

**Н.С. БЕРЕГОВЕНКО
Н.С. ДЕМЧЕНКО**

**Лінгвокраїнознавство країн першої
іноземної мови
(англійська)**



Біла Церква

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Н.С. ДЕМЧЕНКО

**Лінгвокраїнознавство країн першої іноземної
МОВИ
(англійська)**

Навчально-методичний посібник

для здобувачів вищої освіти першого (бакалаврського) рівня,
галузі знань – 03 «Гуманітарні науки», спеціальності – 035
«Філологія» (переклад), спеціалізації 035.041 Германські мови та
літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська

Рекомендовано Вченою Радою

Білоцерківського національного аграрного університету

як навчально-методичний посібник для студентів закладів вищої освіти

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Навчально-методичний посібник містить сім розділів про культурологічні особливості англослов'янських країн, комплекс вправ для закріплення набутих знань, досягнення програмних результатів навчання та формування загальних і фахових компетентностей. Автори посібника пропонують сучасний погляд на різні аспекти життя і побуту англослов'янських націй, наводять маловідомі факти духовної та матеріальної культури. До посібника також включені додавки, які містять перелік англослов'янських країн, їх столиць та державних мов, назви штатів з поясненням їх походження та глосарій англо-українських лінгво-культурологічних термінів.

Посібник рекомендовано здобувачам вищої освіти першого (бакалаврського) рівня, галузі знань – 03 «Гуманітарні науки», спеціальності – 035 «Філологія» (переклад), спеціалізації 035.041 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська, фахівцям-лінгвістам, а також тим, хто хоче поглибити лінгвокультурознавчі знання про англослов'янські країни.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Для майбутнього фахівця-перекладача надзвичайно важливим є знання особливостей соціально-культурних аспектів англійської мови, що дають можливість орієнтуватися у складних культурологічних реаліях при перекладі текстів різних жанрів.

Посібник призначений для здобувачів вищої освіти першого (бакалаврського) рівня зі спеціальності 035 «Філологія» (переклад) під час вивчення дисципліни «Лінгвокраїнознавство країн першої іноземної мови (англійська)» з метою формування лінгвокультурної компетентності майбутніх філологів-перекладачів через призму системи сучасних лінгвокультурологічних знань, зокрема вивчення специфіки мовних картин світу і відповідних особливостей мовної поведінки носіїв іноземних мов, які вивчаються, а також застосування набутих знань для удосконалення практики іншомовного спілкування, перекладу та в адекватному лінгвокультурологічному аналізі іноземної мови і мовлення.

Даний посібник розширює кругозір та ерудицію здобувачів вищої освіти, розвиваючи такі специфічні вміння як лінгвокультурологічний аналіз тексту, вміння користуватися культурологічними довідниками, словниками, посібниками. Всі ці вміння формують у здобувачів вищої освіти здатність працювати самостійно, створюють умови для розвитку потреби у самоосвіті. При цьому розвиваються пізнавальна та комунікативна функції мислення, здібності до таких логічних операцій як аналіз, синтез, співставлення. Знання загальнолюдських понять, регіональних особливостей, національно-специфічних рис культури народів світу є неодмінною умовою спілкування. Вивчення аспектів історії та культури, соціальних та політичних явищ, порівняння їх з відповідними аспектами життя України надасть здобувачам вищої освіти можливість простежити динамічний характер мовних процесів, удосконалити розуміння та використання англійської мови.

Посібник складається із семи розділів, п'ять з яких присвячені історії від найдавніших часів до сьогодення та культурологічним особливостям Сполученого Королівства Великої Британії та Північної Ірландії; шостий – присвячений Сполучим Штатам Америки, відповідно сьомий – Австралії, Канаді та Новій Зеландії. Наприкінці кожного розділу посібника представлено комплекс вправ для закріплення набутих знань, досягнення програмних результатів навчання та формування загальних та фахових компетентностей відповідно до освітньої програми. Автори посібника пропонують сучасний погляд на різні

аспекти життя і побуту цих країн і наводять чимало маловідомих фактів духовної та матеріальної культури англомовних націй.

Посібник рекомендовано здобувачам вищої освіти першого (бакалаврського) рівня спеціальності 035 Філологія (переклад), а також усім, хто хоче поглибити лінгвокультурознавчі знання про англомовні країни.

Згідно з освітньою програмою Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська, у здобувачів вищої освіти спеціальності 035 «Філологія» (переклад) мають бути сформовані такі загальні та спеціальні компетентності:

Загальні компетентності:

ЗК 1. Здатність реалізувати свої права і обов'язки як члена суспільства, усвідомлювати цінності громадянського (вільного демократичного) суспільства та необхідність його сталого розвитку, верховенства права, прав і свобод людини і громадянина в Україні.

ЗК 2. Здатність зберігати та примножувати моральні, культурні, наукові цінності і досягнення суспільства на основі розуміння історії та закономірностей розвитку предметної області, її місця у загальній системі знань про природу і суспільство та у розвитку суспільства, техніки і технологій, використовувати різні види та форми рухової активності для активного відпочинку та ведення здорового способу життя.

ЗК 3. Здатність спілкуватися державною мовою як усно, так і письмово.

ЗК 5. Здатність учитися й оволодівати сучасними знаннями.

ЗК 6. Здатність до пошуку, опрацювання та аналізу інформації з різних джерел.

ЗК 7. Уміння виявляти, ставити та вирішувати проблеми.

ЗК 8. Здатність працювати в команді та автономно.

ЗК 9. Здатність спілкуватися іноземною мовою.

ЗК 10. Здатність до абстрактного мислення, аналізу та синтезу.

Спеціальні компетентності:

СК 7. Здатність до збирання й аналізу, систематизації та інтерпретації мовних, літературних, фольклорних фактів, інтерпретації та перекладу тексту відповідно до спеціалізації 03541.

СК 9. Усвідомлення засад і технологій створення текстів різних жанрів і стилів державною та іноземними мовами.

СК 11. Здатність до надання консультацій з дотримання норм літературної мови та культури мовлення.

СК 12. Здатність до організації ділової комунікації.

У результаті вивчення дисципліни «Лінгвокраїнознавство країн першої іноземної мови (англійська)» у здобувачів вищої освіти будуть сформовані такі програмні результати навчання:

РН 1. Вільно спілкуватися з професійних питань із фахівцями та нефахівцями державною та іноземними мовами усно й письмово, використовувати їх для організації ефективної міжкультурної комунікації.

РН 2. Ефективно працювати з інформацією: добирати необхідну інформацію з різних джерел, зокрема з фахової літератури та електронних баз, критично аналізувати й інтерпретувати її, впорядковувати, класифікувати й систематизувати.

РН 3. Організувати процес свого навчання й самоосвіти.

РН 5. Співпрацювати з колегами, представниками інших культур та релігій, прибічниками різних політичних поглядів тощо.

РН 6. Використовувати інформаційні й комунікаційні технології для вирішення складних спеціалізованих задач і проблем професійної діяльності.

РН 7. Розуміти основні проблеми філології та підходи до їх розв'язання із застосуванням доцільних методів та інноваційних підходів.

РН 8. Знати й розуміти систему мови, загальні властивості літератури як мистецтва слова, історію мови і літератур, що вивчаються, і вміти застосовувати ці знання в професійній діяльності.

РН 9. Характеризувати діалектні та соціальні різновиди мов, що вивчаються, описувати соціолінгвальну ситуацію.

РН 10. Знати норми літературної мови та вміти їх застосовувати у практичній діяльності.

CHAPTER 1. THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND. GENERAL INFORMATION.

The British Isles is a geographical term that refers to the great number of islands that surround and include Great Britain and Ireland. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is the political name of the country, which includes Great Britain, the largest island of the British Isles, and the Ulster or Northern Ireland. It is often abbreviated “the United Kingdom” and further “the UK”. Several Islands off the British coast are also part of the United Kingdom (for example, the Isle of Wight, the Orkneys, Hebrides and Shetlands, and the Isle of Scilly). People often call this country “Great Britain”. But this is the name of the island which is made up of three countries: England, Scotland and Wales. Many foreigners say “England” and “English” when they mean “Britain” and “British”. But it should be mentioned that 5 million people who live in Scotland, 2.8 million in Wales and 1.5 million in Northern Ireland are not English. However, the people from Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and England are all British. Their political unification was a long process. Many years ago these were separate countries, each with its own language and government, but now they are united and English is spoken everywhere. Wales was joined with England in 1536. In 1707 Scotland merged with the state. In 1800 the Irish Parliament was joined with the Parliament of Great Britain. So the British Isles became a single state – the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. However, in 1922, most of Ireland became a separate state except the six northern provinces [6].

Great Britain is the largest island in Europe. It is in the north-west of Europe and separated from the Continent by the North Sea and the English Channel which at its narrowest, is only twenty-one miles across. Between Great Britain and Ireland lies the Irish Sea. Each country of the United Kingdom is divided into counties:

1. England: 46 counties. Capital: London.
2. Scotland: 33 counties. Capital: Edinburgh.
3. Wales: 13 counties. Capital: Cardiff.

4. Northern Ireland or Ulster: 6 counties. Capital: Belfast

Great Britain is a parliamentary monarchy. It means that there is the Queen (or the King) and the Parliament. The Queen is the head of the state. In practice she has almost no power in the country; she reigns but does not rule. According to the constitution the power in the country belongs to the Parliament. It consists of the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The members of the House of Commons are elected by the people. Many seats in the House of Lords are hereditary [3].

The policy of the Government is dominated by two major parties: the Conservative and the Labour party, both come to power replacing each other. The Conservative Party is the Party supported by the rich – the monopolists and landowners. Very often, the term TORY is used instead of Conservative. Labour party's practical programme is the programme of capitalist re-organisation.

The Prime Minister heads the Government. As a rule, the prime Minister is the leader of the party that won the election. He chooses his ministers to make up the Cabinet, which is collectively responsible for all government decision. It is answerable to the Parliament. The second largest party usually becomes the official Opposition with its own leader and "shadow cabinet". The Government may hold office for 5 years unless it is defeated by the Opposition.

The territory of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is historically divided into four parts:

1. England;
2. Scotland;
3. Wales;
4. Northern Ireland.

1.1 ENGLAND

Of the four countries which make up the United Kingdom, England is the largest. It occupies an area of 131,8 thousand sq. km. England borders on Scotland in the north. In the east it is washed by the North Sea. In the south it is separated from the continent

by the English Channel. In the west it borders on Wales and is washed by the Bristol Channel and by the Irish Sea.

The highest part of England is in the west, from where the land gradually slopes down to the east. The Atlantic Ocean washes the rocky and broken west coast of England, Wales and Scotland and is gradually wearing it away, leaving caves and sandy beaches. On the east coast the land is low and sandy [6].

The rivers flowing to the east and emptying into the North Sea form deep estuaries well protected from the sea. The greatest port of the country London is situated in the Thames estuary. The white chalk cliffs of the south coast washed by the English Channel can be seen from many miles out at sea. As concerns the relief, England can be divided into Northern England mostly taken up by the low Pennine Mountains, the Central Plain, lowland South-east England, and hilly South-west England.

The capital of England is London, but there are other large industrial cities, such as Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester. Other very interesting and famous cities are York, Chester, Oxford, Cambridge. There are many interesting and beautiful places in England.

1.2 SCOTLAND

Scotland is the most northern of the countries that constitute the UK. It occupies an area of 78,8 thousand sq. km. Population of the country is 5.1 million. Scotland is the least densely populated part of the UK: 67 people per sq. km.

The Scottish form of Gaelic is spoken by 70,000 people. Scotland is washed by the Atlantic Ocean in the north and west and by the North Sea in the east. The coastline of Scotland is greatly indented. In many places deep fiords penetrate very far inland.

Geographically Scotland is divided into three regions: the Highlands and Islands, which is the most northern and the most underpopulated area with a beautiful, rugged landscape and a harsh climate; the Central Lowlands, which is the most industrial region; and the Southern Uplands, which is mainly a farming area, on the border with England. The Highlands are the highest mountains in the British isles. Their average

height does not exceed 457 m above sea level, though some peaks are much higher, rising over a thousand metres. Ben Nevis, the highest peak in the British Isles, reaches the height of 1343 m [4].

The Lowlands are the cradle of the Scottish nation. They are densely populated. The Southern Uplands seldom rise over 579 m above sea level. It is one of the most sparsely populated districts in Great Britain.

Scotland has not always been a part of the United Kingdom. The Scottish people had their own royal family and fought the English for centuries. In 1603, King James VI of Scotland became King James I of England and Scotland. When he moved to London, Scottish independence ended.

In 1707, Scotland formally became part of the UK when the government of Scotland moved to Westminster, in London. The union of England and Scotland was completed by an Act of Parliament. The state got a new name: Great Britain. The separate parliaments of both countries stopped functioning. A new parliament, the Parliament of Great Britain, met for the first time. But Scotland managed to keep its own legal and educational systems. Scotland still has different marriage laws from England. Young couples in England must have their parents' consent to get married if they are under 18, but in Scotland, they can get married at the age of 16 without asking [8].

Scotland now has its own parliament in Edinburgh. The Scottish Parliament can decide on local matters and reduce tax a little. Some Scottish people still want their country to be completely independent.

1.3 WALES

Wales is a peninsula washed by the sea on three sides: the Bristol Channel in the south, the St. George's Channel in the west, and the Irish Sea in the north. Its territory is 20,8 thousand sq. km. The population of the country is 2.9 million. 5% of the UK population lives in Wales.

Geographically Wales may be considered part of highland Britain, the Cumbrian Mountains occupying most of the land. It is an area of high mountains, deep valleys, waterfalls and lakes. Wales is a region of heavy rainfall brought by the prevailing west winds from the Atlantic Ocean. The valleys are sheltered by the high mountains from cold east winds. The climate is rather mild. Wales has never been densely populated. The Welsh have kept their own language, but English is spoken in towns as well [13].

Welsh is spoken by two in ten of the population – in 1900 it was five in ten. Wales has not always been a part of Great Britain. Between the 9th and the 11th centuries, Wales was divided into small states. In the 13th century, the country was united. Welsh independence did not last long. Later, the English King, Edward I, conquered Wales and gave the title of Prince of Wales to his son, Edward. Since then the eldest son of the English king or queen has always been called The Prince of Wales and Wales is called a principality. Wales now has some self-government and its own assembly in Cardiff.

All over Wales there are medieval castles. They were built by the English to dominate the Welsh. There are so many of these medieval castles that they stretch like a chain across Wales. St David is the patron saint of Wales. On 1st March, St David's Day, patriotic Welsh people wear a leek or a daffodil, both symbols of Wales [6].

Caernarfon is the ancient capital of Wales, where the British monarch's eldest son is traditionally crowned Prince of Wales. Wales is approximately 150 miles (242 km) from north to south. About two-thirds of the total population of 2.8 million people live in the South Wales coastal area, where the three biggest towns are located: Swansea, Cardiff and Newport. Mining has been one of the great Welsh industries for many years along with the iron and steel trades. During the industrial revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries, the valleys of South Wales became the iron and steel capital of the world [6].

1.4 IRELAND

The Gaelic name for Ireland, an island in the north-west of Europe, is Eire. It is part of the British Isles and is separated from Britain by the North Channel, the Irish Sea and St. George's Channel. Ireland has a stormy history. The English ruled the country by force since the 12th century, and there have been disputes ever since over whether Ireland should rule itself, or remain part of the UK. The creation of the Protestant Church of England in the 16th century caused a divide between Catholics and Protestants. At the beginning of the last century, the mainly Protestant North wanted to stay part of Britain, while the rest of the country (mostly Catholic) wanted to govern itself independently. This led to the creation of Northern Ireland in 1920, while Eire was finally declared a Republic in 1949. However, many would like Northern Ireland to be self-governing [6].

The misty green landscape of the "Emerald Isle" is the setting for much folklore – Ireland is host to mythological characters such as giants and fairies. The most famous of these are leprechauns – those cheeky little men who hide away with a pot of gold. Ireland also has a strong tradition of folk music and dancing, recently popularised by the Riverdance performance. Ireland has had a great impact on English-language literature, having produced several Nobel Prize-winning writers, including Samuel Beckett, George Bernard Shaw. Oscar Wilde, James Joyce and contemporary writer Roddy Doyle all hail from the Emerald Isle.

1.5 NORTHERN IRELAND

Northern Ireland occupies the north-eastern part of Ireland, which is separated from the island of Great Britain by the North Channel. In the south-west Northern Ireland borders on the Irish Republic (Eire). Almost all the area of Northern Ireland is a plain of volcanic origin, deepening in the centre to form the largest lake of the British Isles, Lough Neagh. The greatly indented coastline of Northern Ireland is abundant in rocks and cliffs [14].

Northern Ireland has a typical oceanic climate with mild damp winters (the mean temperature in January is +4, +5) and cool rainy summers (the mean temperature in July is +14, +15). Forests are rather scarce, moors and meadows prevail. Northern Ireland is mostly an agrarian district. On small farms they grow crops, especially oats, vegetables and potatoes. Large areas are taken up by meadows, where cattle graze. On the river banks and on the coasts the population is engaged in fishing.

EXERCISES

1. Визначити до якої групи належать лексична одиниця: club, happy hour, Lady, mini-cab, tea, cricket, Nelson's Column, NHS (National Health Service), the tube, Constitutional monarchy, Mills & Boon, the Tate Gallery, the Voice of America, ABC, CBS, BBC, the Royal Albert Hall, fringe and pub theatres, The Globe, tuition fee, PhD, Interracial marriage, Baby boom generation, The Democrats.
2. Discuss the following questions:
 - Bearing in mind its climate and general character, which part of Britain would you choose to live in? Why? Is this the same part that you would like to visit for a holiday? Why (not?)
 - Is Dublin or Belfast the capital of Northern Ireland?
 - How does Southern England differ from Northern England?
 - Which mountains run up the middle of northern England?
 - Why is the county in Southern England known as “the garden of England”?
 - What is Britain's second largest city? Call the area where it's situated.
 - What are Scotland's two major cities?
 - What is the capital of Wales?
3. Find a map of the UK or check the locations of major UK cities and famous places.
4. Prepare a poster with a description of ten places in the UK.
5. Explain the essence and geographical associations and facts:

- the physical geography;
- an earth tremor;
- a wet, foggy land;
- the amount of rain;
- the changeability of Britain's weather;
- love of the countryside;
- the word 'smog';
- the Lake District;
- the highlands;
- the Giant's Causeway.

6. Translate into English.

Між кліматичними умовами Великої Британії та північно-західної частини Європейського континенту є певна схожість. Панує думка, що в Об'єднаному Королівстві постійно йде дощ. Хоча, насправді, це не так. Погода у Великій Британії дуже мінлива, ніколи не можна бути впевненим, що дощу сьогодні не буде. Однак кількість опадів не перевищує показників більшості європейських міст.

CHAPTER 2. GOING BACK IN HISTORY.

2.1 THE EARLY DAYS OF BRITAIN

Little is known about the ancient population of the British Isles. Like other primitive people in other parts of the world, they lived in caves and hunted animals for food. These people came to be known as the *Iberians*. Gradually they learned to grow corn and breed domestic animals. They made primitive tools and weapons of stone. Later they learned to smelt metal and make metal tools and weapons. Archeologists find their tools and weapons, as well as remains of primitive houses [6].

These people were religious, though we know very little about their religion. Some temples which they built still stand in many parts of England and Scotland. About 500-600 BC new people – *the Celts* – appeared in Britain [6]. They were tall, strong people with long red hair, armed with iron swords and knives which were much stronger than the bronze weapons used by the native population. They crossed the English Channel from the territory of the present-day France. Powerful Celtic tribes, the Britons, held most of the country, and the southern half of the island was named Britain after them.

2.2 THE ROMAN AGE

Two thousand years ago while the Celts were still living in tribes the Romans were the most powerful people in the world. Roman society differed greatly from that of the Celts. It was a slave society divided into antagonistic classes.

In 55 BC a Roman army crossed the English Channel and invaded Britain. The Celts made a great impression on the Romans, who saw them for the first time in battle. The Britons were armed with spears and swords, ready to fight the Romans. The Romans won the battle, but did not stay long and soon departed. In the following year Julius Caesar came to Britain again. The Romans who had better arms and were much better trained defeated the Celts in several battles. Having stayed in Britain some time, the Romans left again and did not appear on the British shores for about hundred years. Then, in the year 43 AD, the Roman Emperor Claudius sent his army to Britain again. The British fought bravely, but could not hold back the trained Roman army. Soon the whole of the south of Britain was conquered. Other parts of the country were taken from time to time during the next 40 years. The Romans were unable to conquer the Scottish Highlands. The British were not conquered easily. For the next three hundred and twenty-five years Britain remained a Roman province, governed by Roman Governors and protected by the Roman legions. During this time there were long periods of peace, and Britain became a civilized country of towns and villages and good roads. There are today many things in Britain to remind the people of the Romans. The wells which the

Romans dug give water today, the ruins of public baths and parts of the Roman Bridges have remained to this day. Under the Emperor Hadrian in 120 AD a great wall was built across Britain to protect the Romans against the attacks of Scots and Picts [17].

Besides, many words of Modern English have come from Latin. The words which the Romans left behind them in the language of Britain are for the most part the names of the things which they taught the Celts. For example, the word “street” came from the Latin *strata*, which means “road”, the word “port” from the Latin *portus*, “wall” from *vallum*. The names of many English towns are of Latin origin too. The Roman towns were strongly fortified and they were called *castra*, which means “campus”. This word can be recognized in various forms in such names as *Chester*, *Gloucester*, *Doncaster*, *Lancaster*. Any English town today with a name ending in “chester”, “cester” or “caster” was once a Roman camp or city.

2.3 THE ANGLO- SAXON CONQUEST OF BRITAIN

Towards the end of the 4th century Europe was invaded by barbaric tribes. The Romans had to leave Britain because they were needed to defend their own country. The Britons were left to themselves, but they had very little peace. Very soon sea-robbers came sailing in ships from the continent. These invaders were Germanic tribes called Angles, Saxons and Jutes. They were wild and fearless people, and the Britons could never drive them away. The Britons fought many battles, but at last they were forced to retreat to the west of Britain. Those who stayed became the slaves of the Anglo-Saxons.

The Anglo-Saxons controlled the central part of Britain which was called as England, while the romanized Celts fled West, taking with them their culture, language and Christianity. For a long time the tribes of *Angles*, *Saxons* and *Jutes* fought with one another for supreme power. England was a network of small kingdoms. That time there were seven kingdoms established: *Kent*, *Sussex* (South Saxons), *Essex* (East Saxons), *Wessex* (West Saxons), *Mercia*, *East Anglia* (East Angles), and *Northumbria*. The Anglo-Saxons understood that their small kingdoms must unite in order to struggle

against the Danes, because beginning with the 8th century, pirates from Scandinavia and Denmark began raiding the eastern shores of Britain. In the 9th century *Egbert*, the king of Wessex, one of the strongest Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, united several neighboring kingdoms. The united kingdom got the name of England, and Egbert became the first king of the united country [6].

The southern part of Britain became known as *Angieland* or *England*. The Anglo-Saxons were tall, strong men, with blue eyes and long blond hair. The Anglo-Saxon villages were small. A village which had twenty-five families was considered a large one. The names of Anglo-Saxon villages meant as a rule either their new “home” or a “protected place”. Many English towns are called by the old Anglo-Saxon names too. For example, the word *ton* was the Saxon for “hedge” or a place surrounded by a hedge. Thus, there are Northampton, Southhampton, Brighton, Preston. *Burh* or *bury* was the Saxon for “to hide”. For example, Salisbury, Edinburgh, Canterbury. The Anglo-Saxon *ham*, the old English form of the word “home” can also be found in such names as Nottingham, Birmingham. The word *field* meaning “open country” can be found in Sheffield, Manfield [5].

Alfred, the grandson of Egbert, became king in the year 871, when England’s danger was the greatest. The Danes continued robbing and killing the people of England, occupying more and more land. Alfred gathered a big army and gave the Danes a great battle in 891. But still the Danes remained very strong and Alfred hurried to make peace with them. He had to give them the greater portion of England.

Alfred is the only king of England who got the name “the Great”. And, he was really a great king. He was very well educated for his time. He had travelled to the continent and visited France. He knew Latin. He was famous not only for having built the first navy, but also for having tried to enlighten his people. He started the famous Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, which is the first history of England [1].

2.4 CHRISTIANITY

Christianity first penetrated to Britain in the 3rd century. It was brought there from Rome. It became the official religion in Britain. When the Anglo-Saxons, who were pagans, invaded Britain, most of the British Christians were killed. Those who remained alive, fled to Wales or Ireland, where they lived in groups called Brethren (brotherhoods). They built churches and devoted themselves to worship. Towards the end of the 6th century, Christian monks began coming from Rome to Britain again. The spread of Christianity was of great importance for the growth of culture in Britain. The Roman monks brought many books, most of them were religious books written in Latin and Greek. The church service was also conducted in Latin. The spread of Christianity promoted a revival of learning. Such English words of Greek origin as “*arithmetic*”, “*mathematics*”, “*theatre*”, “*geography*”, or words of Latin origin, such as “*school*”, “*paper*” reflect the influence of the Roman civilization, a new wave of which was brought about in the 7th century by Christianity.

EXERCISES

1. Discuss the following questions:

- What is the official name of the UK?
- What happened in 1800?
- Who were the ancestors of the four nations? Were they different racially? Where was this difference reflected?
- What is the difference between England and Britain?
- What does the dominance of England mean?
- What monuments of pre-Roman England can you name?
- What imprint did the Roman Empire leave on England and what physical evidence of its occupation can still be found?
- What were the most ancient tribes on English territory and who were the invaders after the Romans?

2. Choose the correct word(s) to complete each sentence.

- The normal adjective, when talking about something to do with the UK, is British / English.
- England is only one of the four nations of the British Isles / Countries.
- Today the differences between the four nations have blurred / disappeared.
- The political unification of Britain was / was not achieved by mutual agreement.
- These people support / don't support the country of their parents or grandparents rather than England in sporting contests.

3. Translate into English paying attention to the realias:

Британці – народ загартований, вони успішно протистоять усім окупантам, починаючи з Вільгельма Завойовника, і ті «катування», до яких їх постійно піддають єврократи з «континенту» – це суцї дрібниці. Зовсім інша річ – тунель під «Протокою». Ці 22 милі водного простору між Дувром і Кале мали величезне психологічне значення для британців.

4. *Do you remember?* Fill in the missing word, word combination or phrase.

The first people who came on British Isles were _____. Gradually they learned to grow corn and breed _____ animals. They made primitive tools and weapons of stone. Later they learned to smelt metal and make _____ and weapons. Archeologists find their tools and weapons, as well as remains of primitive _____. These people were religious, though we know very little about their religion. Some _____, which they built, still stand in many parts of England and Scotland. About 500-600 BC new people _____ appeared in Britain. They crossed the English Channel from the territory of the present-day France. Powerful Celtic tribes _____ held most of the country, and the southern half of the island was named Britain after them. Two thousand years ago while the Celts were still living in tribes the Romans were the most powerful _____ in the world.

CHAPTER 3. BRITAIN OF MIDDLE AGES AND THE EPOCH OF RENAISSANCE

3.1 THE NORMAN CONQUEST

In *1066 William, the Duke of Normandy*, began to gather an army to invade Britain. The pretext for the invasion was William's claims to the English throne. At the same time there was in England a young Saxon named Harold, who was the son of the Earl of Wessex, one of the most powerful English nobles of the time. Most Saxon nobles did not want a French king, and proclaimed *Harold* King of England. William sent messengers to invite the fighting men of Western Europe to join his forces. He gathered a great army and sailed across the English Channel on hundreds of ships. There was a great battle at *Hastings on October 14, 1066*. Harold's soldiers fought bravely, but William's army was stronger. Harold was killed in the battle, and with the death of their leader, the English understood that the battle was lost. William marched his army to London. Nobody tried to stop him on the way, and when he approached London, he found the gates of the city open. He was met by the Saxon bishops and nobles. They knew that they could not stop William, so they asked him to be the King of England [6].

To protect himself from possible attacks of the Saxons, William ordered to build a strong tower on the left bank of the Thames. This tower still stands. It was called the White Tower because it was built of white stone. Later other buildings were added and the whole place was surrounded by a fortress which we know now as the Tower of London.

There were many people in England who did not want to be ruled by a Norman king, and in many parts of the country, there were rebellions. But with the strong army of his barons and knights, William cruelly put down all the rebellions. After William the Conqueror's death in 1087, there were some kings who ruled England: his two sons, William II and Henry I, and his grandson Stephen. After Stephen's death, the English throne passed to *the Plantagenet dynasty*. *Richard I the Lion-Heart (Richard Coeur de Lion)* was of the Plantagenet dynasty. He was famous for his good education (he

knew Latin and was fond of music and poetry) and courage. His contemporaries described him as a man of excellent manners, kind to his friends and cruel to his enemies. Richard was seldom seen in England, spending most of his time taking part in crusades in Palestine. Richard the Lion's Heart was killed in one of the battles in France, and the English throne passed to his brother John [18]. At that time great territories in France belonged to England. Naturally, the French kings and nobles did not like it and wanted to win back these lands, so the English and the French waged continuous wars in France. King John wanted a lot of money to wage these wars. He made the barons give him that money, and the barons did not like it. Finally the barons organized an open rebellion. In **1215**, the king was made to sign a document called *the Great Charter* (Magna Carta in Latin). For the first time in the history of England, the Great Charter officially stated certain rights and liberties of the people, which the king had to respect.

3.2 EFFECTS ON THE LANGUAGE

The victorious Normans made up the new aristocracy and the Anglo-Saxons became their servants. The Norman aristocracy spoke a Norman dialect of French, a tongue of Latin origin, while the Anglo-Saxons spoke English, a tongue of Germanic origin. Thus, there were two languages spoken in the country at the same time. Norman-French became the official language of the state. It was the language of the ruling class spoken at court; it was the language of the lawyers, and all the official documents were written in French or Latin. The richer Anglo Saxons found it convenient to learn to speak the language of the rulers. But the peasants and townspeople spoke English.

But the conquerors who settled down on English estates had to communicate with the natives of the country and they gradually learned to speak their language. Many of them married Anglo-Saxon wives and their children and grandchildren grew up speaking English. In a few generations the descendants of the Normans who had come with William the Conqueror learned to speak the mother tongue of the common people of England. In some time English became the language of the educated classes and the official language of the state [10].

At the time when the two languages were spoken side by side the Anglo Saxons learned many French words and expressions which gradually came into the English language. Many synonyms appeared in English, because very often both French and English words for the same thing were used side by side.

Words of Germanic origin make up the basic vocabulary of Modern English. The Anglo-Saxons spoke the simple countrymen's language and in Modern English simple everyday words are mostly Anglo-Saxon, like "eat, land, house" and others. But as there were no English words to describe the more complicated feudal relations many words were adopted from the French language: "*manor, noble, baron, serve, command, obey*"; or words relating to administration and law, such as "*charter, council, accuse, court, crime*"; or such military terms as "*arms, guard, troops, navy, battle, victory*" and other words characterizing the way of life and customs of the Norman aristocracy [5].

The two languages gradually formed one rich English language, which already in the 14th century was being used, both in speech and in writing. Gradually the Normans mixed with the Anglo-Saxons and from this mixture the English nation was formed.

3.3 THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR

In the first half of the 14th century the English still held a small part of southwest France. The king of England was *Edward III*. He was a powerful king, and he wanted to become King of France as well. The kings of France, who were growing more powerful, wanted to drive the English out. *In 1337 Edward III declared himself King of France*. This angered the French even more. In 1339, the French and English fought the first in a long series of battles known as the Hundred Years War because it lasted over a hundred years [6].

The Hundred Years War began when the English defeated the French fleet and won control of the sea. The English then invaded France. They defeated the French at the *battle of Crecy in 1347* and again at *the Battle of Agincourt in 1417*. By 1453, the English held only the French seaport at Calais, and the war came to an end.

3.4 THE WAR OF ROSES

The Hundred Years War ended in 1453, but there was no peace in the country. Long before the end of the war, a feudal struggle had broken out between the descendants of Edward III.

In **1455**, two noble families, ***York and Lancaster***, began a struggle for the throne which lasted many years. The York's symbol was ***a white rose***, and the Lancaster's symbol was ***a red rose***. For this reason, the struggle between York and Lancaster was called the War of the Roses. The war lasted ***for thirty years (1455 - 1485)***. It was a dark time for England, a time of anarchy, when the kings and nobles were busy fighting and murdering each other and had no time to take care of the common people, who suffered greatly. The War of ***Roses ended in 1485***. ***King Richard III of the House of York was killed*** in the battle, and, right in the field, ***Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, was proclaimed King of England***. The war was over at last, and everybody sighed with relief [1].

Henry Tudor was head of the House of Lancaster. A year later, in **1486**, he married the ***Yorkish heiress Princess Elizabeth of York***. This marriage was of great political importance. It meant the union of the red rose of the House of Lancaster with the white rose of the House of York.

3.5 HENRY VIII AND THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND

During the Tudor period, from 1485 till 1603, England's foreign policy changed several times. Henry VII was careful to remain friendly relations with neighboring countries. His son Henry VIII was more ambitious, hoping to play an important part in European politics. Henry VIII disliked the power of the Church in England: it was an international organization, so he could not completely control it. The power of the Catholic Church in England could work against Henry's authority. Besides, Henry had another reason for opposing to the authority of the Church. He had no son who could be the heir to the throne after Henry's death. That's why he asked the Pope to allow him to

divorce his wife *Catherine of Aragon*. But the Pope didn't allow him. Henry was angry. He persuaded the English bishops to break away from the Catholic Church and establish a new Church in England, the head of which would be the English monarch.

In 1531 the Church of England was established. Now Henry was free to divorce Catherine and marry Anne Boleyn. He hoped Anne would give him a son to follow him on the throne. *Henry* died in *1547*, leaving three children. Mary, the eldest, was the daughter of Catherine of Aragon. Elizabeth was the daughter of his second wife, Anne Boleyn, whom he had executed because she was unfaithful. Nine-year-old Edward was the son of Jane Seymour, the only wife whom Henry had really loved but who had died giving birth to his only son. Edward was only 9 when he became king, so the country was ruled by a council. All the members of the council were representatives of the new nobility created by the Tudors. They were keen Protestant Reformers because they had benefited from the sale of monastery lands. All the new landowners knew that they could only be sure of keeping their new lands if they made England truly Protestant [9].

Most English people still believed in the old Catholic religion. Less than half the English were Protestant by belief, but these people controlled religious matters. *Mary, the Catholic daughter of Catherine of Aragon, became queen when Edward, aged 16, died in 1553.* Mary was unwise and made mistakes in her policy. Mary began burning Protestants. Three hundred people died in this way during her five-year reign. For these mass executions she was called Bloody Mary.

3.6 ELIZABETH I AND THE GOLDEN AGE

Mary died in 1558 without a child to succeed her. Her half sister Elizabeth, who was 25, became queen. Elizabeth I was Protestant and, with the help of Parliament, ended the Pope's authority over the English Church.

Elizabeth and Parliament decided that the English Church should be Protestant, but with some Catholic features. Most English people were pleased with the blend of Protestant belief and Catholic practice. The few groups of Catholics, who were not

pleased, remained outside the English Church. Some groups of Protestants also opposed Elizabeth's Church. As they wanted to purify the Church of Catholic way, they became known as *Puritans*.

Under Elizabeth I, England became the leading Protestant power in Europe. Spain, under Philip II, remained the leading Catholic power. In order to defeat England, Philip ordered the building of the Spanish Armada, a fleet of 130 ships.

In the spring of 1588, *the Armada sailed towards England. Elizabeth had the English fleet reorganized.* A new navy of 134 fighting ships and merchant vessels was formed. The English were able to fight the Spanish ships successfully one by one. Only half of the Armada survived [9].

The Elizabethan age was one of the greatest periods of English literature. Edmund Spenser, Christopher Marlowe and William Shakespeare were only a few of the many writers who created their great works at that time. Elizabeth's court became a centre of culture for English musicians, poets, scholars and artists. The English were proud of their country and their queen.

3.7 RENAISSANCE

Since the time of Chaucer, in the mid-fourteenth century, *London English* had become accepted as standard English. Printing made this *standard English* more widely accepted among the literate public. For the first time people started to think of London pronunciation as "correct" pronunciation. Until Tudor times the local forms of speech had been spoken by lord and peasant alike. From Tudor times onwards the way people spoke began to show the difference between them. Educated people began to speak "correct" English, and uneducated people continued to speak the local dialects.

Literacy increased greatly during the 16th century. By the beginning of the 16th century about half the population of England could read and write. *Renaissance is the period in Europe between the 14th and 17th centuries*, when, after the period of Middle Ages during which there had been little education, people became interested in the art,

literature and ideas of ancient Greece. This interest caused the appearance of outstanding thinkers, scientists, artists and writers. England felt the effects of the Renaissance later than much of Europe because it was an island. In the early years of the 16th century English thinkers became interested in the work of the *Dutch philosopher Erasmus*. One of them, Thomas More, wrote a book in which he described an ideal nation. The book was called *Utopia*. It was very popular throughout Europe.

The Renaissance also influenced religion, music and painting. In painting English masters developed their own special kind of painting, the miniature painting. In literature such names as Christopher Marlowe, Ben Jonson and William Shakespeare were very popular. The plays, which they wrote, were staged in all theatres, and the public enjoyed them. Shakespeare's popularity, as we know, has not died down until our time, and his plays are still staged in many theatres throughout the world.

EXERCISES

1. Discuss the following questions:

What important event marking a new era happened in the 11th century?

When did the shift from the feudal system to democracy in England begin?

What was the role of castles in English history and what are some of the most famous of them?

Who are the most famous monarchs of the Tudor dynasty and what are they famous for?

What were the most famous battles at the Hundred Years War?

What do you know about Renaissance? What famous playwrights, artists, poets, musicians created at that time?

Who were the Puritans and what did they want?

Why Mary, the oldest daughter of Henry Tudor, was called "Bloody Mary"?

2. Read the text and answer the questions that follow it.

The importance of hand gestures

The old adage that words are not enough may have more than a ring of truth as scientists have discovered that the secret of communication is all in the hands. New research has shown that our hands – whether being shaken or gesturing – give away more about us than we realize. Once thought of as meaningless and even distracting, hand gestures have been shown to be far more important than the spoken word in getting the message across. Body language has long been recognized as having importance, but the level of importance attached to handshakes is startling. Recent research has pointed to speech itself making up only 7 per cent of human communication while hand movements and body language make up well over 50 per cent. There is a common misconception that communicating is only speaking. If people are not allowed to gesture it can interfere with their communication and thought processes and certain ideas or thought processes may be more difficult to relay. Gestures help us think about what we want to say and communicate effectively. If there is anything we would like to keep secret from the rest of the world, it is probably best to sit on our hands.

1. According to the text, without hand movements

- A. communication would be impossible.
- B. first impressions would be more exact.
- C. meaning is less likely to be conveyed.
- D. it would be very difficult to think.

2. By saying we should 'sit on our hands' the writer suggests that

- A. we are not aware of making gestures.
- B. we cannot normally avoid expressive gestures.
- C. gestures are not always acceptable.
- D. gestures are good indicators of personality.

3. According to the text, what is the effect of restricting someone's freedom to gesture?

4. What do you know about gestures used in different cultures?

3. *Do you remember?* Fill in the missing word, word combination or phrase.

In 1066 William, the Duke of Normandy, began to gather an army to invade Britain. The pretext for the invasion was William's to the English throne. At the same time there was in England a young Saxon named..... who was the son of the Earl of Wessex, one of the most powerful English nobles of the time.

Most Saxon nobles did not want a King, and proclaimed Harold King of England. William sent messengers to invite the fighting men of Western Europe to join his forces. He gathered and sailed across the English Channel on hundreds of ships. There was a great battle at on October 14... Harold's soldiers fought bravely, but William's army was..... Harold was killed in theand with the death of their leader the English understood that the battle was lost. In 1337 Edward III declared himself King of.....This angered the French even more. In 1339, the French and English fought the first in a long series of battles known as thebecause it lasted over a hundred years.

In 1455, two noble families, York and Lancaster, began a struggle for the.....which lasted many years. The York's symbol was a....., and the Lancaster's symbol was..... For this reason, the struggle between York and Lancaster was called the War of the..... The war lasted for thirty years. It was a dark time for England, a time of....., when the kings and nobles were busy fighting and murdering each other and had no time to take care of the common people, who suffered greatly. The War of Roses ended in 1485. King Richard III of the House of York wasin the battle, and, right in the field, Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, was proclaimed King of England. The war was over at last, and everybody sighed with.....

Henry Tudor was head of the House of Lancaster. A year later, in....., he married the Yorkish heiress Princess Elizabeth of York. This marriage was of great political

importance. It meant the of the red rose of the House of Lancaster with the white rose of the House of York.

CHAPTER 4. NEW TIMES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

4.1 THE STUARTS. THE CROWN AND PARLIAMENT

In 1603 Queen Elizabeth I died. The Crown passed to a distant relative, **James VI of Scotland**, a member of the Stuart family. He became **James I of England**. The Stuart monarchs were less successful than the Tudors. They quarreled with Parliament and this resulted in civil war. One of the Stuarts was executed. Another Stuart king was driven from the throne. When the last Stuart, Queen Anne, died in 1714, the monarchy was no longer absolutely powerful as it had been in the Tudor times.

These important changes were the result of basic changes in society. During the 17th century, economic power moved into the hands of the merchant and landowning farmer classes. The Crown could no longer raise money or govern without their cooperation. The religious situation was also not simple. There were people in the country who disagreed with the teaching of the Church of England. They said that the services of the Church of England had become too complicated and too rich. They wanted to make the Church of England more modest, to purify it. These people were called Puritans [11].

When James I died in 1625, his son **Charles I** became king. He held the same beliefs about the monarchy as his father. In 1629 Charles I dismissed the Parliament. In **1642** civil war broke out between the Crown and Parliament. Those who backed the **Crown were called Royalists or Cavaliers**. They were mostly wealthy Roman Catholics. Those who **backed Parliament were called Roundheads** because they wore their hair short. They were mostly middle and lower-class Puritans. **Oliver Cromwell, a Puritan leader**, who backed Parliament set up a **New Model Army**. In 1649, the New Model Army defeated the King's army and ended the war. Cromwell and his supporters put

Charles I on trial and, in 1649, beheaded him. Cromwell took over the rule of England, now called the *Commonwealth* [11].

He finally did away with parliament and governed as a military dictator for the Puritan minority. Many Puritans were very strict. They disapproved of dancing, theatre-going, sports, and other popular amusements. They believed that people should spend all their free time praying and reading the Bible. After Cromwell died, his son Richard took over. But by 1660 Parliament decided that England needed a monarch again. The choice was *Charles II*, Charles I's son, who lived in France.

4.2 THE FIRST POLITICAL PARTIES

The first political parties in Britain appeared in Charles II's reign. One of these parties was a group of MPs who became known as *Whigs*, a rude name for cattle drivers. The Whigs were afraid of an absolute monarchy and of the Catholic faith with which they connected it. They also wanted to have no regular army. The other party, which opposed the Whigs, was nicknamed *Tories*, which is an Irish name for thieves. The Tories, who were natural inheritors of the Royalists, supported the Crown and the Church. These two parties became the basis of Britain's two-party parliamentary system of government.

4.3 THE WAR WITH NAPOLEON

One by one the European countries were defeated by Napoleon, until at last most of Europe fell under his control. In 1793, after Napoleon's army invaded Belgium and Holland, Britain went to war. Britain decided to fight France at sea because it had a stronger navy and because its own survival depended on control of its trade routes. The commander of the *British fleet, Admiral Horatio Nelson*, won brilliant victories over the French navy, near the coast of Egypt, at Copenhagen, and finally near Spain, *at Trafalgar in 1805*, where he destroyed the French-Spanish fleet [6]. Nelson was himself killed at Trafalgar, but became one of Britain's greatest national heroes.

4.4 THE AGE OF POWER AND PROSPERITY

In the 19th century Britain was more powerful and self-confident than ever. As a result of the industrial revolution, 19th - century Britain was the “workshop of the world”. British factories were producing more than any other country in the world. Having many colonies, Britain controlled large areas of the world. The British had a strong feeling of their importance.

The rapid growth of the middle class caused a change in the political balance. The role played by the middle class in politics and government was increasingly growing. By 1914 the aristocracy and the Crown had little power left. At the beginning of the 20th century Britain was still one of the greatest world powers. In the middle of the century, although it was still one of the “Big Three”, it was considerably weaker than the USA or the USSR. By the end of the 1970s Britain was just an ordinary country, and economically poorer than a number of other European countries [19].

One of the reasons for Britain’s decline in the 20th century **was the cost of two world wars**. Another reason was that Britain could not spend as much money on developing its industry as other industrial nations did: at first it needed a lot of money for keeping up the empire, and when the empire fell apart, as much money was needed to solve numerous economic problems connected with maintaining friendly relations within the *British Commonwealth of Nations*.

4.5 THE LOSS OF EMPIRE. THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS

For centuries, British sailors and merchants travelled all over the world, discovered new lands and claimed them for England. Large territories in North America, Africa, the whole continent of Australia, New Zealand, India and many islands in the ocean got under British rule. Thus, gradually, in the course of centuries, the huge British Empire came into being. At the end of the First World War the British Empire was bigger than ever before and covered a quarter of the entire land surface of the world. However, there were signs that the Empire was coming to an end. After World War II,

with the growth of international liberation movement in the world, the countries, which were dependent of Great Britain and formed parts of the British Empire, began claiming independence. Public opinion was changing, and more and more people were beginning to realize that colonialism was wrong and that all nations had the right for self-government. The independence movement in colonies was rapidly growing. In 1945 the British left India, in 1950s Britain began to give up its other possessions. Between 1945 and 1955 500 million people in former British colonies became completely self-governing. As a result of this movement, the *British Empire fell apart*. However, centuries-long economic, cultural and political ties of these former colonies with Great Britain were too strong for them to break away from each other, and it was found advisable to maintain the old ties. A new organization was established: *the British Commonwealth of Nations, including about 50 independent states, which were formerly parts of the British Empire* [6]. The Queen is the official head of the Commonwealth. The British Commonwealth of Nations encourages trade and friendly relations among its members. All the former colonies were invited to join the Commonwealth as free and equal members. This system of co-operation has proved to be successful, because it is based on the kind of friendship that allows all members to follow their own policies without interference.

4.6 THE ROYAL FAMILY AND THE ROLE OF MONARCHY

When British people talk about the royal family they usually mean the present Queen and her family: her husband, Prince Philip, and their children, Prince Charles, Princess Anne, Prince Andrew and prince Edward, together with their wives or husbands and their children, including Princes William and Henry. The Queen's sister, Princess Margaret, and her children are usually also included. The wider family, who gather on ceremonial occasions, includes the Queen's cousins and their children. The present royal house (= ruling family) is the House of Windsor, popularly known as "**the Windsors**". *Elizabeth II* is descended from William I (1066-87), and before that from Egbert, King of Wassex. The ruling house has changed several times over the centuries.

The monarch or sovereign (=king or queen) originally had sole power. Over time, the sovereign's power have been reduced and, though the present Queen is still head of state and Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces, she “acts on the advice of her ministers”, and Britain is in practice governed by “Her Majesty's Government”. The Queen has various duties connected with government, such as formally opening a new session of parliament and giving the royal assent to new laws. She is also Supreme Governor of the Church of England. The main role of the Queen is as a representative of Britain and the British people. She is a symbol of the unity of the nation. She is also head of Commonwealth and works to strengthen the links between member countries. Other members of the royal family assist the Queen in her duties, often in less formal ways. They act as patrons of British cultural organizations and support the work of charities and good causes.

During the 20th century the monarchy became still more popular than in the times of Queen Victoria in the 19th century. George V, the grandson of Victoria, had started a tradition of attending the annual football Cup Final match at Wembley Stadium. On Christmas Day, 1932, he spoke to the people of Britain and the Commonwealth on the radio. Since then the Christmas speech of the monarch has also become a tradition. During the Second World War George VI and his wife won great admiration of the British people for refusing to leave Buckingham Palace even after it had been bombed. Since 1952, when Elizabeth II became queen, the popularity of the monarchy has been steadily growing.

EXERCISES

1. Discuss the following questions:

- James Stuart was born at St James's Palace in October 1633, the second surviving son of King Charles I. Three years later, he was appointed to the post of what?
- When and where did King Charles I raise his royal standard, confirming that he intended to oppose parliament by force?

- Mary Stuart was born on December 8, 1542. She was crowned queen soon after because her father, the king, died. When did King James V die?
- Who was the husband of Marjorie Bruce, daughter of King Robert I, and the father of the first Stewart King, Robert II?
- What was the immediate cause of Parliament and the people turning against their King, James II, and of their asking his daughter Mary and her husband William to rule in his place?
- What was the immediate cause of Parliament and the people turning against their King, James II, and of their asking his daughter Mary and her husband William to rule in his place?
- What is the name of the revolution that brought the end of of James II's reign?
- Mary realized that in order to be taken seriously, she had to have a man by her side. She married Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley in what year?
- Meanwhile, in Germany in 1619, Elizabeth's husband Frederick had accepted the throne of Bohemia after a revolution against the Habsburgs, who ruled had previously rules Bohemia. His claim was soon under threat though, from which Habsburg Emperor?
- In 1704, the Scottish parliament passed which important act?
- During the Great Fire of London in September 1666, James was appointed by his brother to lead the firefighting effort. However, he was also required to undertake what other task?
- Which one of these women was NOT a mistress of Charles II?
 - Countess of Castlemaine
 - Nell Gwynn
 - Louise de Keroualle
 - Madame Dubarry
- Mary had been tricked into sending letters sanctioning Elizabeth's attempted assassination. She was put on trial under what act?

- Who was married to James II?
- In 1711, Anne dismissed Sarah Churchill, Duchess of Marlborough, as well as the Duke of Marlborough and the Earl of Godolphin, from all their offices. Name one who replaced them in Anne's affections.
 - William Cecil, Baron Burghley
 - Jane Ely, Marchioness of Ely
 - Laurence Hyde, Earl of Rochester
 - Abigail Masham, Baroness Masham
- Prince Rupert was the sole survivor of a ship wreck during the Commonwealth years. What was the name of the doomed ship?
- How many children did William III and Mary II have?
- Which member of the family visited the English court in 1670?
- What was the name of the Duke of York's first child with Mary Beatrice, born in January 1675?
- In an attempt to appease the Protestant party, Charles engineered the marriage of his niece Mary to his nephew William – how many years were between them?
- Who did Titus Oates, the man who contrived the 'Popish Plot', claim was plotting the murder of the King?
 - The Duke of York
 - King Louis XIV
 - The Pope
 - All of these
- What was the middle name of Henrietta Maria's youngest child, Henrietta?
- Which Stuart king lost his head following the English Civil War?

CHAPTER 5 THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF GREAT BRITAIN. THE MEDIA POWER

5.1 THE COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN UK

The UK education system is worldwide reputed for its high quality and standards. In general, the British higher education system has five stages of education: early years, primary years, secondary education, Further Education (FE) and Higher Education (HE). Britons enter the education system at the age of three and up to 16 are obliged to attend school (compulsory education), while afterward is upon their choice.

Besides sharing many similarities, the UK education system at different levels at each zone of administration (England, Scotland, and Wales) differs a bit. Generally spoken these differences are not so meaningful that we can talk about the UK higher education as being one. In UK everybody, aged over 5 and under 16 is obliged to attend school. This aging time frame contains two sections of the education system in UK: Primary and Secondary School [3].

Key Stage 1

This stage includes pupils at the primary school aged 5 to 7 years old. Basically, during the key stage 1, kids are introduced to some of the most basic knowledge on subjects like the English language, Mathematics, History, Physical Education, Geography, History and Music. During the first year of this stage, the structure of the curriculum contains the Phonic screening, a short assessment of kids' ability to decode and understand phonics properly. Typically, the student will speak loudly to his teacher a list of 40 words. At the end of this stage (same as in each of them), these pupils will sit for an examination aiming to measure their development in English, Maths and Science.

Key Stage 2

Between 7 to 11 years pupils will be in the second Key Stage of the compulsory education. Now the curriculum aims to move them further in gaining a bit more knowledge on core subjects. At the end of this stage, they will be tested in the following subjects

- English reading
- English grammar, punctuation and spelling
- Mathematics
- Science

In English and Mathematics, the testing will be done through national assessment tests, while the teacher will independently assess the level of improvement of each student in Science.

Key Stage 3

Pupils aged 11 to 14 are in the third stage of compulsory education. To a certain degree, this period of their education is very important because only a few years later they will sit for the GCSE national qualification. The curriculum during this stage of education will also contain new subjects at which students are supposed to get some basic knowledge before moving any further in the upcoming stages of education. The subjects learned in Key Stage 3 are English, Mathematics, Science, History, Geography, Art and Design, Music, Physical Education, Modern Foreign Languages, Design and Technology and Computing. At the end of the Key Stage 3, some students may take their GCSE or other national qualifications [11].

Key Stage 4

The final stage of the compulsory education, the Key Stage 4 lasts from the age of 14 to 16. This is the most common period of time for students to undertake the national assessment tests that will lead them to take a GCSE or other national qualifications.

The compulsory national curriculum at this stage contains the “core” and “foundation” subjects.

These are the “core” subjects taught at the Key Stage 4:

- English
- Mathematics
- Science

And these are the “foundation” subjects taught at the Key Stage 4:

- Computing
- Physical Education
- Citizenship

Additionally, schools in UK are obliged to offer one of the following subjects during this stage of education

- Arts
- Design and Technology
- Humanities
- Modern Foreign Languages

5.2 THE HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

In particular, the UK higher education is valued all over the world for its renowned standards and quality. Its higher education's prestige it also emanates from its graduates' work afterward. Many eminent people in many different areas whose work reached global recognition came out of British universities. Some of these universities and other higher education providers are ranked at the top among universities in the world. The UK capital city, London, not by accident, is considered to be the world's capital city of higher education. With its four universities being ranked in the world's top ten, London has the highest number of top worldwide ranked universities per city.

By definition, the UK higher education is the level of education that follows the secondary school at the hierarchy of educational system in the UK. When the high school is over, Britons have to sit in a standard examination, which makes them eligible or not to continue their education in the higher level of education [18].

In the UK education system in contrast to the US higher education, there is a difference between college and university. While in the US there is no distinction between college and university with most of the people referring to a higher education provider as a college, in the UK this is not the case. Here, a college is a Further

Education institution which prepares its students to earn degrees, while a university is licensed HE institution so, at the end of it, students will gain a degree.

5.3 MODERN BRITISH FAMILY AND BASIC BRITISH FAMILY VALUES

The average British family has classically been understood as a nuclear family with their extended family living separately. However, today the archetypical family (husband, wife and children) can no longer be the exact social expectation. In the UK, one in three people is a step-parent, step-child, adult step-child, step-sibling or step-grandparent. According to the Office for National Statistics, more children are being raised in single parent households. Also, as the stigma associated with premarital intercourse has diminished, the number of unwed mothers has increased. Families are increasingly incorporating LGBTQI+ relationships. As such, children of same-sex couples are becoming more common.

However, while the traditional archetypal British family structure is no longer an expected cultural standard, the family remains fundamentally important to individuals throughout their life. The unique personal relationships that family members share and the support they receive from one another is considered the main form of the value of family membership.

The preference for most British families is to have a small family unit. This allows mobility and relieves economic pressure over a parent's lifetime. Government studies show that most problems facing British families relate to being financially stretched. Parents often make strategic choices about their children's education to secure a good economic future for them. Children are encouraged to be independent and self-reliant at an early age. However, more adult children are living with their parents for economic reasons than ever before [10].

The average ages at which family life-events occur (e.g. marriage, children, retirement) are rising, as people are tending to wait until later in life to have children. This reflects the growing individualist orientation of both men and women –

particularly of the middle class – to want to establish a career for themselves and travel before starting a family. Women tend to be much older when they have their first child than previous generations, the average age being 29. As a result of this older age of conception, in vitro fertilisation (IVF) is becoming more common. The state pension is granted at 67 for men and 65 for women. However, it is now common for people to work later into life and remain in the British workforce for several more years after the age of retirement. Gender does not dictate a person's role or duty in the family; women enjoy equal rights and the opportunity to choose their form of contribution to the household dynamic. However, due to a number of reasons, more women choose not to work full-time and prefer to be available to raise their children.

British dating practices are similar to those of Australians. It is common for couples to meet through their social circles, workplaces or social hobbies. Online dating services are popular amongst several age groups. Dates usually happen in contexts that allow for the couple to engage in enough conversation to get to know one another (for example, over a meal or drink). It is common for a British person to 'date' or get to know multiple people at once over a period of time without having an exclusive relationship with any of those people. If feelings develop for a particular person, they usually stop meeting new dates or seeing others. Instead they usually pursue that one person until he or she agrees to be in a committed relationship with them or indicates they are not interested. While unmarried cohabitation and divorce have increased, British people remain committed and dedicated to partnership. Emphasis is placed on a couple's intimate love for one another, rather than the social expectations of a marriage contract. The average British couple will be in a relationship for multiple years and live together before getting married. This varies significantly between individual circumstances and family backgrounds. The average age of (first) marriage is 33 for men and 30 for women [9].

Almost half of British marriages end in divorce. However, the institution of marriage is still dominant and highly valued. It is expected in society that any strong couple will want to 'take that step'. Same-sex couples can also legally marry in

England, Wales and Scotland. Nevertheless, some couples (both same-sex and straight) choose not to marry and remain in a de facto partnership whilst maintaining the same function and relationship as a married couple.

5.4 BACKGROUND & GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE BRITISH MEDIA

The United Kingdom possesses one of the most universally respected and widely read national presses. According to Brian McNair (1999), 80 percent of adults regularly read at least one national daily newspaper (not necessarily every day), and 75 percent read a Sunday edition. In addition, despite growing fears among many journalists and academics about the consequences increased concentration of ownership and the growing ability of governments to "spin" the media, the British press remains one of the freest and most diverse in the world.

Compared to the United States, where papers based in a few large cities exert the most influence, in Britain the local and regional press takes a clear backseat to the London-based national press. The leading papers' access to a national market makes them among the best-selling newspapers in the world. The main titles in the national daily press appear in the mornings; many local dailies appear in the evening.

History

England's first news periodicals, called corantos, circulated in the 1620s. During the next few decades, English notions of the liberty of the press began to develop, and with them visions of the press as the bulwark of freedom against would-be tyrants. This vision helped to inspire more than a century of reform movements that resulted in the gradual elimination of state repression of the press. The most important of these developments include the 1694 act removing pre-publication censorship; Fox's Libel Act in 1792, which placed the verdict in libel trials squarely in juries' hands; and the repeal of paper, advertising, and newspaper stamp taxes, the so-called "Taxes on Knowledge," between 1853 and 1861. This long series of reforms, which came only

after numerous popular campaigns, including a "war of the unstamped" (and hence illegal) press in the 1830s, reflected and reinforced a growing tradition of formal newspaper independence from the state that continues to influence journalists at the beginning of the twenty-first century [8].

Daily newspapers in the nineteenth century typically consisted of four to eight pages of closely typed columns of often-verbatim reports of parliamentary debates or speeches by prominent statesmen. The most influential paper in the mid-century was the London *Times*. Following the repeal of the "Taxes on Knowledge," a provincial press flourished, as new titles joined such older papers as the *Manchester Guardian* and *Yorkshire Post*. Combined with London papers, such as the *Morning Post* and the new *Daily Telegraph*, a sober and editorially diverse press existed that some observers have pointed to as a "golden age" for the British press. These titles coexisted with more popular (and initially less respectable) Sunday papers such as *Reynolds News* and *Lloyd's Weekly News*. During most of the nineteenth century, newspapers wore their partisanship like a badge of honor; this feature was as typical of *The Times* in the 1850s as it was of the *Northern Star*, the newspaper of the radical working-class Chartist movement in the 1840s [17].

In the later decades of the century, in an effort to expand circulations and stimulated by changing ownership patterns and growing literacy rates, newspaper editors increasingly incorporated reader-friendly changes such as headlines, illustrations, interviews, and what would now be called human interest stories. "Views" gave way to news. Stories became shorter; columns gave way to paragraphs. These developments had precedents in American journalism. Defenders of these changes argued that they merely recognized the importance of the world beyond parliament; by aiming to satisfy readers' preferences, they were democratizing the press. Critics bemoaned the demise of the press's educational role and feared for the social consequences of the "New Journalism."

Alongside newspapers, throughout the nineteenth century, a thriving (and growing) body of periodicals existed, ranging from august titles such as the *Edinburgh*

Review and *Fortnightly Review* , which spoke to the "questions of the day" to professional journals such as the *Lancet* (a medical journal) or the *English Historical Review* ; to recreational titles such as the *Sporting Magazine* ; to "penny dreadfuls" whose supposedly harmful effects on working-class readers preoccupied many moralists.

As the nineteenth century progressed, it became clear that, under the right circumstances, the press could be very profitable. Particularly with the growth of consumerism in the second half of the nineteenth century, advertising became an important source of revenue for newspapers. This development helped to increase the importance of high circulations.

Alfred Harmsworth is often credited with creating the modern popular press, particularly with the creation of the *Daily Mail* in 1896. Selling for a halfpenny when other papers cost a penny, this paper became, during the Boer War (1899-1902), the first to attain a daily circulation of one million. Harmsworth founded other papers, including the *Daily Mirror* in 1903. Originally pitched at female readers, it was reinvented in 1904 as a mass-market news pictorial and reached a circulation of 1.2 million by the outbreak of World War I in 1914. Ennobled as Lord Northcliffe in 1905, Harmsworth steadily built his newspaper empire, climaxing in 1908 with his acquisition of *The Times*. He became the archetypal "press baron," using his papers to attain influence over the government. For example, he has been widely credited with bringing down the Asquith government in 1916. In addition to his political interests, however, he was the consummate businessman, employing stunts to spike sales [9].

The first three decades of the twentieth century saw the continuing concentration of the press into fewer hands. Following Lord Northcliffe's death in 1922, the British press was dominated by four men: Lord Beaver-brook, Lord Rothermere (Northcliffe's brother), William Berry (later Lord Camrose), and Gomer Berry (later Lord Kemsley). The popular press seemed increasingly commercialized, culminating in the "circulation war" of the early 1930s. The *Daily Mail* and *Daily Express* had offered insurance to subscribers throughout the 1920s, spending a million pounds per year by 1928. By the

early 1930s, even the relatively sober *Daily Herald* had entered the fray. The three papers employed door-to-door canvassers to entice subscribers with gifts; these canvassers accounted for 40 percent of all press employees by 1934. Gifts included flannel trousers, cameras, kettles, handbags, and tea sets. This method of gaining circulation by bribery reflected the ever-growing importance of advertising as a revenue source; newspapers sought to attract circulation any way they could, in order to impress advertisers.

Markets and Readers

The twentieth century witnessed the ongoing conflict between lingering nineteenth-century ideals and the press's increasingly commercial environment. Over the course of the century, the press solidified into three distinct markets in the daily and Sunday national press: quality, middle market, and mass market. The quality press, including *The Times*, the *Guardian* (descendant of the *Manchester Guardian*), the *Daily Telegraph*, the *Independent*, and the *Financial Times*, is published in a broadsheet format, while the middle market (including the *Daily Mail* and *Daily Express*) and mass market (including the *Daily Mirror* and the *Sun*) are published in tabloid format. A similar distinction exists on Sundays, with qualities (*Independent on Sunday*, *Observer Sunday Times*, and *Sunday Telegraph*), middle market (*Sunday Express* and *Mail on Sunday*), and mass market (*News of the World*, *People Mirror*) [9].

These markets split across class lines and produced papers with distinctive qualities. Nearly 90 percent of the upmarket dailies' readers are considered middle class, compared to only about 30 percent of the down market dailies' readers. In 1995 daily newspaper sales were approximately 20 percent upmarket, 27 percent midmarket, and 53 percent mass market. Corresponding Sunday sales were approximately 17 percent upmarket, 22 percent midmarket, and 61 percent mass market. This distribution represents a dramatic shift during the second half of the twentieth century. In 1937, the daily breakdown was 8 percent upmarket, 72 percent midmarket, and 20 percent mass market; the Sunday breakdown had been 3 percent, 36 percent, and 61 percent

(Tunstall). The increase in share for the quality press, at the expense of the middle market, reflects increased educational levels in Britain combined with television's greater challenge to the middle market.

The markets are distinguished not only by reader-ship, but also by price, size, and contents. As of May 2002, the following prices were in effect:

- *Financial Times* : 1 pound
- *The Guardian* : 50 pence
- *The Independent* : 50 pence
- *The Daily Telegraph* : 50 pence
- *The Times* : 40 pence
- *The Daily Mail* : 40 pence
- *Daily Express* : 35 pence
- *Daily Mirror* : 32 pence
- *Daily Star* : 30 pence
- *The Sun* : 20 pence

The mass market and broadsheet papers contain approximately the same number of pages, with the middle market papers containing slightly more. According to Seymour-Ure, in 1992 the average number of pages in selected daily papers was as follows:

- *The Guardian* : 44
- *The Independent* : 37
- *The Daily Telegraph* : 41
- *The Times* : 47
- *The Daily Mail* : 55
- *Daily Express* : 52
- *Daily Mirror* : 39
- *Daily Star* : 37
- *The Sun* : 44

According to Tunstall, however, the broadsheet contains approximately three times as many words as the tabloid, and its stories are longer [8].

General Quality

More than size, editorial content distinguishes the markets. A larger number of broadsheets' stories focus more directly on politics than is the case with tabloids, and many stories in the broadsheets contain more than 800 words. Tunstall provides a vivid description of the downmarket tabloids:

- focus on light news, the entertaining touch, and human interest; this in practice means focusing on crime, sex, sport, television, showbusiness, and sensational human interest stories. There is an overwhelming emphasis on personalities; such 'serious' news as is covered is often presented via one personality attacking another personality. Much material in these papers is 'look-at' material—there are many pictures, big headlines, and the advertising also is mainly display, which again involves pictures and big headlines. The remainder of the tabloid is 'quick read' material with most stories running to less than 400 words.

Substantial political coverage disappeared from the popular press during the second half of the twentieth century. Many critics argue that the resulting depoliticized popular press promotes escapist attitudes that ultimately reinforce the political status quo.

Although sensationalism in the press is not a new phenomenon, many critics have claimed that the tabloids of the 1970s and 1980s, particularly Murdoch's *Sun* and *News of the World*, introduced a qualitatively lower brand. In an effort to increase circulation, the tabloids introduced "checkbook" journalism, i.e., the purchasing of exclusive stories from disturbing sources. For example, the wife of the notorious serial killer, the "Yorkshire Ripper," was reportedly paid more for her story than the victims' families received in damages. In addition, shortly after Murdoch purchased the *Sun* in 1969, it began to use sex to increase circulation, most notably by presenting semi-nude women on page three; other tabloids followed suit. Other recent tabloid characteristics that have attracted criticism include fabrication and intensely invasive reporting (including rooting through celebrities' and politicians' garbage cans for evidence of sexual deviance, taking clandestine photographs on private property, and even "entrapment," for example, with prostitutes) [1].

Initially brisk sales encouraged these trends. By the early 1990s, however, many readers were increasingly disturbed by these excesses, a sentiment that was reinforced by the role of paparazzi in Princess Diana's fatal automobile accident. At the beginning of the twenty-first century, tabloid investigations of celebrities' private lives seem to have become marginally less aggressive. In addition, the tabloid market has been declining, resulting in cutthroat price wars, with several tabloids selling temporarily for 10p per issue. In 2002, the *Mirror* appeared to be attempting to reposition itself in the middle market; its coverage of politics, for example, had become more substantial and serious.

Despite the professionalization of journalism from the late nineteenth century and increased reliance on news agencies for copy, British newspapers deliberately retain traditions of overt partisanship that would be considered unacceptable in the United States. For much of the period since World War II, most national papers, representing the vast preponderance of circulation, supported the Conservative Party. This ownership was not seen as reflecting readers' preferences, as the Labour Party won at least 45 percent of the vote throughout the period. After the mid-1990s, most papers (including Murdoch's) shifted their support to Tony Blair's Labor Party, though this support seemed conditional. Despite high levels of partisanship, the national press remained editorially independent of the parties, rather than constituting party organs.

Britain's broadsheet papers enjoy worldwide respect, particularly *The Times*. At the same time, however, critics worry about recent evidence of their "tabloidization," specifically the disappearance of the parliamentary report and the turn toward more features-oriented stories. Barnett and Gaber cite a study by journalist David McKie, showing that in four broadsheet papers, *The Times*, the *Daily Telegraph*, the *Guardian*, and the *Financial Times*, the amount of parliamentary reporting dropped by over 70 percent between 1946 and 1996, from a weekly average of 11,443 column inches to 3,222 column inches. The focus of political reporting shifted to sketchwriting, emphasizing personalities as well as the "machinery of government," especially when "government incompetence, corruption and plain misguided policies" could be exposed

(Barnett and Gaber). Defenders of these changes point out that in the early 2000s parliamentary proceedings were televised and that Hansard's record of the proceedings was available on the Internet, thus obviating the need for newspapers to fill this role. More to the point, it was widely perceived that parliamentary reporting did not aid in the pursuit of circulation [11].

In addition to tabloidization, some critics believe that the British press does not attain as high a standard of accuracy as its U.S. counterparts. George Kennedy wrote in the *Columbia Journalism Review* that the British press was prone to "spectacular gaffes," a result of an emphasis on speed and exclusivity. Kennedy pointed out that the U.S. wire service, the Associated Press, is "particularly hesitant to pick up material from the national newspapers unless it can be independently confirmed." The editor of the British-based digest Web site, *Need to Know*, stated the case even more strongly. Because of British journalism's weaker emphasis on professionalism, "if all the facts are right in a British newspaper article, it's either because we're scared of a libel case, or it's a fluke" (Lasica). This reputation for occasional lapses of accuracy may help to account for the finding in the European Commission's April 2002 Eurobarometer that whereas British trust in television was among the highest in the EU at 71 percent who "tend to trust the television," trust in the press was the lowest in the EU at only 20 percent. Britain's low trust in the press compared poorly to an EU average of over 40 percent, but it was more than 5 percentage points higher than Britain's score of a year before.

Three Most Influential Newspapers

The Times has, since the early nineteenth century, been the most prestigious British newspaper. During the nineteenth century, and above all during the Crimean War (1854-56), it developed a reputation for independence, truthfulness, and forcefulness that earned it the moniker "The Thunderer." More than any other paper, it can be considered a national institution, and is for many the "paper of record." For this reason, its 1981 takeover by Murdoch's multinational conglomerate (like its 1908 takeover by Northcliffe) alarmed many in Britain. Nonetheless, it retained its high reputation in most quarters, even as it adopted a somewhat lighter tone. Its politics

shifted to the right during the 1980s, though in the mid-1990s it became increasingly critical of the Major government. It supported Labour's Tony Blair in the 1997 election in a move widely believed to be commercially inspired.

Founded in 1855 after the repeal of the stamp tax, *the Daily Telegraph* quickly became Britain's best-selling paper, with its mix of sport and politics and its peerless news service. Following a decline in the early twentieth century, it emerged in the 1930s as the upmarket leader, a position it retained in the early 2000s. Many believe its heyday was in the 1960s, when its news reporting was unparalleled. Owned by Conrad Black, the paper had broadly conservative politics and it is often called the Torygraph. It was the only British upmarket daily to have attained a circulation above one million, though its readership was aging.

The Guardian began as a provincial paper, the *Manchester Guardian*. During the nineteenth century and particularly under the editorship of C. P. Scott, it became associated with the left wing of the Liberal Party. Its willingness to take unpopular stands, sometimes at great financial

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Number of Daily Newspapers	98	98	98	99	104
Circulation of Dailies (000)	19,604	19,150	18,921	18,602	19,052
Number of Non-Daily Newspapers	478	462	477	469	467
Circulation of Non-Dailies (000)	6,513	6,027	6,166	6,224	6,246

Source: World Association of Newspapers and Zenithmedia, World Press Trends 2007, pp. 8, 10, 17, 18.

cost, earned it many admirers. In particular, opposition to the Boer War and the Suez War cost both sales and advertising in the short-term. Its ownership by a trust, committing it to radical politics, provided it a measure of protection from market forces. Among the national broadsheets, it alone consistently supported the Labour Party during the period of Conservative dominance before the 1990s [13].

5.5 TELEVISION AND RADIO. POPULAR CHANNELS AND PROGRAMS

Television is the most popular entertainment in British home life today. In London people have four TV channels: BBC I, BBC II, ITV=Independent Television

(Channel III) and Channel IV. The BBC is known for its objectivity in news reporting. The BBC is financed by payments which are made by all people who have TV-sets. People have to pay the licence fee. In 1932 the BBC World Service was set up with a licence to broadcast first to Empire and then to other parts of the world. There is no advertising on any BBC programme. ITV started in 1954. Commercial television gets its money from advertising. The programmes on this channel are financed by different companies, which do not have anything to do with the content of these programmes [14].

ITV news programmes are not made by individual television companies. Independent Television News is owned jointly by all of them. So it has been protected from commercial influence. There are different types of TV programmes in Great Britain. BBC and ITV start early in the morning. One can watch news programmes, all kinds of chat shows, quiz shows, soap operas, different children's programmes, dramas, comedies and different programmes of entertainment on these channels.

News is broadcast at regular intervals and there are panel discussions of current events. Broadcasts for schools are produced on five days of the week during school hours. In the afternoon and early evening TV stations show special programmes for children. Operas, music concerts and shows are presented at various time. A large part of TV time is occupied by serials. Britain has two channels (BBC II and Channel IV) for presenting programmes on serious topics, which are watched with great interest by a lot of people. These channels start working on early weekday mornings. But they translate mostly all kinds of education programmes. Weekend afternoons are devoted to sport. Sport events are usually broadcast in the evening. These are the main channels in Great Britain. Only about a fifth of households receive satellite or cable.

EXERCISES

1. Put each of the following words or phrases in its correct space in the passage below:

state, terms, seminar, degree, co-educational, private, primary, tutorial, graduate, nursery school, grant, secondary, lecture, break up, compulsory, fees, academic

When children are two or three years old, they sometimes go to a (a) _____, where they learn simple games and songs. Their first real school is called a (b) _____ school. In Britain children start this school at the age of five. The (c) _____ year in Britain begins in September and is divided into three (d) _____. Schools (e) _____ for the summer holiday in July, (f) _____ education begins at the age of about eleven, and most schools at this level are (g) _____, which means that boys and girls study together in the same classes. In Britain education is (h) _____ from five to 16 years of age, but many children choose to remain at school for another two or three years after 16 to take higher exams. Most children go to (i) _____ schools, which are maintained by the government or local education authorities, but some children go to (j) _____ schools, which can be very expensive. University courses normally last three years and then students (k) _____ which means they receive their (l) _____. At university, teaching is by (m) _____ (an individual lesson between a teacher and one or two students), (n) _____ (a class of students discussing a subject with a teacher), (o) _____ (when a teacher gives a prepared talk to a number of students) and of course private study. Most people who receive a university place are given a (p) _____ by the government to help pay their (q) _____ and living expenses.

2. Write an essay. Compare the British educational system to the Ukrainian one.

Find out differences and similarities.

3. Explain the difference between the following words and expressions:

- to sit an exam and to set an exam;
- to take an exam and to pass an exam;
- compulsory and voluntary education;
- to educate and to bring up;

- a pupil and a student.

4. Discuss the following points:

1. Do you think secondary education should be selective or comprehensive? What are the advantages and disadvantages of both systems?

2. What do you think are the advantages of school uniform? And the disadvantages?

5. Decipher the following abbreviations and tell what you know about them.

LEA, REACH, CTC, GSCE, AS Level, A Level, FE.

6. Fill in the gaps in the sentences.

- ...% of students in Britain receive higher education.
 - There are universities in Britain.
 - Oxford and Cambridge were founded in the century.
 - Students take out ... to pay for their education. ... universities are most popular with women.
7. Compare your answers with your partner. Read the text and find out if your guesses were correct.

Higher education

Only about one third of school leavers receive post-school education, compared with over 80 per cent in Germany, France, the United States, and Japan. However, it must be borne in mind that once admitted to university relatively fewer (15 per cent) British students fail to complete their degree course.

Fourteen per cent of 18- and 19-year-olds enter full-time courses (degree or other advanced courses higher than A level), and it is hoped that this will rise to about 20 per cent by the end of the century. These courses are provided in universities, polytechnics, Scottish central institutions, colleges of higher (HE) and further (FE) education, and technical, art and agricultural colleges. In 1985/86, for example, a million students were enrolled in full-time courses, of whom 300,000 were at universities, 300,000 on advanced courses outside universities, and another 400,000 were on non-advanced vocational training and educational courses. In addition there were 3.2 million part-time students, of whom half a million were released by their employers. Over 90 per cent of

full-time students receive grants to assist with their tuition and cost of living. However in September 1990, the government, while still providing tuition fees, froze the grant for cost of living expenses, and set up a new system whereby students were to take out loans to cover the shortfall.

Today there are forty-seven universities in Britain, compared with only seventeen in 1945. They fall into four broad categories: the ancient English foundations, the ancient Scottish ones, the 'redbrick' universities, and the 'plateglass' ones. They are all private institutions, receiving direct grants from central government.

Oxford and Cambridge, founded in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries respectively, are easily the most famous of Britain's universities. Today 'Oxbridge', as the two together are known, educate less than one tenth of Britain's total university student population. But they continue to attract many of the best brains, and to mesmerise a greater number, partly on account of their prestige but also on account of the seductive beauty of many of their buildings and surroundings.

Both universities grew gradually, as federations of independent colleges most of which were founded in the fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In both universities, however, new colleges have been established, for example Green College, Oxford (1979) and Robinson College, Cambridge (1977).

Scotland boasts four ancient universities: Glasgow, Edinburgh, St Andrews and Aberdeen, all founded in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In the Scottish lowlands greater value was placed on education during the sixteenth and later centuries.

There has been a considerable change since the 1960s in the proportion of undergraduate places taken by women. In the mid 1960s they were only 28 per cent of the intake, but had become 41 per cent by the early 1980s. But comparatively few still stay on for post-graduate work: 21 per cent in the mid 1960s, rising to 32 per cent by 1983. Moreover, there is still an unfortunate separation of the sexes in fields of chosen study. Almost certainly this arises from occupational tradition and social expectations. For example, in 1984 girls accounted for only 21 per cent of A level passes in physics, but 75 per cent in French. It is hardly surprising, either, that women took only 4 per cent

of engineering and technology places on further education courses, yet 70 per cent of medical, health and welfare courses at this level. Caring for others is still a 'proper' career for women; building bridges, it seems, is not. Unless one believes women's brains to be better geared to medicine and men's to bridge-building, one must conclude that social expectations still hinder women from realising their potential.

During the 1980s many higher education institutions were forced to reduce their staff and facilities in order to operate within tighter funding limits. During the second half of the 1980s about 8,000 university posts were abolished or left vacant.

A bitter debate arose about what universities were for. The government was determined that universities should serve the national interest, while many university educationists believed this denied the chance for self-expression, for them the true basis of all education. In fact, however, the cuts in funding hit the modern, often more technological, universities harder than the older more prestigious ones. As an example of the consequences, while France increased the number of mechanical engineering graduates by 50 per cent in the 1980s, Britain halved its output in only five years.

In 1988 the Education Reform Act established a new body, the Universities Funding Council, for disbursing government money to universities. This council may require universities to produce a certain number of graduates, or to produce a certain number of qualified people in specific fields, particularly in science and technology.

Universities and polytechnics fear they may be competing for students under pressure for stricter accounting and performance-rating at a time when, for demographic reasons, the numbers entering higher education are going to fall. Polytechnics and other larger colleges, which had previously been administered by local authorities, were made independent and funded in a similar way.

8. Answer the following questions:

- Is post-school education popular in Britain? Why?
- What is 'Oxbridge'?
- What are the most popular specialties with women? Is it the same in Russia?
- Why were many higher education institutions forced to reduce their staff?

- What is the Universities Funding Council?
- Is higher education popular in Russia? Why?

9. Tell about one of British universities.

10. Essay. What is the purpose of education?

11. Project work.

What changes would you introduce into the Ukrainian system of higher education? Make a model of higher education in Ukraine. Make a presentation and comment on your model.

12. Choose the most suitable word or phrase to complete the sentences.

- Mrs. Jones had _____ .
a) a trio b) a treble c) triplets
- Mrs. Vine had had _____ the week before.
a) quarts b) quads c) a quartet
- Twins often seem to _____ a generation.
a) hop b) skip c) jump
- There was a case of _____ twins in our town recently.
a) Japanese b) Chinese c) Siamese
- There's a _____ of twins in our family – on my father's _____ .
a) story b) geography c) history d) tree e) side f) line
- I was _____ child, though.
a) an only b) a missing c) a single
- He said to me, "Look, I know you're not my own _____, but let's be friends".
a) flesh and blood b) blood and guts c) skin and bones
- Not many of my own _____ relatives are still alive.
a) blood b) skin c) heart
- I was left \$50 and a cat by _____ relative; I believe it was a _____ cousin – or perhaps it was a _____-aunt.
a) distant b) an unclear c) a long-distance d) double
e) second f) dual g) grand h) great i) large

10. Peter is an orphan: he was _____ at the age of two.
 a) adjusted b) adapted c) adopted
11. Paul comes from a broken home; he has lived with a number of _____ parents.
 a) loan b) foster c) second-hand
12. Mary was from a single-parent family; now she's looked after by her _____ .
 a) keeper b) warden c) guardian
13. I'm off to have Sunday lunch with my _____ now.
 a) outlaws b) by-laws c) in-laws

13. Answer the following questions:

- What do you now about extended and nuclear families?
- What basic American and British Family Values can you name?
- Why do British people respect the British Royal Family? Has this attitude changed through times?

14. Project work:

Make a presentation about British wedding traditions.

15. Answer the questions.

1. Can you describe some characteristics, which give the BBC its special position in Britain?
2. What is the difference between BBC and ITV?
3. What programmes are very popular in Great Britain?
4. When was the BBC World Service set up?
5. Which channels don't have advertising?

16. Fill in the gaps.

1. Television is the most popular ... in Great Britain.
2. In London there are ... channels.
3. People have to pay
4. BBC is famous for its
5. Commercial television gets its money from

6. ITV started in
7. Weekend afternoons are devoted to ...

17. True or false?

1. BBC is a commercial television.
2. All TV channels have advertising.
3. Channel IV is famous for its objectivity.
4. Independent Television News is owned by a private company.
5. TV stations show different programmes for children.
6. English people are not fond of soap operas.
7. Most people in Britain receive satellite.

18. Explain the followin points:

- a) Compare your TV watching habits with that of the average person in Britain. Are they the same or different?
- b) Should the media publish information gained secretly from politicians? To what extend should the press be free?

19. Put each of the following words or phrases in its correct place in the passage below.

viewers subjective mass media quiz shows indoctrinate
channels objective soap operas commercials switch

- (a) _____ is a phrase often used to describe ways of giving information and entertainment to very large numbers of people. It includes newspapers, advertising and radio and, of course, television. In most countries people can (b) _____ to any of three or four different (c) _____. Do television programmes influence our minds? Do they (d) _____ us? Is the news completely (e) _____ (neutral) or is it (f) _____ (considered from one particular point of view)? Don't the (g) _____ for alcohol, food and other goods condition our minds? Even the (h) _____ week after week telling the story of one family or group of people sometimes make us want to copy the life-style we see on the screen. Also (i) _____ which give people big prizes for answering simple questions can make us greedy. Some programmes are watched by tens of millions of (j) _____.

20. Explain the difference between the following:

- a) viewers and listeners;
- b) mass circulation and small circulation;
- c) editor, reporter and critic.

21. Match the media job on the left with its definition on the right.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---|
| 1 make-up artist | a) writes a regular article in a newspaper or magazine |
| 2 foreign correspondent | b) shoots films |
| 3 sub-editor | c) writes reviews |
| 4 publisher | d) is responsible for the production and sale of a book |
| 5 continuity person | e) reports on events in other countries |
| 6 columnist | f) lays out and adds headlines to newspaper pages |
| 7 camera operator | g) makes up the faces of people who are to appear |
| 8 critic | h) on TV |
| | i) ensures scenes in a film connect smoothly |

22. Match two words to make a common collocation.

affairs cassette chat colour control current dish forecast news
newspaper opera remote report satellite show soap supplement tabloid
video weather

23. Speak about: What is your attitude to violence on TV? Does it influence people and how it should be controlled?

24. Choose any newspaper (it could be in your own language if you can't find an English one) and complete the following sentences.

- The main story today is about _____.
- The editorial is about _____.
- There are readers' letters on page _____ and they deal with the following topics:

- The most interesting feature is about _____.
- There is some scandal on page _____, a crossword on page _____, a cartoon on page _____ and some small ads on page _____.
- The most interesting business story is about _____ and the largest sports article is about _____.

- The most striking photograph shows_____.
- There are advertisements for_____ and _____.
- An article about_____on page_____made me feel_____.

CHAPTER 6. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

GENERAL INFORMATION

The United States of America (the USA) is the fourth largest country in the world (after Russia, Canada and China). It occupies the southern part of North America and stretches from the Pacific to the Atlantic Ocean. It also includes Alaska in the north and Hawaii in the Pacific Ocean. The total area of the country is about nine and a half million square kilometres. The USA borders on Canada in the north and on Mexico in the south. It also has a sea boarder with Russia.

The USA is a country of great differences. There are high mountains and flat prairies in it, tropical heat and arctic cold. The United States has a broad range of climates varying from the tropical rain-forest of Hawaii and the tropical savannah of Florida to the subarctic and tundra climates in Alaska. In short, it has humid subtropical and humid continental climate. Extensive forests are found in many parts of the country. Along the Pacific coast is the Mediterranean-type climate. If we look at the map of the USA, we can see lowlands and mountains. The highest mountains are the Rocky Mountains, the Cordillera and the Sierra Nevada. The highest peak is Mount McKinley, which is located in Alaska [7].

America's largest rivers are the Mississippi (the river was given its name by the Indians, and the name means "Great Water"), the Missouri, the Rio Grande and the Columbia. The Great Lakes on the border with Canada are the largest and deepest in the USA. World-famous is the region of the Great Lakes, situated in the north-east of the USA bordering Canada. It is a system of five great lakes (Lake Superior, Lake Michigan, Lake Huron, Lake Erie and Lake Ontario) joined together by natural channels. The Niagara Falls, great rapids situated on th short Niagara River joining

Lakes Erie and Ontario, are famous all over the world and attract lots of tourists. The United States of America is a federal state. It includes 50 states and the District of Columbia. The Congress is the highest legislative body in the country. It consists of two chambers: the House of Representatives and the Senate. President is the head of the state and the government [7].

The USA is the greatest industrial nation in the world. Its mineral and agricultural resources are tremendous. It's the world's largest producer of electrical and nuclear energy. It leads the world in the producing of pig-iron, motor vehicles and synthetic rubber. Agriculturally, the USA is the first in the production of meat, cheese, corn, beans and tobacco; second in cattle, cow's milk, butter and sugar. The leading imports include ores and metal scraps, petroleum and machinery. Major trading partners are Canada, Japan, Germany and the UK.

More than half of the population is urban and the great majority of the inhabitants are of European descent. About 11 percent of the total population is black; there are smaller groups of Orientals, with Japanese and Chinese in Hawaii and in some of the Eastern cities [2].

The largest cities are New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, Philadelphia, Detroit, San Francisco and others.

Education in the US is administrated chiefly by the states. Each of the 50 states has a free and public primary and secondary school system. There are also more than 2,000 institutions of higher learning, both privately supported and state supported. Washington is the capital of the USA.

6.1 THE FIFTY STATES

The fifty states of the USA have joined to make one nation. The United States did not always have 50 states. At first there were 13. As the USA grew, more states joined the union. The last two states to join were Alaska and Hawaii. They both joined in 1959 [7].

Each state has its own name. More than half the states have names of American Indian origin. Each state also has a flag with colours that have a special meaning for the state. The flag is the emblem, or a symbol, of the state. There is also a state flower, tree, and bird.

The territory of the United States is historically divided into 8 regions: 1) New England; 2) The Mid-Atlantic region; 3) The South; 4) The Midwest; 5) The Southwest 6) The Rocky Mountain region; 7) The Pacific Northwest and Alaska; 8) California and Hawaii.

6.2 THE FIRST INHABITANTS AND EUROPE'S FIRST EXPLORERS

No one knows exactly how people first came to North America. However, many scientists believe that America's first settlers were hunters who came from Siberia. North America is a land of many geographical features. There are mountains and deserts. There are forests, plains, lakes and oceans. American Indians, descendants of the first settlers, lived in or near all these regions.

The Indians' way of life depended on the geography of the area they lived in. The Indians who settled near the ocean fished. On the Great Plains, where there were many animals, the Indians were hunters. In places with rich soil the Indians farmed. There were different Indian tribes. Each tribe had its own territory. Tribes had different languages and customs.

From the very first, Europeans who explored North America were looking for riches. In the late 1400's Spain began searching for another water route to the East. Instead of it, Spanish explorers found a new continent. A mapmaker called it the New World – the land across the Atlantic that was not part of Asia.

On October 12, 1492, Columbus stepped ashore, holding the Spanish flag. He thought that he had reached a group of islands near the coasts of China and India which were called the Indies. That's why he called the people he saw Indians [7]. Columbus

made three more voyages to the New World. But he never knew that he had discovered a new world. He was sure that he had approached China and India from the east.

6.3 A PERIOD OF COLONIZATION

Many people left Europe and came to the New World. They brought their customs and traditions with them. Sometimes they even brought the names of their home towns or countries. As a result, there are many places in America which have the names of European towns. There are places called New London, New Orleans, New Paris, St. Petersburg and Moscow. In 1664, during the war between The Netherlands and England, an English fleet sailed into the harbor of New Amsterdam. The English forces were much stronger than the garrison of New Amsterdam was, and the Dutch surrendered. The King of England gave New Netherlands and New Amsterdam as a present to his brother, the Duke of York. The Duke renamed the colony and the town New York [15].

People from England also came to the New World and started colonies. Although these first settlements were very small, they soon grew. By the 1750's there were 13 English colonies along the eastern coast of North America. In England, there were people who disagreed with the teaching of the Church of England. In 1620, a large group of such people left England and sailed to North America on ship called The Mayflower. These people were called Pilgrims. They wanted to find a place where they could worship as they wanted. The Pilgrims settled in present-day Massachusetts. Their first winter was very hard. Many people died from cold. But the colony survived [7].

In England there was another group of people who disagreed with the teaching of the Church of England. They said that the services of the Church of England had become too complicated and too rich and took too much money. They wanted to make the Church of England more modest, to "purify" it. For this reason, they were called Puritans. The Puritans also decided to sail to North America, to establish a Puritan Church there and to worship as they thought proper. The Puritans set sail in 1630. Many

Puritans were richer than the Pilgrims. Their journey was very different from the Pilgrims' trip on the Mayflower. One thousand people took part in it. They sailed in 15 ships full of supplies and tools. The Puritans also came to Massachusetts. They explored the coastline and found an excellent harbor. They settled there and called the place Boston. The English settlements on the Atlantic coast grew into 13 colonies. The colonies can be divided into three regions: the New England colonies, the Middle colonies and the Southern colonies. As the colonies grew, they began to trade with each other and with Great Britain. With the growth of trade, the ways of life in the colonies were changing. In the early colonial years people had to make or grow everything they needed themselves. But as the colonies grew, some people left their farms to work in the growing colonial towns and cities. They became priests, lawyers, bankers and merchants [7].

Education was highly valued in New England. In 1636 Harvard College was founded near Boston. It was the first college in the 13 colonies. Later it grew into the famous Harvard University. Many people believed in religious toleration. William Penn founded the colony of Pennsylvania for that purpose. As a young man, Penn joined a religious group called the Society of Friends. The Friends, or Quakers, as they called themselves, believed in the goodness of all people. They also refused to fight in any wars. Like the Pilgrims and Puritans, the Quakers were not allowed to practice their religion in England. In 1681, William Penn made an agreement with the English king. Penn's father, who was an admiral in the English navy, had died in 1670. The King had owned him a lot of money. Now he pawned this money to William Penn. As a payment for the debt, he gave Penn some land in America. Penn called this land Pennsylvania, which means "Penn's woods". It was a beautiful land of thick forests, rich soil and clean rivers. Soon Pennsylvania was settled by people of many different nations. Philadelphia was the first settlement in Pennsylvania. This name means "brotherly love" in Greek. For 300 years Philadelphia has been known as the City of Brotherly Love [12].

The years from the 1750's until the mid-1770's were uneasy times in the colonies. The colonists argued with the British King about their rights and freedom. In 1764,

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

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

6.4 THE STAMP ACT

In 1765 Parliament passed a new tax law – the Stamp Act. The Stamp Act put a tax on all printed paper goods that colonists bought. Colonists had to pay a tax when buying books, newspapers and playing cards. A person who finished college had to pay a tax on the diploma. Lawyers had to pay a tax on the wills, agreements and other documents. To show that the tax had been paid, a stamp seller put a stamp on the paper. The Boston Tea Party. Three ships loaded with tea came into the port. Colonists refused to unload the ships. The British governor of Boston said that the ships would stay in the harbor until the colonists agreed to pay the tax on the tea. On the night of December 16, 1773, some colonists, dressed as American Indians, climbed aboard the ships. They opened hundreds of boxes of tea and threw them into the water. If there was no tea, they said angrily, there would be nothing to tax. This evening became known as the Boston Tea Party [7].

6.5 THE WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE

On the cold Wednesday morning of April 19, 1775, the tension, which existed between the colonists and the British, led to shooting. British soldiers met a group of armed colonists at Lexington. A shot was fired. That shot was the start of the War of Independence, in which a brave group of colonists fought mighty Great Britain. In the spring of 1775, the Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia. They met to organize an army and navy to defend and support colonial rights. In June 1775, the Congress appointed George Washington commander-in-chief of the colonial army. By

the following year, more and more people had come to believe that the colonies should be independent. In the spring of 1776, the Continental Congress decided to take action. Thomas Jefferson, a young Virginian, was asked to write a declaration explaining why the colonies should be free.

In the declaration, Jefferson described his ideas about human rights. Jefferson said that all people had the right to life and liberty. No government could take these rights away. Jefferson blamed the King for ignoring colonial laws, ruining trade and making people pay high taxes. On July 4, 1776, the Congress adopted Jefferson's Declaration of Independence. The colonies stated that they were no longer a part of Great Britain. A new nation was born. The war lasted six years. It was a difficult war for both sides. The British were fighting far from their homeland. Supplies had to be sent from across the ocean. Although the Americans lacked supplies and military training, they were fighting on the land, which they knew well. And they were fighting to protect their newly declared independence. Thousands of women followed their husbands and sons to army camps to help them. Many people in Europe admired the colonies' fight for freedom. Some Europeans even came to America to help in the fighting [2].

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

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

6.6 THE GOLD RUSH

In 1848 gold was discovered near San Francisco, and the first great gold-rush began. When the news became known, farmers, lawyers, sailors, soldiers and schoolteachers rushed to California by whatever means they could. Within a year

100,000 people, only 8,000 of whom were women, had reached the coast of California. More than half of them had travelled overland across the American continent. “Gold fever” began to spread. Settlements throughout the US were deserted. Homes, farms and stores were abandoned as everybody raced for California. Many came by sea, and in July 1850, more than 500 ships were anchored in San Francisco Bay, many of which had been deserted by gold-hungry sailors. A few people became fabulously rich, but it was a risky business.

Miners had a hard life with few comforts. They lived in huts and tents. There was not much law and order in the mining towns. To protect themselves from thieves, most miners slept with their guns beside them. Some people became rich by selling goods to the miners. One person who made his fortune was a German businessman named Levi Strauss. He bought strong denim canvas and used it to make sturdy overalls. He called them Levis. Today, more than a century later, these blue denim pants are worn all over the world. The gold rush helped to change California from a frontier area into a state. In 1850 California became the thirty-first state [2].

In the middle of the 18th century, much of the land west of the Appalachian Mountains was a rich wilderness. It was a hunting ground for the American Indians. Bear, deer and wild turkey were plentiful. Many colonists wanted to claim some of this land for themselves. The first settlers in new areas, people who opened the way west for others, were called pioneers. Pioneer life was hard for everyone: men, women, and children. Families left their friends, their belongings when they moved west. But they all brought two things with them: their courage and their dreams of a better life.

6.7 THE CIVIL WAR AND THE SLAVE SYSTEM

In the middle of the 19th century the country’s future seemed bright, except for one large problem. Southerners wanted slavery to be allowed in the new western lands. Northerners were against allowing slavery there. Many people hoped that a peaceful solution could be found to the differences between the North and the South. But in the

end, the differences led to war. These were sad years when the people of the United States faced each other on the battlefield.

The democracy that was spreading in the first half of the 1800's was not shared by black Americans. Most blacks were slaves. By 1830, all the Northern states outlawed slavery. In the South, the rich planters needed much slave labor on their huge plantations, so the Southern states remained slave states. More and more people in America were beginning to understand that slavery was shameful, that there should be no place for slavery in the democratic society. There appeared people who demanded to abolish slavery. These people were called abolitionists. (Harriet Beecher Stowe wrote "Uncle Tom's Cabin", a story about slavery.). There was a secret route to help slaves to escape from the South to freedom in the North and Canada. This secret route was called the "Underground Railroad". People who knew the way guided slaves along a footpath.

The election of 1860 showed that the USA was a divided country. Abraham Lincoln was the candidate of the Republican Party. He was a very popular man. He was a lawyer by education and believed that slavery was wrong. The Northern states were on the side of Lincoln. The Southern states were against him. Lincoln won the national election and became President. The Southern states decided to form their own nation. On February 4, 1861, the Southern states formed the Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis became President. Lincoln was against a war. But soon the Confederacy occupied several federal forts in the Southern states and on April 12, 1861, Confederate troops opened fire. Both sides had certain advantages that they thought would help them to win the war. The North had more soldiers, more supplies and better transportation. The South had better generals and was fighting on home ground. Robert E. Lee, probably the greatest soldier of the Civil War, commanded the Southern armies. At the beginning of the Civil War President Lincoln asked him to command the Union troops. But he was from Virginia. Lee loved the USA and he did not believe in slavery. But he felt that he could not fight against his neighbors from Virginia [16].

The battle of Gettysburg was the decisive battle of the Civil War. In June 1863 Lee marched into Pennsylvania. The Union army met Lee's forces at Gettysburg on July

1. For two days the armies battled. And the Confederates were forced to retreat. In the summer of 1864 a Union general, William T. Sherman, captured Atlanta, Georgia. As his troops marched they destroyed plantations, towns and farms. Sherman wanted to destroy everything that could help the South. On April 9, Lee surrendered and with his surrender the war was over. After the war the South was in ruins. The fields that had been planted in cotton were overgrown with weeds. The economy was destroyed. Freed slaves had no place to live and no way to make a living. Confederate soldiers were allowed to go home but their homes were destroyed too, they couldn't find jobs in the ruined economy [7].

6.8 THE USA IN THE LATE 19TH CENTURY

In the period between 1800 and 1900, the United States changed from a small farming nation to a big industrial country. During these years, the USA was not very involved in the affairs of other countries. Towards the end of the 19th century, however, this situation was changing. American industry developed very rapidly after the Civil War. Whole families of immigrants moved into the US from all the countries of Europe and there was work on land for all who were willing to work hard. The population increased quickly. The industrial revolution was coming to an end. The railroad network was growing fast actively promoting the development of the western part of the country. New states gradually came into being on these lands. Andrew Carnegie learned that iron was a poor construction material for the railroads. He knew that steel would be a stronger building material. He built a huge steel mill, which began producing steel using the Kelly-Bessemer method [7].

Carnegie was an educated person, especially he loved libraries. He opened more than 2,800 of them in the US and abroad. He also started the now famous Carnegie Hall in New York. The latter part of the 19th century also saw the rise of the modern American city. Electricity was widely used. With the appearance of sky-scrapers cities were able to grow vertically as well as horizontally. In 1867, the US bought Alaska, in 1898 it annexed the Hawaiian Islands. The Spanish-American war was resulted in US

acquisition of Puerto Rico, the Philippine Islands and in a US quasi-protectorate over Cuba.

6.9 THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

Between 1900 and 1945, the USA faced many problems at home and overseas. The country went through a period of economic growth. Then it suffered through hard times. By the late 1930s Germany, Italy and Japan had disrupted world peace. America tried to keep neutral. On Dec. 7, 1941, Japanese bombs fell on Pearl Harbour, a US naval base in Hawaii. The US declared war, and 4 days later Germany and Italy declared war to the US. Before the war ended with the defeat of Japan, the US developed and used the atomic bomb. By 1945, the USA had become the strongest and richest country in the world. Soon after the World War II, relations between the USA and the USSR worsened, the cold war intensified. In 1948, the US played the leading role in forming a new alliance of Western nations, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). In the Korean War, the US played the chief part in combat actions between the North and South Korea. In 1964, the US Congress decided to send American soldiers to Vietnam to help South Vietnam in his fighting with North Vietnam. The USSR and China helped North Vietnam [7]. In 1973, all sides agreed to stop fighting. This war provoked increasing opposition at home, manifested in marches and demonstrations in which thousands of people were arrested. After World War II the USA has been changing rapidly. Television and computers have changed home life and business. Scientists have conquered many diseases and made space travel a reality. But in the last decades of the 20th century Americans have faced other problems. Blacks, women and other groups of population have been demanding better treatment. People have grown concerned about dirty air and water [19].

Reagan took office and pledged to reverse the trend toward big government and to rejuvenate the economy, based on the theory that cutting taxes would stimulate so much growth that tax revenues would actually rise. In May 1981, two months after there had been an assassination attempt on Reagan, Congress approved his program, which would reduce income taxes by 25 percent over a three-year period, cut federal spending

on social programs, and greatly accelerate a military buildup that had begun under Carter. The recession that had resulted from Volcker's policy of ending inflation through high interest rates deepened in 1981, but by 1984 it was clearly waning, without



a resurgence of inflation. The U.S. economy experienced a strong recovery.

In foreign affairs Reagan often took bold action, but the results were usually disappointing. His effort to unseat the leftist Sandinista regime in Nicaragua through aid to the Contras, a rebel force seeking to overthrow the government, was unpopular and unsuccessful. U.S.-Soviet relations were the chilliest they had been since the height of the Cold War. Reagan's

decision to send a battalion of U.S. marines to Lebanon in support of a cease-fire resulted in a terrorist attack in 1983, in which some 260 marines were killed. On October 21, 1983, he launched an invasion of the Caribbean nation of Grenada, where Cuban influence was growing. U.S. forces prevailed, despite much bungling. Popular at home, the invasion was criticized almost everywhere else. Relations with China worsened at first but improved in 1984 with an exchange of state visits.

Reagan benefited in the election of 1984 from a high degree of personal popularity, from the reduction in inflation, and from the beginnings of economic recovery. This combination proved too much for the Democratic nominee, former vice president Walter Mondale of Minnesota, and his running mate, Congresswoman Geraldine Ferraro of New York, the first female vice presidential candidate ever to be named by a major party. Reagan's second term was more successful than his first in regard to foreign affairs. In 1987 he negotiated an intermediate-range nuclear forces

(INF) treaty with the Soviet Union, eliminating two classes of weapon systems that each nation had deployed in Europe. This was the first arms-limitation agreement ever to result in the actual destruction of existing weapons. Relations between the superpowers had improved radically by 1988, owing primarily to the new Soviet premier, Mikhail Gorbachev, whose reforms at home were matched by equally great changes in foreign policy. An exchange of unusually warm state visits in 1988 was followed by Soviet promises of substantial force reductions, especially in Europe. Reagan's domestic policies were unchanged. His popularity remained consistently high, dipping only briefly in 1987 after it was learned that his administration had secretly sold arms to Iran in exchange for American hostages and then had illegally used the profits to subsidize the Contras. In the short run his economic measures succeeded. Inflation remained low, as did unemployment, while economic growth continued. Nonetheless, while spending for domestic programs fell, military spending continued to rise, and revenues did not increase as had been predicted. The result was a staggering growth in the budget deficit. The United States, which had been a creditor nation in 1980, was by the late 1980s the world's largest debtor nation.

Furthermore, although economic recovery had been strong, individual income in constant dollars was still lower than in the early 1970s, and family income remained constant only because many more married women were in the labour force. Savings were at an all-time low, and productivity gains were averaging only about 1 percent a year. Reagan had solved the short-term problems of inflation and recession, but he did so with borrowed money and without touching the deeper sources of America's economic decline. In 1988 Vice Pres. George Bush of Texas defeated the Democratic nominee, Michael Dukakis, the governor of Massachusetts.

The George Bush administration

In foreign affairs Bush continued the key policies of the Reagan administration, especially by retaining cordial relations with the Soviet Union and its successor states. In December 1989 Bush ordered U.S. troops to seize control of Panama and arrest its de facto ruler, Gen. Manuel Noriega, who faced drug-trafficking and racketeering

charges in the United States. Bush's leadership and diplomatic skills were severely tested by the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, which began on August 2, 1990. At risk was not only the sovereignty of this small sheikhdom but also U.S. interests in the Persian Gulf, including access to the region's vast oil supplies. Fearing that Iraqi aggression would spill over into Saudi Arabia, Bush swiftly organized a multinational coalition composed mostly of NATO and Arab countries. Under the auspices of the United Nations, some 500,000 U.S. troops (the largest mobilization of U.S. military personnel since the Vietnam War) were brought together with other coalition forces in Saudi Arabia. Lasting from January 16 to February 28, the war was easily won by the coalition at only slight material and human cost, but its sophisticated weapons caused heavy damage to Iraq's military and civilian infrastructure and left many Iraqi soldiers dead. With the declining power (and subsequent collapse in 1991) of the Soviet Union, the war also emphasized the role of the United States as the world's single military superpower. This short and relatively inexpensive war, paid for largely by U.S. allies, was popular while it lasted but stimulated a recession that ruined Bush's approval rating. The immense national debt ruled out large federal expenditures, the usual cure for recessions. The modest bills Bush supported failed in Congress, which was controlled by the Democrats. Apart from a budget agreement with Congress in 1990, which broke Bush's promise not to raise taxes, little was done to control the annual deficits, made worse by the recession.

In the 1992 presidential election, Democrat Bill Clinton, the governor of Arkansas, defeated Bush in a race in which independent candidate Ross Perot won 19 percent of the popular vote—more than any third candidate had received since Theodore Roosevelt in 1912.

The Bill Clinton administration

The beginning of the 1990s was a difficult time for the United States. The country was plagued not only by a sluggish economy but by violent crime (much of it drug-related), poverty, welfare dependency, problematic race relations, and spiraling health costs. Although Clinton promised to boost both the economy and the quality of life, his administration got off to a shaky start, the victim of what some critics have called

ineptitude and bad judgment. One of Clinton's first acts was to attempt to fulfill a campaign promise to end discrimination against gay men and lesbians in the military. After encountering strong criticism from conservatives and some military leaders—including Colin Powell, the chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff—Clinton was eventually forced to support a compromise policy—summed up by the phrase “Don't ask, don't tell”—that was viewed as being at once ambiguous, unsatisfactory to either side of the issue, and possibly unconstitutional. (The practical effect of the policy was actually to increase the number of men and women discharged from the military for homosexuality.) His first two nominees for attorney general withdrew over ethics questions, and two major pieces of legislation – an economic stimulus package and a campaign finance reform bill – were blocked by a Republican filibuster in the Senate. In the hope that he could avoid a major confrontation with Congress, he set aside any further attempts at campaign finance reform. During the presidential campaign, Clinton promised to institute a system of universal health insurance. His appointment of his wife, Hillary Clinton, to chair a task force on health care reform drew stark criticism from Republicans, who objected both to the propriety of the arrangement and to what they considered her outspoken feminism. They campaigned fiercely against the task force's eventual proposal, and none of the numerous recommendations were formally submitted to Congress.

Despite these early missteps, the Clinton administration had numerous policy and personnel successes. Although Perot had spoken vividly of the effects of the North American Free Trade Agreement, which he said would produce a “giant sucking sound” as American jobs were lost to Mexico, Congress passed the measure and Clinton signed it into law, thereby creating a generally successful free-trade zone between the United States, Canada, and Mexico. During Clinton's first term, Congress enacted with Clinton's support a deficit reduction package to reverse the spiraling debt that had been accrued during the 1980s and '90s, and he signed some 30 major bills related to women and family issues, including the Family and Medical Leave Act and the Brady Handgun Violence Prevention Act. Clinton also changed the face of the federal government,

appointing women and minorities to significant posts throughout his administration, including Janet Reno as the first woman attorney general, Donna Shalala as secretary of Health and Human Services, Joycelyn Elders as surgeon general, Madeleine Albright as the first woman secretary of state, and Ruth Bader Ginsburg as a justice on the Supreme Court.

With Clinton's popularity sagging after the health care debacle, the 1994 elections resulted in the opposition Republican Party winning a majority in both houses of Congress for the first time in 40 years. This historic victory was viewed by many – especially the House Republicans led by Speaker Newt Gingrich – as the voters' repudiation of the Clinton presidency. A chastened Clinton subsequently accommodated some of the Republican proposals – offering a more aggressive deficit reduction plan and a massive overhaul of the nation's welfare system – while opposing Republican efforts to slow the growth of government spending on popular programs such as Medicare. Ultimately the uncompromising and confrontational behaviour of the congressional Republicans produced the opposite of what they intended, and after a budget impasse between the Republicans and Clinton in 1995 and 1996 – which forced two partial government shutdowns, including one for 22 days (the longest closure of government operations to date) – Clinton won considerable public support for his more moderate approach.

Clinton's foreign policy ventures included a successful effort in 1994 to reinstate Haitian Pres. Jean-Bertrand Aristide, who had been ousted by a military coup in 1991; a commitment of U.S. forces to a peacekeeping initiative in Bosnia and Herzegovina; and a leading role in the ongoing initiatives to bring a permanent resolution to the dispute between Palestinians and Israelis. In 1993 he invited Israeli Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin (who was later assassinated by a Jewish extremist opposed to territorial concessions to the Palestinians) and Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) chairman Yasser Arafat to Washington to sign a historic agreement that granted limited Palestinian self-rule in the Gaza Strip and Jericho.

During the Clinton administration the United States remained a target for international terrorists with bomb attacks on the World Trade Center in New York City (1993), on U.S. embassies in Kenya and Tanzania (1998), and on the U.S. Navy in Yemen (2000). The domestic front, though, was the site of unexpected antigovernment violence when on April 19, 1995, an American, Timothy McVeigh, detonated a bomb in a terrorist attack on the Alfred P. Murrah Federal Building in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, killing 168 and injuring more than 500.

6.10 AMERICAN ENGLISH

There are about twice as many speakers of American English as of other varieties of English, and four times as many as speakers of British English. The leading position of the US in world affairs is partly responsible for this. Americanisms have also been spread through advertising, tourism, telecommunications and the cinema. There are many differences in idiom and vocabulary between British and American English. English may be said to have traveled to North America with the ship “Mayflower” in 1620. The earliest English colonists in the New World were speaking Elizabethan English, the language of Shakespeare, when they came to America. This is important and necessary for our understanding of some of the distinctive features, which American English was to develop later on. The first English speakers to arrive met Native Americans who spoke many different languages. To trade with them, the Europeans learned words from the local languages, and some of these words became part of American English. Native Americans also worked as guides, leading the European traders about the country. The Europeans learned the Native American names for the places they were passing through. Over half the states now have Native American names [7]. American English is very flexible and has absorbed many words from the languages of immigrants. Modern Americans must recognize their debt to American Indian languages for such words as “moccasin”, “toboggan”, “moose” and many others, which entered American English because of the colonists’ need to describe things that were unfamiliar to them. From Native Americans through Spanish came new terms for exotic foods: tomatoes, avocado, chili. Other Indian terms became part of the vocabulary: to

go on the warpath, pipe of peace, fire water, to bury the hatchet. At least half of the states have Native American names, as do cities, rivers, lakes: Alabama, Arizona, Connecticut, Dakota, Kansas, Oklahoma, Texas and so on.

All these words sounded very exotic. That is why they were widely used by colonists. The recent influences of French are largely from southwestern Louisiana, where French is still spoken by half a million people. Among the words are “banquette” (sidewalk), “pirogue” (boat). Spread by films, books and TV, Americanisms – especially American slang – have found their way to Great Britain, more and more blurring the distinctions between the two forms of the English language.

EXERCISES

1. Discuss the following questions:

1. Were the geographic conditions of the country beneficial for the building of a new nation?
2. What is the general geographic outline of the United States?
3. What is generally considered the dividing line between "East" and "West"?
4. How do the Appalachians and the Cordilleras differ?
5. Where do the rivers east of the Rockies and those west of the Rockies flow?
6. What major ethnic groups are there in the United States?
7. What role do the Great Lakes play in the life of the Northeast region?
8. What product is the Central Basin famous for?
9. What measures are taken to avoid exhausting the soil in the South?
10. Who were called "homesteaders", and why did conflicts after their settlement in the Plains flare up?
11. Are the deserts entirely devoid of life and settlement?
12. Where is the Golden Gate situated?
13. What was the lifestyle of Native Americans before European colonization and what impact did it have on them?

14. Who were the first European settlers of America and when did they arrive on the American coast?
15. Who were the founding fathers of the USA and what did they write?
16. When was the American West built up and when did the notion of the Western frontier disappear?
17. What were the reasons for the civil War and what did they have to do with the results of the Mexican War?
18. Who were the outstanding leaders on both sides of the War?
19. What was the period of major growth and expansion of the states and what were the reasons for it?
20. What American president does the slogan “Speak softly and carry a Big Stick” belong to? Is it still true today?

2. Project work.

Prepare the presentation “National Symbols and Icons of the USA”.

3. Write an essay: “Which country might you choose if you had to immigrate?”

4. Discuss the following questions:

- What kind of nation is the USA? How many states are there in the USA?
- What types of landscapes and climates are there in the USA?
- What are the famous mountains, lakes and plains on the territory of the USA?
- What is the population of the USA?
- What nationalities comprise the American nation?
- What are the outstanding sights to visit in the American capital?
- What is the largest city in the USA and where does its name come from?
- What are the main tourist attractions in New York?

5. Put each of the following words or phrases in its correct place in the passage below.

election campaign, support, polling day, opinion poll, vote, polling station, predict, ballot box, candidate

People sometimes try to (a) _____ the result of an election weeks before it takes place. Several hundred people are asked which party they prefer, and their answers are used to guess the result of the coming election. This is called an (b)_____. Meanwhile each party conducts its (c) _____with meetings, speeches, television commercials and party members going from door to door encouraging people to (d) _____their party. In Britain everyone over 18 is eligible to (e) _____. The place where people go to vote in an election is called a (f) _____and the day of the election is often known as (g) _____. The voters put their votes in a (h) _____and later they are counted. The (i) _____with the most votes is then declared the winner.

6. Read and act out the following short conversations. Imagine the situations when you can hear them. Define the roles and the status of the speakers.

A.

-Do you have **Presidents' Day off** on Monday?

-Sure do and I need the break!

-Doing anything special?

-I plan to go car shopping. This is the perfect time to do it. All of the car dealers are having fabulous **sales** on leasing and on buying.

-You can't go wrong on a day like that. Why don't you drive by after you've gotten "the deal of deals" and let me see what you've picked up?

B.

-Al, I might be coming late for work tomorrow. I'm stopping by my polling place to vote.

-Oh yeah, tomorrow's **Election Day**. The date slipped my mind.

-How could you forget? All the TV commercials have been about the candidates. Their posters are plastered on everyone's lawn.

-I was kidding when I said the date slipped my mind. I'm just upset with the **candidates' debates** preempting my favorite TV programs. To tell you the truth, I will be glad when this whole thing is over.

Explain the meaning of the italicized expressions. Do the Ukrainians have similar customs and traditions?

7. Can you provide the Ukrainian equivalents for the following expressions: the Speaker, Prime Minister, the Chamber, by-election, Foreign Secretary, MP. Which kind of realia are they?

Do such realia exist in Ukrainian culture?

Using the given realia tell about the structure of British Parliament or American Congress.

8. Find out the difference in meaning of the following words and expressions: politics / policy, home policy / foreign policy, political authority / political capacity. Suggest your sentences with these words.
9. Write an essay: Imagine that an American student of politics comes to your country. He or she wants to understand how your political system works. Write a simple explanation based on the description of the American political system.
10. Read and translate the texts.

The history of the USA dates back only to the 15th century. In the 15th century there was no USA at all. The present territory of the USA was divided among some countries. In the 15th–16th centuries some territory of the USA belonged to Great Britain (northern and western lands); southern parts (California, Florida, New Mexico, Texas) belonged to Spain, Vien – to Mexico; the central part, the territory was called Louisiana – to France; Alaska was possessed by Russia; some territories remained to be under Indians control.

In 18th century there were only thirteen Britain's American colonies and they broke with Great Britain in 1776 and later were recognized as the new nation of the United States of America, following the Treaty of Paris in 1783. During the 19th and 20th centuries, 37 new states were added to the original 13 as the nation expanded their frontiers across the North American continent and acquired a number of overseas possessions.

There were three most dramatic experiences in the nation's history: the Civil War (1861-1865), the Great Depression of the 1930s and Vietnam War of the 1960s – 70s.

After its victories in World Wars I and II and the end of the Cold War in 1991, the USA remains the world's most powerful state. Steady growth, low unemployment and inflation, and great advances in technology mark the economy.

Nowadays USA is world's third-largest country by size (after Russia and Canada) and by population (after China and India). It is about half the size of Russia or lightly larger than China or Brazil.

Who really Discovered America?

For centuries, Christopher Columbus has managed to capture the public imagination and is remembered in history as the man who discovered America. Despite the fact that this is clearly not true, it has become impossible to turn this 'history' on its head. Columbus had actually set off in search of India and it is clear from his diary that this is what he thought he had found. Moreover, people had been living in America, the land he 'discovered', for many thousands of years before he arrived. It is difficult to know why his reputation has survived so long.

Columbus wasn't even the first European to reach America. That had already happened 500 years before. In 982, Eirik the Red, chief of the Viking tribes on the island of Iceland, set sail and with the many people who went with him, set up a colony on the coast of Greenland.

Conditions in the new homeland were harder than they had expected. The journey from Iceland to the new colony was disastrous and at least ten ships sank during the voyage. Once they had arrived they built farm. They made warm clothes out of animal skins and fur but there was not enough wood for building or burning. They had to trade things with the people from Iceland but there was no certainty that the trading ships would ever arrive. They found their attempts to survive becoming increasingly desperate.

Eirik's son, Leif, was determined to find another solution. Now with 35 men, he sailed west, further than any European had ever travelled before. However, they found

they had exchanged the hard life on Greenland for something even worse. The coast of Labrador where they had landed was a freezing land of cold winds and icy mountains.

They continued their journey and, in the end, reached gentler, greener lands where they spent the winter. Now that Leif had found a route to a land which promised an easier life, other Vikings set off from Iceland to join the new colonies. His brother, Thorvald, was the first, but he was followed by ships carrying hundreds of men, women and animals.

The new settlers soon found that the land was inhabited. They found the Indians primitive, but, unlike 500 years later, the settlers did not try to impose their religion on the new civilization they had discovered. They began trading, receiving coloured cloth in return for the furs they brought from the north.

However, the peace did not last long. Some of the Vikings were Christians and others were not, and there was fighting between them. During the first winter, there was a terrible lack of food and the colonists had to live under the threat of attacks from the Indians. War soon broke out.

It is in this light that we should judge the achievements of Columbus. In many ways he was certainly a hero, but the fact remains that he is famous for something that was achieved by someone 500 years before.

The Indians kept the Vikings trapped in their colonies, unable to develop a strategy for survival. After three winters, the new Viking nation could no longer support itself. The Vikings decided to go back to Greenland, never to return to the New World.

11. Complete the following sentences:

- a) There were three most dramatic experiences in the nation's history:
- b) The economy is marked
- c) For centuries, Christopher Columbus has managed to capture the public imagination and is remembered in history
- d) The journey from Iceland to the new colony was disastrous and at least
- e) The coast of Labrador where they had landed was a freezing land of
- f) The new settlers soon found that the land was

- g) Some of the Vikings were Christians and others were not, and there was
- h) During the first winter, there was a terrible lack of food and the colonists had to live under
- i) War soon
- j) The Vikings decided to go back to

12. Discuss the following questions:

1. When did the history of the USA begin?
2. How many Britain's American colonies were there in North America in the 18th century?
3. What were three most dramatic experiences in the USA history?
4. When did the Civil War happen?
5. When did the Great Depression happen?
6. When did Vietnam War happen?
7. When did the Cold War finish?
8. Who really Discovered America?
9. Was Columbus the first European to reach America?
10. Why did the Vikings decide to go back to Greenland?

13. Read the text and match the paragraphs (A - I) to the headings (1 - 9)

A) 1. The Lincoln Memorial; 2. NASM; 3. The foundation of the capital; 4. The White House; 5. The National Gallery of Art; 6. Population; 7. The Washington Monument; 8. The Capitol; 9. Sightseeing

Washington, d.C.

A. Washington, D.C., formally the District of Columbia, is the capital of the United States of America. It is a planned city, designed specifically to house the federal government, and is not the part of any state. Its history, beautiful architecture, and excellent cultural centers attract millions of visitors each year.

Washington, D.C. was established in 1790 by the United States Congress, as a federal city exclusively under the control of the federal government. The city was subsequently named for George Washington, who selected the city's exact location on

the Potomac River. Designed by the architect Pierre Charles L'Enfant, Washington was built to have wide avenues radiating from traffic circles, providing for maximum open space and landscaping. Laws to building heights provide Washington with a low skyline devoid of skyscrapers present in other cities.

B. The population of Washington is more than 600,000 people. It increases almost twice at the height of the tourist's season.

C. If you do sightseeing, you surely start with The Mall. The National Mall is a unique National Park, filled with an intense concentration of monuments, memorials, museums, and monumental government buildings instantly recognizable to people all over the world. The White House, the US Capitol Building, the Washington Monument, the Lincoln Memorial and Reflecting Pool, the Franklin Delano Roosevelt Memorial, the Vietnam War Memorial, the Jefferson Memorial, the National Gallery of Art, the Air and Space Museum, the National Natural History Museum, the Holocaust Museum, the International Spy Museum, the National Portrait Gallery – just a few of the top national attractions here, all within walking distance of each other.

D. The city's skyline is dominated by the Capitol and the Washington Monument. The United States Capitol serves as the seat of government for the United States Congress.

E. The Washington Monument is a large, tall, sand-colored obelisk near the west end of the National Mall. It is a United States Presidential Memorial constructed to commemorate the first U.S. president, George Washington. The monument, made of marble, granite, and sandstone, is both the world's tallest stone structure and the world's tallest obelisk, standing 555 feet 5.5 inches (169.3 m) in height erected in 1888. Americans call it «the Pencil».

F. There are also monuments to many other outstanding public figures. The most impressive of them is, no doubt, the Lincoln Memorial. The murdered President is represented seated in a big armchair in the center, deep in thought. The sculptor, Daniel French, has managed to convey the mental and physical strength of this great American, his confidence in the people he had safely brought through the bloody conflict.

G. The White House is the official residence and principal workplace of the President of the United States. In 1812 during the Anglo-American War the British soldiers captured Washington and burned many public buildings, among these the Capitol, the Library of Congress and the Executive Mansion. The latter was subsequently painted white to conceal the marks of the fire and soon became known as the «White House», though this did not come into official use until the early 1900.

H. The National Gallery of Art is a national art museum. It was established in 1938 by the United States Congress. The National Gallery today houses one of the finest collections of Western painting and sculpture in the world.

Also you can visit the National Museum of Natural History. Admission is free and the museum is open 364 days a year. The museum's collections total over 125 million specimens of plants, animals, fossils, minerals, rocks, meteorites, and human cultural artifacts.

I. The National Air and Space Museum (NASM) is the most popular of the Smithsonian museums. It maintains the largest collection of aircraft and spacecraft in the world. It is also a vital center for research into the history, science, and technology of aviation and spaceflight, as well as planetary science and terrestrial geology and geophysics. Almost all space and aircraft on display are originals or backup crafts to the originals. The National Air and Space Museum is widely considered one of Washington's most significant works of modern architecture which was finished in 1976.

B) Complete the sentences according to the text

1. Washington was founded on the left bank of
2. The population of the city of Washington grows
3. The Washington Monument is situated in
4. The most impressive monument is
5. In the National Museum of Natural History admission is
6. The Lincoln memorial was built like... .
7. The building of NASM is considered

C) Answer the following questions

1. What river is Washington situated on?
2. What state does Washington belong to?
3. Why was the capital named “Washington”?
4. Where is it better to start sightseeing from? Why?
5. Who is responsible for the name “The White House”?
6. Why are there no any skyscrapers in Washington?

CHAPTER 7. CANADA, AUSTRALIA, NEW ZEALAND ENGLISH OVERSEAS

7.1 CANADA. GENERAL INFORMATION

Canada is situated on the north of Northern America, washed by the Atlantic Ocean in the east, the Pacific Ocean in the west, and the Arctic Ocean in the north and in the northeast by the Baffin Bay and the Davis Strait, which separate it from Greenland. On the south and on the north Canada borders on the USA. Canada is the world’s second largest country after Russia. The total area is about 10 million sq. km. Canada is slightly larger than the USA. Its major cities, such as Toronto, Monreal, Vancouver, Ottawa, Edmonton, Calgary are centres of commerce and industry. The climate of Canada varies from temperate in the south to subarctic and arctic in the north. The highest Canadian point is Mount Logan 5, 959 m. The population of Canada is about 32 million people. There are two state languages: English and French. English is spoken by 60% of population; French is spoken by 23% of people. Most of Canada’s inhabitants live in the southern part of the country and vast areas of the north are sparsely inhabited. The country is divided into ten provinces (Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, Saskatchewan) and three territories (Northwest Territories, Yukon Territory, Nunavut Territory). The name “Canada” is derived from an Iroquoian term meaning “village”. Among the great rivers of Canada there are the Saint Lawrence River, The Ottawa River, the Saint John River and others. Canada has over 15% of the

world's known fresh water volume. The longest river in Canada is the Mackenzie (2,635 miles), which flows into the Arctic Ocean. The government type is confederation with parliamentary democracy. The capital of Canada is Ottawa. Canada became independent from the UK on July, 1, 1867 [7].

The racial and ethnic makeup of the Canadian people is diversified. About 35% of the population is composed of people of the British origin. People of the French origin total about 25% of the population. The population of Canada is composed of people of various ethnic groups, such as German, Italian, Ukrainian, Scandinavian, Polish, Hungarian, Greek, and Native American. Blacks have never constituted a major segment of the Canadian population. The largest religious community in Canada is Roman Catholic. Nearly half of Canadians who are Roman Catholic live in Quebec. The largest Protestant organization is The United Church of Canada. A great number of Buddhists, Hindus and Sikhs have been brought to the country in recent years by immigration.

7.2 EXPLORATION OF CANADA

Many European and Scandinavian explorers came to Canada. They explored some of the rivers, fished along the shores, trading with the Indians and hunted for furs. Norsemen from Norway had settlements in Iceland. Some historians think that some Irish people tried to live in Eastern Canada about 850 A.D. French and English explorers came to Canada to look for a passageway to the riches of China and the Orient. They were not very interested in what they found there – trees, animals, fish and difficult living conditions. Instead of sending experienced farmers and craftsmen, both countries sent the poor and homeless to Canada. These people could not set up strong settlements. For the next 60 years, fur was the main interest in Canada. The fur traders and the women who came to be their wives, became the first European settlers and explorers of the new land.

At the beginning of the 9th century ad, seaborne Norse invaders pushed out of the Scandinavian Peninsula to Britain, Ireland, and northern Europe. In the mid-9th century

a number of Norse craft reached Iceland, where a permanent settlement was established. Near the end of the 10th century the Norse reached Greenland and ventured to the coast of North America; at L'Anse aux Meadows on the northern tip of Newfoundland are the remains of what are believed to be as many as three Norse settlements. According to available evidence, the Norse settlers and the Inuit (whom the Norse called Skraeling) initially fought each other but then established a regular trade relationship. The Norse settlements were soon abandoned, probably as the Norse withdrew from Greenland [19].

Europeans did not return to northern North America until the Italian navigator Giovanni Caboto, known in English as John Cabot, sailed from Bristol in 1497 under a commission from the English king to search for a short route to Asia (what became known as the Northwest Passage). In that voyage and in a voyage the following year, during which Cabot died, he and his sons explored the coasts of Labrador, Newfoundland, and possibly Nova Scotia and discovered that the cold northwest Atlantic waters were teeming with fish. Soon Portuguese, Spanish, and French fishing crews braved the Atlantic crossing to fish in the waters of the Grand Banks. Some began to land on the coast of Newfoundland to dry their catch before returning to Europe. Despite Cabot's explorations, the English paid little heed to the Atlantic fishery until 1583, when Sir Humphrey Gilbert laid claim to the lands around present-day St. John's, probably as a base for an English fishery. The French also claimed parts of Newfoundland, primarily on the north and west coasts of the island, as bases for their own fishing endeavours. The fishery ushered in the initial period of contact between the Indians and the Europeans. Although each was deeply suspicious of the other, a sporadic trade was conducted in scattered locations between the fishing crews and the Indians, with the latter trading furs for iron and other manufactured goods.

The Canadian *flag* was first raised on top of the Peace Tower on Parliament Hill in Ottawa, on February 15, 1965. More than 2,600 designs for a flag had been sent in to the Canadian government. There were other flags before this one, but they all looked like the British flag. The red and white flag with the Maple leaf in the middle is the first

distinctly Canadian flag. Red and white have been Canada's official colours since 1921. The Maple Leaf has been a symbol of Canada since the 1700s [19].

The Governor General and the Queen each have their own personal Canadian flags. Whenever they are in Canada, their flags fly over the buildings that they stay in. The Queen is the Canadian Head of State. The Governor General is her representative in Canada.

The fleur-de-lis is a symbol of Canada's historic connection to France. There are fleurs-de-lis on *Canada's Coat of Arms* and on the provincial flag of Quebec. The Union Jack and the Royal Crown appear as symbols on provincial flags and Coats of Arms. They represent the historic connection between Great Britain and Canada.

7.3 THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW FRANCE

Frenchman *Jacques Cartier* was the first European to navigate the great entrance to Canada, the Saint Lawrence River. In 1534, in a voyage conducted with great competence, Cartier explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence and claimed its shores for the French crown. In the following year Cartier ascended the river itself and visited the sites



of Stadacona (modern Quebec city) and Hochelaga (Montreal). His reports were so favourable that the French king, anxious to challenge the claims of Spain in the New World, decided to set up a fortified settlement. Internal and European politics delayed the enterprise until 1541, when, under the command of Jean-François de La Rocque, sieur (lord) de Roberval, Cartier returned to Stadacona and founded Charlesbourg-Royal just northwest of

Quebec. Cartier had hoped to discover precious gems and minerals, as the Spaniards had done in Mexico and Peru, but the mineral specimens he sent home were worthless;

indeed, “false as a Canadian diamond” became a common French expression. Disappointed in his attempt to reach the mythical “Kingdom of Saguenay,” the reputed source of precious metals, Cartier returned to France after a severe winter, deserting Roberval, who had arrived in Newfoundland with reinforcements. Roberval also failed, and during the remainder of the century only two subsequent attempts were made at exploiting the French claim to the lands of the St. Lawrence. But the French claim remained; it had only to be made good by actual occupation. In 1604 the French navigator Samuel de Champlain, under Pierre du Gua, sieur de Monts, who had received a grant of the monopoly, led a group of settlers to Acadia. He chose as a site Dochet Island (Île Sainte-Croix) in the St. Croix River, on the present boundary between the United States and Canada. But the island proved unsuitable, and in 1605 the colony was moved across the Bay of Fundy to Port Royal (now Annapolis Royal, Nova Scotia). The colony was to be a trading post and a centre of settlement, but the rugged, forested inlets of the Nova Scotian peninsula, the heavy forests of the St. John River, and the many bays and beaches of Cape Breton and Prince Edward islands made it impossible to enforce the monopoly of the fur trade against enterprising interlopers [19].

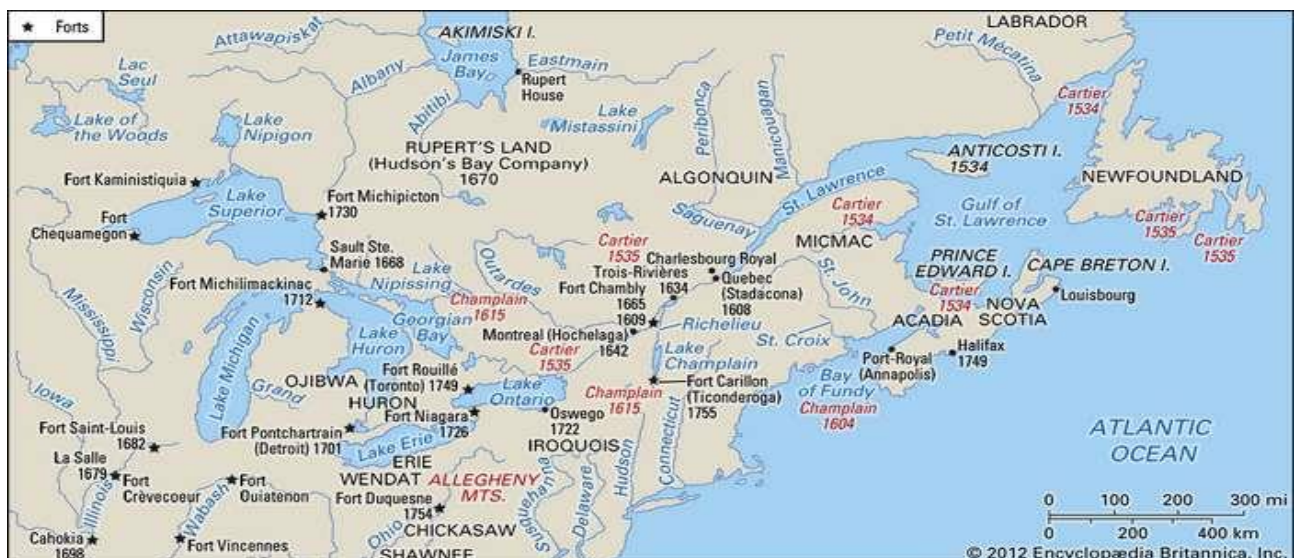
In 1608 de Monts and Champlain left Acadia and made their way to the St. Lawrence. At “the place where the river narrowed” (Quebec), they built a “habitation” (i.e., a fur-trading fort, or factory) to control the great river and to be the entrepôt of its fur trade. Already in 1603 Champlain had noted that the Iroquois, whom Jacques Cartier had found there, had withdrawn from the St. Lawrence under pressure from the Algonquin Indians of the north country. The French then became the allies of the Algonquin in the rivalry that began for control of the inland fur trade. In 1609, in accordance with this alliance, Champlain and three companions joined an Algonquin war party in a raid against the Mohawk, the easternmost group of the Iroquois Confederacy. The party ascended the Richelieu River toward Lake Champlain. In an encounter with a Mohawk band, Champlain and his men killed some Iroquois, and the Europeans’ firearms panicked the remainder. This skirmish signaled the initial commitment of New France to the side of the Algonquin and the Huron (the latter

being Iroquoian but hostile to the confederacy) in what became a century-long struggle for control of the output of furs from as far away as the western Great Lakes. That commitment deepened in succeeding years. The conflict between the Iroquois and Huron was based on trade rivalries that had existed before European settlement. Although the French supported the Huron, the Dutch and later the English sided with the Iroquois. The company of de Monts and his frequent successors, for whom Champlain remained the lieutenant in New France, had the obligation to bring out settlers, as well as the exclusive right (seldom enforced) to trade in furs. Their efforts at settlement were even less successful, partly because settlement was not easy in a country of heavy forests and severe winters and partly because the fur trade had little need of settlers beyond its own employees. Moreover, the company had scant funds to bring out and establish colonists on the land. Champlain, who encouraged missionaries – first the Recollects (Franciscans), then the Jesuits – to come to Quebec to convert the Indians, was most interested in exploration. Already in Acadia he had surveyed in 1606 and 1607 the coast southward and westward to Stage Harbor, only to be rebuffed by hostile Indians. In 1613 Champlain set out from Quebec to explore the upper St. Lawrence basin. He passed the island of Montreal, not settled since Cartier's time but used by traders who bypassed Quebec. In order to avoid the heavy rapids of the St. Lawrence, he ascended its great tributary, the Ottawa River, only to be turned back at Allumette Island by Algonquin middlemen who were trading for the furs of the Huron and other people farther inland and who wished to retain that trade. At Allumette Champlain learned of an "inland sea" (Hudson Bay), the existence of which he had divined before he could have heard of Henry Hudson's discovery of it in 1610. Undaunted, he ascended the Ottawa again in 1615, traversed the Mattawa River, Lake Nipissing, and the French River to Georgian Bay, and turned south to "Huronian" (the land of the Huron). Champlain wintered with the Indians and went with a Huron war party to raid an Onondaga village south of the St. Lawrence [19]. He was slightly wounded and the party was repulsed, but Champlain had once more confirmed the alliance of the French with

the northern tribes and the Huron against the Iroquois and, by the opening of the Ottawa route, had secured the mid-continent for the French fur trade.

The discovery of this inland, central region was perhaps Champlain's main achievement. However, from 1616 to 1627 he had little success in maintaining the fur trade. The fault was not entirely his, for the enterprise itself was very difficult. The coupling of trade and settlement was somewhat contradictory, and it was impossible to finance both out of annual profits, especially as the French government failed to uphold the monopoly.

The French government supplied more active support after the remarkable revival of royal power carried out in the 1620s by Armand-Jean du Plessis, cardinal et duc de Richelieu. Richelieu sought to make French colonial policy comparable to that of England and the Netherlands, joint victors with France in the long struggle in Europe against Spain. These countries had found a means of both raising capital and enforcing trading rights through the medium of the joint-stock company. Richelieu used his power to create such a company—the Company of New France, commonly called the “Hundred Associates” from the number of its shareholders—to exploit the resources and settle the lands of New France. The company was given broad powers and wide responsibility: the monopoly of trade with all New France, Acadia as well as Canada; powers of government; the obligation to take out 400 settlers a year; and the task of keeping New France in the Roman Catholic faith.



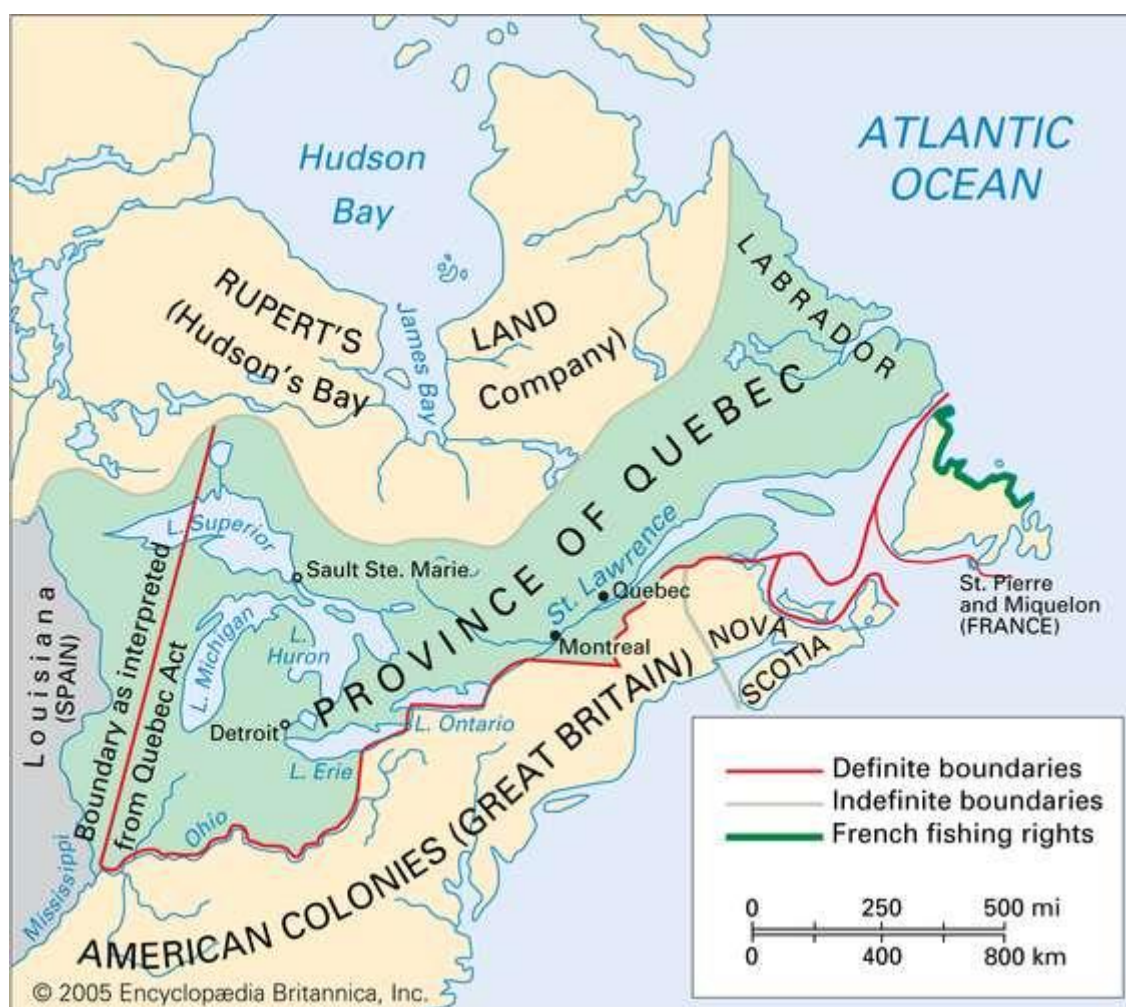
The company was chartered and its capital raised in 1627. The next year, however, war broke out with the English, who supported the French Protestants, or Huguenots, in their struggle against Richelieu. The war was mismanaged and inconclusive, but it gave a pretext for the Kirke brothers, English adventurers who had connections in France with Huguenot competitors of the Hundred Associates, to blockade the St. Lawrence in 1628 and to capture Quebec in 1629. For three years the fur trade was in the hands of the Kirkes and their French associates, the brothers de Caën. It was a stunning blow to the new company and to Champlain, who was taken prisoner to England. At the same time, Acadia, already raided from Virginia in 1613, was claimed by Scotland. An attempt at settlement there was made by Sir William Alexander, to whom Nova Scotia (New Scotland) had been granted by the Scottish king James VI (after 1603, James I of England) [5].

It is difficult to estimate the effect of the war on the policy of the Hundred Associates. Canada and Acadia were restored by the Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye in 1632, and the company retook possession in 1633. On the surface all seemed to go smoothly. In 1633 Champlain returned as governor, the government and settlement of Acadia was farmed out to the vigorous Isaac de Razilly, and the Jesuits assumed sole responsibility for Roman Catholicism in Canada. The fur trade was resumed, and the Trois Rivières settlement was founded in 1634 to control the Saint-Maurice River. Settlement began, but the company seemed unable to recoup the losses caused by the capture of Quebec and by five years of trade disruption. Profits that would both pay dividends and provide for the costs of settlement continued to be elusive. The company remained the proprietor of New France until 1663, providing a succession of governors and other officials, but it was unable to meet its obligations to colonize. Weary of its profitless task, the company leased the fur trade to private companies and then, in 1645, to a group of Canadian residents known as the Community of Habitants (Communauté des Habitants).

7.4 EARLY BRITISH RULE, 1763–91

The Quebec Act

At first New France was to be governed by the Royal Proclamation (October 7, 1763), which declared the territory between the Alleghenies and the Mississippi to be Indian territory and closed to settlement until the Indians there could be subdued. New France became known as the Province of Quebec, which was to have a royal governor who had the authority to call an assembly. However, the 70,000 French inhabitants of Quebec could neither vote nor sit in the assembly by virtue of their Roman Catholicism.



Few British Americans moved to Quebec (there were perhaps 500 migrants in all), and those who did were attracted primarily by the prospect of taking control of the fur trade. Their bourgeois mentality and repeated demands for the “rights of Englishmen” tended to alienate the conservative British officers who administered the colony. Among the latter was General James Murray, who was appointed the colony’s

first governor in 1763. Murray sympathized with the condition and difficulties of the French and ignored the demands of the recently arrived Protestants for an assembly, with the result that an agitation by the Protestants led to his recall. He was replaced in 1766 by General Guy Carleton (later 1st Baron Dorchester), who was expected in Quebec to carry out the policy of the proclamation. However, Carleton soon came to see that the colony was certain to be permanently French. He decided that Britain's best course was to forge an alliance with the elites of the former French colony—the seigneurs and the Roman Catholic church. Carleton returned to England in 1770 to press his new policy for Quebec on the government of Lord North. The trouble the imperial government continued to have with the colonies to the south secured official acceptance of Carleton's policy. The result was the Quebec Act of 1774, which marked a radical departure from the manner by which British colonies in America were governed. It granted permission for Roman Catholics in Quebec to hold public office; stipulated that an appointed council, rather than an elected assembly, would advise the governor; and legitimized French civil law, though English criminal law was to be in force. The Quebec Act also recognized the legitimacy of the French language and the Roman Catholic faith, gave the church power to enforce the collection of tithes, and formalized the authority of the seigneurs to collect *cens et rentes*. In addition, Quebec's territory was greatly expanded, its western border henceforth stretching to the junction of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. Carleton had sought to cement French loyalty to Britain. As the American Revolution would demonstrate, however, the Quebec Act did not do that. Instead, it brought about a virtual revolution in Quebec society. The Quebec Act gave the seigneurs, the church, and the clergy a degree of authority and influence they had never enjoyed even under the French regime. Prior to 1763 many of the clergy's edicts had been ignored by the larger society, while the political power of the bishop had been inconsequential compared with that of the governor and intendant; the latter two officials often circumscribed church authority in matters such as relations with the Indians. After 1774, however, the bishop and the church reigned supreme in their own sphere, especially since British governing authorities were loath to interfere in religious

matters. The Quebec Act also enhanced the status of the seigneurs by giving them unchallenged legal authority to set the terms and conditions of settlement on their lands. Magnifying this important change, some seigneurs sold their holdings to members of the newly arrived English-speaking merchant class. These new seigneurs, with no understanding of the informal habitant-seigneur relationship under French rule, frequently thought of themselves – and acted – as landed gentry in their dealings with the habitants [19].

Carleton had erred, either misunderstanding or ignoring the underlying realities of the social structure and class relations he found when he arrived in Quebec. He imposed his own vision of what Quebec ought to be, an action that earned the British the support of the church and the seigneurs but the distinct dislike of the habitants, who soon realized just how much their position in society had been eroded. As the years went by, that erosion would have a dramatic impact on their living standards.

The influence of the American Revolution

To the American colonies, the Quebec Act was menacing – it reestablished to the north and west an area despotically ruled, predominantly French and Roman Catholic, with an alien form of land tenure. Instead of intimidating the American colonies, the act helped push the Americans to open revolt. Indeed, the first act of the American Continental Congress in 1775 was not to declare independence but to invade Canada. The failure of that invasion ensured that the continent north of the Rio Grande would, on the recognition of American independence, be divided between the Americans and the British.

Not all American colonists had supported the cause of independence, and many had resisted it in arms. At the conclusion of hostilities, these loyalists had to make their peace with the new republic, though many went into exile. The refugees, known as United Empire Loyalists, were the object of considerable concern to the British government, which sought to compensate them for their losses and to assist them in establishing new homes. Some went to the United Kingdom, others to the British West Indies, but the majority emigrated to Nova Scotia or Quebec. Nova Scotia, which to a

great extent had been recently settled by American colonists, had not, except for an ineffectual rising or two, joined the revolting colonies. Overawed by British sea power and by the fortress of Halifax, Nova Scotians at first kept quiet, and later many of them even made fortunes privateering against American commerce. Easily reached by sea from New York, Nova Scotia became the chief refuge of the loyalists. Some settled in the peninsula itself, some in Cape Breton and in the separate colony of Prince Edward Island. A large number, however, settled along the St. John River, north of the Bay of Fundy. Dissatisfied with tardy government from Halifax, they promptly agitated for a government of their own, and equally promptly the new province of New Brunswick was created for them in 1784, with its own governor and assembly.

In Quebec the loyalists simply crossed the new frontier and settled along the St. Lawrence River to the west of the old French settlements. Their impact in Quebec was even greater than in Nova Scotia and led to the creation of the Constitutional Act of 1791. The loyalists who settled in Central Canada were for the most part quite different from those who went to what were soon to be called the Maritime colonies (later the Maritime Provinces). The latter had possessed an elite of government officials and professional men, often loyalist regiments with their officers and men, from the long-settled seaboard areas. The Central Canadian loyalists, however, were largely from upper New York, especially the Mohawk valley country, and from Pennsylvania and were almost wholly simple frontier folk and recent immigrants, driven from their homes by neighbours who often used the Revolution to dispossess them of their lands (thus explaining the bitter fighting along the frontier and the long loyalist hatred in the new province for all things American) [7]. Their coming transformed the character of the population of Quebec. That province had been given a government much like that of New France, except for the important office of intendant, and the province was in population almost wholly French, as it was in civil law. Most loyalists had one desire, to hold the land granted them in simple ownership, something the civil law of Quebec did not allow. Some of them – how many is uncertain—also wanted representative

government, which was denied by the Quebec Act. Their representations reached London and were listened to with respect.

The Constitutional Act of 1791

The appeals of the loyalists caused a great problem for the British government. The measures taken in the Quebec Act to conciliate the French could not in honour or policy be withdrawn. Yet the loyalists could not be required to live under French civil and land law and without the representative assembly to which they were accustomed. One obvious answer was to divide Quebec into separate French and English provinces. The English province would have, of course, English common law and an assembly. The French province might have been left with the forms of government provided by the Quebec Act. But there had already been one revolution in America, and by 1789 another had broken out in France. British statesmen felt that the former had occurred partly because Americans had not been granted the British constitution in its proper forms. From this view, the thing to do was to give both the new province and Quebec the British constitution in its entirety as far as circumstances might permit. The result would be, it was hoped, to assimilate the French population.

After a fiery debate in the British House of Commons, the Constitutional Act of 1791 gave the same constitution to the colonies of Upper and Lower Canada (now Ontario and Quebec, respectively). Nothing that had been given the French in 1774 was revoked, but the form of government was changed to the familiar one of governor with his executive council, a legislative council, and an assembly elected on what was for the time a wide franchise. The result of this last provision was that the first assembly in 1792 had a majority of French members.

National growth in the early 19th century

The influx of loyalists changed the composition of the population of the British North American colonies by adding elements at once American yet profoundly attached to British institutions; it also increased the population by some 6,000 in the old province of Quebec. To these were to be added the unknown numbers of “late loyalists” – settlers, primarily land seekers, who arrived from the northern states as late as 1812. Some

80,000 came to Nova Scotia, although not all remained; of these, about 20,000 settled in what became New Brunswick, and a few hundred on Prince Edward Island. The newcomers also added to the growing diversity of the population of the colonies. In Newfoundland there were already the West Country English and a growing number of Irish—a total of more than 26,000 by 1806. Nova Scotia had, in addition to New Englanders, loyalists, and Yorkshiremen, the Germans of Lunenburg and the Highland Scots of Pictou county and of Cape Breton Island—in all, an estimated 65,000 in 1806, with 2,513 on Cape Breton Island. New Brunswick had a population of about 35,000 in 1806, mostly loyalists or of loyalist descent, but already the southern Irish, drawn by the timber trade, were beginning to appear on the rivers of the north shore. Prince Edward Island, with a population of 9,676 in 1806, had some Acadians, some loyalists, some English, Scots, and Irish. In Upper Canada in 1806 the population numbered 70,718; in Lower Canada it was estimated at 250,000 [19].

The first Canadian population mosaic had taken shape as it was to remain for a century, a mixture of British, French, and German. The British element was to be steadily reinforced by northern English (coming by way of Liverpool), Highland and Lowland Scots, and southern and northern Irish. The result was the creation of a society in which religious liberty and a great measure of social equality were necessary for social cohesion and common effort. Until 1815, however, the number of immigrants was small: Highlanders for Glengarry county in Upper Canada, disbanded soldiers in Lanark county south of the Ottawa River, and a straggle of Irish after the rebellion of 1798 was crushed. Nor did the numbers increase appreciably after 1815; not until 1830 did the English, Scottish, and Irish begin coming to the British North American colonies in great volume. Thereafter, thousands arrived each year. The British North American colonies became predominantly British in population, except in Lower Canada, a fact that was to determine the course of Canadian history for the next 100 years.

7.5 A GLIMPS OF AUSTRALIA

The Commonwealth of Australia is a self-governing federal country. Australia is the smallest continent, it is often called subcontinent. It is 30 times bigger than Great Britain. The total area of the country is 7 000 000 sq. km. Only 17 million people live there. 90% of them live on the coast, therefore the centre is almost empty. Australia is today an independent member of the Commonwealth, selfgoverning since January 1, 1901. There are 6 states and an island Tasmania: New South Wales, Northern Territory, Queensland, South Australia, Victoria and Western Australia. The capital of the country is Canberra. Federal government works in Canberra. The biggest cities in Australia are Sydney and Melbourne [7].

Australian national flag consists of five white stars of the Southern Cross and the white Commonwealth star on a blue background with Union Jack that represents the historical link with Britain. Australia is the country of the Aboriginal people. They understand the land and have never tried to control it. They can survive on the land better than any other people.

The most famous building in Australia is the Sydney Opera House. Australia has some of the most beautiful beaches in the world. The beach is a way of life for many Australians. Sydney has one of Australia's most famous beaches. Bondi Beach is famous for surfing and is a popular place for many tourists and inhabitants to go on Christmas Day and have a barbecue. There are many animals in Australia that it is impossible to find anywhere else in the world. The most famous ones are kangaroos, koalas, wild dog which kills other animals at night, and many parrots. Australian climate is dry and warm, even hot. Australian seasons are the antithesis of those in Europe and Northern America because Australia is south of the Equator: summer starts in December (ends in February), autumn in March (ends in May), winter in June (ends in August), spring in September (ends in November). Seasonal variations are not extreme and temperature seldom drops below zero on the mainland except in the mountains. The Blue Mountains are covered with forests of blue coloured eucalyptus trees and when the sun shines, the air of the Blue Mountains is a real, beautiful blue colour. There are many

lakes in the country, though this country is called the country of deserts. South Australia is the driest of all the states. The only big river here is the Murray River. Tasmania is an island in south part of Australia. It is not big. It's the same size as England. There are no deserts in Tasmania. It often rains, both in winter and summer. Only a half of million people live in Tasmania, and a large part of the island is still covered with wild forests. Australia is an industrial country. It is famous for its coal, nickel, zinc, gold. It exports wool production, meat, fruit and sugar [1].

7.5.1 Australia to 1900. Early exploration and colonization

The Portuguese. Prior to documented history, travelers from Asia may have reached Australia. China's control of South Asian waters could have extended to a landing in Australia in the early 15th century. Likewise, Muslim voyagers who visited and settled in Southeast Asia came within 300 miles (480 km) of Australia, and adventure, wind, or current might have carried some individuals the extra distance. Both Arab and Chinese documents tell of a southern land, but with such inaccuracy that they scarcely clarify the argument. Makassarese seamen certainly fished off Arnhem Land, in the Northern Territory, from the late 18th century and may have done so for generations.

The quest for wealth and knowledge might logically have pulled the Portuguese to Australian shores; the assumption has some evidential support, including a reference indicating that Melville Island, off the northern coast, supplied slaves. Certainly the Portuguese debated the issue of a terra australis incognita (Latin: "unknown southern land") – an issue in European thought in ancient times and revived from the 12th century onward. The so-called Dieppe maps present a landmass, "Java la Grande," that some scholarship (gaining strength in the early 21st century) has long seen as evidence of a Portuguese discovery of the Australian landmass, 1528 being one likely year.

The Spanish. Viceroy's of Spain's American empire regularly sought new lands. One such expedition, from Peru in 1567, commanded by Álvaro de Mendaña, discovered the Solomon Islands. Excited by finding gold, Mendaña hoped that he had found the great southern land and that Spain would colonize there. In 1595 Mendaña

sailed again but failed to rediscover the Solomons. One of his officers was Pedro Fernández de Quirós, a man of the Counter-Reformation who wanted Roman Catholicism to prevail in the southland, the existence of which he was certain. Quirós won the backing of King Philip III for an expedition under his own command. It left Callao, Peru, in December 1605 and reached the New Hebrides. Quirós named the island group Australia del Espíritu Santo, and he celebrated with elaborate ritual. He (and some later Roman Catholic historians) saw this as the discovery of the southern land. But Quirós's exultation was brief; troubles forced his return to Latin America. The other ship of the expedition, under Luis de Torres, went on to sail through the Torres Strait but almost certainly failed to sight Australia; and all Quirós's fervour failed to persuade Spanish officialdom to mount another expedition.

The Dutch. Late in 1605 Willem Jansz (Janszoon) of Amsterdam sailed aboard the Duyfken from Bantam in the Dutch East Indies in search of New Guinea. He reached the Torres Strait a few weeks before Torres and named what was later to prove part of the Australian coast – Cape Keer-Weer, on the western side of Cape York Peninsula. More significantly, from 1611 some Dutch ships sailing from the Cape of Good Hope to Java inevitably carried too far east and touched Australia: the first and most famous was Dirck Hartog's Eendracht, from which men landed and left a memorial at Shark Bay, Western Australia, October 25–27, 1616. Pieter Nuyts explored almost 1,000 miles (1,600 km) of the southern coast in 1626–27, and other Dutchmen added to knowledge of the north and west. Most important of all was the work of Abel Tasman, who won such respect as a seaman in the Dutch East Indies that in 1642 Governor-General Anthony van Diemen of the Indies commissioned him to explore southward. In November – December, having made a great circuit of the seas, Tasman sighted the west coast and anchored off the southeast coast of what he called Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania). He then explored the island of New Zealand before returning to Batavia, on Java. A second expedition of 1644 contributed to knowledge of Australia's northern coast; the Dutch named the new landmass New Holland.

The British. The Netherlands spent little more effort in exploration, and the other great Protestant power in Europe, England, took over the role. In 1688 the English buccaneer William Dampier relaxed on New Holland's northwestern coast. On returning to England, he published his *Voyages* and persuaded the Admiralty to back another venture. He traversed the western coast for 1,000 miles (1699–1700) and reported more fully than any previous explorer, but he did so in terms so critical of the land and its people that another hiatus resulted.

The middle decades of the 18th century saw much writing about the curiosities and possible commercial value of the southern seas and *terra australis incognita*. This was not restricted to Great Britain, but it had especial vigour there. The British government showed its interest by backing several voyages. Hopes flourished for a mighty empire of commerce in the eastern seas.

This was the background for the three voyages of Captain James Cook on behalf of the British Admiralty. The first, that of the HMS *Endeavour*, left England in August 1768 and had its climax on April 20, 1770, when a crewman sighted southeastern Australia. Cook landed several times, most notably at Botany Bay and at Possession Island in the north, where on August 23 he claimed the land, naming it New South Wales. Cook's later voyages (1772–75 and 1776–79) were to other areas in the Pacific, but they were both symptom and cause of strengthening British interest in the eastern seas. Cook's voyages led to settlement but did not complete the exploration of the Australian coasts. Marion Dufresne of France skirted Tasmania in 1772, seeing more than had Tasman. The count de La Pérouse, another French explorer, made no actual discoveries in Australia but visited Botany Bay early in 1788. In 1791 the British navigator George Vancouver traversed and described the southern shores discovered by Pieter Nuyts years before. The French explorer Joseph-Antoine Raymond de Bruni, chevalier d'Entrecasteaux, also did significant work, especially in southern Tasmania.

Two Britons – George Bass, a naval surgeon, and Matthew Flinders, a naval officer – were the most famous postsettlement explorers. Together they entered some harbours on the coast near Botany Bay in 1795 and 1796. Bass ventured farther south

in 1797–98, pushing around Cape Everard to Western Port. Flinders was in that region early in 1798, charting the Furneaux Islands. Late that year Flinders and Bass circumnavigated Tasmania in the Norfolk, establishing that it was an island and making further discoveries. Several other navigators, including merchantmen, filled out knowledge of the Bass Strait area; most notable was the discovery of Port Phillip in 1802. Meanwhile Flinders had returned home and in 1801 was appointed to command an expedition that would circumnavigate Australia and virtually complete the charting of the continent. Over the next three years Flinders proved equal to this task. Above all, he left no doubt that the Australian continent was a single landmass. Appropriately, Flinders urged that the name Australia replace New Holland, and this change received official backing from 1817.

France sponsored an expedition, similar in intent to Flinders's, at the same time. Under Nicolas Baudin, it gave French names to many features (including "Terre Napoléon" for the southern coast) and gathered much information but did little new exploration. It was on the northern coast, from Arnhem Land to Cape York Peninsula, that more exploration was needed. Two Admiralty expeditions – under Phillip Parker King (1817–22) and John Clements Wickham (1838–39) – filled this gap.

European settlement

The British government determined on settling New South Wales in 1786, and colonization began early in 1788. The motives for this move have become a matter of some controversy. The traditional view is that Britain thereby sought to relieve the pressure upon its prisons – a pressure intensified by the loss of its American colonies, which until that time had accepted transported felons. This view is supported by the fact that convicts went to the settlement from the outset and that official statements put this first among the colony's intended purposes. But some historians have argued that this glossed a scheme to provide a bastion for British sea power in the eastern seas. Some have seen a purely strategic purpose in settlement, but others have postulated an intent to use the colony as a springboard for economic exploitation of the area. It is very likely that the government had some interest in all these factors.

Whatever the deeper motivation, plans went ahead, with Lord Sydney (Thomas Townshend), secretary of state for home affairs, as the guiding authority. Arthur Phillip was commander of the expedition; he was to take possession of the whole territory from Cape York to Tasmania, westward as far as 135° and eastward to include adjacent islands. Phillip's power was to be near absolute within his domain. The British government planned to develop the region's economy by employing convict labour on government farms, while former convicts would subsist on their own small plots.

The First Fleet sailed on May 13, 1787, with 11 vessels, including 6 transports, aboard which were about 730 convicts (570 men and 160 women). More than 250 free persons accompanied the convicts, chiefly marines of various rank. The fleet reached Botany Bay on January 19–20, 1788. Crisis threatened at once. The Botany Bay area had poor soil and little water, and the harbour itself was inferior. Phillip therefore sailed northward on January 21 and entered a superb harbour, Port Jackson, which Cook had marked but not explored. He moved the fleet there; the flag was hoisted on January 26 and the formalities of government begun on February 7. Sydney Cove, the focus of settlement, was deep within Port Jackson, on the southern side; around it was to grow the city of Sydney.

Phillip at once established an outstation at Norfolk Island. Its history was to be checkered; settlement was abandoned in 1813 and revived in 1825 to provide a jail for convicts who misbehaved in Australia. (It served a new purpose from 1856 as a home for the descendants of the mutineers of the HMS *Bounty*, by then too numerous for Pitcairn Island.)

Phillip remained as governor until December 1792, seeing New South Wales through its darkest days. The land was indifferent, disease and pests abounded, few convicts proved able labourers, and Aboriginal people were often hostile. The nadir came in autumn 1790 as supplies shrank; the arrival of a second fleet brought hundreds of sickly convicts but also the means of survival.

7.5.2 Australia since 1900

Nationhood and war: 1901–45

The world's passions and conflict of the early 20th century were to shape the new nation's history, despite its physical distance from their epicentres. In some respects this was the least positive of the major periods of Australian history. Nationalism grew in strength, but it killed and sterilized as much as it inspired; egalitarianism tended to foster mediocrity; dependence on external power and models prevailed. Yet creativity and progress survived, and Australia's troubles were small compared with those of many contemporary societies. Drabness was most evident in economic affairs. At the broadest level of generality, the period did little more than continue the themes of the 1860–90 generation. The most important such themes were the increasing industrialization and improvement of communications; railways reached their peak of 27,000 miles in 1941, and meanwhile came the motor boom. In the agricultural sector there was significant expansion of exports, with wheat, fruits, meat, and sugar becoming much more important than theretofore. But just as manufactures received increasingly high tariff protection, so the marketing of these goods often depended on subsidy. Hence, the sheep's back continued to be the nation's great support in world finance. Metals, gold especially, were important in the early years, but thereafter this resource conspicuously failed to provide the vitality of earlier and later times. The worldwide economic depression of the 1930s affected Australia, especially its primary industries. Otherwise, the overall rate of growth, and probably of living standards, too, scrambled upward – more quickly than average in the years around 1910 and again in the early 1940s [20].

In national politics, candidates fought for office with increasing vigour and resource, while their administrative performances generally began well but then ebbed. A constant theme was the strengthening of the central government against the states. This complemented the high degree of homogeneity, especially in personal and social matters, that extended through Australia's great physical spread; it was expressed primarily through the Commonwealth's financial powers – at first especially relating to customs and excise duties but later by direct taxation. From World War I (1914–18)

both levels of government imposed income taxes, but in 1942 the federal government virtually annexed the field, with the high court's approval. The establishment of a national capital at Canberra, where Parliament first sat in 1927 after having met in Melbourne since federation, symbolized this situation. The strengthening of the Commonwealth was scarcely a product of popular enthusiasm. Several constitutional referenda upheld the rights of the states, each of which had its own distinct political, cultural, and social characteristics. The first two prime ministers were Edmund Barton (1901–03) and Alfred Deakin (1903–04), who had headed the federation movement in New South Wales and Victoria, respectively. They were liberal protectionists. Their ministries established a tariff, an administrative structure, and the White Australia immigration policy that excluded Asians. They also established the High Court and initiated legislation for a court of conciliation and arbitration. This carried to the highest point in the world the principles of industrial arbitration and judicial imposition of welfare and justice through wage and working-condition awards.

In 1904 John Christian Watson led the first, brief Labor cabinet, followed by George Houston Reid's conservative free-trade ministry. Deakin led again (1905–08), and Andrew Fisher was Labor's second prime minister (1908–09); his ministry was defeated when liberals and conservatives "fused" in Deakin's third term (1909–10). Labor then won its first clear majority at election, which it barely lost in 1913 and regained, still under Fisher, in 1914. These changing ideologies did not hinder – perhaps even prompted – ambitious governmental policies. Social services were extended with old-age pensions (1908) and maternity grants (1912); protection rose markedly in a 1908 tariff; the Commonwealth Bank was established; and an army and navy developed [20].

The new nation was psychologically as well as physically prepared for war. Fear of attack became increasingly directed against Japan, prompting pressure on Great Britain for a firmer policy in the New Hebrides (since 1886 supervised jointly by Britain and France); this was achieved in 1906–07. Although many Australians criticized Britain when the latter appeared negligent of local interests, the dominant note was profound loyalty to the empire. Colonial troops had fought in both the Sudan and South

African (Boer) wars. In 1914, when World War I began, politicians of all hues rallied to the imperial cause.

World War I

Some 330,000 Australians served in World War I; 60,000 died, and 165,000 suffered wounds. Few nations made such relatively heavy sacrifice. The most famous engagement of the Australia and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC) was in the Dardanelles Campaign (1915); the day of the landing at Gallipoli – April 25 – became the preeminent day of national reverence. Even before Gallipoli, Australian troops had occupied German New Guinea, and the Australian warship Sydney sank the German cruiser Emden near the Cocos Islands (November 9, 1914). After the Dardanelles Australians fought primarily in France; Ypres, Amiens, and Villers Bretonneux were among the battles, all marked by slaughter. In Palestine the Australian light horse and cavalry corps contributed to the defeat of the Ottoman Empire [20].

Australia and New Zealand Army Corps troops



The war profoundly affected domestic affairs. Economically, it acted as a super-tariff, benefiting especially textiles, glassmaking, vehicles, and the iron and steel industry. Such products as wool, wheat, beef, and mutton found a readier market in Britain, at inflated prices. But the shock of war affected politics much more, especially by giving full scope to the furious energy of William Morris Hughes, who supplanted Fisher as Labor prime minister in October 1915. Soon afterward he visited Britain. There his ferocity as a war leader won acclaim, and he became convinced that Australia must contribute still more. He advocated military conscription, but many Australians felt that the government should not force men to fight in overseas wars, and the large-scale casualties of the war reinforced this notion. A referendum seeking approval for conscription was defeated in October 1916, and immediately afterward the Labor parliamentary caucus moved no confidence in Hughes's leadership. He continued as prime minister of a "national" government, however, even after losing a second conscription referendum in December 1917. The referenda in particular and war stress in general made these years uniquely turbulent in Australian history. The Labor Party lost other men of great ability along with Hughes. The split solidified a long-standing trend for Roman Catholics to support the party. Hughes's enemies also included the small but growing number of extremists – most notably the Sydney section of the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) – who opposed the war on doctrinaire grounds.

The aftermath of war continued, but finally resolved, this turbulence. Some radicals hoped that returning servicemen would force social change, but instead the Returned Sailors' and Soldiers' Imperial League of Australia (later called the Returned Services League of Australia) became a bastion of conservative order, some of its supporters ready to use physical force against local people they considered "bolsheviks." The Labor Party faltered, its members adopting a more radical socialist type of platform in 1921, but with far from uniform conviction. (In 1918 the name Australian Labor Party [ALP] was adopted throughout Australia.) When the challenge came to Hughes's leadership early in 1923, it arose partly from the conservative-business wing of Hughes's own Nationalist Party (its representative, Stanley Melbourne

Bruce, becoming prime minister) and partly from the Country Party, which from late 1922 held a crucial number of parliamentary seats. Although led by wealthy landowners, the Country Party won support from many small farmers. It benefited too from its former-soldier image and from widespread country-versus-city feeling. Its leader, Earle C.G. Page, had considerable, if erratic, force.

Bruce continued as prime minister until 1929, with Page his deputy in Nationalist-Country coalitions. Bruce strove to buoy the economy by attracting British investment and fostering corporative capitalism. Tariffs, bounties, prices, and public indebtedness all rose. There was considerable administrative innovation – e.g., the Loan Council regulated all government borrowing – and the successful Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (later called the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation [CSIRO]) was established in 1926 to apply scientific expertise to developmental problems. The worldwide development of consumer industry had its impact: the revolution in transportation provided by the automobile is the best example, although full-scale car production was still in the future [20].

With much economic activity subsidized – the exception being one primary product, wool – Australia was particularly vulnerable to the Great Depression of the 1930s. It struck hard: unemployment exceeded one-fourth of the work force and imposed a degree of social misery rarely known in Australian history. The rate of recovery was uneven, manufactures doing better than primary industry. Population growth slowed; at the nadir, emigration exceeded immigration. Politics reflected the impact. James Henry Scullin succeeded Bruce as prime minister in October 1929, but his Labor ministry suffered the real squeeze of events; within the ALP there was considerable division as to how government should react to the Depression. Some favoured a generally inflationist policy, with banks facilitating credit issue and governments extending public works. Right-wing Labor distrusted such a policy; radicals would have gone further by renouncing interest payment on overseas loans. Conservative opinion argued for deflationary policies – curtailed government expenditure, lower wages, balancing the budget, and the honouring of interest

commitments. In June 1931 the Commonwealth and the state governments agreed on a plan, called the Premiers' Plan. Although the plan had some inflationary features, it foreshadowed a one-fifth reduction in government spending, including wages and pensions – a considerable affront to Labor's traditional attitudes.

Against this background the government disintegrated. Before the Premiers' Plan, some Labor right-wingers, led by Joseph Aloysius Lyons, had crossed to the opposition. In November some leftist dissidents voted against Scullin, forcing his resignation. In the elections that followed, Labor suffered a heavy defeat. The new prime minister was Lyons, whose followers had coalesced with the erstwhile Nationalists to form the United Australia Party (UAP). Lyons led a wholly UAP government until 1934 and UAP-Country coalitions until his death in 1939. The Lyons governments provided stability and not much more. Recovery was uneven and sporadic, quicker in manufacturing than in primary industry, aided more by market forces than by governmental planning. Two policies failed to fulfill expectations – the Imperial Economic Conference, held at Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, in 1932, improved trade slightly, but the integrated economic community for which some had hoped never developed. Australia's trade diversion policy of 1936, which tried to redress the imbalance of imports from Japan and the United States, offended those countries and actually reduced exports further. A plan for national insurance, the Lyons governments' most ambitious social legislation, also aborted. These mishaps did not much bother the electorate; improvement, even if meagre, was enough to retain favour [20].

Internal division was the greater threat to the government. This became manifest after Lyons's death. The UAP elected Robert Gordon Menzies its new leader (and therefore prime minister); but the decision was hard fought, and it was criticized publicly and vehemently by Page, still leader of the Country Party. Nevertheless, Menzies retained office; but internal division persisted, the coalition's parliamentary majority was tiny, and Menzies resigned in August 1941. Arthur William Fadden, the new leader of the Country Party, then took office, but in October he gave way to John Curtin and a Labor ministry. While the electorate generally voted conservative,

Australia shared the common Western experience of the interwar years in the rise of a small, vigorous communist movement. Founded in 1922, the Australian Communist Party made most headway in the big industrial unions and in Sydney; it also had some influence and supporters among the intelligentsia, especially in the 1930s. The party suffered a share of internal factionalism but for the most part was able to present a united face to the public. Fascism achieved no formal political recognition in Australia, but there were hints of sympathy toward fascist attitudes – D.H. Lawrence wrote of such in his novel *Kangaroo*, based on a brief visit in 1922; and an “Australia First” movement began in literary nationalism but drifted into race mystique and perhaps even treason. An intellectual movement of more lasting force developed among a group of young Roman Catholic intellectuals in Melbourne in the mid-1930s. They developed a commitment to social justice and against communism, somewhat in the manner of G.K. Chesterton. This was known as the Catholic Social Movement, and it had considerable influence. Whereas Australia had been virtually spoiling for war before 1914, passivity became the international keynote after 1920. At the Paris Peace Conference that formally concluded World War I, Hughes was his fire-eating self, especially in defense of Australia’s interests in the Pacific. Thus he won a mandate for erstwhile German New Guinea and Nauru (an atoll in the central Pacific) and effectually opposed a Japanese motion proclaiming racial equality, which he thought might presage an attack on Australia’s immigration laws. In the League of Nations, Australia was an independent member from the outset. Yet in following years “the empire” became the object of even more rhetoric and more desperate hope than earlier. Australia did not ratify the Statute of Westminster (1931, embodying the 1926 Balfour Report as to the constitutional equality of the dominions) until 1942. The UAP governments followed Britain closely in its attitude toward the totalitarian expansion of the 1930s; if Australian influence counted for anything, it was to strengthen appeasement of Germany and Japan. Although fear of Japan continued, that country’s accession to the fascist camp did not provoke a tougher governmental line. The government suspected that Britain could not control the Eastern Hemisphere but found no answer to that dire problem. The Labor

Party meanwhile was even more incoherent and variable in matters of foreign policy than were its social democratic counterparts elsewhere in the Western world: isolationism and antifascism were equal and opposing forces.

World War II

When war came again, however, the nation's response was firm – some 30,000 Australians died in World War II (1938–45), and 65,000 were injured. From early in the war, the Royal Australian Air Force was active in the defense of Britain. The Australian Navy operated in the Mediterranean Sea (1940–41), helping to win the Battle of Cape Matapan (March 1941). Australian troops fought in the seesaw battles of North Africa. In mid-1941 Australians suffered heavy losses both in the Allied defeats in Greece and Crete and in the victories in the Levant. Meanwhile, the German general Erwin Rommel was scoring his greatest triumphs in North Africa. Out of these emerged the successful Allied defense of Tobruk, carried out substantially by Australians (April–December 1941), and the decisive victory at the battles of El-Alamein, in which an Australian division played a key role. After the Japanese attacked the U.S. naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii (December 7, 1941), however, the focus shifted homeward. The Japanese victories of the following months more than fulfilled the fantasies that fear and hate had long prompted in Australia. On February 15, 1942, 15,000 Australians became prisoners of war when Singapore fell to Japanese forces, and four days later war came to the nation's shores when Darwin was bombed. Then came a Japanese swing southward that by August threatened to overrun Port Moresby, New Guinea [20].

When Australia entered the war, compulsory military training was reintroduced by the Menzies government and commenced in January 1940. All unmarried men age 21 were required to complete three months of compulsory military training in the Citizen Military Forces (also known as the Militia). Because the Defence Act of 1903 restricted conscription to soldiers fighting on Australian land, a separate volunteer force, the 2nd Australian Imperial Force, was established to send troops to fight abroad while the Citizens Military Force defended the homeland and its territories.

In 1942 the worsening situation in the Pacific and in Southeast Asia, along with the consequent threat of a Japanese land invasion in northern Australia, caused widespread panic in Australia and led the government to take drastic measures to protect the country and its territories. John Curtin, leader of the Australian Labor Party, who had succeeded Menzies as prime minister, reversed his strong personal opposition to compulsory overseas military service to allow the government to conscript soldiers to fight the Japanese in the “South-West Pacific Area.” Enacted on February 19, 1943, the Defence (Citizen Military Forces) Act of 1943 extended the defense of Australia to include the territory of New Guinea and adjacent islands, thus allowing for the conscription of Australian troops to serve in the “South-Western Pacific Zone.” The United States became Australia’s major ally. In a famous statement (December 1941), Prime Minister Curtin declared: “I make it quite clear that Australia looks to America, free from any pangs about our traditional links of friendship to Britain.” A sharper note of independence from Britain came when Curtin insisted (February 1942) that Australian troops recalled from the Middle East should return to Australia itself and not help in the defense of Burma (Myanmar) as British Prime Minister Winston Churchill wished. Conversely, American needs prompted total response to Curtin’s call. U.S. Gen. Douglas MacArthur, commander in chief of the South-West Pacific Area, established his headquarters first in Melbourne and then in Brisbane.

The large U.S. military presence in Brisbane was not without problems. When American troops began arriving in Australia in December 1941, their presence was warmly welcomed. However, Australian attitudes toward them began to change, particularly the attitude of Australian soldiers who felt threatened by the attention Australian women showed toward the better-paid, more stylishly uniformed American soldiers. The increasing tension erupted into the “Battle of Brisbane,” two nights of large-scale rioting that took place between Australians and U.S. servicemen in Brisbane’s central business district on November 26–27, 1942. One Australian died and hundreds were wounded on both sides as a result of the violent clash.

Brisbane also figured large in an alleged defense strategy that ultimately proved to be a canard, according to which, in the event of a Japanese invasion, the northern parts of the continent beyond “the Brisbane Line” between Brisbane and Perth were to have been conceded to the enemy without resistance. Supposedly, the objective of this plan was to concentrate Australian armed forces between Brisbane and Melbourne, where most of the crucial industrial regions were located. The idea was that the sheer distance that would have to be traveled by Japanese forces to reach the Brisbane Line would be debilitating for them [20].

During an election campaign in October 1942, Labor minister Edward Ward accused the previous Menzies and Fadden governments of having planned this strategy, though he had no evidence to support his claims. MacArthur’s mention of the “Brisbane Line” to reporters in March 1943 sparked further public concern and controversy. A Royal Commission that operated from June to September 1943, however, determined that no such plan had ever existed as an official policy. Indeed, MacArthur decided that the best way to stop Japanese forces from advancing to Australia was to make a stand in New Guinea.

Meanwhile, on land, the fortunes of war turned against the Japanese in August–September 1942, beginning with an Allied (primarily Australian) victory at Milne Bay, New Guinea. More prolonged – and of more heroic dimension in Australian eyes – was the forcing back of the Japanese from southern New Guinea over the Kokoda Track (or Trail), along which Australian soldiers put up strong resistance against seemingly overwhelming odds. The Japanese, having failed to capture Port Moresby by sea in the Battle of the Coral Sea (May 4–8, 1942), landed in northern New Guinea at the beachheads of Gona and Buna on July 21, 1942, with the intention of taking the New Guinea capital by pushing south over the rugged Owen Stanley Range along the Kokoda Track. In a series of engagements during what proved to be a four-month campaign, Australian troops eventually forced their more powerful adversary to withdraw, retaking the Kokoda region on November 2, 1942. Their actions arguably saved Australia from Japanese invasion and, as such, formed a defining moment in Australian history. The

endurance, courage, “mateship,” and never-give-up attitude the Australian soldiers displayed during the campaign fostered the so-called ANZAC legend, the tradition of the indomitable spirit of Australian troops that began with the original ANZACs in the Gallipoli Campaign of 1915 and continues today as an important element of national identity.

A long attrition of Japanese forces elsewhere in New Guinea and the islands followed the Kokoda Track Campaign, with Australia initially playing a major role and subsequently playing a role secondary to American forces. Both Australian volunteers and conscripts fought in these campaigns, the government and people having accepted the legitimacy of sending conscripts as far north as the Equator and as far west and east as the 110th and 159th meridians. Because defeat in the Battles of the Coral Sea and Midway prevented Japan from continuing to supply its forces in Burma (Myanmar) by sea, the Japanese high command undertook the building of a rail line between Thailand and Burma. In addition to Asian labourers, more than 60,000 Allied prisoners of war (POWs), including about 13,000 Australians, were forced to construct the 260-mile (415-km) Burma (Thai-Burma) Railway Line. Subject to cruel punishment and torture, the POWs also suffered from disease and malnutrition. As a result, more than one-fifth of them, including more than 2,800 Australians, died during the yearlong (October 1942–October 1943) construction of the railway. The will to survive exhibited by the Australian POWs – including Lieut. Col. Ernest Edward (“Weary”) Dunlop, an army surgeon who risked his life by standing up to his Japanese captors to protect the men in his care – contributed further to the ANZAC legend [20].

There were more than two dozen POW camps in Australia. On August 5, 1944, one of the largest POW breakouts in history occurred at the facility in Cowra in east-central New South Wales. In the wee hours of the morning, more than 1,100 Japanese POWs staged a mass breakout, storming the barbed-wire fence surrounding the camp. More than 300 prisoners managed to escape, but within nine days all of the escapees who had not chosen to kill themselves were recaptured. In all, 231 Japanese POWs died as a result of the breakout. The war brought some passion into domestic affairs, albeit

less than in World War I. Curtin's government exercised considerable control over the civilian population, "industrial conscription" being scarcely an exaggerated description. Overall, this was accepted – partly because of the crisis, partly because the government showed purposefulness and capacity. Curtin easily won the 1943 elections. Thereafter, his ministry and the bureaucracy gave considerable thought to postwar reconstruction, hoping to use war-developed techniques to achieve greater social justice in peace.

The war carried industrialization to a new level. The production of ammunition and other matériel (including airplanes), machine tools, and chemicals all boomed. Meanwhile, primary production lost prestige, aid, and skills, so that the 1944 output was but two-thirds that of 1939–40. Urban employment was bountiful, and concentration in the state capitals became more marked than ever. Many families had two or more income earners. Thus, affluence quickened. Federal child endowment from 1940 and rationing of scarce products helped distribute this wealth. The gross national product increased by more than one-half between 1938–39 and 1942–43 and by the end of that time was nearly triple what it had been at the end of World War I.

World War II also proved to be a significant turning point in the role of women, and the wartime efforts of various women's groups and their volunteer service to the community were recognized and praised. More women also joined the workforce to replace men who had left for war, bringing about a significant change in the traditional role of women, who had previously remained in the home to manage domestic responsibilities and raise children. As they became more active in society, women gained respect for the vital assistance they provided to improving sectors of Australian life [20].

7.6 NEW ZEALAND

The British colony of New Zealand became an independent state in 1907. It supported the UK militarily in both World Wars. New Zealand is a group of islands in the South Pacific Ocean, southeast of Australia. The total territory of New Zealand is 268, 680 sq. km. Its climate is temperate. The landscape of the country is mountainous

with some large coastal plains. The highest point is Mount Cook 3,764 meters. Natural resources are natural gas, iron, ore, sand, coal, timber, gold. The population of New Zealand is about 3,910,000. About 80% of the population lives in cities. English, Maori are both official state languages of the country. Independence Day is celebrated on September, 26. Government type is parliamentary democracy. Administrative divisions is the following: 93 counties, 9 districts, and 3 town districts. Since 6 February 1952 the chief of the state is Queen Elizabeth II, represented by Governor General. New Zealand is a country that has volcanoes, mountains, tropical forests and rivers of ice. The aborigines of New Zealand are the Maoris. They call New Zealand the Land of the Long White Cloud. Most population of New Zealand lives on the North Island. The biggest cities of NZ are Auckland, Christchurch and Wellington. Wellington is the capital of NZ since 1865, and one of the biggest ports. Auckland or the former capital is the largest city of the state. South Island is larger than the North Island. There are the highest mountains called Alps, lakes, fiords in this part of the country [7]. Here there is the Sunderland Falls, where water drops from the height of 6 hundred meters. The climate is mild at all seasons. There is no much difference of temperature between winter and summer. North Island is where the Maoris had lived hundreds of years before the white man came. The first colonists appeared on the present territory of Wellington in 1840. They called their settlement Britania. By the year 1842, there were 3 700 colonists in the settlement of Britania and later it was renamed into Wellington.

7.7 ENGLISH OVERSEAS. BRITISH ENGLISH. AMERICAN ENGLISH. CANADIAN AND AUSTRALIAN ENGLISH. NEW ZEALAND ENGLISH

Geographically, English is the most widespread language on Earth, second only to Chinese in the number of people who speak it. It is the language of business, technology, sport, and aviation. Outside the UK and the Republic of Ireland, English is an important language in many countries, and the major language of four – the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. Despite the great distances separating these five

English-speaking communities from each other and from the British Isles and great social and cultural differences between them, the forms of English which they use remain mutually understandable. However, there were a number of points of difference in spelling between the English of the USA and that of Great Britain. The other countries follow the British mode. The major differences are in pronunciation, and, to a lesser degree, in vocabulary and grammar. Canadian English is subject to the conflicting influences of British and American English. On the whole British English has literary influences, while American has a spoken one. There are no important differences in written form between the British English and that of Australia, New Zealand, or South Africa. The literary language of the four countries is virtually identical. Grammatically, too, the English of all four is relatively uniform, except that each has developed its own colloquial idioms. Thus it is in the everyday spoken language that main differences lie. **The term *British English*** is used by linguists to contrast the form of English used in Britain with American English, and also with Australian English, Canadian and so on. British English is English used throughout the UK, but it is understood as the English of England, especially that of southeast England as used by the upper and middle classes. Other varieties are seen as modified, usually less acceptable forms [7]. Modern dialects have roots in Old English or Middle English. Dialects are characterized by use of nonstandard forms such as double negative structures, e.g. I don't want none, variant pronouns such as hisself, theirselves. Most British people can recognize Cockney, someone born in the East End of London. Although this name is given to anyone who speaks like a Londoner.

Cockneys change certain vowel sounds so that the vowel sound in late becomes more like that in light. They pronounce day as [dai] instead of [dei], may as [mai] instead of [mei]. Characteristics of a Cockney accent include dropping the letter "h", e.g. 'ouse for house. They pronounce head like [ed], how like [au]. These and other peculiarities of cockney pronunciation are very well described by the great British playwright Bernard Shaw in his *Pygmalion*. Scottish dialect expressions that are well known to English people are: aye for eyes, wee for little, I dinna ken for I don't know. In Wales dialect

usages include *bolo* for *man*, *look you* for *you see*. Well known Irish dialect forms include *would you be after wanting* for *do you want*.

AMERICAN ENGLISH

Today, there are some differences in vocabulary, pronunciation, and spelling between American and British English. Sometimes, the differences in spelling are because Americans wanted to make things simpler, so that a word would be spelled the way it is pronounced.

Grammar a) Americans use Past Simple in some cases where British people use Present Perfect, (He just went home. He has just gone home.) b) Americans use the verb “have” a little differently in some cases. (Do you have a problem? Have you got a problem?) c) The following verbs are different in AE and BE. (Burn, dream, learn, smell, spoil). They are regular in AE, while in BE they are irregular. d) There are some differences in the use of prepositions. (meet with smb – AE; meet smb – BE. Stay home – AE; stay at home – BE. Protest smth – AE; protest against smth – BE. Spelling a) in AE final – l is not usually doubled in an unstressed position: traveler, leveling. b) Some words end in – ter in AE and in – tre in BE: center – centre, theater – theatre. c) Some words end in – or in AE but in – our in BE: color – colour, behavior – behaviour [7].

Pronunciation a) Americans pronounce [ɪ] where British people pronounce [a:]: can’t, fast, glass, class. b) In BE “r” is pronounced before a vowel. In AE it is pronounced in all positions in a word: car, turn, offer. c) In AE the sound [ju:] after s,t,d,n, is replaced by [u:]: duke, due, reduce.

CANADIAN AND AUSTRALIAN ENGLISH

Canada is officially a bilingual country. English and French are both official languages, but only 12 per cent of the population is bilingual. 60 per cent speaks English, 27 per cent are French speaking. The rest speaks other languages such as Eskimo, Indian, German, Ukrainian and Italian. The most surprising thing about the English

currently used now in Canada is its homogeneity. Regional differences exist, but they are subtle. Almost any American can detect a Canadian in a few minutes' talk; and a Canadian can recognize most Americans. Canadian speech has tended to preserve a national identity. The Canadians listen to the American radio stations, see mainly American films, read American magazines and fiction. Nevertheless, strong as the American influence is it has its limits. The most important limit is set by growing national self-confidence in Canada. Some counter-balance to American influence has also been provided by Canadian participation in two world wars. Young Canadians served for various periods, usually alongside troops from the UK. They brought back a rich vocabulary of English idioms and slang. *Australian English* differ from ordinary English both in vocabulary and in pronunciation so that the term "Australian English" is useful and legitimate. But Australian English is still English, and the vocabulary, even of colloquial conversation, is not very different from that of educated Southern English [7].

Many terms, such as kangaroo, boomerang, dingo come from the Aboriginal language and many others from the Cockney dialect spoken by the first settlers, the Londoners. There are many extensions of the word bush. A person lost or unable to find his way can be said to be bushed. Ropeable means angry. The term derives from an animal so excited and wild that it had to be roped. There are two types of Australian speech – Broad Australian and Educated Australian. Broad Australian is not Cockney. Australian English is particularly interesting for its rich store of highly colloquial words and expressions. Australian colloquialisms often involve shortening a word: smoko (from smoking) means "tea or coffee break; beaut (short for "beautiful") means "great". Because of the current popularity of Australian TV programmes and films, British people are now using some of these words too.

NEW ZEALAND ENGLISH

The differences between New Zealanders and Britons are subtle and not easy to detect. The non-Maori New Zealander has a skin the color of a white man, he speaks

the same language, though with a different accent and with a few unfamiliar words. He dresses in the same manner, though more informally. You will seldom hear the word “Sir” in New Zealand. An introducing in NZ will go like this: “Bill, this is Jack Green”. Bill will grasp your hand and say: “How are you, Jack?”. If he calls you “Mr. Green”, there is probably something wrong with you. A large number of people, born and bred in NZ, speak English as correctly as the best speakers in England. Among the pioneers, and especially among those who became the first school teachers, there were many people who came from London and spoke with what is called a **Cockney accent** [7]. The result, when in the long run a homogeneous manner of speech had been developed throughout the country, was that this type of pronunciation prevailed, and both the various dialects, the Scottish, the Irish and the more correct type were more or less completely submerged. There is also a tendency to speak too fast, to run the words together into a confusion in which the individual sounds are indistinguishable.

EXERCISES

1. Quiz “Do you know?”

1. Canada is ...
 - a. the largest country in the world
 - b. the second largest country in the world
 - c. the third largest country in the world.
2. The capital of Canada is ...
 - a. Montreal b. Toronto c. Ottawa
3. Canada has two official languages. They are
 - a. English and German b. English and French
 - c. English and Canadian
4. The national currency of Canada is ...

- a. the Canadian franc b. the Canadian dollar
 - c. the Canadian pound
5. The official colours of Canada are ...
- a. red and blue b. white and red c. red and gold
6. Canadians have a special celebration in honour of this sweet drink. What is it?
- a. Cola b. lemonade c. maple syrup
7. The world-famous waterfall situated in Canada is ...
- a. Victoria b. Niagara c. Sutherland
8. Canada's national sport is ...
- a. baseball b. football c. ice hockey
9. The Canadian head of state is ...
- a. the Queen b. the President c. the Prime Minister
10. A snow house built by the Inuit (Eskimos) is called ...
- a. an igloo b. a cabin c. a hut
11. What are the official languages in Canada?
- a. English and Spanish b. English and French
 - c. English and German
12. What are the official languages in New Zealand?
- a. English and Maori b. English and French
 - c. English and Spanish
13. Which country between the Indian Ocean and the southern Pacific Ocean is both a continent and an island?
- a. New Zealand b. Papua New Guinea c. Australia
14. Where is New Zealand situated?

- a. in the Atlantic Ocean b. in the Pacific Ocean
 - c. in the Indian Ocean
15. What is the capital of Australia?
- a. Sidney b. Canberra c. Adelaide
16. What is the capital of New Zealand?
- a. Wellington b. Christchurch c. Dunedin
17. What is the floral symbol of Canada?
- a. the maple leaf b. the thistle c. the oak leaf
18. What is the floral symbol of New Zealand?
- a. the rose b. the kowhai c. the daffodil
19. What animals can be seen on Australia's coat of arms?
- a. the koala and parrot b. the dingo and kookaburra
 - c. the kangaroo and emu
20. What is the state system of the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand?
- a. a republic b. a constitutional monarchy
 - c. a limited monarchy
21. What houses does the New Zealand Parliament comprise?
- a. two: the House of Representatives and the Senate
 - b. one: the House of Representatives
 - c. the House of Commons and the House of Lords
22. What is the Canadian national currency?
- a. the Canadian pound b. the Canadian dollar
 - c. the American dollar

23. What is the Australian national currency?
- a. the American dollar
 - b. the Australian pound
 - c. the Australian dollar
24. What is New Zealand's national currency?
- a. the American dollar
 - b. the New Zealand dollar
 - c. the New Zealand pound
25. Which street is called Wall Street of Canada?
- a. Sussex Drive in Ottawa
 - b. Bay Street in Toronto
 - c. Main Street in Montreal

2. Read the first part of the text and answer the questions

Covering most of the northern part of the North American continent and with an area larger than that of the United States, Canada has an extremely varied topography. In the east the mountainous maritime provinces have an irregular coastline on the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Atlantic. The St. Lawrence plain, covering most of southern Quebec and Ontario, and the interior continental plain, covering southern Manitoba and Saskatchewan and most of Alberta, are the principal cultivable areas. They are separated by a forested plateau rising from Lakes Superior and Huron.

Westward toward the Pacific, most of British Columbia, the Yukon, and part of western Alberta are covered by parallel mountain ranges, including the Rockies. The Pacific border of the coast range is ragged with fjords and channels. The highest point in Canada is Mount Logan (19,850 ft; 6,050 m), which is in the Yukon. The two principal river systems are the Mackenzie and the St. Lawrence. The St. Lawrence, with its tributaries, is navigable for over 1,900 mi (3,058 km).

Canada is a federation of ten provinces (Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Labrador, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, and Saskatchewan) and three territories (Northwest Territories, Yukon, and

Nunavut), each with its own capital city. Canada is the largest country (9.9 million square km) in the Western hemisphere and the second-largest country in the world.

Formally considered a constitutional monarchy that is also a parliamentary democracy and a federation, Canada is governed by its own House of Commons. While the governor-general is officially the representative of Queen Elizabeth II, in reality the governor-general acts only on the advice of the Canadian prime minister.

The capital city of Canada is Ottawa, Ontario. The national holiday in Canada is Canada Day which is on the 1st of July. The national symbol of Canada is the maple leaf. Canada has two official languages, French and English. Toronto is the largest city of Canada. It is known for its cleanliness and low crime rate.

In recent years, Canada has introduced some of the world's most liberal social policies. Medical marijuana for the terminally or chronically ill was legalized in 2001; the country began legally dispensing marijuana by prescription in July 2003. In 2003, Ontario and British Columbia legalized same-sex marriage; and more provinces and territories followed in 2004. In July 2005, Canada legalized gay marriage throughout the country, becoming one of four nations (along with Belgium, the Netherlands, and Spain) to do so.

1. What is the geographical location of Canada?
2. What is the landscape of Canada?
3. What is the highest point in Canada?
4. What rivers are there in Canada?
5. How many provinces and territories are there in Canada?
6. What is the political structure of Canada?
7. What is the capital city of Canada?
8. What national holiday is celebrated on the 1st of July?
9. What is the national symbol of Canada?
10. What are the official languages of Canada?

11. What kinds of liberal social policies were legalized?

3. Read the text and make notes

Area	<i>7.7 million square km</i>
Landscape: in the north in the south in the east in the west	
Government	
Inhabitants	
States	
Social privileges	

The continent of Australia (7.7 million square km), with the island state of Tasmania, is approximately equal in area to the United States (excluding Alaska and Hawaii). Mountain ranges run from north to south along the east coast, reaching their highest point in Mount Kosciusko (7,308 ft; 2,228 m). The western half of the continent is occupied by a desert plateau that rises into barren, rolling hills near the west coast. The Great Barrier Reef, extending about 1,245 mi (2,000 km), lies along the northeast coast. The island of Tasmania (26,178 sq mi; 67,800 sq km) is off the southeast coast.

Australia is the flattest and second driest (after Antarctica) continent. Two-thirds of the land is desert. In some places it sometimes doesn't rain for years! The driest and hottest place in Australia is the Simpson Desert. Summer temperatures here can be more than 50° C. The Simpson Desert is famous for its parallel sand dunes. They are the biggest in the world. The most famous dune, Big Red, is 40 metres high.

Until 1901 Australia was a British colony. It is still a monarchy and Queen Elizabeth II of Great Britain is also Queen of Australia. But now Australia is an independent state. Democracy is a characteristic feature of Australia's political system.

Symbolic executive power is vested in the British monarch, who is represented throughout Australia by the governor-general.

The first inhabitants of Australia were the Aborigines, who migrated there at least 40,000 years ago from Southeast Asia. There may have been between a half million to a full million Aborigines at the time of European settlement; today about 350,000 live in Australia. Now the population of Australia is 20 million people. The national currency is Australian dollar.

Dutch, Portuguese, and Spanish ships sighted Australia in the 17th century; the Dutch landed at the Gulf of Carpentaria in 1606. In 1616 the territory became known as New Holland. The British arrived in 1688, but it was not until Captain James Cook's voyage in 1770 that Great Britain claimed possession of the vast island, calling it New South Wales. A British penal colony was set up at Port Jackson (what is now Sydney) in 1788, and about 161,000 transported English convicts were settled there until the system was suspended in 1839.

Free settlers and former prisoners established six colonies: New South Wales (1786), Tasmania (then Van Diemen's Land) (1825), Western Australia (1829), South Australia (1834), Victoria (1851), and Queensland (1859). Various gold rushes attracted settlers, as did the mining of other minerals. Sheep farming and grain soon grew into important economic enterprises. The six colonies became states and in 1901 federated into the Commonwealth of Australia with a constitution that incorporated British parliamentary and U.S. federal traditions. Australia became known for its liberal legislation: free compulsory education, protected trade unionism, the secret ballot, women's suffrage, maternity allowances, and sickness and old-age pensions.

1. What is the geographical location and topography of Australia?
2. What is the political structure in Australia?
3. Who were the first inhabitants of Australia?
4. What is the population of Australia?
5. What is the national currency of Australia?
6. Sailors of what European countries were the first to land on Australia continent?

7. How many colonies were established and what kinds of activities were developed for the raising of economic value?
8. What social privileges are there in Australia?

4. Read the text and find out why Australia is a country of strange and wonderful places, unusual animals and amazing culture

Australia is a fascinating country. It is full of strange and wonderful places, unusual animals and amazing culture. Canberra, the capital of Australia, is the newest city of all. It was designed by Walter Burley Griffin, an American architect, in 1912, and became the capital in 1927. Unlike other capitals, it's very, very quiet. There are lots of trees and a big lake in the centre. Canberra is an Aboriginal word, meaning 'meeting place'.

Coober Pedy is a small town in South Australia, but it is known as the 'opal capital of the world'. 95 percent of the world's opals are mined there. But it's very dry and hot + 40°-50°C for days at a time. So, the most people live under the ground in houses that are dug out of the rock. And tourists who come to Coober Pedy prefer to stay at underground hotels. The Aboriginal name Coober Pedy actually means 'white man in a hole'.

Founded in 1788, Sydney is Australia's oldest city. Its first settlers were British prisoners, women as well as men, who had been sent to this wild land as a punishment. Today, Sydney is the largest city in Australia. It is also home to one of the country's most famous landmarks, the Sydney Opera House. The roof of this beautiful building looks like sails on Sydney Harbour. Near the Opera House is one of the largest bridges in the world – the Sydney Harbour Bridge.

Melbourne, the second largest city, was once the capital of Australia. Today, it's the 'sporting capital' of the country. Australians have their own kind of football, called 'Aussie rules'. The game is unique in the world. It's played by teams of 18 players on an oval field with an oval ball, like a rugby ball. Unlike normal football or rugby, however, the ball can be passed in lots of ways: kicked, hit with the hand and carried.

On the day of the final Aussie rules match, in September each year, everything stops in Melbourne.

Everything is unusual in Australia, even the food. Only in Australia can you find a kangaroo pie, a crocodile steak or smoked ostrich. National holiday in Australia is Australia Day, which is on January 26. It celebrates the first settlement of Australia.

True or false

1. Melbourne is the capital of Australia.
2. Canberra was designed by Walter Burley Griffin, a British architect.
3. The Aboriginal name Coober Pedy actually means 'black man in a hole'.
4. Sydney is the oldest Australian city.
5. Sydney is the largest city in Australia.
6. Sydney is the 'sporting capital' of the country.
7. Australians' own kind of football is called 'Aussie rules'.
8. In Australia one can try unusual food, ex. a kangaroo pie, a crocodile steak or smoked ostrich.
9. Australia Day is the national holiday which is celebrated on January, 2nd.

5. Read the second part of the text and answer the questions

1. Who were the first inhabitants of Canada?
2. Who discovered Canada and when?
3. What other European explorers penetrated to Canada's prairies?
4. What caused the conflict between the French and English?
5. Who won the Seven Years' War (1756–1763)?
6. When and why was the right of Canada to self-government recognized?
7. Why can we say that Canada has a high living standard?

The first inhabitants

The first inhabitants of Canada were native Indian peoples, primarily the Inuit (Eskimo). The Norse explorer Leif Eriksson probably reached the shores of Canada

(Labrador or Nova Scotia) in 1000, but the history of the white man in the country actually began in 1497, when John Cabot, a European explorer, an Italian in the service of Henry VII of England, discovered Canada. He was He sailed to Canada’s east coast with his sons and other crew members on a ship called the “Mathew”.

Canada was taken for France in 1534 by Jacques Cartier. The actual settlement of New France, as it was then called, began in 1604 at Port Royal in what is now Nova Scotia; in 1608, Quebec was founded. France's colonization efforts were not very successful, but French explorers by the end of the 17th century had penetrated beyond the Great Lakes to the western prairies and south along the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico. Meanwhile, the English Hudson's Bay Company had been established in 1670. Because of the valuable fisheries and fur trade, a conflict developed between the French and English; in 1713, Newfoundland, Hudson Bay, and Nova Scotia (Acadia) were lost to England. During the Seven Years' War (1756–1763), England extended its conquest, and the British general James Wolfe won his famous victory over Gen. Louis Montcalm outside Quebec on Sept. 13, 1759. The Treaty of Paris in 1763 gave England control.

At that time, the population of Canada was almost entirely French, but in the next few decades, thousands of British colonists immigrated to Canada from the British Isles and from the American colonies. In 1849, the right of Canada to self-government was recognized. The British North America Act of 1867 created the dominion of Canada created through the confederation of Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick.

Nowadays Canadian citizens share some of responsibilities: to vote in elections, to help others in community, to preserve Canada’s heritage, to obey Canada’s laws, to express opinions freely, while respecting the rights and freedom of others and to eliminate discrimination and injustice. Canada has an extensive social security network, old age pension, unemployment insurance.

6. Read the text and fill in the table

the national capital	<i>Wellington</i>
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the national currency	
official languages	
the national holidays	
the largest cities	

New Zealand, about 1,250 mi (2,012 km) southeast of Australia, consists of two main islands and a number of smaller outlying islands so scattered that they range from the tropical to the antarctic. The country (268,680 thousand square km) is the size of Colorado. New Zealand's two main components are the North Island and the South Island, separated by Cook Strait. The North Island (44,281 sq mi; 115,777 sq km) is 515 mi (829 km) long and volcanic in its south-central part. This area contains many hot springs and beautiful geysers.

The government type of New Zealand is Parliamentary democracy. New Zealand is governed under The Constitution Act of 1986, adopted in 1987, as well as other legal documents. The monarch of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, represented by the governor-general, is the head of state. The government is headed by the prime minister, who is appointed by the governor-general following legislative elections. Members of the 120-seat unicameral parliament (the House of Representatives) are elected by popular vote for three-year terms using a system of mixed constituency and proportional representation. Administratively, the country is divided into 16 regions and one territory (the Chatham Islands). New Zealand is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations.

Maoris were the first inhabitants of New Zealand, arriving on the islands in about 1000. Maori oral history maintains that the Maoris came to the island in seven canoes from other parts of Polynesia. In 1642, New Zealand was explored by Abel Tasman, a Dutch navigator. British captain James Cook made three voyages to the islands, beginning in 1769. Britain formally annexed the islands in 1840.

The Treaty of Waitangi (Feb. 6, 1840) between the British and several Maori tribes promised to protect Maori land if the Maoris recognized British rule.

Encroachment on the land by British settlers was relentless, however, and skirmishes between the two groups intensified.

From the outset, the country has been in the forefront in instituting social welfare legislation. New Zealand was the world's first country to give women the right to vote (1893). It adopted old-age pensions (1898); a national child welfare program (1907); social security for the elderly, widows, and orphans, along with family benefit payments; minimum wages; a 40-hour workweek and unemployment and health insurance (1938); and socialized medicine (1941).

New Zealand fought with the Allies in both world wars as well as in Korea. In 1999, it became part of the UN peacekeeping force sent to East Timor. In recent years, New Zealand has introduced extremely liberal social policies. In June 2003, parliament legalized prostitution and in Dec. 2004, same-sex unions were recognized. In 2005, Helen Clark was reelected.

About 80% of the population lives in cities. Wellington is the southernmost national capital in the world. The national currency is New Zealand dollar. New Zealand has two official languages, English and Maori. The national holidays in New Zealand are Waitangi Day, which is on the 6th of February (it was celebrated when the Treaty of Waitangi established British sovereignty over New Zealand) and ANZAC Day, which is commemorated as the anniversary of the landing of troops of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps during World War I at Gallipoli, Turkey, 25 April. The largest cities in New Zealand are Auckland and Christchurch.

Complete the sentences

1. New Zealand consists of ...
2. The country is the size of ...
3. There are two main components which are ...
4. The government type of New Zealand is ...
5. The head of state is ...
6. The government is headed by ...

7. The country is divided into ...
8. New Zealand is a member of ...
9. The first inhabitants of New Zealand were ...
10. New Zealand was explored by ...
11. New Zealand was the world's first country to ...
12. New Zealand fought with ...

Annex 1. English-Ukrainian glossary of linguistic and cultural terms

- a bishop – єпископ
- a bonfire – багаття
- a deity – божество
- a Deputy Speaker – заступник спікера
- a firework – феєрверк
- a highland – високогір'я
- a holly – падуб, гостролист
- a manifestation – Богоявлення
- a martyr – мученик, мучениця
- a patron saint – святий заступник, покровитель
- a peer – пер, лорд
- a plain – рівнина
- a residency – аспірантура
- a sacrifice – жертвоприношення
- a thesis, a dissertation – дисертація, наукове дослідження
- abundant – рясний, багатий
- amendment – поправка
- an offspring – потомство, нащадок
- Angles, Saxons and Jutes – Англи, Сакси та Юти
- arid – посушливий
- armed forces – збройні сили
- Ash Wednesday – Попільна середа, День покаяння
- assent – королівська санкція
- Associate Justice – помічник Верховного судді
- authority – влада
- boundary – кордон
- Celts – кельти
- chamber – палата

Chief Justice – головний суддя
commodity – товар
conqueror – завойовник
constituency – виборчий округ
contiguous – суміжний, близький
contradictory – суперечливий
core course – основний курс
crusade – хрестовий похід
deciduous – листяний
descendant – нащадок
dominion – володіння
Easter Sunday – перший день Пасхи
Election Day – День виборів
electives – факультативні (вибіркові) дисципліни
Emerald Isle – Смарагдовий острів
encroachment – посягання, вторгнення
entrepreneurial – підприємницький
executive – виконавчий
executive – виконавчий
fertile – родючий
fjord – фіорд
Gaelic – гельський
Good Friday – Страсна п`ятниця
grasslands – пасовища, луки
Gulf of Mexico – Мексиканська затока
Hallowe'en – переддень дня Всіх Святих
Hawaii – Гавайські острови
Hebrides – Гебрідські острови
hemisphere – півкуля

hereditary – спадковий
humid – вологий
hurricane – ураган, вихор
Iberians – іберійці
inclusive – включно
Independence Day – День Незалежності
inland – внутрішній, всередині
Isle of Scilly – острів Сіллі
Isle of Wight – Острів Вайт
judicial – судовий
judiciary – судова влада
jury trials – суд присяжних
Lake Erie – озеро Ері
Lake Huron – озеро Гурон
Lake Michigan – озеро Мічиган
Lake Ontario – озеро Онтаріо
Lake Superior – озеро Верхнє
Law Lords – «лорди закона»
legal – законний, офіційно визнаний
legislative – законодавчий
Lent – Великий піст
leprechaun – лепреконт
Lord Chancellor – лорд-канцлер
Lough Neagh – Лох-Ней
Magna Carta – Велика хартія вольностей
matters of great interest – справи особливої важливості
Memorial Day – День пам`яті загиблих під час війни
Normans – нормани
Orkneys – Оркнейські острови

Palm Sunday – Вербна неділя
peninsula – півострів
Pennine Mountains – Пенінські гори
Picts – пікти
epiphany – Хрещення
prairie – прерія
Puritans – Пуритани
relentless – безжалісний, жорстокий
residence requirement – обов'язкове проживання в даній місцевості
Scots – шотландці
seaboard – узбережжя
secular – світський, мирський
Shetlands – Шетландські острови
Shrove Tuesday – Масляний вівторок
skirmish – сутичка
socially aware – орієнтований на суспільство
sovereign – монарх
succession – спадкоємність
Supreme Court – Верховний суд
Swansea – Свонсі
taxation – оподаткування
Thanksgiving – День подяки
the Appalachian – Аппалачі (гори)
the Cascade range – Каскадні гори
the Crown – Корона
the Cumbrian Mountains – Кумрійські гори
the English Channel – Ла-Манш
the Great Plains – Великі рівнини
the Holy Ghost – Святий Дух

the House of Commons – палата обцин
the House of Lords – палата лордів
The Hundred Years War – Столітня війна
the Labour party – лейбористська партія
the maple leaf – кленовий лист
The Mississippi – річка Міссісіпі
The Missouri – річка Міссурі
The Niagara – річка Ніагара
the Resurrection of Jesus – Воскресіння Ісуса з мертвих
the Rocky Mountains – Скелясті гори
the Sierra Nevada range – Сьєрра-Невада (гори)
to annex – приєднувати
to appoint – призначати
to be associated with – асоціюватись з
to blossom – цвісти
to border on – межувати з
to celebrate – святкувати
to claim expenses – вимагати відшкодування витрат
to commemorate – поминати, святкувати, ознаменувати
to confer honors – присвоювати відзнаки
to declare – проголошувати
to eliminate injustice – ліквідувати несправедливість
to extend conquest – завойовувати
to institute welfare legislation – встановлювати соціальне законодавство
to merge with – об'єднатися з
to penetrate – проникати
to penetrate – проникати
to precede – передувати
to preserve heritage – зберігати спадок

to remit – пом'якшувати (покарання)

to scatter – розкидати, розсипати

to stretch – простягатися, тягнутися

tributary – притока річки

Tudors – Тюдори

two-faced – дволикий

Ulster – Ольстер

wealth – багатство

Carnival – Масниця

Annex 2. English-speaking countries, languages and capitals

Country	Capital (Language)	Country	Capital (Language)
the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	London (English)	Botswana	Gaborone (English, Setswana)
The Republic of Ireland	Dublin (English)	Cameroon	Yaonde (English, French, African language groups)
The United States of America	Washington (English)	Kenya	Nairobi (English, Kiswahili)
New Zealand	Wellington (English, Maori)	Liberia	Monrovia (English, some 20 ethnic group languages)
Malta	Valletta (English, Maltese)	Namibia	Windhoek (English, Afrikaans, German, Oshivambo)
Maldives	Male (Dhivehi (Maldivian), (also English in Government))	Rwanda	Kigali (Kinyarwanda, French, English)
Australia	Canberra (English)	Nigeria	Abuja (English, Hausa, Yoruba, Fulani)
India	New Delhi (English, Hindi, Assamese, Bengali, Telugu and Urdu, and others)	Bangladesh	Dhaka (Bengali, English)
Philippines	Manila (Pilipino, English, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Igorot, Maranao)	Lebanon	Beirut (Arabic, French, Armenian, Assyrian, (also English))
Kuwait	Kuwait (Arabic (also English))	Jamaica	Kingston (English, Creole)
Singapore	Singapore (Chinese, Malay, Tamil and English)	Malaysia	Kuala Lumpur (Malay, Chinese, Tamil, (also English))
Sri Lanka	Colombo (Sinhala, Tamil, (also English in Government))	Barbados	Bridgetown (English)
Jordan	Amman (Arabic, (also English among upper-class))	Grenada	St. Georges (English and French)
Falkland Islands	Stanley (English)	Puerto Rico	San Juan (Spanish, English)

Annex 3. Names of the United States and their origin

The fifty states that comprise the United States of America have received their names from varied sources. Many of them were derived from proper names that were used to honor certain individuals. Others were American Indian words that described the land or the people of that particular area.

Variations from the original words are frequently found, and in some instances the proper meaning or origin of the name is in dispute. The following list shows the most commonly accepted derivations and meanings.

State Name	Probable	Derivation	Nickname
1	2	3	4
Alabama		Indian; named for tribe of Greek Confederacy and tribal town	Cotton
Alaska		Russian version of Aleut word for Alaska Peninsula	
Arizona	“Little spring place”	Spanish version of Pima Indian word meaning “spring”	Grand Canyon
Arkansas	“South wind people”	French version of name of Sioux Indian tribe	Land of Opportunity
California		Supposedly named by the conquistadors for an imaginary island in a	Golden
Colorado	“Red”	Spanish; first given to the Colorado River	Centennial
Connecticut	“Long river place”	Algonquian Indian	Constitution
Delaware		Named after colonial administrator Lord Delaware; also given to	Diamond

Florida	“Flowery”	Spanish; given by Ponce de Leon on Easter Sunday	Sunshine
Georgia		Neo-Latin; named for Kings George I and II by James E. Oglethorpe, col-	Empire State of the South
Hawaii	“Homeland”	Native word	Aloha
Idaho	“Salmon tribe”	Shoshone Indian	Gem
Illinois	“Land of warriors”	French version of Algonquian word Illini, meaning “warriors” or	Prairie
Indiana		So called because Indians lived there	Hoosier
Iowa	“One who puts to sleep”	Sioux Indian; name 'also given to river and tribe	Hawkeye
Kansas	“South wind people”	Sioux Indian	Sunflower
Kentucky	“Plain”	Indian	Blue Grass
Louisiana		Named for Louis XIV of France	Pelican
Maine		French; after Mayne, a former province of France	Pine Thee
Maryland		Named after Queen Henrietta Maria of England, wife of Charles I	Old Line

Massachusetts	“Large hill place”	Indian; named for tribe in Massachusetts Bay area	Bay
Michigan	“Great water”	Chippewa Indian	Walverine
Minnesota	“Cloudy water”	Dakota Sioux Indian; also given to river	Gopher
Mississippi	“Large river”	Indian	Magnolia
Missouri	“Canoeist”	Algonquian Indian; also given to river	Show Me
Montana	“Mountainous”	Latin	Treasure
Nebraska	“Flat shallow”	Omaha Indian, also given to river	Beef
Nevada	“Snowclad mountain”	Spanish <i>sierra nevada</i>	“Silver
New Hampshire		Named after Hampshire, England	Granit
New Jersey		Named after Jersey Island, England	Garden
New Mexico		Spanish <i>nuevo Mexico</i>	Land of Enchantment
New York		Named for James, duke of York, when the English took over the Dutch	Empire

North Carolina		Neo-Latin; named for Charles I and Charles II	Tar Heel
North Dakota	“Friend ally”	Sioux Indian	Sioux
Ohio	“Magnificent, beautiful”	Indian; name also given to river	Buckeye
Oklahoma	“Red people”	Chactow Indian	Sooner
Oregon	“Hurricane”	Origin uncertain; name used by Indians for a river but may have come from	
Pensylvania	“Penn's woodland”	Neo-Latin <i>sylvania</i> ; named in honor of Admiral William Penn,	Keystone
Rhode Island		The island of Rhodes in the Mediteranean Sea	Little Rhody
South Carolina		Neo-Latin; named for Charles I and Charles II	Palmetto
South Dakota	“Friend, ally”	Sioux Indian	Coyote
Tennessee		Cherokee Indian	Volunteer
Texas	“Hello, friend”	Caddo Indian	Lone Star
Utah	“Higher up”	Navajo Indian	Beehive

Vermont	“Green	French <i>vert</i>	Green
	mountains”	(green) and <i>mont</i> (mountain)	Mountain
Virginia		Neo-Latin; named in honor of Elizabeth I, the Virgin Queen of England	Old Dominion
Washington		Named in honor of George Washington	Evergreen
West Virginia		Same as derivation of Virginia	Mountain
Wisconsin	“Grassy place”	Chippewa Indian	Badger
Wyoming	“Large prairie place”	Indian	Equality

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**Н.С. БЕРЕГОВЕНКО
Н.С. ДЕМЧЕНКО**

**Лінгвокраїнознавство країн першої іноземної
мови
(англійська)**

Навчально-методичний посібник

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