denominations, nonprofit independent schools, and for-profit private schools. Private schools charge varying rates depending on geographic location, the school's expenses, and the availability of funding from sources other than tuition. For example, some churches partially subsidize private schools for their members. Some people have argued that when their child attends a private school, they should be able to take the funds which the public school no longer needs and apply that money towards private school tuition in the form of vouchers; this is the basis of the school choice movement. Private schools have various purposes: Some cater to general education students; others are for gifted students, for students with learning disabilities or other special needs, or for students with specific religious affiliations. Unlike public school systems, private schools have no legal obligation to accept any interested student. Admission to some private schools is highly selective. Private schools also have the ability to permanently expel persistently unruly students, a disciplinary option not always legally available to public school systems.

IX. Contrasts between American & British Education.

Compared to the United States, fewer people go on to higher education in Britain, and there is more emphasis on segregating pupils at the lower levels on the basis of ability. Most British schools are funded by the central government, with local governments providing supplemental funding. England and Wales have a national curriculum of core courses for students 5 to 16 years old, and the

Office inspects schools for Standards in Education. National tests at the ages of 7, 11, and 14 assess students' progress. Schools must provide religious education and daily collective worship for all pupils, although parents can withdraw their children from these. Full-time school begins at age 5 in Great Britain and at age 4 in Northern Ireland. In addition, about half of 3 and 4-year-olds are enrolled in specialized nursery schools or in nursery classes at primary schools.

In Britain, the term *form* is used to designate grade; *old boys* and *old girls* refer to people who have graduated from a school. Private schools or independent schools are called *public schools*, a term that means just the opposite in the United States. What are called *public schools* in the United States is called *state schools* in Britain. When a person is sent down from school, it means he or she has been thrown out. Grammar schools are university preparatory schools, most of which have been replaced by comprehensive schools catering to students of all academic abilities. Secondary modern schools provide vocational education rather preparation for university entrance

Education in the United States is provided mainly by the government, with control and funding coming from three levels: federal, state, and local. At the primary and secondary school levels, curricula, funding, teaching, and other policies are set through locally elected school boards with jurisdiction over school districts. School districts can be (but are not always) coextensive with counties or municipalities. Educational standards and standardized testing decisions are usually made by the states through acts of the state legislature and governor, and decisions of the state departments of education.

Children are required to attend school until the age of 16 in most states. Students may attend public, private, or home schools. In most public and private schools, education is divided into three levels: elementary school, middle school, and high school. Grade levels in each vary from area to area.

Questions:

1. What is the general pattern of education in the USA?
2. Tell the standard educational pattern.
3. Who funds the Head Start preschool program for poor children?
4. Most children begin primary education...
5. What is P.E. or gym?
6. What are the electives?
7. If you were a British student which electives you would chose?
8. Name the four undergraduate grades.
9. Compare the education in United States and in Britain.
10. What are the public and private schools in the USA and the UK?

THEME 13: CUSTOMS AND TRADITIONS OF THE USA

I. New Year's Day
II. Martin Luther
Kings Birthday

VIII. Take Your
Daughter to Work Day
IX. May Day

XV. Father's Day
XVI. Labor Day
XVII. Columbus Day

III. President's Day
IV. St. Valentine's Day
V. St. Patrick's Day
VI. April Fool's Day
VII. Earth Day

X. Mother's Day
XI. Easter
XII. Memorial Day
XIII. Flag Day
XIV. Independence Day

XVIII. Halloween
XIX. Election Day
XX. Veterans Day.
XXI. Thanksgiving Day
XXII. Christmas

Key words:

USA is made up of people of different nationalities; January the 1st is the official holiday in United States; Martin Luther King was a great civil rights leader; Abraham Lincoln was President during the Civil War; George Washington led the American Army to victory; St. Valentine is a patron of sweethearts and lovers; St. Patrick's Day is an Irish religious holiday; April fool's Day is the day for harmless tricks and good laughs; April 22 is a special day around the world; Children make Mother's Day gifts in school; all holidays are merry days of the people of the USA.

The population of the USA is made up of people of different nationalities. Centuries ago they brought with them their native celebrations. Some holidays which are marked in the US originated in America. There is no provision for national holidays in the USA. The number of holiday is different in different states from 8 in the District of Columbia to 20 in Oklahoma.

I. New Year's Day

*Love and joy come to you,
And to you your wassail, too!
And God bless you and send you
A happy new year!*

Although in the United States the official holiday is January the 1st, the celebration really begins on December 31st. New Year's Day is celebrated with parties which last beyond midnight so that everyone can see in the New Year and watch the Old Year out. Theatres, night clubs, restaurants are crowded. At 12:00 midnight when the ringing of bells popping of champagne bottles and fire crackers, and blowing of sirens and whistles announce the start of New Year. People throw streamers and confetti, shake hands, exchange kisses and embraces, and wish each other a "Happy New Year!" Some people gather in the street of big cities, they ring bells, shoot of guns and firecrackers. January 1st is celebrated with parades in some cities. One of the noisiest and most crowded of New Year's Eve celebration takes place in New York City at Time Square. Thousands of New Yorkers gather there, and millions of Americans across the country join them by TV.

Following a long, chaotic New Year's Eve, Americans spend a quiet New Year Day. In most households everyone sleeps late, often enjoys meals and TV with the family and friends. Two famous New Year's Day festivals are showed for national viewing: the Tournament of Roses and Mummer's Parade. Both of these events have been American traditions for more than half a century.

The Mummer's Parade, which takes place in Philadelphia, is a ten - hour

spectacle. It was introduced in the US by Swedish immigrants. There are clowns, musicians, dancers - all led by King Momus dressed in bright satin.

The Tournament of Roses takes place in Pasadena, California. Prizes are awarded to the cities with the most unusual and attractive floral displays. After the parade, the Rose Bowl football game, a struggle between two top-ranking college football teams, is played. Those events attract thousands of tourists and millions of TV viewers.

Besides champagne, streamers and noisemakers, other symbols of the New Year celebration include a clock or hour glass, an old man symbolizing the Old Year", and a new baby symbolizing the New year. This, may be an allusion to the ancient Roman god Janus, for whom the month of January is named.

Legend has it that Janus had two faces, one looking into the past, and the other looking into the future. This certainly personifies the sentiments of many people who, on New Year's Day think both about the past year with its achievements and shortcomings as well as looking forward with hope to a new and better year to come. Sincere and practical, many Americans even write down their "New year resolutions" to do specific things like giving up smoking, going on a diet, getting up earlier, spending less money on clothes, etc. Even though such resolutions are rarely kept, at least they make for a good laugh when the next New Year comes.

II. Martin Luther Kings Birthday

"I have a dream that, my four children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the colour of their skin but by the content of their character..." Martin Luther King

On January 15th people in the United States celebrate the birthday of Martin Luther King. He was a great civil rights leader who fought against racial discrimination. He said that people should be judged by their characters, and not the colour of their skin. He believed in integration. He received national attention when he protested the injustice of segregated buses in Alabama.

Martin Luther King is remembered in church memorial services, marches, and public ceremonies. People also listen to his speeches, watch TV documentaries, and sing spirituals and the civil rights anthem "We Shall Overcome." In schools, students read about this leader, study his writings and celebrate his memory with special programs. Politicians and performers also participate in celebrations to honor Martin Luther King.

The third Monday in January is a legal holiday to honor Martin Luther King.

III. President's Day

Until 1986 this holiday was in fact two holidays: Abraham Lincoln's Birthday, celebrated on February 12, and George Washington's Birthday, celebrated on February 22. Their birthdays are celebrated on the 3rd Monday in February.

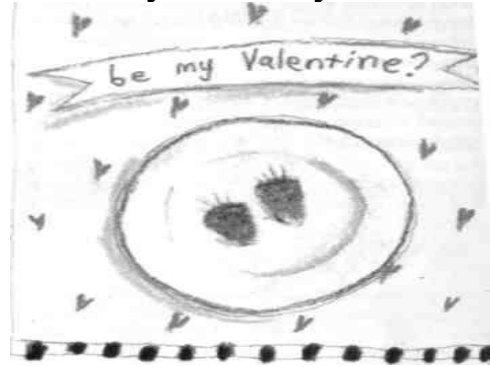
Abraham Lincoln was President during the Civil War (1861 - 1865). He led the fight to keep the nation together and free the slaves. His life ended tragically. He was killed at the theatre during the performance soon after the victory of the

North. In honor of this great man a beautiful memorial has been built in Washington, D. C.

George Washington led the American Army to victory in the War for Independence. Later he was elected President of the United States and was in office for 8 years (1789 -1797). The national capital of the United States, a state and several towns are named after George Washington. In addition to commemorating the birth of the US's first President, it's a great day for shoppers. The department stores of Washington, D.C., started a national tradition of sales marked by unusual bargains. The US Congress observes the birthday of G. Washington with speeches and reading from his works.

IV. St. Valentine's Day

*It's Valentine's Day. And in the street
There's freezing rain, and slush, and sleet.
The wind is fierce. The skies are gray.
I don't think I'll go out today.
But here inside the weather's warm.
There is no trace of wind or storm.
And you just made the morning shire.
You said you'd be my Valentine.*



Valentine's Day is celebrated on February 14th. It isn't a national holiday. Banks and offices are open this day, but it is a happy little festival in honour of St. Valentine, patron sweethearts and lovers. In this day school children typically make valentines for their teachers and classmates and put them in a large decorated mailbox. It is customary on the day to send a "Valentine", a card with affectionate message to someone you love, or to your best friends or a little present. The greeting cards are often coloured red trimmings and pictures of heart.

Whatever the reasons, Americans of all ages love to send and receive valentine and to hear and sing the thousands of new and traditional love songs which flood television and radio programs on that day.

Among all the red hearts, birds, love letters, candies, chocolates and kisses which comprise symbolism and realia, Cupid or Eros is the unquestioned favorite in personifying the spirit of the day. According to Greek (later Roman) tradition, Cupid was the eternally child-like son of Venus, the goddess of love. Although he remained a baby, he could fly and was equipped with a tiny bow and countless golden arrows special power, and that is why if Cupid shot you with his arrow, you would fall in love with the first person you met. So St. Valentine's

Day is the day of love for many people.

V. St. Patrick's Day

***It's a great day for the Shamrock,
For the flags in full array,
We're feeling so inspirish,
Sure because for all the Irish
It's a great, great day!***

On March 17th, Americans celebrate an Irish religious holiday, St. Patrick's Day. It is a day to remember the Irish people in the United States and Ireland. Ireland is a country with a lot of green grass and shamrocks. Shamrock is small plant with three leaves. There is a lot of green in Ireland, so green is Ireland's national colour.

People often wear green clothes on St. Patrick's Day. There are parades in many cities with large Irish population, but the largest parade is in New York. Many people go to parties. They sing, dance, and eat Irish food. Some drink green beer.

St. Patrick was a priest in Ireland many years ago. He taught the Irish people about God. St. Patrick died on March 17th in the year 461.

Beginning in 1845, many Irish people moved to the United States. They came because there wasn't enough food to eat in Ireland. St. Patrick's Day celebrations helped the Irish remember their country, their music and their families. Many Americans say, "Everyone is Irish on St. Patrick's Day."

VI. April Fool's Day

***The first of April, some do say,
It set apart for All Fool's Day.
But why the people call it so,
Nor I, nor they themselves do know.
But on this day are people sent
On purpose for pure merriment.***

April fool's Day is celebrated on April 1st. It is the day for harmless tricks and good laughs. The origin of April fool's Day or All Fool's Day goes back to the dilemma faced by many Europeans in 1562 when Pope Gregory introduced a new calendar, one which shifted the start of New Year from its traditionally warm nesting place of April 1st to the cold and dreary date of January 1st.

Today in the United States both children and adults play small tricks on each others. If the trickster is still around he or she may take credit for his deed by shouting "April Fool!" but probably not before you've spoild your cup of morning coffee or tea. If you are innocent victim of such mischief, your first reaction may be to "wring the scoundrel's neck."

American author and satirist Mark Twain summed up the nature of the holiday thus: "The first of April is the day we remember what we are the other 364 days of the year."

VII. Earth Day

*The earth is a garden.
Its a beautiful place.
For a living creatures,
For all the human race*

April 22 is a special day around the world. On that day inhabitants of Earth celebrate Earth Day. Earth Day is a time when many people show that they care for our fragile planet. They show concern about the threats the planet faces- destruction of the rain forest, holes in the ozone layer, the greenhouse effect, too much garbage, and all forms of air and water pollution. It is a day for people to teach what they can do to preserve the planet Earth.

The first Earth Day was held in the US twenty two years ago, in April 1970. At that time, Americans were just beginning to learn about the problems facing the planet.

VIII. Take Your Daughter to Work Day

This holiday is celebrated on April 28th. Schools are closed this day and girls go to work to their mothers. It is very important holiday, because girls know that can become anything they want when they grow up. If the mothers don't work the girls stayed at home and mothers teach them to cook, to work at home and to hold the house.

IX. May Day

*It's May! It's May!
The lusty month of May,
That lovely month when everyone goes
Blissfully astray!*

The roots of the May Day celebration go back to very ancient time and are evident in many civilizations, where basically the idea was to express gratitude to the gods for the renewal of spring. May Day was not widely celebrated in the United States during its early years, because the Puritans disapproved of frivolous festivities.

Some American parents and teachers use this holiday as a chance to encourage their children and students to bring some surprise and joy into the life of the lonely or aged. They make May baskets filled with flowers and candy; and hang them on doorknobs throughout their neighborhoods; sometimes ringing the bell, hiding, and watching smiles replace frowns and unexpected joy light up the wrinkled faces of their neighbors.

X. Mother's Day

*"M" is for the million things she gave me.
"O" means only that she's growing old.
"T" is for the tears she shed to save me.
"H" is for her heart of purest gold.*

*"E" is for her eyes, with love lights shining.
"R" means right she'll always
Put them all together; they spell "mother",
A word that means the world to me.*

In the United States Americans honor their mothers and grandmothers, on the second Sunday in May. This day is set aside to show love and respect for mother. On Mother's Day children give thanks for the support, love, care, and guidance. Giving cards and gifts is also tradition. Children often make Mother's Day gifts in school. Pin cushions, sachets, tie clasps, decorated boxes and picture frames, recipe holders, and plaster - cast hand prints are all popular favorites. Another common gift for mothers is the "mother ring," a ring set with the birthstones of each of the members of the family.

Mother's Day was first proclaimed a national holiday by President Woodrow Wilson in 1915. The idea of honoring mothers on a special day started with Ann Jarvis, from Grafton, West Virginia, who chose the second Sunday in May and began the custom of wearing a red carnation if one's mother was still living and a white carnation if one's mother was deceased. If the latter is the case, many people visit their mother's grave side and dedicate the day to their mother's memory.

XI. Easter



Easter is a Christian religious holiday. It is a memory of Resurrection of Jesus Christ. It falls on the first Sunday after the first full moon between March, 22, and April, 25. The 40 days before Easter are called Lent. Just before Easter, schools and colleges usually close. The students have a week or ten days of spring holidays.

Easter is a church holiday, and many churches have an outdoor sunrise service. On the night before Easter, an imaginary creature known as the Easter Bunny comes to visit children and leaves a basket filled with candy in the shape of eggs, bunnies and baby chicks. Another tradition is painting hard boiled eggs different colours and designs on them. It is common to hide these eggs, as well as candy eggs, for children to look for on Easter Sunday as part of an Easter egg hunt.

XII. Memorial Day

The last Monday in May is Memorial Day. This is a national holiday to remember the dead. The first Memorial Day was many years ago after the Civil War (1861 -1865). After the war, people wanted to remember the dead. So around 1866, people began to decorate the graves of Civil War soldiers. People called this day Decoration Day or Poppy Day (Poppies are small red flowers).

On the Memorial Day, Americans honor the servicemen who gave their lives

in past wars. Schools, clubs and churches decorate the cemeteries. They put up the flags on the graves of the army, navy and airmen. They hold memorial services in churches, halls, parks and cemeteries.

In addition to solemn services Memorial Day is often marked by other, more joyful ceremonies: colourful parades, sports competitions.

XIII. Flag Day

***Then hurrah for the flag, our country's flag,
Its stripes and white stars, too.
There is no flag in any land
Like our own Red, White and Blue.***

On June 14th, 1777, the United States adopted its first flag. Today Americans honor the US flag each year on June 14th. Flag Day is a national commemorative day. It is not a holiday from work. Many people fly the flag outside their homes and businesses on this day.

The American flag has different names. One name is "The Red, White, and Blue." This name is for the colours of the flag. Another name is "The Stars and Stripes." This name is for the 50 stars and 13 stripes.

The flag did not always have 50 stars and 13 stripes. In 1777, the original flag had 13 stars and 13 stripes for the 13 colonies. The 13 colonies became the first 13 states. Then more states joined the United States. In 1794, the flag had 15 stars and 15 stripes. Then more states joined. This created a problem for the flag makers. The flag was getting too big! So in 1818, Congress decided to have only 13 stripes on the flag. They decided to add one star each new state. So now there are 50 stars and 13 stripes on the flag.

XIV. Independence Day

***America, America,
Land of hope and liberty,
Freedom rings from every Mountain,
From sea to sea.***

July 4th is Independence Day. Another name for Independence Day is the Fourth of July. On this day in 1776 the final of the Declaration of Independence, written by Thomas Jefferson, was adopted.

Independence Day is a national holiday. Government offices, banks, and schools close. Most people don't go to work. Families and friends get together outside for picnics and cookouts.

Traditionally the Fourth of July is celebrate with firing of guns and fireworks, parades open - air meetings and speeches praising "Americanism, democracy, free enterprise."

Independence Day isn't only day for cookouts, noise, and fireworks. It is also a day to think about freedom. The Declaration of Independence says everyone has the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. The Declaration of Independence more than 200 years old, but its ideas are important

today.

XV. Father's Day

*Everything to both of us is so new.
As you learn about the world
I learn about you,
There's no need to fear.
Daddy will be here,
And I'll love and care for you
Through the years.*

People in the United States honor their fathers with special day: Father's Day. This holiday is celebrated on the third Sunday in June.

Father's Day dates back to 1909, when one daughter, a certain Mrs. Dodd from Spokane, Washington, wanted to honor her own father who had raised four sons and a daughter after her mother's death. Although the first Father's Day was observed in Spokane in 1910 and it has been likewise observed in many other states for many decades, Father's Day did not become a national holiday until Senator Margaret Chase Smith helped to establish it as such in 1972.

Giving cards and gifts is the tradition of this holiday. Children make them in schools. Many people make their own presents. Greeting cards, stores, florists, candy makers, bakeries, telephone companies and other stores do a lot of business during this day.

XVI. Labor Day

Labor Day is a legal holiday. It is celebrated each year on the first Monday in September. It was planned as a day to honor workers in America and to give them a long weekend holiday from work.

Labor Day was started in 1882 by a union called the Knights of Labor. The first celebration was a long parade followed by a picnic in New York City. In 1894 Congress made it a legal holiday.

Labor Day is traditionally celebrated with parades, speeches, and recognition of the labor unions. Labor Day sales are a popular event held on this holiday. Barbecues and picnics are popular on Labor Day. They mark the end of the summer season. Schools usually open after this holiday.

XVII. Columbus Day

The American continent was discovered in 1492 by the Spanish seaman Christopher Columbus. Columbus is said to be the first European man, stepping on the American land, and that day, when it was happened, the 12th of October, became the holiday, which is called Columbus Day. This holiday is celebrated in 34 States of the USA and Puerto Rico. There are parades and parties in San Francisco and New York. One of the squares of New York is called Columbus Circle with the monument of Columbus in the middle of it.

XVIII. Halloween

***It's Halloween! It's Halloween!
The moon is full and bright
And we shall see what we can't be seen
On any other night.***

Halloween is the day or evening before All Saints Day. The name is a shortened version of "All Hallows Eve" the night before All Saints Day which is celebrated on November 1st by the Catholic Church.

Halloween customs date back to a time when people believed in devils, witches and ghost. They thought that these evil spirits could do all kinds of damage to property. Some people tried to ward off witches' by paintings signs on their barns. Others tried to scare them away by nailing a piece of iron, such as horseshoe, over the door.

Now most of people do not believe in evil spirits. On this day they just have a nice holiday. Children dress up as ghosts and witches and go out into the street to beg. They from house to house and say: "Trick or treat!" meaning; "Give me a treat or I'll play a trick on you". People give them candy cookies and apples. This custom comes from the Celts in ancient Britain who feared the coming of winter and dressed in frightening costumes so the: demons of winter "would think they were one of them and do them no harm. Hence, the origin of costumes for today's celebration: It represents a devil coming to your home whom you can placate with a treat.

A favorite custom is making a jack-o-lantern. Children scrape out a pumpkin and cut the outlines of eyes, nose and mouth in its side. They light a candle inside the pumpkin to scare their friends. This custom refers to a man named Jack who still wanders around the earth lighting his way with a pumpkin lantern.

XIX. Election Day

The first Tuesday after the first Monday in November is Election Day. It is a legal holiday. Since 1845, by Act of Congress, this date has been set aside for elections.

On this day American citizen elect their public officials, president, congressmen, governors, mayors and judges. ALL states require that voters be citizens of the United States.

"Election Day" sales in stories are very popular on this day. The night of the election, people watch the election results on TV. They listen to the speeches made by the winners.

XX. Veterans Day

November 11th is a national holiday. Veterans Day is a day to remember and honor all those Americans who served in the armed forces and particularly those who fought during the Spanish - Americans War, World Wars I and II, the Korean War, and the Vietnam War. People also remember those soldiers missing in action. This day reminds people of the courage and patriotism of all men and women who serve their country.

President Woodrow Wilson proclaimed November 11th as Armistice Day so Americans would not forget the tragedies of war. In 1954 Congress changed the name to Veterans Day to honor all United States veterans. It is also a day

dedicated to world peace.

On this day, the radio and television broadcast services held at the National Cemetery in Arlington. High official's come from Washington to attend these services. They place a wreath of flowers at the tomb of the Unknown Soldier. All stand in silence for a few minutes at eleven o'clock to honor the memory of the serviceman killed in the two World Wars.

XXI. Thanksgiving Day

***When Pilgrims sailed to this new and,
They met a friendly Indian band.
The Indians taught them to plant, hunt, and fish,
Then they all had a feast with many a tasty dishes.***

Thanksgiving Day is marked on the fourth Thursday of November in memory of the first Thanksgiving Day held by the early Pilgrim settlers in Massachusetts in 1621, in gratitude for the successful harvest. They experienced difficulty in those early times and survived only with the help of American Indians who taught them how to grow and harvest indigenous foods such as squash and corn. The first Thanksgiving Day lasted three days and was celebrated with their Indian friends.

Thanksgiving was proclaimed a national day of observance by Congress in 1941.

Thanksgiving Day is a four-day holiday for most Americans. This is a family holiday. Families' come together from near and far. In some places special religious services are held in the morning. Then comes the traditional feast. Turkey with stuffing is the main dish. It is served with sweet potatoes, squash, cranberry sauce, and pumpkin pie. Apple cider is the drink of the day.

Football is the most popular game on this day. Usually there are several football games to watch on TV. There is Thanksgiving Day Parade in New York City.

Stores, classrooms, and homes are decorated with turkeys, pilgrims, Indians, wreaths of dried flowers, and vegetables. Homes of plenty are also very popular.

XXII. Christmas

***It's time for hanging stockings,
It's time for riding sleighs,
It's time for jolly greeting,
Snow and holly overeating,
It's Christmas! Merry Christmas!
It's the best of holidays.***

Christmas is a Christian holiday commemorating the birth of Jesus Christ. Americans celebrate Christmas on December the 25th. It is usually a one - day official holiday, but it is preceded and followed by festive parties. By this day people decorate fir - trees with toys and candies. Children wait for Santa Claus who comes to every house and brings them presents. Before going to bed, children leave their shoes to find in them what they want most of all the next

morning.

Decorating the house with holly, ivy and mistletoe is a custom, which came from England. Ivy means immortality. Holly is a bush with shiny red berries and glossy leaves with a characteristic shape and sharp pointy edges. Because it remains green throughout the year it was believed to hold a promise that the sun would return. Holly berries symbolize Christ's blood. Mistletoe is an interesting green parasitic plant which grows in globe - like formations high up in the branches of oak trees. Springs of it are tied together with ribbons and hung up in doorways. By custom anyone standing under the mistletoe gets to be kissed.

Christmas is a family holiday. Schools and colleges close between Christmas and New Year's Day. People stay at home and spend the time with their families. Everybody tries to come home for Christmas. People send cards or Christmas greetings to family and friends away from home. All the members of the family exchange gifts. It is a merry holiday.

Questions:

1. Name the holidays of the USA.
2. Are there some similarities and dissimilarities between holidays of the USA and Uzbekistan?
3. Whose birthdays are celebrated in president's day?
4. Who was Saint Valentine?
5. What kind of day is an Earth day?
6. What is a mother ring?
7. When celebrated the Father's Day?
8. It is celebrated each year on the first Monday in September. Which holiday is it?
9. How Columbus Day is celebrated?
10. What is Thanksgiving Day?

Life Style of the USA

I. American Wedding Traditions
II. Marriage and Family
III. Diet and Eating

IV. Socializing
V. Recreation

Key words:

Every American wedding has subtle traditional elements; the American family has changed considerably in recent decades; almost 45.9 per cent of all working Americans are women; the US family is more mobile than in many other societies; Americans eat a lot of fast food; eating styles and habits vary between people of different backgrounds; visiting friends, family, and acquaintances plays a big part of social life.

I. American Wedding Traditions

While American wedding traditions exist, there are no rigid rules one must follow to plan a beautiful wedding. A white dress, faith based ceremony, reception

& honeymoons are all American wedding traditions, but they are by no means set in stone. You can plan your wedding when you want and how you want it perhaps that is the best American wedding tradition!

An American wedding is typically a happy, joyous occasion for all people of all backgrounds. American wedding traditions really vary from one religion or culture to another, but in American wedding tradition it's a happy time and the life of the new bride and groom is toasted and celebrated as they come together.

Every American wedding has subtle traditional elements, but there are no really strict guidelines that we follow when planning our big day. Over the last ten years, wedding etiquette has really relaxed and American wedding traditions have become a lot more liberal. This new liberal outlook has enabled couples to marry in a style that they are comfortable with, instead of the sometimes rigid standards that some used to associate with American wedding tradition.

One American wedding tradition is still the white dress for the bride. Brides only used to wear white if she was still a virgin and it was her first wedding. American tradition now dictates that any bride can wear white proudly, even though the second weddings tend to be a little bit less formal. The white dress really seals the deal though, and most women choose to wear it.

Another American wedding tradition is to have the ceremony in a church or place of worship. Those that don't have the ceremony in a place of worship usually have a member of the church clergy marry them in another location such as outdoors in the mountains. The majority of people still get married in a place of worship, involving faith in their union, even with less rigid etiquette.

One great follow up to an American wedding is a reception or big party celebrating the bride and groom. The reception usually includes a meal, dancing, and mingling among friends and family of both the bride and the groom. A reception really is a great way to get everyone together as the two families really sort of merges as a result of the wedding. Receptions are often the most anticipated event when planning the wedding because there is so much to plan for!

Following an American wedding and reception it's a tradition for the bride and the groom to go on a honeymoon or vacation. The honeymoon was originally done for the bride and the groom to go away and enjoy the company of one another with chaperones for the first time, and even consummate their marriage. Now, it's more about getting away and just enjoying one another for the first time. A honeymoon gives a new husband and wife the chance to dote on each other with no distractions to sort of nurture the new union.

An American wedding has really morphed into a wedding of personal preference. Couples are free to plan a wedding and join in matrimony as they please and when they please. As long as there is a wedding certificate, all is legal, and everything else is up to them. Unlike many other cultures, there are no rigid guidelines or laws about marriage.

In America all you have to do is love someone, and you can marry him or her! And really, what's better than being free to marry and love whom you wish to? Just one more reason for America is so great...

II. Marriage and Family

The family remains central to US society, and more than half of unmarried adults between the ages of 18 and 24 still live with their parents. Even so, the American family has changed considerably in recent decades. Today only about one-quarter of all households consist of a traditional nuclear family, and more than half of all households have no children. One out of every four children is born out of wedlock, and there has been a large increase in the number of single-parent families.

Almost 45.9 per cent (1997) of all working Americans are women. In many households where both the husband and wife work outside the home, men are expected to share household duties. Men have also been playing an increasing role in raising their children. With both parents working, the use of, and need for, day care facilities are increasing; this is especially true for single-parent families. Among the growing proportion of the elderly population, many prefer to live in their own homes and maintain their independence. Those who cannot care for themselves may live in retirement communities or other institutions, or with their adult children. However, extended families are not common in the US. The US family is more mobile than in many other societies. It is common to move from one region of the country to another for education, employment, or simply a change of climate and scenery. Some people may move 15 times or more during a lifetime. Although many couples choose to live together before, or instead of, marriage, the marriage rate is one of the highest in western societies-but the divorce rate is also the worlds highest. Weddings vary in style according to religion, region, ethnic origins, and wealth. Both religious and secular people may be legally authorized to perform weddings. The average age for marriage is 26 for men and 24 for women.

III. Diet and Eating

Americans eat a lot of fast food such as hamburgers, pizza, and fried chicken, but their diet embraces an enormous range of foods from all over the world. Staples include potatoes, pasta, breads, and rice prepared with a variety of sauces. In the past two decades, eating habits have changed as people have become more health conscious, but many Americans continue to eat red meat (beef in particular) as well as pork, and chicken and other fowl. People visiting the US for the first time are often amazed at the size of the steaks and other portions of food served in restaurants. Fresh fish and seafood are widely available on the coasts and near major rivers and lakes, and a wide variety of fresh vegetables and fruit is available year-round. An extensive food-distribution system makes fresh farm products available to all parts of the country. Americans also consume large amounts of chocolate, ice cream, and other forms of confectionery. Although beer, wine, and other alcoholic beverages are available and popular in most areas, many Americans abstain from alcohol for health or religious reasons, and various kinds of mineral water are commonly available.

Eating styles and habits vary between people of different backgrounds, but Americans generally eat with the fork in the hand with which they write. A knife is used for cutting and spreading; otherwise, it is laid on the plate or table. Fast foods,

such as chips, fried chicken, hamburgers, pizza, and tacos, tend to be eaten with the fingers. In general, table manners are casual, although it is traditionally considered impolite to rest elbows on the table. There is a significant difference between what people may do at home or in a fast-food restaurant, and how they act in a more formal restaurant. Because both parents often work outside the home, some Americans are less likely to sit down as a family to eat once the children are older and able to prepare their own food or serve themselves.

IV. Socializing

Both men and women usually smile and shake hands when greeting. Good friends and family members may embrace when they meet, especially after a long absence. In casual situations, a wave may be used instead of a handshake. Americans may greet strangers on the street by saying "Hello" or "Good morning", although they may pass without any greeting. Among young people, verbal greetings or various hand-slapping gestures, such as the "high five", are common. Except in formal situations, people usually address one another by their first names once they are acquainted, and often do so on first meeting. Combining a title (such as "Mrs.", "Dr.", or "Ms.") with a family name shows respect. When greeting someone for the first time, Americans commonly say, "Pleased to meet you" or "How do you do?" A simple "Hello" or "Hi" is also common. There are regional variations such as "Aloha" in Hawaii or "Howdy" in parts of the West.

Friends often greet each other with "How are you?" and respond "Fine, thanks". Americans do not usually expect any further answer to the question unless there is a close relationship.

Americans do not generally stand very close to each other when conversing, keeping about arm's length apart. However, they may spontaneously touch one another on the arm or shoulder during conversation. It is common for couples to hold hands or show affection in public. When sitting, both men and women are often casual when circumstances allow, and they may prop their feet up on chairs or place the ankle of one leg on the knee of the other. In more formal settings, however, it is often considered inappropriate to slouch or be too casual in demeanor.

Visiting friends, family, and acquaintances plays a big part of social life in the United States, and people will travel long distances by car, bus, train, or airplane to do so. People are generally expected to be on time for appointments or when they are invited to someone's home. However, if a guest is late, Americans will rarely take offence if the visitor has called in advance to inform them of the delay. In general, the emphasis during visits is on informality. Guests are expected to feel comfortable, to sit where they like, and to enjoy themselves. It usually does not cause offence if a guest refuses refreshments. Gifts are not expected when visiting, but many guests bring flowers or wine when invited for a meal. Close friends may offer, or be asked, to bring an item of food to serve with the meal.

V. Recreation

Baseball, basketball, American football, and ice hockey are the most popular spectator and participation sports, but Americans enjoy an enormous range of activities, including soccer, cycling, racket-ball (a hybrid of squash and handball),

tennis, swimming, golf, bowling, martial arts, walking, jogging, and aerobic exercise. Schools, cities, and other organizations sponsor team sports for the young, and professional sports are an important part of the culture. In general, most Americans spend a large amount of their leisure time socializing or watching television. Other leisure activities include going to the cinema or concerts, picnicking, and traveling. Many Americans volunteer for a wide range of causes, from raising funds to help those who are less fortunate to tutoring students or leading Scout troops and youth sports. Even city dwellers enjoy spending time in the "great outdoors", camping, hiking, or hunting.

Questions:

1. Tell the American wedding tradition.
2. How important is the role of the family in the American society?
3. What is an average age for marriage?
4. What kinds of eating do there exist?
5. What is Socializing?

THEME 14: AMERICAN CULTURE AND PLACES OF INTEREST

I. Places of Interest of the USA

- 1.1. Museums
- 1.2. Memorials and Monuments
- 1.3. The Capital of the USA
- 1.4. New York
- 1.5. Beverly Hills
- 1.6. Leeds Castle
- 1.7. Warwick Castle

II. Famous People of the USA

- 2.1 Mark Twain
- 2.2 Abraham Lincoln
- 2.3 Thomas Alva Edison
- 2.4 Ernest Hemingway
- 2.5 Theodore Roosevelt

III. Sports and Recreation of the USA

- 3.1 Baseball

Key words: American culture is rich; America is well known for its arts; museums devoted to various aspects of American history; monuments to war heroes are important; Washington D.C is beautiful city; New York is one of the largest cities in the world; all kinds of celebrities live in Beverly Hills; Leeds Castle is the most romantic castle; Warwick Castle is called Caesar's Tower; the author of "The Adventures of Tom Sawyer" is Mark Twain; Abraham Lincoln was the sixteenth president; Edison's mother taught him lessons at home; Ernest Hemingway had an incredible career; Theodore Roosevelt's nickname was "Teddy"; Americans are very fond of sport.

I. Places of Interest of the USA

American culture is rich, complex, and unique. It emerged from the short and rapid European conquest of an enormous landmass sparsely settled by

diverse indigenous peoples. Although European cultural patterns predominated, especially in language, the arts, and political institutions, peoples from Africa, Asia, and North America also contributed to American culture. All of these groups influenced popular tastes in music, dress, entertainment, and cuisine. As a result, American culture possesses an unusual mixture of patterns and forms forged from among its diverse peoples. The many melodies of American culture have not always been harmonious, but its complexity has created a society that struggles to achieve tolerance and produces a uniquely casual personal style that identifies Americans everywhere. The country is strongly committed to democracy, in which views of the majority prevail, and strives for equality in law and institutions.

Characteristics such as democracy and equality flourished in the American environment long before taking firm root in European societies, where the ideals originated. As early as the 1780s, Michel Guillaume Jean de Crèvecoeur, a French writer living in Pennsylvania who wrote under the pseudonym J. Hector St. John, was impressed by the democratic nature of early American society. It was not until the 19th century that these tendencies in America were most fully expressed. When French political writer Alexis de Tocqueville, an acute social observer, traveled through the United States in the 1830s, he provided an unusually penetrating portrait of the nature of democracy in America and its cultural consequences. He commented that in all areas of culture—family life, law, arts, philosophy, and dress—Americans were inclined to emphasize the ordinary and easily accessible, rather than the unique and complex. His insight is as relevant today as it was when de Tocqueville visited the United States. As a result, American culture is more often defined by its popular and democratically inclusive features, such as blockbuster movies, television comedies, sports stars, and fast food, than by its more cultivated aspects as performed in theaters, published in books, or viewed in museums and galleries. Even the fine arts in modern America often partake of the energy and forms of popular culture, and modern arts are often a product of the fusion of fine and popular arts.

While America is probably most well known for its popular arts, Americans partake in an enormous range of cultural activities. Besides being avid readers of a great variety of books and magazines catering to differing tastes and interests, Americans also attend museums, operas, and ballets in large numbers. They listen to country and classical music, jazz and folk music, as well as classic rock-and-roll and new wave. Americans attend and participate in basketball, football, baseball, and soccer games. They enjoy food from a wide range of foreign cuisines, such as Chinese, Thai, Greek, French, Indian, Mexican, Italian, Ethiopian, and Cuban. They have also developed their own regional foods, such as California cuisine and Southwestern, Creole, and Southern cooking. Still evolving and drawing upon its ever more diverse population, American culture has come to symbolize what is most up-to-date and modern. American culture has also become increasingly international and is imported by countries around the world.

1.1. Museums

The variety of print resources available in libraries is enormously augmented

by the collections housed in museums. Although people often think of museums as places to view art, in fact museums house a great variety of collections, from rocks to baseball memorabilia. In the 20th century, the number of museums exploded. And by the late 20th century, as institutions became increasingly aware of their important role as interpreters of culture, they attempted to bring their collections to the general public. Major universities have historically also gathered various kinds of collections in museums, sometimes as a result of gifts. The Yale University Art Gallery, for example, contains an important collection of American arts, including paintings, silver, and furniture, while the Phoebe Hearst Museum of Anthropology at the University of California at Berkeley specializes in archaeological objects and Native American artifacts.

The earliest museums in the United States grew out of private collections, and throughout the 19th century they reflected the tastes and interests of a small group. Often these groups included individuals who cultivated a taste for the arts and for natural history, so that art museums and natural history museums often grew up side by side. American artist Charles Wilson Peale established the first museum of this kind in Philadelphia in the late 18th century.

The largest and most varied collection in the United States is contained in the separate branches of the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, D.C. The Smithsonian, founded in 1846 as a research institution, developed its first museums in the 1880s. It now encompasses 16 museums devoted to various aspects of American history, as well as to artifacts of everyday life and technology, aeronautics and space, gems and geology, and natural history.

The serious public display of art began when the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City, founded in 1870, moved to its present location in Central Park in 1880. At its installation, the keynote speaker announced that the museum's goal was education, connecting the museum to other institutions with a public mission. The civic leaders, industrialists, and artists who supported the Metropolitan Museum, and their counterparts who established the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, the Art Institute of Chicago, and the Philadelphia Museum of Art, were also collectors of fine art. Their collections featured mainly works by European masters, but also Asian and American art. They often bequeathed their collections to these museums, thus shaping the museum's policies and holdings. Their taste in art helped define and develop the great collections of art in major metropolitan centers such as New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, and Boston. In several museums, such as the Metropolitan and the National Gallery of Art in Washington, D.C., collectors created institutions whose holdings challenged the cultural treasures of the great museums of Europe.

1.2. Memorials and Monuments

The need to memorialize the past has a long tradition and is often associated with wars, heroes, and battles. In the United States, monuments exist throughout the country, from the Revolutionary site of Bunker Hill to the many Civil War battlefields. The nation's capital features a large number of monuments to generals, war heroes, and leaders. Probably the greatest of all these is Arlington National Cemetery in Virginia, where there are thousands of graves of veterans of American wars, including the Tomb of the Unknowns and the gravesite of

President John F. Kennedy. In addition to these traditional monuments to history, millions of people are drawn to the polished black wall that is the Vietnam Veterans Memorial, located on the National Mall in Washington, D.C. The memorial is a stark reminder of the losses suffered in a war in which more than 58,000 Americans died and of a time of turmoil in the nation.

No less important than monuments to war heroes are memorials to other victims of war. The United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, which opened in 1993 in Washington, D.C., is dedicated to documenting the extermination of millions of Jews and others by the Nazis during World War II. It contains photographs, films, oral histories, and artifacts as well as a research institute, and has become an enormous tourist attraction. It is one example of a new public consciousness about museums as important sources of information and places in which to come to terms with important and painful historical events. Less elaborate Holocaust memorials have been established in cities across the country, including New York, San Francisco, and Los Angeles.

Monuments to national heroes are an important part of American culture. These range from the memorials to Presidents George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, and Abraham Lincoln on the National Mall in Washington, D.C., to the larger-than-life faces of Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln, and Theodore Roosevelt carved into Mount Rushmore in South Dakota. Some national memorials also include monuments to ordinary citizens, such as the laborers, farmers, women, and African Americans who are part of the new Franklin Delano Roosevelt Memorial in Washington, D.C.

Americans also commemorate popular culture with museums and monuments such as the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame and Museum in Cleveland, Ohio, and the Baseball Hall of Fame and Museum in Cooperstown, New York. These collections of popular culture are as much a part of American heritage as are fine arts museums and statues of national heroes. As a result of this wide variety of institutions and monuments, more people know about the breadth of America's past and its many cultural influences. This new awareness has even influenced the presentation of artifacts in natural history museums. Where these once emphasized the differences among human beings and their customs by presenting them as discrete and unrelated cultures, today's museums and monuments emphasize the flow of culture among people.

The expansion in types of museums and the increased attention to audience is due in part to new groups participating in the arts and in discussions about culture. In the early 20th century, many museums were supported by wealthy elites. Today's museums seek to attract a wider range of people including students from inner cities, families from the suburbs, and Americans of all backgrounds. The diverse American population is eager to have its many pasts and talents enshrined. The funding now available through foundations and federal and state governments provides assistance. This development has not been without resistance. In the 1980s and 1990s people challenged the role of the federal government in sponsoring certain controversial art and culture forms, posing threats to the existence of the National Endowment for the Arts and the National Endowment for the Humanities. Nevertheless, even these controversies have made clearer how much art and cultural institutions express who we are as a

people. Americans possess many different views and pasts, and they constantly change what they create, how they communicate, and what they appreciate about their past.

1.3. The Capital of the USA

The beautiful city of Washington D.C. is the capital of the United States and the centre of its government.

The capital was named after the first president George Washington and was founded in 1790. It is situated on the Potomac River in the District of Columbia. Washington is not the largest city in the USA. It has a population only 900000.



Washington



Capitol

Washington D.C. has nothing characteristically American in it, as its conception is purely French. It has long wide avenues, gardens, beautiful parks. Washington is the residence of the President and the Congress of the USA. The White House is the President's residence, the Capitol - the seat of the American Congress. The largest and the tallest among the buildings is the Capitol with its great House of Representatives and Senate Chamber. (The second picture)

There are no skyscrapers because no other building must be taller than the Capitol. All American presidents except George Washington (the White House was not yet built in his time) have lived in the White House. It was built in 1799. Washington is a large scientific and cultural centre, where there are many research institutes, five universities, the National Academy of Science and the Library of Congress.

There is one more well-known building in Washington - Pentagon, the residence of the US Military department. It is situated in the suburbs to the south of the Potomac.

The Pentagon is a building in Arlington, Virginia, near Washington, D.C. It has the offices of the U.S. Department of Defense. The Department of Defense includes the Army, Navy, Air Force, Marines, and Coast Guard.

The word pentagon comes from the Greek penta, which means "five". A pentagon is a figure with five sides. The Pentagon has five rings. The rings are inside each other. Each ring has five sides. How tall do you think the Pentagon is? The answer is easy. Each ring is five stories tall. The Pentagon is the largest office building in the world. It has seventeen miles of halls. People can get lost in the Pentagon. So the walls on each floor are a different colour (brown, green, red, gray, and blue). This helps people to know where they are. There are also many maps in the halls.

The Pentagon is so big that it is like a city. Almost 30,000 people work

there. The Pentagon has its own doctors, dentists, and nurses. It has its own banks and stores. It has a post office, a fire department, and a police department. It also has an important center for communications.

This center guards the country. It is hundreds of feet under the ground. The Pentagon even has its own radio and TV stations.

1.4. New York



New York is one of the largest cities in the world and the biggest seaport. It's the financial capital of the country. It's the business centre of the United States. The city is situated in New York State, at the mouth of the Hudson River. Its population is over eight million. In early times the New York area was populated by Indians. It is here in Wall Street many business offices, banks and world famous New York stock exchange are situated.

New York is an industrial and cultural centre of the country. The most important branches of industry are those producing vehicles, glass, chemicals. New York is also a great cultural centre. It has many museums, art galleries, theatres, ballet. There are two world-famous streets in New York - Broadway and Fifth Avenue. Broadway is the centre of the theatres and night life. Fifth Avenue is the great shopping, hotel and club centre.

The Empire State Building is there. Its a 102-stored building was built in 1931. The Metropolitan Museum of Art is also there. It includes hundreds of world famous masterpieces and attracts many visitors.

The Statue of Liberty is the symbol of American democracy. It stands on Liberty Island in New York port.

Today New York City is informally called "The Big Apple", the origin of this name is unknown, but it is popular all over the world.

1.5. Beverly Hills

Most visitors to Los Angeles, California want to go and see Beverly Hills. This is where you find the homes of the movie stars. But Beverly Hills is not Los Angeles. It is a small city next to Los Angeles.

All kinds of celebrities live in Beverly Hills. These celebrities' may be movie stars, television stars, sports stars, or other people in the news. Tourist's can buy special maps for the homes of the stars. These homes are very beautiful. They usually have swimming pools and tennis courts. But some times you cannot

see very much. The homes have high wall or trees around them.

Beverly Hills is also famous for Rodeo Drive. This is one of the most expensive shopping streets in the United States. Rodeo Drive started to be an elegant street in the 1960s. Many famous stores were opened on the street. People liked all the new styles and fashions they could buy. Today, you can find the most expensive and unusual clothing, jewelry, and furniture in the world on Rodeo Drive. Rodeo Drive is a very Special Street. When you want to park your car in public parking, an attendant will come and park your car for you.

Beverly Hills is really a small city. Only about 35,000 people live there. But during the day more than 200,000 people come to Beverly Hills to work or to shop.

1.6. Leeds Castle



Leeds Castle, acclaimed as the most romantic castle in England, is located in south-east England, built on two adjacent islands in the river Len.

Leeds Castle was originally a manor of the Saxon royal family possibly as early as the reign of Ethelbert IV (856-860). The first castle was an earthwork enclosure whose wooden palisade was converted to stone and provided with two towers along the perimeter. This is now vanished. Traces of arches in a vault thought to be Norman were found at the beginning of this century.

Around 1119 Robert Crevecoeur started to build a stone castle on the site, establishing his donjon where the Gloriette now is. Stephen, Count of Blois, and his cousin the Empress Matilda contested the crown of England. In 1139 Matilda invaded England with the help of his brother Robert, Earl of Gloucester, who held Leeds castle, but Kent was loyal to king Stephen and following a short siege he took control of the castle.

The castle came into the possession of Edward I (1278). He rebuilt much of the castle as it stood at the beginning of his reign, and enlarged it, providing an outer stone curtain round the edge of the larger island, with cylindrical open-backed flanking towers and a square-plan water-gate on the south-east. The gatehouse at the southwest, a single tower pierced by an arched passage was improved. Later on, King Edward, the Confessor granted the manor to the powerful house of Godwin.

Henry VIII, the most famous of all the owners of Leeds Castles, expended large sums in enlarging and beautifying the whole range of buildings. At the same time, he carefully retained the defenses of the castle for he often had cause to fear invasion from either France or the Spanish. The king entrusted the work of alteration to his great friend Sir Henry Guidford.

Leeds has been constantly inhabited and rebuilt since then. Most of the castle today is the result of the nineteenth-century reconstruction and addition. In 1926 Leeds was bought by the Hon. Mrs. Wilson-Filmer, known as Lady Baillie. Immediately she began the restoration of the castle that took her over 30 years to leave it as it stands today.

1.7. Warwick Castle



Warwick Castle was founded in 1068 and was rebuilt and updated a number of times. Today it combines castle ruins, largely of the fourteenth century with one of the finest great houses in England. Two small projecting towers, which date to the late fifteenth century are said to have built as artillery platforms. Warwick Castle rises like a precipice above the River Avon. On this natural cliff William I founded a mote castle in 1068, on lands seized from a nearby Saxon convent. A wooden tower built on the mote was evidently still there in the reign of Henry II, by which time a polygonal shell enclosure had been raised round the mote top. Only fragments of the shell enclosure now remain, incorporated in the rebuilt shell, which is of much later date.

Late in the fourteenth century, by which time some additional buildings such as the great hall and residential blocks had been put up in the bailey, the castle passed to Earl Beauchamp who initiated a fresh programme of works. These were substantially what can be seen today. They included restructuring the great hall and a range of other buildings on the south-east, a water-gate, and on the west front a high and stout defensive curtain leading from a gatehouse to a very tall polygonal tower, known as Guy's Tower, which is 39.4 meters tall. The gatehouse is a remarkable building: a pair of towers above the doorway passage, which had

portcullises and murder-holes. Projecting from the east side of the gatehouse is a tall rectangular building leading to another tower.

This latter tower is 45.2 meters tall and capped by a two-fold system of battlements with machicolation all round below the battlements. It is called Caesar's Tower. The three main stores in the tower are each vaulted, and have stone fireplaces.

The castle is completed by curtain walling and further, much smaller, flanking towers. The wall at the west leads up the mote to the restored shell enclosure and down again southwards to the south range. The whole is thus a powerfully defended enclosure

II. Famous People of America

2.1. Mark Twain

Samuel Langhorne Clemens, known to most people as Mark Twain, was born and spent his boyhood in a small town on the Mississippi River. When he grew up, he became a river pilot. Later he went west and worked as a newspaper reporter. While he was on this job, he began to sign his articles "Mark Twain". From then on Clemens used Mark Twain as his pen-name.

Clemens worked on other newspapers, travelled, and gave lectures. Clemens spent his summer's on his farm. There he wrote "The Adventures of Tom Sawyer", published in 1876. Tom in the story is really Mark Twain. Huckleberry Finn is his close boyhood friend, Tom Blankenship. The book tells of the boys' exciting adventures.

Later Clemens wrote a sequel, "The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn". "Tom Sawyer" and "Huckleberry Finn" are among the most popular books ever published in the United States. Among Mark Twain's other books are "Joan of Arc", "Life on the Mississippi".

2.2. Abraham Lincoln

Abraham Lincoln was the sixteenth president of the United States. He was born in Kentucky in 1809. His family was very poor. When Lincoln was a boy, he worked on his family's farm. He did not go to school. He taught himself to read and write. Later, Lincoln studied law and became a lawyer. After that, he became a politician.

Everybody liked Abraham Lincoln because he was intelligent and hard-working. Lincoln was very ambitious. He wanted to be good at everything he did. He said that he wanted to win the "race of life". He was also kind and honest. People called him "Honest Abe".

Lincoln became president in 1860. In 1861, there was a war between the North and the South of the United States. The people in the South wanted a separate government from the United States. The North wanted the United States to stay together as one country. Lincoln was the leader of the North. In the war, brother killed brother. The Civil War was four years long.

The North won the Civil War. The war ended on April 9, 1865. Six days later, President Lincoln and his wife went to the theatre. Inside the theatre, a man went

behind the president and shot him in the head. The man's name was John Wilkes Booth. He was a supporter of the South. Lincoln died the next morning.

2.3. Thomas Alva Edison

Thomas Alva Edison was born in 1847. He was sick a lot when he was young. Edison's mother taught him lessons at home and he only studied the things he wanted to know. At the age of ten, he read his first science book. After he read the book, he built a laboratory in his house. Soon, Edison started to invent things. He was interested in the telegraph and electricity. At the age of twenty-three, he made a special telegraphic machine and sold it for a lot of money. With this money, he was now free to invent all the time.

Edison started his own laboratory at Menlo Park, New Jersey. He hired mechanics and chemists to help him. He worked day and night. Once, he worked on forty-five inventions at the same time. Edison did not sleep very much, but he took naps. He often fell asleep with his clothes on.

Did you know Edison invented wax paper, fire alarms, the battery, and motion pictures? But his favourite invention was the phonograph, or record player. He invented the phonograph in 1876. His other famous invention was the light bulb. Edison died in 1931, at the age of eighty-four. He had over 1,300 inventions to his name! Many people say that Edison was a genius - one of the smartest people in the world.

2.4. Ernest Hemingway

Ernest Hemingway is one of the greatest 20th-century American writers. His incredible career, and the legend which developed around his impressive personality, was that of a man of action, a devil-may-care adventurer, a brave war correspondent, an amateur boxer, a big-game hunter and deep-sea fisherman, the victim of three car accidents and two plane crashes, a man of four wives and many loves, but above all a brilliant writer of stories and novels.

Hemingway was born in 1899 in Oak Park, Illinois. His father was a doctor who initiated the boy into the outdoor life of hunting, camping and fishing. In high school Hemingway played football and wrote for the school newspaper.

In 1917, when the United States entered the First World War, Hemingway left home and schooling to become a young reporter for the Kansas City Star. He wanted to enlist for the war but was rejected because of an eye injury from football. Finally he managed to go to Europe as an ambulance driver for the Red Cross. He joined the Italian army and was seriously wounded.

His war experience and adventurous life provided the background for his many short stories and novels. He achieved success with "A Farewell to Arms" the story of a love affair between an American lieutenant and an English nurse during the First World War.

Hemingway actively supported the Republicans in the Spanish Civil War and wrote another successful novel of war, love and death. It was "For Whom the Bell Tolls".

During the Second World War Hemingway was a war correspondent first in China and then in Europe. He fought in France, and helped to liberate Paris. In his later years Hemingway lived mostly in Cuba where his passion for deep-sea fishing provided the background for “The Old Man and the Sea”. He was awarded the Nobel Prize for literature in 1954.

Unwilling to live with the inevitable physical aging, Hemingway committed suicide, as his father had done before him under similar circumstances.

2.5. Theodore Roosevelt

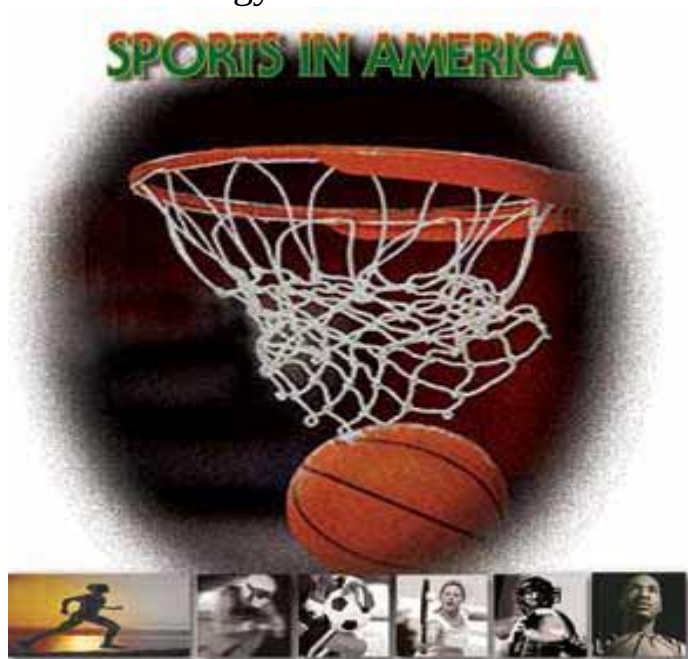
Theodore Roosevelt was the 26th president of the United States. He was president from 1901 to 1909. He was a very intelligent man. He was also very energetic. He was a boxer, a soldier, a rancher, and an explorer.

This energetic man was not strong when he was a boy. He had some problems with his breathing. He had asthma. His father wanted him to be strong. Roosevelt learned to box and did many other sports. Soon Roosevelt became strong and energetic.

After he became president, Roosevelt kept his body strong. He even boxed in the White House. One day, another boxer hit him in the eye. After that accident, Roosevelt became blind in one eye.

Theodore Roosevelt's nickname was "Teddy". Everybody called him Teddy. When he was president, he often went hunting. One day he went hunting with some friends and saw a little bear. He did not shoot the bear. He said the bear was too small and must go free. The next day the story of the little bear was in the newspapers. The newspapers named the little bear “Teddy” after the president. Soon people called toy bears for children “teddy bears”.

When he left the White House, Teddy Roosevelt went to hunt in Africa. He then went to South America to explore places that nobody knew about. Everybody loved his energy.



3.1. Baseball

Americans are very fond of sport. The most popular sports in the USA are football, which is played from April to October, baseball, played from September to December, basketball, played from October to April and ice hockey, played in neither most nor then cities from October to March.

Baseball is a nine-a-side game played with bat, ball, and glove, mainly in the U.S.A. Teams consist of a pitcher and catcher, called the battery, first, second, and third basemen, and shortstop, called the infield, and right, centre, and left fielders, called the outfield. Substitute players may enter the game at any time, but once a player is removed he cannot return.

The standard ball has a cork-and-rubber centre wound with woolen yarn and covered with horsehide. It weighs from 5 to 5 1/4 oz. (148 g.) and is from 9 to 9 1/2 in. (approx. 23 cm.) in circumference. The bat is a smooth, round, tapered piece of hard wood not more than 2 3/4 in. (approx. 7 cm.) in diameter at its thickest part and no more than 42 in. (1.07 m.) long.

Originally, fielders played barehanded, but gloves have been developed over the years. First basemen wear a special large mitt, and catchers use a large, heavily padded mitt as well as a chest protector, shin guards, and a metal mask. Catchers were at first unprotected. Consequently,- they stood back at a distance from home plate and caught pitched balls on the bounce, but the introduction of the large, round, well-padded mitt or "pillow glove" and the face mask enabled them to move up close behind the plate and catch pitched balls on the fly. Players wear shoes with steel cleats and, while batting and running the bases, they use protective plastic helmets.

The game is played on a field containing four bases placed at the angles of a 90-ft (27.4 m.) square (often called a diamond): home plate and, in counter-clockwise order, first, second, and third base. Two foul lines form the boundaries of fair territory. Starting at home, these lines extend past first and third base the entire length of the field, which is often enclosed by a fence at its farthest limits.



The object of each team is to score more runs than the other. A run is scored whenever a player circles all the bases and reaches home without being put out the game is divided into innings, in each of which the teams alternate at bat and in the field. A team is allowed three outs in each half inning at bat, and must then take up defensive positions in the field while the other team has its turn to try to score. Ordinarily, a game consists of

nine innings; in the event of a tie, extra innings are played until one team outscores the other in the same number of innings.

The players take turns batting from home plate in regular rotation. The opposing pitcher throws the ball to his catcher from a slab (called the "rubber") on the pitcher's mound, a slightly raised area of the field directly between home and second base. Bases are canvas bags fastened to metal pegs set in the ground.

The batter tries to reach base safely after hitting the pitched ball into fair territory. A hit that enables him to reach first base is called a "single," a two-base hit is a "double," a three-base hit a "triple," and a four-base hit a "home-run." A fair ball hit over an outfield fence is automatically a home run. A batter is also awarded his base if the pitcher delivers four pitches, which in the umpire's judgment, do not pass through the "strike zone" - that is, over home plate between the batter's armpits and knees; or if he is hit by a pitched ball; or if the opposing catcher interferes when he swings the bat. To prevent the batter from hitting safely, baseball pitchers deliver the ball with great speed and accuracy and vary its speed and trajectory. Success in batting, therefore, requires courage and a high degree of skill.

After a player reaches base safely, his progress towards home depends largely on his teammates' hitting the ball in such a way that he can advance. Players may be put out in various ways. A batter is out when the pitcher gets three 'strikes' on him. A strike is a pitch that crosses the plate in the strike zone, or any pitch that is struck at and missed or is hit into foul territory. After two strikes, however, foul balls do not count except when a batter bunts - lets the ball meet the bat instead of swinging at it - and the ball rolls foul. A batter is also out if he hits the ball in the air anywhere in fair or foul territory and it is caught by an opponent before it touches the ground. He is out if he hits the ball on the ground and a fielder catches and throws it to a player at first base, or catches it and touches that base, before the batter (now become a base runner) gets there.

A base runner may be put out if, while off base, he is tagged by an opposing player with the hand or glove holding the ball, or if he is forced to leave his base to make room for another runner and fails to reach the next base before an opposing player tags him or the base; or if he is hit by a team mate's batted ball before it has touched or passed a fielder.

An umpire-in-chief "calls" balls and strikes from his position directly behind the catcher at home plate, and one or more base umpires determine whether runners are safe or out at the other three bases.

Basketball is a game which nowadays is popular all over the world. It was invented in 1891. During the '20s the first US league championship was organized. In the '70s American Championship was divided into two leagues: the ABA (American Basketball Association), which does not exist any longer and which played with a blue, red and white ball and the NBA (National Basketball Association).

There are more activities which Americans take part in such as golf, swimming, tennis, aerobics, wrestling, etc. Sports are a national pastime, and playing sports, especially American football, baseball, and basketball, is

very popular at the high-school level. Professional sports in the U.S. are big business, with most of the world's most highly paid athletes. The "Big Four" sports are baseball, American football, ice hockey, and basketball. Baseball is popularly termed "the national pastime"; but, since the early 1990s, American football has largely been considered the most popular sport in America.

Other sports, including auto racing, lacrosse, soccer, golf, and tennis, have significant followings. The United States is among the most influential regions in shaping three popular board-based recreational sports: surfing, skateboarding, and snowboarding. Eight Olympiads have taken place in the United States; in medals won, the United States ranks third in the Winter Games, with 218 (78 gold, 81 silver, and 59 bronze), and first in the Summer Games, with 2,321 (943 gold, 736 silver, and 642 bronze).



1. Elvis Presley in 1957.

2. American cultural icons, such as apple pie, baseball, and the American flag.

Questions:

1. What places of sightseeing does the USA have?
2. What can u say about the American culture?
3. Who are the famous people of the country?
4. What is the national dress of the USA?
5. Name the museums of the country.
6. What types of the sport are famous in the USA?
7. To which national heroes there were built Monuments?
8. Do you know who invented wax paper, fire alarms, the battery, and motion pictures?

THEME 15: ECONOMY, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, TRANSPORTATION OF THE USA

- I. Economic history of the United States**
- II. Health of the U.S. economy**
- III. Government effects on the economy**
- IV. Capitalistic economy**
- V. Science and technology**
- VI. Transportation**

Key words:

The economy of the United States is the largest national economy in the world; the economic history of the United States has its roots in European settlements; the United States is rich in mineral resources and fertile farm soil; the American government has a profitable place in the economy; in a capitalistic economy businesses are privately owned and operated; competition is an essential element of capitalism; the United States is an influential country in scientific and technological researches.

The economy of the United States is the largest national economy in the world. The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in the United States was worth 17419 billion US dollars in 2015. The GDP value of the United States represents 28.10 percent of the world economy. GDP in the United States averaged 6353.60 USD Billion from 1960 until 2015, reaching an all time high of 17419 USD Billion in 2015 and a record low of 543.30 USD Billion in 1960. GDP in the United States is reported by the World Bank.

The United States has been one of the best-performing developed countries, consistently outperforming European countries. The American labor market has attracted immigrants from all over the world and has one of the world's highest migration rates. Americans enjoy the second highest income per hour worked. The United States tops the overall ranking in the Global Competitiveness Report.



I. Economic history of the United States

The economic history of the United States has its roots in European settlements in the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries. The American colonies went from marginally successful colonial economies to a small, independent farming economy, which in 1776 became the United States of America. In 230 years the

United States grew to a huge, integrated, industrialized economy that makes up over a quarter of the world economy. The main causes were a large unified market, a supportive political-legal system, vast areas of highly productive farmlands, vast natural resources (especially timber, coal and oil), and an entrepreneurial spirit and commitment to investing in material and human capital. In addition, the U.S. was able to exploit these resources due to a unique set of institutions designed to encourage exploration and extraction. As a result, the U.S.'s GDP per capita converged on that of the U.K., as well as other nations that it previously trailed economically. The economy has maintained high wages, attracting immigrants by the millions from all over the world.

A central feature of the U.S. economy is the economic freedom afforded to the private sector by allowing the private sector to make the majority of economic decisions in determining the direction and scale of what the U.S. economy produces. This is enhanced by relatively low levels of regulation and government involvement, as well as a court system that generally protects property rights and enforces contracts.

II. Health of the U.S. economy

The United States is rich in mineral resources and fertile farm soil, and it is fortunate to have a moderate climate. It also has extensive coastlines on both the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, as well as on the Gulf of Mexico. Rivers flow from far within the continent, and the Great Lakes—five large, inland lakes along the U.S. border with Canada—provide additional shipping access. These extensive waterways have helped shape the country's economic growth over the years and helped bind America's 50 individual states together in a single economic unit.

The number of unemployed workers and, more importantly, their productivity help determine the health of the U.S. economy. Throughout its history, the United States has experienced steady growth in the labor force, a phenomenon that is both cause and effect of almost constant economic expansion. Until shortly after World War I, most workers were immigrants from Europe, their immediate descendants, or African Americans who were mostly slaves taken from Africa, or slave descendants. Beginning in the early 20th century, many Latin Americans immigrated; followed by large numbers of Asians following removal of nation-origin based immigration quotas. The promise of high wages brings many highly skilled workers from around the world to the United States.

Labor mobility has also been important to the capacity of the American economy to adapt to changing conditions. When immigrants flooded labor markets on the East Coast, many workers moved inland, often to farmland waiting to be tilled. Similarly, economic opportunities in industrial, northern cities attracted black Americans from southern farms in the first half of the 20th century.

United States GDP	Last	Previous	Highest	Lowest	Unit	
GDP	17419.00	16768.10	17419.00	543.30	USD Billion	[+]
GDP Growth Rate	1.50	3.90	16.90	-10.00	percent	[+]
GDP Annual Growth Rate	2.00	2.70	13.40	-4.10	percent	[+]
GDP Constant	16394.20	16333.60	16394.20	2084.60	USD Billion	[+]

Prices						
Gross National Product	16529.70	16371.40	16529.70	2098.40	USD Billion	[+]
GDP per capita	46405.26	45660.73	46405.26	15791.86	USD	[+]
Gross Fixed Capital Formation	2755.10	2735.50	2755.10	1215.60	USD Billion	[+]
GDP per capita PPP	52117.76	51281.58	52117.76	36543.10	USD	[+]
GDP From Agriculture	191.10	190.70	235.10	123.30	USD Billion	[+]
GDP From Construction	706.50	686.20	721.60	528.70	USD Billion	[+]
GDP From Manufacturing	2165.80	2116.60	2165.80	1679.40	USD Billion	[+]
GDP From Mining	335.10	332.50	476.10	197.60	USD Billion	[+]
GDP From Public Administration	2316.50	2270.60	2316.50	1705.00	USD Billion	[+]
GDP From Services	12198.70	12096.60	12198.70	8469.60	USD Billion	[+]
GDP From Transport	525.90	515.40	525.90	357.50	USD Billion	[+]
GDP From Utilities	287.90	296.60	296.60	193.00	USD Billion	[+]

III. Government effects on the economy

In the United States, the corporation has emerged as an association of owners, known as stockholders, who form a business enterprise governed by a complex set of rules and customs. Brought on by the process of mass production, corporations, such as General Electric, have been instrumental in shaping the United States. Through the stock market, American banks and investors have grown their economy by investing and withdrawing capital from profitable corporations. Today in the era of globalization American investors and corporations have influence all over the world. The American government has also been instrumental in investing in the economy, in areas such as providing cheap electricity (such as from the Hoover Dam), and military contracts in times of war.

While consumers and producers make most decisions that mold the economy, government has a powerful effect on the U.S. economy in at least four areas, as the government uses a Capitalist system. Strong government regulation in the U.S. economy started in the early 1900s with the rise of the Progressive Movement; prior to this the government promoted economic growth through protective tariffs and subsidies to industry, built infrastructure, and established banking policies, including the gold standard, to encourage savings and investment in productive enterprises.

IV. Capitalistic economy

Both the USA and the UK 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 private companies provide transportation, communications, and health care.

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.

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 rational 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 Trans or trucks to transport raw materials and for 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 US 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 US. 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 US. About 12 % of the population has earnings below the poverty line established by the government. Some people can not 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 US, 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 in the near future. Bond prices are primarily influenced by interest rates. If interest rates rise, bond prices usually fall and vice versa.

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 much different business in order to minimize risk).

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 banks or other financial institutions issue another type of credit card. 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 debt 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 for 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.

V. Science and technology

The United States is an influential country in scientific and technological research and the production of innovative technological products. During World War II, the U.S. was the first to develop the atomic bomb, ushering in the atomic age. Beginning early in the Cold War, the U.S. achieved successes in space science and technology, leading to a space race, which led to rapid advances in rocketry, weaponry, material science, computers, and many other areas. This technological progress was epitomized by the first visit of a man to the moon, when Neil Armstrong stepped off of Apollo 11 in July 1969. The U.S. was also perhaps the most instrumental nation in the development of the Internet, through the funding of its predecessor, Arpanet, and the actual physical presence of much of the Internet.

In the sciences, Americans have a large share of Nobel Prizes, especially in the fields of physiology and medicine. The National Institutes of Health, a focal point for biomedical research in the United States, has contributed to the completion of the Human Genome Project. The main governmental organization for aviation and space research is the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. Major corporations, such as Boeing and Lockheed Martin, also play an important role.

VI. Transportation

The automobile industry developed earlier and more rapidly in the United States than in most other countries. The backbone of the nation's transportation infrastructure is a network of high-capacity highways. From data taken in 2004,

there are about 3,981,521 miles (6,407,637 km) of roadways in the U.S., the most in the world.

Mass transit systems exist in large cities, such as New York, which operates one of the busiest subway systems in the world. With a few exceptions, American cities are less dense than those in other parts of the world. Low density partly results from and largely necessitates automobile ownership by most households.

Whereas the freight rail network is among the world's best (and most congested), the passenger rail network is underdeveloped by European and Japanese standards. This is partly because of the longer distances traveled in the U.S.; a destination two thousand miles (3,000 km) away is reached more quickly by air than by rail. Government subsidies of air travel played a role in the bankruptcy of passenger-rail corporations in the 1970s. The U.S. had been unique in its high number of private passenger railroads. During the 1970s, government intervention reorganized freight railroads, and consolidated passenger service under the government-backed corporation Amtrak. No other country has more miles of rail than the U.S.

Air travel is the preferred means of travel for long distances. In terms of passengers, seventeen of the world's thirty busiest airports in 2004 were in the U.S., including the world's busiest, Hartsfield–Jackson Atlanta International Airport (ATL). In terms of cargo, in the same year, twelve of the world's thirty busiest airports were in the U.S., including the world's busiest, Memphis International Airport. Several major seaports are in the United States; the three busiest are California's Port of Los Angeles and Port of Long Beach, and the Port of New York and New Jersey, all among the world's busiest. The Great Lakes also carry shipping traffic, the lakes being extensively connected to one another, the Mississippi River system, and the Atlantic Ocean. The first water link between the Great Lakes and the Atlantic, the Erie Canal, allowed the rapid expansion of agriculture and industry in the Midwest, and made New York City the economic center of the U.S.

Questions:

1. What is GDP?
2. When began the economy in the USA?
3. What is the central feature of the U.S. economy?
4. How can you explain the health of economy?
5. What was the influence of the government to the economy in US?
6. Speak about the capitalistic economy.
7. Tell the basic units of the capitalistic economy.
8. How the businessmen run their business?
9. Why we call the US as an instrumental nation?
10. What is the backbone of the nation's transportation infrastructure?

THEME 16: MASS MEDIA, TV AND RADIO IN THE USA

I. Media in the United States

V. Newspapers

II. Television
III. Radio
IV. Motion Pictures

VI. Magazines
VII. Internet

Key words: the media of the United States consist of several different types of communications; all American homes have televisions sets; there is no national radio station; the motion picture industry is powerful industry; all large American cities have at least one newspaper; magazine industry covers hundreds of magazines; internet provides with news.

I. Media in the United States

The media of the United States consist of several different types of communications media: television, radio, cinema, newspapers, magazines, and Internet-based Web sites. Many of the media are controlled by large for-profit corporations who reap revenue from advertising, subscriptions, and sale of copyrighted material. American media conglomerates tend to be leading global players, generating large profits as well as large criticism in many parts of the world. Further deregulation and convergence are under way, leading to mega-mergers, further concentration of media ownership, and the emergence of multinational media conglomerates. Critics allege that localism, local news and other content at the community level, media spending and coverage of news, and diversity of ownership and views have suffered as a result of these processes of media concentration.

Some people allege that the success of such companies may be due to certain policies of the American federal government, though it may be just as likely that the media field is prone to natural monopolies.

The organization Reporters Without Borders compiles and publishes an annual ranking of countries based upon the organization's assessment of their press freedom records.

II. Television

Over 98% of American homes have televisions sets and there are more than 900 of these are affiliated with the big three private national television networks ABC, NBC and CBS, which show their programs at the same time throughout the nation during prime time (the hours in which most people watch television-usually 7.30pm to 11pm). The rest are either independent or in smaller networks.

III. Radio

There is no national radio station in the US, but every large city has dozens of independent stations, which range from 24 hours day news to rock and classical music.

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

A new form of radio that is gaining popularity is satellite radio. The two biggest subscriptions based radio services are Sirius Satellite Radio and XM Satellite Radio, which have recently both merged together to form Sirius XM Radio. Unlike terrestrial radio music channels are commercial free and other channels feature very minimal commercials

IV. Motion Pictures

In the 20th century, the motion picture industry rose to become one of the most successful and powerful industries in the U.S. Along with other intellectual property industries, its relative importance to the American economy has strengthened as the importance of manufacturing and agriculture have decreased

V. Newspapers

Although there are two American News services operating worldwide the Associated Press (AP) and United Press International (UPI) the tremendous size of the nation the variety of time zones and the general preoccupation with mainly local issues make it difficult for national daily newspaper to exist. And attempt has been made to introduce the popular US. Today on a nationwide basis and the Wall Street Journal comes close to been a national Newspaper. The New York Times with a circulation 900000 is perhaps the most influential daily newspaper, followed by the Washington Post and the Los Angeles Times. All large American cities have at least one newspaper and, although largely concerned with local affairs they are also read in other states. Periodicals exist for virtually every type of interest, some with just tiny circulation others like Time with a circulation world wide of more than 6000000 copies. More than 50 leading magazines produce over one million copies of each issue.



Wall Street, in New York City, represents the status of the U.S. as a major global financial power.

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

Although the Times' primary audience has always been the people of New York City, the New York Times has gradually become the dominant national "newspaper of record." Apart from its daily nationwide distribution, the term means that back issues are archived on microfilm by every decent-sized public library in the nation, and the Times' articles are often cited by both historians and judges as evidence that a major historical event occurred on a certain date. The Los Angeles Times and the Wall Street Journal are also newspapers of record to a lesser extent. Although USA Today has tried to establish itself as a national paper, it has been widely derided by the academic world as the "McPaper" and is not subscribed to (let alone archived) by most libraries.

Apart from the newspapers just mentioned, all major metropolitan areas have their own local newspapers. Typically, a metropolitan area will support at most one or two major newspapers, with many smaller publications targeted towards particular audiences. Although the cost of publishing has increased over the years, the price of newspapers has generally remained low, forcing newspapers to rely more on advertising revenue and on articles provided by a major wire service, such as the Associated Press or Reuters, for their national and world coverage.

With a very few exceptions, all the newspapers in the U.S. are privately owned, either by large chains such as Gannett or McClatchy, which own dozens or even hundreds of newspapers; by small chains that own a handful of papers; or in a situation that is increasingly rare, by individuals or families.

Most general-purpose newspapers are either being printed one time a week, usually on Thursday or Friday, or are printed daily. Weekly newspapers tend to have much smaller circulation and are more prevalent in rural communities or small towns. Major cities often have "alternative weeklies" to complement the mainstream daily paper(s), for example, New York City's Village Voice or Los Angeles' L.A. Weekly, to name two of the most well-known. Major cities may also support a local business journal, trade papers relating to local industries and papers for local ethnic and social groups.

Probably due to competition from other media, the number of daily newspapers in the U.S. has declined over the past half-century, according to Editor & Publisher, the trade journal of American newspapers. In particular, the number of evening newspapers has fallen by almost one-half since 1970, while the number of morning editions and Sunday editions has grown.

For comparison, in 1950, there were 1,772 daily papers (and 1,450 — or about 70 percent — of them were evening papers) while in 2000, there were 1,480 daily papers (and 766—or about half—of them were evening papers.)

Daily newspaper circulation is also slowly declining in America, partly due to the near-demise of two-newspaper towns, as the weaker newspapers in most cities have folded:

1960	58.8 million
1970	62.1 million

1980	62.2 million
1990	62.3 million
2000	55.8 million

The primary source of newspaper income is advertising — in the form of "classifieds" or inserted advertising circulars — rather than circulation income. However, since the late 1990s, this revenue source has been directly challenged by Web sites like eBay (for sales of secondhand items), Monster.com (jobs), and Craigslist (everything).

The largest newspapers (by circulation) in the United States are USA Today, the Wall Street Journal, the New York Times and the Los Angeles Times.

VI. Magazines

Thanks to the huge size of the English-speaking North American media market, the United States has a large magazine industry with hundreds of magazines serving almost every interest, as can be determined by glancing at any newsstand in any large American city. Most magazines are owned by one of the large media conglomerates or by one of their smaller regional brethren.

The U.S. has three leading weekly newsmagazines: TIME, Newsweek and U.S. News and World Report. Time and Newsweek are center-left while U.S. News and World Report tends to be center-right, although all three (in theory, at least) strive to provide objective news reporting and limit personal bias to the opinion pages. Time is well-known for naming a "Person of the Year" each year, while U.S. News publishes annual ratings of American colleges and universities.

The U.S. also has over a dozen major political magazines (the exact number is debatable, of course), serving every part of the political spectrum from left to right.

Finally, besides the hundreds of specialized magazines that serve the diverse interests and hobbies of the American people, there are also dozens of magazines published by professional organizations for their members, such as Communications of the ACM (for computer science specialists) and the ABA Journal (for lawyers).

VII. Internet

Internet has provided a means for newspapers and other media organizations to deliver news and, significantly, the means to look up old news. Some organizations only make limited amounts of their output available for free, and charge for access to the rest. Other organizations allow their archives to be freely browsed. It is possible that the latter type obtain more influence, as they are true to the spirit of freedom of information by virtue of making it free. Anyone who has followed external links only to be confronted with a pay to view banner, might attest that the reputations of organizations that charge is not enhanced by their charging policy, particularly when the same information is available from sources that don't charge.

The Internet, by means of making available such constantly growing news archives, is, in effect, writing our history as it happens, at a level of detail never before known. While proprietary archives are slowly exposed to the public after

many decades, organizations that maintain immediately-updating resources have more control over what will be remembered by the general public in the near future.

Questions:

1. What different types of communications does the media of the United States consist of?
2. Name the big three private national television networks.
3. What is a talk radio?
4. What is the motion picture industry?
5. Speak about the newspapers in the USA.
6. What is a magazine?
7. Internet provides with what?
8. Compare media of the USA with other countries. (For ex. UK, Uzbekistan and others)

THEME 17: ENGLISH SPEAKING COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD: CANADA

Key words: catholic, Father of Confederation, province, federation, De facto, Ontario, Quebec, the West, Atlantic Province, civil rights, Toronto, Montreal.

Canada (pronounced ['kænədə]) is the world's second-largest country by total area, occupying most of northern North America. Extending from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean and northward into the Arctic Ocean, Canada shares land borders with the United States to the south and to the northwest.

Inhabited first by Aboriginal peoples, Canada was founded as a union of British colonies, some of which had been French colonies. Canada gained independence from the United Kingdom in an incremental process that began in 1867 and ended in 1982 maintaining Queen Elizabeth II as Head of State.



Canada is a federal constitutional monarchy and parliamentary democracy, consisting of ten provinces and three territories, and defines itself as a bilingual and multicultural nation; both English and French are official languages. A technologically advanced and industrialized nation, its diversified economy relies heavily on an abundance of natural resources and on trade, particularly with the United States, with which Canada has had a long and complex relationship.

Canada is slightly larger than the United States, its southern neighbor about 28 million people live in Canada. Canada is a land of great variety. Towering Mountains, clear lakes and lush forests make for a region of great natural beauty. About 37% of all Canadians have some English ancestry. About 32% have some French ancestry. A small percentage of people in these groups have both English and French ancestries. The Canadian government recognizes both English and French as official languages.

More than three-fourths of Canada's people live in the cities and towns. Toronto, Ontario, and Montreal, Quebec, are the four largest urban areas in Canada.

Canada is a federation of 10 provinces and 2 territories. The nation's name probably comes from *kanata-kon*, an Iroquois Indian word that means "the village" or "the small houses."

Canada is an independent, self-governing nation. Britain ruled Canada completely until 1867 when Canada gained full independence.

The National Flag and the Coat of Arms of Canada



The National Flag of Canada, popularly known as the Maple Leaf and l'Unifolié (French for "the one-leaved"), is a base red flag with a white square in its centre featuring a stylized, 11-pointed, red maple leaf. Before this flag, Canada used variants of the British Red Ensign with the shield of Canada charged in the fly. The Red Ensign that took familiar shape in Canada was introduced by Prime Minister Mackenzie King after the First World War. From the 1940s until 1965, Canada made several attempts to create its own flag by holding national contests, but the Red Ensign still flew for Canada. A serious debate about a flag change did not occur until 1964, when a committee was picked by Prime Minister Lester B. Pearson. Out of three choices, the maple leaf design by George F.G. Stanley was chosen as the winner. The current flag was adopted in 1964. The flag made its first appearance on February 15, 1965, which is now celebrated yearly as Flag Day. Other than the Maple Leaf flag, several other flags have been created to be used by Canadian officials, government bodies and military forces. Most of these flags contain the Maple Leaf motif in some fashion; either by having the Canadian flag charged in the canton or by inclusion of maple leaves in the design.

Origin and History of the Name

The name Canada comes from a First Nations word, Kanata, meaning "village" or "settlement". In 1535, inhabitants of the area near present-day Quebec City used the word to tell Jacques Cartier the way to the village of Stadacona. Cartier used the word 'Canada' to refer to not only that village, but the entire area subject to Donnacona, Chief at Stadacona; by 1547, maps began referring to this and the surrounding area as Canada.

The French colony of Canada, New France, was set up along the Saint Lawrence River and the northern shores of the Great Lakes. Later, it was split into two British colonies, called Upper Canada and Lower Canada until their union as the British Province of Canada in 1841. Upon Confederation in 1867, the name Canada was officially adopted for the new dominion, which was referred to as the Dominion of Canada until the 1950s. As Canada increasingly acquired political authority and autonomy from Britain, the federal government increasingly used simply Canada on state documents and treaties. The Canada Act 1982 refers only to Canada and, as such, is currently the only legal (and bilingual) name. This was reflected again in 1982 with the renaming of the national holiday from Dominion Day to Canada Day.

History

Although Aboriginal tradition holds that the First Peoples inhabited parts of Canada for a long time, some archaeological studies date human presence in northern Yukon to 26,500 years ago, and in southern Ontario to 9,500 years ago. Europeans first arrived when the Vikings settled briefly at L'Anse aux Meadows circa AD 1000. The next Europeans to explore Canada's Atlantic coast included John Cabot in 1497 and Martin Frobisher in 1576, for England; and Jacques Cartier in 1534 and Samuel de Champlain in 1603, for France. The first permanent European settlements were established by the French at Port Royal in 1605 and Quebec City in 1608, and by the English in Newfoundland, around 1610. European explorers and trappers brought diseases that spread rapidly through native trade routes and decimated the Aboriginal population.



The Death of General Wolfe, painted by Benjamin West, depicts British General Wolfe's death after his victory at the Battle of the Plains of Abraham in 1759.

For much of the 17th century, the English and French colonies in North America were able to develop in relative isolation from each other. French colonists extensively settled the St. Lawrence River valley, while English colonists largely settled in the Thirteen Colonies to the south. However, as competition for territory, naval bases, furs and fish escalated, several wars broke out between the French, English and Native tribes. The French and Iroquois Wars erupted between the Iroquois Confederation and the Algonquin, with their French allies, over control of the fur trade. A series of four French and Indian Wars were fought between 1689 and 1763; these culminated with a complete British victory in the Seven Years' War. By the terms of Treaty of Paris in 1763, Britain gained control of all of France's North American territory east of the Mississippi River, except for the remote islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon.

Following the war, the British found themselves in possession of a mostly French-speaking, Roman Catholic territory, whose inhabitants had recently taken up arms against Britain. To avert conflict, Britain passed the Quebec Act of 1774, re-establishing the French language, Catholic faith, and French civil law in Quebec. The act had unforeseen consequences for Britain, however, as it angered many residents of the Thirteen Colonies, helping to fuel the American Revolution. Following the independence of the United States, approximately 50,000 United Empire Loyalists moved to Quebec, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward

Island and Newfoundland. As they were unwelcome in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick was carved out of that colony for them in 1784. To accommodate the English-speaking Loyalists in Quebec, the province was divided into francophone Lower Canada and anglophone Upper Canada under the Constitutional Act in 1791.

Canada was a major front in the War of 1812 between the United States and British Empire and its successful defence had important long-term effects on Canada, including the building of a sense of unity and nationalism among British North Americans. Large-scale immigration to Canada began in 1815 from Britain and Ireland. A series of agreements led to long-term peace between Canada and the United States, interrupted only briefly by raids made by political insurgents such as the Hunters' Lodges and the Fenian Brotherhood.

Following the failed Rebellions of 1837, which demanded responsible government, colonial officials studied the political situation and issued the Durham Report in 1839. One goal—which proved unacceptable for the alliance of anglophone and francophone reformers that had rebelled in 1837—was to assimilate the French Canadians into British culture. The Canadas were merged into a single, quasi-federal colony, the United Province of Canada, with the Act of Union (1840). The signing of the Oregon Treaty by Britain and the United States in 1846 ended the Oregon boundary dispute, extending the border westward along the 49th parallel and ending joint occupation of the Oregon Country/Columbia District. This led to the creation of the colony of Colony of Vancouver Island in 1849 and, with the outbreak of the Fraser Canyon Gold Rush, the colony of British Columbia in 1858, but both were entirely separate from the United Province of Canada. By the late 1850s, leaders in Canada launched a series of western exploratory expeditions, with the intention of assuming control of Rupert's Land and the Arctic region. The Canadian population grew rapidly due to high birth rates; high European immigration was offset by emigration to the United States, especially by French Canadians moving to New England.



Sir John A. Macdonald, first Prime Minister.

Following the Great Coalition, the Charlottetown Conference, the Quebec Conference of 1864, and the London Conference of 1866, the three colonies—Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick—undertook the process of Confederation. The British North America Act created "one dominion under the

name of Canada", with four provinces: Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. After Canada assumed control of Rupert's Land and the North-Western Territory, which together formed the Northwest Territories in 1870, inattention to the Métis led to the Red River Rebellion and ultimately to the creation of the province of Manitoba and its entry into Confederation in July 1870. British Columbia and Vancouver Island (which had united in 1866) and the colony of Prince Edward Island joined the Confederation in 1871 and 1873, respectively. To connect the union and assert authority over the western provinces, Canada constructed three trans-continental railways, most notably the Canadian Pacific Railway, encouraged immigrants to develop the prairies with the Dominion Lands Act, and established the North West Mounted Police. As settlers went to the prairies on the railway and the population grew, regions of the Northwest Territories were given provincial status forming Alberta and Saskatchewan in 1905.

Canada automatically entered the First World War in 1914 with Britain's declaration of war, and sent formed divisions, composed almost entirely of volunteers, to the Western Front to fight as a national contingent. Casualties were so high that Prime Minister Robert Borden was forced to bring in conscription in 1917; this move was extremely unpopular in Quebec, resulting in his Conservative party losing support in that province. Although the Liberals were deeply divided over conscription, they became the dominant political party. In 1919, Canada joined the League of Nations in its own right, and in 1931 the Statute of Westminster confirmed that no act of the British Parliament would extend to Canada without its consent. At the same time, the worldwide Great Depression of 1929 affected Canadians of every class; the rise of the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF) in Alberta and Saskatchewan presaged a welfare state as pioneered by Tommy Douglas in the 1940s and 1950s. After supporting appeasement of Germany in the late 1930s, Liberal Prime Minister William Lyon Mackenzie King secured Parliament's approval for entry into the Second World War in September 1939, after Germany invaded Poland. The first Canadian Army units arrived in Britain in December 1939. The economy boomed during the war mainly due to the amount of military materiel being produced for Canada, Britain, China and the Soviet Union. Canada finished the war with one of the largest militaries in the world. In 1949, the formerly independent Dominion of Newfoundland joined the Confederation as Canada's 10th province.



Canadian soldiers advance behind a tank at the Battle of Vimy Ridge in 1917.

By Canada's centennial in 1967, heavy post-war immigration from various

war-ravaged European countries had changed the country's demographics. In addition, throughout the Vietnam War, thousands of American draft dodgers fled to and settled in various parts of Canada. Increased immigration, combined with the baby boom, an economic strength paralleling that of the 1960s United States, and reaction to the Quiet Revolution in Quebec, initiated a new type of Canadian nationalism.

At a meeting of First Ministers in November 1981, the federal and provincial governments agreed to the patriation of the constitution, with procedures for amending it. Despite the fact that the Quebec government did not agree to the changes, on 17 April 1982, Canada, by Proclamation of Queen Elizabeth II, patriated its Constitution from Britain, thereby making Canada wholly sovereign, though the two countries continue to share the same monarch.

After Quebec underwent profound social and economic changes during the Quiet Revolution of the 1960s, some Québécois began pressing for greater provincial autonomy, or partial or complete independence from Canada. Alienation between English-speaking Canadians and the Québécois over the language, cultural and social divide had been exacerbated by many events, including the Conscription Crisis of 1944. While a referendum on sovereignty-association in 1980 was rejected by a solid majority of the population, a second referendum in 1995 was rejected by a margin of just 50.6% to 49.4%. In 1997, the Canadian Supreme Court ruled unilateral secession by a province to be unconstitutional; Quebec's sovereignty movement has continued nonetheless.

Economic integration with the United States has increased significantly since World War II. The Canada-United States Free Trade Agreement of 1987 was a defining moment in integrating the two countries. In recent decades, Canadians have worried about their cultural autonomy as American television shows, movies and corporations became omnipresent. However, Canadians take special pride in their system of universal health care and their commitment to multiculturalism.

Government



Parliament Hill, Ottawa.

Canada is a constitutional monarchy with Elizabeth II, Queen of Canada as head of state, and a parliamentary democracy with a federal system of parliamentary government and strong democratic traditions.

Canada's constitution governs the legal framework of the country and consists of written text and unwritten traditions and conventions. The Constitution includes the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, which guarantees basic rights and freedoms for Canadians that, generally, cannot be

overridden by legislation of any level of government in Canada. It contains, however, a "notwithstanding clause", which allows the federal parliament and the provincial legislatures the power to override some other sections of the Charter temporarily, for a period of five years.

The position of Prime Minister, Canada's head of government, belongs to the leader of the political party that can obtain the confidence of a majority in the House of Commons. The Prime Minister and his or her cabinet are formally appointed by the Governor General (who is the queen's representative in Canada.) However, the Prime Minister chooses the cabinet, and by convention, the Governor General respects the Prime Minister's choices. The Cabinet is traditionally drawn from members of the Prime Minister's party in both legislative houses, and mostly from the House of Commons. Executive power is exercised by the prime minister and cabinet, all of whom are sworn into the Privy Council of Canada and become Ministers of the Crown. The Prime Minister exercises a lot of political power, especially in the appointment of other officials within the government and civil service. Michaëlle Jean has served as Governor General since September 25, 2005 and Stephen Harper, leader of the Conservative Party, has served as Prime Minister since February 6, 2006.

The federal parliament is made up of the Queen and two houses: an elected House of Commons and an appointed Senate. Each member in the House of Commons is elected by simple plurality in a "riding" or electoral district; general elections are called by the Governor General when the Prime Minister so advises. While there is no minimum term for a Parliament, a new election must be called within five years of the last general election. Members of the Senate, whose seats are apportioned on a regional basis, are chosen by the Prime Minister and formally appointed by the Governor General, and serve until age 75.

Canada's four major political parties are the Conservative Party of Canada, Liberal Party of Canada, New Democratic Party (NDP), and the Bloc Québécois. The current government is formed by the Conservative Party of Canada. While the Green Party of Canada and other smaller parties do not have current representation in Parliament, the list of historical parties with elected representation is substantial.

Law



The Supreme Court of Canada in Ottawa, west of Parliament Hill

Canada's judiciary plays an important role in interpreting laws and has the power to strike down laws that violate the Constitution. The Supreme Court of

Canada is the highest court and final arbiter and is led by the Right Honourable Madam Chief Justice Beverley McLachlin, P.C. Its nine members are appointed by the Governor General on the advice of the Prime Minister. All judges at the superior and appellate levels are appointed by the Governor General on the advice of the prime minister and minister of justice, after consultation with non-governmental legal bodies. The federal cabinet appoints justices to superior courts at the provincial and territorial levels. Judicial posts at the lower provincial and territorial levels are filled by their respective governments.

Common law prevails everywhere except in Quebec, where civil law predominates. Criminal law is solely a federal responsibility and is uniform throughout Canada. Law enforcement, including criminal courts, is a provincial responsibility, but in most provinces policing is contracted to the federal Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP). Canada has a close relationship with the United States, sharing the world's longest undefended border, co-operating on some military campaigns and exercises, and being each other's largest trading partners. Canada also shares history and long relationships with the United Kingdom and France, the two former imperial powers most influential in its founding. These relations extend to other former-members of the British and French empires, through Canada's membership in the Commonwealth of Nations and La Francophonie.

Canada joined the Organization of American States (OAS) in 1990 and hosted the OAS General Assembly in Windsor in June 2000, and the third Summit of the Americas in Quebec City in April 2001. Canada seeks to expand its ties to Pacific Rim economies through membership in the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation forum (APEC).

Foreign Relations and Military

Over the past 60 years, Canada has been an advocate for multilateralism, making efforts to resolve global issues in collaboration with other nations. This was clearly demonstrated during the Suez Crisis of 1956 when Lester B. Pearson eased tensions by proposing peacekeeping efforts and the inception of the United Nations Peacekeeping Force. In that spirit, Canada developed and has tried to maintain a leading role in UN peacekeeping efforts; Canada has served in 50 peacekeeping missions, including every UN peacekeeping effort until 1989. Canada's UN peacekeeping contributions have diminished over the first years of the 21st century.



The Peacekeeping Monument in Ottawa.

A founding member of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO),

Canada currently employs about 62,000 regular and 26,000 reserve military personnel. The unified Canadian Forces (CF) comprise the army, navy, and air force. Major CF equipment deployed includes 1,400 armoured fighting vehicles, 34 combat vessels, and 861 aircraft.

Administrative Divisions

All provinces have unicameral, elected legislatures headed by a Premier selected in the same way as the Prime Minister of Canada. Each province also has a Lieutenant-Governor representing the Queen, analogous to the Governor General of Canada, appointed on the recommendation of the Prime Minister of Canada, though with increasing levels of consultation with provincial governments in recent years.

Canada occupies most of the northern portion of North America. It shares land borders with the contiguous United States to the south and with the US state of Alaska to the northwest, stretching from the Atlantic Ocean in the east to the Pacific Ocean in the west; to the north lies the Arctic Ocean. Since 1925, Canada has claimed the portion of the Arctic between 60°W and 141°W longitude; this claim is not universally recognized. The northernmost settlement in Canada (and in the world) is Canadian Forces Station (CFS) Alert on the northern tip of Ellesmere Island—latitude 82.5°N—just 834 kilometres (450 nautical miles) from the North Pole. Canada is the world's second-largest country in total area, after Russia.

Geography and Climate



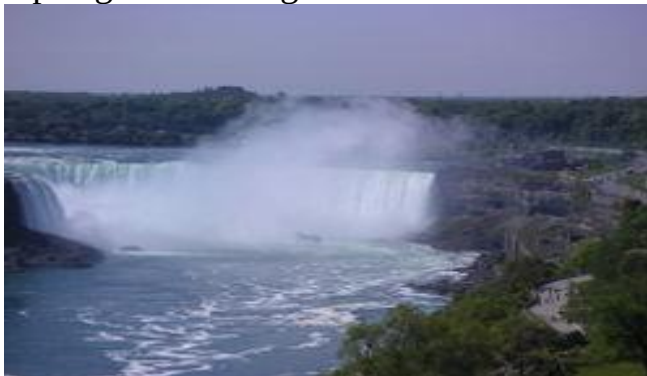
A satellite composite image of Canada.

Boreal forests prevail throughout the country, ice is prominent in the Arctic and through the Coast Mountains and Saint Elias Mountains, and the relatively flat Prairies facilitate agriculture. The Great Lakes feed the St. Lawrence River (in the southeast) where lowlands host much of Canada's population.

The population density of 3.5 people per square kilometre (9.1/mi²) is among the lowest in the world. The most densely populated part of the country is the Quebec City-Windsor Corridor along the Great Lakes and Saint Lawrence River in the southeast. To the north of this region is the broad Canadian Shield, an area of rock scoured clean by the last ice age, thinly soiled, rich in minerals, and dotted with lakes and rivers—Canada by far has more lakes than any other country in the world and has a large amount of the world's freshwater. In eastern Canada, the Saint Lawrence River widens into the Gulf of Saint Lawrence, the world's largest estuary; the island of Newfoundland lies at its mouth. South of the Gulf, the Canadian Maritimes protrude eastward from the Gaspé Peninsula of Quebec. New Brunswick and Nova Scotia are divided by the Bay of Fundy, which experiences the world's largest tidal variations. Ontario and Hudson Bay dominate central Canada. West of Ontario, the broad, flat Canadian Prairies

spread toward the Rocky Mountains, which separate them from British Columbia.

Northern Canadian vegetation tapers from coniferous forests to tundra and finally to Arctic barrens in the far north. The northern Canadian mainland is ringed with a vast archipelago containing some of the world's largest islands.



The Horseshoe Falls in Ontario is the largest component of Niagara Falls, one of the world's greatest waterfalls, a major source of hydroelectric power, and a tourist destination.

Average winter and summer high temperatures across Canada range depending on the location. Winters can be harsh in many regions of the country, particularly in the Prairie provinces, where daily average temperatures are near -15°C (5°F), but can drop below -40°C (-40°F) with severe wind chills. Coastal British Columbia is an exception and enjoys a temperate climate with a mild and rainy winter.

Average summer high temperatures across Canada range depending on the location. On the east and west coast average high temperatures are generally in the low 20s $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (68 to 74°F), while between the coasts the average summer high temperature range between 25°C to 30°C (78 to 86°F) with occasional extreme heat in some interior locations exceeding 40°C (104°F). [30][31] For a more complete description of climate across Canada see Environment Canada's Website.

Economy

Canada is one of the few developed nations that are a net exporter of energy. Canada has vast deposits of natural gas on the east coast and large oil and gas resources centred in Alberta, and also present in neighbouring British Columbia and Saskatchewan. The vast Athabasca Tar Sands give Canada the world's second largest reserves of oil behind Saudi Arabia. In Quebec, British Columbia, Newfoundland & Labrador, Ontario and Manitoba, hydroelectric power is a cheap and relatively environmentally friendly source of abundant energy.

Canada is one of the world's most important suppliers of agricultural products, with the Canadian Prairies one of the most important suppliers of wheat and other grains. Canada is the world's largest producer of zinc and uranium and a world leader in many other natural resources such as gold, nickel, aluminum, and lead; many, if not most, towns in the northern part of the country, where agriculture is difficult, exist because of a nearby mine or source of timber. Canada also has a sizeable manufacturing sector, centred in southern Ontario and Quebec, with the automobile industry especially important.

In part due to the large primary sector Canada is highly dependent on international trade, especially trade with the United States. The 1989 Canada-U.S. Free Trade Agreement (FTA) and 1994 North American Free Trade

Agreement (NAFTA) (which included Mexico) touched off a dramatic increase in trade and economic integration with the U.S. Since 2001, Canada has successfully avoided economic recession and has maintained the best overall economic performance in the G8.



Five denominations of Canadian banknotes, depicting (from top to bottom) Wilfrid Laurier, John A. Macdonald, Queen Elizabeth II, William Lyon Mackenzie King, and Robert Borden.

Demographics

Population

The 2015 national census recorded 35 830 215 people among this 17 776 455 (49.6%) is male population, 18 053 760 (50.4%) female population. Population growth is largely accomplished through immigration and, to a lesser extent, natural growth. About three-quarters of Canada's population live within 160 kilometres (100 mi) of the U.S. border. A similar proportion live in urban areas concentrated in the Quebec City-Windsor Corridor (notably the Toronto-Hamilton, Montreal, and Ottawa census metropolitan areas), the BC Lower Mainland (Vancouver and environs), and the Calgary-Edmonton Corridor in Alberta.



Toronto, Ontario is one of the world's most multicultural cities.

Canada is an ethnically diverse nation and has more than 34 ethnic groups

with at least one hundred thousand members each. The largest ethnic group is "Canadian" (39.4%), followed by English (20.2%), French (15.8%), Scottish (14.0%), Irish (12.9%), German (9.3%), Italian (4.3%), Chinese (3.7%), Ukrainian (3.6%) and First Nations (3.4%). Canada's aboriginal population is growing almost twice as fast as the rest of the Canadian population. In 2007, 13.4% of the population belonged to visible minorities.

Canadians adhere to a wide variety of religions. According to the last census, 77.1% of Canadians identified as being Christians; of this, Catholics make up the largest group (43.6% of Canadians). The largest Protestant denomination is the United Church of Canada; about 17% of Canadians declared no religious affiliation, and the remaining 6.3% were affiliated with religions other than Christianity, of which the largest is Islam.

In Canada, the provinces and territories are responsible for education; thus Canada has no national department of education. Each of the 13 education systems is similar while reflecting their own regional history, culture and geography. The mandatory school age varies across Canada but generally ranges between the ages of 5-7 to 16-18, contributing to an adult literacy rate that is 99%. Postsecondary education is the responsibility of the provincial and territorial governments that provide most of their funding; the federal government provides additional funding through research grants. In 2002, 43% of Canadians aged between 25 and 64 had post-secondary education; for those aged 25 to 34 the postsecondary attainment reaches 51%.

Language

Canada's two official languages, English and French, are the mother tongues of 59.7% and 23.2% of the population, respectively. On July 7, 1969, under the Official Languages Act, French was made commensurate to English throughout the federal government. This started a process that led to Canada redefining itself as an officially "bilingual" nation.

English and French have equal status in federal courts, Parliament, and in all federal institutions. The public has the right, where there is sufficient demand, to receive federal government services in either English or French. While multiculturalism is official policy, to become a citizen one must be able to speak either English or French, and 98.5% of Canadians speak at least one (English only: 67.5%, French only: 13.3%, both: 17.7%).

French is mostly spoken in Quebec, but there are substantial francophone populations mainly in the northern parts of New Brunswick, eastern, northern and southwestern Ontario and southern Manitoba. Of those who speak French as a first language, 85% live in Quebec. Ontario has the largest French population outside Quebec.



The population of Montreal is predominantly francophone, with a significant anglophone community.

French is the official language of Quebec. New Brunswick is the only bilingual province in the country. No provinces other than Quebec and New Brunswick have constitutionally official language(s) as such, but French is used as a language of instruction, in courts, and other government services in the entire majority English or Inuktitut speaking provinces and territories. In Ontario, French has some legal status but is not fully co-official. Several aboriginal languages have official status in Northwest Territories. Inuktitut is the majority language in Nunavut, and one of three official languages in the territory. Non-official languages are important in Canada, with 5,202,245 people listing one as a first language. Some significant non-official first languages include Chinese (853,745 first-language speakers), Italian (469,485), German (438,080), and Punjabi (271,220).

Canadian culture has historically been heavily influenced by English, French, Irish, Scottish and Aboriginal cultures and traditions, and over time has been greatly influenced by American culture due to its proximity and the interchange of human capital between the two countries. Many forms of American media and entertainment are popular, if not dominant in Canada; conversely, many Canadian cultural products and entertainers are successful in the US and worldwide. Many cultural products are now marketed toward a unified "North American" market or a global market generally.

Culture



The Royal Canadian Mounted Police, seen here at Expo 67, are the federal and national police force of Canada and an international icon.

The creation and preservation of distinctly Canadian culture has been partly influenced by federal government programs, laws and institutions such as the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC), the National Film Board of Canada (NFB), and the Canadian Radio-television and Telecommunications Commission (CRTC).

As Canada is a geographically vast and ethnically diverse country, there are cultural variations and distinctions from province to province and region to region. Canadian culture has also been greatly influenced by more recent

immigration of people from all over the world. Many Canadians value multiculturalism, indeed some see Canadian culture as being inherently multicultural. Multicultural heritage is enshrined in Section 27 of the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms.

National symbols are influenced by natural, historical, and First Nations sources. Particularly, the use of the maple leaf, as a Canadian symbol, dates back to the early 18th century and is depicted on its current and previous flags, the penny, and on the coat of arms. Other prominent symbols include the beaver, Canada goose, common loon, the Crown, and the RCMP.

Canada's official national sports are ice hockey (winter) and lacrosse (summer). Hockey is a national pastime, and is by far the most popular spectator sport in the country. It is also the most popular sport Canadians play, with 1.65 million active participants in 2004. Canada's six largest metropolitan areas - Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver, Ottawa, Calgary, and Edmonton - have franchises in the National Hockey League (NHL), and there are more Canadian players in the league than from all other countries combined. After hockey, other popular spectator sports include Canadian football and curling. The Canadian Football League (CFL) is the nation's second most popular professional sports league, and plays a large role in Canada's national identity. Golf, baseball, skiing, soccer, volleyball, and basketball are also widely played at youth and amateur levels, but professional leagues and franchises are not as widespread. Canada will host the 2007 FIFA U-20 World Cup, and the 2010 Winter Olympics in Vancouver and Whistler, British Columbia.

The Parliamentary System

The roots of Canada's parliamentary system lie in Britain. In keeping with traditions handed down by the British Parliament the Canadian Parliament is composed of the Queen (who is represented in Canada by the Governor General) the Senate and the House of Commons. The Senate also called the Upper house is patterned after the British House of Lords. Its 105 members are appointed, not elected, and are divided essentially among Canada's four main regions of Ontario, Quebec, the West and the Atlantic Provinces. The Senate has the same powers as the House of Commons, with a few exceptions.

The House of Commons is the major law-making body. It currently has 301 members, one from each of the 301 constituencies or electoral districts. The Canadian Constitution requires the election of a new House of Commons at least every five years. As in the UK and the US, in Canada voters elect a single member for their electoral constituency, in one round of balloting.

In each constituency, the candidate who gets the largest number of votes is elected, even if his or her vote is less than half the total. Candidates usually represent a recognized political party—although some run as independents—and the party that wins the largest number of seats ordinary forms the government. Its leader is asked by the Governor General to become Prime Minister.

The real executive authority is in the hands of the Cabinet, under the direction of the Prime Minister. In general, the Prime Minister is the leader of the party with the largest number of seats in the House of Commons and is vested with extensive powers. It is the Prime Minister who chooses the ministers from among the members of Parliament in the governing party.

Strictly speaking, the Prime Minister and Cabinet are the advisers of the monarch. “De facto” power, however, lies with the Cabinet and the Governor General Acts on its advice. Cabinet develops government policy and it’s responsible to the House of Commons. The Government of Canada, headed by its Cabinet of some 25 ministers, performs its duties through the intermediary of the federal departments and agencies, boards, commissions and state—owned corporations.

Education

There are three types of school in Canada: public, private and catholic. According to the law education is obligatory from kids from the age of 6-7 till 15-16 old. Education is usually free of charge; parents have to pay only for education in private schools. The supreme authority for school is a Department of Education of a province. Unlike all the other highly developed countries, Canada doesn’t have a nationwide state system of education: the constitution gives each province the right to choose its own curriculum. Every provincial educational system, though similar to other, reflects region, history and culture of the province. The chiefs of provincial departments of education headed by the elect minister, establish standards, approve subject and finance educational establishment. Local elected school councils are responsible for primary and secondary schools. They plan school budgets, employ teachers and establish school timetables according to the requirements of the provincial legislation.

The school year in Canada being on the first Tuesday of September immediately after the Labor Day celebration on September, 1 and finishes at the end of June. It is divided into four terms, school vacations between them last no more than a week. In Alberta, there is typically 2 weeks vocation at Christmas and 1 week at Easter. The number of terms a school has depends on the dictions of the school. It could be 2 semesters, 3 or 4 terms.

In primary schools children study from grade 1 to grade 6. In secondary school or Junior high-from grade 7 to grade 9 and in each high school-from grade 10 to grade 12.

Education is compulsory only in primary and secondary school. High school grades are divided into levels which differ from each other by whether they prepare to universities or not.

Canadian curriculum is very hexible: each student has a right to choose subjects to study at school. If a student achieves good results in a subject, it is possible for him to get a higher degree.

5.000.000 students attend public schools in Canada, one fourth of them study at Catholic schools, a quarter of a million study at private schools.

Private schools have the right to establish and take own exams, both intermediate and final. In some provinces there is a certification system of graduates, it a graduate doesn’t get a necessary minimum of percents at final exams, and he is not admitted to continue his education at a college or university.

Canada surpasses all the countries in the world by expenses on education per one citizen. The large amount of educated people in Canada (more than a half of Canadians continue their education after they have reached the age of 15) enables to support and even raise the living standards and approves that it is the country where intellectual progress is appreciated and encouraged.



A Kwakwaka'wakw totem pole and traditional "long house" in Victoria, BC

Questions:

1. What is the geography of Canada?
2. Show the territory and borders of the country.
3. What is the government of Canada?
4. Speak about the national emblems of the country.
5. What can you say about the way of life of Canada?

THEME 18: ENGLISH SPEAKING COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD: AUSTRALIA

Key words: The Commonwealth of Australia, constitutional monarchy, dark-skinned people, Aborigines, New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, Western Australia , kangaroo, koala, wombat, the emu, and kookaburra, jazz,

Australia is one of the world's developed countries. Australia, officially the Commonwealth of Australia, is a country in the Southern Hemisphere comprising the world's smallest continent and a number of islands in the Southern, Indian, and Pacific Oceans. Neighbouring countries include Indonesia, East Timor and Papua New Guinea to the north, the Solomon Islands, Vanuatu and the French dependency of New Caledonia to the northeast, and New Zealand to the southeast. Australia lies between the South Pacific Ocean and the Indian Ocean. Australia is about 7.000 miles southwest of North America and about 2.000 miles, southeast of mainland Asia. The name Australia came from the Latin word Means southern. Australia is a dry, thinly populated land. Australia is famous for its vast open spaces, bright sunshine, enormous numbers of sheep and cattle and unusual wildlife. Kangaroos, koalas, platypuses, and wombats are only a few of the many unusual animals that live in Australia. The country was once a group of British colonies and most of the Australia. People are of British ancestry. When people moved to Australia from Great Britain, they took many British customs with them.

The first Australians were a dark-skinned people known today as Aborigines. The Aborigines had lived in Australia for at least 40.000 years before the first white settler arrived. Today the vast majority of Australians are white.

National emblems

The flag of Australia was chosen in 1901 from entries in a nationwide

design competition held following Federation. It was approved by Australian and British authorities over the next few years, although the exact specifications of the flag were changed several times both intentionally and as a result of confusion. (The national flag and state ensign)



Government

The commonwealth of Australia is a federation of states.

Australia has six states they are New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria and Western Australia. Each state has its own government. Australia also has two mainland territories the Australian Capital territory and the Northern territory. Each territory is responsible for its own administration. Australia has a parliamentary system of government. Australia is a constitutional monarchy like Great Britain. The British monarch, Queen Elizabeth II is also Queen of Australia and the country's head of state. She serves mainly as a symbol of the historical tie between the two countries.

Political parties.

Australia has three main political parties- the Australian Labor party, the Liberal Party of Australia and the National Party of Australia.

The nation relies on the farms and mines to produce goods for export. By selling farm products and minerals abroad, Australia earns the export income that most other developed countries earn from the sale of manufactured products.

Tourism.

Australia has a variety of tourist attractions. These include wildlife sanctuaries, sandy beaches, the Great Barrier Reef, the Australian Alps, and numerous points of historical interest. About 1,000,000 foreign tourists visit Australia each year.

Transportation.

Automobiles are the chief means of passenger transportation. In Australia nearly every family owns a car and uses it for most local travel.

Communication.

Australia's postal, telephones, and telegraph systems are owned by the federal government and operated by independent agencies.

People.

Australia has a population of about 23,740,531 people. Among this 11,832,338 (49.8%) are male, 11,908,193 (50.2%) are female. Most Australians are European immigrants or descendants of European immigrants. Aborigines make up about 1 per cent of the population. Traditionally, Australia has relied heavily on immigrants to build up its labor force.

The current specifications were published in 1934, and in 1954 the flag became legally recognised as the "Australian National Flag". The flag is a

defaced Blue Ensign: a blue field with the Union Flag in the upper hoist quarter, and a large white seven-pointed star known as the Commonwealth Star that symbolises the six states and other territories of the Commonwealth of Australia respectively; the remaining half is a representation of the Southern Cross constellation, made up of five white stars - one small five-pointed star and four, larger, seven-pointed stars. The national flag reflects the British Isles origins of the early European settlers, by displaying the Union Jack of Great Britain in the top left hand corner, with the Southern Cross on a blue background.

The continent of Australia has been inhabited for more than 42,000 years by Indigenous Australians. After sporadic visits by fishermen from the north and by European explorers and merchants starting in the seventeenth century, the eastern half of the continent was claimed by the British in 1770 and officially settled through penal transportation as the colony of New South Wales on 26 January 1788. As the population grew and new areas were explored, another five largely self-governing Crown Colonies were successively established over the course of the nineteenth century.

On 1 January 1901, the six colonies federated and the Commonwealth of Australia was formed. Since federation, Australia has maintained a stable liberal democratic political system and remains a Commonwealth Realm. The capital city is Canberra, although the current national population of around 20.6 million is concentrated mainly in the large coastal cities of Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth, and Adelaide. The name Australia is derived from the Latin *Australis*, meaning of the South. Legends of an "unknown land of the south" (*terra australis incognita*) dating back to Roman times were commonplace in mediaeval geography, but they were not based on any actual knowledge of the continent. The Commonwealth of Australia is a constitutional monarchy and has a parliamentary system of government. Queen Elizabeth II is the Queen of Australia, a role that is distinct from her position as monarch of the other Commonwealth Realms. The Queen is nominally represented by the Governor-General at Federal level and by the Governors at State level. Although the Constitution gives extensive executive powers to the Governor-General, these are normally exercised only on the advice of the Prime Minister. The most notable exercise of the Governor-General's reserve powers outside the Prime Minister's direction was the dismissal of the Whitlam Government in the constitutional crisis of 1975.

Politics

There are three branches of government.



New Parliament House in Canberra was opened in 1988 replacing the provisional Parliament House building opened in 1927.

- The Legislature: The Commonwealth Parliament, comprising the Queen, the Senate, and the House of Representatives; the Queen is represented by the Governor-General, who in practice only exercises constitutional power on the advice of the Prime Minister.
- The Executive: the Federal Executive Council (the Governor-General as advised by the Executive Councillors); in practice, the councillors are the Prime Minister and Ministers of State.
- The Judiciary: the High Court of Australia and other federal courts. The State courts became formally independent from the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council when the *Australia Act* was passed in 1986.

The bicameral Commonwealth Parliament consists of the Queen, the Senate (the upper house) of 76 senators, and a House of Representatives (the lower house) of 150 members. Members of the lower house are elected from single-member constituencies, commonly known as 'electorates' or 'seats'. Seats in the House of Representatives are allocated to states on the basis of population. In the Senate, each state, regardless of population, is represented by 12 senators, while the territories are each represented by two. Elections for both chambers are held every three years; typically only half of the Senate seats are put to each election, because senators have overlapping six-year terms. The party with majority support in the House of Representatives forms Government, with its leader becoming Prime Minister.

There are three major political parties: The Labor Party, the Liberal Party and the National Party. Independent members and several minor parties — including the Greens and the Australian Democrats — have achieved representation in Australian parliaments, mostly in upper houses, although their influence has been marginal. The Labor Party is in power in every state and territory. Voting is compulsory in each state and territory and at the federal level.

States and territories of Australia

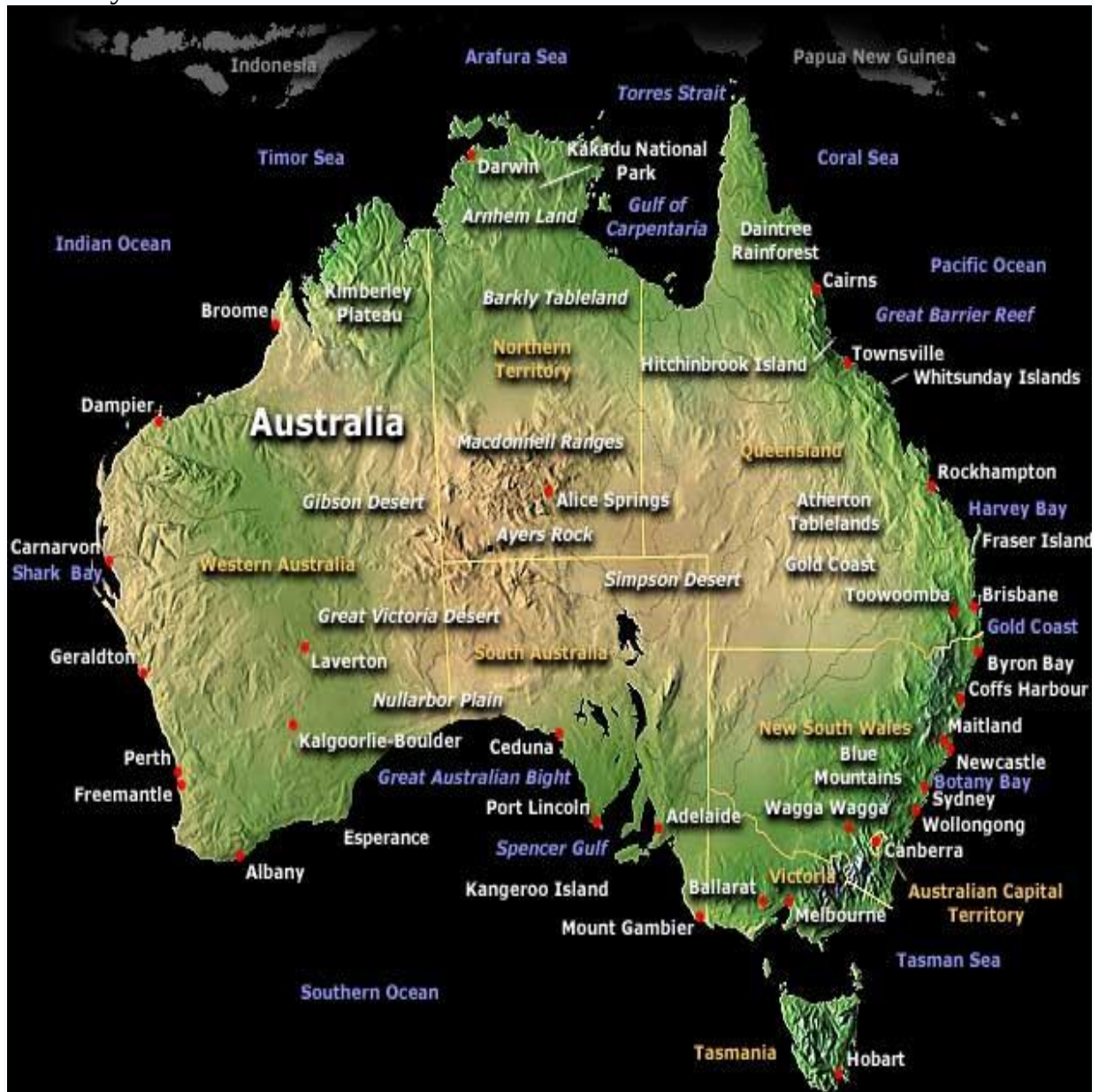
Australia consists of six states, two major mainland territories, and other minor territories. The states are New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria and Western Australia. The two major mainland territories are the Northern Territory and The Australian Capital Territory. In most respects, the territories function similarly to the states, but the Commonwealth Parliament can override any legislation of their parliaments. By contrast, federal legislation overrides state legislation only with respect to certain areas as set out in Section 51 of the Constitution; all residual legislative powers are retained by the state parliaments, including powers over hospitals, education, police, the judiciary, roads, public transport and local government.

Legislative Assembly (House of Assembly in South Australia and Tasmania) and the upper house is known as the Legislative Council. The heads of the governments in each state and territory are called premiers and chief ministers, respectively. The Queen is represented in each state by a governor; an administrator in the Northern Territory, and the Governor-General in the ACT, have analogous roles.

Australia also has several minor territories; the federal government administers a separate area within New South Wales, The Jervis Bay Territory, as a naval base and sea port for the national capital. In addition Australia has the

following, inhabited, external territories: Norfolk Island, Christmas Island, Cocos (Keeling) Islands, and several largely uninhabited external territories: Ashmore and Cartier Islands, Coral Sea Islands, Heard Island and McDonald Islands and the Australian Antarctic Territory.

Australia's 7,686,850 square kilometres (2,967,909sq. mi) landmass is on The Indo-Australian Plate. Surrounded by The Indian, Southern and Pacific oceans, Australia is separated from Asia by the Arafura and Timor seas. Australia has a total 25,760 kilometres (16,007mi) of coastline and claims an extensive Exclusive Economic Zone of 8,148,250 square kilometres (3,146,057sq. mi). This exclusive economic zone does not include The Australian Antarctic Territory.



Each state and territory has its own legislature. The lower house is known as the

The Great Barrier Reef, the world's largest coral reef, and lies a short distance off the north-east coast and extends for over 2,000 kilometres (1,250 mi). The world's largest monolith, Mount Augustus, is located in Western Australia. At 2,228 metres (7,310 ft), Mount Kosciuszko on the Great Dividing Range is the highest mountain on the Australian mainland, although Mawson

Peak on the remote Australian territory of Heard Island is taller at 2,745 metres (9,006 ft).

By far the largest part of Australia is desert or semi-arid. Australia is the driest inhabited continent, the flattest, and has the oldest and least fertile soils. Only the south-east and south-west corners of the continent have a temperate climate. The northern part of the country, with a tropical climate, has vegetation consisting of rainforest, woodland, grassland, mangrove swamps and desert. Climate is highly influenced by ocean currents, including the El Niño southern oscillation, which is correlated with periodic drought, and the seasonal tropical low pressure system that produces cyclones in northern Australia.

Flora and Fauna

Although most of Australia is semi-arid or desert, it covers a diverse range of habitats, from alpine heaths to tropical rainforests. Because of the great age and consequent low levels of fertility of the continent, its extremely variable weather patterns, and its long-term geographic isolation, much of Australia's biota is unique and diverse. About 85% of flowering plants, 84% of mammals, more than 45% of birds, and 89% of in-shore, temperate-zone fish are endemic. Most Australian woody plant species are evergreen and many are adapted to fire and drought, including many eucalyptus and acacias. Australia has a rich variety of endemic legume species that thrive in nutrient-poor soils because of their symbiosis with Rhizobia bacteria and mycorrhizal fungi. Well-known Australian fauna include monotremes (the platypus and echidna); a host of marsupials, including the kangaroo, koala, wombat; and birds such as the emu, and kookaburra. The dingo was introduced by Austronesian people that traded with Indigenous Australians around 4000 BC. Many plant and animal species became extinct soon after human settlement, including the Australian megafauna; others have become extinct since European settlement, among them the Thylacine (Tasmanian Tiger).



The Koala and the Eucalyptus make an iconic pair of Australian fauna and flora.

Economy

Australia has a prosperous, Western-style mixed economy, with a per capita GDP slightly higher than the UK, Germany and France in terms of purchasing power parity. The country was ranked third in the United Nations' 2005 Human Development Index and sixth in *The Economist* worldwide quality-of-life index 2005. In recent years, the Australian economy has been resilient in the face of global economic downturn. Rising output in the domestic economy has been offsetting the global slump, and business and consumer confidence remains robust. Current areas of concern to some economists include Australia's high

current account deficit and also the high levels of net foreign debt owed by the private sector.

In the 1980s, the Labor Party, led by Prime Minister Bob Hawke and Treasurer Paul Keating, started the process of economic reform by floating the Australian dollar in 1983, and deregulating the financial system. Since 1996, the Howard government has continued the process of micro-economic reform, including the partial deregulation of the labour market and the privatisation of state-owned businesses, most notably in the telecommunications industry. Substantial reform of the indirect tax system was implemented in July 2000 with the introduction of a 10% Goods and Services Tax, which has slightly reduced the heavy reliance on personal and company income tax that still characterises Australia's tax system.



The Super Pit in Kalgoorlie, Australia's largest open cast gold mine

The Australian economy has not suffered a recession since the early 1990s. As of January 2006, unemployment was 5.3% with 10,034,500 persons employed. The service sector of the economy, including tourism, education, and financial services, comprises 69% of GDP. Agriculture and natural resources comprise 3% and 5% of GDP but contribute substantially to Australia's export performance. Australia's largest export markets include Japan, China, the United States, South Korea and New Zealand.

Traditionally, the absence of an export oriented manufacturing industry has been considered a key weakness of the Australian economy. More recently, rising prices for Australia's commodity exports and increasing tourism has to some extent alleviated this criticism. Nevertheless, Australia has developed the world's third largest current account deficit in absolute terms (in relative terms over 7% of GDP). This has been considered problematic by some economists, especially as it has coincided with high prices for Australia's exports and low interest rates which keep the cost of servicing the foreign debt unusually low.

Language.

English is the official language, and is spoken and written in a distinct variety known as Australian English. According to the 2001 census, English is the only language spoken in the home for around 80% of the population. The next most common languages spoken at home are Chinese languages (2.1%), Italian (1.9%) and Greek (1.4%). A considerable proportion of first and second generation migrants are bilingual. It is believed that there were between 200 and 300 Australian Aboriginal languages at the time of first European contact. Only about 70 of these languages have survived, and all but 20 of these are now endangered. An indigenous language remains the main language for about 50,000

(0.02%) people. Australia has a sign language known as Auslan, which is the main language of about 6,500 deaf people.

Demographics

Most of the estimated 20.6 million Australians are descended from nineteenth- and twentieth-century immigrants, the majority from Great Britain and Ireland. Australia's population has quadrupled since the end of World War I, spurred by an ambitious immigration program. In 2001, the five largest groups of the 23.1% of Australians who were born overseas were from the United Kingdom, New Zealand, Italy, Vietnam and China. Following the abolition of the White Australia policy in 1973, numerous government initiatives have been established to encourage and promote racial harmony based on a policy of multiculturalism.

Fewer than 15% of Australians live in rural areas. This picture shows the Barossa Valley wine producing region of South Australia.



Most Australians live in urban areas; Sydney is the most populous city in Australia.

The trend towards urbanisation is also stronger in Australia than many other parts of the world.

In common with many other developed countries, Australia is experiencing a demographic shift towards an older population, with more retirees and fewer people of working age. A large number of Australians (759,849 for the period 2002–03) live outside their home country. Australia has maintained one of the most active immigration programmes in the world to boost population growth. Most immigrants are skilled, but the immigration quota includes categories for family members and refugees.

Religion.

Australia has no state religion. The 2001 census identified that 68% of Australians call themselves Christian: 27% identifying themselves as Roman Catholic and 21% as Anglican. Australians that identify themselves as followers of non-Christian religions number 5%. A total of 16% were categorised as having "No Religion" (which includes non theistic beliefs such as Humanism, atheism, agnosticism and rationalism) and a further 12% declined to answer or did not give a response adequate for interpretation. As in many Western countries, the level of active participation in church worship is much lower than this; weekly attendance at church services is about 1.5 million, about 7.5% of the population.

Schooling.

School attendance is compulsory throughout Australia between the ages of 6–15 years (16 years in South Australia and Tasmania, and 17 years in Western Australia), contributing to an adult literacy rate that is assumed to be 99%. Government grants have supported the establishment of Australia's 38 universities, and although several private universities have been established, the

majority receives government funding. There is a state-based system of vocational training colleges, known as TAFE Institutes, and many trades conduct apprenticeships for training new tradespeople. Approximately 58% of Australians between the ages of 25 and 64 have vocational or tertiary qualifications and the tertiary graduation rate of 49% is highest of countries. The ratio of international to local students in tertiary education in Australia is the highest in countries.

Culture

The primary basis of Australian culture until the mid-20th century was Anglo-Celtic, although distinctive Australian features had been evolving from the environment and indigenous culture. Over the past 50 years, Australian culture has been strongly influenced by American popular culture (particularly television and cinema), large-scale immigration from non-English-speaking countries, and Australia's Asian neighbours. The vigour and originality of the arts in Australia — films, opera, music, painting, theatre, dance, and crafts — achieve international recognition.



The Royal Exhibition Building in Melbourne was the first building in Australia to be listed as a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 2004.

Australia has a long history of visual arts, starting with the cave and bark paintings of its indigenous peoples. From the time of European settlement, a common theme in Australian art has been the Australian landscape, seen in the works of Arthur Streeton, Arthur Boyd and Albert Namatjira, among others. The traditions of indigenous Australians are largely transmitted orally and are closely tied to ceremony and the telling of the stories of the Dreamtime. Australian Aboriginal music, dance and art have a palpable influence on contemporary Australian visual and performing arts. Australia has an active tradition of music, ballet and theatre; many of its performing arts companies receive public funding through the federal government's Australia Council. There is a symphony orchestra in each capital city, and a national opera company, Opera Australia, first made prominent by the renowned diva Dame Joan Sutherland; Australian music includes classical, jazz, and many popular music genres.

Australian literature has also been influenced by the landscape; the works of writers such as Banjo Paterson and Henry Lawson, captured the experience of the Australian bush. The character of colonial Australia, as embodied in early literature, resonates with modern Australia and its perceived emphasis on egalitarianism, mateship, and anti-authoritarianism. In 1973, Patrick White was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature, the only Australian to have achieved this; he is recognised as one of the great English-language writers of the twentieth century.

Australian English is a major variety of the language; its grammar and

spelling are largely based on those of British English, overlaid with a rich vernacular of unique lexical items and phrases, some of which have found their way into Standard English. Australian Rules football was developed in Victoria, Australia in the late 1850s and is played at amateur and professional levels.

It is the most popular spectator sport in Australia in terms of annual attendances and club memberships.



Media. Australia has two public broadcasters (the ABC and the multi-cultural SBS), three commercial television networks, three pay TV services, and numerous public, non-profit television and radio stations. Australia's film industry has achieved critical and commercial successes. Each major city has daily newspapers, and there are two national daily newspapers, *The Australian* and *The Australian Financial Review*. According to Reporters Without Borders in 2005, Australia is in thirty first position on a list of countries ranked by press freedom, behind New Zealand (9th) and the United Kingdom (28th) but ahead of the United States. This ranking is primarily due to the limited diversity of commercial media ownership in Australia. Most Australian print media in particular is under the control of either News Corporation or John Fairfax Holdings.

Sport plays an important part in Australian culture, assisted by a climate that favours outdoor activities; 23.5% Australians over the age of 15 regularly participate in organised sporting activities. At an international level, Australia has particularly strong teams in cricket, hockey, netball, rugby league, rugby union, and performs well in cycling, rowing and swimming. Nationally, other popular sports include Australian Rules football, horse racing, soccer and motor racing. Australia has participated in every summer Olympic Games of the modern era, and every Commonwealth Games. Australia has hosted the 1956 and 2000 Summer Olympics, and has ranked among the top five medal-takers since 2000. Australia has also hosted the 1938, 1962, 1982 and 2006 Commonwealth Games. Other major international events held regularly in Australia include the Australian Open, one of the four Grand Slam tennis tournaments, annual international cricket matches and the Formula One Australian Grand Prix. Corporate and government sponsorship of many sports and elite athletes is common in Australia. Televised sport is popular; some of the highest rating television programs include the summer Olympic Games and the grand finals of local and international football competitions.

Questions:

1. What is the geography of Australia?

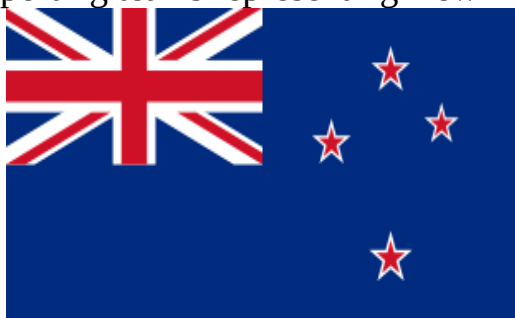
2. Show the borders of India from the map.
3. What do you know about the way of life?
4. What is the population of the country?
5. Speak about the government of Australia.
6. Speak about the religion of the country.

THEME 19: ENGLISH SPEAKING COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD: NEW ZEALAND

Key words: North Island, the South Island, snow-capped mountains, green lowlands, waterfalls, brown-skinned people, Maoris, constitutional monarchy, Cabinet, Kumaras (sweet potatoes), overseas territories, New Zealand Herald, Ken Hulme.

New Zealand is an island country in the Southwest Pacific Ocean. It lies about 1,000 miles (1,600 kilometers) southeast of Australia and about 6,500 miles (10,500 kilometers) southwest of California. New Zealand belongs to a large island group called Polynesia.

New Zealand. They came from Polynesian islands located northeast of New Zealand. Europeans discovered the country in 1642, but they did not start to settle in the islands until the late 1700's. Today, most New Zealanders are descendants of the early European settlers. About 10 percent of the people are Maoris. A New Zealander of European descent is known as a pakeha (pronounced PAH kuh hah or PAH kee hah). Pakeha is a Maori word for white man. New Zealand's standard of living ranks among the highest in the world. For many years, the country's economy depended largely on agriculture. Today, agriculture, manufacturing, and service industries are all important to the economy. New Zealand's economy depends on trade with numerous countries. These countries include Australia, Britain, Japan and the US. Traditionally, the unofficial national emblem of New Zealand is Kiwi, a flightless bird that is unique to the country. New Zealanders frequently refer to themselves as kiwis, and are also called kiwis by many people in other countries. The name having been adopted by New Zealand soldiers in the First World War. Another well known emblem is the Silver Fern, which is a native plant. The Silver Fern emblem is traditionally worn by sporting teams representing New Zealand.



The flag



Coat of arms



The national bird Kiwi of New Zealand

The **Flag of New Zealand** is a defaced blue ensign with the Union Flag in the canton, and four red stars with white borders to the right. The stars represent the constellation of Crux, the Southern Cross, as seen from New Zealand.

Government.

New Zealand is a constitutional monarchy. The British monarch, Queen Elizabeth II of the UK, is the monarch of New Zealand. She appoints a governor general to represent her, but the government general has little power. The legislature, prime minister, and Cabinet run the national government.

Britain gave New Zealand a constitution in 1852, when it was a British colony. But through the years, the New Zealand legislature has changed almost all its provisions. For all practical purposes, the nation today has the written constitution.

Legislature.

New Zealand has 97 member houses of representatives, also called Parliament. The people in each of 97 electorates (voting districts) elect one Member of Parliament. 4 electorates are for Maori candidates and voters, but a Maori may vote a general electorate. A Maori may also be a candidate in a general electorate. A Parliamentary election must be held at least every 3 years, but one may be held sooner. All citizens 18 years old or older may vote.

Prime Minister and Cabinet.

The leader of the political party that wins the most sits in a parliamentary election becomes prime minister. The prime minister appoints a Cabinet to run the various government departments. The Cabinet members, called ministers, are members of Parliament from the prime minister's party. The prime minister and the Cabinet are called the government. The party that wins the second most seats in an election is called the Opposition. The Government proposes most new legislation to Parliament. If Parliament votes in favour of a bill, the bill becomes law. But if the Government loses the support of the majority Parliament on an important issue, it resigns. Parliament is then dissolved, and a new election is held.

Political Parties.

The main political parties in New Zealand are the Labour Party and the National Party. There is no clear division between their policies. Traditionally, the Labour Party has favored government control and public regulation of industry and the National Party has favored free enterprise. But in the mid-1980 the Labor Party adopted a free-market policy.

Ombudsman is an official selected by Parliament to investigate complaints by New Zealand citizens against government departments. The ombudsman looks into the complaints and sends an opinion to the department involved. If the department does not take the action that the ombudsman believes is needed, the findings may be reported to Parliament.

Courts. The Privy Council in Britain is New Zealand's highest court, followed by the Court of Appeal in New Zealand. Both these courts hear only case that have been appealed from a lower court. The High Court is the next highest court. It handles cases involving serious offenses and most appeals from district courts. District courts, the lowest courts, hear most minor cases.

Language.

English is the official language of New Zealand and is spoken throughout the country. Most of the people speak English with a New Zealand accent, which resembles a British accent with a slightly nasal sound. Many Maoris speak their own language, Maori, addition to English. The Maori language belongs to the Malayo-Polynesian group of languages.

Way of Life.

The people of New Zealand have a high standard of living. They have long been among the best-fed people in the world. They also receive excellent health care under the government's medical program. About 70 percent of New Zealand families own their homes. And almost every family has a car. Most New Zealanders live in single-family houses with enough land for small flower or vegetable gardens. In the larger cities, some people live in the high-rise buildings.

Almost all New Zealand families have refrigerators, washing machine and other modern appliances. But few homes have air conditioner or central heating because New Zealand's weather rarely becomes extremely hot or extremely cold. In summer New Zealanders open windows to keep their homes warm.

New Zealand's cities are fairly uncrowned. Bad traffic jams seldom occur, even in the downtown areas. New Zealand's large cities have excellent restaurants as many milk bars (soda fountains) and pubs (taverns). These cities also have theaters, concert halls, and other places of entertainment. City life in New Zealand tends to be rather quiet. However, this is changing in the larger cities, where international tourism has increased rapidly.

In some rural areas of New Zealand, small settlements are linked by good roads, and so social contact is easy. But in rugged ranch country, a rancher's nearest neighbor's may be many miles or kilometers away. As a result, some ranchers live almost in isolation. Most farms and ranches have electricity to provide light and to operate appliances and machinery. Many farm families run their lands with little or no hired help.

Food and Drink.

New Zealanders eat more butter and meat per person than do the people of any other country. Lamb is a favorite meat. Kumaras (sweet potatoes) may accompany lamb and other meat dishes. A special treat is toheroa soup, made from a native green clam. Tea is the favorite drink of most New Zealanders. Beer and wine are popular alcoholic beverages.

Recreation.

New Zealanders love outdoor activities and sports. Many city families own small baches (cabins) in resort areas, where they go on weekends. The nation's mild climate the year around makes camping, hiking, hunting, and mountain climbing possible in any season. Ski areas on New Zealand's snow-capped mountains attract large numbers of skiers. Many people also enjoy cricket, which somewhat resembles baseball; rugby, a sort of football; swimming; and tennis.

Yachting along the coasts or on the lakes is a popular activity. Boating offers the added attraction of fishing for marlin, shark, and or swordfish. Such inland waters as Lake Taupo provide year-round trout fishing.

Education.

New Zealand offers students a free elementary and secondary education up to age 19. The law requires children from 6 through 15 to attend school, but most youngsters enter school at 5. Many children under 5 attend free kindergartens or play centers.

After completing elementary or intermediate school, most students go on to secondary school. Secondary school students may receive special training in agriculture, home economics, technical subjects, and a wide range of other subjects.

Some schools at all levels are operated by religious groups, especially the Roman Catholic Church. Most of these schools are part of the government-supported school system.

School bus service, particularly in rural areas, is available for children who live beyond walking distance from school. Students who live too far from a bus route may receive instruction from the New Zealand correspondence School in

Wellington. This government-run school broadcast daily lessons on the main radio station. The school also mails the lessons to the students, who send their home work back to the teachers.

New Zealand has 7 Universities. They are Massey University in Palmerston; the Victoria University of Wellington; Lincoln University, near Christchurch; the University of Auckland; the University of Canterbury in Christchurch; the University of Otago in Dunedin; and the University of Waikato in Hamilton. New Zealand has also 7 teachers colleges and 24 polytechnic Institutes (schools that teach applied science).

Almost all the New Zealand's adult population can read and write.

The New Zealand way of life combines an easy informality with a British and Polynesian sense of politeness. In the past, many New Zealanders have kept close emotional ties to Britain, and many New Zealand customs resemble British customs. But New Zealand has developed a feeling of national identity as a Pacific nation of both British and Polynesian heritage.

Auckland is New Zealand's largest city. Wellington, the country's capital, and Christchurch are the other large cities of New Zealand.

Ancestry.

About 85 percent of New Zealand's people were born within the country. Many are descendants of British settlers who came to the country during the 1800's. Immigrants still come to New Zealand, chiefly from Britain, Australia, and other English-speaking countries.

About 325,000 Maoris live in New Zealand. They make up New Zealand's largest minority group. The Maoris are a Polynesian people. The ancestors of these people came to New Zealand hundreds of years ago.

The Land.

New Zealand lies in the Southwest Pacific Ocean about 1,000 miles (1,600 kilometers) southeast of Australia. The Tasman Sea, a part of the Pacific, separates the nations. The North Island and the South Island are the largest islands of New Zealand. They extend in a curve more than 1,000 miles (1,600 kilometers) long and cover about 99 percent of the country's total area. Cook Strait, which is 16 miles (26 kilometers) wide, separates the islands.

Stewart Island lies about 20 miles (32 kilometers) south of the South Island. Foveaux Strait separates the two islands. The Chatham Islands are also part of New Zealand. They lie about 530 miles (850 kilometers) east of the South Island. The nation has dozens of other islands in the South Pacific, but most are small and uninhabited.

New Zealand governs two overseas territories. The territories are Ross Dependency, a part of Antarctica; and Tokelau, an island group northeast of New Zealand. The Cook Islands and the island of Niue, also to the northeast, were formerly governed by New Zealand. The Cook Islands became self-governing in 1965, and Niue in 1974. But the people of these islands are citizens of New Zealand, and New Zealand offers the islands military support for defense.

The North Island can be divided into three main land regions; (1) the Northern Peninsulas and Waikato Basin, (2) the Volcanic Region and Western Hill Country, and (3) the Eastern Hills.

The Northern Peninsulas and Waikato Basin occupies most of the northern part of the island. This region has forests, rich lowlands, citrus orchards, and undeveloped hill country. Long, sandy beaches line the west coast, and many inlets mark the east coast.

The Volcanic Region and Western Hill Country cover the western half of the island south of the Northern Peninsulas and Waikato Basin. Much of the region consists of the volcanic rock.

Climate.

New Zealand has a mild, moist climate like that of the Northwest Coast of the United States. But New Zealand lies south of the equator, and so its seasons are opposite those of the Northern Hemisphere. July is New Zealand's coldest month, and January and February are its warmest months. The country's mild climate results from ocean breezes that bring warmth to the land in winter and coolness in summer. Summer temperatures range from about 65°F (18 °C) to about 85°F (29°C). Winter temperatures range from about 35 °F (2 °C) to about 55°F (13°C). Rain falls throughout the year in New Zealand. The amount varies little from month to month, but some regions regularly receive much more rain than others. Throughout New Zealand, the weather shifts suddenly from sunny to rainy and back to sunny again.

Climate Regions.

Although New Zealand overall has a mild rainy climate, the climate differs in various parts of the country. On the North Island, the northern tip of the land

Peninsula is warm and humid all year. But the island's central plateau has hot, sunny weather in summer and sharp frosts with occasional snow in winter. Wellington lies exposed to the frequent gales of Cook Strait. On the South Island, the rainy west contrasts with the drier east. Southern New Zealand is cooler than northern New Zealand. In mountain regions, temperatures are cooler by about 2 °C with each 1000-foot (300-meter) increase in altitude. The interiors of both the North Island and South Island have cooler winters and warmer summers than the coastal regions.

Plant life.

The native forests of New Zealand consist of evergreen trees and tree ferns. Volcanic eruptions in prehistoric times destroyed large areas of forest in the central plateau of the North Island. As a result, shrubs, such as the manuka, now cover much of the region. Forests of pine like kauri trees once thrived on the Northland Peninsula, but the early European settlers cut down so many of the trees that they almost destroyed the kauri forests. Yet many evergreen trees, including some kauris, still flourish in parts of both the North Island and the South Island. Beech forests grow on the cooler uplands of both islands.

Since 1900, many foreign trees have been introduced into New Zealand. The country's pulp and paper industry depends mainly on the fast-growing radiata pine, originally imported from California.

Earthquakes.

New Zealand has about 400 earthquakes every year, but only about 100 of them are strong enough to be felt. The country's most disastrous

earthquake occurred in Hawke Bay in 1931. It killed 255 people and badly damaged the cities of Hastings and Napier.

Economy.

The economy of New Zealand has long depended on farming and foreign trade. The sale of butter, cheese, meat, and wool to other countries provides much of the nation's income. But manufacturing has been increasing rapidly, and about twice as many New Zealanders work in factories as on farms. Tourism has also become an important source of income.

Natural resources.

New Zealand's greatest natural resource is its land. About 55 percent of the land consists of cropland and pastureland. About 25 percent is covered with forests that provide valuable timber as well as protection from erosion. The remaining 20 percent consists of lakes, rivers, and mountain areas.

New Zealand has few mineral resources. The most important mineral products include coal, gold, iron ore, limestone, and natural gas.

Water power provides about 75 percent of the nation's electricity. On the North Island, eight dams along the Waikato River are used to produce electricity. The Clutha and Waitaki rivers of the South Island have also been harnessed to provide hydroelectric power. A cable under Cook Strait carries electricity produced on the South Island to the heavier populated North Island.

The underground steam in the volcanic area of the North Island is becoming an increasingly important source of power. Near Wairakei, engineers have drilled many deep holes to release geothermal steam. The rising steam powers machinery that generates electricity.

Agriculture.

New Zealand produces enough meat and dairy products to feed its own people as well as millions of people in other countries. The high farm production results from the country's mild climate the year around and the use of modern machinery and scientific farming methods.

New Zealand has about 58 million sheep and about 8 million cattle. It has about 25 times as many farm animals as people. No other country has so many farm animals in relation to its population. Sheep are so numerous that a distant hillside may resemble a field of cotton because so many fluffy white sheep are grazing there. Sheep are raised both for meat—lamb and mutton—and for wool. Other products obtained from sheep include sausage casings (coverings), sheepskins and tallow (animal fat). Sheep are raised on both the North Island and the South Island.

The country's chief crops include barley, potatoes, and wheat. New Zealand is the world's largest producer of kiwi fruit. Farmers also raise apples, grapes, onions, peas, and pears. Citrus fruits, avocados, and a wide variety of other subtropical fruits are grown in northern areas of the North Island.

Manufacturing.

Processed foods are New Zealand's most valuable manufactured

goods. Milk is made into butter, cheese, and dried milk. Factories freeze lamb and beef for export, and process wool and weave woolen carpets. Other manufactured items include aluminum, chemicals, iron and steel, machinery, metal products, motor vehicles, paper, petroleum products, textiles, and wood products. Auckland is the country's largest manufacturing center.

Forestry.

New Zealand loggers cut down about 4 billion board feet (10 million cubic meters) of timber yearly. Most of this timber comes from the radiata pine, which grows mainly on the North Island's volcanic plateau. Douglas-fir is the second most important timber tree. Native evergreen trees provide less than a tenth of the country's timber. The most important of these trees is the pine like rimu.

Fishing industry.

The chief fish caught in New Zealand's waters include barracuda, hoki, orange roughy, red cod, and snapper. Rock lobsters are trapped along the New Zealand coast. Fresh and frozen fish and rock lobster tails rank as important exports. In addition, oyster farming is growing in economic importance.

Trade.

New Zealand's economy depends heavily on trade. The chief trade partners are Australia, Britain, Japan, and the United States. Butter, cheese, dried milk products, lamb, and wool make up about half of the value of New Zealand's exports. Exports of increasing importance include manufactured goods, fish products, and forest products. Chief imports include iron and steel, machinery, motor vehicles, petroleum, scientific instruments, and telecommunication equipment.

Transportation and Communication.

New Zealand has an excellent highway network. Almost all New Zealand families own an automobile. A railroad system links the main cities. Air New Zealand is an airline that provides international service. Two other airlines compete for domestic air service. International airports are at Auckland, Christchurch, and Wellington. Ferries carry passengers, automobiles, and railroad cars between the North Island and the South Island. Auckland and Wellington overlook fine natural harbors and have the nation's busiest seaports. Lyttelton, near Christchurch, is a major port on the South Island.

New Zealand has about 30 daily newspapers. Auckland's *New Zealand Herald* has the largest circulation. The country has three television networks and many radio stations. Almost every family in New Zealand owns a television set and one or more radios. Privately managed corporations operate New Zealand postal phone and telegraph services.

Population.

According to the 1991 census, approximately 73 percent of the population of New Zealand is of European (mainly British) descent. About 12 percent (some 430,000) are Maori, a Polynesian group, whose ancestors migrated to New Zealand about AD 1200. About 4 percent of the population is of other Polynesian

descent, and various other Asian ethnicities make up the rest of the population.

Population Characteristics.

The population of New Zealand at the 2015 census was 4 585 285 among this 2 252 638 (49.1%) is male population 2 332 648 (50.9%) is female population. Population density of 17 persons per sq km (37 per sq mi). Nearly quarters of the population (including more than 95 percent of the Maori) reside on North Island. However, some 87 percent of the people live in urban areas, and about half of these in the four largest cities and their environs (see the *Principal Cities* section below).

Political Distinct.

New Zealand is divided into 12 local government regions and four unitary authorities. On North Island are Northland, Auckland, Waikato, Bay of Plenty, Hawke's Bay, Taranaki, Manawatu-Wanganui, Ellington regions, and the authority of Gisborne. On South Island are West Coast, Canterbury, Otago, Southland regions, and the authorities of Nelson, Marlborough, and Tasman.

Principal Cities.

The capital of New Zealand and the center of interest in land and coastal shipping is Wellington. Other urban centers include Auckland, a seaport and major industrial center; Christchurch, the country's wheat and grain center; Hamilton, a center for dairy farming; and Dunedin, wool and tourism center.

Religion and Language.

Majority of the New Zealand population is Christian. The primary denominations are Anglican (24 percent), Presbyterian (16 percent), and Roman Catholic (15 percent). Methodist, Baptist, and other Protestant denominations are also represented. Most of the Maori are members of the Ratana and Ringatira Christian sects. Jews, Hindus, and Buddhists constitute small minorities. About 21 percent profess no religious faith. English and Maori are the official languages, although the country is predominantly English speaking. Almost all of the Maori speak English, and only about 50,000 (about 15 percent) are considered fluent Maori speakers. Other Polynesian and European languages are spoken by a small percentage of the population.

Education.

Education is free and compulsory for children between the ages of 6 and 16 years, but children may enter to school at 5 and continue until they are 19. In some areas polytechnic kindergartens are maintained to children between three and five years of age. Primary education consists of infant classes during the first two years and six annual grades designated standards 1, 2, 3, and 4 and forms I and II. Free polytechnic education is available to all children who have completed form II or who have attained the age of 14. On completion of the third year of secondary education, pupils take a national examination for a certificate, which attests to completion of basic secondary education. The prerequisite for admission to university study is either attaining a sixth-form certificate or passing the university entrance examination.

Universities and Colleges

Universities and colleges in the system of higher education in New Zealand includes eight universities. These universities are the University of Auckland (1882), University of Waikato (1964, at Hamilton), the Victoria University of

Wellington (1899), Massey University (1926, at Palmerston North), the University of Canterbury (1873, at Christchurch), the University of Otago (1869, at Dunedin), and Lincoln University (1990, near Christchurch), and the Auckland University of Technology (2000, formerly the Auckland Institute of Technology). The eight universities had a combined annual enrollment in the late 1990s of about 140,001 students. Several teachers colleges are also in operation, and an extensive adult-education program throughout the country by the National Council of Adult Education. In addition, nine polytechnic institutions offer degree programs in various technical and professional trades.

Libraries and Museums.

New Zealand has more than 1,000 libraries. The National Library Act of 1965 established the National Library of New Zealand by combining several library systems. The Auckland Public Library contains about 2 million volumes, including Maori works. Other leading libraries include the Otago University Library in Dunedin (1.2 million volumes), the Canterbury University Library in Christchurch (1.2 million volumes), Wellington Public Library (525,000 volumes) and the Dunedin Public Library (520,000 volumes). All government records of permanent value are preserved in the National Archives in Wellington. Art galleries and museums are found in most large cities, but the oldest institutions are in Auckland. The Auckland City Art Gallery, founded in 1888, and the Auckland Museum, opened in 1852, contain notable collections, and the National Art Gallery (1936), in Wellington, is noted particularly for its Australian and New Zealand paintings. Outstanding natural history and ethnological collections are found in the National Museum, in Wellington; Canterbury Museum, in Christchurch; and Otago Museum, in Dunedin.

The Arts.

New Zealand's indigenous population, the Maori, have a rich oral tradition of creation myths, stories of adventurous voyages, tribal legends, and customary practices. The Maori also had a well-developed artisan culture, which featured elaborately decorated houses, canoes, and entranceways to fortified villages called *pā*. The beliefs and practices of the indigenous population have profoundly influenced contemporary literature, art, music, and motion pictures in New Zealand. *The Piano* (1993), an Academy Award-winning film directed by Jane Campion, features Maori-European relations in the early years of European settlement in New Zealand. *Once Were Warriors* (1995), with a screenplay by Maori writer Riwia Brown, depicts the strain of urban life on one Maori family. Some of the country's most prominent artists use Maori motifs and symbolism in their painting, photography, sculpture, and pottery. New Zealand's internationally known opera singer, Dame Kiri Te Kanawa, is Maori, as was one of the country's most successful groups, the Howard Morrison Quartet. Some of the most popular songs in New Zealand are Maori songs, sometimes translated into English. A distinctive New Zealand literature took some time to develop. It was not until the 1930s, when New Zealand experienced a particularly harsh economic depression, that a growing sense of national identity produced some internationally acclaimed writers. These include Katherine Mansfield, Dame Ngaio Marsh, Sylvia Ashton-Warner, Frank Sargeson, and Maurice Shadbolt. Maori writers such as Ken Hume, Patricia Grace, and Witi Ihimaera were influential contributors to the

distinctive New Zealand literature of the late 20th century. Hulme won the United Kingdom's Booker Prize in 1985 for her novel *The Bone People* (1983) about Maori life in New Zealand during the second half of the 20th century. The New Zealand film industry is also gaining international recognition. New Zealand-made films have featured prominently in festivals in England, France, and the United States. New Zealand actors, such as Sam Neill, in recent years have had roles in major Hollywood productions such as *Jurassic Park*-(1993).

 Questions:

1. What is the geography of New Zealand?
2. Show the territory and borders of the country.
3. Speak about the national emblems of the country.
4. What can you say about the way of life of New Zealand?
5. Speak about the other sectors of life of New Zealand. (Population, agriculture, trade, food and drink, etc.)
6. What does include the arts?

Tests for self control

1 - Which areas of Britain have most rainfall?

- A. West and North.
- B. South and West.
- C. North and South.
- D. East and West.

2 - Which river is longer in the UK?

- A. Lagan is the longest among the British rivers.
- B. Thames is longer than Severn.
- C. Severn is longer than Thames.
- D. I don't know.

3 - Who are the mainstream in Britain and where did they come from?

- A. Hispanics who came from South Asia.
- B. White people who came from England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland.
- C. African Britons from Caribbean.
- D. Native people

4 - How many people live in GB?

- A. 23 mln.
- B. 48 mln.
- C. More than 60 mln.
- D. 10 mln.

5 - What are the important rivers in Scotland?

- A. Swansea and Potomac.
- B. Thames and Severn.
- C. Clyde and Forth.
- D. Mississippi and Missouri.

6 - What is the national currency of UK?

- A. Pound.
 - B. Dollar.
 - C. Euro.
 - D. Sum.
- 7 - Milford Navan is one of the ... in GB**
- A. Principal port.
 - B. Second largest port.
 - C. Major oil port.
 - D. First country.
- 8 - Which country has the lowest population density?**
- A. England.
 - B. Wales.
 - C. Scotland.
 - D. Northern Ireland.
- 9 - United States is**
- A. The third largest country in the world.
 - B. The second largest country in the world.
 - C. The forth largest country in the world.
 - D. The first largest country in the world.
- 10 - Which part of US is one of the wettest and densely populated?**
- A. Pacific Northwest of US.
 - B. North East of US.
 - C. South East of US.
 - D. Eastern US.
- 11 - Find the right answer.**
- A. B, C answers.
 - B. The territory of USA is 9,628,382 sq. km
 - C. The borders of USA are Canada, Mexico, Atlantic Ocean, and Pacific Ocean.
 - D. No right answer.
- 12 - Who controls the electronic world in US?**
- A. Bill Gates.
 - B. Yankees.
 - C. J. Bush.
 - D. Bill Clinton.
- 13 - Which river flows from Washington DC?**
- A. Clyde.
 - B. Thames.
 - C. Mississippi.
 - D. Potomac.
- 14 - Los Angels city, California state, Chicago city, Illinois state and Miami, Houston, Philadelphia, Detroit are ...**
- A. The cities of the USA.
 - B. The states of the USA.
 - C. The major metropolitan areas.
 - D. The borders of the country.
- 15 - The US is traditionally divided into ?**

- A. 5 regions.
 - B. 3 regions.
 - C. 4 regions.
 - D. 6 regions.
- 16 - Which state is the smallest state in the USA?**
- A. Rhode Ireland.
 - B. Texas.
 - C. New York.
 - D. Philadelphia.
- 17 - Which states and cities are included by Midwest region of US?**
- A. Highlands and Lowlands
 - B. Ohio, Nebraska, Colourado, Chicago.
 - C. Houston, Dallas, Los Angels, Salt Lake City, Nevada.
 - D. Los Angels, Salt Lake City.
- 18 - Where New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburg, Baltimore, Washington DC are situated?**
- A. in South region of UK.
 - B. in Midwest region of US.
 - C. in Mid-Atlantic region of US.
 - D. in West region.
- 19 - What is the climate of USA?**
- A. Hawaii has tropical, Alaska has sub arctic and tundra climate, SE of US has humid sub tropical climate and NE is humid continental climate.
 - B. NE has tropical, SE has continental climate, Hawaii and Alaska have humid sub-tropical climate.
 - C. USA has tundra climate.
 - D. USA has very hot climate.
- 20 - Which region is the smallest and has cold climate?**
- A. Midwest
 - B. West.
 - C. New England.
 - D. South.
- 21 - Which territory is called rough country?**
- A. Mid-Atlantic of US.
 - B. Midwest of US.
 - C. Highland of UK.
 - D. Lowland zone of UK.
- 22 - This zone is a great plain with a gentle, undulating surface and extensive areas of almost-level fertile in UK.**
- A. Highland zone.
 - B. South region.
 - C. Lowland region.
 - D. West region.
- 23 - Which flower was the defense of the people in UK?**
- A. Rose.
 - B. Thistle.
 - C. Shamrock.

- D. Leek.
- 24 - Who illustrated the doctrine of the Holy Trinity?**
- A. St. David.
 - B. St. Andrew.
 - C. St. Patrick.
 - D. Pope of the Christian church.
- 25 - When did the Welsh people accept their national flag?**
- A. 1850y.
 - B. 1950y.
 - C. 1980y
 - D. 2000y.
- 26 - How many stars were on a blue background of the “Old Glory”?**
- A. 13.
 - B. 40.
 - C. 30.
 - D. 55.
- 27 - What is the national emblem of the Democrats in the US?**
- A. Eagle.
 - B. Donkey.
 - C. Camel.
 - D. Horse.
- 28 - When the flag of US was adopted?**
- A. In June 14, 1777.
 - B. In May 1, 1780.
 - C. In September 1, 1991.
 - D. In August 7, 1770.
- 29 - What did Anglo-Saxons introduce to the new-land?**
- A. Christianity.
 - B. Farming and villages.
 - C. Writing and hunting.
 - D. Wrestling.
- 30 - Who was Oliver Cromwell?**
- A. First president.
 - B. Leader of the parliamentary army.
 - C. Lord Protector.
 - D. B-C answers.
- 31 - What had happened in UK in middle ages?**
- A. Germanic tribes came to British Isles.
 - B. Norman Conquest, England passed into French hands.
 - C. English Kingdoms were built, Roman conquest.
 - D. Spreading of Christianity by St. Patrick.
- 32 - When was established Tudor Dynasty?**
- A. 1485-1603 y.
 - B. 1500-1700 y.
 - C. 18 century.
 - D. 20 century.
- 33 - What are the Tories and Plaid Cymru?**

- A. Conservative and Welsh parties.
 - B. Party of Scotland and N. Ireland.
 - C. The members of Cabinet in UK.
 - D. The members of the Congress in US.
- 34 - Where did the native Britons move, when Germanic tribes conquered British Isles?**
- A. To the West now Wales.
 - B. To the South-North now Scotland.
 - C. To the East now England.
 - D. To the Northern Ireland.
- 35 - When the crowns of Scotland and England were united?**
- A. When James became the king of England.
 - B. During American Independence.
 - C. During Tudor Dynasty.
 - D. During the colonial period.
- 36 - Act of Union was signed between England & Wales in ...**
- A. 1536-1543.
 - B. 1525-1530.
 - C. 1800-1850.
 - D. 1900-2000.
- 37 - Which invaders came from Scandinavia to Britain in 8-9 centuries?**
- A. Celts.
 - B. Vikings.
 - C. Anglo-Saxons.
 - D. Jutes.
- 38 - When did Britain lose its American colonies?**
- A. B, C answers.
 - B. In the war of independence.
 - C. In 19th century.
 - D. In 20th century.
- 39 - Who enacts law?**
- A. The Judicial branch.
 - B. The Executive branch.
 - C. The Legislative branch
 - D. Courts.
- 40 - Which article in constitution describes the Legislative branch to carry out legislative power to a Congress of US.**
- A. Article 6.
 - B. Article 1.
 - C. Article 4.
 - D. Article 10.
- 41 - What is the electoral register?**
- A. It's the member of people voting.
 - B. Its the list of the candidates for presidency.
 - C. It's a list of all the adults living in a constituency.
 - D. It's the list of the ministers.
- 42 - To which branch belongs Cabinet Minister in the US?**

- A. Executive.
 - B. Judicial.
 - C. Legislative.
 - D. Congress.
- 43 - How many members in the House of Representatives?**
- A. 400.
 - B. 700.
 - C. 550.
 - D. No right answer.
- 44 - Who interprets the laws in USA?**
- A. The judicial.
 - B. The executive.
 - C. The legislative.
 - D. No right answer.
- 45 - How many amendments were done since 1789 in US constitution?**
- A. 30.
 - B. 10.
 - C. 50.
 - D. 26.
- 46 - What is Tremble in US Constitution?**
- A. Articles.
 - B. Basic principles.
 - C. An introduction.
 - D. Amendment.
- 47 - It consists of the heads of the 14 departments of the executive branch in US**
- A. Presidency.
 - B. Cabinet.
 - C. Senate.
 - D. Congress.
- 48 - Who hears small cases involving small sums of money in US?**
- A. Courts of appeal.
 - B. Claims courts.
 - C. Trial courts.
 - D. Supreme Court.
- 49 - What is the government system of UK?**
- A. Presidential monarchy.
 - B. Capitalism.
 - C. Constitutional monarchy.
 - D. Democratic country.
- 50 - What is the nickname of the British Parliament?**
- A. Mother of Parliament.
 - B. Your Majesty.
 - C. Father of Parliament.
 - D. Her Majesty.
- 51 - When did Elizabeth II become Queen of the UK?**
- A. 1952.

- B. 1964.
 - C. 1977.
 - D. 1950.
- 52 - Institution, which is responsible for making laws discussing major issues rising taxes in UK, is called...**
- A. Congress.
 - B. Parliament.
 - C. Cabinet.
 - D. Presidency.
- 53 - In Britain, the Cabinet is ...**
- A. A committee responsible for deciding government policy and for coordinating the work of government departments.
 - B. A person in each constituency responsible for managing the election.
 - C. Held by government position as MPs.
 - D. A place where the greater crimes are heard.
- 54 - How do the British people call the members of the House of Parliament?**
- A. MP s.
 - B. HP s.
 - C. BMP s.
 - D. BMW s.
- 55 - Who runs countries & districts in UK?**
- A. Councils.
 - B. Ministers.
 - C. Lord Chancellor.
 - D. President.
- 56 - When children do (SATs) standard assessment tests in the USA?**
- A. at 16 ages.
 - B. at 7-14 ages.
 - C. at 7-8 ages.
 - D. at 20 ages.
- 57 - What will do if the student fails 4-year high school course.**
- A. He'll have to leave the school.
 - B. He'll work of the entire year.
 - C. He'll repeat the course.
 - D. He'll begin to work.
- 58 - What percentage of children in Britain receives free education?**
- A. 50%.
 - B. 77%.
 - C. 85%.
 - D. 94%.
- 59 - Up to what age are the British children required to attend the school by law?**
- A. 18.
 - B. 14.
 - C. 16.
 - D. 20.
- 60 - Choose the right answer?**

- A. B, C answers.
 - B. Public schools are state schools.
 - C. Private schools are public schools.
 - D. No right answer.
- 61 - What are the essential elements of capitalistic economy?**
- A. Strikes and monopoly.
 - B. Investors and capital.
 - C. Competition, supply and demand.
 - D. Debtors.
- 62 - What is the debt card?**
- A. Cash.
 - B. The way of doing business without increasing one's indebtedness.
 - C. Credit cards.
 - D. Ones bank account.
- 63 - Disagreements between employees and employers can lead to work stoppages called ...**
- A. Capital.
 - B. Strike.
 - C. Demand.
 - D. Benefit.
- 64 - Who is the usher?**
- A. Judge.
 - B. Friend of a groom.
 - C. Groom.
 - D. Bride.
- 65 - Who can perform weddings in US?**
- A. Guests.
 - B. Bride and groom.
 - C. Bishops.
 - D. Judges and religious leaders.
- 66 - Who is the matron of honor?**
- A. Brides woman friend.
 - B. Mother of a bride.
 - C. Brides maids.
 - D. Bride.
- 67 - What is the most leisure pastime in Britain?**
- A. Watching television.
 - B. Sport games.
 - C. Reading books.
 - D. Swimming.
- 68 - How many Protestants and Catholics live in US?**
- A. 59%-27%.
 - B. 50%-50%.
 - C. 80%-20%.
 - D. 60%-40%.
- 69 - Who are Mormons and Christian Scientist?**
- A. Bishops.

- B. Catholic groups.
 - C. Arch bishops.
 - D. Protestant groups.
- 70 - How many Americans are Christian today?**
- A. 30%.
 - B. 50, 4%.
 - C. 100%.
 - D. 76%.
- 71 - How is the Pancake Day also called in UK?**
- A. Sweet day.
 - B. Shrove Tuesday.
 - C. Throve Monday.
 - D. Easter.
- 72 - How many bank holidays are there in UK?**
- A. 15.
 - B. 22.
 - C. 9.
 - D. 7.
- 73 - When US people celebrate 1st presidents day?**
- A. 1st Monday in September.
 - B. 12-February.
 - C. 22-February.
 - D. 9th May.
- 74 - 12-october-which holiday is it?**
- A. Thanksgiving Day.
 - B. Columbus commemorating Day.
 - C. Labour Day.
 - D. Halloween.
- 75 - Many public holidays in the UK are known as “bank holidays” - ...**
- A. So called because these days banks are legally closed.
 - B. So called because there no holidays for bank employees.
 - C. So called because these are days on which banks are illegally closed.
 - D. It’s a tradition.
- 76 - How many bank holidays in Northern Ireland?**
- A. 6.
 - B. 8.
 - C. 7.
 - D. 10.
- 77 -The Time, the Guardian, the Daily Telegraph, the Independent and The Financial Times are**
- A. Quality Papers.
 - B. Sundays.
 - C. Popular tabloids.
 - D. Weekly Sundays.
- 78 - It covers minority and specialist interests as well as music serious drama, travel programs and foreign films in the original languages.**
- A. BBC 1.

B. BBC 4.

C. BBC 2.

D. BBC 3.

79 - They cover serious news and for educated reader.

A. Quality papers.

B. The Daily.

C. Popular papers.

D. Tabloids.

80 - When Shakespeare began his writing?

A. In 17th century.

B. In 10th century.

C. In 14th century.

D. In early periods of the history

The key

1 A	2 B	3 B	4 C	5 C	6 A	7 C	8 C	9 C	10 A
11 A	12 A	13 D	14 C	15 D	16 A	17 B	18 C	19 A	20 C
21 C	22 C	23 B	24 C	25 B	26 A	27 B	28 A	29 B	30 D
31 C	32 A	33 A	34 A	35 A	36 A	37 B	38 A	39 C	40 B
41 C	42 A	43 D	44 A	45 D	46 C	47 B	48 B	49 C	50 A
51 A	52 B	53 A	54 A	55 A	56 B	57 C	58 C	59 C	60 A
61 C	62 B	63 B	64 B	65 D	66 A	67 A	68 A	69 A	70 D
71 B	72 C	73 C	74 B	75 A	76 C	77 A	78 B	79 A	80 C

Glossary

A

Abbreviate to make short
Abolish to end
Accent a way of pronouncing English
Acquisition an item they have bought
Administration the directing or organizing of affairs in, for example, a business or a country
Agriculture farming
Ain't haven't (*slang*)
All in one go without taking a breath while drinking
Altar a special table at the front of a church
Amphetamine a drug which gives a sense of excitement
Anglican of the Church of England
Annoying causing anger or irritation
Anglican Church the Church of England
Antiquities works of art remaining from old times
Authorization permission to do something
Anarchy when there is confusion in society and no government
Anorak a jacket with a hood
Antiquities works of art remaining from old times
Authorization permission to do something
Appoint to choose
Armed struggle fighting with weapons
Aristocracy the 'ruling class', sometimes connected with royalty
Arrest to take prisoner
Archery shooting with bows and arrows
Artifact something made by human beings
Archery shooting with bows and arrows
Architecture art of designing buildings
Association's connections
Auld old

B

Background past, ancestry
Badge a special mark, a sign of membership: each school has its own badge
Bagpipes musical instrument with air stored in a bag held under the arm
Baking powder a powder used instead of yeast to make cakes rise
Ball a formal dance
Ban (v) to forbid, stop
Bank Holiday a public holiday
Barnet fair a festival in Barnet, an area of East London
Barrister a lawyer who argues cases in a high court
Battlements a wall around a castle or town, with holes to shoot through
Bat (v) to hit (especially in cricket or baseball); (n) instrument for hitting a ball
Beat the noise of the drum
Beauty-spot a place people visit because it is beautiful

Behave one not to cause a disturbance
Behead to cut off someone's head
Beret a soft flat hat for schoolgirls
Besiege to attack
Betray to be unfaithful to
Big dipper small carriages on a big curved track that take you up and down through water at the fair
Big wheel a huge wheel which you can sit in as it rotates high into the air
Bill the special name for a proposal before it becomes law
Blazer a jacket
Bloody where many people are killed
Blow up to explode
Boarding house a private house where you pay to stay and have breakfast and perhaps an evening meal
Border the dividing line between two countries
Bowler hat a roundish black hat with a short brim
Bowl (v) to throw a ball
Bow tie a tie made in the shape of a bow, usually worn with a dinner jacket
Braces elasticized straps which go over the shoulders to keep up one's trousers
Break a pause for rest between lessons, usually about 20 minutes
Break into to use force to enter a place
Break up to separate
Break down (v) not to work
Breathtaking something so beautiful that it stops you breathing for a moment
Bring to mind to remember
Broadly approximately
Build up to increase the number
Bullet something fired from a gun
Bun a sweet bread roll
Bungalow a small house with just one storey
By-pass a road which goes round the edge of a town, avoiding the town centre

C

Carol a Christmas hymn
Carol singer's people who sing religious songs at Christmas, often to collect money for charity
Campaign a fight, often used figuratively
Campus the site of a university or college
Cannibalism eating human flesh
Canteen the place in a school or factory where you can buy food
Cap a soft flat hat for men and boys
Carriage the place for passengers on a train
Castor sugar very fine sugar
Cater for to provide facilities (shops, hotels, etc) for
Caught up with involved with
Causeway raised road especially across wetland
Celery a kind of vegetable
Cement grey powder mixed with water and used for building

Cereal grains such as corn, wheat, oats and barley
Channel a TV station
Chaos great confusion
Charge (n) cost, expense, money
Charity an organization which helps people, without making a profit
Chart a list of best-selling single records
Churchyard a burial ground round a church
Civil Service government administration
Civil war a war between two parts of the same country
Cliff a steep rock
Clothes conscious very aware of the way one dresses
Club tie a necktie with a special design worn by members of a group or club
Clutch a pedal to connect and disconnect the gear
Cmoor a wild, open, often high area
Coach a four-wheeled carriage with seats inside, pulled by horses
Commemorate to honor the memory
The Commonwealth an organization of independent states which were part of the British Empire
Common language a language spoken by everybody
Comprehensive school providing all types of secondary education day release
the system where someone with a job studies for one day a week
Commute to travel regularly a long-distance between home and work
Continental Europe the part of Europe that excludes the British Isles
Congested crowded
Container-port a port dealing with cargo in very large special containers
Conserve (v) to keep and protect
Continental Europe Europe except the British Isles
Conference a meeting to exchange ideas and opinions
Continental Europe the mainland of Europe
Contraction abbreviation
Convert (v) to change
Contented happy
Coronation a ceremony when a new monarch is crowned
Correspond to to represent
County town the chief town of a county
County an administrative area of the UK
The Crown the King or Queen
The Crown the right to be king or queen
Criticize to find faults with
Cruelty pleasure in causing pain
Cruiser a small pleasure boat with an engine which has room for sleeping.
Crush to press till something breaks

D

Daisy a small white and yellow flower
Date from (v) to have existed since
Dawn sunrise
Debate (v) to discuss formally

Decade ten years
Decline (*n*) a decrease
Defendant an accused person
Degree a university qualification
Delicatessen a shop that sells 'special', usually non-British,
Demonstrate to protest publicly
Deposed removed from the throne
Deserted empty, lonely
Destination the place to which someone or something is going
Detached a house which is not attached to any others
Devil the spirit of evil, Satan
Devolution giving part of the power of government to a smaller area or country
Diagonal a line going from one corner of a rectangle to the opposite corner
Diesel engine a train which uses oil as fuel
Dinner-jacket a man's black jacket worn on formal occasion's food
Discrimination treating someone differently because of their colour, race, religion or sex
Disc-jockey a person who plays records on the radio or at a discotheque
Distinct separate and special
Distillery a place where whiskey is made
Ditch a narrow channel dug in a field
Ditch a long hole dug in the ground
Division a part of the football league, containing 22 teams
Dole money given by the government to unemployed people. 'To be on the dole' or 'to join the dole queue' means to be unemployed
Dominated by agriculture mainly farmland
Domestic science cookery and housekeeping
Dough a mixture of flour and water or milk
Do without to survive without something
Dragon a mythical animal
Dreadlocks long strands of tightly-curved hair - a style typical of Rastafarian men
Drain (*v*) to reduce or get rid of water
Drainpipe long metal pipe for carrying away water
Dramatist writer of plays
Draw (*v*) to attract
Dress national costume
Drug (*n*) a chemical which affects your mind or body
Dummy an object made to look like a real person
Dye (*n*) a chemical used to colour things

E

Eclipse the disappearance of the light of the sun or reflected light of the moon, when the moon is between the sun and the earth, or when the earth's shadow falls on the moon
Eisteddfod annual gathering of poets and musicians in Wales
Elderly old (people)
Election campaign an organized attempt to persuade people to vote for a particular political party

Eloquent speaking well and fluently
Emerge to appear
Enrich make richer or more interesting
Estuary the mouth of a river
Esperanto an artificial language designed for world use
Estate an area on which many houses are built
Evil bad
Execute to kill
Execute to be killed on the orders of government or judge
Excavation digging to find old, historical things
Excommunicate to expel from the Church
Expression a phrase
Extracurricular not part of the school timetable

F

The Faith Christianity
Fan (*n*) an admirer, supporter
Fans enthusiastic supporters
Fast (*v*) to stop eating
Fertile rich soil where things grow easily
Festivity a celebration
Finals final exams at university or college
Flood (*v*) to cover with water
Floodlit lit with very strong lights
Floodlights large lights used for lighting a big area
Folk group a band which plays traditional music of a country (folk music)
Football season the time of year when football is played, winter in the UK
Force an army
Forgiveness willingness to pardon, not to want to punish someone
Form (*n*) class
Framework the part of a structure that gives support
Friar a man who is a member of a religious order
Front a road beside the sea where people can walk
Funfair an amusement park
Further Education College College where one can study after the age of 16

G

Gambler a person who makes a living by games of chance, e.g. in a casino
Gale an extremely strong wind
Gas mark a system for measuring temperature in a gas oven
Geological composition the formation of rocks
General Strike is spread over the country, not restricted to just one industry)
Gent humorous word for 'gentleman'
Generate to produce and send
Get away from it all to escape from the noise and pressure of everyday life
Get one's kicks to find excitement
Get together to join, unite
Ghost a spirit
Glen narrow valley

Glitter to shine

Goods things for sale

Grammar school a secondary school which teaches mainly academic subjects

Grant money given by an organization, e.g. the Local Authority

Grounds large gardens of a house

Green grass and trees

Grim severe, unfriendly

H

Haberdashery a shop or department which sells small articles of clothing and sewing

Hall of residence a building owned by a college or university, containing study bedrooms for students

Hammer (v) to hit repeatedly

Hanged killed by hanging from a rope tied round the neck

Harmful causing harm or injury

Haunt (v) to live in a house as a ghost

Headlines the most important pieces of news in the newspaper or on TV or radio

Heath area of sandy soil where you will probably find heather (a plant)

Hedge a line of bushes, often forming a boundary between fields

Heir someone who has the legal right to receive money or property or a title when someone dies

Hereditary peer a lord who has gained his title by birth

Here to stay here for ever

Hidden messages secret information

Highlander a person who comes from or lives in the Scottish Highlands

Hindu a member of an Indian religion

Hit a successful record

Hit a successful record

Hold office to have various jobs in government

Holly a plant with prickly leaves

Hooliganism activity of hooligans: rough, noisy people who cause trouble by fighting and breaking things

Hostility the feelings of an enemy

House-to-house search looking for someone or something in every house in a particular area

House (v) to contain

Hull the main body of a ship

Hymn a song sung in Church

Hunger march (n) a walk organized by people who are protesting against unemployment and hunger

I

Immigrate to come and live in a new country

Infamous well-known for negative reasons

Infant school for pupils aged 5-7

Infectious (a rhythm) which makes you want to dance

Inflation a rise in prices caused by increased wages, etc.

Influential having influence; powerful

In large numbers many people together

Inland waterway a system of rivers and lakes joined together and not connected with the sea

In session working (a session is the time taken by one meeting of Parliament)

Insurance a company which promises to pay a sum of money in case of illness or death, in return for regular payments

Insect repellent a cream or spray which kills insects

Inspired influenced

In succession one after the other

In touch in contact

Itinerary a journey, route

Ironmonger a person who sells things made of metal

J

Junior school for pupils aged 8-11

Jacobite supporter of King James II

Joint a particular cut of meat

Judicial legal

Jury twelve people who decide in court if a defendant is innocent or guilty

K

Knight a nobleman, usually military

Kilt a tartan skirt worn by men in the Scottish Highlands

Keen enthusiastic

Knockout a competition which teams leave when beaten

L

Lad a young man

Landmark usually a building that is easily seen from a distance

Lantern a light out-of-doors

Lasting which continue for a long time

Leading most important

League a group of football teams which play matches among themselves

Leek a long onion-like vegetable

Legal representation help given to a defendant, usually by a barrister in court

Legend a story or folk-tale

Life peer a lord whose title will not be inherited by his children

Lighthouse-keeper the person who looks after the building with a light which warns ships

Lined with things in lines

Linen fine woven cloth used for bed-sheets, etc.

Live in exile having to live away from one's own country, usually as a punishment

Living way of earning money

Live not recorded

Locomotive engine

Location a position in the town

Lord Mayor the leader of the group of people elected to govern London

Long (adv) for a long time

Loose not tight-fitting, large

Lough a lake

Local Education Authority (LEA) the education department of local government

Lose touch to lose contact

LSD hallucinatory drug (lysergic acid diethylamide)

M

Madness insanity

Maiden voyage the first journey of a ship

Mainland the main part of a country or continent, without islands

Maintain to keep

Maintenance keeping in good working condition

Manage without to live without, i.e. leave behind

Mandolin a musical instrument with 6 or 8 metal strings and a rounded body

Materialism the belief that you can be happy through the possession of objects

Marchers people in a procession, particularly on a protest march

Marmalade jam made of oranges

Marsh wetland

Marquee a very large tent

Means ways

Mediaeval of the period of history between 1100 and 1500, the Middle Ages

Medicine-man a doctor in primitive society

Medicinal properties capable of curing illness

Metropolis the chief city of a country

Mechanized farming farming which makes use of machines

Middle school for pupils aged 9-12

Miniature very small but exactly like the normal sized object

Mince-pie a small pie filled with dried fruit and

Miracle an act which cannot be explained by the laws of nature

Moral education learning what is good and bad behavior

Moped a motorized bicycle

Monastery a place where monks live

Monster a huge and frightening animal 'n' abbreviation of 'and'

Morris men traditional dancers

Multiracial having many races

Muslim a member of the Islamic religion

Myth an old story

N

Narrator a person telling a story

National anthem the song of a country

National Health Service the organization which gives free health care to all citizens

National insurance money taken by the government from one's pay, which acts as insurance in case of sickness, unemployment etc.

Navigating steering a boat in the right direction

Negotiation discussion

Neutral not belonging to any one party

Nobleman a man in a position of power through his birth

New release a new record
Nursery school for children under 5

O

Oatmeal ground oats used to make porridge and oatcakes
Observe to watch carefully
Oil-field an area where petroleum is found
Offshore a short way out to sea
Old-age pension money received by people over 60 when they stop work
Old-age pensioner a woman over 60 or a man over 65, receiving a state pension
Old masters great painters of the 16th to 19th centuries
Optional not obligatory
Orangemen members of a Protestant political society in Ulster
Oratory the skill of making persuasive, emotional speeches
Outbreak the start
Overcrowded with too many people
Own (v) to possess, have as property
Oyster a kind of shellfish

P

Parsonage a house where a parson (priest) lives
Patron saint a saint who is strongly associated with a particular country
Political party a group of people united in politics
Prejudice thinking badly of people without really knowing them
Protestantism a form of Christianity started by Martin Luther in the 16th century, when he 'protested' against Roman Catholicism
Public holiday a day when nobody goes to work
Pillowcase a cover for a pillow (a cushion for your head on a bed)
Pin-striped suit a suit made from material with very thin stripes
Plague a deadly disease carried by rats
Poppy a bright red flower
The press newspapers and magazines in general
Prime Minister the chief minister of a government
Paddle (v) to walk in water just a few inches deep
Pier a metal construction stretching out to sea
Pilgrimage a journey to a holy place
Power station a building where electric power is generated
Priest a minister of the Christian Church
Properties qualities, characteristics
Preserved in good condition
Prosperous rich, wealthy
Patrol (v) to go round the streets to make sure that everything is all right
Plague a deadly disease carried by rats
Pole a long rounded piece of wood or metal
Pastry a mixture of flour and water, used for pies
Peninsula an area of land almost surrounded by sea
Pirate a person who robs ships at sea
Penny whistles a simple cheap musical pipe
Piping playing the bagpipes

Proclaim to make known officially
Putting the stone a sport in which a heavy stone is thrown as far as possible
Patriotic strongly supporting one's own country
Pit (*n*) a hole in the ground where miners dig out coal
Plaid Cymru Welsh Nationalist Party
Preserved kept pure, unchanged by outside influences
Patron saint a saint regarded as special protector
Planter a Protestant settler in Ulster
Province one of the main divisions of a country, a separate area for government control
 Northern Ireland is often called 'the Province')
Put down to defeat
Packed lunch a lunch brought from home
Paper a piece of writing on an academic subject
Pick (*v*) to choose
Post a piece of wood in the ground
Preparatory school a private school for pupils aged 7-13
Producer the person who is responsible for a TV or radio programme
Public school a private school for pupils aged 13-18

Q

Quarter an area (of a town)
Quarters the place where soldiers live while in the army

R

Racism belief that your race is superior to all others
Radical wanting political change
Rage (V) to be very angry
Range a line
Rastafarian a member of a West Indian religion
Rave (*v*) to behave as if mad
Raven a black bird
Rear (*v*) to bring up an animal
Rebel (*n*) a person who rejects authority, e.g. a government
Rebellion fighting against someone in power, usually a government
Recession decline of business and trade
Recipe instructions for preparing and cooking food
Recorded town a town described in old books
Recover to find, save
Referendum a vote 'yes' or 'no' on one question only
Refine to make pure
Refinery place where oil is purified (refined)
Reggae West Indian pop music with a strong rhythm
Registration a period when pupils answer to their names to see if anyone is absent
Reign (*v*) (of a monarch) to rule
Relegate to send down
Religious order group of people living under religious rules
Remains the parts of an old building which are left after it has fallen down or disappeared

Rent (v) to hire a room for money
Reptile a cold-blooded animal
Residence a grand house where a public figure lives
Residential area the part of the town where people live
Resort a place where tourists go to, usually at the seaside secondary school for pupils aged 11-16/18
Restore to repair
Restored repaired and modernized
Retire to give up work, usually around the age of 60
Retired too old to work
Reputation what people say
Retreat (v) to go back
Reunion a meeting, usually after a long period of separation
Rise (v) to stand up, leave one's home
Rite/ritual religious act(s), usually performed in a special order
Rioting a crowd of people causing public disorder
Roots feeling of sharing a common past, culture etc
Royalist a supporter of the monarchy
Rucksack a bag carried on the back
Ruined (*adf*) destroyed by failure, caused for example by drinking too much
Run away from the law to run away from the police
Rural of the country
Rural of or in the country
Rush-hour times when crowds of people travel to and from work
Run (v) to organize, administer

S

Sale when things are reduced in price in the shops
Sandcastle a small castle made at the beach out of sand, usually by children
Sanctuary an area where birds, animal's or plants are protected from man and other enemies
Savory not sweet, salty
Scattered in different places
Script the text for a radio or TV play
Seat the place, or base, from which the Archbishop works
Season the time when the oysters are ready to eat
Self-indulgent giving way to one's own desires very easily
Sentence to death to punish by death
Settler a person who goes to live in a new country
Selective school a school which pupils must pass certain exams to enter
Seminar a discussion
Set (*n*) a group of pupils who form a class in a particular subject
Set text a literary work which must be studied for an exam
Setting surroundings, place where something happens
Share (*n*) part ownership in a company
Ship (v) to send by ship
Shipwreck a ship which has been destroyed at sea, often on rocks
Shrine a tomb containing holy remains e.g. bones or clothing

Siege (n) an attack by an army which surrounds a town and waits for the inhabitants to surrender

Sikh a member of an Indian religion

Single a record with one song on each side

Skills knowledge and experience; abilities

Slang very informal language (unsuitable for many situations)

Slums area of poor, dirty houses or flats

Social welfare social services financed by the government; health care, pensions, insurance, dole, etc.

Social education lessons to prepare for adult life, not for exams, e.g. how to manage money, politics

Solicitor a lawyer who gives advice and prepares legal documents

So long as if, on condition that

Solar of the sun

Souvenir a thing bought or kept as a reminder of a place

Sow the seeds to begin something big in a small way

Social worker a person employed to give help or advice

Space invaders a computerized game

Spot the exact place

Stab (v) to push a knife into

Staff (v) to supply an institution (e.g. a school or a department) with workers

Staff a group of assistants who work under a manager

Stake a piece of wood to which people were tied to be killed, especially by burning

Stained glass coloured glass

Stalactite a long structure formed by dripping water which hangs from the roof of a cave

Stalagmite like a stalactite, but it stands on the floor of a cave

Stand for Parliament to offer oneself for election

Starve to die because of lack of food

Stepping stones raised stones in a river

Stone by stone (to move) every stone of a building so that it can be exactly rebuilt in another place

Store a shop

Strike (n) a time when workers refuse to work, in order to get better pay and conditions

Striking images ideas or pictures in poetry that is unusual and wild

Strike a time when workers refuse to work, in protest over something

Stilts long wooden poles with support for the feet, designed so that you can walk without your feet touching the ground

Study periods free lessons when pupils can study privately

Suburb an area on the edge of a city

Suet animal fat used in cooking

Sugar-beet a plant from which sugar is made

Surf to ride on top of the waves, balanced on a long board

Summit the top of a mountain

Superstars extremely famous people in entertainment

Superstition belief in magic, witchcraft, etc.
Suppressed stopped by the law
Suspend to stop for a time
Sweater a woolen piece of clothing with long sleeves
Sweeten to taste add as much sugar as you want
Swinging full of life, sexually free

T

Tackle to attack an opponent, in order to take the ball in rugby
Talented with a natural ability to do something well
Target something to be hit
Tattoo to mark skin with words or pictures
Tax money paid by citizens to the government for public purposes
Teaspoon a spoon used to stir tea
Tent a construction made of canvas, used for sleeping in when camping
Terrestrial of the earth or land
Terrorism using violence to try to achieve political demands
(A terrorist is someone who engages in terrorism)
Textile concerned with cloth
Thunder (v) to make a noise like thunder in a storm
Three part harmony singing three voices singing together
Tight-fitting fitting close to the body
Time machine a machine which takes you into the past or future
Tolerant accepting (different ideas or people)
Tomb the place where a dead person is buried, usually large and decorated
Top thirty the 30 most popular songs based on the sales of records in the shops
Toss the caber to throw a log of wood as far as possible
Trade union an organization of a group of workers
Traffic jams a long queue of cars, Lorries, buses, bicycles, etc
Track a steel line on which trains run
Trail a path, a route that can be followed
examination in a law court
Transatlantic steamer a large ship worked by steam which crosses the Atlantic Ocean
Treachery disloyalty, falseness, unfaithfulness
Treaty an agreement
Try (n) (rugby) touching down the ball behind the opponents' goal-line
Try your hand to try something for the first time
TV personality's people who are famous because they appear on TV
Turbine an engine whose driving-wheel is turned by water
Turkey a big bird
Tuck-shop a place in a school where pupils buy snacks, sweets
Tuition fee teaching costs
Turnip a root vegetable
Tutor a teacher in a college or university who leads a discussion group

U

Urban of the town or city
Utensil a tool for use in the kitchen

V

Vain having a high opinion of one's looks

Vice versa the other way round

Vine a plant which produces grapes

Voluntary not paid to do a job

W

Wash down to swallow liquid with something

Washed up carried on to the beach by the waves of the sea

Wander to go from one place to another without a real purpose

Warehouse a large building for storing things

Waterfall a river which falls over rocks or cliffs

Water tower a reservoir or tank for the distribution of water in an area

Wave (*n*) a period

Wealthy very rich

Weaver a person who makes cloth

Webbed feet feet with the toes joined, e.g. ducks have webbed feet

We'll take a cup of kindness yet we'll drink to our friendship

Wharf a place for tying up boats and ships

Whale a large sea animal

Whodunit a detective story (who's done it?)

Wide range a large selection

Wicked bad

Wildfowl wild ducks or geese

Windbreak something made of cloth which is used to give protection from the wind

Windswept without shelter from cold winds community

Windsurf to surf on a board with a sail

Witch a woman who uses magic

Working class people who work, for example, in factories (contrast upper-class and middle class)

Working class belonging to the class of people who work in manual labor e.g. in factories

World record the best yet done in the world

Woodwork the art of making things out of wood

Wreath flowers woven in a circle

Writing pad paper for writing letters

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Ўзбекистон Республикаси олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлиги

Ўзбекистон давлат жахон тиллари университети

“Тасдиқланди”
Ўқув ишлари бўйича
проректор _____
Т. Мадрахимов
2018 йил “ ” август

МАМЛАКАТШУНОСЛИК

ФАНИНИНГ ИШЧИ ЎҚУВ ДАСТУРИ

Билим соҳаси	100 000 - Гуманитар соҳа
Таълим соҳаси:	110 000 – Педагогика 120 000 – Гуманитар фанлар
Таълим йўналиши:	5111400 - Хорижий тил ва адабиёти (инглиз тили ва адабиё)
Ўқитиш	5120100 - Филология ва тилларни (инглиз тили)

Умумий ўқув соати –76 соат

Шу жумладан:

Маъруза – 38соат (3 семестр –38 соат)

Амалий машғулотлар – 38соат (3 семестр –38 соат)

Мустақил таълим соати – 52соат (3 семестр –52 соат)

Тошкент – 2018 й.

Фаннинг ишчи ўқув дастури Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлиги 201__ йил “__” ____даги ____ -сонли буйруғи билан (буйруқнинг ____ -иловаси) тасдиқланган “Мамлакатшунослик” фани дастури асосида тайёрланган.

Фан дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жахон тиллари университети Кенгашининг 201__ йил “__” ____даги “__” -сонли баёни билан тасдиқланган.

Тузувчилар:

Х. Маматқулов - “Инглиз тили интеграллашган курси №1” кафедраси мудири

Х. Бакирова - “Инглиз тили интеграллашган курси №1” кафедраси катта ўқитувчиси

Такризчилар:

О.М. Мўминов –ЎзДЖТУ, “Таржимашунослик назарияси” кафедраси доценти, филология фанлари номзоди, доцент.
И.Ибрагимходжаев –ТДИУ, “Хорижий тиллар” кафедраси доценти, филология фанлари номзоди, доцент.

ЎзДЖТУ Инглиз тили 1- факультети декани:

2018 йил «____» август _____ А. Юлдашев

«Инглиз тили интеграллашган курси №1» кафедраси мудири:

2018 йил «____» август _____ Х. Маматқулов

1.Ўқув фани ўқитилиши бўйича услубий кўрсатмалар.

“Мамлакатшунослик” фани талабаларни назарий билимлар, амалий кўникмалар, ҳодиса ва жараёнларга услубий ёндашув ҳамда илмий дунёқарашилини шакллантириш вазифаларини бажаради.

Фан бўйича талабаларнинг билим, кўникма ва малакаларига қўйидаги талаблар қўйилади. **Талаба:**

- тил соҳибининг кенг тарқалган кундалик ва касбий вазиятларда сўзлаган нутқини тушуна олишни;

- радио, телевидение, аудио-видеокассеталар орқали тинглаш учун берилган касбга оид аутентик илмий матнларни тушуна олиш ва улардан ўзи учун зарур бўлган ахборотни **билиши** керак.

Булар билан бир қаторда бакалавр:

- матнларни лингвистик хусусиятлари **ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлиши**;

- инглиз тилида сўзлашадиган давлатлар маданияти хусусиятларини қиёслаш, солиштириш ва таҳлил қилиш;

- хорижий мутахассислар билан касбий ва маиший вазиятларда жонли мулоқот олиб бориш;

- соҳа бўйича, суҳбат, нутқ ва маърузаларни тинглаб зарур бўлган ахборотни ёзиб олиш;

- тили ўрганилаётган мамлакат ҳақида маълумотлар тўплаб аннотация, реферат, маъруза, тақдимот тайёрлаш ва тақдим эта олиш**кўникмаларига эга бўлиши керак**;

- янги информацион технологиялардан касбга йўналтирилган мақсадларда фойдалана олиш **малакаларига эга бўлиши керак**.

2. Маъруза машғулоти

1- жадвал

№	Маърузалар мавзулари	Дарс соатлари хажми
1	The geographical position of the UK. The population of the UK. Parts of the UK. Rivers and mountains. Climate of the UK. Main cities, parts, Highland and Lowland.	2
2	National symbols: flags, floral and animal emblems of the UK. Sightseeing places of the UK.	2
3	History: Celts, Romans, Anglo – Saxons, Normans of the UK.	2
4	State structure: parliament, political parties of the UK.	2

5	The educational system of the UK.	2
6	Culture, traditions, customs, holidays in the UK.	2
7	Sports and recreation in the UK	2
8	Economy and Mass media in the UK	2
9	The geographical position of the USA. (Rivers and mountains. Climate. Main cities, parts) The population of the USA.	2
10	History of the USA	2
11	State structure, parliament, flag and emblems of the USA.	2
12	The educational system of the USA.	2
13	Culture, traditions, customs and holidays in the USA	2
14	Sports and recreation in the USA.	2
15	Economy, science and technology, transportation of the USA	2
16	Mass media, TV and radio in the USA	2
17	English speaking countries of the world: Canada – geographic position, history, government system, national emblems, people, holidays and customs.	2
18	Australia– geographic position, history, government system, national emblems, people, holidays and customs.	2
19	New Zealand– geographic position, history, government system, national emblems, people, holidays and customs.	2

Жами 38 соат

Маъруза машғулоти мультимедиа воситалари билан жиҳозланган аудиторияда академик гуруҳлар оқими учун ўтилади.

3. Амалий машғулотлар

2- жадвал

№	Амалий машғулотлар мавзулари	Дарс соатлари ҳажми
1	The geographical position of the UK. The population of the UK.	2
2	Parts of the UK. Rivers and mountains. Climate of the UK. Main cities, parts, Highland and Lowland.	2
3	History of the UK. Celts, Romans, Anglo – Saxon, Normans.	2
4	State structure, parliament, flags and emblems. Sightseeing places of the UK.	2
5	The educational system of the UK.	2
6	Culture, traditions, customs, holidays in the UK.	2
7	Sports and recreation in the UK	2

8	Economy and Mass media in the UK	2
9	The geographical position of the USA. (Rivers and mountains. Climate. Main cities, parts) The population of the USA.	2
10	History of the USA	2
11	State structure, parliament, flag and emblems of the USA.	2
12	The educational system of the USA.	2
13	Culture, traditions, customs and holidays in the USA	2
14	Sports and recreation in the USA.	2
15	Economy, science and technology, transportation of the USA	2
15	Mass media, TV and radio in the USA	2
17	English speaking countries of the world: Canada – geographic position, history, government system, national emblems, people, holidays and customs.	2
18	Australia– geographic position, history, government system, national emblems, people, holidays and customs.	2
19	New Zealand– geographic position, history, government system, national emblems, people, holidays and customs.	2

Жами 38 соат

Амалий машғулотлар мультимедиа воситалари билан жиҳозланган аудиторияда ўтказилиши лозим. Машғулотлар фаол ва интерфаол усуллар ёрдамида ўтилиши, мос равишда муносиб педагогик ва ахборот технологиялар қўлланилиши мақсадга мувофиқ.

Амалий машғулотларида "Ақлий хужум", гуруҳли фикрлаш, "Тарози", "Бумеранг", "Биргаликда ўқиймиз", "Аппа", ФСМУ педагогик технологияларидан, кичик гуруҳлар мусобақалари, гуруҳли фикрлаш педагогик технологияларини қўллаш назарда тутилади.

4. Мустақил таълим

3-жадвал

№	Мустақил таълим мавзулари	Дарс соатлари ҳажми
1.	The formation of the UK	4
2.	The climate and wildlife of the UK	2
3.	The history of the UK and NI	4
4.	The royal family and the electoral system of the UK and NI	2
5.	The educational system of the UK and NI (famous schools, colleges and universities)	4
6.	Customs and traditions, superstitions of the UK and NI	2
7.	The history of football	2
8.	The economy of the UK and NI	2
9.	The Press in the UK and NI	2

10.	The formation of the USA	4
11.	The climate and wildlife of the USA	2
12.	The first settlers of the USA	2
13.	Branches of the Government	2
14.	The educational system if the USA	2
15.	Customs and traditions, superstitions of the USA	2
16.	The economy of the USA	2
17.	The history of basketball	2
18.	The Press in the UK and NI	2
19.	Customs and traditions of English speaking countries-Canada, Australia, New Zealand.	6
Жами		52

Мустақил ўзлаштириладиган мавзулар бўйича талабалар томонидан тақдимот тайёрлаш тавсия этилади.

5. Фан бўйича талабалар билимини баҳолаш ва назорат қилиш мезонлари

Баҳолаш усуллари	Экспресс тестлар, ёзма ишлар, оғзаки сўров, презентациялар.
Баҳолаш мезонлари	86-100 балл «аъло» 86-100 балл учун талабанинг билим даражаси қуйидагиларга жавоб бериши лозим: - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фанининг назарий масалаларига оид хулоса ва қарор қабул қилиш; - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик методларини қўллаш борасида ижодий фикрлай олиш; - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фанидан олган билимларини амалда қўллай олиш; - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фани методлари моҳиятини тушуниш; - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фани тарихида асосий мактаблар, уларнинг йирик вакилларини билиш, айтиб бериш; - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фанининг долзарб муаммолари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлиш. 71-85 балл «яхши» 71-85 балл учун талабанинг билим даражаси қуйидагиларга жавоб бериши лозим: - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фанидан олган билимларини амалда қўллай олиш; - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фани методлари моҳиятини тушуниш; - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фани тарихида асосий мактаблар, уларнинг йирик вакилларини билиш, айтиб бериш; - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фанининг долзарб муаммолари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлиш. 55-70 балл «қониқарли» 55-70 балл учун талабанинг билим даражаси қуйидагиларга жавоб бериши лозим: - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фани методлари моҳиятини тушуниш; - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фани тарихида асосий мактаблар, уларнинг йирик вакилларини билиш, айтиб бериш; - ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фанининг долзарб муаммолари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлиш.

	0-54 балл «қониқарсиз» Куйидаги холларда талабанинг билим даражаси 0-54 балл билан баҳоланиши мумкин: -ўрганилаётган мамлакат (минтақа) тарихи ва мамлакатшунослик фанидаги муҳим масалалар ҳақида аниқ тасаввурга эга бўлмаслик; -мазкур фандаги долзарб муаммоларни билмаслик		
	Рейтинг баҳолаш турлари	Макс.балл	Ўтказиш вақти
	Жорий назорат:	40	Семестр давомида
	№ Назорат шакли Назорат сони Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл	
	1. Оғзаки 15	2	30
	2. Такдимот 4	2,5	10
	Жами 19	40	
	Оралиқ назорат	30	
	№ Назорат шакли Назорат сони Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл	
	1. Тест -ОН 1	30	30
	Жами 1	30	30
	Якуний назорат	30	
	Тест	30	
	№ Назорат шакли Назорат сони Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл	
	1. Тест 1	30	30
	Жами 1	30	30
	ЖАМИ	100	

6. Асосий ва қўшимча ўқув адабиётлар ҳамда ахборот манбалари

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Қўшимча адабиётлар

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“Инглиз тили интеграллашган курси №1” кафедраси ўқитувчиси _____

“Чет тилларини ўқитишнинг интеграллашган курси” (Мамлакатшунослик) фанидан 2017-2018 ўқув йили учун тузилган ишчи фан дастури бажарилишининг

КАЛЕНДАРЬ РЕЖАСИ

Факультет: Инглиз тили 1-факультети
Йўналиш, гуруҳ: Хорижий тил ва адабиёти
Курси: 2-курс
Фаннинг номи: “Мамлакатшунослик”
Машғулот тури: Амалий
Амалиёт ўқитувчиси:
4- семестр

№	Мавзулар	Режалаштирилган вақти	Машғулот тури	Ажратилган соат	Бажарилган лиги ҳақида маълумот		Ўқитувчи имзоси
					Ой ва кун	Соат	
1.	The geographical position of the UK. The population of the UK. Parts of the UK. Rivers and mountains. Climate of the UK. Main cities, parts, Highland and Lowland.	05.02.2018 10.02.2018	амалий	2			
2.	National symbols: flags, floral and animal emblems of the UK. Sightseeing places of the UK.	12.02.2018 17.02.2018	амалий	2			
3.	History of the UK. Celts, Romans, Anglo – Saxons, Normans.	19.02.2018 24.02.2018	амалий	2			
4.	State structure, parliament,	26.02.2018 03.03.2018	амалий	2			
5.	The educational system of the UK.	05.03.2018 10.03.2018	амалий	2			
6.	Culture, traditions, customs, holidays in the UK.	12.03.2018 17.03.2018	амалий	2			
7.	Sports and recreation in the UK	19.03.2018 24.03.2018	амалий	2			
8.	Economy and Mass media in the UK	26.03.2018 31.03.2018	амалий	2			
9.	The geographical position of the USA. (Rivers and mountains. Climate. Main cities, parts) The population of the USA.	02.04.2018 07.04.2018	амалий	2			
10.	History of the USA	09.04.2018 14.04.2018	амалий	2			
11.	State structure, parliament, flag and emblems of the USA.	16.04.2018 21.04.2018	амалий	2			
12.	The educational system of the USA.	23.04.2018 28.04.2018	амалий	2			
13.	Culture, traditions, customs and holidays in the USA	30.04.2018 05.05.2018	амалий	2			
14.	Sports and recreation in the USA.	07.05.2018 12.05.2018	амалий	2			
15.	Economy, science and technology, transportation of the USA	14.05.2018 19.05.2018	амалий	2			
16.	Mass media, TV and radio in the USA	21.05.2018 26.05.2018	амалий	2			

17.	English speaking countries of the world: Canada – geographic position, history, government system, national emblems, people, holidays and customs.	28.05.2018 02.06.2018	амалий	2			
18.	Australia– geographic position, history, government system, national emblems, people, holidays and customs.	04.06.2018 09.06.2018	амалий	2			
19.	New Zealand– geographic position, history, government system, national emblems, people, holidays and customs.	11.06.2018 16.06.2018	амалий	2			
ЖАМИ:				38			

Изоҳ: ушбу календар режа “Инглиз тили интеграллашган курси №1” кафедрасининг 2017 йил 29 августдаги йиғилишида маъқулланган. Баённома №1