Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine
Sumy State University

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Regional Linguistics and Geography of English Speaking Countries

LECTURE NOTES

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LECTURE NOTES
for students of specialty 6.020303 “Philology”
of full-time course of study

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Department of Germanic Philology

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INTRODUCTION

Lecture notes are designed for lecture classes in "Culturally Oriented Linguistics of English Speaking Countries" for the students of the first year within specialty 6.020303 "Philology" of the full-time course of study. The lecture notes contain thematic materials revealing basic information on geography, political and educational structures of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and The United States of America.

The designed lecture notes are:

- to give basic information about two countries, homelands of two variants of the English language (British English and American English);
- to deepen the knowledge of students within geography, history, political and educational systems of the two countries;
- to develop the skill of language analysis due to the background knowledge on the geography, history, political and educational systems of the two countries;
- to find historical and political threads within cultures of the two countries as the basic aspect for further successful translation/interpretation from and into English;
- to develop the skills of foreign language comprehension and audio perceiving.

The present issue of the lecture notes may be used as an additional source of studying material not only for "Practical Course of English" but also for "Practice of Translation", "Stylistics", "Lexicology" and "History of the English Language.

Lecture 1
HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

Prehistoric period

Britain has not always been an island. It became one only after the end of the last ice age. The temperature rose and the ice cap melted, flooding the lower-lying land that is now under the North Sea and the English Channel.

The Ice Age was not just one long equally cold period. There were warmer times when the ice cap retreated and colder periods when the ice cap reached as far south as the River Thames. Our first evidence of human life is a few stone tools, dating from one of the warmer periods, about 250,000 BC.

The ice advanced again and Britain became hardly habitable until another milder period, probably around 50,000 BC. During this time a new type of human being seems to have arrived, who was the ancestor of the modern British. These people looked similar to the modern British but were probably smaller and had a life span of only about thirty years.

Around 10,000 BC, as the Ice Age drew to a close, Britain was peopled by small groups of hunters, gatherers and fishers. Few had settled homes, and they seemed to have followed herds of deer which provided them with food and clothing. By about 5000 BC Britain had finally become an island and had also become heavily forested. For the wanderer-hunter culture this was a disaster, for the cold-loving deer and other animals on which they lived largely died out.

About 3000 BC Neolithic (or New Stone Age) people crossed the narrow sea from Europe. They probably came from either the Iberian (Spanish) peninsula or even the North African coast. They were small, dark, and long-headed people, and may be the forefathers of dark-haired inhabitants of Wales and Cornwall today.

These were the first of several waves of invaders before the first arrival of the Romans in 55 BC. After 3000 BC the chalk land people started building great circles of earth banks and ditches.

Inside, they built wooden buildings and stone circles. These "henges", as they are called, were centers of religious, political and economic power.

Stonehenge was produced by a culture that left no written records. Many aspects of Stonehenge remain the subject to debate. A number of myths surround the stones. Stonehenge was built in separate stages over a period of more than a thousand years. It was almost certainly a sort of capital, to which the chiefs of other groups came from all over Britain.

Around 700 BC, another group of people began to arrive. Many of them were tall and had fair or red hair and blue eyes. These were the Celts, who probably came from central Europe or further east, from southern Russia, and had moved slowly westwards in earlier centuries. The Celts were technically advanced. They knew how to work with iron and could make better weapons than the people who used bronze. It is possible that they drove many of the older inhabitants westwards into Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Celts began to control all the lowland areas of Britain, and were joined by new arrivals from the European mainland. They continued

to arrive in one wave after another over the next seven hundred years.

The Celts are important in British history because they are the ancestors of many of the people in Highland Scotland, Wales, Ireland, and Cornwall today. The Iberian people of Wales and Cornwall took on the new Celtic culture. Celtic languages, which have been continuously used in some areas since that time, are still spoken. The British today are often described as Anglo-Saxon. It would be better to call them Anglo-Celt.

The Celtic tribes were ruled over by a warrior class, of which the priests, or Druids, seem to have been particularly important members. These Druids could not read or write, but they memorized all the religious teachings, the tribal laws, history, medicine and other knowledge necessary in Celtic society. We know little of their kind of worship except that at times it included human sacrifice.

During the Celtic period women may have had more independence than they had again for hundreds of years. When the Romans invaded Britain two of the largest tribes were ruled by women who fought from their chariots. The most powerful Celt to stand up to the Romans was a woman, Boadicea.

Romans

The name "Britain" comes from the word "Pretani", the Greco-Roman word for the inhabitants of Britain. The Romans mispronounced the word and called the island "Britannia". The Roman province of Britannia covered most of the present-day England and Wales.

In 55 BC, the Roman general Julius Caesar lands in Britain with an expeditionary force, wins a battle, and leaves. The first “date” in popular British history. And only in 43 AD the Romans come to stay.

The Romans established a Romano-British culture across the southern half of Britain but could not conquer "Caledonia", as they called Scotland, although they spent over a century trying to do so. At last they built a strong wall along the northern border, named after

the Emperor Hadrian who planned it. At the time, Hadrian's Wall was simply intended to keep out raiders from the north. But it also marked the border between the two later countries, England and Scotland.

Hadrian's Wall, also called the Roman Wall, Picts' Wall, or Vallum Hadriani in Latin, was a defensive fortification in the Roman province of Britannia, begun in 122 AD during the reign of the emperor Hadrian. It ran from the banks of the River Tyne near the North Sea to the Solway Firth on the Irish Sea. It had a stone base and a stone wall. There were mile castles. There was a fort about every five Roman miles. From north to south, the wall comprised a ditch, wall, military way and vallum (another ditch with adjoining mounds). It is thought that the mile castles were staffed with static garrisons, whereas the forts had fighting garrisons of infantry and cavalry. In addition to the wall's defensive military role, its gates may have been used as customs posts.

The Romans brought the skills of reading and writing to Britain. The written word was important for spreading ideas and also

for establishing power. While the Celtic peasantry remained illiterate and only Celtic-speaking, a number of town dwellers spoke Latin and Greek with ease, and the richer landowners in the country almost certainly used Latin. But Latin completely disappeared both in its spoken and written forms when the Anglo-Saxons invaded Britain in the 5th century AD. Britain was probably more literate under the Romans than it was to be again until the fifteenth century.

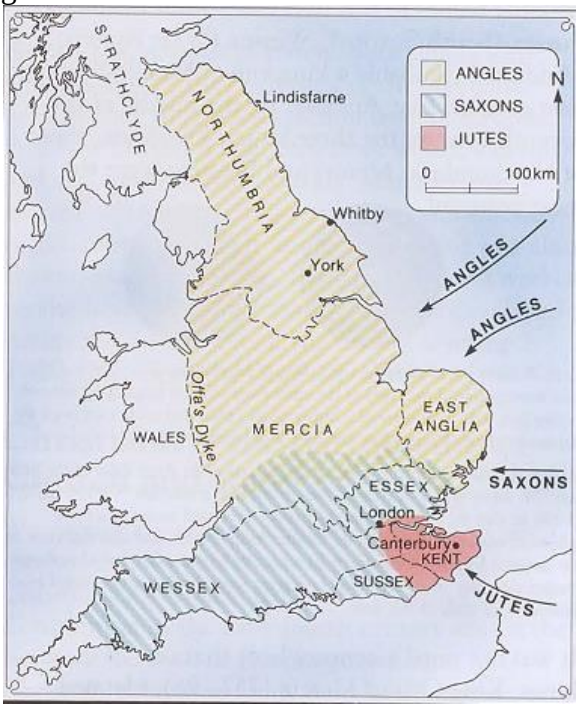
Thus, the remarkable thing about the Romans is that, despite their long occupation of Britain, they left very little behind. Most of their villas, baths, temples, their impressive network of roads and cities, including Londinium (London), were soon destroyed or fell into disrepair. Almost the only lasting reminder of their presence are place-names like Chester, Lancaster, which include variants of the Roman word “castra” (a military camp).

Roman control of Britain came to an end as the empire began to collapse. The first signs were the attacks by Celts of Caledonia in AD 367. The Roman legions found it more and more difficult to stop the raiders from crossing Hadrian's Wall. The same was happening on the European mainland as Germanic groups, Saxons and Franks, began to raid the coast of Gaul. In AD 409 Rome pulled its last soldiers out of Britain and the Romano-British, the Romanised Celts, were left to fight alone against the Scots, the Irish and Saxon raiders from Germany. The following year Rome itself fell to raiders. When Britain called to Rome for help against the raiders from Saxon Germany in the mid-fifth century, no answer came.

Germanic Invasions

The invaders came from three powerful Germanic tribes, the Saxons, Angles and Jutes. The Jutes settled mainly in Kent and along the south coast and were soon considered no different from the Angles and Saxons. The Angles settled in the east, and also in the north Midlands, while the Saxons settled between the Jutes and the Angles in a band of land from the Thames Estuary westwards. The Anglo-Saxon migrations gave the larger part of Britain its new name, England, "the land of the Angles".

The British Celts fought the raiders and settlers from Germany as well as they could (legendary King Arthur belongs to this period). Finally most were driven into the mountains in the far west, which the Saxons called "Weallas", or "Wales", meaning "the land of the foreigners".



The strength of Anglo-Saxon culture is obvious even today. Days of the week were named after Germanic gods: Tig (Tuesday), Wodin (Wednesday), Thor (Thursday), Frei (Friday). New place-names appeared on the map. The ending *-ing* meant folk or family, thus "Reading" is the place of the family of Rada, "Hastings" of the family of Hasta.

In 597 Pope Gregory the Great sent a monk, Augustine, to re-establish Christianity in England. He went to Canterbury, the capital of the king of Kent. He did so because the king's wife came from Europe and was already Christian. Augustine became the first

Archbishop of Canterbury in 601. He was very successful. Several ruling families in England accepted Christianity.

England had become Christian very quickly. By 660, only Sussex and the Isle of Wight had not accepted the new faith. Twenty years later, English teachers returned to the lands from which the Anglo-Saxons had come, bringing Christianity to much of Germany.

Vikings

Towards the end of the eighth century new raiders were tempted by Britain's wealth. These were the Vikings, a word which probably means either "pirates" or "the people of the sea inlets", and they came from Norway and Denmark. Like the Anglo-Saxons they only raided at first. They burnt churches and monasteries along the east, north and west coasts of Britain and Ireland. London was itself raided in 842.

In 865 the Vikings invaded Britain once it was clear that the quarrelling Anglo-Saxon kingdoms could not keep them out. This time they came to conquer and to settle. The Vikings quickly accepted Christianity and did not disturb the local population.

Society was based on family groupings, each of which owned one or more village or farm settlement. One by one in each group a strong leader made himself a king. These men must have been tribal chiefs to begin with, who later managed to become overlords over neighboring family groups. Each of these kings tried to conquer the others, and the idea of a high, or senior, king developed.

As for Ireland, so it was never invaded by either the Romans or the Anglo-Saxons. It was a land of monasteries and had a flourishing Celtic culture. Christianity brought writing, which weakened the position of the Druids, who depended on memory and the spoken word. Christian monasteries grew up frequently along the coast. This period is often called Ireland's “golden age”. This “golden age” suddenly ended with the arrival of Viking raiders, who stole all that the monasteries had. Very little was left except the stone memorials that the Vikings could not carry away.

At the very same time the Vikings, who traded with Constantinople (now Istanbul), Italy, and with central Russia, brought fresh economic and political action into Irish life. Viking raids forced the Irish to unite. Viking trade led to the first towns and ports. For the Celts, who had always lived in small settlements, these were revolutionary. Dublin, Ireland's future capital, was founded by the Vikings.

Early Middle Ages

The successful Norman invasion of England in 1066 brought Britain into a mainstream of Western European culture. William the Conqueror organized his English kingdom according to the feudal system which had already begun to develop in England before his arrival. The word "feudalism" comes from French. The king gave large estates to his main nobles in return for a promise to serve him

in war for up to forty days. The nobles also had to give him part of the produce of the land.

English kings were ruling half of France as well they could no longer travel everywhere themselves. Instead, they sent nobles and knights from the royal household to act as sheriffs. But even this system needed people who could administer taxation and justice. At first, this "administration" was based in Winchester, but by the time of Edward I, in 1290, it had moved to Westminster. It is still there today. The king kept all his records in Westminster. In 1050 only the king (Edward the Confessor) had a seal to "sign" official papers. From 1199 the administration in Westminster kept copies of all the letters and documents that were sent out.

In 1066, there were fifty religious houses in England, home for perhaps 1,000 monks and nuns. By the beginning of the fourteenth century, there were probably about 900 religious houses, with 17,500 members. Even though the population in the fourteenth century was three times larger than it had been in 1066, the growth of the monasteries is impressive.

The growth of literacy in England was closely connected with the twelfth-century Renaissance, a cultural movement which had first started in Italy. This revolution in ideas and learning brought a new desire to test religious faith against reason. Schools of learning were established in many towns and cities. All of these schools taught Latin, because most books were written in this language. Church took a lead in the new intellectual movement. In England two schools of higher learning were established: the first at Oxford and the second at Cambridge. Still few could go to the universities. Most English people spoke neither Latin, the language of the Church and of education, nor French, the language of law and of the Norman rulers. It was a long time before English became the language of the ruling class.

In modern English there are still visible traces of coexistence of the Norman (French) and Germanic (Middle English) languages. There are the words for the living animals (*cow, pig, sheep*) which have their origins in Anglo-Saxon, and the words of the meat from

the animals (*beef, pork, mutton*) which have their origins in the French language, that the Normans brought to England.

It was this period that Parliament began its gradual evolution into democratic body which it is today. The word "Parliament", which comes from the French word *parler* (to speak), was first used in England in the 13th century to describe an assembly of nobles called together by the king. In 1295 the Model Parliament set the pattern for the future by including elected representatives from urban and rural areas.

Late Middle Ages

The fourteenth century was disastrous for Britain as well as most of Europe because of the effect of wars and plagues.

Britain and France suffered too from the damages of war. In the 1330s England began a long struggle against the French Crown. In France villages were raided or destroyed by passing armies. France and England were exhausted economically by the cost of maintaining armies. England had the additional burden of fighting the Scots and maintaining control of Ireland and Wales, both of which were trying to throw off English rule. The strength of the great barons had been greatly weakened by the Wars of the Roses and Burbonic plague (the Black Death).

During the 15th century the throne of England was claimed by representatives of two rival groups. The Lancastrians, whose symbol was a red rose, supported the descendants of the Duke of Lancaster and the Yorkists, whose symbol was a white rose, supported the descendants of the Duke of York. The struggle led to the "Wars of the Roses" between 1455 and 1485.

As for the Black Death, so 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.

After the Black Death the remaining workers found that they could demand more money and did so. To avoid losses, landlords returned to the twelfth-century practice of letting out their land to

energetic tenant farmers who bit by bit added to their own land. By the mid-fifteenth century, few landlords had home farms at all. These smaller farmers who rented the manorial lands slowly became a new class known as the "yeomen". Still the landlords had been trying for some time to force the peasants back into serfdom, because serf labour was cheaper than paid labour.

The language itself was changing. Edward III had actually forbidden to speak French in his army. It was a way of making the whole army aware of its Englishness. By the end of the fourteenth century, English was a written language. But "Middle English" was very different from Anglo-Saxon partly because it had borrowed so much from Norman French.

By the end of the Middle Ages, English as well as Latin was being used in legal writing and also in elementary schools. Education developed enormously during the fifteenth century, and many schools were founded by powerful men.

Tudors

The century of Tudor rule (1485–1603) is often thought of as the most glorious period in English history. Henry VII laid the foundations of a wealthy nation state and a powerful monarchy. His son, Henry VIII, kept a magnificent court and made the Church in England truly English by breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church.

Discontent with the Church also grew because of the greed and cruelty of the Church to peasants and townspeople. There was another reason why the people of England disliked paying taxes to the pope – their “Englishness”, and the pope was a foreigner. To make matters worse, the pope was living in Avignon in France that meant the pope was on the French side, and the taxes they paid to the Church were actually helping France against England.

There were two main reasons for Henry VIII (he is one of the most well-known monarchs in English history, chiefly because he took 6 wives during his life) to dislike the power of the Catholic Church in England. This power worked against his own authority,

and the taxes paid to the Church reduced his own income. Another reason was personal: he wanted to divorce his wife Catherine who could not give him a son, but the pope forbade Henry's divorce. As a result, Henry persuaded the bishops to make him head of the English Church, and then Parliament passed the *Act of Supremacy in 1534*. Then Henry VIII divorced Catherine and married his new love, Anne Boleyn. He forced Parliament to make this break legal, and England became politically a Protestant country.

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 16th century. It took a form known as Anglicanism, which was not so different from Catholicism in its organization and rituals. But in the lowlands of Scotland it took more idealistic form – Calvinism – with its strict insistence on simplicity and dislike of rituals and celebrations.

Tudor monarchs didn't get rid of Parliament because they needed money and they needed the support of the merchants and the landowners. Power moved from the House of Lords to the House of Commons: the MPs in the Commons represented richer and more influential classes than Lords. During the 16th century the size of the Commons nearly doubled. Serving this class Henry VIII between 1536 and 1539 closed 560 monasteries and other religious houses. He did this in order to make money, but he also wanted to be popular with the rising classes of landowners and merchants. He, therefore, gave or sold much of the monasteries' lands to them. Many smaller landowners made their fortunes.

Henry died in 1547, leaving behind his sixth wife, Carherine Parr, and his three children. Mary, the eldest, was the daughter of Carherine of Aragon. Elizabeth was the daughter of his second wife, Anne Boleyn, whom he had executed because she was unfaithful. Nine-year-old Edward was the son of Jane Seymour, the only wife whom Henry had really loved, but who had died giving birth to his only son.

Elizabeth I, daughter of Henry VIII, was the first of three long-reigning queens in British history (the other two are Queen

Victoria and Elizabeth II). During her reign she established stability in a firmly Protestant England. She never married but used this possibility as a diplomatic tool. She became known as “the virgin queen”. The area which later became the state of Virginia in the USA was named after her by one of many English explorers of the time.

Elizabeth triumphant. The famous "Armada portrait" shows the Spanish Armada in full sail (left) and wrecked upon Ireland's shores (right). Under Elizabeth's right hand lies the world, a reference to Francis Drake's successful voyage around the world, the expeditions of other explorers, and England's growing sea power. Elizabeth enjoyed glory, and her great vanity shows in this portrait.

People started to consider the London pronunciation as “correct” pronunciation. Until Tudor times the local forms of speech had been spoken by lord and peasant alike. From Tudor times onwards the way people spoke began to show the difference between

them. Educated people began to speak “correct” English, and uneducated people continued to speak the local dialect.

Literacy increased greatly during the mid-sixteenth century, even though the religious houses, which had always provided traditional education, had closed. In fact, by the seventeenth century about half the population could read and write. Literature, however, was England's greatest art form. Playwrights like Christopher Marlowe, Ben Jonson, and William Shakespeare filled the theatres with their exciting new plays.

Stuarts

The Stuart monarchs, from James I onwards, were less successful than the Tudors. They quarreled with Parliament and this resulted in civil war. The only king of England ever to be tried and executed was a Stuart. The republic that followed was even more unsuccessful, and by popular demand the dead king's son was called back to the throne. Another Stuart king was driven from his throne by his own daughter and her Dutch husband, William of Orange. William became king by Parliament's election, not by right of birth.

When the last Stuart, Queen Anne, died in 1714, the monarchy was no longer absolutely powerful. It had become a “parliamentary monarchy” controlled by a constitution. These important changes did not take place simply because the Stuarts were bad rulers. They resulted from a basic change in society. During the seventeenth century economic power moved even faster into the hands of the merchant and landowning farmer classes. The Crown could no longer raise money or govern without their cooperation. These groups were represented by the House of Commons. In response, for money, the Commons demanded political power. The victory of the Commons and the classes it represented was unavoidable.

The political developments of the period also resulted from basic changes in thinking in the seventeenth century. By 1700, a ruler like Henry VIII or Elizabeth I would have been quite unthinkable. By

the time Queen Anne died, a new age of reason and science had arrived.

The seventeenth century saw the development of scientific thinking on an entirely new scale. The new mood had been established at the very beginning of the century by a remarkable man, Francis Bacon. He became James I's Lord Chancellor, but he was better known for his work on scientific method.

In 1628 William Harvey discovered the circulation of blood and this led to great advances in medicine and in the study of the human body. In 1666 the Cambridge Professor of Mathematics, Sir Isaac Newton, began to study gravity, publishing his important discovery in 1684.

As a result of the rapid spread of literacy and the improvement in printing techniques, the first newspapers appeared in the seventeenth century. They were a new way of spreading all kinds of ideas, scientific, religious and literary. Many of them included advertisements. In 1660 Charles II advertised for his lost dog.

After the rapid increase in population in the Tudor century, the number of births began to fall in the Stuart age. One reason for the smaller number of births was that people married later than anywhere else in Europe. Most people married in their mid twenties, and by the end of the century the average age of first marriages was even older, at twenty-seven. This, of course, meant that women had fewer babies.

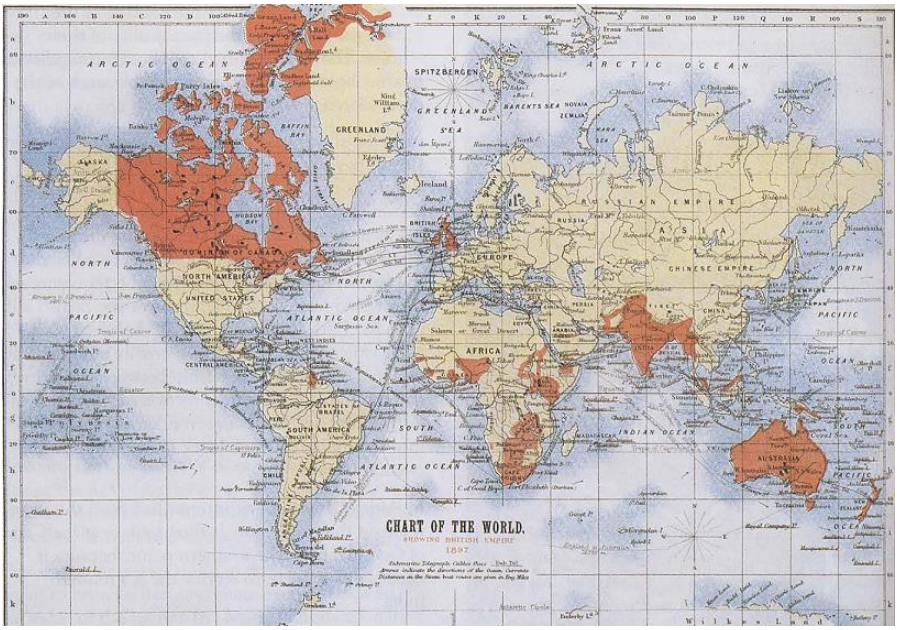
19th Century

Britain in the nineteenth century was at its most powerful and self-confident. After the industrial revolution, nineteenth-century Britain was the “workshop” of the world. Until the last quarter of the century British factories were producing more than any other country in the world.

Not long before this century began, Britain had lost its most important American colonies in the War of Independence. When the century began, the county was locked in a war with France. Soon, after the end of the century, Britain controlled the biggest empire the

world had ever seen. One section of the empire was Ireland. Another part of the empire was made up of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India and Africa.

"Our Empire Atlas", 1897, clearly shows Britain's strategic control of much of the world.



Britain wanted two main things in Europe: a "balance of power" which would prevent single nation from becoming too strong, and a free market in which its own industrial and trade superiority would give Britain a clear advantage.

Much of what we know today as the modern state was built in the 1860s and 1870s. Between 1867 and 1884 the number of voters increased from 20 % to 60 % of men in towns and to 70 % in the country, including some of the working class. One immediate effect was the rapid growth in party organization, with branches in every town, able to organize things locally. In 1872 voting was carried out in secret for the first time, allowing ordinary people to vote freely and without fear. This and the growth of the newspaper industry, in particular "popular" newspapers for the new half-educated

population, strengthened the importance of popular opinion. Democracy grew quickly.

Queen Victoria came to the throne as a young woman in 1837 and reigned until her death in 1901. She did not like the way in which power seemed to be slipping so quickly away from the monarchy and aristocracy but like her advisers she was unable to prevent it. Victoria married a German, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg, but he died at the age of forty-two in 1861. She could not get over her sorrow at his death and for a long time refused to be seen in public. This was a dangerous thing to do. Newspapers began to criticize her, and some even questioned the value of the monarchy. However, the queen's advisers persuaded her to take a more public interest in the business of the kingdom. She did so, and she soon became extraordinarily popular. By the time when Victoria died the monarchy was better loved among the British than it had ever been before.

Recommended Resources:

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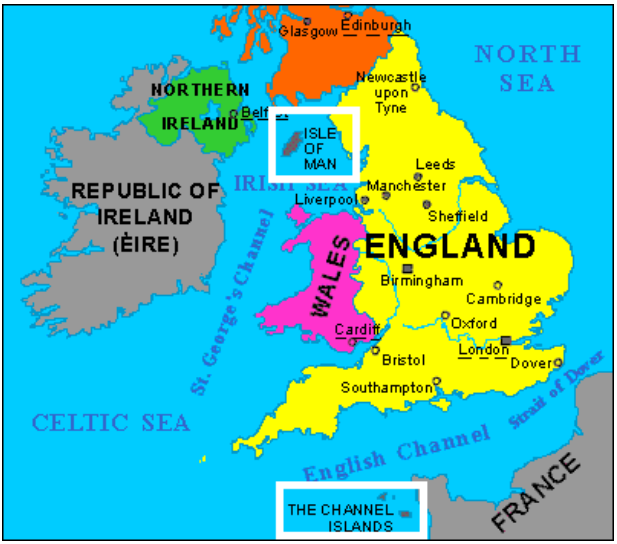
3. O'Driscoll J. Britain. The Country and Its People: An Introduction for Learners of English / James O'Driscoll. – Oxford : University Press, 2003. – 225 p.
4. Tudor History [Electronic resource]. – Access : http://www.theanneboleynfiles.com/why-was-anne-boleyn-executed.
5. United Kingdom. Wikipedia [Electronic resource]. – Access : https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Kingdom.

Lecture 2
THE UNITED KINGDOM TODAY AND TOMORROW

Geography

Lying off the north-west coast of Europe, there are two large islands and several much smaller ones (some 5000 isles). Collectively, they are known as The British Isles. The largest island is called Great Britain. The other large one is called Ireland. The total area of the country is 94,217 miles^2 or 244,02 km^2. The UK is a small country. It's twice smaller than France or Spain. The UK is situated at the north west coast of Europe between the Atlantic Ocean in the north and the North Sea in the east. It is separated from the European continent by the English Channel (La Manche) and the Strait of Dover (Pas de Calais). It doesn't usually get very cold in winter or very hot in summer; it has no active volcanoes and earthquakes.



In the British Isles there are two states. One of these governs most of the island of Ireland. This state is usually called the Republic of Ireland. The other state has authority over the rest of the British Isles (the whole of Great Britain, the northeastern area of Ireland and

most of the smaller islands). Its official name is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Political unification was a gradual process that took several hundred years. It was completed in 1800 when the Irish Parliament was joined with the Parliament for England, Scotland and Wales in Westminster, so that the whole of the British Isles became a single state – the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. However, in 1922, most of Ireland became a separate state.

With a total area of 244,02 km^2, Britain is just under 1000 km long and some 500 km across in the widest part. London is the capital. Other major cities include Birmingham, Manchester, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Cardiff and Belfast. There are some 63 million people. Population density is the highest in England and the lowest in Scotland. The birth rate is 10.67/1000; death rate: 10.09/1000, and density per sq km: 632 people. Total fertility amounts to 1.66 children born/woman (2007). Life expectancy at birth is: 78.7 years for total population; 76.23 years male and 81.3 years female (2007).

Britain has mountains, but none of them are very high; it also has flat land, but you cannot travel far without encountering hills; it has no really big rivers. Geographically the island of GB is subdivided into two main regions: Lowland and Highland. Highland consists of Scotland, most of Wales, the Pennines and the Lake District. Mountain regions include: the Scottish Highlands – Ben Nevis 1343 m; the Lake District – Scafell 978 m; North Wales – Snowdon 1085 m; the Pennines – a limestone "backbone" in Nothern England; the Jurassic limestone escarpments, especially the Cotswolds; the chalk escarpments, especially the Chilterns, the North and South Downs.

The longest rivers in the UK are the Severn (3,54 km) flowing along the border between England and Wales, tributaries of which include the Avon famed by Shakespeare, and the Thames which flows East-West to the port of London.

The south and east of the country is comparatively low-lying, consisting of either flat plains or gently rolling hills. Mountainous areas are found only in the north and west, although these regions also have fiat areas.

Britain has a greater proportion of grassland than any other country in Europe except the Republic of Ireland. One distinctive human influence, especially common in southern England, is the enclosure of fields with hedgerows.

England consists of 4 parts which make up the UK. England occupies the territory of 131,000 km^2; it is the most industrial and most densely populated part of the UK. Its population is over 47 mln people. The capital of England is London.

England is a highly developed industrial part of the country. Historically England is divided into several economic regions: the South is both industrial and agricultural region, Central England or Midlands, Yorkshire and Northern England.

Heavy machinery, electronics and shipbuilding are developed in London, Nottingham, Bristol, Manchester, New Castle and others. The wool industry is centered in Leeds and Bradford. Food processing is developed in Liverpool. Midlands make farming lands.

Wales lies to the west of the English Lowland. This part of the UK is rather small, its territory is 26,760 km^2. The capital of Wales is Cardiff. The population of Wales is over 3 mln people.

Scotland is the most Northern part of GB. Its total area is 78,800 km^2. The Cheviot Hills mark the border between England and Scotland. Scotland takes up 1/3 of the territory of the British Isles. Its population is not very big – a little over 6 mln people. Edinburgh is the capital.

Scotland is a country of hills, lakes and rivers. Ben Nevis is the highest mountain pick. There are many rivers but they are not long. The Clyde is the longest and the most important river.

Scottish lakes are called “lochs” because they are long and narrow. The Lomond is the longest and the most beautiful river. The most famous Scottish loch is Loch Ness.

Shipbuilding is one of the most important industries. The others are iron steel, heavy and light engineering and coal-mining.

The main urban centers are: Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Dundee.

Northern Ireland is the smallest component of the UK – 14,121 km^2. It occupies North East of Ireland. The population is 1,5 mln people. Belfast is the capital. The Shannon is the largest river. The climate is oceanic. Economy has three main industries: agriculture, textiles and shipbuilding.

There are 14 British Overseas Territories, mostly with considerable self-government, with a legislature and a civil service. Britain has general responsibility for their defence, internal security and foreign relations. British policy is to give independence to those overseas territories that want it, and not to force it on those which do not.

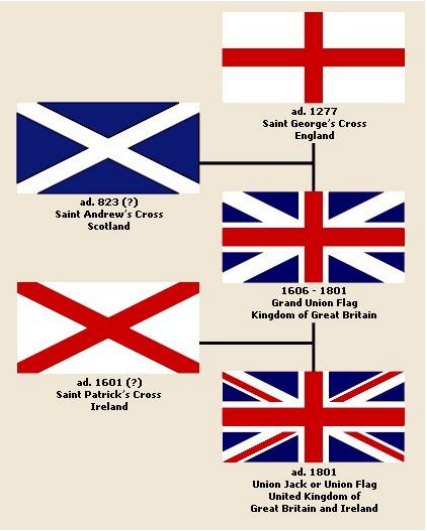
The territories are: Anguilla; Bermuda; British Antarctic Territory; British Indian Ocean Territory; British Virgin Islands; Cayman Islands; Falkland Islands; Gibraltar; Montserrat; Pitcairn Islands (Ducie, Henderson and Oeno); South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands; St. Helena; St. Helena Dependencies (Ascension and Tristan da Cunha); and the Turks and Caicos Islands.

Symbols

Albion is a word used in some poetic or rhetoric contexts to refer to England. It was the original Roman name for Britain. It may come from the Latin word *albus* meaning "white". The White Chalk Cliffs of Dover on the south-east are the first part of England to be seen when crossing the sea from the European mainland.

Britannia is the name that the Romans gave to their southern British province (the territory of present-day England). It is also the name given to the female embodiment of Britain, always shown wearing a helmet and holding a trident (the symbol of power over the sea). The figure of Britannia has been on the reverse side of many British coins for more than 300 years.

The Union Jack is the national flag of the UK. It is a combination of 3 flags: the red cross of St. George, the blue and white saltire of St. Andrew and the red and white saltire of St. Patrick. Its final version with small revision was set up in 1801 after the last of the three Acts of Union.



Wales is not represented in the Union Flag because when the first version of the flag had appeared, Wales was already united with England. The national flag of Wales, a red dragon on a field of white and green, dates from the 15th century and is widely used throughout the Principality.

The Union Flag should be flown with the broader diagonal band of white uppermost in the hoist (near the pole) and the narrower diagonal band of white uppermost in the fly (furthest from the pole).

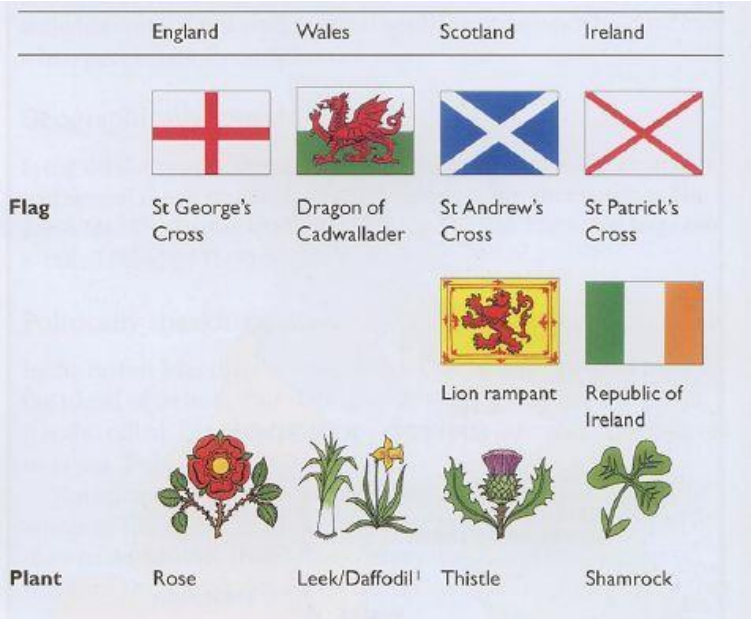
Flower Symbols. The national flower of England is the rose. The flower has been adopted as England's emblem since the time of the Wars of the Roses – civil wars (1455 – 1485) between the royal house of Lancaster (whose emblem was a red rose) and the royal house of York (whose emblem was a white rose). 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, a three-leaved plant similar to clover which is said to have been used by St. Patrick to illustrate the doctrine of the Holy Trinity.

The Scottish national flower is the thistle, a prickly-leaved purple flower which was first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defence.

The three flowers – rose, thistle and shamrock – are often displayed beneath the shield on the Royal Coat of Arms.

The national flower of Wales 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 oak tree is a symbol of England, representing strength and endurance. The term Royal Oak is used to denote the escape of King Charles II from the grasps of the parliamentarians after his father's execution; he hid in an oak tree to avoid detection before making it safely into exile. **Oak Apple Day or Royal Oak Day** was a holiday celebrated in England on 29 May to commemorate the restoration of the English monarchy, in May 1660. In some parts of the country, the day was also known as Shick-Shack Day or Arbour Day.

Climate

The climate of Britain is more or less the same as that of the northwestern part of the European mainland. The popular belief that it rains all the time in Britain is simply not true. The image of a wet, foggy land was created two thousand years ago by the invading Romans and has been perpetuated in modern times by Hollywood. In

fact, London gets no more rain in a year than most other major European cities, and less than some.

The climate is naturally changeable through the seasonal cycle. Generally, the winter months from December to February are the coldest, with the shortest hours of daylight. The temperature rises through the spring months of March to May, and is highest throughout the summer months from June to August. Temperatures rarely exceed +32°C (90°F) or fall below -10°C (14°F). London is the hottest place. Britain's lowest air temperature, -27°C, was recorded at Braemar in Scotland in February 1895, whilst the highest, +37.1°C, was registered at Cheltenham, SouthWest England, in August 1990.

Why is the climate so mild, even though the British Isles are situated as far north as, for example, Labrador? One reason is the Gulf Stream and the prevailing westerly winds (or south-westerly) from the Atlantic, and another is the fact that Britain is an island. The average annual rainfall is more than 1,600 mm (over 60 inches) in the highland areas of the west and north but less than 800 mm (30 inches) over the more fertile lowlands of the south and east.

It was in Britain that the word “smog” was first used (to describe a mixture of smoke and fog). As the world’s first industrialized country, its cities were the first to suffer this atmospheric condition. Water pollution was also a problem. During the 1960s and 1970s, laws were passed which forbade the heating of homes with open coal fires in city areas and which stopped much of the pollution from factories. However, as in the rest of western Europe, the great increase in the use of the motor car in the last quarter of the twentieth century caused an increase in a new kind of air pollution.

National and Class Identity

Britain absorbed a range of foreign cultures and traditions during the early centuries – Roman, Viking and Norman among them. In more recent times people from overseas have continued to settle in Britain, either to escape political or religious persecution, or

in search of economic opportunities. Ethnic minorities now comprise about 5.5 % of the population.

The largest ethnic minorities in Britain are those of Caribbean or African descent (875,000 people). The next largest ethnic groups are Indians (840,255 people), and Pakistanis and Bangladeshis (639,390 people). Overall, ethnic minority groups represent just under 6 % of the population of Great Britain. The ethnic population has evolved from the substantial immigration of people from former British colonies in the Caribbean and South Asian subcontinent during the 1950s and 1960s. In addition, in the 1970s, Britain admitted some 28,000 Asians expelled from Uganda and some 22,000 refugees from South East Asia. Considerable numbers of Chinese, Italians, Greek and Turkish Cypriots, Poles, Australians, New Zealanders and people from the United States and Canada are also resident in Britain. Still all citizens enjoy the same rights and privileges. Racial discrimination is unlawful under the Race Relations Act 1976.

Historians say that the class system has survived in Britain because of its flexibility. It has always been possible to buy or marry or even work your way up, so that your children (and their children) belong to a higher social class than you do. As a result, the class system has never been swept away by a revolution and an awareness of class forms a major part of most people's sense of identity. People in modern Britain are very conscious of class differences. They regard it as difficult to become friends with somebody from a different class. This feeling has little to do with conscious loyalty, and nothing to do with a positive belief in the class system itself. Most people say they do not approve class divisions. Nor does it have very much to do with political or religious affiliations. It results from the fact that the different classes have different sets of attitudes and daily habits. Typically, they tend to eat different food at different times of day, they like to talk about different topics, using different styles and accents of English, they enjoy different pastimes and sports, they have different values about what things in life are most important and different ideas about the correct way to behave.

Language Differences

At one time the four nations were distinct from each other in almost every aspect of life. In the first place, they were different racially. The people in Ireland, Wales and highland Scotland belonged to the Celtic race; those in England and lowland Scotland were mainly of Germanic origin. This difference was reflected in the languages they spoke. People in the Celtic areas spoke Celtic languages: Irish Gaelic, Scottish Gaelic and Welsh. People in the Germanic areas spoke Germanic dialects. The nations also tended to have different economic, social and legal systems.

Today these differences have become blurred. But they have not completely disappeared.

English is spoken in all the 4 parts of the UK. Wales however is bilingual – Welsh is the first language of the majority of the population in most western part of the country. The Gaelic language still exists as Gaelic in Scotland and Ireland. In Scotland some one hundred thousand people mainly in the Highland and Western regions are able to speak the Scottish form of Gaelic. A few families in Northern Ireland speak the Irish form of Gaelic.

French is the official language of Jersey (Channel Islands) and of Isle of Man. It's used for ceremonial and official procedures. Both English and French are used on courts.

An interesting feature of the class structure in Britain is that it is not just, or even mainly, relative wealth or the appearance of it which determines someone's class. The most obvious and immediate sign comes when a person opens his or her mouth, giving the listener clues to the speaker's attitudes and interests, both of which are indicative of class.

But even more indicative that *what* the speaker says is the way that he or she says it. The English grammar and vocabulary which is used in public speaking, radio and television news broadcasts, books and newspapers is known as "standard British English". Most working-class people, however, use lots of words and grammatical forms in their everyday speech which are regarded as "non-standard".

Nevertheless, nearly everybody in the country is capable of using standard English (or something very close to it) when they judge that the situation demands it. They are taught to do so at school. Therefore, the clearest indication of a person's class is often his or her accent. Most people cannot change this convincingly to suit the situation.

Stereotypes

There are many examples of supposedly typical British habits which are simply not typical any more. For example, the stereotyped image of the London "city gent" includes the wearing of a bowler hat. In fact, this type of hat has not been commonly worn for a long time. Food and drink provide other examples. The traditional "British" (or "English") breakfast is a large "fry-up" preceded by cereal with milk and followed by toast, butter and marmalade, all washed down with lots of tea. In fact, only 10 % of the people in Britain actually have this sort of breakfast. Two-thirds have cut out the fry-up and just have the cereal, tea and toast. The rest have even less. What the vast majority of British people have in the mornings is therefore much closer to what they call a "continental" (i.e., European) breakfast than it is to a "British" one. The image of the British as a nation of tea-drinkers is another stereotype which is somewhat out of date. It is true that it is still prepared in a distinctive way (strong and with milk), but more coffee than tea is now bought in the country's shops. As for the tradition of afternoon tea with biscuits, scones, sandwiches or cake, this is a minority activity, largely confined to retired people and the leisured upper-middle class (although preserved in tea shops in tourist resorts).

Even when a British habit conforms to the stereotype, the wrong conclusions can sometimes be drawn from it. The supposed British love of queuing is an example. Yes, British people do form queues whenever they are waiting for something, but this does not mean that they enjoy it. In 2012, a survey found that the average wait to pay in a British supermarket was three minutes and twenty-three seconds, and that the average wait to be served in a bank was two

minutes and thirty-three seconds. You might think that these times sound very reasonable. But *The Sunday Times* newspaper did not think so. It referred to these figures as a "problem". Some banks now promise to serve their customers "within two minutes". It would therefore wrong to conclude that their habit of queuing shows that the British are a patient people. Apparently, the British hate having to wait and have less patience than people in many other countries.

Moreover, a look at children's reading habits suggested that this attitude is not going to change. Publishers try hard to make their books for children up-to-date. But perhaps they needn't try so hard. In 2012 the two most popular children's writers were noticeably un-modern (they were both, in fact, dead). The most popular of all was Roald Dahl, whose fantasy stories are set in a rather old-fashioned world. The second most popular writer was Enid Blyton, whose stories take place in a comfortable white middle-class world before the 1960s. They contain no references to other races or classes and mention nothing more modern than a radio. In other words, they are mostly irrelevant to modern life.

The British can be particularly and stubbornly conservative about anything which is perceived as a token of Britishness. In these matters, their conservatism can combine with their individualism; they are rather proud of being different. It is, for example, very difficult to imagine that they will ever agree to change from driving on the left-hand side of the road to driving on the right. It doesn't matter that nobody can think of any intrinsic advantage in driving on the left. Why should they change just to be like everyone else? Indeed, as far as they are concerned, not being like everyone else is a good reason not to change.

Developments at European Union (EU) level which might cause a change in some everyday aspect of British life are usually greeted with suspicion and hostility. The case of double-decker buses is an example. Whenever an EU committee makes a recommendation about standardizing the size and shape of these, it provokes warnings from British bus builders about "the end of the double-decker bus as

we know it". The British public is always ready to listen to such predictions of doom.

Systems of measurement are another example. The British government has been trying for years and years to promote the metric system and to get British people to use the same scales that are used nearly everywhere else in the world. But it has had only limited success. British manufactures are obliged to give the weight of their tins and packets in kilos and grams. But everybody in Britain still shops in pounds and ounces. The weather forecasters of the television use the Celsius scale of temperature. But nearly everybody still thinks in Fahrenheit. British people continue to measure distances, amounts of liquid and themselves using scales of measurement that are not used anywhere else in Europe. Even the use of the 24-hour clock is comparatively restricted.

Recommended Resources:

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2. Гапонів А. Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни / А. Б. Гапонів, М. О. Возна. – Вінниця : Нова нига, 2005. – 463 с.
3. Лінгвокраїнознавство Великої Британії : Матеріали лекцій /укл. І. І. Морозова. – Х. : ХНУ ім. В. Н. Каразіна, 2009. – 100 с.
4. Чернобровкина Е. П. Great Britain and the United Kingdom / Е. П. Чернобровкина. – Улан-Удэ, 2011. – 56 с.
5. O'Driscoll J. Britain. The Country and Its People: An Introduction for Learners of English / James O'Driscoll. – Oxford : University Press, 2003. – 225 p.
6. United Kingdom. Wikipedia [Electronic resource]. – Access : https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Kingdom.

Lecture 3
THE UK SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

Political Life in the UK

The UK is a constitutional monarchy and a parliamentary democracy. That means it is a country governed by a king or queen who accepts the advice of a parliament. And it is the country whose government is controlled by a parliament which has been elected by people. Strangely enough, the constitution does not exist as one written document. Of all the democratic countries in the world, only Israel is comparable to Britain in having no single document codifying the way its political institutions function and setting out the basic rights and duties of its citizens. It is rather a centuries-old accumulation of statutes, common law and "traditional rights". Changes to the constitution may come about formally through new acts of parliament, informally through the acceptance of new practices and usage, or by judicial precedents. They have been built up, bit by bit, over the centuries. Some of them have never been written down at all.

> *Interesting to know: There is no written law in Britain that says anything about who can be the Prime Minister or what the powers of the Prime Minister are. There is no single written document which asserts people's rights. Nevertheless, it is understood that these latter rights are also part of the constitution.*

In 1928, Prime Minister H. H. Asquith described this characteristic of the British constitution in his memoirs:

"In this country we live … under an unwritten Constitution. It is true that we have on the Statute-book great instruments like Magna Carta, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights which define and secure many of our rights and privileges; but the great bulk of our constitutional liberties and … our constitutional practices do not derive their validity and sanction from any Bill which has received the formal assent of the King, Lords and Commons. They rest on usage, custom, convention, often of slow growth in their early stages,

not always uniform, but which in the course of time received universal observance and respect".

The organs of government in the United Kingdom are:

l) the legislature, which consists of the Queen in Parliament, and is the supreme authority of the realm;

2) the executive which consists of:

a) the Cabinet and other ministers of the Crown;

b) government departments;

c) local authorities;

d) statutory boards;

3) the judiciary which determines common law and interprets statutes.

Formally, the head of state is the hereditary monarch – since 1952 Queen Elizabeth II. The position of the monarch illustrates the contradictory nature of the constitution. Formally, the Queen has the formidable rights in forming the government – to appoint the Prime Minister and all the ministers. She also appears to have great power over Parliament. Similarly, it is the Queen who embodies the law in the court (it is the Crown who makes the accusation). There are also Her Majesty's prisons. There are no citizens in Britain. People are legally described as subjects.

However, the British sovereign "reigns, but does not rule". The Queen cannot choose the any person to the Prime Minister. It should be someone who has the support of the majority of MPs in the House of Parliament. And it is really the Prime Minister who decides about the personality of other ministers (officially the PM only advices the monarch who to choose). The Queen's actual power is very limited, mostly to exercising ceremonial functions, such as opening the Parliament's sessions, granting awards, visiting foreign countries, etc. The Monarch is to a great extent the symbol of Great Britain in the eyes of both British citizens and foreigners.

Sovereignty rests in Parliament, which consists of the House of Commons, the House of Lords, and the crown. During its life, a Parliament may make or unmake any law; its supremacy is absolute. The Life of Parliament: five years maximum. It begins after a general

election and ends with a dissolution (proclaimed by the sovereign, on the Prime Minister's advice). On the average the Parliament has 160 sitting days each year beginning with the Opening of Parliament (October – November).

Effective power resides in the Commons, whose 650 members are elected from single-member constituencies. Elections must be held at least once in five years, but within that period the prime minister may at any time request the crown to dissolve Parliament and call for new elections. Most legislation originates in the Commons.

The speaker is chosen from the members (after consultation between the two main parties); but, once elected, is no longer considered a party man; his role: chairs the debates, authority and prestige (Symbol of the House).

Functions of the House: 1) Legislation; 2) Finance; 3) Criticism and contra of the government in office (which is practically exercised during the Question Time when M.P.s may ask questions on any aspects of the government's activities).

The presiding officer of the House of Lords is the Lord Chancellor who is a member of the Cabinet. The Lord Chancellor's seat in the House of Lords is the so-called Woolsack.

The House of Lords is the upper house of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. Like the House of Commons, it meets in the Palace of Westminster.

Unlike the elected House of Commons, most members of the House of Lords are appointed. The membership of the House of Lords is made up of Lords Spiritual and Lords Temporal. The Lords Spiritual are 26 bishops in the established Church of England. Of the Lords Temporal, the majority are life peers who are appointed by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister, or on the advice of the House of Lords Appointments Commission.

While the House of Commons has a defined 650-seat membership, the number of members in the House of Lords is not fixed. There are currently 820 sitting Lords.

Traditionally, the hereditary and life peers of the realm, high officials of the Church of England, and the Lords of Appeal (who exercise judicial functions) had the right to sit in the House of Lords. In 1999 both houses voted to strip most hereditary peers of their right to sit and vote in the chamber. The House of Lords may take a part in shaping legislation, but it cannot permanently block a bill passed by the Commons, and it has no authority over money bills. The Lords of Appeal constitute the highest court in Great Britain.

Functions of the House: 1) Discussion of bills coming from the Commons, veto is hardly ever used; 2) introduction of bills; 3) supreme court of appeal.

Executive Power

The executive – the Cabinet ministers headed by the Prime Minister – is usually drawn from the party holding the most seats in the Commons; the monarch usually asks the leader of the majority party to be Prime Minister. The current Prime Minister, David Cameron, the leader of the Conservative Party, was appointed by the Queen on 11 May, 2010. He is the head of government and leader of the parliamentary majority.

The office is not established by any constitution or law but exists only by long-established convention, which stipulates that the monarch must appoint as Prime Minister the person most likely to command the confidence of the House of Commons; this individual is typically the leader of the political party or coalition of parties that holds the largest number of seats in that chamber. The position of Prime Minister was not created; it evolved slowly and erratically over three hundred years due to numerous acts of Parliament, political developments, and accidents of history.

British governments (or Ministries) are generally formed by one party. The Prime Minister and Cabinet are usually all members of the same political party, almost always the one that has a majority of seats in the House of Commons. Coalition governments (a ministry that consists of representatives from two or more parties) and minority governments (a one-party ministry formed by a party

that does not command a majority in the Commons) are relatively rare. “One party government”, as this system is sometimes called, has been the general rule for almost three hundred years.

Despite the “one party” convention, Prime Ministers may still be called upon to lead either minority or coalition governments. A minority government may be formed as a result of a “hung parliament” in which no single party commands a majority in the House of Commons after a general election or the death, resignation or defection of existing members.

When the general election of 2010 produced a hung parliament, the Conservative and Liberal Democrat parties agreed to form the first Cameron ministry, the first coalition in seventy years. The previous coalition in the UK before 2010 was led by Conservative Prime Minister Winston Churchill during most of the Second World War from May 1940 to May 1945. After the general election of 2015, the nation returned to one party government after the Tories won an outright majority.

The Cabinet meets once a week subjects to take decisions about new policies, the implementation of existing polices and running of the various government departments; to help run the complicated machinery of a modern government, there is an organization called the Cabinet Office. It runs a busy communication works, keeping ministers in touch with each other, and drawing up the agendas for Cabinet meetings.

Political Parties

Before the mid-19th century politics in the United Kingdom was dominated by the Whigs and the Tories. These were not political parties in the modern sense but somewhat loose alliances of interests and individuals. The Whigs included many of the leading aristocratic dynasties committed to the Protestant succession and later drew support from elements of the emerging industrial interests and wealthy merchants, while the Tories were associated with the landed gentry, the Church of England and the Church of Scotland.

By the mid-19th century the Tories had evolved into the Conservative Party, and the Whigs had evolved into the Liberal Party. The Liberals and Conservatives dominated the political scene until the 1920s, when the Liberal Party declined in popularity and suffered a long stream of resignations. It was replaced as the main anti-Tory opposition party by the newly emerging Labour Party, who represented an alliance between the labour movement, organised trade unions and various Socialist societies. Since then the Conservative and Labour Parties have dominated British politics, and have alternated in government ever since.

However, the UK is not quite a two-party system as other parties have significant support. The Liberal Democrats had been the third largest party until the 2015 general election when it was overtaken by the Scottish National Party in terms of seats and by UKIP in terms of votes.

Elections

General elections are held after Parliament has been "dissolved", either by a royal proclamation or because the maximum term between elections – five years – has expired. The decision on when to hold a general election is made by the Prime Minister.

For electoral purposes Britain is divided into constituencies, each of which returns one MP to the House of Commons. All British citizens together with citizens of other Commonwealth countries and citizens of the Irish Republic resident in Britain may vote, provided they are aged 18 or over and not legally barred from voting. People not entitled to vote include those serving prison sentences, peers and peeresses who are members of the House of Lords, and those kept in hospital under mental health legislation.

Voting is by secret ballot. The elector selects just one candidate on the ballot paper and marks an "X" by the candidate's name. Voting in elections is voluntary. On average about 75 % of the electorate votes.

Any person aged 21 or over who is a British citizen or a citizen of another Commonwealth country or the Irish Republic may

stand for election to Parliament, provided they are not disqualified. People disqualified include those who are bankrupt, those sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment, members of the clergy, members of the House of Lords, and a range of public servants and officials. Approved candidates are usually selected by their political party organisations in the constituency which they represent, although candidates do not have to have party backing.

The leader of the political party which wins most seats (although not necessarily most votes) at a general election, or who has the support of a majority of members in the House of Commons, is by convention invited by the Sovereign to form the new government.

Devolution to Scotland and Wales

The Government is committed to give the people of Scotland and Wales more control over their own affairs by setting up a Scottish Parliament and a Welsh Assembly. These plans were supported by the Scottish and Welsh people in referenda held in September 1997.

The Scottish Parliament in Edinburgh was opened in 1999 following the election of its 129 members – 73 directly elected on a constituency basis, plus 56 elected by proportional representation. It will be able to make laws and raise or lower the basic rate of income tax by up to three per cent. Scotland will continue to elect MPs to Westminster to represent Scottish interests.

The Welsh Assembly, which opened in May 1999 in Cardiff, has 60 members, directly elected every four years. It debates issues of concern in Wales and is responsible for a substantial budget, but the Principality will continue to share the same legal system as England.

Judicial System

A feature common to all the systems of law in the UK is that there is no complete code. The sources of law include legislation

(e.g. some 3,000 Acts of Parliament) and unwritten or “common law”.

The criminal courts in England and Wales include:

1 .Magistrates' Courts. About 98 % of all criminal cases are disposed of by the magistrates (2 to 7) known as Justices of the Peace. These courts try the less serious offences (they hear and determine charges against people accused of summary offences that are not serious enough to go before higher courts). The second function of the Magistrates' Courts is to conduct a preliminary hearing. Thirdly, they hear cases involving children (Juvenile Courts). The magistrates act as licensing authorities for public houses, restaurants, betting shops and other public places. There are about 27,250 lay magistrates, sitting in nearly 700 different courts.

2. Crown Courts. The Crown Court deals with trials of the more serious cases, the sentencing of offenders committed for sentence by Magistrates' Courts, and appeals from Magistrates' Courts. It sits in about 90 centers and is presided over by High Court judges, full-time “circuit judges” and part-time recorders. All contested trials take place before a jury. The jury consists of 12 persons and try indictable, that is more serious criminal offences (10 out of 12 must agree on their verdict).

The civil courts include:

1. County Courts (300, presided over by a paid judge). Their jurisdiction covers adoption cases, bankruptcy, divorce cases, actions concerning land, trusts and mortgages. Cases outside this limit are heard before High Court Judges, sitting either in the Crown Courts or in the High Court itself.

2. The High Court of Justice is divided into the Chancery Division (mortgages, bankruptcies, partnership, estates), the Family Division and the Queen's Bench Division (Common Law actions, commercial disputes). It covers virtually all civil cases. The Family Division of the High Court now deals with all jurisdiction affecting the family: divorce, wardship, guardianship and probate (the ratification of wills).

Judicial Personnel

a) Judges: appointed by the Queen, on the advice of the Lord Chancellor; hold office for life; are selected among senior barristers, especially Q.C.s (Queen's Counsels); 200 approximately.
b) Barristers: lawyers who have passed the examination of the Bar Council ("called to the bar"); there are 2,000 approximately organised as a very powerful and closed corporation (Inns of Court). These are the Inner Temple, the Middle Temple, Lincoln's Inn and Gray's Inn. The four societies together form what is known as "The Bar". The Bar as a whole is responsible for the education of would-be barristers. The successful candidate is rewarded by being called to the Bar. The duty of barristers is to further their clients' cases in courts and speak in law courts. As "counsel for the prosecution" a barrister will try to prove the accused person's guilt. As "counsel for the defense" he will defend the accused.
c) Solicitors: members of the Law Society, prepare all the judicial work (briefs, enquiries, witnesses): 25,000 approximately. Their main function is to keep a client out of the courts by advising him, drafting his contracts, wills, leases and many other documents.
d) Justices of the Peace (JPs): unpaid and non-professional magistrates for inferior courts; assisted by professionals (clerks).

Police

There are about 60 police forces in Britain, each employed and paid by the local authorities. They get half their money from the local rates and half from the Treasury. The forces are completely independent of one another. Each force has its C.I.D. – Criminal Investigation Department. The London Police Force, called the Metropolitan Police, is not controlled by the local authority. It is responsible to the Home Secretary, and its chief officers are

appointed by the Government. “Scotland Yard”, the C.I.D. of the Metropolitan Police, is so called because the headquarters of the Metropolitan Police are in New Scotland Yard, near Whitehall.

Interesting to know: If in trouble, or if you've witnessed a crime, go to the nearest telephone and dial 999. You'll be put through immediately to the Post Office, who will ask which service you want – Police, Fire Brigade or Ambulance.

Traffic Wardens

Traffic wardens were first introduced in I960. Now there are about 20,000 traffic wardens in England and Wales. They deal with minor traffic offences, like parking in the wrong place, or without lights; they report car owners who do not have a licence; they supervise school children crossing roads.

Interesting to know: The death penalty for murder was abolished in 1965.

Administrative Division

The United Kingdom has a complex administrative division. England is divided into 47 boroughs, 36 counties, 29 London boroughs, 12 cities and boroughs, 10 districts, 12 cities and 3 royal boroughs. Northern Ireland is divided into 24 districts and 2 cities (Belfast and Derry). Scotland is divided into 32 council areas and Wales – into 11 county boroughs, 9 counties, and 2 cities and counties.

As for Scotland so here one can’t forget such a historically important event – referendum. The **Scottish independence referendum** was a referendum on Scottish independence that took place in Scotland on 18 September, 2014.

The independence referendum question, which voters answered with “Yes” or “No”, was “Should Scotland be an independent country?” The “No” side won, with 2,001,926 (55.3 %) voting against independence and 1,617,989 (44.7 %) voting in favour. The turnout of 84.6 % was the highest recorded for an

election or referendum in the United Kingdom since the introduction of universal suffrage.

The U.K. also retains a number of dependent areas, most of which lie overseas. They are: Anguilla, Bermuda, British Indian Ocean Territory, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Falkland Islands, Gibraltar, Guernsey, Jersey, Isle of Man, Montserrat, Pitcairn Islands, Saint Helena, South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands, Turks and Caicos Islands. After the complete demise of the British Empire following the end of World War II these territories chose to continue their political links with London. Nowadays they are known as United Kingdom Overseas Territories.

Recommended Resources:

1. Гапонів А. Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни / А. Б. Гапонів, М. О. Возна. – Вінниця : Нова нига, 2005. – 463 с.
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3. Чернобровкина Е. П. Great Britain and the United Kingdom / Е. П. Чернобровкина. – Улан-Удэ, 2011. – 56 с.
4. O'Driscoll J. Britain. The Country and Its People: An Introduction for Learners of English / James O'Driscoll. – Oxford : University Press, 2003. – 225 p.
5. United Kingdom. Wikipedia [Electronic resource]. – Access : https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Kingdom.

Lecture 4
THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

The Essence of Education in Great Britain

The British government attached little importance to education until the end of the 19th century (public schools – character-building and team spirit; boarding schools – future up position in the higher ranks of the army, in business and politics). Today education is one of the most frequent subjects for public debate in the country.

Central government does not prescribe a detailed programme of learning or determine what books and materials should be used. Nor does it dictate the exact hours of the school day, the exact dates of holidays or the age at which a child must start in full-time education. It is so because the system has been influenced by the public-school tradition that a school is its own community. Universities, although financed by the government, have more autonomy. Each one has complete control over what to teach, how to teach it, who it accepts as students and how to test these students.

Today much of the public debate about educational policy focuses on how:

1. it has influenced the general style of teaching, which has tended to give priority to developing understanding rather than acquiring factual knowledge and learning to apply this knowledge to specific tasks;
2. academic ability rather than practical ability can be achieved (high-quality education for the intelligent and academically inclined with comparatively little attention given to the educational needs of the rest).

The basic features of the British educational system are the same as they are anywhere in Europe: full-time education is compulsory up to the middle teenage years; the academic year begins at the end of summer; compulsory education is free of charge but parents may spend money on educating their children privately if they want to. There are three recognized stages: children moving

from the first stage (primary) to the second stage (secondary) at around the age of eleven or twelve; the third stage is "further" education at university or college.

Public or Private Education

Terminology to do with the school system in Britain can be confusing. Schools funded by the government, either directly or via local education authorities, are called "state schools" and education provided in this way is known as "state education". This distinguishes it from "private education" which comprises "independent schools". Some "independent schools" are known as "public schools".

The possibility of confusion is especially great because in the USA schools organized by the government are called "public schools" and education provided by the government is called "public school system".

In Britain today about 8 % of children are educated outside the state system. There are 3 levels of private schools – primary schools (age 4 to 8) and preparatory schools (8 to 13). At the age of 13 children take an examination. If they pass, they go on to public school, where they usually remain until they are 18. Many preps and most public schools are boarding schools – the children live at the school during the school terms.

Pre-School Education

Pre-school education is early childhood education that focuses on children between the age of infancy and six. The system of preschool education varies widely, with different approaches, theories, and practices within different school jurisdictions. It is not compulsory. The term "pre-school education" includes such programs as nursery school, day care, or kindergarten, which are occasionally used interchangeably, yet are distinct entities. While pedagogies differ, there is the general agreement that preschool is responsible for providing education before the commencement of statutory education.

Day care or child care is care of a child during the day by a person other than the child's parents or legal guardians, typically someone outside the child's immediate family. The service is known as “child care” in the United Kingdom and Australia and “day care” in America. Child care or day care is provided in nurseries or creches or by childminders caring for children in their own homes. Child care or day care is ongoing care during specific periods, such as the parents' time at work. Child care can also take on a more formal structure, with education, child development, and discipline falling into the fold of services.

Day nurseries take children from 2 months to five years and are run by the Local Health Authority (LHA). Day nurseries remain open all the year round. You pay according to your income for day nurseries.

A nursery school is a school for children between the ages of three and five, staffed by qualified teachers and other professionals who encourage and supervise educational play rather than simply providing childcare. In the UK, pre-school education in nursery classes or schools is fully funded by the government, run by the Local Education Authority (LEA), and is generally available to children aged over three. Nursery schools work during school hours (9 a.m. – 4 p.m.) and observe school holidays.

Kindergarten (German, literally means "children's garden") is a form of education for young children which serves as a transition from home to the commencement of more formal schooling. Children are taught to develop basic skills through creative play and social interaction. The term “kindergarten” is now used in English only of certain private schools; it often refers to foreign countries.

Pre-school education can be provided by childcare centers, playgroups, nursery schools, and nursery classes within primary schools. Private nursery education is also available throughout the UK and varies between structured pre-school education and a service offering child-minding facilities.

In Scotland, children are entitled to a place in a nursery class when they reach their third birthday. This gives parents the option of

two years of funded pre-school education before beginning primary one, the first year of compulsory education. Nursery children who are three years old are referred to as ante-pre-school whilst children who are four years old are termed pre-school. Pre-school education in Scotland is planned around the document "A curriculum framework for children from 3 to 5", which identifies learning intentions around the following five areas of development:

- Emotional, Personal and Social Development;
- Communication and Language;
- Knowledge and Understanding of the World;
- Expressive and Aesthetic Development;
- Physical Development and Movement.

Primary Education

In the UK, schools providing primary education are now known as primary schools. They generally cater for children aged from four to eleven. Primary schools are often subdivided into infant schools for children from 4 to 7 and junior schools for ages 7 to 11.

Many children do not begin full-time attendance at school until they are about five and start primary school. Nearly all schools work a five-day week, with no half-day, and are closed on Saturdays. Methods of teaching vary, but there is most commonly a balance between formal lessons, with the teacher at the front of the classroom, and activities in which children work in small groups around the table with the teacher supervising.

In the private sector, fee-paying schools which provide primary education are known as preparatory schools, and they often cater for children up to the age of thirteen. Preparatory schools are designed to prepare pupils for entrance examinations for fee-paying independent schools.

In England, children start school at five depending upon the policy of the Local Education Authority. All state schools are obliged to follow a centralised National Curriculum. All state primary schools are under the jurisdiction of the Department for Children,

Schools and Families. Private schools are inspected by the Independent Schools Inspectorate.

In Scotland, children typically spend seven years at primary school.

Children in Wales spend 7 years at primary school between the ages of 4 and 11.

Comprehensive vs Selective Schooling

More than 90 % of children who go to state schools go to schools of comprehensive school system, introduced in the 1960s. Children go to primary school at the age of 5. Depending on the policy, they may go straight to the upper school, usually called comprehensive, at the age of 11. Alternatively they may go to the middle school for 3–4 years before going to the upper school. The comprehensive schooling is non-selective. This means that all children go from one school to another without exams and without being selected according to their abilities.

<table>
<tr><th>age</th><th colspan="4">School Education</th><th>age</th></tr>
<tr><td>16</td><td rowspan="3">Comprehensive School</td><td rowspan="5">Grammar School</td><td rowspan="5">Secondary Modern School</td><td rowspan="3">Public Schools</td><td>16</td></tr>
<tr><td>15</td><td>15</td></tr>
<tr><td>14</td><td>14</td></tr>
<tr><td>13</td><td rowspan="6">Middle School</td><td>13</td></tr>
<tr><td>12</td><td rowspan="5">Prepa-ratory Schools</td><td>12</td></tr>
<tr><td>11</td><td rowspan="5">Primary Schools</td><td>11</td></tr>
<tr><td>10</td><td>10</td></tr>
<tr><td>9</td><td>9</td></tr>
<tr><td>8</td><td>8</td></tr>
<tr><td>7</td><td rowspan="4">Primary Schools</td><td>7</td></tr>
<tr><td>6</td><td rowspan="3" colspan="3">Nursery Schools</td><td>6</td></tr>
<tr><td>5</td><td>5</td></tr>
<tr><td>4</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">State Sector (over 90 %)</td><td colspan="2">Independent</td></tr>
</table>

In some areas of Britain you may find an older and different system of education – the selective system (introduced in 1944).

Children are selected for certain school according to their abilities. All children go to the primary school until the age of 11. Then they take an examination called 11-plus. Those who are successful go to a grammar school, where they receive academic education. Those who fail the exam go to a secondary modern school, where they receive an education which is less academic and more intended to train them for a job when they leave at the age of 16.

Secondary Education

A comprehensive school is a state school that does not select its intake on the basis of academic achievement or aptitude. This is in contrast to the selective school system, where admission is restricted on the basis of selection criteria. The term is commonly used in relation to England and Wales, where comprehensive schools were introduced on an experimental basis in the 1940s and became more widespread from 1965. About 90 % of British secondary school pupils now attend comprehensive schools. They correspond broadly to the public high school in the United States and Canada. Comprehensive schools are primarily about providing an entitlement curriculum to all children, without selection whether due to financial considerations or attainment. A consequence of that is a wider ranging curriculum, including practical subjects such as design and technology and vocational learning, which were less common or non-existent in grammar schools.

A grammar school is one of several different types of school in the history of education in the United Kingdom and other English-speaking countries, originally a school teaching classical languages but more recently an academically oriented secondary school.

The original purpose of medieval grammar schools was the teaching of Latin. Over time, the curriculum was broadened: first, to include Ancient Greek, and later – English and other European languages, natural sciences, mathematics, history, geography, and other subjects. In the late Victorian era, grammar schools were reorganised to provide secondary education throughout England and Wales; Scotland had developed a different system. Grammar schools

of those types were also established in British territories overseas, where they have evolved in different ways.

Grammar schools became the selective tier of the Tripartite System of state-funded secondary education, operating in England and Wales from the mid-1940s to the late 1960s and continuing to opeate in Northern Ireland. With the move to non-selective comprehensive schools in the 1960s and 1970s, some grammar schools became fully independent and charged fees, while most others were abolished or became comprehensive (or sometimes merged with a secondary modern to form a new comprehensive school). In both cases, many of these schools kept "grammar school" in their names. More recently, a number of state grammar schools still retaining their selective intake gained academy status, meaning that they are independent of the Local Education Authority. Some parts of England retain forms of the Tripartite System, and a few grammar schools survive in otherwise comprehensive areas.

A secondary modern school is a type of secondary school that existed throughout England, Wales and Northern Ireland from 1944 until the early 1970s under the Tripartite System and was designed for the majority of pupils – those who do not achieve scores in the top 25 % of the eleven plus examination. They were replaced in most of the UK by the Comprehensive School system and now remain in place mainly in Northern Ireland (where they are usually referred to simply as secondary schools) and in some parts of England, such as Buckinghamshire Lincolnshire, Wirral and Kent (where they remain and are referred to as community schools).

The public examinations taken by British schoolchildren are: GCSEs (the General Certificate of Secondary Education). Pupils usually take their GCSEs at the age of 16 (“O”-level exam= ordinary). Some children take 3–4 exams; others take as many as 10–11 exams. Pupils who passed their GCSEs may remain at school for another 2 years and take their “A”-level exam (advanced). All grammar and most comprehensive schools have a sixth form (which lasts for 2 years), where pupils study for their “A”-level. Any student who wants to go to university needs to pass at least 2–3 “A”-levels.

Further Education in Great Britain

At the age of sixteen people are free to leave school if they want to. Far fewer sixteen-year-olds go straight out and look for a job than used to. Most do not find employment immediately and many take part in training schemes which involve on-the-job training combined with part-time college courses. About half of those who stay in full-time education will have to leave their school, either because it does not have a sixth form and go to a Sixth-form College, or College of Further Education.

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.

After three years of study a university graduate will leave with the Degree of Bachelor of Arts, Science, Engineering, Medicine, etc. Later he/she may continue to take a Master's Degree and then a Doctor's Degree. Research is an important feature of university work.

English universities greatly differ from each other. They differ in date of foundation, size, history, tradition, general organization, methods of instruction, way of student life.

A number of universities in the United Kingdom are composed of colleges. These can be divided into broad categories. A group of universities established or expended in the UK during the mid-twentieth century, such as Lancaster, York and Kent, etc, refer

to “Plate glass universities”. The Russell Group is an association of 24 British public research universities. It is headquartered in London and was established in 1994 to represent its members' interests, principally to government and parliament. In 2010, Russell Group members received approximately two-thirds of all university research grant and contract income in the United Kingdom.

Education in Scotland

Scotland has a long history of universal provision of public education, and the Scottish education system is distinctly different from those in the other countries of the United Kingdom. The Scotland Act 1998 gives the Scottish Parliament legislative control over all education matters, and the Education (Scotland) Act 1980 is the principal legislation governing education in Scotland. Political responsibility for education at all levels is vested in the Scottish Parliament and the Learning Directorate.

After seven years of primary education and four years of compulsory secondary education, students of age 15–16 may take Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE) – Standard Grade courses. These courses lead to the Standard Grade exams. The Standard Grade courses and exams correspond to the GCSE's in England and Wales.

After taking Standard Grade examinations, students have the option of leaving school or continuing on in secondary education for one further year to take another level of SCE courses called Higher Grades (Highers) in 4–6 subjects. At the end of these courses students take Higher Grade examinations. Highers are graded on a scale of A–D where an 'A' indicates a mark of 70 % or more. A 70 % is approximately equal to an American score of 90 %.

Many universities suggest Scottish students to go on to a sixth year in which “further Highers” or the Certificate of Sixth Year Studies (CSYS) can be taken. The CSYS can only be taken by students who are in their final year of secondary schooling and also possess a pass in the Higher Grade in the subject area concerned. CSYS is not required to enter University in the UK but tends to offer

more specialized study and is therefore recommended. CSYS are graded on an A–E scale where A is the top grade.

State schools are owned and operated by the local authorities which act as Education Authorities, and the compulsory phase is divided into primary school and secondary school (often called high school).

There are also private schools across the country, although the distribution is uneven with such schools in 22 of the 32 Local Authority areas. September 2011 the total pupil population in Scotland was 702,104, of which 31,425 pupils, or 4.5 % were being educated in independent schools.

In 2014, research by the Office for National Statistics found that Scotland was the most highly educated country in Europe and among the most well-educated in the world in terms of tertiary education attainment, above countries like Finland, Ireland and Luxembourg, with roughly 40 % of Scots aged 16–64 educated to NVQ level 4 and above.

Interesting to know: National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) are work based awards in England, Wales and Northern Ireland that are achieved through assessment and training. In Scotland they are known as Scottish Vocational Qualification (SVQ).

To achieve an NVQ, candidates must prove that they have the ability (competence) to carry out their job to the required standard. NVQs are based on National Occupational Standards that describe the 'competencies' expected in any given job role. Typically, candidates will work towards an NVQ that reflects their role in a paid or voluntary position. For example, someone working in an admin office role may take an NVQ in Business and Administration.

Recommended Resources:

1. Гапонів А. Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни / А. Б. Гапонів, М. О. Возна. – Вінниця : Нова нига, 2005. – 463 с.
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7. United Kingdom. Wikipedia [Electronic resource]. – Access : https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Kingdom.

Lecture 5
CULTURAL LIFE IN THE UK

Holidays

Many public holidays in Britain are known as bank holidays, they are so called because these are the days on which banks are legally closed. Most bank holidays fall on Mondays. Shops, museums and other public attractions, such as historic houses and sports centres, may close on certain public holidays, particularly on Christmas Day.

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, 2 January, 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).

Christmas Day (25 December). Unlike Easter, the date of Christmas was fixed almost 1600 years ago and has never changed. Preparations start well in advance, with the sending of Christmas cards and installation of a decorated Christmas tree in a prominent place in the home. It is now a firmly established tradition. Still the Christmas tree was first popularised by Queen Victoria's husband, Prince Albert, who introduced the custom from his native Germany in 1840. The use of evergreen trees was an ancient custom of the Egyptians and Chinese to scare away the devil.

Another Christmas tradition is Santa Claus. 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 USA.

Interesting to know: Santa Claus in his current form was invented by the marketing department of the Coca-Cola Corporation in the late 19th century, drawing upon the Celtic Father Christmas native to Britain, Grandfather Frost of eastern Europe, Saint Nicolas in his German identity and other personalities of the winter solstice festivals.

Boxing Day (26 December) is so-called because it's a time when tradespeople receive a "Christmas Box" – some money in appreciation of the work they've carried out all year.

New Year (1 January). 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 which meaning has never been satisfactorily established).

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 "shrifts", 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 one 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!

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.

Egg rolling competitions take place in northern Britain 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 publicised event takes place at Avenham Park in Preston, Lancashire.

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.

Britain's National Costumes

England. Although England is a country rich in folklore and traditions, it has no definitive "national" costume. The most well-known folk costumes are those of the Morris dancers. They can be seen in many country villages during the summer months performing

folk dances that once held ritualistic and magical meanings associated with the awakening of the earth.

The costume varies from team to team, but basically consists of white trousers, a white shirt, a pad of bells worn around the calf of the leg, and a hat made of felt or straw, decorated with ribbons and flowers. The bells and ribbons are said to banish harm and bring fertility. Morris dancing was originally an all-male tradition, but now some teams feature women dancers too.

Scotland. Perhaps the most famous national costume in Britain is the Scottish kilt with its distinctive tartan pattern. The kilt is a rectangular length of woollen cloth, pleated except for sections at each end. The kilt is worn around the waist, with the pleats at the back and the ends crossed over at the front and secured with a pin. Each Scottish Clan or family has its own distinctive tartan pattern, made up of different colours, and an official register of tartans is maintained by the Scottish Tartans Society in Perthshire.

The kilt forms part of the traditional Highland dress, worn by Scottish clansmen and Scottish regiments. In addition to the kilt, a plaid or tartan cloak is worn over one shoulder, and a goatskin pouch or sporran is worn at the front of the kilt. Sometimes tartan trousers or trews are worn instead of a kilt. Women do not have their own

distinctive national dress in Scotland, although tartan fabrics are widely used in clothing, and the kilt is also worn.

Bagpipe is a woodwind musical instrument; it was invented in pre-Christian times. The Roman Emperor Nero was pictured playing pipes and there are many written references to his liking of the instrument. There are ancient Greek depictions of pipers, and the Roman legions are described as marching to the sound of bagpipes. So there is no written record as to when the bagpipes were introduced in Britain, but it would be likely that they were brought by the Roman invaders. An explosion of popularity was around the year 1000.

Wales. The national costume of Wales is based on the peasant costume of the 18th and 19th centuries. Because Wales was isolated geographically from the rest of Britain, many of the individual traits of costume and materials were retained in Welsh dress long after they had died out elsewhere. The typical female costume was designed and made popular by Lady Llanover.

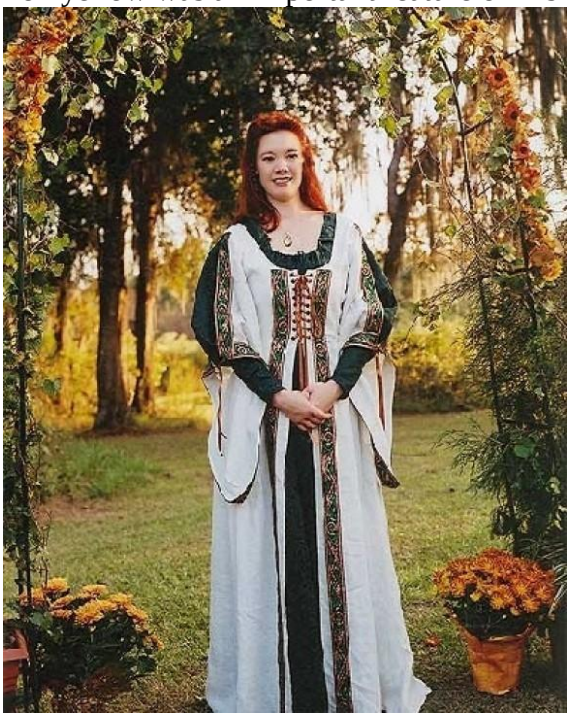
Unlike Scotland, the distinctive folk costume of Wales was worn by women, consisting of a long gown (bedgown) or skirt, worn with a petticoat (pais – the favoured colour was scarlet) and topped with a shawl folded diagonally to form a triangle and draped around

the shoulders, with one corner hanging down and two others pinned in front. Aprons were universally worn, sometimes simple, sometimes decorated with colourful embroidery.

The most distinctive part of the costume was the tall black "Welsh hat" or "beaver hat", thought to have originated in France at the end of the 18th century. The hats had a tall crown, cylindrical or conical in shape with a wide brim, and were usually trimmed with a band of silk or crêpe.

Northern Ireland. Early Irish dress, based on Gaelic and Norse costumes, consisted of check trews for men, worn with a fringed cloak or mantle, or a short tunic for both men and women, worn with a fringed cloak. This style of dressing was prohibited in the 16th century under sumptuary laws, passed to suppress the distinctive Irish dress and so overcome Irish reluctance to become part of England. In particular, the wearing of the fringed cloak was

forbidden, as was the wearing of trews or any saffron-coloured garment (saffron yellow was an important feature of Irish costume).



The Most Common Superstitions in Britain

There are many superstitions in Britain, but one of the most widely-held is that it is unlucky to walk under a ladder - even if it means stepping off the pavement into a busy street! If you must pass under a ladder you can avoid bad luck by crossing your fingers and keeping them crossed until you've seen a dog. Alternatively, you must lick your finger and make a cross on the toe of your shoe, and not look again at the shoe until the mark has dried.

Another common superstition is that it is unlucky to open an umbrella in the house – it will either bring misfortune to the person that opened it or to the household. Anyone opening an umbrella in fine weather is unpopular, as it inevitably brings rain!

The number 13 is said to be unlucky for some, and when the 13th day of the month falls on a Friday, anyone wishing to avoid an inauspicious event had better stay indoors.

The worst misfortune that can befall you is incurred by breaking a mirror, as it brings seven years of bad luck! The superstition is supposed to have originated in ancient times, when mirrors were considered to be tools of the gods.

Black cats are generally considered lucky in Britain, even though they are associated with witchcraft – a witch's animal-familiar is usually a black cat. It is especially lucky if a black cat crosses your path – although in America the exact opposite belief prevails.

Finally, a commonly-held superstition is that of touching wood for luck. This measure is most often taken if you think you have said something that is tempting fate, such as "my car has never broken down – touch wood"!

Popular Food in Britain

Britain's most popular "fast food" has got to be fish and chips. Fish and chip shops first made an appearance at the end of the 19th century and since then have been a firm favourite up and down the country. The dish is simplicity itself: fish (usually cod, haddock or plaice) is dipped in a batter made from flour, eggs and water and then deep fried in hot fat. Chips are made from thick batons of potato and deep fried.

The best-known British dish eaten at home has been roast beef, traditionally eaten on Sunday. The dish used to be so popular in England that the French still refer to the British as "les rosbifs". Roast beef is served with roast potatoes, vegetables and gravy – a sauce made from meat juices and stock, thickened with flour. Yorkshire pudding – batter baked in hot fat in the oven – is a favourite accompaniment to roast beef.

Haggis is Scotland's best-known regional dish, a rich, spicy concoction made from lamb's offal (lungs, liver and heart) mixed

with suet, onions, herbs and spices, all packed into a skin made of plastic or, traditionally, a sheep's stomach.

Traditionally served on Burns' Night, the haggis is often accompanied by mashed potatoes and mashed swede or turnips. Although the haggis neither sounds nor looks appetising, most people brave enough to try it agree that it is extremely tasty!

Still it is considered that British food has a strange, unpleasant taste, but rather that it has very little taste at all. Typical British cooking involves a lot of roasting and doesn't suite for the large scale production. Despite being a European hub of the spice trade, only salt and pepper was commonly used until recently. According to the British food should be eaten hot. Besides, British people have not got into the habit of preparing sauces with grilled food in order to make it tastier. Bread is not an accompaniment to every meal. It is commonly eaten with butter and marmalade. They simply don't care enough to bother. Even in fast food restaurant the quality is lower than it is in equivalent places in other country.

The country has neither a widespread restaurant culture nor café society. The lunch break is an hour at most, and people just want to eat up quickly and not interested much in quality.

By now, they are extremely open to the cuisine of the countries. But going to a restaurant is still rare event for most British people. The dishes have no English names, most commonly French. It also makes the food sound more exotic and therefore more exciting.

Popular Drinks

Everything in Britain, says a popular song, stops for tea. It's certainly true that tea is the most popular drink in Britain – far more popular than coffee, which is favoured throughout Europe and America. The Dutch brought the first tea to Europe in about 1610, but it was not until 1658 that the first advertisement for tea appeared in a London newspaper. By 1750, tea had become the principal drink of all the classes in Britain, yet at that time a pound of the cheapest tea cost about one-third of a skilled worker's weekly wage! Tea was jealously guarded by the lady of the house, and kept in special containers called tea-caddies, often with a lock, and carefully doled out by the teaspoon.

Gradually, tea-drinking developed into a fashionable social ritual and tea gardens blossomed in places like Vauxhall and Marylebone in London, where couples could stroll in the afternoon and enjoy a cup of tea with bread and butter and cakes. Tea parties were also popular at home, and soon the ritual of "afternoon tea" was firmly established. Today, throughout the homes, tea-shops and hotels of Britain, the custom of tea-time continues, and it remains a feature of any cricket match or summer fête.

The only widespread wines in the past used to be champagne, sherry and port. Everything began to change in 1960s, then a tendency toward the new, the unusual, variety began to accelerate.

Sports

The famous international tennis tournament at *Wimbledon* in South West London had humble beginnings as a small championship competition for some 20 players (all men) who paid an entrance fee of one guinea each to enter.

That first Lawn Tennis Championship was held at Worple Road, Wimbledon in 1877, home of the All England Croquet Club later to become the All England Lawn Tennis and Croquet Club (originally croquet was considered a more important sport than tennis). In 1884, Miss Maud Watson became the first women's singles champion.

In 1922, the Club moved to its present ground at Church Road, Wimbledon, with its famous Centre Court building designed by Captain Stanley Peach. Centre Court currently has a capacity for over 13,000 spectators.

Today, Wimbledon fortnight takes place in June each year, with most of the world's top-class tennis players competing for honours. During Wimbledon fortnight over 12 tons of salmon, 23 tons of strawberries and 285,000 cups of tea are supplied by caterers, together with 12,500 bottles of champagne.

In some international sporting tournaments, including *hockey, football and athletics* (Commonwealth Games), Britain sends four separate teams, representing the countries of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

In football, each team is representative of a separate national sporting association affiliated to FIFA (Federation Internationale of Football Association) which controls world football. Since 1972, a British football team has not competed at the Olympics as the four countries of the United Kingdom wish to maintain separate national teams, and under Olympic rules Britain is only allowed to send one team to the Olympics.

Football is commonly known as soccer in certain English-speaking nations. Still outside these nations the word "soccer" has not been commonly used.

"Someone said 'football is more important than life and death to you' and I said 'Listen, it's more important than that". – Bill Shankly, manager of Liverpool (1981).

As with football, *cricket* originated in England. The earliest references to cricket are from 1300 when Edward I was the king and the game was played in Kent.

Moreover to specially British kinds of sport belong snooker (billiards based game), squash (a racket sport played by two (singles) or four players (doubles) in a four-walled court with a small, hollow rubber ball), shinty (is now played mainly in the Scottish Highlands, a team game played with sticks and a ball), golf and rugby (National sport of Wales).

Recommended Resources:

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2. Лінгвокраїнознавство Великої Британії : Матеріали лекцій / укл. І. І. Морозова. – Х. : ХНУ ім. В. Н. Каразіна, 2009. – 100 с.
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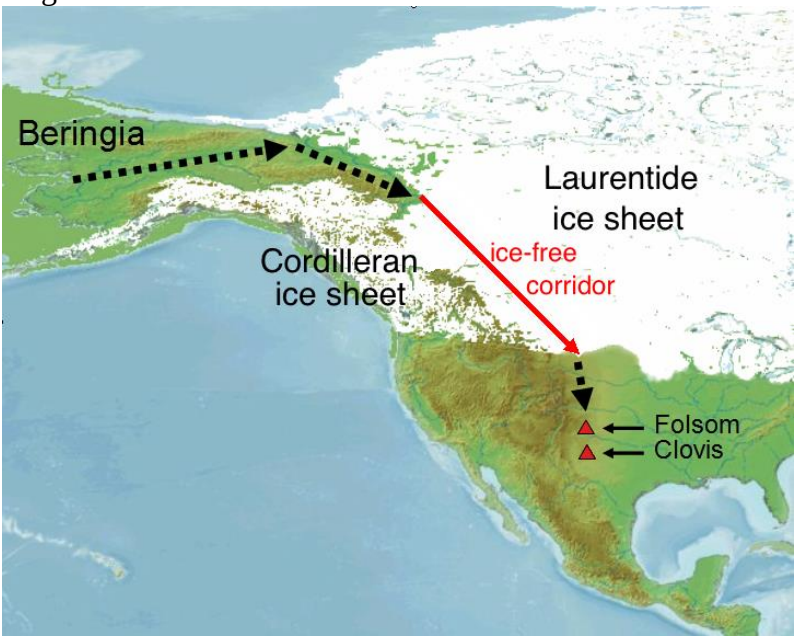
4. New World Encyclopedia [Electronic resource]. – Access : http://www.newworldencyclopedia.org/entry/Preschool_education.
5. United Kingdom. Wikipedia [Electronic resource]. – Access : https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Kingdom.

Lecture 6
HISTORY OF THE USA

The date of the start of the history of the United States is a subject of constant debate among historians. Older textbooks start with the arrival of Christopher Columbus in 1492 and emphasize the European background, or they start around 1600 and emphasize the American frontier. In recent decades, American schools and universities typically have shifted back in time to include more on the colonial period and much more on the prehistory of the Native peoples.

Native Americans

Based on anthropological and genetic evidence, scientists generally agree that most Native Americans descend from people who migrated from Siberia across the Bering Strait, at least 12,000 years ago.



The earliest peoples of the Americas came from Eurasia over a land bridge which connected the two continents across what is now the Bering Strait during a period of glaciation, when the sea water

level was lower. The number and nature of these migrations is uncertain, but the land bridge is believed to have existed only until about 12,000 years ago when the land bridge was flooded. Three major migrations occurred, as traced by linguistic and genetic data; the early Paleoamericans soon spread throughout the Americas, diversifying into many hundreds of culturally distinct nations and tribes. By 8000 BC, the North American climate was very similar to today's.

The society began building at this site about 950 AD, and reached its peak population in 1,250 AD of 20,000–30,000 people, which was not equaled by any city in the present-day United States until after 1800. Sophisticated pre-Columbian sedentary societies evolved in North America. The rise of the complex cultures was based on the people's adoption of maize agriculture, development of greater population densities, and chiefdom-level complex social organization from 1200 AD to 1650 AD. The introduction of maize from Mesoamerica allowed the accumulation of crop surpluses to support a higher density of population and led to development of specialized skills.

The European colonization of the Americas forever changed the lives and cultures of the Native Americans. In the 15th to 19th centuries, their populations were ravaged by the results of displacement, disease, and in many cases by wars with the European groups and enslavement by them.

Europeans brought diseases against which the Native Americans had no immunity. Some historians estimate that up to 80 % of Native populations may have died due to European diseases. There are a number of documented cases where diseases were deliberately spread among Native Americans as a form of biological warfare. The most well known example occurred in 1763, when Sir Jeffrey Amherst, Commander-in-Chief of the Forces of the British Army, wrote praising the use of smallpox infected blankets to "extirpate" the Indian race.

Interesting to know: In recent years it has become popular to assert that Native Americans learned scalping

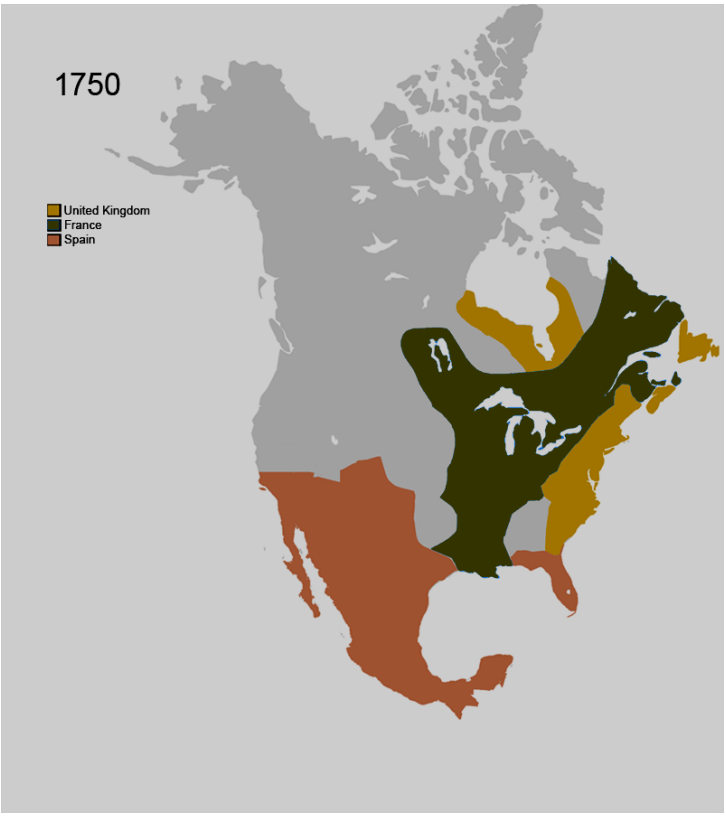
from Europeans. Historical evidence suggests that scalping by Native Americans had not been practiced before contact with the Europeans.

US Colonization

The first Europeans to reach North America were Icelandic Vikings, led by Leif Ericson, in about the year 1000. In 1492, the Italian navigator Christopher Columbus, acting on behalf of the Spanish crown, sailed west from Europe and landed on one of the Bahama Islands. Columbus never saw the mainland United States, but the first explorations of the continental United States were launched from the Spanish possessions that he helped establish. Within 40 years, Spanish adventurers had carved out a huge empire in Central and South America. In 1513, a group of men under Juan Ponce de Leon landed on the Florida coast near the present city of St. Augustine.

To many Europeans, the New World offered opportunities for wealth and power. Having concentrated on central and south America, where they found gold in huge quantities during the 1500's, Spaniards moved into what is now the Southeastern and Western United States. The English and French began exploring eastern North America in about 1500. At first, both nations sent only explorers, but since 1600 they began permanent settlement there.

The first English colony was founded at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607. Early settlements developed in New England, in the Middle Colonies and the Southern Colonies. In 1620, the Pilgrims arrived on the Mayflower and founded Plymouth Colony in Massachusetts. In 1681, William Penn, a wealthy Quaker, received a large tract of land, which became known as Pennsylvania. To help populate it, Penn actively recruited immigrants, among them many religious dissenters, e.g. Quakers, Mennonites, Amish, Moravians and Baptists. The first German community was established in Pennsylvania in 1683. By 1733, thirteen English colonies had been established along the Atlantic Coast.



The southern settlements were predominantly rural. In Virginia and Maryland, the planters supported by slave labor held most of the political power and the best land. At the same time, yeoman farmers, who worked smaller tracts of land, sat in popular assemblies and found their way into political office. Charleston, South Carolina, became the leading port and trading center of the South. Whereas Virginia was bound to a single crop – tobacco – North and South Carolina also exported rice and indigo.

Interesting to know: Although Queen Elizabeth I introduced the notion of punishing criminals by sending them to another country as early as 1619, when the first cargo of convicts was sent to the New World, the term transportation seems to have come into vogue around

1680 during Charles II's reign. It was intended to be an alternative to execution and it became formal concept in 1717 with George III's "Transportation Act".

One of the most striking characteristics of the mainland colonies in the 18th century was their rapid growth. In 1700, only 250,000 people resided in the colonies; by 1775, it had become 2.5 million. Immigration accounted for a considerable share of growth. European immigration flooded England's mainland colonies.

When 18th century immigrants came to the New World, they found themselves at the bottom of the social scale. By the time they arrived, American society was already dominated by the wealthy, native-born families. Unlike their 17th century predecessors the new non-English immigrants had little opportunity to improve their circumstances.

The slave trade was then also firmly established that by the 1750s, there were 250,000 black slaves brought from Africa, supporting a white population of over 700,000.

Revolution (1775 – 1783)

In 1763, the end of the Seven Years' War and the French and Indian Wars left England in control of Canada and all of North America east of the Mississippi. The colonies long accustomed to a large measure of independence, were now demanding more freedom. They had grown vastly in economic strength and cultural attainment, and virtually all had long years of self-government behind them.

The British government, which needed more money to support its growing empire, started a new financial policy. King George III and the British Parliament believed that the time had come for the colonists to start obeying trade regulations and paying their share of the cost of maintaining the British Empire. A succession of Acts of Parliament were enacted and repealed but none were accepted by the colonists, who were not represented in Parliament and so they argued that Britain had no right to tax them. On April 19, 1775, the American Revolution broke out between the Americans and the British. The conflict escalated and King

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

On July 4, 1776, the Continental Congress adopted a Declaration of Independence. Armed conflict between America and England lasted until 1783. Known as the Treaty of Paris, the peace settlement acknowledged the independence, freedom and sovereignty of the 13 former colonies, now states, to which Great Britain granted the territory west to the Mississippi River, north to Canada and south to Florida, which was returned to Spain.

In May 1787, a convention met in Philadelphia to draft a new Constitution. The men who wrote it included some of the most famous and important figures in American history. Among them were George Washington, James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, Benjamin Franklin. They are considered to be the Founding Fathers of the United States.

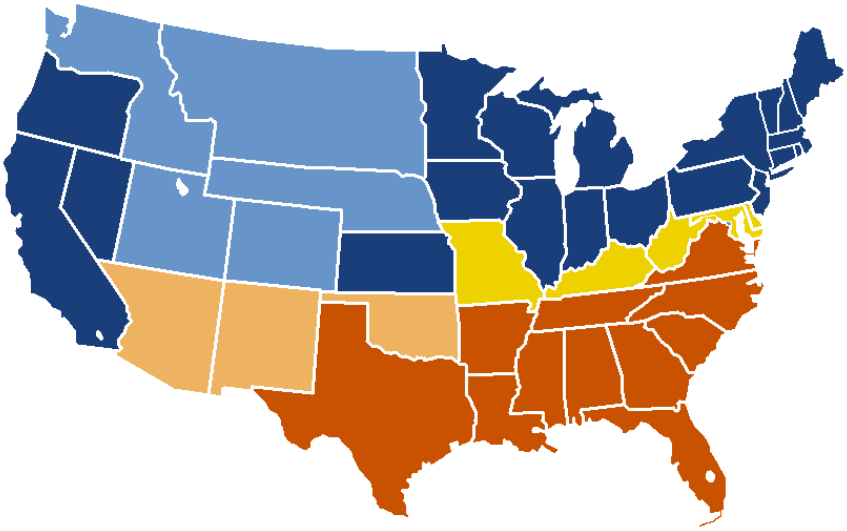
George Washington – a renowned hero of the American Revolutionary War, commander-in-chief of the Continental Army, and president of the Constitutional Convention – became the first President of the United States under the new Constitution in 1789. The national capital moved from New York to Philadelphia and finally settled in Washington DC in 1800.

Slavery

In the early 19th century, slavery began to assume greater importance as a national issue. In the early years of the republic, many leaders had supposed that slavery would die out. As late as 1808, when the international slave trade was abolished, many thought that slavery would soon end. But during the next generation, the South became solidly united behind the institution of slavery as new economic factors made slavery far more profitable than it had been before 1790. Chief among these was the rise of a great cotton-growing industry. Sugarcane and tobacco, two labor-intensive crops, also contributed to slavery's extension.

The country was divided into states permitting slavery (Southerners) and states prohibiting it (Northerners). After Abraham

Lincoln was elected president in 1860, eleven states left the Union and proclaimed themselves an independent nation, the Confederate States of America: South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee, and North Carolina. The American Civil War began on April 12, 1861.



Union states: dark gray (free) and light gray (slave). *Confederacy states*: southern (slave) U.S. territories: lighter shades of gray. During the American Civil War, the Union was the term used to refer to the United States of America and specifically to the national government and the 23 free states and five border slave states that supported it. The Union was opposed by 11 southern slave states that formed the Confederate States of America, or "the Confederacy".

Four years later, the Confederates surrendered. No other war in history has taken so many American lives. The Civil War put an end to slavery; it also made clear that the country was not a collection of semi-independent states but an indivisible whole. In December 1865, Congress ratified the 13th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, which abolished slavery. The 14th Amendment (1868)

confirmed the citizenship of blacks, and the 15th Amendment (1870) made it illegal to deny the right to vote on the basis of race.

Growth of the USA

Interesting to know: Uncle Sam symbolizes the U.S. government. He is a tall, thin man with white hair and a white beard. He wears a tall hat, a bow tie, and the stars and stripes of the American flag. During the war 1812 (with Britain), the U.S. government hired meat packers to provide meat to the army. One of these meat packers was Samuel Wilson. He stamped the boxes of meat for the army with a large "U.S." – for the United States. A government inspector came to look over Sam's company. He asked the worker about "U.S." on the boxes. As a joke, the worker answered that these letters stood for the name of his boss, Uncle Sam. Thus, "Uncle Sam" became a nickname for the U.S. government.

In the first quarter of the 19th century, the frontier was pushed beyond the Mississippi River. In 1803, President Jefferson negotiated the purchase of Louisiana with the French. France – then ruled by Napoleon Bonaparte – was powerful and aggressive. Jefferson viewed French control of Louisiana as a danger to the United States. So in 1803, he arranged the purchase of the area from France.

From 1816 to 1821, six new states were created – Indiana, Illinois, Maine, Mississippi, Alabama and Missouri. Western expansion led to increasing conflicts with the Indians of the West.

Between the Civil War and the First World War, the United States of America was transformed from a rural republic to an urban state. The country became a leading industrial power. Great factories and steel mills, flourishing cities and vast agricultural holdings marked the land. The first transcontinental railroad was completed in 1869, and by 1900, the United States had more rail mileage than all of Europe. The petroleum, steel and textile industries prospered. An

electrical industry flourished as Americans made use of a series of inventions: the telephone, the light bulb, the phonograph.

The South, however, remained even thirty years after the Civil War largely poor, overwhelmingly agrarian and economically dependent. Its society enforced a rigid social segregation of blacks from whites and tolerated recurrent racial violence.

The struggle over the Mexican territory began in Texas in 1835, when the American settlers here staged a revolt against Mexican rule. In 1836 the settlers proclaimed Texas an independent republic, but also requested U.S. statehood. 9 years later, the U.S. annexed Texas and made it a state. In 1853, with the Gadsden Purchase, America bought from Mexico the strip of the land that makes up the southern edge of Arizona and New Mexico. The United States then owned all the territory of its present states except Alaska and Hawaii.

The last decades of the 19th century were a period of imperial expansion for the United States, as it extended its influence, and at times its domain, over widely scattered areas in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans and into Central America. In 1867, America

purchased Alaska from Russia. Within a few years after the end of the Spanish-American War in 1898, the United States was exercising control or influence over islands in the Caribbean Sea, the mid-Pacific and close to the Asian mainland. When the Hawaiian royal government announced its intention to end foreign influence in 1893, American businessmen joined with influential Hawaiians to install a new government, and in July 1898 the islands were annexed.

Progressive Era

The Progressive Era lasted from about 1890 to the outbreak of World War I. In response to the excesses of 19th-century capitalism and political corruption, a reform movement arose called "progressivism". Almost all the notable figures of the period were connected, at least in part, with the reform movement. The goals of the Progressives were greater democracy and social justice, honest government, more effective regulation of business and a revived commitment to public service. The years 1902 to 1908 marked the era of the greatest reform activity. Many states enacted laws to improve the conditions under which people lived and worked. Child labor laws were strengthened and new ones adopted, raising age limits, shortening work hours, restricting night work and requiring school attendance.

When World War I erupted in Europe in 1914, President Woodrow Wilson urged a policy of strict American neutrality. In January 1917, Germany declared unrestricted submarine warfare against all ships bound for Allied ports. After five American vessels had been sunk, Congress declared war on Germany in April 1917. An armistice ending World War I was declared on November 11, 1918.

The changes wrought in the 1920s were far-reaching. The work week dropped from 60 to 48 hours. For the first time, play was considered to be as important as work. It was a wonderful decade for the arts and literature in America. Technology grew and automobiles, radios and movies became hugely popular. With profits soaring and interest rates low, plenty of money was available for investment.

World War II

As Germany, Italy and Japan continued their aggression, the United States announced that no country involved in the conflict could look to it for aid. Neutrality legislation, enacted from 1935 to 1937, prohibited trade with or credit to any of the warring nations. Neutrality was also the initial American response to the outbreak of war in Europe in 1939.

On December 7, 1941, the Japanese bombed the U.S. Pacific fleet at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. On December 8, Congress declared a state of war with Japan; three days later its allies Germany and Italy declared war on the United States. The nation rapidly geared itself for mobilization of its people and its entire industrial capacity. All the nation's activities – farming, manufacturing, mining, trade, labor, investment, communications, even education and cultural undertakings – were in some fashion brought under new and enlarged controls. By the end of 1943, approximately 65 million men and women were in uniform or in war-related occupations.

The western Allies decided that their essential military effort was to be concentrated in Europe, where the core of enemy power lay, while the Pacific theater was to be secondary. On D-Day, June 6, 1944, Allied forces landed in Normandy. On August 25, Paris was liberated. By February and March 1945, troops advanced into Germany. On May 7, Germany surrendered. The war in the Pacific continued after Germany's surrender. On August 6, an atomic bomb was dropped on the city of Hiroshima, and on August 8, an atomic bomb was dropped on Nagasaki. On August 14, Japan agreed to terms set at Potsdam on July 26, and on September 2, 1945, Japan formally surrendered.

Decades of Changes

Following World War II, the United States emerged as one of the two dominant superpowers, the USSR being the other. The U.S. Senate on a bipartisan vote approved U.S. participation in the United Nations (UN), which marked a turn away from the traditional isolationism of the U.S. and toward increased international

involvement. In the decades after World War II, the United States became a global influence in economic, political, military, cultural, and technological affairs. Beginning in the 1950s, middle-class culture became obsessed with consumer goods.

In 1960, John F. Kennedy was elected president. At 43, he was the youngest man ever to win the presidency. Kennedy wanted to exert strong leadership to extend economic benefits to all citizens.

In October 1962, Kennedy was faced with what turned out to be the most drastic crisis of the Cold War: the Cuban Missile Crisis. When the Soviet Union installed nuclear missiles in Cuba, Kennedy decided on a quarantine to prevent Soviet ships from bringing additional missiles to Cuba, and he demanded publicly that the Soviets remove the weapons. After several days of tension, the Soviets backed down. Space was another arena for competition after the Soviet Union launched Sputnik in 1957. In April 1961, they capped a series of triumphs in space by sending the first man into orbit around the Earth. President Kennedy responded with a promise that Americans would walk on the moon before the decade was over and in July of 1969, Neil Armstrong stepped onto the moon's surface.

The 1965 reform in immigration policy shifted the focus away from Western Europe, and the number of new arrivals from Asia and Latin America increased.

After 26 consecutive years of Democratic control, the Republicans gained a majority in the Senate in 1980, and Republican Ronald Reagan was elected president.

The central theme of Reagan's domestic policy was that the federal government had become too big and federal taxes too high. In foreign policy, President Reagan sought a more assertive role for the nation. In relations with the Soviet Union, President Reagan's declared policy was one of peace through strength. During his first term, the administration increased spending on defense expenditures. After the reelection in 1984, Reagan softened his rigid position on arms control. A recession marked the early years of Reagan's presidency, but conditions started to improve in 1983 as the United

States entered one of the longest periods of sustained economic growth since World War II.

In 1988, Reagan's vice president during all eight years of his presidency, George Bush was elected the 41st president of the United States. Bush faced a dramatically changing world, as the Cold War ended after 40 bitter years, the Communist empire broke up, and the Berlin Wall fell.

The long-term effects of events and trends occurring at the beginning of the 21st century have yet to be fully understood. In the past, the United States has thrived on such challenges. From its origins as a set of obscure colonies hugging the Atlantic coast, the United States has undergone a remarkable transformation into what political analyst Ben Wattenberg has called "the first universal nation," a population of almost 300 million people representing virtually every nationality and ethnic group on the globe. It is also a nation where the pace and extent of change – economic, technological, cultural, demographic, and social – is unceasing.

Recommended Resources:

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Lecture 7
THE USA AS THEY ARE

Geography

The United States is a country which consists of forty-eight contiguous states in North America, Alaska, and Hawaii. Those which border one another on the continent are grouped into seven regions: New England (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island and Vermont), Middle Atlantic States (New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania), Southern States (Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia), Midwestern States (Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin), Rocky Mountain States (Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Utah, Wyoming), Southwestern States (Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas), and Pacific Coast States (California, Oregon, Washington).

The term "United States", when used in the geographical sense, is the contiguous United States, the state of Alaska, the island state of Hawaii, the five insular territories of Puerto Rico, Northern Mariana Islands, U.S. Virgin Islands, Guam, and American Samoa, and minor outlying possessions. The country shares land borders with Canada and Mexico and maritime (water) borders with Russia, Cuba, and the Bahamas in addition to Canada and Mexico.

Without Hawaii and Alaska, the continental U.S. measures 4,505 kilometers from its Atlantic to Pacific coasts and 2,574 kilometers from Canada to Mexico; it covers 9,372,614 square kilometers. In area, it is the fourth largest nation in the world (behind Russia, Canada and China).

The sparsely settled far-northern state of Alaska, is the largest of America's 50 states with a land mass of 1,477,887 square kilometers. Alaska is nearly 400 times the size of Rhode Island, which is the smallest state; but Alaska, with 521,000 people, has half the population of Rhode Island.

As of December 2, 2015, the United States has a total resident population of 322,267,564, making it the third most populous country in the world. It is very urbanized, with 81 % residing in cities and suburbs as of 2014 (the worldwide urban rate is 54 %). California and Texas are the most populous states, as the mean center of U.S. population has consistently shifted westward and southward. New York City is the most populous city in the United States

The United States is also a land of bountiful rivers and lakes. Great lakes: Ontario, Huron, Superior, Erie and Michigan. Rivers: Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Colorado, Columbia and Rio Grande.

The northern state of Minnesota, for example, is known as the land of 10,000 lakes. The broad Mississippi River system, of great historic and economic importance to the U.S., runs 5,969 kilometers from Canada into the Gulf of Mexico – the world's third longest river after the Nile and the Amazon. A canal south of Chicago joins one of the tributaries of the Mississippi to the five Great Lakes – making it the world's largest inland water transportation route and the biggest body of fresh water in the world. The St. Lawrence Seaway, which the U.S. shares with Canada, connects the Great Lakes with the Atlantic Ocean, allowing seagoing vessels to travel 3,861 kilometers inland, as far as Duluth, Minnesota, during the spring, summer and fall shipping season. The Great Lakes are the largest group of fresh water lakes on the earth.

The geography of the United States varies across their immense area. Within the continental U.S., eight distinct physiographic divisions exist. These major divisions are:

Laurentian Upland – part of the Canadian Shield that extends into the northern United States Great Lakes area.

Atlantic Plain – the coastal regions of the eastern and southern parts that include the continental shelf, the Atlantic Coast and the Gulf Coast.

Appalachian Highlands – lying on the eastern side of the United States; the region includes the Appalachian Mountains, the Watchung Mountains, the Adirondacks and New England province originally containing the Great Eastern Forest.

Interior Plains – part of the interior continental United States; it includes much of what is called the Great Plains.

Interior Highlands – also part of the interior continental United States; this division includes the Ozark Plateau.

Rocky Mountain System – one branch of the Cordilleran system lying far inland in the western states.

Intermontane Plateaus – also divided into the Columbia Plateau, the Colorado Plateau and the Basin and Range Province; it is a system of plateaus, basins, ranges and gorges between the Rocky and Pacific Mountain Systems. It is the setting for the Grand Canyon, the Great Basin and Death Valley.

Pacific Mountain System – the coastal mountain ranges and features in the west coast of the United States.

The Atlantic coast of the United States is, with minor exceptions, low. The Pacific coast is mountainous (Appalachian system, Cordilleran system, Rocky Mountain System and Pacific Mountain System). Elevation extremes are the following:

- the lowest point: Death Valley, Inyo County, California −282 ft (−86 m) below sea level
- the highest point: Mount McKinley, Denali Borough, Alaska +20,320 ft (6,194 m) above sea level.

The capital city, Washington, District of Columbia, is a federal district located on land donated by the state of Maryland.

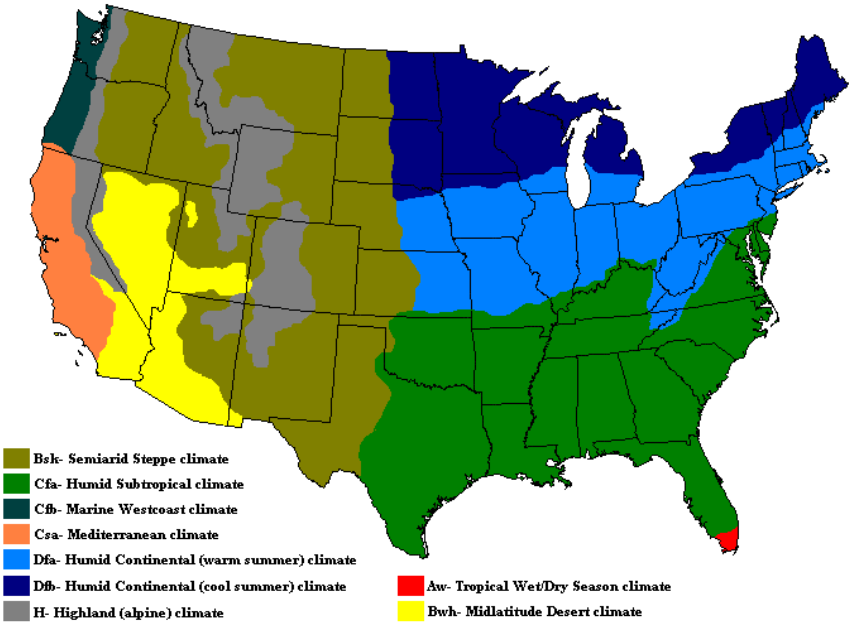
Climate

Due to its large size and wide range of geographic features, the United States contains examples of nearly every global climate. The climate is temperate in most areas, subtropical in the Deep South, tropical in Hawaii and southern Florida, polar in Alaska, semiarid in the Great Plains west of the 100th meridian, Mediterranean in coastal California and arid in the Great Basin.

Most of the United States is in the temperate zone, with four distinct seasons and varying numbers of hot and cold days each season, while the northern tier of states and Alaska have extremely cold winters. In northern Alaska, tundra and arctic conditions

predominate, and the temperature has fallen as low as −80 °F (−62.2 °C). On the other end of the spectrum, Death Valley, California once reached 134 °F (56.7 °C), the second-highest temperature ever recorded on Earth.

Climate Zones of the Continental United States



The United States is affected by a variety of natural disasters yearly. In central portions of the U.S., tornadoes are more common than anywhere else on Earth and touch down most commonly in the spring and summer. Deadly and destructive hurricanes occur almost every year along the Atlantic seaboard and the Gulf of Mexico. The Appalachian region and the Midwest experience the worst floods, though virtually no area in the U.S. is immune to flooding. The West is affected by large wildfires each year.

The Great Plains and Midwest, due to the contrasting air masses, sees frequent severe thunderstorms and tornado outbreaks during spring and summer with around 1,000 tornadoes occurring each year. The strip of land from north Texas north to Kansas and

east into Tennessee is known as Tornado Alley, where many houses have tornado shelters and many towns have tornado sirens.

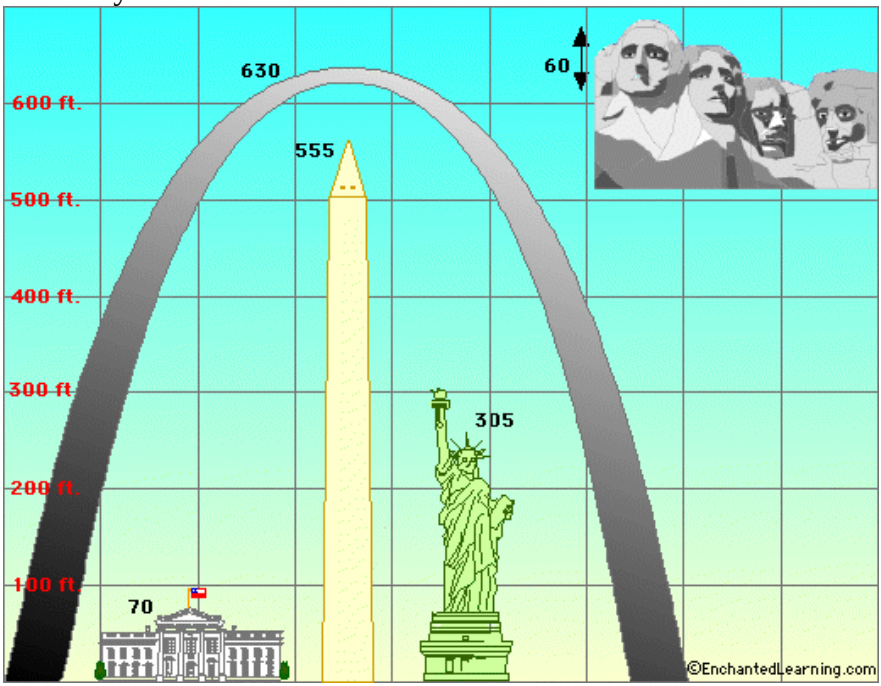
Another natural disaster that frequents the country are hurricanes, which can hit anywhere along the Gulf Coast or the Atlantic Coast as well as Hawaii in the Pacific Ocean. Particularly at risk are the central and southern Texas coasts, the area from southeastern Louisiana east to the Florida Panhandle, the east coast of Florida, and the Outer Banks of North Carolina, although any portion of the coast could be struck. Hurricane season runs from June 1 to November 30, with a peak from mid-August through early October. Some of the more devastating hurricanes have included the Galveston Hurricane of 1900, Hurricane Andrew in 1992, and Hurricane Katrina in 2005. The remnants of tropical cyclones from the Eastern Pacific also occasionally impact the western United States, bringing moderate to heavy rainfall.

The West Coast of the continental United States and areas of Alaska (including the Aleutian Islands, the Alaskan Peninsula and southern Alaskan coast) make up part of the Pacific Ring of Fire, an area of heavy tectonic and volcanic activity that is the source of 90 % of the world's earthquakes. The American Northwest sees the highest concentration of active volcanoes in the United States, in Washington, Oregon and northern California along the Cascade Mountains. There are several active volcanoes located in the islands of Hawaii.

Symbols

There are many symbols that represent the United States of America. Some of the most popular ones are the Stars and Stripes (the U.S. flag), the Great Seal of the USA, the bald eagle (the national bird), the Washington Monument, the Lincoln Memorial, the U.S. Capitol, the White House, Independence Hall, the Liberty Bell, the Statue of Liberty (a gift from France), the Gateway Arch (in St. Louis, Missouri), Mount Rushmore (carved on a mountain in South Dakota), the Alamo, the Star-Spangled Banner (the national anthem of the USA), the Pledge of Allegiance, Yankee Doodle,

Uncle Sam (a cartoon figure designed by Thomas Nast), the Vietnam Veterans Memorial, the Jefferson Memorial, Gettysburg, Monticello, Mount Vernon, the Golden Gate Bridge, the World War 2 Memorial, and many others.



The flag of the United States of America, often referred to as the American flag, is the national flag of the United States. It consists of thirteen equal horizontal stripes of red (top and bottom) alternating with white, with a blue rectangle in the canton (referred to specifically as the "union") bearing fifty 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 states of the United States of America, and the 13 stripes represent the thirteen British colonies that declared independence from the Kingdom of Great Britain, and became the first states in the Union. Nicknames for the flag include *the Stars and Stripes, Old Glory, and the Star-Spangled Banner*.

The modern meaning of the flag was forged in December 1860, when Major Robert Anderson moved the U.S. garrison from Fort Moultrie to Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor. Author Adam Goodheart argues this was the opening move of the American Civil War, and the flag was used throughout northern states to symbolize American nationalism and rejection of secessionism.

The first seal of the President of the United States of America was designed by Benjamin Franklin, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson at the request of the Continental Congress. The design was approved on June 20, 1782. The design on the obverse (or front) of the seal is the coat of arms of the United States, although the U.S. have never adopted any national coat of arms.

The seal pictures an American bald eagle holding a ribbon in its beak; the ribbon has the motto of the USA, "E PLURIBUS UNUM," meaning "Out of many, one". The eagle is clutching an olive branch (with 13 olives and 13 leaves) in one foot (symbolizing peace) and 13 arrows in the other (the 13 stands for the original 13 colonies and the arrows symbolize the acceptance of the need to go to war to protect the country).

A shield is in front of the eagle; the shield has 13 red and white stripes (representing the original 13 colonies) with a blue bar

above it (it symbolizes the uniting of the 13 colonies and represents congress). Above the eagle are rays, a circle of clouds, and 13 white stars.

"In God We Trust" is the official motto of the United States. It was adopted as the nation's motto in 1956 as an alternative or replacement to the unofficial motto of "E pluribus unum", which was adopted when the Great Seal of the United States was created and adopted in 1782. "In God we trust" first appeared on U.S. coins in 1864 and has appeared on paper currency since 1957. A law passed in a Joint Resolution by the 84th Congress and approved by President Dwight Eisenhower on July 30, 1956 declared IN GOD WE TRUST must appear on currency. This phrase was first used on paper money in 1957, when it appeared on the one-dollar silver certificate. The first paper currency bearing the phrase entered circulation on October 1, 1957.

The bald eagle is a magnificent bird of prey that is native to North America. This majestic eagle is not really bald; white feathers cover its head. The derivation of the name "bald" is from an obsolete English word meaning white. The bald eagle has been the national symbol of the USA since 1782.

The bald eagle was chosen for its majestic beauty, great strength, long life, and because it's native to North America.

In 1986 President Ronald Reagan signed legislation to make the rose the floral emblem of the United States. In the United States, state flowers and trees have been adopted as symbols by state legislatures.

"The Star-Spangled Banner" is the national anthem of the United States of America. The lyrics come from "Defence of Fort

M'Henry", a poem written on September 13, 1814 by the 35-year-old lawyer and amateur poet Francis Scott Key after witnessing the bombardment of Fort McHenry by British ships of the Royal Navy in Baltimore Harbor during the Battle of Fort McHenry in the War of 1812. "The Star-Spangled Banner" was recognized for official use by the United States Navy in 1889 and by U.S. President Woodrow Wilson in 1916 and was made the national anthem by a congressional resolution on March 3, 1931, which was signed by President Herbert Hoover.

Language

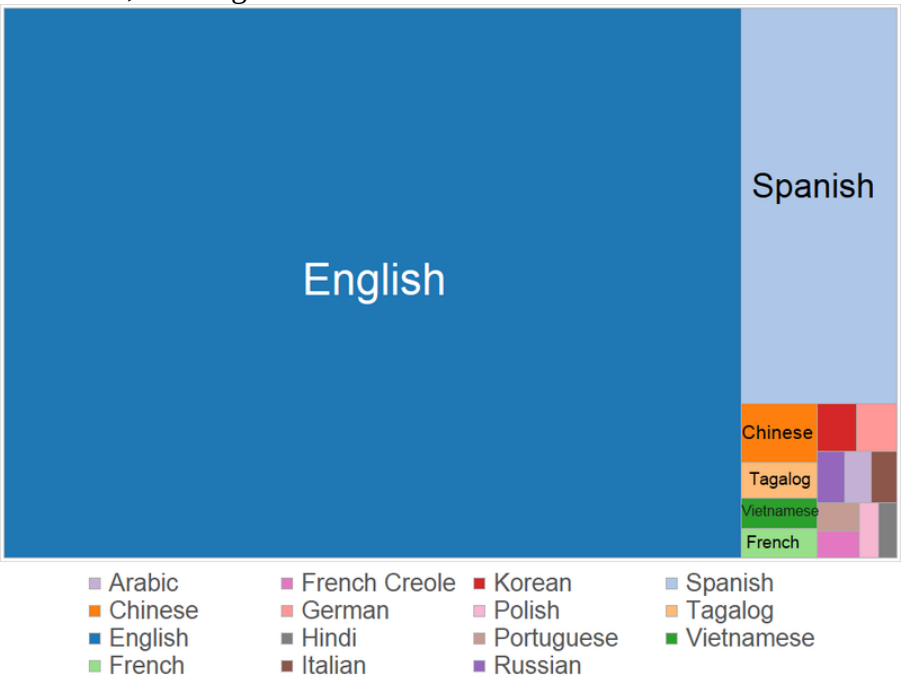
Many languages are used or historically have been used in the United States. The most commonly used language is English. There are also many languages indigenous to North America or to U.S. states or holdings in the Pacific region. Approximately 337 languages are spoken or signed by the population, of which 176 are indigenous to the area.

The most common language in the United States is known as American English. However, no official language exists at the federal level. English was inherited from British colonization, and it is spoken by the majority of the population. It serves as the de facto official language, the language in which government business is carried out. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, 80 % spoke only English at home and all but approximately 13,600,000 U.S. residents age 5 and over speak English "well" or "very well".

American English is different from British English in terms of spelling (one example being the dropped "u" in words such as color/colour), grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and slang usage. The differences are not usually a barrier to effective communication between an American English and a British English speaker, but there are certainly enough differences to cause occasional misunderstandings, usually surrounding slang or region dialect differences.

Since the 1965 Immigration Act, Spanish is the second most common language in the country and is spoken by approximately 35

million people. The United States holds the world's fifth largest Spanish-speaking population, outnumbered only by Mexico, Spain, Colombia, and Argentina.



Stereotypes

- Materialism, overconsumption, and extreme capitalism

"Popular stereotype of Americans is that of economic. They may be seen as caring about nothing but money, judging everything by its economic value, and scorning those of lower socioeconomic status".

- Obesity

Among the most popular stereotypes is that Americans eat an excess amount of fast food and are obese. With 33.8 % of the population obese, of all the countries of the developed world, the United States has the highest rate of obesity. This is well reflected by the popular "fat American" stereotype.

This is possibly the most common stereotype. Are American people really fat? Is it true or is it just a false reputation? Hold on, the facts: According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, in 2014–2015, 33.8 % of U.S. adults and 16.9 % of U.S. children and adolescents were obese. So the truth is that 1 out of 3 of the United States' population is obese, which is a scary percentage. But come on, look at the bright side, this means that the other two thirds of the population is fit.

- Gun-loving, violent culture

Americans have a long historical fondness of guns and this is often portrayed by American media. A considerable percentage of Americans owns firearms. The United States has one of the highest death rates caused by firearms in the developed world. The international media often reports American mass shootings, making these incidents well known internationally.

- Arrogance and boastfulness

Many people see Americans as arrogant people. Americans may be seen by people of other countries as arrogant and egomaniacal. American president Barack Obama said that America has shown arrogance, been dismissive and even derisive. American boys may be stereotyped as vain.

- Generosity

A positive stereotype of Americans is that they are very generous. The United States sends aid and supplies to many countries, and Americans may be seen as people who are charitable or volunteer.

- Volunteerism

De Tocqueville first noted, in 1835, the American attitude towards helping others in need. A 2010 Charities Aid Foundation study found that Americans were the fifth most willing to donate time and money in the world at 55 %.

Recommended Resources:

1. Гапонів А. Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни / А. Б. Гапонів, М. О. Возна. – Вінниця : Нова нига, 2005. – 463 с.
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Lecture 8
THE USA SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

Political Life in the USA

The city of Washington, in the District of Columbia along the Potomac River, is the capital of a federal union of 50 states. When the United States declared its independence from Great Britain on July 4, 1776 (now celebrated as a national holiday), there were 13 original states – each one sovereign, each wanting to control its own affairs. The states tried to keep their sovereignty and independence within a loose confederation. Therefore, in 1789, they adopted a new Constitution establishing a federal union under a strong central government.

Under the Constitution, the states delegated many of their sovereign powers to this central government in Washington. But they kept many important powers for themselves. Each of the 50 states, for example, retains the right to run its own public school system, to decide on the qualifications of its voters, to license its doctors and other professionals, to provide police protection for its citizens and to maintain its roads.

Under the Constitution, the federal government is divided into three branches, each chosen in a different manner, each able to check and balance the others. Thus, the United States is a federal constitutional republic, in which the President of the United States (the head of state and head of government), Congress, and judiciary share powers reserved to the national government, and the federal government shares sovereignty with the state governments.

Executive Power

The Executive Branch is headed by the President, who, together with the Vice President, is chosen in nationwide elections every four years (in every year divisible by four). The Presidency in the USA is the highest governmental office. President in the USA is the head of the state and the government, and also the commander-in-chief of the US Armed Forces.

The elective process for a U.S. President is unique. Americans vote for slates of presidential electors equal to the number of Senators and Representatives each state has in Congress (a total of 535 persons). The candidate with the highest number of votes in each state wins all the electoral votes of that state. The presidential candidate needs 270 electoral votes to be elected; if no candidate has a majority, the House of Representatives makes the decision. Any natural-born American who is 35 years old or older and for at least 14 years resident of the USA may be elected to this office.

The President proposes bills to Congress, enforces federal laws, serves as Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces and, with the approval of the Senate, makes treaties and appoints federal judges, ambassadors and other members of the Executive Departments (the Departments of State, Defense Commerce, Justice, etc.). Each Cabinet head holds the title of Secretary and together they form a council called the Cabinet.

A Cabinet of 12 members assists the US President. Cabinet secretaries correspond to European ministers. They are heads of different departments and are responsible to President. Today these 13 departments are State, Treasury, Defence, Justice, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, Labour, Health and Human Services, Housing and Urban Development, Transportation, Energy and Education.

The Vice President, elected from the same political party as the President, acts as chairman of the Senate, and in the event of the death or disability of the President, assumes the Presidency for the balance of his term.

Executive Branch

- President suggests legislation to Congress - Issues executive orders, rules and regulations with the force of legislation - May veto legislation passed by Congress	- President appoints federal judges - May grant pardons from punishment for offences against the United States

Legislative Power

The Legislative Branch is made up of two houses: the Senate (the upper house) and the House of Representatives (the lower house). The 435 seats in the House of Representatives are allocated on the basis of state's population, although every state has at least one representative. Democrats sit on the Speakers right, republicans – on his left. The Speaker presides over the House and conducts debates. The Speaker, like Vice-president, may vote. Most of the Congressmen are lawyers, businessman and bankers. Each state elects two members of the 100-member Senate; a Senator's term of office is six years.

Makeup of the Congress

	House of Representatives	Senate
Total membership...	435	100
Number of members for each state...	According to population	2
Elected by...	Voters of Congressional District For Representatives at Large, voters of the entire state	Voters of the entire state
Term of office...	2 years	6 years
Vacancy...	Filled by special election or at next general election	Special election or temporary appointment by State Governor until special or regular election
Presiding Officer...	Speaker	Vice President of the United States
Exclusive powers of each house...	(1) Originates revenue bills (2) Impeaches civil officers (3) Elects a President if no candidate has a majority of the electoral vote	(1) Approves or rejects treaties (2) Tries impeached officers (3) Confirms or rejects appointments made by the President (4) Elects a Vice President if no candidate has a majority of the electoral vote

A new Congress session begins on the 3rd of January each odd number year and continues for two years. A Congressman must work long and hard. But most of their work is done in committee meetings. Here bills are studied, experts are consulted, and recommendations are made to the whole House of Senate. During a

two year term of a Congress, as many as 20,000 bills are introduced. There are 16 “standing” or permanent committees in the Senate, and 22 in the House. They accept and improve some bills but reject most of them. Before a bill becomes a law, it must be read, studied in committees, commented on and amended in the Senate or House chamber in which it was introduced. It is then voted upon. If it passes, it is sent to the other house where a similar procedure occurs. If the chambers have passed different versions of the same bill, members of both houses work together in “conference committees”. Groups who try to persuade Congressmen to vote for or against a bill are known as “lobbies”.

When both houses of Congress pass a bill on which they agree, it is sent to the president for his signature. If President disapproves, he vetoes a bill by refusing to sign it and sends it back to Congress. President’s objections are read and debated. To overcome the President's veto, the bill must get a two-thirds majority in each chamber.

In order to amend the Constitution, Congress must pass the proposed amendment by a two-thirds majority vote in each house, and three-fourths of the states must concur. In more than 195 years, the Constitution has been amended 26 times. The first 10 Amendments – the Bill of Rights – were added in a group in 1791 and guarantee individual liberties: freedom of speech, religion and assembly, the right to a fair trial, the security of one’s home.

Legislative Branch

- Appropriates for Executive - May create or abolish Executive Departments - May impeach and try members of the Executive Branch - May override a Presidential veto - The Senate must approve Presidential appointments and treaties	- Appropriates funds for the Judiciary - May create or abolish lower federal courts - May impeach and try members of the judiciary - Decides how many justices may sit on the Supreme Court

Political Parties

The US began as a one-party political system. But gradually a two-party system has appeared. The present-day Democratic Party was founded in 1828, representing southern states. It united slave owners. The Republican Party was founded in 1854 and united people from the Northeast, who were against slavering. The emblem of the Democratic Party is a donkey. The emblem of the Republican Party is an elephant. The main task of the parties is to win elections. One of the reasons for the stability of the two-party system is family tradition to inherit their fathers' politics.

These two parties have won every United States presidential election since 1852 and have controlled the United States Congress since 1856. The Democratic Party generally positions itself as left-of-center in American politics and supports a modern American liberal platform, while the Republican Party generally positions itself as right-of-center and supports a modern American conservative platform.

Although there are also smaller parties like the Libertarian Party, the Green Party, and the Constitution Party.

American political parties are more loosely organized than those in other countries. The two major parties, in particular, have no formal organization at the national level that controls membership, activities, or policy positions, though some state affiliates do. Thus, for an American to say that he or she is a member of the Democratic or Republican party, is quite different from a Briton's stating that he or she is a member of the Conservative or Labour party. In the United States, one can often become a "member" of a party, merely by stating that fact. In some U.S. states, a voter can register as a member of one or another party and/or vote in the primary election for one or another party. Such participation does not restrict one's choices in any way.

Judicial System

The Judicial Branch is made up of 91 Federal District Courts (at least one in every state), 11 Federal Courts of Appeals and, at the

top, the Supreme Court, which is the only court specifically created by the Constitution. The members of the Supreme Court of the USA are appointed by the President with the approval of the Senate; to minimize political influences, their appointments are for life and can only be removed from office through the process of impeachment and trial in the Congress.

Federal Courts have the power to rule on both civil and criminal cases. Criminal action under federal jurisdiction includes such cases as treason, destruction of government property, hijacking and narcotics violations. Civil cases include violations of other people's rights such as damaging property and violating a contract. If found guilty, a person may be required to pay a certain amount of money, called damages, but he/she is never sent to prison. A convicted criminal, on the other hand, can be imprisoned.

The Bill of Rights guarantees a trial by jury in all criminal cases. A jury is a group of citizens, usually 12 persons, who make the decision on a case.

Federal courts decide cases involving federal law, conflicts between states or between citizens of different states. An American who feels he has been convicted under an unjust law may appeal his case all the way to the Supreme Court, which may rule that the law is unconstitutional. The law then becomes void. The Supreme Court today consists of a chief justice and eight associate justices.

The lowest federal court is the district court. Each state has at least one district court. Cases from such a court may be reviewed by the next higher court, and the U.S. Court of Appeal. Most state judges are elected for limited term.

The USA join separate sovereign bodies with their own Constitutions having unlimited power to make laws covering anything not already decided by the federal Constitution. Thus, unlike the rest of the country, law in the state of Louisiana is based on the Napoleonic Code, inherited from its time as a French colony. However, its criminal law has been necessarily modified by common law and the supremacy of the federal Constitution.

Judicial Branch

- May declare Congressional legislation unconstitutional	- May declare any Presidential or Executive action unconstitutional

Local Government

There are 89,500 local governments, including 3,033 counties, 19,492 municipalities, 16,500 townships, 13,000 school districts, and 37,000 other special districts that deal with issues like fire protection. Local governments directly serve the needs of the people, providing everything from police and fire protection to sanitary codes, health regulations, education, public transportation, and housing.

About 28 % of the people live in cities of 100,000 or more population. Types of city governments vary widely across the nation. However, almost all have a central council, elected by the voters, and an executive officer, assisted by various department heads, to manage the city's affairs. Cities in the West and South usually have nonpartisan local politics.

There are three general types of city government: the mayor-council, the commission, and the council-manager. These are the pure forms; many cities have developed a combination of two or three of them.

Mayor-Council – this is the oldest form of city government in the United States and, until the beginning of the 20th century, was used by nearly all American cities. Its structure is like that of the state and national governments, with an elected mayor as chief of the executive branch and an elected council that represents the various neighborhoods forming the legislative branch. The mayor appoints heads of city departments and other officials, sometimes with the approval of the council.

The Commission – this combines both the legislative and executive functions in one group of officials, usually three or more in number, elected city-wide. Each commissioner supervises the work of one or more city departments. Commissioners also set policies and rules by which the city is operated.

Council-Manager – the city manager is a response to the increasing complexity of urban problems that need management ability not often possessed by elected public officials. The answer has been to entrust most of the executive powers, including law enforcement and provision of services, to a highly trained and experienced professional city manager.

County government – the county is a subdivision of the state, sometimes (but not always) containing two or more townships and several villages. New York City is so large that it is divided into five separate boroughs, each a county in its own right. On the other hand, Arlington County, Virginia, the United States' smallest county, located just across the Potomac River from Washington, D.C., is both an urbanized and suburban area, governed by a unitary county administration. In other cities, both the city and county governments have merged, creating a consolidated city-county government.

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

Law Enforcement

Law enforcement in the United States is one of three major components of the criminal justice system of the United States, along with courts and corrections. Law enforcement agencies are also involved in providing first response to emergencies and other threats to public safety; the protection of certain public facilities and infrastructure; the maintenance of public order; the protection of public officials.

At the federal level, there exist both federal police, who possess full federal authority as given to them under United States

Code (U.S.C.), and federal law enforcement agencies, who are authorized to enforce various laws at the federal level. Both police and law enforcement agencies operate at the highest level and are endowed with police roles. The agencies have nationwide jurisdiction for enforcement of federal law. All federal agencies are limited by the U.S. Code to investigating only matters that are explicitly within the power of the federal government.

Most states operate statewide government agencies that provide law enforcement duties, including investigations and state patrols. They may be called state police or highway patrol and are normally part of the state Department of Public Safety.

County police tend to exist only in metropolitan counties and have countywide jurisdiction. In some areas, there is a sheriff's department which only handles minor issues such as service of papers and security for the local courthouse. In other areas, there are no county police and the local sheriff is the exclusive law enforcement agency and acts as both sheriff and county police, which is more common than there being a separate county police force.

Municipal police range from one-officer agencies (sometimes still called the town marshal) to the 40,000 person-strong of the New York City Police Department. Many individual cities and towns will have their own police department, with larger communities.

Foreign Relations

The United States have an established structure of foreign relations. It is a permanent member of the United Nations Security Council, and New York City is home to the United Nations Headquarters. It is a member of the G7, G20, and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. Almost all countries have embassies in Washington, D.C., and many have consulates around the country. Likewise, nearly all nations host American diplomatic missions. However, Iran, North Korea, Bhutan, and the Republic of China (Taiwan) do not have formal diplomatic relations with the United States (although the U.S. still maintains relations with Taiwan and supplies it with military equipment).

The United States has a “special relationship” with the United Kingdom and strong ties with Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the Philippines, Japan, South Korea, Israel, and several European Union countries, including France, Italy, Germany, and Spain. It works closely with fellow NATO members on military and security issues and with its neighbors through the Organization of American States and free trade agreements such as the trilateral North American Free Trade Agreement with Canada and Mexico. In 2008, the United States spent a net $ 25.4 billion on official development assistance, the most in the world. As a share of America’s large gross national income (GNI), however, the U.S. contribution of 0.18 % ranked last among 22 donor states. By contrast, private overseas giving by Americans is relatively generous.

Recommended Resources:

1. Гапонів А. Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни / А. Б. Гапонів, М. О. Возна. – Вінниця : Нова нига, 2005. – 463 с.
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Lecture 9
THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN THE USA

Education as It Is in the USA

Education in the United States is mainly provided by the public sector, with control and funding coming from three levels: federal, state, and local. Child education is compulsory. Public education is universally available. School curricula, funding, teaching, employment, and other policies are set through locally elected school boards with jurisdiction over school districts with many directives from state legislatures. School districts are usually separate from other local jurisdictions, with independent officials and budgets. Educational standards and standardized testing decisions are usually made by state governments.

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 tax-subsidized (tax burdens by school districts vary from area to area), about 10 % attend private schools, and roughly 3 % are home-schooled.

There are more than 14,000 school districts in the country. More than $ 500 billion is spent each year on primary and secondary education. Transporting students to and from school is a major concern for most school districts. School buses provide the largest mass transit program in the country: 8.8 billion trips per year. Non-school transit buses give 5.2 billion trips annually. 440,000 yellow school buses carry over 24 million students to and from school.

The ages for compulsory education vary by state. It begins from ages five to eight and ends from ages fourteen to eighteen. Public (free) education is typically from kindergarten to grade 12 and is thus referred to as K–12 (short for K through twelve).

There are no mandatory public prekindergarten or crèche programs in the United States. The federal government funds the Head Start preschool program for children of low-income families, but most families are responsible for finding preschool or childcare. In the large cities, there are sometimes preschools catering to the

children of the wealthy. Because some wealthy families see these schools as the first step toward the Ivy League, there are even counselors who specialize in assisting parents and their toddlers through the preschool admissions process.

Compulsory education requirements can generally be satisfied by educating children in public schools, state-certified private schools, or an approved home school program. In most public and private schools, education is divided into three levels: elementary school, middle school (sometimes called junior high school), and high school (sometimes referred to as secondary education). In almost all schools at these levels, children are divided by age groups into grades, ranging from kindergarten (followed by first grade) for the youngest children in elementary school, up to twelfth grade, the final year of high school. The exact age range of students in these grade levels varies slightly from area to area. Post-secondary education, better known as "college" in the United States, is generally governed separately from the elementary and high school system.

School Grades

Most children enter the public education system around ages five or six. The American school year traditionally begins in August or September, after the traditional summer recess. The typical American student spends six hours a day, five days a week, 180 days a year in school. Children in the United States start preschool or nursery school at age four or under. Most children start kindergarten at five years of age.

Children are assigned into year groups known as grades, beginning with preschool, followed by kindergarten and culminating in twelfth grade. Children customarily advance together from one grade to the next as a single cohort or "class" upon reaching the end of each school year in May or June, although developmentally disabled children may be held back a grade and gifted children may skip ahead early to the next grade.

The American educational system comprises 12 grades of study over 12 calendar years of primary and secondary education before graduating and becoming eligible for college admission. Students attend elementary schools (grades one through six) and then middle school or junior high school (grades seven through nine). Secondary, or high schools, are usually 10th through 12th grades (ages 15 through 18).

Elementary School teachers are trained with emphases on human cognitive and psychological development and the principles of curriculum development and instruction. Teachers typically earn either a Bachelors or Masters Degree in Early Childhood and Elementary Education. The teaching of social studies and science are often underdeveloped in elementary school programs. Some attribute this to the fact that elementary school teachers are trained as generalists; however, teachers attribute this to the priority placed on developing reading, writing and math proficiency in the elementary grades and to the large amount of time needed to do so.

Generally, at the high school level, students take a broad variety of classes without special emphasis in any particular subject. Curricula vary widely in quality and rigidity; for example, some states consider 65 (on a 100-point scale) a passing grade, while others consider it to be as low as 60 or as high as 75. Students are required to take a certain minimum number of mandatory subjects, but may choose additional subjects ("electives") to fill out their required hours of learning. The following minimum courses of study in mandatory subjects are required in nearly all U.S. high schools:

• Science (usually three years minimum, normally biology, chemistry and physics);

• Mathematics (usually four years minimum, normally including algebra, geometry, pre-calculus, statistics, and even calculus);

• English (usually four years minimum, including literature, humanities, composition, oral languages, etc.);

• Social sciences (usually three years minimum, including various history, government/economics courses);

• Physical education (at least two years).

Many states require a “health” course in which students learn about anatomy, nutrition, first aid, sexuality, drug awareness and birth control. Anti-drug use programs are also usually part of health courses. In many cases, however, options are provided for students to “test out” of this requirement or complete independent study to meet it. Foreign language and some form of art education are also a mandatory part of the curriculum in some schools.

The U.S. uses ordinal numbers for naming grades, unlike Canada and Australia where cardinal numbers are preferred. Thus, Americans are more likely to say “First Grade” rather than “Grade One”. Students may attend either public schools or private schools. Typical ages and grade groupings in public and private schools may be found through the U.S. Department of Education. Many different variations exist across the country.

Although grading scales usually differ from school to school, the most common grade scale is letter grades – “A” through “F” – derived from a scale of 0 – 100 or a percentile. In some areas, Texas or Virginia for example, the “D” grade (or that between 70 – 60) is considered a failing grade. In other jurisdictions, such as Hawaii, a “D” grade is considered passing in certain classes, and failing in others.

A			**B**			**C**			**D**			**F,E,I,N or U**
+		-	+		-	+		-	+		-	
100-97	96-93	92-90	89-87	86-83	82-80	79-77	76-73	72-70	69-67	66-63	62-60	Below 60

About 83 % of Americans graduate from secondary schools and 60 % continue their studies and receive some form of post-high school education. Approximately 20.3 % graduate from four-year colleges and universities.

School attendance is required in all 50 states. In 32 states, students must attend school until they are 16 years old. In nine other states, the minimum age for leaving school is 17. Eight states require

schooling until the age of 18, while one state allows students to leave school at 14.

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, or the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT), and the Massachusetts Comprehensive Assessment System (MCAS); 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. When a student fails to make adequate yearly progress, No Child Left Behind mandates that remediation through summer school and/or tutoring be made available to a student in need of extra help.

During high school, students (usually in 11th grade) may take one or more standardized tests depending on their postsecondary education preferences and their local graduation requirements. In theory, these tests evaluate the overall level of knowledge and learning aptitude of the students. The SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test) and ACT (American College Testing) 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 post-secondary institutions the student plans to apply to for admission.

Most competitive schools also require two or three SAT Subject Tests (formerly known as SAT IIs) which are shorter exams that focus strictly on a particular subject matter. However, all these tests serve little to no purpose for students who do not move on to post-secondary education, so they can usually be skipped without affecting one's ability to graduate.

Graduate Study in the USA

Students completing high school may apply to attend an undergraduate school. This may be a community college (one that

offers two-year degrees, usually to prepare students to transfer to state universities), liberal arts college (one that concentrates on undergraduate education), or part of a larger research university. There are 4,352 colleges, universities, and junior colleges in the country.

Schools differ in their competitiveness and reputation; generally, the most prestigious schools are private, rather than public. Admissions criteria involve the rigor and grades earned in high school courses taken, the students' GPA, class ranking, and standardized test scores (such as the SAT or the ACT tests). Most colleges also consider more subjective factors such as a commitment to extracurricular activities, a personal essay, and an interview.

While colleges rarely list that they require a certain standardized test score, class ranking, or GPA for admission, each college usually has a rough threshold below which admission is unlikely.

Graduate work leading to a master's degree requires at least one year's study beyond the bachelor's degree, although in fields such as engineering and business administration, a two-year program is common. The typical requirements for this degree include successful completion of a specified number of graduate courses, maintenance of a minimum average of grade B, and preparation of a thesis.

The most common method consists of four years of study leading to a Bachelor of Arts (B.A.), a Bachelor of Science (B.S.), or sometimes another bachelor's degree such as a Bachelor of Fine Arts (B.F.A.), a Bachelor of Social Work (B.S.W.), a Bachelor of Engineering (B.Eng.) or a Bachelor of Philosophy (B.Phil.) Five-Year Professional Architecture programs offer the Bachelor of Architecture Degree (B.Arch.).

In general, advanced studies leading to a master's degree emphasize either research or preparation for professional practice. Again, the M.A. (Master of Arts) and M.S. (Master of Science) are the traditional degrees, but professional degrees at this level include

the M.B.A. (Master of Business Administration) and M.S.W. (Master of Social Work) among a number of others.

The Ph.D. (Doctor of Philosophy) degree requires a minimum of two years' full-time study beyond the master's degree, but in most fields considerably more is necessary. For example, completion of the requirements for a doctorate in one of the natural sciences usually takes four to five years of study beyond the master's. In some institutions, highly qualified students may bypass the master's and enter a doctoral program with only a bachelor's degree, but this does not necessarily shorten the period of time required.

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. Community colleges may award Associate of Arts (AA) or Associate of Science (AS) 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, see articulation). 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.

Academic Year

The academic year ranges from 32 to 36 weeks in length. It usually begins in August or September and ends in early or late May. Some colleges and universities divide the academic year into two terms of about 15 to 18 weeks each, called semesters. Other schools divide the year into periods of 12 weeks each, called Quarters. Students must be present during the three quarters that fall between August/September and May/June; the fourth quarter is the summer vacation. Still other institutions divide the academic year into three

equal trimesters. At all colleges and universities, there is a two- to four-week holiday beginning in mid-December, and many schools separate their terms with this holiday.

UK (approximately)	**US (approximately)**
First term Oct 5 – Dec 15 Mid-sessional exams Christmas vacation Dec 16 – Jan 10	First semester Sep 5 – Dec 22 Winter vacation Dec 23 – Jan 21 End of semester (final) exams Winter session Jan 2 – Jan 21
Second term Jan 11 – Mar 20 Mid-sessional exams Easter vacation Mar 21 – Apr 25	Second semester Jan 22 – Jun 8 End of semester (final) exams Summer session Jun 9 – Aug 31
Third term Apr 26 – Jun 30 Sessional exams Summer vacation Jul 1 – Oct 4	Summer vacation Jun 8 – Sep 4

Top Universities

These rankings are based on factors like brand recognition, selectivity in admissions, generosity of alumni donors, and volume of faculty research. In global university rankings, the US dominates more than half the top 50 places (27) and has a total of 72 institutions

in the top 200 table under the Times Higher Education World University Rankings. It has more than twice as many universities represented in the top 200 as its nearest rival, the United Kingdom, which has 29. A small percentage of students who apply to these schools gain admission. Included among the top 20 institutions are six of the eight schools in the Ivy League (Ivy League: Brown University, Columbia University, Cornell University, Dartmouth College, Harvard University, the University of Pennsylvania, Princeton University, and Yale University); 4 of the 10 schools in the University of California system; the private Universities of Stanford, Chicago, and Johns Hopkins; the public Universities of Washington and Wisconsin; and the Massachusetts and California Institutes of Technology.

Recommended Resources:

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Lecture 10
CULTURAL LIFE IN THE USA

Holidays

Strictly speaking the USA don't have national holidays as holidays are very local. There are those which are celebrated all over the world, those which are connected with the Bible or long followed traditions: Christmas, New Year's Day, St. Valentine's Day, Easter, Halloween. Still, there are those, which are purely American.

In the year 1620, a ship named the Mayflower brought 102 English men, women and children to the rocky coast of what is now Massachusetts, one of the 50 states of the United States of America. These Pilgrims – as they are usually known – came to an area uninhabited by other Europeans. It was late in the year when the Pilgrims landed and founded the colony they called Plymouth. They had only the belongings that they had brought on the small ship. The winter was cold, and about half of the Pilgrims died. In the spring, with advice and help from the Indians, with whom they lived in peace, the Pilgrims planted corn (known also as maize) and other crops and prepared as well as they could for the next winter.

In October 1621, to celebrate the good harvest, the Pilgrims held a feast which featured, among many other foods, wild turkey, which is native to North America. They called this their day of thanksgiving, held to thank their God for his blessings.

Today, families – often including grandparents and aunts, uncles and cousins and grown children who live away from home – gather together, usually in a home but sometimes in a restaurant, for a traditional Thanksgiving dinner. This almost always includes some of the foods served at the first Thanksgiving, roast turkey and cranberry sauce, plus sweet potatoes and pumpkin pie. Other dishes vary according to family and regional traditions. In Minnesota and Wisconsin, for instance, wild rice is often served. In other areas, sauerkraut is sometimes on the menu. Often, relatives and friends contribute their own specialties to make things easier on the cook. Before the feast, families usually pause to give thanks for all their

blessings – including the joy of being together on this day. And many families like to share the day with others, inviting to their dinner foreign students, military people stationed far from home, and people who have no families.

Besides Thanksgiving Day there are seven other major holidays which might be considered uniquely American – although in some cases, other nations observe similar holidays. In addition to the widely recognized holidays listed below, two Sundays are also observed in special ways. One is the second Sunday in May, which is always Mother's Day, a day on which children honor their mothers, give them gifts, or perhaps take them to a restaurant for dinner. The other is the third Sunday in June, which is Father's Day, and children honor their fathers in some special way. These are included in any holiday list, even though every Sunday is a day of rest and recreation for most Americans.

The seven major "American" holidays in calendar order are:

Martin Luther King Day. The Rev. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. was a black clergyman who is ranked among the greatest of black Americans because of his crusade during the 1950s and 1960s to win full civil rights for his people. Preaching nonviolence, much in the same way as had Mohandas K. (Mahatma) Gandhi of India, Martin Luther King, Jr. spoke out and campaigned tirelessly to rid the United States of traditions and laws that forces on black Americans the status of second-class citizens. Among these laws were those in some states, which required black people to take back seats in buses or which obstructed voting by blacks. The world was shocked when Dr. King was assassinated in 1968. Ever since, special memorial services have marked his birthday on January 15. By vote of Congress, the third Monday of every January, beginning in 1986, is now a federal holiday in Dr. King's honor.

Presidents' Day. Until the mid-1970s, the birthday of George Washington, first president of the United States (February 22), was observed as a federal holiday. In addition, the birthday of Abraham Lincoln (February 12), president during the Civil War (1861-1865), was observed as a holiday in most states. In the 1970s,

Congress declared that in order to honor all past presidents of the United States, a single holiday, to be called Presidents' Day, would be observed on the third Monday in February. In many states, however, the holiday continues to be known as George Washington's birthday.

Memorial Day. This holiday, on the fourth Monday of every May, is a day on which Americans honor the dead. Originally a day on which flags or flowers were placed on graves of soldiers who died in the American Civil War, it has become a day on which the dead of all wars and all other dead are remembered the same way. In many communities, special ceremonies are held in cemeteries or at monuments for the war dead by veterans of military services. Some hold parades and others hold memorial services or special programs in churches, schools or other public meeting places.

The "Memorial Day weekend" is also considered the beginning of the summer season. In many places, the weekend marks the opening of public beaches and pubic swimming pools. People who own summer homes quite often spend that weekend there. In the past Memorial Day was the day on which people stopped wearing their heavier, warmer clothes and started wearing lighter, more summery apparel.

Independence Day. This day is regarded as the birthday of the United States as a free and independent nation. Most Americans simply call it the "Fourth of July", on which date it always falls. The holiday recalls the signing of the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776. The Declaration of Independence, signed by leaders from the colonies, stated this clearly, and for the first time in an official document the colonies were referred to as the United States of America. Generally, picnics with patriotic speeches and parades are held all over the United States on the Fourth of July. It is also a day on which fireworks displays fill the skies in the evening. The flying of flags, which also takes place on Memorial Day and some other holidays, is common. In 1876 and 1976, special centennial and bicentennial celebrations of Independence Day were held across the nation.

Labor Day. This holiday, which always is observed on the first Monday of September, has been a federal holiday since 1894, but was observed in some places before that day as a result of a campaign by an early organization of workers called the Knights of Labor. Its purpose is to honor the nation's working people. In many cities the day is marked by parades of working people representing the labor unions. For most Americans, it also marks the end of the summer season, during which most of them take vacations – although vacations can be taken at other times of the year. Public schools and other schools below the college level open just before or just after Labor Day.

Columbus Day. This day commemorates Italian navigator Christopher Columbus' landing in the New World on October 12, 1492. Most nations of the Americas observe this holiday on October 12, but in the United States, annual observances take place on the second Monday in October. The major celebration of the day takes place in New York City, which holds a huge parade each year.

Veteran's Day. This holiday was originally called Armistice Day and was established to honor those Americans who had served in the First World War. It falls on November 11, the day on which that war ended in 1918. It honors veterans of all the wars in which the United States has been involved. Organizations of war veterans hold parades or other special ceremonies, and the president or other high official places a wreath on the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier at Arlington National Cemetery outside Washington, D.C. There are soldiers buried there from each war the United States has fought in since World War I.

Ethnic Observances

The United States is a nation of many religious and ethnic groups. Many of these have feast days, holy days or special customs related to their religion or to their nation of origin. People of the Jewish faith, for example, observe all of their traditional holy days, with employers showing consideration by allowing them to take days

off so they can observe their traditions. The same is true for Moslems.

Some customs which hark back to traditions of other lands lend a great deal of color to American life. The celebration of Mardi Gras – the day before the Christian season of Lent begins in late winter – is a tradition in New Orleans, a major southern city located in the state of Louisiana. The celebration, marked by a huge parade and much feasting, grew out of old French traditions, since Louisiana was once part of France's New World empire.

In various places, other ethnic groups sponsor parades or other events of great interest, adding pageantry and merriment to American life. Just a few examples:

St. Patrick's Day in the United States is a time of celebration for people of Irish descent and their friends. One of the biggest celebrations takes place in New York City, where a parade is held on the Irish patron saint's feast, March 17.

Italian feasts in honor of patron saints are held in cities or neighborhoods where people from certain sections of Italy form a large part of the citizenry. Among these is a feast in honor of San Gennaro (St. Januarius), patron saint of Naples, and one in honor of St. Paulinus of Nola, both in New York City. In areas where Americans of Chinese descent live and especially in the Chinatown sections of New York City and San Francisco, California, people sponsor traditional Chinese New Year's celebrations with feasts, parades and fireworks.

"Octoberfests" featuring German music, dancing and food are held wherever large groups of German-Americans live. In New York City, there seems to be a parade day for almost every ethnic group of any size found in that city, including Americans whose origin goes back to Germany, Poland, Puerto Rico, Haiti and Norway.

Sports

Schools provide American students with much more than academic education. Students learn about the world through various school-related activities. More than 80 % of all students participate in

student activities, such as sports, student newspapers, drama clubs, debate teams, choral groups and bands.

According to the survey "The Mood of American Youth", the favorite sports of American young people are football, basketball, baseball, wrestling, tennis, soccer, boxing, hockey, track and golf.

The four major professional sports leagues in the United States are Major League Baseball (MLB), the National Basketball Association (NBA), the National Football League (NFL), and the National Hockey League (NHL). All four enjoy wide-ranging domestic media coverage and are considered the preeminent leagues in their respective sports in the world, although only basketball, baseball, and ice hockey have substantial followings in other nations. Three of those leagues have teams that represent Canadian cities, and all four are among the most financially lucrative sports leagues in the World.

In the USA, baseball has often been called the national pastime. Baseball popularity grew so great that the world "ballgame" in the USA almost always refers to a game of baseball, and "ballpark" to a baseball field.

Professional baseball began in America around 1865, and the National League was founded in 1876, still the game's origins are uncertain.

American football known in the USA as just football or gridiron has surpassed baseball in 1990s as the most popular spectator sport in the USA. American football is descended from rugby football and in current form it grew out of a series of three games between Harvard University and McGill University of Montreal in 1874. McGill played rugby football while Harvard played "Boston Game" which was closer to soccer. The teams altered the rules to make a fair chance. Thus, we get present day American football.

Basketball is also one of the most popular games in the USA. Basketball is unusual because it was invented by one man. In 1891, Dr. James Naismith, a Canadian minister on faculty of college for YMCA ("Young Men's Christian Associations") professionals while

looking for an indoor game to keep young men occupied during the long New England winters. He wrote up some basic rules, nailed up a peach basket on the gym wall, and got his students to start playing his new game. The first official game was played there on January 20, 1892.

While most major U.S. sports have evolved out of European practices, basketball, volleyball, skateboarding, and snowboarding are American inventions, some of which have become popular in other countries. Lacrosse and surfing arose from Native American and Native Hawaiian activities that predate Western contact. The Iroquois field their own separate national team, the Iroquois Nationals, in recognition of the confederacy's creation of lacrosse. Eight Olympic Games have taken place in the United States. The United States has won 2,400 medals at the Summer Olympic Games, more than any other country, and 281 in the Winter Olympic Games, the second most behind Norway.

The market for professional sports in the United States is roughly $ 69 billion, roughly 50 % larger than that of all of Europe, the Middle East, and Africa combined. Baseball has been regarded as the national sport since the late 19th century, with Major League Baseball (MLB) being the top league, while American football is now by several measures the most popular spectator sport, with the National Football League (NFL) having the highest average attendance of any sports league in the world and a Super Bowl watched by millions globally.

Cinema

The cinema of the United States, often generally referred to as Hollywood, has had a profound effect on cinema across the world since the early 20th century. The dominant style of American cinema is Classical Hollywood Cinema, which developed from 1917 to 1960 and characterizes most films to this day. While the French Lumière Brothers are generally credited with the birth of modern cinema, it is American cinema that soon became the most dominant force in an emerging industry. Since the 1920s, the American film industry has

grossed more money every year than that of any other country in the world.

The major film studios of Hollywood are the primary source of the most commercially successful movies in the world, such as *Gone with the Wind* (1939), *Star Wars* (1977), *Titanic* (1997), *Avatar* (2009), *The Avengers* (2012), *Furious 7* (2015), *Jurassic World* (2015) and *Star Wars: The Force Awakens* (2015). Today, American film studios collectively generate several hundred movies every year, making the United States one of the most prolific producers of films in the world.

The Academy Awards, or "Oscars", is an annual American awards ceremony hosted by the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences to recognize excellence in cinematic achievements in the film industry as assessed by the Academy's voting membership. The various category winners are awarded a copy of a statuette, officially called the Academy Award of Merit, which has become commonly known by its nickname "Oscar". It is now seen live in more than 200 countries and can be streamed live online. The Oscars is the oldest entertainment awards ceremony; its equivalents, the Emmy Awards for television, the Tony Awards for theatre, and the Grammy Awards for music and recording, are modeled after the Academy Awards.

> *Interesting to know: To prevent information identifying the Oscar winners from leaking ahead of the ceremony, Oscar statuettes presented at the ceremony have blank baseplates. Until 2010, winners were expected to return the statuettes to the Academy after the ceremony and wait several weeks to have inscriptions applied. Since 2010, winners have had the option of having engraved nameplates applied to their statuettes at an inscription-processing station at the Governor's Ball, a party held immediately after the Oscar ceremony. In 2010, the R.S. Owens company made 197 engraved nameplates ahead of the ceremony, bearing the names of every potential winner. The 175 or so nameplates for non-winning nominees were recycled afterwards.*

Food

Mainstream American cuisine is similar to that in other Western countries. Wheat is the primary cereal grain with about three-quarters of grain products made of wheat flour and many dishes use indigenous ingredients, such as turkey, venison, potatoes, sweet potatoes, corn, squash, and maple syrup which were consumed by Native Americans and early European settlers. These home grown foods are part of a shared national menu on one of America's most popular holidays, Thanksgiving, when some Americans make traditional foods to celebrate the occasion.

Characteristic dishes such as apple pie, fried chicken, pizza, hamburgers, and hot dogs derive from the recipes of various immigrants. French fries, Mexican dishes such as burritos and tacos, and pasta dishes freely adapted from Italian sources are widely consumed. Americans drink three times as much coffee as tea. Marketing by U.S. industries is largely responsible for making orange juice and milk ubiquitous breakfast beverages.

The American fast food industry, the world's largest, pioneered the drive-through format in the 1940s. McDonald's is the world's largest chain of hamburger fast food restaurants, serving around 68 million customers daily in 119 countries across more than 36,000 outlets. Founded in the United States in 1940, the company began as a barbecue restaurant operated by Richard and Maurice McDonald. In 1948, they reorganized their business as a hamburger stand using production line principles. Businessman Ray Kroc joined the company as a franchise agent in 1955. He subsequently

purchased the chain from the McDonald brothers and oversaw its worldwide growth. In 2012, the company had annual revenues of $ 27.5 billion and profits of $ 5.5 billion. According to a 2012 BBC report, McDonald's is the world's second largest private employer – behind Walmart – with 1.9 million employees, 1.5 million of whom work for franchises.

In other culinary areas, American fast-food chains operating in more than 50 countries around the world include "KFC" (Kentucky Fried Chicken), "Domino's Pizza", "Pizza Hut", "Starbucks" and "Dunkin Donuts".

Fast food consumption has sparked health concerns. During the 1980s and 1990s, Americans' caloric intake rose 24 %; frequent dining at fast food outlets is associated with what public health officials call the American "obesity epidemic". Highly sweetened soft drinks are widely popular, and sugared beverages account for 9 % of American caloric intake.

Superstition

If you knock on wood when you say something presumptuous or freak out when you see a broken mirror, you're not alone – Americans are still very superstitious. They may seem old-fashioned, but superstitions are still alive and well, according to a new survey. Crowdsourcing website Ranker.com polled 18,000 people on the superstitions they believe in and found that, as a whole, people are still very superstitious.

Here are the top 10 most widely believed superstitions, per the survey:

1. Knocking on wood
2. Wishing on a star
3. Breaking a mirror
4. Four-leaf clover
5. Bad news comes in threes
6. Don't open an umbrella inside
7. Lucky penny
8. Beginner's luck

9. Saying “bless you” when someone sneezes
10. Wishing on a wishbone

The top superstitions also varied by age and gender: Women ranked tossing salt over your left shoulder after you spill it as one of their top superstitions, while men and millennials said wishing on a star was theirs. People from Generation X and baby boomers said the lucky penny (getting good luck after you find a heads-up penny) was their No.1 superstitious belief.

Some polls have found that over 50 % of Americans consider themselves at least a little superstitious.

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