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КУРС ЛЕКЦІЙ З КРАЇНОЗНАВСТВА

Навчальний посібник з країнознавства
для студентів ІІ курсу

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Передмова

Навчальний посібник «Курс лекцій з країнознавства» призначений для студентів другого курсу факультету іноземних мов і має на меті формування соціокультурної компетентності студентів у процесі їх ознайомлення з різноманітними аспектами життя п'яти англомовних країн.

Посібник складається з дванадцяти розділів – лекцій, що відповідає кількості лекційних годин, передбачених чинною навчальною програмою курсу «Країнознавство». Найбільшу увагу приділено Сполученому Королівству Великої Британії та Північної Ірландії та Сполученим Штатам Америки. Матеріал про Канаду, Австралію та Нову Зеландію викладено більш стисло. Зміст лекцій охоплює такі аспекти життя зазначених країн – географічне розташування, особливості історичного розвитку та державного устрою, культура та мистецтво, населення, національні символи та деякі мовні реалії.

Кожній лекції передує список важких у вимові власних назв з фонетичною транскрипцією. При першому згадуванні в тексті ці власні назви виділено курсивом. Кожна лекція супроводжується глосарієм, де пояснюється значення слів та словосполучень, пов'язаних із темою лекції. У додатках міститься довідковий матеріал, статистичні дані, історичні документи, промови політичних діячів, що надає студентам додаткову інформацію щодо тем, висвітлених у лекціях. Наприкінці посібника подано список рекомендованої літератури.

Розуміння та ступінь засвоєння матеріалу перевіряються завданнями, що пропонуються до виконання після кожної лекції. Завдання різняться за ступенем складності від простіших – відповіді на запитання, заповнення пропусків та вибору вірного варіанту відповіді, до більш складних творчих завдань, що передбачають самостійне опрацювання інформації з додатків, пошук додаткової інформації з інших джерел, стимулюють процеси аналізу та синтезу, вміння робити висновки.

Посібник може бути корисним для всіх, хто вивчає та викладає англійську мову та цікавиться життям англомовних країн.

Автор

Lecture 1

GREAT BRITAIN. GEOGRAPHY

Plan

1.1. Geographical position
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Pronunciation Guide

Aberdeen [ˌæbəˈdiːn]	Lancashire [ˈlæŋkəʃɪə]
Alderney [ˈɔːldəni]	Loch Lomond [ˈlɒkˈləʊmənd]
Anglesey [ˈæŋgəlsi]	Lough Neagh [ˈlɒkˈneɪ]
Bangladeshi [ˌbæŋgləˈdeʃi]	Manchester [ˈmæntʃɪstə]
Ben Nevis [ˈben ˈnevɪs]	Mourne Mountains [ˈmɔːn ˈmaʊntɪnz]
Birmingham [ˈbɜːmɪŋəm]	Newcastle [ˈnjuːkɑːsl]
Brigantes [brɪˈgæntiːz]	Orkney [ˈɔːkni]
Canterbury [ˈkæntəbərɪ]	Ouse [uːz]
Cardiff [ˈkɑːdɪf]	Pakistani [ˌpɑːkɪˈstɑːnɪ]
Cheviot [ˈtʃevɪət]	Pennines [ˈpenaɪnz]
Derwent Water [ˈdɜːwəntˌwɔːtə]	Rydal Water [ˈraɪdl(ə)ˌwɔːtə]
Dublin [ˈdʌblɪn]	Sark [sɑːk]
Edinburgh [ˈedɪnbərə]	Scafell Pike [ˈskɔːfelˈpaɪk]
Eire [ˈeərə]	Scilly [ˈsɪlɪ]
Gaelic [ˈgeɪlɪk]	Shetland [ˈʃetlənd]
Glasgow [ˈglɑːzgəʊ]	Slieve Donard [ˈslɪːvˈdɒnəd]
Glen More [ˈglen,mɔː]	Snowdonia [ˌsnəʊˈdəʊnɪə]
Greenwich [ˈgrɪnɪtʃ]	Tees [tiːz]
Grampians [ˈgræmpɪənz]	Thames [temz]
Grasmere [ˈgrɑːsˌmɪə]	Ullswater [ˈʌlzˌwɔːtə]
Guernsey [ˈgɜːnzɪ]	Ulster [ˈʌlstə]
Hebrides [ˈhebrɪdiːz]	Wales [weɪlz]
Ireland [ˈaɪələnd]	Wight [waɪt]
Island [ˈaɪlənd]	Windermere [ˈwɪndəˌmɪə]
Jersey [ˈʤɜːzɪ]	Wye [waɪ]

1.1. Geographical Position

The British Isles is a traditional geographical term used to identify the group of islands off the northeastern coast of Europe consisting of Great Britain, Ireland and many smaller adjacent islands. These islands form an archipelago of more than 6,000 islands off the west coast of Europe.

The main island of Great Britain is the largest of the British Isles. It is the largest in Europe, and ranks either eighth or ninth in size among the islands in the world (depending on whether Australia is classified as an island or a continent).

The origin of the name "Britain" is unclear. Some historians say that when the Romans took over the southern part of Great Britain they named the island after the *Brigantes*, one of the largest Celtic tribes living there. The Romans gave it the name 'Britannia'. The earlier Celtic inhabitants became known as 'Britons' and the island as Britain.

The British Isles are washed by the Atlantic Ocean in the northeast, north and north-west. They are separated from Europe by the North Sea, the Straits of Dover and the English Channel. Great Britain is separated from Ireland by the Irish Sea, North Channel and St George's Channel. The seas surrounding the British Isles are shallow and rich in fish.

There are two states in the British Isles. One of these is the Republic of Ireland, which covers most of the Island of Ireland. It is also called *'Eire'* (the Irish language name). Informally it is referred to as just *'Ireland'* or *'the Republic'.*

The other state has the authority over the rest of the British Isles. Its official name is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland although it is usually known by a shorter name. It is often referred to as *'the United Kingdom'.* In everyday speech it is often referred to as *'the UK'.* In other contexts it is often referred to as *'Great Britain'.*

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is a small nation in a physical size, it has the total area of some 242, 500 sq km. It is nearly 500 km across at the widest point and almost 1,000 km long.

The United Kingdom is divided into 4 historically developed regions, commonly referred to as the home nations: England (capital – London), Wales (capital – Cardiff), Scotland (capital – Edinburgh), and Northern Ireland or *Ulster* (capital – Belfast).

England covers about two thirds of Great Britain, most of it consists of rolling lowland terrain. The largest urban area is Greater London, which is the capital of England as well as of the whole United Kingdom.

To the southwest of England are the Isles of *Scilly*, and to the south is the *Isle of Wight*. The Channel Islands, include the independent States of *Jersey, Guernsey*, *Alderney* and *Sark*. They were once part of the Duchy of Normandy and retain much of their original French culture.

A rail tunnel under the English Channel was officially opened in 1994 connecting Britain and the European mainland for the first time since the Ice Age. As the world's

longest undersea tunnel the '*Chunnel*' runs under water for 23 miles, with an average depth of 150 feet below the seabed. Each day, about 30,000 people, 6,000 cars and 3,500 trucks journey through the Chunnel. Though the Chunnel's $16 billion cost was roughly twice the original estimate, and completion was a year behind schedule it was identified as one of the Seven Wonders of the Modern World.

Scotland's geography is varied, with lowlands in the south and east and highlands in the north and west, including Ben Nevis, the UK's highest mountain. There are many long and deep sea-arms, firths, and lochs. Western Scotland is fringed by numerous islands, the largest being *the Hebrides*, *the Orkney Islands* and *the Shetland Islands*. The capital city is *Edinburgh*, the centre of which is a World Heritage Site. The largest city is Glasgow.

Wales is situated on a peninsula in the west of Great Britain, it is mostly mountainous, the highest peak being *Snowdon*. North of the mainland is the island of *Anglesey*. The largest and capital city is Cardiff, located in South Wales.

Northern Ireland, making up the north-eastern part of Ireland, is mostly hilly. The main cities are Belfast and Londonderry (also known as Derry). The province is home to one of the UK's World Heritage Sites, the *Giant's Causeway*, which consists of more than 40,000 six-sided basalt columns up to 12 meters high.

All the islands have administrative ties with the mainland, but the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea and the Channel Islands (which lie off the north coast of France) have a large measure of administrative autonomy. They are direct dependencies of the British Crown, but are largely self-governing and have their own legislative, monetary and taxation systems. Each has its own parliament and a Governor appointed by the Crown.

The United Kingdom (including the Channel Islands, but without the Isle of Man) is a member of the European Union. The Isle of Man maintains free-trade arrangements with the European Union, but is not a member.

A number of Britain's dependent territories are scattered throughout the world and are the remains of the former British Empire. The United Kingdom has experienced difficulties with some of its territories – Argentina has made claims to *the Falkland Islands* and Spain has made claims to Gibraltar. China's claim to the former dependent territory of Hong Kong was satisfied in July 1997 when Britain's lease ran out and China assumed control of the area.

1.2. Relief

The island of Great Britain is quite distinctly divided into two parts: mountainous (north and west) and lowland, sometimes hilly (south and east).

Wales, Scotland, and parts of England are located in the highland zone. The most important mountain territories are those located in the north of Scotland. Geologically those mountains are among the oldest in the world. The large valley – the Central Lowland - divides these mountain ranges into the Northern Highlands and the Southern Uplands. The narrow valley of *Glen More*, through which runs the Caledonian Canal, separates the North-West Mountains from *the Grampians*. The highest point is Ben Nevis (1343 m), which is also the highest point of the British Isles.

In the centre of England is a range of mountains called *the Pennines* – the backbone of Britain, stretching up to the river basin of the Trent. The Pennines form an almost continuous stretch of high land extending to 890 km. The highest point is Cross Fell (893 m).

On the north-west side of the Pennines lies the Lake District the greater part of which is taken by *the Cumbrian Mountains*. The mountains are not very high, *Scafell Pike*, the highest peak, is only 978 m. The valleys, which separate the various mountains of the Cumbrians from each other, contain some beautiful lakes that comprise the famous Lake District.

The Southern Uplands, Pennines and Cumbrians form a practically continuous group. The Southern Uplands are separated from the Pennines by *the Cheviot Hills*, a mass of granite and red sandstone that serve as a natural borderland between England and Scotland.

The Cambrian Mountains occupy nearly the whole of Wales, leaving only narrow coastal strips of lowland. The highest peak in North Wales is Snowdon (1085 m). It is located in *the Snowdonia National Park* in the north-west of the country – the largest national park in Britain.

In the extreme south-west is Cornwall where the rocks rise to a maximum height of 621 m.

In the south of the Pennines lies the Midlands, the hilly region of the country occupying the entire area of the central part of England.

Lowland Britain extends from the south of the river Tyne in the north-east of England to the mouth of the river Ex. Lowland Britain is a rich plain with chalk and limestone hills. The most fertile soil is found in the low-lying fenland of Lincolnshire. It has been extensively inhabited, farmed, and grazed for thousands of years. Most of Britain's population lives densely packed into the lowland zone, which covers most of England. The metropolis of London and most of Britain's large cities are located in the lowland zone.

In Northern Ireland the large central plain with boggy areas is surrounded by mountains and hills. *The Mourne Mountains*, rising sharply in the south-east, include *Slieve Donard*, Northern Ireland's highest peak (852 m).

Mountains are an important feature of the geography of Great Britain. Their position sharply decides the direction, the length and the character of the rivers; they affect the climate; they are a source of mineral deposits such as coal and iron; they act as political frontiers, like the Cheviots.

Great Britain's coastline is highly irregular, with many bays and inlets that provide harbours and shelters for ships and boats. The coastline is about 8,000 km long and affords some of the best scenery in Britain. The western coast is characterized by cliffs and rocky headlands, especially where the Highlands meet the sea in northwestern Scotland. On the more gentle southern and eastern coasts there are many sand or pebble beaches as well as tall limestone or chalk cliffs, the most famous of which are the White Cliffs of Dover in the southeast.

1.3. Rivers and Lakes

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

British rivers seldom freeze in winter, many of them are joined together by canals and have deep estuaries where most of the large ports are situated.

From the point of view of transport British rivers are of small value, they are not navigable for ocean-going ships. They are used mostly as inland waterways for smaller ships. The rivers flowing in the eastward direction are longer and more navigable – *the Tyne, Tees, Ouse, Aire, Don,* and *Trent*. Of these *the Trent* and *Ouse* have important estuary ports, while *the Tyne* is navigable for ships up to Newcastle, and *the Trent,* flowing slowly over the plain, is suited for barge-traffic for the greater part of its course.

The rivers flowing into *the Bristol Channel* are *the Severn* and *the Bristol Avon*. The Severn is the longest river in length (350 km), rising in the Welsh mountains, it is rapid in its early course, but is navigable for small steamers. Its tributaries are *the Avon,* famed by Shakespeare, and the picturesque and historic *Wye.*

The second longest river is *the Thames* (332 km), which is navigable for small ships nearly for 100 miles. It is connected with the Severn estuary by **the** *Thames-and Severn Canal.*

There are many rivers flowing into the English Channel, but they are so short as to be quite unimportant.

In Scotland the chief rivers are *the Clyde, Tay, Forth* and *Tweed,* the estuaries of the first three contain the largest ports of the country. The Clyde, flowing west, goes through *Glasgow*. *Edinburgh,* the capital of Scotland, lies on the estuary of the Forth, a river 66 miles long. The Clyde and the Forth are joined by a canal.

The Tay is the longest of the Scottish rivers; it enters the sea at Dundee. It is also famous for its fine salmon, which flows for 117 miles to enter the North Sea.

Part of the border between Scotland and England is along the lower reaches of the Tweed, 97 miles long, near which are made the woolen fabrics that bear its name.

The swiftest flowing river in the British Isles is *the Spey.*

Most of the large lakes in the United Kingdom are located in the upland areas of Scotland and northern England. Over 400 freshwater and sea lochs (lakes) can be found in Scotland, the largest of them are *Loch Lomond* and *Loch Ness*. In the valley known as Glen More there is a chain of lakes joined by the Caledonian Canal. Most lakes in Scotland are famous for their unique beauty, scenic surroundings and recreation facilities.

In northwest England the most famous lakes are in the Lake District surrounded by the picturesque *Cumbrian Mountains*. The largest of the lakes is *Windermere*. *Rydal Water* is interesting for its literary associations, the famous poet William Wordsworth lived here. *Derwent Water* with its famous falls was described by the poet Robert Southey. *Grasmere* attracts numerous tourists, near it there are the graves of William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge, the leaders of Romantic movement in England.

Lough Neagh, Britain's largest freshwater lake (381 sq km), is in Northern Ireland, west of Belfast. It is popular with walkers and for sailing yachts.

For transportation purposes the lakes of the British Isles are not of much importance, they are mostly too small to be used as waterways.

1.4. Climate

Britain has a milder climate than much of the European mainland because it lies in the way of the Gulf Stream, which brings warm water and winds from the Gulf of Mexico. Other outstanding features of the climate of Great Britain are its humidity and variability. The main factors that determine the climate of Great Britain are:

- the islandish position of the country;
- the influence of the Atlantic Ocean with its North-Atlantic Drift, a warm sea-current;
- the indentation of the coast-line, making the most of the country accessible to the oceanic influence;
- the fact that prevailing winds blow from the west and south-west.

There is a saying that Britain does not have a climate, it only has weather. The weather is subject to frequent changes but there are few extremes in temperature.

Britain has mild warm winters and cool summers. The mean winter temperature in the north is +3ºC, the mean summer temperature is +12ºC. The corresponding figures for the south are +5ºC in winter and +16ºC in summer. Winter temperatures below +10ºC are rare.

The winters are generally a bit colder in the east of the country than they are in the west, while in summer the south is slightly warmer and sunnier than the north. Average daily hours of sunshine vary from less than three in the extreme northeast to about 4.5 along the southeastern coast.

The highland zone is cooler than the lowland zone and receives more rainfall and less sunlight. In many places farming is impossible. Even where it is feasible, the soil is often thin and stony, with a hard rock formation below. Rainwater cannot escape readily, so many areas tend to be waterlogged.

Rainfall is abundant and well distributed. This is due to the maritime position of Britain. As the prevailing winds blow from the southwest and they blow from the ocean, they always bring rain. The areas of heavy rainfall are the Western Highlands of Scotland, the Lake District, and North Wales. The average annual rainfall here is more than 1,600 mm, while in central and eastern parts it is less than 800 mm. So rainfall notably decreases from west to east.

Rainfall is fairly well distributed through the year, but, on average, March to June are the driest months and September to January the wettest, but in any particular year almost any month can prove to be the wettest, and the association of Britain with perpetual rainfall (a concept popularly held among foreigners) is based on a germ of truth.

Some precipitation falls as snow, which increases with altitude and from southwest to northeast. The average number of days with snow falling can vary from as many as 30 in blizzard-prone northeastern Scotland to as few as five in southwestern England.

1.5. Natural Resources

Britain has the largest energy resources in the European Community and is a major world producer of oil, natural gas and coal. It was Britain's development of coal production that determined its economic leadership of the world in the 18th and the 19th centuries. Coal remains an important source of energy, in spite of its relative decline as an industry, and in spite of the major discoveries of oil and natural gas in the North Sea at the end of the 1960s. The principal coal-fields are located in Southern Scotland, Yorkshire, in the north of England, in the Midlands and in South Wales.

Oil and coal each account for about one-third of the total energy consumption. Oil was first brought ashore in 1975; by 1980 Britain was self-sufficient in oil. Now Britain is the sixth largest world producer of oil.

The other main resources of energy are nuclear power and water power. The UK has a number of nuclear energy facilities, it meets 23% of its energy needs through nuclear energy. Britain established the world's first large-scale nuclear plant in 1956. It was assumed that nuclear energy would be a clean safe solution to Britain's energy needs. However, public worries grew over the years, because of the difficulties of dealing with nuclear waste.

Recently much effort has been made to develop alternative sources of energy – wind power, tidal power, solar power and biofuels (energy from wastes, landfill gas, and crops). They are considered to be the most promising technologies for they do not harm the environment. Renewable energy resources are planned to provide 1% of the national energy requirements.

Britain's mineral resources were historically important, but today most of these resources are either exhausted or produced in small quantities. Britain currently relies upon imports from larger, cheaper foreign supplies.

Britain's small deposits of iron ore were critically important to the Industrial Revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries, particularly because iron ore deposits were located close to rich deposits of coal. During the Industrial Revolution towns and cities sprang up close to these resources, and they remain among Britain's leading urban areas. Today Britain imports iron, along with most other minerals used for industrial production. Still there are tin and copper mines in Cornwall and lead mines in England. Lead and silver ores are also mined in Cumberland and Lancashire.

Raw materials for construction are still important, and many quarries continue to operate profitably. Limestone, sand, gravel, rock, sandstone, slate, chalk, silica sands,

gypsum, potash are all quarried. There are deposits of clay in many places of Britain which is the foundation for ceramics production.

1.6. Soils, vegetation, fauna

Britain's soil quality varies greatly. Many parts of the surface of Highland Britain have only poor soils, with the result that large stretches of moorland are found over the Highlands of Scotland, the Pennines, the Lake District, the mountains of Wales and in parts of north-east and south-west England. In most areas farmers have cultivated only the valley land and the plains where soils are deeper and richer. While about three-fourth of the land in Britain is suitable for agriculture, only 23% of this land is used to grow crops. Almost all of the rest is planted with grass or used as grazing land.

With its mild climate and various soils, Britain has rich vegetation. Once oak forests covered the greater part of the lowland, giving place to pine forests on higher grounds. In the course of the centuries that followed nearly all the forests were cut down. Now the forests are found in the north and east of England, in some parts of southeast England and in Wales. Of the forests that once covered much of the country there are few remaining: the New Forest in Hampshire (southern England) with many oak and beech trees, the Forest of Dean and Epping Forest (north of London), which was formerly a royal hunting ground, are perhaps the most prominent. Historically, the most famous forest is Sherwood Forest, in the east of England. It was the home of Robin Hood.

The most widespread are the following trees: the oak and elm in England, pine and birch in Scotland.

The mild climate of Britain and enough rain make possible a long growing season. Grassland is green the whole year round and there are many wild flowers – tulips, poppies, snowdrops and buttercups. Along the southwestern coast, where there is less difference between the temperatures in summer and those in winter, subtropical plants can be left in the open air during the winter months.

The fauna of the British Isles is in general similar to that of northwestern Europe. There are no longer any wild dangerous animals in Britain, except the wild cat, occasionally found in the depths of Scottish forests. The wolf died out centuries ago and there are no bears or wild boars, as in some parts of continental Europe. The largest wild animal is the stag, wild deer are found in Scotland and in south-west England. Tame deer are kept on many big estates and in big parks, such as Richmond Park near London. There are foxes in many districts of the country. They are still hunted with hounds, but many people are against blood-sports. Smaller animals are rabbits and hares. The brown hare is found in the open lowland country, while the mountain hare is native to Scotland. Two small bloodthirsty animals, the stout and the weasel, pray on rabbits and other small animals. The badger, which comes out at night, is useful because he eats slugs, snails, and other garden pests. Also widely distributed are the rodents (rats, squirrels, mice) and insectivores (hedgehogs, moles, shrews). Amphibians are represented by three species of newt and five species of frogs and toads. One can see seals on various parts of the coast.

There are about 430 kinds of birds; the Royal Society for Protection of Birds does much for their preservation. The sparrow, blackbird, chaffinch and starling are most

common. The most common game birds are the wild pigeon, pheasant and grouse. There is one species peculiar to Britain only – the red grouse. Britain's chief songbirds are the nightingale and the blackbird. Owls help to keep down the mouse population. Among other birds, the red pretty robin redbreast is a frequent character on Christmas cards. Of sea birds the most common are the various kinds of gulls.

Red deer and roe deer flourish in Scotland and fallow deer in southern England. These species are protected by the state as well as the eagle and the osprey.

Ornithological organizations promote and encourage research and conservation. As a result, many bird refuges, sanctuaries and reserves have been created.

Reptiles are few. There are only three types of snakes, of which only one, the adder, is poisonous, though its bite is rarely fatal. Rivers and lakes fish include salmon, trout, perch, roach, grayling and pike. Offshore species are cod, haddock, whiting, mackerel, coalfish, turbot, herring, and plaice.

1.7. Population

According to the Office for National Statistics 2012 report, the population of the UK is 63, 047,162. This is a 10% increase from a quarter century ago. Projections indicate that if past demographic trends continue the population will rise to 72 million by 2034. Nowadays the country ranks 18th in the world in terms of population size.

The ***population density*** of the United Kingdom is one of the highest in Europe (251 persons per sq km), exceeded only by Netherlands and Belgium. England is the most populated part of the UK, as nearly four-fifths of the United Kingdom's population resides in England. It is also the most densely populated portion of the UK, with a population density of 384 persons per sq km. The population density in the rest of the UK is much lower: Scotland – 64, Wales – 142, and Northern Ireland – 121 persons per sq km.

Britain's population is overwhelmingly urban, with 88.9 per cent living in urban areas and 1.1 per cent living in rural areas. The Industrial Revolution built up major urban areas, and most of Britain's people live in and around them to this day. The highest densities are found in conurbations, which are groups of once separated towns that have grown to form a single community. There are seven conurbations whose centres are the cities of London, Glasgow, *Birmingham*, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds and Newcastle. In the 1980s and 1990s southern England, particularly the southeast, became a centre of population growth, due to the growth of the high-tech and service sectors of the economy.

The population of Greater London is about 8 million people, making it by far the most populous city in the United Kingdom. It is the seat of government, centre of business, and the heart of arts and culture.

The UK is a multinational country that has a diverse population. People from the UK are called the British or Britons. Depending on where in Britain they come from, they may also be called 'English', 'Scottish' (or 'Scots'), 'Welsh' or 'Northern Irish'.

Some of the British national traits are resulting from the British way of life. Nothing has been more important in British history than the fact that Great Britain is an

island. Its geographical position was one of the most important factors which influenced a distinctive character of its inhabitants. They have a reputation of conservative, self-confident, reserved, tolerant, law-abiding people with a very peculiar sense of humour.

The British are known as a self-assured people, absolutely confident in their national sense of superiority. Although the actual situation of the UK in the world is no longer that of a top nation, deep down the British still feel pretty satisfied with themselves.

The 1991 census was the first to include a question on ***ethnic origin***. In the 2001 census just over 92 per cent of the population was described as white; non-white ethnic minorities or 'the coloureds' (Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Black African and Black Caribbean) make up about 8%. The latter are mostly former inhabitants of the former British colonies.

For centuries people from overseas have settled in Britain to escape political or religious persecution or in search of better economic opportunities. The bulk of minorities arrived in the decades following the end of the Second World War in 1945. In 2004 the right to work in Britain was opened to people in central Europe and the Baltic countries, and they began to form the largest group of immigrants.

The United Kingdom is generally a prosperous, well-educated, and tolerant society, and ethnic differences have caused relatively little violence and hostility. Local and national government programmes exist to seek fairness and justice for ethnic minorities. Educational programmes and the law bolster equal opportunity. The government policy is to encourage ethnic communities to continue speaking their own languages as well as English. The children of immigrants are often taught their own language in school, and there are special newspapers, magazines, radio and television programmes for the Asian communities. The Race Relations Act of 1976 makes it illegal to discriminate against any person because of race, colour, nationality, or origin, and it is a criminal offence to incite racial hatred.

However, class tensions and racial unrest – especially conflict between white police forces and nonwhite immigrants – have flared from time to time in crowded and impoverished urban neighbourhoods. In addition, high unemployment rates have made it difficult for immigrants to find jobs. Tensions heightened in July 2005 after four young British Muslims were implicated in the suicide bombings of three underground trains and a bus in London. Although the bombings were linked to Britain's participation in the US – Iraq War, some politicians sought to tighten British immigration policy in the aftermath of the bombings.

The immigration has made Great Britain a multicultural society, leading to an increase of the number of languages spoken within the country and changes in the religious structure.

English is the official and national ***language*** of the UK. It is spoken monolingually by 95% of the population. English developed from Anglo-Saxon and it is a language of the Germanic group. All the invading peoples, particularly the Normans, who conquered England in the 11th century, influenced the English language, and we can find many words in English which are of French origin. Nowadays English is spoken in all the four parts of the UK, but they have their own special accents and dialects.

Wales is officially bilingual, about 20% of the Welsh people speak Welsh, chiefly in the rural North and West. The Welsh language is a survival of ancient *Gaelic* – one of the oldest European languages. Welsh may be used along with English in courts and schools and in the media in Wales.

Small isolated groups in western Scotland speak the Scottish form of Gaelic and some Northern Irish speak the Irish form of Gaelic. Nowadays there is a growing movement in Wales and Scotland for a revival of national culture and language.

While the United Kingdom is basically secular, every ***religion*** in the world is represented in the UK. The most important is Christianity. Christianity has been the official religion of the land since St Augustine with about 40 monks was sent to Britain by the Roman Pope Gregory in 597 AD. In 1534 king Henry VIII rejected the absolute supremacy of the pope. The Catholic Church was abolished and the Church of England was established instead. Ever since the monarch has been the head of Anglican Church of England. No one may take the throne who is not a member of the Church of England. As its Supreme Governor the monarch appoints the archbishops, bishops and deans of the Church. All Anglican clergy must take an oath of allegiance to the Crown. Thus Church and Crown are closely entwined, with mutual bonds of responsibility.

The most senior spiritual leaders of the Church of England are the Archbishop of Canterbury, and the Archbishop of York. They are heads of two ecclesiastical provinces of England, Canterbury and York. Their choice is historical. *Canterbury* is the place where St. Augustine established the Christian church in England at the end of the 6th century.

The Church of England remains overwhelmingly conventional and middle class in its social composition.

The official religion of Scotland is the Presbyterian Church of Scotland or 'Kirk'. Unlike the Church of England it is independent from state authority and is more democratic – there is no hierarchy of archbishops and bishops. The Church of Scotland is governed by its ministers (parish priests) and elders (elected representatives), all of whom are considered to hold equal rank. Its churches are plain. There is no altar, only a table, and the emphasis is on the pulpit, where the Gospel is preached.

Most working-class religious people in England and Wales belong to the non-conformist or 'Free' Churches (the Methodist Union, the Baptists, the United Reformed Church and the Salvation Army). These churches have no bishops, both women and men can be ministers.

The Roman Catholic Church only returned to Britain in 1850. About 10% of the population of Britain are Roman Catholics including more than one third of the population of Northern Ireland.

Growing numbers of people, though they still believe in God or a higher power, no longer believe in the need for church membership. Barely 16% of the adult population of Britain belongs to one of the Christian churches, and this proportion continues to decline. In England only 12% of the adult population are the members of a church, in Wales 22%, in Scotland 36% and in Northern Ireland no fewer than 75%.

Britain has a long tradition of religious tolerance, a feature that has been particularly advantageous since the 1950s, when a large variety of religious beliefs began to be brought in by immigrants. Nowadays there are large numbers of

Commonwealth citizens in Britain whose ancestors came from such countries as India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. Many of these people are Muslims, Sikhs, Hindus and Buddhists. The most important of these is the Muslim community. There are 1.5 million Muslims and over 1,000 mosques and prayer centres, of which the most important (in all Western Europe) is the London Central Mosque at Regent's Park.

There are also 300,000 Jews, of whom fewer than half ever attend synagogue and only 80,000 are actual synagogue members.

As for the ***class structure*** of the British society most people are classified according to their work, falling into two broad groups, as in other industrialized societies: the middle class (or white-collar workers) and the working class (or blue-collar workers). The system is flexible, many people move from one category to another. More importantly, the working class is rapidly declining, over half of today's middle-class started life in working class.

The middle class embraces a range of people from senior professionals, for example, judges, senior medical specialists and senior civil servants, to clerical workers – in other words, almost all people who earn their living in a non-manual way. The middle class embraces much variety and cannot claim a single identity.

Beyond the middle class lies a small but powerful upper class, which survives from generation to generation. It makes up 1 per cent and owns one-quarter of the nation's wealth.

An interesting feature of the class structure in Britain is that it is not just wealth which determines someone's class. The clearest indication of a person's class is often his or her accent. The most prestigious accent in Britain is known as 'Received Pronunciation' (RP). When people talk about 'BBC English' or 'the Queen's English' they usually mean the combination of standard English (grammar and vocabulary used in public speaking, radio and television news broadcasts) spoken with an RP accent.

RP is not associated with any particular part of the country. The vast majority of people, however, speak with an accent which is geographically limited. In England and Wales, anyone who speaks with a strong regional accent is automatically supposed to be working class. While anyone with a 'pure' RP accent is assumed to be upper or upper-middle class. In Scotland and Northern Ireland, the situation is slightly different; in these places some forms of regional accent are almost as prestigious as RP.

In recent years the following demographic trends may be seen in modern Britain: on one hand – longer life expectancy as a result of high standard of living and health service, on the other – lower birth rate, preference for smaller families and higher divorce rate.

Glossary

archbishop, ***n***. – a priest of the highest rank, who is in charge of all the churches in a particular area

archipelago, ***n.*** – a group of small islands

bog, ***n***. – an area of soft wet ground, consisting of decaying vegetable matter, into which the feet sink

***causeway,* n. –** a raised road or path across wet ground or through water

conventional, ***adj.*** – following accepted customs and traditions, sometimes, without originality

ecclesiastical, ***adj.*** – connected with the Christian church

entwine, ***v.*** – to twist together, round, or in

estuary, n. – the wide, lower part or mouth of a river, into which the sea enters at high tide

humid, ***adj.*** – (of air and weather) containing a lot of water vapor; damp

insectivore, n. – a creature that eats insects for food (comp. ***carnivore, herbivore, omnivore***)

loch, n. – a lake or a part of the sea partly enclosed by land in Scotland

metropolis, ***n***. – a very large city that is the most important city in a county or area

moorland, ***n.*** – wild open countryside covered with wild grass and low bushes

oath of allegiance – pledge to loyalty, faith and dutiful support to a leader, country, idea, etc.

quarry, n. – a place where large amounts of stone or sand are dug out of the ground; ***v***. – to dig stone or sand from a quarry (*e.g. Chalk is quarried from the surrounding area.*)

rodent, n. – any small animal of the type that has strong sharp front teeth, such as a rat or a rabbit

tributary, n. – a stream or river that flows into a larger river

Task 1. Answer the questions**:**

1. What is the location of the British Isles? 2. What are the largest of the British Isles? 3. What are the British Isles washed by? What channel separates them from Europe? 4. How many states are there on the British Isles? 5. What is the official name of the UK? 6. How many historically developed regions is the UK divided into? What are their capitals? 7. What is the difference between the UK, Great Britain and England? 8. What are the most important mountain chains located in Scotland? 9. What mountains are called the backbone of Britain? 10. What is the highest peak in the UK? 11. Where is Snowdonia situated? What is it? 12. What are the most important rivers of the UK? 13. What is the largest lake of the British Isles? 14. Where is the Lake District located? What is it famous for? 15. How can the climate of the British Isles be characterized? 16. What areas in Great Britain enjoy least rainfall? 17. What are the most wooded areas of Great Britain? 18. What animals and plants are typical for the British Isles? 19. What fish can be found in British coastal waters? 20. How can Britain's energy resources be characterized? 21. What is the pattern of population distribution in Britain? 22. What traits of character are traditionally attributed to Britons? 23. What are the national languages in four regions of the UK? 24. Can contemporary Britain be described as a "multiracial" country? If so, why? 25. What non-Christian religions can be found in modern Britain?

Task 2. Find the following British towns on the map.

Belfast, Brighton, Canterbury, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Liverpool, Newcastle, Oxford, Salisbury, Stratford.

Using additional sources of information describe each of them according to the following plan:

- the region where it is located;
- relief characteristics of the area;
- the river it stands on;
- access to the sea / ocean;
- the climate it has and what natural features influence it;
- natural resources the region is rich in;
- industries that are developed there;
- population, its density and ethnical composition;
- national languages that people of the region speak;
- tourist attractions that can be found in the vicinity.

Lecture 2

GREAT BRITAIN. HISTORY (Part I)

Plan

2.1. Pre-Norman Britain
2.2. Medieval Britain
2.3. England in the 16th century (Tudor England)

Pronunciation Guide

Angles [ˈæŋglz]	Jutes [ʤuːts]
Antonine [ˈæntənaɪn]	Luddites [ˈlʌdaɪts]
Augustine [ɔːˈgʌstɪn]	Marlowe [ˈmɑːləʊ]
Bayeux [ˈbaɪˈjɜː]	Mercia [ˈmɜːʃɪə]
Boadicea [ˈbəʊədɪˈsɪə]	Northumbria [nɔːˈθʌmbrɪə]
Boudicca [ˈbuːdɪkə]	Puritanism [ˈpjʊərɪtənɪzəm]
Camelot [ˈkæmɪlɒt]	Raleigh [ˈrɔːlɪ]
Celts [kelts]	Salisbury [ˈsɔːlzbərɪ]
Claudius [ˈklɔːdjəs]	Saxons [ˈsæksənz]
Churchill [ˈʧɜːʧɪl]	Shires [ˈʃaɪəz]
Danes [deɪnz]	Stonehenge [ˈstəʊnˈhenʤ]
Hadrian [ˈheɪdrɪən]	Stuart [stjʊət]
Hastings [ˈheɪstɪŋz]	Tudor [ˈtjuːdə]
Iberians [aɪˈbɪərɪənz]	Vikings [ˈvaɪkɪŋz]
Iceni [aɪˈsiːnaɪ]	Warwick [ˈwɒrɪk]
Julius Caesar [ˈʤuːlɪəsˈsiːzə]	Wessex [ˈwesɪks]

2.1. Pre-Norman Britain

In very early history British Isles were populated by tribes who came there from different parts of Europe. The first detailed description of the land and its inhabitants was written by the Greek navigator Pytheas, who explored the coastal region about 325 BC.

The first settlers on the British Isles were ***the Iberians***, who probably came from the Iberian (Spanish) Peninsula in the third millennium BC. They brought their metal-working skills and the first real civilization to Britain. They settled in the western part of Britain and Ireland, from Cornwall to the far north. They built wooden buildings and stone circles. These *"henges",* as they were called, were centres of religious, political and economic power. The most famous of them was Stonehenge, built in separate stages over a period of a thousand years. It remains one of the most famous and mysterious archeological sights in the world. It has been suggested that Stonehenge once operated as a massive astronomical clock, and there are even suggestions that it was a landing site for UFOs! A more likely explanation is that this prehistoric monument built around 5,000 years ago was an important centre of worship connected with the sun.

Around 700 BC, another group of people began to arrive. They were ***the Celts***, who probably came from Central Europe. The Celts were technically advanced. They knew how to work with iron. The Celts introduced their tribal organization and an early form of agriculture. Celtic tribes had a sophisticated culture and economy.

The Celts are important in British history because they are the ancestors of many of the people in Highland Scotland, Wales, Ireland, and Cornwall today. The Celts in Britain used a language derived from a branch of Celtic known as either Brythonic (from Welsh *brython* 'Briton'), or Goidelic (from Old Irish *Goidel* 'a Celt'), that gave rise to Irish and Scottish Gaelic.

Along with their languages, the Celts brought their religion to Britain, particularly that of the Druids, the guardians of traditions and learning. The Druids glorified the pursuits of war, feasting and horsemanship. They controlled the calendar and the planting of crops and presided over the religious festivals and rituals that honoured local gods. The Celts had no temples, but they met in sacred groves of trees, on certain hills, by rivers or by river sources. They believed that different gods lived in the thickest and darkest parts of the wood. Some plants such as the mistletoe and the oak tree were thought to be sacred. Some curious customs of the Druids are still kept in the country nowadays; for example, the mistletoe is hung up in all houses on New Year's Day.

As ***the Roman Empire*** expanded northwards, Rome began to take interest in Britain. *Julius Caesar* invaded Britain in 55 BC and returned the following year to defeat the native forces. The inhabitants, referred to collectively as Britons, maintained political freedom and paid tribute to Rome for almost a century before the Roman emperor *Claudius* I initiated the systematic conquest of Britain in AD 43.

The British were not conquered easily. There was a resistance in Wales and in East Anglia. The Celtic tribes resisted stubbornly for more than 30 years, a period that was marked by the bloody rebellion in AD 61 led by the native queen *Boadicea (Boudicca)*, the queen of the Iceni in what is now eastern England. These revolts were suppressed. The Roman occupation was spread mainly over England, while Wales, Scotland and Ireland remained unconquered.

Under the Emperor *Hadrian* a great wall was built across Britain along the northern border to protect their garrisons against the attacks from Scots and Picts (Latin *Picti* – 'painted or tattooed people'). Hadrian's Wall was a vast engineering project and is a material monument of the Roman times. Part of the wall and some of the forts built along its course can still be seen. Twenty years later, another wall, called the *Antonine* Wall, was built across the narrowest part of the island, from the Firth of Forth to the Firth of Clyde. The region between the two walls was a defence area against the tribes of Caledonia (now called Scotland). The wall marked the northern Roman frontier during the next 200 years. The Romans established a Romano-British culture across the southern half of Britain, from the river Humber to the River Severn. London was the center of Roman rule in Britain; straight paved roads connected London with garrison towns.

During the period of conquest Britain was a military stronghold of the Roman army, but the people of Britain benefited from Roman technology and cultural influences. The native tribes became familiar with many features of Roman civilization, including its legal and political systems, architecture and engineering. Numerous towns were established, and these strongholds were linked by a vast network of military highways, many remnants of which survive. The Romans also brought the skills of reading and writing in Britain. The written word was important for spreading ideas and for establishing power. In general, however, only the native nobility, the wealthier classes, and the town residents accepted the Roman language and way of life, while the Britons in outlying regions retained their native culture.

The Romans ruled over England for over four hundred years and left behind three things of importance: a superb network of roads, the best Britain would have for 1400 years; the sites of a number of towns – London, York, and others bearing names that end in the suffix *–cester* (Chester, Gloucester, Leicester) and *–caster* (Doncaster, Tadcaster) and the seeds of Christianity.

By the end of the 4th century Roman control of Britain came to an end as the Roman Empire began to fall. The Romans were compelled to leave Britain to defend their own country from barbaric peoples. In 410 the last of the Roman legions were withdrawn from the island.

In the 5th century ***the Anglo-Saxons*** invaded Britain. The *Angles, Saxons* and *Jutes* were the Germanic tribes that came from northern and central parts of Europe. These people spoke dialects which later became the basis of English. They practiced their traditional polytheistic religions, lacked written language, and depended on mixed economies of agriculture and hunting.

The British Celts tried to check the Germanic tribes, and fought against these new invaders. That was the period of half-legendary King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table who defended Christianity against the heathen Anglo-Saxons. Eventually,

however, the invaders took over all of southern and eastern Britain, setting up their own kingdoms and pushing the Britons to the west and to the north. Any man of noble birth and success in war could organize an army of warriors loyal to him personally and attempt to conquer and establish a kingdom.

In the 7th century the Anglo-Saxons established a number of kingdoms, some of which still exist in county or regional names to this day: Essex (East Saxons), Sussex (South Saxons), *Wessex* (West Saxons), East Anglia (East Angles), *Northumbria*, Bernicia, Deira, Lindsay, *Mercia* and Kent.

The Anglo-Saxons were pagans (that is to say, they believed in many gods). Their gods were: Tu, or Tuesco, - god of Darkness; Woden – god of War; Thor – the Thunderer; and Freia – goddess of Prosperity. When people learned to divide up time into weeks and the week into seven days, they gave the days the names of their gods. Sunday is the day of the Sun, Monday – the day of the Moon, Tuesday – the day of the god Tuesco, Wednesday – Woden's Day, Thursday – Thor's Day, Friday – Freia's Day, Saturday – Saturn's Day (Saturn was the name of the god worshipped by the ancient Romans).

This was a period of reintroduction of Christianity. In 597 Pope Gregory I, the head of the Roman Church, sent a group of missionaries under a monk named *Augustine* to convert the English to Christianity. Augustine and his monks landed in Kent and the first church they built was in the town of Canterbury. Augustine became the first Archbishop of Canterbury in 601. Up to this day Canterbury is the English religious centre.

England became Christian very quickly. The Church increased the power of the English state. It established monasteries, or minsters, (for example, Westminster), which were places of learning and education. The monasteries trained the men who could read and write, so they had the necessary skills for the growth of royal and Church authority. They produced writings unequaled in western Europe of that time. The Venerable Bede, a Northumbrian monk, was the outstanding European scholar of his age (c. 673-735). His work *"The Ecclesiastical History of the English People"* made popular the use of BC and AD to date historical events; it also treated England as a unit, even while it was still divided among several kingdoms.

At the end of the 8th century, the British Isles were invaded by people from Scandinavia. They were called ***Norsemen*** or ***Danes,*** or the ***Vikings***. First they just raided the English coasts, later they set on conquering England. By the middle of the 9th century the country got divided in two parts – Wessex and what historians later called the Danelaw (the territory of English kingdoms that were defeated by the Danes – Essex, East Anglia, and Northumbria). In this part of Great Britain many names of places come from the Viking languages (name endings such as *–howe* that means 'mound, hill', e.g. Howe, Maeshowe; *-by* 'village', e.g. Houseby, Whitby; *-thorpe* 'hamlet', e.g. Althorpe, Helperthorpe).

The man who stopped the Danes was King Alfred of Wessex. His army defeated them, and he joined the kingdoms into one. Yet many of the Viking invaders stayed. They mixed with the local populations and converted to Christianity. Their languages also had an influence on the early forms of English and, in Scotland, on Gaelic.

Thus Alfred of Wessex became the first king of the whole of England. Later he became known as Alfred the Great – the only monarch in English history to be given this title.

He was not only the great warrior but also a wise ruler and dedicated scholar. He established a system of laws based on old Anglo-Saxon customs. He also tried to enlighten his people, he used the literate people of the Church to educate people and write down important matters. He promoted, and assisted in, the translation of Latin works into Old English. He started the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, the most important historical document of the period. The Chronicle was continued for 250 years after the death of Alfred, till the reign of Henry II, in the year 901.

By the 11th century royal authority went wider and deeper in England than in any other European country. The king ruled with the assistance of a council of wise men who participated in the issuing of laws and oversaw the selection of kings. About 40 *shires* (counties) were created out of former kingdoms. Each had a court, consisting of all free males and meeting twice a year, at first presided over by a royal official called an *alderman* (later an earl) and then by a *shire reeve*, or sheriff. Smaller administrative, tax, and military units, called *hundreds*, had courts which met every four weeks, handling most of the ordinary judicial business. England had the most advanced government in western Europe. After 991 this government proved capable of collecting the *Danegeld*, a tax on land, initially used as tribute to the Danes but later as an ordinary source of royal revenue. No other country in western Europe had the ability to assess and collect such a tax.

2.2. Medieval Britain

The Norman Conquest of England in 1066 was the last successful foreign invasion of England; it brought Britain into the mainstream of Western European culture. The Norman leader, Duke William of Normandy, became king of England. He is known in history as *"William the Conqueror".*

When Edward the Confessor died without an heir it left the succession in doubt. The council chose Harold, earl of Wessex. Other aspirants were King Harold III *Hardrada* ('the Hard Ruler') of Norway and Duke William of Normandy (part of today France). Harold II defeated the former at Stamford Bridge on 25 September 1066, but lost to William at the battle of *Hastings* on 14 October 1066. The *Bayeux Tapestry*, embroidery depicting the Norman Conquest of England in 1066, remarkable as a work of art and important as a source for 11th century history, outlines the events leading up to the Norman invasion as well as the great culminating battle. William was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, 1066.

The year 1066 was a turning point in English history that changed social and political structure of the country giving England a new French aristocracy. William introduced in England a strict feudal system. The basis of feudal society was the holding of land. All land was owned by the king. The king gave large estates to the greater lords, or barons. They were directly responsible to the king, they became his vassals, they promised to be loyal to the king and give him their support. The barons gave part

of their land to lesser nobles, lords and knights who were directly responsible to a baron. Under them were the peasants, tied by a strict system of rules to the local lord. The peasants were the English-speaking Saxons. The lords and the barons were the French-speaking Normans. This was the beginning of the English class system.

In the following 200 years communication went on in three languages: at the monasteries learning went on in Latin; Norman-French was the language of the ruling class spoken at court and in official institutions; the common people held obstinately to their own mother tongue.

As an example of the class distinctions introduced into society after the Norman invasion, people often point to the fact that modern English has two words for the larger farm animals: one for the living animal (*cow, pig, sheep*) and another for the animal you eat (*beef, pork, mutton*). The former words come from Anglo-Saxon, the latter from the French that the Normans brought to England. Only the Normans normally ate meat; the poor Anglo-Saxon peasants did not.

Norman-French and Anglo-Saxon were molded into one national language only at the beginning of the 14th century. The language of that time is called Middle English.

William was a hard ruler, punishing England when it disputed his authority. His power and efficiency can be seen in the Domesday survey, which was made in order to calculate the size and value of the king's property and the tax value of other land in the country. The written record of it is called the Domesday Book. It is of great historical importance because it tells us a lot about England of that time. It can be seen at the Public Record Office in London.

The Normans didn't feel secure in the newly conquered country and began to build castles in stone, using various defensive features such as towers as parts of the walls, moats, battlements and drawbridges. As many as 200 of them have survived through to the modern day and are open to the public. A fine example is Windsor Castle, one of the principal official residences of the British monarch; nowadays it is the largest occupied castle in the world. It was originally built by William the Conqueror to act as a line of defence for London. Among other fortresses built by the Normans is the famous White Tower of the Tower of London. In 1078, William the Conqueror ordered to build it, as much to protect the Normans from the people of the City of London as to protect London from anyone else. In such a way the Normans had a great cultural influence on Britain. They built many churches and castles in their Romanesque style. Later England developed its own Gothic style of architecture, which reaches its highest point in King's College Chapel at Cambridge.

The period after the Norman Conquest is called the Middle Ages or the medieval period. It lasted until about 1485 and was marked by a number of important events.

The power of barons gradually increased and they, together with the Church, began to challenge the King's power. Before 1215, there were no laws to limit the power of the king of England. The most powerful landowners, the barons, wanted to make sure that their voices were heard and that new taxes could only be made with their agreement. In 1215, they forced King John to sign a new agreement known as ***Magna Carta,*** or ***Great Charter***. The king promised to respect English law and feudal custom and guaranteed all *'freemen'* protection from his officers, and the right to a fair and legal trial. In fact, Magna Carta gave no freedom to the majority of people in England.

At that time perhaps less than one quarter of the English were freemen. Most were serfs. But it was a clear step in the decline of English feudalism as Magna Carta did take away the absolute power of the king. The king could no longer collect taxes without the consent of the barons. To make or change laws he had to consult and negotiate with them. It brought the new idea that not even a king is above the law. Today historians see Magna Carta as a foundation of the British legal and parliamentary system.

In the 13th century Parliament was born. It was a meeting of the king and his barons at which various administrative and financial problems were discussed. In 1295, during the reign of Edward I, the House of Commons appeared, which included elected representatives from urban and rural areas, landowners and wealthy people in the market towns and cities. The English Parliament became the most developed in Europe.

The Hundred Years' War fought between France and England had a devastating effect on the English economy. The high taxation necessary to finance the war and the *'Black Death'* (a plague in 1348) that killed a third of the population of England led to a ***peasant revolt*** in 1381. Sixty thousand people from the counties of Essex and Kent marched to London led by Wat Tyler and John Ball, a clergyman. John Ball supported the ideas of John Wycliffe, the first reformer of the Church. He preached ideas of social justice: "When Adam delved and Eve span who was then the gentleman?" The rebellion was severely suppressed. Wat Tyler was treacherously murdered and the rebels were dispersed. Although the revolt was put down, it led to greatly improved conditions for the peasant class and was an important step towards the ending of the feudal system in England.

The 14th century brought great achievements in literature (Geoffrey Chaucer completed his *"Canterbury Tales"*), in architecture and in further strengthening of the English language.

In the 15th century, a major civil war took place known as the ***Wars of Roses***. It was fought between two branches of the royal family for thirty years (1455-1485). It was the dynastic conflict between two aristocratic groups, the supporters of the House (or family) of Lancaster and those of the house of York. This long fighting for the throne was named the Wars of Roses, because the symbol of Lancaster was a red rose and the white rose was the symbol of York. It ended in the victory of Henry Tudor at the Battle of Bosworth Field, where the Yorkist King Richard III was killed.

The Middle Ages ended with a major technical development: William Caxton's first English ***printing press*** was set up in 1476 in Westminster (London). His printing press was as dramatic for his age as radio, television and the technological revolution are for our own. Books suddenly became cheaper and more plentiful, as the quicker printing process replaced slow and expensive copywriting by hand. Printing began to standardize spelling and grammar. More important, Caxton's press provided books for the newly educated people of the 15th century and encouraged literacy.

2.3. England in the 16th century (Tudor England)

The 16th century was the age of a growing absolutism of monarchy and centralization of the state. The power of the English monarchy increased during the

Tudor rule. The reign of the Tudors was in fact the beginning of an absolute monarchy in England.

The first of the Tudor dynasty, ***Henry VII***, built the foundations of a wealthy nation and a powerful monarchy. He based his royal power on the growing classes of merchants and small landowners. These landowners came to be known as country gentry, and called themselves *'squires'.* The squires let part of their estates to farmers who paid rent for the use of this land. The farmers, in their turn, hired labourers to till the soil and tend the sheep. The peasants in the villages had land and pastures in common.

In the towns the profits of the wool-merchants depended on pasture land, that is why many families of merchants intermarried with the gentry. Land was becoming a source of wealth.

Henry VII created new nobility which was completely dependent on the Crown. He also created the Royal Navy.

His son, ***Henry VIII***, consolidated his power. During his reign commerce expanded, trading companies sprang up and ships were built fitted to cross the ocean. Henry is known to have been an avid gambler and dice player. He excelled at sport – especially royal tennis – during his youth. He was also an accomplished musician, author, and poet; according to legend, he wrote the popular folk song "Greensleeves", still played today.

Henry VIII was most famous for breaking away from the Church of Rome and establishing The Church of England, with the monarch as supreme head, separate from Rome but otherwise Catholic. Thus, Henry VIII destroyed the power of the Pope in England, but he did not change the religious doctrine. The king, not the Pope, now had the power to appoint the bishops and to decree what people were required to believe. These changes were legally confirmed by Parliament that passed The Act of Supremacy in 1534 declaring Henry VIII the supreme head of the Church of England. This change in the history of Britain is called the ***Reformation***.

At the same time the Reformation – a great movement of opinion against the power of the Pope – was happening in England, Scotland, and many other European countries. The people who opposed the Pope were called *Protestants*. They read the Bible in their own languages instead of in Latin, and interpreted it for themselves. The Protestants believed that each individual's personal relationship with God was of supreme importance. The Catholics believed that it was essential to submit to the authority of the Church, as led by the Pope. Protestant ideas gradually gained strength in England and Scotland during the 16th century, but were much less successful in Ireland.

As a result of Reformation, the king's power increased, besides all church lands came under the monarch's control and gave him a larger new source of income. A number of famous people, including Sir Thomas More, were executed because they did not accept Henry VIII as head of the church.

Elizabeth I, daughter of Henry VIII, was an outstanding ruler and one of the England's greatest sovereigns. Sometimes referred to as The Virgin Queen or Good Queen Bess, Elizabeth I was the fifth and last monarch of the Tudor dynasty. She had the Tudor courage and combined an almost masculine intelligence with an altogether feminine intuition, which enabled her to understand her people and select the right

advisers. Her reign is considered by many as the Golden Age of English history. She is known for saying: *"I know I have the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a King."*

She reigned during a period of great religious turmoil in English history. Catholics attempted to regain the throne at one point through Elizabeth's sister, Mary Stewart. Mary, Queen of Scots (born as *Mary Stuart*), was a cousin of Elizabeth I and was crowned Queen of Scotland while she was only a baby. Her mother was French, so Mary was a Catholic. The rival groups in Scotland fought to control Mary. When her husband was murdered by her lover and her situation became more dangerous, Mary fled to England. Elizabeth I, however, believed Mary wanted to try to take over the English throne, and kept her in captivity for 20 years. Later Mary was executed, accused of plotting against Elizabeth I.

Cooperating with Parliament, Elizabeth I settled the church on a moderate course. She expected everyone to attend church but did not ask questions about their real beliefs. By keeping to a 'middle way' between the Catholics and the more extreme Protestants (later called *Puritans*), Elizabeth managed to keep peace in England, despite her many enemies.

In 1588 ***England defeated the*** powerful ***navy of Spain***, the greatest European power of the time. The discovery of America placed Britain at the centre of the world's trading routes. Brilliant naval commanders (especially Sir Francis Drake and Sir Walter Raleigh) enabled England to dominate these trade routes. During this period great trading companies, like the East India Company, the Africa Company, the Levant Company, and others, were established. The companies obtained the charter from the Crown granting them the monopoly of trade in particular region. In return for this important advantage the charted company gave some of its profits to the Crown. Trade and industry were growing rapidly. The Royal Exchange was founded in 1571. Elizabeth also encouraged English traders to settle abroad and to create colonies. This policy led to Britain's colonial empire of the 17^{th} and 18^{th} centuries.

The Elizabethan age is also called ***the English Renaissance***. England's success in commerce brought prosperity to the nation and gave a chance to many persons of talent to develop their abilities. Explorers, men of letters, philosophers, poets and famous actors and dramatists appeared in rapid succession. The great men of the Elizabethan Era distinguished themselves by their activities in many fields. There were important developments in painting, music and science. But the greatest achievements came in literature. Playwrights like Christopher *Marlowe*, Ben Jonson, and William Shakespeare wrote for the stage and filled the theatre with their exciting new plays.

The philosophical ideas of the period were to serve the further evolution and even the revolutionary changes that came later. Francis bacon was the founder of English materialism and applicator of pragmatic sciences.

Parliament was regularly called and consulted. It was traditionally split into two houses. The House of Lords consisted of the feudal aristocracy and the leaders of the Church; the House of Commons consisted of representatives from the towns and the rural areas. The House of Commons became more important for policy-making because that was where the newly powerful merchants and landowners were represented.

Glossary

advanced, n. – very modern (e.g. advanced technology)

ancestor, n. – a member of the family who lived a long time ago

battlements, n. [plural] – a low wall around the top of a castle, that has spaces to shoot guns or arrows through

conquer, v. – 1. to get control of a country by fighting; 2. to defeat an enemy; 3. to gain control over smth that is difficult, using a lot of effort (e.g. *to conquer your nerves, fear; a disease, inflation*)

conquest, n. – 1. [singular, U] the act of getting control of a country by fighting; 2. [C] land that is won in a war; 3. when you gain control of or deal successfully with smth that is difficult or dangerous (e.g. *the conquest of space*)

famine, n. – extreme lack of food for a very large number of people

firth, n. – the place where a river flows into the sea (used especially in Scotland)

pagan, n. – (used especially of the ancient Greeks and Romans) a person who believes in many gods; syn. ***heathen***

moat, n. – a deep wide hole, usually filled with water, dug around a castle as a defence

polytheism, ***n.*** [U] – the belief that there is more than one god; opp. ***monotheism***

raid, n. – a quick attack on an enemy position to do damage

sacred, adj. – holy

serf, n. – a farm worker in a feudal system, who had to work for a particular master

stronghold, n. – an area that is strongly defended by a military group

temple, n. – a building where people go to worship, for example in the Jewish, Hindu, Buddhist, Sikh, and Mormon religions

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Which peoples inhabited the British Isles before the Roman Conquest? 2. What is queen Boudicca known for? 3. What was the purpose of Hadrian's Wall and the Antonine Wall? 4. What was the legacy of the Roman occupation? 5. What Germanic kingdoms had been established in Britain by the 7th century? 6. How was Christianity reintroduced into Britain in the 6th and 7th centuries? 7. Who is the Venerable Bede? 8. What territory became known as the Danelaw? Why? 9. What are King Alfred's main achievements and legacy? 10. What important event marking a new era happened in the 11th century? 11. What is the Bayeux Tapestry? 12. What changes did the Norman Conquest bring to England? 13. What was the role of castles in English history and what are some of the most famous of them? 14. What is the historical importance of the Domesday Book? 15. What is the Magna Carta? What was it brought about? 16. How did the Parliament develop during the 13th and 14th centuries? 17. How did the term the Wars of Roses appear? Who fought it? 18. How did England change during the reign of King Henry VIII? 19. Why is the reign of Elizabeth I characterized as the middle way? 20. What is the Elizabethan period remembered for?

Task 2. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Romans called Britain

a) Britannia
b) Albion
c) Anglia

2. What part of Great Britain did the Romans call “Caledonia”?
a) Scotland
b) Wales
C) Cornwall

3. The Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity by
a) Pope Gregory
b) St Andrew
c) St Augustine

4. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicles were started by
a) Venerable Bede
b) King Alfred the Great
c) William the Conqueror

5. The Hundred Years War between France and England lasted
a) 100 years
b) 106 years
c) 116 years

6. William Caxton was the first person in England
a) to print books
b) to print newspapers
c) to invent a printing press

7. The Reformation of the English Church was conducted during the reign of
a) Henry VII
b) Henry VIII
c) Elizabeth I

8. The people who built Stonehenge were
a) Celts
b) Jutes
c) Iberians

9. The Black Death was the name given to
a) a peasants’ revolt
b) a disease
c) a famine

10. What is depicted on the Bayeux Tapestry?

a) the Battle of Hastings
b) the Norman Conquest
c) the victory of William the Conqueror

11. Why was signing of Great Charter such a significant event?
a) it set free all the serfs
b) it gave more rights to nobility
c) it took away the absolute power of the king

12. The Invincible Armada was the name given to
a) Spanish navy
b) French army
c) Scottish rebels

Lecture 3

GREAT BRITAIN. HISTORY (Part II)

Plan
3.1. England in the 17th century
3.2. Britain in the 18th century
3.3. Britain in the 19th century
3.4. Britain in the 20th century and today

3.1. England in the 17th century

In the 17th century there were basic changes in English society. Economic power was in the hands of the merchant and landowning farmer classes. These groups were represented in the House of Commons. The Crown could no longer raise money or govern without their cooperation. In return for money the Commons demanded political power.

The ideology of the rising classes was ***Puritanism***. It was a form of democratic religion demanding a direct contact with God without any mediators, without anyone between Man and God, thus denying Church as an unnecessary institution. It was a challenge to the Church and the Monarch as its head.

The Puritan ideology was also a challenge to the cultural achievements of Renaissance – the religious doctrine rejected theatre, entertainment, pleasure, they preached and practiced austerity, asceticism, adoption of puritan values against idleness.

After the death of Elizabeth I, the Crown passed to James VI of Scotland who became ***James I*** of England and Scotland. During the reign of this new ruling family, the Stuarts, many far-reaching developments took place. Among them were the growth of Parliament's power and the influence of the Puritans.

The Puritans, or extreme Protestants, grew increasingly dissatisfied with the Church of England, which they fell was still too Catholic. ***The Gunpowder Plot***, a Roman Catholic conspiracy to blow up Parliament on 5 November 1605, confirmed English fear of Rome. *Guy Fawkes* is the most famous of the conspirators because he was caught with the gunpowder. There is a tradition in Britain of burning 'guys' representing him every year on Bonfire Night (also called Guy Fawkes Night) celebrated on 5 November.

James I believed in the *'divine right'* of kings. He believed that the king was chosen by God and only God could judge him.

The conflict between Parliament and the King became even more acute during the reign of ***Charles I***. The argument was about whether the king should be answerable to Parliament. Charles I insisted that he should not. When he could not get Parliament to agree with his religious and foreign policies, he ruled without calling any more Parliaments for 11 years from 1629 to 1640. Charles needed money to fight the Scots who invaded the north of England. The money could only be granted by Parliament, so the king had to summon Parliament in 1640, but when it met, it refused to vote to give money to the king to fight this war. Many in Parliament sympathized with the Scots who opposed the king's religious policies.

These tensions between the monarch and Parliament eventually led to ***the Civil War*** (1641-1648), fought between the Royalist and Parliamentary armies. The majority of the nobles supported Charles I and the majority of merchants, the navy and the people of London supported Parliament. The war ended with complete victory for the parliamentary forces led by great military organizer ***Oliver Cromwell***. Charles I was captured, tried and found guilty of crimes against his people. On the 30th of January 1649, Charles was beheaded, and England was proclaimed a *Commonwealth* (a Republic). Oliver Cromwell became *Lord Protector* of the republic with a military government over the whole of the British Isles. In the country and in the towns the new regime closed alehouses and theatres, banned races as well as cock-fights, severely punished those people found guilty of immorality or swearing and suppressed such superstitious practices like dancing round the May pole or celebrating Christmas.

The monarchy (together with the Anglican Church and the House of Lords) was restored in 1660, two years after Cromwell's death, when ***Charles II***, son of Charles I, was invited to sit on the English throne. He supported revival of the theatre banned during the Commonwealth and the founding of *the Royal Society*, dedicated to the advance of knowledge in every subject. The Society attracted many talented minds: Christopher Wren, the great designer, known later as the rebuilder of London after the Great Fire; John Locke, the political philosopher, the father of the modern science of chemistry. One more name stands out above others – that of Isaac Newton. His greatest discoveries include the spectrum and the basic law of the universe – the law of gravity.

The reign of Charles II was marked by disasters such as ***the Great Plague*** (1665) and ***the Fire of London*** (1666) in which Charles helped fight the flames.

Charles II believed as strongly as his father and grandfather in the divine rights of kings, but he had the good sense to avoid an open break with Parliament. The Opposition to the King became organized into a party with a majority in the new elected Parliament. They managed to pass the *"Habeas Corpus Act"* (1679), which provided a

protection of human rights of the new bourgeoisie. This Act was an essential milestone in the legal system of Great Britain.

New nicknames were coined to be applied to the opposing groups in the political struggle: the opposition to the King, which demanded a further limitation of the monarch's prerogatives, was nicknamed *'the Whigs'*. Their opponents supported the Catholic views of the King and they were nicknamed *'the Tories'*. These two parties, the Whigs and the Tories, became the basis of Britain's two-party system of government.

The conflict between monarch and Parliament re-emerged when ***James II*** became king after his brother's death in 1685. James tried to remove the laws which stopped Catholics from taking positions in government and Parliament. He also tried to bring back the Catholic Church and allow it to exist beside the Anglican Church. The Protestant majority in England became worried that he might wish to abolish the Church of England and force the country back to the obedience to the Pope. As a result of this growing concern Parliament invited the Protestant ruler of Holland, ***William of Orange***, ***and Mary***, James II's daughter, to take the Crown as joint sovereigns. This change happened in 1688 and was later called the ***'Glorious Revolution'*** because on one hand it was accomplished without bloodshed and on the other hand the fact that Parliament made William king, not by inheritance but by their choice, was revolutionary.

The Glorious Revolution was completely unplanned and unprepared for. It was hardly a revolution, more *a coup d'etat* by the ruling class. Parliament was now more powerful than the king. After 1688, many Acts of Parliament permanently changed the balance of power between monarch and Parliament. Its power over the monarch was written into *the Bill of Rights* in 1689, which limited some of the powers of monarch. The king was now unable to raise taxes or keep an army without the agreement of Parliament, or to act against any MP for what he said or did in Parliament. The legislative and executive power of the king was limited. The bills passed by Parliament were to be subjected to the royal assent, but the king could not refuse to sign them, on the other hand the monarch could not insist on policies that Parliament would not support: this is called constitutional monarchy.

In 1701 Parliament passed *the Act of Settlement*, to make sure only a Protestant could inherit the crown. The Act of Settlement was important, and has remained in force ever since, although the Stuarts tried three times to regain the crown. Even today, if a son or daughter of the monarch becomes a Catholic, he or she cannot inherit the throne. *Britain became a parliamentary monarchy controlled by a constitution.*

The economy of Britain by the end of the century was developing freely; new economic institutions like the Bank of Britain (1695) were founded. Trade and colonies were flourishing. The East India Company was the greatest corporation in the country.

3.2. Britain in the 18th Century

The 18th century was called the century of ***the Enlightenment***, when people believed they could use their reason to dominate both nature and society. This period saw a remarkable rise of literature. People wrote on many subjects and made great

contributions in the fields of philosophy, history, natural sciences and the new study of political economy. The writers of the age of the Enlightenment insisted on a systematic education for all, they fought for self-government and liberty. This period also saw the rise of the political pamphlet. Most of the authors of the time wrote political pamphlets, but the ablest came from the pens of Daniel Defoe and Jonathan Swift. Periodical newspapers had been published since the Civil War, and in 1702 the first daily newspaper was established. The Literary Club, headed by Dr Samuel Johnson, was organized in London. Its members were Sir Joshua Reynolds, Goldsmith, Burke, Gainsborough, Sheridan and Adam Smith. The book by Adam Smith *"The Wealth of Nations"* appeared in 1776; in it the great economist presented the first classical system of economic activities of people. James Watt in 1782 improved the steam engine and his inventions made possible the Industrial Revolution.

Important political changes took place in British society at that time.

At the beginning of the century (1707), the Kingdom of Great Britain was formed by *the Act of Union* between England and Scotland. Scottish Parliament joined with the English and Welsh Parliament in Westminster in London. Even units of weights and measures were unified. However, Scotland retained its own system of law, more similar to continental system than to that of England, its church and its educational system.

The modern system of annual budget which was to be approved by Parliament was established during this century. Another tradition that was born at that time was the appointment by the monarch of the principal, or *'Prime',* minister from the ranks of Parliament to head his government and to run day-to-day affairs of the country. The government ministers worked together in a small group, which was called the *'Cabinet'.* All members of the Cabinet were together responsible for policy decision.

Robert Walpole is considered Britain's first Prime Minister. Being a Whig, Walpole was supported by other Whig members of Parliament, and they were usually able to defeat their political opponents, the Tories. It was Robert Walpole who made sure that the power of the king would always be limited by the constitution.

The limits to monarchy were these: the king could not be a Catholic, the king could not remove or change laws; the king was dependent on Parliament for his financial income and for his army. The king was supposed to 'choose' his ministers. Even today the government of Britain is *'Her Majesty's Government'.* But in fact the ministers belonged to Parliament.

Parliament pursued a vigorous trading policy. As a result of it, large areas of Canada and India were colonized. Britain also expanded its empire in the Americas, along the West African coast and in the West Indies. Britain's international trade increased rapidly. Britain's colonies were an important marketplace in which the British sold the goods they produced. The country became wealthy through trade. This wealth made possible both an agricultural and an industrial revolution which turned Britain into the most advanced economy in the world.

There was an evil side to this commercial expansion and prosperity – ***the Atlantic slave trade***. The slave trade had started in the Elizabethan era and was fully established by the 18th century, it was dominated by Britain and the colonies in America. The slave traders bought men and women from West Africa, and British ships took them to work on the sugar and tobacco plantations in America and the Caribbean. The slaves were

transported in very bad conditions and many died on the way. Once in the Americas, the slaves became the property of the plantation owners and had to work in the appalling conditions. Several cities in the UK, such as Liverpool and Bristol, gained great prosperity as a result of this trade. In 18th century London, there were numbers of free Africans and escaped slaves, often working as servants or craftsmen.

Some people in Britain put pressure on Parliament to abolish slavery. Public opinion gradually turned against the slave trade and in 1807 it became illegal to trade slaves in British ships or from British ports. Later, in 1833, *the Emancipation Act* abolished slavery throughout the British Empire.

The Industrial Revolution is the name given to the period beginning in the second half of the 18th century when industry was transformed from hand-work at home to machine-work in factories. The industrial revolution involved also revolution in transport. Man-made canals together with rivers linked the main ports of England, roads were improved and service of post coaches was started in 1784.

As a result of enclosures, many people lost their land. Hundreds of thousands of people moved from rural areas into new towns and cities. Most of these new towns were in the north of England, where the raw materials for industry were available. In this way, the north, which had previously been economically backward compared to the south, became the industrialized heartland of the country. The right conditions for industrialization also existed in lowland Scotland and South Wales. In the south of England, London came to dominate, not as an industrial centre but as a business and trading centre. By the end of the century, its population rose to a million.

With the industrialization, the British middle class grew larger and more influential as the number of financiers, factory owners and capitalist farmers increased. The new industrialists developed not only a new style of business, but also a new lifestyle. Some of them imitated aristocracy by buying country estates and taking up such sports as hunting and horseracing.

Most of the middle class were relatively well educated. Many people in the middle class paid considerable attention to religion, believing it to be a good way to instill morality. They generally considered hard work the key to a good life and to a social success. They criticized poor people for not working hard enough and were reluctant to help the poor on the ground that it encouraged bad habits among the needy.

There were four main classes in 18th-century towns: the wealthy merchants; the ordinary merchants and traders; the skilled craftsmen and the large number of workers who had no skill and who could not be sure of finding work from one day to another.

Most workers lived in desperate poverty, just barely surviving on the wages they earned. In cities, they paid high prices for both food and housing. All family members had to work, even young children. Often 75% of the workers in early textile mills were single women and young children, since operating most machines did not require a great deal of physical strength. Because even young children had to work long hours, they generally did not attend school. Their future would be the same as their parents – hard work and practically no time for leisure.

Workers tried to join together to protest against powerful employers. They wanted wages and reasonable conditions of work. But the government quickly banned these "combinations", as the workers' societies were called. The unemployed, who had been

replaced in factories by machines, rose in riots. In 1799, some of these rioters, known as ***Luddites***, started to break up the machinery which had put them out of work. The government supported the factory owners, and made the breaking of machinery punishable by death.

3.3. Britain in the 19th Century

The 19th century was the time when ***the British Empire*** was formed.

One section of this empire was Ireland. It was during this century that the British culture and way of life came to predominate in Ireland. In the 1840s, the potato crop failed two years in a row and there was a terrible famine. Millions of peasants either died or emigrated. By the end of the century almost the whole of the remaining population were using English as their first language.

Another part of the empire was made up of Canada, Australia and New Zealand, where settlers from the British Isles formed the majority of the population. Another was India, an enormous country with a culture more ancient than Britain's. Large parts of Africa also belonged to the empire. The empire included numerous smaller areas and islands which were acquired because of their strategic position along trading routes.

Between 1884 and 1900, Britain acquired 3,700,000 sq miles of new colonial territories. By 1914 the British Empire covered 12.7 million sq miles, of which the United Kingdom represented one-hundredth part. The British Empire covered one quarter of the earth's surface and one quarter of the world's population.

There were great ***changes in the social structure***. The middle class grew more quickly than ever before and included greater differences of wealth, social position and kinds of work. It included those who worked in the professions, such as the Church, the law, medicine, the civil service, the diplomatic service, merchant banking, the army and the navy. It also included the commercial classes who were the real creators of wealth in the country. This class included both the very successful and rich industrialists and the small shopkeepers and office workers of the growing towns and suburbs. Industrialists were often "self-made" men who came from poor beginnings. As they established their power, so they established a set of values which emphasized hard work, thrift, religious observance, family life, sense of duty, honesty in public life and extreme respectability in sexual matters. This is the set of values which we now call Victorian.

Queen Victoria reigned from 1837 to 1901. She became a popular symbol of Britain's success in the world. As a hard-working, religious mother of nine children, devoted to her husband, Prince Albert, she was regarded as a personification of contemporary morals.

The Victorian time was also a time of ***great social movement***. The 1832 *Reform Bill* increased a number of people who could vote. Between 1867 and 1884 the number of voters increased from 20% to 60% of men in towns and to 70% in the country, including some of the working class. In 1872 voting was carried out in secret for the first time, allowing ordinary people to vote freely and without fear. This, and the growth of the newspaper industry, in particular "popular" newspapers for the new half-educated population, strengthened the importance of popular opinion. Democracy grew quickly.

The House of Commons grew in size to over 650 members, and the House of Lords lost the powerful position it held in the 18th and early 19th centuries.

In 1867 the first move was made to introduce free and compulsory education for children. In 1870 and 1891 two *Education Acts* were passed. As a result of these, all children had to go to school up to the age of thirteen, where they were taught reading, writing and arithmetic. In Scotland there had been a state education system since the time of the Reformation. There were four Scottish universities, three dating from the Middle Ages. In Wales schools had begun to grow rapidly in the middle of the century. By the middle of the century Wales had a university and a smaller university college. England now started to build *'redbrick'* universities in the new industrial cities. The term *'redbrick'* distinguished the new universities, often brick-built, from the older, mainly stone-built universities of Oxford and Cambridge. These new universities were unlike Oxford and Cambridge, and taught more science and technology to feed Britain's industries.

The Industrial Revolution now entered its second stage: new industries were developed, new factories were built. Britain's products were exported all over the world, and Britain became known as '*the workshop of the world'.*

The Great Exhibition of 1851, held in London, demonstrated the vast wealth of the British Empire created due to its industrial development. The exhibits included some of the world's greatest treasures, its newest inventions, and its finest manufacturing products. Although most of the world's countries had exhibited, over half came from Britain. British industrial machines and products showed other nations how industrialized Britain had become. Inventions such as the high-speed printing press, tool-making devices, a knife with 185 blades, and a machine to shape railway wheels were all exhibited for the visitors to inspect.

The 19th century was called *'the railway age'.* Britain was the first country to create a railway system. It also started to build railways in countries all over the world, which proved to be a very profitable business. Railroads played an especially important role in the colonial and semicolonial countries that had not a sufficiently dense population or money enough to build for themselves.

The immediate internal effect of the railway boom was to create a large demand for labour, both directly for railway construction and indirectly in the coal mining, iron and steel and other industries. In the second place, the railways made it much easier for workers to get from place to place, to leave the villages and find a job at a factory.

In 1801, 20 % of Britain's people lived in towns. By the end of the 19th century, it was 75 per cent.

3.4. Britain in the 20th Century and Today

Queen Victoria's death in 1901 coincided with the beginning of decline in the power of the British Empire. In the first decade, Canada, Australia, South Africa and New Zealand became dominions and drew up their constitutions. Britain was no longer the greatest world power it had been in the 19th century. Germany was rapidly becoming

the dominant economic power in Europe. Like the USA, it was producing more steel than Britain, and used this to build strong industries and a strong navy.

The rivalry between the great European powers led to the outbreak of ***World War I*** in 1914. After the four years of bitter fighting the war ended in victory for the Allied Powers of Britain, France, America and Italy. Germany was defeated.

An important political development during the war was the rapid growth of the Labour Party and *trade unions*. The trade unions became stronger; they grew from 2 million members to 5 million members by 1914 and 8 million by 1918. In 1918, for the first time, all men aged 21 and some women over 30 were allowed to vote.

Once women could vote, many people felt that they had gained full and equal rights. But there was still a long battle ahead for equal treatment and respect both at work and at home. The struggle for full women's rights is one of the most important events in recent British social history.

The war was followed by a period of decline in economy. All over Europe and America a serious economic crisis, Known as *'the depression',* was taking place. It affected Britain most severely from 1930 to 1933, when over 3 million people, out of the total work force of 14 million, were unemployed. It was a period of great social unrest. Unemployment was high, wages low and there were numerous strikes. In 1926 discontent led to a general strike by all workers. Many people stopped work in support of coal-miners. The strike had a great effect but was not successful in its political aims.

Britain was soon involved into another war, for which it was ill-prepared. ***Britain declared war on Germany*** on September 3, 1939 after Hitler's invasion of Poland. As Germany swept through Europe, Britain was almost alone fighting against Germany. Under Winston Churchill's direction, war mobilization became comprehensive. Men between 18 and 50 years old could be called up into the armed forces or work down coal-mines. Women were ordered to replace men in their normal jobs. Under *the Emergency Powers Act*, the government could order all women between 18 and 45 years old to do part-time work.

In August 1940 Hitler ordered to begin massive air raids on British towns. The raids damaged greatly London, Birmingham, Liverpool and Glasgow. On November 15, 500 heavy bombers almost completely destroyed Coventry.

In 1941 Germany and Japan made two mistakes which undoubtedly cost them the war. Germany attacked the Soviet Union, and Japan attacked the United States, involving into the battlefield two of the most powerful nations in the world. In May 1945, Germany finally surrendered. The war had cost Britain a quarter of its national wealth. It also quickened the ***disintegration of the British Empire***.

In 1947 Britain lost India and Palestine, Ceylon and Burma became independent the following year. Between 1945 and 1965, about 500 million people in former colonies became completely self-governing. Many independent countries remained on friendly terms with Britain. They joined *the Commonwealth* as free and equal members. Nowadays the Commonwealth represents a unity of about 50 independent states, established to encourage trade and friendly relations among its members. The Queen is the head of the Commonwealth.

The Labour Party, led by Clement Attlee, won the 1945 election. It remained in power until 1951 and converted Britain to a welfare state. *The National Insurance Act*

of 1946 introduced old-age pensions and insurance against unemployment. In 1948 *the National Health Service* was set up. Everybody was entitled to free medical care. Some reorganization was made in the system of public education. The Labour government also began the nationalization of the railways, mines, civil aviation, shipbuilding, gas and electricity industries. In 1948 the delaying powers of the House of Lords were reduced from two years to one.

The Conservative Party returned to office in 1951 when Churchill formed the Conservative government. The Conservatives did not attempt to reverse the welfare programme launched by the Labour government. However, they denationalized iron and steel industries. In the 1950s, under the Conservative government, there was a period of massive growth in the private sector, and wages increased by 40 per cent.

The 1960s were a time of great excitement and liberation. It was the age of youth. The young began to influence fashion, particularly in clothing and music. Nothing expressed the youthful *'pop'* culture of the sixties better than *the Beatles*, working-class boys from Liverpool, whose music quickly became internationally known. Young people questioned authority and the culture in which they had been brought up. In particular they rebelled against the sexual rules of Christian society. Older people were frightened by this development, and called the new youth culture the '*permissive society'.*

In the 1970s and 1980s, Britain was faced by two major problems: its continuing loss of influence in world affairs, and economic problems. By 1985 Britain had few of its colonial possessions left, and those it still had were being claimed by other countries: Hong Kong by China, the Falklands/Malvinas by Argentina, and Gibraltar by Spain. In 1982 Britain went to war to take back the Falklands after an Argentinean invasion. British forces were able to carry out a rapid recapture of the islands. The operation was very popular in Britain, perhaps because it suggested that Britain was still a world power.

Unemployment increased rapidly at the end of 1970s, reaching 3,5 million by 1985. In many towns, 15% or more of the working population was out of work. Unemployment was highest in the industrial north of England, and in Belfast, Clydeside and southern Wales. Things became worse as steel mills and coalmines were closed. In 1984 the miners refused to accept the closing of mines and went on strike. After a year of violence during which miners fought with the police the strike failed.

The Labour Party, unable to solve the economic problems, lost the election of 1979. The Conservative Party, under their new leader ***Margaret Thatcher***, promised a new beginning for Britain. The Conservatives returned to power three times under Margaret Thatcher's leadership. During their government there was a move towards privatization, taxes were lowered and inflation fell. The government began to sell into private hands many publicly owned production and service companies, for example British Telecommunication, British Gas, British Airways, Rolls Royce. The government largely gave up its traditional intervention in the economy and began to turn Britain into a *'share-owning democracy'.* Between 1979 and 1992, the proportion of the population owning shares increased from 7 to 24 per cent.

Margaret Thatcher advocated public spending cuts, limited money supply, and raised interest rates. Her privatization programme led to the union opposition, labour

unrest, and high unemployment rates. She earned the nickname *'The Iron Lady'* because of her hard line against the USSR over their invasion of Afghanistan, and because of her quick military intervention when Argentine invaded the Falkland Islands.

Margaret Thatcher resigned as Prime Minister in November 1990, when she lost the confidence of over one third of her party colleagues in Parliament, although she stayed in Parliament until 1992. Her successor, ***John Major***, took her place as Prime Minister. John Major won the fourth consecutive Conservative election victory in 1992. It was the period when Britain entered its worst period of recession since the 1930s. The Major administration raised taxes, and many of its MPs were caught in corrupt actions. A deep split emerged between the growing right wing and the centre left of the party. The Conservatives were heavily defeated in May 1997, because they were widely believed to be unfit to govern.

Tony Blair's Labour Party came to power with a "landslide" victory, and the promise of an entirely new beginning. It had dissociated itself from old-style Labour by rejecting the ideology of state-owned industry, and by reducing trade union influence on the party. It made long-term issues its priority, in particular raising educational standards in order to achieve workforce fit for the 21st century. Above all, Labour promised to rejuvenate Britain.

To emphasise the changes it had undergone since its previous years of power (in the 1970s) the party branded itself New Labour. New Labour wished to break from the old Labour policies of public ownership. It did not renationalize any of the services or industries which had been privatized by the Conservatives. Its goals were to make existing public services such as education and health more efficient and more accountable. The arguments were no longer whether public utilities should be privately or publicly owned, but about the right mix of public and private enterprise.

The Labour Party won the 2005 general election and a third consecutive term in office. On 7 July 2005, a series of four bomb explosions struck London's public transport system during the morning rush-hour. All four incidents were suicide bombings. Fifty-six people were killed and 700 injured. Blair made a statement about the day's bombings, saying that he believed it was clear that it was an act of terror, and that he hoped the people of Britain could demonstrate that their will to overcome the events is greater than the terrorists' wish to cause destruction.

In September 2006, shortly after the Labour Party fared poorly in local elections – blamed in part on the party's support of the Iraq War – Tony Blair announced that he would step down as prime minister within a year. ***Gordon Brown*** succeeded him as Labour Party leader and became Prime Minister in 2007. He pledged to make reform of the National Health Service a major priority, to retain the various public-sector reforms that had been implemented by Blair, and to "wage an unremitting battle against poverty". In foreign policy, Brown argued that the global fight against terrorism "involves more than military force", and it was anticipated that he would pursue a course that focused British policy on its interests rather than on developing a closer relationship with either the United States or the EU.

In the wake of the economic crisis of 2008, the United Kingdom economy contracted, experiencing negative economic growth throughout 2009.

The United Kingdom general election of 2010 resulted in the first hung parliament since 1974 with the Conservative Party winning the largest number of seats but falling short of the 326 seats required for an overall majority. Following this, the Conservatives and the Liberal Democrats agreed to form the first *coalition government* in the UK since the end of the Second World War with ***David Cameron*** becoming Prime Minister.

Today's government faces several issues. Some of the problems are international, such as global warming and terrorism. Other debates are domestic such as disagreements over taxation, pensions, law and order, health, education, emigration and asylum.

The United Kingdom is more socially mobile and less class conscious than it was in the past. People have better health than in previous generations and tend to live longer. Although there is still great inequality between the very rich and poor, people are generally wealthier in real terms. The UK is also a more pluralistic society than it was 100 years ago, both in ethnic and religious terms. Racism remains a problem in some areas, although it is actively combated both in opinion and in law and most people believe that it has diminished. The UK has become a multinational and multicultural society, and it doesn't threaten its national British identity.

Glossary

annual, adj. – happening once a year

challenge, v. – to refuse to accept that smth is right, fair, or legal (e.g. *to challenge a view, an idea, a decision, smb's authority*)

conspiracy, n. – a secret plan made by two or more people to do something that is harmful or illegal

coup d'etat, n. – a sudden violent seizing of state power by a small group that has not been elected

divine right (divine right of kings) – the idea that a king receives his right to rule directly from God and not from the people

dominion, n. – a country belonging to the British Empire or Commonwealth

Enlightenment – the period in the 18th century when certain thinkers thought that science and use of reason would improve the human condition

landslide, n. – a very large, often unexpected, success in an election

policy, n. – a way of doing something that has been officially agreed and chosen by a political party, business, or other organization (e.g. *foreign/economic/public etc policy*)

rejuvenate, v. – to make (someone) look young and strong again

social security, n. – government money paid to people who are unemployed, old, ill, etc.

thrift, n. – wise and careful use of money and goods; avoidance of waste

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Why did James VI of Scotland become James I of England? 2. What historical event is commemorated on Bonfire Night? 3. What are the origins of the English Civil War? 4. Why is Oliver Cromwell seen as the defender of Parliament's rights against the

Crown? 5. What is the Restoration? What are its main events and traits? 6. What event is known as the Glorious Revolution? Why was it called so? 7. How was constitutional monarchy created? 8. Who became the first Prime Minister of Great Britain? 9. Who were the prominent figures of the Enlightenment? What changes took place in the country during the period? 10. What is the essence of the Industrial Revolution? How did the slave trade transform the British Empire? 11. What did the expression "the sun never sets on the British Empire" mean? 12. What were the consequences of the Irish potato famine? 13. What changes occurred in British cultural life after 1945? 14. Which events marked the Thatcher era? 15. Why did the Labour Party change its name to New Labour? 16. Why was the coalition government formed in 2010? 17. What challenges does the UK face today?

Task 2. Match the events with the appropriate dates.

The Norman Conquest	1265
The war with Argentina for the Falklands	1534
The Wars of Roses	1939
The Magna Carta was signed	1066
The peasants' revolt headed by Wat Tyler	1839-1901
Anglican Church was established	1215
The English Civil War	1666
Queen Victoria's reign	1982
David Cameron became Prime Minister	1381
The Roman occupation began	1641-1648
The Great Fire of London	2010
The Elizabethan era	597
Great Britain declared war on Germany	1455-1485
The first English Parliament	1558-1603
St Augustine arrived in Britain	55 BC

Task 3. Look through the "Timeline of British History" (Complement 4) and single out all the events and government decisions of the 19^{th}-20^{th} centuries that illustrate democratic changes in British society of that period – struggle for human rights, equality, educational opportunities.

Lecture 4

GREAT BRITAIN. STATE SYSTEM

Plan

4.1. National symbols of the UK
4.2. Political system. Branches of government and their functions
4.3. The British constitution

4.4. The monarchy
4.5. The legislature: Parliament
4.6. The executive: the government
4.7. The judiciary: courts
4.8. Political parties
4.9. Local government

Pronunciation Guide

bicameral [ˌbaɪˈkæmərəl]	hereditary [hɪˈredɪtərɪ]
chamber [ˈtʃeɪmbə]	legislative [ˈledʒɪslətɪv]
Chancellor [ˈtʃɑːnsələ]	labour [ˈleɪbə]
conservative [kənˈsɜːvətɪv]	monarchy [ˈmɒnəkɪ]
constituency [kənˈstɪtjuənsɪ]	parliament [ˈpɑːləmənt]
executive [ɪgˈzekjʊtɪv]	royal assent [ˈrɔɪəl əˈsent]
judicial [dʒuːˈdɪʃəl]	sovereign [ˈsɒvrɪn]

4.1. National symbols of the UK

Many of the most familiar objects and events in the national life of the UK incorporate Royal symbols or represent the Monarchy in some way. Flags, coats of arms, the crowns and treasures used at coronations and some ceremonies, stamps, coins, and the singing of the national anthem have strong associations with the Monarchy and play a significant part in the life of the country.

A number of different types of a flag are associated with the Queen and the Royal Family. ***The Union Flag*** (commonly known as *the Union Jack*) originated as a Royal flag, although it is now also flown by many people and organizations elsewhere in the United Kingdom by long established custom. It is the flag most commonly associated with the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and was also used throughout the former British Empire. The flag retains an official or semi-official status in many Commonwealth realms.

It is called Union Flag because it combines the crosses of the three countries united under one Sovereign – the kingdoms of England and Wales, of Scotland and of Ireland (although since 1921 only Northern Ireland has been part of the United Kingdom).

Each of the four nations comprising the United Kingdom has its own symbols.

The flag of England represents a red diagonal cross on white background. It is called St George's Cross as St George is patron saint of England. The Scottish flag is St Andrew's Cross – a white diagonal cross on blue field. St Andrew is patron saint of Scotland. The flag of Wales represents a red dragon on white and green background; patron saint of Wales is St David. The flag of Northern Ireland represents a red diagonal cross on white background which is known as St Patrick's Cross. In 1707 the Union Flag was adopted to unite the whole country under a common flag. It combines flags of England, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

Since there is no uniquely Welsh element in the Union Flag there has been much debate in British Parliament in recent years that the Union Flag should be combined with the Welsh flag to reflect Wale's status within the UK, and that the Red Dragon should be added to the Union Flag's red, white and blue pattern.

The flag of the UK is sometimes wrongly called *'the Union Jack'*, but Union Flag is actually the correct name as it only becomes a 'Jack' when flown from a ship's jack mast. Still, even if the term Union Jack does derive from the jack flag, after three centuries, it is now sanctioned by usage, has appeared in official usage, and remains the popular term. The tern Union Flag, on the other hand, is the term referred in official documents and the BBC (whose linguistic usage generally carries some weight as an unofficial standard of 'correctness'). *'The Butcher's Apron'* is a pejorative term for the flag, common among Irish republicans.

The Union Flag is the most important of all British flags and is flown on land for government and military purposes. It is flown on Government buildings on days marking the birthdays of members of the Royal family, Commonwealth day, Coronation Day, The Queen's Official Birthday, Remembrance Day and on the days of the State Opening and prorogation of Parliament. The general public uses it unofficially as a civil flag at sports events and other occasions. However, many people feel a stronger loyalty to the national flags of England, Scotland, Wales or Northern Ireland.

The Crown Dependencies (the Channel Islands in the English Channel and the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea) have their own flags that are flown subordinate to the Union Flag.

Each part of the UK has its own coat of arms, as well as there is the official Coat of Arms of the United Kingdom. The function of ***the Royal Coat of Arm***s is to identify the person who is Head of State. In respect of the United Kingdom, the Royal arms are borne only by the Sovereign. The Royal Coat of Arms of the United Kingdom has evolved over many years and reflects the history of the Monarchy and of the country. Its main element is the shield which is divided into four quarters: two representing England (three gold lions on a red field), one representing Scotland (a red lion on a gold field), one representing Ireland (the gold harp on a blue field). On the left the shield is supported by the English Lion, on the right – by the Unicorn of Scotland. The Coat features both the motto of British monarchs *Dieu et mon droit* (French for 'God and my right') and the motto of the Order of the Garter *Honi soit qui mal y pense* ('Evil to him who evil thinks').

The ***national anthem*** of the United Kingdom is *God Save the Queen* (*Complement 1*).

4.2. Political system. Branches of government and their functions

The British system of government has been emulated around the world because of the UK's colonial legacy. British system of government (often known as the Westminster system) has been adopted by such countries as Canada, India, Australia, New Zealand, Singapore, Malaysia and some other former British colonies.

The *monarch* of the United Kingdom also reigns in 15 other sovereign countries that are known as Commonwealth Realms. Although Britain has no political or

executive power over these independent nations, it retains influence, through long-standing close relations.

The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy and a parliamentary democracy. The king or the queen is official head of state, however the power of the monarch is not absolute but constitutional.

According to the classical political theory, in any democracy there are three branches of power:

- ***the legislature*** – the elected body that passes new laws;
- ***the executive branch*** – the ministers who run the country, propose new laws and are responsible for enforcing the laws (putting them into practice);
- ***the judiciary branch*** – the judges and the courts who ensure that everyone obeys the laws and see to that the new laws don't contradict the constitution.

In Great Britain the legislative branch is ***Parliament*** that is the supreme law-making body. The executive consists of the ***Government*** – ***the Cabinet*** headed by the Prime Minister. The government is responsible for putting laws into effect and directing national policy and acts formally in the name of the monarch. The judiciary is composed mainly of the judges of the higher ***courts***, who interpret Acts of Parliament and decide on cases arising out of laws. In addition, individuals may in certain circumstances seek protection under European law.

4.3. The British constitution

Though the United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy it does not have a written constitution or printed set of rules for governing the country. The UK constitution is unwritten only in the sense that the laws and documents upon which it is based are not contained in any single legal document.

The constitution has been formed in three ways:

1. by statute law (Acts of Parliament);
2. by common law (a series of laws dating back to the Middle Ages and the way these laws have been interpreted in the Law Courts);
3. by customs and conventions (the way the things have been done for centuries, although some of these practices have never been formally written down).

Thus the country is governed both by rules of law and rules of custom. The rules of law are set out in such historic declarations as Magna Carta (1215), and the famous Acts of Parliament, for example, the Bill of Rights (1689), the Act of Settlement (1701), the Reform Acts of 1832, 1867, 1882 (see *Complement 4*), the Parliament Act of 1911, the abolition of hereditary Lords in 1999. For example, under the terms of the Act of Settlement of 1701, the monarch and the monarch's spouse cannot be Catholics because the UK monarch is also the Head of the Church of England. Though the public views on a religious creed have changed dramatically and religious tolerance in Britain is enforced by many more recent laws this law has been obeyed for over 300 years.

The rules of custom are not established by any law passed by Parliament. They are based on the way decisions have been made for centuries: certain decisions in individual cases are used as precedents for decisions in later cases.

The constitution thus is constantly changing and adapts readily to changing political conditions and ideas. It can be altered by a simple Act of Parliament like any other law. If there is enough pressure from the public for change, it is comparatively easy to change such a flexible constitution.

4.4. The monarchy

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is a constitutional monarchy, one of the few that survived in Europe alongside Spain, Sweden, Netherlands, Denmark, Norway and some other countries. All in all there are currently 12 *sovereign* monarchies in Europe today.

The monarchy is Britain's oldest secular institution, its continuity for over 1,000 years was broken only once by a republic that lasted 11 years. The reigning monarch (king or, as at present, ruling queen) is the head of state.

The monarchy is *hereditary*, the succession passes automatically to the oldest male child, or in absence of males, to the oldest female child. Succession is automatic on the death of monarch, confirmed later by a formal coronation ceremony. The coronation of the Queen Elizabeth II, for example, took place over a year after she actually became queen.

According to the Constitution, the powers of the Crown are very great. By law the monarch presides over all three branches of power: she is the head of the legislature, of the executive and of the judiciary, besides the queen is head of the Commonwealth, Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces, and head of the Church of England.

The political powers of the monarch are:

- to summon and dissolve Parliament;
- to give royal assent to legislation passed by Parliament;
- to appoint government ministers, judges, officers of the armed forces, governors, diplomats and bishops of the Church;
- to confer honours, such as peerages and knighthoods;
- to remit sentences passed on convicted criminals;
- to declare war or make peace with an enemy power.

Although the monarch's powers are vast in theory, they are limited in practice. The Queen reigns but does not rule. In practice, the monarch performs all these functions on the advice of government and takes no part in the decision-making process. She cannot stop the government going ahead with any of its policy.

When the Queen opens Parliament each year the speech she makes has been written for her by Prime Minister. She makes no secret of this fact. She reads out the text that has been prepared for her, word for word.

It is the same with *royal assent*. While in theory the Queen can refuse the royal assent to a bill passed by Parliament, no monarch has actually done it since 1708.

In theory the monarch possesses the right to choose any British citizen to be her Prime Minister, but in practice the Queen cannot choose anyone she likes to be Prime Minister. She has to choose someone who has the support of the majority of MPs in the House of Commons.

Similarly, it is really the Prime Minister who decides who the government ministers are going to be, because the queen appoints and dismisses Cabinet and other ministers on the Prime Minister's advice.

Twice a year, an Honours List is published – the Queen awards her subjects with titles or peerages. The names of the titles don't seem to make much sense in modern times ("Knight of the Order of the Garter", "Knight Commander of the Order of the Bath"). A high proportion of honours are given to politicians, but they are also given to business people, sport stars, rock musicians and other entertainers, it is also done on the advice of PM.

Thus today the Sovereign has an essentially ceremonial role restricted in exercise of power by convention, public opinion and documents – the laws passed since the 17th century that limited the monarch's sovereign powers.

Some people think that the monarchy should be abolished, as it **is** out of date, undemocratic (other modern democracies manage perfectly well without monarchy) and too expensive. During the last two decades of the 20th century, there has been a general cooling of enthusiasm about the monarchy. The queen herself remains popular. But the various marital problems in her family have lowered the prestige of royalty in many people's eyes.

Since Queen Victoria's reign, the public have been encouraged to look up to the royal family as a model of Christian family life. As a hard-working religious mother of nine children, devoted to her husband, Queen Victoria was regarded as a personification of contemporary morals, so called Victorian values. Her royal ancestors didn't follow her example, after a series of scandals and divorces royal family lost much of the respect and admiration on the part of the subjects.

Much criticism of the monarchy usually concerns the amount of money Parliament provides for the Royal Family. It is on the subject of money that "anti-royalist" opinions are most often expressed. In the early 90-s even some Conservative MPs, traditionally strong supporters of the monarchy, started protesting at how much the royal family was costing the country. The following story can serve as a vivid illustration of the public attitude to financing the royal family. On November 20, 1992**,** a fire damaged one of the Queen's favourite homes – Windsor Castle – to the value of 60 million pounds. There were expressions of public sympathy for the Queen. But when the government announced that public money was going to pay for the repairs, the sympathy quickly turned to anger. The Queen had recently been reported to be the richest woman in the world, so people didn't see why she shouldn't pay for them herself. In the following year parts of Buckingham Palace were, for the first time, opened for public visits (to raise money to help pay for the repairs to Windsor Castle). These events are perhaps an indication of changes in royal style – a little less grand, a little less distant.

For the whole of her long reign Elizabeth II had been freed from taxation. But, as a response to the change in attitude, the Queen decided that she would start paying taxes on her private income. In addition, *Civil List* payments to some members of the royal

family were stopped. (The Civil List is the money which the Queen and some of her relatives get from Parliament each year so that they can carry out their public duties).

Nevertheless, the function of the monarch is politically important and monarchy cannot be called a useless institution. The Queen is constantly busy touring Britain, opening new buildings, visiting hospitals, shaking hands with officials. She works extremely hard, reading State papers, signing documents, receiving ambassadors and important visitors from abroad.

The Queen is visited regularly by Her Prime Minister to receive an account of Cabinet decisions and to be consulted on matters of national life. Since 1952 Queen Elizabeth has given weekly 'audience', as it is called, to 13 Prime Ministers and her experience of domestic and international politics gives importance to these meetings.

The monarch is the personal embodiment of the government of the country. Because of the separation between the symbol of government (the Queen) and the actual government (the ministers, who are also MPs), changing the government does not threaten the stability of the country as a whole.

Still the monarchy is very popular with the majority of the British people. The monarchy gives the British people the symbol of continuity and an outlet for the expression of national pride, and that it demonstrates stability, it is not subject to political manipulations. The Queen performs important ambassadorial functions in Britain and overseas. The ceremonies connected with the monarchy may be one of the reasons for this popularity.

The British love tradition. The Queen represents much that is traditional. Occasions such as the State Opening of Parliament, the Queen's official birthday, royal weddings and ceremonial events such as the Changing of the Guard and Trooping the Colour make up for the lack of colour in most people's daily life.

The British monarchy is probably more important to the economy of the country than it is to the system of government. Monarchy is one of the great tourist attractions: Buckingham Palace, the Tower of London, Windsor Castle are on the list of priorities for most of tourists visiting Britain. It is impossible to estimate exactly how much the British royal family and the events and buildings associated with the monarchy help the tourist industry, or exactly how much money they help to bring into the country. But most people working in tourism think it is an awful lot!

Arguments in favour of the monarchy are that the monarchy has developed and adapted to modern requirements. New traditions are established to fit into modern development; for example, the Queen is seen on television every year, broadcasting a Christmas message to the nation. She enjoys country life and sports, and she is interested in horse-racing, pursuits much loved by many ordinary people.

When she pays state visits abroad and tours Commonwealth countries, she performs another role; she is a symbol of Britain beyond the British Isles.

Windsor is the family name of the current royal family. The press sometimes refers to its members as "the Windsors". Queen Elizabeth is only the 4th monarch with this name. This is not because they are a new royal family. It is because George V, Elizabeth's grandfather, changed the family name. It was Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, but during the First World War it was thought better for the king not to have a German-sounding name (see *Complement 2*).

Queen Elizabeth II was born in 1926. In 1947 she married Philip Mountbatten, duke of Edinburgh. Elizabeth acceded to the throne in 1952 and was crowned in 1953. She has four children: Charles, Prince of Wales (b. 1948), the heir to the throne; Anne, the Princess Royal (b. 1950); Andrew, Duke of York (b. 1960) and Prince Edward (b. 1964). Prince William (b. 1982) is second in line to the throne.

The Queen's official title is: *"Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith".*

4.5. The legislature: Parliament

Parliament is a supreme legislative body of the state. The British Parliament is often called Westminster because it is housed in a distinguished building in central London called the Palace of Westminster.

The UK Parliament is *bicameral*, composed of two *chambers* – the elected House of Commons and the appointed House of Lords. Historically, the House of Lords has featured members of the nobility who were granted seats by nature of birthright, although this system has been abolished.

The activities of Parliament in Britain are the same as those of Parliaments in any western country. ***Parliament's functions are:***

- to pass laws;
- to give authority for the government to raise money through taxation;
- to examine government policy and administration, particularly its financial programme;
- to debate or discuss important political issues.

Parliament consists of three elements – the Monarchy, the House of Commons and the House of Lords. Parliament and the Monarch have different roles in the government of the country and they only meet together on symbolic occasions such as the coronation of a new monarch or the Opening of Parliament. Unlike the monarch Parliament has unlimited power; free from the constraints of a written constitution Parliament may make any law it pleases. It can even prolong its own life without consulting the electorate.

The House of Commons is the only one of three legislative elements which has true power. It is made up of 650 members, known as Members of Parliament (MPs), each of whom represents a geographical area (*constituency*) of the United Kingdom. Typically a constituency would have around 60,000 – 80,000 voters, depending mainly on whether it is an urban or rural constituency. Each constituency elects one member to the House of Commons.

MPs are elected either at a ***general election*** or at a by-election following the death or retirement of a MP. The election campaign usually lasts about three weeks. All British citizens may vote, provided they are aged 18 or over, are registered and are not disqualified by insanity, membership of the House of Lords or being sentenced prisoners. Voting is not compulsory (as it is in Australia). In the last general election of June 2010, 65% of the electorate actually voted.

Parliamentary election must be held every five years at the least, but the Prime Minister can decide on the exact date within those five years.

The UK uses a method of election called the simple majority system or *'first-past-the-post'*. The candidate in a constituency who gains most votes is returned as member to the Commons. In this 'first-past-the-post' system, other candidates, even if they come close to the winner, will not get a seat in Parliament. This is a very simple system, but many people think that it is unfair because the wishes of those who voted for the unsuccessful candidates are not represented at all.

The Speaker is the chairman in the House of Commons, it is the person who chairs and controls discussion in the House, decides which MP is going to speak next and makes sure that the rules of the procedure are followed. The speaker is chosen by a vote of the entire House, although in practice the party leaders consult their supporters in order to achieve informal agreement beforehand. The speaker must be impartial and objective. As soon as a speaker is appointed, he or she agrees to give up all party politics and to act with scrupulous impartiality between Members of the House. The Speaker remains in the office for as long as he or she wants it.

Unlike peers, who can only claim expenses, MPs are paid salaries, approximately twice the average national wage, but substantially less than most MPs could earn outside the Commons.

Each Parliament is divided into annual sessions, running normally from October to October with breaks for public holidays and for a long summer *'recess'* (usually late July until October).

The shape of the Commons debating chamber makes an important comment on the political process in Britain. Unlike many European chambers which are semicircular, thus reflecting the spectrum of political opinion in their seating plan, the Commons is rectangular, with the Speaker's chair at one end. Members do not sit at desks but on long, green-covered benches. There are five rows of benches at each side of it. Her Majesty's Government and its supporters sit to the Speaker's right, and her Majesty's Opposition members who oppose the government, sit to the left. The front benches to the either side are reserved for members of the cabinet and other Ministers, and Opposition spokesmen (known as the *'Shadow Cabinet'),* respectively. Behind them and further down the chamber sit MPs, known as *'back-benchers'.*

There is insufficient seating capacity in the chamber of the House of Commons for all the MPs, it can seat 437 MPs out of the total of 650. So when somebody wins a 'seat' in the House of Commons during the general election this doesn't necessarily mean a new MP will actually have a seat there. Much of the work of Parliament is done in Committees rather than in the chamber. The House of Commons has two tipes of committee:

1) *Select Committees* are appointed for the lifetime of a Parliament, their task is to 'shadow the work of a particular Government Department, conduct investigations, receive written and oral evidence, and issue reports. Membership is made up only of backbenchers and reflects proportionately the balance of the parties in the Commons;

2) *General Committees* are temporary bodies, most of them Public Bill Committees formed to examine the detail of a particular piece of a proposed legislation

and consider amendments to the bill. Membership includes Government and Opposition spokespersons on the subject matter of the Bill.

Finally there are some *Joint Committees* of the Commons and the Lords.

The upper chamber of Parliament***, the House of Lords***, is the one with less authority and strictly limited powers. Historically, the House of Lords was composed of members of the nobility who were granted seats by nature of birthright, although this system has been abolished.

There is no fixed number of members in the House of Lords, but currently there are around 830 members – many more than in the House of Commons. It consists of *three categories of peers*: life peers, hereditary peers and Lords Spiritual.

Historically most members of the House of Lords have been ***hereditary peers***. This means that years ago a monarch nominated a member of the aristocracy to be a member of the House of Lords, and since then the right to sit in the House has passed through the family from generation to generation. Clearly this is totally undemocratic and the last Labour Government abolished the right of all but 92 of these hereditary peers to sit in the House of Lords (there used to be about 750).

Almost all the other members are ***life peers***. This means that they have been chosen by the Queen, on the advice of the Government, to sit in the House of Lords for as long as they live, but afterwards no member of their family has the right to sit in the House. They are distinguished citizens who have rendered political and public services to the nation. Many are former senior politicians. Others are very distinguished figures in fields such as education, health and social policy. They hold their titles only during their own lifetime and cannot pass them to their children.

Finally, there are two archbishops and twenty-four senior bishops of the Church of England, the ***'Lords Spiritual'*** in the House of Lords. Iran is the only other country in the world that provides automatic seats for senior religious figures in its legislature.

The House of Lords is a very old institution: Parliament appeared in the 13th century and it is the House of Lords that was created by the monarch first. It is an utterly bizarre institution, the relic of the past that has no parallel anywhere in the democratic world as it is not democratic in any sense; most people in Britain accept that there is no reason why non-elected aristocrats should be able to participate in the legislative system of a modern nation. It is currently being reformed. The Parliament Act of 2011 first raised the prospect of an elected upper house but it still has not happened. Following the new reform, hereditary peers will lose their right to vote in the House of Lords.

Until 1911 the Lords were able to reject bills passed on in the Commons, nowadays the House of Lords does not have the right to block legislation. It can ask the Commons to modify texts, or change details of proposed legislation. Generally speaking, it does a lot of useful work that the House of Commons does not have time for, revising and scrutinizing legislation, and it acts as a 'second opinion' for the Commons. The House of Lords can block legislation for a limited period – but not indefinitely. It cannot interfere in legislation concerning finance (taxation or expenditure) or foreign affairs. Lords are able to delay other legislation for no more than one session.

The House is presided over by ***the Lord Chancellor*.** His powers are very limited compared with those of the Speaker of the House of Commons. Unlike the Speaker, the Lord Chancellor is not impartial, for he or she is a government officer. The Lord Chancellor is responsible for the administration of justice and is also an automatic member of the Cabinet as he is the senior law officer of the state.

Parliament's main function is to make laws. Bills may be introduced in either house: the House of Commons or the House of Lords, unless they deal with finance or representation, when they are always introduced in the Commons. All important legislation is introduced into Parliament by the government. Before a bill becomes a law it should go through several stages:

Stage 1. First reading. A formal announcement of the bill with no debate.

Stage 2. Second reading. The House debates the general principles of the bill and, in most cases, takes a vote.

Stage 3. Committee stage. A committee of MPs thoroughly studies the details of the bill and votes on amendments (changes) to parts of the bill.

Stage 4. Report stage. The House considers the proposed amendments.

Stage 5. Third reading. The amended bill is debated as a whole.

Stage 6. The bill is sent to the other House where it goes through the same stages. If the other House makes new amendments, these will be considered by the House which originated the bill.

Stage 7. Royal Assent. After both have reached agreement, the bill receives the Royal Assent and becomes an Act of Parliament.

A vote is taken by means of a division. Members voting 'Aye' go out of the chamber into the lobby on the right of the Speaker, while those voting 'No' pass into the lobby on his left.

Scotland and Wales have their own legislative bodies: Scottish Parliament (re-opened in 1999) and the National Assembly for Wales (established in 1998). National legislative bodies can make laws on any subject which is not exclusively reserved for Westminster.

4.6. The executive: the government

The party that wins the majority of seats in the House of Commons in a general election forms the government, and the leader of the party becomes Prime Minister, the head of the government. Government ministers almost invariably come from the ranks of the House of Commons, but sometimes members of the House of Lords are appointed. All government ministers, even the Prime Minister, continue to represent parliamentary constituencies which elected them.

The largest minority party becomes the Opposition. In doing so it accepts the right of the majority party to run the country while the majority party accepts the right of the minority party to criticize it. Without this agreement between the political parties, the British parliamentary system would break down.

The term *'government'* can be used to refer to all the politicians who have been appointed by the monarch (on the advice of the Prime Minister) to help run government departments. There are about 100 members of the government in this sense.

The other meaning of the term *'government'* is more limited. It refers only to Prime Minister and the members of the cabinet. There are usually about 20 people in the cabinet (though there are no rules about it). They are heads of the government departments.

The most important ministers are called *'Secretaries of State',* and they are in charge of a Government department (a ministry). Each minister is responsible for his department, and makes sure that his department applies the policy of the government.

The most important Secretaries of State are:

The Chancellor of the Exchequer (finance)

The Foreign Secretary (international affairs)

The Home Secretary (internal affairs)

The Lord Chancellor (the legal system)

The Secretary of State for Education

The Secretary of State for Transport and the Environment

The leader of the Opposition also chooses MPs to take responsibility for opposing the government in these areas. They are known as the *'Shadow Cabinet'.*

The Cabinet meets once a week at №10 Downing Street (the Prime Minister's official London residence) when Parliament is in session. It takes decisions about new policies, the implementation of existing policies and the running of various government departments. As all members of the government belong to the same political party, it has helped to establish the tradition known as *collective responsibility*, i.e. every member of the government, however junior, shares the responsibility for every policy made by the government. Individual government members may hold different opinions, but they are expected to keep them private. By convention, no member of the government can criticize government policy in public. Any member who does so must resign.

The Prime Minister (PM) is the head of government. At present, the Prime Minister is David Cameron, leader of the Conservative Party. Currently the UK has its first coalition government in 65 years, since in May 2010 the Conservatives went into coalition with Liberal Democrats because in the general election they did not secure a majority of the seats.

The PM heads cabinet meetings, appoints all government ministers, sets out government policy, controls the Civil Service (officials who run government departments) and rules the country in the name of the King or Queen. From one point of view, the Prime Minister is no more than the foremost of Her Majesty's political servants. The traditional phrase describes the Prime Minister as *'primus inter pares'* (Latin for *'first among equals'*). But in fact Prime Ministers have much more power than first among equals. They enjoy undisputed political leadership. Ministers must obey their will, or persuade the Prime Minister of their own point of view. If a clash of wills cannot be resolved, the minister has no choice but resign.

The position of the Prime Minister is in direct contrast to that of the monarch. Although the Queen appears to have a great deal of power, in reality she has very little.

The PM, on the other hand, appears not to have much power but in reality has a very great deal indeed. It is explained by the fact that a Prime Minister commands a majority in the House of Commons. It is the PM who takes all decisions. The strength of the Prime Minister's power is apparent from the phenomenon known as the *'cabinet reshuffling'.* For the past thirty years it has been the habit of the PM to change his or her cabinet quite frequently (at least once every two years). A few cabinet members are dropped, and a few new members are brought in, but mostly the existing members are shuffled around, like a pack of cards, each getting a new department to be responsible for.

Ministers are responsible to Parliament for their departments and their actions. One of the Parliament's most prized occasions is *'Question Time',* lasting approximately an hour. MPs are able to ask ministers questions on any point they may choose. Naturally, both the Opposition and the party of the government try to use this period in order to reveal the weaknesses of their opponents. This is also the best way for MPs to probe ministers about government intentions. On two afternoons each week, on Tuesdays and Thursdays, the Prime Minister answers questions on general policy matters.

Questions can be asked on any subject. This is frequently a heated affair with the Leader of the Opposition trying to embarrass the PM and it is the one part of the weeks proceedings guaranteed to attract the interest of the media. In his book *"A Journey"* former PM Tony Blair wrote about Question Time in Parliament as of the most stressful experience in his career: "PMQs was the most nerve-wracking, discombobulating, nail-biting, bowel-moving, terror-inspiring, courage-draining experience in my prime ministerial life, without question". Ministers are also accountable to Common's committees which are set up to control individual government departments.

When talking about the British Government, the media will often use the term Whitehall because a number of Government Departments are located along a central London street called Whitehall.

The government depends on a permanent body of officials, the Civil Service, to administer the decisions of ministers. The Civil Service, employing almost 500,000 professional civil servants, is responsible for implementing the policies of the current government at all levels of national life. The civil servants' duty is to serve impartially the current government in London and throughout the country and implement the policies of that government. They remain in the job despite a change of government, but there are restrictions on political activities and publication in order to preserve the neutrality of the service. The civil servants wishing to stand for Parliament must first resign from the Civil service.

The heart of the Civil Service is the Cabinet Office, whose Secretary is the most senior civil servant at any given time. Its responsibilities are the proper running of the whole Civil Service and ensuring the coordination of policy at the highest level. It is a very influential position and the appointment must be approved by the Prime Minister.

4.7. The judiciary: courts

The main functions of the judicial branch are to ensure that everyone obeys the laws, interpret laws considering particular cases and see to that the new laws don't contradict the constitution.

Prior to the creation of the *Supreme Court of the United Kingdom* in October 2009, Parliament also used to perform several judicial functions. The Queen in Parliament constituted the highest court in the realm for most purposes, but the *Privy Council* had jurisdiction in some cases (for instance, appeals from ecclesiastical courts). The jurisdiction of Parliament arose from the ancient custom of petitioning the Houses to redress grievances and to do justice. The House of Commons ceased considering petitions to reverse the judgments of lower courts in 1399, effectively leaving the House of Lords as the court of last resort.

In modern times, the judicial functions of the House of Lords were performed not by the whole House, but by a group of 'Lords Spiritual' (judges granted life peerage dignities by the Sovereign) and by 'Lords of Appeal' (other peers with experience in the judiciary). However, under the Constitutional Reform Act 2005, these judicial functions were transferred to the newly created Supreme Court in 2009, and the Lords Spiritual became the first Justices of the Court. Peers who hold high judicial office are no longer allowed to vote or speak in the Lords until they retire as Justices. The Supreme Court of the United Kingdom consists of 11 most senior judges who are now entirely separated from the parliamentary process.

4.8. Political parties

Political parties are an all-important feature of the British political system because it is virtually impossible for someone to be elected to the House of Commons without being a member of an established political party. The political party system has evolved since the 18th century, and since the first half of the 19th century has been essentially a two-party system. When one party wins more seats than the other in an election, it forms the government; the other party opposes the government – it is *'in opposition'*. Today there are three major political parties in the British system of politics: the *Conservative Party* (still known by their previous nickname, the *'Tories')*, the *Labour Party*, which emerged at the end of the 19th century as a result of the introduction of universal male suffrage and the decline of the Liberal Party, and the *Liberal Democratic Party*, not as influential as each of the two noted above.

The spectrum of their political views can be presented like this:

The Labour Party – the centre-left party currently led by Ed Miliband

The Conservative Party – the centre-right currently led by David Cameron

The Liberal Democratic Party – the centrist, libertarian party currently led by Nick Clegg

The origin of the Conservative Party goes back to the Tories of the late 17th century The Conservative Party was formed by Robert Peel from what was left of the old party in the 1830s. Peel and his successor Benjamin Disraeli (the first Conservative Prime Minister) together shaped modern Conservatism. The Conservative Party can be described as the party of middle and upper classes although it receives some working-

class support. Most of its voters live in rural areas, small towns and suburbs of large cities. Much of its financial support comes from large industrial companies. The party stands for economic freedom and minimal government interference in the economy. It gives high priority to national defense, the importance of law and order and the maintenance of strong armed forces to protect British interests. It is highly disciplined, and accepts the direction of the Prime Minister.

The Labour Party's origin goes back to the last decade of the 19th century when it was formed from an alliance of trade unionists and intellectuals. It was formed by James Keir Hardie in 1892 to represent the workers and was more or less the parliamentary wing of the trade unions. James Ramsay MacDonald became the first socialist Prime Minister in 1924. While main Labour voters are middle-class or intellectuals, the traditional Labour Party support is still strongest in industrial areas. The Labour Party is predominantly the party of social justice, though its emphasis is less on equality than on the achievement of well-being and opportunity for all members of society. It stands for greater government involvement in the economy. It tends to put the collective well-being of society above individual freedom, in the economic sphere at any rate. Traditionally, it has been committed to public ownership of major industries and to economic planning. The trade union movement, which founded the Labour Party, has lost the influence it once had over the party.

In 1981, some MPs left the Labour Party to form a new 'left-of-centre' party – the Social Democratic Party. They hoped to win enough support to break the two-party system of the previous years. In 1988 the Social Democratic Party merged with the Liberal Party, which traces its origin to the 18th century "Wigs". The new party that appeared after this merge – the Liberal Democratic Party – reflects a diversity of views of the members of the two former parties and takes a centrist stand in the political life of the country. It is the party which is keen on constitutional and electoral reform. The Liberal Democrats want MPs to be elected by proportional representation. Under this system, the number of MPs from each party would correspond to the total number of votes each party receives in an election. The Liberal Democrats place more emphasis on the environment than any other parties. They believe in giving greater powers to local government and advocate social reforms. The social basis of the party is formed of the middle class intellectuals.

The ideological differences between the parties are less than they used to be. In the past class was a major determinant of voting intention in British politics, with most working class electors voting Labour and most middle class electors voting Conservative. These days class is much less important because working class numbers have shrunk and lifestyles in the British society are more similar; so class does not determine voting intention so much as values, trust, and competence.

In general there is a broad ***consensus*** between the major political parties of Great Britain on the rule of law, the free market economy, the national health service, the UK membership of European Union and NATO. The main ***differences*** between the political parties concern the following issues: how to tackle poverty and inequality; the levels and forms of taxation; the extent of state intervention in the economy; the balance between collective rights and individual rights.

About eight other parties are represented in Parliament; they are regionally based in Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland. There are also a number of minor parties which are not represented in Parliament but which often put up candidates in parliamentary elections.

4.9. Local government

England and Wales are divided in to 53 counties, within which there are 369 districts. In Greater London there are 32 London boroughs.

The County, district and borough councils provide the range of services, necessary for everyday life. The county councils usually look after the wider and larger responsibilities like planning, transport, highway, traffic regulations, health, education and fire services. In principle, local authorities have control over the local police, but in practice their control is extremely limited since the police may argue that they are directly answerable to the Crown.

District councils are usually responsible for local taxation, leisure and recreation, environmental health, housing and refuge collection. The borough councils in London are responsible for most services provided by county and district councils. The Metropolitan Police is responsible for all London (except for the City of London) and there is a single fire service for London.

It is the basic principle for local government that local people can devise a better system for the local context than central government. As a result, there is no standard system, since in each county the local authorities have the freedom to organize and administer services as they think will best suit the area.

Each authority is composed of elected councilors, who form the governing body, and permanent local government officers, the local equivalent of the Civil Service. Elected councilors, unlike MPs, remain unpaid. Most of these, who stand for election are local businessmen of professional people. Some of them work for purely idealistic reason while others may be politically ambitious or believe that their position as a councilor will help advance their business or professional standing. Councilors are elected for 4 years.

Each council elect a chairman, or in borough a *'mayor',* and in Scotland a *'provost'.*

Just over 50 per cent of local government expenditure is financed from central government. The rest is raised locally, by local taxation and by collection of rents, fees and payments on property or services provided by the council. The system of both central and local finance is highly complicated and controversial, and often leads to tension between central government and local democracy.

Glossary

appeal, n. – a formal request to a higher law court to change the decision of a lower court

by-election, n. – a special election held to replace a politician who has left parliament or died

civil law – the branch of the law that deals with property, commerce and companies, wills and succession, the family, contracts, as well as constitutional, administrative and industrial matters

constituency, n. – area or body of voters electing a representative member

conurbation, n. – a group of towns that have spread and joined together to form an area of high population

criminal law – the law concerning crimes and their punishment

electoral roll – the official list of people who have the right to vote

first-past-the-post system – the term used to illustrate a voting system in Britain, in which a person with more votes than any other wins the election. The winner does not need to have more votes than the losers have together.

hereditary, adj. – (of a position, title, etc.) which can be passed down from an older to a younger person, esp. in the same family

peer, n. – a member of any of five noble ranks: baron, viscount, earl, marquis, duke

remit, v. – to free someone (from a debt or punishment)

secular, adj. – not connected with or controlled by church; not religious

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What state system is there in Great Britain? 2. What components does the British constitution consist of? 3. What are the three branches of power that form the state system of any democratic country? What are their functions? 4. What is the supreme legislative body in Great Britain? 5. What body is responsible for putting laws into effect? 6. What is the British judiciary composed of? 7. What institutions stand for each of the branches in Great Britain? 8. Who is the official head of state in Great Britain? 9. What is the position of the monarch in the three branches of power? 10. What are the political powers of the monarch? 11. Does the monarch really possess all that power? 12. What is the monarchy criticized for? 13. What are the advantages of monarchy? How do the Britons benefit from this institution? 14. What functions does Parliament perform? 15. What are the three components of Parliament? Which of them has the real power? 16. Who presides over the House of Commons? 17. How many members does the House of Commons consist of? What are they called? 18. How do they become MPs? 19. How often is the general election held? 20. What is the upper house of Parliament called? 21. What are the three categories of peers? 22. Has it the same authority as the House of Commons? Why is it considered undemocratic? 23. How does a bill become a law? 24. How is the PM chosen in Britain? 25. What is the Opposition? 26. What is the Cabinet? 27. Who are the Secretaries of State? 28. What is the collective responsibility? 29. What is Question Time? 30. What are the three leading political parties in Great Britain?

Task 2. Match a word on the left with the definition on the right.

1. Speaker 2. Secretary of State 3. primus inter pares	a) a large town or area which can elect someone to represent them in parliament b) a large room used for formal meetings

4. Question Time 5. statute law 6. general election 7. the Royal Assent 8. legislation 9. debates 10.Lords Spiritual 11.chamber 12.constituency 13.amendment 14.bill 15.verdict	c)the act or process of passing a law d) the official decision made by a jury in a court of law at the end of the trial about whether the prisoner is guilty or not guilty e) the draft of an Act of Parliament f) the act or process of changing or improving a law g) the final stage of a parliamentary bill when it is accepted by the sovereign and becomes an Act of Parliament h) the people who present the Church in Parliament i) the process of talking over a question in detail, esp. when different views are expressed j) the person who presides over the House of Commons k) all the laws and Acts passed by Parliament l) Latin phrase defining a position of the Prime Minister m) a minister of the Cabinet who is in charge of an important department n) an occasion to make ministers of the Cabinet accountable for their policies

Task 3. Look through the list of countries that make up the Commonwealth of Nations (*Complement 3*). Find them on the map. In what parts of the world are they mostly situated? What do they have in common?

Find some additional information about this intergovernmental organization and be ready to tell about:

- their state systems (Are all of them monarchies? How many of them have Queen Elizabeth II as head of state? Are they really independent sovereign states?)
- origin and structure of this organization (What unites them? Are there any legal obligations between the member countries? Do they have the Constitution or other documents that regulate their rights and duties?)
- gains and advantages they get (Do they benefit from their membership in the Commonwealth? What advantages do they have – political, economic, cultural? What are the benefits for Great Britain?)

Lecture 5

GREAT BRITAIN. PAINTING

Plan

5.1. The period of foreign painters in England (16^{th}-17^{th} centuries)

5.2. Creation of the national school of painting (18th century)
5.3. Development of the landscape painting (19th century)
5.4. The Pre-Raphaelite Movement
5.5. 20th- century painting in Great Britain

Pronunciation Guide

John Constable [`ʤɔnstəbl]	Ben Nicholson [`ben`nɪkls(ə)n]
Anthony van Dyck [`entənɪvən`daɪk]	Joshua Reynolds [`ʤɔʃuəˈrenəldz]
Thomas Gainsborough [`tɔməs`geɪnsb(ə)rə]	Dante Gabriel Rossetti [`dɑntɪ`geɪbrɪəl rə`zetɪ]
William Hogarth [`wɪljəm`hɔgɑθ]	Walter Sickert [`wɔltə`sɪkət]
Hans Holbein [`hænz`hɔlbaɪn]	Graham Sutherland [`grəməm`sʌðələnd]
John Everett Millais [`ʤɔn`evərətmɪ`leɪ]	William Turner [`wɪljəm`tɜ:nə]
genre [`ʒɔnrə]	Pre-Raphaelite [ˌpri:`rəfəleɪt]

5.1. The period of foreign painters in England (16th-17th centuries)

Great Britain was one of the last European countries to experience the influence of Renaissance on its painting. Art scholars have their explanation of the phenomenon – from time immemorial the English people have not been lacking the appreciation of beauty, but beauty has appealed to them not so much through the eye in painting and sculpture, as through the ear, in poetry and literature. They have been thinkers, reasoners, moralists, rather than observers and artists in colour. Images have been brought to their minds by words rather than by forms. English poetry has existed since the days of Arthur and the Round Table but English painting is of comparatively modern origin. One may say in a very general way that English painting is more illustrative than creative. It tries to show things that might be told in poetry, romance, or history. Success of English painting has been in portraiture and landscape, and this largely by reason of following the model.

The earliest decorative art appeared in Ireland. It was probably first planted there by missionaries from Italy. In the Middle Ages there were wall paintings and church decorations in England, as elsewhere in Europe, but these have now perished, except some fragments in Kempley Church, Gloucestershire, and Chaldon Church, Surrey. These are supposed to date back to the 12th century, and there are some remains of paintings in Westminster Abbey that are said to be of 13th and 14th-century origin.

The history of British painting is closely linked with the broader traditions of European painting. Kings and queens commissioned portraits from German, Dutch, and Flemish artists. From the 15th to the 18th century the English people depended largely upon foreign painters who came and lived in England – Mabuse, Moro, Holbein, Rubens, Van Dyck, Lely, Kneller all were there at different times in the service of royalty, and influencing such local English painters as then lived. British painters found inspiration and guidance from their journeys abroad, especially to Italy.

Painting in modern sense came late in history of Britain. There was no truly national school before the 18th century. It is usual to regard English painting as beginning with the Tudor period, and at that time it was developed by foreign masters. Hans Holbein and Anthony Van Dyck were the most celebrated masters of the period.

Hans Holbein the Younger (1497-1543) was a designer of woodcuts, a splendid decorator, engraver and gifted painter of German birth who worked in a Northern Renaissance style. He is called 'the Younger' to distinguish him from his father, Hans Holbein the Elder, an accomplished painter of the late Gothic school.

At first Holbein painted murals and religious works and designed for stained glass windows and printed books. In 1526, he went to England with a recommendation from the humanist Erasmus to Sir Thomas More, author of the celebrated *"Utopi*a". It was the period of Reformation when Roman Catholicism and its institutions were replaced by the national Protestant Church. It was also an age of Humanism which created a new interest in human personality. Holbein was open to Renaissance ideas. His portrait of Erasmus of Rotterdam, a noted humanist, gives us a truly memorable image of Renaissance man: intimate yet monumental. Portraiture was a dominant genre in that period. Holbein became painter to Henry VIII, for whom he executed a life-size dynastic portrait of the King, Queen Jane Seymour and other members of the Royal Family. In the role of King's Painter he produced not only portraits but festive decorations, designs of jewellery and other precious objects.

His portraits of the royal family and nobles are a record of the court in the years when Henry VII was asserting his supremacy over the English church. The portrait of Henry VIII has the immobile pose, the air of unapproachability and the precisely rendered costumes and jewels. The rigid posture and physical bulk of Henry VIII create an overpowering sensation of the king's ruthless, commanding presence – but clearly belongs to the genre of court portrait.

In 1538-39 Holbein was sent on journeys abroad to portray the King's prospective wives: in 1538 he painted an elegant, seductive portrait of Christina of Denmark and in 1539 Anne of Cleves. Holbein's paintings and drawings had great psychological depths, they were characterized by great beauty and extraordinary perception.

Holbein's most famous, and perhaps greatest, painting was "*The Ambassadors*". This life-sized panel incorporates symbols and paradoxes, including a distorted skull. According to scholars, these encode enigmatic references to learning, religion, morality, and illusion in the tradition of the Northern Renaissance. Art historians suggest that in "*The Ambassador"s* sciences and arts, objects of luxury and glory, are measured against the grandeur of Death".

Although Holbein's pictures molded British taste in aristocratic portraiture for decades, he had no English disciples of real talent. After his death, some of his work was lost, but much was collected, and by 19th century, Holbein was recognized among the great portrait masters. His portraits were renowned in their time for their likeness; and it is through Holbein's eyes that many famous figures of his day are now "seen".

The Elizabethan genius was more literary and musical than visual, and the demand for portraits in the later 16th century continued to be filled largely by visiting foreign artists. Portraiture in the 17th century was largely dominated by foreign artists and in particular by Van Dyck.

Sir Anthony Van Dyck (1599-1641) was a Flemish artist who became the leading court painter in England. He was born to prosperous parents in Antwerp. His talent was evident very early, by the age of 15 he was already a highly accomplished artist, as his "*Self-portrait*", 1613, shows. Within a few years he was to be the chief assistant to the dominant master of Northern Europe Peter Paul Rubens, who referred to the 19-year-old van Dyck as "the best of my pupils". In 1621 van Dyck went to Italy, where he remained for 6 years, studying the Italian masters. He was mostly based in Genoa, although he traveled extensively to other cities. His acquaintance Bellori described him: "He was presenting himself as a figure of consequence, annoying the rather bohemian Northern artists' colony in Rome. His behaviour was that of a nobleman rather than an ordinary person, and he shown in rich garments; since he was accustomed in the circle of Rubens to noblemen, and being naturally of elevated mind, and anxious to make himself distinguished, he therefore wore – as well as silks – a hat with feathers and brooches, gold chains across his chest, and was accompanied by servants."

In 1627, he went back to Antwerp where he painted affable portraits which made his Flemish patrons look as stylish as possible. He was evidently very charming to his patrons, and well able to mix in aristocratic and court circles, which added to his ability to obtain commissions.

In 1632 van Dyck was invited to England by King Charles I. King Chrles I was the most passionate and generous collector of art among the British monarchs, and saw art as a way of promoting his grandiose view of the monarchy. Van Dyck was taken under the wing of the court immediately, being knighted and at the same time receiving a pension of 200 pounds per year. He was provided with a house and a studio that was frequently visited by the King and Queen, who hardly sat for another painter while van Dyck lived. For the King and his family he produced a series of formal and informal portraits (about 40 portraits of King Charles himself, and about thirty of the Queen). He also worked extensively for other court patrons.

Van Dyck's portraits of the Royal family and other members of the nobility are characterized by decorative elegance and aristocratic poetry. He successfully imbued his portraits with an ingenious vitality and an atmosphere of refinement and glamour enhanced by his use of meaningful symbolism. Above all he built around the figure of Charles I an aura of romantic melancholy. "*Charles I at the Hunt*"(1635; in the Louvre): "Charles is given a totally natural look of instinctive sovereignty, in a deliberately informal setting where he strolls so negligently that he seems at first glance nature's gentleman rather than England's King".

Van Dyck was a brilliant colourist, very skillfully he used the combination of grey-silver-blue and yellow colours. The main feature of his style was the idealization of his models. Van Dyck's portraits flattered his sitters. When …first met the English Queen in exile in Holland in 1641, she rote: "Van Dyck's handsome portraits had given me so fine an idea of the beauty of all English ladies, that I was surprised to find that the Queen, who looked so fine in painting, was a small woman raised up on her chair, with long skinny arms and teeth like defence works projecting from her mouth".

His great success compelled van Dyck to maintain a large workshop in London, a studio which was to become "virtually a production line for portraits". According to a visitor to his studio he usually only made a drawing on paper, which was then enlarged

onto canvas by an assistant; he then painted the head himself. In his last years these studio collaborations accounted for some decline in the quality of work. The number of paintings ascribed to him had by the 19th century become huge.

His pictures became a model for English portrait painters of the time.

He was buried in Old St. Paul's Cathedral, where the king erected a monument in his memory. In 1066, the Great Fire of London destroyed Old St. Paul's Cathedral, and with it van Dyck's tomb. "For all the riches he had acquired, Anthony van Dyck left little property, having spent everything on living magnificently, more like a prince than a painter".

5.2. Creation of the national school of painting (18th century)

During the 18th century a truly national school of painting was created in England. William Hogarth, Joshua Reynolds and Thomas Gainsborough were the most talented representatives of this school.

William Hogarth (1697-1764) was the dominant artistic personality of his time, painter, printmaker, social critic and editorial cartoonist. His work ranged from excellent realistic portraiture to comic series of pictures called "modern moral subjects".

The son of a poor school teacher and textbook writer young William took a lively interest in the street life of the metropolis and the London fairs, and amused himself by sketching the characters he saw. Around the same time, his father, who had opened an unsuccessful Latin-speaking coffee house, was imprisoned for debt for five years. Hogarth never talked about the fact. By April 1720 he was an engraver in his own right, engraving coats of arms, shop bills, and designing plates for booksellers.

Hogarth was a popular portrait painter. In 1746 he painted actor David Garric as Richard III, for which he was paid 200 pounds, "which was more," he wrote, "than any English artist ever received for a single portrait." Hogarth's truthful, vivid full-length portrait of his friend, the philanthropic "Captain Coram" (1740; Foundling Museum), and his unfinished oil sketch of "The Shrimp Girl" (National Galery, London) may be called masterpieces of British painting.

Among other achievements he established the new genre of *"Modern Moral Subjects"* (or *"conversation pieces"*), in which a story from contemporary life is told in a series of paintings which were subsequently engraved. His first satirical work was *"A Harlot's Progress"* which told in a series of 6 paintings (now lost) the tragic story of a country girl who fell for the temptation of city life. The engravings had an immense success through their humour, pathos and topicality, and they were followed by the paintings of *"The Rake's Progress".* The satirical talent of the painter was manifested best of all in his series *"Marriage a la Mode".* He also tried to make his art more directly responsive to social evils in a series of popular prints beginning with "Industry and Idleness", which shows schematically the contrasting fates of a good and bad apprentice. Other series were directed against cruelty (*"The Four Stages of Cruelty"*) and the unpleasant consequences of alcoholism (*"Beer Streat"* and *"Gin Lane"*).

"Marriage a la Mode" is regarded as his finest project, certainly the best example of his serially-planned story cycles. It was painted in 1743-1745 and consists of six

pictures. It is a scathing criticism of upper class 18th century society. This moralistic warning shows the miserable tragedy of an ill-considered marriage for money. Marital ethics were the topic of much debate in 18th century Britain. Frequent marriages of convenience and their attendant unhappiness came in for particular criticism, with a variety of authors taking the view that love was a much sounder basis for marriage. Hogarth here painted a satire of a conventional marriage within the English upper class. All the paintings were engraved and the series achieved wide circulation in print form. The series, which are set in a Classical interior, shows the story of a fashionable marriage of the son of bankrupt Earl Squanderfield to the daughter of a wealthy but miserly city merchant, starting with the signing of a marriage contract at the Earl's mansion and ending with the murder of the son by his wife's lover and the suicide of the daughter after her lover is hanged at Tyburn for murdering her husband.

Hogarth also produced a number of powerful, well-characterised portraits. In this genre he displayed the realistic and democratic character of his talent. The spectacular portrait of Captain Coram painted for the Foundling Hospital is a good example of his portraiture. Apart from his portrait of the founder (still in the Hospital), Hogarth contributed *"Moses Brought before Pharaoh's Daughter"*, depicting the theme of mercy towards children. His late portraits, like *"Hogarth's Servants"* have a Rembrandtesque depth which reflects his own sense of the human tragedy. His "Shrimp Girl" is executed with a limited range of colours, but it is full of joy of life and happiness. The picture takes its place among the masterpieces of the world in its harmony of form and content, its freshness and vitality.

Hogarth also wrote and published his ideas of artistic design in his book *"The Analysis of Beauty",* he fought for legislation protecting artists' copyright. In it, he professes to define the principles of beauty and grace. In 1757 he was appointed Sergeant Painter to the King. And the teaching academy he established led to the founding of the Royal Academy of Arts.

Sir Joshua Reynolds (1723-1792) was the most original and creative painter of the century, and the first president of the Royal Academy of Arts. He liked arts from early childhood and at the age of 17 he went to London to study painting from Thomas Hudson, a fashionable painter of that time. According to the contract Reynolds had to be his apprentice for 4 years, but just two years later he drops out as he learned everything Hudson could teach him. When Reynolds was 26 he made a journey to Italy where he stayed in Vatican, Rome, Florence, Venice. He spent all the time in the famous museums and galleries copying the pictures of great masters of Renaissance, trying to emulate their technique. During two years in Italy he didn't paint a singe picture of his own, besides he caught a flue working for hours in the cold halls of Vatican. The illness had serious complications and he remained deaf on one ear to the end of his life. But he never regretted it and insisted that art students should travel and copy a lot before they start to create their own works of art.

In 1753 Reynolds opens his studio in London. He is talented and hardworking, has good education and nice hospitable manners. He made friends with the most outstanding people of his time – actors, dramatists, politicians, aristocracy, everybody wanted to sit for him. In 1755 he had about one hundred commissions for portraits, next year this number doubled.

In his paintings he tried to combine the vivid colours of Titian, Rembrandt's mastery of psychological penetration and the dynamic style of the Italian masters of the 17th century. Reynolds created a whole gallery of portraits of his contemporaries. His most famous works include the portrait of Dr Johnson (his friend), David Garrick (the famous actor), Mrs Sarah Siddons (the famous Shakespearean actress), Stern and Goldsmith (writers) and others.

Reynolds' heart belonged to history painting which he considered the highest form of art. To narrow the gap between portraiture and history painting, Reynolds devised a category of historical portraits in which he idealized the figures, used poses, costumes and gestures taken from old masters and treated the composition as if it were a subject picture with an allegorical theme. Examples of these are his *"Three Ladies Adorning a Term of Hymen"* and *"Mrs Siddons as a Tragic Muse"*.

Joshua Reynolds was knighted soon after becoming President of the Royal Academy of Arts in 1768 and made an honorary Doctor of Civil Law of Oxford University in 1773. Besides creating his masterpieces he made a great contribution in the theory of arts publishing a collection of his speeches and lectures. Reynolds was given a lavish funeral in St Paul's Cathedral after his death – the first painter to be buried there since Van Dyck.

Thomas Gainsborough (1727-1768) was the most original portrait painter of his day who rivaled Reynolds in fame. His manner of painting differed greatly from that of Reynolds. He was not interested in photographic likeness but rather in a poetic expression of individuality. As a self-taught artist, he did not make the traditional grand tour or the ritual journey to Italy, but relied on his own remarkable instinct in painting.

Gainsborough is famous for the elegance of his portraits and his pictures of women in particular have an extreme delicacy and refinement. As a colourist he has had few rivals among English painters. His best works have delicate brush strokes, they are painted in clear and transparent tone, in a colour scheme where blue and green predominate. He created works of such delicacy and poetic sensibility that is caused Constable to say: "On looking at them, we find tears in our eyes and know not what brings them".

His portraits were painted in clear tones. His colours were always tender and soft. Light tone scheme and use of light blues and yellows belonged essentially to his earlier period. Later, when he came into contact with the Van Dyck pictures he enriched his palette but blues predominated in his paintings. Among his most famous portraits are the portrait of Mrs. Siddons, a famous actress in a blue dress, and the picture known as *"Blue Boy"* – a boy in a blue costume. In his portraits of Mrs. Sheridan we see a woman in a light blue.

The *"Mrs. Sarah Siddons"* has the distinction of being not only a remarkable work of art, but a unique interpretation of a unique personality. It was painted when the queen of the tragic drama was in her 29th year and in the zenith of her fame. She sat to most of the celebrated masters of her day, but this is one of her best portraits. An enthusiastic admirer who saw it in the Manchester exhibition of 1857 wrote as follows: "The great tragic actress is better portrayed in this simple half-length in her day dress, than in allegorical portraits as the Tragic Muse or in character parts. This portrait is so original,

so individual, as a poetic expression of character, as a deliberate selection of pose, as bold colour and free handling, that it is like the work of no other painter".

His portraits of children are full of infinite charm. He had a great feeling and sympathy for them and was able to capture their youthful freshness and innocence. This is combined with tremendous delicacy and mastery. The delightful portraits of his two little daughters have given pleasure for over 200 years, and still do.

Gainsborough was one of the first English landscape painters. In his landscapes he followed the Dutch masters, but contributed his own strong feeling for his native countryside. Gainsborough often represented his sitters out-of-doors, thus uniting portraiture with landscape, as it was done in the brilliant portrait of *Mr and Mrs Andrews* sitting in the wheat field. The beauty of the green English summer, the sense of delight which the atmosphere visibly creates in the sitters, the pleasure of resting on a rustic bench in the cool shade of an oak tree, while all around the ripe harvest throbs in a hot atmosphere enveloped by a golden light. The particular discovery of Gainsborough was the creation of a form of art in which the sitters and the background merge into single entity. The landscape is not kept in the background, but in most cases man and nature are fused in a single whole through the atmospheric harmony of mood. He emphasized that the natural background for his characters was not the drawing-room or a reconstruction of historical events, but the changeable and harmonious manifestations of nature.

The marriage portrait *"The Morning Walk"* represents the perfection of Gainsborough's later style and goes beyond portraiture to an ideal conception of dignity and grace in the harmony of landscape and figures.

A fitting tribute was paid to Gainsborough when Sir Joshua Reynolds said at his funeral: *"If ever this nation should produce genius sufficient to acquire us the honorable distinction of an English School, the name of Gainsborough will be transmitted by posterity, in the history of the Art, among the very first of that rising name".*

5.3. Development of the landscape painting (19th century)

Landscape painting began to develop in the 19th century. The great artists who made the English school of landscape painting were John Constable and William Turner.

John Constable (1776-1837) was a famous English landscape painter known for his pastoral scenes. He was thoroughly English; no foreign master influenced him, and English nature gave him both his material and his inspiration. In spite of his studies at the Academy, John Constable largely remained self-taught, he found his own style of painting, based on the immediate observation of nature. With animated brush strokes he tried to capture the atmosphere of the moment, thereby anticipating the Impressionists' interpretation of nature. He painted the quiet, undramatic English landscapes just as he saw them. His subjects were drawn from native Suffolk which is known as *'the Constable country'.*

In 1811-1826 Constable painted some notable works: *"Flatford Mill", "The White Horse", "The Hay Wain", "The Leaping Horse", "Cornfield".* The brilliant *"Hay Wain"* is a great canvas which proclaims his maturity. Cumulus clouds sweep across the sky; the water glistens, ripples over the shallow bed of the river; everywhere there is light and air. He exhibited the picture in 1821 at the Royal Academy, but it was not there that it made its great sensation. Three years later, in 1824, several of his important pictures, including *"The Hay Wain"*, were exhibited in Paris where they made an immediate impression. In 1825 Constable exhibited *"The White Horse"* in Lille. On both occasions it was awarded the gold medal.

In England Constable never received the recognition that he felt was his due. The Academy took time in acknowledging his genius. He was elected academician in 1829, a man of fifty-three, but since the wife he had loved so devotedly had died the year before, this recognition meant little to him. The most ambitious achievement of his last period is *"Waterloo Bridge from Whitehall Stairs"*, a sparkling, light-filled composition in which the distant vista of the bridge is framed by a foreground of trees, boats and buildings. The glorious *"Hampstead Heath"* and beautiful *"Salisbury Cathedral"* belong to the same time.

Constable succeeded in portraying the very essence of the English landscape – the smiling meadows, the sparkle of the sun or rain or dew, the stormy and uncertain clouds. No one has painted English clouds effects so truthfully, with such compositional ingenuity and skill. Constable was a brilliant water colourist. He carried the art of water-colour to a new level of perfection. The culmination of it is his *"Landscape with a Double Rainbow"*, now in the British Museum. John Constable is regarded as the most important English landscape painter of the 19th century as well as William Turner.

Joseph Mallord William Turner (1775-1831) was an English romantic painter and engraver known especially for his dramatic landscapes and seascapes. Unlike many artists of his era, he was successful throughout his career. At the age of 14 he entered the Royal Academy of Art and next year he received a rare honour – one of his paintings was exhibited at the Academy. By the time he was 18 he had his own studio and print sellers were eagerly buying his drawings for reproduction. He quickly achieved a fine reputation and in 1802 he was elected a member of the Academy, later he taught a course in perspective there.

He traveled a great deal, especially in Italy, and found inspiration for many of his paintings in Venice. Wherever he visited he studied the effects of sea and sky in every kind of weather. With time he developed a painting technique of his own. Instead of merely recording factually what he saw, Turner translated scenes into a light-filled expression of his own romantic feelings.

His earliest painting *"The Shipwreck"* shows his absorption with the sea and the way the sea affected the ships. *"The Calais Pier"* is a typical romantic seascape where every detail – somber skies with stormy waves, a sail in the foreground, and white crests on the waves – all is combined to suggest the atmosphere that precedes a catastrophe. The vision of a storm is shown here so clearly that critics say that you can smell the spray and hear the noise of the water and the wail of the deafening wind.

Turner was the master of the air and the wind, of the rain and sunshine, of the horizon and all perspective of ships and sea.

In 1838 Turner painted *"The Fighting Temeraire"*, in which we see the results of his investigation into light. The clear, pure air, rich colours of the setting sun, the dead calm of the sea – all create a mood of serenity that is a little sad, too. The entire scene is enveloped in the golden light of the setting sun. Here the great beautiful sailing ship is being dragged by an ugly modern tug to her last resting place. The emotional moment of the farewell scene is underlined by the sunset. The sun is going down, and the moon is taking over. The death of one age is the birth of another.

Towards the end of his life, Turner became more and more absorbed in problems of light and atmosphere, as the French Impressionist painters were. The pictures that he painted in this new atmospheric manner, in which all solid forms are dissolved in sunlight or mist, aroused much contemporary criticism and ridicule in the newspapers and journals.

5.4. The Pre-Raphaelite Movement

By the middle of the 19th century the British art became swept into pettiness. The artists of that time lost the achievements of the great painters of the 18th century. The rich bourgeoisie preferred to buy respectable, showy pictures, the artists had to satisfy their low tastes. That kind of poor naturalism was called at that time "realism". The Pre-Raphaelite Movement was the first organized revolt against the Royal Academy banalities. The leaders of the movement were Rossetti, Holman Hunt and Millais. Their intention was to break with academic art, return to the moral and descriptive truthfulness which had flourished in the work of Italian painters who lived before Raphael, hence the name of the movement. Most members of the Brotherhood were deeply concerned with the narrative side of their art. Apart from traditional sources like medieval romances, Shakespeare and the Bible they frequently drew from recent romantic poetry, notably Keats and Tennyson. They applied much original thought to their subjects, and this made them excellent illustrators.

The first Pre-Raphaelite pictures – inscribed "P.R.B" – were unfavourably received. Millais' *"Christ in the House of His Parents"* provoked particular hostility, perhaps because its unidealized treatment of the Holy Family seemed sacrilegious. After John Ruskin, critic and social thinker, had defended them, however, their fortune improved. As they became more successful they drifted apart, particularly after 1833 when Millais was elected ARA. Pre-Raphaelism, however, remained a portent force in British art for many years. At first the more realistic side of the movement predominated, this led to a new vivid style of landscape painting and exploration of contemporary themes.

Dante Gabriel Rossetti (1828-1882) was a painter and poet whose outstanding imaginative gifts led him to have an enormous influence on the cultural life of Victorian England. A leading member of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, he was largely responsible for the symbolism and the mystique of the Middle Ages in later Pre-Raphaelism.

The son of an exile Italian patriot and scholar and brother of the poetess Christina Rossetti, he grew up in a strongly literary environment. His first work painted as a

member of the Brotherhood was *"The Girlhood of Mary Virgin".* There is a real grace and sweetness in the figure of the Virgin, for which his sister Christina was the model. The picture is full of symbolic references to the life of Christ. Mary and her mother, St Anne, are shown embroidering a lily onto crimson cloth, while a serious looking child-angel stands behind a vase with another lily (the symbol of purity).

After the hostile reception of the Pre-Raphaelites, Rossetti devoted a decade largely to watercolours and subjects from medieval literature. His first considerable effort in this medium was the illustration of Browning's poem *"The Laboratory",* depicting a lady's visit to an old poison-monger to obtain poison for her rival in love. This wonderful gem of colour marked the opening of the artist's second period and his departure from Pre-Raphaelism.

At this time he began to take a keen interest in decorative art. He had a large share in the revival of stained glass painting as an art. He produced a striking and highly imaginative triptych, representing three events in the careers of Paolo and Francesca.

In 1860 Rossetti returned to oil painting, specializing in idealized female figures. The most impressive of these, *"Beata Beatrix"*, is of his wife, Elizabeth Siddal, whose death in 1862 had filled him with remorse. Identifying himself with Dante, he had cast her in the role of Beatrice at the moment of her death. Beatrice is shown seated in a death-like trance, while a bird, the messenger of death, drops a poppy into her hands. The figures of Dante and another representing Love stand in the background.

Heavily dependant on alcohol and drugs, Rossetti rarely left the house towards the end of his life. After a nervous breakdown and attempted suicide he died on April 9, 1881, from drug consumption.

William Holman Hunt (1827-1910) pursued the original aims of the Brotherhood with great single-mindedness. His picture *"The Hireling Sheperd"* is painted in an obsessively detailed manner. Hunt believed that renewal of art must involve a return to honoured religious and moral ideas, and these became central in his work. Hunt's developing spiritual purpose led him to paint a critique of modern life in the form of two interrelated pictures, *"The Awakening Conscience"* and the religious allegory *"The Light of the World".* Both are distinguished by the principal figure's direct gaze and the symbolic use of observed details.

In 1854 Hunt traveled to Palestine to paint Biblical scenes in their natural setting. His picture "Finding of the Savior in the Temple" was an immense success. Hunt made further trips to the Middle East and continued to paint well-received religious pictures. He also frequently took themes from old English myths and sagas, from Shakespeare and Keats, filling them with intense symbolism in which every small detail contributed to the massage of the picture.

At first the Victorian England did not accept his works, as of other members of the Brotherhood either. Thus *"The Awakening Conscience"* infuriated the public; it was normal for a Victorian man to keep a mistress, but nobody spoke about it aloud. When the public gradually got accustomed to Hunt his work was highly regarded. In 1905 he received the Order of Merit.

Sir John Everett Millais (1829-1896) was a leading member of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood who in later life pursued a brilliantly successful career as an academic and society painter. He lacked the imaginative genius of Rossetti and the intellectual rigour

of Holman Hunt, but he was more technically gifted, and in his early years he produced some of the most memorable of all Pre-Raphaelite paintings. His *"Lorenzo and Isabella"* based on Keat's poem was executed in glowing colours with perfect technique. His *"Christ in the House of his Parents"* showed the Holy Family with radical realism, though great devotional intensity; it was savagely attacked in the press, suspected of blasphemy and connections with the Anglo-Catholic movement. Millais' most celebrated picture of this period was *"Ophelia"*. The painter took the subject of Ophelia's drowning, depicting the outdoor setting with almost photographical perfection and precision of detail. The subject matter of this picture, theme, characterization and treatment is typical of Pre-Raphaelite works with their intensity of feeling and brilliance of colours.

In the 60s there was a change in Millais' art. The strict limits of Pre-Raphaelism were too narrow for him now. His style broadened and his subject matter considerably changed. At that time the painter's productivity was extraordinary. Subject pictures, portraits and landscapes appeared in rapid succession and all of them were marked by freshness and freedom of expression. Millais enjoyed his success, claiming to be the highest-paid artist in history. He was the first painter to be created a baronet (in 1885) and was made President of the Royal academy of Arts months before his death.

5.5. 20th-century painting in Great Britain

English art critics mark the astonishing variety of artistic directions and trends that appear and develop in modern painting.

The history of British painting in the first decade of the 20th century is marked by a slow absorption of impressionist principles of light and colour.

Walter Richard Sickert (1860-1942) was one of the leading impressionists of the English school. Though he was the son and grandson of painters, he first sought a career as an actor; he appeared in small parts in some theatrical performances, before taking up the study of art. He later went to Paris and met Edgar Degas, whose use of pictorial space and emphasis on drawing would have a powerful effect on Sickert's own work.

Sickert developed a personal version of Impressionism, favouring somber colouration. Following Degas' advice, he painted in the studio, working from drawings and memory as an escape from "the tyranny of nature". Sickert's earliest major works were portrayals of scenes in London music halls, often depicted from complex and ambiguous points of view, so that special relationship between the audience, performer and orchestra becomes confused, as figures gesture into space and others are reflected in mirrors. This theme of confused or failed communication between people appears frequently in his art.

Most of his paintings are an exploration of the man/woman relationship. His pictures include a series of groups – usually a man and a woman – in bedrooms or little front parlours. Some psychological relationship between them is always implied, but the story line always remains oblique. *"Ennui" ("Boredom")* is Sickert's best-known work that exists at least in four versions. The compositional tension of the painting reflects

the mood of psychological tension projected by the two characters: an old man sitting at the table and a fat woman standing behind him.

From 1895 Sickert began to winter in Venice and he painted views of the city during his stay there. He produced innumerable versions of his favourite scenes (the Façade of St Jacques, the Façade of St Mark). Architectural subjects abound, although his compositions are as much about the surrounding places as about the buildings themselves. In Venice he also painted some very fine informal studies of Venetian women.

Sickert took a keen interest in the crimes of Jack the Ripper, a series of murders of women that started in London in 1907. The painter had a studio in the not far from the site of the crime, he believed he had lodged in a room used by the infamous serial killer. Sickert did a painting of the room and entitled it "Jack the Ripper's Bedroom". It shows a dark, melancholy room with most details obscured. This painting now resides in the Manchester City Art Gallery in Manchester. Since 1976 three books have been published whose authors claim that Sickert was Jack the Ripper or his accomplice. In 2004, the Oxford Dictionary of National Biography in its article on Sickert dismissed as "fantasy" any claim that the painter was that murderer.

One of Sickert's closest friends and supporters was newspaper baron Lord Beaverbrook, who accumulated the largest single collection of paintings by Sickert in the world. This collection, with a private correspondence between the painter and Beaverbrook, is in the Beaverbrook Art Gallery in Fredericton, New Brunswick, Canada.

Surrealism arrived comparatively late in England. The First International Surrealist Exhibition was held in London in 1936. The exhibition provoked enormous, largely hostile, public reaction.

Graham Sutherland (1903-1980), a representative of surrealism in English painting, tried to explore the subconscious world of people. He began his career as an engraver. He began to paint in 1931 and exhibited 2 oils in the International Surrealist Exhibition. *"Welsh Landscape with Roads"* shows his response to nature. Surrealism is evident in his semi-abstract landscapes where he presented odd combinations of real objects. As an official war artist Sutherland painted scenes of urban devastation. The thorn as a symbol of cruelty is present in many of his canvases painted during and after the war. From 1947 he lived for much of each year on the French Riviera. He continued to paint landscapes and imaginative compositions, often with explicit religious imagery. In 1946 he painted *"Crucifixion"* for St Mathew's, Northampton. The commission to design the altar tapestry for Coventry Cathedral resulted in *"Christ in Glory in the Tetramorph"* (1954-57).

Portraiture was an integral part of his work, and he depicted his sitters with intense psychological penetration. His most famous portraits were those of William Somerset Maugham (1949) and of Sir Winston Churchill (1954; destroyed).

Constructive art embraced all artists who practiced geometric abstract art and stood opposed to contemporary trends of realism and surrealism.

Ben Nicholson (1894-1982) was the chief representative of British constructivism. In the 1920s he painted still-lifes and also landscapes which often had naïve characteristics and evoked a strong sense of space and light by abstract form and colour.

From 1932 he lived in Hampstead, where he was part of a large circle of outstanding painters and sculptors. At that time the painter produced a group of major paintings composed of balanced rectangles and circles of strong, unmodulated colours. Though drawn with a ruler and compass, they were not composed according to a mathematical system.

In 1939 he moved to St Ives, Cornwall. In this period he returned to still=life and landscape. He also continued to make reliefs, often large, composed of slanting, interlocked planes of masonite with rubbed and scratched surfaces and subdued colours. His last works were small in scale and irregular in shape, with intricate compositions of balanced curves inspired by familiar objects.

Francis Bacon, who was born in 1809 to English parents in Dublin and lived in London until his death in 1922, holds a special place in 20th century art. Self-taught, Bacon began to paint in the 1930s, like his countryman Graham Sutherland, under the influence of Surrealism. Yet since he destroyed most of his early works, it was only after World War II that Bacon began to find international recognition.

Like Picasso, Bacon employed the device of distortion in his figurative and portrait works. But unlike Picasso, he used distortion not for dramatic ends but presented it as the frightening result of his diagnosis of reality. Terror and horror, destruction and the destroyed, tortured human and gutted animals are presented not sadistically, but dispassionately, for if Bacon's imagery is tortured, so is the reality it reflects.

In later years Bacon repeatedly painted triptychs and series of variations on a theme.

Glossary

ambiguous, adj. – something that is unclear, confusing, or not certain, especially because it can be understood in more than one way

apprentice, n. – a person who is under an agreement to work for a number of years for a person who is skilled in trade in order to learn that person's skill

baroque, n. – a highly decorative style which was fashionable in art, building, music, etc. in Europe during the 17th century

engraving, n. – a picture made by cutting a design into metal, putting ink into the metal, and then printing it

excel, v. [at/in] – to do something very well or much better than most people

impressionism, n. – a style in painting (esp. in France between 1870 and 1900) which produces effects of light by using colour rather than by details of form. The French impressionists often painted directly from nature.

landscape, n. – a picture showing an area of countryside or land

pastoral, adj. – concerning simple peaceful country life

sacrilege, n. – the act of treating a holy place or thing without respect

surrealism, n. – a modern type of art and literature in which the painter, writer, etc. connects unrelated images and objects in a strange, dreamlike way; famous surrealist painters include Marc Chagall and Salvador Dali

triptych, n. – a picture made in three parts so that the side one can be folded inwards over the middle one

vista, n. – a distant view to which the eye is directed between narrow limits, e.g. by rows of trees

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What two foreign painters worked in Britain in the 16-17th centuries? What was the dominant genre at that time? 2. On whose recommendation did Holbein come to England? What royal family did he paint? 3. Who invited Sir Anthony van Dyck to Britain? 4. When was a truly national school of painting created in England? Who was the first representative of the English national school of painting? What new genre did he invent? 5. Who is the main subject of the series "A Harlot's Progress"? 6. What conclusions do we draw from Hogarth's "Marriage a la Mode" about the way of life of British upper classes in the 18th century? 7. Why were the "conversation pieces" so popular in England? 8. Who was the first president of the Royal Academy of Arts? 9. What is about the "Portrait of Mrs. Siddons as the Tragic Muse" that creates the impression of solemn grandeur? 10. What position did Reynolds occupy in the London society of his time? 11. Who said: "I was born to paint landscapes, but I paint portraits to live"? 12. In what branches of art did Gainsborough excel? 13. Who were the major landscape painters of the 18th-century England? What style did each of them develop?
14. Which two tendencies of the English Romanticism are exemplified by the art of Constable and Turner? 15. What painting by Constable was awarded the gold medal in Paris? 16. What subjects are characteristic of Constable's art? 17. Was Constable's talent recognized during his life-time? 18. What characterizes Turner's early work?
19. What techniques did Turner use? Did he paint from nature? 20. What were the main points of the Pre-Raphaelite conception of art? 21. Who were the main members of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood? 22. Outline the main stages of development in the British Modern Movement and briefly characterize the major artists.

Task 2. Match the paintings with the artists that created them.

1.Hans Holbein the Younger	a. "The Hay Wain"
2.Sir Anthony Van Dyck	b. the portrait of Henry VIII
3.William Hogarth	c. "Mr. and Mrs. Andrews"
4.Sir Joshua Reynolds	d. "Crucifixion" c. "Ophelia"
5.Thomas Gainsborough	f. "A Harlot's Progress"
6. John Constable	g. "Beata Beatrix"
7.Joseph Turner	h. portrait of Charles I
8.Dante Gabriel Rossetti	i. a group of major paintings composed of balanced rectangles and circles of strong,
9.William Holman Hunt	unmodulated colours
10.Sir John Everett Millais	j. "Ennui" (Boredom)
11.Walter Richard Sickert	

12.Graham Sutherland 13.Ben Nicholson	k. ”The Awakening Conscience” l. ”Mrs. Siddons as the Tragic Muse” m. ”The Fighting Temeraire”

Lecture 6

THE USA. GEOGRAPHY

Plan

6.1. Geographical position and size
6.2. Surface
6.3. Rivers, lakes and bays
6.4. Climate
6.5. Mineral resources
6.6. Animal life
6.7. Plant life
6.8. National preserves

Pronunciation Guide

Alaska [ə`læskə]	Mexico [`meksikəʊ]
Aleutian [ə`lu:ʃn]	Michigan [`miʃigən]
Appalachian [ˌæpə`leiʧjn]	Minneapolis [ˌmini`æpəlis]
Arizona [ˌærə`zəʊnə]	Missouri [mi`zuəri]
Arkansas [`ɑ:kənsɔ:]	Mojave [mə`hɑ:vi]
California [ˌkælə`fɔ:njə]	Montana [mɔn`tænə]
Canada [`kænədə]	Navajo [`nævəhəʊ]
Cascade [kæ`skeid]	Nevada [nə`vɑ:də]
Chesapeake [`ʧesəpi:k]	Niagara [nai`ægərə]
Colorado [ˌkɔlə`rɑ:dəʊ]	Ohio [əʊ`haiəʊ]
Columbia [kə`lʌmbiə]	Ontario [ɔn`teəriəʊ]
Cordillera [kɔ:di`ljeərə]	Phoenix [`fi:niks]
Delaware [`delәwɛə]	Piedmont [`pi:dmɔnt]
Erie [`iəri]	Potomac [pə`təʊmək]
Florida [`flɔridə]	Puerto Rico [ˌpwɛ:tə`ri:kəʊ]
Hawaii [hə`waiji]	Rio Grande [ˌri:əʊ`grænd]
Hudson [`hʌdsn]	Salton [`sɔ:ltən]
Huron [`hjʊərən]	Samoa [sə`məʊə]
Los Angeles [lɔs`æŋgəli:z]	Sierra Nevada [si`erənə`və:də]
Louisiana [luˌi:zi`ænə]	Superior [sʊ`piəriə]
Marianas [ˌmæri`ɑ:nə]	Tennessee [ˌteni`si:]

Massachusetts ["mxsq`CHsIts]	Texas [`teksqs]
Mauna Kea ["maVnq`keIq]	Utah [`jHtQ:]
Mauna Loa ["maVnq`lqVq]	Yukon [`ju:kPn]

6.1. Geographical position and size

The United States of America is a federal republic comprising 50 states and the District of Columbia, the seat of the federal government.

The United States of America is situated in the central part of North America. It occupies an area of 9.4 million square kilometers, making it the fourth largest in the world (after Russia, Canada and China). It stretches for 2,575 kilometers from north to south, and for 4,500 kilometers from east to west.

The country is washed by two oceans – the Atlantic in the east and the Pacific in the west. The warm waters of the Gulf of Mexico in the south wash the USA. In the southwest it borders on Mexico and in the north on Canada. This part of the country consisting of older 48 states and the District of Columbia is collectively referred to as the conterminous United States.

There are two more states located separately from the main territory – Alaska and Hawaii. The state of Alaska occupies the northwestern projection of North America. It borders on Canada in the west and is washed by the Pacific Ocean, Bering Sea, and Bering Strait and the Arctic Ocean. It includes the islands adjacent to it and also the Aleutian Islands. The area of Alaska is 1.5 million square kilometers (16% of the US territory). Purchased by the USA from Russia in 1867, Alaska obtained statehood in 1958. The conterminous United States and the state of Alaska are collectively referred to as the continental United States.

The state of Hawaii, which was admitted as the 50th state of the USA in 1959, is in the Pacific Ocean, halfway between the continents of America and Asia. The area of the Hawaiian Islands is 16.7 thousand square kilometers (less than 0.2 % of the US territory).

In addition to the 50 US states and the District of Columbia, there are also several US territories and associated states. Inhabitants of some of these areas are US nationals, others are US citizens, and still others citizens of independent republics with governmental ties to the US. The most well known of the US territories are Puerto Rico, the US Virgin Islands (located in the Caribbean Sea), Guam, American Samoa, and the Northern Mariana Islands (located in the Pacific Ocean).

6.2. Surface

The United States landscape varies greatly. In general, the eastern part of the country is mostly low plain and the west is mountainous. As to its surface, the US may be divided into the following 5 divisions:

(1) The Atlantic and Gulf Coastal Plain
(2) The Appalachian Mountains
(3) The Interior Plain
(4) The Cordilleran, or Western Mountains
(5) The Pacific Slope

The Atlantic Coastal Plain expands in the north and adjoins the Gulf Coastal Plain and the lowlands of the Peninsula of Florida. It is narrower in the north and becomes wider toward the south. This coastal plain covers about 10% of the country's total land area.

The Appalachian Mountains stretch along the Atlantic Coastal Plain almost from the Gulf of Mexico into Canada. They are ancient strongly eroded mountains. Their highest peak is Mitchell (2,037 meters above the sea level).

The Appalachian Mountains are made up of four belts. They run roughly side by side in a north-south direction from New England to Alabama. In the east lies a transitional zone, the Piedmont Plateau, which has elevations ranging from approximately 100 to 300 m above sea level. The Green Mountains, the White Mountains, and the Berkshire Hills are found in New England. Farther south lies the Blue Ridge. To the west of it is a hilly region called the Ridge and Valley Province, about 40-120 km wide. Farther west are the Appalachian Plateaus where local relief commonly exceeds 500 m.

The Interior Plain is the chief agricultural section of the country. It stretches from the Appalachian Mountains westward to the edge of the Rocky Mountains. It extends north to the southern boundaries of Canada.

The Interior Plain has a generally fertile soil, except in the highland areas. It is generally good for farming, except for some parts of the northern plain which are too rough and rocky, or too sandy and swampy for good farming land.

The Cordillera mountain system located in the west of the country is composed of lofty mountain ranges and intermountain plateaus. The system includes three separate divisions.

The Rocky Mountains, the first subdivision of the Cordilleran Mountains, form the eastern chain of the Cordilleras. The Rockies form the continental water divide. The streams on one side of this divide flow into the Atlantic. Those on the other side of this divide flow to the Pacific. The Rockies are young mountains: of the same age as the Alps in Europe, the Himalayas in Asia, and the Andes in South America. Like these ranges, they are high, rough and irregular in shape. They have stony, almost woodless slopes and craggy peaks. Scattered settlements have developed on occasional small areas of level valley land and around mineral deposits. But most of the region is thinly settled because of the wild high mountains.

The second division of the Cordilleran Mountains is ***the Sierra Nevada-Cascade range***, which extends from the Canadian boundary southward through Washington, Oregon, and California almost to the Mexican border. This is the western chain of the Cordilleras which forms an almost unbroken mountain wall between inland United

States and the Pacific coast land. It includes the low Coast Ranges and the two higher ranges – the Cascade Range and the Sierra Nevada. The Cascade Range abounds in waterfalls or cascades. The peaks of the Sierra Nevada are covered with perennial snow. The highest peak of the USA outside of Alaska – Whitney (4,418 meters above the sea level) is in the Sierra Nevada.

The region is not good for growing crops because of the steep high mountains and valleys. But there are great forests in the Cascades and large deposits of mineral resources in the Sierra Nevada. Important lumbering and mining industries have developed here.

The third subdivision of the Cordilleran Mountains is made up of ***high plateaus***, topped by scattered mountain ranges that lie between the Rockies and the Sierra-Nevada-Cascade Ranges. These plateaus are great steppelike tablelands through which the Colorado River has carved deep canyons. The most famous of these is the Great Canyon in northwestern Arizona.

To the south-west of the plateaus is the Basin and Range Province. It consists of a large number of closed desert basins containing playa, or ephemeral lakes, and separated by equally numerous rocky and mountainous ridges. In the south there is a lower area also without exterior drainage.

The Pacific Slope stretches between the Cordilleras and the Pacific Ocean. It includes the Pacific valleys and the Coast Ranges. The valleys are made up of rich, flat plains where some of the chief cities of the western coast have developed. These include Seattle and Tacoma, Washington, Portland, Oregon; Sacramento and Fresno, California.

The Coast Ranges lie west of the Pacific valleys, at the edge of the Pacific Ocean. One of the few coastal plains is taken up by the city of Los Angeles and surrounding towns and cultivated lands. In central California the greatest cities of San Francisco and Oakland have developed.

Alaska is a mountainous state with the Brooks Range in the north and the Alaska Range in the south; they are separated by the valley of the Yukon. The Alaska Range contains the highest point in North America, Mount McKinley (6,193 meters above the sea level).

The Hawaii consists of several islands which are tops of volcanic mountains. Mauna Kea, the extinct volcano, is the highest (4,205 meters). The biggest active volcano Mauna Loa (4,170 m) is located on Hawaii, the south-easternmost island.

6.3. Rivers, lakes, and bays

The United States has many thousands of streams. Some of these are mighty rivers, which cross the state and even international boundaries. Others are tiny streamlets that rise in spring and disappear in summer.

The Mississippi is one of the world's great continental rivers, like the Amazon in South America, the Congo in Africa, the Volga in Europe, or the Ganges, Amur, and Yangtze in Asia. Its waters are gathered from two-thirds of the United States. Together with *the Missouri* (its chief western tributary), the Mississippi flows some 6,400 kilometers from its northern sources in the Rocky Mountains to the Gulf of Mexico,

which makes it one of the world's largest waterways. The Mississippi is navigable to Minneapolis, nearly 1,200 miles by air from the Gulf of Mexico. Together with the Great Lakes – St Lawrence system it forms the world's greatest network of inland waterways.

Other tributaries are *the Ohio, the Arkansas, the Tennessee*, and *the Red River*.

Where the Missouri pours into the Mississippi from the west, it colors the river deep brown with the small pieces of soil. Further downstream, the clear waters of the principal eastern tributary, the Ohio, join the Mississippi. For kilometers, the waters of the two rivers flow on side by side, without mixing. Those from the west are brown; the waters from the east are clear and blue.

The Mississippi is a swift, deep and wide river. In spring and sometimes in summer the river overflows its banks and floods erosive areas.

The Gulf Coastal area, which lies outside the Mississippi basin, is drained by *the Rio Grande, the Brazos, the Colorado* and by a number of shorter rivers. The Rio Grande, which rises in the Rocky Mountains, is about 3,200 kilometers long. It forms most of the border between the United States and Mexico, which together have built irrigation flood projects of mutual benefit.

The great North-American Plateau is cut through by large rivers – *the Colorado River* in the south and *the Columbia River* in the north. Both of them rise in the Rocky Mountains and empty into the Pacific Ocean. These rivers flow down deep river valleys, or canyons (gorges). The perpendicular walls of the Grand Canyon of the Colorado River rise to the height of 1,800 meters above the level of the river. The chief tributary of the Columbia River is *the Snake*. The Colorado and the Columbia River are navigable only in their lower reaches, but just as other rivers of the West they present important sources of water power and irrigation. The largest hydro-power stations of the USA are built on the Colorado and Columbia Rivers. *The Sacramento River* drains the great interior valley and northern California.

The desert area in southwest known as the Great Basin has no surface drainage to the sea. Its rivers seem to go nowhere; this region is so dry that the rivers evaporate or sink into sands before they can reach the sea. Much of the time they are simply dry beds. But after the sudden desert storms they become savage and dangerous torrents.

Many short rivers that rise east of the Appalachian Mountains flow into the Atlantic Ocean, among them *the Hudson River* at the mouth of which New York is situated and *the Potomac* on whose banks Washington, D.C., is situated.

The largest river of Alaska is *the Yukon*, which rises in the Canadian Rockies and flows into the Bering Sea.

The United States has thousands of lakes of all kinds and sizes. *The Great Lakes* make up the largest group of lakes in the country, as well as the greatest collection of fresh-water lakes in the world. Only Lake Michigan lies entirely inside the United States. Lake Superior, Lake Huron, Lake Erie and Lake Ontario form a border between the United States and Canada. They stretch for 1,600 miles from east to west. This is nearly half the distance across the country. The Lakes are interconnected by short rivers and channels. The Erie Canal, joining Lake Erie with the Hudson River as well as St Lawrence River flowing from Lake Ontario, connects the Great Lakes with the Atlantic Ocean. Between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario, on the Niagara River which links the two

lakes, are the powerful Niagara Falls, precipitating from a height of almost 30 meters; the waterpower of the falls drives the generators of large hydro-power stations.

There are thousands of tiny lakes in the northeast of the United States. Another region of many lakes lies along the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic shore. There are hundreds of small lakes and lagoons deep in the dark coastal swamps, or protected behind sandy coastal dunes. These coastal lakes were formed in recent geological times when the ocean floor gradually rose out of the sea to become the coastal plain.

A fourth group of lakes lies west of the Rocky Mountains. Some of these lakes are high in the mountains, in the crater pits of inactive volcanoes or in other deep depressions. Others spread out as shallow sheets of salty water across salt-covered depressions on the western desert plains. The most famous of these salty lakes are *the Great Salt Lake* in Utah, and *the Salton Sea*, which lies about 240 feet below the sea level, in southern California.

Most of the desert lakes are small. The size of each lake generally varies with the amount of local rainfall. Some of the lakes dry up completely for months at a time. The salt, potash, and borax which most of the desert lakes contain make up their only commercial value. But the mountain lakes in this western region are gleaming and beautiful, and have great scenic attractions.

Great bays cut deeply into parts of the United States coast line and reach inland for many miles. There is an almost continuous series of bays along the Atlantic Coast from Massachusetts to North Carolina. These include *Boston Bay, Cape Cod Bay, Long Island Sound, New York Bay, Delaware Bay* and others. Many of the deep inlets form excellent harbors. Some of the country's most important ports lie near the heads of this bays. These ports include Boston, New York City, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Newfolk.

The South Atlantic and Gulf coasts have fewer bays than the North Atlantic coast. Many of the southern bays have been cut off from the ocean by long sand bars which the ocean waves and currents have built up across the mouths of the bays. But harbors have been dredged out and deepened at a number of southern ports. These include Charleston, Tampa, Mobile and Corpus Christi. Here the harbors are deep enough for ocean-going vessels. The southern coasts also have important coastal river ports, which include Savannah, Jacksonville, New Orleans and Houston.

The Pacific Coast has the fewest bays of any part of the United States coast line. The City of Los Angeles has built an artificial bay to form a harbor for its ocean trade.

6.4. Climate

The United States has many kinds of climate. The weather ranges from the warm wet conditions of the Appalachian Mountains to the desert conditions of some of the western states. It varies from almost winterless climate in southern Arizona and southern Florida to long cold winters in the Dakotas and Montana.

The north of the USA lies within the zone of moderate climate, while the south in the zone of subtropical climate.

The climate of the country is greatly affected by the air masses from the Arctic Ocean, as well as the masses of warm air which come from the Gulf of Mexico. The mountain ranges of the USA which stretch from north to south afford no protection against the cold winds from the north; this accounts for the country's climate, the winter in particular being notably colder than the climate of Western Europe or North Africa in the same latitudes.

The country's rainfall also varies greatly from place to place. The northeastern coast and the Gulf Coast receive large amounts of rain and have a humid climate.

The Cascade Mountains and the Sierra Nevada Mountains are so close to the west coast that they catch the largest share of the rain off the Pacific Ocean before it can go further inland. As a result, there is too little rain for almost the whole western part of the United States, which lies in the "rain shadow" of the mountains. In a great part of this territory, therefore, farmers must depend on the irrigation water from the snows or rains that are trapped by the mountains.

One of the most important geographical boundaries in the United States is the 50-centimeter rainfall line, which runs north and south almost through the middle of the country. East of the line, farming is relatively easy, and the population is relatively large. West of the line, one finds man-made irrigation systems, dairy farming, grazing and few people. West of the Rocky Mountains, running all the way from the Canadian border, there are vast areas where almost no trees grow. In this section of the country are deserts which receive as little as 12.7 centimeters of rainfall a year.

In spite of these variations it is possible to distinguish eight climatic regions.

The north of the Atlantic Coastal Plain has a moderate *continental-forest climate*. The winter is cool with abundant snowfalls. The summer is warm and rainy. The average temperature in New York is 0º C in January and 22º C in July.

Small areas along the southern shores of the Great Lakes and the north and middle Atlantic coast have a *modified continental climate*.

Most of the rest of the country from New York State to the Great Lakes south and to the Gulf Coast has a *moderate continental-forest climate*.

Florida and the Gulf Coastal Plain enjoy a *subtropical climate*. The cold north winds reach these areas seldom, and, on the other hand, the influence of the Gulf Stream and the warm Gulf of Mexico tells much stronger. The short and warm winters followed by warm and long summers, abundant precipitation and cloudless skies for the most part of the year favor the cultivation of cotton, rice, sugar-cane, and in Florida – of lemon and orange trees.

The north of the Great Central Plain and the Plateau of Prairies is a semi-arid grassland region with a cool *steppe climate* in the north and a warm steppe climate in the south. The summer is hot and the winter severe and almost snowless. The Great lakes are ice-bound for a period of three or four months. The weather is very unstable; biting frosts and thaws come in quick succession; downpours occurring after a long drought cause disastrous floods; after a period of calm weather destructive hurricanes sweep down the country. All this happens due to a collision of the northern cold masses with the southern warm ones.

The climate and the soil conditions of the Great Central Plain and the eastern part of the Plateau of Prairies favor the cultivation of wheat and maize in the north and of cotton in the south.

The territory west of the Rocky Mountains has a *desert climate* with little rainfall. In this section of the country there are vast areas where almost no trees grow. They receive as little as 12.7 centimeters of rainfall a year. Phoenix, Arizona, exemplifies the desert climate, with an annual average temperature of 70º F, and with annual rainfall of 7.5 inches.

The northwestern coast has a *marine climate*, with cool summers, mild winters, and heavy rainfall.

The southwestern part of the country has *Mediterranean climate*, with short cool winters and long, hot, dry summers. Typical of this climate is Stockton, California.

The islands of Hawaii enjoy a *tropical climate*, the temperature there usually remains close to the annual average of + 24ºC.

Alaska is partly cold-wet and partly cold-dry. Much of the northern half lying above the Arctic Circle is permanently frozen. The temperature may drop as low as -43ºC in some places, the record is 62º below zero.

6.5. Mineral resources

The United States has large reserves of all widely used minerals except tin. These minerals include coal, petroleum, natural gas, iron, copper, bauxite (the ore of aluminum), lead, zinc, stone and many others. The country produces enough of these minerals to supply all its own needs and to ship to other countries as well.

The US is the world's largest petroleum-producing nation. Most of the petroleum and natural gas deposits are located on the flanks of the Cordillera, in California, the Gulf of Mexico, Louisiana and Oklahoma. The principal coalfields are in the eastern United States, the main producing areas being in the Appalachians and in Wyoming. The principal iron deposits are located in the ancient rocks of the Canadian Shield close to the Lake Superior and Lake Michigan. Other deposits are mined in the Birmingham district on the Alabama coalfield, and rich magnetite ores are worked in Pennsylvania and in the Adirondack Mountains (New York State).

The main supplies of the other metallic minerals are drawn either from the Mountain States or from the Ozarks. The outstanding contributors are Colorado, Utah, Arizona and Idaho, but all the western states except Oregon are of importance.

Non-metallic minerals are especially important in the Gulf States, which yield not only petroleum and natural gas, but also sulphur and helium. Tennessee and Florida account for most of phosphates, New Mexico and California for the bulk of the potash. Both these minerals are important sources of agricultural fertilizers.

6.6. Animal life

Many native species were hunted to extinction or near extinction, among them the American bison, which now rarely lives outside of zoos and wildlife preserves.

The bald eagle is the official national bird of the United States of America. It can be seen on 25-cent coins and dollar bills, in 1782 it was adopted as the nation's symbol. It is the only eagle unique to North America. The bald eagle once lived in many of the forest areas of the US from Florida to Alaska, but it is now becoming rare.

Another impressive bird is the California condor, a prehistoric, carrion-eating bird that weighs 10 kg and has a wingspan over 2.9 m. Condors were virtually extinct by the 1980s but now their population is being restored.

The buffalo once lived in great numbers on the central plains of America. But in the 19th century most of the buffalo were hunted and killed for food, hides, and sport. Now there are only a few small groups of buffalo in zoos and parks.

Widespread animals include the white-tailed Virginia deer and black bear, the puma and bobcat, the river otter and mink, and the beaver and muskrat. The coyote ranges over all of western North America. The coyote looks like a mixture of a fox and a dog. It lives in the dry western deserts and plains, and it hunts small animals. The snapping turtle ranges from the Atlantic coast to the Rocky Mountains. The cougar, or mountain lion, and the bobcat are large cat-like animals. They are found in the deserts and mountains of the United States.

In the northern coniferous forest zone the moose, beaver, hare, red fox, wolverine and wolf can be found. Beavers are furry animals with large front teeth. They look rather like large rats, but have large flat tails. The smooth brown fur of the beaver was once very fashionable for hats. Hunters traveled all over the northern US to catch beavers.

There are many kinds of bears in America, including the brown bear, the California black bear, and the grizzly. Grizzly, or brown, bears are one of North America's largest land mammals. Male grizzlies can stand 2 m tall, weigh up to half a ton. Most of them live now in Alaska, the population in the lower 48 states is around 1200.

Black bears still live nearly everywhere. They are smaller than grizzlies and are very adaptable. Black bears enjoy an almost mythical status in America because of their intelligence. Indeed, they can become so comfortable with humans that national parks like Yosemite and Yellowstone have a constant problem with black bears poaching campsites and cars for food.

The hardwood forest areas of the eastern and southeastern pineland are rich in the white-tailed deer, the black bear, the gray fox, the raccoon and the opossum. The opossum is the only North American animal that has a bag in which it carries its young. The opossum can make use of almost any dark hole to hide, it can "play possum" (pretend to be dead). Its food is mainly fruit and berries. Grassland animals include the pronghorn, or prongbuck which represents an intermediate between the deer and the antelope so that it sheds its horns like a deer but retains the bony horn cores.

Rodents include the prairie dog, the American badger, and the prairie chicken. The burrowing pocket gopher is peculiarly American.

The southwestern deserts are a paradise for reptiles (lizards, rattlesnakes).

The Rocky Mountains are the home for hoofed animals and rodents (pikas, marmots, mountain sheep, goats, antelopes).

Alligators and crocodiles live in the west areas of the southeastern US. The crocodile lives in coastal areas; the alligator lives in rivers and swamps. Alligator skin was used to make handbags and shoes, but now there is a law against alligator hunting in the US.

Alaska's wild life is very diverse. You can see thousands of caribou crossing the flat grasslands of the north, and huge grizzly bear in the forests. In the fall, salmon swims up the Chilkat River and bald eagles gather in the trees above.

As for marine life, gray, humpback and blue whales migrate annually along the Pacific Coast, making whale-watching very popular. The Pacific Coast is also home to elephant seals, sea lions and sea otters. Hawaii and the Florida are famous for coral reefs and tropical fish. The coast of Florida is also home to the unusual, gentle manatee (or sea cow), which moves between freshwater rivers and the ocean. They measure up to 4 m long, weigh as much as 590 kg. These creatures may have once been mistaken for mermaids.

6.7. Plant life

The United States is very rich in forests containing a great variety of trees. When the first Europeans entered America about half of the present area of the United States was forest-covered. Many of the forests were ruthlessly destroyed during the period of colonization. Trees had to be cut down to prepare the land for farming and to provide shelter and fuel. In addition, the pioneers traveled in wooden boats and wooden wagons, drawn over wooden roads and bridges. They used wood for their houses, furniture and tools.

As America grew, the need for timber increased, and by the time settlers reached the Midwest, industry needed wood in vast quantities. What was not at first realized was that a forest is more than a collection of trees. It is a complex community of plants and animal life. Each tree must have sunlight, moist rich soil and enough space for its roots. At the same time, it is a source of food for birds and animals, and it protects the soil from erosion. By absorbing rainwater and slowing the melting snow in the spring, it lessens the danger of floods and regulates the flow of streams.

About the beginning of the 20^{th} century, the national government became concerned about the disappearing forests and, in 1905, created the Forest Service in the Department of Agriculture, giving it three major responsibilities: to manage the national forests for the public welfare; to cooperate with states and with the owners of the private forestlands to prevent and control fires, plant trees, improve water-sheds and fight insects and diseases; and to undertake research in forest management, use and protection.

Forests cover one third of the US territory. Because environmental conditions differ from one part to another, the character of the forested area also varies. There are different forest regions.

Coniferous forests of white and red pine, hemlock, spruce, jack pine and balsam fir extend interruptedly in a narrow strip near the Canadian border from Maine to Minnesota and southward along the Appalachian Mountains.

In southeastern states the deciduous trees (maples, oaks, beeches and tulip trees) are intermingled with dark pines; it provides a spectacular display when the leaves turn to brilliant colors in the fall. Southward, a transitive zone of mixed conifers and deciduous trees gives way to a hardwood forest. This zone extends from New England to Missouri and eastern Texas.

Pines are prominent on the Atlantic and Gulf Coastal Plain. In the frequent swamps the bald cypress, tupelo and white cedar predominate. Pines, palmettos and oaks are replaced at the southern tip of Florida by the more tropical royal and thatch palms, figs, satinwood and mangroves.

In the southern shores of the Great Lakes there are forests of maple, birch and oak trees as well as pines, firs and spruces. Many farms here grow Christmas trees to supply the markets in the cities of the region.

The Great Plains had no forests, only clumps of trees such as cottonwood and willows. In the Great Plains numerous grasses, such as buffalo, needle, and wheat grass, together with many kinds of herbs make up the plant cover.

Coniferous forests cover the mountains and plateaus of the Rockies, Cascades and Sierra Nevada. Ponderosa (yellow) pine, Douglas fir, western red cedar, white pine, several species of spruces, western hemlock, grand fir and red fir are the principal trees of these forests.

The forests of the Pacific area contain such valuable trees as sequoia, redwood, western hemlock, red cedar and spruce. Conditions in this part of the country are almost ideal for trees. Most winds from the Pacific bring rainfalls. The moderate temperatures of the marine climate enable the trees to grow nearly all year long.

Various kinds of lumber are produced from the Douglas fir as well as plywood and pulp.

In northwestern California there is a famous forest of redwood trees. They are considered to be the highest trees in the world. Some of them are thousand years old and to preserve them the Save-the-Redwood League was established in the state of California. A species of redwood called giant sequoias grows on the western slopes of the Sierra Nevada. The Sequoia National Park is protected by the state. The general Sherman Tree is one of the oldest.

The desert, extending from the southeastern California to Texas, is noted for the many species of cactus, some of which grow to the height of trees, and for Joshua tree and acacias.

6.8. National preserves

There are 191 National Parks in the USA. The land in the national parks belongs to the federal government which bought the area from the state or private individuals. The government protects the plants and animals native to each national park area. No rancher, miner, hunter or logger may use its meadows, trees or wildlife, except under strict controls.

The parks are under the jurisdiction of the national Park Service, whose rangers protect the areas, guide visitors through the parks and lecture on the natural phenomena

so that the visitor can more fully enjoy the natural monumental scenery, wild animals and plants. Within the parks there are campgrounds, cabins and motels available to the approximately 180 million annual visitors.

Some parks are famous for their scenery; others have special significance for students of geology or cultural anthropology. For example, *Mesa Verde National Park* is a tableland about 24 kilometers long and 13 kilometers wide, rising 600 meters out of the valley below. It contains the cliff dwellings of some America's earliest known Indian tribes.

The first national park, founded in 1872, was *Yellowstone*, in the state of Wyoming. The name Yellowstone was given to the area of the present-day park by the Native Americans, who lived there centuries ago. The name was given because of the colour of the canyon walls, which are tinged with yellow.

Originally the area was set aside to protect its unique thermal features such as the geysers, which are springs that periodically shoot up streams of hot water. Today the park is also known for the abundance of wildlife within park boundaries, the recreational opportunities it provides to nature lovers, and its breathtaking scenery. Yellowstone has everything which appeals to the romantic: geysers which shoot jets of boiling water 200 feet up into the air, a deep canyon where a rushing river pours over mighty waterfalls. Yellowstone has more thermal activity than any other place in the world. There are 10,000 hot springs, which pour up through the surface of the earth: colorful hot pools, mud cauldrons, hot rivers and geysers. In the park there are approximately 200 geysers, which erupt to heights of 100 feet and more. Yellowstone's most famous geyser is Old Faithful. It got its name because it is so reliable: it erupts about every 70 minutes. Mud pots, another result of thermal activity, are bubbling, boiling pools of mud.

There are snowy mountain peaks, tree-fringed lakes and vast meadows across which the Yellowstone River glides gently on its way to the canyon. The majority of the forested area of the Yellowstone national Park is made up of pine trees, though there are other species like cottonwoods and aspens. During the summer months when wild flowers are blossoming, the landscape is spread with a vibrant array of color. The trees and plants are not there only for the appreciation of the park's many visitors. The vegetation also provides food and shelter for the animals that call Yellowstone home. On these meadows buffalos, elk, moose, deer, coyotes and lynxes come to graze in the evening. Grizzly, or the brown bear, is the largest and most ferocious carnivore (flesh eater) in the world. Grizzlies are now rare, but there are more than 250 of them in Yellowstone. There are hundreds of different species of birds living in Yellowstone, as well as fish populating the lakes and streams.

In 1988 a natural disaster threatened the existence of this magnificent realm. A series of disastrous fires spread across 990,000 acres of the park. Fortunately, the beauty here could not be destroyed by fire. Life in Yellowstone renewed itself and the park once again became a place where tourists will marvel and where wildlife will thrive.

The Grand Canyon is one of the greatest natural wonders of the world. It is located in northwestern Arizona. The Colorado River formed the Grand Canyon over millions of years. Today, the canyon is one mile deep and 277 miles long. The width varies from six hundred feet to eighteen miles across. Cottonwood and willow trees grow at the

bottom of the canyon. Many varieties of cactus grow here as well. Bobcats, coyotes, kangaroo rats and deer are some of the animals that live in the canyon. The canyon looks different at different times of day, and in different seasons and weather. At sunrise and sunset the red, gold, brown, and orange colors of the rock are especially clear and bright. In winter, the canyon is partly covered with snow. Many tourists come to the canyon just to watch the rocks change the color. Tourists can walk down into the Grand Canyon, or go down on the back of a mule. They can also take a boat trip down the Colorado River, and camp on the beaches at night. Today about 4 million visitors come to the Grand Canyon each year. Whether it is by mule, on foot or by boat, seeing the Grand Canyon is always a breathtaking and unforgettable experience.

Among the various rock formations there is evidence that ancient tribes once inhabited the deepest parts of the gorge. Stone ruins located in the cliffs reveal the existence of a culture over 4,000 years old.

Sequoia National Park in California contains sequoia redwoods, probably the tallest living things on earth. Redwood trees are some of the oldest living things on this planet today. The "General Sherman" tree is probably 3,500 years old. It is 272 feet high and 37 feet across. Just one hundred years ago there were redwood forests for hundreds of miles along the Pacific coast north of San Francisco. But 90% of the trees have been cut down in recent years. Now only a few redwood forests remain in California and Oregon, and even these are in danger.

Yosemite became a national park in 1890. The sides of the U-shaped valley are tall cliffs of gray rock. The biggest rocks, such as Cathedral Rock, El Capitan, and the Three Sisters, are named for their unusual shapes. The peaceful Merced River runs through the valley, and tall redwood trees grow there. Deer, brown bears, and many other wild animals live there. Waterfalls drop down into the valley from the mountains above. Yosemite falls is the highest waterfall in North America. In the high country, there are grassy meadows and wild flowers in summer. It snows heavily in winter and mountains are white and silent.

Death Valley in California covers nearly 3,000 square miles, approximately 555 square miles are below the surface of the sea. One point is 282 feet below sea level – the lowest point in the Western hemisphere. It is also one of the hottest places in the world. The highest temperature ever recorded there was 134 degree Fahrenheit. This is the highest ever recorded in the Western Hemisphere. Yet despite its name and bad reputation, Death Valley is not just an empty wilderness of sand and rock. It is a place of spectacular scenic beauty and home to plants, animals, and even humans. There are 55 species of mammals, 32 kinds of birds, 36 kinds of reptiles, and 3 kinds of amphibians. At night, the desert becomes a center of animal activity. Owls hunt for mice, bats gather insects, little kit foxes are looking for food, accompanied by snakes, hawks, coyotes, and bobcats. Many of these animals, like the desert plants, have adapted to the dry desert.

Going to Death Valley once meant danger, hardship, and even death. Today visitors can drive there in air-conditioned comfort and admire the beauty of this strange land.

The mysterious *Okefenokee Swamp* is located in southeastern Georgia. It covers over 660 square miles. The Native Americans named the swamp Okefenokee, from a

native word meaning “Land of the Trembling Earth”, because on many of the smaller islands the trees and plants shook when people walked on the ground. For most people the swamp was a dark, enchanted place, full of mystery, superstitions, and danger. But there was a small group of Georgia pioneers who made the swamp their home. Far from civilization, they developed a unique way of life with their own customs and speech. They became known as *“swampers”*. They fished and hunted for food. There were plenty of animals to hunt, such as deer, wild ducks, rabbits, wild turkey, squirrels, bears, cougars, and alligators. Music was an important part of life in the swamp. They played their fiddles and banjos, and sang and danced. Today, most of the swamp is a national wildlife refuge.

The Everglades, a swampy, partly forested region in southern Florida, are often described as a nature-lover’s paradise. The musky smell of the mangrove swamps, the bite of a mosquito and the sight of the glades reaching to the horizon are all traits of this 1,398,800-acre wonderland. This heaven for plant and animal life became a national wildlife refuge in 1934. The vast land of the park contains areas of dense tree growth, such as pine and mangrove forest. The trees are famous for their abundant, interlacing aboveground roots. Of all the park’s forests, the mangroves are the most interesting. The mangrove family of trees can reach a height of up to 70 to 80 feet. In smaller areas there are stunted cypress forests, pineland and hardwood hummocks.

The rich dense forests of the Everglades provide safe homes for animals such as cougars and raccoons, while alligators, otters and crocodiles inhabit the nearby fresh and salt water. The park is also home to thousands of species of birds. Magnificent birds like the white pelican and the great white heron provide unforgettable sights as they soar proudly over their domain. Other birds frequently seen here include great blue herons, snowy egrets and water turkeys. The park is also a refuge for endangered species of birds such as bold eagles, brown pelicans and Cape Sable sparrows. Under close protection, the numbers of such species remain steady or, as in the case of the splendid roseate spoonbill, are increasing.

National Mammoth Cave Park, Kentucky, is the world’s most extensive cave system, with 345 miles of passages. Water seeping into the cave creates stalactites and stalagmites. Rare and unusual animals, such as blindfish and colorless spiders, demonstrate adaptation to the absolute blackness and isolation.

Olympic National Park, Washington, encompasses snow-capped Mount Olympus, glaciers, alpine meadows, and rocky Pacific Mountain coastline, but also one of the few temperate rain forests in the world.

There are several very large national parks in Alaska Mountain.

Glacier Bay National Park and Preserve is made up of a huge chain of great glaciers and a dramatic range of landscapes, from rocky terrain covered by ice to lush rain forests. Brown and black bears, mountain goats, whales (including humpbacks), seals and eagles can be found within the park.

The national parks are run by the National Park Ranger Service. The rangers are men and women with special qualities, for they are not only conservationists. They also have to look after the visitors. They act as guides and must be ready to answer quite learned questions on the plants, animals and geology of the parks. In addition they are trained policemen and policewomen qualified to use guns, though they keep these

weapons out of sight in their cars, not wishing to spoil their friendly image with the public. Rangers must be ready to deal with emergencies of all kinds. They frequently have to rescue inexperienced climbers stuck half way up a mountain rock face.

Glossary

adjacent, adj. – having a common endpoint or border

caribou, n. – a large deer in taiga and tundra, called also 'reindeer'

canyon (gorge), n. – a deep narrow valley with steep sides and often with a stream flowing through it

conifer, n. – a tree such as a pine or fir that has leaves like needles and produces brown cones that contain seeds. Most types of conifer keep their leaves in winter; ***coniferous, adj.*** – (e.g. *coniferous forests*)

deciduous, adj. – deciduous trees lose their leaves in winter; opp - ***evergreen***

deposit, n. – a layer of a mineral, metal etc that is left in soil or rocks through a natural process (e.g. *rich deposits of gold in the hills*)

depression, n. – low ground

extinct, adj. – no longer active or living

mangrove, n. – a tropical tree that grows in or near water and grows new roots from its branches: a mangrove swamp

perennial, adj. – present at all seasons of the year

plateau, n. – a large area of flat land that is higher than the land around it

ranger, n. – an officer charged with the patrolling and guarding of a forest, especially of a public forest

stalactite, n. – a sharp pointed object hanging down from the roof of a cave, which is formed gradually by water that contains minerals as it drops slowly from the roof

stalagmite, n. – a sharp pointed object coming up from the floor of a cave, formed by drops from a stalactite

swamp, n. – a wet land often partially and intermittently covered with water

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What is the geographical position of the USA? What is it washed by? 2. What countries does the USA border on? 3. What are the US surface divisions? 4. What is the chief agricultural section of the country? 5. What are the ancient strongly eroded mountains in the USA? 6. What mountains make the Continental Divide? 7. Are there active volcanoes in the US? 8. What are the subdivisions of the Cordilleran Mountains? 9. What is the highest peak in North America? 10. What is the largest river system in the USA? 11. Which river forms a part of the border between the USA and Mexico? 12. What are the Colorado and the Columbia Rivers famous for? 13. Where are the Great Lakes situated? Which of them lies entirely inside the US? 14. In which part of the USA are most of the lakes salty? 15. Why is the temperature difference between summer and winter so great in the Interior Plains? 16. What part of the country has the subtropical climate? 17. What are the largest mammals on the US territory? 18. What is the oldest national park in the US? 19. What national park is situated in the lowest area in western hemisphere? 20. What natural wonder was created by the Colorado River?

Task 2. Find the following towns on the map.

Atlanta, Boston, Denver, Des Moines, Honolulu, Los Angeles, New Orleans, Phoenix, Salt Lake City, West Point.

Using additional sources of information describe each of them according to the following plan:

- the region where it is located;
- relief characteristics of the area;
- the river it stands on;
- access to the sea / ocean;
- the climate it has and what natural features influence it;
- natural resources the region is rich in;
- industries that are developed there;
- population, its density and ethnical composition;
- tourist attractions that can be found in the vicinity.

Lecture 7

THE USA. HISTORY (Part I)

Plan

7.1. Pre-colonial America
7.2. Colonial America
7.3. American independence
7.4. Expansion and Civil War

Pronunciation Guide

Alabama [ˌælə'bæmə]	Iowa ['aɪəwə]
Al Capone [ˌælkə'pəʊn]	Iroquois ['ɪrəkwɔɪ]
Amerigo Vespucci [ˌæmə'rɪgəʊ ves'pu:tʃɪ]	Kentucky [kən'tʌkɪ]
Apache [ə'pætʃɪ]	Louisiana [luˌi:zɪ'ænə]
Arawaks ['ærəwæks]	Missouri [mɪ'zʊərɪ]
Arkansas ['ɑ:kənsɔ:]	Massachusetts [ˌmæsə'tʃu:sɪts]
Blackfoot ['blækfʊt]	Navajo ['nævəhəʊ]
Cherokee [ˌtʃerə'ki:]	Nebraska [nə'bræskə]
Chicago [ʃɪ'kɑ:gəʊ]	North Carolina ['nɔ:θ ˌkærə'laɪnə]
Chippewa ['tʃɪpəwɑ:]	Pennsylvania [ˌpensɪl'veɪnɪə]
Choctaw ['tʃɒktɔ:]	Philadelphia [ˌfɪlə'delfɪə]
Christopher Columbus ['krɪstəfə kə'lʌmbəs]	Plymouth ['plɪməθ]
	Pueblo ['pwebləʊ]
	Sioux [su:]

Dakota [dq`kqVtq]	Tennessee ["tenq`si:]
Georgia [`GLGJq]	Texas [`teksqs]
Haida [`haJdq]	Washington [`wPSJNtqn]

7.1. Pre-colonial America

For thousands of years America lay unknown beyond the western sea. Leif Erickson, a Viking sailor from Iceland, discovered the American continent first in the 10th century. He was probably the first European explorer to visit this continent, but his discoveries in those cold and wild regions were transitory and led to no permanent results.

Five hundred years later, *Christopher Columbus*, an Italian sailor in the service of Spain, sailed across the Atlantic Ocean to find a new way from Europe to Asia. On the morning of October 12, 1492 he discovered an island which later he named San Salvador – Holy Savior. Columbus believed that he had landed in the Indies, a group of islands close to the mainland of India. For this reason he called the brown-skinned people who greeted him Indians. In fact, he had reached an island off the shores of a new continent. Europeans would later name the new continent America, but for many years they went on calling its inhabitants Indians. Only recently have these first Americans been described more accurately as "Native Americans" or Amerindians.

Christopher Columbus died in 1506, still thinking that he was the discoverer of the sea route to Japan, still not understanding that he was the discoverer of a New World. Very soon his contemporaries no longer knew even the details of his discoveries. Another man gave the name to the new world that Columbus had found – *Amerigo Vespucci*, a Florentine pilot who made several voyages to the West, reaching the mainland of the yet unknown continent. Only the land that Vespucci really discovered on the north coast of South America bares today the name Columbia.

Europeans called America the New World. But it was not new to the Native Americans. Their ancestors had already been living there for about 50,000 years when Columbus stepped on the beach in San Salvador.

Based on anthropological and genetic evidence, scientists generally agree that most Native Americans descend from people who migrated from Siberia across the Bering Strait, at least 12,000 years ago. One result of these successive waves of migration is that large groups of Native Americans with similar languages and perhaps physical characteristics as well, moved into various geographic areas of North, and then later, Central and South America.

For many centuries early Americans lived as wandering hunters. Then a more settled way of life began. And they began to cultivate the wild grass and became farmers. They grew beans, squash and Indian corn, or maize.

The *Pueblo* people of the present-day Arizona and New Mexico were the best organized of the Amerindian farming people. They lived in groups of villages, or in towns that were built for safety on the sides and tops of cliffs. Irrigation made them successful as farmers. Long before Europeans came to America the Pueblo were building networks of canals across the deserts to bring water to their fields.

A people called the *Apache* were the neighbours of the Pueblo. The Apache never became settled farmers. They wandered the deserts and mountains in small bands, hunting deer and gathering wild plants, nuts and roots. They also obtained food by raiding their Pueblo neighbours and stealing it. The Apache were fierce and warlike, and they were much feared by the Pueblo.

The *Iroquois* were a group of tribes who lived far away from the Pueblo and the Apache in the thick woods of northeastern North America. Five tribes of Iroquois that lived on the territory of the present-day USA made a confederation – the League of Five nations. In the 16th century these tribes created a constitution and a governing council to deal with tribal matters that affected the entire confederation. Due to their efficient political and social organization, the Iroquois were studied and respected by the founding fathers of the United States. Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, and John Adams invited the Iroquois chiefs to attend the meetings that led to the Declaration of Independence in 1776. Eventually some of the Iroquois confederation's original laws – designed to serve, protect and resolve disputes within the entire confederation, while allowing each individual tribe to make local decisions – would prove to be models for the US Constitution.

Like the Pueblo, the Iroquois were skilled farmers. In fields cleared from the forests they worked together growing beans, squash and 12 different varieties of maize. They were also hunters and fishermen. They lived in communities, in long buildings that were used not only as homes but also for worship and community meetings.

The Iroquois were fierce warriors. From boyhood on, male Iroquois were taught to fear neither pain nor death. Bravery in battle was the surest way for a warrior to win respect and high position in its tribe.

Many miles to the west, on the vast plains of grass that stretched from the Mississippi river to the Rocky Mountains, there was another warrior nation. This group called themselves *Dakota*, which means "allies". But they were better known by the name that other Amerindians gave to them – *Sioux*, which means "enemies".

The Sioux grew no crops and built no houses. For food, for shelter and for clothing they depended upon the buffalo. Millions of these large, slow-moving animals wandered across the western grassland in vast herds. When the buffalo moved, the Sioux moved. Within hours they could take down their tepees, the conical buffalo-skin tents that were their homes, pack their belongings and move off after the buffalo.

To many people the tepee is a symbol of the Amerindian way of life. This large cone-shaped tent was invented by the buffalo hunters of the western grasslands. As many as 40 buffalo hides were sewn together to make the tepee. The outside of it was decorated with painted designs that had religious or historical meanings.

The lifestyle of the people of North America's northwest coast was different again. They gathered nuts and berries from the forests, but their main food was fish, especially the salmon of the rivers and the ocean. The abundance of food gave the tribes of the

Pacific coast time for feasting, for carving and for building. Tribes like the *Haida* lived in large houses built of wooden planks with elaborately carved gables and doorposts. The carvings on the totem pole were a record of the history of the family that lived in the house.

The Amerindian people of North America developed widely varied ways of life. All suited the natural environments in which the tribes lived, and lasted for many centuries. But the arrival of Europeans with their guns, their diseases and their hunger for land would eventually destroy them all.

The first Native American group encountered by Columbus, the 250,000 *Arawaks*, were violently enslaved. Only 500 survived by the year 1550, and the group was extinct before 1650.

Europeans also brought diseases against which the Native Americans had no immunity. Ailments such as chicken pox and measles, though common and rarely fatal among Europeans, often proved fatal to Native Americans. More dangerous diseases such as smallpox were especially deadly to Native American populations. Some historians estimate that up to 80% of some Native populations may have died due to European diseases.

7.2. Colonial America

Within a half-century of the discovery, the shores of North and South America were explored by travelers. The Portuguese established their trading posts in little forts, protected by armed guards. Spanish explorers settled in Florida and Mexico. French explorers sailed north. They discovered Canada. The English were among the latest to adventure to the New World.

People came to New World for many reasons. Four important reasons were: trade, religious freedom, political freedom, finding gold and silver.

The first permanent colony founded in America by Englishmen was *Virginia,* an enterprise of the Virginia Company, charted by James I and given a monopoly of the exploitation of the Atlantic coast of the present United States. The first settlement was in 1607 at Jamestown.

After Virginia, the most successful settlement was that of the "Pilgrim Fathers" in 1620. The Pilgrims were a group of English Protestant extremists who sailed to North America in search of a home where they could freely practice their religion and live according to their own Biblical laws. 102 Pilgrims aboard "The Mayflower" crossed the Atlantic and settled at *Plymouth* Colony at *Massachusetts*. Later they dismantled their ship, "The Mayflower", and used the timber for building a barn.

The Pilgrims did two important things: they celebrated the first *Thanksgiving* and wrote *the Mayflower Compact* in which they agreed to form a self-governing community. The Mayflower Compact was an official document that said:

- the people decide government rules,
- the people follow the majority (51%) decision.

The first Thanksgiving was celebrated in 1621. When the previous year the Pilgrims arrived to the new land it was too late to grow many crops; and without fresh

food, half the colony died from disease. The following spring, the Iroquois Indians taught them how to grow corn (maize), a new food for the colonists. They showed them other crops to grow in the unfamiliar soil and how to hunt and fish. In the autumn of 1621, bountiful crops of corn, barley, beans and pumpkins were harvested. Colonists planned a feast and invited the local Indian chief and ninety Indians. The tradition caught on and after the United States became an independent country, Congress recommended one yearly day of thanksgiving, for the whole nation to celebrate, thus it became an official state holiday.

Not far from the Pilgrims' colony there was a larger and more influential settlement of Massachusetts Bay, organized as a religious refuge for Puritans. Their immigration, which began in 1629, was skillfully organized and backed by adequate funds.

Besides people who came to the New World on their free will there was a category of people who were transported there by force – convicted prisoners. Queen Elizabeth I of England introduced the notion of punishing criminals by sending them to another country as early as 1619, it was intended to be an alternative to execution; it became a formal concept in 1717 with George III's *'Transportation Act'*. Between 1717 and 1775, when the American Revolution started, convicts were transported at the rate of about 1000 per year and all in all some 50,000 convicts from Britain were sent to America.

The settlements became the 13 colonies under British rule.

A great majority of colonists, probably 95%, supported themselves by agriculture. Most of others produced raw materials – fish, furs, lumber – for direct sale or for processing abroad. American social life was rural, family-centered and provincial. Nearly all people were seriously religious, although differing greatly in doctrine, from the conservative theology of Catholicism to the Quakers. There was religious tolerance; because there were so many creeds no one of them could be supreme. An early political document stressing religious tolerance in America was *"Fundamental Constitutions"*, drawn up for the governing of the *Carolinas* in 1669. It was the work of the English philosopher John Locke. The document combined liberal principles with religious tolerance. Although it never became law, it exercised a profound influence on colonial religion. *"Fundamental Constitutions"* provided that *"No person whatever shall disturb, molest or persecute another for his speculative opinions in religion or his way of worship".*

The culture of the people, despite their various origins, continued, especially in language and literature, to be British.

Journalism was one of the trades that followed the colonists to America. The first successful newspaper in the English colonies appeared on April 24, 1704. This was the Boston "News-Letter".

Education was an early concern of the colonists, mostly because it was believed necessary that everyone be able to read the Bible. In 1663, the first secondary school in America, the Boston Latin School, was established with a classical curriculum derived from English schools. Boston Latin School, the oldest public school in the US, is still in existence. By 1720, five public schools were maintained in Boston.

A leading figure in colonial literature was William Penn, one of the more unusual personalities among those who founded English colonies in America. The son of an English admiral, he became a Quaker in 1666, when he was 22. Two years later he was imprisoned for writing a religious tract. He immigrated to America and in 1681 founded what is now roughly the state of *Pennsylvania*. In 1682 Penn's *"Frame of Government"* was put into effect. An unusually liberal document, it provided for a governor, council and assembly to be elected by freeholders. The council had legislative, judicial and administrative powers.

The early colonists lived under two governments – their own local units and the imperial rule of the British. Every colony had a governor and some sort of a representative body. There were two types of democracy in the colonies. Some colonies, like Virginia, had representative assemblies. The settlers did not vote directly, they chose representatives to go to the assembly meetings. These people vote about laws for their colony. Other colonies, like Massachusetts, had direct democracies. They all voted about the laws for the town or colony.

7.3. American independence

Until the 1760s imperial government interfered very little with the concerns of local government in the colonies. It left them free to develop in their own way. The earliest colonists had a thriving economy. Most of the rice, indigo, tobacco, livestock, maize, wheat and timber produced was sent for export. Trade was chiefly with Britain, whose manufacturing firms depended on raw materials from its colonies. In return, they received manufactured goods. The colonies also traded with the French, Dutch, and Spanish.

The day of American independence was precipitated by the passage of laws of the British parliament to establish a strong imperial organization in the colonies.

In 1760 George III became the new king of Great Britain. He needed money to pay for a long and expensive war with France. He tried to get it by taxing the colonies. The government introduced new taxes on imports of sugar, coffee, textiles and other goods. There was serious opposition to this *"taxation without representation"* (the British Parliament did not contain any American-elected members). This motto became very popular with the Americans in their struggle against the British government trying to increase taxes on its American colonies.

Historians claim that at the heart of the division between the colonists and Britain was a fundamentally different concept of the purpose of the colonies. To the British, their American lands were there largely to provide raw materials to Britain and be consumers of British manufactured goods. These feeling expressed itself in an increasing control and restriction of American trade and industry that caused resentment in colonies, especially in New England, where manufacturing goods for export to the southern colonies was already an important part of the local economy. In contrast, many of the colonists saw themselves as carving a new society from the wilderness, unrestricted by decisions made 3,000 miles away across the Atlantic.

These pressures were tolerable as long as British regulation of the rules was fairly lax. However, in the decade before the colonies rebelled there was a new level of interest in exploiting the American colonies. The first move was an attempt to limit further expansion by the colonies. The land to the west of the colonies was to be left to the Indians, who were to be encouraged to become consumers of British goods. New colonists were to be encouraged to go north to Nova Scotia (Canada), where they could produce much needed timber for the navy, or south to Florida. This limit on their expansion caused much discontent amongst the colonies, costing many a good deal of money.

The next increase in the tension came with the Stamp Act (tax on the paper and on newspapers), the Sugar Act, the Revenue Act (taxes on trade).

The first clashes of the coming revolution were *the Boston Massacre* (1770) and *the Boston Tea Party* (1773). On 5 March 1770 a Boston mob attacked a company of soldiers guarding the customs house. The soldiers stood firm until one was knocked down by the rioters at which point the soldiers were ordered to fire, killing five of the rioters, the accident was called 'the Boston Massacre'.

On 16 December 1773 a group of Boston radicals, dressed up as Native Americans to disguise their identities, boarded a ship importing tea and threw the boxes with thousands of pounds worth of tea overboard. This protest is known as 'the Boston Tea Party'.

The British reaction was critical. The Boston port was closed until the lost tea had been paid for. The governor was given the power to transfer trials to Britain. British troops were sent to America to keep order; Boston was made to provide barracks for the soldiers inside the town. Finally, the constitution of the colony was changed. Massachusetts had a two chamber system, with an elected house of representatives who had the power to appoint the upper house, or councillors. This was now changed so that the Crown could appoint the councillors.

Rather than isolating Massachusetts, these acts united the colonies in protest. British interference with the constitution of one of the colonies was felt to threaten all. Many colonists began to understand that independence from Great Britain offered the only safety for their liberty. They began to organize themselves into groups of part-time soldiers, or "militias", and to gather together weapons and ammunition.

The first battles between the English and the colonists were in Massachusetts at Lexington and Concord in April 1775. The British soldiers defeated the American militia. In June 1775 the Americans fought the British near Boston. The British won, but many of their soldiers died.

In July 1776, the representatives of the colonies met in Philadelphia at the Second Continental Congress, which began to work as a national government. The Congress made George Washington their commander-in-chief. ***The Declaration of Independence*** (*Complement 7*) was accepted by the Congress on July 4, 1776. It was an important document that had a decisive impact on the development of the American Revolution. With its stress on the rights of men, equality under the law, limited government and government by consent of the governed, the Declaration is the most important document in American history. The philosophy of self-government was introduced by the words: *"We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are*

endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness".

The American War of Independence lasted over 6 years. The French entered the war in 1777, providing decisive military and economic assistance. The fighting ended when George Washington, aided by the French army and navy, surrounded the British forces at Yorktown in October 1781.

The official end of the war came in 1783, when representatives from England and the US signed the ***Treaty of Paris***. Britain officially recognized her former colonies as an independent nation. The boundaries for America were: the Atlantic Ocean to the east, the Great Lakes to the north, the Mississippi River to the west, and Florida (a Spanish colony) to the south.

The Revolutionary War was over, but the problem of the new country continued. Each of the 13 states acted like an independent country, with its own laws, its own constitution and, in some cases, its own money. It was hard for Europe to take seriously the weak government of the United States.

The Constitutional Convention met in Philadelphia in 1787. The purpose of the convention was to write a constitution that could unite 13 states into one nation. After months of discussion the Constitutional Convention reached a compromise. By June 25, 1788, most of the states voted to accept ***the Constitution***. Three years later ***the Bill of Rights*** was added to it – ten amendments to the Constitution that protected individual rights of American citizens.

Soon after, there was a presidential election. George Washington became the first president, and John Adams the first vice-president of the United States. George Washington was elected for a second term, but he decided to leave the office of President after the second time even though some others wanted him to retain that power for life. This established an important precedent of republican democracy that served as an example around the world. In his Farewell Address he gave ideas for US foreign policy. George Washington lived at Mount Vernon in Virginia after the presidency. He died in 1799. He was a great man. For the role he played in winning and securing American independence, Americans call him the *"Father of Our Country"* and honor him and another great president, Abraham Lincoln, on Presidents' Day in February.

On March 1, 1790, the Congress authorized the first US census, completed on August 1. The population was placed at 4 million, including 700,000 slaves and 60,000 free Negroes. The most populous state was Virginia (750,000) and the largest city Philadelphia (42,500).

7.4. Expansion and Civil War

The American Revolution was achieved by the "original 13 states" on the eastern seaboard. The Treaty of 1783, which ended the war with Britain, gave another huge area of land, further to the west, to the new country, and over the next 50 years the whole of the American mainland was brought under US control. Some of this land was acquired by treaty, such as Florida; some by purchase, such as Louisiana, which was sold to the

US by Napoleon in 1803; and some by war, such as Texas and California, which were ceded by Mexico in the war of 1845-1847.

Thomas Jefferson became president in 1800 and again in 1804. *The Louisiana Purchase*, the first major action of Jefferson's presidency, almost doubled the size of the United States. In 1801, Jefferson learned that France had taken over from Spain a large area between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains called Louisiana. Spain was a weak nation, and did not pose a threat to the United States. But France – then ruled by Napoleon Bonaparte – was powerful and aggressive. Jefferson viewed French control of Louisiana as a danger to the United States. In 1803, Jefferson arranged the purchase of the area from France. The Louisiana Purchase added 2,144,476 sq km of territory to the United States.

According to the epitaph he ordered, Thomas Jefferson wanted to be remembered for three things he had done for his country; they were founding the University of Virginia, drafting Virginia's act of religious tolerance and writing the Declaration of Independence. He neglected to mention his presidency.

By 1820, American pioneers had established many frontier settlements as far west as the Mississippi River. By the 1830s, the Westward Movement had pushed the frontier across the Mississippi, into Iowa, Missouri, Arkansas, and eastern Texas. The land beyond, called the Great Plains, was dry and treeless, it was farmland. But explorers, traders, and others who had journeyed farther west told of rich farmland and forests beyond the Rocky Mountains. In the 1840s, large numbers of pioneers made the long journey across the Great Plains to the Far West. In 1853, with the purchase from Mexico of a strip of land that makes up the southern edge of Arizona and New Mexico, the United States owned all the territory of its present states except Alaska (purchased from Russia in 1867) and Hawaii (annexed in 1898). By the end of the century this form of continuous colonization or "pioneering" had led to the settlement of the entire United States from the east coast to the west.

In this process of expansion, continually pushing westwards from their original settlements, forming new farmsteads, villages and towns in the wilds, the American settlers were dispatching and disposing the Native Americans. The Westward expansion of the United States incrementally expelled large numbers of Native Americans from vast areas of their territory, either by forcing them into marginal lands farther and farther west, or by outright massacres. Under President Andrew Jackson, Congress passed *the Indian Removal Act of 1830*, which forced the Five Civilized Tribes from the east onto western reservations, primarily to take their land for settlement. The forced migration was marked by great hardship and many deaths. Its route is known as *the Trial of Tears.*

In the era of expansion social reforms became important, especially the abolition of slavery. Many northern states abolished slavery by the early 1800s but southern economy depended much on slaves as a source of cheap labour; it was based on large plantations where slaves were used to grow cotton, rice, tobacco and sugar.

There were many people, mostly in the North, who felt slavery was wrong and immoral. These people were called *'abolitionists'* because they wanted to abolish slavery. The abolition movement was gaining strength. In 1833 the first national abolitionist organization, the American Anti-Slavery Society, was formed in

Philadelphia. The society began a propaganda campaign that flooded the slave states with abolitionist literature.

In 1852 the cause of abolition was helped by Harriet Beecher Stowe, a white woman who wrote a book called "Uncle Tom Cabin, or Life Among the Lowly", a story about the sufferings of slaves. The South denounced the book but in the North it was taken to be a true picture of the horrors of slavery. The book sold hundreds of thousands of copies, and it influenced many people to support abolition.

The political division over slavery led to the formation of the Republican Party, whose main principle was opposition to the extension of slavery. They nominated Abraham Lincoln for president and he was elected in 1860.

Lincoln had earned a reputation as an opponent of slavery, and his election was unacceptable to the South. After 1854, Southerners increasingly referred to themselves as a separate national group. Soon after election, *South Carolina* announced that its union with all other states was dissolved. South Carolina was immediately followed by *Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana* and *Texas*, which together formed the ***Confederate States of America (Confederacy)*** with a constitution based on slavery. The Northerners did not want war and Lincoln in his opening speech as President declared that he would not interfere with slavery in the Southern states, but merely affirmed the constitutional right of the Union to determine the status of new states.

Lincoln refused to allow secession to disrupt the Union, however, and, as civil war became inevitable, *Virginia* also seceded on the constitutional grounds that every state in the Union enjoyed sovereign rights; *Nebraska, North Carolina* and *Tennessee* quickly followed. The 23 states of the industrial North, with a population of 22 million were, therefore, opposed by 11 Southern states, almost 4 million of whose 9 million inhabitants were slaves.

The Civil War began on ***April 12, 1861***. The North had superior financial and industrial strength, and a larger population than the South, but the South gained the upper hand at first. Although the Union had naval superiority, it was unable to establish an efficient blockade until 1863. In Virginia, Union forces suffered numerous defeats against the two brilliant southern generals, Robert E. Lee and Thomas "Stonewall" Jackson. But the south was unable to win a decisive victory it needed to gain foreign recognition.

On January 1, 1863, Lincoln issued *the Emancipation Proclamation*, which declared freedom for slaves in all areas of the Confederacy that were still in rebellion against the Union. In 1864 Abraham Lincoln was elected to a second term as President of the USA.

The three main theatres of action when the war broke out in 1861 were the sea, the Mississippi Valley and the eastern seaboard states. Gradually the North took more and more territory until Confederate resistance wore down, and Union armies swept through the South. In the Mississippi Valley in the West, General Grant and his forces gradually split the Confederacy in two. The war became a lost cause for the South after the Battle of Gettysburg in July 1863, although it heroically fought on. On ***April 9, 1865***, General Robert E. Lee – the commander of the Confederate Army – surrendered to the Union commander General Ulysses S. Grant. The war had cost the lives of 618,000 men – over half from disease.

On April 14, Mr. and Mrs. Lincoln attended a play at the Ford's Theater in Washington, D.C. A few minutes past ten o'clock, an actor and Confederate sympathizer, John Wilkes Booth stepped into the Presidential box and shot the President. Lincoln died the following morning.

Abraham Lincoln was an outstanding President and a great man. Of all the presidents in the history of the United States, Abraham Lincoln is probably the one that Americans remember the best and with deepest affection. He brought a new honesty and integrity to the White House. He would always be remembered as *'honest Abe"*. Most of all, he is associated with the final abolition of slavery. Lincoln became a virtual symbol of the American dream whereby an ordinary person from humble beginnings could reach the pinnacle of society as president of the country.

He was born in a log cabin in Kentucky, later the family settled in Indiana, wild still unsettled frontier state. From early age Abe had to work hard, he cleared woods for farmland with his father, and became so skilled at splitting logs that neighbours paid him to do it for them. In his entire life, Abe was only able to go to school for a total of one year. This lack of education only made him hungry for more knowledge. His mother encouraged him to study by himself. He even travelled to neighbouring farms to borrow books and he was often found reading next to a pile of logs that he should have been splitting.

His powers of speech soon helped him enter a new arena, that of politics and law. In 1834 he was elected into the House of Representatives and began studying to become a lawyer. He practiced law all across the state of Illinois for the next few years, travelling far on horseback to different counties. Abraham Lincoln began a long road to become the sixteen president of the United States. He joined the Republicans, a new political party that was opposed to slavery. The Republicans nominated him for the US Senate in 1958 and as its candidate for the Presidency of the US in 1860.

Abraham Lincoln's oratorical powers always brought him to the attention of the nation. In the debates with political opponents he used the same simple language that he used to communicate with people all his life, and defeated them. One of his most famous speeches is *"The Gettysburg Address"*. The bloody Battle of Gettysburg in Pennsylvania was the largest battle ever fought on American soil. On November 19, 1863, at a ceremony to establish Gettysburg as a national monument, Lincoln delivered what was to become one of the finest orations in American history, the Gettysburg Address (*Complement 8*).

Glossary

abolitionists – the 18th century Americans who lobbied to end slavery

cede, v. – to give something such as an area of land or a right to a country or person, especially if you are forced to

census, n. – a periodic governmental innumeration of population

confederation, n. – a group of people, political parties, or organizations that have united for political purposes or trade

expansion, n. – when a company, business, country etc becomes larger by opening new shops, factories, acquiring new territories etc.

the frontier – an ever-moving edge of "civilization" when settlers were moving west to claim land

the Founding Fathers of the United States – the authors of the American Constitution and the Declaration of Independence

irrigation, n. – the process of supplying land or crops with water

massacre, n. - when a lot of people are killed violently, especially people who cannot defend themselves

the Pilgrim Fathers – an early group of settlers from England, called so as they were from a particular Protestant sect who saw themselves as pilgrims traveling to escape religious prosecution

pioneer, n. – one of the first people to travel to a new country or area and begin living there, farming etc

secede, v. – withdraw from an organization (as a religious communion or political party or federation)

secession, n. – when a country or state officially stops being part of another country and becomes independent (e.g. *Croatia's secession from Yugoslavia*)

tepee, n. – a round tent with a pointed top, used by some Native Americans

the Trail of Tears – the route taken by Native Americans during the forced repatriation as a result of the Indian Removal Act of 1830, when their homelands were taken away by immigrants

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Who were the first Europeans that discovered American continent? 2. When did Christopher Columbus sail across the Atlantic? 3. What was the lifestyle of Native Americans before European colonization and what impact did it have on them?
4. What Indian tribes
   a) were good farmers and had a developed irrigation system?
   b) depended for food and shelter on buffalo?
   c) made wooden houses and carved totem poles?
5. What was the first permanent British colony in America? 6. What made settlers start their fight for independence from Britain? 7. What document was accepted at the Second Continental Congress on July 4, 1776? 8. How long did the War of Independence last? 9. What document was intended to unite the 13 states into one nation in 1787? 10. Who was elected the first President of the USA? 11. Who are the Founding Fathers of the nation? Why were they called like this? 12. Why was the Louisiana Purchase Treaty signed with France so important for the USA? Who initiated it? 13. What were positive and negative aspects of the westward expansion (pioneering)? 14. Who were the abolitionists? 15. What book played a crucial role in the antislavery movement? How did it influence public opinion of the period? 16. What party declared opposition to slavery as its main principle? 17. Who was elected President in 1860? What consequences did it have for the country? 18. What American woman was nicknamed "The Moses of Her People"? 19. What were the reasons for the Civil War? 20. What political union did the Southern states form? How many states joined it? 21. Who were the outstanding leaders on both sides of the War? 22. What was

the effect of *the Emancipation Proclamation* issued by President Lincoln in the middle of the war? 23. How long did the Civil War last? Outline its results for the nation.

Task 2. Read the Declaration of Independence of the Thirteen Colonies (*Complement 7*). Pay attention to the difference in spelling and capitalization compared to how it is used today.

What, according to the Declaration, can justify the rebellion of people against their government, when "it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government"?

What did the colonists accuse King George III of?

The Declaration of Independence refers to Native Americans. What does it say?

What side would you support – that of the Patriots or Loyalists about whether the colonies should break away from Great Britain? What arguments could each of the sides bring up to defend their views?

Lecture 8

THE USA. HISTORY (Part II)

Plan

8.1. Reconstruction, industrialization and immigration
8.2. America and two World Wars
8.3. America in the second half of the 20th century
8.4. The USA in the 21st century

8.1. Reconstruction, industrialization and immigration

The four years of bloody fighting between the North and South had a staggering effect on the nation. No other war in history has taken so many American lives. Toward the end of the Civil War, the North set out to establish terms under which Confederate States would be readmitted to the Union. The process through which the South returned, as well as the period following the war, was called ***Reconstruction***.

Northerners divided into two groups over Reconstruction policy. The moderates wanted to end the bitterness between the North and South, and the radicals believed the South should be punished. After President Lincoln was assassinated Vice President Andrew Johnson became president. He tried to carry out Lincoln's policy, but he was unable to overcome radical opposition and work out a compromise.

The Reconstruction programme drafted by Congress included laws to further the rights of blacks. During five years after the Civil War three amendments were added to the Constitution that outlawed slavery throughout the United States, confirmed the citizenship of blacks, and made it illegal to deny the right to vote on the basis of race. Congress insisted that The Confederate States agree to follow all federal laws before being readmitted to the Union. Between 1866 and 1870, all the Confederate States returned to the Union.

Reconstruction had limited success. It broadened the legal rights of blacks, but the old social order, based on white superiority, soon returned to the South. The fundamental problem of the black's place in society remained unsolved.

In less than 50 years, between the Civil War and the First World War, the United States was transformed from a rural republic into an urban state. Work that had always been done by sweat and muscle was replaced by steam and electricity. Machines replaced hand labour as the main means of manufacturing, increasing the production tremendously. The agriculture laborsaving farm machinery changed the way America grew their food. It was no longer economically practical for a farmer to grow everything his family needed on his own small farm. Small farms were replaced by big farms that, with the help of modern machinery, usually grew one large crop.

In industry a new product, steel, replaced iron. In Pennsylvania and in Texas wells dug deep into the earth to bring up oil. Railroads crossed the land from the Atlantic to the Pacific. In the late 1800s, the American railway system became a nationwide transportation network. The new railways boosted economic growth. Mining companies used them to ship raw materials to factories over long distances quickly. Manufacturers distributed their finished products by rail to points throughout the country. The railways became highly profitable business for their owners.

The nation's economic progress, based on iron, steam and electrical power, was speeded up by thousands of ***inventions***. Although many of these inventions originated in other countries, American entrepreneurs developed them into true consumer products.

In 1853, George M. Pullman built the first railroad sleeping car. In the same year, a cable was laid on the bottom of the sea between the United States and England. Now Europe and America were connected by telegraph. The first cable message was sent across the Atlantic Ocean from Queen Victoria to President James Buchanan.

In 1868, the Otis brothers opened a factory where they manufactured elevators, which made it possible for buildings to be higher and higher. The first office building to have an elevator installed in it was the Equitable Life Assurance Society building, built in New York City.

In 1874, the first practical typewriter (with only capital letters) was put on the market. It was constructed by Christopher Sholes, who also first used the word "typewriter".

In 1875, the first refrigerated railroad car delivered meat safely to the far parts of the country.

In 1876, Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone. The first telephone service between New York and Chicago was initiated in 1884.

In 1878, Thomas Alva Edison invented the phonograph, and a year later, he invented the electric light bulb.

In 1913, Henry Ford started to use assembly-line methods to make automobiles. By combining standardization and the assembly line, Ford showed how to produce cars cheaply and in large quantities. Because of that he is seen as the father of twentieth-century mass production. By 1900, there were almost eight thousand privately owned automobiles in the United States.

All these important inventions changed the way America lived, worked, farmed and conducted business. Farmers produced more food with machines. Many people left the farms to work in factories in big cities, and these cities became large markets for factory-made products. The industrial growth centered chiefly on the North. The South, devastated and exhausted by the war, lagged behind the rest of the country economically.

The federal government helped industry. It passed high tariffs (taxes) to keep out foreign products and supported the free exchange of goods among states.

The new wealth that resulted from industrial progress also created new problems. The growth of American industry was organized and controlled by businessmen who, by ignoring the rights of others, made themselves wealthy and powerful. They cared nothing for the land they ruined as they developed new mines and built new railroads, and they cared nothing for the working people.

To defend themselves the workers organized *unions*. At least 10 national unions were organized between 1863 and 1866. Among them was the first of the railroad brotherhoods, the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers. By 1890 there were national unions representing conductors, trainmen and firemen, steel workers, clothing workers, bricklayers and about 30 other trades. The purpose of these unions was to protect the jobs of their members and to get higher pay and better working conditions for them.

An important factor for the development of the country was continuous and unrestricted ***immigration*** from Europe. Between 1820 and 1920, over 35 million Europeans came to the United States of America.

Their reasons for coming were not so different from those of the Pilgrims and the other colonists. There was plenty of land, and it was cheap. There was a job for everybody who wanted to work. In the land of opportunity, everybody had equal rights.

Until the middle of the 19th century most of the immigrants were English or Swedish or German Protestants who fitted into American life quickly and easily. But in 1846, a plant disease destroyed all the potatoes in Ireland. A million Irish died of hunger and a million more left their country forever. Many of them went to the United States. The Irish had to take jobs nobody else wanted. They built the roads, dug the coal, and carried the bricks. They continued to do the hard work of the nation until another big wave of immigration brought Poles, Russians, Polish and Russian Jews, Hungarians, Italians, Greeks, Portuguese, Rumanians, Bulgarians, Lithuanians, Ukrainians and many others.

The immigrants from southern and eastern Europe were even less welcome than then the Irish. They did not speak English, their religion and their customs were different, their clothes were strange. These new immigrants were less equipped to fit into American life, and almost all had to start at the bottom of the economic ladder. Moreover, they were willing to work hard for so little money that American workers feared immigrants were going to take away their jobs.

Immigration plus natural growth of population caused the US population to more than double, between 1870 and 1916 it rose from about 40 million to about 100 million.

In 1924, the US Congress made a law to limit immigration; the government set quotas, the number of people allowed to enter the United States from different countries. The quotas allowed in many more immigrants from Great Britain and

Germany than they did from Russia or Italy. Very few Asians or Africans were permitted to come in.

Conflicts generally known at the time as ***"Indian Wars"*** broke out between US forces and many different tribes of Native Americans in the last quarter of the 19th century. Authorities entered numerous treaties during this period, but later broke almost all of them. Well-known battles include the atypical Native American victory at the Battle of Little Bighorn in 1876, and the massacre of Native Americans at Wounded Knee in 1890, when the US Cavalry attempted to exterminate the Sioux Nation and killed all the men, women and children they could find. On January 31, 1876 the US government ordered all surviving Native Americans to move into reservations or reserves.

In the late 19th century reformers in efforts to civilize Indians adapted the practice of educating native children in Indian Boarding Schools. These schools, which were primarily run by Christians proved traumatic to Indian children, who were forbidden to speak their native languages, taught Christianity instead of their native religions (both in violation of the US Constitution), and in numerous other ways forced to abandon their Indian identity and adopt European-American culture. There are also many documented cases of sexual, physical, and mental abuses occurring in these schools.

It was not acceptable to American immigrants in the 18th and 19th centuries that the people they regarded as "savages" had built civilizations and by policy most archaeological remains that proved high level of their development were destroyed and records obliterated.

8.2. America and two World Wars

America was determined to stay out of the First World War and adopted a policy of strict neutrality. However, attacks on passenger ships by German submarines and the discovery of a German plot to involve Mexico in war with the United States led Congress to declare war on Germany in April 1917. The arrival of 2 million of fresh troops altered the balance sufficiently to enable the Allies to win the war. US President Woodrow Wilson helped negotiate a peace treaty in 1918. Unfortunately, the US Senate did not ratify the Treaty of Versailles. The US did not join the League of Nations. Many Americans wanted isolation to be the foreign policy of the country.

The aftershock of Russia's October Revolution resulted in real fears of Communism in the United States, causing a '*Red Scare'* which led to the persecution of all left-wing groups and the deportation of aliens considered subversive. While public health facilities grew rapidly and hospitals and medical schools were modernized, the nation in 1918 lost 675,000 lives to the Spanish flu pandemic. Jazz became popular among the younger generation, and thus the decade was also called the Jazz Age. There was briefly mass support for the Ku Klux Klan and restrictions were imposed on immigration to strictly limit the number of new entries.

In the 1920s the US grew steadily as an economic and military world power. It was a decade of conservatism and insecurely founded prosperity, in which tariffs were brought to their highest ever levels and taxes were drastically reduced. This remarkable

rise in living standards, which caused the decade to be called the *"Roaring Twenties"*, ended suddenly in October 1929 with the Wall Street crash – the result of a long period of over-production by the nation's factories and farms, and speculative mania among the middle and wealthy classes. This crash marked the beginning of the worst depression in American history, commonly referred to as the Great Depression.

The Great Depression originated in the United States, then spread and resulted in a worldwide economic downturn. It was the largest and most important economic depression in modern history, and is used in the 21st century as an example of how far the world's economy can fall.

The Depression in the United States started on October 29, 1929, known as Black Tuesday and lasted more than 10 years. At the height of the depression in 1933, about 13 million Americans were out of work (which was one-fourth of the workforce), and many others had only part-time jobs. Many banks and businesses failed, factories shut down. Farm income declined so sharply that more than 750,000 farmers lost their land. Throughout the depression, many Americans went hungry. People stood in 'bread lines' and went to 'soup kitchens' to get food provided by charities. Often, two or more families lived crowded together in a small apartment.

This was the period of ***prohibition***, when by the 18th Amendment to the Constitution (1920), called the Prohibition Amendment, it was prohibited to manufacture, transport or sell alcoholic liquors (when it ended in 1933, only eight states stayed *"dry"*). The Prohibition didn't meet the objectives the Congress put before it, but caused a lot of unforeseen problems – created disrespect for the law, violated people's rights, increased per capita consumption of alcohol. But what's worse – it created organized crime. The gangster culture, especially in Chicago and New York, was a major problem for over a decade as it grew into an empire. By 1927, Al Capone controlled not only all commerce in Illinois but also the majority of the politicians, police, the mayor of Chicago, and the state governor. Gangsters were so organized they had a national convention in Atlantic City. Even when Al Capone was jailed for income tax evasion in 1931, the 'company' didn't go out of business.

The politician who suggested a way out of recession was Franklin D. Roosevelt. He was one of the most popular US presidents: the voters elected him to four terms. No other president had served more than two terms. Roosevelt won the 1932 presidential election with an unprecedented majority. The desperate economic situation in the country gave Roosevelt unusual influence over Congress in the "First Hundred Days" of his administration. He used this to win rapid passage of a series of measures to create welfare programmes and regulate the banking system, stock market, industry and agriculture, along with many other government efforts to end the Great Depression and reform the American economy.

President Roosevelt set about remedying the economic situation with his *New Deal* of relief, recovery and reform (*"The Three R's"*). His government relieved suffering with payments to unemployed people and loans to farmers and homeowners. It created government jobs to help the economy to recover. Roosevelt also worked on economic reform to prevent future depression. His government was the first administration to introduce governmental planning into the economy. This led to wide changes in the

monetary system and to the creation of a number of federal agencies to regulate industry and find jobs on government-sponsored projects.

Over the next two years, millions of unemployed were given jobs in public works projects, and emergency relief was provided for others in order to create greater internal demand for American products. Numerous measures were also taken to help farmers. Roosevelt's program brought cheap electricity to parts of the country where it was needed. It ensured loans to people so they would not lose their homes. It established a system of social security for older people.

The Second New Deal (1935-1939) aimed at providing security against unemployment, illness and old age, to prevent the terrible hardships of the Depression being repeated. In 1936, the year of the next presidential election, the American people sent a very clear message. Roosevelt won in every state except Maine and Vermont. While the Great Depression was not yet over, the United States was beginning to believe in itself again.

The gravity of domestic problems distracted attention from international affairs: the rise of Adolph Hitler in Germany, dominance of imperial Japan in East Asia and in the Pacific, and the disintegration of the League of Nations.

In 1940, Franklin D. Roosevelt was reelected president of the United States for the unprecedented third term and promised that the country was not going to war. That year Germany invaded Norway, overran Denmark, Luxemburg, Belgium and the Netherlands and defeated France. In August Hitler launched the Battle of Britain. Roosevelt understood the danger to America if Hitler continued to take over Europe. He persuaded Congress to build a strong army and navy.

In 1941, two events overshadowed all others. On June 22, Germany invaded the USSR. On December 7, Japanese forces launched a surprise attack on the US base at ***Pearl Harbor***, Hawaii. They destroyed seven of the eight battleships and half of all the planes. Two thousand American sailors went down to their deaths inside the battleships. It was the worst military loss in American history, but it united the American people as never before. The USA declared war against Japan. Germany and Italy, who had a treaty with Japan, immediately declared war against the United States. By this time, about 35 countries, half of the world's population, were at war.

The main contributions of the US to the Allied war effort comprised money, industrial output, food, petroleum, technological innovation, and (especially in 1944-45), soldiers. Much of the focus in Washington was maximizing the economic output of the nation. The overall result was a dramatic increase in GDP, the export of vast quantities of supplies to the Allies and to American forces overseas, the end of unemployment, and a rise in civilian consumption. This was achieved by tens of millions of workers moving from low-productivity occupations to high efficiency jobs, improvements in productivity through better technology and management, and the move into the active labour force of students, retired people, housewives, and the unemployed, and an increase in hours worked. People tolerated the extra work because of patriotism, the pay, and the confidence that it was only "for the duration", and the life would return to normal as soon as the war was won. Most durable goods became unavailable, and meat, clothing, and gasoline were tightly rationed. Prices and wages

were controlled, and Americans saved a high portion of their incomes, which led to renewed growth after the war instead of a return to depression.

Research and development took flight as well, best seen in the *Manhattan Project*, a secret effort to harness nuclear fission to produce highly destructive atomic bombs.

On May 7, 1945, after a long, bitter struggle, the Allies forced the mighty Germany to accept unconditional surrender. Vice President Harry S. Truman had become president upon Roosevelt's death about a month earlier. The Allies demanded Japan's surrender, but it continued to fight on. H. Truman ordered to use the atomic bomb, the most destructive weapon ever used. Bombs were dropped on two Japanese cities – Hiroshima and Nagasaki – a fact that changed the complexion of future wars and of the world in general. Japan formally surrendered on September 2, and ***World War II was over.*** Though the nation lost more than 400,000 soldiers, the mainland prospered untouched by the devastation of war that inflicted a heavy toll on Europe and Asia.

1945 was a monumental year – the end of an era and the beginning of a new one. A new instrument of peace – the United Nations – was launched at San Francisco. The Senate approved the U.S. participation in the United Nations, which marked a turn away from the traditional isolationism of America and toward increased international involvement.

8.3. America in the second half of the 20th century

Following World War II, the United States emerged as one of the two dominant superpowers, the USSR being the other. The good feelings that existed between the United States and the Soviet Union during the war did not last long. Old suspicions returned stronger than before. The Soviet Union worried that the US, with its great economic power and its atomic bomb, wanted to rule the world. Americans worried that the Soviet Union, already master of so much of Eastern Europe, would encourage communist revolution in Greece, Italy, China and the African nations.

In 1946, Winston Churchill put the situation into unforgettable words. He said that there was *an Iron Curtain* between the Soviet Union and the rest of Europe.

That was the beginning of the ***Cold War***. It was a war without a declaration of war by the Congress, without a shot being fired. It was a long, hard struggle between two different societies, two different ways of thinking. The Cold War continued, in one way or another, for many years.

The Cold War influenced the ***exploration of space***. On October 5, 1957, the Soviet Union launched the first artificial satellite, Sputnik. So space became another arena for competition. The United States managed to launch its first satellite, the Explorer, in 1958. The public mood worsened when the Soviet Union placed the first man in orbit in 1961. President Kennedy responded by promising that the United States would land a man on the moon and bring him back *"before this decade is out".*

With Project Mercury, in August 1962, John H. Glenn Jr. became the first US astronaut to orbit the Earth. In the 1960s, US scientists used the Gemini program to examine the effects of prolonged space flight on man. Gemini, Latin for *"twins",*

carried two astronauts. It also accomplished the first manned linkup of two spacecraft in flight as well as the first US walk in space.

The Apollo Project was a special space exploration program. Its purpose was to send an American to the moon by 1970. Other Apollo flights followed, but many Americans began to question the value of manned space flights. In the early 1970s, as other priorities became more pressing, the United States scaled down the space program.

During the 1960s and early 70s, the US and the Soviet Union continued the Cold War. By this time both countries had nuclear weapons, but the threat of mutual destruction prevented both powers from going too far, and resulted in proxy wars in which the two sides did not directly confront each other, like wars in Korea and Vietnam. *The* ***Vietnam War*** began in 1957 as a battle for control of South Vietnam between the non-Communist government and Communists. At the early stage of the war the USA only sent military aid and advisers to support the South Vietnam government, but by the mid-1960s, America was deeply involved in the war having sent hundreds of thousands of troops to Vietnam.

Most of Americans supported the war effort at first, but others opposed it. The war critics argued that the United States had no right to interfere in Vietnamese affairs. With time opposition to the war grew; throughout the USA, university students and public at large held antiwar demonstrations. Only in 1973 the last American troops were removed from Vietnam. The war cost the lives of 58,000 American soldiers.

Another clash between two superpowers was in 1962, when the USA challenged the Soviet Union to remove nuclear missiles installed on Cuba. The resulting ***Cuba Missile Crisis*** was a frighteningly tense showdown between the USA President John Kennedy and Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev that brought the two nuclear superpowers to the brink of war.

John Fitzgerald Kennedy was one of America's best-loved presidents. He graduated from Harvard University in 1940 with a degree in international affairs with honors, in World War II he served on a Navy PT boat. In 1952, he won a seat in the House of Representatives and then served in the Senate for seven years beginning in 1953. A rising Democratic star in the Senate, he ran for the presidency in 1960.

Kennedy's support for liberal economic and social policies, such as civil rights and increased funding for education and public housing, in addition to his strong anti-communist stance appealed to the bulk of Americans during the presidential campaign. In addition to his political philosophy, Kennedy capitalized on his handsome features and charismatic personality to beat Republican candidate Richard Nixon to become the nation's 35th president.

President Kennedy was the youngest man ever elected to the office. His youth, intelligence and worldliness – along with his beautiful, stylish and much-admired wife – charmed Americans and Europeans alike. The American public increasingly saw the Kennedy family as a kind of American royalty and the press portrayed Kennedy's administration as a sort of modern-day *Camelot*, with the president himself as King Arthur presiding over an ideal society.

As president, Kennedy combined a fervent stance against communism with a liberal domestic agenda. He was a strong proponent of civil rights as well as a Cold War

hawk. He authorized covert operations to remove Fidel Castro from power. JFK also sought peaceful means of fighting communism – he established the Peace Corps and funded scientific research programs to fight poverty and illness and provide aid to developing nations. By encouraging American youth to donate their time and energy to international aid, JFK hoped to provide positive democratic role models to developing nations.

In 1963, Kennedy was assassinated while driving through Dallas, Texas. The federally appointed Commission investigated the assassination and concluded that the killer acted alone. Some scholars, however, still insist Kennedy's death was a coup d'etat committed by hard-line US anti-communists who feared Kennedy would pull out the US advisors he had sent to Vietnam in 1962 and act soft on the communist threat from the USSR. Another conspiracy theory involves a combined effort by organized crime, the Pentagon, and the CIA (Central Intelligence Agency) to murder the president; this view was adapted by Oliver Stone into the 1991 film *JFK*.

Kennedy is buried in Arlington national Cemetery, where an eternal flame burns in his memory.

At the same time with the Vietnam War, another kind of struggle was going on inside the United States. It was the bitter struggle of black people, American Indians, Mexican Americans and women to make the promise of America come true for them. They wanted equal justice and equal opportunity.

The struggle of black Americans for equality reached its peak in the 1960s. The ***civil rights*** activists organized rallies, the largest of which was the March on Washington in 1963. More than 200,000 people gathered in the nation's capital to demonstrate their commitment to equality for all. The high point for a day of songs and speeches came with the address of Martin Luther King Jr., a prominent spokesman for civil rights. At the Lincoln Memorial he delivered his "I Have a Dream" message in which he expressed the hopes of all the blacks of America: "I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character."

Many changes have taken place in America because of the leadership of ***Martin Luther King***, a famous civil rights leader. He was born in Atlanta, Georgia. Later he recollected some episodes of his childhood: he and his father were asked to move to the back of a shoe store to be fitted with shoes. On one occasion he and his teacher were riding on a bus. When the bus filled up with people, the driver asked them to stand up and let two white people have their seats. It was the law. Martin saw the injustice of it, and he never forgot that incident.

When Martin Luther King graduated from Boston University he became the minister of the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church in Montgomery, Alabama. Blacks and whites were segregated in Montgomery, attending different schools and sitting in separate sections on buses. Sometime blacks would be forced to stand on a bus even though there were empty seats in the "white" section at the front of the bus. In 1955. Mrs. Rosa Parks refused to give up her seat on a bus. The police were called and she was arrested. This event led to a revolt all over America. The laws that said blacks were to be denied certain rights began to be challenged in many cities in America.

In 1964, Martin Luther King was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in Norway. He gave the $54,000 prize money to the civil rights groups which were working to secure the rights blacks deserved. Dr. King was put in jail 30 times for his resistance. Some people tried to kill him. In one of his speeches he said: "If physical death is the price that I must pay to free my white brothers and sisters from a permanent death of the spirit, then nothing can be more redemptive". On April 4, 1968, a gunman did murder him in Memphis, Tennessee. In 1986, Congress passed a law establishing a national holiday, Martin Luther King Day.

The first big victory of the civil rights movement was the *Civil Rights Act* passed in 1964. It outlawed discrimination not only in all public associations but also in employment on the basis of race, color, religion, sex or national origin.

The ***women's movement*** of the 1960s drew inspiration from the civil rights movement. It was influenced by two factors: the spirit of rebellion among the young people and the sexual revolution of the 1960s. A new consciousness of the inequality of the American women began sweeping the nation, starting with the 1963 publication of Betty Friedan's best-seller, *The Feminine Mystique*, which explained how many housewives felt trapped and unfulfilled. The book assaulted American culture for its creation of the notion that women could only find fulfillment through their roles as wives, mothers and keepers of the home, and argued that women were just as able as men to do every type of job. In 1966 Friedan and others established the National Organization for Women (NOW), to act for women as the NAACP did for African Americans.

Protests began, and the new Women's Liberation Movement grew in size and power, gained much media attention, and, by 1968, became the US's main social revolution. Marches, parades, rallies, boycotts, and pickets brought out thousands, sometimes millions. In the following years both social custom and consciousness and laws (federal and state) began to change, accepting women's equality. The laws passed on federal level included those equalizing pay, employment, education, employment opportunities, and credit; ending pregnancy discrimination; and requiring NASA, the Military Academies, and other organizations to admit women. The state laws intended to end spousal abuse and marital rape; Supreme Court rulings established women's equal status under the law.

The struggle for equal opportunities sparked other forms of protest. Young people rejected the morals of their parents and embraced new standards of dress and sexual behavior. Blue jeans and T-shirts took the place of slacks, jackets and ties. Rock and roll grew and songs with a political or social commentary, such as those by singer-songwriter Bob Dylan, became common. The youth counterculture reached its peak in August 1969, at Woodstock, a three-day music festival in rural New York State attended by almost half a million people.

The civil rights movement stimulated an *environmental movement* in the 1960s. People became aware of the pollution that threatened their health and the beauty of their surrounding. On April 22, 1970, schools and communities across the United States celebrated Earth day.

The closing decades of the 20th century brought fresh changes to the United States at home and abroad. The Cold War was over. The familiar landmarks of the Cold War –

from the Berlin Wall to the intercontinental missiles on constant alert – were gone. Eastern Europe was independent, the Soviet Union had dissolved, Germany was united, and the threat of nuclear conflict was greatly diminished. It was as though one great history volume had closed and another had opened.

The computer and telecommunication revolution began to transform the economy and the way people lived. New waves of immigration made American society even more diverse than in the past.

8.4. The USA in the 21st century

On September 11, 2001 ('9/11') the United States was struck by a terrorist attack when 19 al-Qaeda hijackers commandeered four airliners and intentionally crashed into both twin towers of the World Trade Center and into the Pentagon, killing nearly 3,000 people, mostly civilians. In response on this attack, President George W. Bush announced a *'War on Terror'*. In October 2001, the United States and NATO invaded Afghanistan. The federal government established new domestic efforts to prevent future attacks. The controversial USA PATRIOT Act increased the government's power to monitor communications and removed legal restrictions on information sharing between federal government and intelligence services. The new agency called the Department of Homeland Security was created to lead and coordinate federal counter-terrorism activities.

In 2003, the United States launched an invasion of Iraq, which led to the collapse of the Iraq government and the capture of Iraqi dictator Saddam Hussein. The reason for the invasion cited by the Bush administration included the spreading of democracy, the elimination of weapons of mass destruction and the liberation of the Iraqi people. Despite some initial successes early in the invasion, the continued Iraq War fueled international protests. Besides the support of the campaign declined dramatically inside the USA as many people began to question whether or not the invasion was worth the cost.

In 2008, the unpopularity of President Bush and the Iraq war, along with the 2008 financial crisis, led to the election of Barack Obama, the first African-American President of the United States. The current president was born in Hawaii in 1961. His father was born and raised in a small village in Kenya, where he grew up herding goats with his own father, who was a domestic servant to the British. Being a law student at Harvard University Barack Obama became the first African-American president of the Harvard Law Review. After graduation he returned to Chicago to practice as a civil rights lawyer and teach constitutional law. His advocacy work led him to run for the Illinois State Senate, where he served for eight years. In 2004, he became the first African American since Reconstruction to be elected to the US Senate. In 2008 he ran for presidency and won. Obama's victory was due in part to his opposition to Bush's unpopular foreign policies. In December 2011, the war was declared formally over and the last American troops left the country.

Following his election victory Obama signed into law the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009, which was a $787 billion economic stimulus aimed at helping the economy recover from the deepening recession. The recession officially ended in June 2009, and the US economy slowly began to expand once again. The unemployment rate peaked at 10.1% in October 2009 and gradually fell to 7.3% as of August 2013.

Besides economic concerns there are other topical issues for the USA to handle in the 21st century. One of them – Native Americans' problems. In 2000 the largest tribes surviving in the US by population were *Cherokee, Navajo, Choctaw, Sioux, Chippewa, Apache, Blackfoot, Iroquois, and Pueblo.* Military defeat, cultural pressure, confinement on reservations, forced cultural assimilation, outlawing of native languages and culture, forced sterilizations, termination policies of the 1950s and 1960s, and slavery have had negative effects on Native Americans' mental and ultimately physical health. Contemporary health problems include poverty, alcoholism, heart disease and diabetes.

As recently as the 1960s, Native Americans were being jailed for teaching their traditional beliefs. As recently as the 1970s, the Bureau of Indian Affairs was still actively pursuing a policy of "assimilation" the goal of which was to eliminate the reservations and steer Indians into mainstream US culture. Even their lands are perhaps no longer safe; as of 2004, there were still claims of theft of Native American land for the coal and uranium it contains.

As for the other issues currently topical in the USA, debates continue over tax reform, same-sex marriage, immigration reform, gun control, and US foreign policy in the Middle East.

Glossary

Allies – during World War II, the combined forces of the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union

assembly line, n. - a system for making things in a factory in which the products move past a line of workers who each make or check one part

civil rights, n. [plural] – the rights that every person should have, such as the right to vote or to be treated fairly by the law, whatever their sex, race, or religion

the Cold War – the aggression between the American Empire and the Soviet Empire from the 1950s to the 1990s

the Great Depression – a major economic recession that started with the Wall Street Crash of 1929 and continued until WW II

gross domestic product (GDP), n. – the total value of all the goods and services produced in a country in one year, except for income received from abroad

obliterate, v. – to destroy something completely so that nothing remains (syn. *wipe out*)

precipitate, v. – bring about abruptly

Prohibition, n. – the forbidding by law of the manufacture, transportation, and sale of alcoholic liquors except for medicinal and sacramental purposes

ration, v. – to control the supply of something because there is not enough; to allow someone only a small amount of something (e.g. *fuel was rationed during the war)*

Reaganomics – an economics policy instituted during the Reagan administration that pushed for less State involvement in all activities and decreased State spending on all essential services except Defense

Reconstruction – the name for the policies used to re-integrate the South after the American Civil War

scale down, v. – reduce according to a fixed ratio

tariff, n. – a schedule of duties imposed by a government on imported or in some countries exported goods

treaty, n. – a formal written agreement between two or more countries or governments; e.g. *to sign, accept, ratify a treaty (with)*

Watergate – the scandal that caused the downfall of the Nixon administration when illegal means were used by the incumbent President's re-election committee to gain advantage over his contender for the post

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What was the Reconstruction programme of the 1860s aimed at? 2. In what way were different aspects of social life and economy influenced by industrialization? 3. Name the most important inventions of the second half of the 19th century. 4. Who was called 'the father of the 20th century mass production'? 5. How did the first immigrants to the USA differ from those of the later waves of immigration? 6. What was the policy towards Native Americans in the 19th century? 7. Why were the 1920s called 'the Roaring Twenties'? 8. What were the consequences of the Prohibition Amendment passed by Congress in 1920? 9. What name was given to a period of economic crisis that started in 1929 with Wall Street Crash? 10. What President suggested a way out of the economic crisis? What plan did he suggest? 11. What event made the USA declare war against Japan? 12. What was the USA's participation in WW II? 13. What was the Manhattan Project? 14. What President made the decision to use atomic bombs against Japan in 1945? 15. What was the country's major foreign policy after the war? 16. What were the enemy countries in the Cold War? What spheres were influenced by the rivalry between the two countries? 17. Why was President Kennedy so popular with Americans? What policies of his administration were most successful? 18. What groups of American society fought for their rights and freedoms in 1960s? 19. What role did Martin Luther King play in the civil rights movement? 20. Who devised the slogan "Don't trust anyone over thirty"? 21. What event made President Bush announce a "War on Terror" in 2001? What measures were taken to prevent terrorist attacks in future? 22. What were the reasons for the invasion of Iraq in 2003? 23. What were the decisive factors in Barack Obama's victory in 2008 presidential election campaign? 24. What are the most recent problems and current challenges that the USA experiences?

Task 2. Look through the glossary and make sure you can contextualize every item. Find two words that were not mentioned in the lecture. Read their definitions carefully and find some additional information about these events.

Task 3. Match the names in the left column with the historic events these people were connected with.

Christopher Columbus The Pilgrim Fathers George Washington Thomas Jefferson Abraham Lincoln General Robert E. Lee General Ulysses S. Grant Henry Ford Alexander Graham Bell Al Capone Franklin Roosevelt Harry S. Truman Richard Nixon John F. Kennedy Martin Luther King Jr. H. Glenn Jr. George W. Bush Barack Obama	The first U.S. astronaut orbited the Earth. The first African-American became President of the USA. The U.S. President was forced to resign because of a political scandal. Assembly line was used to make automobiles. The New World was discovered. The *'War on Terror'* was announced, and the United States and NATO invaded Afghanistan. The Cuba Missile Crisis brought the world on the brink of war. The first Thanksgiving was celebrated. The Confederate Army surrendered and the Civil War was over. The Louisiana Purchase nearly doubled the US territory. Telephone was invented. The victory of the Republican candidate for President precipitated the Civil War in the USA. The *Prohibition Amendment* resulted in organized crime, gangster culture grew into an empire. Atomic bombs were dropped on two Japanese cities. The first president of the USA was elected. *The New Deal* was suggested to the nation as a way out of Great Depression. The March on Washington in 1963 gathered more than 200,000 people who demanded to outlaw discrimination on the basis of colour.

Task 4. Read the quotations from the speeches and inaugural addresses of famous Americans. The speakers make allusions to certain events or the problems that the country faced in that period. Using additional sources of information find out more about the period when the speech was delivered. What was the situation in the country at that particular period? What message was given to the nation by the speech? How did the situation develop? Were the problems handled successfully?

1) "We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created

equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

(Thomas Jefferson *The Declaration of Independence*, 1776)

2) "… The great rule of conduct for us in regard to foreign nations is, in extending our commercial relations to have with them as little political connection as possible."

(George Washington *Farewell Address*, 1796)

3) "…this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom; the government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth."

(Abraham Lincoln *The Gettysburg Address*, 1863)

4) “With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation’s wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow and his orphan, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.”

(Abraham Lincoln *Second Inaugural Address*; March 4, 1865)

5) “The only thing we have to fear is fear itself.”

(Franklin D. Roosevelt *First Inaugural Address*; March 4, 1933)

6) “Ask not what your country can do for you – ask what you can do for your country.”

(John F. Kennedy *Inaugural Address*, January 20, 1961)

7) “I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: ”We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal.”

(Martin Luther King, Jr. *I have a dream*; August, 1963)

Task 5. Make a timeline of the USA history including in it the most important events. You can use the ‘Timeline of British History’ (*Complement 4*) as an example.

Lecture 9

STATE SYSTEM OF THE USA

Plan

9.1. The capital of the USA and state symbols of the country
9.2. The US Constitution and the Bill of Rights
9.3. The legislative branch of government
9.4. The executive branch of government
9.5. The federal judiciary
9.6. Checks and balances
9.7. Political parties
9.8. Federalism: state and local governments

9.1. The capital of the USA and state symbols of the country

The United States of America is a federal republic consisting of 50 states and the District of Columbia, the seat of the federal government.

Federalism – a form of government based on a constitution in which power is divided between a central authority and a number of regional political units. In the USA as a federal republic power is divided between the states and the national, or federal, government. The USA under the Constitution is a ***republic***. This means that its citizens elect the officials who govern them. The United States is also a ***democracy***. In a democracy the citizens have certain civil rights (the right of free press, free speech and freedom of religion, the right to a fair and fast trial if they are accused of crimes).

In the USA as a federal state there is a central authority – federal level of government, the seat of which is Washington, D.C. At the same time each of the 50 states has its own government and its own constitution

Washington, D.C. is the capital city and administrative district of the USA. It is named after George Washington, the 1st president of the country. It is located in the District of Columbia, named after Christopher Columbus, a famous explorer.

Washington was not the first capital of the USA. When the country appeared as an independent state there was no such city and District of Columbia did not exist. The area where it is situated was primarily marsh and farm land.

The first capital of the US was New York City. It is there that George Washington arrived in 1789 after the first presidential election in the USA history, when he was unanimously elected president in all the 13 states. He took the oath of office from the balcony of New York's old City Hall to become the first President of the USA.

For the next 10 years from 1791 to 1800 the capital moved to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania - the historic place, the city, where the Declaration of Independence was signed. Meanwhile, a suitable permanent location for the country's seat of government had to be found. President Washington chose an area on the Potomac River that included land from the states of Maryland and Virginia. Though at that time the area was bare land, Congress was scheduled to meet in the new capital on the first Monday in December 1800. And it did meet 10 years later as it had been scheduled!

So, Washington, D.C. was created with this particular purpose of serving as the national capital. The original street layout was designed by a French architect. He based his design on Paris, with broad diagonal avenues radiating from circles and squares. Washington is the home of all three branches of the US federal government as well as of many influential institutions like the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund.

As for the national symbols of the USA, no doubt the most honored by all the Americans is the ***flag of the U.S.***, popularly called the *'Stars and Stripes'* or the *'Old Glory'*. It was approved by the Continental Congress in 1777. It consists of a blue field marked with white stars equal in number to 50 states today and 13 horizontal stripes alternately red and white.

This number is equal to the number of the original thirteen states that formed the country after the Revolutionary War. Not only the number of stars and stripes on the flag is symbolic, but their colours as well – the red stripes proclaim courage, the white stripes proclaim liberty, the field of the blue stands for loyalty.

In 1777, when the flag was adopted there were 13 stars on it. Every time a state or several states joined the country this number was enlarged. All in all during the USA history the flag has gone through 26 changes. The last new star, bringing the total to 50, was added on July 4, 1960. It was Hawaii that became the 50th state in 1960.

The flag of the USA is very much respected and honored by the Americans. It is proved by a ritual that takes place every day in most of American school classrooms and at some public events. It is called the *Pledge of Allegiance***.** The Pledge of Allegiance is a promise or oath that proclaims loyalty to the United States and its national symbol – the Stars and Stripes. It should be recited while standing at attention with the right hand over the heart; military personnel must salute. In its present form, the words of the

Pledge are: "I pledge allegiance to the Flag of the United States of America, and to the Republic for which it stands, one Nation under God, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all."

Americans take the treatment of their flag seriously and in the 20th century this has become an important issue. The United States Flag Code stipulates that as the symbol of a living country, the flag is considered in itself a living thing and should be properly displayed and cared for. Included in the code of ethics are such rules as the national flag cannot be used for advertising; it cannot cover a monument or any ceiling. It must not be folded while being displayed; it must not touch the ground or floor. No one should write on an American flag. The flag can only be flown at night if properly illuminated. Otherwise, it should only be flown from sunrise to sunset.

In the late 1960s, American students wore small flags sewn to the back of their jeans, symbolically insulting the American government and protesting its involvement in the Vietnam War. They burned the American flag in front of the Capitol Building in Washington as a statement of protest. In the early 1990s, senators suggested an amendment to the Constitution that would make this treatment of the flag illegal. The proposition was opposed because many others felt that this change would be a violation of Americans' constitutional rights to express their opinions freely.

American flag is one of the most complicated in the world. No other flag needs 64 pieces of fabric to make. It has also changed designs more than any other flag in the world. In August 1949, President Harry S. Truman proclaimed *June 14* as *Flag Day* though individual states had started to celebrate the holiday long before.

Another symbol of the country is the ***Great Seal*** of the U.S. You could see it on documents issued by the Government, on U.S. passports, on certain institutions like the U.S. embassy. It was first used in 1782. It represents an eagle with outspread wings. The bald eagle is the national bird of the USA as it was once found all over North America and is considered a symbol of strength and courage of the nation. The olive branch and arrows in its claws refer to the power of peace and war held by Congress. The motto "E Pluribus Unum" ("One Out of Many") means that a new nation was a union of individual states; the constellation of 13 stars represents a new nation of thirteen states. On the reverse side of the Great Seal there is an eye over a pyramid and the words "Annuit Coeptis" (He Has Favored Our Undertaking) that refer to the favor of Providence. The motto "Novus Ordo Seclorum" (A New Order of the Ages) and the date MDCCLXVI (1776) stand for the Declaration of Independence

The image from the obverse of the great seal is used as a national symbol, and is sometimes considered the Coat-of-Arms of the U.S., though the United States has never officially legally adopted any national coat-of-arms.

The national motto 'In God We Trust' expresses the country's ideals. Adopted in 1956 it has appeared on all paper money and every coin since.

The national ***anthem*** of the United States of America is *The Star–Spangled Banner* (*Compliment 6*). During the Anglo-American war of 1812, lawyer Francis Scott Key was escorting a prisoner to freedom by ship when he saw an American flag surviving a battle in Baltimore Harbor. The flag inspired him to write the poem which provides the words for the national anthem. Later it was set to the music of an old song. Congress adopted *The Star–Spangled Banner* as the national anthem in 1931. Today it is sung at

large public gatherings alongside other patriotic songs which are considered unofficial anthems: *America, the Beautiful* and *God Bless America.*

9.2. The Constitution and the Bill of Rights

The U.S. Constitution was adopted in 1789, so this is the oldest constitution still in force.

This document was vital for the young independent country after the American War of Independence. Though the former colonies of Great Britain were officially recognized as an independent nation, the new nation was still a loose confederation of states. For more than a century before the Revolution they used to live as independent settlements, later colonies. Although the Treaty of Paris formally proclaimed them one sovereign state, still each of the 13 states acted like an independent country, with its own laws, its own constitution and, in some cases, its own money. The country badly needed a document that would become its basic law, would be recognized in all the states and would weld them together into a solid political unit.

So, the Constitutional Convention met in Philadelphia in 1787. American leaders got together with the purpose of writing a constitution that could unite the thirteen states into one nation. The men who wrote it included some of the most famous and important figures in American history. Among them were George Washington, James Madison, Benjamin Franklin. The authors of the Constitution, along with other early leaders such as Thomas Jefferson won lasting fame as the Founding Fathers of the United States.

The Constitution set up a strict division of powers. According to the Constitution the government is divided into three main branches: the legislative (the US Congress), the executive (the President and his Administration) and the judicial (the Supreme Court). The Constitution also provides for a federal system of government. This is a system in which power is divided between the states and the national, or federal, government. On the state level each state has a governor, a legislator and a judicial system, each of which is roughly similar in appointment and constitution to the central authority. According to the Constitution, federal law takes precedence over state law.

There was initially a lot of opposition to the new Constitution, as many felt that it did not specifically guarantee enough individual rights. In response, 10 amendments known as the ***Bill of Rights*** was added to the Constitution.

So, the first 10 amendments to the Constitution, known as the Bill of Rights, is probably the most significant portion of the Constitution, as its purpose was to protect American citizens from their own government.

Among other things the Bill of Rights guaranteed freedom of speech, the right to bear arms, freedom of religion, right to complain to and about the government and the rights to trial by jury and peaceful assembly

Free speech means that the government cannot prevent people from saying or writing whatever they want, nor can it punish people for expressing ideas that criticize the government.

Freedom of religion means that each person can belong to any church, or not belong to any. Religious freedom also means that neither the federal government nor

any state government can encourage or prevent any practice of religion. This concept has been referred to as the ”wall of separation” between church and state.

The 4th, 5th, 6th, and 8th Amendments protect people suspected or accused of crimes. Government officials and police cannot arrest people or search them, their property or their homes without some reason to believe that they have committed a crime. It was not until the 1970s or even later that all these rights were granted to Native Americans or black African-Americans.

Under the 10th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, all governmental powers not granted to the U.S. Federal Government by the Constitution are reserved for the states.

Since 1789 twenty-seven amendments have been added to the Constitution.

9.3. The legislative branch of government

According to the Constitution, the federal government consists of three branches. They are the executive branch (headed by the President), the legislative branch (the US Congress), and the judicial branch (headed by the Supreme Court).

National laws in the USA are made in Congress. So, ***Congress is the main legislative body in the country.*** It was instituted by Article 1 of the Constitution of the United States which prescribes its membership and defines its powers.

The United States Capitol in Washington, DC is home of the US Congress.

Congress is composed of two houses: the Senate and the House of Representatives. The way that states are represented in two houses is different. Representation in the Senate is equal while representation in the House of Representatives is based on population of a state.

Each of the 50 states sends two people to the *Senate*. Each senator serves a term of 6 years. There is no limit on the number of terms a senator can serve. A Senator must be at least 30 years old, a U.S. citizen of not less than nine years standing, and a resident of the state in which he or she is elected. The Senate is presided over by the Vice President of the United States.

In the *House of Representatives*, representation is based on the number of people living in each state. States with larger populations have more representation than states with smaller populations. There are states that are entitled to only one Representative – Alaska, Delaware, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Vermont and Wyoming.

The House of Representatives has 435 members. Each representative serves a term of two years. There is no limit on the number of terms a representative can serve. A Representative must be at least 25 years old, a U.S. citizen for at least seven years standing, and a resident of the state in which he or she is elected. The presiding officer of the House, the Speaker, is elected by the members of the House.

The most important responsibility of Congress is that of making the laws of the United States. Besides, ***Congress has some other powers:***

- it decides upon taxes and how money is spent;
- approves the making of money;
- it regulates commerce among the states and with foreign countries (makes laws controlling trade between states and between the USA and other countries);

- it also sets rules for the naturalization of foreign citizens;
- it can declare war on other countries.

Each division of the Congress has some special functions.

The House's special jobs:

- it can start laws that make people pay taxes;
- it can decide if a government official should be put on trial before the Senate.

Only the House of Representatives may impeach the President or other federal officers and the Senate alone has the authority to try impeachments.

The Senate's special jobs:

- it must ratify all treaties;
- it must confirm important presidential appointments to office (cabinet ministers, judges of federal courts, high-ranking officers of the armed forces)

As the Senate has such important functions and because it is the smaller body and its members enjoy longer terms of office and virtually unlimited debate, the Senate is regarded as the more powerful of the two Houses.

In most cases the two Houses have an equal voice in legislation but only the House of Representatives proposes finance bills. Citizens as well as the president may offer a bill. Bills, after being passed by each House separately, must be signed by the President within ten days of their submission, or they become law automatically.

During each Congress, which lasts two years, senators and representatives introduce about 10,000 bills. During that time, about 650 bills are passed by Congress and then signed into law by the president.

If vetoed by the President, the bill may become law only by its repassage by a two-third majority in each House. Because legislation only becomes law if both houses agree, compromise between them is necessary.

So that ***a bill becomes a law*** it should go through the standard procedure:

1. In the House of Representatives a bill is introduced, numbered, printed and referred to a committee which studies it and issues a report to the full House which debates the bill and votes for or against passage.

2. The bill, now called an "act" is delivered to the Senate; here, too, it is assigned to a committee, debated and voted on, perhaps with amendments.

3. Since Senate and House versions must be identical, it is referred to a Conference Committee composed of equal numbers of members from each house. When differences have been resolved, the new bill goes back to both houses for approval.

4. Then it goes to the President who may either sign it into law or veto it; if vetoed, Congress can override it by two thirds of each house.

The legislative branch of every state is typically a bicameral legislature, Nebraska is an exception – it has a unicameral legislature. The upper house of state legislatures is usually called the senate and the lower house is usually called the house of representatives. (New York 's lower house is called the Assembly. Connecticut's house and senate together are called the General Assembly, and the bicameral legislature of Massachusetts is called the General Court).

9.4. The executive branch of government

The Executive Branch consists of the President, the Vice President, the Cabinet and the 15 Departments, and the independent agencies. It is the responsibility of the executive branch of the federal government to enforce the U.S. Constitution and federal laws.

The White House at 1600 Pennsylvania Avenue, in Washington, D.C. is the official residence and principal workplace of the President of the United States. This white painted neoclassical mansion looks cosy. Very few people realize the size of the White House, since much of it is below ground or otherwise minimized by landscaping. In fact, the White House has 6 stories, 134 rooms, 8 staircases, 3 lifts, and there are 5,000 visitors every day.

George Washington laid the cornerstone of the future residence of American presidents in 1793, but the first president never had the chance to stay there. Washington died one year before the White House was completed. John Adams was the first president to live in the White House. In November 1880 when he and his family moved in, it was still unfinished and the freshly painted walls were still wet. Initially it was built of white sandstone.

While in office, George Washington held a contest for the best architectural design of a 'President's Palace'. Americans called it the 'President's House' because the word palace reminded them of the monarchy that they recently broke away from. Among the competitors was Thomas Jefferson, the author of the Declaration of Independence and an architect. His design was entered anonymously, signed only with the initials "A.Z." It didn't win. Thomas Jefferson had another chance at designing the White House when he moved in as third president. In 1814, during the Anglo-American war, the White House was burnt by the British. Later the charred remains of the building were whitewashed. Since then the House has been always painted white.

The White House was redecorated and completely renovated several times, and each change reflected the style of the times and tastes of presidents and their wives. The official office of the President in the White House is the Oval Office.

The President is the Chief Executive and head of the government, commander-in-chief of the armed forces, and leader of the president's political party. His job is to manage all the people who work in the executive branch and see to that that laws once passed by Congress are enforced.

The President's responsibilities are:

- he initiates foreign policy;
- he represents the country abroad and speaks on behalf of the nation;
- as a foremost diplomat, he travels all over the world, performs ceremonial duties, meets with the leaders of foreign nations and can make treaties with foreign countries;
- he appoints ambassadors and other important officials – members of his Cabinet (the heads of the departments), Justices of the Supreme Court;
- he prepares the national budget;
- he suggests legislation to Congress and vetoes legislation that he feels should not become law.

The President of the US is elected every four years to a 4-year term of office, with no more than two full terms allowed. The President must be at least 35 years old, be a natural-born US citizen, and must have lived in the US for at least 14 years.

The Vice president's only constitutional duty is to serve as the head of the Senate, where he maintains order but votes only in the case of a tie. However, the Vice President must also be prepared to take over as acting president if at any time the president should become disabled.

Anyone who is an American citizen, at least 18 years of age, and is registered to vote may vote.

The ***national presidential elections*** really consist of two separate campaigns: one is for the nomination of candidates at national party conventions. The other is to win the actual election. The nominating race is a competition between members of the same party. They run in a succession of state primaries and caucuses (which take place between March and June). They hope to gain a majority of delegate votes for their national party conventions (in July or August). The party convention then votes to select the party's official candidate for the presidency. Then follow several months of presidential campaign by the candidates.

In November of the election year, the voters across the nation go to the polls. If the majority of the popular votes in a state go to the Presidential (and Vice-Presidential) candidate of one party, then that person is supposed to get all of that state's "electoral votes". These electoral votes are equal to the number of Senators and Representatives each state has in Congress. The candidate with the largest number of these electoral votes wins the election. Each state's electoral votes are formally reported by the "Electoral College". In January of the following year, in a joint session of Congress, the new President and Vice-President are officially announced.

Although the U.S. Constitution did not mention a specific start day for presidential terms, the Founding fathers intended for the first President to assume power on the day the Constitution went into effect, March 4, 1789. After the 20th Amendment was ratified in 1933, *Inauguration day* is held on January 20. Before he enters on the execution of his office the President takes the following oath: "I do solemnly swear that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will do the best of my ability to preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States". The oath is taken with a hand upon a Bible, opened to a page of the president-elect's choice. Each president has chosen a different page.

Within the executive branch, there are a number of ***executive departments***. Currently these are the departments of State, Treasury, Defense, Justice, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, Labor, Health and Human Services, Housing and Urban Development, Transportation, Energy, Education, Veteran Affairs. Each department, as their names indicate, is responsible for a specific area. The head of each department (called Secretary) is appointed by the President. These appointments, however, must be approved by the Senate. Each Secretary is directly responsible to the President and only serves as long as the President wants him or her to. When they meet together, they are termed 'the President's Cabinet'.

As is true with Senators and Representatives, the President is elected directly by the voters (through state electors). This means that the President can be from one party,

and the majority of those in the House of Representatives or Senate (or both) from another. This is not uncommon.

In domestic as well as in foreign policy, the President can seldom count upon the automatic support of Congress, even when his own party has a majority in both the Senate and the House. Therefore he must be able to convince members of Congress, the Representatives and Senators, of his point of view. This is the major difference between the American system and those in which the nation's leader represents the majority party or parties, that is, parliamentary systems.

The Constitution puts all the responsibility for the executive branch on the shoulders of the president, so it involves a lot of pressure to hold this position. It's a huge responsibility to be the nation's leader, on the other hand it is a great honor as Americans respect their presidents.

In the U.S. history there were a number of presidents who made a great contribution into the nation's prosperity. Americans pay special tribute to two of them – George Washington and Abraham Lincoln. Both presidents are honored in a number of ways. There are monuments to these national heroes in Washington, D.C. Their homes have been made museums. Their faces appear on postage stamps, coins and bills and both have cities, towns, streets, parks and schools named in their honor. A state and a national capital have been named after G. Washington

As both of them were born in February, the third Monday in February was proclaimed a federal holiday – ***the Presidents' Day***. On this day Americans honor the memory of all past presidents who have served the United States.

George Washington was the first president of the USA and is called the "Father of the Nation", "first in war, first in peace, first in the hearts of his countrymen". He served his country during the Revolutionary War for independence from Britain. When he accepted two terms as president, he saw himself serving God and his country in peacetime. Americans celebrated George Washington's birthday while he was still alive. And, while he was still alive, legends grew up about him. The most famous one says that he was so strong, he threw a silver dollar across the Potomac River. Another story is traditionally told to American children as a lesson of honesty. When George Washington was young, his father gave him a hatchet. He tried to cut down a cherry tree with it. His father noticed the cuts on the tree, and asked his son how they got there. George knew his father would punish him. But he answered bravely: "Father, I can't tell a lie. I did it with my hatchet". George Washington was respected internationally: when he died, Napoleon Bonaparte ordered ten days of mourning in France.

Abraham Lincoln, "Honest Abe", 16th president of the United States, who preserved the Union during the American Civil War (1861-1865) and brought about the abolition of slavery. Among American heroes, Lincoln continues to have a unique appeal for his fellow countrymen and also for people of other lands. This charm derives from his remarkable life story – the rise from humble origins, the dramatic death – and from his distinctively human and humane personality as well as from his historical role as saviour of the Union and emancipator of slaves. Lincoln's reputation began to grow while he was still alive. In the midst of the Civil War, for instance, the *Washington Chronicle* found a resemblance between him and George Washington in their "sure

judgment", and "great calmness of temper, great firmness of purpose, supreme moral principle, and intense patriotism".

Americans commemorate other outstanding presidents as well. Though only one state was named in honor of a president (the state of Washington), four presidents have had state capitals named in their honor, besides quite a few mountains are named in honor of presidents. *Mount Rushmore national Memorial* represents the colossal busts of four American presidents carved at the top of Mount Rushmore. Each face is 18m high and is a symbol of Great American achievement. Washington represents the founding of the Union; Jefferson – the Declaration of Independence and the Louisiana Purchase; Lincoln – the preservation of the Union; and Theodore Roosevelt – the expansion of the country and the conservation of its national resources. The memorial was built between 1927 and 1941 by Gutzon Borglum and 400 workers to represent the first 150 years of American history. It is located in South Dakota.

The executive branch of every state is headed by an elected *governor*, and many states have a position of *lieutenant governor*.

9.5. The federal judiciary

The third branch of government, in addition to the legislative (Congress) and executive (President), is the federal judiciary. Its main instrument is the Supreme Court, the highest court in the nation, which watches over the other two branches. It determines whether or not their laws and acts are in accordance with the Constitution.

The Supreme Court consists of nine judges - a Chief Justice and eight Associate Justices.

Congress has the power to fix the number of judges sitting in the Court, but it cannot change the powers given to the Supreme Court by the Constitution.

They are nominated by the President but must be approved by the Senate. Once approved, they hold office as Supreme Court justices for life**.** A decision of the Supreme Court cannot be appealed to any other court. Neither the President nor Congress can change their decisions. The Supreme Court has original jurisdiction in cases involving foreign nations or their citizens, treaties, violations of laws made by Congress, any part of the Constitution or its amendments, foreign officials, crimes committed on U.S. ships at sea, federal property, and controversies between states.

In addition to the Supreme Court, Congress has established 12 U.S. Courts of Appeal and, below them, 94 federal district courts.

Federal courts have the power to rule on both criminal and civil cases. Criminal action under federal jurisdiction includes such cases as treason, destruction of government property, counterfeiting, hijacking, and narcotics violations. Civil cases include violations of other people's rights, such as damaging property, violating a contract, or making libelous statements.

The judicial branch of every state is typically headed by a supreme court which hears appeals from lower state courts. The structure of courts and the methods by which judges are elected or appointed is determined by legislation or the state constitution.

9.6. Checks and balances

The Constitution sets up a strict division or separation of powers, classifying governmental powers as executive, legislative and judicial, and entrusting the performance of each to separate agencies (the US Presidency, Congress, and Supreme Court).

The Constitution provides the policy of '***checks and balances***'. The powers given to each branch of government are carefully balanced by the powers of the other two. Each branch serves as a check on the others. This is to keep any branch from gaining too much power or from misusing its powers. The theory of 'separated powers' was directed against too great a concentration of power in any of the governmental body.

One house of the US Congress was intended to act as a brake to the other. The Congress would pass laws, but the President would enforce them.

The President has the power to veto acts of the legislature, but that body might override it by a two-thirds vote of both houses. The President can appoint important officials of his administration, but they must be approved by the Senate. The President has also the power to name all federal judges; the Senate, too, must approve them.

Moreover, the Congress might impeach the Chief Executive and remove him from office. Congress can also refuse to provide funds requested by the President.

The courts have the power to determine the constitutionality of all acts of Congress and of Presidential actions, and to strike down those they find unconstitutional.

There were few cases of impeachment of the president in the U.S. history. The latest was in 1998, when Bill Clinton was impeached by the House of Representatives on charges of "high crimes and misdemeanors" for lying about a sexual relationship with White House intern Monica Lewinsky but was later acquitted by the Senate. Another case is connected with the Watergate scandal, an American political scandal and constitutional crisis of the 1970s, which eventually led to the resignation of the Republican President Richard Nixon. The affair was named after the hotel where the burglary that led to a series of investigations occurred. The investigations revealed Nixon's cover-up of his operatives' break-in into the Democratic National Committee headquarters at the Watergate office complex and illegal involvement of the FBI and the CIA on behalf of Nixon. The events were exposed and chronicled by the Washington Post newspaper. Further lies and media manipulation resulted in the impeachment of Nixon and eventually his resignation on August 9, 1974.

The system of checks and balances makes compromise and consensus necessary. It also protects against extremes.

9.7. Political parties

The U.S. Constitution says nothing about political parties. Over time the United States has developed a two-party system. The federal and state governments are dominated by two major political parties, the Republicans and the Democrats, with the

Republican Party being more conservative and the Democratic Party being more liberal. There are other parties besides these two.

The Democratic Party is the oldest party in the U.S. Democrats often want the government to establish social programs for people in need, such as the poor, the unemployed and the elderly. They usually say they believe in equal rights for women and minorities and they oppose nuclear weapons and too much military spending. The symbol of the Democratic Party (from political cartoons) is the donkey.

The Republican Party was founded in 1854 over the issue of slavery. The first Republican candidate to become President was Abraham Lincoln. In general, Republicans vote more conservatively than Democrats. They want government to support big business but not to control the lives of citizens. They often oppose government spending for social programs but support military spending. The party symbol is the elephant.

Sometimes the Democrats are thought of as associated with labor, and the Republicans – with business and industry. Republicans also tend to oppose the greater involvement of the federal government in some areas of public life which they consider to be the responsibility of the states and communities. Democrats, on the other hand, tend to favor a more active role of the central government in social matters.

The Republicans generally receive more funding and support from business groups, religious Christians, and rural Americans, while the Democrats receive more support from labour unions and minority ethnic groups. Because federal elections in the U.S. are among the most expensive in the world, access to funds is vital in the political system. Thus corporations, unions, and other organized groups that provide funds and political support to parties and politicians play a very large role in determining political agendas and government decision-making.

9.8. Federalism: state and local governments

The fifty states are quite diverse in size, population, climate, economy, history and interests. The fifty states governments often differ from one another too. However, they share certain basic structures. Each U.S. state has a written constitution and a three-branch government modeled on the federal government of the United States. They all have republican forms of government with a senate and a house. (There is one exception, Nebraska, which has only one legislative body of 49 Senators). All have executive branches headed by state governors and independent court systems. Each state also has its own constitution. But all must respect the federal laws and not make laws that interfere with those of the other states. Likewise, cities and local authorities must make their laws and regulations so that they fit their own state's constitution.

The various state constitutions differ in some details but generally follow a pattern similar to that of the federal Constitution, including a statement of the rights of the people and a plan for organizing the government. On such matters as the operation of businesses, banks, public utilities and charitable institutions, state constitutions are often more detailed and explicit than the federal Constitution.

The chief executive of a state is the governor. A lieutenant governor replaces the governor if he or she can no longer serve. In some states, the governor appoints his or her advisors, and in other states people elect them. High state officials may have different titles, but their responsibilities are similar in all states. For example, the Secretary of State keeps records and announces new laws. The Attorney General represents the state in court. The Treasurer receives tax money and pays bills for the state, and the Auditor or Controller is concerned with state financial matters. The Superintendent of Public Instruction is the highest officer in educational matters.

The U.S. Constitution limits the federal government to only very specific powers. The states and local communities in the United States have rights that in other countries generally belong to the central government.

All education at any level, for example, is the concern of the states. The local communities have the real control at the public school level. Similarly, the U.S. does not have a national police force. The FBI is limited to handling a very few federal crimes, for instance kidnapping. Each state has its own state police and its own criminal laws (and the police from one state have no legal powers in any other). The same is true, for example, about marriage and divorce laws, driving laws and licenses, drinking laws and voting procedures. In turn, each city has its own police force that it hires, trains, controls, and organizes. Neither the President nor the governor of a state has direct power over it. Police departments of counties are often called *sheriffs* departments. Sheriffs are usually elected but state and city police officials are not.

Most states and some cities have their own income taxes. Many cities and counties also have their own laws about possessing guns. A great many of the most debated questions, which in other countries are decided at the national level, are in America settled by the individual states and communities. Among these are, for example, laws about drug use, capital punishment, abortion, and homosexuality. In the U.S., for example, there is no single national law about capital punishment. Rather, at present there are 55 different sets of laws (the fifty states and four territories) with 19 of them having no death penalty. Some states, Wisconsin, for instance, have never had one, and Michigan abolished the death penalty in 1847.

The names of the departments of county or city government may vary. However, in both large cities and small towns, these departments provide similar services to the public.

In some cities, there are separate police and fire departments. But in other places, the Department of Public Safety includes a police bureau and a fire bureau.

The Public Works Department is responsible for the maintenance of streets and sewers. Its employees clean the streets and collect garbage. Most cities hire private constructors for major construction projects and repairs.

The Department of Public Utilities usually provides water, gas and electricity, and in some places, it runs transportation lines.

The Department of Social Services is concerned with the welfare of people who need help, such as young children, the disabled, the elderly, and the blind. Most of the money for these programs comes from state and federal tax funds.

Glossary

amendment, n. – addition, esp. to a constitution

chief justice, n. – the presiding or the principal judge

Bill of Rights – the first ten amendments to the Constitution of the USA

checks and balances – system of limiting the power of the three branches of government

coat of arms, n. – a set of patterns of pictures, usually painted on a shield, used as a symbolic emblem of a state, noble family, town, university etc.

consensus, n. – general agreement

discriminatory, adj. – treating a person or a group of people differently from other people, in an unfair way

enforce a law, v. – carry out a law

enact a law, v. – make a bill into a law

executive branch – branch of government (headed by the President) that enforces laws and sets policy

impeach, v. – remove from office especially for misconduct

inaugurate v. – to hold an official ceremony when someone starts doing an important job in government; ***inauguration, n.*** (e.g. *President Obama's inauguration*)***; inaugural, adj.*** (e.g. *an inaugural speech/address*)

judicial branch – branch of government that makes decisions in legal cases on the constitutionality of laws

jurisdiction, n. – the power to interpret and apply the law

legislative branch – the branch of government that makes the laws

legislature, n. – the legislative body of a state

motto, n. – a short expression of a guiding principle

naturalization, n. – admitting to citizenship

nominate, v. – appoint or propose for appointment to an office

override a veto, v. – prevail over a veto; to overrule and make ineffective

strike down, v. – delete, cancel

veto, n. – the power to reject a bill passed by a legislative body and thus prevent or delay it becoming a law

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What kind of state system is there in the USA? 2. What is the capital of the USA? 3. What two cities served as a national capital before Washington, D.C. was built? 4. When was the national flag adopted? What are its other names? 5. How many stars and stripes are there on the US flag? 6. What is the oath of loyalty to the USA and its flag called? 7. What is depicted on the obverse of the Great Seal of the US? 8. When was the US Constitution adopted? Why was it so necessary at that period of US history? 9. What was the purpose of writing the Constitution? 10. What American leaders were called "*Founding Fathers*"? Why? 11. What three branches of the government were defined by the Constitution? 12. What part of the Constitution protects individual rights of Americans? 13. What houses does Congress consist of? Which of them has more power? 14. What is the name of the building where Congress seats? 15. How does a bill become a law? 16. What are the functions of the U.S. President? 17. What are the stages of the presidential election campaign? 18. What is the President's residence? 19. What

is the main institution of the judiciary? What are the functions it performs? 20. How do the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government control each other? 21. What are two main parties and their symbols? What are the major differences in their ideology? 22. How are the powers separated between the federal and state governments?

Task 2. This is the outline of parts 9.3. – 9.6. of the lecture. Copy it filling the gaps. Memorize it and be ready to reproduce in class.

The Constitution of the USA defines three branches of government. They are… , … , and … .

The main function of the legislative branch of government is … . The main legislative body in the USA is … . It is composed of two houses: the …. and the …. . Representation in the …. is equal – …. people from each state. It makes a total of …. members. Representation in the …. depends on the …. of the state. All in all there are …. members of this house. The …. is regarded more powerful of the two houses because …, …, … (give three reasons).

The main function of the executive branch of government is … . The executive branch in the USA consists of the …, the …, the …, and the …Departments. The … is the Chief Executive. He is elected to a …-year term of office, with no more than … full terms allowed. The official residence of the Chief Executive is … .

The third branch of government is … . Its main institution is … . It performs the following functions: … ,… .

To keep any branch from gaining too much power, each branch of government serves as a check on the others. This policy is called … .

Task 3. Study the list of American presidents that were elected in the 20^{th} – 21^{st} centuries (*Complement 10*). Taking into consideration the ideological platforms of Democratic and Republican parties and situation in the country in the particular historical period comment on the choice of American voters at the presidential elections.

Lecture 10

CANADA

Plan

10.1. Geographical position and natural resources
10.2. Climate
10.3. Flora and fauna
10.4. Population
10.5. National symbols and system of government

Pronunciation Guide

Agassiz [`xgqsʃ]	Mackenzie [mq`kenzʃ]
Alberta [xʃ`bɛ:tq]	Manitoba ["mxnʃ`tqvbq]
Algonquin [qʃ`gʃpNkwʃn]	Metis [meʃ`ti:s]
Appalachian ["xpq`ɹeʃsʃn]	Montreal ["mpntrʃ`o:ɹ]
Athabasca ["xTq`bxskq]	Mt. Logan [`ɹovgqn]
Beaufort Sea [`bqvfqt]	Nares Strait [`nFqi:z]
Columbia [kp`ɹAmbʃq]	New Brunswick ["njH`brAnzwʃk]
Calgary [`kxɹgqrʃ]	Newfoundland [`njHfndɹqnd]
Canada [`kxnqdq]	Niagara [naʃ`xgqrq]
Cordillera ["kO:dʃ`ɹFqrq]	Nova Scotia ["nqvqvq`skqvsq]
Cree [`kri:]	Nunavut [`nAnqvvt]
Devon [`devn]	Ojibwa [p`GʃbwqJ]
Ellesmere [`eɹzmʃq]	Ontario [pn`tFqrʃqv]
Erie [`ʃqrʃ]	Ottawa [`ptqwq]
Eskimo [`eskʃmEv]	Quebec [kwʃ`bek]
Francophonie [`frxNkqvfqvn]	Quebecois [kebekwa]
Fredericton [`fredʃktqn]	Queen Charlotte [`kwi:n`SRɹqt]
Greenwich [`grʃnʃG]	Regina [rʃ`GaʃnqJ]
Halifax [`hxɹʃfxks]	Saguenay ["sxgq`neʃ]
Hudson [`hAdsn]	Saskatchewan [sx`skxGqwqn]
Huron [`hjHrqn]	St Lawrence ["seʃnt`ɹprqns]
Innuitian [`ʃnjuʃSn]	St Maurice ["seʃnt`mprʃs]
Inuit [`ʃnjuʃt]	Stadacona [stqdq`kqvnq]
Iqaluit [ʃ`kxɹvʃt]	Superior [sv`pʃqrʃq]
Iroquoian [ʃrq`kwOʃqn]	Toronto [tq`rpntqv]
Klondike [`kɹpndaʃk]	Vancouver [vxn`kHvq]
Labrador [`lxbrqdO:]	Yukon [`jHkpn]

10.1. Geographical position and natural resources

Canada is the second largest country in the world in area (after Russia) but one of the most thinly populated. Canada occupies roughly two-fifth of the North American continent. Its total area, including the Canadian share of the Great Lakes, is 9,970,610 sq km.

The name Canada originated from a *Huron-Iroquoian* word *kanata*, meaning "village" or "settlement" and was used by early European explorers. At first it was used to refer to the settlement on the site of present-day Quebec City. Later Canada referred to the land that lay along the Saint Lawrence River and the northern shores of the Great Lakes. In 1867, the name Canada was adopted as the legal name for the new country.

Canada is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean (in the north, Canada's territorial claim extends to the North Pole), on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by twelve states of the USA, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean and the U.S. state of Alaska. On Canadian territory, the longest distance north to south (on land) is 4,634 km; the longest distance east to west is 5,514 km.

A transcontinental border, formed in part by the Great Lakes, divides Canada from the United States of America; *Nares* and Davis Straits separate Canada from Greenland. The Arctic Archipelago extends far into the Arctic Ocean.

Canada is such a broad country that it contains six time zones. The easternmost, in *Newfoundland*, is three hours and 30 minutes behind *Greenwich Mean Time* (GMT). The other time zones are Atlantic, Eastern, Central, Rocky Mountain and, farthest west, Pacific, which is eight hours behind GMT.

As to its ***relief*** the country has seven major geographical regions:

1. ***The Hudson Bay Lowland*** is a low, wet, rocky plain jammed between the Canadian Shield and the south-western coast of *Hudson Bay*. Many rivers, including the Churchill and Nelson, drain into the bay. Hudson Bay moderates the local climate; it is ice-free and open to navigation from mid-July to October. The bay was explored and named (1610) by Henry Hudson in his search for the Northwest Passage.

2. ***The Canadian Shield***, the largest of Canada's regions, is about half of the total area of the country and is centered about Hudson Bay. It is a vast, horseshoe-shaped region that is made of very ancient and very hard rock. In the center of the Shield are the Hudson Bay Lowlands, encircling Hudson Bay and the surrounding marshy land. The Canadian Shield has many lakes. They are the sources of rivers that break into great rapids and waterfalls, which are used to provide power for industries.

The Canadian Shield is rich in minerals, especially iron and nickel, and in potential sources of hydroelectric power. Great forests grow in the northern part. Few people live in this region because of its poor soil and cold climate. However, the mining and logging industries in the southern part are important. The northern part is still a wilderness.

3. ***The Western Mountain Region*** is sometimes called the *Cordilleran* Region, after the system of mountains that dominates the entire west coast of North America. The Western Mountain Region is composed of numerous mountain groups. The Rocky Mountains form the eastern boundary of the region. They form the continental divide between eastward- and westward- flowing rivers and contain some of the most scenic landscape in North America. The Rockies include a number of high peaks, among them Mount Robson (3,954 m). Five of Canada's national parks are located within the Rockies (for example, Banff National Park, founded in 1885). Thousands of people visit the Canadian Rockies every year to enjoy the scenery and outdoor activities.

Metallic minerals are also found in the Western Cordillera and the Appalachians.

West of the Rocky Mountains is the *Columbia* Mountain system, still to the west are the Coast Mountains – another group of high mountains, with several peaks rising to over 15,000 feet, including Canada's highest peak, *Mount Logan*, rising to 5,951m.

All along the coast there are spectacular fjords with steep cliffs. Off the coast is a chain of mountains that appear as a series of islands, the largest of which are *Vancouver* Island and the *Queen Charlotte* Island.

4. ***The Western Interior Lowlands*** are between the Rocky Mountains and the Canadian Shield. It is the Canadian section of the Great Plains of North America. The region spreads northwest to the Arctic Ocean. Broad grasslands in the south are known as the Prairies. Three-fourth of all Canada's food is grown there. The amount of land for grain is slightly smaller than Spain. The prairie landscape is so flat that you can really see the curve of the horizon. One half of Canada's farmers live in the Prairie Provinces.

Geologists have explanation for the fertility of this region. The ancient Lake *Agassiz,* formed nearly 12,000 years ago from glacial meltwater, once covered much of the southern Interior Plains, especially Manitoba and Saskatchewan. It "dried up" about 7,000 years ago and left behind a rich layer of soil which was on the former lake bed. This soil forms the basis for much of central Canada's agricultural wealth.

According to the Canada Land Inventory only 8% of Canada's land area is suitable for crop production. About 80% of this cropland is in the western prairies, where long sunny days in summer and adequate precipitation combine to provide good yields of healthy grain crops.

Along the shield-interior plains boundary are a number of major lakes, three of which are larger than Lake Ontario: Great Bear, Great Slave, and Winnipeg.

The region has large deposits of coal, petroleum, potash, and natural gas.

5. ***The Great Lakes – St. Lawrence Lowlands***. Canada's heartland, is the smallest and southernmost region, but about one-half of the Canadians live here. The region comprises the peninsula of southern *Ontario* bounded by the Canadian Shield and Lakes Huron, *Erie*, and Ontario. It extends along the *St. Lawrence* River to the Atlantic Ocean. This is a much smaller region, but it is important for its high agricultural productivity, its intensive industrialization, and its high degree of urbanization.

Dominated by the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes, the region provides a natural corridor into central Canada, and the St. Lawrence Seaway gives the interior cities access to the Atlantic. This section is the location of extensive farmlands, large industrial centres, and most of Canada's population. Canada's leading industrial centres – Hamilton, *Montreal*, and *Toronto* – are in these lowlands.

6. ***The Appalachian Region*** forms part of the ancient *Appalachian* system. It extends from the state of Alabama in the USA to the province of *Newfoundland*. The region consists of very old folded rock formations dissected by valleys. The relatively small areas of lowland of the region extend along the seacoast and the major rivers.

7. ***The Arctic Archipelago*** is composed of thousands of islands north of the Canadian mainland. The largest islands include Baffin, Banks, *Devon, Ellesmere*, and Victoria.

There are two distinctive parts of this region: the Arctic Lowlands to the south and the *Innuitian Mountains* to the north.

The Arctic Lowlands are the most isolated areas of Canada; they are barren and snow-covered for most of the year.

The Innuitians are geologically young mountains similar to the Western Cordillera, with peaks reaching 10,000 feet. Much of the Innuitian region is permanently covered with snow and ice through which mountain peaks occasionally protrude.

The cold climate and permanently frozen subsoil prevent trees from growing. Scattered groups of *Eskimos* support themselves by fishing and hunting. Fur traders, missionaries, and weathermen live in small, isolated trading posts along the cost of the islands.

Canada has rich ***water resources***. With just 1% of the world's population, Canada has some 9% of the world's supply of fresh water. Much of this water is stored in lakes and mashes that cover about 20% of Canada's total area.

Canada is covered with the network of ***rivers*** but their usefulness is limited by two factors: many flow through the northern part of the country, which is thinly populated, and most of them are frozen over in winter. In the densely settled regions, pollution has further reduced the usefulness of the water. Almost all Canadian rivers are characterized by rapids and falls, many of which have been developed for hydroelectricity.

Canada has ***four great basins***, or drainage areas: the Atlantic Basin, the Hudson Bay and Hudson Strait Basin, the Arctic Basin, and the Pacific Basin.

The *St. Lawrence River*, sometimes called the "Mother of Canada", is the main river of the Atlantic Basin, providing a seaway for ships from the Great Lakes to the Atlantic Ocean. With the opening of the St. Lawrence Seaway in 1959, Montreal became a seaport almost 1,000 miles (1,600 km) from the ocean. The city's harbor extends for 26 km along the St. Lawrence.

The St. Lawrence's largest tributaries are the Ottawa, *Saguenay, St. Maurice*, *Montmorency*, Churchill. Some of the rivers are famous for the falls they form, like Montmorency Falls (83 m), Churchill Falls (75 m). But the most famous are *Niagara Falls* (Horseshoe Falls) on the Niagara River, Ontario. This waterfall is one of the world's most voluminous, famous both for its beauty and as a valuable source of hydroelectric power.

The Hudson Bay and Hudson Strait Basin covers about a third of the mainland. The most important river of the basin is the Nelson River flowing from Lake Winnipeg across the Canadian Shield to Hudson Bay.

The Arctic Basin in north-western Canada is dominated by the *Mackenzie River*, Canada's longest river, which flows 4,241 km through the Northwest Territories from its source to its mouth. In North America, only the Mississippi-Missouri river system is longer. Both the Mackenzie River and the Mackenzie Mountains are named for Sir Alexander Mackenzie, a Scottish fur trader and explorer who traced the course of the Mackenzie River in 1789. The chief branches of the Mackenzie are the *Athabasca* and Peace Rivers.

The rivers of the Pacific Basin drain the Yukon Territory and British Columbia. The longest river in the basin that is wholly within Canada is the *Fraser*. It has cut a deep valley from the Canadian Rockies to Vancouver, British Columbia, where it empties into the Pacific Ocean. It is a major river of western North America, draining a huge, scenic region of some 238,000 sq km. The natural beauties of the river course (particularly its spectacular canyon section) and the surrounding countryside have

nevertheless remained relatively unspoiled. The river was named for Simon Fraser, a Canadian explorer and fur trader who first descended it to the Pacific Ocean in 1808.

Other large watercourses include the Yukon and the Columbia. The *Columbia River* rises in the mountains of south-eastern British Columbia and flows southward into the USA. It flows through several lakes and is an important source of hydroelectric power.

The *Yukon River* rises near the gold fields of western Yukon Territory and flows westward into Alaska. The Klondike River, a tributary of the Yukon River, in western Yukon Territory, became famous in 1896 with the discovery of gold in Bonanza Creek and other small tributaries. As a result thousands of prospectors swarmed into the valley. Several years later, with the exhaustion of the most readily accessible deposits, the population decreased drastically.

There are some two million ***lakes*** in Canada, covering about 7.6% of the Canadian land. The main lakes, in order of the surface area are *Huron, Great Bear, Superior, Great Slave, Winnipeg, Erie,* and *Ontario*. The Great Lakes are the largest group of freshwater lakes in the world. They have a total surface area of 245 000 sq km of which about one-third is in Canada. The largest lakes situated entirely in Canada are Great Bear Lake and Great Slave Lake (which is also the deepest lake in Canada – 614 m).

Canada is a modern and technologically advanced country and is largely energy self-sufficient due to its stores of fossil fuels, nuclear energy generation, and hydroelectric power capabilities. Its economy has traditionally relied heavily on a vast abundance of ***natural resources***. Although the modern Canadian economy has become widely diversified, exploitation of natural resources remains an important driver of many regional economies.

Farms occupy about 7% of the country's total land area. Throughout most of Canada, the climate is too cold, the soil is too poor, or the land is too rough or mountainous for agriculture. The rich black soil of the Prairies is the most fertile land in Canada. The grey-brown soil of the Great Lakes – St. Lawrence Lowlands is also good for farming.

Canada is rich in mineral resources, although some of them are difficult to reach due to permafrost. The vast Canadian Shield contains numerous large deposits of iron ore, and such other metallic minerals as gold, silver, copper, platinum, nickel, lead, zinc, titanium, cadmium and cobalt. Canada is a leading source of uranium.

Almost half of Canada's land area is covered with forest. The accessible portions of the huge coniferous forest zone provide abundant resources for lumber and pulp and paper.

Canada is richly endowed with hydroelectric power resources. It has about 15% of the world's total installed hydroelectric generating capacity. Increasingly, Canada is turning to coal-fuelled thermal energy or nuclear energy. Canada can almost meet its own petroleum needs and has a surplus of natural gas.

Canada has rich fishing grounds off both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. In 1977 Canada established a 200-mile fishing zone along both coasts to give the country more control over the management of its ocean fish resources. Off the Atlantic coast the continental shelf extends seaward for several hundred miles. The parts of the continental

shelf with the shallowest water are known as fishing banks, where plankton, on which fish feed, thrive because the sunlight penetrates to the seafloor. The most important of these fishing banks is the Grand Banks of Newfoundland. On the Pacific coast the continental shelf is very narrow, but the numerous mountain streams are suitable for salmon spawning. In the rivers of the far north and the Arctic Ocean there are abundant fish upon which large numbers of the native peoples depend for food.

10.2. Climate

Canada's climate is influenced by latitude and topography. Because of its great latitudinal extent, Canada has a wide variety of climates. The Interior Lowlands make it possible for polar air masses to move south and for subtropical air masses to move north into Canada. Hudson Bay and the Great Lakes act to modify the climate locally. The northern two-thirds of the country has a climate similar to that of northern Scandinavia, with very cold winters and short, cool summers. The central southern area of the interior plains has a typical ***continental climate*** – very cold winters, hot summers, and relatively sparse precipitation. Southern Ontario and Quebec have a climate with hot, humid summers and cold, snowy winters, similar to that of some portions of the American Midwest.

The Western Cordillera serves as a climate barrier that prevents polar air masses from reaching the Pacific coast and blocks the moist Pacific winds from reaching into the interior. The Cordillera has a typical ***highland climate*** that varies with altitude; the western slopes receive abundant rainfall, and the whole region is forested. The Pacific coast, like that of the U.S. Northwest coast, has a climate similar to that of England, with heavy precipitation and moderate winter and summer temperatures. The Interior Lowlands are in the rain shadow of the Cordillera; the southern portion has a ***steppe climate*** in which grasses predominate. South Canada has a ***temperate climate***, with snow in the winter (especially in the east) and cool summers. Farther to the north is the humid ***sub-arctic climate*** characterized by short summers and a snow cover for about half a year. On the Arctic Archipelago and the northern mainland is the tundra, with its mosses and lichen, permafrost, near-year-round snow cover, and ice fields. A noted phenomenon off the coast of eastern Canada is the persistence of dense fog, which is formed when the warm air over the Gulf Stream passes over the cold Labrador Current as the two currents meet off Newfoundland.

All of Canada, except the west coast, has a winter season with average temperatures below freezing and with continuous snow cover.

Ontario and Quebec have more rainfall than the interior plains. The average annual precipitation for Toronto is 800 mm; for Montreal, 1,020 mm. Because winters are not as cold as those in the interior plains, the air is less dry, and enough snow falls to make winter precipitation equal to that in summer. The Atlantic Provinces are wetter than those of central Canada. There are few thunderstorms, and the low Appalachian

Mountains produce only a little rainfall. In general, the rainfall of Canada's east coast is less than on the west coast because the prevailing wind is offshore.

Canada's snowfall does not follow the same pattern as rainfall. In the North and the interior plains, snowfall is light because cold air is very dry. The snow is hard and dry, falls in small amounts, and is packed down by the constant wind. The east and west coasts are areas of lighter snowfall because the ocean usually makes the air too warm for large quantities of snow to fall. The depth of snow increases inland from each coast, reaching maximums of about 240 inches in the Rocky Mountains and on the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Still farther inland, lack of moisture brings depth of snow down again. Freezing precipitation may occur during the colder months in any part of the country, occasionally disrupting transportation and communication.

Canada has a reputation for cold temperatures. Indeed, the winters can be harsh in many regions of the country, with frequent blizzards and ice storms, and temperatures reaching lows of –30º to –40º C. However summers range from mild to quite hot (over +30º C in Montreal).

10.3. Flora and fauna

Both relief and climate affect the distribution of plants, animals, and soils. Ecologists recognize three types of ecosystems that are characterized by stable complexes of climate, soils, and plant and animal life: (1) tundra, (2) forests, and (3) grassland.

1) Tundra

Tundra is the land type of the Arctic and subarctic regions. With long cold winters, short cool summers, and low precipitation, the soils are thin, and the vegetation is sparse. The tundra is the ecosystem most susceptible to environmental damage.

Tundra vegetation is quite varied, considering the climatic conditions. Although the rock deserts are almost devoid of vegetation, relatively fast-growing mosses often surround large rocks. In rock crevices such plants as the purple saxifrage survive, and the rock surfaces may support lichens, some of the orange and vermilion species adding colour to the landscape. Mosses are common, and some species may dominate the landscape to such an extent that it appears snow-covered. The heath and alpine tundra support dwarf, often berry-bearing shrubs, while the ground is covered with a thick carpet of lichens and mosses.

The distinctive animals of the tundra are the seal and the polar bear, the musk ox, caribou, and lemming, which feed on the tundra vegetation; the Arctic wolf and white fox. Few birds make the tundra their year-round habitat, the great snowy owl and the ptarmigan being exceptions. Numerous birds that normally live in mild climates, however, often fly to the tundra for nesting. Two large birds that do this are the snow goose and the Canada goose.

2) The forest regions

Canada has several large and distinct forest zones. The northern coniferous, or boreal, forest is the world's second largest area of uninterrupted forest; only Russia has

a greater expanse of forest. With severe winters and a short growing season, there is a limited number of tree species. Among them the white and black spruce and white birch are common, and balsam fir, and tamarack (larch) also have wide distribution. The boreal forest is an important source of pulpwood and also produces considerable lumber, but much of the northern area is too inaccessible for commercial lumbering.

A vast transitional zone of mixed boreal and tundra growth connects the northern forest and the tundra region. The trees in this subarctic region, with its cold, dry climate, are small and of little commercial consequence.

Along the southern edge of the coniferous forest lie two other transitional zones. In the interior plains the forest merges with the grasslands, characterized by prairie vegetation with groves of trembling aspen and other poplar species. East of the Manitoba-Ontario border is a band of mixed coniferous-deciduous forest that extends into the Great Lakes-St. Lawrence lowlands and into the Appalachian region. In addition to the species of the boreal forest, there are white pine, red pine, white cedar, and eastern hemlock. The deciduous trees include sugar maple, red maple, beech, red oak, and white ash.

Remnants of the only predominantly deciduous forest in Canada grow in the most southerly portion of the south-western Ontario peninsula. It contains species usually found much farther south, such as the tulip tree, sycamore, black and white oak, and several types of hickory.

The forests of the Western Cordillera are complex. The subalpine forest includes Engelmann and white spruce and lodgepole pine, merging with western red cedar and western hemlock on the lower slopes. On drier slopes Douglas fir is common.

The forest of the Pacific coast, where steep slopes facing rain-bearing winds produce a high rainfall, is Canada’s densest tall-timber forest. Abundant moisture, along with the long growing season, favoures the growth of evergreens with very hard wood, excellent for construction lumber. Douglas fir, western hemlock and western red cedar are the outstanding trees; they grow to great height and thickness. Alder, cottonwood, and maple are subsidiary, along with western white pine.

Wildlife regions correspond closely to the different forest zones. The subarctic supports large numbers of woodland caribou. The boreal forest includes nearly all species of mammals and birds recognized as distinctively Canadian. Among these are the moose, beaver, Canada lynx, black bear, wolf, snowshoe hare, and a variety of birds, including the Canada jay, blue jay, grey jay, raven and crow. In summer the coniferous forest fills with scores of varieties of warblers and other small birds that go north to nest. Farther south the white-tailed deer thrives on the forest borders and partially cleared areas. There also are numerous smaller mammals, including the grey and red squirrels, mink, raccoon, muskrat, skunk, jackrabbit, cottontail rabbit, groundhog, and a variety of mice and moles. In southern Ontario the wild turkey, which disappeared because of hunting and reduction of its habitat, was reintroduced in the 1980s with some success. A wide range of wildlife species inhabit the Western Cordillera, with its wide variety of terrain and vegetation. Rocky Mountain sheep, mountain goats, elk, mule deer, and black bears are common in the southern mountains.

3) Grassland

The southern portion of the interior plains is too dry for forests and gives rise to grasslands or natural prairies. Shortgrass with sagebrush and cactus make up the natural vegetation of the most southerly area. Farther north, where there is slightly more precipitation, there is a band of tallgrass prairie. Today the grass area is small, crops having replaced grass in all but dry or hilly areas.

With its high organic matter and mineral content, the grassland soils are among the most fertile in Canada. The best soils for crops are the dark brown to black soils of the tallgrass and parkland zone, the area of Canada that has become famous for wheat growing. Wind erosion is a serious problem in the prairies wherever the grassland has been converted to cultivated farmland.

Among the common animals of the grasslands are Richardson's ground squirrel and the pocket gopher, both of which damage young grain crops. They continue to proliferate despite predation by badgers, hawks, and owls and attempts at control by farmers. The first settlers to cross the Canadian prairies encountered enormous herds of bison (often called buffalo), but by the beginning of the 20th century hunters had reduced their numbers to near extinction. Bisons may now be seen only in wildlife reserves. With the bison gone, the mule deer and the pronghorn antelope are the remaining large animals on the shortgrass plain. Farm drainage projects and extended drought have greatly reduced the prairie's waterfowl habitat, causing a decline in their numbers.

10.4. Population

Canadians do not form a compact, homogeneous people. They are, rather, a collection of diverse national and cultural groups. In the strictly legal sense, there was no such thing as a Canadian citizen until the Canadian Citizenship Act came into force on January 1, 1947.

The population of Canada is 33,506,000 people (2008). While Canada covers a slightly larger geographic area than the neighbouring United States it has only one-ninth of the population. The most populous province is Quebec, the least populous – Prince Edward Island. Urban population predominates. About 76 out of 100 Canadians live in cities.

In recent decades there has been steady growth of the population in Canada. During the 20th century, natural increase, not immigration, was the major factor in Canada's population growth. The rate of natural increase slowed after 1961, however, because of a sharp drop in the birth rate accompanied by a slight decrease in the death rate. The rate of natural increase is much lower than the world average and is about the same as that of the United States and Australia. The life expectancy is longer for Canadians than it is for the peoples of most other countries. The percentage of the Canadian population over 65 years of age more than doubled in the 20th century.

The average ***density*** of the population is 3 persons per square kilometer. But most Canadians (80%) live within 200 kilometres of the southern border, on a strip of land

that covers less than a tenth of the country. In the highly urbanized areas of southern Ontario and Quebec, the population density compares to the more densely populated areas of the U.S. and Europe. The cities with the population of over a million are Toronto, Montreal, and Vancouver.

As for the ***ethnic composition*** of the population, more than 200 ethnic origins are represented in Canada.

About one-half of Canadians descend from one of the two ***founding nations***, Britain or France. At the time of the first census of Canada (1871), about 50% of the population was British and 30% French. Since that time the proportion of Canadians of British and French origin has dropped to about 25% each. This decline has resulted from a reduction in the number of people coming from the United Kingdom and France and an increase in the number from other countries in Europe, Southeast Asia, and Latin America.

Canada is a country of ***immigrants.*** Traditionally Canada has sought to increase its population through immigration in order to expand the work force and domestic markets. The peak year of immigration in the 20th century was 1913, with more than 400,000 arrivals. Immigration was discouraged during the Great Depression of the 1930s, but after World War II tens of thousands of displaced persons from Europe were admitted, and in the 1970s and '80s large numbers of refugees from Europe, Asia, and Latin America were welcomed to Canada. Increased immigration from European countries, Southeast Asia, and Latin America in the latter part of the 20th century has made Canada broadly multicultural.

Canada's immigration policy is non-discriminatory regarding ethnicity; however, individuals with special talents or with capital to invest are given preference.

Canadian society is often described as 'mosaic of peoples'. People came to Canada from the Netherlands, Germany and Italy, England and Ireland, China and Japan, and more recently from south and east Asia and from many African countries. Immigrant groups tend to retain their cultural identity in Canada largely because they have tended to settle in definite colonies. For example, Ukrainians have been attracted to the prairies, where the land and climate are similar to their homeland, and many Dutch have settled on the flat fertile farmland of south-western Ontario, where they practise fruit and vegetable growing as they did in the Netherlands. Many Chinese, Portuguese, Greeks, and Italians have settled in specific sections of large cities, particularly Toronto, Montreal, and Vancouver.

Canada has a large Ukrainian diaspora. There were several waves of Ukrainian immigration to Canada starting from the late 19th century. Today the entire Ukrainian Canadian community numbers 1.2 mln people and ranks fifth in size of all ethnic groups. It is not surprising then that democratic changes in Ukraine find support in Canada. After Ukraine became independent Canada was one of the first countries to recognize it. Canada has also recognized the Holodomor (Ukrainian Famine) as an act of genocide.

Ukrainian Canadians try to preserve their national heritage and cultural traditions. Having been separated from Ukraine, they have developed their own distinctive Ukrainian culture in Canada. In towns and cities across Canada there are Ukrainian museums, libraries, cultural and educational institutions, like the Ukrainian Cultural Heritage Village, an open-air living-history museum east of Edmonton, Alberta; Ukrainian Cultural and Educational Centre "Oseredok" in Winnipeg, Manitoba; the Ukrainian Cultural Centre of Toronto, Ontario; the St. Petro Mohyla Institute in Saskatoon, Saskatchewan and many others. Every year the Canadian National Ukrainian Festival is held in Dauphin, Manitoba that attracts people from all over the world.

Native Canadians, or the ***First Nations*** are the terms for indigenous peoples of Canada who have populated this land for about 10,000 years. The First Nations peoples of Canada include the *Inuit* and the *Indians.* There is one more ethnic group – the *Metis* who have some native ancestry together with another race or races as they are the descendants of marriage between Native Canadians and European settlers, both French and British.

In Canada the word *Indian* has a legal definition given in the Indian Act of 1876. People legally defined as Indians are known as Status Indians. Indians who have chosen to give up their status rights or who have lost them through intermarriage with whites are called non-Status Indians. Through treaties with the Canadian government, some 542 Status Indian bands occupy more than 2,250 reserves. The resources of these reserves are limited, and the majority of Status Indians have a standard of living below the Canadian average. The treaties and agreements about reserves apply only to a portion of the Indian people. Large tracts of land were never taken from the Indians by treaty, and various groups are negotiating land claims with the Canadian government.

The *Eskimo* is a European name for the native inhabitants of the coast from the Bering Sea to Greenland and of the Chukchi Peninsula, in northeast Siberia. Since the 1970s the Eskimo of Canada and Greenland have adopted the name *Inuit.* Inuit, rather than Eskimo, is the term of common use in Canada and is preferred by the latter.

The Inuit have remained largely of pure stock and, despite their wide dispersal, are extremely uniform in language (dialects of Eskimo-Aleut), physical type (Mongolic), and culture. Probably of Asian origin, Eskimos first appeared in Greenland in the 13th century. Before the 20th century, they lived in small bands, and almost all property was communal. Adapted to a severe environment, they got food, clothing, oil, tools, and weapons from sea mammals. Fish and caribou were also important. Travel was by dogsled or kayak. Most Eskimos now live in modern settlements and use guns for hunting and snowmobiles for travel. The Eskimos' traditional animist religion has a rich mythology, and their art, which includes soapstone, ivory, and bone carvings, is skillfully rendered and well developed.

The Inuit who inhabit the far north do not have any reserves and are not covered by any treaties. Their estimated population of more than 27,000 live in scattered camps and settlements of 25 to 500 people. In the latter part of the 20th century, mining, oil exploration and pipeline construction, and considerable hydroelectric developments

greatly affected their traditional way of living off the land. The worldwide decline in demand for furs greatly diminished their income, and they became increasingly dependent upon government social and welfare programs. Education and training programs were instituted to enable them to compete for employment.

It is estimated that, when Europeans began settling what is now Canada, there were only about 200,000 Indians and Inuit. For about 200 years after the first permanent European settlement, the native population declined somewhat because of European encroachment on their territory. High birth rates and improved medical care in the last half of the 20th century, however, have greatly increased the native population.

Canada has two official ***languages***, so it is a bilingual country. English, the mother tongue of about 60% of Canadians; and French, the first language of 24 % of population. In Quebec, two-thirds of the people speak only French. Large French-speaking minorities are found in New Brunswick and Ontario.

About 18% of Canadians have either more than one mother tongue or a mother tongue other than English or French, such as Chinese, Italian, German, Polish, Spanish, Portuguese, Punjabi, Ukrainian, Arabic, Dutch, or other languages, all in all more than 100. The language of the Inuit, called Inuktitut or Inuttituut, has a number of variations. Nowadays most of the native languages are in decline. The only aboriginal languages that are believed to be sustainable at present are *Cree*, *Inuktitut*, and *Ojibwa*.

The Official Languages Act makes French and English the official languages of Canada and provides for special measures aimed at enhancing the vitality and supporting the development of English and French linguistic minority communities. Canada's federal institutions reflect the equality of its two official languages by offering bilingual services. Both languages, English and French, appear on the country's postage stamps and money. Both languages are also used in debates in the Canadian Parliament in Ottawa, the national capital.

Canadian English spelling is in many respects intermediate between British English and American English. However, the spoken language is much closer to American English than British English. It is also influenced by Canadian French.

The French presence in Canada is a unique characteristic. More than three-fourths of Quebec's people have French as their primary language. The French character in Quebec is reflected in the architecture as well as the language. Throughout most of the rest of the country, the French influence is apparent in the dual use of French for place-names, product labelling, and street signs, in schools that teach in French, and in French-language radio and television programs.

Canada has complete religious liberty, though its growing multiculturalism has at times caused tensions among ethnic and ***religious groups***.

The early French settlers brought the Roman Catholic Church to Canada, and today about 10 million Canadians are Catholics. Over half the Roman Catholics live in Quebec, and most of the rest live in Ontario. Most other Canadians are Protestants.

According to the 2010 census, more than three-fourths of Canadians are Christians, with Catholics accounting for about 46% of the population and Protestants about 36%.

Other religions include Judaism, Islam, Hinduism, Sikhism, and Buddhism. Some 16.5% have no religious affiliation at all.

Important parts of Canada's political culture are complete religious liberty and support for religious pluralism. Overall the trend in Canada has been toward increasing secularism in public and in private lives.

10.5. National symbols and system of government

National symbols of Canada reflect historical and geographical peculiarities of the country.

The ***Maple Leaf*** is a national emblem of Canada. A maple leaf was chosen to represent the importance of maple trees to the people of Canada and to represent the maple syrup industry along with the industries of building furniture

The maple leaf has been associated with Canada for some time: in 1868, it figured in coat of arms granted to Ontario and Quebec, and in both World Wars it appeared on regimental badges. Since 1921, the Royal Coat of Arms of Canada has included three maple leaves. The maple Leaf appeared on all Canadian coins. With the introduction of the new Canadian flag in 1965, the maple leaf has become the country's most important national symbol.

The ***Canadian Flag*** is also called the Maple Leaf. It has a red maple leaf on a white background with two vertical bands of red bordering it. Red (representing England) and white (representing France) have been Canada's official colours since 1921. There were other flags before this one, but they all looked like British flag.

Several people participated in designing the Canadian flag. Jacques St. Cyr contributed the stylized maple leaf, George Bist the proportions, and Dr. Gunter Wyszechi the coloration. The final determination of all aspects of the new flag was made by a 15-member parliamentary committee, which is formally credited with the design. After lengthy debate, the new flag was adopted by Parliament. It officially became the national flag on February 15, 1965, now recognized as Canada's Flag Day.

French song "O Canada" was composed in 1880, with music by Calixa Lavallee and words by Judge Adolphe-Basile Routhier. In 1908, Robert Stanley Weir wrote the translation on which the present English lyrics are based. On July 1, 1980, a century after being sung for the first time, "O Canada" was proclaimed the ***national anthem*** (*Complement 11*).

Canada Day, formerly Dominion Day (until 1982), Canadian national holiday, is celebrated on July 1, 1867, uniting Upper and Lower Canada, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia as the dominion of Canada. Following the 1982 partition of the Canadian constitution – which until that time had been embodied in the British North America Act (1867), the name of the holiday was officially changed to Canada Day. It is celebrated with parades, fireworks, display of the flag and the singing of the national anthem "O Canada".

The ***Canadian Coat of Arms*** represents symbols of Canada's historic connection to Great Britain and France. It includes the shield bearing the royal arms of England (upper left), Scotland (upper right), Ireland (lower left) and France (lower right). The shield is supported by a lion and a unicorn holding the British and French flags. Under the supporters is Canada's Motto: "A Mari usque ad Mare" (From sea to sea). Below the shield there are three red maple leaves. At the bottom of the arms are the English rose, the Scottish thistle, the Irish shamrock, and the French fleurs-de-lis. At the top of the arms is the imperial crown. Canada received the coat of arms in 1921.

The ***Beaver*** is one of the national symbols. It was made an official emblem of Canada in 1975. The beaver is an industrious, humble, nonpredatory animal. These values form a fundamental core of Canadian self-identification. The beaver has played an important role in the history of Canada since the first explorers arrived here and started the fur trade. It has been used in emblems by many Canadian companies throughout the years – from the Hudson Bay Company to the Canadian Pacific Railway. It was depicted on Canada's first postage stamp in 1851. Today, the beaver can be seen on the back of the Canadian 5 cent coin, and on coats of arms representing a few of Canada's provinces. It often appears on Canadian souvenirs. Amik the beaver was the mascot of the Summer Olympics in Montreal in 1976.

The ***capital*** of Canada is Ottawa, home of the nation's parliament as well as the residences of the Governor General and the Prime Minister. A former French and British colony, Canada is a member of both *La Francophonie* and the *Commonwealth of Nations.*

Canada is an independent constitutional monarchy and a federal parliamentary state with a democratic system of government. The monarch of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is also the monarch of Canada, the head of state.

The personal representative of the Crown in Canada, ***the Governor General***, is appointed by the reigning monarch of the Commonwealth upon the advice of the Canadian government. The Governor General performs only certain formal and symbolic tasks. On the recommendation of responsible advisors, the governor general summons, prorogues, and dissolves Parliament, gives royal assent to bills passed by the parliament, and exercises other executive functions.

The state was established by the British North America Act of 1867, which united the colonies of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Canada into the provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario.

The basic constitutional document is the Canada Act legislated by the British Parliament and proclaimed by Queen Elizabeth II on April 17, 1982. It replaced the British North America Act of 1867 and gave Canada the right to amend its own constitution. The document includes a Charter of Rights and Freedoms, which guarantees 34 rights including religious freedom, minority language education, and cultural tolerance, together with freedoms such as speech, association and peaceful assembly. Other parts of the Act recognize native treaty rights, increase the power provinces have over their natural resources, and provide an amendment formula, which

requires approval of two-thirds (seven) of the provinces and 50% of the country's population.

Canada combines a federal form of government with a cabinet system. The federal form is patterned on that of the United States, and the cabinet system on that of Great Britain.

Canada is a federation, consisting of ten provinces – Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia; and three territories – the Northwest Territories, the Yukon Territory, and Nunavut (*Complement 13*). Each province has its own government and its own parliament. The territories have some self-government, but they are controlled largely by the central government. The country works out its national problems through its federal government in Ottawa, which represents all the people of Canada.

Federal legislative authority is vested in the Parliament of Canada, which consists of the sovereign of Canada, the Senate, and the House of Commons. The Senate has 104 members, who are appointed by the Governor General on the advice of the Prime Minister. They may hold office until they are 75 years of age; prior to 1965 they had served for life. The Speaker, who is the chairman in the Senate, is also appointed by the Governor General on the recommendation of the Prime Minister. The Senate has less power than the House of Commons. It cannot reject bills involving the spending of money.

The 301 members of the House of Commons are elected by the people of Canada for maximum terms of five years. Each electoral district elects one member of Parliament to the House of Commons on a universal suffrage basis. The House elects a Speaker to preside over its meetings. The Commons may be dissolved and new elections held at the request of the prime minister.

The Constitution Act divides legislative and executive authority between Canada and the provinces. The Parliament of Canada is assigned authority over control of the armed forces, the regulation of trade and commerce, banking, credit, currency and bankruptcy, criminal law, postal services, fisheries, patents and copyrights, the census and national statistics, the raising of money by taxation, and, in the field of communication, such matters as navigation and shipping, railways, canals, and telegraphs. In addition, the federal government is endowed with a residual authority in matters beyond those specifically assigned to the provincial legislatures and including the power to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of Canada. Both the House of Commons and the Senate must pass all the legislative bills before they can receive royal assent and become law. Both bodies may originate legislation, but only the House of Commons may introduce bills for the expenditure of public funds or the imposition of any tax.

The executive body is the cabinet headed by the Prime Minister, often called the "PM", as in Britain. The leader of the party winning the most seats in a general election is called upon by the Governor General to form a government. He becomes the Prime Minister and chooses party colleagues from among the elected members to form the

cabinet. Cabinet ministers are also heads of executive departments of the government, for the work of which they are responsible to the House of Commons.

The ministers of the crown, as members of the cabinet are called, are chosen generally to represent all regions of the country and its principal cultural, religious, and social interests. Although they exercise executive power, they are collectively responsible to the House of Commons and can remain in office only so long as they retain the confidence of the House. The function of the opposition is to offer intelligent and constructive criticism of the existing government.

Canada has ***five major national political parties***: the Progressive Conservative party, the Liberal party, the New Democratic party and (since 1993 elections) the Reform party and the Bloc *Quebecois.* In political philosophy, the Progressive Conservatives tend to be slightly to the right, the Liberals in the centre, and the New Democrats on the left. Only the Progressive Conservatives and Liberals have formed national governments.

The federal government has exclusive legislative authority in all matters concerning the regulation of trade and commerce; defense, navigation, banking and currency. It also has taxing power.

The provinces have exclusive control over all matters relating to education, municipal government property and civil rights within the province.

Similar political institutions operate in the ***government of the 10 provinces*** as in that of the nation as a whole. In each province the sovereign is represented by a ***lieutenant governor*** appointed by the Governor General, usually for a term of five years. The powers of the lieutenant governor in the provincial sphere are essentially the same as those of the Governor General in the federal sphere.

The election of a legislative assembly and the conventions of Cabinet government operate as in the federal House of Commons. The legislature of each province is unicameral and its assembly is elected for five years. The provinces have powers embracing mainly matters of local or private concern such as property and civil rights, education, civil law, provincial company charters, municipal government, hospitals, licenses, management and sale of public lands, and direct taxation within the province for provincial purposes.

The vast and sparsely populated regions of Yukon Territory, the Northwest Territories, and Nunavut are administered by the federal government, but they have both elected representation in the House of Commons and a measure of local self-government.

Judicial branch of government is represented by Canadian courts of law that are independent bodies. Each province has its police, division, county and superior courts with right of appeal being available throughout provincial courts and to the federal ***Supreme Court of Canada***. At the federal level the Federal Court has civil and criminal jurisdictions with appeal and trial divisions. All judges, except police magistrates and judges of the courts of probate in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, are appointed by the Governor General, and their salaries, allowances and pensions are fixed and paid by

the Parliament of Canada. They cease to hold office at age 75. Criminal law legislation and procedure in criminal matters is under the jurisdiction of the Parliament of Canada. The provinces administer justice within their boundaries, including the organization of civil and criminal codes and the establishment of civil procedure.

Glossary

amend, v. – change or modify for the better

birthrate, n. – the number of births for every 100 or every 1000 people in a particular year in a particular place

Buddhism – a religion of eastern and central Asia growing out of the teaching of Gautma Buddha that suffering is inherent in life and that one can be liberated from it by mental and moral self-purification. Followers of Buddha believe in reincarnation (the idea that people are born again after they die, and that their next life depends on how well they behaved in their previous life)

clause, n. – a distinct article in a formal document

death rate – the number of deaths for every 100 or every 1000 people in a particular year in a particular place

displaced person – a person who has been forced to leave his or her country because of war or persecution

Hinduism – the dominant religion of India that emphasizes dharma with its resulting ritual and social observances and often mystic contemplation and ascetic practices, Its holy books include the Veda, the Upanishads, and the Bhagavad-Gita

homestead, n. – the home and the adjoining land occupied by a family

Islam – the religious faith of Muslims including belief in Allah as the sole daity and in Muhammad as his prophet. Their holy book, the Koran, contains the writings of Muhammad, which are believed to come from Allah

Judaism – a religion developed among the ancient Hebrews and characterized by belief in one transcendent God who has revealed himself to Abraham, Moses, and the Hebrew prophets. It is based on the Old Testament of the Bible, The Talmud, and the later teachings of the rabbis. Judaism is the oldest religion with one God, and both Christianity and Islam are descended from it

Justice, n. – the administration of law

municipality, n. – a town, city, or other small area with its government for local affairs

override, v. – declare or make legally invalid

prorogue, v. – suspend or end a legislative session

public utility – a business organization (as an electric company) performing a public service and subject to special governmental regulation

refugee, n. – a person who flees to a foreign country to escape danger or persecution

Sikhism – a monotheistic religion of India founded about 1500 by Guru Nanak and marked by rejection of idolatry and caste

subversion, n. – an attempt to overthrow or undermine a government or political system by persons working secretly within

suffrage, n. – the right to vote in national elections

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Where is Canada situated? What is it washed by? 2. How many geographical regions are there in Canada? Name them. 3. What mountain ranges are there in Canada? What is the highest peak in Canada? 4. How many great basins does Canada have? Name them. 5. What is the longest river in Canada? 6. What river is sometimes called the "Mother of Canada"? 7. What is the largest lake that lies entirely within Canada? 8. name the four Great lakes that are owned jointly by Canada and the United States. 9. How many ecosystems do ecologists recognize in Canada? What are they? 10. What minerals are found in the Canadian Shield? 11. What factors influence the climate of Canada? What climatic regions can be found in the country? 12. What is the average density of the population in Canada? What are the most populous regions? 13. What are the official languages of the country? 14. What are the main ethnic groups in Canada? 15. What were the three waves of the Ukrainian immigration to Canada? 16. What kind of state system is there in Canada? When was it formed as an independent state? 17. What is the legislative body of the Canadian government? What two chambers does it consist of? 18. What is the executive body of the government? Who heads it? 19. What are the functions of the Governor General? 20. What is the distribution of power between the federal and provincial governments? 21. How many provinces and territories are there in Canada? In which of them most of the population are of French origin? Why is it so? 22. What are the national symbols of Canada?

Task 2. Match the following words and word combinations to their correct meaning.

1.Banff 2.Beaver 3.The Canadian Shield 4.The Commonwealth of Nations 5.The Dominion of Canada 6.The First nations	a) the descendants of marriage between native Canadians and European settlers; b) the primary symbol of Canada, used on the national flag; c) the province where the capital of the country and the biggest city are situated; d) the title of the regional representative

7.The founding nations 8.The Governor General 9.The Great Lakes – St. Lawrence Lowlands 10.Igloos 11.The Inuit 12.La Francophonie 13.Lieutenant Governor 14.The maple leaf 15.The Metis 16.Newfoundland 17.Ontario 18.Prairies 19.Quebec 20.British Columbia	appointed by the Governor General; e) the westernmost province of Canada; f) the association of France and several former French colonies; g) the province that was the first to be discovered by Europeans; h) the chief agricultural region of Canada, 80% of the cropland is situated here; i) the province that has the absolute majority of the population of French origin; j) the collective term for the societies of native Canadians, who have populated the land for about 10,000 years; k) the association of countries that comprises the UK and several former colonies; l) the largest of Canada's geographical regions centered about Hudson Bay; m) the traditional ice huts made for temporary use by Native Canadians; n) the animal that was made an official emblem of Canada; o) the largest group of native Canadians; p) the name given to the country in 1867, when it emerged as a sovereign state; q) the representative of the Canadian Head of State, Queen Elizabeth II; r) the first National Park founded in Canada in 1885; s) the collective term for people of French and English origin; t) the smallest and southernmost geographical region, but about one-half of the Canadians live here;

Task 3. Revise what you've learned from the lecture about natural resources of Canada. Using additional information (*Complement 12*) evaluate briefly the state of Canadian economy. Use the questions as a plan for your answer:

1. Is the Canadian economy predominantly industrial or agricultural?

2. What are the most valuable natural resources that Canada possesses?
3. Is the country absolutely self-sufficient in energy resources?
4. What are the most important manufacturing industries in Canada?
5. What are Canada's chief industrial and agricultural regions?
6. What prevails in the economy – import or export?
7. What country is Canada's chief trading partner?

Lecture 11

AUSTRALIA

Plan

11.1 Geographical position
11.2. Climate
11.3. Flora and fauna
11.4. Population
11.5. National symbols and system of government

Pronunciation Guide

Aborigines ["xbq`rJGJni:z]	Hobart [`hqVbRt]
Adelaide [`xdqlejd]	King Leopold Ranges [`kJN`li:qpqVld]
Albany [`O:lbqnJ]	Lake Alexandria ["xlJg`zRndrJq]
Aussie [`PzJ]	Lake Argyle [R`gaJ(q)l]
Australia [O:`streJlJq]	Lake Eyre [`Fq]
Arafura Sea ["xrq`fVqrq]	Lake Frome [`frqVm]
Argyle Diamond Mine [R`gaJl]	Lake Gairdner [`gFqdnq]
Arnhem Land [`Rnqm]	Latrobe Valley [lq`trqVb]
Ayers Rock [`eqz`rPk]	Macquarie River [mq`kwPrJ]
Bass Strait [`bxsstreJt]	Melbourne [`melbO:n]
Brisbane [`brJzbqn]	Murray [`mArJ]
Canberra [`kxnbqrq]	Murrumbidgee [mArqm`bJGJ]
Carpentaria ["kRpqn`tFqrJq]	Musgrave Range [`mAzgreJv]
Coral [`kPrql]	Mount Kosciusko ["kPzJ`Askq V]
Daintree River [`deJntri:]	Mount Woodroffe [`wVdrPf]
Dardanelles ["dRdq`nelz]	Nullarbor Plain [`nAlqbO:]

Drysdale River [`draʃzdeʃl]	Papua New Guinea [`pɤpVq "nju:`gInʃ]
Eyre [`Fq]	Perth [`pE:T]
Fitzroy River ["fʃts`rOʃ]	Queensland [`kwʃ:nzlqnd]
Flinders Ranges [`flʃndqz]	Singapore ["sʃNq`pO:]
Fremantle [frq`mxntql]	Sydney [`sʃdnʃ]
Gairdner [`gFqdnq]	Tasman [`txzmqn]
Gibson Desert ["gʃbsqn`dezqt]	Tasmania [txz`meʃnʃq]
Gove Peninsula [`gAv]	Timor Sea [`ti:mO:`si:]
Gulf of Carpentaria ["gAlfqv"kRpqn`tFqrʃq]	Torrens River [`tPrqnz]
	Torres Strait [`tPrʃz]
Hamersley Range [`hxmqzlʃ]	Uluru ["u:lq`ru:]
Hawkesbury River [`hPksbqrʃ"rʃvq]	Van Diemen's Land ["vxn`di:mqn]

11.1. Geographical position

Australia is an island continent located southeast of Asia and forming, with the nearby island of *Tasmania*, the Commonwealth of Australia. The name 'Australia' comes from the Latin word '*australis*' that means '*southern*'. Its earliest form, Terra Australis, was used on several early maps before the continent was actually discovered and referred to a supposed southern land. In the 17-19th centuries the continent was called New Holland, New South Wales, or Botany Bay. The word Australia has been used since the end of the 18th century.

The continent is bounded on the north by the *Timor Sea*, the *Arafura Sea*, and the *Torres Strait*; on the east by the *Coral Sea* and the *Tasman Sea*; on the south by the *Bass Strait* and the Indian Ocean; and on the west by the Indian Ocean.

Australia extends about 4,000 km from east to west and about 3,700 km from north to south. The area of the Commonwealth of Australia is 7,682,300 sq km, and the area of the continent alone is 7,614,500 sq km, making Australia the smallest continent in the world, but the sixth largest country and the biggest island. The capital of Australia is *Canberra*, and the largest city is *Sydney*; both are located in the southeast.

There are no significant mountain ranges on the continent – the largest part of Australia (about three million square kilometres) is desert or semi-arid – 40% of the land mass is covered by sand dunes.

Australia lacks ***mountains*** of great height, it is one of the world's flattest countries. The average elevation is about 300m. The interior, referred to as the outback, is predominantly a series of great plains or low plateaus. Low-lying coastal plains, averaging about 65 km in width, fringe the continent. In the east, southeast, and southwest, these plains are the most densely populated areas of Australia. The major towns are all on or by the coast, with the exception of Alice Springs.

In the east the coastal plains are separated from the vast interior plains by the Great Dividing Range, or Eastern Highlands. The Great Dividing Range separates rivers that flow east to the coast from those that flow westerly across the plains through the

interior. This mountainous region averages about 1,200 m in height and stretches along the eastern coast from Cape York in the north to Victoria in the southeast. Much of the region consists of high plateaus broken by gorges and canyons.

The Great Dividing Range is a collection of separate ridges, ranges, and hill districts with fertile, well-populated valleys between them. The most impressive part of the range, the Australian Alps, includes the highest peak on the continent – Mount *Kosciusko* (2,228 m). The Polish explorer Paul Strzelecki named it in 1840 after the Polish military leader Tadeusz Kosciuszko. Today the Alps are home to several large national parks, including Kosciusko National Park and Alpine National Park. The Alps also have many glacial lakes and major ski resorts. Other ranges of the Eastern Highlands are the Blue Mountains, west of Sydney and the Grampians in Victoria that look more like hills than mountains.

The central basin, or the Central-Eastern Lowlands, is an area of vast, rolling plains that extends west from the Great Dividing Range to the Great Western Plateau. In this region lies the richest pastoral and agricultural land in Australia.

The western half of the continent is an enormous plateau, about 300 to 450 m above sea level. The Great Western Plateau includes the Great Sandy, Great Victoria, and *Gibson* deserts.

There are some low mountains and hill districts (up to 1,500 m high) scattered through the Western Plateau including the *Macdonnell Range*, *Arnhem Land*, and *Kimberley Plateau*, the *King Leopold* and *Hamersley* ranges. In many places the plateau reaches the coasts of Australia, but there are several narrow coastal lowlands. Most of the western coastal plain is fertile, productive agricultural land.

The coastline of Australia measures some 25,760 km. It is generally regular, with few bays or capes. The largest inlets are the *Gulf of Carpentaria* in the north and the Great Australian Bight in the south. The several fine harbours include those of Sydney, *Hobart*, Port Lincoln, and *Albany*.

A great natural wonder and tourist attraction is situated off the shores of Australia. The *Great Barrier Reef* is the largest group of coral reefs in the world. It extends for over 1,200 km along the north-east coast of Australia. It is not a continuous barrier but a scattering of thousands of individual reefs. The reef has been placed on the World Heritage List compiled by UNESCO because of its unique size and its many different plants and fish. Almost the entire reef in Australian waters now lies within the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park, the world's largest marine park (350,000 sq km).

The chief ***river*** of Australia, the *Murray*, flows 2,589 km from the Snowy Mountains to the Great Australian Bight of the Indian Ocean. It rises near Mount Kosciusko in southeastern New South Wales and flows northwestward to form the border between Victoria and New South Wales. The Murray's main tributaries are the *Darling* and the *Murrumbidgee* – an aboriginal word meaning "big waters". Considerable lengths of the three rivers are navigable during the wet seasons.

Other major river systems in Australia include the *Fitzroy River* in Queensland, the *Ord* and *Swan Rivers* in Western Australia, the *Derwent* and *Tamar Rivers* in Tasmania, and the Hawkesbury in New South Wales.

The central plains region is interlaced by a network of rivers which flood the low-lying countryside during the rainy season, but in dry months they become merely a series of water holes.

Most of the major natural ***lakes*** of Australia contain salt water. The great network of salt lakes in South Australia – *Lake Eyre*, *Lake Torrens*, *Lake Frome*, and *Lake Gairdner* – is the remains of a vast inland sea that once extended south from the Gulf of Carpentaria. *Lake Argyle*, created by the construction of the Ord River Scheme, is one of Australia's largest artificially created freshwater lakes.

11.2. Climate

As Bill Bryson writes in his book *"Down Under"*, named after the British colloquial name for Australia: "Australia is the driest, flattest, hottest, most desiccated, infertile and climatically aggressive of all the inhabited continents."

The climate of Australia varies greatly from region to region, with a tropical climate in the north, an arid or semiarid climate in much of the interior, and a temperate climate in the south. Despite these variations, the moderating influence of the surrounding oceans and the absence of the extensive high mountain ranges help prevent marked extremes of weather. However, some areas occasionally experience extreme weather conditions, such as tropical cyclones, tornadoes, and severe drought.

Because Australia is in the Southern Hemisphere, its seasons are the reverse of those in the Northern Hemisphere. The temperate regions of southern Australia have four seasons, with cool winters and warm summers. January and February are the warmest months, with average temperatures of between 18º and 21ºC. June and July are the coldest months, with an average July temperature of about 10ºC, except in the Australian Alps, where temperatures average 2ºC. In Alice Springs, one of the few population centres in the vast arid interior of the continent, January temperatures average 36ºC, and July temperatures average 19ºC.

Seasonal variations are much less pronounced in northern Australia, which has a tropical climate. This region essentially has only two seasons: a hot, wet period with heavy rainfall mainly in February and March, when the northwestern monsoons prevail; and a warm, dry interval characterized by the prevalence of southeasterly winds. In Darwin, on the northern coast, January temperatures average 32ºC, and July temperatures average 30ºC.

Australia is the driest of the inhabited continents. The arid and semiarid deserts and plains of central and western Australia encompass more than two-thirds of the continent's area. Between December and April the northern coastal regions are subject to tropical cyclones, which bring high winds and torrential rains that can be destructive.

The eastern coastal lowlands receive rain in all seasons, although mostly in summer. The warm, temperate western and southern coasts receive rain mainly in the winter months, usually from prevailing westerly winds. Tasmania, lying in the cool temperate zone, receives heavy rainfall from the prevailing westerly winds in summer and from cyclonic storms in winter. Over the greater part of the lowlands, snow is

unknown; however, in the mountains, particularly the Australian Alps in southern New South Wales and the northern part of Victoria, snowfall is occasionally heavy.

All of the southern states are exposed to hot, dry winds from the interior, which can suddenly raise the temperature considerably. Southeastern Australia, including Tasmania, has among the highest incidences of serious bushfires in the world, along with California in the United States and Mediterranean Europe. In 1994, notably, bushfires swept through New South Wales and destroyed several hundred homes in suburban Sydney.

Thus, central and southern Queensland are *subtropical*; north and central New South Wales, Victoria, Western Australia, and Tasmania are *warm temperate* and have moderately fertile soil. The northern part of the country has a *tropical* climate: part is tropical rainforests, part grasslands, and part *desert*. Northern Australia has a wet season from November to March. Most rain falls during winter.

11. 3. Flora and fauna

Australia's dominant natural ***vegetation*** is essentially evergreen. The tropical northeastern belt, with its abundant seasonal rainfall and high temperatures, is heavily forested. Palms, ferns, and vines grow prolifically among the oaks, ash, cedar, brush box, and beeches. Mangroves line the inlets of the low-lying northern coastline. The crimson waratah, golden-red banksias, and scarlet firewheel tree add colour to northern forests.

Along the eastern coast and into Tasmania are pine forests. Pine ranks second to the eucalyptus in terms of economic importance. The Huon and King William pines are particularly valuable for their timber, but the Huon pine is now considered rare and is usually protected. In the forest regions of the warm, well-watered southeastern and southwestern sectors, eucalyptus predominates; more than 500 species are found, some reaching a height of 90 m. The mountain ash, blue gums, and wooly butts of the southeast mingle with undergrowth of wattles and tree ferns.

The jarrah and karri species of eucalyptus, which yield timber valued for hardness and durability, and several species of grass tree are unique to Western Australia.

The wildflowers of the region are varied and spectacular.

Two of the better-known wildflowers are Sturt's desert pea and kangaroo paw. Desert pea, the floral emblem of South Australia, flourishes after heavy rain. With a distinctive blaze of red around a black centre, the desert pea thrives in the harsh Australian inland.

Kangaroo paw only grows wild in Western Australia and is that state's floral emblem. Taking its name from the distinctive tubular flowers with a velvet-like surface, the kangaroo paw has been used for medicinal purposes by Aboriginals for thousands of years.

In the less dense regions of the interior slopes grow scented boronia, waxflowers and bottle brushes. More than 500 species of acacia are indigenous to Australia. The scented flower of one acacia, the golden wattle, is the national flower of Australia and

appears on the official coat of arms. In the interior region, where rainfall is low and erratic, characteristic plants are saltbush and spinifex grass, which provide fodder for sheep, and mallee and mulga shrubs.

The most valuable native grasses for fodder, including flinders grass, are found in Queensland and northern New South Wales. During occasional seasonal floods, native grasses and desert wildflowers grow rapidly and luxuriantly, and water lilies dot the streams and lagoons.

The isolation of Australia for 55 million years created a sanctuary for ***fauna*** and flora. Many species of animals are found nowhere else in the world, they are *endemics.*

As Bill Bryson writes in his book *"Down Under"*, Australia "teems with life – a large proportion of it quite deadly. In fact, Australia has more things that can kill you in a very nasty way than anywhere else. This is a country where even the fluffiest of caterpillars can lay you out with a toxic nip, where seashells will not just sting you but actually sometimes *go* for you."

One striking aspect of the native mammal life in Australia is the absence of representatives of most of the orders found on other continents.

Australia has a preponderance of ***marsupials*** (mammals that raise their young in a marsupium, or abdominal pouch), with some 144 original species (10 became extinct after 1788). Of the world's 19 marsupial families, 16 are native to Australia. They include opossums, koalas, wombats, kangaroos, and wallabies. The marsupials give birth to their young at a very early stage of development, carrying and suckling them in an abdominal pouch. A vivid example is the joey, or baby kangaroo, scrambling into the mother kangaroo's pouch.

There are 50 species of kangaroos in Australia. They have large hind legs for hopping. Their heavy tails serve as a counterbalance during locomotion and as a prop when standing upright.

Kangaroo sizes and characteristics vary widely. There are burrowing rat kangaroos, tree kangaroos with shortened hind legs and exceedingly long tails, rock wallabies with granulated footpads for gripping. The largest species are the grey (or forester) kangaroo and the red kangaroo.

The koala, also a tree-dwelling marsupial, is found in the wild only in the eucalyptus forests of eastern Australia. Koala is an aboriginal word meaning "it does not drink", though these animals do drink when ill. Koalas are tree-dwelling marsupials with a home range of 14 to 15 eucalyptus trees. They feed exclusively on specific eucalyptus leaves which provide sufficient moisture.

Other well-known marsupials are the burrowing wombat, bandicoot, and pouched mouse.

Australian opossums, or phalangers, live in trees. They include the cuscus, a monkeylike marsupial; the ringtail opossum, which has a prehensile tail: and the gliders, which are also called flying phalangers.

The carnivorous doglike Tasmanian devil is also a marsupial. It is found only on the island of Tasmania. It is a slow-moving, clumsy animal that lives in open forest areas. It takes shelter in any available cover by day and scavenges for food by night.

Although widely regarded as a fierce killer of animals, the Tasmanian devil is actually a poor hunter and usually feeds on carrion, much like a vulture. It is mostly black, with white bands across its chest and rump.

Australia is also noted for its comparatively abundant presence of ***monotremes***, which are egg-laying mammals. Only two types of monotremes native to Australia are known to survive: the platypus and the spiny anteater, or echidna, which is found throughout Australia as well as New Guinea.

The platypus uses its webbed feet and broad, sensitive bill to nuzzle food from the bottoms of coastal creaks from northern Queensland to South Australia. The bill has a unique sensing device that detects changes in electrical fields. The platypus is a skilled swimmer and can remain underwater for up to five minutes at a time. It spends only a few hours of each day in the water. The males have a poisonous spur on each hind leg. Although the poison is not fatal to humans, it can cause agonizing pain.

All three orders of ***reptiles*** – crocodiles, lizards and snakes, turtles and tortoises – are well represented in Australia. The seagoing crocodile is found along the northern coast of Australia, in saltwater estuaries and river mouths. Males average 5 metres in length but may reach 7 metres. Crocodiles feed on fish, crabs, water rats, and occasionally on larger prey – including horses, cattle, and humans – which they first drown and then dismember. The smaller freshwater crocodile, found in the billabongs (streambeds) and lagoons of rivers, is harmless to humans.

There are more than 500 species of lizards, including the gecko, skink, and the giant goanna. Among the dragon lizards are the thorny devil, the water dragon, and the spectacular frill-necked lizard, which unfolds its ruff like an umbrella when alarmed.

Of Australia's marine turtles, the largest is the leathey, or luth, turtle, up to 3 metres in length and 500 kilograms in weight. Among reptiles, only the estuarine crocodile exceeds it in size. Marine turtles thrive in the warm tropical seas, coming ashore to lay eggs in chambers dug into beach sand. An extraordinary navigational sense permits turtles to return to the very beach where they were hatched.

About 100 species of venomous snakes are found in Australia. The taipan of the far north, the death adder, the tiger snake of the south, the copperhead, and the black snake are the best known of the poisonous snakes. Australia's most dangerous snakes are the tiger snake, the Eastern brown snake, the mulga or king brown snake, death adders, the red-bellied black snake, the taipan, and its look-alike, the fierce or giant brown snake.

Among the nonvenomous are blind or worm snakes, tree snakes, file snakes, and 13 species of pythons that suffocate their prey by constriction. The longest is the amethystine, or rock, python, which averages 3.5 metres, and whose maximum length is 8.5 metres. The most widespread is the common carpet snake.

Many ***insects*** in Australia are also poisonous, like, for example, the Sydney funnelweb spider, which spins a silken tube at the entrance to its burrow and kills unsuspecting gardeners; the trapdoor spider, which seals its burrow with a plug of earth;

and the red-back spider, which lurks in outhouses under toilet lids. Many of Australia's 80,000 known insect species also sting.

The largest insect nests are the towering termites' nests, or termiteria, some of which surpass 7 metres in height, connected to food sources by 100 metres of tunnels and galleries.

Of the world's more than 8,000 species of ***birds***, about 750 are found in Australia. The wealth of bird life, from the boisterous laugh of the kookaburra, a large kingfisher, to the brilliantly plumed rainbow lorikeets, makes Australia a haven for bird lovers.

Acclimatized birds include the house sparrow, starling, song thrush, blackbird, pigeon, and, from India, the mynah and red-whiskered bulbul. Although Australia has 19 of the 25 orders of living birds, it lacks woodpeckers, vultures, true finches, and flamingos.

The flightless, nomadic emu is the largest native bird and the second largest in the world. It can run with a speed of 48 kilometres per hour and may surpass 2 metres in height. It is found almost anywhere in inland Australia. Having laid from 7 to 20 green eggs on the ground, the larger female emu wanders off, leaving the male with nest duties of hatching and tending the chicks.

The lyrebird is unique to Australia and is one of the largest songbirds in the world. It can reproduce the sounds of more than 20 other songbirds. Similar in appearance to the peacock, the lyrebird can grow to more than 0.9 meter in length. Rarely seen by humans, it is native to eastern Australia. It is famous for its tail-twirling courtship display, as well as for its incomparable mimicry.

The brolga, a key figure in Aboriginal mythology or Dreamtime, is a member of the crane family; it is common in the wetland areas of northern and eastern Australia. Over a metre tall, the bird is grey in colour with a distinctive red head.

The wedge-tailed eagle is Australia's largest bird of prey and a close relative of America's famous bald eagle, the wedge-tail has a wingspan of up to two metres. They are common in outback Australia.

The magpie, common throughout Australia, is best known for its melodious song. A great alarm clock, their song is typically heard at dawn. They also have a tendency to swoop on unsuspecting visitors that stray too close to their nests.

Other native species are mound-building birds, nesting in hot anthills, and the black swan, the symbol of Western Australia. Also peculiar to the continent are honeyeaters, bowerbirds, nocturnal frogmouths, and kingfishers. Singularly Australian birdcalls come from the kookaburra, or laughing jackass – a raucous, throaty, mocking peal of laughter – and the bellbird, which has ringing, tinkling tones.

The plains of inland Australia are brightened by the brilliant plumage of 55 species of parrots, one sixth of the world total. The gaudily coloured rosellas take their name from Rose Hill, the Sydney locality where they were first observed. There are small grass-eating parakeets, tree-dwelling lorikeets, and budgerigars, but the aristocracy must

be the cockatoos – among them the galahs (sometimes in flocks of a thousand), the screeching white cockatoos, gang-gangs, and the glossy black cockatoo.

Smaller birds include wrens, finches, larks, and swallows. Gulls, terns, mutton birds, albatrosses, and penguins are the most common seabirds. The mutton bird, found mainly on the islands of Bass Strait, is valued for its edible flesh.

Many seabirds are migratory, even reaching Asia and New Zealand. The mutton bird, or short-tailed shearwater, follows a 31,000-kilometre figure-eight loop between Japan and Bass Strait, managing to summer in both the northern and southern hemispheres.

The waters surrounding Australia team with ***fish and aquatic mammals***. Several species of whales populate southern waters, migrating along the Australian coast. Two subspecies are found in these waters – the baleen whales, which filter water and plankton through a whalebone screen, and toothed whales, which chew their food. The baleen species are the southern right whale; the blue whale, largest of known mammals, averaging 29 metres; and the humpback whale. Toothed species include killer whales, which hunt in packs of 40 or more, preying on dolphins, seals, penguins, and other whales; and sperm whales, which in the 19th century were hunted almost to extinction for their oil and spermaceti.

Thirteen species of dolphins are found off the Australian coast. The spinner dolphin leaps almost vertically above the waves while rotating at high speed.

The major scavengers in Australian waters today are sharks. They shred and swallow marine carrion indiscriminately and voraciously, but they also attack living creatures. Of Australia's 90 species of shark, the only dangerous man-eaters are the bronze whaler and grey whaler, the tiger shark, the blue pointer, and the most dangerous of them all, variously known as the white pointer, great white shark, or white death. It may be 12 metres long and displays up to 200 replaceable teeth.

The Australian coast is also plagued by the blue-ringed octopus, which delivers a fatal bite, the box jellyfish, whose trailing tentacles carry venom, the poisonous geographer cone, the well-camouflaged stonefish, and assorted stingrays.

Seals inhabit parts of the southern coast, the islands in Bass Strait, and Tasmania. Dugong, trepang (sea cucumber), trochus, and pearl shell are found in northern waters. Edible fish and shellfish are abundant, and the oyster, abalone, and crayfish of the warmer southern waters have been exploited commercially. The Queensland lungfish, sometimes called a living fossil, breathes with its single lung when low river levels render its gills ineffective.

11.4. Population

Australia is the most sparsely populated of the inhabited continents. The estimated total population is 22,8 mln people, thus giving the country an overall population ***density*** of 3 persons per sq km. The country is heavily urbanized. Some 91% of the

population lives in cities. The most rapidly growing areas are the coastal zones near and between the mainland capitals in the east, southeast, and southwest. In fact, four out of every five Australians live on the densely settled coastal plains that make up only about 3% of the country's land area. The fastest-growing region is southeastern Queensland.

The major cities of Australia are Sydney, the capital city of the state of New South Wales and Australia's largest and oldest city, founded in 1788, a seaport and commercial center; Melbourne, a cultural center; Brisbane, a seaport; Perth, a seaport on the western coast; and Adelaide, an agricultural center. Canberra, the national capital, is much smaller in population.

The average Australian woman has a life expectancy at birth of 80 years, six more years than the average Australian man. Most Australians marry in their mid to late twenties. The average married couple has two children. Average families are either buying or have bought their own home. Four out of five children stay at home until 24. Most couples, 54%, have some period of living together before marrying.

Australia also has several inhabited and largely uninhabited external territories (islands and the Australian Antarctic Territory).

Extensive arid and semiarid areas in Western Australia, South Australia and Northern Territory are still uninhabited or virtually so. This description also applies to remote sections of central-western Queensland and to scattered patches of dry or mountainous wilderness in Victoria, New South Wales, and Tasmania. On the northern and central mainland some large Aboriginal reserves punctuate the open territory.

In the more useful but still arid and semiarid country, enormous cattle and sheep '*stations*' (farms) are held, and property sizes generally range between 80 and 10 000 sq km. Pioneer settlers took pride in the conquest of enormous distances, and that became a national trait.

As to its ***ethnic composition*** the population of Australia is subdivided into 'original Australians' (known as the Aborigines), 'old Australians' and 'new Australians'.

The ***Aboriginal people*** are indigenous to Australia, i.e. their ancestors were the first humans to settle and populate the continent. Most anthropologists believe that they migrated from Southeast Asia at least 50,000 years ago, probably during a period when low sea levels permitted the simplest forms of land and water travel. A rise in sea level subsequently made Tasmania an island and caused some cultural separation between its peoples and those on the mainland.

These original Australians were essentially hunter-gatherers without domesticated animals, other than the dingo. They employed a type of "firestick farming" in which fire was used to clear areas so that fresh grazing grasses could grow, thereby attracting kangaroos and other game animals. Aboriginal people also may have harvested and dispersed selected seeds.

Although the Aboriginal people were nomadic or seminomadic, their sense of place was exceptionally strong, and they had an intimate knowledge of the land.

By the time of the first notable European settlement in 1788, Aboriginal people had developed cultural traits and ecological knowledge that showed an impressive adaptation to Australia's challenging environments. Estimates for the total Aboriginal population in 1788 vary. Current estimates based on archeological research range

between 500,000 and 1 million. About 250 distinct languages existed at the beginning of the 19th century. Bilingualism and multilingualism were common characteristics in several hundred Aboriginal groups. These groups – sometimes called tribes – were linguistically defined and territorially based.

During the first century of white settlement, there were dramatic declines in the Aboriginal population throughout Australia. The declines resulted from the introduction of diseases for which the Aboriginal people had little or no acquired immunity; brutal mistreatment; and reprisals for acts of organized resistance. By 1901 the Aboriginal population had declined to roughly 93,000. It then increased more than fourfold during the second half of the 20th century, partly in response to the wide acceptance of more relaxed interpretations of Aboriginal descent.

Until the 1960s the Aboriginal population was mainly rural. Over the next two decades Aboriginal people began moving in greater numbers to urban areas. In many small, rural towns, Aboriginal families were viewed negatively as fringe dwellers. In the larger cities, small ghetto-like concentrations of Aboriginal people led to demands for greater political rights.

In fact, the social and political status of Aboriginal Australians was so low that they were omitted from the official national censuses until 1971. At the 2001 census, 366,429 Australian residents were counted as Aboriginal people, 26,046 as Torres Strait Islander people, and 17,528 as belonging to both groups. The largest concentrations of Indigenous Australians were in New South Wales (with 29.2% of the national total), Queensland (27.5%), Western Australia (14.3%), and the Northern Territory (12.4%).

More than 70% of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people live in urban areas. Traditional ways of life are still maintained in small enclaves in the more remote locations, especially in the northern and central areas of the continent. Every region of the country is represented by its own Aboriginal land council, and most regions run cultural centres and festivals. A shared desire to reassert their claim to land rights has united the widely separated communities, and indigenous culture is now widely expressed in art, literature, and popular culture.

Some things connected with Aboriginal culture have become national icons. One of them is ***a boomerang*** – a curved stick used as a weapon or for sport. Traditionally they were made of wood. Boomerangs spin when thrown correctly, and many boomerangs are shaped so that they return to the thrower. Aborigines have also used them as tools for lighting fires, cutting and scraping, as toys and as trading objects. Some Aborigines decorate boomerangs with carved or painted designs that are related to their legends and traditions. They treat these decorated boomerangs with respect and use them in religious ceremonies.

Another national icon connected with Aboriginal culture is ***Uluru*** (until 1986 known as Ayers Rock) – the largest sandstone monolith in the world. It rises to 318 m above the desert floor with a circumference of 9.4 km. It is situated in the middle of thousands of kilometers of red, waterless desert in the Northern Territory. Nowadays this area is the Kata Tjuta National Park, which is owned and run by the local Aborigines. Uluru was considered sacred by the Aboriginal tribes and it is famous for ancient Aboriginal drawings and carvings on the surface and in the caves. It is considered one of the great wonders of the world.

Aborigines had a rich culture of ceremonies and mythology. Aboriginal legend describes a ***Dreamtime*** when a Rainbow Serpent created the Australian world. The serpent emerged from beneath the earth and as she moved, winding from side to side, she forced her way through soil and rocks, making the great rivers flow from her path. From her body sprang the tribes, the animals and the birds of Australia.

Aborigines knew the land very well and were well adapted to Australia's challenging environments. For example, they were experts in finding water in the desert. They knew where to dig to find water, how to find water in bodies of frogs, in hollow logs and in roots.

From ancient times, Aborigines created wonderful artwork on the walls of caves. They also created music. A unique woodwind instrument, the ***didgeridoo***, is an Aboriginal invention.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people constitute about 2.2%; their proportion of the total population rose strongly during the 1990s. Also known as Indigenous Australians, these two groups are the original inhabitants of the region.

'Old Australians' or *Aussies* are people whose ancestors migrated to Australia from the United Kingdom and Ireland during the colonial period. ***'New Australians'*** are postwar immigrants from various countries. The United Kingdom and Ireland were traditionally the principal countries of origin for the majority of immigrants to Australia, reflecting the colonial history of the country. Since World War II (1939-1945), however, Australia's population has become more ethnically diverse as people have immigrated from a wider range of countries. In 1947, 81% of new arrivals came principally from the United Kingdom and Ireland, and to a lesser extent from New Zealand, Canada, South Africa and the United States. In 2000 only 39% of new arrivals came from those major English-speaking countries. Since the early 1970 s the countries of South, Southeast, and East Asia have become an increasingly important source of new arrivals, both settlers and long-term visitors (who are primarily in Australia for educational purposes). In 1999-2000 Asian-born arrivals made up 34% of all immigration to Australia.

People of European descent constitute about 91% of Australia's population. Although most claim British or Irish heritage, there are also Italian, Dutch, Greek, German, and other European groups. People of Asian descent or birth constitute about 7% of the population; their countries of origin include China, Vietnam, India, the Philippines, and Malaysia. People of Middle Eastern origin make up an estimated 1.9% of the population.

There is a small but steadily growing Ukrainian community of between 30,000 and 50,000 people, mostly living in Melbourne and Sydney. Ukrainians, despite being relatively poor and recent immigrants, built a network of churches, community centres, financial institutions and language schools throughout Australia, and funded Ukrainian studies at Monash and Macquarie universities.

Australia has no state ***religion***, no single established church, and its constitution guarantees freedom of worship. The population is predominantly Christian. The largest single denominations are the Roman Catholic Church (26% of the population) and the Anglican Church of Australia (19%). Another 19% belong to other Christian denominations, such as the Protestant church, the Baptist Union, the Greek Orthodox

Church and some others. Jewish, Buddhist, and Muslim worshipers make up a small portion of the population. The number of Buddhists and Muslims is increasing, reflecting the changing immigration patterns since the 1960s.

Australians count among their celebrations not only Christmas and Easter, but also Ramadan, Hanukkah, Passover and other sacred and traditional festivals.

The Aboriginal people also have their own central belief system, called the Dreaming.

The Dreaming in Australian Aboriginal mythology is the period of creation in which the known landscape took shape and all life had its source. The Dreaming represents a distant mythic period in which the Wondjina (ancestral spirits) traveled across Australia, establishing life and depositing the spirits of unborn children. After passing on to humans the knowledge necessary for survival and social living, the Wondjina disappeared back into the earth or, according to other traditions, married into humankind. The waterholes the spirits created on their wanderings later became sacred sites.

So the Dreaming is considered to be the part of the present. It can be reentered through rituals using totems, in which the participants themselves become the Wondjina and retrace their journeys, reliving the so-called strong time of creation.

The Dreaming is a specific concept that describes the web of interconnected beliefs involving value systems, and spirituality, which brings individuals together in life and after death.

The main official and spoken ***language*** in Australia is English, it is the only language of 80% of the population. Australian English, which is often called *Strine*, is somewhat different from 'standard' English. Though grammar and spelling are largely based on those of British English, Strine has its own distinctive accent and vocabulary.

Other common languages spoken by Australians are Chinese, Italian, and Greek.

It is believed that there were between 200 and 300 Australian Aboriginal languages at the time of first European contact. Only about 70 of these languages have survived. An indigenous language remains the main language for about 50,000 (0.25%) people.

Most Australians enjoy middle-class suburban ***lifestyles*** in their homes. Apartments – called flats – were not common until recent years. They became more prevalent because of reduced family sizes, the adoption of more cosmopolitan modes of living, and state government efforts to revitalize the inner cities. These developments were accompanied to some extent by an increased sophistication, especially in the capital cities.

Australian fashion generally follows Western styles of dress, but is distinctive for the lightweight, colourful casual wear that reflects the absence of harsh winters. Food and drink preferences are influenced by global tastes, but also mirror the rise of ethnic diversity and the country's capacity to produce most kinds of food, wine, and other beverages in abundance.

A wide variety of fresh fruit and vegetables is available year round, thanks to a mix of temperate and tropical climates. All varieties of meat and fish are common throughout Australia. The diverse ethnic mix has led to wider range of cuisine being available with new methods and foods being introduced.

Popular culture is dominated by an emphasis on leisure activities and outdoor recreation. Great pleasure is taken in traditional backyard barbecues, bush picnics, and a wide range of organized sports.

Australians have a passion for sports, and outdoor activities are an important part of Australian life. Australian Rules football is the country's main spectator sport, followed by rugby and cricket (Australia's national teams are among the besting the world). Soccer and horse racing are also popular. Australians also enjoy a wide range of other sports and outdoor pursuits, including basketball, netball (similar to basketball, but played almost exclusively by women), cycling, bush walking (hiking), golf, tennis, and lawn bowls. With the majority of Australians living on or near the coast, there is great enthusiasm for sailing, surfing, swimming, and fishing. Australians watch a great deal of television, and cinemas are also popular.

Australians overall enjoy good health and a high standard of living, comparable with most European nations and the U.S. Women are generally considered equal to men with the same levels of education, fairly equal wages and important positions in the public and private sectors. Approximately half the workforce is made up of women.

11.5. National symbols and system of government

Australia remained relatively unknown to most of the outside world until the 17th century. The first permanent European settlement on the continent was established in 1788 at Port Jackson, in southeastern Australia, as a British penal colony; it grew into the city of Sydney. ***Australia Day*** is celebrated as a national public holiday on January 26 of each year to commemorate the arrival of the British Fleet of immigrants and the hoisting of the British flag at Sydney Cove in 1788.

Australia developed as a group of British colonies during the 19th century, and in 1901 the colonies federated to form a unified independent nation, the Commonwealth of Australia. The Commonwealth of Australia is made up of six states: New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, and Western Australia – and two territories: the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory (*Complement 15*).

The ***capital city*** Canberra (that means 'meeting place') was founded as a compromise between the two largest cities, Melbourne and Sydney. It is the 7th most populous city in the country, though it is smaller than any of the state capitals except Hobart. It has many national monuments and institutions such as Government House (the official residence of the Governor-General), Parliament House, the High Court of Australia, the Australian War Memorial, the National Gallery of Australia, Telstra Tower, the Royal Australian Mint, the National Library of Australia, and the national Museum of Australia.

Australia's first ***federal flag*** was chosen from a national flag competition held in 1901, though it became official national flag only in April 1954. It is blue with the British flag in the top left corner, representing the historical link with Britain. The large seven-pointed star (the 'Star of Federation') under it represents the six states and the territories. The small stars form the Southern Cross, the symbol of the Southern Hemisphere night sky. The Southern Cross is a constellation that can be seen from all of Australia's states and territories.

However many Australians see the current British ensign-based design as inappropriate in an increasingly multicultural country that has been progressively weakening its ties with Britain since 1901.

The Aboriginal Flag was designed in 1971 as a symbol for the Aboriginal people and a symbol of their race and identity. It was proclaimed a "Flag of Australia" in 1995 and is becoming more popular. It is black and red with the yellow disk in the middle. The black represents the Aboriginal people, the red – the earth and their spiritual relationship to the land, and the yellow – the sun, the giver of life. The Aboriginal flag is increasingly being flown by both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people.

The Australian ***coat of arms*** features a kangaroo & an emu, supporting a shield showing the symbol of each State.

The official emblem of the Australian Government was granted by King George in 1912. The Coat of Arms of Australia consists of a shield containing the badges of the six States. On either side of the shield there is a kangaroo and an emu. A yellow-flowered native plant, wattle, also appears in the design.

The Australia ***national anthem***, *Advance Australia Fair (Complement 14)*, is a revised version of the late 19th century patriotic song. It was declared the national anthem in 1970, replacing *God Save the Queen* which is still used as Australia's Royal Anthem in the presence of the Queen or a member of the royal family on formal occasions. However, the popular song, *Waltzing Matilda*, is often played at international gatherings.

Australia also has other national symbols. The national colours are Green and Gold – taken from the colours of ***Australia's floral emblem*** – the Golden Wattle. The Opal is Australia's ***national gemstone***. Opals are often referred to as the fire of the desert. There is an Aboriginal legend about the creation of the opal – that the rainbow fell on earth and created the colours of the opal.

According to the constitution ***Australia is a federal parliamentary democracy***. The system of government may be described as a mixture of the constitutional forms of the UK and the USA. Like the UK, it is a monarchy, and the British king or queen is the king or queen of Australia. As in the UK, also the governments of the Commonwealth of Australia and of the Australian states are chosen from the majority party in their parliaments.

Like the USA, however, Australia is a federation, and the duties of the federal government and the division of powers between the Commonwealth and the states are laid down in a written constitution. The constitution can be altered only by a referendum that gains the consent of a majority of all the electors and a majority in at least four of the six states, as well as majorities in both federal houses.

Although the monarch of Britain is also the monarch of Australia, the country is essentially independent. The functions of the present queen have been regarded as formal and decorative and, except when she is in Australia, are exercised by a Governor–General who resides in Canberra and by the state governors. Although the Governor–General and the state governors are formally appointed by the monarch, they are recommended by the Australian governments, and in recent years there has been a

growing tendency to choose Australians. By convention, the prime minister (the leader of the party or coalition of parties victorious in the general election) is the nation's chief executive, as in Britain.

The constitution defines the form and duties of the federal government in some detail. The most important of these are defense, foreign policy, immigration, customs and communications, foreign trade, social services, treasury, immigration and the post office. The rest of powers are left to the states: they are responsible for justice, education, health, and internal transport.

System of government is based on three inter-connected branches of power:

- Legislature – Commonwealth Parliament;
- Executive – Prime Minister, ministers of the Cabinet and their Departments;
- Judiciary – High Court of Australia and subsidiary Federal courts.

National legislative power in Australia belongs to the Parliament, made up of the Senate and the House of Representatives. The Senate consists of 76 members (12 from each state and 2 from each territory). Senators from states are elected to six-year terms and senators from territories are elected to three-year terms. The House of Representatives has 150 members, all of whom serve three-year terms. The number of members from each state is proportional to its population, but must be at least five. Parliament sits for 70-80 days a year. Its main function is to debate and discuss bills. The bill is then given Royal Assent by the Governor-General of Australia.

Australia is a true parliamentary democracy. Both the federal upper house (the Senate) and the lower house (the House of Representatives) are directly elected by universal adult suffrage, with a minimum voting age of 18. All state lower houses are similarly elected. Voting in both federal and state elections is compulsory (with the exception of elections to South Australia's Legislative Council).

Separation of Powers is the basic principle – the three arms of government undertake their activities separate from the others:

- the Legislature makes the laws, and supervises the activities of the other two arms with a view to changing the laws when appropriate;
- the Executive enacts the laws;
- the Judiciary interprets the laws;
- the other arms cannot influence the Judiciary.

The legal basis for the nation changed with the passage of the Australia Act 1986, and associated legislation in the parliament of Great Britain. Until the passage of this act, Australian cases could be referred to the highest courts of Great Britain. With this act of parliament, Australian law was made unequivocal and the High Court of Australia became the highest court in the land. There could no longer be any appeal to Britain and the British parliament could not overrule any Australian decision.

Australia has three main political parties. One is the Australian Labor Party, with a centre-left ideology. The other two, the Liberal Party and the national Party, have formed a centre-right coalition.

Glossary

Aussie, n. – a shorthand term for 'Australian' used by both the Australians themselves and the British

carnivorous, adj. – feeding on animal tissues

carrion, n. – dead and putrefying flesh

Coastal / Fringe / Fertile Crescent – the greener and more fertile bands on and near the coast where most Australians live

Down Under – a term used by the British for Australia, the other side of the globe for them

Dreamtime – the creation and beginning of the world in Aboriginal mythology

endemic, adj. – restricted or peculiar to a locality or region

gorge, n. – a narrow passage of land; part of a canyon

indigenous, adj. – living or occurring naturally in a particular region or environment

inlet, n. – a bay in a sea, lake or river

Interior / Bush / Outback – the wilderness, mostly desert, comprising the interior of the country

life expectancy, n. – an average life span of an individual

marsupial, n. – a mammal that usually has a pouch on the abdomen of the female which serves to carry the young

monotreme, n. – an egg-laying mammal

outback, n. – an isolated rural country of Australia

reprisal, n. – the practice of using political or military force without actually resorting to war

sanctuary, n. – a refuge for wildlife where predators are controlled and hunting is illegal

scavenge, v. – feed on dead flesh and refuse

sophistication, n. – the process or result of becoming cultured, knowledgeable or disillusioned

Strine – the Australian name for Australian English dialect

totem, n. – an object serving as an amblem of a family or clan and often as a reminder of its ancestry

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Where is Australia situated? What is its territory? What is it washed by? 2. What is the Commonwealth of Australia made up of? 3. What mountains are located in the west of the coastal plains? 4. What is the subdivision of the Australian Alps? What is the highest point? 5. What deserts are there in Australia? Where are they situated? 6. What are the chief rivers of Australia? 7. What trees are common in Australia? 8. What are marsupials? What marsupials live on the continent? 9. What are monotremes? What monotremes do you know? 10. What indigenous Australian birds can you name? What can you tell about them? 11. What are the most famous national parks of Australia? 12. Do Australians have winters as we do? 13. Which two seasons can be distinguished in the tropical region? 14. Which part of Australia has four seasons? 15. Which animals

did Europeans bring to the continent? 16. Why can't koalas live outside Australia? 17. What is the legislative body in Australia? What is its main function? 18. What is the state system of Australia? What systems does it resemble? 19. How is the British monarch connected with Australia? 20. Which two Houses constitute Australian federal parliament? How does a bill become law? 21. What is the executive body? 22. What political parties dominate in the Australian parliament? 23. What institution is the final arbiter in the judicial system of Australia? 24. What are the symbols of Australia as an independent sovereign country?

Task 2. Choose the correct answer.

1. The name *Australia* means:
a) south land
b) happy land
c) far land

2. The capital of Australia is:
a) Sydney
b) Melbourne
c) Canberra

3. Uluru is a:
a) large city
b) huge rock
c) famous Aboriginal singer

4. The animals depicted on Australia's coat of arms are:
a) the emu and wombat
b) the kangaroo and the koala
c) the kangaroo and the emu

5. A domestic animal which outnumbers people in Australia is:
a) a rabbit
b) a cow
c) a sheep

6. An animal who cannot live in the zoos of other countries as it feeds from the leaves of a few species of eucalyptus is:
a) kangaroo
b) koala
c) echidna

7. The sheep farms in Australia are called:
a) stations
b) ranches

c) farms

8. The name “koala” in an aboriginal means:
a) a small animal
b) a running animal
c) no water

9. The name “Canberra” means:
a) a roaring river
b) a meeting place
c) a narrow place

10. Almost _____ % of Australians live in cities.
a) 60
b) 75
c) 90

11. The Bush is:
a) a kind of plant
b) the rural or isolated districts of Australia
c) a name of a territory in Australia

12.The Dreamtime is:
a) the period of time when ancestors of men created life in Australia
b) life in Heaven
c) the period of time in future when life would be perfect

13.Ned Kelly was:
a) a famous outlaw
b) a literary character
c) a national hero

14.Kylie Minogue is:
a) a famous Australian singer and actress
b) a famous American singer and actress
c) a famous English singer and actress

15.Rupert Murdoch is::
a) a Governor-General of Australia
b) the most influential media proprietor in the world
c) a famous Australian actor

16. Kangaroos and wallabies are:
a) quite different marsupials
b) wallabies are really just small kangaroos

c) wallabies are bigger kangaroos

17. The distance across Australia, traveling east-west is approximately:
a) 8000 kms
b) 6000 kms
c) 4000 kms

Task 3. Read the list of places of interest in Australia (*Complement 16*). Work out a tourist route that includes the major attractions of the continent. Be prepared to conduct the excursion around one of the tourist attractions.

Lecture 12

NEW ZEALAND

Plan

12.1. Geographical position
12.2. Climate
12.3. Flora and fauna
12.4. Population
12.5. National symbols and system of government

Pronunciation Guide

Aotearoa [ˌaʊtiəˈrəʊə]	Rotorua [ˌrəʊtəʊˈruːə]
Auckland [ˈɔːklənd]	Ruapehu [ruːəˈpeɪhuː]
Christchurch [ˈkraɪstʧɜːʧ]	Stewart [ˈstjʊət]
Clutha [ˈklʌθə]	Tasman [ˈtæzmən]
Dunedin [dʌˈniːdɪn]	Taupo [ˈtaʊpəʊ]
Hawea [həˈweɪə]	Te Anau [teɪˈnaʊ]
Kiri Te Kanawa [ˌkɪri tiˈkɑːnəwə]	Tongariro [ˌtɔŋgəˈrɪrəʊ]
Maori [ˈmaʊrɪ]	Waikato [ˈwaɪˌkɑːtəʊ]
Ngauruhoe [nˌgaʊˌruːˈhɔɪ]	Wanaka [wəˈnɑːkə]
Pakeha [ˈpɑːkɑːˌhɑː]	Wanganui [ˌwɒŋəˈnjuːɪ]
Polynesian [ˌpɒlɪˈniːzɪən]	Wellington [ˈwelɪŋtən]

12.1. Geographical position

New Zealand is an island country in the Southwest Pacific Ocean. New Zealand's Maori name, Aotearoa, means 'land of the long white cloud'. It was named so because of the cloudiness of its skies, particularly along its mountainous backbone. It is the effect of the volcanic activity.

New Zealand lies about 1,600 km southeast of Australia, its nearest continental neighbour. It belongs to the *Polynesian* group of islands. New Zealand is the most geographically isolated country on Earth. The only landmass to the south is Antarctica, and to the north are New Caledonia, Fiji, and Tonga.

The country was once part of the British Empire. Today, it is an independent member of the Commonwealth of Nations, an association of countries that replaced the empire. It tends to be overshadowed by its 'big brother', Australia, and indeed many people seem unaware that it is not part of Australia.

New Zealand is an archipelago with over 700 offshore islands. Most are small and uninhabited and lie within 50 km of the coast. The islands are the visible surface of an extensive submarine plateau, and enable the country to enjoy a huge exclusive economic zone (fishing grounds).

New Zealand is about 1,600 km long (north-south) and about 450 km across at its widest point. The land area is approximately 268,000sq km. About two-thirds of the land is economically useful, the remainder being mountainous.

The country itself consists of three main islands – the North Island, the South Island and *Stewart* Island – and several dozens much smaller islands. Most of the smaller islands are hundreds of kilometers from the main ones. The South Island (150,437 sq km), often referred to as 'the mainland' by its inhabitants, is larger than the North Island (113,729 sq km). Stewart Island is 1,680 sq km. Although the main islands may look small on the map, they are larger than Great Britain and about the same size as Japan or Italy.

To the north and east of the archipelago lies the Pacific Ocean and between New Zealand and Australia lies the Tasman Sea. North and South Islands are separated by the 32 km wide *Cook Strait*. It is named after James Cook who was the first European to sail it. On the north side of the strait is the harbour of Wellington. On the south side are the Marlborough Sounds and Cloudy Bay. Cook Strait lies in the 'Roaring Forties' which makes it prone to strong gales and powerful currents. It is considered one of the most dangerous stretches of water in the world.

The South Island is the largest land mass and rather mountainous – it is divided along its length by the *Southern Alps*. There are 18 peaks of more than 3000 meters in the South Island, and more than 360 glaciers in the Southern Alps. The Tasman Glacier, the largest in New Zealand, with a length of 18 miles and a width of almost a kilometre, flows down the eastern slopes of *Mount Cook*.

The North Island is less mountainous, but it is marked by volcanism. The North Island has seven small glaciers on the slopes of Mount *Ruapehu* (which is an active cone volcano).

Stewart Island, located about 30 km off the southern shore of the South Island, is separated from the mainland by *Foveaux Strait*. Stewart Island is the most natural of New Zealand's three main islands – the least farmed, least logged, least burned and least built on. The forests contain the last remnants of what the rest of Southland's native forests were once like. Protecting these habitats, particularly on the pest-free offshore islands, is essential for the long-term survival of rare and endemic species of the region's flora and fauna.

The great advantage of New Zealand is that there are many different landscapes, environments and ecosystems so close to each other. New Zealand's geography includes spectacular landscapes incorporating the vast mountain chain of the Southern Alps (larger than the French, Austrian and Swiss Alps combined), the volcanic region of the central North Island, geysers, fiords, glaciers, lakes, rainforests, limestone caves and extensive grassy plains. There is no location in New Zealand that is more than 130 km from the sea; in any place New Zealanders are "within the sight of the mountains and within the sound of the sea".

The distinguishing characteristic of New Zealand's ***relief*** is its mountainous nature. The South Island contains the highest point in New Zealand, *Mount Cook*, reaching a height of 3,754 m in the central Southern Alps. Maori mythology says this mountain was the greatest of the sky children who arrived on earth when their sky-father, Rangi, descended in a love embrace on the earth-mother, Papa. Mount Cook was first climbed on Christmas Day, 1894 and the area is immensely popular with both climbers and trampers. This climb has traditionally been the pinnacle of New Zealand mountaineers' ambitions and can be considered suitable only for experienced climbers. Mount Cook contains Tasman Glacier, the largest of about 360 glaciers in the Southern Alps. Other 18 mountains in the chain rise above 3,000 m.

The Southern Alps extend about 500 km, almost the entire length of the South Island. These mountains are one of the world's most spectacular mountain ranges. The western side of the chain rises at the coast, with the narrow strip of coastline between mountains and sea. The eastern side of the chain descends to a region of rolling hills and fertile plains, drained by numerous glacier-fed rivers.

The east-central *Canterbury Plains* form the largest lowland area in the country. The Canterbury Plains are renowned for wheat growing, other arable crops and sheep products. Often called the 'granary of New Zealand' Canterbury produces two thirds of the nation's wheat crop and half of its barley and oats. It is also one of the most productive sheep-rearing areas in the world.

In the north the Alps break up into numerous mountain ranges, with the Richmond Range continuing to the northeastern end of the island. The Tasman Mountains form another mountain system in the northwest.

The North Island is less mountainous, elevations rarely exceed 1,000 m, with the exception of several volcanic peaks that are separated by a volcanic plateau. The plateau contains many hot springs and beautiful geysers. In the west is *Mount Taranaki* (also named Mount *Egmont*), rising to a height of 2,518 m. This is a solitary, extinct volcanic cone, known particularly for its near perfect conical. The Maori name, Taranaki, means "barren mountain".

Ruapehu is the highest mountain in the North Island of New Zealand at 2797 m. The volcanic range that includes Ruapehu also contains two other volcanic peaks: Mount *Ngauruhoe* and Mount *Tongariro.* Despite being the lowest of the three mountains Tongariro gave its name to the surrounding National Park. Ruapehu stands right in the center of one of the most active geological areas in the world and it is considered one of the world's most active volcanoes. The most recent eruption was in September of 1995 and 1996. Most of the rest of the North Island is plains and rolling hills. It has fertile agricultural land.

The two major islands of New Zealand could be considered parts of two separate continents. The two continental plates slide past each other in opposite directions. This movement creates 400 earthquakes a year, of which only 100 are strong. Because of the earthquakes the country is also called the Shaky Isles and its inhabitants the shaky islanders.

Most ***rivers*** in New Zealand are fast-flowing due to the mountainous nature of much of the country. Many are considered totally unnavigable but these have become invaluable for generation of electricity. Hydroelectric plants using dams are common and provide the majority of the country's power.

Most of the rivers of the South Island originate in the glacial lakes of the Southern Alps and flow generally southeastward to empty into the Pacific Ocean. The *Clutha River*, the largest river of the island at a length of 336 km, originates at Lake *Wanaka* and is fed by several tributaries as it flows southward. The Clutha River discharges the largest volume of water of any river in New Zealand and has been dammed in a number of places for hydroelectricity generation.

There are eight major lakes in the South Island. The largest is *Te Anau*, followed by Lake *Wakatipu* (Queenstown) and Lake *Wanaka*. Te Anau, covering an area of 344 sq km, and many other South Island lakes are glacially carved through on the eastern flank of the Southern Alps. Several of these lakes are part of the upper *Waitaki River* hydroelectric system.

Water activities take place in the lakes all year round, including water-skiing, parasailing, jet skiing, fishing, cruising, swimming, kayaking, canoeing, sailing, and landing in it by float-plane! The lakes were formed by volcanic activity in times past, they are picturesque and beautiful, with magnificent views to the surrounding peaks; peaceful natural setting offers endless possibilities for relaxation, fun and adventure.

Many lakes are steeped in Maori legend and history. Lake Manapouri is regarded as one of New Zealand's most scenic lakes and this is also the site of the largest hydro-electric power station. Maori legend says this lake was formed from the tears of two daughters of the local chief and the English translation of its name is 'Lake of the Sorrowing Heart' or 'Lake of the Throbbing Heart'.

Lake *Taupo* is the largest lake in New Zealand. It covers an area of 606 sq km in the central volcanic plateau of the North Island. The lake occupies the crater of an extinct volcano and reaches a depth of 162 m. There are 47 rivers and streams feeding into lake Taupo, and just one outlet – the *Waikato River*, New Zealand's longest river. The Waikato flows to the northwest for a distance of 425 km and empties into the

Tasman Sea. It has been dammed in several places for hydroelectricity generation, and its drainage basin is one of the country's most fertile agricultural areas.

Salmon and trout are popular game fish found in New Zealand rivers and lakes. These fish were introduced and trout are now widely established. Four species of trout can be found in New Zealand and of these, two, the rainbow and the brown trout, grow to impressive sizes.

New Zealand rivers provide some of the best white water and black water rafting in the world and nearly any other outdoor danger sport.

New Zealand has an exceptionally long ***coastline*** compared to the size of the country because the coast is irregular and indented with many caves, bays, harbours and fiords. Its territorial waters stretch from the sub-tropical through to the sub-Antarctic.

Estimates range from 15,000 to 18,000 km. The exact length is obscured by the countless twists and turns around inlets, bays, harbours, fiords, sounds and estuaries. Although the North Island is smaller than the South Island, it has a longer coastline.

About two thirds of New Zealand's coastline is hard rocky shore, while soft shores of sand or gravel cover the remainder. Some 80% of it is directly exposed to the sea, with the rest sheltered in harbours and estuaries. The west and southern coasts are more exposed.

The North Island coastline has many bays, harbours and inlets. The coastline is highly irregular in the region of Northland, a 330-km-long peninsular extension to the northwest of Auckland. The chief seaports – Wellington (the capital of New Zealand), and Auckland (the largest city) overlook natural harbours. The South Island coastline is more regular in parts, although exceptions include *Fiordland* in the southwest of the South Island, where glaciers long ago carved deep valleys that the ocean flooded to form fjords.

Doubtful Sound is the deepest of all the fiords at 420 metres, and is the second longest fiord at 40 km long. There are several outstanding waterfalls including the Browne Falls, cascading 619 metres to the fiord. Doubtful Sound is home to bottlenose dolphins, New Zealand fur seals and the Fiordland crested penguin.

Milford Sound is part of the Fiordland region located in the southwest corner of New Zealand's South Island. Milford Sound, described by Rudyard Kipling as the "eighth wonder of the world", was carved out during successive ice ages and, at its deepest point off Mitre Peak, plunges to a depth of 265 metres. Mitre Peak in Fiordland is one exceptional feature of New Zealand's coastline, it rises a staggering height of nearly one mile from the ocean.

The longest beach in New Zealand is Ninety Mile Beach, which is actually about 60 miles long. This beach is famous for its huge sand dunes and resembles the Sahara Desert in places. This beach occupies the north western coastline of the North Island. Ninety Mile Beach is a good hunting ground for a New Zealand favourite shellfish.

Iron sand beaches (black sand) are also common along the North Island's west coast. The unusual black colour is the result of nearby volcanic eruptions.

Over 20% of New Zealand is covered in ***national parks***, forest areas and reserves. New Zealand's 14 national parks contain an incredible variety of unspoiled landscape and vegetation. These parks provide opportunity for a wide variety of activities. Most

national parks have excellent hiking tracks and camping facilities, including nearly 1000 huts throughout the country.

New Zealand's national parks and protected areas are treasures of irreplaceable value that contain features of great historic and spiritual significance to the Maori and hold some of the most spectacular scenery, rare and endangered flora and fauna and archaeological sites.

Tongariro National Park (1887), resting at the southern end of Lake Taupo, has a strong historical connection to the Maori people, who gifted it to the nation as the country's first national park. It has two active volcanoes, including Mount Ruapehu (the North Island's tallest mountain) and many walking trails. A World Heritage Area of both natural and cultural significance, it contains active craters, hot springs, lakes, grasslands, forests, desert-like plateaus and alpine herb-fields. It is a place to explore and remember.

Tongariro is home to many amazing native creatures including New Zealand's only native mammals, the short and long tailed bats. Birds you might see during daylight include North Island robins, fantails and even a kereru (native pigeon). Smaller, but no less interesting are the numerous insects that live in the park.

Fiordland National Park (1952) is bigger than the rest of the other parks put together and the fifth largest in the world. Its vast area includes extensive walking tracks, lakes, rainforests and stunning fiords, including the famous Milford and Doubtful Sounds. It is a vast, remote wilderness that is spectacular, overwhelming and virtually uninhabited. The variety of habitats in Fiordland allow a diverse flora and fauna to thrive and it is home to some rare New Zealand species.

The Abel Tasman National Park is located at the top of the South Island. It is the smallest national park in New Zealand. Abel Tasman is renowned for its unspoiled beaches of golden sand stretching along the shores of Tasman Bay, sculptured granite cliffs, numerous tidal inlets and estuaries and its world- famous coastal track. Named after the Dutch seafarer who visited the bay in 1642, it is rich in both early Maori and European settlement history.

Land is one of the country's most valuable resources. Much of the soil is not naturally fertile, however, and has to be supplemented with fertilizers for crop cultivation. More than half of the land area is either cropland or pastureland. Most of the arable land is found on the east coasts of both islands, in particular the Canterbury Plains.

Mineral resources are limited, with some reserves of coal, gold, iron ore and limestone. Significant stocks of natural gas and less plentiful reserves of oil are located both offshore and in the western region of the North Island.

12.2. Climate

New Zealand is roughly midway between Antarctica and the tropics, lying between 34º and 47º latitude south. This spans the "roaring forties", which can bring high winds and stormy seas to much of the country. The northern outlying islands are subtropical, while those in the south are sub-Antarctic. Between these extremes, New Zealand's

climate is cool to temperate, but can vary widely, even within one day. The saying "Raining at seven, fine by eleven" often rings true for the weather forecasters.

New Zealand has mild temperatures, moderately high rainfall, and many hours of sunshine throughout most of the country. Its climate is dominated by two main geographical features – the mountains and the sea. The climate is oceanic temperate.

North Island has a warm mild climate, almost subtropical in the extreme north. Auckland average summer temperature is about 21ºC and winter is 11ºC. Annual rainfall in North Island is around 125-150 cm, the west receiving slightly more rain than the east.

South Island is colder; Dunedin has average summer temperatures of about 15ºC and winter 6ºC. The contrast in rainfall across South Island is much greater due to the Southern Alps and varies from 300 cm on the west coast to 65 cm on the Canterbury Plains and Christchurch.

New Zealand's summer months are December to February, bringing high temperatures and sunshine. Days are long and sunny, nights are mild. Summer is an excellent time for walking in the bush and a variety of other outdoor activities. New Zealand's many gorgeous beaches are ideal for swimming, sunbathing, surfing, boating and water sports during summer.

March to May are New Zealand's autumn months. While temperatures are a little cooler than summer, the weather can be excellent, and it is possible to swim in some places until April. While New Zealand's native fauna is evergreen, there are many introduced deciduous trees. Colourful changing leaves make autumn a scenic delight, especially in regions such as Central Otago and Hawke's Bay, which are known for their autumn splendour.

New Zealand's winter months of June to August bring colder weather to much of the country, and more rain to most areas in the North Island. Mountain ranges in both islands become snow-covered, providing beautiful vistas and excellent skiing. While the South Island has cooler winter temperatures, some areas of the island experience little rainfall in winter, so this is an excellent time to visit glaciers, mountains, and other areas of scenic beauty.

Spring lasts from September to November, and New Zealand's spring weather can range from cold and frosty to warm and hot. During spring buds, blossoms, and other new growth burst forth throughout the country. Both Alexandra in Central Otago and Hastings in Hawke's Bay celebrate spring with a blossom festival.

The wind comes to New Zealand mainly from the west. One of the most readily recognisable regional winds is Canterbury's *north-wester* – a hot, dry wind. And the whole country knows the *southerly*, which blasts up from Antarctica.

The distribution of New Zealand's abundant rainfall is greatly affected by the mountains. The general rule is that east is drier, west is wetter. The mean annual rainfall varies from 300 mm in Central Otago to over 6,000 mm at Milford Sound, on the south-west coast. The highest recorded annual rainfall was over 18,000 mm, measured at Cropp River on the West Coast. However, most areas receive 600-1,500 mm, and large areas of both islands receive over 2,500 mm a year.

As New Zealand lies just west of the International Date Line, Chatham Islanders are the first people to see the sun rise each day.

Most places in New Zealand receive over 2000 hours of sunshine a year, with the sunniest areas – Bay of Plenty, Hawke's Bay and Nelson/Marlborough – receiving over 2350 hours. Much of the country gets at least 2,000 sunshine hours a year, and even rainy Westland, which tourists dub "Wetland", has 1,800 hours. Annual sunshine hours drop to around 1,700 a year in Southland and coastal Otago. Many retired people move to the sunnier northern and eastern areas. But the New Zealand sun is especially harsh, and Auckland has the highest rate of melanoma (skin cancer) in the world.

12.3. Flora and fauna

About 80-100 million years ago, New Zealand drifted away from the massive supercontinent of Gondwanaland into the South Pacific. Since then, a unique flora and fauna has evolved, with a large number of beautiful native birds and plants, as well as direct descendants of prehistoric wildlife, including the tuatara, weta, and giant snail.

High percentages of New Zealand's indigenous species are endemic (found only in New Zealand). This is remarkable internationally; Britain has only two endemic species: one plant and one animal. Yet around 90 % of New Zealand's insects and marine molluscs, 80% of trees, ferns, and flowering plants and 25% of bird species, all 60 reptiles, four remaining frogs and two species of bat are found nowhere else on Earth.

Because of New Zealand's isolation there was no higher animal life in the country when the Maori arrived. Two species of bats are the only native land mammals. The wild mammals – deer, rabbits, goats, pigs, weasels, ferrets, and opossums – were introduced from other countries.

New Zealand has many unique species of ***animals*** including the world's only flightless parrot (the kakapo), and a bird with nostrils at the end of its beak (the kiwi), and the sole remaining species of an order of reptiles which evolved around 220 million years ago and has the remnants of a third eye (the tuatara).

Tuatara is often called a "Living Fossil". It is a reptile with links to the dinosaur. The tuatara is a unique relic of the past – the only beak-headed reptile left in the world. Every species of this reptile family, except the tuatara, died out around 65 million years ago.

The native tuatara is found mainly on islands around New Zealand's coast. Tuatara can live for over 100 years, and were once found throughout New Zealand. Now they are only found on protected offshore islands – around 30,000 live on Stephens Island in the Marlborough Sounds.

New Zealand's national symbol is a nocturnal flightless bird with nostrils on the end of its large beak – the kiwi. It is now endangered, and difficult to see in the wild. However there are a number of "kiwi houses" at zoos and wildlife parks.

Kiwis grow to about the size of a chicken and weigh between 1.5 and 2.5 kilograms. They have no tail and tiny two inch wings which for all practical purposes are useless. Despite its awkward appearance, a kiwi can actually outrun a human and have managed to survive because of their alertness and their sharp, three-toed feet, which enable them to kick and slash an enemy.

The kiwi's long slender bill has nostrils at the lower end, which is unusual, but the strangest fact about kiwis is that although the size of a chicken, they lay eggs the size of those laid by an ostrich. Kiwi eggs are proportionally larger compared to the size of the adult female than the eggs of any other bird. An egg may reach one-quarter of its mother's weight.

Kiwis have been known to live up to twenty years.

Before the coming of the Maori, the kiwi had no predators. Although the Maori valued kiwi feathers for making cloaks, the number of birds killed by Maoris was probably insignificant. During the latter part of last century, many thousands of kiwis were captured by Europeans for zoos, museums and private collections. Bush clearing, introduced predators, opossum traps and motor vehicles have all contributed to the reduction in the kiwi population.

Nowadays the kiwi is a symbol of New Zealand in much the same way that the bald eagle is a symbol of the U.S.

Other well-known New Zealand native birds include the kea (native parrot), weka, takahe, tui, and morepork owl. The playful kea is one of the most intelligent birds in the world and will happily attack a car in order to steal a windscreen wiper or other bits of rubber! The loveable weka is a flightless bird with a fondness for shiny objects, while the takahe has a beautiful indigo plumage and bright red beak. The takahe was believed to be extinct until it was sensationally "rediscovered" in 1948 by New Zealand ornithologist Dr. G.B. Orbell. Like many of New Zealand's native birds, the tui has a beautiful song, and a white "parson's collar". The morepork owl is so named because of the sound of its call, often heard at night. Its Maori name, ruru, is also named after its call.

Other birds peculiar to New Zealand are the kakapo, the saddleback, and native thrushes. Penguins, shags, and the royal albatross are found in New Zealand and the Antarctic. Migratory birds include the cuckoo, godwit, and gannet.

New Zealand also boasts the world's heaviest insect, the giant weta.

Introduced species – pigs, goats, possums, dogs, cats, deer and the ubiquitous sheep – are found throughout New Zealand but their proliferation in the wild has had a deleterious effect on the environment.

The abundant fish of New Zealand include tropical species such as tuna and marling, as well as cod and hake in the Antarctic currents. Groper, bass, and crayfish are found in coastal waters. The inland waters are stocked with acclimatized species of salmon and trout. Hector's dolphin is the world's rarest dolphin and only found in New Zealand waters.

New Zealand's high rainfall and many sunshine hours give the country a lush and ***diverse flora*** – with 80% of the trees, ferns, and flowering plants being native. From the kauri forests of the far north to the mountain beech forests and alpine tussock of the Southern Alps, you'll find fascinating plants and trees in every region. The majestic evergreen native forests include rimu, manuka (tea-tree), totara, many varieties of beech, and the largest native tree of them all, the giant kauri.

The most famous plant of New Zealand is kiwifruit. It originated in China, and was grown for decades in New Zealand gardens as Chinese gooseberries. However, when

enterprising and industrious farmers began propagating the fruit for export, it was given the name kiwifruit, and it is now distributed worldwide.

Other plants are ferns, the golden kowhai and the scarlet pohutukawa.

About three-quarters of the native flowering plants are unique; subalpine species in particular are of interest to botanists. On the coast, large native flax, toetoe and pampas grass, and mangroves in the north are common roadside sights, as are the large coastal pohutukawa trees. These are known as the "New Zealand Christmas tree" because their red flowers appear abundantly in December.

About 30% of the land area is forested. The country has 6.4 mln hectares of old-growth forest, much of which is designated for preservation. In addition, some forests are plantations of imported species such as the radiata pine. The western Southern Alps of the South Island constitute the largest forested area of the country and include extensive area of native forest. The North Island has native forest mainly in more remote areas, notably around Mount Taranaki and in isolated pockets of Northland.

European settlement made such damage to the natural forest that erosion became a serious problem. To repair the damage some areas on the volcanic plateau were planted with radiate (or Monterrey) pine, introduced from California. It grows much better in New Zealand than in the U.S. and is loved by New Zealanders.

12.4. Population

New Zealander's population is over 4 mln people. The Pakeha (the Maori word European settlers) make up 77% of the total population. Most immigrants came from the British Isles; other Eurasian residents include small groups of Danish, Dutch, German, Greek, Dalmatian (Croatian), Hungarian, Italian, Chinese, Indochinese, and Indian extraction. Maori constitute approximately 15%, Asian – 10%, and other Pacific islanders – 7% (the total number is greater than number of people because many people identify with more than one nation).

The country is not densely populated. Population density is about 16,5 persons per sq km. The population is very unevenly distributed. Three-fourths of New Zealanders live on the North Island. About 84% of the people live in urban areas, and about half of these – in the four largest cities and their suburbs. Nearly one-third of the country (the Southern Alps and the mountainous centre of the North Island) is uninhabited.

The ancestors of the ***Maori*** were settled in New Zealand perhaps as early as AD 600 and certainly by AD 1000. These early Polynesians are now referred to as the Moahunters because they used the now-extinct moas – flightless birds ranging in size from turkeys to huge ostriches – for food, and they made implements and ornaments from their bones.

The origin of the Polynesians has often been the source of much speculation. Recent maternal DNA analysis indicates that the Polynesians, including Maori, are most closely related to the peoples of East Asia. However there is also evidence of at least cultural contact with the people of South America. It has become clear that Polynesian seafarers were capable of making very long voyages in some cases against the prevailing winds and tides, and their navigation skills were very well developed.

Several long voyages have been made in recent times in traditionally constructed vessels to prove this point.

The early Maoris were very notable for their tattoos that often covered their whole bodies. Maoris have always kept up this tradition although with more restrained decoration in recent times.

With the loss of much of their land after the British colonization, Maori went into a period of decline, and in the late 19th century it was believed that the Maori population would cease to exist as a separate race and would be assimilated into the European population. However, the predicted decline did not occur, and numbers recovered. Despite a high degree of intermingling between the Maori and European populations, Maori were able to retain their cultural identity and in the 1960s and 1970s Maoridom underwent a cultural revival.

Maori identity is strong, but Maori and Europeans freely intermarry and they have similar ways of life, though some aspects of social and cultural life tend to remain distinctly Maori or distinctly European.

Because New Zealand is small and the population is relatively homogeneous, there are no sharply differentiated social or political regions. The North, however, is popularly regarded as being more enterprising, while the South is traditionally regarded as being conservative. Although New Zealand is notable for the strength of its rural sector, the great majority of people live in cities. The New Zealand countryside is thinly populated, but there are many small towns of up to 10,000 and a number of provincial cities of more than 20,000. Very small towns or villages are becoming more deserted as people drift to the bigger towns and cities.

The *Wellington* urban area has the country's second largest metropolitan population of 363,400. Wellington is the southernmost national capital city in the world. It is more densely populated than most other settlements in New Zealand, due to the small amount of building space available between the harbour and the surrounding hills. Because of its location in the roaring forties latitudes and its exposure to omnipresent wind coming through the Cook Strait, the city is known as "Windy Wellington".

European settlement began with the arrival of an advance party of the New Zealand Company on the ship "Tory", in 1839, followed by 150 settlers on the ship "Aurora" in 1840. Their settlement took its name in honour of Arthur Wellesley, first Duke of Wellington.

In 1865 Wellington became the capital of New Zealand, replacing Auckland. Parliament officially sat in Wellington for the first time on July 26, 1865.

Auckland is the largest urban area in New Zealand with a population of 1,223,200. The first population believed to having settled the region of Auckland, was the Maori people, around 1350. The region was in high demand, because of its rich and fertile land.

The term "*Jafa*", an obscene acronym, is a joking term of abuse referring to Aucklanders. Aucklanders and other New Zealanders have a mostly light-hearted "love-hate" relationship. Stereotypically, Aucklanders view many parts of the country as provincial and unsophisticated, while the rest of the country sees Aucklanders as brash and arrogant.

Attractive aspects of Auckland life are its mild climate, plentiful employment and educational opportunities, and numerous leisure facilities. For quality of life, Auckland currently ranks the eighth in a survey of the world's top 55 cities.

The official ***languages*** of New Zealand are English and Maori but it is predominantly an English-speaking country. Most immigrants of foreign tongue adopt English as a second language, and their children are educated in English. New Zealand English is different from Australian English; it is pure and clear and is easily understood everywhere in the world.

Yet the Maori language has survived as the first language of about 50,000 people, and substantial efforts are being made to increase interest in Maori language and traditions. A small percentage of the total Maori population is considered fluent in Maori, but the language is being revived in early-childhood programs known as *kohanga reo* ('language nests'). A mellifluous, poetic language, the Maori language is surprisingly easy to pronounce if spoken phonetically and each word split into separate syllables. Other Polynesian and European languages are spoken by a small percentage of the population.

Maori language enriched the vocabulary of New Zealand English. At least six of every thousand words in New Zealand English are borrowed from Maori. A large proportion of these are words for flora and fauna (*kauri, manuka, totara; kakapo, paua, weta*), as well as very many place and personal names. A Polynesian noun 'tapu' (sacred) has entered the English language as 'taboo'. There are also many examples of words and concepts borrowed from Maori culture and society, many of which have become more widely familiar to New Zealanders: *whare* (house, hut), *haka* (a ceremonial men's dance), *poi* (a ceremonial women's dance, *hongi* (the ritual of pressing noses), *hangi* (steamed food), etc.

Although there are quite a few religious minorities, the dominant ***religion*** in New Zealand is Christianity (55% of the population). Anglicans traditionally have formed the largest single denomination. The next largest Christian groups are Presbyterians and Roman Catholics.

Recent immigrants have given other religions a stronger foothold. Hinduism, Buddhism and Islam have grown, but there are fewer than 50,000 adherents of each in New Zealand.

Communities of practising Jews have been present since the 19th century, when synagogues were built in most cities and major towns.

Two indigenous Maori religions draw on elements of Christianity. The larger, the Ratana Church of New Zealand, was founded by a 20th-century faith-healer and the other, the Ringatu Church, by a 19th-century prophet. The Maori Christian churches have relatively small but consistently active membership.

New Zealanders enjoy a ***high standard of living***. Most families own their homes. Whether in town or country, the home is usually a one-story house of brick or wood, set in a garden. In recent years, however, there has been a trend toward multistory apartment buildings.

New Zealanders are open, friendly and hospitable. Their lifestyle is relaxed and informal. They are practical people and enjoy working around their homes and gardens. They value home, a good education and friendship. Living in a land of pleasant climate

and scenic beauty, New Zealanders spend much of their leisure time outdoors. There is an extensive network of hiking trails in New Zealand.

New Zealanders are keen sport participants and fans. Rugby Union football is traditionally the favourite national sport. Rugby League football, soccer, hockey, cricket, softball, netball (a form of basketball), water sports, and track and fields are also popular. Women participate actively in all these sports except professional rugby. New Zealanders take part in a variety of international sporting events, such as rugby, soccer, cricket, tennis, and sailing competitions.

New Zealanders value good ***education***. Schooling in New Zealand is free and compulsory between the ages of 6 and 16, but most children start school at 5 years. In addition to public and private schools, home education is also allowed. In remote areas, children are taught by a correspondence school method. The secondary schools offer a broad general academic education with a common core to prepare students for the school certificate and for advanced studies.

There are seven universities in New Zealand. There are also 25 polytechnic schools and a national Open polytechnic network. Almost 98,000 students attend the universities; some receive various types of financial assistance.

New Zealand has a variety of special schools, including schools for the handicapped. For children living in remote areas the Correspondence School, a national school based in Wellington and at Massey University, organizes regular radio lessons and written assignments countrywide.

Since the early 1960s Maori education has received great attention. The Maori Education Trust was established in 1961 to encourage Maori students to proceed to secondary schools, colleges of education and universities. The Ministry of Maori Development encourages higher levels of educational, social, and economic achievement, and the Maori unit of the Council for Educational Research emphasizes Maori education and language projects.

12.5. National symbols and system of government

New Zealand is one of the most recently settled major land masses. Polynesian settlers arrived probably some time between 500 and 1300 AD, and established the indigenous Maori culture.

The first Europeans known to reach New Zealand were led by Abel Tasman, who sailed up the west coast of the South and North islands in 1642. The Dutch thought it was a single land. In 1769 Captain James Cook began extensive surveys of the islands. This led to European whaling expeditions and eventually significant European colonization.

The Treaty of Waitangi on February 6, 1840 between the British government and the Maori established British sovereignty over New Zealand. In the 1860s disputes over questionable land purchases led to the Maori Wars, which resulted in large tracts of tribal land being confiscated by the colonial government.

New Zealand became an independent dominion on September 26, 1907 by royal proclamation. Full independence was granted by the United Kingdom Parliament in

1931; it was taken up upon the Statute's adoption by the New Zealand Parliament in 1947, since when New Zealand has been a sovereign constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary democracy within the Commonwealth of Nations.

New Zealand ***flag*** is blue with the flag of the UK in the upper hoist-side quadrant. In the outer half of the flag there are four red five-pointed stars representing the Southern Cross constellation, also known as the Crux. The flag was introduced in 1869 and adopted as the national flag in 1902.

There is also Maori flag which was designed in 1990. Black in the flag represents the realm of potential being; it symbolizes the long darkness from which the earth emerged, the heavens. Red represents coming into being; it symbolizes the earth-mother. White represents the realm of being and light; it symbolizes the physical world, harmony, enlightenment and balance. The spiral-like koru, symbolic of a curling fern frond, represents the unfolding of new life, hope for the future and the process of renewal.

The official New Zealand ***coat of arms*** adopted in 1956 depicts a white woman and a Maori man standing on leaves of fern and looking at each other over a shield with five badges, representing three sailing vessels, the Southern Cross, a wheat sheaf, two mining hammers, and a fleece; the shield supports Crown of St Edward.

New Zealand has two ***national anthems*** – God Defend New Zealand (*Complement 17*) and God Save the Queen, national anthem of the United Kingdom.

The country doesn't have official national animal or flower, but unofficially it is represented by the kiwi and the silver fern.

New Zealand is a sovereign, independent state and a member of the British Commonwealth. The country is a ***constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary democracy.*** Its form of government reflects its historical association with Great Britain. Like the United Kingdom New Zealand does not have a single written constitution, the constitution is formed by a number of key documents and constitutional conventions. Key written sources include the Constitution Act 1986, the New Zealand Bill of Rights Act 1990, the Electoral Act 1993, the Treaty of Waitangi 1854 and the Standing Orders of the House of Representatives. Constitutional conventions are rules that have become established by frequent use and custom. They exist because people respect and obey them. An example of a constitutional convention is the Governor General acts on the advice of his or her ministers.

The *legislative branch* of government is represented by New Zealand's Parliament which has two parts – the monarch, who is the head of state and is represented by the Governor-General and the House of Representatives.

The Governor-General is appointed by the Sovereign on the Prime Minister's recommendation for a term of five years. The Governor-General's main constitutional function is to invite the leader of the majority party to form a government. The Governor-General can make regulations and his or her assent is required for all bills passed by the House of Representatives before they can become law. He or she is also Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces. The Governor-General duties are mainly formal, as they do what the Government advises them to do.

The House of Representatives is the only chamber of the New Zealand Parliament. 120 Members of Parliament (MPs) are elected for a three year term. New Zealanders

aged 18 years and older, elect the members of Parliament by voting in elections. New Zealand was among the first countries to adopt the ballot. In 1893 it became the first country to give women the right to vote. Elections are conducted on a party basis. There are two major parties, National and Labour. The party that commands a majority in the House forms the government. The leader of the governing party becomes the prime minister and forms a Cabinet.

The Maori people have four representatives in the New Zealand Parliament and have legal equality with people of European origin.

The Parliament seats in Wellington in the building that is nicknamed for its shape the Beehive. The House's responsibilities are to debate and pass legislation, supervise the Government's administration, supply money, and represent the views of the people of New Zealand. It has a number of Select Committees which examine proposed legislation (bills) in detail.

The *executive branch* of government is made up of the Prime Minister, Cabinet and the public sector. All important Government policy decisions and legislative proposals either come from or are agreed to by Cabinet. Cabinet consists of Ministers who are members of the governing party or parties in Parliament and is presided over by the Prime Minister. Usually each cabinet Minister is responsible for one or more government departments, but there can be Ministers 'without portfolio', who do not have permanent responsibility for any department.

The *Judiciary*'s role is to apply the law to every case that comes before the Court, also interpret the law passed by Parliament.

New Zealand has a High Court and a Court of Appeal as well as subordinate courts. Until 2004, appeals from decisions of the Court of Appeal could be appealed to Her Majesty in Council, who referred the case to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in London.

In 2003 the Supreme Court Act was passed, abolishing appeals to the Privy Council, with effect from 2004 and setting up a Supreme Court of New Zealand in Wellington.

The independence of the Judiciary is an important principle of New Zealand constitution, so freedom from political interference is an essential feature of the Judiciary's position. Judges are appointed by the Governor-General. All judges are lawyers with at least seven years' experience.

Glossary

accession, n. – the act of coming to high position of honour or power

atoll, n. – a coral island consisting of a reef surrounding a lagoon

common law – the body of law developed in England based on custom and precedent, unwritten in statute or code

craggy, adj. – rough, rugged

delegate, v. – to give part of your authority, power to someone

evolve, v. – develop naturally

extinct, adj. – no longer alive

fiord/fjord, n. – a narrow inlet of the sea between cliffs or steep slopes

fossil, n. – an organism of the past geological ages that has been preserved in the earth's crust

habitat, n. – the place or an environment where the plant or animal naturally or normally lives and grows

handicapped, adj. – having a physical or mental disability that substantially limits activity

paramount, adj. – superior to all others

parasailing, n. – the recreational sport of soaring in a parachute while being towered usually by a motorboat

precipitous, adj. – very steep, perpendicular

predator, n. – an organism that lives by preying on other organisms

successive, adj. – following each other without interruption

temperate, adj. – moderate, not extreme or excessive

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Where is New Zealand situated and which countries are its neighbours? 2. What sea separates Australia and New Zealand? 3. What are New Zealand's major islands? What strait separates them? 4. Name New Zealand's major bays and show them on the map. 5. What mountain systems are found in New Zealand? What is the highest peak in New Zealand? 6. Which are the longest rivers in the North and South Island? Which is the largest lake in New Zealand? 7. What kind of climate do New Zealanders have? What part of the country is warmer, northern or southern? 8. Where does the heaviest rain occur? Which is the driest region of New Zealand? 9. When do New Zealanders have summer time? 10. What plants and animals symbolize New Zealand? Why are there so many flightless birds in New Zealand? 11. Which animals did Europeans bring to the continent? 12. Which are best known New Zealand trees? 13. How many natural regions are there in New Zealand? 14. How many national parks are there in New Zealand? Which was the country's first national park? 15. Who were the first settlers of New Zealand? 16. What is the ethnic composition of the population? 17. Do most people of New Zealand live in urban or rural areas? 18. What are the official languages in the country? What religions are most common? 19. What is the legislative power in New Zealand? How many chambers does it consist of? 20. What is the executive power? 21. What are the major parties in New Zealand? What system of election functions in the country? 22. When was the office of ombudsman created in New Zealand? What is the function of ombudsman? 23. What are four-level courts in New Zealand? 24. What group of stars can one see on New Zealand's flag? 25. What is the floral symbol of New Zealand?

Task 2. Watch the video "New Zealand: Coast to Coast" and answer the following questions.

1. At what point in New Zealand do the Pacific Ocean and the Tasman Sea meet? What is the Bay of Islands famous for? What are the activities tourists can enjoy there?

2. What historic event took place at Waitangi Treaty House?

3. Why is Auckland nicknamed the *City of Sails*? Where in Auckland can you see underwater world? What monument stands on One-Tree Hill? What exhibits can visitors see in the Stately Auckland Museum? What is the main street of the city?

4. What is the most powerful waterway in New Zealand? To what great rivers is it usually compared? What can you see in the Waitamo Caves? What two traditions are common in the Taranaki Region?

5. What is the Coromandel Peninsula famous for?

6. Describe the Maori welcoming ceremony. Speak about Hinemoa's legend.

7. What tree is typical of the East Cape? In what style were buildings in Napier built?

8. What tourist attractions are there at Lake Taupo? What is competitive farming?

9. What tourist attractions can you see in Wellington? What is the city's nickname?

10. What event brought prosperity to Nelson, the main city of Marlborough Region? What attractions are provided for tourists in Abel Tasman national Park?

11. Why is Christchurch called the *Garden City*? Where is English influence felt in the city? What river flows there?

12. What influence is felt in Dunedin?

13. What activities can you enjoy in and around Queenstown? Which of these activities would you choose: bungee jumping, jet-boating, or riding an inflatable raft?

14. Fiordland is described as a lake within an island within a lake. What is meant by it? What can tourists see there? What point ends the journey in the film?

COMPLEMENTS

Complement 1
GOD SAVE THE QUEEN
National Anthem of the United Kingdom

God save our gracious Queen
Long live our noble Queen,
God save the Queen:
Send her victorious,
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign over us;
God save the Queen.

O Lord, our God, arise,
Scatter thine enemies,
And make them fall:
Confound their politics,
Frustrate their knavish tricks,
On thee our hopes we fix:
God save us all.
Thy choicest gifts in store
On her he pleased to pour;
Long may she reign:
May she defend our laws,
And ever give us cause
To sing with heart and voice
God save the Queen.

Complement 2

BRITISH RULERS

Saxon Kings

Alfred	871-899
Edward the Elder	899-925
Athelstan	925-939
Edmund I	939-946
Eadred	946-955
Eadwig	955-959
Edgar	959-975
Edward the Martyr	975-978
Ethelred the Unready	978-1016
Edmund II Ironside	1016

Danish Kings

Canute	1016-1035
Harold I Harefoot	1035-1040
Hardecanute	1040-1042

Saxon Kings

Edward the Confessor	1042-1066
Harold II	1066

House of Normandy

William I (the Conqueror)	1066-1087
William II (Rufus)	1087-1100
Henry I (Beauclerc)	1100-1135
Stephen	1135-1154

House of Plantagenet

Henry II	1154-1189
Richard I (Coer de Lion)	1189-1199
John (Lackland)	1199-1216
Henry III	1216-1272
Edward I	1272-1307
Edward II	1307-1327
Edward III	1327-1377
Richard II	1377-1399

House of Lancaster

Henry IV	1399-1413
Henry V	1413-1422
Henry VI	1422-1461

House of York

Edward IV	1461-1483
Edward V	1483
Richard III	1483-1485

House of Tudor

Henry VII	1485-1509
Henry VIII	1509-1547
Edward VI	1547-1553
Mary I	1553-1558
Elizabeth I	1558-1603

House of Stuart

James I	1603-1625
Charles I	1625-1649

Commonwealth

Oliver Cromwell (Lord Protector)	1653-1658
Richard Cromwell	1658-1659

House of Stuart

Charles II	1660-1685
James II	1685-1688
William II and Mary	1689-1702
Anne	1702-1714

House of Hanover

George I	1714-1727
George II	1727-1760
George III	1760-1820
George IV	1820-1830
William IV	1830-1837
Victoria	1837-1901

House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha

Edward VII	1901-1910

House of Windsor

George V	1910-1936
Edward VIII	1936
George VI	1936-1952
Elizabeth II	1952-

Complement 3
THE COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS

Antigua and Barbuda	Malta
Australia	Mauritius
Bahamas	Mozambique
Bangladesh	Namibia
Barbados	Nauru
Belize	New Zealand
Botswana	Nigeria
Brunei	Pakistan
Cameroon	Papua New Guinea
Canada	Rwanda
Cyprus	Samoa
Dominica	St Lucia
Fiji	St Vincent and the Grenadines
Ghana	Seychelles
Great Britain	Sierra Leone
Grenada	Singapore
Guyana	Solomon Islands
India	Sri Lanka
Jamaica	Swaziland
Kenya	South Africa
Kiribati	United Republic of Tanzania
St Kitts and Nevis	Tonga
Lesotho	Trinidad and Tobago
Malawi	Tuvalu
Malaysia	Uganda
Maldives	Vanuatu
	Zambia

Complement 4
TIMELINE OF BRITISH HISTORY

1. Pre-Norman Britain

11,000 years ago	British island separates from Continent. Until the English Channel is formed, Britain is linked by land to Europe. Many different people live in Britain as hunter gatherers.
c. 4000 BC	The land is being farmed and there is evidence of settlements. Start of Stonehenge construction.

6th century BC	Beginning of Iron Age and Celtic culture in Britain.
c. 325 BC	Greek traveller Pytheas of Massalia circumnavigates Britain.
55 BC	First Roman invasion of Britain, under Julius Caesar.
AD 43	Roman invasion under Claudius followed by conquest of most of Britain.
60-61	Queen Boudicca of the Iceni tribe leads a bloody revolt against the Roman occupation. It is suppressed.
410	The end of Roman rule in Britain.
432	St. Patrick converts Ireland to Christianity.
449	The Anglo-Saxon tribes start arriving to Britain.
597	A papal mission, led by a monk named Augustine, lands in Anglo-Saxon Kent and begins the conversion of the southern Anglo-Saxons. He establishes his headquarters at Canterbury.
793	Vikings raid the great monastery of Lindisfarne on the east coast of Britain and kill its monks, first recorded major Viking raid in Britain.
865	An invasion of Danes who by 877 control the eastern half of England.
871-899	Reign of Alfred the Great of Wessex.
878	The Peace of Edington partitions the Germanic territories between King Alfred's Saxons and the Danes.
973	Edgar, a grandson of Alfred, becomes king of nearly all of present-day England and for the first time the name 'England' is used.

2. Medieval Britain

1066	The Battle of Hastings (14 Oct), the start of the Norman Conquest of England (1066-75). For the next few centuries England is ruled

	by Normans, and French becomes the language of the court.
1086	King William's officials complete the Domesday Book, a very detailed, village-by-village record of the people and their possessions throughout his kingdom.
1170	The murder of Thomas Becket, the Archbishop of Canterbury, by supporters of King Henry II. Becket becomes a popular martyr and his grave is visited by pilgrims for hundreds of tears. The Canterbury Tales, written by Geoffrey Chaucer in the 14th century, recounts the stories told by a fictional group of pilgrims on their way to Canterbury.
1192	Papal decree establishes the independence of the Scottish church from the Church of England.
1215	The Magna Carta (Latin meaning 'Great Charter') treaty agreed between King John and his rebellious barons, assets some fundamental rights of free English people. The Magna Carta is remembered as the first time a monarch agreed in writing to abide by formal procedures.
1295	The Model Parliament sets the pattern for the future by including elected representatives from urban and rural areas.
1328	After several years of war between the Scottish and English kingdoms, England recognizes Scottish independence in the Treaty of Edinburgh.
1337-1453	Hundred Years War between England and France.
1348	First arrival of the Black Death in Britain.
1362	The English Parliament switches from French to English as the official language of its proceedings.
1381	Great Peasants' Revolt in England.
1453	The Hundred Years War ends with English defeat and the loss of all territory in France except the town of Calais.
1455-1485	Wars of Roses.
1476	First appearance of the printing press in England.

3. Tudor England (15th-16th Century)

1485	The Battle of Bosworth Field leads to the death of the last Yorkist king, Richard III, and the accession of Henry Tudor to the throne of England.
1509-1547	Reign of Henry VIII of England.
1534	The Act of Supremacy makes the monarch the supreme head of the church of England.
1538	An English language version of the Bible replaces Latin bibles in every church in the land.
1547	Death of Henry VIII, followed by the accession of his son Edward and a more strongly Protestant religious policy.
1553	Death of Edward VI, followed by the accession of his Catholic sister Mary and a reversal of religious policy back to Catholicism.
1558	The English lose Calais, their last possession in France. Death of Queen Mary (Bloody Mary) followed by the accession of her Protestant sister Elizabeth and a return to Protestantism as the official religion.
1558-1603	Reign of Elizabeth I – the Golden Age in English history.
1560	The Scottish Parliament abolishes the authority of the Pope and forbids the Latin mass.
1564	The birth of Shakespeare.
1580	Sir Francis Drake completes the first voyage around the world by an Englishman.
1588	The Spanish Armada, a fleet of ships sent by the Catholic King Philip of Spain to help invade England, is defeated by the English navy (with the help of a violent storm).

4. England in the 17th century

1603	Death of Elizabeth I leads to the accession of James IV of Scotland to the English throne as James I, unifying the entire

	island under a single ruler.
1605	The Gunpowder Plot, a plan of radical Roman Catholics to blow up the Houses of Parliament during the king's visit, is frustrated.
1607	Founding of Jamestown, the first English colony in North America.
1642	The English Civil War begins.
1649	Execution of Charles I. For the first and only time, Britain becomes a republic and is called 'the Commonwealth'.
1653	Republican government overthrown, replaced by military-based rule of Oliver Cromwell.
1658	Death of Oliver Cromwell.
1660	The Restoration of the monarchy and the Anglican religion takes place with the return of Charles II as king.
1662	The Royal Society is founded, dedicated to the advance of knowledge in every subject.
1665	Last great outbreak of the plague in Britain, centring in London.
1666	The Great Fire of London destroys most of the city's old wooden buildings. It also destroys bubonic plague, which never reappears. Most of the city's finest churches, including St. Paul's Cathedral, date from the period of rebuilding which followed.
1687	Publication of Isaac Newton's *Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy.*
1688	The Glorious Revolution overthrows the Catholic James II; he is succeeded by the Protestant William of Orange and his wife Mary, James's daughter.
1690	The Presbyterian Church becomes the official 'Church of Scotland'.

5. Britain in the 18th century

1707	Parliamentary Union of England and Scotland leads to the creation of the United Kingdom of Great Britain.
1708	The last occasion on which a British monarch refuses to accept a bill passed by Parliament.
1714	Death of Anne, the last Stuart monarch, followed by the accession of the House of Hanover with the reign of George I.
1721	Sir Robert Walpole becomes the first Prime Minister in the modern sense.
1771	For the first time, Parliament allows written records of its debates to be published freely.
1783	The Treaty of Paris ends the American War of Independence with the loss of the southern half of British colonies in North America (giving birth to the USA).
1788	The first British settlers (convicts and soldiers) arrive in Australia.
1793	The war between Britain and revolutionary France begins.

6. Britain in the 19th century

1801	The Act of Union between Great Britain and Ireland creates the

	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The separate Irish parliament is closed.
1805	The British fleet under the command of Admiral Horatio Nelson defeats Napoleon's French fleet at the Battle of Trafalgar. Nelson was killed during the battle.
1815	The Battle of Waterloo ends the revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars with victory for Britain and its allies.
1825	The first public railway opened, part of the technological development that changes the face of Britain.
1829	Robert Peel, a government minister, organizes the first modern police force. The police are still sometimes known today as 'bobbies' ('Bobby' is a short form of the name 'Robert'). Catholics and non-Anglican Protestants are given the right to hold government posts and become MPs.
1832	The First Reform Act creates more seats in Parliament and broadens the right to vote for members of Parliament.
1833	The first law regulating factory working conditions limits the number of hours that children are allowed to work. Slavery is made illegal throughout the British Empire.
1851	Great Exhibition, the first World's Fair, opens in the Crystal Palace in London.
1859	Publication of Charles Darwin's "*On the Origin of Species"*, setting forth his theory of evolution by natural selection.
1867	The Second Reform Act further broadens the right to vote.
1868	The TUC (Trades Union Congress) is formed.
1880	It becomes compulsory for children between the ages of five and thirteen to go to school.
1882	The Married Women's Separate Property Act allows married women to hold property independently of their husbands.
1886	After much debate, an atheist is allowed to sit in the House of Commons.

1893	The first socialist, Keir Hardie, is elected to Parliament. He enters the House of Commons for the first time wearing a cloth cap (which remained a symbol of the British Working man until the 1960s).

7. Britain in the 20th century and recent years

1900	Formation of the Labour Representation Committee, later to be known as the Labour Party.
1902	Nationwide selective secondary education is introduced.
1908	The first old-age pensions are introduced.
1911	Drastic limitations imposed on the power of the House of Lords. The National Insurance Act introduces sickness and unemployment insurance for workers.
1914-1918	The First World War. Until the 1940s, the First World War was known as 'The Great War'.
1918	The Fourth Reform Act gives the parliamentary vote to men over the age of 21 and women over 30.
1924	Election of the Britain's first Labour government.
1926	The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) was founded.
1928	Women get the right to vote on the same basis as men (from the age of 21).
1939-45	The Second World War.
1940	Chamberlain government overturned to give way to Churchill coalition government. Fall of France. The Battle of Britain.
1941	Japan enters the war with attacks on Britain and the United States.
1944	Allied Normandy landings. Free compulsory education (up to the age of 15) is established.
1945	End of the Second World War with Allied victory.

	General election returns the Labour Party, headed by Clement Atlee. Between 1945 and 1951 the Labour government transforms the British economy with a program of nationalizations and lays the foundations of the British welfare state.
1946	"Iron Curtain" speech by Winston Churchill. The national Health Service is established. Coal mines and railways are nationalized. Other industries follow.
1947	India and Pakistan win their independence from Britain, while remaining members of the Commonwealth.
1948	Britain leaves Palestine.
1949	Ireland becomes a republic.
1950-53	Britain participates in the Korean war as a member of the United Nations.
1953	Coronation of Elizabeth II.
1960	The British attempt to enter the Common Market (founded in 1957) is vetoed by the French. Prime Minister Harold Macmillan's "Winds of Change" speech signals British acceptance of its African colonies' moves to independence.
1961	South Africa becomes an independent republic.
1962	Formation of the Beatles.
1963	The school leaving age is raised to 16.
1968	The 'age of majority' (the age at which somebody legally becomes an adult) is reduced from 21 to 18.
1969	Capital punishment in Great Britain is abolished.
1971	British money changed to a decimal system.
1973	Britain enters the European Common Market.
1979	Margaret Thatcher becomes Prime Minister.
1982	The Falklands War.

1984	Irish Republican Army bombs the hotel in Brighton hosting the Conservative Party Conference. British Telecom is privatised. This is the first time that shares in a nationalized company are sold directly to the public.
1984-85	Miners' strike.
1990	Faced with opposition from within the Conservative Party, Margaret Thatcher withdraws from leadership. John major takes over as Prime Minister and leader of the Conservative Party.
1990-91	Britain fights as a U.S. ally in the First Gulf War.
1994	The channel tunnel opens.
1997	Major government comes to an end as New Labour under Tony Blair wins an overwhelming victory in the parliamentary elections. Handover of Hong Kong to China.
1998	Establishment of the Scottish parliament.
1999	Establishment of the Welsh Assembly and the Scottish Parliament. The House of Lords Act removes most of the hereditary element from the upper chamber of parliament.
2003	Britain joins the United States in the Second Gulf War.
2005	Terrorist bombings in London by Muslim radicals.
2007	Resignation of Tony Blair as leader of the Labour Party and Prime Minister; succeeded by Gordon Brown.
2009	British troops withdrawn from Iraq.
2010	David Cameron becomes Prime Minister at the head of a coalition Government, returning his centre-right Conservative Party to power after 13 years of rule by the centre-left Labour Party.

Complement 5
BRITISH PRIME MINISTERS

Prime Minister	Party	Term of office
Robert Walpole	Whig	1721-42
Earl of Wilmington	Whig	1742-43
Henry Pelham	Whig	1743-54
Duke of Newcastle	Whig	1754-56
Duke of Devonshire	Whig	1756-57
Duke of Newcastle	Whig	1757-62
Earl of Bute	Tory	1762-63
George Grenville	Whig	1763-65
Marquess of Rockingham	Whig	1765-66
Duke of Grafton	Whig	1766-70
Lord North	Tory	1770-82
Marquess of Rockingham	Whig	1782
Earl of Shelburne	Whig	1782-83
Duke of Portland	Coalition	1783
William Pitt	Tory	1783-1801
Henry Addington	Tory	1801-04
William Pitt	Tory	1804-06
Lord Grenville	Whig	1806-07
Duke of Portland	Tory	1807-09
Spencer Perceval	Tory	1809-12
Earl of Liverpool	Tory	1812-27
George Canning	Tory	1827
Viscount Goderich	Tory	1827-28
Duke of Wellington	Tory	1828-30
Earl Grey	Whig	1830-34
Viscount Melbourne	Whig	1834
Robert Peel	Conservative	1834-35
Viscount Melbourne	Whig	1835-41
Robert Peel	Conservative	1841-46
Lord John Russel	Liberal	1846-52
Earl of Derby	Conservative	1852
Lord Aberdeen	Peelite	1852-55
Viscount Palmerston	Liberal	1855-58
Earl of Derby	Conservative	1858-59
Viscount Palmerston	Liberal	1859-65
Lord John Russel	Liberal	1865-66
Earl of Derby	Conservative	1866-68
Benjamin Disraeli	Conservative	1868
William Gladstone	Liberal	1868-74
Benjamin Disraeli	Conservative	1874-80
William Gladstone	Liberal	1880-85
Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative	1885-86
William Gladstone	Liberal	1886

Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative	1886-92
William Gladstone	Liberal	1892-94
Earl of Rosebery	Liberal	1894-95
Marquess of Salisbury	Conservative	1895-1902
Arthur James Balfour	Conservative	1902-05
Henry Campbell-Bannerman	Liberal	1905-08
Herbert Henry Asquith	Liberal	1908-15
Herbert Henry Asquith	Coalition	1915-16
David Lloyd George	Coalition	1916-22
Andrew Bonar Law	Conservative	1922-23
Stanley Baldwin	Conservative	1923-24
James Ramsay MacDonald	Labour	1924
Stanley Baldwin	Conservative	1924-29
James Ramsay MacDonald	Labour	1929-31
James Ramsay MacDonald	Nationalist	1931-35
Stanley Baldwin	Nationalist	1935-37
Arthur Neville Chamberlain	Nationalist	1937-40
Winston Churchill	Coalition	1940-45
Clement Attlee	Labour	1945-51
Winston Churchill	Conservative	1951-55
Anthony Eden	Conservative	1955-57
Harold Macmillan	Conservative	1957-63
Alec Douglas-Home	Conservative	1963-64
Harold Wilson	Labour	1964-70
Edward Heath	Conservative	1970-74
Harold Wilson	Labour	1974-76
James Callaghan	Labour	1976-79
Margaret Thatcher	Conservative	1979-90
John Major	Conservative	1990-97
Tony Blair	Labour	1997-2007
Gordon Brown	Labour	2007-2010
David Cameron	Coalition	2010

Complement 6
STAR SPANGLED BANNER
National Anthem of the USA

Oh, say can you see by the dawn's early light
What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming?
Whose broad stripes and bright stars thru the perilous fight,
O'er the ramparts we watched were so gallantly streaming?
And the rocket's red glare, the bombs bursting in air,
Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there.

Oh, say does that star-spangled banner yet wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?

On the shore, dimly seen through the mists of the deep,
Where the foe's haughty host in dread silence reposes,
What is that which the breeze, o'er the towering steep,
As it fitfully blows, half conceals, half discloses?
Now it catches the gleam of the morning's first beam,
In full glory reflected now shines in the stream:
'Tis the that star-spangled banner! Oh long may it wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave!

And where is that band who so vauntingly swore
That the havoc of war and the battle's confusion,
A home and a country should leave us no more!
Their blood has washed out their foul footsteps' pollution.
No refuge could save the hireling and slave
From the terror of flight, or the gloom of the grave:
And star-spangled banner in triumph doth wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave!

Oh! Thus be it ever, when freemen shall stand
Between their loved home and the war's desolation!
Blest with victory and peace, may the heav'n rescued land
Praise the Power that hath made and preserved us a nation.
Then conquer we must, when our cause it is just,
And this be our motto: "In God is our trust."
And the star-spangled banner in triumph shall wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave!

Complement 7
The Unanimous Declaration of the Thirteen United States of America

When in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes that impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its

foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness.

Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shewn, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed.

But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security.

Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain [George III] is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained, and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the Legislative powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise; the State remaining in the meantime exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither, and raising the conditions of new Appropriations of Lands.

He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary powers.

He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries

He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, Standing Armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation:

For protecting them by a mock Trial from punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off out Trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing Taxes onus without our Consent:

For depriving us in many cases of the benefits of Trial by Jury:

For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offences:

For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these Colonies:

For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments:

For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated Government here by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign Mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these Oppressions We have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms. Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have We been wanting in attentions to our British bretheren.

We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us.

We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here.

We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence.

They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by the authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare.

Thet these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown,

And that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is and ought to be totally dissolved;

And that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce,

And to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes, and our sacred Honor.

The signers of the Declaration represented the new States as follows:

New Hampshire: Josiah Bartlett, William Whipple, Matthew Thornton

Massachusetts: John Hancock, Samual Adams, John Adams, Robert Treat Paine, Elbridge Gerry

Rhode Island: Stephen Hopkins, William Ellery

Connecticut: Roger Sherman, Samuel Huntington, William Williams, Oliver Wolcott

New York: William Floyd, Philip Livingston, Francis Lewis, Lewis Morris

New Jersey: Richard Stockton, John Witherspoon, Francis Hopkinson, John Hart, Abraham Clark

Pennsylvania: Robert Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, John Morton, George Clymer, James Smith, George Taylor, James Wilson, George Ross

Delaware: Caesar Rodney, George Read, Thomas McKean

Maryland: Samuel Chase, William Paca, Thomas Stone, Charles Carroll of Carrollton

Virginia: George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas nelson, Jr., Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton

North Carolina: William Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn

South Carolina: Edward Rutledge, Thomas Heyward, Jr., Thomas Lynch, Jr., Arthur Middleton

Georgia: Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, George Walton

Complement 8

The Battle of Gettysburg was the largest battle ever fought on American soil. On November 19, 1863, at a ceremony to establish Gettysburg as a national monument,

Abraham Lincoln delivered one of the finest orations in American history, the Gettysburg Address.

Yet just after he delivered it, there was polite applause, and reactions varied from indifference to disappointment. Edward Everett, ex-governor of Massachusetts, was the main speaker, and his speech had lasted for almost two hours. On his trip back to Washington, Lincoln himself said of his speech: "It was a flat failure. I am distressed about it. I ought to have prepared it with more care." But Edward Everett assured Lincoln saying: "I would be glad if I could flatter myself that I came near to the central idea of the occasion in two hours as you did in two minutes."

THE GETTYSBURG ADDRESS
November 19, 1863

Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent, a new nation, conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war testing whether that nation or any nation so conceived and so dedicated can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting place for those who here gave there lives that the nation may live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But, in a larger sense, we can not dedicate – we can not consecrate – we can not hallow – this ground. The brave men living and dead who struggled here have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember what we say here but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us the living rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us – that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion – that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain – that his nation under God shall have a new birth of freedom – and that government of the people by the people for the people shall not parish from the earth.

Complement 9
US STATES

State	Abbreviation	Zip code	Capital
Alabama	Ala.	AL	Montgomery
Alaska	Alaska	AK	Juneau
Arizona	Ariz.	AZ	Phoenix
Arkansas	Ark.	AR	Little Rock
California	Calif.	CA	Sacramento
Colorado	Colo.	CO	Denver
Connecticut	Conn.	CT	Hartford
Delaware	Del.	DE	Dover
Florida	Fla.	FL	Tallahassee
Georgia	Ga.	GA	Atlanta

Hawaii	Hawaii	HI	Honolulu
Idaho	Idaho	ID	Boise
Illinois	Ill.	IL	Springfield
Indiana	Ind.	IN	Indianapolis
Iowa	Iowa	IA	Des Moines
Kansas	Kan.	KS	Topeka
Kentucky	Ky.	KY	Frankfort
Louisiana	La.	LA	Baton Rouge
Maine	Maine	ME	Augusta
Maryland	Md.	MD	Annapolis
Massachusetts	Mass.	MA	Boston
Michigan	Mich.	MI	Lansing
Minnesota	Minn.	MN	Saint Paul
Mississippi	Miss.	MS	Jackso
Missouri	Mo.	MO	Jefferson City
Montana	Mont.	MT	Helena
Nebraska	Neb.	NE	Lincoln
Nevada	Nev.	NV	Carson City
New Hampshire	N.H.	NH	Concord
New Jersey	N.J.	NJ	Trenton
New Mexico	N.M.	NM	Santa Fe
New York	N.Y.	NY	Albany
North Carolina	N.C.	NC	Raleigh
North Dakota	N.D.	ND	Bismarck
Ohio	Ohio	OH	Columbus
Oklahoma	Okla.	OK	Oklahoma City
Oregon	Ore.	OR	Salem
Pennsylvania	Pa.	PA	Harrisburg
Rhode Island	R.I.	RI	Providence
South Carolina	S.C	SC	Columbia
South Dakota	S.D.	SD	Pierre
Tennessee	Tenn.	TN	Nashville
Texas	Texas	TX	Austin
Utah	Utah	UT	Salt Lake City
Vermont	Vt.	VT	Montpelier
Virginia	Va.	VA	Richmond
Washington	Wash.	WA	Olympia
West Virginia	W.Va.	WV	Charleston
Wisconsin	Wis.	WI	Madison
Wyoming	Wyo.	WY	Cheyenne

www.whitehouse.gov/government
www.usinfo.state.gov/usa/infousa/travel
www.usatourism.com

http://www.50states.com/

Complement 10
US PRESIDENTS

President	Party	Term of office
1. George Washington	Federalist	1789-97
2. John Adams	Federalist	1797-1801
3. Thomas Jefferson	Democratic Republican	1801-1809
4. James Madison	Democratic Republican	1809-1817
5. James Monroe	Democratic Republican	1817-25
6. John Quincy Adams	Democratic Republican	1825-29
7. Andrew Jackson	Democrat	1829-37
8. Martin Van Buren	Democrat	1837-41
9. William Henry Harrison	Whig	1841
10. John Tyler	Whig	1841-45
11. James K. Polk	Democrat	1845-49
12. Zachary Taylor	Whig	1849-50
13. Millard Fillmore	Whig	1850-53
14. Franklin Pierce	Democrat	1853-57
15. James Buchanan	Democrat	1857-61
16. Abraham Lincoln	Republican	1861-65
17. Andrew Johnson	Republican	1865-69
18. Ulysses S. Grant	Republican	1869-77
19. Rutherford B. Hayes	Republican	1877-81
20. James A. Garfield	Republican	1881
21. Chester A. Arthur	Republican	1881-85
22. Grover Cleveland	Democrat	1885-89
23. Benjamin Harrison	Republican	1889-93
24. Grover Cleveland	Democrat	1893-97
25. William McKinley	Republican	1897-1901
26. Theodore Roosevelt	Republican	1901-1909
27. William Howard Taft	Republican	1909-13
28. Woodrow Wilson	Democrat	1913-21
29. Warren g. Harding	Republican	1921-23
30. Calvin Coolidge	Republican	1923-29
31. Herbert C. Hoover	Republican	1929-33
32. Franklin D. Roosevelt	Democrat	1933-1945
33. Harry S. Truman	Democrat	1945-53
34. Dwight D. Eisenhower	Republican	1953-1961
35. John F. Kennedy	Democrat	1961-63
36. Lyndon b. Johnson	Democrat	1963-69
37. Richard M. Nixon	Republican	1969-74

38. Gerald D. Ford	Republican	1974-77
39. James E. Carter, Jr.	Democrat	1977-81
40. Ronald W. Reagan	Republican	1981-89
41. George H. W. Bush	Republican	1989-93
42. William J. Clinton	Democrat	1993-2001
43. George W. Bush	Republican	2001-2008
44. Barack Obama	Democrat	2008-

http://www.whitehouse.gov/history/presidents
http://www.heptune.com/preslist.html

Complement 11
O CANADA
The National Anthem of Canada

It was proclaimed the official national anthem on July 1, 1980. 'God Save the Queen' remains the royal anthem of Canada.

O Canada! Our home and native land!
True patriot love in all thy sons command.
With glowing hearts we see thee rise,
The True North strong and free;
And stand on guard, O Canada,
We stand on guard for thee.
O Canada! Glorious and free!
We stand on guard, we stand
on guard for thee.
O Canada! We stand on guard for thee.
O Canada! Where pines and maples grow,
Great prairies spread and lordly rivers flow,
How dear to us thy broad domain,
From East to Western sea!
Thou land of hope for all who toil!
Thou True North strong and free!
O Canada! Glorious and free! [etc.]
O Canada! Beneath thy shining skies
May stalwart sons and gentle maidens rise
To keep thee steadfast thro' the years
From East to Western sea,
Our own beloved native land,
Our True North strong and free!
O Canada! Glorious and free!
Ruler supreme, Who hearest humble pray'r,

Hold our Dominion in Thy loving care.
Help us to find, O God, in Thee
A lasting rich reward,
As waiting for the better day,
We ever stand on guard.

Complement 12
CANADA

Fact Summary

Official Name: Canada

Capital: Ottawa

Major Cities: Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver, Edmonton< Calgary, Quebec

Coat of Arms: Arms of England, Scotland, Ireland, and France on shield symbolize origins of Canadians; 3 maple leaves represent Canada. Lion on crest holds red maple leaf, symbol of sacrifice. Supporters are lion holding British Union and unicorn with ancient banner of France. Adopted 1958.

National Emblems: Maple leaf and beaver

Anthem: *O Canada*

Population: 33,506,000; 7.7 persons per square mile; 76.7 percent urban, 23.3 percent rural

Official languages: English, French

Ethnic Groups: British, French, German, Italian, Chinese, Amerindian, and Inuktitut (Eskimo), Ukrainian, Dutch

Major religion: Roman Catholicism, Protestantism

Life expectancy: 76 years (men); 82 years (women) (UN)

Internet domain: .ca

International dialing code: +61

Natural Features

Area: 9,984,670 sq km

Major Island: Baffin

Major Ranges: Coast Mountains, Rocky Mountains

Notable Peaks: Mount Logan, (5,951 meters); Mount Fairweather, (4,663 meters); Mount Columbia (3,747 meters)

Major Rivers: Mackenzie, St. Lawrence, Nelson, Saskatchewan, Peace

Major Lakes: Great Lakes (partly in Canada), Great Bear Lake, Great Slave Lake, Lake Winnipeg

Climate: *Atlantic region* – moderate, but cold currents. *Central region* – mild. *Prairie region* – short, hot summers. *Pacific region* – mild temperatures; dry interior; cool and rainy central interior. *Northern region* – harsh; rain light in northern Yukon, heavy on mountainous coast of British Columbia.

Government

Form of government: Federal parliamentary state

Administrative divisions: 10 provinces and 3 territories

Constitution: Proclaimed April 17, 1982.

Sovereign: British monarch, represented by governor-general.

Governor-General: Appointed by British monarch on advice of prime minister of Canada; assisted by Privy Council of Cabinet ministers.

Prime Minister: Leader of majority party in House of Commons; term, as long as party retains majority.

Cabinet: Selected by prime minister from House of Commons or Senate.

Parliament: Senate and House of Commons; annual sessions.

Senate – 104 members, appointed by governor-general on advice of prime minister; term, to age 75.

House of Commons – 295 elected members; term, 5 years.

Judiciary: *Supreme Court of Canada* – chief justice and 8 associate judges; term – life, with retirement at age 75. *Federal Court of Canada* – Appeals Division and Trials Division,

Voting qualification: Age 18.

Economy

Chief agricultural products: *crops* – barley, wheat, potatoes, oats, corn, rapeseed, soybeans, vegetables; *livestock and fish* – sheep, cattle, pigs, Horses, freshwater fish and seafood.

Chief mined products: iron ore, zinc, lead, copper, silver, gold, coal, crude petroleum, natural gas, natural gas by-products, nickel, uranium, molybdenum.

Chief manufactured products: transportation equipment, food, chemical products, paper products, metals, machinery, electrical products, wood products, petroleum and coal products, rubber and plastic products.

Foreign trade: imports, 48%; exports, 52%

Chief imports: motor vehicle parts, motor vehicles, communications equipment, crude petroleum, office machines, motor vehicle engines, nonferrous metals.

Chief exports: motor vehicles, motor vehicle parts, lumber, newsprint paper, non-metal minerals, crude petroleum, wheat, wood pulp, natural gas, equipment and tools, chemicals, communications equipment.

Chief trading partners: Japan, United States, Germany, United Kingdom.

Monetary Unit: 1 Canadian dollar = 100cents

:

Places of Interest

St. John's, Newfoundland. Eastern coast of Avalon Peninsula; oldest city founded by Europeans in North America; major ocean port; annual August regatta; rich fishing waters.

Charlottetown, PEI. Conference held here in 1864 led to Canada's unification and independence; summer festival features musical version of *"Ann of Green Gables".*

Fortress Louisbourg. In Louisbourg, Nova Scotia; major 18th century French fortification in Acadia; restored homes with live 'characters' from 1750; interpretive center.

Grand Falls. In New Brunswick; large cataract 37 meters high; boats filled with flowers occasionally sent over falls in memory of a legendary Indian maiden.

Centre Town, Montreal. Ultramodern shopping district; cafes; theaters, nightclubs, and discos.

CN Tower. In Toronto; Canadian national: publicly owned rail and communications corporation erected 553-meter tower that is the world's tallest freestanding structure; revolving restaurant.

Gimli. In Manitoba; second largest Icelandic community outside of Iceland; fishing; beaches; annual Islendingadagurinn festival in August; Viking Statue.

Cypress Hills Provincial Park. In south-western Saskatchewan; geologic anomaly; white ants, scorpions, cactus, and lodgepole pine, species alien to the prairie surroundings.

Dinosaur Provincial Park. In south-eastern Alberta; graveyard of prehistoric reptiles; displays of partially excavated dinosaur skeletons, fossils, relics.

Glacier National Park. In British Columbia; mountains 3,505 metres tall; glaciers; hiking; picnicking.

Dawson City, Yukon. Museum with 25,000 artifacts from gold rush days; ghost towns; riverboats; largest wooden hull dredge in North America.

Complement 13
CANADIAN PROVINCES AND TERRITORIES

Province	Abbreviation Admission to Confederation	Capital
Alberta www.gov.ab.ca www.discoveralberta.com	**AB** 1905	**Edmonton**
British Columbia www.gov.bc.ca www.bc-tourism.com	**BC** 1871	**Victoria**
Manitoba www.gov.mb.ca www.travelmanitoba.com	**MB** 1870	**Winnipeg**
New Brunswick www.gnb.ca www.tourismenouveau-brunswick.ca/	**NB** 1867	**Fredericton**

Cultures/en-CA/welcome.htm

Newfoundland	**NF**	**St. John's**
www.gov.nf.ca	1949	
www.gov.nf.ca/tourism		
Northwest Territories	**NWT**	**Yellowknife**
www.gov.nt.com	1870	
www.nwttravel.nt.ca		
Nova Scotia	**NS**	**Halifax**
www.gov.ns.ca	1867	
www.gov.ns.ca/tourism.htm		
Nunavut	**NU**	**Iqualuit**
www.gov.nu.ca	1999	
www.nunavuttourism.com		
Ontario	**ON**	**Toronto**
www.gov.on.ca	1867	
www.tourism.gov.on.ca/english		
Prince Edward Island	**PE**	**Charlottetown**
www.gov.pe.ca	1873	
www.gov.pe.ca/visitorsguide/index.php3		
Quebec	**PQ**	**Quebec**
www.gouv.qc.ca/index_en.html	1867	
www.tourisme.gouv.qc.ca/anglais		
Saskatchewan	**SK**	**Regina**
www.gov.sk.ca	1905	
www.sasktourism.com		
Yukon Territory	**YT**	**Whitehorse**
www.gov.yt.ca		
www.yukonweb.com/tourism		

Complement 14
National Anthem
ADVANCE AUSTRALIA FAIR

Australians all let us rejoice,
For we are young and free;

We've golden soil and wealth for toil;
Our home is girt by sea;
Our land abounds in nature's gifts
Of beauty rich and rare;
In history's page, let every stage
Advance Australia Fair.
In joyful strains then let us sing,
Advance Australia Fair.
Beneath our radiant Southern Cross
We'll toil with hearts and hands;
To make this Commonwealth of ours
Renowned of all the lands;
For those who've come across the seas
We've boundless plains to share;
With courage let us all combine
To Advance Australia Fair.
In joyful strains then let us sing,
Advance Australia Fair.

Complement 15
AUSTRALIAN STATES AND TERRITORIES

State	State Capital	Animal / Faunal Emblem	Floral Emblem
Australian Capital Territory The Nation's Capital	**Canberra**	Gang-Gang Cockatoo	Royal Bluebell
New South Wales The First State	**Sydney**	Platypus / Kookaburra	Waratah
Northern Territory Outback Australia	**Darwin**	Red Kangaroo / Wedge-Tailed Eagle	Sturt's Desert Rose
Queensland The Sunshine State	**Brisbane**	Koala / Brolga	Cooktown Orchid
South Australia The Festival State	**Adelaide**	Hairy-Nosed Wombat / Piping Shrike	Sturt's Desert Pea
Tasmania The Holiday Isle	**Hobart**	Tasmanian Devil (unofficial)	Tasmanian Blue Gum

Victoria The Garden State	**Melbourne**	Leadbeater's Possum / Helmeted Honeyeater	Common Heath
Western Australia The State of Excitement	**Perth**	Numbat (Banded Anteater)/ Black Swan	Red and Green Kangaroo Paw

Complement 16
AUSTRALIA
Fact Summary

Official Name: Commonwealth of Australia

Capital: Canberra

Major Cities: Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth, Adelaide.

Coat of Arms: A shield, bearing the coats of arms of the 6 states of Australia, flanked by a kangaroo on the left and an emu on the right. The background is filled in with golden wattle blossoms. A 7-pointed star above the shield represents the states and territories. Granted in 1912.

National Emblems: Kangaroo, emu, and golden wattle

Anthem: *Advance Australia Fair*

Population: 22.8 million; 2.4 persons per sq km; 85% urban, 15% rural

Official languages: English

Ethnic Groups: European, aboriginal, Asian

Major religion: Roman Catholicism, Protestantism, Orthodox Christianity

Life expectancy: 76 years (men); 82 years (women) (UN)

Internet domain: .au

International dialing code: +61

Natural Features

Area: 7 700 000 sq km

Major Islands: Tasmania, Melville

Major Ranges: Australian Alps, Flinders Ranges, Great Western Tiers, Blue Mountains

Notable Peaks: Mount Kosciusko, (2,228 meters); Mount Wellington, (1,270 meters)

Major Rivers: Murray, Darling, Murrumbidgee

Major Lakes: Lake Eyre, Lake Torrens, Lake Gairdner

Climate: Central and southern Queensland are subtropical; north and central New South Wales, Victoria, Western Australia, and Tasmania are warm temperate; Northern Australia has a wet season from November to March. Most rain falls during winter.

Government

Form of government: Federal parliamentary state

Administrative divisions:

6 states

New South Wales	Tasmania
Queensland	Victoria
South Australia	Western Australia

2 territories

Northern Territory	Australian Capital Territory

Constitution: Took effect January 1, 1901

Sovereign: British monarch, represented by governor-general

Governor-General: Appointed by British monarch on advice of local government ministers; acts on advice of Federal Executive Council

Prime Minister: Leader of majority party in Parliament; term, as long as party retains majority

Cabinet: Selected by prime minister from House of Representatives

Parliament: Senate and House of Representatives; annual sessions.

Senate – 76 members, elected by universal suffrage; term, 6 years.

House of Representatives – 148 elected members; term, 3 years.

Judiciary: High Court of Australia – chief justice and 6 other justices; term – life, with retirement at age 70. Federal Court, Family Court, state courts, industrial tribunals.

Voting qualification: Age 18.

Economy

Chief agricultural products: crops – sugarcane, cotton, apples, barley, wheat, grapes, potatoes, bananas, oats, tomatoes, oranges, rice, sorghum; livestock – sheep, cattle, pigs, poultry.

Chief mined products: iron ore, bauxite, zinc, lead, copper, tin, gold, diamonds, coal, petroleum, natural gas.

Chief manufactured products: cement, pig iron, textile floor coverings, woven cotton and woolen cloth, beer, electric motors, refrigerators, motor vehicles.

Foreign trade: imports, 52%; exports, 48%/

Chief imports: machinery, mineral fuels and lubricants, chemicals, transport equipment, basic manufactures, paper and paper products, nonferrous metals, food and live animals.

Chief exports: metal ores and metal scrap, textile fibers, cereals, meat, mineral fuels and lubricants, petroleum, natural gas, machinery and transport equipment, chemicals.

Chief trading partners: Japan, United States, Germany, New Zealand.

Monetary Unit: 1 Australian dollar = 100cents

Places of Interest

Ayers Rock and Mount Olga National Park. In Northern Territory; Ayers Rock is world's largest monolith; area is important to mythological beliefs and ritual lifeof aborigines; cave paintings within rock.

Beaconsfield. In Tasmania; ruins of Tasmania Gold Mine; replica of miner's school and home; batman Bridge; fishing; boating in Tamar valley; surfing at Greens Beach; Fern Gorge Reserve; hiking; camping.

Braidwood. In New South Wales; early pastoral settlement; grasslands; rolling granite plateau; preserved convict barracks; abandoned Bellevue Station gold mine; alluvial Bombay diggings; preserved flour mill; World War I Memorial.

The Grampians. In Victoria; range of large hills; walking tracks; lakes; waterfalls; painted aboriginal rock shelters; beekeeping; champagne production.

Great Barrier Reef. In Queensland; largest coral structure in the world; includes some 700 islands; 350 species of coral; diving; snorkeling.

Noosa Heads. In Queensland; booming resort area; famous surfing beach; other aquatic sports; display of life-size tall ships; coloured sand cliffs nearby; Cooloola national Park; picnicking; hiking.

Norfolk Island. In New South Wales; volcanic island; Mount Pitt rain forest reserve; famous pine forests; penal colony ruins; Beach Store Museum; Arthurs Vale watermill; Longridge Barracks; Slaughter Bay; St. Barnabas's Chapel.

Swan River Valley. In Western Australia; early agricultural settlement; Walyunga National Park; hiking trails; ancient aboriginal campsite; rock formations; St. George's Anglican cathedral; Woodbridge House; Round House; Fremantle Town Hall.

Sydney Opera House. Contains a concert hall, opera theatre, drama theatre, cinema, recording hall, and reception hall; daily tours.

Warwick and the Southern Darling Downs. In Queensland; pastoral countryside; sheep stations; eucalyptus forests; wool processing center; Warwick Courthouse; Masonic Hall; Glengallan homestead; Allora railway; Yangan Masonic Temple.

Complement 17
National Anthem
GOD DEFEND NEW ZEALAND

Words by Thomas Bracken, music by John J. Woods

God of nations! at Thy feet
In the bonds of love we meet,
Hear our voices, we entreat,
God defend our Free Land.
Guard Pacific's triple star,
From the shafts of strife and war,
Make her praises heard afar,
God defend New Zealand.

Men of ev'ry creed and race

Gather here before Thy face,
Asking Thee to bless this place,
God defend our Free Land.
From dissension, envy, hate,
And corruption guard our State'
Make our country good and great,
God defend New Zealand.

Peace, not war, shall be our boast,
But, should foes assail our coast,
Make us then a mighty host,
God defend our Free Land.
Lord of battles in thy might,
Put our enemies to fight,
Let our cause be just and right,
God defend New Zealand.

Let our love for Thee increase,
May Thy blessings never cease,
Give us plenty, give us peace,
God defend our Free Land.
From dishonour and from shame
Guard our country's spotless name
Crown her with immortal fame,
God defend New Zealand.

May our mountains ever be
Freedom's ramparts on the sea,
Make us faithful unto Thee,
God defend our Free Land.
Guide her in the nations' van,
Preaching love and truth to man,
Working out Thy Glorious plan,
God defend New Zealand.

Complement 18
NEW ZEALAND

Fact Summary

Official Name: New Zealand (English); Aotearoa (Maori – "Land of the Long White Cloud)

Capital: Wellington

Major Cities: Auckland, Hamilton, Dunedin, Queenstown, Christchurch

Coat of Arms: Five badges on a shield representing three sailing vessels, the Southern Cross, a wheat sheaf, two mining hammers, and a fleece; shield flanked by white female figure on left and Maori male figure on right; shield supports Crown of St. Edward. Adopted 1956

Anthem: *God defend New Zealand*; usually followed by *God Save the Queen (King)*

Population: 4 million (Statistics Office of New Zealand, 2010)

Official languages: English, Maori, NZSL (New Zealand Sign Language)

Major religion: Christianity

Life expectancy: 76 years (men); 81 years (women) (UN)

Internet domain: .nz

International dialing code: +64

Natural Features

Area: 270,534 sq km

Borders: Coast – 3,500 miles (5,630 kilometers)

Major Islands: North, South, Steward, Chatham

Major Range: Southern Alps

Notable Peaks: Mount Cook, (3,754 meters); Mount Ruapehu, (2,797 meters); Mount Egmont (Taranaki), (2,518 meters)

Major Rivers: Waikato, Clutha, Waitaki, Wanganui

Major Lakes: Lake Taupo, Lake Benmore, Te Anau Lake

Climate: Generally temperate, moist, maritime; abundant precipitation, especially in Southern Alps exposed to prevailing winds; driest areas are the eastern lowlands; no great extremes in temperature

Government

Form of government: Constitutional monarchy

Constitution: Consolidated into one act in 1986

Sovereign: British monarch, represented by governor-general

Governor-General: Appointed by monarch

Prime Minister: Leader of majority party in House of Representatives; term, as long as party retains majority

Cabinet: Selected by prime minister from House of Representatives

Parliament: House of Representatives – 120 members (including 4 members representing Maori electorates), elected by universal adult suffrage; term, 3 years

Judiciary: High Court – chief justice and 31 associate judges. Court of Appeal – chief justice, president, 4 appointed judges. District Courts – chief district court judge and 93 associate judges. Special courts include Maori Land Court, family Courts, and Children's and Young Persons' Courts

Economy

Chief agricultural products: crops – apples, barley, wheat, corn; livestock – sheep, cattle, pigs, goats.

Chief mined products: limestone, iron ore, sand concentrate, gold, silver, coal, crude petroleum, natural gas.

Chief manufactured products: wood pulp, chemical fertilizers, yarn, beer, soft drinks, footwear, carpets.

Foreign trade: imports, 50%; exports, 50%/

Chief imports: machinery, minerals, chemicals, plastics, transport equipment, basic manufactures, food and live animals, metals and metal products, textiles, clothing, footwear.

Chief exports: lamb, beef, wool, dairy goods, fruits, forest products, minerals, chemicals, plastics, metal products.

Chief trading partners: Australia, Japan, United States, United Kingdom.

Monetary Unit: 1 New Zealand dollar ($NZ) = 100cents

Places of Interest

Doubtful Sound. On the South Island; beautiful, hidden fjord.

Heritage Park. In Auckland; resident Maori cultural group; underwater grotto with giant rainbow trout; restaurant with New Zealand delicacies.

Milford Sound. On the South Island; glacier-cut mountains surrounding a mosaic of lakes; hiking excursions; sound approached by a 4- or 5-day hike along Clinton River, through rain forest, and over open alpine country.

Pohutu Geyser. Gushes to 30 meters high; forest walks; picnic sites; pony rides.

Queen Elizabeth II Army Memorial Museum. Covers all the campaigns new Zealanders have ever fought; life-size dioramas; audio-visual show.

Rotorua. On North Island; called the Kiwi Las Vegas; in middle of volcanic plateau; nearby Wairoa village excavated from under tons of mud and ash after 1886 eruption; Rotorua Settlers Museum; Maori Arts and Crafts Institute.

Stewart Island. Off the coast of South Island; Halfmoon Bay; pristine woodland, headland, and coasts.

Tauranga Historic Village. On North Island; artifacts and architecture of Victorian colonial life; New Zealand's oldest Roman Catholic parish; site of celebrated Gate Pa war between European settlers and Maori; gold-mining camp; pre-European Maori village.

Tongariro National Park. New Zealand's first national park; three active volcanoes; snow skiing; summer resort; hiking; Rangipo Desert.

Waitomo Caves. On North Island; three main caves; museum with working models; fossil displays.

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