Bejaia University

Department of English

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Title of the Course: **Culture (s)/Civilization(s) of the Langue**

Audience: First Year English Classes

Description of course objectives:

This course is intended to initiate the students into the cultures and civilizations of British and American peoples. The purpose of the course is to acquaint the students with general precepts, patterns and characteristics of British and American cultures. Though a historical background of the origins of British and American peoples and the course of development of their societies will be part of the class, our main objective is to track contemporary characteristics and issues of British and American societies such as: people and immigration, politics and government, religion, educational system, media and the arts.

It is important that the students realize that what is sought here in our course is understanding and not acceptance, knowledge and not cultural conversion. That is, this course does not attempt to evaluate the cultures presented in an attempt to advocate or prioritize any one of them whatsoever. This course will have achieved all that it is intended to do if the students leave the class with an understanding of some of the cultural patterns and precepts of contemporary Britain and America, as well as a basic knowledge of the historical development of the two countries. The ultimate objective of the course is to provide our students with a background Knowledge and a cultural competence to study British and American civilizations in the second year.

Course syllabus

I -Introduction: Understanding Culture and Civilization

II- British Culture/ Civilzation

1-Physical Geography of the British Isles

2-The People and Immigration

3-Politics and Government

4- Foreign Policy

5-Religion

6-Education

7-The Media

III- American Culture/Civilization

1-Physical Geography of the United States of America

2-The people and Immigration

3-Politics and Government

3-Foreign Policy

4- Religion

5- Education

6-The media

Materials used: significant texts and documents (documentaries, videos, music) are made available to the students at the beginning of the year for use as reference material and basis for textual commentaries and analysis.

Assessment:

The course will have a balance of formative and summative assessment. Formative assessment is designed to improve students' comprehension of the course concepts and motivate them to work to understand course material. Students will be assigned quizzes, multiple choice question and so forth. Additionally, they will have to sit for a written exam at the end of each semester and will be graded. In general, exams would consist of two different parts: the first part would deal with general questions of comprehension related to the materials studied in the class. In the second part, the students would be required to answer a question of analysis by writing a short essay.

Mandatory Reading List:

John Oakland. (2002). *British Civilization An Introduction,5thedition.*

John Oakland. (2005). *Contemporary Britain, a survey with Texts.*

James O'Driscoll. (2009).*Britain for Learners of English, 2nd Edition*.

David Mauk, John Oakland. American Civilization, an Introduction, 5th Edition.

Alan Brinkley. (2016). (2009). The Unfinished Nation. A concise History of the American People, 8th edition (parts of the book)

Further Reading

Books available in the University's library:

- *The Hutchinson Illustrated Encyclopaedia of British History* 2605/69
- *Initiation a la Civilisation Britannique* by Michèle Théry 2605/88
- *A Shortened History of England* by G. M. Trevelyan 2605/79
- *The History of England* by Lord Macauley 2605/78
- *An Outline of American Geography* 2605/15

- *An Outline of American History* 2605/14
- *This is America* 2605/12
- *American Life and Institutions* by Douglass k. Stevenson 2648/02
- *Oxford Guide to British and American Culture . edited by Jonathan Crowther. 2601/29*
- *The Mass Media in America since 1945 an overview. 2603/06*
- *A pocket History of the USA. 2605/48*
- *Les Grandes Dates de L'histoire Britannique. Antoine Mioche . 2605/103/3*
- *The Languages of Britain. Glanville Price. 2618/02.*

I- Understanding Civilization and Culture

Civilization and culture are two complex concepts and there is no consensus on their conceptualization and definition. Furthermore, these terms have been used sometimes differently and synonymously or interchangeably at other times.

1- Origin and Meaning of Civilization and Culture

The concept of civilization has a general and complex character. According to its etymology this term is derived from the Latin word 'civilis' which means citizen and 'civitas' that means city or state in which citizens live in an organized state against the tribesmen. The term 'civilisation' was coined in 18th century France to designate the idea of progress as opposed to the state of barbarism. It

was used to indicate the difference between the “more advanced people” and others. So “on the one side were the civilized peoples: on the other, primitive savages or bararians” (Braudel, 1995: 4).

According to Byram, the French word ‘civilisation’ has its roots in the discourse and ideology of colonialism and its connotations include a sense of cultural superiority. In the 18th century the French language became the language of the nobility, and it was established as the language of European courts. The word ‘civilized’ was used to indicate the refined ways of the elite and the powerful such as refinement of manners and education. As for its use in language teaching it reflected the intention to show a “largely positive image of the French culture and society to an external audience” (Byram 2004: 108) and achieve what the French considered their “mission civilisatrice” (Murphy 1977, quoted in Bellalem, 2012). Civilization has remained inseparable from the notion of progress and the idea of civilization as opposed to barbarism is still used today.

In some other contexts, the term civilization refers to the entire nation, society or country and not what makes its cultural specificity (Dickason and Cervantes: 1998). For instance, we can speak of contemporary British civilization or the one of the nineteenth century. We can also refer to the ancient civilizations which disappeared like the Roman civilization.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, civilization became a commonly used term in the context of teaching French as a foreign language to refer to the cultural content of the language syllabus.

The word culture is also difficult to define, and Raymond Williams (1983: 87) describes it as “one of the two or three most complicated words in the English language”. In 1952, the American anthropologists Kroaber and Klukhon, who collected and critically reviewed definitions given to the term culture, compiled a list of 164 different definitions.

Culture is a complex concept partly because it has been studied in a wide range of scientific disciplines like linguistics, anthropology, sociology, cultural studies, and over time researchers in these fields have worked out different definitions of culture from various perspectives. Even in anthropology, the discipline dedicated to the study of culture, there has been no agreement on its definition. The other reason which makes culture a difficult concept to define is that culture is a dynamic and changing phenomenon. The fact that ‘cultures are fluid and mobile’ entails several definitions and views of culture (Zhang, 2012).

The word culture comes from the Latin word “cultus” which means the cultivation of land, animals and crops. This meaning was extended to the cultivation of intellectual and moral faculties. Then, in the nineteenth century, the anthropological definition of culture was formed, meaning the ways of life that characterize different societies.

The term culture was applied to human societies in the second half of the nineteenth human cultivation and refinement of manners (Kroaber and Kluthon, 1952). In actual fact, some German scholars such as Kant, Goethe, and Schiller preferred to use the term “Kultur” (culture) instead of the French word “civilisation”. The German thinker Kant, among others, believed that people establish their everyday way of life by producing and developing through science and technology. Therefore, culture evolves primarily through science, technology and their applications. However, for Kant, this is not enough for a group of people to say that they have culture, because for him the condition of culture is the idea of morality.

While this conception of culture had its supporters in Germany, other scholars in Germany and Europe considered that civilization “bears a rational character required by the progress of physical and material conditions of work, production and technology” (Guy, 1995) while culture refers to the spiritual aspects of the collective life, the fruit of reflection, sensitivity and idealism.

In the 19th century, the terms culture and civilization began to be used interchangeably. In his work, *Primitive Culture,* Edward Burnett Tylor (1871) made no distinction between the two terms:

> Culture or civilization taken in its broad ethnographic sense is that complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society (quoted in Kroaber and Klukhon, 1952: 120).

Tylor’s definition was used by many anthropologists and sociologists. Yet, some theorists linked the concept of civilization with the idea of progress and observed the combination of the term primitive to culture. They concluded that civilization is the highest stage of human achievements whereas the term primitive refers to the beginning of any culture. Fernand Braudel who is a supporter of this view regards culture as only one stage in the evolution of human beings, which is lower than civilization. Civilization in this view was applied to societies characterized by “an advanced stage of

development marked by scientific and technical progress, urbanization and complex social organization" (Guy, 1995). Civilization in this context is also an advanced achievement in literature, philosophy, the arts, social, political and military institutions.

century in Germany in resistance to the French term civilization to refer to high moral

Some contemporary sociologists and anthropologists like Mauss and Durkheim differentiate between the terms culture and civilization by linking the notion of culture to a specific and identifiable society while using civilization to designate specific cultures with mutual affinities or common origins. Therefore, for them civilization describes a broader whole more encompassing in time and space. In this sense we speak of Western civilization in which we find different cultures like the English, the French and the German cultures (Guy: 1995).

Despite this distinction between the words 'culture' and 'civilization', in modern times most sociologists and anthropologists use the term culture as having the same meaning as civilization and consider the two terms as interchangeable.

2- **Definition of Culture in Language Teaching**

As it has been mentioned above, the first definition of culture was given by anthropologists in the 19th century. In anthropology, culture is conceived as the set of distinctive features that characterize the way of life of a certain human community. Many researchers in the field of language teaching and learning endorse this anthropological conception and define culture as the way of life shared by a group of people and the ways this group construct the meanings of their lives and give it expression.

Brooks (1964: 83) defines culture as "the sum of all the learned and shared elements that characterize a social group". Seelye (1993: 26) describes it as a broad concept which covers all aspects of human life; it is everything that humans have learned. For him, culture affects everything people do in their society because of the shared views, ideas and the normative or expected patterns of behaviour.

For H.D. Brown (2007: 112) culture is a way of life. He defines it as "the ideas, customs, skills, arts, and tools that characterize a group of people in a given period of time". In his view, culture is the context in which a group of people exist, feel, think and relate to others.

Like H.D. Brown, Liddicoat et al. (2003: 45) define culture as "a complex system of concepts, attitudes, values, beliefs, conventions, behaviours, practices, rituals and lifestyles of the people who make up a cultural group, as well as the artifacts they produce and the

institutions they create". Therefore, culture is all what people think, do and have. It is all that characterizes their uniqueness and distinguishes them from other people.

We can deduce from the above definitions that culture is a set of learned values and meanings which are shared by a group of people and which guide their actions as well as the products resulting from these actions like art, architecture, institutions, etc. This means that culture includes attitudes, behaviours and products.

Other researchers emphasize the dynamic, on-going nature of culture. For Zhang

(2012: 18), culture is fluid, multiple and porous. It evolves and is constantly changing.

Culture can also be discussed in relation with a specific period, like the Greek culture and

the Victorian culture, or in relation with a specific society like, for instance, British culture,

and Afro-American culture.

3- Civilization and Culture Term Use in Foreign Language Teaching

In language teaching, civilization, is applied to that part of a language course that provides socio-cultural knowledge to complement and contextualize language learning (Byram: 2004, 108). It is taught to give learners useful knowledge about the countries whose language they study: its people, geography, history, culture, economy and politics. The same course is known as area studies in Britain, landeskunde in Germany, Civilita in Italy and Culture studies in the USA. All these terms refer to teaching culture in the language classroom. As pointed out by Kramsch (1993:8) "culture … is called (Fr.) civilisation, (G.) landeskunde, or (Eng.) culture".

As a subject of study, civilization is an interdisciplinary field dealing with the study of a specific country. Bassnet (1997) states that cultural studies in ELT programme provides a bridge between language study and social sciences. It incorporates disciplines like history, geography, sociology, ethnology and literature (For further insight see Révauger, 1994). Lazar et al. (2007:7)

notes that subjects like literature, geography, history and the arts are often placed under the umbrella term of civilization. Besides, in the twentieth century, contributions from cultural studies and anthropology made the concepts of civilization and culture richer and more complex. The concept of culture as 'a whole way of life' became considered an important part of civilization classes. (Zhang, 2012: 25). According to Kerl (1994:6) civilization can be taught from a social science standpoint, or under a literature-based approach or as a "Cultural Studies" provided there is a link to the target country.

Rollet (1997: 130) states that after a symposium on the teaching of French civilization held in 1970 in Santiago, the term 'civilization became used as the equivalent

of culture. It is the latter term as a collective noun referring to both the facts of civilization and to information about the beliefs, customs, social practices, values and behavior that was emphasized. In the same vein, Galisson and Coste (1988, quoted in Byram 2004:108) assert that the definition of civilization in language teaching is associated with "the characteristic features of a given society".

Speaking about civilization in foreign language teaching, Wade (1961:559) notes that "every civilization is composed of a language, a geography, an ethnography. It is also made up of arts and letters, political and social institutions, and manners and customs. It has had a history, and it has developed a way of looking at life".

Poirier (1994) defines civilization in foreign language teaching as follows: "By civilization we mean the study of all the cultural features whether cultural, ethnographic, religious, technical, or aesthetic which during the course of history have marked the societies whose language we study".

Dickason and Cervantes (1998: 17) note that in foreign language teaching:

> To speak of civilization is to speak of space, time, mentalities, it is to take into account continuity, that is to say history, it is to know the routes already traveled, it is to know the existence of events, of exceptional characters, those who own the duration, and it is also to question attitudes to life, death, pain, work, fun, family, religion, etc.

For Claire Kramsch (1993: 3) culture has three components:

1- The synchronic layer or "day to day civilization" (Rollet 1997: 133), or the social dimension of a group's identity, includes the social conventions like attitudes and behaviours that arise out of the use of a language shared by a social group.

2- The diachronic layer, or the historical dimension, includes the shared traditions and history of a group and their artistic and intellectual achievements throughout history (cultivated culture).

3- The cultural imagination, which includes the shared imaginings and dreams of a group.

Ideally, any study of culture should take all of these components into consideration.

It is also worth noting that in the Algerian-specific context, where the French language is influential, the term civilization is employed in EFL Departments.

References

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- Brooks, N. (1964). *Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice (2n* ed.).

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- Kroeber, A.L. and Kluckhohn, C. (1952) *Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions*. The Museum,(47).
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- Zhang, Y. (2012). *Pour une approche interculturelle de l'enseignement de Français comme spécialité en milieu universitaire chinois.* (doctorate thesis), University of Maine.

II- British Culture/ Civilization

Physical Geography of the British Isles

I- The Country

The country's full title for constitutional and political purposes is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, although the short terms 'UK' and 'Britain' are normally used for convenience. It is part of that group of islands, described geographically as the British Isles, that lie off the northwest coast of continental Europe. The mainlands of England, Scotland and Wales form the largest island and are known politically as Great Britain. Northern Ireland shares the second largest island with the Republic of Ireland (Ireland or Eire), which has been independent of Britain since 1921. Smaller islands, such as Anglesey, the Isle of Wight, the Orkneys, Shetlands, Hebrides and Scillies, lie off the coasts and are part of the British political union.

The Isle of Man in the Irish Sea and the Channel Islands (Bailiwicks of Jersey and Guernsey) off the French west coast are not, however, part of the United Kingdom. They are self-governing Crown Dependencies that have a historical relationship with the British Crown and possess their own independent legal systems, legislatures and administrative structures. However, the British government is responsible for their defence and foreign relations and can interfere if good administration is not maintained.

II- Physical Features

Historically, Britain's physical features have influenced human settlement, population movements, military conquest and political union. They have also conditioned the location and exploitation of industry, transport systems, agriculture, fisheries, woodlands, energy supplies and communications.

Great Britain lies between latitudes 49° and 59° N (the Shetland Islands reach to nearly 61° N), and longitudes 8° W to 2° E. The country is thus marked by 0° longitude, which passes through the

international time zone of Greenwich east of London. Britain lies within only 10° of latitude and has a small and compact size when compared with some European countries. Yet it also possesses a great diversity of physical features, which surprises those visitors who expect a mainly urban and industrialized country. The many beauty spots and recreation areas, such as the 10 National Parks in England and Wales and areas of natural beauty in Scotland and Northern Ireland, may be easily reached without much expenditure of time or effort. Britain's physical area amounts to some 93,025 sq. miles (242,842 sq. km). Most of this is land and the rest comprises inland water such as lakes and rivers. England has 50,052 sq. miles (129,634 sq. km), Wales has 7,968 (20,637), Scotland has 29,799 (77,179) and Northern Ireland has 5,206 (13,438). England is therefore much larger than the other countries. It also has a bigger population of 48,708,000 out of a UK total of 58,395,000. These factors partly explain the English dominance in British history.

The distance from the south coast of England to the most northerly tip of the Scottish mainland is 600 miles (955 km), and the English east coast and the Welsh west coast are 300 miles (483 km) apart at their widest points. These relatively small distances have aided the development of political union and communications and contributed to standardized social, economic and institutional norms.

The geological and weathering changes shaped the details of valleys and plains and dictated the siting of Britain's major rivers, such as the Clyde, Forth and Tweed in Scotland; the Tyne, Trent, Humber, Severn and Thames in England and Wales; and the Bann and Lagan in Northern Ireland.

The sea's retreat has created chalk and lime-stone uplands, and sand beaches along many coasts, while erosion has resulted in the loss of land in some places. Britain was originally part of the European mainland, but the melting of the glaciers in the last Ice Age caused the sea level to rise. The country was separated from the continent by the North Sea at its widest point, and by the English Channel at its narrowest point. The shortest stretch of water between the two land masses is now the Strait of Dover between Dover in southern England and Calais in France (20 miles, 32 km). There are many bays, inlets, peninsulas and estuaries along the coasts and most places in Britain are less than 75 miles (120 km) from some kind of tidal water. Tides on the coasts and in inland rivers can cause flooding in many parts of the country.

The coastal seas are not deep and are often less than 300 feet (90 m) because the greater part of the British Isles lies on the Continental Shelf, or raised sea-bed adjacent to the mainland. The warm North Atlantic Current (Gulf Stream) heats the sea and air as it travels from the Atlantic Ocean across the Shelf. This gives the British Isles a more temperate climate than would otherwise be the case, when one considers their northerly position.

Britain's physical relief can be divided into highland and lowland Britain. The highest ground is mainly in the north and west. Most of the lowland zones, except for the Scottish Lowlands and central areas of Northern Ireland, are in the south and east of the country, where only a few points reach 1,000 feet (305 m) above sea level.

The north and west consist of the older, harder rocks created by the ancient earth movements, which are generally unsuitable for cultivation. The south and east comprise younger, softer materials formed by weathering processes that have produced fertile soils and good agricultural conditions.

II-1- England

England (population 48,708,000) consists largely of undulating or flat lowland countryside, with highland areas in the north and south-west. Eastern England has the low-lying flat lands of the Norfolk Broads, the Cambridgeshire and Lincolnshire Fens and the Suffolk Marshes. Low hill ranges stretch over much of the country, such as the North Yorkshire Moors, the Cotswolds, the Kent and Sussex Downs and the Chiltern Hills.

Highland zones are marked by the Cheviot Hills (between England and Scotland); the north-western mountain region of the Lake District and the Cumbrian Mountains; the northern plateau belt of the Pennines forming a backbone across north-west England; the Peak District at the southern reaches of the Pennines; and the south-western plateau of Devon and Cornwall. The heaviest population concentrations centre on the largest towns and cities, such as London and in south-east England generally; the West Midlands region around Birmingham; the Yorkshire cities of Leeds, Bradford and Sheffield; the northwestern industrial area around Liverpool and Manchester; and the north-east region comprising Newcastle and Sunderland.

II-2- Wales

Wales (population 2,913,000) is mainly a highland country, with long stretches of moorland plateau, hills and mountains, which are often broken by deep valleys, such as those created by the rivers Dee, Wye and Severn. This upland mass contains the Cambrian Mountains and descends eastwards into the English counties of Shropshire and Hereford and Worcester. The highest mountains are in Snowdonia in the north-west, where the dominant peak is that of Snowdon (3,560 feet, 1,085 m). The lowland zones are restricted to the narrow coastal belts and to the lower parts of the river valleys in south Wales, where two-thirds of the Welsh population live. The chief urban concentrations of people and industry are around the bigger southern cities, such as the capital Cardiff, Swansea and Newport, and to a lesser extent in the north-east of the country.

II-3- Scotland

Scotland (population 5,132,000) may be divided into three main areas. The first is the North-West and Central Highlands (Grampians), together with a large number of islands off the west and north-east coasts. These areas are thinly populated, but comprise half the country's land mass. The second is the Central Lowlands, which contain one-fifth of the land area but three quarters of the Scottish population, most of the industrial and commercial centres and much of the cultivated land. The third is the Southern Uplands, which cover a number of hill ranges stretching towards the border with England. The Highlands, with their inland lochs and fiord coastlines, and the Southern Uplands are now smooth, rounded areas since the originally jagged mountains formed by earth movements have been worn down over time. The highest point in the Central Highlands is Ben Nevis (4,406 feet, 1,342 m), which is also the highest place in Britain.

The main population concentrations are around the administrative centre and capital of Edinburgh; the commercial and industrial area of Glasgow; and the regional centres of Aberdeen (an oil industry city) and Dundee. The climate, isolation and harsh physical conditions in much of Scotland have made conquest, settlement and agriculture difficult.

II-4- Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland (population 1,642,000) has a north-east tip that is only 13 miles (21 km) from the Scottish coast, a fact that has encouraged both Irish and Scottish migration. Since 1921, Northern Ireland has had a 303-mile (488-km) border in the south and west with the Republic of Ireland. It has a rocky northern coastline, a south-central fertile plain and mountainous areas in the west, northeast and south-east. The south-eastern Mourne Mountains include the highest peak, Slieve Donard, which is 2,796 feet (853 m) high. Lough Neagh (147 sq. miles, 381 sq. km.) is Britain's largest freshwater lake and lies at the centre of the country. Most of the large towns, like the capital Belfast, are situated in valleys that lead from the Lough. Belfast lies at the mouth of the river Lagan and has the biggest population concentration. But Northern Ireland generally has a sparse and scattered population and is a largely rural country.

III- Climate

III-1 Temperature

The relative smallness of the country and the influences of a warm sea and westerly winds mean that there are no extreme contrasts in temperature throughout Britain. The climate is mainly temperate, but with variations between coolness and mildness. Altitude modifies temperatures, so that much of Scotland and highland areas of Wales and England are cool in summer and cold in winter compared with most of England. Temperatures rarely reach 32°C (90°F) in the summer or fall below–10°C (14°F) in the winter.

III-2-Rainfall

The main factors affecting rainfall in Britain are depressions (low pressure areas) that travel eastwards across the Atlantic Ocean; prevailing south-westerly winds throughout much of the year; exposure of western coasts to the Atlantic Ocean; and the fact that most high ground lies in the west. As a result, the heaviest annual rainfalls are in the west and north (over 60 inches, 1,600 mm), with an autumn or winter maximum. The high ground in the west protects the lowlands of the south and east, so that annual rainfall here is moderate (30 inches, 800 mm), with a slight summer maximum. The total national

rainfall average is over 40 inches (1,100 mm) annually; March to June tend to be the driest months; September to January the wettest. **III-3-Sunshine**

The amount of sunshine in Britain varies between regions. It decreases from south to north; inland from the coastal belts; and with altitude. In summer, the average daily sunshine varies from five hours in northern Scotland to eight hours on the Isle of Wight. In winter, it averages one hour in northern Scotland and two hours on the English south coast. These average statistics indicate that Britain is not a particularly sunny country, although there are periods of relief from the general greyness.

IV- Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry

IV-1-Agriculture

Britain's long agricultural history includes a series of revolutions in farming methods. Today, agriculture (including horticultural products such as apples, berries and flowers) is an important industry and covers most of the country. It is very productive, efficient, mechanized and specialized. Technical advances have increased crop and animal yields and income from farming has risen considerably since 1995, although some small farmers do have difficulty in surviving. Soils vary in quality from the thin, poor ones of highland Britain to the rich, fertile land of low-lying areas in eastern and southern England. The climate usually allows a long, productive growing season without undue drought or extreme cold. But weather conditions can create problems for farmers because of droughts or when there is too much rain and too little sunshine at ripening time. There are 235,000 farm units, varying in size from small farms to huge business concerns, and many of them are owner-occupied.

They use 77% of the land area, although there is concern that farmland is being increasingly used for building and recreational purposes. Only some 600,000 people (2.1% of the workforce) are engaged in farming. But agriculture provides two-thirds of Britain's food needs, agricultural products and machinery contribute 1.5% to the GDP (Gross Domestic Product) and exports continue to grow. Half the full-time farms specialize in dairy farming, beef cattle and sheep herds in Scotland, Northern Ireland, Wales and northern and south-western England. The tradition of sheep farming, on which Britain's prosperity was once based, continues. Dairy herds and milk yields have increased and two-thirds of beef consumption comes from the national stock. But concerns about BSE (Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy) in cows and its possible link to CJD (Creutzfeldt-Jakob Disease) in humans led to a European Union worldwide ban (1996) on British beef and consequent damage to the beef market.

Some farms concentrate on pig production, particularly in eastern and northern England and Northern Ireland. The poultry meat and egg industries are also widespread and have increased their production levels in recent years, due largely to intensive 'factory farming', so that Britain is now almost self-sufficient in these foodstuffs. Most of the other farms (mainly in southern and eastern England and in eastern Scotland) tend to specialize in arable crops and have increased their production, despite occasional bad harvests. Wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, oilseed rape, sugar beet and vegetables are widely cultivated.

IV-2- Fisheries

Britain is one of Europe's leading fishing nations and operates in the North Sea, the Irish Sea and the Atlantic. The fishing industry is important to the national economy and is centred on a number of ports around the British coasts. However, employment in and income from fishing have declined substantially in recent years. This is partly due to fluctuations in fish breeding patterns and a reduction in fish stocks because of overfishing. Many fishermen have become unemployed and fishing towns, such as Grimsby and the Scottish ports, have suffered. But the fishing industry still accounts for 59% of Britain's fish consumption. Fishermen now number about 17,000 with some 5,000 occasionally employed and three jobs in associated occupations for every one fisherman.

The most important British fish catches are cod, haddock, whiting, herring, mackerel, plaice and sole, which are caught by the 9,313 registered vessels of the fishing fleet. The fish farming industry is a large and expanding business, particularly in Scotland, and is chiefly concerned with salmon, trout and shellfish. Fish meal and fish oil are important by-products of the fishing industry and fish imports continue. But the import of whale products has been banned since 1982 in order to protect the whale population.

IV-3- Forestry

Woodlands cover an estimated 5.9 million acres (2.4 million hectares) of Britain and comprise 7% of England, 15% of Scotland, 12% of Wales and 6% of Northern Ireland. These figures amount to some 10% of total land area, which is considerably below the European average. Some 37% of productive national forests are managed by the state Forestry Commission or government departments and the rest by private owners. About 34,000 people are employed in the state and private forestry industries and 10,000 are engaged in timber processing. However, these activities contribute only 15% to the national consumption of wood and associated timber products, which means that the country is heavily dependent upon wood imports. The government has encouraged tree planting programmes, particularly in Scotland and Wales, and allowed the sale of state woodlands to private owners in order to reduce public expenditure and to encourage productivity.

V- Energy resources

Britain has considerable energy resources and its primary sources are oil, gas, nuclear power, coal and water. The most important secondary source is electricity. Some 200,000 people work in the energy production business, which accounts for 5% of the GDP, and three of Britain's largest companies (Shell, BP and British Gas) are in this sector. But there are problems associated with energy sources and concerns about pollution and environmental damage. Many energy industries have also been privatized in recent years, leading to criticisms about their services, effectiveness and regulation. Since 1980, Britain has produced an increased amount of its energy needs and is largely self-sufficient. This is due to the growth in offshore oil and gas supplies, which make a crucial contribution to the economy.

Development of existing resources and the search for alternative forms of energy are crucial for Britain and its economy. As oil and gas decline, the positions of coal and nuclear power are debated and further research is needed into renewable energy such as solar, wind, wave and tidal power. Coal is an important natural energy resource, but there are objections to its use on pollution and cost grounds.

Electricity generation and distribution is now privatized and mainly provided by coal-, gas-and oil-fired power stations, in addition to a small amount of hydro-electricity. But 27% of electricity is produced by thirteen nuclear power stations of various types. Alternative forms of renewable energy are becoming more important. Electricity generation by wind power is already operative, although there is public opposition to wind farms in the countryside.

VI- Transport and Communications

Transport and communications are divided between the public and private sectors of the economy, although many state businesses have now been privatized. Roads, railways, shipping and civil aviation provide the country's transport system. British Telecom, competing telecommunications companies and the Post Office supply most communications needs.

VI-1-Transport

Central and local government are responsible for the *road network* in Britain. Various types of public roads make up most of the highway system. The rest are motorways and trunk roads, which nevertheless carry most of the passenger traffic and heavy goods vehicles. There are 25 million licensed vehicles, of which 21 million are private cars; 2.2 million light goods vehicles; 421,000 heavier commercial lorries; 594,000 motor cycles, scooters and mopeds; and 74,000 buses, coaches and taxis. Car transport is most popular and accounts for 86% of passenger mileage, while buses and coaches take 6%. Britain has one of the highest densities of road traffic in the world, but also a relatively good safety record in which road accidents continue to decrease.

The world's first public passenger steam *railway* opened in 1825 between Stockton and Darlington in north-east England. After 100 years of private operation, the railways became stateowned in 1947, only to be privatized in 1997. Rail accounts for 5% of passenger mileage. Rail passenger services consist of a fast inter-city network, linking all the main British centres; local trains that supply regional needs; and commuter services in and around the large areas of population, particularly London and south-east England. Increased electrification of lines and the introduction of fast diesel trains such as the Intercity 125s travelling at a maximum speed of 125 mph (201 km/h), have improved rail journeys considerably.

The *Channel Tunnel,* privately run by a French/British company (Eurotunnel), opened for commercial use in 1994. It was meant to improve passenger and freight rail travel between Britain and

mainland Europe and has succeeded in taking business from sea/ferry services. Although there are over 300 *ports* in Britain, most are small concerns that do not handle much cargo or passenger shipping. The bigger ports, such as Clyde, Dover, Tees, London, Southampton, Grimsby, Hull, Felixstowe, Liverpool, Cardiff and Swansea, service most of the country's trade and travel requirements. But 77% of Britain's overseas trade is still carried by sea, although passenger mileage has been much reduced.

Britain's *civil aviation* system accounts for 1% of passenger mileage and is in the private sector following the privatization of the former state airline, British Airways, in 1987. There are other carriers, such as British Midland, Britannia Airways and Virgin Atlantic, that run scheduled and charter passenger services on domestic and international routes. All are controlled by the Civil Aviation Authority (CAA), an independent body that regulates the industry and air traffic control, and which may be privatized. The airlines also provide air cargo and freight services. There are 142 licensed civil aerodromes in Britain, varying considerably in size. Heathrow and Gatwick Airports outside London are the largest. These airports, together with Stansted in south-east England and Glasgow, Edinburgh and Aberdeen in Scotland, are owned and managed by the private sector British Airports Authority (BAA). They deal with about 73% of air passengers and 84% of air cargo in Britain.

VI-2- Communications

Communications systems in Britain are also divided between the public and private sectors. The main suppliers are the private British Telecom and the public Post Office. *British Telecom (BT)* was privatized in 1984 and provides telephone and telecommunications systems domestically and internationally. It is responsible for 20 million domestic and 6million business telephone subscribers, public payphones, telephone exchanges and telex connections.

The private company, Mercury, competes fiercely with British Telecom, and other competitors, such as cable networks, have also been licensed to provide telecommunications facilities.

The *Post Office,* established in 1635, is a state industry and is responsible for collecting, handling and delivering some 70 million letters and parcels every day. It has sorting offices throughout the country with sophisticated handling equipment, based on the postcodes allotted to every address in Britain. Nowadays, the Post Office is also facing substantial competition from e-mail, Internet and mobile phone users.

VII- Attitudes to the Environment

There is public concern about pollution, traffic congestion, the quality of the natural habitat, the use of energy sources and the safety of agricultural products. A 1997 MORI poll found that 60% of respondents felt that environmental problems were damaging their health (an increase from 53% in 1992). A majority stated that protection of the environment should rate higher than economic growth; environmental problems should be tackled; and they were prepared to make sacrifices to see the environment cleaned up and wildlife conserved. Governments have introduced Environmental Protection Acts and other measures to safeguard the environment, reduce pollution levels and penalize polluters. European Union legislation also makes very stringent demands.

There are environmental concerns about the burning of fossil fuels (coal, oil and gas), global warming and the damage to the countryside caused by new developments. Nuclear expansion was halted briefly because of public opposition to nuclear facilities, the danger of radioactive leaks, the reprocessing of nuclear waste at the Thorp and Sellafield plants in north-west England and the dumping of radioactive waste. There is still much debate about the future of nuclear power. Considerable public worry surrounds the agricultural industry because of its widespread use of fertilizers and pesticides, its methods of animal feeding and the effects of intensive farming on the environment.

Environmentalists are also concerned about protection of the countryside. Agricultural land is used for building and recreational purposes; there has been an increase in urban and suburban sprawl as house building encroaches into rural areas; new towns are proposed to cater for an estimated need of 4.4 million new homes; and giant supermarkets or shopping centres are increasingly located in the countryside. The amount of agricultural, forestry and other green field land lost to building developments rose considerably between 1984 and 1990. A Research Survey of Great Britain (1997) found that 80 per cent of people were worried about the future of the countryside and 69 per cent wanted to stop housing and road schemes that damaged the environment.

British Population: Early Settlements and Invasions

I. The Origins: The Iberians

The Iberians reached and peopled Britain between 3000 and 2000 BC. Although little is certainly known about this race of the New Stone Age, a good deal may be inferred with reasonable safety since they have left their marks clearly upon the face of the land. They were mainly a small, dark-haired, long-headed race. They were not mere savages as some have tried to depict them, and many archaeological evidences show how they were able to raise themselves from savagery to civilized life during the New Stone Age and the Bronze Age. They were using sharpened flint as weapons for hunting, and were also shepherds, farmers and metal-workers. With the passing of time, they shifted from the primitive, small political units of the tribe to much higher political organizations. Moreover, oriental merchants, Egyptians, Phoenicians sailed by the British Isles thousand of years before our era, and they taught the Iberians how to improve their agricultural implements as well as how to establish a ship-building industry.

II. The Celts

From the 7th and 3rd century BC, the Celtic tribes, originally occupying Northwestern Germany and the Netherlands were moving across Europe in many directions. The Celtic invaders of Britain came in successive tribal waves and were mutually hostile to each other. Each tribe had, probably, its own dialect and among the most prominent ones there is Erse, Gaelic and Welsh.

The Celts were tall, light-haired warriors, skilful in ironworking. They privileged hunting, fishing, herding, weaving, metalwork, carpentry and fighting over agriculture. They lived in houses called “trevs” or “hamlets”. The Celts, like the Iberians, remained tribesmen or clansmen, and they designated their most courageous and powerful heroes as their chief and king over all the tribes.

Several waves of Celtic peoples entered Britain by the lowlands of South and East, and they slaughtered, subdued and chased away the Iberian race as well as the people of their own kinsfolk who settled there before them. With time, the fair-haired Celts became an aristocracy in the island and owned slaves and serfs among the Iberian people.

The Celts of the British Island formed strong alliances with their brothers in continental Europe, especially with the Celtic tribes of Northern Gaul. These feelings of kinsmenship became most significant when the Romans invaded and subdued the Northern Gallic tribes. The Britons sent over ships and men and offered a secured refuge for the Gallic warriors; and this represented one of the direct causes of Caesar’s invasion of Britain in 55-54 BC.

III. The Romans

The name « Britain » comes from the word « Pretani », the Greco-Roman word for the inhabitants of Britain. The Romans mispronounced the word and called the island “Britannia”.

The Romans had invaded because the Celts of Britain were working with the Celts of Gaul against them. The British Celts were giving them food, and allowing them to hide in Britain. There was another reason. The Celts used cattle to pull their ploughs and this meant that richer, heavier land could be farmed. Under the Celts Britain had become an important food producer because of its mild climate. It now exported corn and animals, as well as hunting dogs and slaves, to the European mainland. The Romans could make use of British food for their own army fighting the Gauls.

The Romans brought the skills of reading and writing to Britain. While the Celtic peasantry remained illiterate and only Celtic speaking, a number of town dwellers spoke Latin and Greek with ease, and the richer landowners in the country almost certainly used Latin.

Julius Caesar first came to Britain in 55 BC, but it was not until almost a century later, in AD 43, that a Roman army actually occupied Britain.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.

The Romans could not conquer “Caledonia”, as they called Scotland, although they spent over a century trying to do so. At last they built a strong wall along the northern border, named after the Emperor Hadrian who planned it. At the time, Hadrian’s Wall was simply intended to keep out raiders from the north. But it also marked the border between the two later countries, England and Scotland.

In the last hundred years of Roman government Christianity became firmly established across Britain, both in Roman-controlled areas and beyond. However, the Anglo-Saxons belonged to an older Germanic religion, and they drove the Celts into the west and north. In Celtic areas (Wales, Ireland and Scotland) Christianity continued to spread, bringing paganism to an end.

Roman control of Britain came to an end as the empire began to collapse. The first signs were the attacks by Celts of Caledonia in AD 367. The Roman legions found it more and more difficult to stop the raiders from crossing Hadrian’s Wall. The same was happening on the European mainland as Germanic groups, Saxons and Franks, began to raid the coast of Gaul. In AD 409 Rome pulled its last soldiers out of Britain and the Romano-British, the Romanised Celts, were left to fight alone against the Scots, the Irish and Saxon raiders from Germany.

IV. The Saxon Invasion

The wealth of Britain by the fourth century, the result of its mild climate and centuries of peace, was a temptation to the greedy. At first Germanic tribes only invaded Britain, but after AD 430 they began to settle. The invaders came from three powerful Germanic tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and Jutes. The Anglo-Saxon migrations gave the larger part of Britain its name, England, “the land of the Angles”.

The British Celts fought the raiders and settlers from Germany as well as they could. However, during the next hundred years they were driven into the mountains in the far west, which the Saxons called “Weallas”, or “Wales, meaning “the land of the “foreigners”.

Some Celts were driven into Cornwall, were they later accepted the rule of Saxon lords. In the North, other Celts were drawn into the lowlands of the country which became known as Scotland. Some Celts stayed behind, and many became slaves of the Saxons. Hardly anything is left of Celtic language and culture in England, except for the names of some rivers like Thames and Avon, and two large cities, London and Leeds.

The strength of Anglo-Saxon culture is obvious even today. Days of week are named after Germanic gods: Tig (Tuesday), Wodin (Wednesday), Thor (Thursday), Frei (Friday) New place names appeared on the map like Birmingham, Nottingham and Southampton which are Saxon place names. The Anglo-Saxons established a number of kingdoms, some of which still exist in county or regional or regional names to this day: Essex, Sussex, Middlesex. By the middle of the Seventh century the three largest kingdoms, those of Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex were the most powerful. It was not until a century later that one of these kings, king Offa of Mercia (757-96), claimed “kingship of the English”. However, The power of Mercia did not survive after Offa’s death.

VI. The Vikings

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

In 865 the Vikings invaded Britain once it was clear that the quarrelling Anglo-Saxon kingdoms could not keep them out. This time they came to conquer and settle. The Vikings quickly accepted Christianity and did not disturb the local population. By 875 only King Alfred in the west of Wessex held out against the Vikings, who had already taken most of England. After some serious defeats, Alfred won a decisive battle in 878, and eight years later he captured London. He was strong enough to make a treaty with the Vikings. Viking rule was recognised in the east and north of England. In the rest of the country Alfred was recognised as King.

VII. The Norman Conquest

Duke William of Normandy (called William the Conqueror) conquered England in 1066. He was crowned king of England in Edward’s new church of Westminster Abbey on Christmas day (1066).

Although was now crowned king, his conquest had only 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. 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. William gave the Saxon lands to his Norman nobles.

Results of Norman Conquests

-Anglo-Saxon culture and literature were destroyed through adoption of the French language in leading centres. The English language, however, finally prevailed, enriched by French terms chiefly pertaining to political and cultural life.

-Division of nation into privileged Normans and suppressed Saxons caused bitterness and hatred.

-French chivalric feudalism led to clearer class divisions: namely barons, knights, serfs, including the former peasants and slaves.

-Connection with France (Normandy being now ruled by England) brought political disadvantages (neglect of England through frequent absence of the king), but an immense enrichment of of literature and art: Most of principle English cathedrals were built in the Norman style within 30 years after the conquest.

The People and Immigration

The British Isles have attracted settlers and immigrants throughout most of their history. The contemporary British are consequently composed of people from worldwide origins. They are mainly divided into the English, Scots, Welsh and Irish, who themselves have mixed roots derived from early settlement and invasion patterns. There are also immigrant minorities with their own cultures who have come to Britain over the centuries. Even the English language, which binds most of these people together linguistically, is a blend of Germanic, Romance and other world languages. This historical development has created a contemporary society with multinational and multiracial characteristics. But it also raises questions about the meaning of 'Britishness' and national identity.

I- Early settlement to AD 1066

There is no accurate picture of what the early settlement of Britain was actually like. Historians and archaeologists are constantly revising traditional theories about the gradual growth of the country as new evidence comes to light. The earliest human bones found (1994) in Britain are 500,000 years old. The first people were Palaeolithic (Old Stone Age) nomads from mainland Europe, who were characterized by their use of rudimentary stone implements. They travelled to Britain by land and sea, especially at those times when the country was joined to the European land mass. Later settlers in the Mesolithic and Neolithic (New Stone Age) periods between 8300 and 2000 BC had more advanced skills in stone carving. Some came from north-central Europe and settled in eastern Britain. Others arrived by sea from Iberian (Spanish- Portuguese) areas and populated south-west England, Ireland, Wales, the Isle of Man and western Scotland.

Arguably these are the oldest large sections of British society, whose descendants live today in the same western parts. Neolithic groups built large wood and stone monuments, like Stonehenge, and later arrivals introduced a Bronze Age culture. Between 800 and 200 BC there was a movement of Celtic peoples into Britain from mainland Europe, who brought an Iron Age civilization with them. This Celtic population was then overcome by Belgic tribes (also of Celtic origin) around 200 BC, when the first major armed invasions of Britain took place. The Belgic tribes (or Britons) were in their turn subjected to a series of Roman expeditions from 55 BC. The Roman military occupation of much of Britain lasted from AD 43 until AD 409.

After Roman withdrawal, Angles and Saxons from north-central Europe invaded the country. They either mixed with the existing population or pushed it westwards. The country was divided into mainly Anglo-Saxon zones in England, with Celtic areas in Wales, Scotland and Ireland. All regions

suffered from Scandinavian military invasions in the eighth and ninth centuries AD. This early history was completed when the Anglo-Saxons were defeated by French-Norman invaders at the Battle of Hastings in AD 1066 and England was subjected to their rule. The Norman Conquest was an important watershed in English history that greatly influenced the English people and their language, marked the last successful external military invasion of the country and initiated many of the social and institutional frameworks, like a feudal system, that were to characterize future British society. However, Celtic civilizations continued in Wales, Scotland and Ireland. People have entered the British Isles from the south-west, the east and the north.

But settlement was often hindered by climatic and geographical obstacles, particularly in the north and west, so that many newcomers tended to concentrate initially in southern England and settlement patterns were not uniform over all of Britain at the same time. Despite some intermixture between the various settlers, there were racial differences between the English and the people of Ireland, Wales and Scotland, as well as varying identities between groups in the English regions. It is this mixture, increased by later immigration that has produced the present ethnic and national diversity in Britain.

II- Growth and immigration to the twentieth century

Britain grew gradually to statehood after 1066, largely through the political unification of England, Wales, Ireland and Scotland under the English Crown. This process was accompanied by fierce and bloody conflicts between the four nations that resulted in lasting tensions and bitterness. Immigration from abroad also continued over the centuries, due to factors such as religious and political persecution, trade, business and employment. Immigrants have had a significant impact on British society. They have contributed to financial institutions, commerce, industry and agriculture, and influenced artistic, cultural and political developments.

But immigrant activity and success have resulted in jealousy, discrimination and violence from the native population. Britain's growth was conditioned by two major events: first, a series of agricultural changes, and second, a number of later industrial revolutions. Agricultural expansion started with the Saxons who cleared the forests, cultivated crops and introduced inventions and equipment that remained in use for centuries. Their open-field system of farming (with strips of land being worked haphazardly by local people) was later added to by widespread sheep herding and wool production. Finally, after 1760 the open fields were enclosed (divided up into hedged fields for cultivation by individual farmers).

Britain expanded as an agricultural and commercial nation from the eleventh century, and also developed manufacturing industries. Immigration was often characterized by financial and agricultural skills. Jewish money lenders entered Britain with the Norman Conquest, and their financial talents later passed to Lombard bankers from northern Italy. From Saxon times to around 1800, Britain had an agriculturally based economy and some 80 per cent of the people lived in villages in the countryside. Settlement was mainly concentrated in the south and east of England, where the rich agricultural regions of East Anglia and Lincolnshire had the greatest population densities. During the fourteenth century, however, the steady increase of people was halted by a series of plagues, and numbers did not start to increase again for another 100 years.

As agricultural production moved into sheep farming and its associated clothing manufactures, larger numbers of people settled around woollen ports, such as Bristol on the west coast and coastal towns in East Anglia. Others moved to inland cloth producing areas in the West Country, the Cotswolds and East Anglia and contributed to the growth of market towns. The south midland and eastern English counties had the greatest densities of people, and the population at the end of the seventeenth century is estimated at 5.5 million for England and Wales and 1 million for Scotland.

Meanwhile, political and military attempts had long been made by England to unite Wales, Scotland and Ireland under the English Crown. English monarchs tried to conquer or ally themselves with these other countries as a protection against threats from within the British Isles and from continental Europe, as well as for increased power and possessions. Ireland was attacked in the twelfth century. The later colonization and control of Ireland by the English became a source of hatred between the two countries, but it also led to Irish settlements in London and west-coast ports such as Liverpool. Ireland became part of the United Kingdom in 1801, but, after unrest and political agitation, was divided

in 1921 into the two political units of the independent Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland (which remains part of the UK). Wales lost its independence in 1285 after years of bloody conflict with the English, and, apart from a period of freedom in 1402–7, was eventually integrated with England by a series of Acts of Union between 1536 and 1542. The English also tried to conquer Scotland by military force, but were repulsed at the Battle of Bannockburn in 1314. Scotland was then to remain independent until the political union between the two countries in 1707, when the creation of Great Britain (England/Wales and Scotland) took place. However, Scotland and England had shared a common monarch since 1603 when James V of Scotland became James I of England. England, Wales and Scotland had meanwhile become predominantly Protestant in religion as a result of the European Reformation. Ireland, however, remained Catholic and tried to distance itself from England, thus adding religion to colonialism as a foundation for future problems.

Britain therefore is not a single, culturally homogeneous country, but rather a recent and potentially unstable union of four old nations. The political entity called Great Britain is only slightly older than the United States of America, and the United Kingdom (1801) is younger.

Other newcomers continued to arrive from overseas, including gypsies, blacks (associated with the slave trade) and a further wave of Jews, who in 1655 created the first permanent Jewish community. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the country attracted a large number of refugees, such as Dutch Protestants and French Huguenots, who were driven from Europe by warfare, political and religious persecution and employment needs. This talented and urbanized immigration contributed considerably to the national economy, and added a new dimension to a largely agricultural population. But, from around 1700, there was to be no more large immigration into the country for the next 200 years. Britain was exporting more people than it received, mainly to North America and the expanding colonies worldwide.

A second central development in British history was a number of industrial revolutions in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. These transformed Britain from an agricultural economy into an industrial and manufacturing country. Processes based on steam power and the use of coal for generating steam were discovered and exploited. Factories and factory towns were needed to mass-produce new manufactured goods. Villages in the coalfields and industrial areas grew rapidly into manufacturing centres. A drift of population away from the countryside began in the late eighteenth century, as people sought work in mines and factories to escape from rural poverty and unemployment. They moved, for example, to textile mills in Lancashire and Yorkshire and to heavy industries and pottery factories in the West Midlands. The earlier agricultural population changed radically in the nineteenth century into an industrialized workforce.

Industrialization expanded commercial markets. These attracted new immigrants who had the business and financial skills to exploit the industrial wealth. Some newcomers joined City of London financial institutions and the import/export trades, to which they contributed their international connections. Other settlers were involved in a wide range of occupations and trades. Immigration to Britain might have been greater in the nineteenth century had it not been for the attraction of North America, which was receiving large numbers of newcomers from all over the world, including Britain. By the end of the nineteenth century, Britain was the world's leading industrial nation and one of the richest. But it gradually lost its world lead in manufacturing industry, most of which was in native British hands. However, its position in international finance, some of which was under immigrant control, was retained into the twentieth century.

III- Immigration in the twentieth century

Immigrants historically had relatively free access to Britain, but they could be easily expelled, had no legal rights to protect them and had restrictions increasingly imposed upon them. The 1871 census showed that the number of people in Britain born outside the British Empire was only 157,000 out of a population of some 31.5 million.

Despite these low figures, immigration became a topic of public and political concern, which continued through the twentieth century. In the early years of the century, Jews and Poles escaped persecution in Eastern Europe and settled in the East End of London, which has been a traditional area of immigrant concentration. Public demands for immigration control grew, and an anti-foreigner feeling spread, increased by the nationalism and spy mania caused by the First World War (1914–18). But laws

(like the Aliens Act of 1905) that were designed to curtail foreign entry proved ineffective. By 1911, the number of people in Britain born outside the empire was 428,000, or 1 per cent of the population. Despite legal controls, and partly as a result of the 1930s world recession and the Second World War, refugees from Nazi occupied Europe and other immigrants entered Britain. After the war, Poles, Latvians, Ukrainians and other nationalities chose to stay in Britain. Later in the twentieth century, political and economic refugees arrived, such as Hungarians, Czechs, Chileans, Libyans, East African Asians, Iranians and Vietnamese, in addition to other immigrants. Before the Second World War, most Commonwealth immigrants to Britain came from the largely white Old Commonwealth countries of Canada, Australia and New Zealand, and from South Africa. All Commonwealth citizens were allowed free access and were not treated as aliens.

From the late 1940s, however, people from the non-white New Commonwealth nations of India, Pakistan and the West Indies came to Britain (sometimes at the invitation of government agencies) to fill the vacant manual and lower-paid jobs of an expanding economy. West Indians worked in public transport, catering, the Health Service and manual trades in London, Birmingham and other large cities. Indians and Pakistanis later arrived to work in the textile and iron industries of Leeds, Bradford and Leicester.

The number of people in Britain in 1967–8 of non-white origin or descent was estimated at 1,087,000 or 2.2 per cent of the population. The 1991 census classified 94.5 per cent of the population as white, whilst 5.5 per cent (3 million people) described themselves as belonging to non-white groups and 46 per cent were born in Britain. Indians are the largest non-white group, followed by West Indians (Afro-Caribbeans), Pakistanis, black Africans, Bangladeshis and Chinese.

It is important that emigration from Britain should also be considered if the immigration and race debate is to be kept in perspective. Historically, there has usually been a balance of migration, which means that emigration has cancelled out immigration in real terms. But there have been periods of high emigration. Groups left England and Scotland in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to become settlers and colonists in Ireland and North America. Millions in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries emigrated to New Zealand, Australia, South Africa,

Canada, other colonies and the USA. But in 1994, there was a net gain to the population as more people entered the country than left.

IV- Population movements in the twentieth century

Industrial areas with heavy population densities were created in the nineteenth century. But considerable population shifts have occurred in the twentieth century that have been mainly due to economic and employment changes. There was a drift of people away from industrial Tyneside and South Wales during the 1920s and 1930s trade depressions, as coal production, steel manufacture and other heavy industries were badly affected.

Since the 1950s, there has been little increase in population in industrial areas of the Central Lowlands of Scotland, Tyneside, Merseyside, West Yorkshire and South Wales, which have seen a rundown in traditional industries and substantial rises in unemployment. Instead, people moved away from these regions, first to the English Midlands, with their more diversified industries, and then to London and south-east England, where employment opportunities and affluence were greater. But the English Midlands have also suffered economically in recent years, and southern England experienced increased unemployment in the 1988–93 economic recession. The reduction of the rural population and the expansion of urban centres continued into the twentieth century. But, by the middle of the century, there was a movement of people away from the centres of big cities such as London, Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham and Leeds. This was due to bomb damage during the Second World War, slum clearance and the need to use inner-city land for shops, offices, warehouses and transport utilities. New Towns in rural areas and council housing estates outside the inner cities were specifically created to accommodate the displanted population. Road systems were built with motorways and bypasses to avoid congested areas, and rural locations around some cities were designated as Green Belts, in which no building was permitted. Many people choose to live some distance from their workplaces, often in a city's suburbs, neighbouring towns (commuter towns) or rural areas. This has contributed to the decline of the inner-city populations, and one in five British people now live in the countryside with the rest in towns and cities.

In 1995, the population of the United Kingdom was 58,395,000, which consisted of England with 48,708,000, Wales with 2,913,000, Scotland with 5,132,000 and Northern Ireland with 1,642,000. These figures give a population density for the United Kingdom of some 600 persons per square mile (242 per sq. km), which is well above the European Union average. England has an average density of some 930 persons per square mile (373 per sq. km), and this average does not reveal the even higher densities in some areas of the country, such as parts of the south-east. Within Europe, only The Netherlands has a higher population density than England. The British population grew by only 0.3 per cent between 1971 and 1978, which gave it one of the lowest increases in Western Europe. A similarly low growth rate is forecast into the twenty-first century, with the population expected to be some 59.4 million in the year 2011. It is also estimated that the counties of southern and central England will have the highest population growth and that the heaviest population losses will occur on Tyneside and Merseyside.

V- Attitudes to Britishness and national identity

Immigrants have historically been seen by some people as a threat to British moral, social and cultural values, whose presence would radically change the society. This view ignores the difficulty of defining what is meant by such norms at specific times in history. The British Isles have always been culturally and ethnically diverse. There are many differences between the four nations of England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland, and distinctive ways of life within each country. This situation, and the presence of immigrant communities, raise questions about the meaning of contemporary 'Britishness'. The history of the British Isles before the eighteenth century is not about a single British identity or political entity. It is about four different nations and their peoples, who have often been hostile towards one another. 'Britishness' since the 1707 union between England/Wales and Scotland has been largely identified with centralized state institutions, such as monarchy, Parliament and church. It was only in the nineteenth century that concepts of Britishness were increasingly used, and these were tied to the Victorian monarchy and Britain's imperial position in the world. Political terms like 'British' and 'Britain' can thus seem artificial to many of the peoples who comprise the present United Kingdom population and who have retained their individual cultural and national identities. The Scots, Welsh and Northern Irish are largely Celtic peoples, while the English are mainly Anglo-Saxon in origin. It is often argued that the contemporary 'British' do not have a strong sense of a 'British' identity. In this view, there needs to be a rethink of what it means to be British in the contexts of a multinational, multiracial UK and a changing Europe. But some critics suggest that the emphasis should be not so much on examinations of multiculturalism and separate ethnic identities as on a cross-cultural perspective, with influences flowing between different parts of the society. There has obviously been racial and cultural intermixture in Britain over the centuries, which resulted from adaptation by immigrant groups and internal migration between the four nations. Social, political and institutional standardization and a British awareness have been established. However, the British identification is often equated with English norms because political unification occurred under the English Crown, state power is concentrated in London, the English dominate numerically, and because of England's historical role. English nationalism is arguably the most potent of the four nationalisms, and the English have had no real problem with the dual national role. The Scots and Welsh have always been more aware of the difference between their nationalism and Britishness; resent the English dominance; see themselves as very different to the English; and regard their nationalist and cultural feelings as crucial. Their sense of identity is conditioned by the tension between their own distinctive histories and centralized government from London. National identifications have, until recently, been largely cultural, and the British political union was generally accepted in the four nations, except by some people in the minority Catholic population of Northern Ireland. However, political nationalism increased in the 1960s and 1970s in Scotland and Wales. Today it seems that calls for independence in these two nations are not strong, except from the Scottish National Party (SNP) and the Welsh National Party (Plaid Cymru). But the devolution of greater powers of self-government to Scotland and Wales may fuel a movement towards full independence in the two countries, and this goal is held by some 30 per cent of Scottish people.

In Northern Ireland, the social, cultural and political differences between Roman Catholics and Protestants have long been evident and today are often reflected in geographical ghettos. Sizeable groups in both communities feel frustration with the English and hostility towards the British

government in London, but the Protestant Unionists regard themselves as British and wish to continue the union with Britain, whilst many Catholic Nationalists feel Irish and would prefer to be united with the Republic of Ireland. On both sides there is a general interest in the distinctive Northern Irish local culture.

These features suggest that the contemporary British are a very diverse people, particularly when original settlement has been added to by centuries of later immigration. It is consequently as difficult, if not impossible, to find a typical English, Wel sh, Scottish or Irish person who conforms to all or even some of the assumed national stereotypes, as it is to find a typical Briton. Foreigners often have either specific notions of what they think the British are like or, in desperation, seek a unified picture of national character, based sometimes upon quaint traditions or theme-park and tourist views of Britain. The emphasis in this search should perhaps be more upon an examination of diversity in British life. Sometimes, however, the four nations do employ national stereotypes. The English might like to see themselves as calm, reasonable, patient and commonsensical people, who should be distinguished from the excitable, romantic and impulsive Celts. The Celts, on the other hand, may consider the English to be arrogant, patronizing and cold, and themselves as having all the virtues. The English, and sometimes the British as a whole, are often thought of as restrained, reserved, unemotional, private and independent individuals, with a respect for the amateur and the eccentric. Underlying all, there is supposed to be a dry sense of humour that specializes in understatement, irony, self-deprecation and an enjoyment in using the language in very flexible ways. Such qualities may be offset by a certain aggressiveness, stubbornness and lack of cooperation. The British have often been characterized as tolerant and somewhat lazy, with a happy-go-lucky attitude to life. These stereotypes may have some limited value, but cannot be taken to represent the whole truth about the four nations, Britain, or individuals.

Political Institutions in the UK

The United Kingdom of The Great Britain and Northern Ireland

Early political history in the British-Irish Isles is the story of four geographical areas (now England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland) and their turbulent struggles for independent nationhood. But an English political and military expansionism over the centuries conditioned the development of the other three nations. Ireland was controlled by England from the twelfth century; England and Wales were united by the 1536–42 Acts of Union; the thrones of England and Scotland were dynastically amalgamated in 1603; England/ Wales and Scotland were united by the 1707 Acts of Union; and the 1801 Act of Union joined Great Britain and Ireland as the United Kingdom. In this process, English governmental systems were adopted in the modern period for all of Britain. Scotland, the Republic of Ireland, Wales and Northern Ireland regained some of their former political identities only in the twentieth century.

I- The growth of political parties and constitutional structures

The growing power of the English Parliament against the monarch in the seventeenth century saw the development of more organized political parties in Parliament. These derived partly from the religious and ideological conflicts of the Civil War. Two groups (Whigs and Tories) became dominant. This is a characteristic feature of British two-party politics, in which political power generally shifts between two main parties.

Royal powers were further restricted under the Declaration of Rights (1689), which strengthened Parliament. Future monarchs could not reign or act without Parliament's consent and the Act of Settlement (1701) gave religious freedom to all Protestants. The Glorious Revolution affected the constitution and politics. It created a division of powers between an executive branch (the monarch and Privy Council); a parliamentary legislative branch (the House of Commons, the House of Lords and the monarch); and the judiciary (judges independent of monarch and Parliament). Acts of Union joining England/ Wales and Scotland followed in 1707, Scotland lost its Parliament and power was now centralized in the London Parliament.

II- The political framework

Contemporary politics operate on UK, devolved and local government levels. The UK Parliament and government in London organize the UK as a whole. A Parliament in Scotland, Assemblies in Wales and Northern Ireland and a London Authority have varying degrees of devolved self-government. Local government throughout Britain organizes society at local level.

III-1- Local government

Local government has grown through the centuries, particularly in the nineteenth century. It now provides local services throughout the UK, such as education, health, fire services, transport, social services, sanitation and housing, through elected councils. But although people count on the services of local government, the system at present is languishing, is subjected to centralized control and funding and no longer provides the full range of traditional local services.

III-2- Devolution

Devolution (self-government or transfer of some powers from the Westminster Parliament) was first adapted in Ireland. Growing nationalist feelings in the nineteenth century led to calls for Home Rule for Ireland with its own Parliament in Dublin. But early attempts failed. Hostilities continued in the twentieth century until Ireland was partitioned in 1921–22 into the Irish Free State (later the Republic of Ireland), with its own Parliament, and Northern Ireland. The latter had a devolved Parliament (1921–72), but remained part of the UK.

Political nationalism also grew in Wales and Scotland from the 1960s. After failed attempts to give them devolved political power, the Labour government created in 1999–2000 (after referendums) an elected Parliament with legislative and tax-varying powers in Scotland and an elected non-legislative, non-tax-raising elected Assembly in Wales. Northern Ireland achieved an elected Assembly in 2000, which has legislative and executive authority, except for reserved UK powers over policing, security matters, prisons and criminal justice.

Scottish Parliament

Welsh assembly

Northern Ireland assembly

III- Constitution, Monarchy and Privy Council

IV-1-The constitution

Britain is described either as a constitutional monarchy (with the monarch as head of state) or as a parliamentary system, which is divided into legislative, executive and judicial branches. The

Westminster Parliament possesses supreme legislative power in UK matters. The executive UK government governs by passing its policies (many of which are applicable to most of Britain) through Parliament as Acts of Parliament and operates through ministries or departments headed by Ministers or Secretaries of State. The judiciary is independent of the legislative and executive branches of government. The judges of the higher courts determine the law and interpret Acts of Parliament and European Union law.

Britain has no written constitution contained in any one document. Instead, the constitution consists of statute law (Acts of Parliament); common law or judge-made law; conventions (principles and practices of government which are not legally binding but have the force of law): some ancient documents such as Magna Carta; and the new addition of European Union law. These constitutional elements are said to be flexible enough to respond quickly to new conditions. UK law and institutions can be created or changed by the Westminster Parliament through Acts of Parliament. The common or judge-made law can be extended by the judiciary and conventions can be altered, formed or abolished by general agreement.

In constitutional theory, the British people, although subjects of the Crown, have political sovereignty to choose the UK government, while Parliament, consisting partly of elected representatives in the Commons, has legal supremacy to make laws and is the focus of UK sovereignty. But challenges to traditional notions of parliamentary sovereignty have arisen, and the Westminster Parliament is no longer the sole legislative body in Britain. British membership of the European Union (1973) means that EU law is now superior to British national law in certain areas and British courts must give it precedence in cases of conflict between the two systems. EU law coexists with Acts of Parliament as part of the British constitution.

IV-2- The monarchy

The constitutional title of the UK Parliament is the ‘Queen-in-Parliament’. This means that state and government business is carried out in the name of the monarch by the politicians and officials of the system. But the Crown is only sovereign by the will of Parliament and acceptance by the people. The monarchy is the oldest secular institution in Britain and there is hereditary succession to the throne, but only for Protestants. The eldest son of a monarch currently has priority over older daughters.

Royal executive power has disappeared. But the monarch still has formal constitutional roles and is head of state, head of the executive, judiciary and legislature, ‘supreme governor’ of the Church of England and commander-in-chief of the armed forces. Government ministers and officials are the monarch’s servants, and many public office-holders swear allegiance to the Crown. The monarchy is thus a permanent fixture in the British system. It still has a practical and constitutional role to play in the operation of government. The monarch is expected to be politically neutral; is supposed to reign but not

rule; and cannot make laws, impose taxes, spend public money or act unilaterally. The monarch acts only on the advice of political ministers, which cannot be ignored, and contemporary Britain is therefore governed by Her Majesty's Government in the name of the Queen.

The monarch performs important duties such as the opening and dissolving of Parliament; giving the Royal Assent (or signature) to bills which have been passed by both Houses of Parliament; appointing government ministers and public figures; granting honours; leading proceedings of the Privy Council; and fulfilling international duties as head of state. A central power still possessed by the monarch is the choice and appointment of the UK Prime Minister. By convention, this person is normally the leader of the political party which has a majority in the Commons. However, if there is no clear majority or if the political situation is unclear, the monarch could in theory make a free choice. In practice, advice is given by royal advisers and leading politicians in order to present an acceptable candidate.

IV-3- The Privy Council

The ancient Privy Council is still constitutionally tied to the monarchy. Historically, it developed from a small group of royal advisers into the executive branch of the monarch's government. But its powerful position declined in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries as its functions were transferred to a parliamentary Cabinet and new ministries. Today, its members (such as cabinet ministers) advise the monarch on government business which does not need to pass through Parliament and may serve on influential committees.

There are about four hundred Privy Councillors, but the body works mostly through small groups. A full council is summoned only on the death of a monarch and the accession of a new one or when there are constitutional issues at stake. Should the monarch be indisposed, counsellors of state or a regent would work through the Privy Council. Apart from its practical duties and its role as a constitutional forum, the most important tasks of the Privy Council today are performed by its Judicial Committee.

IV- UK Parliament: role, legislation and elections

Houses of Parliament, also called Palace of Westminster, in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the seat of the bicameral Parliament, including the House of Commons and the House of Lords. It is located on the left bank of the River Thames in the borough of Westminster, London.

Members of Parliament MPs

V-1- Role

The UK Parliament is housed in the Palace of Westminster in London. It comprises the non-elected House of Lords, the elected House of Commons and the monarch. The two Houses contain members from England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Irelan
d and represent people with varied backgrounds and traditions. Parliament gathers as a unified body only on ceremonial occasions, such as the State Opening of Parliament by the monarch in the House of Lords. Here it listens to the monarch's speech from the throne, which outlines the UK government's forthcoming legislative programme.

In constitutional theory, Parliament has legal sovereignty in all matters and can create, abolish or amend laws and institutions for all or any part(s) of Britain. In practice, this means the implementation of the government's policies. All three parts of Parliament must normally pass a bill before it can become an Act of Parliament and law. Parliament also votes money to government; examines government policies and administration; scrutinizes European Union legislation; and debates political issues. Politicians are generally sensitive to these conventions and to public opinion. Formal and informal checks and balances, such as party discipline, the Official Opposition, public reaction and pressure groups, normally ensure that Parliament legislates according to its legal responsibility.

V-2- Legislation

House of Lords

The *House of Lords* consists of Lords Temporal and Lords Spiritual. Lords Spiritual are the Archbishops of York and Canterbury and 24 senior bishops of the Church of England. Lords Temporal comprise (1) some 92 peers and peeresses with hereditary titles elected by their fellows; (2) about 577 life peers and peeresses, who have been selected by political parties and an independent Appointments Commission; and (3) the Lords of Appeal (Law Lords). The latter serve the House of Lords as the ultimate court of appeal for many purposes from most parts of Britain. This court does not consist of the whole House, but only of nine Law Lords who have held senior judicial office under the chairmanship of the Lord Chancellor.

House of Commons

The *House of Commons* comprises 659 Members of Parliament (MPs). They are elected by voters (from age eighteen) and represent citizens in Parliament. There are 529 parliamentary seats for England, 40 for Wales, 72 for Scotland and 18 for Northern Ireland. MPs are paid expenses and a salary, which is relatively low for comparable jobs.

The Speaker is the chief officer of the House of Commons; is chosen by MPs; interprets the rules of the House; and is assisted by three deputy speakers. The Speaker is an elected MP who, on election to the Speaker's chair, ceases to be a political representative and becomes a neutral official. The Speaker protects the House against any abuse of procedure by controlling debates and votes. Where there is a tied result, the Speaker has the casting vote, but must exercise this choice so that it reflects established conventions. The Speaker is important for the orderly running of the House. MPs can be very combative and often unruly, so that the Speaker is sometimes forced to dismiss or suspend a member from the House. Debates in both Houses of Parliament usually begin with a motion (or proposal) which is then debated. The matter is decided by a simple majority vote at the end of discussion. In the Commons, MPs enter either the 'Yes' or 'No' lobbies (corridors running alongside the Commons chamber) to record their vote, but they may also abstain from voting.

Sir Lindsay Hoyle elected as House of Commons Speaker
to succeed John Bercow on 4 November 2019.

V-3- UK Parliament elections

The UK is divided for Westminster parliamentary elections to the House of Commons into 659 constituencies (geographical areas of the country containing an average of about 66,000 voters – though some have many more or fewer). Each returns one MP to the House of Commons at a general election. Constituency boundaries are adjusted to ensure fair representation and to reflect population movements. General elections are by ballot, but voting is not compulsory. British, Commonwealth and Irish Republic citizens may vote if they are resident in Britain, included on a constituency register of voters, are aged eighteen or over and not subject to any disqualification. People not entitled to vote include members of the House of Lords; mentally ill patients who are detained in hospital or prison; and persons who have been convicted of corrupt or illegal election practices.

Each elector casts one vote at a polling station set up on election day in a constituency by making a cross on a ballot paper against the name of the candidate for whom the vote is cast. Those who are unable to vote in person in their local constituency can register postal or proxy votes. The candidate who wins the most votes in a constituency is elected MP for that area. This system is known as the simple majority or the 'first-past-the-post' system.

V- The party-political system

British elections at parliamentary, devolved and local levels depend upon the party political system, which has existed since the seventeenth century. For UK parliamentary general elections, the parties present their policies in the form of manifestos to the electorate for consideration during the few weeks of campaigning. A party candidate (chosen by a specific party) in a constituency is elected to the Westminster Parliament on a combination of party manifesto and the personality of the candidate. But party-activity continues outside the election period itself, as the politicians battle for power and the ears of the electorate at all levels.

Most of the MPs in the House of Commons belong to either the Conservative or the Labour Party. This continues the traditional two-party system in British politics, in which power alternates between two major parties.

Jeremy Corbin, leader of the Labour Party

Boris Johnson, leader of the Conservative Party

The Labour Party has historically been a left-of-centre party with its own right and left wings. It emphasized social justice, equality of opportunity, economic planning and the state ownership of industries and services. It was supported by the trade unions (who had been influential in the party's development), the working class and some of the middle class. Its electoral strongholds are historically in Scotland, south Wales and the Midland and northern English industrial cities. But traditional class-based support has changed with more social and job mobility. In the 1990s, the Labour Party tried to

appeal to middle-class voters in southern England and to take account of changing economic and social conditions.

The Conservative Party is a right-of-centre party, which also has right- and left-wing sections. It regards itself as a national party and appeals to people across class barriers. It emphasizes personal, social and economic freedom, individual ownership of property and shares and law and order. The party's strongholds are in southern England, with scattered support elsewhere in the country.

The Liberal Democratics were formed in 1988 when the old Liberal Party and the Social Democratic Party merged into one party. The liberal democrats see themselves as an alternative political force to the Conservative and Labour Parties, based on the centre-left of British politics. Their strengths are in local government, constitutional reform and civil liberties, and opinion polls suggest that they are the most effective opposition to the Labour government at present. They are relatively strong in south-west England, Wales and Scotland and increased their number of MPs at the 2001 general election to become the biggest third party in Parliament since 1929.

Jo Swinson, leader of the Liberal Democratic Party

Smaller parties are also represented in the House of Commons, such as the Scottish National Party; Plaid Cymru (the Welsh National Party); the Ulster Unionists and the Democratic Unionists (Protestant Northern Irish parties); the Social Democratic and Labour Party (moderate Roman Catholic Northern Irish Party); and Sinn Fein (Republican Northern Irish party). Other small parties, such as the Greens and fringe groups, may also contest a general election.

The party which wins most seats in the House of Commons at a general election usually forms the new government, even if it has not obtained a majority of the popular vote (the votes actually cast at an election). A party will have to gather more than 33 per cent of the popular vote before winning a large number of seats, and 40 per cent in order to expand that representation and form a government with an overall majority (a majority over all the other parties counted together). This majority enables it to carry out its election manifesto policies (the mandate theory).

SNP
Scottish National Party

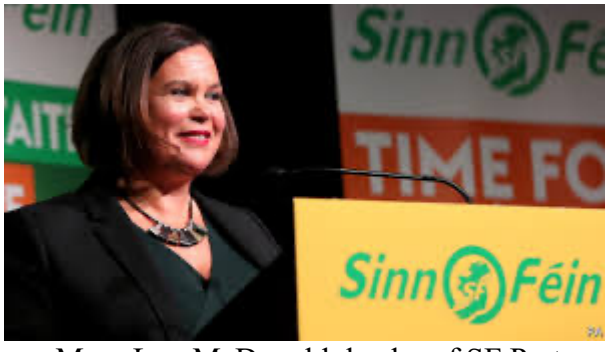
SNP logo

Nicola Sturgeon, leader of the SNP

Adam Price, leader of Plaid Cymru

Mike Nesbitt, leader of UNP Party

Arlene Foster, Leader of DUP



Mary Lou McDonald, leader of SF Party

VI- UK government

The UK government is elected by and serves the whole of Britain. It is centred on Whitehall in London where its ministries and the Prime Minister's official residence (10 Downing Street) are located. It consists of some hundred ministers who can be chosen from both Houses of Parliament and who are appointed by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister. They belong to the majority party in the Commons, from which they derive their authority and are collectively responsible for the administration of national affairs.

VII-1- The Prime Minister is appointed by the monarch and is usually the leader of the majority party in the Commons. His or her power stems from majority support in Parliament; the authority to choose and dismiss ministers; the leadership of the party in the country; and control over policy-making. The Prime Minister sits in the Commons, as do most ministers, where they may be questioned and held accountable for government actions. The Prime Minister was historically the connection between the monarch and Parliament. This convention continues in the weekly audience with the monarch, at which the policies and business of the government are discussed.

The Prime Minister has great power within the British system of government and it is suggested that the office has become like an all powerful executive presidency, which bypasses Parliament and government departments. But there are checks on this power, inside and outside the party and Parliament.

Boris Johnson, UK Prime Minister

VII-2- The Cabinet is a small executive body in the government and usually comprises twenty-one senior ministers, who are chosen and presided over by the Prime Minister. Examples are the Chancellor of the Exchequer (Finance Minister), the Foreign Secretary, the Home Secretary and the Secretary of State for Education and Skills. The Cabinet originated in meetings that the monarch had with ministers in a royal Cabinet. As the monarch withdrew from active politics with the growth of party politics and Parliament, this developed into a parliamentary body.

Constitutional theory has traditionally argued that government rule is Cabinet rule because the Cabinet collectively initiates and decides government policy at its weekly meetings in 10 Downing Street. But this notion has weakened. Since the Prime Minister is responsible for Cabinet agendas and controls Cabinet proceedings, the Cabinet can become a 'rubber-stamp' for policies which have already been decided by the Prime Minister or smaller groups.

Boris Johnson Cabinet

VII-3- Government departments (or ministries) are the chief instruments by which the government implements its policy. A change of government does not necessarily alter the number or functions of departments. Examples of government departments are the Foreign Office, Ministry of Defence, Home Office and the Treasury (headed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer). UK government departments are staffed by the *Civil Service*, consisting of career administrators (civil servants). They work in London and throughout Britain in government activities and are responsible to the minister of their department for the implementation of government policies. A change of minister or government does not require new civil servants, since they are expected to be politically neutral and to serve the government impartially. Restrictions on political activities and publication are imposed upon them in order to ensure neutrality. There are some five hundred thousand civil servants in Britain today.

VII- UK parliamentary control of government

Constitutional theory suggested that Parliament should control the executive government. But unless there is small-majority government, rebellion by government MPs or public protest, a government with an overall majority in the Commons (such as Labour since 1997) can carry its policies through Parliament, irrespective of Parliament's attempts to restrain it. Critics argue for stronger parliamentary control over the executive, which has been described as an elective dictatorship. But there seems little chance of this without, for example, moving to a PR electoral system, more consensus politics, a strengthening of Parliament's constraining role and much more independent stances from MPs themselves. Opposition parties can only oppose in the Commons and hope to persuade the electorate to dismiss the government at the next election.

Examinations of government programmes can be employed at Question Time in the Commons (30 minutes on Wednesdays), when the Prime Minister is subjected to oral questions from MPs. Though Question Time is just a rhetorical and political occasion rather than an in-depth analysis of government policy, it does have a function in holding the executive's performance up to public scrutiny. The opposition parties can also choose their own topics for debate on a limited number of days each session, which can be used to attack the government.

In an attempt to improve the situation, standing committees of MPs were established, which examine bills during procedural stages. Such committees have little influence on actual policy. But in 1979, a new *select committee system* was created, which now has fourteen committees. They comprise MPs from most parties, who monitor the administration and policy of the main government departments and investigate proposed legislation. MPs previously had problems in scrutinizing government activity Adequately. It is often argued that the real work of the House and parliamentary control of the executive is done in the select committees. Their members are now proving to be more independent in questioning civil servants and ministers who are called to give evidence before them (but who may refuse to attend). Select committees can be effective in examining proposed legislation and expenditure, and their reports can be damaging to a government's reputation.

Religion in the UK

Introduction

British religious history has been predominantly Christian. It has been characterized by conflict between Roman Catholics and Protestants, and by division into separate Protestant churches and sects. But it has also included non- Christian faiths, such as the Jews, and groups with humanist and special beliefs. Britain still possesses a diversity of religious denominations, which have been added to by recent immigrants. Despite these features, the country appears to be largely secular in terms of the relatively low figures (20%) for all types (Christian and non-Christian) of regular religious observance.

I-Religious history

Some Christian influences had reached England before AD 400 and during the Roman occupation, but they were not widespread or permanent. However, Ireland was converted to Christianity around AD 432 by St Patrick, who had brought the faith from Rome. His followers spread Christianity to Wales, Scotland and northern England, and established religious centres, such as that of St Columba on the Scottish island of lona. In AD 596–7, the Saxons of southern England were converted to Christianity by St Augustine and other monks, who had been sent from Rome by Pope Gregory, and who also founded the ecclesiastical capital of Canterbury in AD 597. In AD 664, all the churches of Ireland, Wales, Scotland, northern England and southern England agreed to accept the Roman Catholic form of worship.

The relationship between England and Rome became difficult, and by the sixteenth century was at breaking point. In 1534 Henry broke away from the supremacy of Rome and declared himself head of the church in England. The immediate reason for this breach was the Pope's refusal to accept Henry's divorce from his queen, Catherine of Aragon, who had not produced a male heir to the throne. In 1536, he dissolved many monasteries and confiscated a large part of the church's property and wealth.

Nevertheless, the influence of the European Reformation caused the English, Scottish and Welsh churches to move away from Rome's doctrines. This development in England increased under Edward VI (1547–53), when practices and beliefs became more Protestant. John Knox in Scotland also accelerated the process by founding the separate Protestant Church of Scotland in 1560. Meanwhile, Ireland remained firmly Roman Catholic. Henry VIII's daughter, the Roman Catholic Mary Tudor, tried to restore the Roman Catholic faith during her short reign (1553–8), but did not succeed. Her sister, the Protestant Elizabeth I (1558–1603), established the Protestant status of the Church of England. The Church's doctrine was stated in the *Thirty-Nine Articles of Faith* (1562), and its rituals and forms of church service were contained in the *Book of Common Prayer*. English replaced Latin in church documents and services, and priests of the Church of England were later allowed to marry.

However, this confirmation of the Protestant Church of England did not stop the religious arguments that were to affect Britain in later years. Many Protestants in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries argued that the church had not distanced itself sufficiently from Rome. These are called Dissenters or later they were known as nonconformists; and today they are the members of the Free Churches. Fierce religious conflicts between Protestants and Catholics, often resulting in martyrdom, continued during the seventeenth century. They culminated in the Civil War (1642–8) between the mainly Protestant Parliamentarians and the largely Catholic Royalists.

There is religious freedom in contemporary Britain: a person can belong to any religion or none, and religious discrimination is unlawful. There is no religious bar to the holding of public office, except that the monarch must be a member of the Church of England. None of the churches is tied specifically to a political party.

I. II- The Christian tradition

Christianity in Britain is represented mainly by the Church of England and the Roman Catholic Church (which are the largest), the Church of Scotland and the Free Churches. The Church of England attracts about one-fifth of religiously active Britons, and the Roman Catholic Church does only marginally better, but between them they account for 41% of all regular worshippers.

II-1- The Church of England

The Church of England is the established or national church in England. The monarch is the head of the church; its archbishops, bishops and deans are appointed by the monarch on the advice of the Prime Minister; and Parliament has a voice in its organization and rituals. But it is not a state church, like churches in some other European countries, since it receives no financial aid from the state, apart from salaries for public positions and help with church schools.

The Church of England is sometimes referred to as the 'Anglican Church', in the sense that it is part of a worldwide communion of churches whose practices and beliefs are very similar, and many of which descend from the Church of England. It is still widely felt that the church, like the monarchy, should not involve itself in political questions, and historically it has favoured compromise. However, some critics argue that the church must modernize its attitudes, organization and values if it is to continue as a vital force in British life.

II-2- The Church of Scotland

The Church of Scotland (commonly known as the Kirk) is the second established church in Britain. Its position as the official national church in Scotland has been confirmed by successive legislation from 1707, which has asserted its freedom in spiritual matters and independence from all parliamentary supervision. The church is completely separate from the Church of England, has its own organizational structures, and decides its own doctrines and practices. It was created in 1560 by John Knox. He was opposed to episcopal rule, and considered that the English church had not moved sufficiently far from Roman Catholicism.

The Scottish church followed the teachings of Calvin, a leading exponent of the European Reformation, and developed a rather severe form of Presbyterian Protestantism. Presbyterianism means government by ordained ministers and elected elders (who are lay members of the church).

II-3- The Roman Catholic Church

The Roman Catholic Church in Britain experienced much persecution and discrimination after the Reformation, and had difficulties in surviving.

Today, Roman Catholicism is widely practised throughout Britain, and enjoys complete religious freedom, except for the fact that no Roman Catholic can become monarch. There are seven Roman Catholic provinces in Great Britain (four in England, two in Scotland and one in Wales), each under the supervision of an archbishop; 29 dioceses each under the control of a bishop; and over 3,000 parishes. The head of the church in England is the Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster, and the senior lay Catholic is the Duke of Norfolk. In Northern Ireland, there is one province with six dioceses, some of which overlap with dioceses in the Irish Republic.

II-4- The Free Churches

The Free Churches are composed of those nonconformist Protestant sects that are not established like the Churches of England and Scotland. Some broke away from the Church of England after the Reformation and others departed later. In general, they refused to accept episcopal rule or hierarchical structures.

The main Free Churches today are the Methodists, the Baptists, the United Reformed Church and the Salvation Army.

The *Methodist Church* is the largest of the Free Churches, with some half a million adult members and a community of 1.3 million. It was established in 1784 by John Wesley after Church of England opposition to his evangelical views obliged him to separate and form his own organization.

The *Baptists* (formed in the seventeenth century) are today grouped in associations of churches. Most of these belong to the Baptist Union of Great Britain and Ireland, which was formed in 1812, besides independent Baptist unions in Scotland, Wales and Ireland. The ancient Congregational Church in England and Wales had its roots in sixteenth-century Puritanism. It merged with the Presbyterian Church in England (which was associated with Scottish Presbyterians) in 1972 to form the *United Reformed Church*. The *Salvation Army* emphasizes saving souls through a practical Christianity and social concern. It was founded in Britain by William Booth in 1865.

II-5- Other Christian churches

Active membership of the large Christian churches has long been in decline, and now amounts to some 6.7 million people. But there are a considerable number of smaller Free Churches and nonconformist Christian denominations throughout Britain. For example, the *Religious Society of Friends* (Quakers), founded in the seventeenth century, has no ministers and no conventionally organized services. The Quakers' pacifism and social work are influential. Fundamentalist evangelical groups have also been increasing, and there are many other religious sects in Britain, such as the *Jehovah's Witnesses,* the *Seventh Day Adventists,* the *Mormon Church,* the *Christian Scientists* and the *Spiritualists*.

I. III- The non-Christian tradition

The non-Christian tradition in Britain is mainly associated with immigrants into the country over the centuries, such as the Jews and, more recently, Muslims, Sikhs and Hindus.

III-1- The Jewish community

Some Jews entered Britain during the Roman occupation, but the first large groups immigrated with the Norman Conquest, and were involved in finance and commerce. The present community dates from the mid-seventeenth century, following the expulsion of Jews in the thirteenth century. It now has 291,000 members (2012 census). The community is composed of the Sephardim (originally from Spain, Portugal and North Africa) and the majority Ashkenazim (from Germany and central Europe). The focus of religious life is the 250 local synagogues, and Jewish schools are attended by one in three Jewish schoolchildren.

III-2- Other non-Christian religions

Immigration into Britain during the last 70 years has resulted in a substantial growth of other non-Christian religions, such as Islam, Sikhism and Hinduism. The number of practitioners is growing because of relatively high birth-rates in these groups and because of conversion to such faiths by young working-class non-whites and middle-class whites.

There are now more than 3 million Muslims. Most of them come from Pakistan and Bangladesh, but there are other groups from India, Arab countries and Cyprus. The Islamic Cultural Centre and its associated Central Mosque in London are the largest Muslim institutions in the West, and there are mosques in virtually every British town with a concentration of Muslim people. Muslims are present in all regions of the UK, but England and specifically London has the highest population of Muslims.

There are also large Sikh (420,196, according to a 2011census) and Hindu (817,000 according to a 2011census) religious groups in Britain. Most of these come from India, and have many temples scattered around the country in areas of Asian settlement. Various forms of Buddhism are also represented in the population.

Education in the UK

Introduction

The British educational system has three levels: schools, further education (post-school) and higher education (universities). Schools are divided into state (maintained from public funds) and independent (privately financed) sectors, and there is no common organization for the whole country. England and Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland have different school systems, though further and higher education generally has much the same structure throughout Britain, and is mostly funded by the state.

II. I- English School History

State involvement in education was relatively late, and the first major attempt to establish compulsory elementary schools funded by the state came only in 1870 for England and Wales (1872 for Scotland and 1923 for Northern Ireland). It was not until 1944 that the state supplied a comprehensive system of free and compulsory primary and secondary school education.

However, church schools had existed for many centuries, and they influenced the later state system. The church's central position in society enabled it to create the first schools. Other schools were also periodically

established, either by rich individuals or by monarchs. These were variously known as grammar, high and public schools, and were later associated with both the modern independent and state educational sectors.

In the 19th century, the ancient high, grammar and public schools also continued to train the sons of the middle and upper classes for leadership and professional roles in society. Many members of the working class still received no formal or adequate education. In 1833, Parliament supplied finance for the construction of school buildings. But it was only in 1870 that the state became more actively involved at the national level. An **Education Act (the Forster Act)** created local school boards, which had authority to provide schools in their areas.

By **1880,** a national system provided free and compulsory elementary schooling for all children between the ages of 5 and 10. **The Balfour Act in 1902** made local government responsible for state education and provided finance for voluntary schools. By 1918, schools were able to provide elementary education for children up to the age of 14.

Secondary school education still remained largely the province of the independent sector, and consequently of those people who could pay for its provisions. A number of Acts in the early twentieth century marginally extended secondary education to those children whose parents could not afford school fees. The 1902 Act provided scholarships (financial grants) so that clever elementary schoolchildren could enter fee paying secondary schools. An **Education Act of 1918 (the Fisher Act)** established a few state secondary schools.

I-1- The 1944 Education Act

In 1944, an **Education Act (the Butler Act)** reorganized the state primary and secondary school system in England and Wales and greatly influenced future generations of schoolchildren. State schooling became free and compulsory up to the age of 15 and was divided into three stages: primary schools (5–12 years old), secondary schools (12–15) and further, post-school training. The Act created a Ministry of Education, headed by a Minister of Education. A decentralized system resulted, in which the Ministry drew up policy guidelines, and **local education authorities** (**LEAs**) decided which forms of schooling would be used in their areas.

Two main types of state schools resulted from the Act: county and voluntary. Primary and secondary county schools were provided by the local authorities of each county. Voluntary schools were mainly those elementary schools that had been founded by religious and other groups and which were now partially financed and maintained by local authorities, although they still retained their religious affiliation.

Most state county schools at the secondary level were divided into grammar schools and secondary modern schools, with some areas having a third type, the secondary technical school or college. The secondary division was dependent upon an examination result. The 11-plus examination, which was adopted by most LEAs, consisted of tests that covered linguistic, mathematical and general knowledge, and it was taken in the last year of primary school at around the age of 11. The object was to select between academic and non-academic children, which introduced the notion of 'selection' based on ability. Those who passed the 11-plus went to grammar school, while those who failed went to the less academic secondary modern school or technical college.

The grammar schools prepared children for national examinations like the Matriculation Certificate, which later became the General Certificate of Education (GCE). These examinations qualified children for the better jobs and entry into higher education and the professions. The intention of the 1944 Act was to provide universal and free state primary and secondary education. It was hoped that such equality of opportunity would expand the educational market, lead to a better-educated society, encourage more working-class children to enter university, and achieve greater social mobility.

II. II- The Present State School System

State education is free (except for some specialist tuition in areas such as music) and compulsory for children between the ages of 5 and 16. Some 93% of all children in England and Wales are educated in the state primary and secondary sectors.

The **Department for Education and Employment (DfEE)**, under a Secretary of State, initiates policy, and the **LEAs** retain a degree of decentralized administrative choice in many educational matters. They are

controlled by the **education committees** of local councils, and organize school planning and the hiring of teachers in their areas. The LEAs have also traditionally left the academic organization of schools to headteachers. These have allowed freedom to the staffs of their schools to organize their own programmes, books and methods of teaching.

This overall situation has been affected by Conservative government policies from 1979–97. Under the local Management of Schools policy, headteachers were given financial control over their school budgets and took on management roles; greater powers of decision making were transferred to school governors; and parents now have a greater voice in the actual running of schools, as well as a right to choose a particular school for their children. Some schools were also allowed to 'opt out' of (transfer from) local authority control if a majority of parents voted for such a move. These **grant-maintained (GM) schools** are still state schools, but are self-governing; receive their funding directly from the DfEE; and the headteachers and governors are responsible for their own school budgets and management.

State schooling before the age of 5 is not compulsory in Britain, and there is no statutory requirement on the LEAs to provide such education. But more parents (particularly those at work) are seeking school provisions for young children, and there is concern about the lack of opportunities.

Pupils attend primary school in the state sector from the age of 5 and then move to secondary schools normally at the age of 11. Some 90% of secondary school children go to comprehensives from the ages of 11–16/18, and there are only a small number (some 3%) of grammar and secondary modern schools left in the state system.

Scotland has an ancient educational system, with colleges and universities that are among the oldest in Europe. Its state school system, under a **Scottish Education Board** that decides policy, has long been comprehensive, and it has different school examinations from those in the rest of Britain. The Scottish 'public schools' are state and not private institutions (although independent schools exist), and children transfer from primary to secondary education at 12.

In Northern Ireland, the state schools are mostly divided on religious grounds into Catholic and Protestant, and are often single-sex. However, there are some tentative movements towards integrated coeducational schools. The comprehensive principle has not been widely adopted, and a selective system with an examination at 11 gives entrance to grammar schools.

I. III- The Independent (or Private Fee-paying) School Sector

The independent school sector is separate from the state school system and caters for some 7.6% of all British children, from the ages of 4–18 at various levels of education in some 2,400 schools. Its financing depends upon investments and from the fees paid by the pupils' parents for their education, which vary between schools and can amount to several thousand pounds a term. The independent sector is dependent upon its charitable and tax-exempt status to survive. This means that the schools are not taxed on their income if it is used only for educational purposes.

I. IV- School Organization and Examinations

Another radical reform was the establishment of a National Curriculum. The aim was to create an educational curriculum that was standardized, centrally devised and appropriate to the needs and demands of the contemporary world. It was to cover all age groups and include the 'core subjects' of English, mathematics and science, as well as the 'foundation subjects' of history, geography, technology, music, art, physical education and (at the secondary level) a modern foreign language.

The National Curriculum (which is not applicable to independent schools) is tied to a system of national examinations at the secondary level. They may be taken in all types of schools in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. The two main examinations are the General **Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE**), which is taken usually by 16 year olds, and the **General Certificate of Education at Advanced Level (GCE A level**), which is normally taken at the end of the second year in the sixth form by 18 year olds.

I. V- Higher Education

Should a pupil obtain the required examination results at A level, he or she may go on to an institution of higher education, such as a university or other college. The student, after a prescribed period of study and after passing examinations, will receive a degree and become a graduate of that institution.

V-1- The Universities

There were 23 British universities in 1960. After a period of expansion in the 1960s and reforms in 1992, when existing institutions such as polytechnics were given university status, there are now some 100, with 1.2 million full-time students in 1995. The Open University and the independent University of Buckingham are additional university-level institutions.

The universities can be broadly classified into four types. The ancient universities of **Oxford and Cambridge** (composed of their many colleges) date from the twelfth century, and until the nineteenth century they were virtually the only English universities and offered no places to women. However, other older universities were founded in Scotland, such as **St Andrews** (1411), **Glasgow** (1450), **Aberdeen** (1494) and **Edinburgh** (1583). A second group comprises the **'redbrick' or civic universities** such as Leeds, Liverpool and Manchester, which were created between 1850 and 1930. The third group consists of universities founded after the Second World War and in the 1960s, like Sussex, York and East Anglia, many of which are in rural areas. The fourth group is the **'new universities'** created in 1992, when polytechnics and some other colleges attained university status.

The competition to enter universities is now very strong, and students who do not do well at A level may be unable to find a place. Some 10 per cent of students now drop out of higher education because of work, financial or other problems, but the majority aim for a good degree in order to obtain a good job, or to continue in higher education by doing research (masters' degrees and doctorates). The bachelor's degree (Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science, BA or BSc) is usually taken in final examinations at the end of the third year of study, although some degree courses do vary in length in different parts of Britain.

V-2- Other Higher Education Colleges

The 1970s saw the creation of colleges (or institutes) of higher education, which now offer a wide range of degree, diploma and certificate courses in both science and the arts, and in some cases have specifically taken over the role of training schoolteachers. They used to be under the control of their local authorities, but the Conservative government granted them independence, and some have achieved university status.

A variety of other institutions also offer higher education. Some, like the **Royal College of Art**, the **Cranfield Institute of Technology**, and various Business Schools, have university status, while others, such as agricultural, drama and art colleges like the **Royal Academy of Dramatic Arts (RADA)** and the **Royal College of Music**, provide comparable courses. All these institutions usually have a strong vocational aspect to their programmes that fills a specialized role in higher education.

V-3- Student Finance

In the past, British students who gained a place at an institution of higher education were awarded a grant from their local education authorities. The grant was in two parts: the first covered the tuition fees of a first degree course; the second covered, after means testing of parents' income, maintenance expenses such as the cost of rent, food and books of a course during term time.

The Labour government radically changed this situation from 1998 by abolishing the student grant. Students now have to pay at least £1,000 tuition fees and their maintenance, usually through loans from the **Student Loan Company**. They start to pay back their loans when they reach certain salary levels. These changes in funding have resulted in a drop in the number of students provisionally applying for university entry.

V-4- The Open University

The Labour Party broached the idea of the Open University in the 1960s. It would be an educational service that used television, radio and correspondence courses to teach its students. It was intended to give opportunities (or a 'second chance') to adults who had been unable to take conventional higher education. The Open University

opened in 1969; its first courses started in 1971; and by 1996 there were 104,000 registered first degree students and an increasing number of postgraduate and research students. About 7,000 students of all ages and from very different walks of life receive degrees from the Open University each year.

I. VI- Further and Adult Education

Today, a wide range of educational opportunities are provided by self-governing colleges of further education, technical colleges and other institutions. These offer a considerable selection of subjects at basic levels for part- and fulltime students.

Adult education is provided by these colleges, the universities, the **Workers' Educational Association (WEA)**, evening institutes, local societies and clubs. Adult courses may be vocational (relating to employment) or recreational (for pleasure), and cover a wide variety of activities and programmes. Some 4 million students of very varying ages are taking further and adult education courses in one form or another. In the past, a relatively low percentage of the 16–24 age groups in Britain were in further and higher education, compared to the very much larger percentages in Japan, the USA and Germany.

UK Media

Introduction

The term 'Media' may include any communication system through which people are informed, educated or entertained. In Britain today it refers mainly to the press (newspapers), magazines, terrestrial (earth-based) television, cable and satellite television, radio and video.

The media have evolved from simple methods of production, distribution and communication to the present sophisticated technologies. Their growth and variety have greatly improved information dispersal, news availability and entertainment opportunities. They now cover homes, places of business and leisure activities, and their influence is very powerful and an inevitable part of daily life. Surveys indicate, for example, that 69% of Britons obtain their news and views of current affairs from television, 20% from newspapers and 11% from radio.

III. I- The Print Media

Print media (newspapers and magazines) began to develop in the eighteenth century. A wide circulation was hindered initially by transportation and distribution problems, illiteracy and government licensing/censorship restrictions.

I-1- National Newspapers

National newspapers are those that are available in all parts of Britain on the same day, including Sundays. They are often delivered direct to the home from local newsagents by newsboys and girls.

The first British newspapers with a limited national circulation appeared in the early eighteenth century and were followed by others, such as *The Times* (1785), the *Observer* (1791) and the *Sunday Times* (1822). Most were quality papers, catering for a relatively small, educated market. In the nineteenth century, the growth and composition of the population conditioned the types of newspaper that were produced. The first popular national papers were deliberately printed on Sundays, such as the *News of the World* (1843) and the *People* (1881). They were inexpensive and aimed at the expanding and increasingly literate working class. In 1896, Alfred Harmsworth produced the *Daily Mail,* which was targeted at the lower-middle class as an alternative to the quality dailies. Harmsworth then published the *Daily Mirror* in 1903 for the working-class popular market. Both the *Mail* and the *Mirror* were soon selling more than a million copies a day.

The early twentieth century was the era of mass-circulation papers and of owners like Harmsworth and Arthur Pearson. There was fierce competition between them as they fought for bigger shares of the market. Pearson's *Morning Herald* (later the *Daily Express*) was created in 1900 to compete with the *Daily Mail* for lower-middle class readers. The *Daily Herald* (1911) was sold in 1964, renamed the *Sun,* and developed different political and news emphases. The competition between the *Sun* and *Mirror* continues today, with each aiming for a bigger share of the mass daily market.

The national press in Britain consists of **10 daily morning papers** and **09 Sunday papers.** It is, in effect, a London press, because most national newspapers have their bases and printing facilities in the capital, although editions of some national papers are now published in the north of England, Scotland, Europe and the USA. The majority of them used to be located in **Fleet Street** in central London, but all have now left the street and moved to other parts of London.

National papers are usually termed '**quality**' or '**popular**' depending on their differences in content and format (broadsheet or tabloid). Others are called '**mid-market'**, fall between these two extremes, and are tabloids. The qualities (such as *The Times*) are broadsheets (large-sheet), report national and international news in depth, and analyse current events and the arts in editorials and articles. The populars (such as the *Sun*) are mostly tabloid (small-sheet), deal with relatively few 'hard news' stories, tend to be superficial in their treatment of events, and sensationalize and trivialize much of their material.

'Mid-market' papers, such as the *Mail* and *Express,* cater for intermediate groups. Sales of popular papers on weekdays and Sundays far exceed those of the qualities. The qualities are more expensive than the populars and carry more up-market advertising that generates essential finance for the papers. The populars carry less advertising and cater for more down-market consumer material. The press (national and regional) in 1995 took 55% of total advertising spending in Britain.

The press is financially independent of the political parties and receives no funding from government. The press is dependent for its survival upon its circulation figures; upon the advertising that it can attract; and upon financial help from its owners.

I-2- Regional Newspapers

Regional, or provincial, newspapers are those that are published outside London. Excluding its national newspaper industry, London itself has one major central paper (the *Evening Standard*) with a daily circulation of some 440,000. There are also about 100 local weeklies, dailies and evening papers that appear in the Greater London districts.

Outside London, there are some 100 daily regional papers published in the cities and smaller towns in the mornings and evenings. They contain a mixture of local and national news and are supported financially by local advertising. Some of the more famous daily regional papers, such as *The Scotsman* (Edinburgh) and the *Glasgow Herald* in Scotland, the *Western Mail* in Cardiff, Wales, and the *Yorkshire Post* (Leeds) in England, have considerable reputations and a wide circulation both in and outside their particular regions.

I-3- Periodicals and Magazines

There are **6,500** different periodicals and magazines in Britain, which are of a weekly, monthly or quarterly nature. They cover the vast majority of trades, professions, sports, hobbies and interests, and are aimed at different markets and levels of sophistication.

Among the serious weekly journals are the *New Statesman and Society* (a left-wing political and social affairs magazine); *The Economist* (dealing with economic and political matters); the *Spectator* (a conservative journal); and *New Scientist*. *The Times* publishes several influential weekly magazines, such as the *Educational Supplement,* the *Higher* (Education Supplement) and the *Literary Supplement*.

The teenage and youth magazine market is fiercely competitive. Women's periodicals, such as *Woman* and *Woman's Own,* have very large and wide circulations. But the best-selling publications are the weekly *Radio Times* and the TV *Times,* which contain feature stories and the scheduled programmes for BBC and independent television.

III. II- The Broadcasting Media

Radio was the first broadcasting medium to appear in Britain. National radio broadcasting was established in 1922, when the British Broadcasting Company was formed under the direction of John Reith. In 1927, Reith became the first Director-General of the **British Broadcasting Corporation** (the present BBC) and set the tone and style for the BBC's future development. The BBC had a monopoly in broadcasting market. Reith was concerned that the BBC should be independent of government and commercial interests; that it should strive for quality; and that it should be a public broadcasting service, with a duty to inform, educate and entertain.

The BBC had a broadcasting monopoly in both radio and television (which had started in 1936 for a limited audience), but there was pressure from commercial and political interests to widen the scope of broadcasting. The result was that independent (commercial) television broadcasting financed by advertising and under the supervision of the **Independent Television Authority** (later the **Independent Broadcasting**

Authority or IBA) was created in 1954, and the first programmes shown in 1955. In 1972, the **Sound Broadcasting Act** ended the BBC's monopoly on radio broadcasting and allowed the establishment of independent radio stations throughout the country, dependent on advertising for their financing.

A duopoly (two organizations) covered British broadcasting, which was shared between the public service of the BBC and the independent (commercial) service of the IBA. This division has now been expanded as cable, satellite and other broadcasting services have developed in recent years. British broadcasting is thus conditioned by the competition between the BBC and the independent organizations.

From 1988, the Conservative government made wide-ranging changes to British broadcasting. The aim was to provide greater deregulation and competition among broadcasters and to give greater choice to the consumer. The number of television and radio channels was increased, and the IBA was replaced by an **Independent Television Commission (ITC).**

The changes were controversial and were widely criticized for their alleged emphasis on competition and commercialism, rather than quality. In 1996, the Conservative government announced further deregulatory measures: all broadcasting and telecommunications services were to move to digital means of transmission, which will encourage the creation of many more national **digital terrestrial television** (**DTT**) channels. Viewers will be able to use DTT with a conventional television aerial and a settop decoder. It also liberalized the restrictions governing the ownership of independent broadcasting licences.

II-1- The BBC

The BBC is based at Broadcasting House in London, but has studios and local facilities throughout the country that provide regional and national networks for radio and television. It was created by Royal Charter and has a board of governors who, under a chairman or woman, are responsible for supervising its programme structures and suitability.

The BBC is financed by a grant from Parliament, which comes largely from revenue received from the sale of television licences (£1.6 billion per year). These are payable by anyone who owns a television set, and are relatively low in international terms (£89.50 annually for a colour set). The BBC also generates considerable income from selling its programmes abroad, and from the sale of a programme guide *(Radio Times),* books, magazines and videos.

The BBC's external services, which consist of radio broadcasts in English (the World Service) and some 39 other languages abroad, were founded in 1932 and receive direct financing from the Foreign Office. These services have a high reputation for objective news reporting and programmes.

Historically, the BBC was affected by the invention of television, which changed the entertainment habits of the people and created a dominant source of news. The BBC has two television channels (**BBC 1 and BBC 2**). BBC 1 is a mass-appeal channel, and its programmes consist of news, plays and drama series, comedy, quiz shows, variety performances, sport and documentaries. BBC 2 tends to show more serious items such as news analysis and discussion, documentaries, adaptations of novels into plays and series, operas, concerts and some sport. It is a minority channel and is watched by 10% of viewers.

BBC Radio has experienced declining audiences recently, but it still provides an important service. The BBC has **five national radio channels**; **39 local radio stations** serving many districts in England; and regional and community radio services in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. All of these compete for listeners with independent stations. The national channels specialize in different tastes. **Radio 1** caters for pop music; **Radio 2** has light music, news and comedy; **Radio 3** provides classical and modern serious music, talks, discussions and plays; **Radio 4** tends to concentrate on news reports and analysis, talks and plays; and **Radio 5 Live** (established 1990) provides sport and news programmes.

II-2- The ITC

Independent television and radio were considerably affected by government reforms under the **Broadcasting Act of 1990**. The ITC (Independent Television Commission) replaced the IBA; controls the activities of the independent television companies (including cable and satellite services); and consists of a government appointed chairman or woman and other members.

The ITC does not produce or make programmes itself. In addition to supervising cable and satellite television, it grants licences to, and regulates, the transmitting companies who are responsible for making 50% of the programmes (in addition to independent producers) shown on three advertising-financed television channels (**the majority ITV/Channel 3, the minority Channel 4 and the new Channel 5** since 1997). There

are 15 ITV production companies at present, such as Granada (north-west England), Central (the midland counties of England) and Anglia (East Anglia).

ITV is the oldest independent channel and once seemed to provide only popular programmes of a light-entertainment and sometimes trivial type. But its quality has improved, because of competition from the BBC, and it now has a high standard of news reports, drama productions and documentaries.

II-3- The Radio Authority

A new Radio Authority now controls some **150 local and regional independent radio stations (ILRs)** throughout the country, which are supported by advertising and provide mainly pop music, news flashes and programmes of local interest. They operate on a commercial basis, and revenue figures in 1993 suggest that radio is the fastest growing medium in Britain. Three new commercial national radio stations have been created under government policy to expand radio broadcasting. The first licence was awarded to **Classic FM** in 1991, which broadcasts popular classical music and news bulletins. The second licence was awarded to **Virgin 1215** in 1992, which specializes in rock music. The third licence was given in 1995 to **Talk Radio UK**, which is a speech-based service.

II-4- Cable and Satellite Broadcasting

Cable transmission in Britain, although growing slowly and potentially capable of further expansion and varied services, has been challenged first by video equipment sales and second by satellite programmes.

Television broadcasting by satellite has been available in Britain since 1989. The biggest satellite programmer is **BSkyB (British Sky Broadcasting)**, which provides channels consisting of news, light entertainment, sport and feature films, through domestic receiving dishes. The choice of satellite channels is expanding steadily in Britain, although initially companies did have problems in attracting subscribers.

II-5- The Role and Influence of Television

Television is an influential and dominant force in modern Britain. It is also a very popular entertainment activity. Over 98% of the population has television sets in their homes, of which 95% are colour sets, and over 50% of homes have two sets or more.

A large number of the programmes shown on television are made in Britain, although there are also many imported American series. A few programmes come from other English speaking countries, such as Australia, New Zealand and Canada. But there are relatively few foreign-language productions on British television, and these are either dubbed or sub-titled.

II. III- Freedom of Expression

The question of free expression in the media continues to be of concern. Critics argue that the media do not have sufficient freedom to comment on matters of public interest. But the freedom of the media, as of individuals, to express themselves is not absolute. Regulations are placed upon the general freedom in order to safeguard the legitimate interests of other individuals, organizations and the state, so that a balance between competing interests may be achieved.

There are several legal restraints upon media freedom of expression. The ***sub judice* rule** means that the media may not comment on court proceedings, and must restrict themselves to the court facts. The rule is intended to protect the individuals concerned, and if a media organization breaks the rule, it may be found guilty of contempt of court and fined. Another restraining media institution, the **Press Complaints Commission (PCC)**, was created in 1990. It is financed by newspaper owners and is supposed to guard the freedom and independence of the press; maintain standards of journalism; and judge complaints by the public against newspapers.

III- American Culture/Civilization

II –Geographical Features of the United States (see PDF 1 and 2 on e-learning)

The United States, officially United States of America, abbreviated U.S. or U.S.A., byname America is a country in North America and a federal republic of 50 states. Besides the 48 conterminous states that occupy the middle latitudes of the continent, the United States includes the state of Alaska, at the northwestern extreme of North America, and the island state of Hawaii, in the mid-Pacific Ocean. The conterminous states are bounded on the north by Canada, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico and Mexico, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. The United States is the fourth largest country in the world in area (after Russia, Canada, and China). The national capital is Washington, which is coextensive with the District of Columbia, the federal capital region created in 1790.

The major characteristic of the United States is probably its great variety. Its physical environment ranges from the Arctic to the subtropical, from the moist rain forest to the arid desert, from the rugged mountain peak to the flat prairie. Although the total population of the United States is large by world standards, its overall population density is relatively low. The country embraces some of the world's largest urban concentrations as well as some of the most extensive areas that are almost devoid of habitation.

The United States contains a highly diverse population. Unlike a country such as China that largely incorporated indigenous peoples, the United States has a diversity that to a great degree has come from an immense and sustained global immigration. Probably no other country has a wider range of racial, ethnic, and cultural types than does the United States. In addition to the presence of surviving Native Americans (including American Indians, Aleuts, and Eskimos) and the descendants of Africans taken as slaves to the New World, the national character has been enriched, tested, and constantly redefined by the tens of millions of immigrants who by and large have come to America hoping for greater social, political, and economic opportunities than they had in the places they left. (It should be noted that although the terms "America" and "Americans" are often used as synonyms for the United

States and its citizens, respectively, they are also used in a broader sense for North, South, and Central America collectively and their citizens.)

The United States is the world's greatest economic power, measured in terms of gross domestic product (GDP). The nation's wealth is partly a reflection of its rich natural resources and its enormous agricultural output, but it owes more to the country's highly developed industry. Despite its relative economic self-sufficiency in many areas, the United States is the most important single factor in world trade by virtue of the sheer size of its economy. Its exports and imports represent major proportions of the world total. The United States also impinges on the global economy as a source of and as a destination for investment capital. The country continues to sustain an economic life that is more diversified than any other on Earth, providing the majority of its people with one of the world's highest standards of living.

The United States is relatively young by world standards, being less than 250 years old; it achieved its current size only in the mid-20th century. America was the first of the European colonies to separate successfully from its motherland, and it was the first nation to be established on the premise that sovereignty rests with its citizens and not with the government. In its first century and a half, the country was mainly preoccupied with its own territorial expansion and economic growth and with social debates that ultimately led to civil war and a healing period that is still not complete. In the 20th century the United States emerged as a world power, and since World War II it has been one of the preeminent powers. It has not accepted this mantle easily nor always carried it willingly; the principles and ideals of its founders have been tested by the pressures and exigencies of its dominant status. The United States still offers its residents opportunities for unparalleled personal advancement and wealth. However, the depletion of its resources, the contamination of its environment, and the continuing social and economic inequality that perpetuates areas of poverty and blight all threaten the fabric of the country.

(Source: https://www.britannica.com/place/United-States)

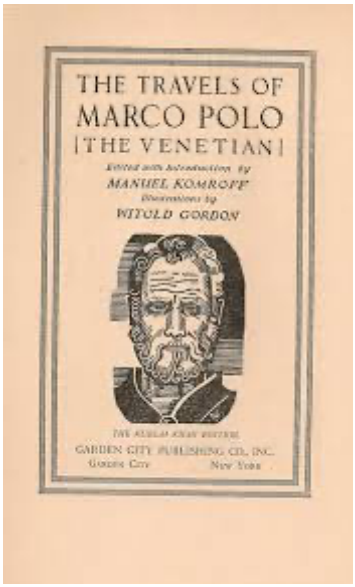
Age of Discovery and Settlements of the New World

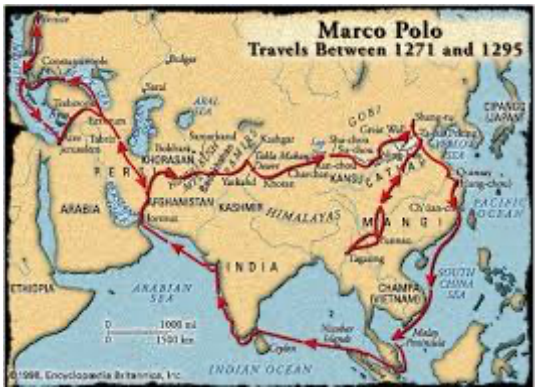
1-First Contacts between Europe and Asia

The first contacts between the Europeans and the Asians were held through the Crusades (1096-1291). The Western Christians organized these military expeditions against Muslim powers in order the re-conquer the Holy City of Jerusalem to which they were making pilgrimage.

It was the Venetian merchant and adventurer, **Marco Polo** (1254-1324) who travelled from Europe to Asia (1271-1295), remaining in China (which was called Cathay at that time) for 17 years, who gave the Europeans their first knowledge of life in the Far East through his book "***The Travels of Marco Polo***".

The Europeans found luxuries and spices such as pepper, cloves, etc. So, they created several trading posts. And it was Venice that principally dominated the trade with the Orient.





2-First European Geographic Discoveries

A) Antecedents

In the 100 years from the mid-15th to the mid-16th century, a combination of circumstances stimulated men to seek new routes; and it was new routes rather than new lands that filled the minds of kings and commoners, scholars and seamen.

- First, toward the end of the 14th century, the vast empire of the Mongols was breaking up; thus, Western merchants could no longer be ensured of safe-conduct along the land routes.

- Second, the growing power of the Ottoman Turks (who took control of Constantinople in 1453), who were hostile to Christians, blocked yet more firmly the outlets to the Mediterranean of the ancient sea routes from the East.

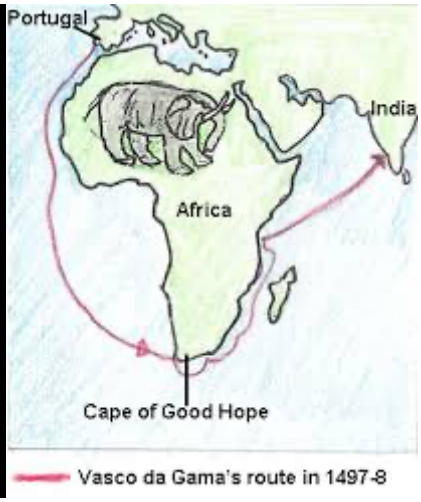
- Third, new nations on the Atlantic shores of Europe were now ready to seek overseas trade and adventure.

B) **Henry the Navigator (1391-1460):** An infante (prince of Portugal) favoured and gave patronage to voyages of discovery among the Madeira Islands and along the western coast of Africa from 1417. He initiated the first great enterprise of the age of discovery: the search for a sea route east by south to Cathay. His motives were mixed. He was curious about the world; he was interested in new navigational aids and better ship design and was eager to test them; he was also a crusader and hoped that, by sailing south and then east along the coast of Africa, Arab power in North Africa could be attacked from the rear. The promotion of profitable trade was yet another motive.

Prince Henry the Navigator

Prince Henry the Navigator route

C) Bartolomeu Dias (or Diaz) (1450-1500) : A Portuguese navigator and explorer, led the first European expedition to round the Cape of Good Hope (He called it the Cape of Storms) in 1488.



C) **Vasco da Gama (1460-1524) :** A Portuguese navigator, opened the sea route from western Europe to the East by way of the Cape of Good Hope : He sailed from Lisbon and went through the South Atlantic till the Cape. He overtook it, went up to East Africa (Kenya) and from there to India, which he reached (Calicut) on May 20th, 1498.

Vasco Da Gama route

E) Christopher Columbus (1451-1506) : A Genoan explorer. By the time he was 31 or 32, Columbus had become a master mariner in the Portuguese merchant service. It is thought by some that he was greatly influenced by his brother, Bartholomew, who may have accompanied Bartholomew Diaz on his voyage to the Cape of Good Hope, and by Martin Alonso Pinzon, the pilot who commanded the *Pinta* on the first voyage. Columbus was but one among many who believed one could reach land by sailing west. His uniqueness lay rather in the persistence of his dream and his determination to realize this Enterprise of the Indies, as he called his plan. Seeking support for it, he was repeatedly rebuffed, first at the court of John II of Portugal and then at the court of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. Finally, after eight years of supplication by Columbus, the Spanish monarchs, having conquered Granada, decided to risk the enterprise.

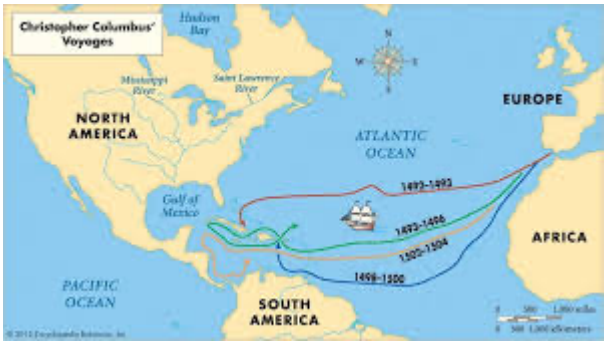
His Voyages to the New World

1- First Expedition: On Aug. 3, 1492, Columbus sailed from Palos, Spain, with three small ships, the *Santa Maria,* commanded by Columbus himself, the *Pinta* under Martin Pinzon, and the *Niña* under Vicente Yañez Pinzon. After halting at the Canary Islands, he sailed due west from Sept. 6 until Oct. 7, when he changed his course to the southwest. On Oct. 10 a small mutiny was quelled, and on Oct. 12 he landed on a small island, Watling Island or Guanahani, in the Bahama group. He took possession for Spain and, with impressed natives aboard, discovered other islands in the neighborhood. On Oct. 27 he sighted Cuba and on Dec. 5 reached Hispaniola. On Christmas Eve the *Santa Maria* was wrecked on the north coast of Hispaniola, and Columbus, leaving men there to found a colony, hurried back to Spain on the *Niña.* His reception was all he could wish; according to his contract with the Spanish sovereigns he was made admiral of the Ocean Sea and governor-general of all new lands he had discovered or should discover.

2- Second Expedition: Fitted out with a large fleet of 17 ships, with 1,500 colonists aboard, Columbus sailed from Cadiz in Oct., 1493. His landfall this time was made in the Lesser Antilles, and his new discoveries included the Leeward Islands and Puerto Rico. The admiral arrived at Hispaniola to find the first colony destroyed by Native Americans. He founded a new colony nearby, then sailed off in the summer of 1494 to explore the southern coast of Cuba. After discovering Jamaica he returned to Hispaniola and found the colonists, interested only in finding gold, completely disorderly; his attempts to enforce strict discipline led some to seize vessels and return to Spain to complain of his administration. Leaving his brother Bartholomew in charge at Hispaniola, Columbus also returned to

3- Third Expedition: On his third expedition, in 1498, Columbus was forced to transport convicts as colonists, because of the bad reports on conditions in Hispaniola and because the novelty of the New World was wearing off. He sailed still farther south and made his landfall on Trinidad. He sailed across the mouth of the Orinoco River (in present Venezuela) and realized that he saw a continent, but without further exploration he hurried back to Hispaniola to administer his colony. In 1500 an independent governor arrived, sent by Isabella and Ferdinand as the result of reports on the wretched conditions in the colony, and he sent Columbus back to Spain in chains. The admiral was immediately released, but his favour was on the wane; other navigators, including Amerigo Vespucci, had been in the New World and established much of the coast line of NE South America.

4-Fourth Expedition: It was 1502 before Columbus finally gathered together four ships for a fourth expedition, by which he hoped to re-establish his reputation. If he could sail past the islands and far enough west, he hoped he might still find lands answering to the description of Asia or Japan. He struck the coast of Honduras in Central America and coasted southward along an inhospitable shore, suffering terrible hardships, until he reached the Gulf of Darien. Attempting to return to Hispaniola, he was marooned on Jamaica. After his rescue, he was forced to abandon his hopes and return to Spain.



Christopher Columbus Christopher Columbus' voyages

F) Amerigo Vespucci (1454-1512): Italian merchant and explorer-navigator, took part in early voyages to the New World (1499-1500; 1501-1502). The voyage of 1501-1502 is of fundamental importance in the history of geographic discovery in that Vespucci himself and scholars as well, became convinced that the newly discovered lands were not part of Asia but a "New World". In 1507, Martin Waldseemüller, a German cartographer attributed to him (Vespucci) and named it after "America" after the latter's first name (Amerigo).

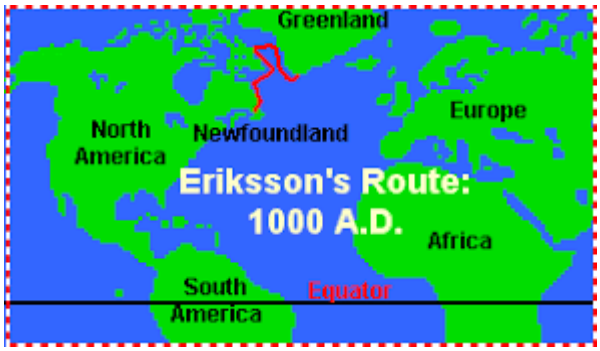
- Following Christopher Columbus' first voyage, the rulers of Portugal and Spain, by the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494), partitioned the non-Christian world between them by an imaginary line in the Atlantic, 370 leagues (about 1,300 miles) west of the Cape Verde Islands. Portugal could claim and occupy everything to the east of the line and Spain everything to the west (though no one then knew where the demarcation would bisect the other side of the globe). This is why Portugal got only Brazil in America and Spain the remaining lands.

Amerigo Vespucci

Amerigo Vespucci voyages

3- Columbus was not the first to reach America

- **Leif Ericsson (the Vikings):** who spent his youth in Greenland and in 999 visited Norway, where he was converted to Christianity and commissioned by King **Olaf I** to carry the faith to Greenland. Leif completed his mission to Greenland, set out from there c.1002 on a voyage to western lands, discovered several places, and settled for a winter in Vinland. Many scholars believe that Leif Ericsson landed on some part of the North American coast, but there has been no agreement on the modern identity of Vinland. Various sites have been nominated, from Newfoundland to Virginia, with Nova Scotia and New England as favourites.



Leif Ericsson's route

4- Spanish and French Colonization of the New World

4-1-The Spanish

Only gradually did the Spaniards realize the possibilities of America. They had completed the

occupation of the larger **West Indian** islands by **1512**, though they largely ignored the smaller ones, to their ultimate regret. Thus far they had found lands nearly empty of treasure, populated by naked primitives who died off rapidly on contact with Europeans. In **1508**, an expedition did leave **Hispaniola** to colonize the **mainland**, and after hardship and decimation, the remnant settled at **Darien** on the **Isthmus of Panama**, from which in **1515 Vasco Nufiez de Balboa** made his famous march to the **Pacific**. On the isthmus the **Spaniards** heard garbled reports of the wealth and splendour of **Inca Peru**.

Balboa was succeeded (and judicially murdered) by **Pedrarias Davila**, who turned his attention to **Central America** and founded **Nicaragua**.

Expeditions sent by **Diego Velazquez**, governor of Cuba, made contact with the decayed **Mayan civilization of Yucatan** and brought news of the **cities** and **precious metals** of **Aztec Mexico**. **Hernan Cortez (1485-1547)** entered **Mexico** from **Cuba** in **1519** and spent two years overthrowing the **Aztec** confederation, which dominated Mexico's civilized heartland. The Spaniards used firearms effectively but did most of their fighting with pikes and blades, aided by numerous Indian allies who hated the dominant Aztecs. The conquest of **Aztec Mexico** led directly to that of **Guatemala** and about half f **Yucatan**, whose geography and warlike inhabitants slowed Spanish progress.

Mexico yielded much **gold and silver**, and the conquerors imagined still greater wealth and wonders to the **north**. In **1536**, reports of treasure-laden cities pushed expeditions to explore **northern Mexico** and the **southern** part of what is now the **United States** notably the expedition of **Juan Rodriguez De Soto (1500-1542)** and **Francisco Vasquez Coronado (1510-1554)** through the **Southeastern** and **Southwestern US regions** (mainly Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and the Grand Canyon). These brought **geographical knowledge** but nothing of value to the Spaniards, who for years thereafter ignored the northern regions.

Meanwhile, the **Pizarro** brothers: **Francisco Pizarro (1475-1541)** and his half-brothers **Gonzalo** and **Hernando**, entered the **Inca Empire** from **Panama** in **1531** and proceeded with its conquest. Finding the huge realm divided by a recent **civil war** over the throne, they captured and executed the incumbent usurper, **Atahualpa**. But the conquest took years to complete; the Pizarros had to crush a formidable native rising and to defeat their erstwhile **associate**, **Diego de Almagro**, who felt cheated of his fair share of the spoils. The Pizarros and their followers took and divided a great amount of gold and silver, with prospects of more from the mines of **Peru** and **Bolivia**. Other conquistadors entered the regions of what became **Ecuador**, **Colombia**, and **Argentina**, among them **Pedro de Mendoza (1487-1537)** who landed in **Argentina** in **1535** and founded the city of **Buenos Aires**.

4-2-The French

It was the Italian navigator and explorer, **Giovanni da Verrazano (1485-1528)**, who reconnoitred the **North American** coast for **France** in **1524**, and in the next decade **Jacques Cartier (1491-1557)** explored the **St. Lawrence River**; his plans to establish a colony, however, came to nothing.

In **1603**, **Samuel de Champlain (1567-1635)** went to Canada, called **New France**. Champlain became Canada's outstanding leader, founding **Quebec** in **1608**, defeating the **Iroquois of New York**, stimulating **fur trade**, and exploring **westward** to **Lake Huron** in **1615**.

Rene-Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle (1643-1687) led, in **1681-1682**, an expedition down the **Illinois** and **Mississippi** rivers and claimed the entire region watered by the Mississippi and its tributaries for **Louis XIV of France**, naming the region **"Louisiana"**. A few years later, in a luckless expedition seeking the mouth of the Mississippi, he was murdered by his men.

Map of the European powers' colonies in America

Immigration:THE GOLDEN DOOR

The story of the American people is a story of immigrants. More than 75 percent of all the people in history who have ever left their homelands to live in another country have moved to the United States. In the course of its history it has taken in more people from other lands than any other country in the world. Since the founding of Jamestown in 1607 more than fifty million people from other lands have made new homes there.

Between 1840 and 1860 more immigrants than ever before arrived. Most came from Europe. Poor crops, hunger and political unrest caused an estimated five million Europeans a year to leave the lands of their birth at this time. More of them went to the United States than to any other country.

Among these immigrants were many Irish people. The Irish depended for food upon their crops of potatoes. For five years after 1845 these became diseased and rotted in the fields. About 750,000 Irish people starved to death. Many of the survivors left Ireland and went to the United States. In 1847 alone more than 118,000 of them immigrated there. By 1860 one in every four of the people living in the city of New York had been born in Ireland. Today more than thirteen million Americans have Irish ancestors.

During the Civil War in the 1860s the federal government encouraged more emigration from Europe. It did this by offering land to immigrants who would serve as soldiers in the Union armies. By 1865 about one in five of the soldiers in the armies of the North was a wartime immigrant. Many had come from Germany. Today about one in three of all Americans have German ancestors.

Ireland is in the west of Europe. Germany is in the north. Until about 1880 most immigrants to the United States came from these regions. Then a big change took place. More emigrants from lands in the south and east of Europe began to arrive-Italians, Poles, Greeks, Russians, Hungarians, Czechs. By 1896 more than half of all the immigrants entering the United States were from eastern or southern Europe.

On a small island in New York harbor stands a giant statue of a robed woman. She looks out to sea, her right arm holding a torch high in the air. She is the Statue of Liberty, one of the best-known landmarks in the world. The Statue of Liberty was presented to the United States in 1886. It was given by the people of France to mark the hundredth anniversary of the War of Independence.

For millions of immigrants the Statue of Liberty has been their first sight of America. Carved on its base are words that for more than a hundred years now have offered them hope:

Give me your tired, your poor,
Your huddled masses yearning to breathe free
The wretched refuse of your teeming shore
Send these, the homeless tempest-tossed to me,
I lift my lamp beside the golden door.

Many Jewish people came to the United States at this time. In the 1880s Jews were being killed all over eastern Europe in bloody massacres called "pogroms." Many thousands escaped by leaving for the United States. Leon Stein was the son of one of them. Many years later he explained why his father, despite the hardship that he suffered in America, had wanted to live there:
". . . the exploitation of labor was fearful and my father was having a terrible time. He was just getting by, making a living working twelve to fourteen hours a day. And he was suffering like a coal miner suffers, because in the sweat-shops [clothing factories], at that time, instead of coal dust what you got was lint . . . Lint got down the throat and into the lungs and caused the same coughing, the same diseases, the same sickness as dust. And in the end it killed you. And in the end it probably was what killed him . . .

But he still wanted to live in America. He never became rich, he never became successful - and he never became bitter . . . Remember, he had come from a place where, if you were Jewish, you didn't count as a human being and you had no rights at all.
In America they gave my father the vote, they allowed him a place to live, and they let his children grow up as Americans. Because of that he could never feel bitter . . ."

Between 1880 and 1925 about two million Jews entered the United States. Today there are about 5.7 million Jewish Americans and they make up about 2.2 percent of the total population of the United States. In certain states along the Atlantic coast the percentage of Jews is higher. In the state of New York, for example, one person in ten is Jewish.

So many immigrants wanted to enter the United States in the late 1800s that the government found it difficult to keep check on them. To control the situation it opened a special place of entry in New York harbor. This place was called Ellis Island. All
intending immigrants were examined there before they were allowed to enter the United States.

Ellis Island was opened in 1892. During its busiest times it dealt with almost 2,000 immigrants a day. Between its opening and 1954, when it closed its doors, more than twenty million people waited anxiously in its halls and corridors. Immigration officers asked these people questions to find out if they were criminals or mentally abnormal. Doctors
examined them for disease. A letter chalked on their clothing-H for heart disease or E for eye disease- could end their hopes of a new life in America.

But most passed the examinations. Almost half of all present-day Americans have ancestors who entered the United States by way of Ellis Island. Listen to Leon Stein again. One day in the 1970s he stood in Ellis Island's echoing, empty Great Hall and spoke quietly of the way that it made him feel:
" M y parents came through this place at the turn of the century. How can I stand here and not be moved? I feel it is haunted. I think I f you become really quiet you can actually hear ail the crying, ail the feeling, ail the impatience, ail the misunderstanding that went on in this hall. Being born again is not an easy thing and the people who came through here were being born again. This was their gateway to hope, to a new life."

The immigrants found work in busy cities like New York, Chicago and Pittsburgh-stitching garments, feeding furnaces, laboring on factory assembly lines, hacking out coal. They worked hard because they wanted to make a success of their new life. Yet for most immigrants this new life was a hard one. They were outsiders in a strange land. Often they could not even speak its language. Only the hardest and lowest paid jobs were open to them. Like Leon Stein's father, they had to work for long hours in dangerous conditions and to live in overcrowded slums that were breeding places of disease and misery.

Leaving home

Leon Stein's mother was born in a small village in Lithuania. At the age of eighty-six she still remembered vividly the day in 1908 that she left her village and set off for America as an immigrant:
"I remember it clearly. The whole village turned out to wave us goodby and we were all sitting in the cart with our little bundles on our laps and our shawls around our shoulders. I was excited a little bit, but mostly rather miserable and frightened. As the cart got to the end of the village street I could see the group of villagers who were waving us goodby was getting smaller and smaller, but I kept my eyes fixed on my mother in the front of that little group. I didn't take my eyes off her . . . Then, just before the cart turned the corner and I lost sight of them, I saw my mother faint and fall to the ground crying and weeping, and I saw the rest of the group bend over her to pick her up, and I tried to get out of the cart and run back to her and stay with her. But the others with me in the cart stopped me and held onto me. And the cart turned the corner. And I was weeping and struggling and they were holding me. And I never saw my mother again."

Yet bad as conditions were, they often seemed preferable to those the immigrants had left behind in Europe. In the United States they were free from religious and political persecution. They were often better dressed and better fed than they had ever been before. They marveled at such wonders as free schools for their children, at the lamps glowing along the city streets at nights, and at the fact that soap was cheap enough to be used by everyone! So the immigrants continued to pour in. By 1910 it was estimated that 14.5 percent of the people then living in the United States had been born in other countries.

This flood of immigrants worried many Americans. They accused immigrants of taking jobs away from American-born workers, of lowering standards of health and education, and of threatening the country's traditions and way of life by bringing in "un-American" political ideas like anarchism and communism.

Such accusations were not new. In the 1860s, Chinese workers had been brought to California to build the railroads. The fact that Chinese laborers were willing to w o r k for less pay caused American workers to dislike them. They felt threatened by these people with a different language and a different racial appearance. Chinese communities in the West were attacked and their buildings were burned down. Henry Sienkiewicz, a visitor from Poland, described a scene he witnessed in 1876:
" I was in San Francisco the night a massacre o f the Chinese was expected. By the light streaming f r o m burning buildings along the coast marched huge, menacing crowds o f workers, carrying banners bearing such inscriptions as the following: 'Self preservation is the first law o f nature. ' . . . Order was at last restored, but only after the railroads, which had provoked the disturbances by reducing the wages of white men, agreed not to reduce wages and to dismiss their Chinese employees."

In 1882 the strength o f anti-Chinese feeling caused Congress to ban most Chinese immigration. Japanese and other Asian immigrants were refused entry as well and by 1924 no Asian immigrants were permitted into the United States. The ban lasted until after the Second World War.

Melting pot or salad bowl?

In 1908 Israel Zangwill wrote a play, *The Melting Pot.* The hero, a refugee from persecution in Czarist Russia, escapes to the United States. In the final scene he speaks with enthusiasm about the mixture of peoples in his new homeland:

"America is God's Crucible, the great Melting Pot where ail the races of Europe are melting and reforming! . . . Here you stand in your fifty groups with your fifty languages and histories, and your fifty blood hatreds and rivalries, but you w o n ' t be like that for long, brothers, for these are the fires of God you've come to-these are the fires of God. . . . German and Frenchman, Irishman and Englishman, Jews and Russians-into the Crucible with you all! God is making the American . . . He will be the fusion of all races, the coming superman."

Zangwill's play was a great success. This was perhaps because many in the audiences who came to see it found its message reassuring. At a time when poor and uneducated immigrants from Europe were flooding into the United States in millions, it was comforting for Americans to be told that their country could turn the newcomers into Americans like themselves.

In fact this never really happened, at least not completely. The United States turned out to be more of a salad bowl than a melting pot. Groups from similar national and ethnic backgrounds often stayed together, keeping alive their old identities and many of their old customs. They lived in “Chinatowns” or "Little Italys,” areas populated almost entirely by Americans of similar ethnic origins. Such districts can still be found in many large American cities.

Americans from different immigrant backgrounds do mix together in time. It has been estimated, for example, that about 80 percent of the great-grand-children of early-twentieth-century European immigrants marry outside their own ethnic groups. Yet such third generation Americans often cling with pride to important elements of their ethnic heritage. So do many Americans whose immigrant origins are even further in the past.

In the 1920s Congress passed laws to limit all kinds of immigration. The one which had most effect was the Reed-Johnson Immigration Act of 1924. This law was an answer to the fears and the prejudices of Americans w h o were descendants of earlier north European immigrants. It said that in the future no more than 150,000 immigrants a year would be let into the United States. Each country which sent immigrants was given a "quota" which was based on the number o f its people already living in the United States. The more it had there already, the more new immigrants it would be allowed to send.

The 1924 System was designed mainly to reduce immigration from southern and eastern Europe. Once it began, 87 percent of the immigration permits went to immigrants from Britain, Ireland, Germany and Scandinavia-the countries from which the ancestors of most 1920s Americans had come.

The 1924 Immigration Act marked the end of one of the most important population movements in the history of the world.

The British Colonies in North America (see PDF on e-learning)

Introduction

For the typical European of the late feudal period (1500's), life was a never ending cycle of poverty, disease, famine with many people also suffering religious persecution. The hopelessness of daily life caused so many people to decide that it was better to risk death sailing across the Atlantic Ocean than to remain in a society where they had no opportunity to improve their life. As soon as the monarchies of Europe embarked upon the Age of Exploration, there were thousands of people prepared to venture into the unknown. England's defeat of the Spanish Armada opened the way for British exploration of North America; this unexplored continent offered the hope of a better tomorrow.

With the establishment of British colonies at Jamestown (1607) and Plymouth (1620), the gates now opened to a land promising a better future. Only fifty years after the establishment of Jamestown and Plymouth, word of the opportunities to be found in the New World spread so quickly that many people had to wait for their turn to make the Atlantic crossing. Religious freedom combined with economic opportunity to create an extended community unlike any before in human history. Being so far from home, the colonists slowly developed a new identity – a uniquely "American" way of thinking: religious tolerance, economic opportunity, and new ideas on the meaning of government.

Rapid change in the political landscape of England fed the colonial desire for greater liberties; the time was right for revolutionary change. The First Great Awakening gave these colonists a unified voice through which they would begin to slowly challenge British authority. Perhaps most importantly, the British colonies and the English monarchy became locked in a gentle slide toward conflict. This lecture will chart the course of this relationship from the relative peace of the 1730's to the open warfare of the American Revolution.

New England Colonial Views on Crime and Punishment

Most colonial Americans viewed themselves as moral and religious people. However, the colonies also included people who broke the law without any concern for the rights of others. Depending upon the region in which you lived, criminal punishments were unreasonable harsh, or more reasonable. Colonists of the New England region adopted the strictest criminal punishments based on their Puritan beliefs. With greater religious tolerance and religious laws

protecting a greater number of people, the Middle region maintained a far more moderate approach to the way in which they dealt with criminal activities and the corresponding punishments. Given the relatively small population in the Southern region, criminal punishments differed according to the specific community.

As mentioned, the New England region had very strict moral codes for people who broke the law, and violators were often handed bizarre punishments. Most New England colonies possessed laws forbidding the use of foul language, public drunkenness, failing to attend regular church services, playing games on the Sabbath, and being physically intimate on religious holidays.

Such offenses often resulted in punishments conducted in public. This was a method of shaming the wrongdoer so that they would not commit the act again. Generally adulterers were forced to wear the letter “A” sewed on their clothes and counterfeiters wore the letter “C”. Other crimes might result in having an ear clipped, spending time in a pillory, or suffering branding with a hot iron. Public executions were regularly attended by thousands of people, among the spectators were women and children. Blasphemy was a crime, which warranted harsh punishment which may include a whipping, being put in the pillory, having a tongue bored out with a hot iron or being forced to stand in the gallows with a rope tied around their neck.

In the town of Salem in 1668, John Smith and the wife of John Kitchin were fined "for frequent absenting themselves from the public worship of God on the Lord's day." Crimes were considered sins and any offense against God was an automatic crime against the village and the people therein.

Religious Beliefs In The New England Colonies

Religion And The Law

- Many communities within the New England region established local governments according to religious beliefs; when a government is based on religious beliefs, the type of government is known as a **theocracy**.
- Religious rules throughout the New England region were organized in a book known as **the Blue Laws**.

  a. Most every criminal offense was considered to be a violation of religious morals, and an offense against God.

  b. Lesser crimes such as theft, forgery, robbery, public drunkenness, and adultery most often resulted in one of the following punishments: branding part of the body with a hot iron, whipping, time in the public stocks, or a brief jail sentence.

  c. Citizens who failed to attend church on Sunday, played games on Sunday, worker, selling alcohol on a Sunday, or consuming alcohol on a Sunday would

most often suffer one of the following punishments: whipping, time in the public stocks, or a more lengthy jail sentence.

d. The death penalty was considered appropriate for such crimes as: murder, rape, treason, or piracy.

Puritanism was the main Christian sect throughout the New England colonies.

The New England region was considered to be the most religiously intolerant of the colonial regions with Massachusetts considered to be the most religiously strict within the New England region; Rhode Island & Connecticut were founded by Puritans escaping the harsh religious rules of Massachusetts.

The colony of Connecticut did pass the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut; designed to offer more religious tolerance than in Massachusetts, and with a greater degree of political freedom.

In order to better guarantee that all citizens followed the Blue Laws, people known as Captains of the Watch served as religious police with the responsibility of educating community members on the Blue Laws. These "protectors of the faith" also arrested and fined people who violated the rules.

The holiest day of all was of course Sunday, or the Sabbath. Crimes committed on the Sabbath were always treated more seriously because the offender was not only guilty of a crime, but of offending God. Special religious police known as Sabbath Keepers patrolled communities looking for law breakers and even going so far as to check each home to see that people were respecting the Sabbath within their own home.

Religious Beliefs In The Middle Colonies

Religion in the middle colonies differed substantially from the New England region as well as the southern region.

When the colony of Pennsylvania was established in 1681

Founder William Penn offered settlers an opportunity for social and political equality as well as religious toleration.

Such tolerance makes Pennsylvania very attractive to Europeans.

Pennsylvania becomes one of the fastest growing and most successful colonies in British America.

Quaker settlers of Pennsylvania experienced religious persecution while living in Europe, and just like the Puritans of Massachusetts, viewed North America as a land of tolerance.

Unlike Massachusetts and Virginia, Pennsylvania Quakers want to establish a utopia dedicated to equality.

Quakers believed that God did not discriminate, or make distinctions based on gender, race, ethnicity, or social class.

Puritans in the New England region, especially Massachusetts, exercised religious intolerance for non-Puritans.

In the southern colony of Virginia, people were expected to belong to the official colonial church: the Anglican Church.

Profiles In Encourage:

The Inspirational Story of Anne Hutchinson

Anne Hutchinson left England with her husband bound for the American colonies. As with so many other Europeans, Anne wanted to escape religious persecution and find a community where she could worship freely. She arrived in the Puritan settlement of Boston in 1634. The members of this community were none to pleased to find that Anne was a rare woman indeed; she spoke her own mind on religious issues. Within three years, she was placed on trial, convicted, and banished from the colony for being "a woman not fit for our society."

As with most other Puritans, Anne Hutchinson believed that a person's soul would only be saved if they led a righteous (very religious) life. Within the community, Anne discussed the importance of having a direct, personal relationship with God. She even went so far as to encourage people to make their own moral choices, and thought that women should be able to preach just like the men. Perhaps most importantly, Anne declared that she received divine messages from God; messages that she was meant to share with everyone.

In 1637 and again in 1638, Anne was placed on trial without enjoying the legal protections of having a jury and having an attorney. Without any real evidence of wrongdoing, the judge in the case convicted Anne of failing to obey one of the Ten Commandments. For her punishment, Anne and her husband were banished from all Puritan communities in Massachusetts. Along with several of her followers, Anne Hutchinson marched through the winter cold until she reached an unoccupied area of land along the Atlantic coast; here they founded the colony of Rhode Island.

The Inspirational Story of John Peter Zenger

In 1733, a newspaper publisher named John Peter Zenger criticized the policies of the newly appointed royal governor of the New York colony, William Cosby. As the designated representative of the British monarchy in colonial New York, any criticism of a political representative was the same as criticizing the monarchy itself. Governor Cosby was so angered by Zenger's comments, and the side spread support for the publisher's anti-British statements, that the governor issued an arrest warrant for John Peter Zenger.

The charges against Zenger including accusations that he had spread "scandalous, false, and seditious libel" against the royal governor of the New York colony. On Sunday, November 17 1734, Zenger was arrested and charged with seditious libel. For the next eight

months, Zenger sat in prison awaiting his court date. This case attracted a great deal of attention with most colonists believing that John Zenger was innocent of all charges.

During the trial, Chief Justice Delancey was openly hostile to Zenger's defense attorney. With an obviously bias judge controlling the court proceedings, the defense attorney plead his case directly to the jury. Ultimately, the jury returned with a verdict of not guilty.

Significance: This case laid the foundation for the American ideal of freedom of the press. All of Zenger's comments were honest criticisms against British colonial policies. In addition, the newspaper articles were based on facts that were widely accepted. The bottom line was that the British monarchy did not want any colonist expressing political beliefs that were not in line with British policies. The case of John Peter Zenger established the legal concept of freedom of the press; an idea that would eventually be included among the protections listed in the First Amendment to the United States Bill of Rights.

The Native Americans

Who were the first Americans?

The New World before Christopher Columbus

The first American arrived from Siberia some 12,000 years ago (maybe as far back 25,000 years), crossed the Bering straits (Detroit de Bering) and scattered in the America north and south)

By the time Europeans reached North America, it was inhabited by perhaps 2 million people grouped into hundreds of small tribes. They represented vastly different cultures and traditions, ingeniously adapted to their environment. Many societies had disappeared for mysterious reasons before the Europeans landed.

A few ancient civilizations

- ✓ In North America: The mound builders (built immense hills of earth as temples and burial places), from 1000 B.C to A.D. 1500 (B.C= before Christ, A.D=Anno Domini)

The **Mound Builders** lived in the eastern half of the United States. The Mound Builders built earth mounds called **earthworks**.

Mound Builders civilization

✓ <u>In Central America</u>: The Mayas, from A.D. 300 to A.D. 900

Maya Ruins. The Kululkan Pyramid

✓ The Aztecs, from A.D.1300 A.D. 1500

✓ <u>In South America</u>: the Incas, from A.D.1400 to A.D. 1550

America was named after Amerigo Vespucci, an Italian explorer and navigator who was the first to describe the western hemisphere as an unknown continent rather than as a part of Asia.

America had been "discovered" before Christopher Columbus by such peoples as the Vikings in the 10th and 11th centuries.

Columbus and the followers

1492: *Christopher Columbus* landed in October 1492 at a small island in the Bahamas

Then he sailed to the island of Hispaniola (now the Dominican Republic) and then Cuba.

Thinking he had “discovered” India, he called the natives ”Indians” .Later, he made three other voyages to the New World.

1607: Jamestown was established by English colonists in Virginia, North America.

James town 1607

1620: *The pilgrim fathers*, a puritan group in search of religious freedom, landed in Plymouth (Massachusetts) on board their ship, the *Mayflower,* and established the English colony.

Plymouth 1620

The European Empires in America

The Spaniards conquered and settled in Central America and south America, the west of North America (California) and Florida. The French occupied the area east and west of the Mississippi River (called Louisiana) and Canada (Quebec and Montreal). The English settled along the Atlantic coast. Their conflicting interests and appetite for land and power led to wars from 1689 to 1673, which of course, involved the native population, the Indians.

The British came out victorious and could then proceed to their westward expansion beyond the Mississippi River.

White expansionism in the USA

The Manifest Destiny

The “Manifest Destiny” is a term that came into use in the 1860s to justify the US territorial expansion. It is the belief that the destiny of the United States of America was to occupy the territory given by the divine providence from the Atlantic to the pacific and even further. The USA was to serve as a model of civilization and democracy. Some historians also say that it has always been a justification for American imperialism in the world.

John Gast: American Progress (1872)

In 1872 artist John Gast painted a popular scene of people moving west that captured the view of Americans at the time. This painting is an allegory of "Manifest Destiny".

The North American Indians Dispossessed

1. **Dispossessed of their lands**

The Indian tribes were dispossessed of their hunting and fishing grounds and cultivated lands. To the Europeans, much of the Indian's land appeared vacant. The Indians "didn't improve the land" with fences, wells, buildings or permanent towns. Many settlers thought the Indians were savages and that their way of life had little value. They felt they have every right to farm the Indian lands.

The quest for land had started well in 1620. The Indians helped the Pilgrim Fathers survive their first winter by sharing corn and wild turkey and showing them where to fish. Indian generosity is still celebrated on Thanksgiving Day (last Thursday in November).

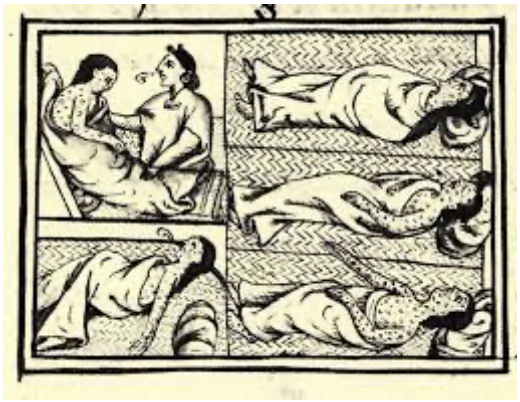
In 1787 and 1830 congress passed Acts allowing pioneers to go west of the Mississippi River, pushing Indians away.

The buffalo was systematically slaughtered. Indians depended on its meat, its skin and fur to make clothes and its hide to make tepees. In the 17th century there were 50 to 70 million buffalo. In 1883, 200 buffalo were left.

Indians went on losing lands. In the 1870s they controlled 135 million acres (1 acres=1/2 hectare) while in 1934 they had 48 million acres left. Today they own 52 million acres.

2. **A genocide**

Diseases from Europe also killed millions of natives who were not resistant to epidemics of measles, smallpox, mumps, tuberculosis, cholera, whooping cough and the flu.



The Indian wars ended up in an extermination (a good Indian was a dead Indian). The white men were more numerous and better equipped military.

Dispossessed of their identity

The defeated Indians had to accept life on reservations

On the reservations Indians suffered from diseases, unemployment, poverty and alcoholism. They gradually lost their tribal unity. Their culture, religion, language, customs were forbidden. Their children were educated away from their families, outside the reservations. They had no political power. They were ruled by an all-white Bureau of Indian Affairs (B.I.A.), whose agents were often incompetent or dishonest.

The Indians felt that they have been deprived of their ethnic identity without being allowed to participate in the white man's society.

Indian American reservations

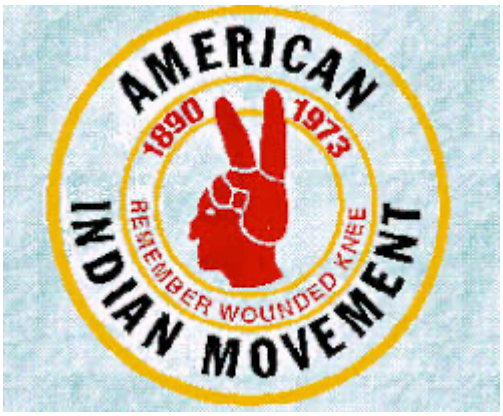
Indian American reservations

Indian Revival

The first improvements in the situation came in the 1920s

- ✓ They were granted American citizenship in recognition of services rendered by Indian soldiers in WWI.
- ✓ They were allowed to leave reservations where they had been kept virtual prisoners.
- ✓ 1934: The Indian Reorganization Act recognized tribal governments as sovereign nations.
- ✓ They were given voting rights in 1948.
- ✓ From 1954 to 1970, Indians were encouraged to leave the reservations and go to cities. But they were unprepared to adapt to an urban environment.
- ✓ The Civil Rights Act of 1964, prohibited discrimination against Native Americans, but many felt they were still being mistreated by the government.

American Indian Movement (AIM): Red Power



In the 1960s, Indians rebelled, following the example set by the Black civil Rights Movement "Black Power". The American Indian Movement was born in 1968 using the slogan "Red Power".

Originally, it was formed to help American Indians in urban ghettos or on reservations. Then, it became a militant Indian American civil Rights movement which aimed to gain respect for their heritage and their civil rights.

They reasserted their rights to the lands taken in violation of treaty agreement (march on Washington 1972). They sought restoration of these lands they believed had been taken illegally and asserted the right to use the natural resources of these lands.

They worked for a unification of all tribes.

They introduced the term "Native American" and protested media with ant-Indian bias.

- ✓ In 1969, AIM occupied the old prison of Alkatraz, in the bay of San Fransisco.
- ✓ In 1973, AIM occupied the village of Wounded Knee (South Dacota) to protest the government's Indian policy. .

Indians today continue to fight for their rights , although less militarily than they did in the 1970s.

Many tribes have taken the battle to courts to have their lands returned to them. Sometimes it worked.

Some tribes have turned their reservations into profitable business (tourism with successful casinos, high-tech mining, lumber business, cattle ranching).



But most of the tribes remain very poor either on reservations or in the cities. The standards of health and education are extremely low and employment rate is much bellow national average.


Political Institutions

1. **The American Revolution (1775-83)**

The Revolutionary War (1775-83), also known as the American Revolution, arose from growing tensions between the colonists in Britain's 13 North American colonies and the British crown.

For more than a decade before the outbreak of the American Revolution in 1775, tensions had been building between colonists and the British authorities. The *French and Indian War*, or *Seven Years' War* (1756-1763), brought new territories under the power of the British crown, but the expensive conflict lead to new and unpopular taxes. Attempts by the British government to raise revenue by taxing the colonies (notably the Stamp Act of 1765, the Townshend Acts of 1767 and the Tea Act of 1773) met with heated protest among many colonists, who resented their lack of representation in Parliament and demanded the same rights as other British subjects.

2. The Declaration of Independence:

The 13 English colonies declared their independence ***on July, the 4th of 1776.*** Writers or the declaration of independence were strongly influenced by the ideals of the Age of Enlightenment (18th century). The period was marked by political aspiration toward the government or consolidation nation creation and greater rights for common people. Reason was advocated as a primary source and basis of authority.

Who wrote the Declaration of Independence?

During the summer of 1776, Thomas Jefferson of Virginia was charged with drafting a formal statement justifying the 13 North American colonies' break with Great Britain. A member of a committee of five that also included John Adams of Massachusetts, Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, Robert Livingston of New York and Roger Sherman of Connecticut, Jefferson drew up a draft and included Franklin's and Adams' corrections. At the time, the Declaration of Independence was regarded as a collective effort of the Continental Congress(representing the 13 colonies); Jefferson was not recognized as its principal author until the 1790s.

3. Independence of the 13 British colonies and birth of the American constitution:

The Revolutionary War ended on September 3, 1783, with the *Treaty of Paris* which was signed between Great Britain and its 13 American colonies. By its terms, Britain recognized the independence of the United States

In the new nation (the United States of America) a new democratic order was established based on the Constitution of the United States which is the supreme law of the land.

The Constitution was ratified *on June the 21th of 1788 (officially)*

The United States Constitution

The Constitution of the United States is a written document that is the basic law of our country. It describes how the national government, the states, and local government share power. The purpose of the government is to protect the rights of citizens.
The Constitution divided the national government into three branches. Congress, the legislative branch, makes the laws. Congress includes the Senate and House of Representatives. Voters from each state elect two senators. The number of representatives in the House a state has depends on the population. California has 53 representatives, more than any other state.
The President leads the executive branch, which also includes many departments. This branch executes the nation's laws. Judges and courts make up the judicial branch, which decides what the laws mean. The highest court is the Supreme Court, which decides whether laws obey the Constitution.
Each branch has limits on its powers. There is a system of checks and balances that allows each branch to check on the others.

4. The founding principles of the US Constitution:

The Constitution was based on the English law none as “common law” it was also inspired by 18th century philosophy and thinkers such as John Locke and Montesquieu.

John Locke (1690):

- Protection of men natural rights
- Limitation of the power given to government in order to avoid tyranny

Montesquieu (1748):

- Separate and balanced power
- A system of mutual checks

The Constitution is based on 4 mains principles:

- *Republicanism and popular representation* (proper representation of the people through the legislative assemblies, direct suffrage, universal right to vote and limitation of elective terms)

- *Separation of powers* (protection against an excessive concentration of authority)

- *Federalism* (a few explicit and exclusive rights reserved for federal government all other rights rest in the 50 states)

- *Defends of personal liberties* (those personal liberties are enumerates in the Bill of rights that represent the first 10 amendments to the Constitution)

5. *The Text of the Constitution*

The Constitution contains 7 articles. They describe the relationship of the states **to the** Federal Government, establish the **Constitution** as the supreme law of the land, and define the amendment and ratification processes.

As early ***as June 1789*** the need for a Bill of rights arose and ***on September the 25th of 1789*** the first ten amendment were adopted by Congress because a few states has been reluctant to ratified the Constitution or they thought it would encourage the centralization of power.

The Bill of rights was ratified ***on December the 15th of 1791***.

The aim of the Bill of rights is to protect American against possible abuses of authority on a part of the government. So far the Constitution has been amended only *27 times* and the last time was ***1992***.

For an amendment to be proposed, a two-thirds majority is required. Then the text is sent to the states for ratification, if three quarters of the states approve of the text, the amendment is adopted and added to the Constitution.

6. The US Government

a/ Legislative power – the Congress

The role of Congress is to draft and vote the nation laws. The US Congress is composed of two assemblies:

First the House of Representatives (there are 435 members, each state has at least one representative. The representation of states is proportional to their population. Representatives are elected by means of universal suffrage and serve a two-year term. There is no limit to the number of turns. Debates are presided over by the speaker of the House of Representatives who belongs to the majority party.)

Second: the Senate (There are 100 senators, 2 per states. Senators are elected for 6 years by universal suffrage. One third of the Senate is renewed every two years to insure political security. The president of the Senate is the Vice president of the USA (Kamala Harris at the

moment). Usually the president of the Senate does not take part in votes. Yet in case of a tie the vote of the vice president is determining.

The Constitution enumerates the different powers of the Congress

(*Example*: taxation, trade, army, diplomacy and budget)

Congress may also exercise the right of impeachment against high federal officials and the president.

Impeachment = it is an act of accusation in case of corruption, treason or misdemeanors. The president can be removed from office if is charged with misconduct.)

The legislatives procedures: (Bill = projet de loi ≠ Law = loi)

Bills are first examine by the committees then they are sent for debate to the house of representative and then to the Senate, where a majority of vote is required ***(50, 1%).*** Finally the Bills are sent to the president whose signature turns them into laws. If president vetoes a bill, Congress may overrule the veto by a two-thirds majority in both houses.

b/ Executive power – the President

Under the constitution, a president and a vice president called "the presidential ticket" are elected jointly for 4-year term. A president can serve only 2 terms (***22nd amendment in 1951).***

The Ticket runs for one of the two parties (democratic / republican: these are the two major political parties in the US). The vice president besides being president of the Senate substitutes for the president in case the president dies or is incapacitated.

The president has exclusive powers and powers that he shells with Congress. The president is the commander in chief of the arm forces. The president can pardon people for offences against the USA. The president *appoints* federal officials and Supreme Court justices with the consent of the Senate. The president gives the *States of the Union* address before Congress every year, usually in January. The states of the Union address is a speech in which he presents his political agenda.

c/ Judicial power – The Supreme Court

The Supreme Court exercises control over the laws voted in Congress by reviewing the conformity with the Constitution. ***9 judges called justices*** sit in the Supreme Court. They are appointed for life by the president with the consent of the Senate. They cannot be replaced except by process of impeachment, or if they die or resigned. The Supreme Court is presided over by the chief justice.

Checks and Balances

Each branch of power has a control over the other two in order to avoid totalitarianism. The president can veto a bill but Congress can overrule the veto. Congress can impeach the president on condition that the House of Representatives should approve the article of impeachment and the Senate should confirm the decision with a two-thirds majority vote.

The president nominates justices with the consent of the Senate but since judges are appointed for life they can control the laws passed in Congress and the President decision without fearing they might be dismissed.