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СТРАНОВЕДЕНИЕ ПЕРВОГО ИНОСТРАННОГО ЯЗЫКА

*Электронный учебно-методический комплекс
для обучающихся специальности 6-05-0231-03 Лингвистическое обеспечение
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Введение

В современных условиях важным направлением является эффективное использование информационных технологий в образовательном процессе. Разработка и внедрение электронных средств в высших учебных заведениях и распространение дистанционной формы обучения обеспечивают качественно новый уровень обучения, построенный на принципах интерактивности и информационной открытости.

Актуальность создания ЭУМК по учебной дисциплине «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» обусловлена его принципиальным отличием от традиционно применяемых печатных дидактических комплектов и его профессиональной направленностью.

ЭУМК по учебной дисциплине «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» позволяет создать целостное представление о географии и основных этапах исторического развития Великобритании и Соединенных Штатов Америки, о психологии наций, социальной действительности и культуре и системе образования стран изучаемого языка, а также способствует формированию страноведческой и лингвострановедческой компетенции, необходимой для адекватного владения иностранным языком как средством общения.

Электронный учебно-методический комплекс по учебной дисциплине «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» предназначен для организации процесса обучения на гуманитарном факультете, готовящего специалистов по межкультурной коммуникации по специальности 6-05-0231-03 «Лингвистическое обеспечение межкультурной коммуникации (английский язык и второй иностранный язык)» и соответствует требованиям к содержанию и уровню подготовки специалистов, сформулированных в Государственном образовательном стандарте для высших учебных заведений и на основе учебного плана института.

Цель создания комплекса заключается в совершенствовании практической подготовки будущих специалистов межкультурной коммуникации путем расширения их словарного запаса при изучении страноведческой тематики и

синтезирования умений в различных видах речевой деятельности, в том числе и переводческой.

Данный ЭУМК разработан в соответствии с рабочей программой по учебной дисциплине «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» для студентов 3-4 курсов дневной формы обучения – с учетом реальных возможностей и потребностей и рассчитан на активную аудиторную, так и самостоятельную внеаудиторную работу.

ЭУМК по учебной дисциплине «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» состоит из теоретического и практического разделов, раздела контроля знаний и вспомогательного раздела.

Теоретический и практический разделы содержат необходимые теоретические сведения, текстовые и послетекстовые задания, а также задания для аудирования.

Раздел контроля знаний содержит задания для самостоятельной работы, ситуационные задачи по теме, перечень вопросов к дифференцированному зачету и экзамену.

Во вспомогательный раздел входит учебная программа по дисциплине и списки основной и дополнительной литературы.

1. ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКИЙ РАЗДЕЛ

UNIT 1. THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

TOPIC 1.1. General information about the UK

LECTURES 1-2

The United Kingdom

The official language of the United Kingdom is English. But in western Scotland some people still speak Gaelic and in northern and central parts of Wales people often speak Welsh.

The UK is a highly developed industrial country. It is known as one of the world's largest producers and exporters of machinery, electronics, textile, aircraft, and navigation equipment. One of the chief industries of the country is shipbuilding.

The UK is a constitutional monarchy. In law, the Head of the State is Queen. In practice, the country is ruled by the elected government with the Prime Minister at the head. The British Parliament consists of two chambers: the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

There are three main political parties in Great Britain: the Labour, the Conservative and the Liberal parties.

The flag of the United Kingdom, known as the Union Jack, is made up of three crosses. The big red cross is the cross of Saint George, the patron saint of England. The white cross is the cross of Saint Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland. The red diagonal cross is the cross of Saint Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland.

The Geographical Position of Great Britain

There are two large islands and several smaller ones, which lie in the north-west coast of Europe. Collectively they are known as the British Isles. The largest island is called [Great Britain](#). The smaller one is called Ireland. Great Britain is separated from the continent by the English Channel. The country is washed by the waters of the Atlantic Ocean. Great Britain is separated from Belgium and Holland by the North Sea, in the west the Irish Sea and the North Channel separate the UK from Ireland. The seas around Britain provide exceptionally good fishing grounds. The country has many bays favourable for shipping. In their shelter are Britain's main ports such as London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Hull and others are in their shelter.

The island of Great Britain consists of three main parts: England (the southern and middle part of the island), Wales (a mountainous peninsula in the West) and Scotland (the northern part of the island).

One will not find very high mountains or large plains in Great Britain. Everything occupies very little place. The highest mountain is Ben Nevis in Scotland, 4,406 feet high. In the north the Cheviots separate [England](#) from Scotland, the Pennines stretch down North England along its middle, the Cambrian mountains occupy the greater part of Wales and the Highlands of Scotland are the tallest of the British mountains. There is very little flat country except in the region known as East Anglia.

Most of the rivers flow into the North Sea. The Thames is the deepest and the longest of the British rivers. Great Britain is not very rich in mineral resources, it has some deposits of coal and iron ore and vast deposits of oil and gas that were discovered in the North Sea.

There are two states in the British Isles. The one is usually called the Republic of Ireland. The other state has authority over the rest of the territory. The official name of this country is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. But it is usually known by a shorter name - "[The United Kingdom](#)". The total area of Great Britain is over 314 000 square km.

They say that the British love of compromise is the result of the country's physical geography. This may or may not be true, but it is certainly true that the land and climate in Great Britain have a notable lack of extremes. The mountains in the country are not very high. It doesn't usually get very cold in the winter or very hot in the summer. It has no active volcanoes. The insular geographical position of Great Britain promoted the development of shipbuilding, different trading contacts with other countries.

Climate in Great Britain

The British Isles which are surrounded by the ocean have an insular climate.

There are 3 things that chiefly determine the climate of the United Kingdom: the position of the islands in the temperate belt; the fact that the prevailing winds blow from the west and south-west and the warm current — the Gulf Stream that flows from the Gulf of Mexico along the western shores of England. All these features make the climate more moderate, without striking differences between seasons. It is not very cold in winter and never very hot in summer.

So, the British ports are ice-free and its rivers are not frozen throughout the year. The weather on the British Isles has a bad reputation. It is very changeable and fickle. The British say that there is a climate in other countries, but we have just weather. If you don't like the weather in England, just wait a few minutes.

It rains very often in all seasons in Great Britain. Autumn and winter are the wettest. The sky is usually grey and cold winds blow. On the average, Britain has more than 200 rainy days a year. The English say that they have 3 variants of weather: when it rains in the morning, when it rains in the afternoon, and when it rains all day long. Sometimes it rains so heavily that they say «It's raining cats and dogs».

Britain is known all over the world for its fogs. Sometimes fogs are so thick that it's impossible to see anything within a few metres. The winter fogs in London are, indeed, awful. In a dense fog all traffic is stopped, no vehicle can move from fear of dreadful accidents. So, we may say that the British climate has three main features: it is mild, humid and very changeable.

Plant Life in England

England shares with the rest of Britain a diminished range of vegetation and living creatures. Woodland covers merely 7 % of England's total land area.

A drastic depletion of mature broad-leaved forests, especially oak, was a result of the overuse of timber in the iron and shipbuilding industries.

A modified pattern of vegetation has now emerged through overgrazing, forest clearance, reclamation and drainage of marshlands, and the introduction of exotic plant species. Though there are fewer species of plants than in the European mainland.

England has a profusion of summer wildflowers in its fields. In some parts these have been severely reduced by the use of herbicides on farms.

Cultivated gardens, which contain many species of trees, shrubs, and flowering plants from all over the world, account for much of the varied vegetation of the country.

Animal life in England

Several animal species such as the bear, wolf, and beaver were exterminated in historic times, but others such as the fallow deer, rabbit, have been introduced. More recently birds of prey have suffered at the hands of farmers protecting their stock and their game birds. Under protective measures, including a law restricting the collecting of birds eggs, some of the less birds have been re-establishing themselves.

The country lies along the line of bird migrations, they have found town gardens, where they are often fed, a favourable environment. In London about 100 different species are recorded annually. [London](#) also is a favourable habitat for foxes, which in small numbers have colonised woods within a few miles of the city centre.

Freshwater fish are numerous; marine fishes are abundant in species.

There are few kinds of reptiles and amphibians — about half a dozen species of each — but they are nearly all plentiful where conditions suit them. A variety of coastal life creates a favourable environment for different kinds of invertebrate organisms.

The Population of the British Isles

The population of the United Kingdom is over 66 million people. Foreigners often call British people "English", but the Scots, the Irish and the Welsh do not consider themselves to be English. The English are Anglo-Saxon in origin, but the Welsh, the Scots and the Irish are Celts, descendants of the ancient people, who crossed over from Europe centuries before the Norman Invasion. It was this people, whom the Germanic Angles and Saxons conquered in the 5th and 6th centuries AD. These Germanic conquerors gave England its name - "Angle" land. They were conquered in

their turn by the Norman French, when William the Conqueror of Normandy landed near Hastings in 1066. It was from the union of Norman conquerors and the defeated Anglo-Saxons that the English people and the English language were born.

The British Isles are the home of four nations - English, Scottish, Welsh and Irish. Even though foreigners often call all British people "English", and sometimes have difficulty in appreciating the distinctions, the component nations of [the United Kingdom](#) are well aware of their own individual characteristics.

The Scots, Welsh and Irish regard themselves as largely Celtic peoples, while the English are mainly AngloSaxon in origin.

British society as a whole does not have a uniform cultural identity.

England has an average density of 980 persons per square mile (364 per square km).

This average does not reveal the even higher densities in some areas of the country, such as south-east parts. Within Europe only the Netherlands has a higher population than England.

TOPIC 1.2. History of Great Britain

LECTURES 3-4

Ancient Britain. Prehistoric Britain

About a million years ago, the whole of northwestern Europe including Britain was in the grip of the last Ice Age. During this period, the ice advanced and retreated several times across the land. At this time Britain was joined to Europe by a land bridge.

Archaeologists think that the earliest ancestors of modern human beings may have entered Britain overland from Europe more than half a million years ago. These hominids belonged to the **Paleolithic Period** or the **Old Stone Age**. They used stone tools and may have discovered how to control fire. They travelled as hunters following herds of migrating wild animals. The earliest known settlements in Britain date from about **250,000 B.C.** They include a site at *Clacton, Essex*, where stone choppers have been found. These simple objects show that there were two different kinds of inhabitants. The earlier group made their tools from flakes of flint, similar in kind to stone tools found across the north European plain as far as Russia. The other group made tools from a central core of flint, probably the earliest method of human tool making, which spread from Africa to Europe. Hand axes made in this way have been found widely, as far north as Yorkshire and as far west as Wales.

About **70,000 – 50,000 B.C.**, the last of the severe glaciations began, and for much of this period, no hominids lived in Britain. Those who did venture into Britain during short mild spells dwelt in caves. These hominids included the earliest modern human beings. 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.

About **12,000 B.C.**, the last Ice Age was ending, and the climate had begun to improve. People still dwelt in caves and hunted for food. *Cheddar* in *Somerset* and *Creswell Crags* in *Derbyshire* have produced many interesting finds from this period. These finds include Britain's only surviving works of Palaeolithic art. One such find, the *Dancing Man* of *Creswell Crags*, is a puzzling engraving on a piece of bone. It is said to resemble a masked male dancer.

By about **8000 B.C.**, Britain at last emerged from the Ice Age. Over the next 5,000 years, the improving climate changed the environment. The slowly rising temperature caused the ice sheets to melt and raised the level of the sea. Britain lost its land link with the rest of Europe after the formation of the English Channel and the North Sea about **5000 B.C.**

The Pre -Celtic Period.

Britain attracted new settlers during this period. They hunted and fished, and their culture was more advanced than that of the Palaeolithic Period. Archaeologists call these settlers Mesolithic (Middle Stone Age) people. One group of these settlers migrated from Denmark not long after **8000 B.C.** Their most famous remains are at a settlement at *Star Carr, North Yorkshire.*

Mesolithic people made such tools as saws and mattocks. Mesolithic hunters domesticated the dog. The people of this time also cleared a few areas of forest by fire, and some experts think they used the clearings for herding deer and other game.

Shortly before **4000 B.C.**, scattered tribes of people travelled to Britain from the mainland of Western Europe. These people brought the settled and highly organised culture of the Neolithic Period (New Stone Age) with them. They were mainly farmers and village traders. They cleared large areas of woodland and made fields for planting crops and farming livestock. They also made and traded in Britain's earliest pottery.

Neolithic people appear to be the first in Britain to have put up buildings of stone and wood. They also built the first roads - wooden trackways across marshy areas such as the *Somerset Levels.*

Neolithic people buried their dead in communal chambered tombs built of stone. These tombs belong to the class of huge monuments of stone called *megaliths.* Megalithic monuments also include vast circles of standing stones. The best known of these, *Stonehenge* on *Salisbury Plain* was probably begun about **2700 B.C.** and completed by Bronze Age builders.

Between **3000 B.C.** and **2500 B.C.**, people began using metal in Britain.

About **2400 B.C.** many parts of Europe, including the British Isles, were inhabited by a people, who came to be known as the Iberians. They probably came from either the Iberian (Spanish) peninsula or even the North African coast. These Neolithic people used stone axes and made antlers and bones into leather-working tools. They put up

buildings of stone and wood and built the first roads. Not much is known about these early people because they lived in Britain long before a word of their history was written, but one can learn something from their skeletons, weapons, tools and the remains of their dwellings which have been found. For example the impressive Neolithic burial chambers reveal how these people buried their dead and worked together to build huge temples (henges).

Some historians refer to the original Neolithic Britons as the Scots and Picts with whom newcomers started merging. The Picts inhabited mainly Scotland and the Scots lived in what we know as Ireland (or 'Scotia').

After a while new immigrants arrived in the country. One group came about **1700 B.C.** from the Rhine-land and the Netherlands - an Alpine race, and mixed with the Iberian people. The newcomers were skilled in the use of copper and gold. Unlike the slim, long-headed people of Neolithic Britain, they were stocky and round-headed. Archaeologists refer to the new settlers as the *Beaker Folk*, because of the distinctive beaker-shaped pottery vessels they buried with their dead. The Beaker Folk tended to live in isolated round houses, not in villages. They usually buried their dead singly under round barrows.

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

The Bronze Age reached Britain between **2100 – 1650 B.C.** Gold was mined in Wales and Cornwall and the gold items found from their graves are evidence of the wealth of Bronze Age tribes.

By about **1400 B.C.**, Bronze Age people had completed Stonehenge and had built a larger monument at Avebury, in Wiltshire. They also built stone circles in many other places.

Archaeologists know little of life in the Bronze Age, but many experts think that the use of the wheel and the plough began in Britain during this period.

However, from about **1300 B.C.** onwards the henge civilisation seems to have become less important, and was overtaken by a new form of society in southern England, that of a settled farming class. At first this farming society developed in order to feed the people at the henges, but eventually it became more important and powerful as it grew richer. The new farmers grew wealthy because they learned to enrich the soil with natural waste materials so that it did not become poor and useless. Family villages and fortified enclosures appeared across the landscape, in lower-lying areas

as well as on the chalk hills, and the old central control of Stonehenge and the other henges was lost.

From this time, too, power seems to have shifted to the Thames valley and southeast Britain. Except for short periods, political and economic power has remained in the southeast ever since. Hill-forts replaced henges as the centres of local power, and most of these were found in the southeast, suggesting that the land successfully supported more people here than elsewhere.

The Celts

As the Bronze Age ended, new groups of immigrants entered Britain. They belonged to several different groups, but all used a form of the same language, called *Celtic*. These newcomers are therefore called the *Celts*. Some historians believe that the Celtic language had already spread to Britain earlier in the Bronze Age, perhaps as a result of trade with Europe. By the time the Romans reached Britain, in 55 B.C., Celtic had replaced Britain's earlier language almost entirely.

The Celts are supposed to have come from Central Europe in three distinct waves. The first Celtic comers were the *Gaels* who arrived around **600 B.C.** The Celtic spoken in western Ireland, the Hebrides and the north-west Highlands is called Gaelic. The Gaels made iron tools and weapons of high technical quality. The second wave was that of the *Cymri* or *Britons* around **300 B.C.** It is from the latter of course that Britain has taken its name, while the Welsh call themselves Cymri in their own tongue. They pushed the Gaels to Wales, Scotland, Ireland and Cornwall, and took possession of the south and east. They brought tools, weapons, shields, and very artistic personal ornaments.

Some time after **100 B.C.**, the *Belgae*, the most advanced of the Celtic tribes, arrived in southern Britain from Gaul (France), and occupied the greater part of what is known as the Home Countries [the central part of Great Britain]. They used ploughs, made pottery or potter's wheels, and struck metal coins. The Belgae built farms and large settlements that developed into Britain's first towns.

Thus, the whole of Britain was occupied by the Celts who merged with the Picts and Scots, as well as the Alpine part of the population. The term "Celtic" is often used rather generally to distinguish the early inhabitants of the British Isles from the later Anglo-Saxon invaders.

It was a patriarchal clan society based on common ownership of land – there was no private property, no classes, no exploitation. The basic unit of Celtic family life was the clan, a sort of extended family. Clans were bound together very loosely with other clans into tribes, each of which had its own social structure and customs, and possibly its own gods.

Tribal chiefs were chosen from each family or tribe, sometimes as the result of fighting matches between individuals, and sometimes by election.

Then social differentiation began to develop which resulted in the appearance of the tribal chiefs and the semi-dependent native population.

The Celts caught fish, grew wheat and corn as well as tamed and bred animals. They learned the art of pottery and made things of wool, metal and copper. They also brought the technique of smelting iron. The Celtic tribes continued the same kind of agriculture as the Bronze Age people before them. But their use of iron technology and their introduction of more advanced ploughing methods made it possible for them to farm heavier soils.

According to the Romans, the Celtic men wore shirts and breeches (knee-length trousers) and striped or checked cloaks fastened by a pin. It is possible that the Scottish tartan and dress developed from this striped cloak. The Celts were also “very careful about cleanliness and neatness, they were never seen ragged or dirty”, as one Roman wrote. The Celts had no towns but lived in villages or hill-forts which were the centre for local groups. The insides of these hill-forts were filled with houses, and they became the simple economic capitals and smaller “towns” of the different tribal areas into which Britain was now divided.

The Celts were good warriors. Their communities were ruled by warrior chiefs of whom the priests, or *Druids*, seem to have been particularly important members. Druids could not read or write, but they memorised all the religious teachings, the tribal laws, history, medicine and other knowledge necessary in Celtic society and their superior knowledge was taken for magic power.

The Celts were the first people in Britain to use chariots and to ride on horseback. Celtic war-chariots were famous beyond the limits of the country. In England itself Celtic influence is felt to this very day, though this influence is much weaker, as compared with the other parts of the country.

The Celts were heathens. They worshipped nature. The oak-tree, mistletoe and holly were sacred. Water was also worshipped as the source of life. There are place-names in England connected with the Celts. For example, Avon — the name of a river, which means “water” in Celtic. The origin of the name Severn — the longest river in the country — is connected with the name of a Celtic goddess — Sabrina. On the eve of the Roman conquest, the Britons were at the stage of decay.

It is also believed that during the Celtic period women had more independence and power than they had again for hundreds of years. When the Romans invaded Britain, two largest tribes were ruled by women; most famous of them was Boudicca (Boadicea) who fought from her chariot. She had become queen of her tribe when her husband had died. She was tall, with long red hair, and had a frightening appearance. In AD 61 she led her tribe against the Romans.

The Roman invasion (55 B.C. – A.D. 410)

2000 years ago while the Celts were still living in tribes the Romans were the most powerful people in the world. Roman society was a slave society divided into antagonistic classes – the slaves and the slave owners. The Romans conquered all the countries around. One of the last countries to be conquered by Rome was Gallia (present-day France). Julius Caesar reached the Channel in 55 BC and that was how the Romans came to see the white cliffs of the land of the British Celts.

Julius Caesar made two raids (55 and 54 B.C.) across the Channel to punish the Britons for helping the Celts of Gaul against him. On both occasions, he landed in Kent. In 54 B.C., he advanced inland and captured Wheathampstead, near present-day St. Albans, Hertfordshire. The Romans who had better arms and armour and were much better trained, defeated the Celts. However, a rebellion in Gaul (France) forced Caesar to withdraw his soldiers from Britain and the Roman invasion proper did not begin until A.D. 43 under the Emperor *Claudius*. Throughout the 350-year Roman occupation, Britain was ruled as a colony. The free Celts were not turned into slaves but they had to pay heavy taxes and were made to work for the conquerors.

The Roman Emperor Claudius ordered the conquest of Britain in A.D. 43 (AD-Anno Domini; Latin — “in the year of Christ”. *The author doesn't use A.D. after A.D. 100*). At the *Battle of the Medway*, the Romans defeated the tribes of southeastern Britain led by *Caratacus*. Claudius himself marched in triumph into Colchester, where many tribal chiefs submitted to him. The Romans then advanced northwards and westwards from London, building roads and establishing forts. Caratacus fled to the southern part of present-day Wales. There, he headed a tribe called the *Silures* and resisted the Romans until A.D. 51, when he was defeated and captured.

In A.D. 61, *Queen Boudicca* led a revolt against Roman rule: her followers burned down London, Colchester and St Albans. The rebellion was put down and the queen took poison rather than submit. So by A.D. 61, the Romans controlled the country as far north and west as the Humber and Severn rivers.

Between A.D. 71 and 79, the Romans subdued western Britain. *Agricola*, appointed governor in A.D. 78, advanced northwards to the Firth of Forth and the Firth of Clyde. In the A.D. 120's, Emperor *Hadrian* built a wall from the Solway Firth to the River Tyne to defend Roman Britain from raids by the Picts and other tribes of northern Britain. From A.D. 140 to 142, during the reign of Emperor *Antoninus Pius*, Roman forces built a second defensive wall from the Firth of Forth to the Firth of Clyde, but they could not hold it against tribal attacks and eventually abandoned it.

The Romans established a Romano-British culture across the southern half of Britain, from the River Humber to the River Severn. This part of Britain was inside the empire. Beyond were the upland areas, under Roman control but not developed. These areas were watched from the towns of York, Chester and Caerleon in the western peninsula of Britain that later became known as Wales. Each of these towns was held

by a Roman legion of about 7,000 men. The total Roman army in Britain was about 40,000 men.

The Romans failed to conquer northern Britain - "Caledonia", as they called Scotland, and sent no expeditions to Hibernia (Ireland).

Roman soldiers and traders brought *Christianity*, and in the *4th century* the Christian Church was established in Britain.

Roman Britain

Southern Britain, as was mentioned above, was considerably influenced by Roman civilization. There, the Roman way of life spread from the towns to the countryside. The Romans imposed their own way of life and culture, making use of the existing Celtic aristocracy to govern and encouraging this ruling class to adopt Roman dress and the Roman language [Latin]. It was during this time that the Scots migrated from Ireland to Scotland, where they became allies of the Picts and opponents of the Romans. This division of the Celts into those who experienced direct Roman [the Britons in England and Wales] and those who did not [the Gaels in Ireland and Scotland] may help to explain the development of two distinct branches of the Celtic language.

The most obvious characteristic of Roman Britain was its **towns**, which were the basis of Roman administration and civilisation. Many grew out of Celtic settlements, military camps or market centres. Broadly speaking, there were three different kinds of town in Roman Britain, two of which were towns established by Roman charter. These were the *coloniae*, towns peopled by Roman settlers, and the *municipia*, large cities in which the whole population was given Roman *citizenship*. The third kind, the *civitas*, included the old Celtic tribal capitals, through which the Romans administered the Celtic population in the countryside. At first these towns had no walls. Then, probably from the end of the second century to the end of the third century A.D., almost every town was given walls. At first many of these were no more than earthworks, but by A.D. 300 all towns had thick stone walls.

The Romans left about twenty large towns of about 5,000 inhabitants, and almost one hundred smaller ones. Many of these towns were at first army camps, and the Latin word for camp, *castra*, has remained part of many town names to this day (with the ending chester, caster or cester): Gloucester, Leicester, Doncaster, Winchester, Chester, Lancaster and many others besides. These towns were built with stone as well as wood, and had planned streets, markets and shops. Some buildings had central heating. They were connected by roads which were so well built that they survived when later roads broke up. These roads continued to be used long after the Romans left, and became the main roads of modern Britain. Six of these Roman roads met in London, a capital city of about 20,000 people. London was twice the size of Paris, and possibly the most important trading centre of northern Europe, because southeast Britain produced so much corn for export.

The Romans built most towns to a standardised pattern of straight, parallel main streets that crossed at right angles. The *forum* (market place) formed the centre of each town. Shops and such public buildings as the *basilica* (public hall), baths, law-courts, and temple surrounded the forum.

The paved streets had drainage systems, and fresh water was piped to many buildings. Some towns had a theatre for animal fights, gladiator shows, and plays. Houses were built of wood or narrow bricks and had tiled roofs. In some houses, hot air from a furnace was conducted through brick pipes under the floor to provide heat.

The largest of the towns was called Londinium. It began life as a Roman fort at a place where it was possible to cross the river Thames. Many believe that there was a Celtic settlement called ‘Llyn-dyn’ which meant ‘lake-fort’ and which the Romans changed into Latin.

Many towns were connected by good roads. Some of these roads still exist to this very day. For example, Watling Street from London to Chester, or Icknield Way connecting London with Cirencester.

Outside the towns, the biggest change during the Roman occupation was the growth of large farms, called “**villas**”. These belonged to the richer Britons who were, like the townspeople, more Roman than Celt in their manners. Each villa had many workers. The villas were usually close to towns so that the crops could be sold easily. There was a growing difference between the rich and those who did the actual work on the land. These, and most people, still lived in the same kind of round huts and villages which the Celts had been living in four hundred years earlier, when the Romans arrived.

The Roman baths in Bath were built between the 1st and 4th centuries around a natural hot spring.

In some ways **life in Roman Britain** seems much civilised, but it was also hard for all except the richest. The bodies buried in a Roman graveyard at York show that life expectancy was low. Half the entire population died between the ages of twenty and forty, while 15 per cent died before reaching the age of twenty.

It is very difficult to be sure how many people were living in Britain when the Romans left. Probably as many as five million, partly because of the peace and the increased economic life which the Romans had brought to the country. The new wave of invaders changed all that.

Roman rule in Britain ended when the Roman Empire declined. Massive migrations of less civilised peoples, such as the Goths, Huns, and Vandals, had for years been putting pressure on the frontiers of Rome’s provinces. In the 300’s, Germanic tribes penetrated into Rome’s western provinces. During the same period, *Saxon* pirates from Germany raided the southeastern coast of Britain. In 368, Pictish tribes severely

damaged Hadrian's Wall and destroyed much of northern Roman Britain. A Roman army quickly restored order, but its control soon lapsed.

Roman forces withdrew steadily from Britain to Gaul and Italy. By 400, Hadrian's Wall and the forts of Cambria were abandoned. By **407**, almost all the Romans had left Britain. In 410, people in the towns appealed to Rome for protection against the Saxons. But the Romans refused because Rome itself was being attacked by the Goths.

Despite their efforts, Romanized Britons were in time easily conquered by the Saxons and related Germanic tribes called *Angles* and *Jutes*. The Anglo-Saxons destroyed Roman culture wherever they settled. Consequently, the Roman occupation had few lasting effects on Britain, except for good roads in the south of the country and the survival of the Christian Church in Wales and Cornwall.

One reason why Roman Britannia disappeared so quickly is probably that its influence was largely confined to the towns. In the countryside, where most people lived, farming methods had remained unchanged and Celtic speech continued to be dominant. The Roman occupation had been a matter of colonial control rather than a large-scale settlement.

The Anglo-Saxon invasion

Many people today still call the period between the departure of the Romans in the 400's and the invasion of the Normans in 1066 the *Dark Ages*. This is because few reliable historical records of these times exist, and our knowledge of them is therefore limited.

Romanized Celtic leaders operated the Roman system of local government until about 446, when they made a final, fruitless appeal to Rome for protection. From then onwards, power fell more and more into the hands of local chiefs. From time to time, some of them established a lordship over others. Tradition says that one such overlord, *Vortigern*, controlled an area from Kent to South Wales.

The Anglo-Saxon raids continued. These raids were part of a general migration of Germanic tribes in search of new land for their increasing population.

During the *5th* century, a number of tribes from the northwestern European mainland invaded and settled in Britain in large numbers. These tribes were the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. The *Jutes* and the *Angles* came from the Jutland peninsula (today southern Denmark). The *Saxons* arrived from the territory between the Rhine and Elbe rivers (northern Germany). At first they came as mercenaries hired by Celtic tribal chiefs who fought one against the other, then seeing that the country was weak to defend itself, they came in great numbers conquering it altogether.

Tradition says that the Anglo-Saxon settlement of England began in **449**, when Vortigern invited two Jutish chiefs, Hengest and Horsa, to help him defend Kent against invading tribes. Hengest and Horsa later rebelled against Vortigern. Horsa died in

battle, but Hengest and his descendants eventually conquered Kent, Sussex, Hampshire, and the Isle of Wight by about **550**.

The Angles occupied the central part of southern Britain and the northern and eastern coasts. The Saxons settled around the River Thames. They advanced westwards to the Bristol Channel by **577** and to the Irish Sea by **613**. By then, almost all of present-day England was under Anglo-Saxon rule. Quite soon the country began to be called “the land of the Angles”, later “Englaland” and as you easily see England.

In the west of the country, their advance was temporarily halted by an army of Celtic Britons under the command of the legendary King Arthur. Nevertheless, by the end of the sixth century, the Anglo-Saxons and their way of life predominated in nearly all of England and in parts of southern Scotland.

Wherever the Anglo-Saxon settlers went, they displaced the local Romanized Celtic Britons, forcing them northwards and westwards into present-day Scotland and Wales. Some Britons took refuge in Cornwall or across the Channel in Brittany. In the **500's and 600's**, the Angles captured the land between Wales and the Celtic kingdom of Strathclyde.

In the **700's**, Offa, king of Mercia, built a defensive dyke that defined the English boundary with Wales.

The Anglo-Saxons and Jutes were close to each other in speech and customs, and they gradually formed into one people referred to as the Anglo-Saxons. For a long time the tribes fought with one another for supreme power.

Anglo-Saxon England

Altogether, seven Anglo-Saxon kingdoms developed in England - **East Anglia, Essex, Kent, Mercia, Northumbria, Sussex, and Wessex**. By the middle of the 600's, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex dominated the other four kingdoms and became the most powerful. In the 700's, Mercia had important commercial and diplomatic links with Europe.

It was not until a century later that one of these kings, **King Offa of Mercia**, claimed "kingship of the English". He had good reason to do so. He was powerful enough to employ thousands of men to build a huge dyke, or earth wall, the length of the Welsh border to keep out the troublesome Celts. But although he was the most powerful king of his time, he did not control all of England. The power of Mercia did not survive after Offa's death.

In the **800's**, **Wessex** became the politically dominant kingdom. **Egbert**, its king, conquered the Welsh of Cornwall in **815**. In **825**, he defeated Mercia and seized Mercia's subject kingdoms of Kent and Sussex. In **827**, Egbert forced Mercia and Northumbria to accept his overlordship. After 827, local kings still ruled in East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria, but Egbert claimed to rule the whole of England. Egbert became the first king of England.

Egbert's successors include **Alfred the Great**, one of England's most significant early monarchs. Alfred was a great statesman, general, and man of letters. He wrote and translated books, opened schools, formed laws, and helped to found England's navy. King Alfred could read and write. He sent for artisans, builders and scholars from the Continent to teach his people. Books on religion, history and philosophy were translated so that those people who learned to read could understand them in their own tongue. King Alfred himself translated Ecclesiastical History of the English People. Alfred ordered that the learned men should begin to write a history of England. *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* was written in Anglo-Saxon, the language spoken by the people, rather than Latin, the language of the church.

Among Alfred's descendants were two more outstanding kings. **Athelstan**, who ruled from **924** to **939**, was acknowledged as overlord by the Danes and by the Celts of Scotland and Wales. **Edgar the Peaceful**, who reigned from **959** to **975**, reformed the laws and coinage and founded religious institutions.

Anglo-Saxon society

The Anglo-Saxons made little use for towns and cities. They had a great effect on the countryside, where they introduced new farming methods and founded thousands of self-sufficient villages. Each village was self-sufficient, that is, most of the necessities of life were produced in the village itself.

Anglo-Saxon technology changed the shape of English agriculture. The Celts had kept small, square fields which were well suited to the light plough they used, drawn either by an animal or two people. The Anglo-Saxons introduced a far heavier plough which was better able to plough in long straight lines across the field. It required six or eight oxen to pull it, and it was difficult to turn. This heavier plough led to changes in land ownership and organisation. In order to make the best use of village land, it was divided into two or three very large fields. These were then divided again into long thin strips. Each family had a number of strips in each of these fields, amounting probably to a family "holding" of twenty or so acres. Ploughing these long thin strips was easier because it avoided the problem of turning. Few individual families could afford to keep a team of oxen, and these had to be shared on a co-operative basis.

One of these fields would be used for planting spring crops, and another for autumn crops. The third area would be left to rest for a year, and with the other areas after harvest, would be used as common land for animals to feed on. This Anglo-Saxon pattern, which became more and more common, was the basis of English agriculture for a thousand years, until the eighteenth century.

The Saxons settled previously unfarmed areas. They cut down many forested areas in valleys to farm the richer lowland soil, and they began to drain the wetland. As a re-

sult, almost all the villages which appear on eighteenth-century maps already existed by the eleventh century.

Arable – farming and cattle - breeding satisfied the needs of the people in the way of foodstuffs, clothing and footwear. There were no shops and there was very little trading. People did not travel very much. Travelling peddlers sold nails, needles, thread, salt, tar and sometimes toys for children.

The earliest Anglo-Saxon kings were military leaders who ruled with the aid of *thanes* (lords). The Anglo-Saxons settled in small *tribal villages or townships* of timber huts thatched with straw, reeds, or heather. By the 800's, village life had become more organised. The Anglo-Saxon kings had allotted land to their thanes and had made them overlords of some villages. Villagers became dependent on their thane and had to give him food and labour.

The Saxons divided the land into new administrative areas, based on *shires* (the Saxon word) or *counties* (the Norman word). These shires, established by the end of the tenth century, remained almost exactly the same for a thousand years. Over each shire was appointed a *shire reeve*, the king's local administrator. In time his name became shortened to "sheriff".

In each district was a "*manor*" or large house. This was a simple building where local villagers came to pay taxes, where justice was administered, and where men met together to join the Anglo-Saxon army, the *fyrð*. The lord of the manor had to organise all this, and make sure village land was properly shared. It was the beginning of the manorial system which reached its fullest development under the Normans.

Saxon villages consisted of about 20 to 30 families, all faithful to their leader. Local rules were made by the "*moot*", which was a small meeting held on a grassy hill or under a tree. Sometimes it judged cases between the people of the village. The many villages were, as time went by, grouped into "*hundreds*", and the hundreds were grouped into "*shires*". Each hundred had an open-air court of justice, and the judges were called *aldermen*. At first, *aldermen* were simply local officials. But by the beginning of the eleventh century they were warlords, and were often called by a new Danish name, *earl*. [Both words, alderman and earl, remain in English today: aldermen are elected officers in local government, and earls are high ranking nobles]. It was the beginning of a class system, made up of kings, lords, soldiers and workers. One other important class developed during the Saxon period, the men of learning. These came from the Christian Church.

Important cases were discussed at a shire moot, which was a kind of local parliament, which met usually twice a year. The King's council was called the *witan*, which was a kind of parliament of wise nobles and clergy. The witan advised the king and was the highest law court. It could make laws and choose, or elect new kings.

The Anglo-Saxon peoples spoke languages belonging to the Germanic group of languages. The speech of the Anglo-Saxons predominated in England and formed the basis from which the English language developed.

The Anglo-Saxons were pagans and worshipped different gods: the sun, the moon, and such nature gods as Odin (Woden) and Thor. Their names are reflected in the names of the days of the week: Tiu (Tuesday) was the god of war, Woden (Wednesday) was the supreme god and the god of kings, Thor (Thursday) was the god of storm, Frigga (Friday), Woden's wife, was the goddess of nature and of love.

The *conversion* of the pagan Anglo-Saxons *to Christianity* began at the end of the 6th century (579) when *St Augustine* from Rome became the Archbishop of Canterbury (the capital of Kent), thus restoring a link broken by the Saxon invasions.

The spread of Christianity brought about important changes in the life of the Anglo-Saxons. The kings and nobles granted much land to the bishops and monasteries, and that promoted the growth of big landed estates. The Roman monks helped to spread Roman culture in the country. They brought many books to Britain written in Latin and Greek. The first libraries and schools for the clergy were set up in monasteries. The most famous writer was the monk named *the Venerable Bede* (673-735) who is sometimes called "father of English history". He wrote "*Ecclesiastical History of the English People*", which was the only book on Anglo-Saxon history.

There is another important piece of literature from this period – the heroic epic poem "*Beowulf*". Most literary historians believe it was composed in the oral tradition by an anonymous Anglo-Saxon story singer at around 700, but not recorded in writing until several centuries later. The epic tells the story of a hero, a Scandinavian prince Beowulf, who rids the Danes of the monster Grendel.

Struggle against the Viking raiders

At the end of the 8th century a second wave of Germanic invasions started with raids on coastal monasteries. During the 9th and 10th centuries more and more Vikings came, as the Saxons had done earlier, first to plunder, then to stay.

In the late 700s, *Vikings*, seafaring people from Scandinavia, raided several European countries for plunder. The Vikings from Denmark (*the Danes*) went mostly to England and Wales, and those from Norway (*the Northmen*) went mainly to Scotland and Ireland.

Vikings first raided the Wessex coast in 789. They raided the Hebrides in 794 and Ireland in the next year. Their raids became more frequent in the 800's. They attacked rich monasteries. They plundered and burned villages, took slaves, and left survivors to starve.

As was mentioned above, Egbert, the king of Wessex, united several neighbouring kingdoms and became the first king of the united country. From 829, the greater part of the country was united under the name "England". An important event that con-

tributed to the unification of the country and the development of culture was the adoption of Christianity in England in **664**. Wessex united the rest of England in the fight against the Danes.

In the **9th** century, the latter conquered and settled the extreme north and west of Scotland, and also some coastal regions of Ireland. Danish Vikings first settled permanently in England in **851**. By **870**, they had conquered every English kingdom except Wessex.

Their conquest of England was halted when King Alfred, Egbert's grandson, who became known in English history as *Alfred the Great*, defeated them in **886**. Wessex became the centre of resistance against invaders. All the free peasants of Wessex were trained to fight and Alfred could raise a large levy of infantrymen when it was necessary. The army of horsemen was increased too.

The first British Navy was built and many places fortified. As a result of all these measures, the Anglo-Saxons won several victories over the Danes. This resulted in a treaty that divided England between Wessex and the Danes.

By the terms of this treaty, *the Peace of Wedmore*, the Danes accepted Christianity. They also agreed to live in an area north of a line drawn from the River Thames to Chester, and south of a line drawn from the River Tees to the Solway Firth. This area was called the *Danelaw*. The Danes made the town of York their capital.

During his struggle against the Danes, Alfred had built walled settlements to keep them out. These were called *burghs*. They became prosperous market towns, and the word, now usually spelt *borough*, is one of the commonest endings to place names, as well as the name of the unit of municipal or town administration today.

Danish Vikings founded the towns of Derby, Leicester, Nottingham, and Stamford. They also established trade between England and countries beyond the North Sea. York was a leading Viking town and trading centre.

By **954**, Wessex had conquered Danelaw. Nevertheless, new Danish raiders arrived in the later 900's. King **Ethelred II** tried to buy them off with money raised from a land tax called *Danegeld* (a tax payable by English kings to Danish lords in return for their not ransacking England).

But by **1013**, the Danes had conquered most of England. However, the cultural differences between the Anglo-Saxons and Danes were comparatively small. They led roughly the same way of life and spoke two varieties of the same Germanic tongue. Moreover, the Danes soon converted to Christianity. These similarities made political unification easier, and by the beginning of the eleventh century, England was one kingdom with a Germanic culture throughout. Danish influence is still felt in some place-names ending in *-by*, *-toft*, such as Appleby or Lowestoft, as well as in the presence of some words in the English language.

At the beginning of the 11th century (in **1016**) England was conquered by the Danish King **Canute** (Cnut/Knut) who became king of Denmark, Norway and England. Canute proved to be a most effective ruler. He divided England into territorial lordships, providing a unified system of government, and ended the practice of paying Danegeld.

After Canute's death in **1035** his sons did not reign long and the throne was passed to **Edward the Confessor** in 1042, who thus restored the Saxon line of kings (Canute had married the Saxon king Ethelred's widow Emma whose son was Edward).

The northern part of Britain, meanwhile, was the home of the Picts and Scots. After the conquest of the Picts by the Scots in the ninth century this northern territory came to be called Scotland and a united Scottish kingdom, at least in name, was formed in the 11th century.

The Norman Conquest (1066-1337)

King Edward, known as the Confessor, because of his interest in religious matters, ruled from 1042 to 1066. He had no heir, and a struggle for power developed.

The question of who should follow him as king was one of the most important in English history. Edward had brought many Normans (a people descended from Vikings (the Northmen) who had settled around the River Seine) to his English court from France. These Normans were not liked by the more powerful Saxon nobles, particularly by the most powerful family of Wessex, the **Godwinsons**. It was a Godwinson, Harold, whom the Witan chose to be the next king of England. **Harold** had already shown his bravery and ability. He had no royal blood, but he seemed a good choice for the throne of England.

Harold's right to the English throne was challenged by **Duke William of Normandy** (now part of northwestern France). William had two claims to the English throne. His first claim was that King Edward had promised it to him. The second claim was that Harold, who had visited William in 1064 or 1065, had promised William that he, Harold, would not try to take the throne for himself. Harold did not deny this second claim, but said that he had been forced to make the promise, and that because it was made unwillingly he was not tied by it. So **Harold II** came to the throne.

Harold faced two dangers, one in the south and one in the north. The Danish Vikings had not given up their claim to the English throne. In **September 1066**, **Tostig**, Harold's brother, together with King Harald Hardrada of Norway, invaded northern England. Harold II defeated them at the **Battle of Stamford Bridge**. No sooner had he defeated them than he learnt that William had landed in England. So he had to turn south at once to oppose the landing in East Sussex by William. His men were tired, but they had no time to rest. Harold decided not to wait for the whole Saxon army, the *fyrð*, to gather because William's army was small. He thought he could beat them with the men who had done so well against the Danes. However, the Norman soldiers

were better armed, better organised, and were mounted on horses. At *the Battle of Hastings* on **October 14**, the Normans defeated the Saxons and Harold was killed. The Norman conquest of England followed the Battle of Hastings.

William marched to London, which quickly gave in when he began to burn villages outside the city. **William I** was crowned king of England in Edward's new church of Westminster Abbey on *Christmas Day, 1066*. A new period had begun. He is known in popular history as '*William the Conqueror*'. The date is remembered for being the last time that England was successfully invaded.

William the Conqueror's coronation did not go as planned. When the people shouted "God Save the King" the nervous Norman guards at Westminster Abbey thought they were going to attack William. In their fear they set fire to nearby houses and the coronation ceremony ended in disorder.

Although William was now crowned king, his conquest had only just begun, and the fighting lasted for another five years. There was an Anglo-Saxon rebellion against the Normans every year until **1070**. The small Norman army marched from village to village, destroying places it could not control, and building forts to guard others. It was a true army of occupation for at least twenty years. The north was particularly hard to control, and the Norman army had no mercy. When the Saxons fought back, the Normans burnt, destroyed and killed. Between Durham and York not a single house was left standing, and it took a century for the north to recover.

Few Saxon lords kept their lands and those who did were the very small number who had accepted William immediately. All the others lost everything. By **1086**, twenty years after the arrival of the Normans, only two of the greater landlords and only two bishops were Saxon. William gave the Saxon lands to his Norman nobles. After each English rebellion there was more land to give away. His army included Norman and other French land seekers. Over 4,000 Saxon landlords were replaced by 200 Norman ones.

Life under William I

The Normans settled in the country, and the French language became the official language of the ruling class for the next three centuries. This explains the great number of French words in English. Unlike the Germanic invasions, the Norman invasion was small-scale. There was no such thing as a Norman village or a Norman area of settlement.

The successful Norman invasion of England in 1066 brought Britain into the mainstream of western European culture. Previously most links had been with Scandinavia. Only in Scotland did this link survive.

William was a Norman king who saw England as an extension of his French domains. He exercised strict and systematic control over his conquests. He raised taxes and redistributed land, granting most of it to *barons* (noblemen).

In return for their land, William's barons had to perform certain services. They and the bishops served as members of William's *Council*, which replaced the Anglo-Saxon Witan. The barons also had military obligations to serve as *knights* (army commanders) for William.

All land was divided into *manors*. Most manors contained a village. A baron was the tenant-in-chief and had several manors. He passed on part of his military obligations to his tenants, who held manors from him. The tenants of each manor performed specific regular services for their lord. This type of land tenure and manorial and military organisation is known as *feudal tenure*. Feudalism had been practised in Anglo-Saxon times, but under the Normans it became more organised. The peasants were the English-speaking Saxons. The lords and the barons were the French-speaking Normans. This was the beginning of the English class system. The monarchy, which was established by William and his successors, was, in general, more effective. The feudal system contributed to the growth of power of the state, and little by little, England began to spread its power.

William gave out land all over England to his nobles. By **1086** he wanted to know exactly who owned which piece of land, and how much it was worth. He needed this information so that he could plan his economy, find out how much was produced and how much he could ask for in tax. He therefore sent a team of people all through England to make a complete economic survey. This survey was unique in its kind for Europe. Not surprisingly, it was most unpopular with the people. It reminded them of the paintings of the Day of Judgement, or "doom", in their churches, so they called it the "Domesday" Book.

Britain after William I

When William died, in **1087**, he left the Duchy of Normandy to his elder son, **Robert**. He gave England to his second son, **William**. When Robert went to fight the Muslims in the Holy Land, he left William in charge of Normandy.

William died in a hunting accident in 1100, shot dead by an arrow. He had not married, and therefore had no son to take the crown. At the time of William's death, Robert was on his way home to Normandy from the Holy Land. Their younger brother, **Henry**, knew that if he wanted the English crown he would have to act very quickly. He rode to Winchester and took charge of the king's treasury. He then rode to Westminster, where he was crowned king **Henry I** three days later. Robert was very angry and prepared to invade. But it took him a year to organise an army.

The Norman nobles in England had to choose between Henry and Robert. This was not easy because most of them held land in Normandy too. In the end they chose Henry because he was in London, with the crown already on his head. Robert's invasion was a failure and he accepted payment to return to Normandy. But Henry wanted more. He knew that many of his nobles would willingly follow him to Normandy

so that they could win back their Norman lands. In **1106** Henry invaded Normandy and captured Robert. Normandy and England were reunited under one ruler.

Henry I's most important aim was to pass on both Normandy and England to his successor. He spent the rest of his life fighting to keep Normandy from other French nobles who tried to take it. But in **1120** Henry's only son was drowned at sea.

During the next fifteen years Henry hoped for another son but finally accepted that his daughter, **Matilda**, would follow him. Henry had married Matilda to another great noble in France, Geoffrey Plantagenet. Geoffrey was heir to Anjou, a large and important area southwest of Normandy. Henry hoped that the family lands would be made larger by this marriage. He made all the nobles promise to accept Matilda when he died. But then Henry himself quarrelled publicly with Matilda's husband, and died soon after. This left the succession in question.

At the time both the possible heirs to Henry were on their own estates. Matilda was with her husband in Anjou and Henry's nephew, **Stephen of Blois**, was in Boulogne, only a day's journey by sea from England. As Henry had done before him, Stephen raced to England to claim the crown. Also as before, the nobles in England had to choose between Stephen, who was in England, and Matilda, who had quarrelled with her father and who was still in France. Most chose **Stephen**, only a few nobles supported Matilda's claim.

Matilda invaded England four years later. Her fight with Stephen led to a terrible civil war in which villages were destroyed and many people were killed. Neither side could win, and finally in **1153** Matilda and Stephen agreed that Stephen could keep the throne but only if Matilda's son, Henry, could succeed him. Fortunately for England, Stephen died the following year, and the family possessions of England and the lands in France were united under a king accepted by everyone. It took years for England to recover from the civil war.

Britain under the reign of Henry II and his sons Richard and John. Magna Carta

Henry II was the first **Plantagenet** king. He was a descendant of the French House of Anjou, whose emblem was a sprig of broom. The Latin for *broom plant* was *planta genesta*, which gave rise to the name *Plantagenet*. Henry reigned from **1154 to 1189**. Henry II was the first unquestioned ruler of the English throne for a hundred years. He destroyed the castles which many nobles had built without royal permission during Stephen's reign, and made sure that they lived in manor houses that were undefended. The manor again became the centre of local life and administration.

Henry II was the ruler of far more land than any previous king. As lord of Anjou he added his father's lands to the family empire. After his marriage to *Eleanor of Aquitaine* he also ruled the lands south of Anjou. Henry II's empire stretched from the Scottish border to the Pyrenees.

However, Henry quarrelled with his beautiful and powerful wife, and his sons, Richard and John, took Eleanor's side. It may seem surprising that Richard and John fought against their own father. In 1189 Henry died a broken man, disappointed and defeated by his sons and by the French king.

Henry was followed by his rebellious son, **Richard** (reigned from *1189 to 1199*). Richard I has always been one of England's most popular kings, although he spent hardly any time in England and wasted England's resources on crusades in the Holy Land to make war on the Muslims, and he fought with skill, courage and honour. He was nicknamed "Lion Heart", but his culture, like that of the kings before him, was French.

On his way back from the Holy Land Richard was captured by the duke of Austria, with whom he had quarrelled in Jerusalem. The duke demanded money before he would let him go, and it took two years for England to pay. Shortly after, in 1199, Richard was killed in France. When he died the French king took over parts of Richard's French lands.

Richard had no son, and he was followed by his brother, **John** (reigned from *1199 to 1216*). He clashed with his barons and lost many of his French lands. (Because of this he was called *John Lackland*).

John had already made himself unpopular with the nobles, the merchants and the Church. He was unpopular mainly because he was greedy. The feudal lords in England had always run their own law courts and profited from the fines paid by those brought to court. But John took many cases out of their courts and tried them in the king's courts, taking the money for himself.

It was common for a feudal lord to make a payment to the king when his daughter was married, but John asked for more than was the custom. When a noble died, his son had to pay money before he could inherit his father's land. John increased the amount they had to pay. When a noble died without a son, the land was to be passed on to another noble family, but John kept the land for a long time, to benefit from its wealth. He did the same with the bishoprics. As for the merchants and towns, he taxed them at a higher level than ever before.

In *1204* King John became even more unpopular with his nobles. The French king invaded Normandy and the English nobles lost their lands there. John had failed to carry out his duty to them as duke of Normandy. He had taken their money but he had not protected their land. In *1209* John quarrelled with the pope over who should be Archbishop of Canterbury. John was in a weak position in England and the pope knew it. The pope called on the king of France to invade England. In *1214* John gave in, and accepted the pope's choice of archbishop.

In **1215** John hoped to recapture Normandy. He called on his lords to fight for him, but they no longer trusted him. They marched to London, where they were joined by angry merchants and rebelled against King John's taxation.

The barons under the leadership of Archbishop **Stephen Langton**, forced John, at Runnymede, in present-day Surrey, to promise to observe their rights. They also forced him to accept **Magna Carta**, a charter that brought benefits to the common people as well as the barons.

In its original draft, it contained 63 clauses defining the rights and responsibilities of the crown and its subjects. It limited the king's power to tax the barons, guaranteed the rights of the church and the city corporations as well as the right to a fair legal trial.

The nobles who wrote it didn't mean to give freedom to the majority of people in England (most people were serfs at that time), they wanted to make sure John didn't go beyond his rights as a feudal lord. Magna Carta marks a clear stage in the collapse of English feudalism. Feudal society was based on links between lord and vassal. By having the king sign Magna Carta the nobles were not acting like vassals but as a class. In addition, the nobles were acting in cooperation with the merchant class of town. Feudalism, the use of land in return for service, was beginning to weaken, but it took another 300 years before it disappeared completely.

England under the reign of Henry III and Edward I

Henry III, John's eldest son, was just as unsuccessful a ruler during his reign (**1216-1272**) as his father, and his barons waged war against him. In Henry III's reign, **Simon de Montfort** led the barons in a rebellion against the king. This rebellion, called the *Barons' War*, ended with de Montfort's defeat at the Battle of Evesham in **1265**. De Montfort had been the first person to summon ordinary citizens to discuss affairs of state with the barons and bishops. This idea led to the growth of **Parliament**.

Henry III, who was only nine at his accession, had few of the personal qualities to gain respect. He was not able to get back his father's lands in France, his heavy spending and his foreign advisers upset the nobles. However, in some respect he redeemed himself as a ruler by patronising arts and inspiring the improvements to Westminster Abbey and construction of Salisbury Cathedral.

Henry's heir, Edward, crushed the rebellious barons. In **1272**, he succeeded Henry III as King **Edward I**. Like Henry II, Edward was a man of authority. He passed important laws and skillfully influenced the development of Parliament. He suppressed a Welsh rebellion and joined Wales to England in **1282**. The annexation was not confirmed by a political Act of Union until 1536. Apart from a revolt led by *Owen Glendower* in the 1400s, Wales's political independence was ended by Edward I's military victories. Edward also brought Scotland under English control for a time (until the battle of Bannockburn in **1314**).

The Conquest of Wales. Attempts to Conquer Scotland.

Edward I was interested in bringing the rest of Britain under his control.

Wales was the first to be conquered by England. Edward I of England made his eldest son, his heir, bear the title **Prince of Wales** in **1301**.

Though Wales was conquered by England, the Welsh continued to struggle for their independence. But the situation was seriously changed when in 1485 the English throne passed to Henry VII of the Welsh House of Tudor. In 1536 and 1542, Henry VIII brought Wales under the English parliament through special Acts of Union. Since the 16th century, Wales has been governed from London. In today's Government, there is a special department and minister for Welsh affairs.

Scotland managed to be independent for quite a long time, though the English tried hard to conquer it. In the 14th century, **Robert Bruce** led the struggle against the English, but he was defeated by the English king Edward I. Bruce managed to organise a new army and defeated the English.

However, some years later **Edward II**, the new English king, decided to attack Robert Bruce in Scotland. He managed to cross the border but in the **battle of Bannockburn (1314)**, the English were very seriously defeated, and Scotland continued to be independent for the next three centuries.

The political independence of Scotland did not prevent a gradual switch to the English language and customs in the lowland (southern) part of the country.

It was in this period that Parliament began its gradual evolution into the 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 thirteenth 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.

In the mid-1300's, the feudal way of life began to decline. This decline was speeded by the **Black Death**, a plague that spread from China across Europe. It killed many people in Britain in **1348** and **1349**. So many people died that the manorial system was totally disrupted.

The barons became less important owing to changes in the military system. Expanding trade brought the development of towns and of a wealthy middle class. Fresh, challenging ideas spread from Italy to Britain and other parts of Europe. The new ideas coincided with the growth of education and the invention of printing.

England under the reign of Edward III. The 100 Years' War.

Edward II's son, Edward III, sought to win back England's lands in France, and in **1337**, began a war against the French - the Hundred Years' War.

Edward III (1312 – 1377) was one of the most successful English monarchs of the Middle Ages. Restoring royal authority after the disastrous reign of his father, Ed-

ward III went on to transform the Kingdom of England into the most efficient military power in Europe. His reign saw vital developments in legislature and government, in particular the evolution of the English parliament. He remained on the throne for 50 years; no English monarch had reigned for as long since Henry III.

His reign was dominated by the *100 Years' War (1337 – 1453)* with France.

During the war the kings and noblemen of England began to speak English. English literature was born with *Geoffrey Chaucer's* "Canterbury Tales" and the Bible was translated into English by *John Wycliffe*.

The first large school, Winchester College, was established in 1382. Oxford and Cambridge Universities were founded for the nobility. But only Oxford University is the oldest in the English-speaking world. The exact date of foundation remains unclear, but there is evidence of teaching from the 11th century. Cambridge University, as early records suggest, was established in 1209).

The Mediaeval period (1337-1485).

The years from 1337 to 1485 were marked by long periods of war, which brought about important military changes. Campaigns became longer, and kings needed soldiers to fight longer than the period of feudal obligation. Kings preferred to take money and hired professional soldiers.

Edward III was followed by **Richard II**, his grandson. Richard became king at the age of 11, so others governed for him. His advisers introduced a *tax payment* for every person over 15. When this tax was introduced for the third time in 1381, it caused a revolt in East Anglia and Kent, two richer parts of the country.

The *Peasants' Revolt* only lasted for four weeks. During that time the peasants took control of much of London. In fact, it was not only the peasants who revolted, but a number of poorer townspeople as well. When the leader Wat Tyler was killed, Richard II skillfully managed to calm down the angry crowd, promising to meet all the people's demands. However, it didn't happen, his officers killed the other leading rebels.

The Peasants' Revolt was the first sign of growing discontent with the state. During the next century *discontent with the Church* also grew, the most important reason being the greed of the Church. There had already been a few attacks on Church property in towns controlled by the Church.

Another threat to the Church during the fourteenth century was the spread of religious writings, which were popular with an increasingly literate population. The increase in private prayer was a direct threat to the authority of the Church over the religious life of the population. This was because these writings allowed people to pray and think independently of Church control. Private religious experience and the increase of knowledge encouraged people to challenge the Church's authority, and the way it used this to advance its political influence.

At the end of the fourteenth century new religious ideas appeared in England which were dangerous to Church authority.

The crisis of kinship. The Wars of the Roses.

When the 100 Years' War ended in 1453, the English noblemen returned to England with their soldiers, many of whom became unemployed. They knew no craft but fighting. Two groups of nobles, *Lancastrians* and *Yorkists*, fought for the control of the throne.

To understand the situation, one should go back to the year 1377 when Richard II became king. The young king was placed under the control of his uncle John, duke of Lancaster, who prepared the throne for his son Henry (IV). There was another possible successor – the son of his uncle Edmund, the Duke of York. It is difficult to say which had the better claim to the throne, but Henry was stronger. He won the support of other

powerful nobles and took the crown by force. Richard died mysteriously soon after.

Henry IV spent the rest of his reign establishing his royal authority. Although he passed the crown to his son peacefully and **Henry V** was one of England's favourite kings, 50 years later the nobility were divided between those who remained loyal to **Henry VI**, the "Lancastrians", and those who supported the duke of York, the "Yorkists".

The *House of York* was identified with a *white rose*, *Lancaster* with a *red rose*.

The Yorkists claimed that Henry VI, who had lost the throne of France and all English lands on the continent, had no right to be the king. They also claimed that they had a better right to the throne than Henry VI, because they were descended from an older son of Edward III.

The war began in **1455** with the battle of *Saint Albans*. Six years later, the York forces crushed the Lancaster army and Edward of York became king as **Edward IV**. When he died in **1470**, his son **Edward V (1470 - 1483)** succeeded him at the age of 12. Richard, the duke of Gloucester, uncle of the young king, killed Edward and his little brother and became king Richard III.

Richard III (1483 – 1485) was King of England for two years, until his death in 1485 during the battle of Bosworth Field. He was the last king of the House of York and the last of the Plantagenet dynasty. His defeat at the *Battle of Bosworth Field* was the decisive battle of the Wars of the Roses and is sometimes regarded as the end of the Middle Ages in England. At Bosworth Field Henry Tudor, a descendant of the House of Lancaster, defeated the royal army and after the battle was crowned King **Henry VII**, the first ruler of the *Tudor dynasty*. Henry married Edward IV's daughter (Edward V's sister) and so at last united the rival houses of Lancaster and York, two branches of the English family of Plantagenet.

England in the period of the Tudors.

The century of *Tudor rule (1485-1603)* is often thought the most glorious period in English history. *Henry VII* built 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. Finally, his daughter *Elizabeth* brought glory to the new state by defeating the powerful navy of Spain, the greatest European power of the time. During the Tudor age England experienced one of the greatest artistic periods in its history. The Tudor monarchs increased the power of the Crown and achieved good government and internal peace and order. Changes in farming and in manufacturing brought increased prosperity. The exploits of seamen led to the expansion of trade and the beginnings of colonisation.

The Tudor dynasty established *a system of government policy*. Parliament was split into two 'Houses'. The *House of Lords* consisted of the feudal aristocracy and the leaders of the Church; the *House of Commons* consisted of representatives from the towns and the less important landowners in rural areas. It was now more important for monarchs to get the agreement of the Commons for the policy-making because that was where the newly powerful merchants and landowners were represented.

Henry VII brought about the conditions for later Tudor greatness. He set up a *Court of Star Chamber* and used it to make the barons disband their private armies. He restored royal finances by collecting taxes strictly and by forcing wealthy people to make loans to his treasury. He extended royal control over local government through the local magistrates called *justices of the peace*.

The Elizabethan Era.

Elizabeth, Mary's half-sister, was lucky to become queen when Mary died in *1558*. Elizabeth had been wise enough to say nothing, do nothing, and to express neither Catholic nor Protestant views while Mary lived. And Philip persuaded Mary to leave Elizabeth unharmed. But after Mary's death she abolished papal authority over the English Church. In foreign affairs, she played for time, avoiding war with Spain until England became strong at sea. When she became queen, **Elizabeth I** attempted to find a peaceful solution to the problems of the English Reformation. She tried to bring together again those parts of English society which were in religious disagreement. And she wanted to make England prosperous. In some ways the kind of Protestantism finally agreed in *1559* remained closer to the Catholic religion than to other Protestant groups. But Elizabeth made sure that the Church was still under her authority. In a way, she made the Church part of the state machine.

The "*parish*", the area served by one church, usually the same size as a village, became the unit of state administration. People had to go to church on Sundays by law and they were fined if they stayed away. This meant that the parish priest, the "*parson*" or "*vicar*", became almost as powerful as the village squire. Elizabeth also ar-

ranged for a book of sermons to be used in church. Although most of the sermons consisted of Bible teaching, this book also taught the people that rebellion against the Crown was a sin against God.

The struggle between Catholics and Protestants continued to endanger Elizabeth's position for the next thirty years. Both France and Spain were Catholic. Elizabeth and her advisers wanted to avoid open quarrels with both of them. This was not easy, because both the French and Spanish kings wanted to marry Elizabeth and so join England to their own country. Elizabeth and her advisers knew how much damage Mary had done and that it was important that she should avoid such a marriage. At the same time, however, there was a danger that the pope would persuade Catholic countries to attack England. Finally, there was a danger from those Catholic nobles still in England who wished to remove Elizabeth and replace her with the queen of Scotland, who was a Catholic.

Mary, the Scottish queen, usually called "*Queen of Scots*", was the heir to the English throne because she was Elizabeth's closest living relative, and because Elizabeth had not married. Mary's mother had been French, and Mary had spent her childhood in France, and was a strong Catholic. When she returned to rule Scotland as queen, Mary soon made enemies of some of her nobles, and to avoid them she finally escaped to the safety of England. Elizabeth, however, kept Mary as a prisoner for almost twenty years. During that time Elizabeth discovered several secret Catholic plots, some of which clearly aimed at making Mary queen of England.

When Elizabeth finally agreed to Mary's execution in **1587**, it was partly because Mary had named Philip of Spain as her heir to the throne of England, and because with this claim Philip had decided to invade England. Elizabeth no longer had a reason to keep Mary alive. In England Mary's execution was popular. The Catholic plots and the dangers of a foreign Catholic invasion had changed people's feelings. By 1585 most English people believed that to be a Catholic was to be an enemy of England. This hatred of everything Catholic became an important political force.

The reign of Elizabeth I was a prosperous period. Clothiers organised the expanding *cloth industry* into the domestic system. They offered good prices for wool, and *sheep farming* became profitable. Some lords of the manor enclosed land in order to keep sheep. They thereby deprived tenants of their land-holdings. Some tenant farmers became homeless beggars. Parliament passed several laws to deal with this situation. An important law of **1601**, the *Poor Law*, regulated the treatment of beggars to provide them with relief. In time, England's growing prosperity provided new jobs.

During Elizabeth's reign, many English seamen continued to seek *alternative routes to India*. Others sought trade with Spanish colonies in America. But after Captain John Hawkins was attacked by the Spaniards in a Mexican port in **1567**, many English seamen became *privateers* and attacked Spanish ships and ports.

Philip knew quite well that Elizabeth was encouraging the “sea dogs”, as they were known. These seamen were traders as well as pirates and adventurers. The most famous of them were *John Hawkins*, *Francis Drake* and *Martin Frobisher*, but there were many others who were also trying to build English sea trade and to interrupt Spain’s.

Philip decided to conquer England in **1587** because he believed this had to be done before he would be able to defeat the Dutch rebels in the Netherlands. He hoped that enough Catholics in England would be willing to help him. Philip’s large army was already in the Netherlands. He built a great fleet of ships, an “*Armada*”, to move his army across the English Channel from the Netherlands. But in **1587** Francis Drake attacked and destroyed part of this fleet in *Cadiz harbour*.

Philip started again, and built the largest fleet that had ever gone to sea. But most of the ships were designed to carry soldiers, and the few fighting ships were not as good as the English ones. English ships were longer and narrower, so that they were faster, and their guns could also shoot further than the Spanish ones.

When news of this Armada reached England in summer **1588**, Elizabeth called her soldiers together. She won their hearts with well- chosen words: “I am come . . . to live or die amongst you all, to lay down for my God, and for my kingdom, and for my people, my honour and my blood even in the dust. I know I have the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a king, and of a king of England too”.

The Spanish Armada was defeated more by bad weather than by English guns. Some Spanish ships were sunk, but most were blown northwards by the wind, many being wrecked on the rocky coasts of Scotland and Ireland. For England it was a glorious moment, but it did not lead to an end of the war with Spain, and England found itself having to spend more than ever on England’s defence. Peace was only made with Spain once Elizabeth was dead.

England in the years of transition (1702 - 1837)

Changes in the countryside

In England most farming at the beginning of the century was still done as it had been for centuries. Each village stood in the middle of three or four large fields, and the villagers together decided what to grow, although individuals continued to work on their own small strips of land.

During the eighteenth century most of this land was enclosed. The enclosed land was not used for sheep farming, as it had been in Tudor times, but for mixed animal and cereal farms. People with money and influence, such as the village squire, persuaded their MP to pass a law through Parliament allowing them to take over common land and to enclose it.

One main cause of these *enclosures* was that a number of the greater landlords, including the aristocracy, had a great deal of money to invest. This had come partly from profits made from increased trade, especially with the West Indies and with India. It also came from investment in coal mines and ironworks, both of which had a growing part of the economy.

Most of them wanted to invest their money on the land, and having improved their own land, and built fine country houses, they looked to other land. Their reason was that farming had become much more profitable. From the mid-seventeenth century there had been a number of improvements in farming, and a growth of interest in farming methods. At the beginning of the eighteenth century a “*seed drill*”, a machine for sowing corn seed in straight lines and at fixed intervals, was invented by Jethro Tull. This made fields easier to weed, and made it possible to produce a greater crop. Other farmers had started to understand how to improve soil. At the same time, root crops grown in Holland were introduced in Britain.

Traditionally the land had been allowed to rest every three years. But by growing root crops one year, animal food the next, and wheat the third, farmers could now produce more. Growing animal food also made it possible to keep animals through the winter. This was an important new development. Before the mid-eighteenth century most animals were killed before winter because there was never enough food to keep them until the following spring. For the first time people could now eat fresh meat all year round.

These improvements, however, were a good deal more difficult to introduce when most farmland was still organised by the whole village community as it had been for centuries. No strip farmer could afford the necessary machinery, and it was not worth buying machinery for such small amounts of land in three different areas around the village. Richer farmers wanted to change the system of farming, including the system of landholding. They had a strong economic argument for introducing change because it was clear that the new methods would produce more food for each acre of land than the traditional methods. There was also another strong reason, though at the time people may not have realised it. The population had started to grow at a greatly increased rate.

The enclosures changed the look of much of the countryside. Instead of a few large fields there were now many smaller fields, each encircled with a hedge, many with trees growing in them. Changes in the countryside led to what historians call the *Agrarian Revolution*.

Industrial Revolution

Several influences came together at the same time to revolutionise Britain’s industry: money, labour, a greater demand for goods, new power, and better transport. By the

end of the eighteenth century, some families had made huge private fortunes. Growing merchant banks helped put this money to use.

Increased food production made it possible to feed large populations in the new towns. These populations were made up of the people who had lost their land through enclosures and were looking for work. They now needed to buy things they had never needed before. In the old days people in the villages had grown their own food, made many of their own clothes and generally managed without having to buy very much. As landless workers these people had to buy food, clothing and everything else they needed. This created an opportunity to make and sell more goods than ever before. The same landless people who needed these things also became the workers who made them.

By the early eighteenth century simple machines had already been invented for basic jobs. They could make large quantities of simple goods quickly and cheaply so that mass production became possible for the first time. Each machine carried out one simple process, which introduced the idea of division of labour among workers. This was to become an important *part of the industrial revolution*.

By the 1740s the main problem holding back industrial growth was fuel. There was less wood, and in any case wood could not produce the vast *technological changes* that brought the Industrial Revolution. Between *1709 and 1750, Abraham Darby* and his son successfully *smelted iron ore with coke* rather than charcoal. After 1750, coke smelting became general.

The vast *technological changes* that brought the Industrial Revolution began in the early 1700's. Between *1709 and 1750, Abraham Darby* and his son successfully *smelted iron ore with coke* rather than charcoal. After 1750, coke smelting became general.

By the 1740s the main problem holding back industrial growth was fuel. There was less wood, and in any case wood could not produce the heat necessary to make iron and steel either in large quantities or of high quality. But at this time the use of coal for changing iron ore into good quality iron or steel was perfected, and this made Britain the leading iron producer in Europe. The demand for coal grew very quickly. In 1800 Britain was producing four times as much coal as it had done in 1700, and eight times as much iron.

Increased *iron production* made it possible to manufacture new machinery for other industries. No one saw this more clearly than *John Wilkinson*. He built the largest *ironworks* in the country, built the world's first iron bridge, over the River Severn, in 1779. He saw the first iron boats made.

A *steam-engine*, invented by *Thomas Newcomen* in the *early 1700's*, was improved by *James Watt*: in *1781* Watt produced an engine with a turning motion, made of

iron and steel. In **1815**, Sir **Humphry Davy** invented a *safety lamp for miners* that gave light but would not ignite explosive gases.

One invention led to another, and increased production in one area led to increased production in others. Other basic materials of the industrial revolution were cotton and woollen cloth, which were popular abroad. In the middle of the century other countries were buying British uniforms, equipment and weapons for their armies. To meet this increased demand, better methods of production had to be found, and new machinery was invented which replaced handwork. The *production of cotton* goods had been limited by the spinning process, which could not provide enough cotton thread for the weavers. So machines were first used on a large scale in the cotton industry. In **1733**, **John Kay** had invented the *flying shuttle*, which enabled weavers to double the speed of hand-weaving and to make wider cloth. In **1764**, **James Hargraves** speeded the spinning of thread by inventing the *spinning jenny*. **Richard Arkwright's** water frame of 1769, Samuel Crompton's spinning mule of 1776, and Edmund Cartwright's power loom of 1785 were driven by water wheels.

It allowed Britain to make cloth more cheaply than elsewhere, and Lancashire cotton cloths were sold in every continent. But this machinery put many people out of work. It also changed what had been a "cottage industry" done at home into a factory industry, where workers had to keep work hours and rules set down by factory owners.

In the Midlands, factories using locally found clay began to develop very quickly, and produced fine quality plates, cups and other *china goods*. These soon replaced the old metal plates and drinking cups that had been used. Soon large quantities of china were being exported. The most famous factory was one started by **Josiah Wedgwood**. His high quality bone china became very popular, as it still is.

The cost of such goods was made cheaper than ever by *improved transport* during the eighteenth century. New waterways were dug between towns, and transport by these canals was cheaper than transport by land. Roads, still used mainly by people rather than by goods, were also improved during the century. York, Manchester and Exeter were three days' travel from London in the 1720s, but by the 1780s they could be reached in little over twenty-four hours. Along these main roads, the coaches stopped for fresh horses in order to keep up their speed. They became known as "stage" coaches, a name that became famous in the Wild West of America. It was rapid road travel and cheap transport by canal that made possible the economic success of the industrial revolution.

Soon Britain was not only exporting cloth to Europe. It was also importing raw cotton from its colonies and exporting finished cotton cloth to sell to those same colonies.

By **1830**, Britain was changing from an agricultural to an industrial society. Rapid industrial growth made Britain powerful.

Social changes

The social effects of the industrial revolution were enormous. The industrial and agrarian revolutions raised Britain's wealth and living standards considerably. But the rapid changes also created *social problems*. Workers tried to join together to protect themselves against powerful employers. Some workers formed *trade unions* as a means of opposing their masters. They wanted fair wages and reasonable conditions in which to work. But the government quickly banned these "*combinations*", as the workers' societies were known, by Combination Acts that remained in force until 1824.

Riots occurred, led by the unemployed who had been replaced in factories by machines. In **1799** some of these rioters, known as *Luddites*, started to break up the machinery which had put them out of work. The government supported the factory owners, and made the breaking of machinery punishable by death. The government was afraid of a revolution like the one in France.

In many country areas, the decline of the domestic system of industry brought hardship. To deal with rural poverty in Berkshire, the local justices of the peace met in **1795** at *Speenhamland* (now part of Newbury) and decided that a farm worker whose wages fell below a set level should receive *an extra payment* from the authorities out of rates. This raised the rates of farmers and landowners, who reacted by paying their workers low wages. The Speenhamland system was imitated throughout Britain, but because of it, many farm labourers became paupers. It was replaced in **1834** by the *Poor Law Amendment Act*.

In the **1820s**, Sir *Robert Peel* reformed the penal code, and in **1829**, he founded the *London Metropolitan Police Force*. The rapid social changes of the period, made worse by an *economic* depression that hit Britain in 1815 after war with France, brought demands for radical social reform. A reform meeting held at St. Peter's Field, Manchester, in 1819 was brutally suppressed by troops. Some people died, and the incident was called Peterloo, after the Battle of Waterloo.

Nevertheless, reforms did come. In **1829**, Parliament passed a *Catholic Emancipation Act*, which freed Roman Catholics from many of the restrictions that they had lived under since the 1600s. In **1830**, Earl *Grey* led a Whig government into office and began pushing through Parliament a measure to *modernize the electoral system*. By 1830, the British electoral system was out of date. Few men had the right to vote. Voting took place openly at *hustings* (public platforms), and bribery or intimidation of voters was easy. Every county and every borough returned two members to Parliament. Some members of Parliament represented *rotten boroughs*, towns that had become greatly reduced in population. Others represented *pocket boroughs*, where

one landowner controlled the votes. Few of the industrial towns in northern England and the Midlands were boroughs. Manchester, for example, had no member of Parliament, because it was not a borough.

The **1832 Reform Act** was passed after a great struggle. Under the Act, most middle-class men received the vote. The Act abolished some small boroughs and reduced the number of members for other boroughs. The **Municipal Corporation Act of 1835** set up **town councils** elected by ratepayers and presided over by a mayor. It empowered boroughs to provide drainage, markets, street lights, and other facilities.

TOPIC 1.3. Political system of the country

LECTURES 5-6

The British System of Government

Britain is a constitutional monarchy. That means it is a country governed by a king or a queen who accepts the advice of a parliament. It is also a parliamentary democracy. That is, it is a country whose government is controlled by a parliament which has been elected by the people. The highest positions in the government are filled by the members of the directly elected parliament. In Britain, as in many European countries, the official head of state, whether a monarch (as in Belgium, the Netherlands or Denmark) or a president (as in Germany, Greece or Italy) has little power.

The Parliament

The British Parliament is divided into two houses. The first one, which is less important, is the House of Lords. It can be described as politically conservative. It consists of different groups. There is the Lord Spiritual. Those are archbishops and bishops. Furthermore the Lords Temporal. These are hereditary peers, which got their titles from their fathers or grandfathers, and life peers, which got their titles for their whole life, and finally there are the Lords of Appeal, which are the High Court Judges. The Lords' main functions are to examine and to discuss the Bills introduced in the House of Commons. They can also delay the legislation for a year, but they can't stop those Bills completely. They also have the function to introduce Bills which are mostly unimportant and non-controversial. They must approve a Bill, before it becomes an act. The power of the Lords has decreased dramatically. There was even a strong movement to abolish the House of Lords completely.

The second House is the House of Commons. The 651 Members of Parliament (MPs) who sit in the Commons are elected representatives of the British people. Each MP represents one of the 651 constituencies into which the UK is divided. The House of Commons has a maximum term of five years, at the end of which a general election must be held. However, a general election can be called in the government at any time. MPs sit on parallel rows of seats known as benches with those who support the government on the one side and the opposition on the other. The important persons

are the front-benchers, the less important ones are the back-benchers. The Commons` main functions are to define and to pass the laws and regulations governing the UK and to examine closely all the activities of the government.

The Government

The most powerful person is the Prime Minister. He is the leader of his party, he is the head of the government and has a seat in the House of Commons. He chooses the Cabinet-Ministers, who are the Foreign-, Home- and Defence-Secretary and the Chancellor of the Exchequer. He recommends a number of appointments to the monarch. The Cabinet takes decisions about new policies, the implementation of existing policies and the running of the various government departments. The most popular Prime Ministers are Winston Churchill, Margaret Thatcher, John Major, Tony Blair, Teresa May and the present one, Boris Johnson.

The Monarch

For the evidence of written law only, the Queen has almost absolute power, and it all seems very undemocratic. She is the head of state, the head of the Church of England and the Head of the Armed Forces. Every autumn at the state opening of parliament Elisabeth II. makes a speech. In it, she says what "my government" intends to do in the coming year. And indeed, it is her government - not the people`s. As far as the law is concerned, she can choose anybody she likes to run the government for her. The same is true for her choices of people to fill some hundred other ministerial positions. And if she gets fed up with her ministers she can just dismiss them. Officially speaking they are all "servants of the Crown". Furthermore nothing the parliament has decided can become law until she has agreed to it. There is also a principle of English law, that the monarch can do nothing that is legally wrong. But these facts are only written law. In reality it is very different. Of course she cannot choose anyone she likes to be Prime Minister, but she has to choose someone who has the support of the majority of MPs and the House of Commons - because "her" government can only collect taxes with the agreement of the Commons, so if she did not choose such a person, the government would stop function. With parliament it is the same story - the Prime Minister will talk about "requesting" a dissolution of parliament when he or she wants to hold an election, but it would normally be impossible for the monarch to refuse this request. So in reality the Queen cannot actually stop the government going ahead with any of its politics. Important roles of the monarch are the following ones: It is argued that the monarch could act as a final check on a government that was becoming dictatorial. Second, the monarch has to play a very practical role as being a figurehead and representing the country. The sovereign reigns but does not rule.

The Party System

Britain is normally described as having a two-party-system. This is because, since 1945, one of the big parties has, by itself, controlled the government, and members of these two parties have occupied more than 90 % of all the seats in the House of Commons. One of the two big parties is the Conservative Party, also known as the Tories, which is right of centre and stands for hierarchical interference in the economy. They would like to reduce income tax and give a high priority to national defence and internal law and order. A famous Tory is John Major, the former Prime Minister. The second big party is the Labour Party, which is left of centre and stands for equality, for the socially weaker people and for more government involvement in the economical issues. Another smaller party is the Liberal Democratic Party. It was formed from a union of Liberals and the Social Democrats - a breakaway group of Labour politicians. It is regarded to be slightly left of centre and has always been strongly in favour with the European Union. In countries like England which have a two-party-system there is often a so-called shadow cabinet. This is the group of politicians which would become ministers if their party was in government. They're the speakers of the main opposition party.

Conservative Party

The Conservative Party won the largest number of seats at the 2015 general election, returning 330 MPs (plus the Speaker's seat, uncontested, bringing the total MPs to 331), enough for an overall majority, and went on to form the first Conservative majority government since the 1992 general election.

The Conservative Party can trace its origin back to 1662, with the Court Party and the Country Party being formed in the aftermath of the English Civil War. The Court Party soon became known as the Tories, a name that has stuck despite the official name being 'Conservative'. The term "Tory" originates from the Exclusion Bill crisis of 1678-1681 - the Whigs were those who supported the exclusion of the Roman Catholic Duke of York from the thrones of England, Ireland and Scotland, and the Tories were those who opposed it.

After thirteen years in opposition, the Conservatives returned to power as part of a coalition agreement with the Liberal Democrats in 2010, going on to form a majority government in 2015. David Cameron resigned as Prime Minister in July 2016, which resulted in the appointment of the country's second female Prime Minister, Theresa May. The Conservative Party is the only party in the history of the United Kingdom to have been governed by a female Prime Minister. In 2019, Boris Johnson was appointed Prime Minister after Theresa May stepped down during Brexit negotiations. At one point during 2019 his party had a parliamentary minority for a short period after he ejected a large number of party members, of which some were subsequently allowed to return for the 2019 General Election.

Historically, the party has been the mainland party most pre-occupied by British Unionism, as attested to by the party's full name, the Conservative & Unionist Party. This resulted in the merger between the Conservatives and Joseph Chamberlain's Liberal Unionist Party, composed of former Liberals who opposed Irish home rule. The unionist tendency is still in evidence today, manifesting sometimes as a scepticism or opposition to devolution, firm support for the continued existence of the United Kingdom in the face of movements advocating independence from the UK, and a historic link with the cultural unionism of Northern Ireland.

Labour Party

The Labour Party is a centre-left political party in the United Kingdom that has been described as an alliance of social democrats, democratic socialists and trade unionists. In all general elections since 1922, Labour has been either the governing party or the Official Opposition. There have been six Labour Prime Ministers and eight ministries. The history of the Labour Party goes back to 1900, when a Labour Representation Committee was established and changed its name to "The Labour Party" in 1906. After the First World War, this led to the demise of the Liberal Party as the main reformist force in British politics. The existence of the Labour Party on the left-wing of British politics led to a slow waning of energy from the Liberal Party, which has consequently assumed third place in national politics. After performing poorly at the general elections of 1922, 1923 and 1924, the Liberal Party was superseded by the Labour Party as being the party of the left.

Labour is considered to be a centre-left party. It was initially formed as a means for the trade union movement to establish political representation for itself at Westminster. The Labour Party only gained a "socialist" commitment with the original party constitution of 1918, but that "socialist" element, the original Clause IV, was seen by its strongest advocates as a straightforward commitment to the "common ownership", or nationalisation, of the "means of production, distribution and exchange". Although about a third of British industry was taken into public ownership after the Second World War and remained so until the 1980s, the right of the party were questioning the validity of expanding on this objective by the late 1950s.

From the late-1980s onwards, the party adopted free market policies, leading many observers to describe the Labour Party as social democratic or the Third Way, rather than democratic socialist. Other commentators go further and argue that traditional social democratic parties across Europe, including the British Labour Party, have been so deeply transformed in recent years that it is no longer possible to describe them ideologically as "social democratic", and claim that this ideological shift has put new strains on the Labour Party's traditional relationship with the trade unions. Historically within the party, differentiation was made between the social democratic and

the socialist wings of the party, the latter often subscribed to a radical socialist, even Marxist, ideology.

Scottish National Party

The Scottish National Party (SNP) is a Scottish nationalist, social-democratic political party in Scotland. The SNP supports and campaigns for Scottish independence within the European Union, with a platform based on civic nationalism. The SNP is the third-largest political party by membership in the United Kingdom, behind the Labour Party and the Conservative Party and it is the largest political party in Scotland, where it has the most seats in the Scottish Parliament and 47 out of the 59 Scottish seats in the House of Commons of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. The current Scottish National Party leader, Nicola Sturgeon, has served as First Minister of Scotland since November 2014.

The SNP is the largest political party in Scotland in terms of both seats in the Westminster and Holyrood parliaments, and membership, reaching 125,482 members as of December 2019, 47 MPs, 61 MSPs and over 400 local councillors. The SNP is a member of the European Free Alliance (EFA). The party does not have any members of the House of Lords, as it has always maintained a position of objecting to an unelected upper house.

The SNP accepts devolution - that is, the legal decentralisation of power to the British regions - as one stage on the road to independence for Scotland. Overall, the party describes itself as moderate and left of centre. It tends to be staunchly anti-Conservative in its party politics and interventionist in its economic policies, and it is committed to a non-nuclear defence. These tendencies sometimes made it difficult for the SNP to distinguish itself clearly from the Labour Party. A key change in SNP policy came in 1998, when it reversed its original opposition to membership of an independent Scotland within the EU.

Liberal Democrats

The Liberal Democrats (Lib Dems) are a liberal political party in the United Kingdom. As of May 2020, the party is currently the third largest in the UK in terms of votes cast in a general election, with 11 Members of Parliament in the House of Commons, 91 members of the House of Lords, five Members of the Scottish Parliament and one member in each of the Welsh Parliament and the London Assembly. It formed a coalition government of the United Kingdom with the Conservative Party from 2010–15. It is also currently in coalition with the Labour Party in the devolved Welsh government, and has also formed coalitions with the Labour Party in Scotland. The "traditional liberalism" of the Liberal Party had emphasised free trade, religious tolerance, individual freedom, and internationalism, while the "new liberalism" associated with Liberal leader David Lloyd George had also foregrounded the need for the state to provide for the welfare of its citizens. In Britain, the divide between social

democracy and social liberalism has become increasingly blurred since the Second World War.

Positioned in the centre ground of British politics, the Liberal Democrats ideologically draw upon both liberalism and social democracy. Different factions have dominated the party at different points in its history, each with its own ideological bent, some leaning towards the centre-left and others the centre-right. The party calls for constitutional reform, including a transition from the first-past-the-post voting system to proportional representation. Emphasising stronger protections for civil liberties, the party promotes socially liberal approaches to issues like LGBT rights, drug liberalisation, education policy, and criminal justice. It favours a market-based economy supplemented with social welfare spending. The party is internationalist and pro-European, supporting a People's Vote for the continued UK membership of the European Union and greater European integration; it previously called for adoption of the euro currency. The Lib Dems have promoted further environmental protections and opposed certain UK military engagements like the Iraq War.

TOPIC 1.4. The economy of Great Britain

LECTURE 7

Nowadays Great Britain is one of the highly developed mixed private-and public enterprise economies. The state sector was reduced during the 1980s and 1990s owing to the policies of privatisation or denationalisation of publicly owned corporations. There was also an improvement in standard of living. Unemployment and inflation rates were gradually reduced but remained high. The British government controls the production of coal, steel and ships; it also runs certain utilities, the railway and most civil aviation.

Britain lives by industry and trade. The country is one of the world's biggest importers of food and raw materials. In return Britain exports its manufactured goods such as china, automobiles and other vehicles, wooden goods, steel, electrical and mechanical machinery, tractors, instruments, chemical and petrochemical goods and petroleum. Invisible exports – shipping, insurance, aviation, tourism, etc. – earn nearly as much as commodity exports. The USA, Canada, Australia, India, New Zealand and the Federal Republic of Germany are among Britain's main trading partners.

Britain is a major financial and commercial centre of the capitalist world. With its many famous institutions such as the Bank of England, the Stock Exchange and Lloyd's, and its international markets for such commodities as rubber, metals and tea the City of London has always been and still remains the most important financial and commercial centre in the world.

Britain has always been a manufacturing country. Manufacturing industries account for one-fifth of the GNP. Most of the companies in industry are small, though com-

panies with 500 or more employees employ a larger percentage of the workforce. Major manufactures include motor vehicles, aerospace equipment, electronic data processing and telecommunication equipment, metal goods, instruments, petrochemicals and other chemicals. High-technology industries are being intensively developed now.

Agriculture accounts for less than 2 percent of the GNP and employs about 2 percent of the workforce. Farming is highly mechanised though farms are not very large, and is dominated by raising sheep and cattle. Chief crops include barley, wheat, sugar beets, and potatoes. The United Kingdom is not self-sufficient and it imports a lot of food products.

The extracting industry accounts for approximately 6 percent of the GNP but employs less than 1 percent of the workforce. Production from oil fields in the North Sea has allowed the United Kingdom to become self-sufficient in petroleum. The United Kingdom's coal industry, despite its steady decline since the early 1950s remains one of the largest and the most technologically advanced in Europe.

Just under half of the total population is in the labour force. The highest proportion of employees (more than two-thirds) are in the service sectors, financial services and distribution. Manufacturing, although it has declined, employs more than one-fifth of all workers. Smaller numbers are in construction, energy, agriculture, forestry and fishing.

Though Great Britain has lost its former position as the leading industrial nation of the world it still ranks among the top industrial countries in growth rates, productivity and competitiveness.

Leading industries in Great Britain

The UK was the first country to industrialise in the 18th century, and by the 19th century, its economy was dominating the world. The UK market has developed quickly over the years and so has its GDP which is one of the largest in the world.

Finance and banking

There are currently more than 2 million people working in the finance and banking industries all over the United Kingdom – that's 7 per cent of the country's total working population. According to the latest data, the country has nearly 40,000 businesses that specialise in financial services, and a further 37,000 provide accountancy services. Outside of London, the UK's main financial centres are in Edinburgh, Leeds, Manchester, and Birmingham. Currently, this sector accounts for 7.5 per cent of the country's GDP.

Information Technology

Nearly every major industry relies on technology in order to function, so the importance of the technology sector cannot be underestimated. Along with creative and digital industries, the IT sector accounts for 4.5 per cent of the UK's gross value add-

ed, and employs over 1 million people or 3.7 per cent of the country's active population. As the knowledge-based economy becomes a reality, it is expected that nearly half of the UK's GDP will come from this sector within the next decade.

Construction

According to an article published by The Guardian, the construction industry currently accounts for 6 per cent (£90 billion) of the United Kingdom's total GDP. The construction-related employment accounts for nearly 10 percent of the UK's working population.

Oil and Gas

This sector is set to increase in size and revenues over the next two decades. Nearly 450,000 people are employed in this industry, especially in Scotland, where 45 per cent of the total number of jobs in this sector are located. A recent PricewaterhouseCoopers survey estimated that in the next 10 years, a further 120,000 employees will be needed in the oil and gas sector.

Government

According to the Office for National Statistics, the public sector employs 5.4 million people. Employment is evenly distributed between positions in local and central government. The most important industry sub-sectors are healthcare (NHS), education, and public administration.

Healthcare

According to the Office for National Statistics, the healthcare industry yields nearly £107 billion a year in gross value added. Overall, more than 4 million people work in healthcare-related positions throughout the country, which means that 12 percent of the working population is involved in this sector. As increased demand puts pressure on public health services, private healthcare firms are expected to expand and become a crucial economic player. Currently, this sector generates annual revenues of over £2 billion.

Manufacturing

The UK has a strong manufacturing tradition that goes back to the origins of the Industrial Revolution. Despite the pressures brought about by the recession, this sector has managed to stay alive, as it is estimated that it currently accounts for 10 per cent of the UK's GDP thanks to its accelerated output and employment rates. The most important manufacturing sub-sectors are food and beverages, metal products, publishing and printing, equipment and machinery, chemicals, and pharmaceuticals.

Wholesale and Retail

This sector has experienced moderate growth since 2007, and currently generates sales for the value of £1.2 billion a year (12 percent of the country's GVA). More than 4 million people work in over half a million outlets across the UK. Approxi-

mately 35 per cent of all jobs in this industry are in sales and customer service positions.

Transportation and logistics

This growing industry sector employs approximately 1.5 million people in roles that range from air transport to courier services. Although the number of companies in this sector has been declining since the onset of the recession, a recent survey revealed that more than half of respondents anticipated significant growth within the next few years.

Education

This sector is one of the country's top three main sources of employment. British universities alone contribute over £73 billion to the UK's economy and employ more than 375,000 people. Overall, there are more than 757,000 people employed in the higher education sector.

WHAT INDUSTRIES WILL THRIVE IN THE FUTURE OF GREAT BRITAIN

The business landscape of Great Britain is constantly changing. The industries that may have dominated in one era might be inconsequential in another, and those niche sectors that were insignificant ten years ago are now the giants of today's economy.

Amid all that change, it can be tricky to know which industries have a bright future. After all, a person's career is an investment, so they want to be sure they are making the right choice when taking a new role.

Transport and logistics

A recent study, commissioned by Love Energy Savings, on the progression of UK business found that transport and logistics was a rapidly expanding industry. Today, transport businesses are doing particularly well in the North West. With 15,590 transport businesses in operation. That is nearly 24% more than in London.

The biggest opportunity for job roles in transport currently is in data analysis. With logistics becoming smarter and more expensive than ever in the era of e-commerce, data management will play a crucial role in upholding efficiency as operations continue to increase in size. That is great news for IT and maths graduates who are keen to sink their teeth into some complex problem-solving.

FinTech

'FinTech' is a term that gets thrown around a lot in the business world. It stands for 'Financial Technology', and it is set to dominate the UK economy in 2019 and beyond.

A survey by the London Stock Exchange found that UK-based FinTech companies expect a staggering 88% growth between 2018 and 2021. 38% of those surveyed said they would choose London as their top destination, second only to New York. This comes on the back of the government's ambition for the UK to lead the world in progressive banking following fallout from the 2008 financial crisis.

As a result, it is easier for UK-based FinTech firms to raise money through the public markets than it is for those in other countries, leading to rapid growth in the sector — and plenty of job opportunities, too.

FinTech roles are ideal for anyone with a background in web development or finance. And with loads of funding available through things like the government's tech startup funding competition, Innovate UK, there are plenty of resources available for you to start your own FinTech business.

Construction

The examination of businesses in 2019 also found that UK construction has seen strong growth in recent years. The UK government notes that construction output reached an all-time high in November 2018, exceeding £14 billion for the first time since monthly records began in 2010. Though there was a slight dip in December, the new year put things right back on track, with output increasing by £371 million in January 2019.

The largest increases in opportunity were in non-housing repairs and maintenance, which increased by £217 million. For anyone with a background in engineering, architecture or building work, now's the ideal time to get into a booming industry.

Digital marketing and advertising

The digital marketing and advertising sector has been growing rapidly for the last decade — and shows no signs of slowing down.

And it's not just paid advertising that's set to grow. Services like social media and content marketing are also expanding, meaning that the industry remains varied enough for those with Maths, English and Graphic Design degrees.

Filmmakers are also in high demand as visual media continues to soak up marketing spend, increasing by 40% in 2018 versus 2017.

Energy

Contributing £26 billion to Britain's economy, energy is a buoyant sector on all fronts. The most significant growth, though, is in green energy. By 2020, the government's plan is for 15% of all energy consumption to stem from renewable resources, which has spurred significant investment into UK-based sustainable energy companies.

As a result, it is estimated that the UK's renewables industry could support up to 400,000 jobs by the end of next year.

TOPIC 1.5. The System of Education in the UK

LECTURE 8

Education in Britain is provided by the Local Education Authority (LEA) in each county. It is financed partly by the Government and partly by local taxes. Until recently planning and organisation were not controlled by the central government. Each

LEA was free to decide how to organise education in its own area. In September 1988, however, "The National Curriculum" was introduced, which means that there is now greater government control over what is taught in schools.

Let's outline the basic features of public education in Britain. Firstly, there are wide variations between one part of the country and another. For most educational purposes England and Wales are treated as one unit, though the system in Wales is a little different from that of England. Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own educational systems.

Secondly, education in Britain mirrors the country's social system: it is class-divided and selective. The first division is between those who pay and those who do not pay. The majority of schools in Britain are supported by public funds and the education provided is free. They are maintained schools, but there is also a considerable number of public schools. Parents must pay fees to send their children to these schools. The fees are high.

Another important feature of schooling in Britain is a variety of opportunities offered to schoolchildren. The English school syllabus is divided into Arts (or Humanities) and Sciences, which determine the division of the secondary school pupils into study groups: a Science pupil will study Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics, Economics, Technical Drawing, Biology, Geography; an Art pupil will do the English Language and Literature, History, foreign languages, Music, Art, Drama. Besides these subjects they must do some general education subjects like Physical Education, PE), Home Economics for girls, and Technical subjects for boys. Computers play an important part in education.

There is a system of careers education for schoolchildren in Britain. It is a three-year course.

The National Education Act of 1944 provided three stages of education: primary, secondary and further education. Compulsory schooling in England and Wales lasts 11 years, from the age of 5 to 16. After the age of 16 a growing number of school students are staying on at school, some until 18 or 19, the age of entry into a higher education in universities and Polytechnics. British university courses are rather short, generally lasting for 3 years. The cost of education depends on the college and speciality which one chooses.

Nursery Education (under 5 years)

Children do not have to go to school until they reach the age of five, but there is some free nursery-school education before that age.

Nursery schools are staffed with teachers and students in training. There are all kinds of toys to keep the children busy from 9 o'clock in the morning till 4 o'clock in the afternoon — while their parents are at work. Here the babies play, lunch and sleep. They can run about and play in safety with someone keeping an eye on them.

However, LEAs do not have nursery school places for all who would like them and these places are usually given to families in special circumstances, for example families with one parent only. Because of the small number of nursery schools, parents in many areas have formed play groups where children under 5 years can go for a morning or afternoon a couple of times a week.

Primary Education (5 to 11 years)

Primary education takes place in infant schools (pupils aged from 5 to 7 years) and junior schools (from 8 to 11 years). Some LEAs have a different system in which middle schools replace junior schools and take pupils aged from 9 to 12 years.

At infant schools reading, writing and arithmetic are taught for about 20 minutes a day during the first year, gradually increasing to about 2 hours in their last year. There is usually no written timetable. Much time is spent in modelling from clay or drawing, reading and signing.

By the time children are ready for junior school they will be able to read and write, do simple addition and subtraction of numbers.

At 8 children go on from the infant school to the junior school. This marks the transition from play to "real work". The children have set periods of arithmetic, reading and composition. History, Geography, Nature Study, Art and Music, Physical Education, Swimming are also on the timetable.

Secondary Education (11 to 16/18 years)

Since the 1944 Education Act of Parliament, free secondary education has been available to all children in Britain. Indeed, children must go to school until the age of 16, and pupils may stay on for one or two years more if they wish. Secondary schools are usually much larger than primary schools and most children — over 80 per cent — go to a comprehensive school at the age of 11. These schools are not selective — you don't have to pass an exam to go there.

In 1965 the Labour Government introduced the policy of comprehensive education. Before that time, all children took an exam at the age of 11 called the "11 + ". Approximately the top 20 per cent were chosen to go to the academic grammar schools. Those who failed the "11 + " (80 percent) went to secondary modern schools.

A lot of people thought that this system of selection at the age of 11 was unfair to many children. So comprehensive schools were introduced to offer suitable courses for pupils of all abilities. Some LEAs started to change over to comprehensive education immediately, but some were harder to convince and slower to act. There are a few LEAs who still keep the old system of grammar schools, but most LEAs have now changed over completely to non-selective education in comprehensive schools.

Comprehensive schools want to develop the talents of each individual child. So they offer a wide choice of subjects, from art and craft, woodwork and domestic science to the sciences, modern languages, computer studies, etc. All these subjects are enjoyed

by both boys and girls. Pupils at comprehensive schools are quite often put into "sets" for the more academic subjects such as mathematics or languages. Sets are formed according to ability in each subject, so that for example the children in the highest set for maths will not necessarily be in the highest set for French. All pupils move to the next class automatically at the end of the year.

Private Education (5 to 18 years)

Some parents choose to pay for private education in spite of the existence of Free State education. Private schools are called by different names to state schools: the preparatory (often called "prep") schools are for pupils aged up to 13, and the public schools are for 13 to 18 year-olds. These schools are very expensive and they are attended by about 5 percent of the school population. There are about 500 public schools in England and Wales, most of them single-sex. About half of them are for girls.

The schools, such as Eton, Harrow, Rugby and Winchester, are famous for their ability to lay the foundation of a successful future by giving their pupils self-confidence, the right accent, a good academic background and, perhaps, most important of all, the right friends and contacts. The children who went to one of the public schools never call themselves school-leavers. Public schools educate the ruling class of England. One of such schools is Gordonstoun which Prince of Wales, the elder son of the Queen, left in 1968. Harrow School is famous as the place where Winston Churchill was educated, as well as six other Prime Ministers of Great Britain, the poet Lord Byron and many other prominent people. Public schools are free from state control. They are independent. Most of them are boarding schools. The education is of a high quality; the discipline is very strict. The system of education is the same: the most able go ahead. These schools accept pupils from the preparatory schools at about 11 or 13 years of age usually on the basis of an examination, known as Common Entrance. Scholarships are rarely awarded on the results of Common Entrance. The fundamental requirements are very high. At 18 most public school-leavers gain entry to universities.

Exams

At the age of 14 or 15, in the third or fourth form of secondary school, pupils begin to choose their exam subjects. In 1988 a new public examination — the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) — was introduced for 16 year-olds. This examination assesses pupils on the work they do in the 4th and 5th year at secondary school, and is often internally assessed, although there may also be an exam at the end of the course.

Pupils who stay on into the sixth form or who go on to a Sixth Form College (17 year-olds in the Lower Sixth and 18 year-olds in the Upper Sixth) usually fall into two categories. Some pupils will be retaking GCSEs in order to get better grades.

Others will study two or three subjects for an "A" Level (Advanced Level) GCE exam (General Certificate of Education). This is a highly specialised exam and is necessary for University entrance.

Leaving School at Sixteen

Many people decide to leave school at the age of 16 and go to a Further Education (FE) College. Here most of the courses are linked to some kind of practical vocational training, for example in engineering, typing, cooking or hairdressing. Some young people are given "day release" (their employer allows them time off work) so that they can follow a course to help them in their job. For those 16 year-olds who leave school and who cannot find work but do not want to go to FE College, the Government has introduced the Young Opportunities Scheme (YOPS). This scheme places young, unemployed people with a business or an industry for six months so that they can get experience of work, and pays them a small wage. They generally have a better chance of getting a job afterwards and sometimes the company they are placed with offers them a permanent job.

British Universities

There are 46 universities in Britain. The oldest and best-known universities are located in Oxford, Cambridge, London, Leeds, Manchester, Liverpool, Edinburgh, Southampton, Cardiff, Bristol, Birmingham.

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

The two intellectual eyes of Britain — Oxford and Cambridge universities — date back to the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.

The Scottish universities of St. Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh date back to the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

In the nineteenth and the early part of the twentieth centuries the so-called Redbrick universities were founded. These include London, Manchester, Leeds, Liverpool, Sheffield, and Birmingham. During the late sixties and the early seventies some 20 "new" universities were set up. Some-times are called "concrete and glass" universities. Among them are the universities of Sussex, York, East Anglia and some others.

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, and competition for places at university is fierce.

There is an interesting form of study which is called the Open University. It is intended for people who study in their own free time and who "attend" lectures by watching television and listening to the radio. They keep in touch by phone and letter with their tutors and attend summer schools. The Open University students have no formal qualifications and would be unable to enter ordinary universities.

The academic year in Britain's universities 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.

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

TOPIC 1.6. Cultural life in the UK

LECTURES 9-10

MEDIAEVAL THEATRE 500-1500

The mediaeval mystery plays and morality plays, which dealt with Christian themes, were performed at religious festivals. The most important work of literature surviving from the Middle Cornish period is *An Ordinale Kernewek*, a 9000-line religious drama composed around the year 1400. The longest single surviving work of Cornish literature is *Bewnans Meriasek* (The Life of Meriasek), a play dated 1504, but probably copied from an earlier manuscript.

There are four complete or nearly complete extant English biblical collections of plays from the late mediaeval period; although these collections are sometimes referred to as "cycles," it is now believed that this term may attribute to these collections more coherence than they in fact possess. The most complete is the *York cycle* of forty-eight pageants. They were performed in the city of York, from the middle of the fourteenth century until 1569. There are also the *Towneley plays* of thirty-two pageants, once thought to have been a true 'cycle' of plays and most likely performed around the Feast of Corpus Christi probably in the town of Wakefield, England during the late Middle Ages until 1576. The *Ludus Coventriae* (also called the "N Town plays" or *Hegge cycle*), now generally agreed to be a redacted compilation of at least three older, unrelated plays, and the *Chester cycle* of twenty-four pageants, now generally agreed to be an Elizabethan reconstruction of older mediaeval traditions.

Having grown out of the religiously based mystery plays of the Middle Ages, the morality play is a genre of Medieval and early Tudor theatrical entertainment, which represented a shift towards a more secular base for European theatre. In their own time, these plays were known as "interludes", a broader term given to dramas with or without a moral theme. Morality plays are a type of allegory in which the protagonist is met by personifications of various moral attributes who try to prompt him to choose a Godly life over one of evil. The plays were most popular in Europe during the 15th and 16th centuries.

RENAISSANCE THEATRE 1500-16000

The English playwrights were intrigued by the Italian model: a conspicuous community of Italian actors had settled in London. The linguist and lexicographer John Florio (1553–1625), whose father was Italian, was a royal language tutor at the Court of James I, and a possible friend and influence on William Shakespeare, had brought much of the Italian language and culture to England.

Highly popular and influential in its time, *The Spanish Tragedy* established a new genre in English literature theatre, the revenge play or revenge tragedy. Its plot contains several violent murders and includes as one of its characters a personification of revenge.

George Chapman (?1559-?1634) was a successful playwright who produced comedies, tragedies and court masques (*The Memorable Masque of the Middle Temple and Lincoln's Inn*).

David Lyndsay's *Ane Pleasant Satyre of the Thrie Estaitis* (1552), is a surviving example of a Scots dramatic tradition in the period that has otherwise largely been lost. Scottish drama did not succeed in becoming a popular form in the face of religious opposition and the absence of King and court after 1603. As with drama in England, only a small proportion of plays written and performed were actually published, and the smaller production in Scotland meant that a much less significant record of Scottish drama remains to us.

Drama in Wales As a literary tradition dates to morality plays from north-east Wales in the second half of the 15th century. The development of Renaissance theatre in England did not have great influence in Wales as the gentry found different forms of artistic patronage. One surviving example of Welsh literary drama is *Troelus a Chresyd*, an anonymous adaptation from poems by Henrysoun and Chaucer dating to around 1600. With no urban centres to compare to England to support regular stages, morality plays and interludes continued to circulate in inn-yard theatres and fairs, supplemented by visiting troupes performing English repertoire.

RESTORATION THEATRE:1500-1660

During 1642—1660, English theatres were kept closed by the Puritans for religious and ideological reasons. When the London theatres opened again with the Restoration of the monarchy in 1660, they flourished under the personal interest and support of Charles II (reigned 1660–1685). Wide and socially mixed audiences were attracted by topical writing and by the introduction of the first professional actresses (in Shakespeare's time, all female roles had been played by boys). New genres of the Restoration were heroic drama, pathetic drama, and Restoration comedy.

Although documented history of Irish theatre began at least as early as 1601, the earliest Irish dramatists of note were: William Congreve (1670–1729), author of *The Way of the World* (1700); late Restoration playwright, George Farquhar (?1677–1707), *The Recruiting Officer* (1706); as well as two of the most successful play-

wrights on the London stage in the 18th century, Oliver Goldsmith (?1730-74), *She Stoops to Conquer* (1773) and Richard Brinsley Sheridan (1751–1816), *The School for Scandal* (1777). Anglo-Irish drama in the 18th century also includes Charles Macklin (?1699–1797), and Arthur Murphy (1727–1805). Thomas Sydeserf was behind the establishment in Edinburgh of the first regular theatre in Scotland, and his 1667 play *Tarugo's Wiles: or, The Coffee-House*, based on a Spanish play, was produced in London to amazement that a Scot could write such excellent English. Scottish poet John Ogilby, who was the first Irish Master of the Revels, had established the Werburgh Street Theatre, the first theatre in Ireland, in the 1630s. It was closed by the Puritans in 1641. The Restoration of the monarchy in Ireland enabled Ogilby to resume his position as Master of the Revels and open the first Theatre Royal in Dublin in 1662 in Smock Alley. In 1662 Katherine Philips went to Dublin where she completed a translation of Pierre Corneille's *Pompée*, produced with great success in 1663 in the Smock Alley Theatre, and printed in the same year both in Dublin and London. Although other women had translated or written dramas, her translation of Pompey broke new ground as the first rhymed version of a French tragedy in English and the first English play written by a woman to be performed on the professional stage. Aphra Behn (one of the women writers dubbed "The fair triumvirate of wit") was a prolific dramatist and one of the first English professional female writers. Her greatest dramatic success was *The Rover* (1677).

Theatre began to spread from the United Kingdom to the expanding British Empire. Farquhar's *The Recruiting Officer* was the first play to be staged in New York City on December 6, 1732. It was also the first play to be staged in the Colony of New South Wales, which is now Australia.

ROMANTICISM: 1798-1836

Percy Bysshe Shelley and Lord Byron were the most important literary dramatists of their time. Shakespeare was enormously popular, and began to be performed with texts closer to the original, as the drastic rewriting of 17th and 18th century performing versions for the theatre (as opposed to his plays in book form, which were also widely read) was gradually removed over the first half of the century.

Melodramas, light comedies, operas, Shakespeare and classic English drama, pantomimes, translations of French farces and, from the 1860s, French operettas, continued to be popular.

Scottish "national drama" emerged in the early 1800s, as plays with specifically Scottish themes began to dominate the Scottish stage. Walter Scott was keenly interested in drama, becoming a shareholder in the Theatre Royal, Edinburgh.

VICTORIAN ERA: 1837-1901

For much of the first half of the 19th century, drama in London and provincial theatres was restricted by a licensing system to the Patent theatre companies, and all other

theatres could perform only musical entertainments. By the early 19th century, however, music hall entertainments had become popular. The passing of the Theatres Act 1843 removed the monopoly on drama held by the Patent theatres, enabling local authorities to licence theatres as they saw fit, and also restricted the Lord Chamberlain's powers to censor new plays.

James Planché was a prolific playwright. He revolutionised stage productions of Shakespeare and the classics by introducing the use of historically appropriate costume design, working with antiquarians to establish what was known about period dress.

A change came in the late 19th century with the plays on the London stage by the Irishmen George Bernard Shaw and Oscar Wilde and the Norwegian Henrik Ibsen, all of whom influenced domestic English drama and vitalised it again. The Shakespeare Memorial Theatre was opened in Shakespeare's birthplace Stratford upon Avon in 1879; and Herbert Beerbohm Tree founded an Academy of Dramatic Art at Her Majesty's Theatre in 1904.

20TH-CENTURY

At the end of the century, Edwardian musical comedy came to dominate the musical stage.

Irish playwrights George Bernard Shaw (1856–1950) and J. M. Synge (1871–1909) were influential in British drama. Shaw's career as a playwright began in the last decade of the nineteenth century, while Synge's plays belong to the first decade of the twentieth century. Synge's most famous play, *The Playboy of the Western World*, "caused outrage and riots when it was first performed" in Dublin in 1907. George Bernard Shaw turned the Edwardian theatre into an arena for debate about important political and social issues, like marriage, class, "the morality of armaments and war" and the rights of women.

Saunders Lewis (1893–1985), writer in Welsh, was above all a dramatist. His earliest published play was *Blodeuwedd* (The woman of flowers) (1923–25, revised 1948). Other notable plays include *Buchedd Garmon* (The life of Germanus) (radio play, 1936) and several others after the war.

James Bridie, the pseudonym used by Osborne Henry Mavor (1888–1951), was a Scottish playwright, screenwriter and surgeon, considered to be a founding father of modern Scottish theatre, following his involvement with the founding of both the Citizens Theatre and Scotland's first college of drama, now known as the Royal Scottish Academy of Music and Drama.

AFTER 1945

The Edinburgh Festival Fringe started life when eight theatre companies turned up uninvited to the inaugural Edinburgh International Festival in 1947. The Fringe got its name the following year (1948) after Robert Kemp, a Scottish playwright and

journalist, wrote during the second Edinburgh International Festival: 'Round the fringe of official Festival drama, there seems to be more private enterprise than before ... I am afraid some of us are not going to be at home during the evenings!'. The artistic credentials of the Fringe were established by the creators of the Traverse Theatre, John Calder, Jim Haynes and Richard Demarco in 1963. While their original objective was to maintain something of the Festival atmosphere in Edinburgh all year round, the Traverse Theatre quickly and regularly presented cutting edge drama to an international audience on both the Edinburgh International Festival and on the Fringe during August.

The Royal Shakespeare Company operates out of Stratford-upon-Avon, producing mainly but not exclusively Shakespeare's plays. The RSC was formally established on 20 March 1961 with the royal announcement that the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre would henceforth be known as the Royal Shakespeare Theatre and the company as the Royal Shakespeare Company. In 1962 the RSC established the Aldwych Theatre as its London base for productions transferred from Stratford to London, its stage redesigned to match the RST's apron stage. In 1982, the company took up London residence in both the Barbican Theatre and The Pit studio space in the Barbican Centre under the auspices of the City of London. The RSC was closely involved in the design of these two venues. Since 2002 the RSC has had no regular London home, concentrating its work in Stratford at the Swan Theatre and the redeveloped Royal Shakespeare Theatre (re-opened in 2010).

An important cultural movement in the British theatre that developed in the late 1950s and early 1960s was Kitchen sink realism (or *kitchen sink drama*), art (the term itself derives from an expressionist painting by John Bratby), novels, film, and television plays.^[31] The term angry young men was often applied members of this artistic movement. It used a style of social realism which depicts the domestic lives of the working class, to explore social issues and political issues. The drawing room plays of the post war period, typical of dramatists like Terence Rattigan and Noël Coward were challenged in the 1950s by these Angry Young Men, in plays like John Osborne's *Look Back in Anger* (1956). Arnold Wesker and Nell Dunn also brought social concerns to the stage.

The Chichester Festival Theatre was Britain's first modern thrust stage theatre. It was inspired by the Festival Theatre of the Stratford Shakespeare Festival launched by Tyrone Guthrie in the Canadian city of Stratford, Ontario. The inaugural Artistic Director of the Chichester Festival was Sir Laurence Olivier, and it was at Chichester that the first National Theatre company was formed. Chichester's productions would transfer to the National Theatre's base at the Old Vic in London.

NATIONAL THEATRES

From the 1840s there was a demand to commemorate serious theatre, with the "Shakespeare Committee" purchasing the playwright's birthplace for the nation demonstrating a recognition of the importance of 'serious drama'. The situation continued, with a renewed call every decade for a National Theatre.

A London Shakespeare League was founded in 1902 to develop a Shakespeare National Theatre and – with the impending tri-centenary in 1916 of his death – in 1913 purchased land for a theatre in Bloomsbury. This work was interrupted by World War I. Finally, in 1948, the London County Council presented a site close to the Royal Festival Hall for the purpose, and a "National Theatre Act", offering financial support, was passed by Parliament in 1949. In July 1962, a board was set up to supervise construction of a National Theatre on the South Bank site and a separate board was constituted to run a National Theatre Company and lease the Old Vic theatre. The Company was to remain at the Old Vic until 1976, when the new South Bank building was opened.

The theatrical landscape has since been reconfigured, moving from a single national theatre at the end of the 20th century to four as a result of the devolution of cultural policy. National theatre companies were founded in Scotland and Wales as complements to the Royal National Theatre in London.

Sports in Great Britain

When talking about Great Britain and the British people there are some noticeable facts that should not be forgotten. Focusing on the favourite British leisure time activities, it becomes obvious that sports and especially team sports play a major role in British culture. So when they are neither playing, nor watching games, they like to talk about them. The reason for this may be found in Britain's history of sports. The global spread of sports that had their origins in Britain was central to the development of modern sports in the 18th and 19th centuries and is one of the British Empire's important cultural legacies. Great Britain has attended every modern Olympic Games, beginning with the first competition in Athens, Greece, in 1896. Britain has hosted the Games three times in London, in 1908, 1948, and 2012. At the 1896 Games weightlifter Launceston Elliot was the first Briton to win a gold medal, and in 1908 figure skater Madge Cave Syers became the first female athlete to win a medal in the Winter Games. British athletes have won hundreds of medals over the years, making especially strong showings in athletics, tennis, rowing, yachting, and figure skating. Several British athletes have put forth memorable performances in track-and-field events, including sprinter Harold Abrahams in the 1920s, middle-distance runners Sebastian Coe and Steve Ovett, and two-time decathlon gold medalist Daley Thompson in the 1970s and '80s. At the 2000 Summer Games rower Steve Redgrave accomplished the rare feat of earning gold medals in five consecutive Games. At the

2012 Games in London, athletes representing the United Kingdom claimed 65 medals.

Britain is home to several important international sports competitions. The Open Championship—also known, outside of Britain, as the British Open—is a golf tournament held annually, often at the world-renowned course at St. Andrews in Scotland. The All-England (Wimbledon) Championships is one of the world’s leading tennis competitions. Celebrated horse-racing events include the Royal Ascot, the Derby, and the Grand National steeplechase. The Henley Royal Regatta is the world’s premiere rowing championship.

Although the United Kingdom’s climate often rewards staying indoors, the British are enthusiasts of outdoor leisure activities and are well served by an extensive network of hiking and bicycling paths, national parks, and other amenities. Especially popular are the Lake District, which preserves a scenic area commemorated in many works by English poets; the rugged Scottish Highlands and Inner Hebrides islands; and the mountainous Welsh region of Snowdonia National Park, a magnet for climbers from around the world.

There are certain team sports that have always been considered to be ‘popular’. This could be because they are built into the school curriculum and played from a young age, or the scale of media coverage that goes into events like the Six Nations or the FA Cup Final may encourage people to get involved.

Football

Football is the UK’s most popular sport. It has a long history in the UK and the first professional football clubs were formed in the late 19th century.

England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland each have separate leagues in which clubs representing different towns and cities compete. The English Premier League attracts a huge international audience. Many of the best players in the world play in the Premier League. Many UK teams also compete in competitions such as the UEFA (Union of European Football Associations) Champions League, against other teams from Europe. Most towns and cities have a professional club and people take great pride in supporting their home team. There can be great rivalry between different football clubs and among fans.

Each country in the UK also has its own national team that competes with other national teams across the world in tournaments such as the FIFA (Fédération Internationale de Football Association) World Cup and the UEFA European Football Championships. England’s only international tournament victory was at the World Cup of 1966, hosted in the UK.

Football is also a popular sport to play in many local communities, with people playing amateur games every week in parks all over the UK.

Rugby

Rugby originated in England in the early 19th century and is very popular in the UK today. There are two different types of rugby, which have different rules: union and league. In 1871 the Rugby Football Union was formed as the English governing body, and the rival Rugby Football League was founded in 1895. Both have separate leagues and national teams in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland (who play with the Irish Republic). Teams from all countries compete in a range of competitions. The most famous rugby union competition is the Six Nation Championship between England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales, France and Italy. The Super League is the most well-known rugby league (club) competition.

Cricket

Cricket's origins may date to 13th-century England, and country competition in England was formally organised in the 19th century. International matches, known as tests, began in 1877 with a match between England and Australia. Cricket was first rooted in the UK as 'traditional village cricket', which is still played in towns and villages across the UK.

Games can last up to five days but still result in a draw! The idiosyncratic nature of the game and its complex laws are said to reflect the best of the British character and sense of fair play. You may come across expressions such as 'rain stopped play', 'batting on a sticky wicket', 'playing a straight bat', 'bowled a googly' or 'it's just not cricket', which have passed into everyday usage. The most famous competition is the Ashes, which is a series of Test matches played between England and Australia.

Hockey

Ice hockey is the only team sport to have a United Kingdom-wide league with at least one team from every nation. It has a long history in the United Kingdom and it is reasonably well supported, with the larger teams attracting thousands of fans to every game. Ice hockey is now being considered the United Kingdom's biggest indoor sport and fastest-growing winter sport. The main league is the eleven-team professional Elite Ice Hockey League containing three Scottish, six English, one Northern Irish and one Welsh club. The league has featured many former NHL players, predominantly during the two NHL lockout seasons of 2004 and 2013. At the moment the Great Britain men's national ice hockey team is in the top division of the Ice Hockey World Championships. The team is ranked 22nd in the world in the IIHF World Ranking system.

Field hockey is the second most popular team recreational sport in the United Kingdom. The Great Britain men's hockey team won the hockey tournament at the 1988 Olympics, while the women's hockey team repeated the success in the 2016 Games. While hockey receives widespread television coverage during the Olympics, coverage outside that is small, especially relative to its participation level. The success of the women's team in 2016 has raised the profile of the sport, the women's side and a

number of the team's star players, notably captain Kate Richardson-Walsh and goalkeeper Maddie Hinch.

The popularity of certain **individual sports** has grown insurmountably in recent years. The London 2012 Olympics was a great driver to getting the country more active, and participation in these sports has seen a significant rise as a result. According to Sport England, swimming, athletics, and cycling had the highest weekly participation figures in 2016.

Swimming

Swimming is the number 1 sport in terms of participation with over 2.5 million people in the UK getting involved at least once a week, a figure that is no doubt helped by the ease in which it is to jump in and swim on a regular basis. The swimming organisations of the home countries formed an umbrella organisation called British Swimming in the year 2000. British Swimming concentrates on elite swimmers with podium potential. Britain sends large teams to all the major international swimming events, and enjoys some successes, but it is not currently a leading swimming nation. The sport's profile is highest during the Commonwealth Games, when British swimmers have their best chance to win gold medals, and during the Olympics. The sport has a thriving club structure with competition at all levels.

Cycling

Another Olympic sport which is famous in the UK is cycling. Britain had limited success with cycle racing in the 20th century. This has changed when the performance director of British Cycling Peter Keen (formerly coach of Chris Boardman and later appointed in 2003 as performance director with UK Sport) obtained lottery funding which helped cycling at both grass roots and at an elite level. The first fruits of the programme were harvested in 2000: at that year's Summer Olympics, Team GB took two bronzes, a silver and a gold on the track, backing up their success at the subsequent 2000 UCI Track Cycling World Championships on home ground in Manchester by winning five medals.

Because of the increasing interest in cycling, a British UCI ProTeam (Team Sky) was formed for the 2010 cycling season. Cycle racing is organised by British Cycling, who govern most cycling events in the United Kingdom and organise the national team. The success of British Cycling and Team Sky has increased dramatically the popularity of the sport in the UK which has brought in more sponsors into the sport.

Athletics

Athletics is another sport getting bigger and bigger in the UK. Athletics does not have a very high profile in Britain on a week-in week-out basis, but it leaps to prominence during major championships. The level of attention received by successful British athletes is illustrated by the fact that athletes have won far more BBC Sports Personality of the Year awards than practitioners of any other sport. The governing body of

British Athletics is UK Athletics. There are also semi-independent athletics associations in each of the home nations. Mo Farah and Jessica Ennis-Hill are two examples of elite athletes that continue to excel on the World Athletics stage, fuelling the media coverage that continues to showcase the sport.

Tennis

It could be suggested that tennis is the most popular racket sport in the UK. This is especially relevant after the success of Great Britain's number 1, Andy Murray and the media coverage of grand slams around the world.

Modern tennis evolved in England in the late 19th century. The first tennis club was founded in Leamington Spa in 1872. The most famous tournament hosted in Britain is The Wimbledon Championships, which takes place each year at the All England Lawn Tennis and Croquet Club. It is the oldest tennis tournament in the world and the only 'Grand Slam' event played on grass.

TOPIC 1.7. The Media

LECTURE 11

The press

Britain is one of the world's most class-conscious societies. Contrarily to many other countries though, social classes have little to do with income or jobs. It's a mindset, a way of being and living, something inherited from one's parents and influenced by one's peers. It has more to do with one's tastes, manners, hobbies, pets, and the vocabulary one uses, than about money. British people hate to talk about money, but one's social class is immediately apparent from their appearance and behaviour.

Unsurprisingly, the paper you read also reflects your social class. The main division is the type of newspaper one reads. Higher social classes read one of the four broadsheets (The Daily Telegraph, The Financial Times, The Guardian, The Independent, The Times), which are regarded as more intelligent and respectable publications. Then comes the Mid-market tabloids (The Daily Express, The Daily Mail, The Mail on Sunday, The London Evening Standard), which blend serious reporting and gossip. At the bottom of the social scale are the Red-tops tabloids (The Communists, The Daily Mirror, The Daily Sport, The Daily Star, The Sun, The Sunday People), which are often completely ridiculous or hysterical.

Apart from social classes, each publication has its own political leaning or affiliation. Among the broadsheets, The Daily Telegraph is strongly pro-Conservative. The Times is more moderately conservative. The Independent is centre-left but tries to be politically neutral as its name indicates. The Guardian is liberal, progressive and centre-left leaning, and seems to be increasingly read by the new establishment. Its readers were traditionally supporters of the Labour Party, but are now shifting toward the

Liberal Democrats. The Financial Times advocates free-market, it is pro-globalisation and pro-EU, and supports both the Conservatives and the Liberal Democrats.

The Mid-market tabloids are generally more extremist and alarmist in their tone. The Daily Mail is "ultra right-wing, populist, nationalistic, xenophobic, isolationist, often hysterical, and notoriously obsessed with the immigrants, house prices, same-sex marriage, and claimants of state benefits". The Daily Express is provincial, has a liking for conspiracy theories, is known for scare-mongering articles about immigration and is a supporter of UK Independence Party (UKIP). The Evening Standard is right-wing and more focused on local London news.

Red-top tabloids are known for their sensationalism and for deliberately igniting controversy. The Sun is the best-selling paper in the UK. It is populist and working-class, known for its collection of topless women and its obsession about the price of beer. It is infamous for its xenophobic and anti-gay stance and also claimed that video games are evil. The Daily Mirror is a populist, left-wing tabloid supporting the Labour Party. The Daily Star is racist and homophobic far-right publication often described as having lots of gossip but little news. The Sunday People is concerned about scantily clad celebrities.

Red-tops are read mostly by the working classes. Mid-range tabloids pander to the less-educated (lower to middle) middle classes. Broadsheets appeal mostly to upper, upper-middle and some middle-middle classes.

Readership varies by age groups, gender and social class.

The 65+ are much more likely to read the Daily Telegraph, Daily Mail, Daily Express and Daily Mirror. Young people (15-24) favour The Daily Star and The Sun. The Times, The Guardian and The Independent are read more or less equally by all age groups, but especially by those between 25 and 54 years old.

Men read more newspapers than women. Those most likely to appeal to a male audience are the Financial Times (72%) and the Daily Star (70%). About half of the readers of the Financial Times, The Times, The Daily Telegraph, The Guardian and The Independent belong to the upper-middle or middle-middle classes, and 30% to the lower-middle class. The Daily Mail and the Daily Express get 75% of their readership from the lower-middle and working classes, while the share rises to over 90% for The Daily Mirror, The Sun and The Daily Star, among which 40% of the readers belong to the unskilled working class and those at those at lowest level of subsistence.

The Guardian is the most respected newspaper in England.

The UK has some of the world's most widely-read and respected weekly news newspapers. Many foreign publications, including Russian newspapers, cite The Guardian in their publications.

The newspaper was founded in Manchester in 1821 by John Edward Taylor under the name The Manchester Guardian. Throughout its history, it has repeatedly criticised the British government. The newspaper published such high-profile materials as the scandal related to illegal wiretapping of private individuals at News International. The investigation led to the closure of one of the most circulated news newspapers in the world - News of the World. In 2013, the newspaper published news of the recording of Verizon telephone conversations that were transmitted to the Barack Obama administration, and subsequently published information about the existence of the PRISM mass surveillance program, having received information from Edward Snowden. In 2016, she published materials about Panamanian offshore. Glenn Greenwald, a journalist for The Intercept and a former author of articles for The Guardian, accused the newspaper of falsifying the words of Julian Assange during an interview with the Italian newspaper La Repubblica.

According to political views, the publication is classified as left-liberal. Since the second half of the 20th century, the editors of The Guardian have been in fairly close relations with the Labor Party, although in 1981 some of the key authors transferred to the Social Democratic Party. The newspaper is known for its constant "shift" towards the Arab, anti-Israeli point of view.

The Guardian is considered a "middle class body." The newspaper's reputation as a platform for liberal and left-liberal statements has led to the use of concepts such as "Guardian reader" or "Guardianista" to characterise people holding such views, or as a negative stereotype of such people from the middle class, convinced and politically correct.

The newspaper received the humorous nickname The Grauniad due to its inherent abundance of typographical errors. Since 2002, together with The Observer, the newspaper opened the Newsroom archive centre (now the Guardian News & Media Archive) in London.

The newspaper four times (in 1999, 2005, 2010 and 2013) received the British Press Award as the newspaper of the year. In 2006, she also received the Society for News Design Award for Best Design. In 2014, an American publication shared the Pulitzer Prize with The Washington Post. The newspaper's website received the Webby Awards (the most prestigious award for the website) in 2005, 2006 and 2007.

Belongs to the Guardian Media Group. The Guardian's editor-in-chief is Katharine Viner.

The Times earns the title of Britain's most trusted national paper. One of the most famous newspapers in the world, the English The Times, first appeared in 1785. An interesting fact: it was this publication that "presented" us the most popular font Times New Roman. So, in 1931, the typographer Morison wrote an article in which

he severely criticised the newspaper for poor print quality. And already in 1932, the newspaper began to appear in a new design: it was typed in the well-known font.

The newspaper covers UK news and world events, news of health, politics, economics, sports, education, culture, science and technology. As in previous editions, there is a section of Daily Life where you can relax from serious articles and read fascinating publications about food and travel, psychology and fashion.

The Times (<https://www.thedrum.com/topics/the-times>) has been named as Britain's most trusted newspaper, according to research from Oxford University.

Radio and Television

Modern TV in Great Britain turned out that more powerful channels indulge more freedom, while the others do less. Materials "for adults only", including abuse, violence, erotica and sex are allowed only after 9 pm. It is assumed that exclusively adults watch TV at this time. Today, many English television channels are subsidiary companies of big satellite, cable and other networks. For example, the BBC Corporation has several channels: BBC One, BBC Two, BBC Three, BBC News and others. "Sky" satellite British TV works without censorship, including political. Traditionally, networks has more than 10 channels in different directions: news, sports, arts, cinema etc. "Discovery" network represents channels of popular-science orientation: Discovery Channel UK, Discovery History, Discovery Science and others.

BBC One is the first British TV channel, which has had a huge audience up to now. It broadcasts news, soap operas, movies of different genres, entertainment programs and TV shows and telecasts sports matches, which broadcasting rights are bought by the BBC Corporation.

There is no advertising on all the BBC channels, since the funding comes from the state, which collects payment from all TV viewers.

ITV is the first competitor of the BBC; competition for audience ratings has been lasting between these two broadcasters for decades. ITV is a commercial channel, which receives basic income from advertising. Like the BBC, the channel broadcasts a variety of telecasts: movies and popular TV shows; in the evening one can usually watch the entertainment shows. Lately ITV does not produce comedies and programs for children.

Broadcasting by television and radio in Britain is regulated by the Minister of Posts and Telecommunications.

Radio is preferable to TV when you are at work and need information or have to focus your attention on something else. For example, when you drive a car, it's better to listen to the radio than to watch TV.

BBC is a community radio station in Great Britain. It has 14 radio stations and 2 TV channels. There are also around 500 commercial channels that you have to pay for.

When the spread of radio began, the British were quick to agree on certain principles. Unlike the press, it should not be financed, even partially, through commercial advertising; but its programmes should be free from state control, and should therefore have no state subsidy. The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) was set up, given the monopoly of radio broadcasting, and financed by compulsory annual payments. The Minister in charge of Posts and Telecommunications appoints the BBC's Board of Governors and its chairman.[4] The Director-General and staff are appointed on grounds of qualifications and experience, always in such a way as to ensure that there is the least possible ground for allegations of partisanship or bias.

On sound the BBC runs four programmes: "1" for pop music, "2" for light entertainment, "3" for minority interests, including music. For part of the day it is used for the academic courses of the Open University. The main programme for news, comment and discussion is BBC Radio 4, which (unlike the others) is split into separate regional programmes for part of the day. Radio 5 is largely given over to sports coverage and news. There are also locally-run BBC programmes such as radio Bristol, and, since 1973, some local commercial sound broadcasting stations, with mainly music and news. The BBC World Service is listened to throughout the world and has a high reputation for objectivity.

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

There are 2 types of broadcasting in GB – commercial and community radio. Commercial radio licences are awarded by Ofcom, a government body which advertises a licence for an area and holds a so-called beauty contest to determine which station will be granted permission to broadcast in that area. Stations submit detailed application documents containing their proposed format and the outcome of research to determine the demand for their particular style of broadcast. Original 106 (Aberdeen) was the last radio station to be granted a licence by Ofcom.

Most local commercial stations in the United Kingdom broadcast to a city or group of towns within a radius of 20–50 miles, with a second tier of regional stations covering larger areas such as North West England. The predominant format is pop music, but many other tastes are also catered for, particularly in London and the larger cities, and on digital radio.

Many of these stations, including all the BBC stations, are also available via digital television services.

Community radio is a radio service offering a third model of radio broadcasting in addition to commercial and public broadcasting. Public stations serve geographic communities and communities of interest. They broadcast content that is popular and relevant to a local, specific audience, but is often overlooked by commercial or mass-market broadcasters.

Community radio stations broadcast to a small area, normally within a 3-mile (5 km) radius, and are required by the Act to be not-for-profit organisations, owned by local people, on which the broadcasters are mostly volunteers. They are recognised under the Communications Act 2003 as a distinct third tier of radio in the United Kingdom. The community radio movement in the United Kingdom was founded in the mid-1970s, broadcasting through Restricted Service Licences, the internet and cable television.

UNIT II. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

TOPIC 2.1. General information of the country and its composition

LECTURE 1

The USA is a constitutional federal republic which comprises 50 states and one federal district and has several territories in the Caribbean and Pacific. The US has the longest undefended ground border in the world with Canada and also shares a long ground border with Mexico. The country is divided into three distinct sections: a) the continental US also known as the lower 48; b) Alaska; c) and the archipelago of Hawaii in the Pacific Ocean. The 50 US states vary in size and population.

The US Population

According to the US Census Bureau's population clock, the estimated 2019 US population is 329,45 million. The U.S. Census Bureau expects the U.S. population to grow.

America is a diverse nation made up from a wide variety of racial, ethnic and educational backgrounds.

White Americans are the racial majority. African Americans are the largest racial minority, comprising an estimated 12.7% of the population. Hispanic and Latino Americans are the largest ethnic minority, comprising an estimated 17.8% of the population.

The proportion of whites in the U.S. population started to decline in 1950. Although the majority of the U.S. population today is still white, nonwhites account for more than half of the populations of Hawaii, the District of Columbia, California, New Mexico, Texas and Nevada. The population is highly urbanized. Why are the numbers of white people declining, and why are nonwhite numbers increasing? The answer is basic demography: births, deaths and immigration. So whites have fewer births than all nonwhite groups. Latinos also have lower mortality rates than whites.

LECTURE 2

History. The Period of Exploration

The first inhabitants. No one knows exactly how people first came to North America. However, many scientists believe that America's first settlers were hunters who came from Siberia. These hunters followed big animals over a land bridge into what is now Alaska.

North America is a land of many geographic features. There are mountains and deserts. There are forests, plains, lakes and oceans. The descendants of the first settlers, American Indians lived in or near all these regions.

The Indians' way of life depended on the geography of the area they lived in. The Indians near the ocean went fishing. On the Great Plains, where there were many animals, the Indians were hunters. In places with rich soil the Indians farmed.

There were hundreds of different American Indian tribes. Each tribe had its own territory. Tribes had different languages and customs, too.

The American Indians can be divided into five groups, according to where they lived.

The Northwest Indians lived near the forests of the Pacific coast. They sailed along the Pacific coast in very long boats (up to 18 metres) called canoes, and fished.

The California Indians settled between the Rocky Mountains and the California coast. They fished in the Pacific Ocean and hunted in the forests. They also gathered acorns and other nuts in the forests.

The Plains Indians hunted in the central part of the continent.

The Southwest Indians lived in what is now Nevada, Arizona and New Mexico. They were farmers and grew corn and beans. In dry areas they developed irrigation.

The Eastern Woodlands Indians lived in the eastern part of the continent. They fished in the Atlantic Ocean and in the rivers, hunted in the forests. Many of them built villages and became farmers.

From the very first, Europeans who explored North America were looking for riches. It took a lot of courage to be an explorer a thousand years ago. Every trip was a journey into the unknown. With each voyage they could draw maps more accurately.

The Vikings sailed to foreign lands in search of food and riches. While the Vikings were sailing west, other Europeans were travelling east around the Mediterranean Sea. Others went as far east as India and China. This period is associated with **Marco Polo** (China), **Vasco da Gama** (southern tip of Africa) and **Christopher Columbus** - a Spanish mapmaker, who stepped ashore on October 12, 1492, holding the Spanish flag. Columbus thought that he had reached a group of islands near the coasts of China and India which were called The Indies. He made three voyages to the New World. But he never knew that he had discovered a new world.

There were many European explorers who tried to find a water route around America. **Ferdinand Magellan** was the first European who got to the Spice Islands (Indo-

nesia), sailing to the west. He found a passage around South Africa to the Pacific Ocean. **John Cabot** was an Italian sea captain who explored for England. **Henry Hudson** was an English navigator who made important explorations for the Dutch and English. He explored the Atlantic shore and sailed up the river that was later named after him – The Hudson. He claimed the territory around the Hudson River for the Netherlands. It became the New Netherlands – the first Dutch colony in the New World.

The name of the continent. The name America comes from “amalic” or “emerich”, an old German word spread through Europe by the Goths, softened in Latin to “Americus” and in Italian to “Amerigo”. The country was called Amerigen or America from Americus. As there was no other name for the New World this came gradually into general use.

The Period of Colonisation

Early Settlements. Christopher Columbus claimed the New World for Spain and soon Spanish soldiers and settlers came there looking for a new life. They called their colony New Spain. Mexico City was its centre. In 1513 one Spanish explorer reached Florida and claimed it for Spain. **Father Junipero Serra** came to the New World in 1749 to fulfil his childhood dream. To become a catholic priest and help the Indians in North America. First he spent 20 years in Mexico. Then he led the first Spanish settlers to California. There priests taught the Indians about Christianity and Spanish customs. Due to this The Indians and Spanish learned to live together as good neighbours.

In 1608 **Samuel de Champlain** started the first French Settlement in the New World. It was located along the banks of **the St. Lawrence River**. Champlain called this place Quebec. The entire colony was known as New France. Today this area is part of Canada. New France did not attract many settlers as it was very cold. Fur trade was the main business of New France.

People from England also started colonies. By 1619 there were 11 settlements in Virginia. The settlers were given the right to vote and elect their own governor. It was the beginning of self-government in the future United States.

The Pilgrims. There were people in England who disagreed with the teachings of the Church of England. In 1620 a large group of such people left England and sailed to North America on a ship called **the Mayflower**. These people were called Pilgrims. They wanted to find a place where they could worship as they wanted. The Pilgrims settled in present-day Massachusetts. They called their settlement Plymouth and introduced the tradition of celebrating Thanksgiving.

The Puritans. There was another group of people who disagreed with the teachings of the Church of England and wanted to purify it. The Puritans sailed to North America.

The Puritans set sail in 1630. One thousand people took part in it. They sailed in fifteen ships full of supplies and tools. The Puritans came to Massachusetts and settled in Boston. The Puritan Church was very powerful in the Massachusetts colony. The colony's political leaders were also church leaders. They established very strict rules. They told people how to dress and how to act. Anyone who disobeyed the church teachings was punished.

The English colonies. The English settlements on the Atlantic coast grew into thirteen colonies. The colonies can be divided into three regions: the New England colonies, the Middle colonies and the Southern colonies.

Life in New England. Religious worship was very important to most New Englanders. The church was often the centre of social life. Families spent long hours listening to sermons. Along the Atlantic coast people made their living by fishing. Timber from nearby forests was used to build ships. Some towns along the coast became shipbuilding centres. As the colonies grew, they began to trade with each other and with Great Britain. With the growth of trade, the ways of life in the colonies were changing. But as the colonies grew, some people left their farms to work in the growing colonial towns and cities. They became priests, lawyers, bankers and merchants. There were blacksmiths, shoemakers, candlemakers and barrel makers. Education was highly valued in New England, so they started schools. Until 1750 only boys went to school. In 1636 Harvard College was founded near Boston. It was the first college in the 13 colonies. Later it grew into the famous **Harvard University**.

The Middle Colonies. New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware were called the Middle colonies. These colonies were settled mainly by English, French, Dutch and German people. They developed the region into a rich farming area. William Penn founded the colony of Pennsylvania in 1681. William Penn worked hard to build up Pennsylvania. He wrote advertisements telling people in Europe about his colony. Soon people from Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland and other countries came to Pennsylvania thus Pennsylvania was settled by people of many different nations.

William Penn also treated the American Indians well. He paid them a good price for their land. During Penn's lifetime the relations between the settlers and the Indians in Pennsylvania were very good. Philadelphia, Boston and New York were three largest and most modern cities in the colonies.

The five Southern colonies were Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. These five colonies had a warmer climate than the other colonies. Farmers had great plantations where they grew tobacco and rice. However, planting and harvesting these crops required many workers. During the 17th and 18th centuries many Negro slaves from Africa were brought to the South to work on the plantations. The slaves had no rights of their own.

Charleston in South Carolina was the major city of the Southern colonies. The crops were loaded on ships and sent to Great Britain, the West Indies and to other colonies. Merchants grew rich from the busy trade. They built beautiful houses in the city.

Trouble in the colonies

Trouble with France. The years from the 1750's until the mid-1770's were uneasy times in the colonies. First the colonists fought the French and American Indians to gain land. Then they argued with the British King about their rights and freedom.

In the 1700's Great Britain and France were the two most powerful nations in Europe. They fought with each other to control world trade and to control the New World. Between 1689 and 1763 the two nations fought four wars in Europe and in North America. The last and most important war in America is known as the French and Indian War (1754 – 1763). The war resulted in a complete victory of Great Britain. The Treaty of Paris signed in 1763 made GB the most powerful nation in North America. The British gained control of Canada and all of the lands east of the Mississippi River.

Trouble with Britain. The Sugar Act. In 1764 Britain's Parliament passed a law taxing the colonies. It was called the Sugar Act. The Sugar Act put a tax on sugar, wine and other products that were shipped to the colonies from countries other than Great Britain. When ships landed in the colonies with these products, a tax had to be paid by the people who ordered the goods.

The colonists refused to pay the tax: they did not want to pay taxes passed by the British Parliament. They wanted to decide themselves whether a tax was necessary.

The British leaders sent tax collectors from Great Britain to collect the money. These men searched all the ships that came into colonial harbours. If they found hidden goods that were supposed to be taxed, they could take the ship away from its owner.

To avoid paying the tax, many ship-owners became smugglers – people who loaded and unloaded their ships in secret.

The Stamp Act. In 1765 Parliament passed a new tax law – the Stamp Act. The Stamp Act put a tax on all printed paper goods that colonists bought. Colonists had to pay a tax when buying books, newspapers and playing cards. A person who finished college had to pay a tax on the diploma. Lawyers had to pay a tax on the wills, agreements and other documents. To show that the tax had been paid, a stamp seller put a stamp on the paper.

The colonists hated the Stamp Act. In Boston crowds broke the offices of the stamp sellers. They poured hot tar on the sellers and then covered them with feathers. This painful punishment was called tarring and feathering.

Why did the colonists fight so strongly against the tax? The main reason was that the tax had been passed without their agreement. The colonists knew about taxes and paid them at home. They elected representatives who decided how much tax money

to collect. The colonists were ready to pay these taxes, because their representatives used the tax money to improve the life of the colony. But the Stamp Act and other British taxes had been passed by the British Parliament. The British tax laws were passed by people that the colonists did not elect, and the tax money was used for the British soldiers whom the colonists did not want.

The Boston Tea Party. Three ships loaded with tea came into the port of Boston. Before unloading the ships it was necessary to pay the tax. Colonists refused to unload the ships. On the night of December 16, 1773, some colonists, dressed as American Indians, climbed aboard the ships. They opened hundreds of boxes of tea and threw them into the water. If there was no tea, they said angrily, there would be nothing to tax. This event became known as the Boston Tea Party. Boston Harbour was blocked. The British said that they would block the harbour until the tea was paid for. This British blockade ruined Boston's trade.

In September 1774 the colonies sent representatives to the First Continental Congress, which met in Philadelphia. The members of the Congress wrote to King George asking him to reopen Boston Harbour. They also told him that the colonists would decide themselves what their taxes should be and what the tax money should be used for. Finally they said that they would boycott British goods until they got what they wanted. King George never answered the letter. Instead, he sent more warships to the colonies.

LECTURE 3

The War For Independence

In Massachusetts people were especially upset by the blockade of Boston Harbour. Farmers in the area began organising to practise shooting and marching. These men were called minutemen, because they could get ready to fight a minute's notice.

On the cold Wednesday morning of April 19, 1775, the tension which existed between the colonists and the British led to shooting. British soldiers met a group of armed colonists at Lexington. A shot was fired. That shot was the start of the War for Independence, in which a brave group of colonies fought mighty Great Britain.

In the spring of 1775 the Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia. They met to organise an army and navy to defend and support colonial rights. In June 1775 the Congress appointed George Washington commander-in-chief of the colonial army. Washington left Philadelphia to take command of the army near Boston. By the following year more and more people had come to believe that the colonies should be independent. Colonial soldiers had died fighting for colonial rights. British leaders had shown no respect for the colonists' rights.

In the spring of 1776 the Continental Congress decided to take action. Thomas Jefferson, a young Virginian, was asked to write a declaration explaining why the colonies should be free.

In the declaration Jefferson described his ideas about human rights. Jefferson said that all people had the right to life and liberty. No government could take these rights away. If the rulers tried to do so, the people had the right to choose a new government. Jefferson blamed the King for ignoring colonial laws, ruining trade and making people pay high taxes.

On July 4, 1776, the Congress adopted Jefferson's Declaration of Independence. The colonies stated that they were no longer a part of Great Britain. A new nation was born.

The war lasted six years. It was a difficult war for both sides. The British were fighting far from their homeland. Supplies had to be sent from across the ocean. Although the Americans lacked supplies and military training, they were fighting on the land which they knew well. And they were fighting to protect their newly declared independence. The Revolutionary War was fought in the farmyards, fields and forests of America. Thousands of men and women helped in the fight for independence.

Thousands of women followed their husbands and sons to army camps to help them. They marched, cooked and even fought side by side with men. Many women stayed at home. They ran family farms and businesses. While their husbands and sons were away, these women took over men's jobs and did their own work, too. In addition, some women collected money for the needs of the war.

During the Revolution some blacks formed their own military units. These soldiers fought in battles and did not give up any ground to the British. Many people in Europe admired the colonies' fight for freedom. Some Europeans even came to America to help in the fighting.

On October 19, 1781, the war was over with the victory of the Americans. In 1783 the British and Americans met in Paris and signed a treaty. In the Treaty Britain agreed to recognize the independence of the United States. The Americans had won their revolution.

A Nation Is Born. Forming a Government

On the bright morning of November 25, 1783, the last British soldiers were leaving the harbour of New York. An American flag was being raised. The war was over, but there was much to do. Thirteen states had made up a new nation. They needed a new government.

Confederation. In the summer of 1776 Thomas Jefferson was writing the Declaration of Independence. At the same time, other members of the Second Continental Congress were planning the new nation's government. The 13 states joined together into a confederation.

It was decided to set up an organisation which would work out the laws of the country. This organisation was called Congress. Each state would send representatives to

Congress. These representatives would choose a leader. Congress and its leader would make up the nation's government.

Congress worked out a system of adding new states to the original 13 states. It was decided that when the population of any area grew to 60 000, the area could become a state.

Convention. Many members of Congress realised that a clear and exact system of governing the country had to be worked out. They decided to call a nation-wide meeting, or convention. Each state was asked to send representatives to this convention.

The delegates of the Convention decided that Congress would have 2 parts, or houses, as the parts were called. One house was called the House of Representatives. The other house was called the Senate. Each state would have 2 members in the Senate. The membership in the House of Representatives would be based on the size of population.

Three branches of government. The delegates wanted to set up a government that would be effective, but at the same time not too powerful. To do this, they created a government of three branches. Each branch would have its own powers. In addition, each branch of government could limit the power of the other two. With the power of government so divided, no single branch would become too powerful.

Congress would be the lawmaking, or legislative, branch. Its members, in both the House of Representatives and the Senate, would make the laws. Congress could also declare war and form armies.

The President would be the executive branch. The President would sign, or refuse to sign, the laws that Congress made. When a law was signed, the President would make sure that it was carried out. The President would also appoint other people to help him in carrying out the laws. Another important power of the President was to be commander-in-chief of the armed forces of the United States.

The 3rd branch of government would be the law-examining, or judicial, branch. Judges would make sure that the laws passed by Congress and signed by the President were in agreement with the Constitution. The most important body of the judicial branch was the Supreme Court.

The Constitution. In 1790 the Constitution (the basic law of the country) was adopted by Congress. In 1791 ten amendments were known as The Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights declares that the national government will protect the basic rights and freedoms of every American citizen.

The first President. On April 30, 1789, George Washington promised to “preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States.” With this promise, Washington was placed in office, or “inaugurated” as the first President of the United States.

President Washington worked long and hard to make the right decisions for the new nation. To help him make these decisions, he wanted advice from experienced people. The helpers, or advisers, formed a group that became known as the Cabinet. Each member of the President's Cabinet was head, or secretary, of certain areas of the government.

The first political parties. Washington appointed a New York lawyer, Alexander Hamilton, to head the Department of Treasury. Thomas Jefferson was placed in charge of the nation's affairs with other countries. Jefferson became the first secretary of state.

Hamilton and Jefferson argued about what was best for the United States. Hamilton wanted to see the country as a nation of great cities and large industries. Jefferson wanted the nation to remain a country of small communities and farms. Hamilton supported laws that would make the national government stronger. Jefferson insisted that more power should be left to individual states.

Each man had supporters among the people. In time, those who followed Hamilton called themselves Federalists. Those who followed Jefferson were called Democratic-Republicans. The split between the two groups grew. Finally the Federalists and the Democratic-Republicans became the first two political parties in the United States.

The capital city. During the 1790's work started on the construction of a new capital city for the United States. The place was chosen along the banks of the Potomac River. This land was called the District of Columbia. The new city was named Washington, in honour of the first President.

TOPIC 2.3. The USA in the 19th century

LECTURES 4-5

The war of 1812

After winning independence, the United States became an important shipping nation. American trading ships sailed to China, Africa and Europe. Foreign trade created jobs for many American ship-builders, sailors, business people and shopkeepers.

While Great Britain and France fought, the United States remained neutral. American ships continued trading with both countries. But Great Britain did not want France to get supplies from the United States. So Great Britain attacked American ships sailing to France. The French also tried to prevent other nations from trading with Great Britain. The French navy attacked American ships that were on their way to British ports.

Between 1804 and 1807 the United States lost more than 700 merchant ships because of British attacks. About 200 American ships were lost to the French. In addition, thousands of sailors were kidnapped from American ships by the British. These sailors were forced to serve in the British navy. Many of the sailors were American citi-

zens. This practice angered Americans. Many people began saying that war should be declared on Great Britain.

The American settlers in Northwest Territory also wanted war with Great Britain. They feared the British who possessed lands in Canada.

American leaders tried to find peaceful solutions. But none of them worked. In 1812 President James Madison asked Congress to declare war against Great Britain. Congress supported him, and the United States went to war.

In the Northwest Territory the war went badly for the United States. The President's house was not badly damaged. When the war was over, it was repaired and repainted white to cover the burned places. It has remained the White House ever since.

After burning Washington, the British army marched to Baltimore. By 1814 both Great Britain and the United States were ready for peace. The war had no clear winner. But the United States had shown that it could defend itself on land and sea. Foreign nations realised that the young United States was a strong country.

Settling the Frontier

In the middle of the 18th century much of the land west of the Appalachian Mountains was a rich wilderness. It was a hunting ground for the American Indians. Bear, deer and wild turkey were plentiful. Many colonists wanted to claim some of this land for themselves.

The first settlers in new areas, people who opened the way west for others, were called pioneers. One of the pioneers was Daniel Boone.

Daniel Boone grew up in Pennsylvania. Later his family moved to North Carolina on the frontier. A frontier is the very edge of a settled area that borders on an unsettled area. Pioneer life was hard for everyone: men, women and children.

When pioneers found a place to settle down, they faced a great problem. The land was covered with forests. The pioneers had to clear the place for building a house and planting crops. Though pioneers helped each other as often as possible, most of the time pioneer life was hard and lonely. Families often lived far apart from one another. In the wilderness there were no shops. Pioneers had to make their own clothes and grow their own food. When they needed furniture, tools, soap or candles, they had to make them, too.

Getting enough food was not usually a problem for the pioneers. The woods were full of animals, and the rivers were full of fish. Each member of a pioneer family, except very little children, had to work hard. The work was divided up. The men and older boys cut down trees and chopped wood. They did almost all the hunting, fishing and trapping of animals.

The women and older girls did the housework, nursed the sick, spun wool for cloth, made clothes and took care of the children. There were few schools on the frontier, and many children studied at home.

Even little children did work: they planted corn, pulled weeds or gathered pine needles. The pine needles were used for mattresses.

Everyone helped to plant crops in spring and harvest in autumn. The men worked in the large fields, while the women and children took care of the vegetable garden near the house. The women also took care of chickens and milked the cows.

For the pioneers the Mississippi River was a great water highway. Boats travelled along the river. River ports, such as New Orleans, Baton Rouge and St. Louis, grew as river travel increased. From these ports pioneers moved westward to settle the new land of Louisiana.

In 1805 France owned the important port of New Orleans and a vast territory called Louisiana- along the Mississippi River and west of it. It worried President Thomas Jefferson that a European country had its lands so close to the United States. The French controlled New Orleans and they could close the Mississippi River to American ships at any time. Napoleon, the leader of France at that time, decided to sell the entire Louisiana Territory for 15 million dollars.

Americans also wanted to settle Florida. In 1818 General Andrew Jackson took an army into Florida and turned Spanish forts and brought all of eastern Florida under the control of the United States. Spain realised that it could not defend its territory. So in 1819 Spain sold all of Florida to the United States for 5 million dollars.

TOPIC 2.4. The Political System of the USA

LECTURES 6-7

The Constitution of the USA

The constitution was adopted after the War of Independence on September 17, 1787. It is the basic law. It lists the set of rules, laws and regulations which provide the practical norms regulating the work of the government. The main principle underlying the Constitution was as follows: private property is the backbone of liberty. It was put forward by a rich plantation owner from Virginia, James Madison, who is known to be the "Father of the Constitution" precisely for this reason.

The Constitution consists of the Preamble and seven articles. 27 amendments have so far been added to its original text. The first 10 amendments, known as the Bill of Rights, were added in a group in 1791, as a result of growing popular demands. These amendments establish the individual rights and freedoms to all people of the States, including freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of worship, the rights to peaceful assembly, etc. The 50th Amendment provides that "no person shall be deprived of life, liberty or property, without due process of law", and no person shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself.

All the amendments adopted by the Congress become an integral part of the Constitution. The 13th amendment abolished slavery. The 14th and 15th adopted in 1868 and

1870 defined citizenship and gave the vote to all male citizens, regardless of race, colour or previous condition of servitude. The 19th gave the vote to women, and was adopted in 1920. The 22^d amendment, adopted in 1951, makes it impossible for any President to hold office for more than 2 terms. The 26th amendment was adopted in 1971, it lowered the voting age to 18 years.

The basic principle of all American government is the separation of the three branches: legislative, executive and judicial. Each branch holds a certain degree of power over the others and all take part in the governmental process.

The Legislative branch

Supreme legislative power in the American Government lies with Congress, which consists of two houses – the Senate and the House Of Representatives (the lower house). Each state has its own government.

The main task of Congress is to make laws. The US Constitution also gives Congress the power to impose taxes, to make rules for trade with foreign countries and between states, to coin money, to organise the Armed Forces, to declare war, etc. Another power possessed by Congress is the right to propose amendments to the Constitution whenever two-thirds of both Houses shall consider it necessary.

Under the Constitution, the US Senate has some special powers, not given to the House of Representatives. The Senate approves or disapproves of major Presidential appointments of such high officials as ambassadors, Cabinet members, and federal judges. The Senate must also ratify, by a two-thirds vote, treaties between the US and foreign countries.

The House of Representatives has a special power of its own. Only a member of the House can introduce a bill to raise money, but it must also be passed by the Senate before it can become a law.

The Senate is composed of 100 members, 2 from each of the 50 States, who are elected for a term of 6 years. Although Congressional elections take place every 2 years, only one-third of the Senate is re-elected.

The Constitution says that a Senator must be at least 30 years old, a citizen of the US for 9 years and resident of the state from which he is elected. The individual seats in the Senate are numbered. Democrats sit in the western part of the chamber – on the Vice-President's right. Republicans sit on his left. The Vice-President presides over the Senate and he conducts debates. The Senate is more conservative than the House of Representatives, as many Senators are re-elected several times and often they are more experienced politicians.

The House of Representatives, at the present time, has 435 members. The number of Representatives which each state sends to the House depends on its population. Cali-

California has the greatest number of representatives. The Constitution says that each state, no matter how small in population, must have at least one Representative.

A representative must be at least 25 years old, a US citizen for 7 years and live in the state from which he is elected. Congressmen of the House of Representatives do not have individual seats, by tradition Democrats sit on the Speaker's right, Republicans – on the left. The Speaker presides over the House, he conducts debates. The Speaker, like Vice-President in the Senate, may vote, but usually he does not do it, except in case of a tie-vote. When any member wants to speak he is to stand up and to address himself to the Speaker.

Almost all the Congressmen are members of the 2 big parties. Lawyers, businessmen and bankers, with a small number of journalists, scientists, landowners, a few trade union representatives. There are no workers, as congressional elections need lots of money and only rich people can afford it. Under the pressure of the progressive circles the number of representatives of racial minorities has grown.

The Administration

The presidency of the US is the highest governmental office. The President of the USA is the head of the State and the Government, he is also the Commander-in-Chief of the US Armed Forces. "Administration" is a popular term to identify the executive branch of the federal government, responsible for administering and executing the laws.

The President is assisted by the Vice-President and the Cabinet. The President and Vice-President are elected for a term of 4 years and can be re-elected for another term, but not longer than that, since the 22d Amendment to the Constitution (1951) limited the President's term in office.

The President must be a natural-born citizen of the USA, at least 35 years old, and for at least 14 years a resident of the USA. The term of office of the President begins at noon on January 20.

Presidential elections in the USA have a distinct class character, as only very rich people can put forward their candidates for President and Vice-President's posts. Before the elections the candidates for Presidency tour the country meeting people and delivering speeches.

The President conducts foreign affairs, signs treaties in the name of the USA, appoints diplomats, Cabinet members, federal judges with the consent and advice of the Senate. President ordinarily outlines the course of his administration through his frequent messages to Congress. The major presidential messages sent to Congress are the annual budget message and the economic report.

The System Of Courts In The United States

In the US, the judiciary (which is a collective term for courts and judges) is divided into the national (federal) and state judiciary. Each is independent of the other with

the exception that the US Supreme Court may, under special circumstances involving federal questions, review state court decisions.

The State courts are set up in a system that looks like the system of Federal courts, with the Supreme Court at the top, which meets in the Supreme Court Building in Washington, D.C.

The US Supreme Court is the highest tribunal in the United States. It includes a Chief Justice and eight Associate Justices. They are all appointed by the President and approved by the Senate.

The Supreme Court is in session from October to June. One of the most important duties of the justices is to decide whether laws passed by the Congress agree with the Constitution.

Besides the US Supreme Court there are various district courts and courts of appeals. They have somewhat less political importance, since their principal duty is to settle cases where no constitutional question is at stake. These courts handle both civil and criminal cases. Each state has at least one district court; a few have as many as four. Each court has from 1 to 24 federal judges, depending on the volume of business. All judges are appointed for life by the President, or until they choose to resign.

The US Population

According to the US Census Bureau's population clock, the estimated 2019 US population is 329,45 million. The U.S. Census Bureau expects the U.S. population to grow.

America is a diverse nation made up from a wide variety of racial, ethnic and educational backgrounds.

White Americans are the racial majority. African Americans are the largest racial minority, comprising an estimated 12.7% of the population. Hispanic and Latino Americans are the largest ethnic minority, comprising an estimated 17.8% of the population.

The proportion of whites in the U.S. population started to decline in 1950. Although the majority of the U.S. population today is still white, nonwhites account for more than half of the populations of Hawaii, the District of Columbia, California, New Mexico, Texas and Nevada. The population is highly urbanized. Why are the numbers of white people declining, and why are nonwhite numbers increasing? The answer is basic demography: births, deaths and immigration. So whites have fewer births than all nonwhite groups. Latinos also have lower mortality rates than whites.

TOPIC 2.5. The Economy of the USA

LECTURE 8

The Economic Context of the USA

The United States is the world's largest economy, ahead of China. After a decade of growth, the country's GDP growth rate turned negative in 2020 following the COVID-19 crisis. According to the IMF's April 2021 forecast, GDP growth is ex-

pected to rebound to 6.4% this year, with a stabilisation around 3.5% in 2022, assuming the global crisis eases following the deploying of several COVID-19 vaccines.

In 2020, the budget deficit reached a record level of 11.7% as a result of the measures adopted to mitigate the impact of the COVID-19 crisis. This budget deficit is expected to gradually decrease in 2022. The U.S., however, enjoys unmatched financing flexibility, being the issuer of the US dollar, the world's main reserve currency. When spending is higher than revenue, there is a budget deficit.

The impact of the COVID-19 crisis was incredibly heavy on the U.S. labour market. According to the Employment Situation of Dec 2020 described by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in November the unemployment rate edged down to 6.7%. The number of unemployed persons, at 10.7 million, continued to trend down in November, but it is still 4.9 million higher than in February. The IMF forecast an unemployment rate of 5.8% for 2021, decreasing further to 4.2% the following year. American citizens enjoy one of the highest GDP (PPP) per capita in the world, estimated at USD 65,118 in 2019 by the World Bank. Nevertheless, current public health policies tend to worsen income inequalities, with the number of people without health insurance edging up during Trump's administration. In 2019, there were 34 million people in poverty. According to a Columbia University study, however, the monthly poverty rate increased from 15% to 16.7% from February to September 2020 due to the crisis propelled by the COVID-19 pandemic.

Main Sectors of Industry

Any national economy can be broadly classified into three productive economic sectors: Primary Sector, Secondary Sector, Tertiary Sector.

Primary Sector: It involves the harvesting and extraction of natural resources. Industries in the primary sector include agriculture, commercial fishing, mining, and the timber industry.

Secondary Sector: It includes manufacturing industries such as aerospace, automobile production, the chemical industry, petroleum refining, the pharmaceutical industry and electronics production. It also includes the construction of buildings and highways and utilities such as those that generate and distribute electricity.

Tertiary Sector: It includes services such as transportation, marketing, and retailing of physical goods. It also includes direct services without the distribution of any physical goods, such as consulting, education, technology, administration, and tourism. Tertiary sector is also known as the service sector because it involves the provision of services rather than tangible goods.

The United States is a highly industrialised country with high levels of productivity and the use of modern technologies. Key sectors include agriculture (corn, soy, beef, and cotton); manufacturing of machinery, chemical products, food, and automobiles; and a booming tertiary market focused on finance, new technologies, insurance, real

estate, rentals, and leases. The American agricultural sector is without doubt one of the world's largest, with California alone producing more than one-third of the country's vegetables and two-thirds of its fruits and nuts.

Including a broad range of activities, the industrial sector contributes over 18.2% of GDP and employs 20% of the workforce. Besides the industries mentioned above, the country is also the world leader in the aerospace and pharmaceutical industries. Thanks to its abundant natural resources, the United States has become a leader in the production of a number of minerals and has been able to maintain diversified production. The country is the world's largest producer of liquid natural gas, aluminium, electricity and nuclear energy. It is the world's third-largest oil producer and, for several years, has also been developing shale gas extraction on a large scale.

The American economy is essentially based on services. The tertiary sector accounts for more than three-fourths of GDP (77.4%) and employs over 79% of the country's workforce. A big portion of GDP is composed of finance, insurance, real estate, rental, and leasing sector (21% in 2019); as well as the professional and business services (12.8%). The governmental sector (at federal, state and local level) accounted for around 12.3% of the country's GDP in 2019 (U.S. Department of Commerce). particularly affected).

The United States is the largest energy consumer in terms of total use. About 40% of the nation's energy came from petroleum, and America depends on oil imports. The New York Stock Exchange is the largest stock exchange in the world by value of its listed companies' securities.

Bank regulation in the United States is highly fragmented compared to other G10 countries where most countries have only one bank regulator. The U.S. central bank is known as the Federal Reserve, was formed in 1913 to provide a stable currency and monetary policy. In the U.S., banking is regulated at both the federal and state level. The U.S also has one of the most highly regulated banking environments in the world and is focused on privacy, disclosure, fraud prevention, anti-money laundering, anti- terrorism, anti-usury lending, and promoting lending to lower-income segments.

Positive Features of US Economy

Political stability reduces uncertainty in the markets: Even with the debt ceiling crisis that pushed the country to the brink, the U.S. remains a safe haven compared to other nations where ruling parties have been toppled and federal governments head towards delinquency.

Negative Features of US Economy

Wages are Falling: Wages for most workers are declining. That's bad for workers and bad for the economy.

Military spending: The US is spending a lot on its military. After 9/11 US military forces are playing a major role in the war against terror which has badly affected their economic structure.

Gross domestic product (GDP) is the measurement used to quantify everything produced in the U.S.

The U.S. budget is total federal income and spending. The government receives most of its revenue from income taxes. Most of its spending goes toward three large expenses: Social Security benefits, military spending, and Medicare.

International Monetary Fund (IMF). The International Monetary Fund, or IMF, promotes international financial stability and monetary cooperation. It also facilitates international trade, promotes employment and sustainable economic growth, and helps to reduce global poverty. The IMF is governed by and accountable to its 190 member countries.

TOPIC 2.6. The American system of Education

LECTURE 9

American schooling

The American system of education differs somewhat from the systems of other countries. It has certain peculiarities of its own which are closely connected with the specific conditions of life, the New World and the history of American society. There are free, state-supported, public schools which the majority of American children attend. There are also a number of private elementary and secondary schools where a fee is charged for admission and children are accepted or rejected on the basis of an examination. These include many church-supported schools, usually Catholic, which also charge a fee. Most public schools are co-educational, that is, girls and boys study together but a lot of the church-supported schools are for boys or girls only.

Under the US Constitution the federal government has no power to make laws in the field of education. Thus, education remains primarily a function of the states. Each state has a Board of Education (usually 3-9 members elected by the public or appointed by the governor), not subject to federal control. State laws determine the age of compulsory education, the length of the school year, the way in which teachers shall be certified and many of the courses which must be taught.

Education is compulsory for every child from the age of 6 up to the age of 16 except in New Mexico, North Dakota and Pennsylvania where it is compulsory to the age of 17 and in Nevada, Ohio, Oklahoma and Utah where children must go to school until the age of 18.

Elementary (primary) and secondary (high) schools are organised on one of two bases: eight years of elementary school and four years of secondary school, or six years of elementary, three years of junior high school and three years of senior high school.

Elementary school children in the US learn much the same things as do children of the same age in other countries. The program of studies includes English (reading, writing, spelling,

grammar, composition), arithmetic (elementary algebra or geometry in upper grades), geography, history of the USA and elementary natural science. Physical training, music, drawing and foreign languages are also taught.

The junior high school is a sort of halfway between elementary and secondary school. It continues some elementary school subjects, but also introduces courses in maths and science. It usually comprises grades seven, eight and nine.

The high school prepares young people either for work immediately after graduation or for more advanced study in a college or university.

There are some technical, vocational and specialised high schools in the USA.

The subjects studied in elementary school are dealt with in greater detail and in more advanced form in high school. In addition one can specialise in home economics, chemistry and physics, music, humanities, automobile mechanics, etc. High school students study 4-5 major subjects a year and classes in each of them meet for an hour a day, five days a week.

The US have the shortest school year in the world, an average of 180 days.

An important part of high school life is what is called extra-curricular activities. The student is free to join a chorus, band or school orchestra; enter the debating team or participate in sports of all kinds as well as a variety of social activities.

Higher Education

Basically, American Higher Education developed its own pattern by the adaptation of two traditions: the university tradition of England and that of the Continent. The first universities were developed by private charitable organisations, many of which were religious bodies. The private universities are still very important. All Higher educational establishments charge fees. It costs a lot of money to study there. The main universities are: California University, Catholic University of America, Harvard University, Stanford University, Chicago University. The best-known of all is Harvard which was founded in 1636.

The methods of instruction in the universities are lectures, discussions and work in the laboratory. The academic year is usually of nine months duration, two semesters of four and a half months each.

Students are classified as freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors. A peculiar feature of American college and university life is numerous students' unions and fraternities.

TOPIC 2.7. American Culture

LECTURES 10-11

The American Culture and Leisure Activities

The American theatre is over two hundred years old, but American drama became American only in the 20th century. At the beginning American drama was strongly influenced by European models. The centre of the US theatrical world is in a section of New York City near Broadway. Broadway is a wide avenue with glittering lights and advertising signs. It is the aim of every talented actor, producer and playwright to get to Broadway.

Unlike other countries, there is no nationally subsidised theatre in the USA. Broadway theatres are rented to producers who hire directors and actors. As the rents are very high, the plays must attract large audiences willing to buy expensive tickets. The Broadway theatre is a truly commercial enterprise.

In 1952 a new theatre was formed - the Living theatre which produced experimental plays by new playwrights.

Hollywood is the name of a Los Angeles district which appeared in 1910 and it also stands for American cinematography. It is part of the American entertainment industry aimed at amusing, educating and giving the public what it wants. American cinema was born in the east when «Patent Cinema Company» was formed in 1908. It included 8 cinema-making firms.

The 1920s saw Hollywood as the centre of the movie industry with a world-wide market. The production of films began in Hollywood in the late 1920s. One of the greatest events in Hollywood is the annual presentation of Oscar, which is the highest Award of the American Cinema Academy. It was founded in 1927. Its aim was to further the development of cinematography. Another tradition is the ceremony of leaving one's footprints or handprints on the pavement in front of the Chinese Theatre.

The culture of the US is primarily of Western origin, but its influences include European American, Asian American, African American, Latin American, Native American peoples and their cultures. The United States has its own distinct social and cultural characteristics, such as dialect, music, arts, social habits, cuisine, and folklore, otherwise known as Americana.

The United States is ethnically diverse as a result of large-scale European immigration throughout its history, its hundreds of indigenous tribes and cultures, and through African-American slavery followed by emancipation and assimilation.

Major cultural influences have been brought by historical immigration, especially from Germany in much of the country, Ireland and Italy in the Northeast, Japan in Hawaii. Since the abolition of slavery, the Caribbean has been the source of the earliest and largest Black immigrant group, a significant source of growth of the Black population in the U.S. and has made major cultural impacts in education, music, sports and entertainment.

American culture includes both conservative and liberal elements, scientific and religious competitiveness, political structures, risk taking and free expression, materialist and moral elements.

Although the United States has no official **language** at the federal level, 28 states have passed legislation making English the official language, and it is considered to be the *de facto* national language.

The national dialect is known as American English, which itself consists of numerous regional dialects, but has some shared unifying features that distinguish it from other

national varieties of English. There are four large dialect regions in the United States—the North, the Midland, the South, and the West—and several smaller dialects such as those of New York City, Philadelphia, and Boston. A standard dialect called "General American".

More than 300 languages besides English have native speakers in the United States—some are spoken by indigenous peoples (about 150 living languages) and others imported by immigrants. In fact, English is not the first language of most immigrants in the US, though many do arrive knowing how to speak it, especially from countries where English is broadly used.

In the late-18th and early-19th centuries, **American artists** primarily painted landscapes and portraits in a realistic style or that which looked to Europe for answers on technique: for example, John Singleton Copley was born in Boston, but most of his portraiture for which he is famous follow the trends of British painters like Thomas Gainsborough and the transitional period between Rococo and Neoclassicism. Later developments of the 19th century brought America one of its earliest native home-grown movements, like the Hudson River School and portrait artists with a uniquely American flavour like Winslow Homer.

As the nation grew wealthier, it had patrons able to buy the works of European painters and attract foreign talent willing to teach methods and techniques from Europe to willing students as well as artists themselves; photography became a very popular medium. After World War II, New York emerged as a centre of the art world. Painting in the United States today covers a vast range of styles.

Architecture in the United States is regionally diverse and has been shaped by many external forces. U.S. architecture can therefore be said to be eclectic. Traditionally American architecture has influences from English architecture to Greco roman architecture. The overriding theme of city American Architecture is modernity, as manifested in the skyscrapers of the 20th century. While domestic and residential architecture varies according to local tastes and climate, rural American and suburban architecture tends to be more traditional.

Theater of the United States is based in the Western tradition. Eugene O'Neill is now considered by many to be the father of American drama. O'Neill is the only American playwright to win the Nobel Prize in Literature. After O'Neill, American drama came of age and flourished with the likes of Arthur Miller, Tennessee Williams, Lillian Hellman, William Inge, and Clifford Odets during the first half of the 20th century. The United States is also the home and largest exporter of modern musical theatre. Broadway is one of the largest theatre communities in the world and is the epicentre of American commercial theatre. The United States originated stand-up comedy and modern improvisational theatre, which involves taking suggestions from the audience.

American music styles and influences (such as country, jazz, blues, rock and roll, rock, techno, soul, hip-hop) and music based on them can be heard all over the world. Music in the U.S. is diverse. It includes African-American influence in the 20th century. The first half of this century is famous for jazz, introduced by African-Americans. The top three best-selling musicians from the United States are Elvis Presley, Michael Jackson and Madonna. The best-selling band is The Eagles.

Television is a major mass media of the United States. Household ownership of television sets in the country is 96.7%, and the majority of households have more than one set. Due to a recent surge in the number and popularity of critically acclaimed television series, many critics have said that American television is currently enjoying a golden age.

There is a regard for **scientific advancement** and **technological innovation** in American culture, resulting in the creation of many modern innovations. The great American inventors include Robert Fulton (the steamboat); Samuel Morse (the telegraph); Eli Whitney (the cotton gin, interchangeable parts); and Thomas Edison (with more than a thousand inventions credited to his name). Most of the new technological innovations over the 20th and 21st centuries were either first invented in the United States, first widely adopted by Americans, or both. Examples include the lightbulb, the airplane, the transistor, the atomic bomb, nuclear power, the personal computer, the iPod, video games, online shopping, and the development of the Internet.

The twentieth century saw the arrival of the Space Age, the Information Age, and a renaissance in the health sciences. This culminated in cultural milestones such as the Apollo moon landings, the creation of the Personal Computer, and the sequencing effort called the Human Genome Project.

Throughout its history, American culture has made significant gains through the open immigration of accomplished scientists. Accomplished scientists include Scottish-American scientist Alexander Graham Bell, who developed and patented the telephone and other devices; German scientist Charles Steinmetz, who developed new alternating-current electrical systems in 1889; Russian scientist Vladimir Zworykin, who invented the motion camera in 1919. With the rise of the Nazi party in Germany, a large number of Jewish scientists fled Germany and immigrated to the country, including theoretical physicist Albert Einstein in 1933.

Education in the United States is and has historically been provided mainly by the government. Control and funding come from three levels: federal, state, and local. School attendance is mandatory and nearly universal at the elementary and high school levels (often known outside the United States as the primary and secondary levels).

Students have the option of having their education held in public schools, private schools, or home school. In most public and private schools, education is divided into

three levels: elementary school, junior high school (also often called middle school), and high school. In almost all schools at these levels, children are divided by age groups into grades. Post-secondary education, better known as "college" in the United States, is generally governed separately from the elementary and high school system. Among the country's adult population, over 85 percent have completed high school and 27 percent have received a bachelor's degree or higher.

Among developed countries, the U.S. is one of the most **religious**. Today, governments at the national, state, and local levels are secular institutions, with what is often called the "separation of church and state". The most popular religion in the U.S. is Christianity.

The public life and popular culture of the United States incorporates many Christian ideals specifically about redemption, salvation, conscience, and morality. Americans expect public figures to confess and have public penitence for any sins or moral wrongdoings they may have caused.

Several of the original Thirteen Colonies were established by English settlers who wished to practise their own religion without discrimination or persecution: Maryland was established by Roman Catholics, and the Massachusetts Bay Colony by Puritans. Separatist Congregationalists (Pilgrim Fathers) founded Plymouth Colony in 1620. They were convinced that the democratic form of government was the will of God. The first Bible printed in a European language in the Colonies was by German immigrant Christopher Sauer.

In the 1800s, colleges were encouraged to focus on **sports**, particularly track, field, and, in the late 1800s, American football. Physical education was incorporated into primary school curriculums in the 20th century.

Baseball is the oldest of the major American team sports. Professional baseball dates from 1869 and had no close rivals in popularity until the 1960s. Though baseball is no longer the most popular sport, it is still referred to as "the national pastime."

American football, known in the United States as simply "football," now attracts more television viewers than any other sport and is considered to be the most popular sport in the United States. The 32-team National Football League (NFL) is the most popular professional American football league. Its championship game, the Super Bowl, has often been the highest rated television show, and it has an audience of over 100 million viewers annually.

College football also attracts audiences of millions. Some communities, particularly in rural areas, place great emphasis on their local high school football team. American football games usually include cheerleaders and marching bands, which aim to raise school spirit and entertain the crowd at halftime.

Basketball is another major sport, represented professionally by the National Basketball Association. It was invented in Springfield, Massachusetts in 1891, by Canadian-

born physical education teacher James Naismith. College basketball is also popular, due in large part to the NCAA men's Division I basketball tournament in March, also known as "March Madness."

Ice hockey is the fourth leading professional team sport.

Lacrosse is a team sport played with a lacrosse stick and a lacrosse ball. It is a team sport of American and Canadian Native American origin and is the fastest growing sport in the United States. Lacrosse is most popular in the East Coast area.

Soccer is very popular as a participation sport, particularly among youth, and the US national teams are competitive internationally.

Other popular sports are tennis, softball, rodeo, swimming, water polo, fencing, shooting sports, hunting, volleyball, skiing, snowboarding, skateboarding, Ultimate, disc golf, cycling, MMA, roller derby, wrestling, weightlifting, and rugby.

The United States enjoys a great deal of success both in the Summer Olympics and Winter Olympics, constantly finishing among the top medal winners.

Homecoming is an annual tradition of the United States. People, towns, high schools and colleges come together, usually in late September or early October, to welcome back former residents. It is built around a central event, such as a banquet, a parade, and most often, a game of American football, or, on occasion, basketball, wrestling or ice hockey. When celebrated by schools, the activities vary. However, they usually consist of a football game, played on the school's home football field, activities for students and alumni, a parade featuring the school's marching band and sports teams, and the coronation of a Homecoming Queen.

American high schools commonly field football, basketball, baseball, volleyball, soccer, golf, swimming, track and field, and cross-country teams as well.

The **cuisine** of the United States is extremely diverse, owing to the vastness of the continent, the relatively large population (1/3 of a billion people) and the number of native and immigrant influences. Mainstream American culinary arts are similar to those in other Western countries. Wheat and corn are the primary cereal grains. Traditional American cuisine uses ingredients such as turkey, potatoes, sweet potatoes, corn (maize), squash, and maple syrup, as well as indigenous foods employed by American Indians and early European settlers, African slaves, and their descendants.

Iconic American dishes such as apple pie, donuts, fried chicken, pizza, hamburgers, and hot dogs derive from the recipes of various immigrants and domestic innovations. French fries, Mexican dishes such as burritos and tacos, and pasta dishes freely adapted from Italian sources are consumed.

The types of food served at home vary greatly and depend upon the region of the country and the family's own cultural heritage. Recent immigrants tend to eat food similar to that of their country of origin, and Americanized versions of these cultural foods, such as American Chinese cuisine or Italian-American cuisine often eventually

appear. Vietnamese cuisine, Korean cuisine and Thai cuisine in authentic forms are often readily available in large cities. German cuisine has a profound impact on American cuisine, especially mid-western cuisine; potatoes, noodles, roasts, stews, cakes, and other pastries are the most iconic ingredients in both cuisines. Dishes such as the hamburger, pot roast, baked ham, and hot dogs are examples of American dishes derived from German cuisine.

Different regions of the United States have their own cuisine and styles of cooking.

Soul food was developed by southern African slaves.

Americans generally prefer coffee to tea, and more than half the adult population drinks at least one cup a day. Marketing by U.S. industries is largely responsible for making orange juice and milk (now often fat-reduced) breakfast beverages.

American attitudes towards **drugs and alcoholic beverages** have evolved considerably throughout the country's history. In the 19th century, alcohol was readily available and consumed, and no laws restricted the use of other drugs. Attitudes on drug addiction started to change, resulting in the Harrison Act, which eventually became proscriptive.

A movement to ban alcoholic beverages called the Temperance movement, emerged in the late 19th century. Several American Protestant religious groups and women's groups, such as the Women's Christian Temperance Union, supported the movement. In 1919, Prohibitionists succeeded in amending the Constitution to prohibit the sale of alcohol. Although the Prohibition period did result in a 50% decrease in alcohol consumption, banning alcohol outright proved to be unworkable, as the previously legitimate distillery industry was replaced by criminal gangs that trafficked in alcohol. Prohibition was repealed in 1933. States and localities retained the right to remain "dry", and to this day, a handful still do.

During the Vietnam War era, attitudes swung well away from prohibition. Commentators noted that an 18-year-old could be drafted to war but could not buy a beer.

Since 1980, the trend has been toward greater restrictions on alcohol and drug use. The focus this time, however, has been to criminalise behaviours associated with alcohol, rather than attempt to prohibit consumption outright. New York was the first state to enact tough drunk-driving laws in 1980; since then all other states have followed suit. All states have also banned the purchase of alcoholic beverages by individuals under 21.

A "Just Say No to Drugs" movement led to stricter drug laws and greater police latitude in drug cases. Drugs are, however, widely available. Since the 1990s, marijuana use has become increasingly tolerated in America, and a number of states allow the use of marijuana for medical purposes. In most states marijuana is still illegal without a medical prescription. Since the 2012 general election, voters in the District of Columbia and the states of Alaska, California, Colorado, Maine, Massachusetts, Neva-

da, Oregon, and Washington approved the legalisation of marijuana for recreational use. Marijuana is classified as illegal under federal law.

Guns are widely legal in the United States, and private gun ownership is common; almost half of American households contain at least one firearm. In fact, there are more privately owned firearms in the United States than in any other country, both *per capita* and in total. Considerable freedom to possess firearms is often considered by the people and the government to be guaranteed by the Second Amendment of the United States Constitution.

Gun ownership is most common in Alaska, the Mountain States, and the South, and least prevalent in Hawaii, the island territories, California, and New England. Gun ownership tends to be more common in rural areas than in urban areas.

Hunting, plinking and target shooting are popular pastimes, although ownership of firearms for purely utilitarian purposes such as personal protection is common as well. In fact, "personal protection" was the most common reason given for gun ownership. Ownership of handguns, while not uncommon, is less common than ownership of long guns. Gun ownership is considerably more prevalent among men than among women; men are approximately four times more likely than women to report owning guns.

The rise of suburbs and the need for workers to commute to cities brought about the popularity of **automobiles**. Outside of the relatively few urban areas, it is considered a necessity for most Americans to own and drive cars. New York City is the only locality in the United States where more than half of all households do not own a car. In the 1950s and 1960s subcultures began to arise around the modification and racing of American automobiles and converting them into hot rods. Later, in the late-1960s and early-1970s Detroit manufacturers began making muscle cars and pony cars to cater to the needs of wealthier Americans seeking hot rod style, performance and appeal.

2. ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЙ РАЗДЕЛ

Семинар 1. Страны Соединенного Королевства. Географическое положение

TASKS

I Watch the video and summarise the ideas:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=F59tB1yLWNQ&t=5s&ab_channel=ELIMultimedia

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mL1RsDRvTig&t=2s&ab_channel=GeogGCA

II Watch the documentary “The history of the weekend” and mark the sentences *True* or *False*

- 1 In the 19th century Manchester was the home of the cotton industry.
- 2 Until 1843 factory workers only had Sundays free.
- 3 Then Robert Lowes and some other men asked factory owners to give their workers all day Saturday off too.
- 4 One reason why they wanted people to have more free time was so that they could go shopping.
- 5 The factory owners agreed to close their factories at three o'clock on Saturdays.
- 6 People started to relax more and play more sports.
- 7 St Mark's football club was started, which later became Manchester United.
- 8 By the 1950s most people had a two-day weekend.
- 9 In the 1990s shops started to open on Sundays.
- 10 Most British workers think a three-day weekend wouldn't make people happier.

Семинар 2. История Великобритании

TASKS

Watch the video and summarise the ideas:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=joErUdT-bD0&t=5s&ab_channel=FireofLearning

WRITING

TOPICS:

1. The Elizabethan Era(1558-1603).
2. The civil war 1642-1660.

Семинар 3. Государственное и политическое устройство Великобритании

TASKS

I Read the text and do the tasks that follow it.

STATE SYSTEM OF GREAT BRITAIN

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is sometimes called the United Kingdom, the U.K., Great Britain, Britain or England. The country is made of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland (sometimes known as Ulster).

Almost 56 million people live in England, 5 mln. in Scotland, 3 mln. in Wales and 1.8 mln. in Northern Ireland.

The United Kingdom is one of the few developed countries of the world where a constitutional monarchy has survived with its ages – old customs, traditions and ceremonies. So Great Britain is a constitutional monarchy. It means that the powers of the Monarch (the King or the Queen) are limited by Parliament.

You'll be greatly surprised but there is no written constitution in Great Britain. The main principles of British legislation are expressed in other documents like "Magna Charta¹", "Habeas Corpus Act²", "Bill of Rights³", "Parliamentary Act", etc. There are two basic principles of the British Constitution and they are: "Rule of Law" and "Supremacy of Parliament".

The state system of Great Britain consists of the legislative branch which makes laws, the executive branch which puts the laws into effect and plans policy; the judicial branch which decides on cases that arise out of the laws.

The legislative branch is Parliament where the laws are passed. Parliament in Great Britain has existed since 1265 and is the oldest Parliament in the world. It consists of two chambers – the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

The House of Lords consists of 1000 peers who are not elected by people. They are hereditary peers, Law Lords, life peers and top church officials. The House of Lords has now lost most of its powers and cannot influence the decision making process in Parliament.

The House of Commons is a nation-wide representative body which is elected by people at general elections once in 5 years. It consists of 650 elected members of Parliament (MPs) each representing an area in England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

The executive (power) branch in Great Britain is represented by the Government which is headed by the Prime Minister. As a rule the Prime Minister is the leader of the party that has won the elections and has the majority in the House of Commons.

The Prime Minister appoints the ministers to compose the government. The Government consists of about a hundred politicians. The Prime Minister nominates the Cab-

inet of Ministers which consists of 16 to 24 senior ministers. The Cabinet meets once a week in No 10 Downing Street, the official residence of the British Prime Minister. The Cabinet formulates foreign and home policy, and makes decisions on important day-to-day issues. The policy decided upon by the Cabinet is implemented by different departments of state. The Cabinet is also the Court of Appeal. This is presided over by the Lord Chief Justice of Appeal and three judges. There is a Ministry of Justice in the United Kingdom. The judicial system is divided between the Courts, the Lord Chancellor and the Home Secretary.

Exercise I. Match English and Russian equivalents.

1. to make appointments
 2. leader of the party
 3. to pass laws
 4. a developed country
 5. a constitutional monarchy
 6. decision – making process
 7. general elections
 8. nationwide representative body
 9. foreign policy
 10. official residence
 11. on important day-to-day issues
 12. to put the laws into effect
- a) конституционная монархия
 - b) принимать законы
 - c) делать назначения
 - d) развитая страна
 - e) проводить законы в жизнь
 - f) лидер партии
 - g) всеобщие выборы
 - h) официальная резиденция
 - i) по важным повседневным вопросам
 - j) всенародный представительный орган
 - k) процесс принятия решения
 - l) международная политика.

Exercise II. Choose the right word or word combination.

1. The Queen's power is
a) elective; b) hereditary; c) unlimited.

2. The legislative branch in Great Britain is represented by ...

a) Parliament; b) Cabinet of Ministers; c) Courts.

3. The Prime Minister appoints ...

a) members of Parliament; b) ministers; c) judges.

4. The executive power in Great Britain belongs to ...

a) Parliament; b) The Prime Minister and his Cabinet; c) the Queen.

Exercise III. Complete the sentences according to the text.

1. The Queen's power in the United Kingdom is

2. The Prime Minister is the leader of the party that

3. The British Parliament consists of

4. The executive branch in Great Britain is represented by

5. The Cabinet of Ministers formulates

6. The House of Lords consists of

Exercise IV. Answer the questions on the text.

1. What is the official name of Great Britain?

2. What kind of monarchy is Great Britain?

3. Is the Queen's power hereditary or elective?

4. Is there a written constitution in Great Britain?

5. What branches of powers does the British state system consist of?

6. Who is the head of the British Government?

7. When does the Queen appoint the Prime Minister?

8. Are members of the House of Lords elected?

9. How often are general elections in Great Britain held?

Exercise V. Think and answer:

1. Who is the constitutional monarch of Great Britain now?

2. What are the relations between the Queen and the Parliament in Britain?

3. Who may be the member of the House of Commons?

4. Is the Prime Minister elected? Who is usually appointed as the Prime Minister?

5. How is the Cabinet of Ministers formed? What is it responsible for?

6. **SPEAKING** Prepare to speak on the State System of GB.

WRITING

TOPICS:

1. Queen Elizabeth II.

2. The present-day Monarch.

3. Anne Boleyn, ['bʊlɪn, bə'li:n, bʊ'li:n].

4. The British Prime Minister.

Семинар 4. Образование Великобритании

TASKS

THE SCHOOL SYSTEM IN THE UK

a Complete the text about the UK with words from the list.

boarding /'bɔ:diŋ/ degree /di'gri:/ head /hed/ nursery /'nɜ:səri/
primary /'praɪməri/ private /'praɪvət/ pupils /'pju:plz/
secondary /'sekəndəri/ state /steɪt/ students /'stju:dnts/
terms /tɜ:mz/

In the UK

Children start ¹ *primary* school when they're five. Before that, many children go to ² _____ school, e.g. between the ages of two and four, but this is not compulsory. From 11–18, children go to ³ _____ school. The majority of schools in the UK (about 90%) are ⁴ _____ schools, which means that they are paid for by the government and education is free. The other 10% are ⁵ _____ schools, where parents have to pay. A few of these are ⁶ _____ schools, where children study, eat, and sleep. Children at primary school are often called ⁷ _____ and children at secondary school are usually called ⁸ _____, as are people who are studying at university. The person who is in charge of a school is called the ⁹ _____ teacher. The school year is divided into three ¹⁰ _____.



If you want to go to university, you have to take exams called A levels in your last year at school. If your results are good enough, you get a place. A person who has finished university and has a ¹¹ _____ is called a graduate.

b  7.2 Listen and check.

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE

I

Listening

You are going to listen to information about Florence Nightingale, 1820-1910. Read these sentences and predict if they are true or false. Then listen to check your ideas.

1. Florence Nightingale studied mathematics and science at school.
2. Nightingale took a team of nurses to Turkey in 1854.
3. She was called "The Lady with the Lamp" because she invented a new type of lamp.
4. She used diagrams like pie charts to explain her ideas.

5. One very big hospital in the UK is named after her.

II Now, read the questions. Can you remember the answers?

- 1) What difficulty did Nightingale have early in her life?
- 2) What did Nightingale find when she arrived in Turkey?
- 3) Why were most soldiers dying?
- 4) What did Nightingale do after the Crimean War ended?
- 5) How do we remember Nightingale today?

Listen again to check.

III Review vocabulary from the lesson by completing these sentences:

1. Nightingale looked after ... soldiers in Turkey.
2. In Turkey, most soldiers did not die from their ...
3. The hospitals were very dirty, so most soldiers died from ...
4. The hospitals in Turkey needed more medical ...
5. Nightingale helped the army ... better medical care.
6. Nightingale improved ... for soldiers in hospitals.
7. After the war, Nightingale helped ... doctors.
8. Nightingale used ... like pie charts to explain her ideas.

Семинар 5. Культура Великобритании

TASKS

I Watch the video and do the tasks:

https://www.ted.com/talks/chris_a_kniesly_how_corn_conquered_the_world

VIDEO: HOW CORN CONQUERED THE WORLD

Task 1. True or False:

1. Corn currently accounts for more than one tenth of our global crop production.
2. Humans grow more Yellow Dent #2 than any other plant on the planet.
3. When Europeans first arrived in America, they were obsessed with corn.
4. Maize quickly became one of the most expensive animal feeds worldwide.
5. Today, humans eat only 30% of all cultivated corn, while the remaining 70% supports consumer good industries worldwide.

Task 2. Give Russian and English Equivalents of the following words from the video:

Кукуруза –, перерабатываемый материал –, сельское хозяйство –, поставки –, покорить мир –, партия кукурузы -, чередовать посевы -, crop production –, edible –, ubiquitous –, to shun –, vulnerable –, unsustainability –, sweep the nation - , dense fields -, to restore nitrogen to the soil -, to ensure -, emissions -

Task 3. Finish the sentences.

1. Over 99% of cultivated corn is the exact same type:
2. Nearly 9,000 years ago, corn was first domesticated from teosinte, a grass native to.....
3. Following the technological developments of World War II, mechanised harvesters became.....
4. Corn accounts for a large portion of agriculture-related carbon emissions, partly due to the.....

Task 4. Answer the questions:

1. What is corn also called?
2. What is the world's corn capital?
3. What happened at the 1893's World's Fair?
4. What were the technological developments of World War II ?
5. When did President Richard Nixon remove the limitations of the amount of corn farmers could grow? What did it lead to?
6. How does corn production damage the global ecology?

Task 5. Summarise the content of the video material.

WRITING

TOPICS:

1. The Media: Newspapers and Magazines.
2. The Media: Radio and Television.
3. Public Holidays.

3. РАЗДЕЛ КОНТРОЛЯ ЗНАНИЙ

3.1. Методические рекомендации по самостоятельной работе студентов

Студент в процессе обучения должен не только освоить учебную программу, но и приобрести навыки самостоятельной работы, которая способствует развитию ответственности и организованности, творческого подхода к решению проблем учебного и профессионального уровня, поскольку студент должен уметь планировать и выполнять свою работу.

Самостоятельная работа студентов является одной из основных форм аудиторной и внеаудиторной работы при реализации учебных планов и программ. Самостоятельная работа определяется как индивидуальная или коллективная учебная деятельность, осуществляемая без непосредственного участия педагога, но по его заданиям и под его контролем.

Для организации самостоятельной работы необходимы следующие условия:

- готовность студентов к самостоятельному труду;
- наличие и доступность необходимого учебно-методического и справочного материала;
- консультационная помощь.

Формы самостоятельной работы студентов определяются при разработке рабочих программ учебных дисциплин содержанием учебной дисциплины, учитывая степень подготовленности студентов.

Видами заданий для внеаудиторной самостоятельной работы являются:

для овладения знаниями:

- чтение текста (учебника, дополнительной литературы), составление плана текста, выписки из текста, работа со словарями и справочниками, ознакомление с нормативными документами, учебно-исследовательская работа, использование аудио- и видеозаписей, компьютерной техники и Интернета и др.;

для закрепления и систематизации знаний:

– обработка текста, повторная работа над учебным материалом (учебника, дополнительной литературы, составление плана, ответ на контрольные вопросы, аналитическая обработка текста (аннотирование, рецензирование, реферирование, конспект-анализ и др.).

Таким образом, самостоятельная работа всегда завершается какими-либо результатами. Это выполненные задания, упражнения, переводы, аннотации.

Цели и задачи

Целью самостоятельной работы студентов является овладение фундаментальными знаниями, профессиональными умениями и навыками деятельности по профилю, опытом творческой, исследовательской деятельности. Данный учебно-методический материал ориентирован на достижение главной цели: повышение результативности самостоятельной работы студентов, развитие способности к самостоятельному получению знаний, освоению коммуникативных компетенций по учебной дисциплине.

В ходе выполнения самостоятельной работы студент научится активно, целенаправленно приобретать новые знания и развивать коммуникативные умения без прямого участия в этом процессе преподавателей; самостоятельно анализировать современные учебно-методические материалы; закреплять пройденный материал посредством анализа и обсуждения.

Указанная цель требует реализации ряда *задач*, таких как:

- приобретение конкретных знаний в соответствии с темами, заявленными в учебной программе дисциплины;
- систематизация и закрепление полученных теоретических знаний и практических умений обучающихся;
- развитие познавательных способностей и активности студентов: творческой инициативы, самостоятельности, ответственности и организованности;
- формирование самостоятельности мышления, способностей к саморазвитию;
- самосовершенствование и самореализация;
- развитие исследовательских умений;

– реализация универсальных учебных действий с использованием информационно-коммуникационных технологий.

Информация, полученная в результате самостоятельного изучения обозначенного материала, будет необходима для продуктивной работы на практических занятиях, а также успешного прохождения всех этапов контроля знаний. Помимо анализа библиографического списка литературы, поощряется самостоятельное нахождение и изучение дополнительной литературы и электронных источников.

При этом целями и задачами самостоятельной аудиторной работы являются:

– методическая помощь студентам при изучении учебной дисциплины «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» по темам, выносимым на самостоятельное изучение;

– применение сформированных навыков при работе с аутентичными материалами;

– развитие творческих способностей студентов, активизация мыслительной деятельности, повышение положительной мотивации к изучению английского языка;

Цели и задачи внеаудиторной самостоятельной работы студентов:

– закрепление, углубление, расширение и систематизация знаний, полученных во время занятий;

– самостоятельность овладения новым учебным материалом;

– формирование навыков самостоятельного умственного труда;

– овладение различными формами самоконтроля;

– развитие самостоятельности мышления;

– развитие коммуникативных умений в сфере профессионального общения;

– воспитание способности к самоорганизации, творчеству.

Самостоятельная работа может осуществляться индивидуально или группами студентов в зависимости от цели, объема, конкретной тематики самостоятельной работы, уровня сложности, степени развития умений студентов.

Контроль результатов внеаудиторной самостоятельной работы студентов может осуществляться в пределах времени, отведенного на обязательные учебные занятия по дисциплине и внеаудиторную самостоятельную работу студентов по дисциплине. Используется устная и письменная формы контроля.

По учебной дисциплине «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» практикуются следующие виды и формы самостоятельной работы студентов:

- подготовка к семинарским занятиям;
- подготовка к зачету и экзамену;
- отработка изучаемого материала по печатным и электронным источникам;
- выполнение самостоятельной работы;
- подготовка к участию в научно-практических конференциях.

3.2. Рекомендации по выполнению самостоятельной работы

Изучение теоретического материала.

Изучение литературы и интернет-ресурсов с целью расширения знаний по той или иной теме необходимо осуществлять с учетом следующих пунктов:

- прежде чем приступить к работе, требуется четко определить цели задания, что поможет осуществить самоконтроль в конце работы;
- ход работы проводить «пошагово» и не приступать к следующему пункту, не пройдя предыдущий;
- при работе с литературными источниками выделять главное, обращая особое внимание на классический немецкий язык;
- в конце работы проверить достигнута ли цель и сколько времени потребовалось для ее достижения.

В зависимости от цели просмотрового чтения и степени полноты извлечения информации выделяют четыре подвида просмотрового чтения:

Конспективное – для выделения основных мыслей. Оно заключается в восприятии только наиболее значимых смысловых единиц текста, составляющих логико-фактологическую цепочку.

Реферативное – для выделения основных мыслей. При этом читающего интересует только самое основное в содержании материала, все подробности опускаются как несущественные для понимания главного.

Обзорное – для определения существа сообщаемого. Оно направлено на выделение главной мысли текста, причем задачи сводятся в основном к ее обнаружению на основе структурно-смысловой организации текста. Понимание главной мысли, выраженной имплицитно, в данном случае практически невозможно. Интерпретация прочитанного ограничивается вынесением самой общей оценки содержанию и определением соответствия текста интересам студентов.

Ориентировочное – для установления наличия в тексте информации, представляющей для читающего интерес или относящееся к определенной проблеме. Основная задача читающего – установить, относится ли данный материал к интересующей его теме.

3.3. Задания для самостоятельной работы

1. Изучить теоретический материал дисциплины.
2. Ознакомиться с основными понятиями, терминами, датами и персоналиями по темам.
3. Просмотр видеоматериалов и выполнение заданий и тестов к ним.

3.4. Вопросы к дифференцированному зачету по учебной дисциплине «Страноведение первого иностранного языка»

1. The geographical position of GB.
2. The relief, rivers and lakes.
3. The climate, vegetation and animal life in GB.
4. The population, languages and national symbols of GB.
5. The economy of GB.
6. The system of education in GB.

7. The state system of GB.
8. The British Prime Minister.
9. The Monarch of GB.
10. Florence Nightingale.
11. History of the weekend.

3.5. Вопросы к экзамену по учебной дисциплине «Страноведение первого иностранного языка»

1. The First Inhabitants of North America. The origin of the name of the continent.
2. Education in the USA: General Characteristics.
3. The Geographical Location of the USA. Some general facts about the country.
4. Colonisation of North America.
5. The War of 1812.
6. Early settlements in North America. The Pilgrims. The Puritans.
7. The National Holidays.
8. The English Colonies. New England. Middle Colonies.
9. Troubles in the colonies (The Sugar Act, The Stamp Act).
10. The Constitution of the USA.
- 11 The Relief of the Country. Mountains. Natural resources.
12. The Legislative Branch: Congress and the Senate.
13. Rivers and Lakes. Climate. Natural resources.
14. Political Situation on the Eve of the War of Independence. The Boston ‘Tea Party’.
15. The War of Independence.
16. The Executive Branch: the President and Administration.
17. Vegetation and animal life of the USA. Climate.
18. The Major Political Parties of the USA.
19. The USA before the Civil War. The Question of Slavery.
20. American schooling and Higher education.
21. The US population and the American way of life.

22. The Civil War (North against South).
23. The Pioneers and settling the Frontier.
24. An Outline of the American Economy. General Characteristics.
25. California. The gold rush (1848). Levi Strauss.
26. The System of Courts in the USA.
27. American Culture and Leisure activities.

4. ВСПОМОГАТЕЛЬНЫЙ РАЗДЕЛ

**ЧАСТНОЕ УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
«ИНСТИТУТ СОВРЕМЕННЫХ ЗНАНИЙ ИМЕНИ А.М.ШИРОКОВА»**

УТВЕРЖДАЮ

Ректор Института современных знаний
имени А.М.Широкова

А.Л.Капилов

26.06.2023

Регистрационный № УД-02-18/уч.

4.1. Учебная программа

СТРАНОВЕДЕНИЕ ПЕРВОГО ИНОСТРАННОГО ЯЗЫКА

Учебная программа учреждения высшего образования
по учебной дисциплине для специальности:

6-05-0231-03 «Лингвистическое обеспечение межкультурной коммуникации
(английский язык и второй иностранный язык)»

2023 г.

Учебная программа составлена на основе образовательного стандарта высшего образования ОСВО 6-05-0231-03-2022 по специальности 6-05-0231-03 «Лингвистическое обеспечение межкультурной коммуникации (английский язык и второй иностранный язык)» и учебного плана по специальности

СОСТАВИТЕЛЬ:

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А.Г.Торжок, доцент кафедры теории и практики перевода факультета социокультурных коммуникаций Белорусского государственного университета, кандидат филологических наук, доцент

РЕКОМЕНДОВАНА К УТВЕРЖДЕНИЮ:

Кафедрой межкультурной коммуникации Частного учреждения образования «Институт современных знаний имени А.М.Широкова» (протокол № 11 от 30.05.2023);

Научно-методическим советом Частного учреждения образования «Институт современных знаний имени А.М.Широкова» (протокол № 5 от 26.06.2023)

ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

Обучение иностранному языку на современном этапе предполагает преподавание иностранного языка с изучением социокультурных особенностей страны изучаемого языка, поскольку язык и культура неразрывно связаны между собой.

Актуальность учебной дисциплины «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» заключается во взаимосвязанном коммуникативно-речевом, социокультурном и языковом развитии обучающихся. Учебная дисциплина систематизирует языковые и социокультурные знания, приобретенные на более ранних этапах обучения, углубляет знания о лингвокультуроведческой вариативности английской речи, развивает умения использовать иностранный язык как инструмент межкультурного общения.

Цель изучения учебной дисциплины «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» – свести в единый комплекс знания о стране изучаемого языка, сведения о географии, об основных этапах исторического развития страны, психологии нации, социальной действительности и культуре страны и, тем самым, способствует усвоению системы лингвистических знаний, а также формированию страноведческой и лингвострановедческой компетенции, необходимой для адекватного владения иностранным языком как средством межкультурного общения.

Студент должен быть подготовлен к решению следующих **задач**:

разработка стратегии коммуникативного поведения в ситуациях политического, делового общения, в международных организациях, в средствах массовой коммуникации;

подготовка различного рода информации в соответствии с существующими традициями, этикетом и международными стандартами;

подготовка различного рода документов в соответствии с нормами официально-делового стиля и правилами, сложившимися на базе английского языка и культуры.

В результате изучения учебной дисциплины «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» студент должен

знать:

особенности политики, экономики, культуры, географии, демографии, истории, религии, нравов и обычаев страны, изучаемого языка;

лексику по изучаемым темам и применять ее в различных коммуникативных ситуациях.

уметь:

поддерживать разговор о различных сферах жизни изучаемых стран, об их политике, экономике и культуре;

спорить, сравнивать, анализировать и делать логические выводы, базируясь на полученных знаниях в области политики, экономики и социальной сферы жизни изучаемой страны;

грамотно излагать свои или чужие мысли в виде резюме или изложения по заданной теме;

иметь навыки:

сравнительного анализа;

исследовательской работы;

работать самостоятельно;

реализовывать навыки устной и письменной коммуникации;

проявлять способности к межличностным коммуникациям;

осуществлять системный поиск;

использовать интерактивные методики взаимодействия.

Освоение учебной дисциплины обеспечивает формирование специальной компетенции СК-7: осуществлять межкультурную коммуникацию с учетом общественно-политических и социально-культурных особенностей страны изучаемого иностранного языка.

Реализация программы осуществляется различными методами и приёмами работы: лекции на иностранном языке с привлечением различных источников информации и наглядных пособий различных видов; анализ текстов, про-

смотр видеофильмов. При проведении занятий по учебной дисциплине предполагается проведение семинаров, на которых изучаемый материал расширяется, дополняется различными фактами и обсуждается в аудитории, заслушиваются доклады, сообщения обучающихся по теме семинара, выполняются различные виды упражнений, анализ текстов, просмотр видеофильмов. Учебная дисциплина «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» призвана развивать навыки исследовательской работы. Для этого в рамках учебной дисциплины могут быть широко использованы проектные формы работы, подготовка докладов и сообщений.

По учебному плану на учебную дисциплину «Страноведение первого иностранного языка» отводится 118 часа (64 аудиторных часов), из которых 32 часа рекомендуется отводить каждой из изучаемых стран (Великобритании и США). Учебная дисциплина состоит из 44 часов лекционных и 20 часов семинарских занятий. На самостоятельную работу отведено 54 часа.

Форма промежуточной аттестации по учебной дисциплине – дифференцированный зачет, экзамен.

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ УЧЕБНОГО МАТЕРИАЛА

Раздел I. Великобритания

Тема 1.1. Географическое положение Великобритании

Официальное название, статус, площадь, столица. Британские острова. Географическое положение. Страны Соединенного Королевства. Столицы, эмблемы, святые покровители. Климатические условия. Особенности рельефа, береговая линия. Климатические условия. Растительный и животный мир. Реки и озера. Национальности и языки. Этническое разнообразие. Флаг Соединенного Королевства Великобритании и Северной Ирландии. Герб. Национальные эмблемы. Территория. Размещение населения. Городское и сельское население.

Тема 1.2. Из истории Великобритании

Первые известия о Британских островах. Древнейшее население. Заселение Британских островов кельтами. Римское завоевание. Наследие римлян. Англосаксонские завоевания Британии. Скандинавское завоевание. Нормандское завоевание. Вильгельм Завоеватель. Развитие Англии в средние века. Империя и демократия. Генри VIII. Елизавета I. Становление Парламента. Империя и развитие промышленности.

Тема 1.3. Государственное и политическое устройство Великобритании

Великобритания - конституционная монархия. Королевская власть и ее роль в современной Британии. Законодательная власть. Парламент - высший законодательный орган страны. Палата общин, ее структура и права. Палата лордов, ее права и значение. Процесс законотворчества. Исполнительная власть. Правительство, кабинет министров. Госаппарат. Избирательное право. Судебная власть. Основные политические партии. Их роль в общественной и государственной жизни страны. Другие партии. Основные направления внут-

ренней и внешней политики британского правительства. Национальные праздники и фестивали.

Тема 1.4. Экономика Великобритании

Место Великобритании в системе мирохозяйственных связей. Особенности послевоенного развития экономики. Характеристика ведущих отраслей промышленности. Транспорт. Сельское хозяйство и его значение для экономики страны. Характеристика основных форм землепользования. Ведущие отрасли и их размещение. Основные экономические районы и города.

Тема 1.5. Образование Великобритании

Система школьного образования. Государственные и «независимые», или частные школы (элитарные школы). Начальное образование, его ступени. Типы средних школ и их характеристика.

Система среднего специального и высшего образования. Университеты и университетские колледжи. Основные типы университетов: старейшие университеты (Оксфорд и Кембридж), шотландские университеты, «краснокирпичные университеты»: новые университеты. Открытый университет - система заочного обучения по телевидению. Вклад английского народа в развитие науки и техники. Великие английские ученые и изобретатели.

Тема 1.6. Культура Великобритании

Британский характер, особенности менталитета британцев.

Современная английская живопись. Музеи и картинные галереи (Британский музей, Национальная галерея, картинная галерея Тейта и др.)

Музыкальная культура. Современные композиторы. Роль «Битлз» в развитие музыкальной жизни.

Театральная жизнь страны, выдающиеся драматические актеры и режиссеры. Кинематограф.

Церковь. Спорт в жизни британцев.

Тема 1.7. Средства массовой информации

Печать, радио и телевидение в жизни страны. Национальные газеты: серьезная и «популярная» пресса. Важнейшие журналы. Характеристика основных каналов телевидения.

Раздел II. Соединенные штаты Америки

Тема 2.1. Физико-географическая характеристика США

Границы и географическое положение. Рельеф и его особенности. Климатические условия. Крупнейшие реки и озера. Растительный и животный мир. Основные характеристики современного населения США: численность, естественный прирост, размещение. Этнический состав. Национальные и языковые различия современного населения. Флаг США. История создания, значение звезд и полос. Дядя Сэм - символ американской нации. Белоголовый орёл - национальная птица США. Статуя свободы - подарок Франции - символ свободы для иммигрантов США.

Тема 2.2. Исторические особенности образования и развития США

Коренные американцы. Прибытие в Новый Свет. Первые исследователи и поселенцы. Христофор Колумб и Джон Кебот. Присоединение американских земель к Великобритании. Роль отцов-пилигримов в создании своей колонии в 1620 г. Вытеснение индейцев в глубинные районы страны. Американские колонии. Война за независимость. Основные вехи войны за независимость (1775-1783 гг.). Томас Джефферсон и декларация независимости. Д. Вашингтон - первый президент США.

Тема 2.3. Развитие США в XIX в. Становление современных США

Война 1812 -1814 г.г. между США и Великобританией. Рост антагонизма между Севером и Югом. Нация разделилась. Гражданская война. Избрание Линкольна президентом США. Гражданская война 1861-1865 гг. и ее экономи-

ческие и политические итоги. Развитие США после Гражданской войны. США в Первой и Второй мировых войнах. США на современном этапе. Президент США.

Тема 2.4. Государственный и политический строй США

Конституция США, ее особенности. Билль о правах. Поправки к конституции, их значение. Законодательная власть. Конгресс США. Структура, функции и права палаты Представителей и Сената. Должностные лица конгресса: спикер палаты представителей, председатель сената. Прохождение законодательных предложений в конгрессе.

Исполнительная власть: Президент США, вице-президент. Их права и обязанности. Администрация президента, система министерств и ведомств. Избирательная система. Процедура избрания президента.

Местное самоуправление. Законодательные собрания штатов.

Судебная власть. Судостроительство на федеральном уровне: Верховный суд. Окружные суды. Специальные апелляционные суды. Их функции.

Двухпартийная система: демократическая и республиканская партии, их роль в политической жизни страны. Другие политические партии.

Тема 2.5. Экономика США

США - ведущая держава современного мира. Удельный вес США в мировом производстве, структура хозяйства. Особенности промышленного производства, структура промышленности. Краткая характеристика ведущих отраслей промышленности. Высокий технический уровень сельского хозяйства, его структура. Значение транспорта в связи с обширностью территории и специализацией экономики. Основные виды транспорта.

Характеристика экономических районов. Внешние экономические связи.

Тема 2.6. Система образования США

Организация образования в США. Начальное и среднее образование. Финансирование школ. Государственные школы. Частные школы, церковные школы. Высшее образование. Двухгодичные колледжи, финансируемые местными властями. Технические институты и профессиональные школы. Государственные и частные университеты. Система отбора в университеты. Старейшие частные университеты. Студенческая жизнь. Роль спорта в студенческой жизни.

Тема 2.7. Культура США

Национальные черты американцев. Ценностные ориентиры. Традиции и обычаи. Характерные черты жизни и быта. Американский образ жизни. Национальные праздники. Церковь и религия в жизни американцев. Национальные виды спорта и роль спорта в повседневной жизни американцев. Особенности американского варианта английского языка.

Искусство и живопись. Крупнейшие американские живописцы. Архитектурные памятники и сооружения. Крупнейшие музеи и картинные галереи. Музыкальная жизнь. Театр. Роль кино в американском обществе, крупнейшие американские кинорежиссеры и киноактеры.

Печать, радио и телевидение. Наиболее влиятельные газеты и журналы. Крупнейшие радио и телевизионные корпорации.

УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКАЯ КАРТА ПО УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ

Номер раздела, темы	Название раздела, темы	Количество аудиторных часов					Форма контроля
		Лекции	Семинарские занятия	Практические занятия	Лабораторные занятия	Количество часов СРС	
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Географическое положение Великобритании	4	1				Дискуссия, сообщения по теме
2.	Из истории Великобритании	4	2			2	Дискуссия, сообщения по теме, презентация
3.	Государственное и политическое устройство Великобритании	4	2				Дискуссия, сообщения по теме, презентация
4.	Экономика Великобритании	2	1				Сообщения по теме
5.	Образование Великобритании	2	1				Дискуссия, презентация
6.	Культура Великобритании	4	2			2	Дискуссия, сообщения по теме, презентация
7.	Средства массовой информации Великобритании	2	1				Презентация
8.	Промежуточная аттестация					12	Дифференцированный зачет
	ВСЕГО:	22	10			16	
1.	Физико-географическая характеристика США	2	1				Дискуссия
2.	Исторические особенности образования и развития США	4	2				Дискуссия, сообщения по теме, презентация
3.	Развитие США в XIX в. Становление современных США	4	2				Дискуссия, сообщения по теме, презентация
4.	Государственный и политический строй США	4	2				Дискуссия, сообщения по

							теме, презентация
5.	Экономика США	2	1				Презентация
6.	Система образования США	2	1			1	Сообщения по теме
7.	Культура США	4	1			1	Сообщения по теме, презентация
8.	Промежуточная аттестация					36	Экзамен
ВСЕГО:		22	10			38	
ИТОГО: 118		44	20			54	

ИНФОРМАЦИОННО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКАЯ ЧАСТЬ

4.2. Основная литература

1. Артёмов, В. И. A brief history of Great Britain : курс лекций [Электронный ресурс] / В. И. Артемов. – Минск : Институт современных знаний имени А.М. Широкова, 2013. – 120 с

2. Артёмов, В. И. American and British Studies. The USA and American people today: курс лекций [Электронный ресурс] / В. И. Артемов. – Минск : Институт современных знаний имени А.М. Широкова, 2009. – 137 с.

3. Артёмов, В. И. American and British Studies. USA Short History : курс лекций [Электронный ресурс] / В. И. Артемов. – Минск : Институт современных знаний имени А.М. Широкова, 2008. – 80 с.

4. Барановский, А. Б. Страноведение. Великобритания : учеб. пособие / А. Б. Барановский, Д. Д. Козикис. – Минск : Выш. школа, 1990. – 343 с.

5. Козикис, Д. Д. Страноведение. Великобритания : учеб. пособие / Д. Д. Козикис, Г. И. Медведев, Н. В. Демченко. – 2-е изд. – Минск : Выш. школа, 2005. – 120 с.

4.3. Дополнительная литература

1. Барановский, Л. С. Добрый день, Британия! : учеб. пособие / Л. С. Барановский. – Минск : Выш. школа, 2008. – 271 с.

2. Нестерук, Г. В. США и американцы/ Г. В. Нестерук, В. М. Иванова. – Минск : Выш. школа, 1997. – 238 с.

3. Bell, J. The history of England/ J.Bell. – СПб., 1995. – 219 с.

Требования к выполнению самостоятельной работы студентов

№ п/п	Название раздела, темы	Кол-во часов на СРС	Задание	Форма выполнения	Цель и задача СРС
1	Из истории Великобритании	2	Выполнение теста по теме. Подготовка к семинарскому занятию	Тестирование	Углубление и расширение профессиональных знаний по изучаемой учебной дисциплине
2	Культура Великобритании	2	Выполнение теста по теме. Подготовка к семинарскому занятию. Реферат для допуска к дифзачету по одной из пройденной тем	Тестирование	Углубление и расширение профессиональных знаний по изучаемой учебной дисциплине
3	Промежуточная аттестация	12		Дифференцированный зачет	
4	Система образования США	1	Подготовка к семинарскому занятию	Реферат по теме, выполнение тестов по теме	Углубление и расширение профессиональных знаний по изучаемой дисциплине
5	Культура США	1	Подготовка к семинарскому занятию Реферат по одной из пройденной тем для допуска к экзамену . Подготовка к экзаменационному тесту	Реферат по теме, выполнение тестов по теме	Углубление и расширение профессиональных знаний по изучаемой дисциплине
6	Промежуточная аттестация	36		Экзамен	

**Тематика семинарских занятий по учебной дисциплине
«Страноведение первого иностранного языка»**

Великобритания

Семинар 1. Страны Соединенного Королевства.

Географическое положение

1. Geographical Position and Territory.
2. Physical Structure and Relief. Rivers and Lakes.
3. Climate and Weather. Vegetation and Landscape. Animal Life.
4. Population. General Characteristics. Migration.
5. Population. Languages and National Symbols.
6. The Economy of England and Wales.
7. The Economy of Scotland and Northern Ireland.
8. The history of the weekend.

Семинар 2. История Великобритании

1. The Pre-Historic and the Pre-Celtic Period.
2. The Celts.
3. The Roman Conquest.
4. The Anglo-Saxon Conquest.
5. The Norman Conquest.
6. The Medieval Period (1066-1485).
7. The Wars of the Roses (the crisis of kingship).
8. The Tudors.
9. The Elizabethan Era.
10. England in the 17th Century.
11. The civil war 1642-1660.
12. England in the Years of transition (1702-1837).
13. Years of progress (1837-1906).

14. Britain in the 20th Century.

15. Contemporary Britain.

Семинар 3. Государственное и политическое устройство Великобритании

1. The Constitution and the Monarchy.
2. Parliament and Elections. The Legislative Procedures.
3. The Executive Power. The British Prime Minister.
4. The system of Courts in Great Britain.
5. The Party System.

Семинар 4. Образование Великобритании

1. School Education.
2. The Private Sector of Education.
3. Further and Higher Education.
4. Florence Nightingale.
5. British Universities.

Семинар 5. Культура Великобритании

1. British Stereotypes.
2. Leisure and Sports.
3. Public (Official) Holidays.
4. The Media: Newspapers and Magazines.
5. The Media: Radio and TV.

США

Семинар 1. Физико-географическая и экономическая характеристика

США

1. General Characteristics of the Geographical Situation of the Country.
2. The Relief of the country.

3. The Mountains of the USA.
4. Rivers and Lakes and Climate.
5. Vegetation and Animal Life.
6. The Economy of the USA: General Characteristics.
7. Industries and Services. Mineral Resources.
8. The Main Economic Regions in the East of the USA.
9. The Main Economic Regions in the West of the USA.

Семинар 2. История образования США

1. The First Inhabitants of North America.
2. The First English Settlements in North America.
3. Colonization of North America. The First American colonies.
4. The USA on the Eve of the War of Independence.
5. The War of Independence and the Formation of the USA.
6. The USA after the War of Independence. Colonization of the West.
7. The Pioneers and settling the Frontier.
8. California. The gold rush (1848). Levi Strauss.
9. The Country before the Civil War.
10. The Civil War (1861-1865).

Семинар 3. Развитие США

1. The Period of Reconstruction and Reform.
2. The USA in and after World War I.
3. The USA in World War II and after WWII.
4. America in the 21th Century.
5. US President.

Семинар 4. Государственный и политический строй США

1. The Constitution of the USA. The Creation.
2. The Constitution of the USA. The Principles and Structure.
3. The National Symbols.
4. The Legislative Branch. The Congress.

5. The Executive Branch. The President and Administration.
6. The American Court System.
7. The Party System in the USA.

Семинар 5. Образование и культура США

1. Education in the USA: School Education. Higher Education.
2. American Universities.
3. The National Holidays.
4. Mass Media in The USA. Newspapers Magazines.
5. Mass Media in The USA. Television and Radio.
6. Religion in the USA.
7. Sports in the USA.

Вопросы к дифференцированному зачету по учебной дисциплине «Страноведение первого иностранного языка»

1. The geographical position of GB.
2. The relief, rivers and lakes.
3. The climate, vegetation and animal life in GB.
4. The population, languages and national symbols of GB.
5. The economy of GB.
6. The system of education in GB.
7. The state system of GB.
8. The British Prime Minister.
9. The Monarch of GB.
10. Florence Nightingale.
11. History of the weekend.

Вопросы к экзамену по учебной дисциплине
«Страноведение первого иностранного языка»

1. The First Inhabitants of North America. The origin of the name of the continent.
2. Education in the USA: General Characteristics.
3. The Geographical Location of the USA. Some general facts about the country.
4. Colonization of North America.
5. The War of 1812.
6. Early settlements in North America. The Pilgrims. The Puritans.
7. The National Holidays.
8. The English Colonies. New England. Middle Colonies.
9. Troubles in the colonies (The Sugar Act, The Stamp Act).
10. The Constitution of the USA.
- 11 The Relief of the Country. Mountains. Natural resources.
12. The Legislative Branch: Congress and the Senate.
13. Rivers and Lakes. Climate. Natural resources.
14. Political Situation on the Eve of the War of Independence. The Boston 'Tea Party'.
15. The War of Independence.
16. The Executive Branch: the President and Administration.
17. Vegetation and animal life of the USA. Climate.
18. The Major Political Parties of the USA.
19. The USA before the Civil War. The Question of Slavery.
20. American schooling and Higher education.
21. The US population and the American way of life.
22. The Civil War (North against South).
23. The Pioneers and settling the Frontier.
24. An Outline of the American Economy. General Characteristics.
25. California. The gold rush (1848). Levi Strauss.
26. The System of Courts in the USA.
27. American Culture and Leisure activities.

**Перечень используемых средств диагностики результатов
учебной деятельности**

Для диагностики результатов учебной деятельности используются: дискуссия, сообщения по теме, тестовый контроль, презентация, написание рефератов.

ПРОТОКОЛ СОГЛАСОВАНИЯ УЧЕБНОЙ ПРОГРАММЫ

Название учебной дисциплины, с которой требуется согласование	Название кафедры	Предложения об изменениях в содержании учебной программы по изучаемой учебной дисциплине	Решение, принятое кафедрой, разработавшей учебную программу (с указанием даты и номера протокола)

ДОПОЛНЕНИЯ И ИЗМЕНЕНИЯ К УЧЕБНОЙ ПРОГРАММЕ на 20__/20__ учебный год

№ п/п	Дополнения и изменения	Основание

Учебная программа пересмотрена и одобрена на заседании кафедры межкультурной коммуникации (протокол №__ от . .20____)

Заведующий кафедрой

_____ (ученая степень, ученое звание)

_____ (подпись)

_____ (И.О.Фамилия)

УТВЕРЖДАЮ

Декан факультета

_____ (ученая степень, ученое звание)

_____ (подпись)

_____ (И.О.Фамилия)

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