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Разан А.П.

Країнознавство. США. Завдання для самостійної роботи

Навчально-методичний посібник для студентів II курсу

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CONTENTS

I. Geography	
1. Geographical Regions: the South.....	5
Part I.....	5
Part II.....	8
Part III.....	12
Part IV	14
2. Geographical Regions: the Corn Belt.....	21
Part I.....	21
Part II.....	27
Part III	32
II. Political system	
Part I.....	33
Part II.....	37
Part III	42
III. Education	
1. History of Education.....	43
Part I.....	44
Part II.....	48
Part III.....	50
Part IV.....	52
Part V.....	58
Part VI.....	64
Part VII.....	69
Part VIII.....	71
Part IX.....	72
Part X.....	81
Part XI.....	86
Part XII.....	88
2. Standards and Tests.....	93
Part I.....	93
3. Types of Higher Educational Establishments.....	95
Part I.....	95
4. Supreme Court Decisions on Education	101
Part I	101
Part II.....	105
Part III.....	108

ПЕРЕДМОВА

Навчально-методичний посібник з країнознавства призначений для студентів II курсу мовних факультетів ВНЗ.

Мета посібника – надати необхідний студентам додатковий матеріал та допомогти їм в самостійному опрацюванні цього матеріалу.

Посібник складається з 3 частин, які відповідають основним розділам, що вивчаються в курсі країнознавства – «Географія», «Політичний устрій» та «Освіта» Сполучених Штатів. Автентичні тексти країнознавчої тематики надають інформацію, яка, як правило, не розглядається на лекційних заняттях та виноситься на самостійне опрацювання. Окремі тексти та тематичні групи текстів супроводжуються низкою розроблених вправ, що мають забезпечити ефективне засвоєння змісту та надійне самостійне опрацювання матеріалу. Вправи відповідають різним рівням навченості студентів.

Навчально-методичний посібник пройшов апробацію в ННІ іноземних мов Черкаського національного університету у 2009-2010 навчальному році.

Автор-укладач висловлює щире подяку рецензентам: канд. педагогічних наук, доценту кафедри англійської філології О.І.Вовк та канд. філологічних наук, доценту кафедри романо-германської філології та перекладу Черкаського державного технологічного університету Л.П. Дегтярьовій за допомогу в роботі над посібником.

GEOGRAPHY

Geographical Regions: the South

Part I

The earliest European colonization in America was commercial and exploitative. And the coastal plain south of Delaware Bay, especially that south of Chesapeake Bay, contained many areas that appeared ideal for agricultural exploitation. The long, hot summers, regular rainfall, and mild winters permitted settlers a selection of crops complementary to those grown in northern Europe. The large number of rivers that crossed the plain, navigable by small boats at least, allowed settlement to expand freely between the James River in Virginia and the Altamaha River in Georgia.

Population densities remained low throughout most of the region, with urban concentrations larger than the village size limited to port cities (Norfolk, Virginia; Wilmington, North Carolina; Charleston, South Carolina; Savannah, Georgia) or the heads of navigation on the main rivers (Richmond, Virginia, and, later, Columbia, South Carolina, and Augusta, Georgia). The strong rural and agrarian elements of southern culture established a pattern that remained significant until after the mid-20th century.

The greatest return for the effort expended by Europeans in settling the Atlantic southern lowlands was through highly structured cash crop agriculture. The plantation organization came gradually to dominate the early southern colonial economy. Production of tobacco along the James River and to the south in northeastern North Carolina, and production of rice and indigo in and around the many coastal swamps in the Carolinas and Georgia, were important from 1695 onward. Cotton production grew slowly in importance until about 1800 and spread rapidly inland, from the initial concentrations on the Sea Islands between Charleston and Spanish-held Florida. Although privately held small farms were

numerous, the plantation form of organization was successful enough that it was carried westward with cotton production and reached its most prevalent form in Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana during the first half of the 19th century. Tobacco was similarly carried westward into Kentucky and Tennessee by settlers migrating from Virginia and North Carolina.

The South's spatial organization was weakly developed, with small market centers serving as collection and transshipment points; larger cities containing a variety of economic activities were few in number. The transportation network accompanying this pattern was one that simply allowed the inland products to be moved most directly to the coastal export centers; interconnections between the smaller marketplaces remained few. A major consequence was rural isolation for most of the region's population.

Large-scale plantation agriculture required a sizable annual investment, and much of that investment was in the form of slave labor from Africa. Once this practice was established, it restricted population immigration because potential settlers and urban workers found freer opportunities in the North. Since early in the 19th century, therefore, the South's proportion of foreign born has been lower than any other region of the country. And because significant immigration to the United States from countries outside Britain did not occur until the 1840s, the overwhelming majority of southern whites are of British descent.

By the outbreak of the Civil War in the 1860s, in which slavery was an underlying issue that pitted the North against the South, the South's geographic pattern of population settlement and economic organization had changed dramatically from its colonial beginnings. Still, it was strongly rural-urban development was limited to numerous villages and small towns, the larger cities were almost all located on the coast or at major transfer points along interior waterways, and transportation and communication networks were sparse.

Production of plantation cotton had become so successful that the region's economy was dominated by this one crop. Other crops were grown - tobacco, rice, sugarcane, and hemp, for example - but primarily as a local food supply or a secondary cash alternative. In 1860, cotton dominated not only the South's economy but also, at least in terms of export income, the entire country's; over 60 percent of the total value of goods exported from the United States during that year was from cotton. Currently produced in significant quantity outside the South, cotton still ranked fifth in value of U.S. agricultural exports in 1996.

With the loss of the Civil War, the South's economic underpinnings were badly damaged. Railroads were torn up and equipment confiscated, shipping terminals disrupted, and most of the scattered industrial base destroyed. Confederate currency and bonds were worthless. Cotton stocks awaiting postwar sale in warehouses and ports were confiscated by northern forces. Farms and fields were in disrepair, and implements and livestock were often stolen or lost. The slave labor supply was formally eliminated, and large landholdings broken up or heavily taxed.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What favourable conditions led to the successful agricultural exploitation of the South?
2. What kind of population density prevailed?
3. What were the results of the efforts to expand the European settlement?
4. What kind of production, when and where was of main importance in the South?
5. How was the special organization developed?
6. In what form was the large-scale plantation agriculture invested?

7. What was the issue between the North and the South when the Civil War broke out?
8. Which crop prevailed over the plantation production?

II. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

North Carolina, European, Georgia, Civil War, James River, Atlantic, Carolinas, South's.

1. The earliest ... colonization in America was commercial and exploitative. 2. The greatest return for the effort expended by Europeans in settling the ... southern lowlands was through highly structured cash crop agriculture. 3. Production of tobacco along the ... and to the south in northeastern..., and production of rice and indigo in and around the many coastal swamps in the ... and, were important from 1695 onward. 4. The ... spatial organization was weakly developed, with small market centers serving as collection and transshipment points. 5. With the loss of the..., the South's economic underpinnings were badly damaged.

Part II

The first half-century following the Civil War was a period of readjustment for the South. The white population proceeded through several alternative reactions to the emancipated status of the large black population before finally settling into institutionalized segregation. Blacks, for their part, experienced changes in opportunities that were largely out of their control until more than a half-century after the war. This was also a period during which southern attitudes and feelings of isolation from the remainder of the country became even more inflexible.

The disintegration of the antebellum economic organization led to difficult times for most of the South's population during the 12-year period of reconstruction (1865-1877) following the Civil War. Quite aside from the destruction of transportation and manufacturing capacity, the plantation economy had become refined to the point of rigidity and overdependence on slave labor. After the war, a continuation of intense exploitation was necessary to meet heavy taxation and other costs of rebuilding. The resource most available for exploitation continued to be the land; thus, cotton production remained dominant in the region's economy.

The other factors necessary for production, however, were much less available. Local capital was scarce, with much of it consumed by the war effort or drawn off after the war by the North through taxation. Interest rates increased sharply, and farmers found themselves continually in debt. This tended to perpetuate the southern dependence on agriculture.

With few jobs available in the small towns, most rural blacks were forced to make whatever arrangements they could with the remaining white landowners. Sharecropping - in which blacks were provided with credit for tools, seeds, living quarters, and food in return for a share of the crops raised on another's land - became the means of subsistence and the way of life, just as it was for many poor whites who had lost their land. Once this pattern was established, it was enforced with "black codes" that restricted black movements outside the agricultural areas and with a continuation of low educational opportunities. Even when they owned their land, black farmers were hampered by poor access to credit, farm sizes too small to be highly productive, and the anti-black aspects of the regional culture.

About 1880, the environment for economic opportunities in the South entered a new phase. During this decade, manufacturing experienced rapid development led by the growth of the cotton textile industry. By 1929, 57 percent of the nation's

cotton textile spindles were in the South, over two and a half times the share existing in 1890.

Natural and synthetic fiber industries began to appear in the region to produce the raw material for cotton and synthetic textile manufacturers, just as the textile industries provide the raw material for apparel manufacturing. Taking advantage of proximity, the growth in textile and apparel manufacturing across the Carolina Piedmont and in northern Georgia was followed by an increase in the number and output of fiber industries.

Cotton textile manufacturing was not the only new source of industrial opportunities. Reconstruction of the region's railroads and other public improvements stimulated the flow of money and the development of railroad towns. Cigarette manufacturing began to be focused in the tobacco regions of North Carolina and Virginia. With the establishment of a new federal land policy and a strengthened railroad network, the South's large timber resources began to be exploited. Much of the timber was taken out as a raw material, but furniture manufacturing in North Carolina and Virginia and (after 1936) pulp and paper manufacturing throughout the South also were an outgrowth of the exploitation. These industries continue to be important.

Also, during the last quarter of the 19th century, technological improvements in iron-making led to the rise of Chattanooga, Tennessee, as an important center of iron production. At the same time, a large deposit of high-quality coking coal was discovered near Birmingham, Alabama, and exploitation of the seam was begun before the end of the decade. Numerous iron-making companies and iron- and steel-using industries accumulated in and around Birmingham and Chattanooga. These two cities combined with the transport focus and subsidiary industries in Atlanta, Georgia, to form an important industrial triangle by the end of the century.

This development was significant in the economic geography of the South because of the way in which iron and steel production tends to draw other manufacturers dependent on steel - industries that are not as low-skill and low-wage as textile and tobacco product manufacturing. Also, this centrally located region of nonagricultural economic development could have been an industrial focus for the South as a whole, stimulating increases in labor skills, income levels, and general economic welfare through each city's connections with other major urban centers.

This did occur to some degree, but discriminatory shipping rates imposed on Birmingham-manufactured products dampened the beneficial effects considerably. Even though this pricing practice was eventually ruled illegal and stopped, the policy severely restricted the competitive cost advantage of Alabama steel during the rapid economic expansion decades of the early 20th century and contributed to the slow growth of southern industry.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What was the period of the first half-century following the Civil War?
2. What changes happened to the plantation economy?
3. What way of life were the blacks forced to lead?
4. What kind of new industries began to appear in the region?
5. Which changes that took place in the region were considered to be most important?

II. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

Cotton , Sharecropping, steel-using, synthetic, Blacks, natural, iron-making.

1. ..., for their part, experienced changes in opportunity that were largely out of their control until more than a half-century after the war. 2. ... - in which blacks were provided with credit for tools, seeds, living quarters, and food in return for a share of the crops raised on another's land. 3. ... and ... fiber industries began to appear in the region to produce the raw material for cotton and synthetic textile manufacturers. 4. ... textile manufacturing was not the only new source of industrial opportunities. 5. Numerous ... companies and iron- and ... industries accumulated in and around Birmingham and Chattanooga.

Part III

In the late 1880s and the 1890s, restrictive laws were passed in each southern state requiring racial separation in more and more aspects of southern life. Formal segregation had many geographic expressions. Two sets of schools were operated. Two sets of restaurants, recreation facilities, park benches, drinking fountains, restrooms, and other points of potential contact between blacks and whites had to be constructed and maintained. Housing was separated into white areas and black areas. Entry into certain occupations was restricted, and both overt and covert restrictions were placed on black efforts to vote.

For almost 50 years following the end of the Civil War, the slow trickle of black migrants who left the South increased very little. Thus, 91.5 percent of all U.S. blacks resided in the South in 1870 and 89 percent in 1910. During the next decade, however, the number of black emigrants increased sharply, "pushed" by restrictive laws, violence, and near-subsistence economic conditions. Too, World War I led to a strenuous effort by northern industries to "pull" blacks (and poor whites) from the South.

Prior to 1914, national industrial expansion had depended on millions of European immigrants to meet the large demand for labor. More than one-third of the U.S.

population in 1910 was foreign born or had at least one parent born outside the country.

When the war shut off this supply, an alternative was found in the large unemployed and underemployed southern labor pool.

The southern economy might not have suffered from the exodus of blacks if the population involved had not also been selective. Most blacks who left were between the ages of 18 and 35. Raised in the South, this group's most economically productive years were then spent outside the region. Many of those who remained behind were in their later productive years, retired, or not yet in the labor force. Racial limitations on opportunities in professional occupations also resulted in a loss of many of the most highly trained young people from the region.

Another consequence of the Civil War was an intensification of the sectionalism already felt in the region. The South is the only part of the United States to have suffered occupation by a conquering army, and it has taken more than a century and a great deal of economic growth to temper the bitterness that followed.

The Civil War and reconstruction were also instrumental in unifying Southern whites. The "Solid South" was a term that indicated that the entire region voted as a bloc and often in direct contradiction to otherwise national trends. The war and reconstruction were associated with the North and the Republican party, so southern whites became stubborn opposition Democrats. When southern whites could no longer tolerate the ideological connection with the Democratic party, the explicit sectional label "southern Democrats" became common. Today, national political changes and southern cultural changes have made the South no longer solidly Democratic. The full range of the political spectrum is represented among southern elected officials, although the majority tend to continue some of the traditional orientations.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. Which geographic expressions had the formal segregation?

2. What was the number of the black immigrants during the first 50 years after the Civil War?
3. Why did the economy of the South suffer from the exodus of blacks?
4. What for was the term "Solid South" used?
5. Why did the label "southern Democrats" become common?

II. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

Civil War, "Solid South", segregation, racial limitations, "southern Democrats".

1. Formal ... had many geographic expressions. 2. For almost 50 years following the end of the ..., the slow trickle of black migrants who left the South increased very little. 3. ... on opportunities in professional occupations also resulted in a loss of many of the most highly trained young people from the region. 4. The ... was a term that indicated that the entire region voted as a bloc and often in direct contradiction to otherwise national trends. 5. When southern whites could no longer tolerate the ideological connection with the Democratic party, the explicit sectional label ... became common.

Part IV

The spatial and regional characteristics of the New South have been built on patterns that evolved over decades and, in some ways, over centuries. The key to recent changes lies in the gradual loss of regional isolation.

Prior to the mid-20th century, most of the South's population, and certainly its leadership, appeared to react to events as though the South was a separate country, reluctantly required to continue dealing with a northern neighbor. Since the later 1930s, however, and especially since the later 1940s, trends and pressures external to the South began to infiltrate the region and break down its isolation.

The economy of the South in the 1930s was little different from that of 1870: dominantly agrarian, producing raw agricultural products primarily for export, capital deficient, supported by heavy use of animal power and hand labor, and operated through sharecropping and tenant-farming arrangements and a regionally distinctive crop-lien system. What industry existed was largely low-wage or oriented toward narrow local markets. The region's urban structure continued to reflect this orientation, with small market centers, railroad towns, textile mill towns, and county seats representing the pervasive urban form in the South.

Over the next half century, tremendous changes occurred. By the early 1950s, over half of the region's labor force was engaged in urban-based, nonagricultural employment; the proportion in agriculture has continued to decline. This paralleled a sharp increase in manufacturing employment and employment in service activities. Further, the industrial mix in the South has shown a strong trend toward diversification; no longer is southern manufacturing limited to the early stages of raw materials processing.

Within agriculture, diversification also occurred. Cotton remains the most important cash crop to the region; other crops include tobacco, sugarcane, peanuts, and rice. But the area producing cotton is only a shadow of its former size. This shrinkage was supported by the decay of old cotton-ginning institutions in sections of the former production area.

While cotton dominance declined, livestock industries and other crops, such as soybeans, increased sharply. Beef production improved greatly as farmers improved pastures with better grasses and fodder crops and with higher fertilizer applications. At the same time, new cattle strains were developed to survive and thrive in the hot, humid southern summer. Within the last 30 years, national broiler and chicken production has become industrialized and concentrated in the South.

Even more dramatic has been the transformation in the means of farm production. Wherever possible, machinery has been applied to the production process, and regional agriculture is now much more efficient than before. The traditional sharecrop system has almost disappeared since the mid-1930s, and there has been a sharp increase in the average farm size in the South.

Rural-to-urban migration within the South increased rapidly as the region's economy participated in the post-Depression expansion of the late 1930s. In 1940, there were only 35 cities with populations greater than 50,000 in the South. By 1950, the number had increased to 42, and by 1980 it had reached 75.

The pull to the cities was stimulated by industrial growth and a diversification that promised to match that of southern agriculture and to produce a varied industrial mix. The proportion of the nonagricultural labor force in manufacturing jobs increased greatly, and in virtually every part of the region. The traditional industries - such as steel, tobacco products, and textiles - remained regionally important for a period but less dominant as other kinds of manufacturing activity appeared. Synthetic textiles and apparel industries, the former in the Carolinas and the latter primarily in northern Georgia, widened activities even within this broad industrial category. Chemical industries expanded rapidly along the Gulf Coast. Furniture production in the central Carolina Piedmont increased, and other wood-processing plants became more prominent throughout the eastern and Gulf coastal plains. Shipbuilding was continued at Norfolk, Virginia, and begun at several sites on the Gulf Coast; aircraft production at Marietta, Georgia, drew skilled labor and higher wages to the Atlanta area.

Most significantly, as the average southern consumer earned higher wages, the regional market increased enough to draw many consumer goods manufacturers

into the South. This increased the demand for nonagricultural labor, spreading the income further and strengthening the local market.

The South's rapid industrial growth is a consequence of a growing regional market, gradually demanding and able to pay for more goods and services. But the question remains: Why did the market expand? One observer has proposed that the federal government's Agricultural Adjustment Acts (1935 and later) provided the main stimulus to the market growth.

Before the acts took effect, the prices that farm products could demand were set to a great extent by supply and demand in the international marketplace. To the South, this meant that prices for southern cotton, for example, fluctuated partly according to the production success or failure in other cotton-growing areas of the world. More important, farm labor in the cotton South was in competition with cotton producers in what was still largely a colonial world economy. When agricultural wages and prices were adjusted upward under the Agricultural Adjustment Acts to reflect national industrial wage differentials, the sharply improved market in the South for manufactured goods initiated the upward development spiral still affecting the region.

In an act of federal intervention much more widely recognized as significant to the South's social structure, the U.S. Supreme Court in 1954 struck down the segregationist "separate but equal" doctrine permitted almost 70 years before. Changes in the South's social geography were initiated by this decision, changes that reverberated in every other part of the country where race affected opportunity, and the repercussions are far from settled today.

A thread common to many of the South's changes since the mid-1930s is the gradual decline of its regional distinctiveness. Economic diversity is replacing simple dependency on agriculture. There are indications that the region's supply of

low-wage labor is almost exhausted; new industry and service activities will have to compete more actively and may continue to force wages upward slowly. A significant infusion of northern migrants, especially to regional metropolitan growth centers, has made some of these cities less distinctively southern in culture and more clearly just urban.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What changes in the economy were noticeable?
2. What other kinds of production developed after the decline of the cotton one?
3. What was the transformation in the means of farm production?
4. What changes in industrial growth appeared when people started to pull to the cities?
5. What did the Agricultural Adjustment Acts change?

II. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

Rural-to-urban, Carolina Piedmont, New South, Atlanta area, Agricultural Adjustment Acts, post-Depression.

1. The spatial and regional characteristics of the ... have been built on patterns that evolved over decades and, in some ways, over centuries.
2. ... migration within the South increased rapidly as the region's economy participated in the ... expansion of the late 1930s.
3. Furniture production in the central ... increased, and other wood-processing plants became more prominent throughout the eastern and Gulf coastal plains.
4. Aircraft production at Marietta, Georgia, drew skilled labor and higher

wages to the... . 5. One observer has proposed that the federal government's ... (1935 and later) provided the main stimulus to the market growth.

III. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. After the colonization the population density in the South remained small for a continuous period of time. 2. The production of tobacco crops was most important for the region's economy. 3. The transportation network in the South allowed the inland products to be moved most directly to the coastal export centers during the early 19th century. 4. Slavery wasn't considered to be an issue and both North and South agreed in this. 5. With the loss of the Civil War, the South's economic groundings were badly damaged. 6. Sharecropping was considered to be the way of life led by the rich people. 7. Reconstruction of the region's railroads and other public improvements stimulated the flow of money and the development of railroad towns. 8. The process of racial segregation led to a considerable separation between the whites and the blacks. 9. The whites of the South wholly agreed to the political views of those in the North. 10. In the 20th century more and more people in the South become engaged in the rural-oriented jobs.

IV. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

- a) The first crops grown in the colonized America were better than in Europe.
 - b) The first crops grown in the colonized America were better than in Africa.
 - c) The first crops grown in the colonized America were better than in Asia.
-
- a) The best growing crop was of tobacco.
 - b) The best growing crop was of rice.
 - c) The best growing crop was of cotton.
-
- a) The Civil War lead to the abolition of freedom.

- b) The Civil War lead to the abolition of slavery.
- c) The Civil War lead to the abolition of democracy.

- a) The period of reconstruction following the Civil War lasted for 12 years.
- b) The period of reconstruction following the Civil War lasted for 5 years.
- c) The period of reconstruction following the Civil War lasted for 20 years.

- a) The slave labor was brought to the South from Asia.
- b) The slave labor was brought to the South from Europe.
- c) The slave labor was brought to the South from Africa.

- a) In the post-war years the most damaged were railroads.
- b) In the post-war years the most damaged were agricultural tools.
- c) In the post-war years the most damaged were manufacturing facilities.

- a) The marked of the South expanded due to the Amendments of the Supreme Court.
- b) The marked of the South expanded due to the Agricultural Adjustment Acts.
- c) The marked of the South expanded due to the voting of the "Solid South".

V. Identify the events in English history related to the following names:

European colonization, Civil War, "Solid South", "southern Democrats", Agricultural Adjustment Acts, sharecropping.

VI. Match the events in the first column to the dates in the second column:

Civil War	1880s - 1990s
Post-war period of reconstruction	1935 and later
Racial Segregation	1865 - 1877
Agricultural Adjustment Acts	1860s

VII. Imagine and describe the life of the first settlers who were colonizing the South.

VIII. Describe the way the blacks and the whites communicated in the years of racial segregation.

Geographical Regions: the Corn Belt

Part I

The Corn Belt is a region of the Midwestern United States where corn has, since the 1850s, been the predominant crop, replacing the native tall grasses. By 1950, 99% of the corn was grown from hybrids. Most corn is fed to livestock, especially hogs and poultry. In recent decades soybeans have grown in importance. The U.S. produces 40% of the world crop. Geographic definitions of the region vary. Typically it is defined to include Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, and eastern Nebraska, eastern Kansas, southern Minnesota and parts of Missouri. In 2008, the top four corn-producing states were Iowa, Illinois, Nebraska, and Minnesota, together accounting for more than half of the corn grown in the United States. The Corn Belt also sometimes is defined to include parts of South Dakota, North Dakota, Ohio, Wisconsin, Michigan, and Kentucky. The region is characterized by relatively level land and deep, fertile soils, high in organic matter. More generally "Corn Belt" represents the most intensively agricultural region of the Midwest, connoting a lifestyle based on ownership of family farms, with supporting small towns and powerful farm organizations that lobbied to obtain higher prices.

Corn is the most important of all American crops, as basic to American agriculture as iron is to American industry. In the United States, two farmers out of every three, and one hectare out of every four cultivated, grow corn. The annual crop is

greater than the nation's yield of wheat, rice and other small grains combined, and probably one of the United States' greatest resources is its ability to grow great quantities of corn.

However, the only corn most Americans see is "sweet corn," a garden vegetable that is eaten either fresh or preserved, or is ground into meal for baking. But these uses account for only a small fraction of the crop.

Most of the yield – some three-fourths of it is used as animal feed and reaches the table in the form of milk, cream, cheese, butter, eggs, beef, lamb, pork or poultry. Much of the remainder is processed into oil, syrups and starches.

Corn also has proven to be an astonishingly versatile industrial material. From a corn distilling process manufactures extract alcohol-fuel, or gasohol, used in many farm vehicles and growing numbers of cars. Corn soaked in warm water for 2 day produces "steepwater," which can be converted into drugs, vitamins and minerals. Scientists have derived a biodegradable plastic film from corn starch that could replace plastics made from petroleum. Another technological offspring of corn starch is called the "Super Slurper," a dust that can absorb 2,000 times its weight in water. And corn starch itself has become such a popular sweetener in soft drinks and other prepared foods that it now rivals sugar.

There are two main reasons why corn has become the basic crop of American agriculture. One is that it grows so well. A hectare of corn requires only one-twelfth as much seed as a hectare of wheat, for instance. Yet the yield of grain from the hectare of corn is several times as high as that from the hectare of wheat. The other reason is that farmers have worked out high-yielding mechanized production methods in all the important corn-producing areas. The Corn Belt farmer uses machines for every step of his operation – planting, enriching the soil, cultivating, spraying, killing weeds, harvesting the ears, removing the thick natural

wrappings, shelling the kernels from the long cobs on which they grow, and cutting the stalks. Because of this extensive use of machinery, the average farmer can cultivate as many as 140 hectares and care for a large herd of livestock with no more help than perhaps a son who spends several hours a day in school. On a Corn Belt farm, the most impressive buildings are the large barns and machine sheds which may dwarf the farmer's house itself.

Farmers first began to keep reliable records of corn production in 1866. Between 1866 and 1939, the corn yield in the United States averaged between 700 and 1,000 liters of shelled grain per hectare. Suddenly, in 1940, it began to increase greatly each year; by 1948, it was about 1,500 liters per hectare; and, by 1972, it reached about 3,400 liters per hectare. (The highest recorded yield is about 7,000 liters per hectare, produced in the State of Iowa). Such a vast and rapid change in the most basic crop represents a real agricultural revolution.

This has been a quiet sort of revolution, however, because the chief difference between the older corn agriculture and the new is simply that the farmer plants a different kind of seed. Instead of saving the best ears from each year's crop for the next year's planting, the traditional method, the farmer now buys new seed every year. The increased value of the crop more than pays for the extra cost.

Like farmers everywhere, American farmers did not like to throw away anything that experience had taught them. They did not like to risk an untried new idea, no matter how good it sounded. To the eye, hybrid corn did not look as impressive as the prize ears of ordinary corn they were so proud of growing. So, even after the first hybrids were developed, farmers were unwilling to use them. The corn breeders had to spend some 20 years more improving the value of the new strains before a few farmers were convinced it was worth risking. After that, the revolution in the Corn Belt took only a few years as the greater yields proved the value of the new grain.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. In what part of the USA is the Corn Belt situated?
2. How many per cent of the world crop is the USA producing?
3. What states did the Corn Belt include typically?
4. What states were the top four corn-producing states in 2008?
5. Is the annual crop of corn in the USA greater or smaller than the nation's yield of wheat, rice and other small grains?
6. For what is most of the corn's yield used?
7. For what can the Corn be used as versatile industrial material?
8. What are the two main reasons why corn has become the basic crop of American agriculture?
9. When did farmers first begin to keep reliable records of corn production?
10. Do the farmers in the USA save the best ears from each year's crop for the next year's planting or buy new seed every year?

II. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

Iowa, Iowa, Illinois, animal feed, Indiana, producing "steepwater," Nebraska, extracting alcohol-fuel Illinois, Minnesota.

1. Typically the Corn Belt is defined to include: eastern Nebraska, eastern Kansas, southern Minnesota, parts of Missouri,,
2. In 2008 the top four corn-producing states were... , ...,, and ... , together accounting for more than half of the corn grown in the United States.
3. Most of the yield – some three-fourths of it -is used as ...
4. Corn as the versatile industrial material is used for ... and

III. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. The Corn Belt is a region of the Southwestern United States where corn has, since the 1850s, been the predominant crop.
2. The U.S. produces 60% of the world crop.
3. In 2008, the top four corn-producing states were Iowa, Illinois, Nebraska, and Minnesota.
4. In the United States, two farmers out of every five, and one hectare out of every six cultivated, grow corn.
5. Most of the yield – some three-fourths of it– is used as animal feed and reaches the table in the form of milk, cream, cheese, butter, eggs, beef, lamb, pork or poultry.
6. Corn also has proven to be an astonishingly versatile industrial material.

IV. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

- a) The Corn Belt is a region of the Northwestern United States where corn has, since the 1850s, been the predominant crop, replacing the native tall grasses.
 - b) The Corn Belt is a region of the Midwestern United States where corn has, since the 1850s, been the predominant crop, replacing the native tall grasses.
 - c) The Corn Belt is a region of the Southwestern United States where corn has, since the 1850s, been the predominant crop, replacing the native tall grasses.
-
- a) Farmers first began to keep reliable records of corn production in 1866.
 - b) Farmers first began to keep reliable records of corn production in 1896.
 - c) Farmers first began to keep reliable records of corn production in 1869.
-
- a) Because of the extensive use of machinery, the average farmer can cultivate as many as 140 hectares and care for a large herd of livestock with no more help than perhaps a son who spends several hours a day in school.

- b) Even if the farmers use machinery, the average farmer can cultivate as many as 140 hectares and care for a large herd of livestock only with help of other farmers
- c) Because of the extensive use of machinery, the average farmer can cultivate as many as 200 hectares and care for a large herd of livestock with no more help than perhaps a son who spends several hours a day in school.

a) Farmers in the USA are saving the best ears from each year's crop for the next year's planting and at the same time, they are buying new seed every year.

b) Farmers in the USA are saving the best ears from each year's crop for the next year's planting, and don't buy new seed every year.

c) Instead of saving the best ears from each year's crop for the next year's planting, the traditional method, the farmers now buy new seed every year.

V. Match the following events to the dates:

1850

Iowa, Illinois, Nebraska, and Minnesota are the top four corn-producing states.

2008

The corn yield was 1,500 liters of shelled grain per hectare.

1866

Corn has become the predominant crop in the Midwest of the USA.

1948

Farmers first began to keep reliable records of corn production.

VI. Write a short summary about the geography of the region named the Corn Belt.

Part II

Farm and Village

The rural village typical of many countries in Europe and Asia—a collection of homes, close together, occupied by the people who work on the surrounding lands is virtually unknown in 20th century America. In the United States, instead, each farm family usually lives separately on its own fields, often beyond the sight of its neighbors. The village or town is predominantly a place where the farm family travels to buy supplies, to attend church, and to go for entertainment or political, social or business meetings. In most such areas, special buses pick up children every day to take them to the schools which are usually in the town. When the early settlers first came to America they followed the old European pattern. In New England, they lived in a cluster of houses around a central green where the cattle of the whole village grazed. The farmer's croplands extended outward around the village.

Southward, in the State of Virginia, however, farmers scattered up and down the creeks and rivers, with great distances between families. These settlers were planting a New World crop, tobacco, which required fresh land every few years. This forced the tobacco farmers to move westward, as separate families, whenever the land became exhausted. When, after several generations, families reached the low hills at the edge of the Appalachians Mountains and the long valleys enclosed by the mountains, they changed their farming from tobacco to grain and livestock. With these new crops which did not exhaust the soil, people had no further need to move. However, the tradition of the independent, separate farm was very strong, and there were no desires to adopt a village type of organization.

Much the same thing had been happening in other eastern states, but for different reasons. In the western reaches of Maryland and New York, wealthy landowners held great blocks of uncultivated land. Frontier farmers, who traveled to these

areas to clear and farm them without any legal right to the land, naturally did not wish to call attention to themselves by establishing villages. Many other families in New Jersey, Pennsylvania and New York lived on separate homesteads because they came from different countries or held different religious belief from their neighbors.

In any case, it was the most independent and self-reliant families who were the first to push westward to the Appalachian Mountains, then southward along the mountain valleys, then into the great Central Basin, and finally westward beyond the Rockies. These were the people who set the pattern of the separate farmstead.

Until the days of good roads and automobile, farming in the United States was a hard and lonely life. To be successful, the farmer and his wife had to develop a variety of skills. Whenever a problem arose, they usually had to deal with it themselves. There were times, of course, when neighbors helped each other with big jobs like building barns but, in day-to-day work, the farmer had to be his own mechanic and was often even his own inventor.

This tradition of the individual farm family was further reinforced by governmental policy. For many years, beginning in 1862, the government gave land away free. To take full possession of that land, a settler and his family had to clear it, build a house and live there for at least five years.

Between 1890 and the early 1930s, there was an increase in the number of tenant farmers. To reverse this development and to help farmers keep their holdings, the national and state governments provided loans in times of drought or crop failure. Many tenant farmers have also helped to buy land of their own.

As a result of this combination of tradition and policy, there are not many farms which are owned by absentee landowners. In the United States, only about two to three per cent of all farms are operated by hired managers and only slightly more

than one-fourth of all farm labor is done by full-time hired workers or by transient farm labor.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. Did the people in the USA live separately on the fields?
2. For what do farm people in the USA travel to towns and villages predominantly?
3. Did the early settlers in America follow the old European pattern?
4. In what state did the farmers scatter up and down the creeks and rivers, with great distances between families?
5. Why did many families in New Jersey, Pennsylvania and New York live on separate homesteads?
6. Where did the most independent and self-reliant families come?
7. Did the farmer and his wife have to develop a variety of skills to be successful in farming?
8. Did the government give land away free in the USA?
9. What is the result of combination tradition and policy in farming in the USA?

II. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

New York, Maryland, New Jersey, at the edge of the Appalachians Mountains, New York, State of Virginia, Pennsylvania.

1. Southward, in the ... , farmers scattered up and down the creeks and rivers, with great distances between families.
2. When, after several generations, families of farmers reached the low hills ... they changed their farming from tobacco to grain and livestock.

3. In the western reaches of... and ... wealthy landowners held great blocks of uncultivated land.
4. Many families in ..., ... and... lived on separate homesteads because they came from different countries or held different religious belief from their neighbors.

III. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. In the United States each farm family usually lives separately on its own fields, often beyond the sight of its neighbors.
2. The village or town is predominantly a place where the farm family travels to buy supplies, to attend church, and to go for entertainment or political, social or business meetings.
3. When the early settlers first came to America they didn't follow the old European pattern.
4. Southward, in the State of Virginia, farmers scattered up and down the creeks and rivers to plant coffee.
5. When, after several generations, families reached the low hills at the edge of the Appalachians Mountains they changed their farming from coffee to tobacco.
6. In the western reaches of Maryland and New York, wealthy landowners held great blocks of uncultivated land and frontier farmers who traveled to these areas without any legal right to the land, naturally did not wish to call attention to them by establishing villages.

IV. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

- a) When the early settlers first came to America they followed the old European pattern and lived in a cluster of houses around a central green where the cattle of the whole village grazed.

b) When the early settlers first came to America they didn't follow the old European pattern

c) When the early settlers first came to America they followed the old European pattern and lived separately from each other.

a) Southward, in the State of Virginia, farmers scattered up and down the creeks and rivers, and planted coffee.

b) Southward, in the State of Virginia, farmers scattered up and down the creeks and rivers, and planted tea.

c) Southward, in the State of Virginia, farmers scattered up and down the creeks and rivers, and planted tobacco.

a) Between 1890 and the early 1930s, there was an increase in the number of tenant farmers.

b) Between 1890 and the early 1930s, there the number of tenant farmers didn't change.

c) Between 1890 and the early 1930s, there was an decreasing the number of tenant farmers.

V. Match the following regions to their characteristic:

Maryland and New York

People lived on separate homesteads because they came from different countries or held different religious belief from their neighbors.

Southward, in the State of Virginia

The farmers changed their farming to grain and livestock.

The Appalachians Mountains

Wealthy landowners held great blocks

of uncultivated land.

New Jersey, Pennsylvania and New York The farmers were planting tobacco.

VI. Write a short summary about the crops that English farmers grew.

Part III

The frontier settlers took with them into the Central Basin many different agricultural traditions which influenced the methods brought over by the original English settlers. The Swedes introduced the log cabin, which became the typical dwelling of the frontier wherever there were trees. The Dutch brought new breeds of farm animals and skills in dairying. The Scots and Irish brought potato cultivation, for although this was a New World crop, it was first widely planted in Europe. What became the typical American barn was actually first created by Germans. Even today, this process of borrowing continues. Two pasture plants, lespedeza and kudzu, have been brought to the United States from Asia. The soybean, another Asian plant, has become one of the chief crops in the Corn Belt. Italians and Japanese have influenced fruit and vegetable growing. Scandinavians have played a large role in dairying and cheese making in the great northern dairy region of Central Basin.

As a result of the growing use of sophisticated farm machinery and advances in the development of fertilizers and in the breeding of animals and crops, the average size of farms in the United States increased from 60 hectares in 1930 to 155 hectares in 1973. A century ago, two-thirds of the American people lived in farms. In 1920, as many as 32 million, or 30 per cent of the population were farmers. In 1960, farmers and their families numbered 15 million, or about eight per cent. By 1980 the farm population had fallen to 6,241,000.

POLITICAL SYSTEM

Part I

City Government

Once predominantly rural, the United States is today a highly urbanized country, and about 80 percent of its citizens now live in towns, large cities, or suburbs of cities. This statistic makes city governments critically important in the overall pattern of American government. To a greater extent than on the federal or state level, the city directly serves the needs of the people, providing everything from police and fire protection to sanitary codes, health regulations, education, public transportation, and housing.

The business of running America's major cities is enormously complex. In terms of population alone, New York City is larger than 41 of the 50 states. It is often said that, next to the presidency, the most difficult executive position in the country is that of mayor of New York.

City governments are chartered by states, and their charters detail the objectives and powers of the municipal government. But in many respects the cities function independently of the states. For most big cities, however, cooperation with both state and federal organizations is essential to meeting the needs of their residents.

Types of city governments vary widely across the nation. However, almost all have some kind of central council, elected by the voters, and an executive officer, assisted by various department heads, to manage the city's affairs.

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

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. Is the United States still predominantly rural?
2. How many percent of the citizens of the United States now live in towns, large cities, or suburbs of cities?
3. How does the city serve the needs of the citizens?
4. Why is it often said that the most difficult executive position in the country is that of mayor of New York?
5. Are city governments chartered by states or are they independent?
6. Why is it essential for most big cities to cooperate with both state and federal organizations?
7. What are general types of city government?

II. Supply a word or a phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

New York City, council, cooperation, city, rural, commission, executive officer, urbanized, chartered.

1. Once predominantly ..., the United States is today a highly ... country.
2. To a greater extent than on the federal or state level, the ... directly serves the needs of the people, providing everything from police and fire protection to sanitary codes, health regulations, education, public transportation, and housing.
3. In terms of population alone, ... is larger than 41 of the 50 states.
4. City governments are ... by states.
5. Almost all city governments have some kind of central ..., elected by the voters, and an ..., assisted by various department heads, to manage the city's affairs.
6. There are three general types of city government: the mayor-council, the ..., and the city manager.
7. For most big cities ... with both state and federal organizations is essential to meeting the needs of their residents.

III. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. Once predominantly urbanized, the United States is today a rural country.
2. About 40 percent of its citizens now live in towns, large cities, or suburbs of cities.

3. City governments are critically important in the overall pattern of American government. 4. The city directly serves some of the needs of the people, however, it doesn't provide police and fire protection, health regulations, public transportation and housing. 5. The business of running America's major cities is not very complex. 6. In terms of population alone, the capital of the United States is larger than 41 of the 50 states. 7. It is often said that, next to the presidency, the most difficult executive position in the country is that of mayor of New York. 8. For most big cities cooperation with both state and federal organizations is not essential. 9. Almost all city governments have some kind of central council, elected by the President, and an executive officer, assisted by various department heads, to manage the city's affairs. 10. There are three general types of city government: the mayor-council, the commission, and the city manager.

IV. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

1. a) Once predominantly urbanized, the United States is today a rural country.
b) Once predominantly rural, the United States is today a highly urbanized country.
c) The United States have always been a rural country.

2. a) The city directly serves some of the needs of the people, however, it doesn't provide police and fire protection, health regulations, public transportation and housing.
b) The state governments serve some of the needs of the people, however, they don't provide police and fire protection, health regulations, public transportation and housing.
c) The city directly serves the needs of the people, providing everything from police and fire protection to sanitary codes, health regulations, education, public transportation, and housing.

3.
 - a) The capital of the United States is larger than 41 of the 50 states.
 - b) The capital of the Unites States is larger than 21 of the 50 states.
 - c) New York City is larger than 41 of the 50 states.

4.
 - a) It is often said that, next to the presidency, the most difficult executive position in the country is that of mayor of New York.
 - b) It is often said that, next to the position of the mayor of New York, the most difficult position in the country is that of the President.
 - c) It is often said that, next to the presidency, the most difficult executive position in the country is that of mayor of Washington DC.

5.
 - a) Types of city governments vary widely across the nation.
 - b) Types of city governments don't vary at all.
 - c) There are only several types of city governments.

6.
 - a) There are four general types of city government: the mayor-council, the executive officer, the commission, and the city manager.
 - b) There are two general types of city government: the mayor-council and the city manager.
 - c) There are three general types of city government: the mayor-council, the commission, and the city manager.

V. Match the following words and word combinations to their correct meaning:

The United States	Is larger than 41 of the 50 states.
The mayor-council	An essential thing for most big cities to meet the needs of their residents.
Cooperation	One of the three general types of city government.
The city	
New York City	A highly urbanized country. Serves the needs of people, providing everything from police and fire protection to sanitary codes, health regulations, education, public transportation, and housing.

Part II

Town and Village Government

Thousands of municipal jurisdictions are too small to qualify as city governments. These are chartered as towns and villages and deal with such strictly local needs as paving and lighting the streets; ensuring a water supply; providing police and fire protection; establishing local health regulations; arranging for garbage, sewage, and other waste disposal; collecting local taxes to support governmental operations; and, in cooperation with the state and county, directly administering the local school system.

The government is usually entrusted to an elected board or council, which may be known by a variety of names: town or village council, board of selectmen, board of supervisors, board of commissioners. The board may have a chairperson or president who functions as chief executive officer, or there may be an elected mayor. Governmental employees may include a clerk, treasurer, police and fire officers, and health and welfare officers.

One unique aspect of local government, found mostly in the New England region of the United States, is the “town meeting”. Once a year – sometimes more often if needed – the registered voters of the town meet in open session to elect officers, debate local issues, and pass laws for operating the government. As a body, they decide on road construction and repair, construction of public buildings and facilities, tax rates, and the town budget. The town meeting, which has existed for more than two centuries, is often cited as the purest form of direct democracy, in which the governmental power is not delegated, but is exercised directly and regularly by all the people.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. Which jurisdictions are chartered as towns and villages? 2. What local needs do the town and village governments deal with? 3. What do the town and village governments do in cooperation with the state and county? 4. What is the government usually entrusted to? 5. What are other names for a council? 6. Who is the head of the board? 7. Who can be among the governmental employees? 8. What is the unique aspect of local government? 9. Why do people meet in open session once a year or more? 10. For how long has the town meeting existed?

II. Supply a word or a phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

Commissioners, session, delegated, democracy, operating, cited, jurisdictions, governmental, chairperson, chartered, regulations, mayor, supervisors, town meeting, entrusted.

1. Thousands of municipal ... are too small to qualify as city governments. 2. Small municipal jurisdictions are ... as towns and villages and deal with such strictly local needs as paving and lighting the streets; ensuring a water supply; providing police and fire protection; establishing local health ...; arranging for garbage, sewage, and other waste disposal; collecting local taxes to support ... operations. 3. The government is usually ... to an elected board or council, which may be known by a variety of names: town or village council, board of selectmen, board of ..., board of 4. The board may have a ... or president who functions as chief executive officer, or there may be an elected 5. One unique aspect of local government, found mostly in the New England region of the United States, is the 6. Once a year – sometimes more often if needed – the registered voters of the town meet in open ... to elect officers, debate local issues, and pass laws for ... the government. 7. The town meeting is often ... as the purest form of direct ..., in which the governmental power is not ..., but is exercised directly and regularly by all the people.

III. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. Thousands of municipal jurisdictions are too small to qualify as city governments. 2. The town and village governments administer the local school system in cooperation with the state and county. 3. The government is usually entrusted to an elected mayor. 4. An elected mayor functions as chief executive officer. 5. Governmental employees may include a clerk, treasurer, police and fire officers, and health and welfare officers. 6. One unique aspect of the government is the “state meeting”. 7. Once a month the registered voters of the town meet in open

session to elect officers, debate local issues, and pass laws for operating the government. 8. The town meeting has existed for more than two centuries. 9. The town meeting is often cited as the purest form of despotism.

IV. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

1. a) Thousands of municipal jurisdictions are too small to qualify as city governments.
b) A few municipal jurisdictions are too small to qualify as city governments.
c) Thousands of municipal jurisdictions are too small to qualify as town governments.
2. a) An elected board or council may be known by a couple of names: village council or board of selectmen.
b) An elected board or council may be known by a variety of names: town or village council, board of selectmen, board of supervisors, board of commissioners.
c) An elected board or council may be known either as board of selectmen, or board of supervisors.
3. a) One unique aspect of local government, found all over the United States, is the “town meeting”.
b) One unique aspect of the government, found all over of the United States, is the “state meeting”.
c) One unique aspect of local government, found mostly in the New England region of the United States, is the “town meeting”.
4. a) The town meeting has existed for more than two centuries.
b) The town meeting has existed for about two centuries.
c) The town meeting has existed for more than three centuries.
5. a) The town meeting takes place once a month.
b) The town meeting takes place once a year.

c) The town meeting takes place once a year or sometimes more often if needed.

V. Match the following words and word combinations to their correct meaning:

Town and village governments	Another name for board of commissioners.
An elected board	The council the government is usually entrusted to.
Board of supervisors	A unique aspect of local government.
A chairperson	Municipal jurisdictions which are too small to qualify as city governments.
The town meeting	The person in the board who functions as chief executive officer.

State Government

Governments, United, federal, welfare, Constitution, unit, federal, states, exclusive, levels, overlap, communications, public, code, conditions, governed, laws, Crown, broadening, responsibility.

Before their independence, colonies were (1) _____ separately by the British (2) _____. In the early years of the republic, prior to the adoption of the

(3) _____, each state was virtually an autonomous (4) _____. The delegates to the Constitutional Convention sought a stronger, more viable (5) _____ union, but they were also intent on safeguarding the rights of the (6) _____.

In general, matters that lie entirely within state borders are the (7) _____ concern of state governments. These include internal (8) _____; regulations relating to property, industry, business, and (9) _____ utilities; the state criminal (10) _____; and working (11) _____ within the state. Within this context, the federal government requires that state (12) _____ must be democratic in form and that they adopt no (13) _____ that contradict or violate the federal Constitution or the laws and treaties of the (14) _____ States.

There are, of course, many areas of (15) _____ between state and federal jurisdictions. Particularly in recent years, the federal government has assumed ever (16) _____ responsibility in such matters as health, education, (17) _____, transportation, and housing and urban development. But where the (18) _____ government exercises such (19) _____ in the states, programs are usually adopted on the basis of cooperation between the two (20) _____ of government, rather than as an imposition from above.

Part III

Direct Democracy

The most important question in U.S. electoral politics these days is not who is eligible to vote, but rather how many of those who are eligible will actually take the time and trouble to go to the polls. The answer now, for presidential elections, is around half. In the election of 1876, voter participation reached the historic high of 81.8 percent. Throughout the 1880s and 1890s, it averaged around 80 percent, but then began a gradual decline that reached a low of 48.9 percent in 1924. The Democratic Party's "New Deal Coalition" during the Great Depression of the 1930s caused a revival of interest on the part of voters, resulting in averages up

around 60 percent. Turnouts started back down again in 1968, reaching a low of 49.1 percent in the presidential election of 1996.

The fact that more people do not vote is distressing to many. “There is currently a widespread sense, shown by public opinion surveys and complaints by informed observers, that the American electoral system is in trouble,” says political scientist A. James Reichley in his book *Elections American Style*. “Some believe that this trouble is minor and can be dealt with through moderate reforms; others think it goes deep and requires extensive political surgery, perhaps accompanied by sweeping changes in the larger social order. Complaints include the huge cost and long duration of campaigns, the power of the media to shape public perceptions of candidates, and the undue influence exerted by “special interests” over both nominations and general elections.”

EDUCATION

History of Education

The roots of education in the United States are to be found in the ideas and practices of the schools of ancient Judea, Greece, Rome, and early Christendom. The American secondary school is a direct descendant of the grammar school of the Renaissance. The origins of the American college can be traced to the medieval university of western Europe.

The more immediate antecedents of education in the United States are to be located in the Protestant Reformation and the Catholic Counter-Reformation, as well as in the scientific and commercial revolutions of the 17th and 18th centuries. The schools of colonial New England, New Netherland, New Jersey, and North Carolina drew their religious teachings from the Calvinism of the Old World: English Puritanism, Scotch Presbyterianism, and the Dutch Reformed Church. The

educational work carried on in the peripheral regions – the West, Southeast, and Southwest – took place within the framework of Roman Catholic theology. The growing impact of the experimental science and of international trade brought about profound changes in education during the later colonial period with respect to aims, courses of study, and school organization. These forces operated also to modify the structure, functions, curriculum, and administration of American colleges.

England's contributions to colonial education included many ideas and practices, such as providing by law for vocational training for the poor; ecclesiastical control of education; textbooks; teaching practices; and patterns of curriculum and organization for all schools from the elementary through the collegiate. Scotland – via Ireland – was a source of inspiration for the idea of universal education, an objective also common to other Calvinists and to Lutherans. According to some educational historians, 17th-century Netherlands – small in size but vast in culture, education, and learning – may have exerted a potent influence on early American education.

Part I

Colonial Period

The earliest educational efforts in the New World took place in the home. Those children whose parents could not afford to pay for schooling or who had no parents were enabled, through apprenticeship laws passed by various colonial legislatures, to obtain vocational training and instruction in the fundamentals of reading and religion; for example, a law passed by the General Court, or legislative body, of Massachusetts in 1642 required town authorities to make certain that children were trained “to read and understand the principles of religion and the capitall lawes of this country” and imposed fines for neglect. Apparently success was not achieved by this plan, and the General Court therefore passed in 1647 the Old Deluder Satan

Act, which required that each township of fifty families engage a teacher to instruct children in reading and writing and that each township of one hundred families establish a “grammar schoole” capable of fitting youth for the university, again under the penalty of a fine. In this law may be found three principles typical of the public school system at the present time: the obligation of the community to establish schools, local school administration, and the distinction between secondary and elementary schools.

Laws similar to the Massachusetts 1647 were enacted in all the New England colonies except Rhode Island, where education was considered a private matter. Although there were private schools in the colonies, such as the dame schools, the most important educational work was accomplished in the town schools; the teachers were paid through local taxes and supervised by the town authorities or by the education committee. These town schools were publicly controlled, but they were sectarian in purpose and content, as well as in control, since for much of the colonial period there was cooperation between church and government. As the population grew, new schools were opened to meet new needs. In the 18th century the “moving school” arose, a teacher being located for a few months at a time in each of the villages surrounding a town. The moving school was replaced by the district school, which served sparsely settled areas with limited numbers of children. The district school system continued to serve rural settlements all over the country into the 20th century.

Secondary education in New England began with the establishment of the Boston Latin School in 1635. Graduates of this and other Latin grammar schools were qualified for admission to Harvard College, once it was established. These schools featured the teaching of the Latin language and literature and of Greek by men whose scholarship and ability were immeasurably above those of the teachers in the elementary schools, among the best known being Ezekiel Cheever in Boston, educated at Cambridge University. During the mid-18th century, the academy, a

new kind of school that offered nonclassical and practical subjects, became increasingly attended it foreshadowed the decline of the Latin grammar school.

Higher education in New England was inaugurated in 1636, when the Massachusetts General Court decided to allot £780 “towards a schoole or colledge,” later named Harvard College after a clergyman who donated £780 and his library of 400 books to the new institution. The aim of Harvard, as stated in the charter of 1650, was to educate colonial and Indian young people “in knowledge and godliness” and “in good literature, Artes and Sciences.” Three more colleges were opened in colonial New England: Yale in 1701, partially because of orthodox Calvinists’ belief that Harvard was too liberal in theology; Brown in 1764, a Baptist institution whose charter rejected religious tests for admission and provided that faculty and students should “forever enjoy full free Absolute and uninterrupted Liberty og Conscience”; and Dartmouth in 1769, a Congregationalist college for the training of students of the ministry and Indians.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. Where can trace the origins of the American college to?
2. Where did the earliest educational efforts in the New World take place?
3. When did the “moving school” arise?
4. What educational establishment was increasingly attended during the mid-18th century in New England?
5. What colleges were opened in colonial New England?

II. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. Laws similar to the Massachusetts 1647 were enacted in all the New England colonies except Rhode Island.
2. The moving school was replaced by the secondary school, which served sparsely settled areas with limited numbers of children.
3. Secondary education in New England began with the establishment of

the Boston Latin School in 1646. 4. Although there were private schools in the colonies, such as the dame schools, the most important educational work was accomplished in the town schools. 5. During the mid-19th century, the academy, a new kind of school that offered nonclassical and practical subjects, became increasingly attended it foreshadowed the decline of the Latin grammar school.

III. Match the events in the first column to the dates in the second column:

1701 The Old Deluder Satan Act passed by General Court

18th century Beginning of the secondary school in New England

1647 Inauguration of Higher education in New England

1635 Arising of the “moving school”

1636 Opening of Yale

IV. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

the Boston Latin School, Harvard College, the Boston Latin School, the General Court.

1. Secondary education in New England began with the establishment of ... in 1635.
2. Apparently success was not achieved by this plan, and ... therefore passed in 1647 the Old Deluder Satan Act.
3. Secondary education in New England began with the establishment of ... in 1635.
4. Graduates of this and other Latin grammar schools were qualified for admission to... , once it was established.

Part II

Education in the middle colonies varied from area to area, because of differences of origin of the settlers. The Dutch in New Netherland set up public elementary schools in which reading, writing, religion, and sometimes arithmetic were taught; many of these schools continued to teach the Dutch language even after the English took over the colony in 1664. Under the English in the 18th century, the poor were taught in schools of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, an Anglican association founded in 1701 and primarily dedicated to missionary work among the Indians in the North American colonies. Grammar schools were founded in New York, including one that prepared students for King's College. This college, now Columbia University, was chartered in 1754 under Anglican auspices and intended, in the words of its first president, Rev. Samuel Johnson, "to set up a Course of Tuition in the learned Languages, and in the liberal Arts and Sciences," as well as in religious knowledge and piety.

In addition to King's College in New York City, higher education in the middle colonies comprised the College of New Jersey (Princeton University), founded in 1746 by Scotch-Irish Presbyterians to maintain orthodox religion in the spirit of the Great Awakening; the College of Philadelphia (University of Pennsylvania), the new name for Franklin's Academy by the rechartering of 1755, and devoted to the teaching of the sciences and other modern subjects, in line with the principles underlying the Enlightenment; and Queen's College (Rutgers University), chartered in 1766 and designed by leaders of the Dutch Reformed Church to provide for "the education of youth in the learned languages, liberal and useful arts and sciences, and especially an divinity, preparing them for the ministry and other good offices."

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What subjects were taught in public elementary schools?
2. In what schools the poor were taught?

3. Where were grammar schools founded during 18-th century?
4. When was the College of New Jersey founded?

II. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. The Dutch in New Netherland set up private schools in which reading, writing, religion, and sometimes arithmetic were taught. 2. Education in the middle colonies varied from area to area, because of differences of origin of the settlers. 3. Under the English in the 18th century, the poor were taught in schools of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts.

III. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

Anglican, New York, the Society for the Propagation, the College of New Jersey

1. Under the English in the 18th century, the poor were taught in schools of ... of the Gospel in Foreign Parts.
2. Grammar schools were founded in ..., including one that prepared students for King's College.
3. This college, now Columbia University, was chartered in 1754 under ... auspices and intended, in the words of its first president, Rev. Samuel Johnson.
4. In addition to King's College in New York City, higher education in the middle colonies comprised ..., founded in 1746.

IV. Match the events in the first column to the dates in the second column:

- | | |
|------|---|
| 1754 | Foundation of the Society for the Propagation |
| 1746 | Columbia University was chartered under Anglican auspices |
| 1701 | Foundation of the College of New Jersey |

Part III

Whereas New England school policy may be described as that of compulsory public maintenance and that of the middle colonies as parochial education, the southern colonial policy may be characterized as laissez-faire and pauper education. The geographical, social, and economic conditions in the South resulted in a system of colonial laws for apprentice training of poor and orphaned children; charity schools for the poor; private schools and tutorial training for the children of wealthy parents; and so-called Old-Field Schools, which were elementary schools established on abandoned wasteland. A particularly significant type of elementary school in the South was the school with an endowment derived from a will or bequest. Notable among these was the Syms-Eaton School in Virginia, which originated with the will of Benjamin Syms in 1634 and was enlarged with funds from Thomas Eaton's will of 1659; this school, probably the first endowed lower-educational institution in the colonies, lasted into the 20th century. There were instances of educational provisions for black children, mainly because plantation owners were interested in teaching them Christianity. However, there was no serious, systematic, and successful attempt in the colonies in the South to legislate in behalf of public schools until the time of the Revolution.

The only college in the South during the colonial period was the College of William and Mary, which, although chartered in 1693, was only a grammar school in reality and did not confer degrees until 1700. The original objective of the college – training young men for the ministry – was modified in 1779 by Thomas Jefferson, who reorganized the institution, providing a modern curriculum of languages, law, the social sciences, and the physical and natural sciences, and the physical and natural sciences. From William and Mary, “alma mater of statesmen,” were graduated Jefferson, James Monroe, John Tyler, and John Marshall.

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What conditions resulted in a system of colonial laws in the South?

2. What school endowed lower-educational institution in the colonies, lasted into the 20th century?
3. What college in the South was named as “alma mater of statesmen” during the colonial period?
4. What was the only college in the South during the colonial period?

II. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. A particularly significant type of district school system in the South was the school with an endowment derived from a will or bequest.
2. There was no serious, systematic, and successful attempt in the colonies in the South to legislate in behalf of public schools.
3. There were instances of educational provisions for black children, mainly because plantation owners were interested in teaching them Latin.
4. From William and Mary, “alma mater of statesmen,” were graduated Jefferson, James Monroe, John Tyler, and John Marshall.

III. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

the Revolution, the Syms-Eaton School, the College of William and Mary

1. Notable among these was ... in Virginia, which originated with the will of Benjamin Syms in 1634.
2. However, there was no serious, systematic, and successful attempt in the colonies in the South to legislate in behalf of public schools until the time of
3. The only college in the South during the colonial period was

IV. Match the events in the first column to the dates in the second column:

1779

Origination of the Syms-Eaton School with the will of Benjamin Syms

1634	College of Willim and Mary was chartered
1693	The original objective of the college was modified in 1779 by Thomas Jefferson

Part IV

The Early American Republic

Until the early 19th century, New England was the only region that could lay claim to anything resembling a public school system. Only eight of the first sixteen states inserted provisions regarding education into their constitutions. As a general rule, except for Connecticut and Massachusetts, schools were few and standards low. Various political, industrial, and social changes brought about a decline in apprenticeship education, with the result that the only formal education available to most of the poor was in charity schools supported by religious groups.

A Massachusetts law of 1789 legally established the district school system – leading to lower standards in both primary and secondary education – and in 1827 the district school system was made compulsory. While democratic control by local government was established under these two laws, educational efficiency was severely hampered by a lack of sophisticated centralized direction, as Horace Mann was to point out in later years. The frontier conditions that were in force had, thus, a dual influence on the development of education in early national history.

New York State was active in setting up a statewide school system during this period. In 1784 it organized, and in 1787 it reorganized, the University of the State of New York, a centralized school system according to the French pattern. In 1812 the state set up a system of administration, with Gideon Hawley as the first state superintendent of schools. The leadership of governors George Clinton and DeWitt

Clinton in particular made possible the early establishment of an educational system with provisions for teacher training and secondary schools.

Considerable effort was expended all over the young nation to create educational system in the several states. Many conscientious persons saw the defects of the charity or pauper schools and were determined to do what they could to remedy conditions. Typical of similar societies all over the country outside New York was the Society for the Promotion of Public Schools of Philadelphia, which was founded in 1827. Funds of education were sometimes raised by means of lotteries, which fell into disfavor with changes in moral attitudes; permanent school funds derived from license fees, direct state appropriations, fines, sales of public lands, and other sources of revenue; rate bills in accordance with the number of children of the family attending school ; and local taxes, such as required by the Massachusetts law of 1827. The struggle for free public schools in the first half of the 19th century involved the abolition of the rate bill and the enactment of state laws for a free school system. In this campaign for free and universal education a number of educational statesmen played a decisive role – notably Horace Mann and James Gordon Carter of Massachusetts, Henry Barnard of Connecticut, John D. Pierce of Michigan, and Calvin H. Wiley of North Carolina. To their efforts must be added those workers' organizations, the clergy, and the press. The combined campaign in behalf of a democratic school system was won over objections based on fear of governmental power, opposition of property owners to school taxes, indifference of many public figures, and competition for pupils with long-established private schools.

In secondary education the Latin grammar school of colonial times gave ground to the English grammar school. Such schools as the Phillips Andover Academy and the Phillips Exeter Academy, founded in 1778 and 1781, respectively, exist to this day. The academy was characterized by a curriculum of many subjects, including astronomy, geology, and other theoretical and practical sciences; various foreign

languages; philosophy, art, and musik; rhetoric and oratory; and English language and literature. The high school – a term borrowed from Edinburgh, Scotland – was first introduced into Boston in 1821 as the English classical school, renamed the English high school in 1826, also in Boston. In 1827 the Massachusetts legislature recognized the value of the new type of school by passing a law under which each town or district having 500 families was required to maintain a tax-supported school offering American history, geometry, bookkeeping, and other subjects; and every town having a population of 4,000 was obliged to teach Latin, Greek, and general history as well. By the end of the century the high school had become established as an integral part of the public school system.

The American college, recovering from the adverse effects of the Revolution, inaugurated a broader curriculum in response to social demands. The natural and physical sciences made their appearance at a number of colleges, including Harvard and William and Mary. Studies for the profession of medicine were promoted as well. An effort was made for a while to discourage American youth from studying abroad, but it failed; and Americans flocked all through the 19th century to foreign universities, especially in Germany.

A number of significant changes took place in the administration and control of higher education. Gradually the religious influence was replaced by the secular. Professional schools were opened for the training of engineers, physicians, clergymen, and lawyers. The Dartmouth College decision handed down by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1819 prevented state control of a chartered private college. The ultimate impact of this important decision was such that, on the one hand, private and denominational schools were founded in large numbers, and, on the other, state legislatures established their own colleges and universities. Although the state university had had its beginnings toward the end of the 18th century, it did not develop to any great extent until the mid-19th century.

One of the major arguments in American higher education was beginning to emerge before 1830. The influence of Jefferson at the University of Virginia and that of George Ticknor at Harvard led to experimentation with allowing students to choose to some extent their courses. The elective system, which later entered higher education on a large scale, was favored in principle in the Amherst College faculty report of 1826, but it was repudiated by the Yale College faculty report of 1828, which upheld the traditional classical curriculum.

Teacher training received an impetus before 1830 through the publication of several treatises on pedagogy, such as Joseph Neef's "Sketch of a Plan and Method of Education" (1808) and Samuel Read Hall's "Lectures on School-Keeping" (1829); the opening of private teachers' seminaries by Hall in 1823 and by James Gordon Carter in 1826; and the publication of teachers' journals – The Academician (1818-20) and William Russell's American Journal of Education (1826-31). The press and the pulpit also joined in the clamor for better teachers, in line with the widely quoted maxim "As is the teacher, so is the school."

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What law established the district school system in 1789?
2. What educational society was founded in 1827 outside New York?
3. What school in secondary education gave ground to the English grammar school?
4. What subjects were learned in Phillips Andover and Phillips Exeter Academies?
5. Were studies for the profession of medicine promoted?
6. Was the religious influence on education replaced by secular education?
7. In what colleges was it first allowed for students to choose to some extent their courses?
8. What struggle involved the abolition of the rate bill and the enactment of state laws in the first half of the 19th century?

9. Was an effort made to discourage American youth from studying abroad successful?

II. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. The only college in the South during the colonial period was the College of Edward and Anna. 2. Until the early 19th century, New England was the only region that could lay claim to anything resembling a public school system. 3. The struggle for free public schools in the middle of the 18th century involved the abolition of the rate bill and the enactment of state laws for a free school system. 4. One of the major arguments in American higher education was beginning to emerge before 1830. 5. New York State was active in setting up a statewide school system during this period. 6. In secondary education the Greece school of colonial times gave ground to the English grammar school. 7. By the end of the century the high school had become established as an integral part of the public school system. 8. Professional schools were opened for the training of engineers, physicians, clergymen, and lawyers.

III. Match the events in the first column to the dates in the second column:

- | | |
|------|--|
| 1789 | Establishment of the district school system by Massachusetts law |
| 1787 | Reorganization of the University of the State of New York |
| 1812 | New York State set up a system of administration, with Gideon Hawley as the first state superintendent of schools. |
| 1827 | Foundation of the Society for the Promotion of Public Schools of Philadelphia |

1778 Foundation of the Phillips Andover Academy

1781 Foundation of the Phillips Exeter Academy

IV. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

the Promotion of Public Schools, Massachusetts law, The Dartmouth College, the Phillips Andover Academy and the Phillips Exeter Academy, the Amherst College, the University of Virginia

1. A ... of 1789 legally established the district school system.
2. Typical of similar societies all over the country outside New York was the Society for ... of Philadelphia.
3. Such grammar schools as ... , respectively, exist to this day.
4. ... decision handed down by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1819 prevented state control of a chartered private college.
5. The influence of Jefferson at ... and that of George Ticknor at Harvard led to experimentation with allowing students to choose to some extent their courses.
6. The elective system was favored in principle in ... faculty report of 1826.

V. Write a short summary of the development of education in the USA during colonial period to the Early American Republic.

Part V

Educational Development Until 1900

The growth of the nation in population, territory, and wealth was not accomplished without educational pains. Among the factors leading to educational progress were the demands of labor groups for a public school system; the reports by American educators of school methods and progress in Europe; the pressures exerted by governmental, cultural, and educational leaders; and humanitarian efforts to aid the poor, the immigrant, and the handicapped.

Through the efforts of James Carter and Horace Mann, Massachusetts set up a state board of education in 1837; under the direction of Mann as secretary, it extended school facilities, increased teachers' salaries, instituted supervision and in-service training of teachers, and introduced other reforms. In 1852, Massachusetts pioneered nationally in enacting legislation to make school attendance compulsory. Significantly, Mann's crusading zeal in promoting educational change and giving public expression to his satisfaction with European practices he had observed resulted in a controversy with the educators of Boston. His insistence that no religion should be taught in the public schools but that the Bible should be read without comment in the class also involved him in controversy. In spite of such criticism Mann became recognized as the most influential American educator of the century and one whose ideas affected education in such far-off countries as Argentina and Uruguay.

Elementary education underwent changes during the second half of the 19th century. The kindergarten, based on the ideas of the German educator Friedrich Froebel, was first established on American soil in 1856 by Mrs. Carl Schurz, as a German-speaking school in Watertown, Wis. A private English-language kindergarten was opened in 1860 by Elizabeth Palmer Peabody in Boston, and the first public school was set up in 1873 by Susan Blow in Saint Louis, Mo.

Toward the end of the century the theory and the practice of Johann Friedrich Herbart were introduced, especially in connection with the teaching of social studies and character. Also contributing to character training were the widely used readers of William Holmes McGuffey. New ideas stressing a curriculum and a methodology based on child growth, development, and interest were first put into operation by Francis Wayland Parker in Quincy, Mass., and later in Chicago. The testing movement, which was to become a significant educational force, began in the 1890s. And the entire curriculum of the elementary school came under scrutiny in the Report of the Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Education, prepared in 1895 under the chairmanship of William H. Maxwell for the National Education Association (NEA).

The high school grew in prestige throughout the 19th century, taking the place of the academy as the favored form of secondary education. It received legal recognition in 1874, insofar as support by public taxes was concerned, by the Kalamazoo Case decision (1874) in the Michigan Supreme out. Thereafter, it became the typically American school of the people – free, public, universal, comprehensive in curriculum, and both academic and vocational. Problems of secondary education were reviewed in two significant reports: one in 1893 by the NEA Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies, with President Charles William Eliot of Harvard as chairman; and the other in 1899 by the Committee on College Entrance Requirements. As the high school became increasingly popular among the American people it became evident that it had developed into what some educators called “the American road to culture”.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What factors led to educational progress in the 19th century?

2. What contribution did Horace Mann make into the development of education?
3. Why was Horace Mann greatly criticized?
4. What changes did the kindergarten undergo during the second half of the 19th century?
5. What new ideas concerning the kindergarten were put into operation by Francis Wayland Parker?
6. What branch of school came under scrutiny in the Report of the Committee of Fifteen, prepared in 1895?
7. When did the high school grow in prestige?
8. Did the high school receive legal recognition in 1874?
9. When were problems of secondary education reviewed?
10. How did some educators call the high education?

II. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

Massachusetts, Boston, Argentina, German-speaking school, first public school, Quiney, typically American school, public taxes.

1. In the 19th century the high school became ... of the people – free, public, universal, comprehensive in curriculum, and both academic and vocational. 2. Through the efforts of James Carter and Horace Mann, ... set up a state board of education in 1837. 3. The high school received legal recognition in 1874, insofar as support by ... was concerned, by the Kalamazoo Case decision (1874) in the Michigan Supreme out. 4. The kindergarten, based on the ideas of the German educator Friedrich Froebel, was first established on American soil in 1856 by Mrs.

Carl Schurz, as a ... in Watertown, Wis. 5. Mann's crusading zeal in promoting educational change and giving public expression to his satisfaction with European practices he had observed resulted in a controversy with the educators of 6. New ideas stressing a curriculum and a methodology based on child growth, development, and interest were first put into operation by Francis Wayland Parker in ... , Mass., and later in Chicago. 7. Horace Mann became recognized as the most influential American educator of the century and one whose ideas affected education in such far-off countries as ... and Uruguay. 8. A private English-language kindergarten was opened in 1860 by Elizabeth Palmer Peabody in Boston, and ... was set up in 1873 by Susan Blow in Saint Louis, Mo.

III. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. The growth of the nation in population, wealth and territory was accomplished without educational pains. 2. A state board of education, set up in 1837, increased teachers' salaries, instituted supervision and in-service training of teachers. 3. In 1852 school attendance was made compulsory. 4. There were no changes in the development of the kindergarten in the second part of the 19th century. 5. New ideas concerning the development of the kindergarten were put into operation by Horace Mann. 6. The higher school gained prestige in the 19th century. 7. Some educators called the high school "the American road to culture". 8. In the 19th century the high school became free, public, universal, comprehensive in curriculum and both academic and vocational.

IV. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

- a) The growth of the nation in population, territory, and wealth was not accomplished without educational pains;
- b) The growth of the nation in population, territory, and wealth was accomplished without educational pains;

c) The system of education developed without pain.

a) Through the efforts of James Carter and Horace Mann, Indiana set up a state board of education in 1837;

b) Due to the efforts of James Carter and Horace Mann, Massachusetts set up a state board of education in 1837;

c) Through the efforts of James Carter and Horace Mann, Massachusetts set up a state board of education in 1937.

a) James Carter insisted on religion's not being taught in the public schools;

b) Horace Mann insisted on religion's being taught in the public schools and the Bible's being read without comment.

c) Horace Mann insisted on religion's not being taught in the public schools.

a) A private English-language kindergarten was opened in 1860 by Elizabeth Palmer Peabody in Boston;

b) A private German-language kindergarten was opened in 1860 by Elizabeth Palmer Peabody in Boston;

c) A private English-language kindergarten was opened in 1960 by Elizabeth Palmer Peabody in Boston.

a) The high school grew in prestige throughout the 19th century, taking the place of the academy as the favored form of secondary education.

b) The high school grew in prestige throughout the 18th century, taking the place of the academy as the favored form of secondary education.

c) The high school grew in prestige throughout the 18th century, taking the place of the academy as the favored form of elementary education.

- a) As the high school became increasingly popular among the American people it became evident that it had developed into what some educators called “the American road to knowledge”.
- b) As the high school became increasingly popular among the American people it became evident that it had developed into what some educators called “the American road to culture”.
- c) As the high school became increasingly popular among the American people it became evident that it had developed into what some educators called “the American road to money”.

V. Match the events in the first column to their correct meaning:

- | | |
|------|---|
| 1837 | –The high school received legal recognition |
| 1852 | –Massachusetts set up a state board of education |
| 1856 | –A private English-language kindergarten was opened in Boston |
| 1874 | –school attendance was made compulsory |
| 1860 | –The kindergarten, based on the ideas of the German educator Friedrich Froebel, was first established |
| 1895 | –the entire curriculum of the elementary school came under scrutiny |

VI. Imagine that you are Horace Mann. Speak about the reforms you have introduced in the education and inform us about your further intensions.

Part VI

Higher education in the 19th century showed several new tendencies: emergence of new subjects, such as agriculture, sociology, anthropology, and education; secularization of colleges and universities, in part under the influence of Darwinian ideas; a steady increase in the number of private and public institutions of higher learning; and greater emphasis given to creative scholarship, following the example of the German universities. The subject of science received considerable emphasis during the century, first in the theoretical courses offered by the established colleges and then in the applied science and engineering courses taught at the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, N.Y. (1802), the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy, N.Y. Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md. (1845), the Sheffield Scientific School at Yale and the Lawrence Scientific School at Harvard (both 1847), and the Chandler School at Dartmouth (1851).

The passing of the first Morrill Act by Congress in 1862 made land grants available to the states for the establishment of colleges in which “agriculture and the mechanic arts” would be taught. The act made a special point including military science and “other scientific and classical studies” and of stating that the aim of these colleges was “to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life. “This law, as well as the

Morrill Act of 1890, brought about an expansion of state universities in the Middle West and Far West, especially in agriculture and engineering education.

Women’s higher education was provided in parts of the country before the Civil War on a private, denominational basis. The earliest graduates were given the degree of *Domina Scientiarum*. High academic standards were characteristic of Elmira Female College (date of first instruction, 1855) and of Vassar Female College (1865) both in New York State. Coeducation began with Oberlin

Collegiate Institute (1833) and Antioch College (1853), both in Ohio, and at the state universities of Utah (1850), Iowa (1855), and Washington (1861). Other important developments in the century were the granting of the earned Ph.D. degree in 1861 by Yale, the introduction of the elective system at Harvard by President Charles Eliot in 1869, and the founding of the Johns Hopkins University in 1876 as the first graduate school in the United States.

Religious education was given in parochial schools by Episcopalians, Prescopalians, Lutherans, Catholics, and Jews. The Roman Catholic Bishops' Third Plenary Council in Baltimore (1884) decreed that all Catholic parents must send their children to the parochial schools to be erected in every parish. All through the century there was a debate concerning the role of religion in public education and the question of providing public funds for religious schools.

For Afro-Americans opportunities for education were limited, although indeed some colleges were opened for them before the Civil War. After the Civil War, from the establishment of the Freedmen's Bureau in 1865, schooling of all kinds – most of it racially segregated – was made available to blacks. The legal precedent for segregated schools, “separate but equal” education, was set by the decision of the U.S. Supreme Court in 1896 in the case of *Plessy v. Ferguson*, and the pattern of Afro-American education, all over the South and in several states in the North, was determined for the next six decades.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What tendencies did higher education show in the 19th century?
2. What was emphasized in the subject of science in the 19th century?
3. What institutions were engineering courses taught at?

4. What was the reason for the establishment of colleges in which “agriculture and the mechanic arts” were taught?
5. Where did the first Morrill Act bring an expansion of state universities?
6. When was women’s higher education provided?
7. Where was religious education given?
8. Who introduced the elective system at Harvard?
9. What were the opportunities for education for Afro-Americans?
10. When was schooling of all kinds made available to blacks?

II. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

Higher education, secularization, the subject of science, N.Y. Naval Academy at Annapolis, the Morrill Act, Domina Scientiarum, Elmira Female College, Afro-Americans

1. For ... opportunities for education were limited, although indeed some colleges were opened for them before the Civil War. 2. ... brought about an expansion of state universities in the Middle West and Far West, especially in agriculture and engineering education. 3. ... in the 19th century showed several new tendencies: emergence of new subjects, such as agriculture, sociology, anthropology, and education; secularization of colleges and universities, in part under the influence of Darwinian ideas. 4. High academic standards were characteristic of ... and of Vassar Female College (1865) both in New York State. 5. Higher education in the 19th century showed several new tendencies: emergence of new subjects, such as agriculture, sociology, anthropology, and education; ... of colleges and universities. 6. The earliest graduates of women’s higher educational institutions were given the degree 7. Engineering courses were taught at the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, N.Y. (1802), the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy, 8. ... received considerable emphasis during the century, first in the theoretical

courses offered by the established colleges and then in the applied science and engineering courses

III. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. Higher education in the 19th century showed several new tendencies: emergence of new subjects, such as agriculture, sociology, anthropology, and education. 2. The passing of the first Morrill Act by Congress in 1862 made land grants available to the states for the establishment of colleges in which “economics and mathematics” would be taught. 3. Morrill Act of 1890, brought about an expansion of state universities in the Middle East and Far East. 4. Women’s higher education was provided in parts of the country before the Civil War on a private, denominational basis. 5. Religious education was given in parochial schools by Episcopalians, Prescopalians, Lutherans, Catholics, and Jews. 6. Afro-Americans were provided top-level conditions for education.

IV. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

- a) Higher education in the 19th century showed several new tendencies: emergence of new subjects, such as agriculture, culturology, methodology;
 - b) Higher education in the 19th century showed several new tendencies: emergence of new subjects, such as agriculture, sociology, anthropology, and education; secularization of colleges and universities, in part under the influence of Darwinian ideas;
 - c) Higher education in the 17th century showed several new tendencies: emergence of new subjects, such as agriculture, sociology, anthropology, and education; secularization of colleges and universities, in part under the influence of Darwinian ideas
-
- a) Women’s higher education was provided in parts of the country before World War I on a private, denominational basis.

- b) Men's higher education was provided in parts of the country before the Civil War I on a private, denominational basis.
- c) Women were not allowed to get higher education.

a) High academic standards were characteristic of Elmira Female College (date of first instruction, 1855) and the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy.

b) High academic standards were characteristic of Yale and Princeton.

c) High academic standards were characteristic of Elmira Female College (date of first instruction, 1855) and of Vassar Female College (1865) both in New York State.

a) Engineering courses were taught at the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, N.Y. (1802), the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy, N.Y. Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md. (1845).

b) Engineering courses were taught at the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, Vassar Female College (1865), Oberlin Collegiate Institute (1833).

c) Courses in foreign languages were taught at the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, N.Y. (1802), the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy, N.Y. Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md. (1845).

a) Religious education was given in ordinary schools by Episcopalians, Prescopalians, Lutherans, Catholics, and Jews.

b) Religious education was given in parochial schools by Episcopalians, Prescopalians, Lutherans, Catholics, and Jews.

c) Religious education was given in gymnasiums by Episcopalians, Prescopalians, Lutherans, Catholics, and Jews.

a) For Afro-Americans opportunities for education were wide, although indeed some colleges were opened for them before the Cold War.

b) For Afro-Americans opportunities for education were limited, although indeed some colleges were opened for them before the Cold War.

c) For Afro-Americans opportunities for education were limited, although indeed some colleges were opened for them before the Civil War.

V. Match the events in the first column to their correct meaning:

- | | |
|--------------------------|---|
| 19 th century | –the founding of the Johns Hopkins University |
| 1862 | –the establishment of the Freedmen’s Bureau |
| 1890 | –Morrill Act brought about an expansion of state universities in the Middle West and Far West |
| 1869 | –the introduction of the elective system at Harvard |
| 1865
Congress | –The passing of the first Morrill Act by Congress |
| 1876 | –higher education showed several new tendencies |

VI. Imagine that you are the Afro-American, who lived in the USA before the Civil War. Describe the opportunities for education you are provided.

Part VII

Trends and Problems

The problems, issues, and controversies that face American education are manifold. Outstanding among these have been how much, relatively, to emphasize general, as opposed to professional or vocational, subjects in the curriculum; the

procurement of adequate number of qualified teachers, scientists, and, later, a surplus; the selection and education of the gifted child and adolescent; the low salaries and frequently unsatisfactory teaching conditions in schools and colleges; the continuing shortage of funds for school facilities and new school buildings; and the effect on education of the persistent growth of juvenile delinquency and crime.

The specific concerns of the 1960s and early 1970s included variations of these problems, plus certain “innovations”. Educational administration and policy brought forth the concepts of differentiated staffing, performance contracting, accountability, and national assessment of educational improvement. The civil rights movement helped to effect community control by decentralization; equalization of school finance to eliminate the gap between affluent and poor school districts; equalization of opportunity of racial-ethnic (Afro-American, Puerto Rican, Mexican-American, and American Indian) and economically disadvantaged groups; and crosstown and intercounty school busing to achieve racial-ethnic integration. Flexible or modular scheduling, mini-courses, and schools without walls were introduced, as well as demands for the “deschooling” of society. Other important developments were the unionization of teachers and professors; the enthusiasm for systems analysis; the growth of the three to four-year middle school; the introduction of preschool projects (Head Start, Follow Through, Sesame Street) on the basis of the researches of European and American psychologist-educators; and the importation of the English infant school with the aid of Ford Foundation financing.

In the area of curriculum and instruction, developments included innovation and change in various subjects (mathematics, the sciences), the Right to Read Program of the federal government, the growth on a wide scale of new courses and programs (black studies, ethnic studies, sex education, women’s studies, environmental or ecological studies, drug abuse education, career education), and the growing attention to special education (the physically, mentally, and emotion-

ally handicapped). Among the newer approaches involving the teacher were performance-based teacher education, teacher centers, utilization of teacher aides, and the TTT (Training of Teachers of Teachers) program for the in-service improvement of professors of education and academic professors. In higher education the innovations included the open-admissions plan for the disadvantaged, the proliferation of free universities and counteruniversities, the importing of the open university from England, the formation of “universities without walls”, the recognition of the external degree in New York State and elsewhere, and the adoption of the new degrees of master of philosophy and the doctor of arts as consolation prizes in lieu of the Ph.D. degree.

Part VIII

Education in the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s

Although public and private education flourished after World War II, many observers raised concerns about quality. The launching by the Soviet Union of *Sputnik 1*, the first artificial satellite, in 1957, provoked the fear that American education was deteriorating, especially in mathematics and science; a flurry of efforts to improve school curricula followed. In the 1960s and 1970s critics began describing curricula as old-fashioned and unresponsive, and students demanded curriculum reform, along with civil rights and an end to the Vietnam War. In 1975 the College Board disclosed that the average score on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT, now renamed the Scholastic Achievement Test), used for admissions by institutions of higher education, had been declining for the previous eleven years. Businesses complained about the difficulty of finding competent workers and the need to set up remedial programs in the workplace. In 1979 the federal government acknowledged the significance of education by separating education from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and establishing the cabinet-level Department of Education.

In April 1983 the National Commission of Excellence in Education presented a report on the condition of the education system, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*, claiming that the average graduate of public schools and of colleges and universities was not as well educated as graduates of twenty-five to thirty-five years earlier. Dozens of similarly negative reports on education asserted the need to stress basics, to provide more intensive education, and for better-trained teachers. “Excellence” became the watchword.

Defining excellence and the role of the school both for the individual and the community were central to the debate that ensued and continued into the mid-1990s, although agreement on the most appropriate schooling for a democratic society proved difficult. Describing public schools as a nineteenth-century factory-type institution, many educators called for a recognition that changes in society and population required realignment of schools. Other educators pointed to the short school day and a plethora of subjects in the curriculum other than basics, such as sex and drug education. Comparisons were made to education in other countries, notably Japan, where students spend 8 hours a day in school for 240 days versus 6.5 hours and 180 days in the United States.

Part IX

In the 1980s “back to basics” characterized educational reform.

The National Commission on Excellence urged higher requirements for all in what they termed the five new basics - four years of English, three of mathematics, three of science, three of social studies, and a half-year of computer science. They insisted that the curriculum in the eight grades leading to high school should provide a sound foundation for study in those basics. Conservative educators argued that a proper education would offer few electives and focus on academic

subjects, art and music, Socratic discussion, and Western literature. Others maintained that curricula must meet the needs of children from different backgrounds. Although both groups concurred on a common curriculum for elementary school children, liberals believed that the high school curriculum should satisfy different interests and talents.

The quest for excellence resulted in reform in several areas. Between 1980 and 1990 forty-five states set higher standards for graduation, through achievement tests, academic course requirements, and performance expectations for promotion. Competency tests for new teachers (most commonly the National Teachers' Examination) became a requirement in forty-four states, in contrast to ten states in 1980. Teacher training programs, long criticized for their emphasis on pedagogy over academic content, attempted improvement by elevating liberal arts requirements, increasing efforts to attract better teacher candidates, and creating alternative pathways to teacher certification. Rising levels of teacher pay became an incentive for prospective educators. The average teacher's salary doubled in the 1980s, with the real rate of increase 27 percent. Merit pay for teachers, based on student achievement, was introduced over the objection of teachers' unions, which cited the difficulty of determining fair assessment standards and the potential for destroying collegiality.

Curriculum revision became the most contentious area for reform. During the 1960s and 1970s a laissez-faire attitude prevailed, exemplified by A. S. Neill's Summerhill, where students learned what they wanted, when they wanted, if they wanted. Student choice of subjects and diminished adult authority, particularly in high school, became increasingly common. High school curricula were driven by a philosophy of consumerism resulting in electives; student preferences based on "relevance" replaced intrinsic value as the guiding principle. Enrollments in science, mathematics, and foreign languages dropped. Concurrently, colleges lowered requirements for admission.

Along with excellence, equity became a theme of the 1980s; both the federal government and educators increased the emphasis on children with special needs. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 mandated education for handicapped children and promoted mainstreaming rather than special programs. The Bilingual Education Act of 1968, designed as a transitional program to help low-income children learn English, grew into a program to offer all children instruction in their native languages and cultures as well as English. The Supreme Court unanimously affirmed in *Lau v. Nichols* (1974) that federally funded schools must “rectify the language deficiencies in order to open instruction to students who had ‘linguistic deficiencies’”.

The role of schools was constantly challenged and expanded in the last quarter of the twentieth century but the result was mixed. By 1994 SAT math scores had risen, since reaching a nadir in 1980-1981. Verbal scores remained problematic because of a decline in composition and grammar courses. Black and Hispanic students scored below Orthodox Jewish, Asian American, and Caucasian students. There was a narrowing of score differences between college-bound males and females. Attempts were made to establish comprehensive schools, with before-and after-school programs for children and parents. More than thirty states offered prekindergarten classes. About 15 percent of the nation’s 15,000-plus school districts either provided some form of child care or allowed community groups to use their buildings for that purpose. The growing demand for higher education among all socioeconomic and ethnic groups fostered open-admission programs and expansion of two-year community colleges. Colleges offered remedial courses for freshmen. By the mid-1990s government officials, teachers, and parents, however, debated multiculturalism in the curriculum, grade inflation, violence in the schools, accountability, school prayer, and the role of standardized testing. At the college level, charges of political correctness, increasing racial divisiveness, and self-segregation also caused concern.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions:

1. What the most outstanding problems face American education?
2. What did the educational administration and policy bring in the educational improvement?
3. How did the equalization of school finance and the equalization of racial-ethnic and disadvantaged groups effect the Americans?
4. What developments were included in the area of curriculum and instruction?
5. What were the innovations in higher education?
6. What caused the describing curricula as old-fashioned and unresponsive?
7. What was the dispute between the different representatives of educational reform?
8. How did the educational reform influence the teachers?
9. What was the most contentious area for educational reform? Speak a bit about it.
10. How did the Bilingual Educational Act of 1968 effect the education?
11. Did the role of the schools was challenged? If yes, then in what way?

II. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

TTT program, pro-curement, the civil rights movement, the College Board, the formation of "universities without walls", "A nation at Risc" report, transitional program to help low income children learn English.

- 1 ... helped to effect community control by decentralization.

- 2 ... was established for the in-service improvement of professors of education and academic professors.
3. One of the problems that still faces American education is ... of adequate number of qualified teachers and scientists.
- 4 ... claimed that the average graduate of public schools and of colleges and universities was not as well educated as graduates of twenty-five to thirty-five years earlier.
- 5 ... grew into a program to offer all children instruction in their native languages and cultures as well as English.
6. In higher education one of the innovations was...
7. In 1975 ... disclosed that the average score on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT, now renamed the Scholastic Achievement Test), used for admissions by institutions of higher education, had been declining for the previous eleven years.

III. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. The problems that face American education are not numerous, because the role of schools was constantly challenged and expanded in the last quarter of the twentieth century.
2. Only educational administration took part in the improvement of the system of education.
3. After World War II public and private education was in the condition of decline.
4. Critics began describing curricula as old-fashioned because that time needed changes.
5. Liberal educators believed that curricula must meet the needs of children from different backgrounds.
6. Conservative educators argued that a proper education would offer few electives and focus on academic subjects, art and music, Socratic discussion, and Western literature.

7. Between 1980 and 1990 forty-five states set higher standards for graduation, through achievement tests, academic course requirements, and performance expectations for promotion.
8. Teacher training programs were criticized for their emphasis on pedagogy over academic content, but increased efforts to attract better teacher candidates and alternative pathways to teacher certification.
9. Student choice of subjects and diminished adult authority, particularly in high school, became increasingly common.
10. There were no special programs and projects for handicapped and low-income children, the educational reform touched mainly children with no special needs.

IV. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

- a) The crosstown and intercounty school busing helped to achieve racial-ethnic integration.
 - b) The crosstown and intercounty school busing helped to eliminate the gap between affluent and poor school districts.
 - c) The crosstown and intercounty school busing helped to influence the schoolers in the way the educational administration wanted.
-
- a) Special education is the education for low-income children.
 - b) Special education is the education for the physically, mentally, and emotionally handicapped.
 - c) Special education is the education for children, who had 'linguistic deficiencies'.

- a) The launching by the Soviet Union of *Sputnik 1* provoked the fear that American education was deteriorating, especially in mathematics and science.
 - b) The launching by the Soviet Union of *Sputnik 1* provoked the fear that American education was old-fashioned and unresponsive.
 - c) The launching by the Soviet Union of *Sputnik 1* provoked the fear that American education needed changes in the curriculum and instruction.
-
- a) The Department of Education asserted the need to stress basics, to provide more intensive education, and for better-trained teachers.
 - b) Dozens of similarly negative reports on education asserted the need to stress basics, to provide more intensive education, and for better-trained teachers.
 - c) The National Commission of Excellence in Education asserted the need to stress basics, to provide more intensive education, and for better-trained teachers.
-
- a) Defining excellence and the role of the school both for the individual and the community were central to the debate that ensued and continued into the mid-1990s, although agreement on the most appropriate schooling for a democratic society proved difficult.
 - b) Defining excellence and the role of the school both for the individual and the community were central to the debate that ensued and continued into the mid-1990s, and the agreement on the most appropriate schooling for a democratic society proved easy.
 - c) Defining excellence and the role of the school both for the individual and the community were central to the debate that ensued and continued into the mid-1990s, although there was no agreement between the educators.

a) All the educators called for a recognition that changes in society and population required realignment of schools.

b) All the educators pointed to the short school day and a plethora of subjects in the curriculum other than basics, such as sex and drug education.

c) Many educators called for a recognition that changes in society and population required realignment of schools, others pointed to the short school day and a plethora of subjects in the curriculum other than basics, such as sex and drug education.

a) The National Commission on Excellence insisted that the curriculum must meet the needs of children from different backgrounds.

b) The National Commission on Excellence insisted that the curriculum in the eight grades leading to high school should provide a sound foundation for study in those basics.

c) The National Commission on Excellence insisted that school curriculum should satisfy different interests and talents.

a) During the 1960s and 1970s high school curricula were driven by a philosophy of consumerism resulting in electives; enrollments in science, mathematics, and foreign languages dropped.

b) During the 1960s and 1970s high school curricula were driven by a philosophy of consumerism resulting in electives; but enrollments in science didn't drop, because the launching of Sputnik 1 made the Americans realize that their education concerning science was old-fashioned.

c) During the 1960s and 1970s high school curricula were driven by a philosophy of consumerism resulting in electives; and enrollments in

foreign languages dropped because many children had linguistic deficiencies.

V. Match the events in the first column to their correct meaning:

1980s The National Commission of Excellence in Education presented a report on the condition of the education system - *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*.

1957 Critics began describing curricula as old-fashioned and unresponsive, and students demanded curriculum reform.

1979 The College Board disclosed that the average score on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT, now renamed the Scholastic Achievement Test), used for admissions by institutions of higher education, had been declining for the previous eleven years.

1968 Forty-five states set higher standards for graduation, through achievement tests, academic course requirements, and performance expectations for promotion.

1975 The launching by the Soviet Union of *Sputnik 1*- the first artificial satellite.

1960-1970 Government officials, teachers, and parents, however, debated multiculturalism in the curriculum, grade inflation, violence in the schools, accountability, school prayer, and the role of standardized testing.

1983 The Bilingual Education Act was designed as a transitional program to help low-income children learn English.

By the mid 1990s “back to basics” characterized educational reform.

Between 1980-1990 The federal government acknowledged the significance of education by separating education from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and establishing the cabinet-level Department of Education.

VI. Fill in the table, pointing out the problems that face or faced American education and the ways of their solution, which American educators, representatives of policy and other fields offered and put into reality. Suggest your ways of solution these problems.

Problems of education	The ways of solution

Part X

The 20th century

The elementary school grew at a rapid pace after 1900, with the expansion of the population. One of the problems that had to be faced until about 1920 was the continually increasing enrollment of new pupils of immigrant parents. The kindergarten became more accepted and was instituted in many public school systems across the country. The nursery school was introduced about 1920 for

children who were less than four years of age, and preschool education was later supported by the federal government, especially during the depression years and World War II, to free mothers to work. In the late 1920s and early 1930s, the activity plan, which gave elementary school children a more flexible learning program, came into vogue. In time very few elementary schools made use of formal class teaching procedures in fixed seats. Curriculum changes in the 1950s involved an emphasis on science and the inclusion of foreign languages.

Tests of intelligence and achievement and diagnosis and prognosis came to be frequently used in elementary education. The doctrines and practices of John Dewey, Edward Lee Thorndike, and William H. Kilpatrick exerted a deep influence on teachers, parents, and school administrators. The parent-teacher association, which was promoted by the progressive educators who followed the lead of Dewey and Kilpatrick, became an outstanding feature of the American elementary school in the 20th century. The impact of the federal government on elementary education was, of necessity, indirect – for example, through the National School Lunch Act of 1946 and other temporary, supportive measures; the White House Conferences on Children and Youth in 1940, 1950, 1960, and 1970-71; and the White House Conferences on Education in 1955 and 1965. During the century the Supreme Court handed down a number of influential decisions concerning education: declaring invalid a Nebraska law against teaching foreign languages in private elementary schools (1923); upholding the constitutionality of religious and other private schools (1925); allowing states to furnish bus transportation for pupils: in parochial schools (1947); permitting released time for religious instruction, but only outside the public school (1948, 1952); requiring public schools to discontinue the segregation of black pupils (1954,1955); ordering immediate desegregation of public schools (1969); supporting the constitutionality of pupil busing to bring about desegregation (1962); upholding the ban on public school prayers (1962) and Bible reading in public schools (1963); and upholding

the supplying of free secular textbooks to parochial school students (1968) and the prohibiting of public financial aid to parochial school teachers (1971).

The junior high school first appeared in Berkeley, Calif., about 1910. Many large cities reorganized their secondary education; in terms of the new type of school. In the 1960s, the middle school appeared, a four- or three-year school following grade five or six. The secondary school curriculum was the subject of many investigations – particularly by NEA (1918), American Mathematical Association (1923), American Classical League (1924), Modern Language Association (1929), and Progressive Education Association (1941). In addition, the federal government sponsored the National Survey of Secondary Education (1933) and the Commission, on Life Adjustment Education for Youth (1949). During the 1950s and 1960s, reforms were instituted in curriculum structure, content, and methodology of many secondary school subjects.

The report by NEA in 1918 set down the Seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, which have exerted an influence on the curriculum of the American high school: health, vocation, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, worthy use of leisure, citizenship, and ethical character. Vocational education was promoted by the Smith-Hughes Act passed by Congress in 1917, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, and the federal campaign for career education beginning in 1970. Since the 1950s the leading issues in secondary education have been the position of academic studies vis-à-vis the vocational or life adjustment program, provisions for the talented student, and the enrichment of programs for students not preparing for college.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What was the main problem of educational system until about 1920?
2. What institution supported preschool education during the depression years and World War II?

3. What changes in education appeared in the 1950s?
4. When and where did the first junior high school appear in the USA?
5. What document of 1918 has exerted an influence on the curriculum of the American high school?
6. What documents promoted vocational education?

II. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. The elementary school grew at a slack pace after 1900, with the expansion of the population.
2. Preschool education was supported during the depression years and World War II to free mothers to work.
3. During the 20th century the Supreme Court handed down a number of influential decisions concerning education
4. In the 1960s, the junior high school appeared.
5. During the 1950s and 1960s, no reforms were instituted in educational system.
6. Since the 1950s the leading issues in secondary education have been the position of academic studies vis-à-vis the vocational or life adjustment program, provisions for the talented student, and the enrichment of programs for students not preparing for college.

III. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

- a) Tests of logical thinking came to be frequently used in elementary education.

b) Tests of intelligence and achievement and diagnosis and prognosis came to be frequently used in elementary education.

c) Tests of physical training came to be frequently used in elementary education.

a) The schoolchild-teacher association became an outstanding feature of the American elementary school in the 20th century.

b) The parent-schoolchild association became an outstanding feature of the American elementary school in the 20th century.

c) The parent-teacher association became an outstanding feature of the American elementary school in the 20th century.

a) The middle school first appeared in Berkeley, California, about 1910.

b) The junior high school first appeared in Berkeley, California, about 1910.

c) The high school first appeared in Berkeley, California, about 1910.

IV. Match the dates in the first column to the events in the second column, the names of people and organizations to their contribution:

1496

the White House Conferences on Education

1955, 1965

they considered secondary school curriculum as the subject of many investigations

John Dewey, Edward Lee Thorndike, and William H. Kilpatrick

the White House Conferences on Children and Youth

1918

they exerted a deep influence on teachers, parents, and school administrators

1940, 1950, 1960, 1970-71

the appearance of the Seven Cardinal Principles of secondary education

NEA, American Mathematical Association, American Classical League, Modern Language Association, and Progressive Education Association

1910

National School Lunch Act

V. Write a short summary of the development of education in the USA during the 1950s and 1960s.

Part XI

In 1900 the Association of American Universities was formed to promote high standards among the institutions of higher education. The public junior college movement had its start in 1902 at Joliet, 111. The junior college attained considerable popularity, especially in Texas and California, and in the period after World War II it began to multiply under the name of community college. The number of such institution's rose from 521 in 1960 to 891 in 1970, while enrollment increased 261 percent.

The early 20th-century college curriculum was diversified and practical, so much so that professors, administrators, and other critics of the contemporary college began to express their opinions in journals and in numerous books. Adverse criticism and the reevaluation of curriculums by college officials led to the

founding of experimental colleges and teaching programs, as well as to the spread of the general education movement, with its emphasis on the liberal arts.

Another development of outstanding importance was that of federal government activity in higher education. The government aided higher education through the GI Bill of Rights for the veterans of World War II (1943, 1944), the Korean War (1952), and the Vietnam War (1966); the Fulbright (1946), the Smith-Mundt (1948), and the Fulbright-Hays (1961) acts for the exchange of students, faculty, and research workers with foreign countries; the National Defense Education Act of 1958, which promoted the teaching of sciences, modern foreign languages, and mathematics and other aspects of education in the colleges and universities; the Higher Education Act of 1965, which aided teacher education and library services; and the Education Professions Development Act of 1967.

In the field of teacher education, the normal schools of the 19th and the early 20th century became teachers colleges that granted degrees, and in the period after World War II many of them were transformed into state colleges with liberal arts programs added to professional teacher training. Teachers College at Columbia University, the University of Chicago, the George Peabody College for Teachers, and New York University were among the most influential. During 1958-60 professors of academic subjects and professors of education made a national effort to arrive at a common policy on the education and certification of teachers.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What institution was formed in 1900 to promote high standards among the institutions of higher education?
2. How did the government aid higher education?
3. What Teachers College were among the most influential?

II. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. The public junior college at Joliet didn't attain any popularity.
2. The early 20th-century college curriculum was diversified.
3. The National Defense Education Act promoted the teaching only of physical education.

III. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

a) Adverse criticism and the reevaluation of curriculums by college officials led to the ruin experimental colleges and teaching programs.

b) Adverse criticism and the reevaluation of curriculums by college officials led to the founding of experimental colleges and teaching programs.

c) Adverse criticism and the reevaluation of curriculums by college officials led to the founding of specialized schools and teaching programs.

a) Another development of outstanding importance was that of military government activity in higher education.

b) Another development of outstanding importance was that of federal government activity in higher education.

c) Another development of outstanding importance was that of reactionary government activity in higher education.

IV. Match the dates in the first column to the events in the second column:

1958

the Higher Education Act

1965	the public junior college movement had its start at Joliet, 111
1902	professors of academic subjects and professors of education made a national effort to arrive at a common policy on the education and certification of teachers
1958-60	the National Defense Education Act

V. Write a short summary of the importance of federal government activity to education.

Part XII

From the 1920s on, adult education flourished through Americanization programs for immigrants, through the "Great Books" discussion programs, and the activities of organized bodies, such as the Adult Education Association of the U.S.A., the Fund for Adult Education, and the American Library Association. Universities, public schools, churches, labor unions, governmental agencies, various voluntary organizations, and the mass media of communications offered different programs of study, recreation, and aesthetic enjoyment to adults. The Adult Education Act of 1966 was a move by Congress to improve educational opportunities for mature citizens.

The education of Afro-Americans, which had been encouraged by the philanthropy of George Peabody (1867) and John F. Slater (1882), was further benefited by funds set up in the names of John D. Rockefeller in 1903, Anna T. Jeanes in 1905, Phelps-Stokes in 1909, and Julius Rosenwald in 1911. Although opportunities increased for Afro-Americans at all levels of public and private education, the South and part of the North continue to practice racial segregation in education. Of

principal importance for the racial integration of higher education were the U.S. Supreme Court decisions in the cases of; Gaines (1938), Sipuel (1948), Sweatt (1950), and McLaurin (1950). The case of *Alston v. Norfolk School Board*, decided by a federal circuit court of appeals in 1940, was the precedent for the practice of paying equal salaries to white and to black teachers in the public schools. But the most fundamental civil rights events in education were the U.S. Supreme Court decisions of 1954 and 1955, which declared segregation in public schools contrary to the doctrine of equality; as guaranteed by the Constitution and ordered desegregation to be carried out “with all deliberate speed.” Although public schools were integrated in several southern and northern states as a result of these decisions, resistance in Alabama, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana slowed down the process. In 1960 only 6 percent of the Afro-American pupil population attended classes with white children; full segregation on all levels of education was still maintained in 1960 in Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, and South Carolina. However, during the 1960s, developments in race relations and human rights changed the entire situation rapidly. Racial integration of the public schools and various actions to equalize the educational opportunities of Afro-Americans were accelerated by the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which provided for the withholding of federal funds from public school districts in which racial segregation was practiced. State and federal court decisions, including those by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1970 and 1971, required speedier desegregation and confirmed the constitutionality of crosstown conveyance of children by buses to achieve integration in public schools. During the early 1970s the campaign in behalf of racial equality in education was fully under way on both the *de jure* and *de facto* fronts, in the South and in the North.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What programs and institutions influenced a lot on adult education in 1920s?
2. What personalities encouraged the education of Afro-Americans?
3. What case was the precedent for the practice of paying equal salaries to white and to black teachers in the public schools?
4. Where was the full segregation on all levels of education maintained in 1960?
5. What act accelerated racial integration of the public schools and various actions to equalize the educational opportunities of Afro-Americans?

II. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. The Adult Education Act was a move by Congress to improve educational opportunities for mature citizens.
2. Public schools were integrated in several southern and northern states and resistance in Alabama, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana didn't affect the process.
3. In 1960 almost 30 percent of the Afro-American pupil population attended classes with white children.
4. During the 1960s, developments in race relations and human rights changed the entire situation in education rapidly due to the Civil Rights Act.
5. State and federal court decisions, including those by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1970 and 1971, required speedier desegregation.

III. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

- a) From the 1920s on, adult education subsided through Americanization programs for immigrants.
- b) From the 1920s on, adult education flourished through Americanization programs for immigrants.

c) From the 1920s on, no changes on adult education took place through Americanization programs for immigrants.

a) The education of Latin Americans had been encouraged by the philanthropy of George Peabody (1867) and John F. Slater (1882)

b) The education of Afro-Americans had been encouraged by the philanthropy of George Peabody (1867) and John F. Slater (1882)

c) The education of Native Americans had been encouraged by the philanthropy of George Peabody (1867) and John F. Slater (1882)

a) Although opportunities increased for Afro-Americans at all levels of public and private education, the West and part of the North continue to practice racial segregation in education.

b) Although opportunities increased for Afro-Americans at all levels of public and private education, the East and part of the West continue to practice racial segregation in education.

c) Although opportunities increased for Afro-Americans at all levels of public and private education, the South and part of the North continue to practice racial segregation in education.

IV. Match the dates in the first column to the events in the second column:

- | | |
|------|--|
| 1940 | the U.S. Supreme Court decisions of, which declared segregation in public schools contrary to the doctrine of equality |
| 1966 | the Civil Rights Act |
| 1964 | the Adult Education Act |

1954, 1955

the case of *Alston v. Norfolk School Board*

V. Write a short summary of the development of the education of Afro-Americans in the USA.

Standards and Tests

Part I

There are two widely used and nationally-administered standardized tests for high school students who wish to attend a college or a university. One is the **SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test)**, which attempts to measure aptitudes in verbal and mathematical fields necessary for college work. The other is the **ACT (American College Testing program)**, which attempts to measure skills in English, mathematics and the social and natural sciences. Both tests are given at specific dates and locations throughout the U.S. by non-profit, non-governmental organizations. The tests are used by universities as standards for comparisons, but are not in any way “official”.

Each year the SAT is taken by some two million high school students. One million of these students are in their last year of high school. Another million are in their next-to-last year. The ACT, more commonly used in the western part of the U.S., is taken each year by another million high school students. With so many different types of high schools and programs, with so many differences in subjects and standards, these tests provide common, nation-wide measuring sticks. Many universities publishing the average scores achieved on these tests by the students they admit. This indicates the “quality” or level of ability expected of those who apply.

Similar testing programs exist at higher level, as well. Someone who has already finished four years of university and wishes to go to a law or medical school is also required to take standardized tests. These tests have been agreed upon by the various law and medical school and are administered nation-wide at scheduled times. Like the SAT or ACT, these tests are not official or governmentally controlled. Other examinations, however, are official and usually quite difficult. For example, even after someone has studied for many years and earned a medical degree from a university, this still does not mean that he or she can begin to practice in the U.S. The individual states require still further examinations.

Other pressures also operate at the university level. Most universities require mid-semester and final (end-of-semester) examinations. It is possible, as a great many students have learned, to “flunk out” of a university, that is to be asked to leave because of poor grades. And most students who have scholarships must maintain a certain grade average to keep their scholarships.

College grades, determined by each instructor on the basis of class work and examinations, are usually on a five-point scale, with letters to indicate the levels of achievement. **A** indicates superior accomplishment and the letters go through **B**, **C**, **D** to **E** or **F** each grade (A=5, B=4, etc.) so that GPA (grade point average) may be computed. Normally, 3,5 points is a minimum GPA required to continue on school and graduate.

Since tuition and fees alone can be rather high (ranging from over \$21,000 for an academic year at Harvard or Yale to under \$2,000 at small public institutions) at most colleges and universities, a large number of students hold jobs besides studying. These part-time jobs may be either “on campus” (in the dormitories, cafeterias, students services, in research, and in teaching and tutoring jobs) or “off campus” (with local firm or businesses, in offices, etc.). In addition there are work-

study programs at a number of universities, and financial assistance. At Alaska Pacific University, for instance, about 71 percent of all students receive aid through the university, and 15 percent work part-time on campus. At Harvard about 40 percent of all students receive scholarships, and the average scholarship at Stanford is \$4,500 per year. Students who must work as well as study are the rule rather than the exception. Students cannot simply move from one university to another or trade place with other students. Before changing to another university, students must first have been accepted by the new university and have met that university's requirements.

Types of Higher Educational Institutions

Part I

Junior Colleges offer two-year programs beyond the secondary school level. Courses are divided into two programs one leading to a transfer to a four-year college at the end of two years, the other intended to be terminal at the completion of the junior college, usually leading to a profession (shop work, office work. Etc.).

In **Liberal arts Colleges** the studies are intended chiefly to provide general knowledge and develop the mind; they are not professional or technical. Such colleges generally offer four years of work beyond the secondary school level providing a broad educational base in language, philosophy, history, literature, abstract science etc.

Course work is often organized so that students may choose from many different areas of knowledge with some specialization or concentration in one particular field during the third year of the program. Some of these colleges are private, others are run by the state.

Usually, institutes of technology, teacher training colleges, art schools, and other **specialized institutions** emphasize intensive concentration in a specialty as contrasted with the broad range of liberal arts colleges. The course of study typically emphasized technical, scientific, or engineering aspects of knowledge in the field. Today, the educational programs of some specialized institutions are broader and more comprehensive. In fact, some of them have changed their names, aims and programs to fit a university type of organization.

The **university** may contain several colleges for undergraduate students seeking a bachelor's (four-year) degree and one or more graduate schools for those continuing in specialized studies beyond the bachelor's degree to obtain a master's or a doctoral degree.

A distinctive feature of American universities is the separation of graduate from undergraduate education. Often, a university will have more students working towards degrees at the graduate level than in undergraduate school. Another distinctive feature of some American universities is their large size.

At the undergraduate level (undergraduate school) universities may have several divisions – a college of liberal arts, a school of engineering or applied sciences, etc. A student usually enrolls in one undergraduate division, but he may take courses in more than one of these.

The goals and work of a university faculty member are not centered solely around teaching. Generally faculty members of a university are expected to contribute to the advancement of knowledge in their fields through research and writing. The research-oriented faculty is peopled with scholars – many of them distinguished and widely recognized – who spend half or more of their time to the teaching of graduate students or advanced undergraduates taking specialized courses in their

fields. Classes during the first two years of undergraduate studies are handled usually by graduate students and faculty members of junior rank.

Every state in the US maintains at least one institution of university rank. Programs in them are often adapted to serve local needs. State universities provide opportunities of higher education usually at a cost considerably below the cost of education in private institutions.

The most selective are the old private north-eastern universities, commonly known as the Ivy League, include Harvard Radcliff (Cambridge, Mass., in the urban area of Boston), Yale University (New Haven, Conn. between Boston and New York), Columbia College (New York), Princeton University (New Jersey), Brown University, Cornell University, Dartmouth College, University of Pennsylvania. The Ivy League Universities are famous for their graduate schools, which have become intellectual elite centers.

The institutions which provide higher education do not constitute any coordinate system and are not controlled by any centralized national authority. They work chiefly with governmental and institutional representatives to achieve common objectives and to obtain agreement on national education goals. There are regional accrediting associations which, when combined, embrace the entire United States. In some states, additional accrediting procedures are carried on by the State Department of Education or by the State University. Graduates of accredited colleges ordinarily find it easier to obtain acceptable positions than do graduates of non accredited ones. Students from accredited colleges find it easier to transfer to other colleges or to gain admission to graduate schools.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. How many standardized tests are there for high school students who wish to attend a college or university? 2. Where is the ACT more commonly used? 3. What do the tests provide for students and universities? 4. Why does someone who has already finished four years of university need to write tests? 5. Why are students to be asked to leave the university? 6. What letters are used to indicate the levels of achievement? 7. What can students that have to hold jobs besides studying do? 8. What program do Junior Colleges offer for students? 9. What aspects did specialized institutions emphasize and what happened to them? 10. What is the distinctive feature of American universities? 11. What are the most selective universities in USA? 12. Who controls the institutions which provide higher education?

II. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

Scholastic Aptitude Test, American College Testing program, final examinations, a five-point scale, Liberal arts Colleges, undergraduate school, regional accrediting associations.

1. ... attempts to measure aptitudes in verbal and mathematical fields necessary for college work. 2. ... more commonly used in the western part of the U.S., is taken each year by another million high school students. 3. Most universities require mid-semester and 4. College grades are usually on ..., with letters to indicate the levels of achievement. 5. In ... the studies are intended chiefly to provide general knowledge and develop the mind. 6. Often, a university will have more students working towards degrees at the graduate level than in 7. There are ... which, when combined, embrace the entire United States.

III. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. There are three widely used and nationally-administered standardized tests for high school students who wish to attend a college or a university. 2. The tests are given at specific dates and locations throughout the U.S. 3. The testing programs do not exist at higher level. 4. The tests are official and governmentally controlled. 5. College grades, determined by each instructor on the basis of class work and examinations, are usually on a five-point scale, with numbers to indicate the levels of achievement. 6. There are work-study programs at a number of universities, and financial assistance. 7. Courses in Junior Colleges are divided into four programs. 8. Course work is often organized so that students may choose from many different areas of knowledge. 9. Today, the educational programs of some specialized institutions are broader and more comprehensive. 10. At the undergraduate level (undergraduate school) universities do not have divisions.

IV. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

a) American College Testing program attempts to measure aptitudes in verbal and mathematical fields necessary for college work.

b) American College Testing program attempts to measure skills in English, mathematics and the social and natural sciences.

c) American College Testing program attempts to measure skills in music, art and physical fields.

a) The tests are used by universities as standards for comparisons, but are not in any way “official”.

b) The tests are used by schools as standards for comparisons, but are not in any way “official”.

c) The tests are used by different institutions as standards for comparisons, but are not in any way “official”.

- a) Most universities require only final (end-of-semester) examinations.
- b) Most universities require mid-semester and final (end-of-semester) examinations.
- c) Most universities require only mid-semester examinations.

- a) College grades are usually on a five-point scale.
- b) College grades are usually on a three-point scale.
- c) College grades are usually on a six-point scale.

- a) In Liberal arts Colleges the studies are intended chiefly to provide general knowledge and develop the mind
- b) In Liberal arts Colleges the studies are intended chiefly to provide special knowledge and develop the mind
- c) In Liberal arts Colleges the studies are intended chiefly to provide general knowledge and develop the physical strength.

- a) The distinctive feature of some American universities is their small size.
- b) The distinctive feature of some American universities is their large size.
- c) The distinctive feature of some American universities is their architecture.

- a) State universities provide opportunities for higher education usually at a cost considerably below the cost of education in private institutions.
- b) State universities provide opportunities for higher education usually at a cost considerably high the cost of education in private institutions.
- c) State universities provide opportunities for higher education usually at a cost that is equal to the cost of education in private institutions.

V. Match the following words and word combinations to their correct meaning:

Junior Colleges

a kind of higher educational institutions offer

two-year programs

Liberal arts Colleges a kind of higher educational institutions intended to provide general knowledge and develop the mind

Scholastic Aptitude Test attempts to measure aptitudes in verbal and mathematical fields

American College Testing program attempts to measure skills in English, mathematics and the social and natural sciences

Supreme Court Decisions on Education

Part I

Plessy v. Ferguson (1896)

Historical Background

In the aftermath of Reconstruction, which ended in 1877, the Southern State governments again became, as they remained in the North, “white man’s governments.” The new State legislatures enacted Jim Crow laws to legally segregate the races and impose second-class citizenship upon African Americans. Enforced by criminal penalties, these laws created separate schools, parks, waiting rooms, and other segregated public accommodations. In its ruling in the Civil Rights Cases of 1883, the Court made clear that the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment provided no guarantee against private segregation. It would now

be asked to rule on what protection the 14th Amendment offered in matters of public segregation.

In 1890, the Louisiana legislature passed a law requiring railroads to separate passengers on the basis of race. Trains that had two or more passenger cars were required to have designated seating for different races. If there was only one passenger car in a train, these cars were to be divided by a curtain or some other form of partition. A State fine of \$25 or up to 20 days in jail was the penalty for sitting in the wrong compartment.

Timidity in the protection of individual rights—as reflected in the Civil Rights Cases decision—was a dominant characteristic of the late 19th-century Court. Attacks on its authority after the infamous Dred Scott decision in 1857 still plagued the bench and reinforced its regressive tendencies.

Circumstances of the Case

Homer Adolph Plessy was a successful Louisiana businessman living in Baton Rouge. Comfortable in the society of both racial groups, Plessy had had one African-American grandparent. Although he did not consider himself African American, Louisiana law defined him as “octoroon” — one-eighth African American.

Plessy, acting on behalf of a committee that had been formed to challenge Jim Crow laws, intentionally broke the law in order to initiate a case. Returning by rail from New Orleans to Baton Rouge, Plessy was asked by railroad officials to sit in the segregated area of the train. He refused. Arrested and charged, Plessy petitioned the Louisiana Supreme Court for a writ against Ferguson, the trial court judge, to stop the proceedings against him for criminal violation of the State law.

But the Louisiana State Supreme Court refused. Convicted and fined, Plessy then appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States.

Constitutional Issues

The arguments in the case revolved around the 13th Amendment and the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment. Did the Louisiana law requiring segregated seating violate Plessy's "equal protection" under the law? Was a State law requiring separate accommodations on a public conveyance for whites and African Americans a violation of equal protection? Should the State law be ruled unconstitutional and Plessy's conviction overturned? Or would "separate but equal" facilities meet the standard of the 14th Amendment?

Arguments

For Plessy: Segregated facilities violate the Equal Protection Clause. As a fully participating citizen, Plessy should not have been denied any rights of citizenship. He should not have been required to give up any public right or access. The Louisiana law violated the Equal Protection Clause and was, therefore, unconstitutional.

For the State of Louisiana: It is the right of each State to make rules to protect public safety. Segregated facilities reflected the public will in Louisiana. A separate but equal facility provided the protections required by the 14th Amendment and satisfied the demands of white citizens as well. If the Civil Rights Cases of 1883 made clear that segregation in private matters is of no concern to government, why should a State legislature be prohibited from enacting public segregation statutes?

Decision and Rationale

Justice Henry B. Brown of Michigan delivered the 7-1 decision of the Court that upheld the Louisiana law requiring segregation. Brown noted that the law did not violate either the 13th or 14th Amendments. He stated that the 13th Amendment applied only to slavery, and the 14th amendment was not intended to give African Americans social equality but only political and civil equality with white people.

Using a line of reasoning that would echo across the next 60 years of political debate and Court opinion, Brown wrote that “Legislation is powerless to eradicate racial instincts or to abolish distinctions based upon physical differences....” In other words, legislation cannot change public attitudes, “and the attempt to do so can only result in accentuating the difficulties of the present situation,” Brown wrote. Reflecting the common bias of the majority of the country at the time, Brown argued that “If the civil and political rights of both races be equal, one cannot be inferior to the other civilly or politically. If one race be inferior to the other socially, the Constitution of the United States cannot put them upon the same plane.” The Court declared the Louisiana law a reasonable exercise of the State's “police power,” enacted for the promotion of the public good.

In the key passage of the opinion, the Court stated that segregation was legal and constitutional as long as “facilities were equal.” Thus the “separate but equal doctrine” that would keep America divided along racial lines for over half a century longer came into being.

Somewhat ironically, while Brown, a Northerner, justified the segregation of the races, Justice John Marshall Harlan, a Southerner from Kentucky, made a lone, resounding, and prophetic dissent. “The Thirteenth Amendment...struck down the institution of slavery and ...decreed universal civil freedom,” Harlan declared. “Our Constitution is color-blind and neither knows nor tolerates classes among citizens.” Harlan's dissent became the main theme of the unanimous decision of the Court in *Brown v. Board of Education* in 1954.

No great national protest followed in the wake of the Plessy decision. Segregation was an issue shunted off to the corner of our national life, and would remain so for nearly 60 years.

Part II

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka (1954)

Historical Background

Perhaps no other case decided by the Court in the 20th century has had so profound an effect on the social fabric of America as *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*. By the end of World War II, dramatic changes in American race relations were already underway. The integration of labor unions in the 1930s under the eye of the Fair Employment Practices Commission and the desegregation of the armed forces by President Truman in 1948 marked major steps toward racial integration.

The legal framework on which segregation rested—formally established in 1896 by the Court's *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision—was itself being dismantled. Challenged repeatedly by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), the doctrine of “separate but equal” was beginning to crack. Beginning in 1938, the Supreme Court had, in a number of cases, struck down laws where segregated facilities proved to be “demonstrably unequal.” The Court ordered the law schools at the University of Missouri and the University of Texas to be integrated in *Missouri ex rel. Gaines v. Canada*, 1938, and *Sweatt v. Painter*, 1950. Neither case had made the frontal assault needed to overturn the *Plessy* standard. However, the 1950s brought a new wave of challenges to official segregation by the NAACP and other groups.

Circumstances of the Case

Linda Brown, an eight-year-old African-American girl, had been denied permission to attend an elementary school only five blocks from her home in Topeka, Kansas. School officials refused to register her at the nearby school, assigning her instead to a school for nonwhite students some 21 blocks from her home. Separate elementary schools for whites and nonwhites were maintained by the Board of Education in Topeka. Linda Brown's parents filed a lawsuit to force the schools to admit her to the nearby, but segregated, school for white students.

Constitutional Issues

The central question addressed to the Court involved the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment. The Court was asked to determine whether the segregation of schools was at all constitutional.

Arguments

For Linda Brown: Led by Thurgood Marshall, an NAACP litigator who would be appointed to the Court in 1967, Brown's attorneys argued that the operation of separate schools, based on race, was harmful to African-American children. Extensive testimony was provided to support the contention that legal segregation resulted in both fundamentally unequal education and low self-esteem among minority students. The Brown family lawyers argued that segregation by law implied that African Americans were inherently inferior to whites. For these reasons they asked the Court to strike down segregation under the law.

For the Board of Education: Attorneys for Topeka argued that the separate schools for nonwhites in Topeka were equal in every way, and were in complete conformity with the Plessy standard. Buildings, the courses of study offered, and the quality of teachers were completely comparable. In fact, because some federal

funds for Native Americans only applied at the nonwhite schools, some programs for minority children were actually better than those offered at the schools for whites. They pointed to the Plessy decision of 1896 to support segregation and argued that they had in good faith created “equal facilities,” even though races were segregated. Furthermore, they argued, discrimination by race did not harm children.

Decision and Rationale

For a unanimous Court (9-0), Chief Justice Warren wrote in his first and probably most significant decision, “Segregation in public education is a denial of the equal protection of the laws.” Accepting the arguments put forward by the plaintiffs, Warren declared: “To separate some children from others of similar age and qualifications solely because of their race generates a feeling of inferiority as to their status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone.”

The Court quoted the Kansas court, which had held that “Segregation of white and colored children in public schools has a detrimental effect upon the colored children. The impact is greater when it has the sanction of the law; for the policy of separating the races is usually interpreted as denoting the inferiority of the negro group. A sense of inferiority affects the motivation of a child to learn. Segregation with the sanction of law, therefore, has a tendency to retard the educational and mental development of negro children and to deprive them of some of the benefits they would receive in a racially integrated school....”

Summing up, Warren wrote: “We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of “separate but equal” has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal.... segregation in public education is a denial of the equal protection of the laws.”

The Brown decision did more than reverse the Plessy doctrine of “separate but equal.” It reversed centuries of segregationist practice and thought in America. For that reason, the Brown decision is seen as a transforming event—the birth of a political and social revolution. In a later case called Brown II (Warren had suggested two decisions—the first dealing with the constitutionality of segregation and the second with the implementation of the decision), the Court directed an end to school segregation by race “with all deliberate speed.” The Brown decision became the cornerstone of the social justice movement of the 1950s and 1960s. It finally brought the spirit of the 14th Amendment into practice, more than three-quarters of a century after that amendment had been passed.

Part III

The Regents of the University of California v. Bakke (1978)

The Regents of the University of California v. Bakke, (1978) was a landmark decision of the Supreme Court of the United States on the permissible scope factors in an admissions program, but only for the purpose of improving the learning environment through diversity in accordance with the university’s constitutionally protected First Amendment right to Academic Freedom.

The “diversity in the classroom” justification for considering race as “one” of the factors in admissions policies was different from the original purpose stated by UC Davis Medical School, whose special admissions program under review was designed to ensure admissions of traditionally discriminated-against minorities. UC Davis Medical School originally developed the program to reduce the historic deficit of traditionally disfavored minorities in medical schools and the medical profession, counter the effects of societal discrimination, increase the number of physicians who will practice in communities currently underserved, and obtain the educational benefits that flow from an ethnically diverse student body.

There was a plurality opinion in this case with the determining vote lying with Justice Lewis Powell, who had an intermediate opinion. Justice Powell stated, “If petitioner’s purpose is to assure within its student body some specified percentage of a particular group merely because of its race or ethnic origin, such a preferential purpose must be rejected not as insubstantial, but as facially invalid”. The 4th goal, obtaining the educational benefits that flow from an ethnically diverse student body, is the only goal that Powell said was clearly a “permissible goal for an institution of higher education”, and for this reason, it did not survive strict scrutiny. Also, because this quota focused on solely ethnic diversity, he said it would “hinder rather than further attainment of genuine diversity”.

History

Allan Bakke, a 32 years old white male, applied to twelve medical schools in 1973. He was a National Merit Scholar at Coral Gables High, an all-white school in Florida. He was accepted as an undergraduate at the University of Minnesota, deferring tuition costs by joining ROTC. He graduated with the GPA of 3.51. In order to fulfill his ROTC requirements, he joined the Marines and later served a seven-month tour of duty in Vietnam. In 1967, he received an honorable discharge with the rank of Captain. He worked as an engineer at NASA. He stated that his interest in medicine started in Vietnam, which increased at NASA. But twelve medical schools rejected his application for admission. Bakke first applied to University of Southern California and Northwestern in 1972 and both rejected him, making a point of his age. Northwestern wrote “his age was above their stated limit”. His 1973 application to Davis reflects his anxiety about his age, referring to his four years of sacrifice for his country as a set back and cause of his late interest in medicine. His quantitative criterion for acceptance was considered excellent. He took the Medical College Admissions Test, scoring in the top ninety-seven percent. He also maintained a science GPA of 3.44 and an overall GPA of 3.46 after taking

science courses at night to qualify for medical school. He should have been concerned about his age, for he was rejected despite the fact that his scores were well above the scores of an average admittee at University of California Davis medical school. A Davis Faculty member from Bakke's 1973 interview believed that he was a "well-qualified candidate for admission whose main handicap is the unavoidable fact that he is now 33 years of age."

Allan Bakke, a white male, applied to University of California, Davis School of Medicine in 1973 and 1974, but was rejected in both years, although "special applicants" were admitted with significantly lower academic scores than Bakke's. However, the "regular committee often turned down well-qualified minority applicants" claiming that a 3.4GPA was not a 3.6 GPA. These special applicants were admitted under provisions either for members of a minority groups (such as Blacks or Hispanics), or as economically and/or educationally disadvantaged – but although many disadvantaged Caucasians had applied under this second provision, none had been successful. In 1974, in particular, the special admissions committee explicitly stated they would consider only candidates who were from explicitly designated minority groups.

After his second rejection, Bakke filed an action in state court for mandatory, injunctive, and declaratory relief to compel his admission to Davis, alleging that the special admissions program operated to exclude him on the basis of his race in violation of the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment.

The trial court found that the special program operated as a racial quota, because minority applicants in that program were rated only against one another, and 16 places in the class of were reserved for the clause. Because the Medical School could not satisfy its burden of demonstrating that, absent the special program, Bakke would not have been admitted, the court ordered his admission to the Medical School. Bakke began his studies at the University of California Medical

School at Davis in fall of 1978, graduated in 1982, and later served as a resident at Mayo Clinic in Rochester, Minnesota.

Decision

It is important to note that there were two opposing 4-person plurality opinions and then Justice Powell's. Each of the 4-person plurality opinions concurred only with parts of Justice Powell's opinion and not the same parts.

The issue before the Court was twofold: 1. Whether Bakke's exclusion from consideration in UC Davis Medical School special admissions program for minorities because he was white was unconstitutional and a violation of section VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964; and 2. if it was unconstitutional, should UC Davis Medical School be required to admit him.

Justice Powell concluded that excluding a candidate from consideration solely on the basis of race was unconstitutional, no matter what the purpose, and since UC Davis Medical School could not prove that, even without the special admissions program, Bakke would never have been admitted anyway, UC Davis was compelled to admit Bakke.

Therefore, though there was no clear-cut majority view on using race as a factor in general, there was a 5-4 split in which the majority (the Stevens plurality and Powell) agreed that the UC Davis Special admissions program was unconstitutional because it excluded applicants on the basis of race. Similarly the same 5-4 split concurred that UC Davis be required to admit Bakke.

Some refer to using race as a basis to exclude applicants as a racial quota system. An institution's special admissions program that is designed to admit people of a certain ethnic group and excludes consideration of candidates from other ethnic

groups is in effect an assurance that the institution will admit a certain number of the members from a specified ethnic group. Justice Powell, who announced the judgment of the court, stated that the appellation of the process is irrelevant .

Powell found that quotas insulated minority applicants from competition with the regular applicants and were thus unconstitutional because they discriminated against non-minority applicants. Powell however stated that universities could use race as a plus factor. He cited the Harvard College Admissions Program which had been filed as an amicus curiae as an example of a constitutionally valid affirmative action program which took into account all of an applicant's qualities including race in a "holistic review".

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions to the text:

1. What was the main reason for the beginning of Plessy v. Ferguson case?
2. What amendment guaranteed the equal protection for people?
3. After what events was the firmness of Louisiana Court shaken?
4. Who was Homer Plessy by his racial origin?
5. What was the main rule of the segregated areas in the public transport?
6. How many justices approved the Louisiana law requiring segregation?
7. What impact on the public mind did Plessy case have?
8. What was the principal cause of the opening Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka case?
9. What changes in American race relations happened after World War II?
10. Who was responsible for maintaining the separate elementary schools?
11. What was the main decision of the Court of Topeka?
12. How did the Brown decision influence the social justice movement in the USA?
13. What was the reason for the beginning of the Regents of the University of California v. Bakke?
14. Why did UC Davis Medical School develop rules for the entering persons?
15. What was the main cause of Bakke's rejection at Davis Medical School?
16. What issues were discussed during

the Bakke case? 17. Was the Bakke decision easy for justices? 18. How did the result of the Regents of the University of California v. Bakke influence on the publicity?

II. Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. Plessy v. Ferguson is the case which resulted in the prohibition of segregation in the public transport. 2. The 14th Amendment provided the protection of the African Americans from indignity. 3. Homer Plessy was a successful California businessman who was taken in prison because of his financial fraud. 4 Plessy demanded from the Court to recognize the items of Louisiana law unconstitutional. 5. Justice Brown rendered that the Louisiana law didn't violate any equal protection of the citizens. 6. After the end of Plessy v. Ferguson case the national protest against the racial discrimination burst out. 7. Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka was the case which was caused by the racial discrimination. 8. The Board of Education was the main plaintiff in the case against Linda Brown. 9. The Brown family lawyers asked the Court to strike down segregation under the law. 10. Justice Warren didn't approve the segregation in public education. 11. The Brown decision turned to be the principal cornerstone of the social justice movement for nearly a decade. 12. The Bakke decision was a landmark decision for the equal protection in the case against the Regents Medical School. 13. Allan Bakke was an old black man who was denied a position of a physician. 14. The Trial Court accepted the Bakke's claim against UC Davison Medical School. 15. After a long disputation, the Court passed the 5-4 decision for Bakke.

III. Supply the word or phrase from the vocabulary list which correctly completes the sentence:

Plessy v. Ferguson, Brown v. Board of Education, Bakke decision, accountant, plaintiff, Henry Brown, Powel, Warren

1. ... case didn't forbid the segregation in public transport. 2. After ... the segregation in the elementary school was prohibited and proclaimed unconstitutional. 3. ... helped to remove the segregation from the medical sphere. 4. Homer Plessy was the main ... in the case against Ferguson. 5. In the case against Brown the Board of Education was the principal 6. Justice ... delivered the 7-1 decision of the Court that upheld the Louisiana law requiring segregation. 7. ... was the chief justice who approved the segregation to be a denial of the equal protection. 8. ... was one of the justices who concluded that segregation of Bakke was unconstitutional.

IV. Write the letter of the best answer according to the information in the text:

a) Plessy v. Ferguson is the case which was caused by the segregation in public transport.

b) Plessy v. Ferguson is the case which was caused by the segregation in education.

c) Plessy v. Ferguson is the case which was caused by the racial discrimination.

a) The Court approved that the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment provided no guarantee against segregation.

b) The Court approved that the Equal Protection Clause of the 13th Amendment provided no guarantee against the racial discrimination.

c) The Court approved that the Equal Protection Clause of the 11th Amendment provided no guarantee against segregation.

a) The Court rendered that the segregation against Plessy was unconstitutional.

b) The Court rendered that the segregation against Plessy was antiracial.

c) The Court rendered that the segregation against Plessy was constitutional.

a) Brown v. Board of Education was the case against the segregation of Latinos.

b) Brown v. Board of Education was the case against the segregation of Afro-Americans.

c) Brown v. Board of Education was the case against the segregation of Jews.

a) Linda Brown was denied permission to attend an elementary school because of the colour of the skin.

b) Linda Brown was denied permission to attend an elementary school because of the financial problems.

c) Linda Brown was denied permission to attend an elementary school because of her background.

a) The Brown decision didn't reserve the doctrine of "separate but equal".

b) The Brown decision changed the attitude to the racial discrimination.

c) The brown decision began the social revolution in the USA.

a) The Regents of the University of California v. Bakke was the case against the segregation in public education.

b) The Regents of the University of California v. Bakke was the case against the segregation in politics.

c) The Regents of the University of California v. Bakke was the case against the segregation in medicine.

a) Allan Bakke was not admitted to Davis Medical School because of his low grades.

b) Allan Bakke was not admitted to Davis Medical School because of his race.

c) Allan Bakke was not admitted to Davis Medical School because of his social state.

- a) The Court approved the Bakke's claim against UC Davis Medical School.
- b) The Court found the Bakke's claim against UC Davis Medical School to be unconstitutional.
- c) The Court didn't approve the Bakke's claim against UC Davis Medical School.

V. Match the events in the first column to the dates in the second column:

Plessy v. Ferguson	1954
Brown v. Board of Education	1978
The Bakke decision	1896

VI. Find the appropriate explanations to the names and words:

Allan Bakke	the plaintiff against Ferguson
Linda Brown	the justice who rendered the principal decision in the Plessy case
Henry Brown	the plaintiff in the case against the Board of Education
Warren	the chief justice who pronounced the sentence in the Brown case
Homer Plessy	the man who brought in an action against UC Davis
Discrimination	the action of setting someone apart from others
Segregation	the prejudicial treatment of different categories of people on the grounds of race, age or sex

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