

ЗАХІДНОУКРАЇНСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
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Конспект лекцій та завдань для практичних занять
Методичні рекомендації для студентів спеціальності «Філологія»

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INTRODUCTION

The aim of the course “Linguistic country studies” is to develop foreign language communicative competence through adequate perception and understanding of geography, history, politics and culture of the English-speaking countries. The course consists of 15 lectures and 7 workshops.

The objective of the manual “Linguistic country studies” is to develop intercultural communicative competence in specially tailored course adjusted to the needs of learners taking into account structural elements – linguistic, discourse, cross-cultural and, most importantly – linguocultural competence. Linguocultural competence is a system of country-through-language knowledge, extra-linguistic determiners that enable effective communication in the process of crosscultural intercourse and translation studies. The knowledge and skills encompass mastering of the following issues such as background vocabulary: realia, terminology, notions relevant to the country; equivalent and non-equivalent vocabulary and its relation to corresponding units of the native language; traditions and habits of native speakers; regional issues of the country represented in the language, etc. The material presented in the handbook is organized according to the principles of cross-cultural communication, authenticity of culture-oriented information, philological way of cognition and polychannel way of information perceiving.

LECTURE 1

THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND: GEOGRAPHY, CLIMATE AND NATIONAL SYMBOLS

- Geography of the United Kingdom: England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland
- Climate of the UK
- National symbols of the UK: England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland

GEOGRAPHY. The total area of **The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland** is approximately 244,820 square kilometers (94,530 sq. mi). The country occupies the major part of the British Isles archipelago and includes the island of Great Britain, the north-eastern one-sixth of the island of Ireland and some smaller surrounding islands. It lies between the North Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea with the southeast coast coming within 22 miles (35 km) of the coast of northern France, from which it is separated by the English Channel. The Irish Sea separates Great Britain and Ireland. Northern Ireland shares a land border with the Republic of Ireland.

There are two small parts of the British Isles which have special political arrangements. These “*Crown Dependencies*”– *The Isle of Man* and *the Channel Islands* – are not part of the UK. They are largely self- governing with their own legislative assemblies and systems of law. The British Government is, however, responsible for their defense and international relations.

Names. The United Kingdom is the name, which was introduced in 1801 when Great Britain was united with Ireland. When the Republic of Ireland became independent of London in 1922, the title was changed to its present form. In 1937 Southern Ireland was established as *Eire*, an independent sovereign state with its capital in Dublin. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland became known as “The United Kingdom” which is a political expression but “Great Britain” is a geographical expression. “Britain” and “British” have two meanings. They sometimes refer to Great Britain alone and sometimes to the UK including Northern Ireland. “England” and “English” are often incorrectly used to refer to the whole of Great Britain. In addition, *Albion* is Roman name for Great Britain.



United Kingdom Map | England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland

The island of Great Britain contains three “nations” which were separate at earlier stages of their history: **England, Scotland and Wales**.



United Kingdom Physical Map

ENGLAND

England accounts for just over half (53 per cent) of the total area of the UK, covering 130,395 sq km (50,350 sq mi).



England Physical Map

England can be divided into:

1. The Highland Zone

This zone is characterised by rocky, rugged hills and eroded mountain faces, interrupted by valleys and extensive plains. Because these higher lying areas get less sunlight during the day and more rainfall than the lower lying areas, they are generally colder and unsuitable for farming.

The Pennine Mountain Range, Cumbrian Mountains and the mountains of the Lake District are included in the Highland Zone. The Pennines Mountain Range is the oldest of its kind in England, being dated at 300 million years of age. This mountain range measures approximately 400 kilometres or 250 miles in length. The whole area of the Pennines is diverse, boasting valleys, rivers and stark cliff faces as part of its topography. The highest peak in all of England is Scafell Pike (Cumbria), at an amazing 3209 feet or 978 metres above sea level. Devon and Cornwall are situated on a peninsula that is part of the Highland Zone, and is particularly rugged and bare.

2. The Lowland Zone

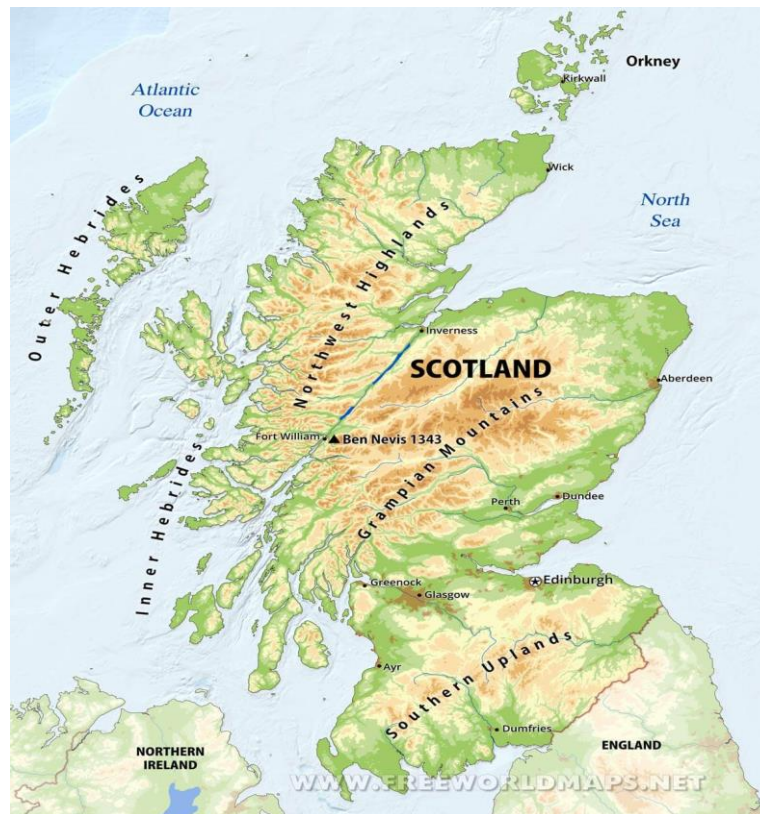
This zone experiences less rain and more sunshine than the high-lying regions. The soil is more fertile, yielding far better crops. The landscape boasts rolling hills that are not very high, making for the ideal place to live and farm.

For this reason, most English inhabitants can be found in the Lowland Zone. The Lowlands include the Cotswold Hills, Chiltern Hills, North Downs and South Downs.

The main rivers are the Thames, the Severn and the Humber. The Thames River is also the country's longest at 346 kilometres in length. The sea gap to France is 34-

35 km and the *Channel Tunnel* near *Dover* links England to Europe.

SCOTLAND



Scotland Physical Map

Scotland (poetically called **Caledonia** or **Alba** with its capital city *Edinburgh* [‘edinbərə]) was not completely united with England until 1707. Scotland accounts for just under one-third (32 per cent) of the total area of the UK, covering 78,772 sq km (30,410 sq mi). This includes nearly 800 islands, predominantly west and north of the mainland; notably the *Hebrides*, *Orkney Islands* and *Shetland Islands*. Scotland is the most mountainous country in the UK and its topography is distinguished by the *Highland Boundary Fault* – a geological rock fracture – which traverses Scotland from Arran in the west to Stonehaven in the east. The fault (лінія розлому) separates two distinctively different regions; namely the *Highlands* to the north and west and the Lowlands to the south and east. The more rugged Highland region contains the majority of Scotland's mountainous land, including *Ben Nevis* which at 1,345 metres (4,413 ft) is the highest point in the British Isles. *Lowland* areas – especially the narrow waist of land between the Firth of Clyde and the Firth of Forth known as the Central Belt – are flatter and home to most of the population including Glasgow, Scotland's largest city, and Edinburgh, its capital and political centre, although upland and mountainous terrain lies within the *Southern Uplands*.

WALES



Wales Physical Map

Wales is located on the western side of central southern Great Britain. To the north and west is the Irish Sea, and to the south is the Bristol Channel. Wales accounts for less than one-tenth (9 per cent) of the total area of the UK, covering 20,779 sq. km (8,020 sq mi).

Much of the border with England roughly follows the line of the ancient earthwork known as Offa's Dyke. The large island of Anglesey lies off the northwest coast, separated from mainland Wales by the Menai Strait, and there are a number of smaller islands. Wales is mostly mountainous, though South Wales is less mountainous than North and mid Wales.

Snowdonia (Welsh: Eryri) in the northwest has the highest mountains, with Snowdon at 1,085 m (3,560 ft) being the highest peak. The 14 (or possibly 15) peaks over 3,000 feet (914 m), all in Snowdonia, are known collectively as the Welsh 3000s.

The Cambrian Mountains run from northeast to southwest and occupy most of the central part of the country. These are more rounded and undulating, clad in moorland and rough. In the south of the country are the Brecon Beacons in central Powys, the Black Mountains spread across parts of Powys and Monmouthshire in

southeast Wales and, confusingly, Black Mountain, which lies further west on the border between Carmarthenshire and Powys.

The main population and industrial areas are in South Wales, consisting of the coastal cities of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport, and the South Wales Valleys to their north. Wales has over 2,704 kilometres (1,680 miles) of coastline. Several islands lie off the Welsh mainland, the largest of which is Anglesey in the north-west. **Wales** (with its capital city **Cardiff**) has become part of the English administrative system by the 16th century. The Welsh call their country **Cymru** [‘kAmri] and themselves **Cymry** [‘kAmri], a word which has the same root as “a friend”.

NORTHERN IRELAND



Northern Ireland Map

Northern Ireland, separated from Great Britain by the Irish Sea and North Channel, has an area of 14,160 sq km (5,470 sq mi) and is mostly hilly. It includes *Lough Neagh* [lok nay] which, at 388 sq km (150 sq mi), is the largest lake in the British Isles by area. The highest peak in Northern Ireland is *Slieve Donard* in the *Mourne Mountains* at 852 metres (2,795 ft). (The capital city of Northern Ireland is **Belfast**).

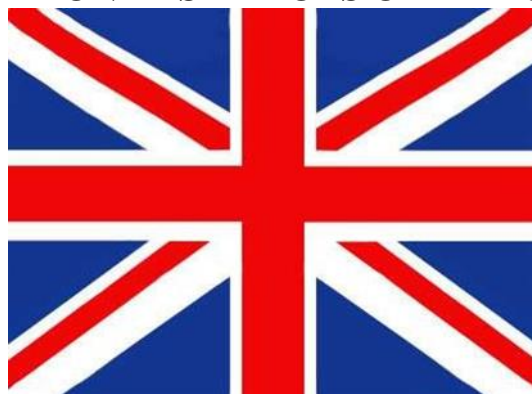
CLIMATE OF THE UK

The country's climate is described as being temperate maritime. This means that the weather in the country is in general mild, cloudy, wet and windy. The country's wide geographic variations cause localized differences in amounts of sunshine, rainfall and temperature. Winter temperatures seldom plummet below zero degrees Celsius, while summer highs can reach about 30 degrees Celsius. January and February are coldest and usually experience snowfall, while July is the hottest month. England is a relatively wet country due to its proximity to the Atlantic Ocean. This, in turn, has created a lush land of greenery and blooms.

The climate of most of Scotland is temperate and oceanic, and tends to be very changeable. As it is warmed by the Gulf Stream from the Atlantic, it has much milder winters (but cooler, wetter summers) than areas on similar latitudes, such as Labrador, southern Scandinavia. However, temperatures are generally lower than in the rest of the UK, with the temperature of $-27.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($-17.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$) recorded at *Braemar* in the Grampian Mountains, on 11 February 1895, the coldest ever recorded anywhere in the UK. Winter maxima average $+6\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($43\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$) in the Lowlands, with summer maxima averaging $18\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($64\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$). The highest temperature recorded was $+32.9\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($91.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$) at *Greycrook*, Scottish Borders on 9 August 2003.

Snow only falls occasionally and does not remain for long, except in the Scottish mountains. Average temperatures in England and Wales vary from $+4\text{C}$ in January to $+16\text{C}$ in July and August. In Scotland averages are one or two degrees cooler. The wind brings rain from the Atlantic to the hills of the west. This means that western parts of Britain are wetter than the east, which is fairly sheltered. London is drier than continental cities such as Hamburg.

NATIONAL SYMBOLS OF THE UK



British flag – Union Jack

The flag of Britain, commonly known as the **Union Jack** (which derives from the use of the Union Flag on the jack-staff of naval vessels), embodies the Union of three countries under one Sovereign. The emblems that appear on the Union Flag are the crosses of three patron saints: the red cross of St. George, for England, on a white ground; the white diagonal cross of St. Andrew, for Scotland, on a blue ground; the red diagonal cross of St. Patrick, for Ireland, on a white ground. The final version of the flag appeared in 1801, following the union of Great Britain with Ireland. The cross remains in the flag although now only Northern Ireland is part of the UK. Wales

is not represented in the Union Flag because, when the first version of the flag appeared, Wales was already united with England. The national flag of Wales – a red dragon on a field of white and green – dates from the 15th century.



The national emblem of the UK

In the centre of the national emblem is situated a heraldic shield, divided into 4 parts. Left upper part and right lower part symbolize England (3 gold leopards on a red ground). Right upper part – Scottish emblem (a red lion on a gold ground). Left lower part – Irish emblem (yellow harp on a blue ground). Around the shield there is a garter with French words “*Honi soit qui mal y pense*” (“*Evil be to him who evil thinks*”). This garter symbolizes the Order of Garter (Орден підв’язки), an ancient order of knighthood founded by Edward III in 1348, of which the Queen is the Sovereign. The shield is held by two Royal Beasts – the Lion with the crown in the left, the Unicorn in the right. Under them there is a blue ribbon with words “*Dieu et mon droit*” (*God and my right*) chosen by Richard I which since then have been the official motto of the Sovereign. In the background there is *rose (England), thistle (Scotland), trefoil (Ireland), and leek (Wales)*.

It is very important to view four parts of the United Kingdom:

ENGLAND

Capital – London

Population - 53.012.456

Area -130.395 sq. km (53 per cent of the total area of the UK)

Patron Saint - St. George

England is part of the United Kingdom. It is situated to the west of Eurasia and has an extensive coastline. England makes extensive use of its inland waterways, such as its rivers. The Thames River, Mersey River and Tyne River are particularly important as they have formal ports in London, Liverpool and Newcastle respectively. When the tide is high, ships can travel along these rivers and into the ports. The Thames River is also the country’s longest at 346 kilometres in length.

England enjoys many national symbols, which are used extensively in political, social, cultural and even religious spheres, to represent this diverse land. These include:

Flag

The flag of England is represented by a red cross on a white background. This is known as St. George's Cross and has its origins in the Crusades (12th and 13th centuries), when soldiers were identified by this red-coloured cross on their white tunics. St. George was claimed to be the Patron Saint of England at the time, so the cross became associated with him.



St. George's Cross

The national flower of England is the rose. The flower has been adopted as England's emblem since the time of the Wars of Roses (civil wars) – 1455-1485 between the royal House of Lancaster (whose emblem was a red rose) and the royal House of York (whose emblem was a white rose). With the defeat of King Richard III (of York) by the future Henry VII on 22 August 1485, the two roses were united into the Tudor rose (a red rose with a white centre) when Henry VII married Elizabeth of York.



The Tudor Rose

The Tudor Rose, also known as the Rose of England, was adopted as a symbol of peace and merges a white rose (representing the Yorkists) and a red rose (representing the Lancastrians). During the War of the Roses, these two sides fought over the control of the royal house.



The Banner of the Royal Arms

It is the official English banner of arms and represents the sovereignty of the rulers of England. It comprises three horizontally positioned gold lions, which face the observer. Each has a blue tongue and blue claws and is set against a deep red background. Because the lion is symbolic of bravery, it was frequently used to depict the courageous warriors of medieval England. Today, it remains the national animal of the country and is used extensively in sports, team names, logos, icons, and so on.

St Edward's Crown

This is one of the senior British Crown Jewels. It is the official coronation crown and is used in the coronation of English, British, and Commonwealth monarchs. It is also used as an image on various items, such as coats of arms and badges.



St. Edward's Crown

SCOTLAND

Capital - Edinburgh

Area -78772 sq. km (32 per cent of the total area of the UK)

Population - 5.2 million

Official Language - English, Gaelic, Scots

Saint patron St. Andrew

National symbols -Thistle

Scotland is a part of the United Kingdom (UK) and occupies the northern third of Great Britain. Scotland's mainland shares a border with England to the south. It is home to almost 800 small islands, including the northern isles of Shetland and Orkney, the Hebrides, Arran and Skye.



The Scottish flag or 'saltire'

The Scottish flag or 'saltire' is derived from the cross of St Andrew, Scotland's patron saint and presents the white diagonal cross of St. Andrew on a blue ground.



The Royal Banner of Scotland

The Royal Banner of Scotland, a banner showing the Royal Arms of Scotland, is also frequently to be seen, particularly at sporting events involving a Scottish team. Often called the Lion Rampant (after its chief heraldic device), the banner is property of the monarch and use without authority can constitute a criminal offence



The thistle

The national flower of Scotland is the *thistle* which was first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defense. There is a legend which relates how a sleeping party of Scots warriors were almost set upon by an invading band of Vikings and were only saved when one of the attackers trod on a wild thistle with his bare feet. His cries raised the alarm and the roused Scots duly defeated the Danes. In gratitude, the plant became known as the Guardian Thistle and was adopted as the symbol of Scotland.

Scottish people have a worldwide reputation for warmth and friendliness. Whether it is the millions of visitors who travel to Scotland every year or the thousands who come to live permanently, so many talk of a genuine friendliness and a welcoming hospitality. Scottish people are proud of their nationality but they also have a long tradition of welcoming new people and cultures. Historically, Scotland has appreciated the benefits of embracing different cultures.

Today, Scotland is a richly diverse country with dozens of different cultures living in harmony. Tolerance, equality of opportunity and social justice are important principles of Scottish people and communities.

WALES

Area - 20,779 sq. km (9 per cent of the total area of the UK)

Population 3,153,000 mln

Capital - Cardiff

Languages - Welsh, English

The national flag of Wales - a red dragon on a field of white and green

It is bordered by England to the east, the Irish Sea to the north and west, and the Bristol Channel to the south. It had a population in 2011 of 3,063,456 and has a total area of 20,779 km² (8,023 sq mi). Wales has over 1,680 miles (2,700 km) of coastline and is largely mountainous with its higher peaks in the north and central

areas, including Snowdon (Yr Wyddfa), its highest summit. The country lies within the north temperate zone and has a changeable, maritime climate.



The Flag

Wales is not represented in the Union Flag because, when the first version of the flag appeared, Wales was already united with England. The national flag of Wales - a red dragon on a field of white and green — dates back to the 15th century.

The National Flower

The national flower of Wales is usually considered to be the **daffodil**; however, humble **leek** (цибуля-порей) is also considered to be a traditional emblem of Wales, possibly because its colours, white over green, echo the ancient Welsh standard. According to legend the patron saint of Wales, Saint David, ordered his Welsh soldiers to identify themselves by wearing the leek on their helmets in an ancient battle against the Saxons that took place in a leek field.



NORTHERN IRELAND

Area – 14,130 sq. km

Population – 1,893,700 mln

Languages English, Irish, Ulster Scots

Capital Belfast

Flag of Northern Ireland - St Patrick's Saltire

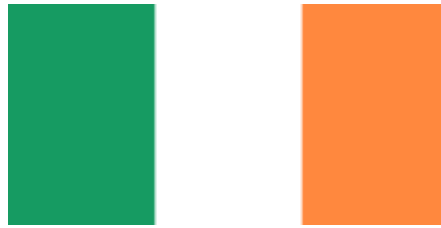
The national flower - the shamrock

Northern Ireland is a part of the United Kingdom that is variously described as a country, province, territory or region. Located in the northeast of the island of Ireland, Northern Ireland shares a border to the south and west with the Republic of Ireland. In 2011, its population was 1,810,863, constituting about 30% of the island's population and about 3% of the UK's population. The Northern Ireland Assembly (colloquially referred to as Stormont after its location), established by the Northern Ireland Act 1998, holds responsibility for a range of devolved policy matters, while other areas are reserved for the British government. Northern Ireland co-operates with the Republic of Ireland in several areas.

Northern Ireland was created in 1921, when Ireland was partitioned by the Government of Ireland Act 1920, creating a devolved government for the six northeastern counties.

Flags

The flag of Ireland



The flag of Ireland is a tricolour of green, white and orange, first flown in 1848. The colours stand for Irish Catholicism, Irish Protestantism, and peace between the two.

Flag of Northern Ireland (1953–73)

St Patrick's Saltire

The flag of Northern Ireland (Ulster Banner) was used officially between 1953 and 1973. The Union Jack is also used prominently in Northern Ireland and has been the flag of the United Kingdom since 1801. It is derived by combining Saint George's Cross (for England), St Andrew's Saltire (for Scotland) and Saint Patrick's Saltire.



The national flower of Northern Ireland is the **shamrock** (трилисник), a plant similar to clover which is said to have been used by St. Patrick to illustrate the doctrine of the Holy Trinity.



Population. The current population (2021) of the United Kingdom is 68.2 million. It is the 21st most populated country in the world and has a population density of 259 people per square kilometer (671 people per square mile), with England having significantly greater density than Wales, Scotland, and Northern

Ireland. England accounts for about 84%, Scotland – 9%, Wales – 5%, Northern Ireland – 3%.

LECTURE 1. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

Complete the following sentences.

1. The total area of the United Kingdom is approximately 244,820 sq. km.
2. The country occupies the major part of _____ archipelago and includes the island of _____, the north-eastern part of the island of _____.
3. It lies between _____ Ocean and the _____ Sea with the southeast coast coming within 22 miles (35 km) of the coast of northern France, from which it is separated by _____ Channel.
4. England covers 130,395 sq. km and accounts for just over half (___ per cent) of the total area of the UK.
5. England's highest mountain is Scafell Pike (978 metres) in the Lake District. The longest river is _____.
6. The flag of England is represented by a red cross on a white background known as _____.
7. The national flower of England is _____.
8. Scotland accounts for just under one-third (____ per cent) of the total area of the UK, covering 78,772 sq.km.
9. Scotland is the most mountainous country in the UK including _____ which at 1,345 metres is the highest point in the British Isles.
10. Symbols of Scotland are: the flag presents the white diagonal cross of St. Andrew on a blue ground, Saint patron - _____, flower – _____.
11. Wales accounts for less than one-tenth (____ per cent) of the total area of the UK, covering 20,779 sq. km.
12. The Welsh call their country _____.
13. The National Flowers are _____ and _____.
14. The national flag of Wales is a _____.
15. The patron saint of Wales is _____.
16. Northern Ireland, separated from Great Britain by _____ Sea and _____ Channel, has an area of 14,160 sq. km and is mostly hilly.
17. It includes _____ which is the largest lake in the British Isles by area. Flag of Northern Ireland is _____.
18. The national flower is _____.
19. The country's climate is described as being _____.
20. This means that the weather in the country is in general mild, cloudy, wet and windy.
21. The flag of the UK, commonly known as _____ (which derives from the use of the Union Flag on the jack-staff of naval vessels), embodies the Union of _____ countries under one Sovereign.
22. The capital of the UK is _____, the capital of England is _____, the capital of Scotland is _____, the capital of _____ is Cardiff, the capital of Northern Ireland is _____ and the capital of the Republic of Ireland is _____.

LECTURE 2.

HISTORY OF BRITAIN

- Prehistory
- Roman Britain
- Anglo-Saxon Britain
- Viking Britain.
- Norman Britain
- The Medieval Britain
- Tudor Britain
- Stuart Britain
- George (Hanoverian) Britain
- Victorian Britain
- Modern Britain

Prehistory 6000 BC – 800 BC

Britain becomes separated from the European mainland. Following the end of the last Ice Age, around 10,000 years ago, the levels of the North Sea began to rise as waters formerly locked up in great ice sheets melted. Sometime after about 8200 BC the last dry 'land bridge' from Lincolnshire and East Anglia to Holland was taken over by salt marsh. By 6000 BC even the marshes had largely gone, drowned by the sea.

4500 BC - 2500 BC

Farming techniques are introduced from the continent. Before 4500 BC, Palaeolithic and Mesolithic (Early and Middle Stone Age) people were nomads, hunting and gathering wild plants. In the middle of the fifth millennium BC, a new way of life, based on farming plants and animals, was introduced from the continent. The replacement of hunting and gathering was gradual and wasn't completed until the latter part of the third millennium BC in Britain. Once farming was established, communities began to settle down.

Simple pottery begins to be made. Pottery arrived in Britain with the first farmers. In addition, sophisticated stone tools like axes, knives are made using new polishing techniques.

Houses become increasingly solid and permanent. Neolithic (Late Stone Age) houses were more permanent with thatched roofs and walls of woven hazel or willow rods, wind-proofed with a mixture of clay, straw and dung. Earlier Neolithic houses were often rectangular, but by about 3000 BC roundhouses may have become more important. This coincides with the appearance of circular ritual monuments, such as henges and passage graves.



Stonehenge

First ceremonial centres appear. The first ceremonial meetings where different communities came together took place inside 'causewayed' enclosures, named from the roughly circular ditches. Most of the ditches were filled in and re-opened at intervals, and the ditch fillings included offerings like human and animal skulls, meat bones, pottery and unused stone axes. In many cases the areas around the enclosures subsequently developed into 'ritual landscapes'. First stone circles and 'hengese' are built. Although stone circles occur on the European mainland, 'hengese' are a uniquely British and Irish phenomenon. The best known are at Stonehenge and Avebury in Wiltshire.

Metalworking develops with improvements in furnace (oven, fire) technology.

Following the introduction of pottery two millennia previously, the appearance of metalworking was another important technological step in the control of heat and the production of ever-higher temperatures using small furnaces and hide bellows. The earliest British metalwork was made of pure copper, bronze or gold. Gold was used for ornaments and jewelry, bronze and copper for spearheads, axes, knives. More sophisticated metal weapons and ornamentation appear in the Bronze Age (1500-1200 BC). Production of metal objects increases and diversifies rapidly.

800 BC

Soon after 800 BC, Britain was invaded by the Celts - a new group of immigrants. Celtic culture and tribal kingdoms start to emerge. Changes in religion, ceremonial and burial practices imply social change. The new structure persisted through the Iron Age and has been labelled as 'Celtic'. They belonged to several different groups, but all used a form of the same language, called *Celtic*. These newcomers are therefore called Celts.

Genetic history of English. Some historians believe that the Celtic language had already spread to Britain earlier in the Bronze Age, perhaps as a result of trade with Europe. It seems probable that the later Bronze Age controlling elites comprised a larger proportion of society and may have been centred upon a 'warrior aristocracy'. This is the period when the numerous tribes of Britain began to combine into the larger groupings that became the named tribal kingdoms of the Iron Age.

Roman Britain 55 BC – 400 AD

The Romans, led by Julius Caesar, landed in 55 BC in the Southern part of the island of Great Britain. After Caesar's expeditions, the Romans began a serious and

sustained attempt to conquer Britain in 43 AD. They landed in Kent with four legions and defeated two armies led by the kings of the Catuvellauni tribe, Caratacus and Togodumnus, in battles at the Medway and the Thames. A number of kingdoms were established, and the rest became a Roman Province over the next years, the territory was consolidated and the future emperor Vespasian led a campaign into the Southwest where he subjugated two more tribes. By 54 AD the border had been pushed back to the Severn and the Trent, and campaigns were underway to subjugate (conquer, підкоряти) Northern England and Wales.

But in 60 AD, under the leadership of the **warrior-queen Boudicca**, the Celtic tribes Iceni rebelled against the Romans. At first, the rebels had great success. They burned Camulodunum, Londinium and Verulamium (modern-day Colchester, London and St. Albans respectively) to the ground. There is some archaeological evidence that the same happened at Winchester. The legends tell all south east Britain came to her side ready to die for her Queen who was fierce enough to take on the Roman Empire. In the end, the rebels were said to have killed 70,000 Romans and Roman sympathisers. Paulinus gathered what was left of the Roman army. In the decisive battle, 10,000 Romans faced nearly 100,000 warriors somewhere along the line of Watling Street, at the end of which Boudicca was utterly defeated. It was said that 80,000 rebels were killed, but only 400 Romans. **The statue of Boudicca** is now by *London's Westminster Bridge*.



The statue of Boudicca

Over the next 20 years, the borders expanded slightly, the Romans never ventured much into Wales and kept out of Scotland by the Picts by **Hadrian's Wall** built in 138 AD, despite temporary forays into Scotland.

The Romans and their culture stayed in Britain for 350 years before their

presence weakened by the 5th century when they had left. Roman rule in Britain ended when the Roman Empire declined. In 368, Pictish tribes severely damaged Hadrian's Wall and destroyed much of northern Roman Britain. Roman forces withdrew steadily from Britain to Gaul and Italy. By 400, Hadrian's Wall and the forts of Cambria were abandoned. By the time the Roman armies left, they had established medical practice, a language of administration and law and had created great public buildings and roads, central heating, concrete, aqueducts (bridges for water, wells)

Anglo-Saxon Britain. Christianisation 450 -700

The Roman army left Britain about AD 410. When they had gone there was no strong army to defend Britain, and tribes called the Angle, Saxon, and Jute (the Anglo-Saxons) invaded. They left their homelands in northern Germany, Denmark and northern Holland and rowed across the North Sea in wooden boats. The Battle of Deorham was a critical in establishing Anglo-Saxon rule in 577.

Some sagas and oral poetry retell the events that when the Roman army departed the Isle of Britannia in the 4th century, the indigenous Britons were invaded by **Picts**, their neighbours to the north (now Scotland) and **the Scots** (now Ireland). Britons invited the Saxons to the island to repel them but after they vanquished the Scots and Picts, the Saxons turned against the Britons.

Seven kingdoms are traditionally identified as being established by these migrants. Three were clustered in the South east: *Sussex, Kent and Essex*. The Midlands were dominated by the kingdoms of *Mercia and East Anglia*. To the north was *Northumbria* which unified two earlier kingdoms, *Bernicia and Deira*.

The Anglo-Saxons made *little use for towns and cities*. They had a great effect on *countryside*, where they introduced new farming methods and founded thousands of self-sufficient villages which formed the basis of English society for the next thousands or so years.

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

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

St. Augustine, a missionary from Rome, brought **Christianity** to the Anglo-Saxons in the south. *Augustine of Canterbury* was a Benedictine monk who became the first Archbishop of Canterbury in the year 597. He is considered the "*Apostle to the English*" and a founder of the *English Church*.

Viking Britain. English unification. 700-1066

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

Ireland.

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

The Anglo-Saxons understood that their small kingdoms must unite to struggle against the Danes successfully. At the beginning of the 9th century, **Wessex** became the leading kingdom. Egbert, the king of Wessex, united several neighbouring kingdoms and became the first king of the united country. Since 829, the greater part of the country was united under the name "England". An important event that contributed to the unification of the country and the development of culture was the adoption of **Christianity in England in 664**. Wessex united the rest of England in the fight against the Danes.

In the 800's, Wessex became the politically dominant kingdom. Egbert, its king, conquered the Welsh of Cornwall in 815. In 825, he defeated Mercia and after 827, local kings still ruled in East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria, but Egbert claimed to rule the whole of England.

Egbert's successors (спадкоємець) include Alfred the Great, one of England's most significant early monarchs. Alfred was a great statesman, general, and man of letters. He wrote and translated books, opened schools, formed laws, and helped to found England's navy.

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

Their conquest of England was halted when King **Alfred the Great** (871-901) defeated them in 886. This resulted in a treaty that divided England between Wessex and the Danes.

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

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

By 954, Wessex had conquered the Danelaw. Nevertheless, new Danish raiders arrived in the later 900's. King *Ethelred II* tried to buy them off with money raised from a land tax called *Danegeld*. But by 1013, the Danes had conquered most of England. However, the cultural differences between the Anglo-Saxons and Danes were comparatively small. They led roughly the same way of life and spoke two varieties of the same Germanic tongue. Moreover, the Danes soon converted to Christianity. These similarities made political unification easier, and by the beginning of the eleventh century, England was one kingdom with a *Germanic culture throughout*. Danish influence is still felt in some place-names ending in **-by**, **-toft**, such as **Appleby or Lowestoft**, as well as in the presence of some words in the

English language.

In 1016, *Canute, king of Denmark and Norway*, became king of England. On Canute's death in 1035, his empire collapsed. In 1042, *Ethelred's son, Edward*, became king.

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

The Norman Britain. The Wales' annexation. 1066-1337

The Normans were Viking and Slav settlers in France who had become the ruling elite, displacing the Gaelic and Celtic tribes of France from power. A long series of disputes between the Normans and the English resulted in the invasion of England.

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

When Edward the Confessor died, Godwin's son *Harold* became king. His right to become king was immediately challenged by *William, Duke of Normandy* (now part of northwestern France). The Normans were a people descended from Vikings (the Northmen) who had settled around the River Seine. They had adopted Christianity and the French language and had become powerful. William claimed the English throne because he was distantly related to Edward. Edward had been brought up in Normandy and supported William's claim. However, Edward's death left power with Godwin's family, so Harold II came to the throne.

At the Battle of Hastings on October 14, 1066 the Normans defeated the Saxons and Harold was killed. William I was crowned king of England at Westminster Abbey, London, on Christmas Day, 1066. He is known in popular history as '*William the Conqueror*'. The date is remembered for being *the last time that England was successfully invaded*.

The Normans settled in the country, and *the French language* became *the official language* of the ruling class for the next three centuries. This explains the great number of French words in English. The successful Norman invasion of England in 1066 brought Britain into the mainstream of western European culture. William was a Norman king who saw England as an extension of his French domains. He exercised strict and systematic control over his conquests. He raised taxes and redistributed land, granting most of it to barons (noblemen) thus establishing feudalism.

The economy of England had been expanding for at least a century before the Norman conquest, and was characterised by growing markets and sprawling towns. It remained a notably hierarchic society, and the process of conquest itself strengthened the role of lordship.

The Domesday Book, the product of William I's great survey of his realm in 1086, shows that the 11 leading members of the aristocracy held about a quarter of the realm. Another quarter was in the hands of fewer than 200 other aristocrats. The Normans had an enormous influence on architectural development in Britain they built about 1000 castles: *A lord might display his wealth, power and devotion through a combination of castle and church in close proximity.*

Richard I (the Lion Heart), who reigned from 1189 to 1199, wasted England's resources on crusades in the *Holy Land*. John, Richard's brother, reigned from 1199 to 1216. He clashed with his barons and lost many of his French lands.

Henry's heir, Edward, crushed the rebellious barons. In 1272, he succeeded Henry III as King Edward I. Like Henry II, Edward was a man of authority. He passed important laws and skillfully influenced the development of Parliament. In 1215, It was accepted **Magna Carta**, a charter that brought benefits to the common people as well as the barons. He suppressed a Welsh rebellion and annexed (joined) **Wales to England in 1282**. The annexation was not confirmed by a political Act of Union until **1536**. Apart from a revolt led by Owen Glendower (Owain Glyn Dwr) in the 1400s, Wales's political independence was ended by Edward I's military victories. Edward also brought Scotland under English control for a time.

The Medieval Britain. The Hundred Years' War. 1337-1485

Years of conflict. The strong system of government that the Anglo-Norman kingdom was the most powerful political force in the British Isles. Not surprisingly therefore, the authority of the English monarch gradually extended to other parts of these islands in the next 200 years.

Wales was the first to be conquered by England. Before they were conquered by the English in the thirteenth century different Welsh tribes were continually fighting one another. In 1282 *Prince Llewellyn* was killed in battle and King of England Edward I started a successful campaign to conquer Wales. Eventually the country was subdued, but the English never felt safe there because of Welsh opposition. This explains why the English built so many castles here.

At the same time Edward I of England made his eldest son, his heir, bear the title Prince of Wales in 1301 (at which time the custom of naming the monarch's eldest son the 'Prince of Wales' began).

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

Scotland managed to be independent for quite a long time, though the English tried hard to conquer it. In the 14th century, *Robert Bruce* led the struggle against the English, but he was defeated by the English king Edward I. Bruce managed to organize a new army and defeated the English. However, some years later Edward II, the new English king, decided to attack Robert Bruce in Scotland. He managed to cross the border but in the battle of Bannockburn (1314), the English were very seriously defeated, and Scotland continued to be independent for the next three centuries.

Life in the period. The cultural story of this period is different. *Two hundred and fifty years* after the Norman Conquest, it was a Germanic language (Middle English) and not the Norman (French) language that was spoken by all classes of society in England.

Despite English rule, northern and central Wales was never settled in great numbers by Saxons or Normans. As a result, the (Celtic) Welsh language and culture remained strong. The Anglo-Norman lords of eastern Ireland remained loyal to the English king but mostly adopted the Gaelic language and customs.

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

It was in this period that Parliament began its gradual evolution into the democratic body, which it is today. The word 'parliament' which comes from the French word '*parler*' (*to speak*), was first used in England in the thirteenth century to describe an assembly of nobles called together by the king. In 1295, the Model Parliament set the pattern for the future by including elected representatives from urban and rural areas.

In the mid-1300's, the feudal way of life began to decline. This decline was speeded by the Black Death, a plague (чума) that spread from China across Europe. The disease killed 50% of the population within a year, but the main effect was that it returned with alarming regularity in 1361, 1374 and regularly thereafter until it disappeared from Britain in about 1670.

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

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

The Hundred Years' War between England and France also contributed to the decline of feudalism in England. This war was actually a series of wars that lasted from 1337 to 1453.

The wars began well for King Edward III, with two major English successes. The French recovered during the reigns of Richard II and Henry IV. Henry V resumed the attack on France in the early 1400s. When the war ended in 1453, England had lost all its French possessions except Calais.

The English noblemen returned to England with their soldiers, many of whom became unemployed. These soldiers knew no craft but fighting.

Two years after the end of the Hundred Years' War, the private armies began to fight a series of civil campaigns called the **Wars of the Roses** (1455-1485). Two groups of nobles, *Lancastrians and Yorkists*, fought for control of the throne. For badges, the Lancastrians wore red roses, and the Yorkists wore white roses. The wars resulted from the conflicting claims of two royal houses. The House of Lancaster was descended from Henry IV, and the rival House of York was descended from another son of Edward III, Edmund, Duke of York.

In 1485, **Henry Tudor**, a Lancastrian claimant, landed in Wales with an army. He defeated and killed Richard in a battle at Bosworth Field in Leicestershire, and became king as Henry VII.

Tudor Britain. Church of England. Acts of Union with Wales. 1485-1603

In 1485, England and Wales came under the strong rule of the Tudors (1485-1603). The Tudor monarchs increased the power of the Crown and achieved good government and internal peace and order. Changes in farming and in manufacturing brought increased prosperity. The exploits of seamen led to the expansion of trade and the beginnings of colonization.

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

Henry VIII is remembered in history as one of the most powerful kings of England. He changed the face of England, passing **the Acts of Union with Wales** (1536-1543), and became the first ruler to declare himself king of both Wales and Ireland. In 1533, Henry VIII divorced Catherine of Aragon to remarry Anne Boleyn who gave birth to *Elizabeth*. Henry VIII formed the '**Church of England**' separating England from the Roman Catholic Church. Henry himself was never a Protestant, but the break with Rome was a huge encouragement to Protestants in England.

In the early 1500s, parts of Europe became *Protestant*. Protestant influences reached England and increased religious discontent there. Many English people resented papal taxation and clerical privilege and wealth. Many wanted an English Bible and church services in English instead of Latin.

The English Reformation coincided with Henry VIII's attempt to get papal agreement for his divorce. The Reformation abolished the pope's authority over the Church of England. In 1534, Parliament made Henry head of the Church of England. Henry did not favour Protestant ideas, so worship changed little during his reign. However, an English Bible was placed in every church for people to read. This translation of the Latin Bible was largely the work of Miles Coverdale.

In the late 1530s, Henry dissolved the monasteries and took over their land and wealth. The monks received pensions, and some were compensated in other ways as well. Henry VIII sold most of the monastery lands to strengthen his treasury and pay for his overseas wars and ambitions. Speculators bought much of the land and quickly resold it for profit. A new class of landowner came into being in England.

Henry VIII also tried to subdue Ireland. But the Fitzgeralds, a noble Irish family, challenged his power. In 1537, Henry hanged the Earl of Kildare (a Fitzgerald) and his five uncles at Tyburn, in London. In 1541, the Irish Parliament granted Henry the title *King of Ireland*.

Henry VIII dies and is succeeded by nine-year-old Edward VI. When Edward VI died in 1553 most of the people supported Mary Tudor, Edward's half-sister became queen. Mary, a Roman Catholic, restored papal authority over the Church of England and enacted a policy of persecution against Protestants. More than 300 people were burned at the stake during her short reign, earning her the nickname "**Bloody Mary**."

Elizabeth, Mary's half-sister, became queen in 1558. She again abolished papal authority over the English Church. In foreign affairs, she played for time, avoiding war with Spain until England became strong at sea. The reign of Elizabeth I was a prosperous period. Clothiers organized the expanding cloth industry into the domestic system. They offered good prices for wool, and sheep farming became profitable. Some lords of the manor enclosed land in order to keep sheep. In time, England's growing prosperity provided new jobs.

In 1492, *Christopher Columbus* reached the Americas, and five years later, Vasco da Gama sailed a new route to India. These discoveries made Spain and Portugal rich. In 1496, Henry VII of England authorized John Cabot and his son, Sebastian, to sail northwestwards to seek another way to India. They failed, but discovered Newfoundland, on the east coast of North America, with its valuable fishing grounds. Henry VIII built 50 more ships, including the flagship *Mary Rose*. He set up Trinity House in 1514 to maintain pilots at ports and beacons on the coast.

During Elizabeth's reign, many English seamen continued to seek alternative routes to India. Rivalry between England and Spain finally led to war. In 1588, Philip II launched a huge armed fleet called the Armada against England. But English seamen defeated the Spanish Armada at the Battle of Gravelines in 1588. First British involvement in the Indian continent - East India Company formed.

In 1564 **William Shakespeare** was born: the greatest writer of English that has ever lived. He died in 1616.

Stuart Britain. Union of the Crowns.

Civil War and Glorious Revolution 1603 – 1714

Elizabeth I, the last of the Tudor monarchs, died in 1603 and the thrones of England and Ireland passed to her cousin, **James Stuart**.

Thus James VI of Scotland also became James I of England. The three separate kingdoms of England, Scotland and Ireland were united under a single monarch for the first time, and he became **King of Great Britain**. England, Scotland and Ireland were very different countries, with very different histories, and the memories of past conflict between those countries ran deep.

To make matters trickier still, each kingdom favoured a different form of religion. Most Scots were Calvinists, most English favoured a more moderate form of Protestantism and most Irish remained stoutly Catholic. Yet each kingdom also contained strong religious minorities.

1605 The Gunpowder Plot: **Guy Fawkes** and other Catholic conspirators tried to blow up the Houses of Parliament when the king was there.

The first years of the 17th century can be characterized as a period of growing conflict between the King and parliament which led to **The Civil War** in 1640. **The Civil War** was fought between the *Parliamentarians (supporters of Parliament)* and the *Royalists (supporters of Charles I)*. It proved an intensely bitter conflict that split communities and even families. The decisive factor that brought his defeat was the rise of the New Model Army, a professional force that had as one of its commanders a Huntingdonshire landowner called **Oliver Cromwell**. Through the army's insistence, Charles I was tried and executed in 1649.

The Commonwealth. After the execution of King Charles I, the monarchy and the House of Lords were abolished. A new kind of government called *the Commonwealth* was set up. Cromwell was the most powerful person in Britain because the army supported him. He wished to develop a new and permanent form of government. But he met much opposition. Cromwell suppressed a democratic group called the Levellers, and he used troops to dissolve the Long Parliament.

In 1653, the army set up a military dictatorship called the *Protectorate*. Cromwell became lord protector, but the House of Commons challenged his rule. In 1655, Cromwell dissolved Parliament, and for about a year, ruled through officers called major generals. Yet another Parliament, which was elected in 1656, was dissolved in 1658.

Nevertheless, the Commonwealth remained unpopular with many people. The Puritans forbade people to use the Prayer Book. They also suppressed theatres, bear-baiting, and other amusements. People resented the army's rule and the heavy taxes imposed for its upkeep. When Cromwell died in 1658, his son, Richard, became lord protector. But he soon resigned. General George Monk, military governor of Scotland, marched to London and recalled the Long Parliament. Parliament restored the monarchy, and Prince Charles returned to England to be crowned King Charles II in 1660.

The Restoration. Charles was a popular, pleasure-loving king. But Charles was also a man of culture and vision. Under his patronage, the Royal Society and Royal Observatory were founded, marking the beginning of modern science in Britain.

Charles II also helped to foster the more relaxed social atmosphere into which the country emerged after the restrictions of Puritanism were removed. London became a lively and colourful city. Theatres reopened. The first coffee houses appeared, and some of them developed into the first clubs. However, two successive disasters marred the gaiety: *the Great Plague* in 1665 and *the Great Fire* in 1666.

The reign of Charles II was a time of artistic, intellectual, and social development. More English sailors made further voyages of discovery.

William Baffin and Henry Hudson sailed into the frozen north of Canada, where several geographical features still bear their names. The first permanent English colony, Jamestown, in Virginia, was founded in 1607. Another successful English colony was established about 1612 on the island of Bermuda in the North Atlantic.

Plymouth, in Massachusetts, was founded in 1620 by **the Pilgrim Fathers**. The Pilgrim Fathers were English Puritans who sailed in the ship **Mayflower** to seek a place where they could worship freely. English colonies were established in North America. They included Pennsylvania, founded by the Quaker William Penn in 1682.

The state continued its hostility to Roman Catholics. In 1673, Parliament passed a Test Act, reserving official posts for members of the Church of England.

When Charles II died in 1685, James became king as James II. His Roman Catholicism caused a Protestant rising in the west to occur. The rebels wanted to depose James and make the Duke of Monmouth king. But Monmouth was defeated at the Battle of Sedgemoor and was later executed. James broke the law by appointing Roman Catholics to state and Church posts. He tried to win Puritan support by issuing a Declaration of Indulgence, ending discrimination against Roman Catholics

and Puritans.

James had two Protestant daughters. Many members of Parliament felt that they could endure James, provided that one of his daughters succeeded him. But in 1688, James had a son, whom he planned to bring up as a Roman Catholic. This frightened some politicians. They invited the Dutch ruler William of Orange, husband of James II's elder daughter, Mary, to invade Britain. William landed in Dorset and marched on London, where he was welcomed. James fled to France.

The Glorious Revolution. People called the events of 1688 the Glorious Revolution because the change of rulers came almost without bloodshed. Parliament made William and Mary joint rulers, as William III and Mary II. Parliament also passed *the Bill of Rights*, limiting royal power. This law forbade Roman Catholics to succeed to the throne and enforced frequent meetings of Parliament. Parliament also passed *a Toleration Act*, granting freedom of worship to Protestants outside the Church of England but not to Roman Catholics.

William III remained the ruler of the Netherlands. He sought to defend the Netherlands against France and enlisted England's support for an alliance called the League of Augsburg. The league fought France from 1689 to 1697 and saved the Netherlands. The English government's need for money in the war encouraged William Paterson to found the Bank of England in 1694. The Bank's subscribers lent the state 1,200,000 English pounds.

Mary II died in 1694, leaving William III no children to succeed him. In 1701, Parliament passed the Act of Settlement to ensure that future monarchs would be Protestants. According to the Act, if Mary's sister, Anne, had no surviving children at her death, the throne would pass to the Electress Sophia of Hanover, who was a granddaughter of James I, or to her heirs.

William died in 1702 and was succeeded by Anne.

Anne's reign saw the emergence of two new political parties, the Whigs and the Tories. The Whigs, supported the Protestant values of hard work and thrift, and believed in government by monarch and aristocracy together. The other group, the Tories, had a greater respect for the idea of the monarchy and the importance of the Anglican Church. The modern system of an annual budget for the approval of Parliament was established. So, too, was the habit of the monarch appointing one principal, or "Prime" Minister from the ranks of Parliament to head the government.

The most important constitutional event of Anne's reign was the Act of Union, passed in 1707. This act made the kingdoms of *Scotland and England into the United Kingdom of Great Britain*. The Act wasn't popular in Scotland and passed only after wholesale bribery. Scotland sent members to the Parliament at Westminster, but the Church of Scotland and Scottish law system, more similar to continental European system, remained unchanged.

George (Hanoverian) Britain. Industrial Revolution. 1714-1837

By the Act of Succession of 1701, on the death of Queen Anne the throne passed to her nearest Protestant relative. This proved to be **George**, Elector of Hanover Germany, the great-grandson of James I in 1714 who did not speak English well. Therefore, Sir Robert Walpole, the greatest political figure of the time, who was then

a senior minister, began to run the Cabinet and to manage Parliament. Walpole's power lasted from 1721 to 1742, and he is considered Britain's first Prime Minister

George I's son George II (1727 – 1760) was more English than his father, but still relied on Sir Robert Walpole to run the country. George III (1760 – 1820) was the first English-born and English-speaking monarch since Queen Anne. His reign was one of elegance and the age of some of the greatest names in English literature - Jane Austen, Byron, Shelley, Keats and Wordsworth. George IV (1820 – 1830) is known as the 'First Gentleman of Europe'. In 1815 **Duke of Wellington** defeats Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo.

During William IV's (1830 – 1837) reign, England abolished slavery in the colonies in 1833.

In 1798, the Irish rebelled but were suppressed. By the Act of Union, William Pitt, Britain's prime minister, abolished the Irish Parliament and **established the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in 1801**. The Irish flag of St. Patrick was incorporated in the Union Flag.

During this century the first British Empire had reached its largest extent.

American War of Independence begins and in 1776 America declares independence from Britain on July 4 1776.

Industrial Revolution. The increased trade, which resulted from the links with the new markets, was one factor which led to the Industrial Revolution. The many technical innovations in the areas of manufacturing and transport during this period were the other important contributing factors.

The vast technological changes that brought the Industrial Revolution began in the early 1700's. Between 1709 and 1750, Abraham Darby and his son successfully smelted iron ore with coke rather than charcoal. After 1750, coke smelting became general. The *iron industry* grew rapidly. British iron production increased twelvefold in the 1700's and boosted demand for coal.

A *steam-engine*, invented by Thomas Newcomen in the early 1700's, was improved by James Watt. In 1815, Sir Humphry Davy invented a safety lamp for miners that gave light but would not ignite explosive gases.

The tremendous growth in iron production after 1750 was partly responsible for the *production of machines*. Machines were first used on a large scale in *the cotton industry*. In 1733, John Kay had invented *the flying shuttle*, which enabled weavers to double the speed of hand-weaving and to make wider cloth. When industrialists began to use machinery and steam power, they also started to establish factories.

So in the later 1700s, great economic and technological changes occurred. Historians have called this series of changes *the Industrial Revolution*. By 1830, Britain was changing from an agricultural to an industrial society. Rapid industrial growth made Britain powerful.

Industrial development led to improved transport. Various important improvements in farming made it possible to clothe and feed Britain's rapidly rising population. But the industrial changes had serious social consequences. For many poor people, housing and working conditions were appalling. The use of machines caused many people to lose their jobs.

The period also saw drastic changes in agriculture. Many wealthy merchants

became landowners and wanted to live like country gentlemen and to make their farms successful. The rise in population and the growth of towns increased the demand for food and made farming profitable. The efforts of the landlords to improve their estates led to what historians call the Agrarian Revolution.

In England, the growth of the industrial mode of production, together with advances in agriculture, caused the greatest upheaval in the pattern of everyday life since the Anglo-Saxon invasions. Areas of common land, which had been available for use by everybody in a village for the grazing of animals since that time, disappeared as landowners incorporated them into their increasingly large and more efficient farms. (Some pieces of common land remain in Britain today and are used mainly as public parks. They are often called “the commons”). Hundreds of thousands of people moved from rural areas into new towns and cities. Most of these new towns and cities were in the north of England, where the raw materials for industry were available. They provided the cheap working force that also made possible the Industrial Revolution. In this way, the north, which had previously been economically backward compared to the south, became the industrial heartland of the country.

In the south of England, London came to dominate, not as an industrial but as a business and trading centre. By the end of the century, it had a population close to a million.

Social changes. The Industrial and Agrarian revolutions raised Britain's wealth and living standards considerably. But the rapid changes also created social problems. The use of machines forced people out of work, and in the early 1800's, gangs of Luddites wrecked the machines that they claimed had robbed them of their jobs. Some workers formed trade unions as a means of opposing their masters. However, trade unions were forbidden by Combination Acts that remained in force until 1824.

The rapid social changes of the period, made worse by an economic depression that hit Britain in. In 1829, Parliament passed a Catholic Emancipation Act, which freed Roman Catholics from many of the restrictions that they had lived under since the 1600s.

By 1830, was out of date. Few men had the right to vote. Voting took place openly at hustings (public platforms), and bribery or intimidation of voters was easy. The 1832 Reform Act was passed to change the British electoral system. Under the Act, most middle-class men received the vote. The Municipal Corporation Act of 1835 set up town councils elected by ratepayers and presided over by a mayor. It empowered boroughs to provide drainage, markets, street lights, and other facilities.

1833 Factory Act restricts work hours for women and children. Under the terms of the act, mill owners were required to show that children up to age 13 received two hours of schooling, six days per week.

In 1833 Parliament passes a bill to abolish slavery in the British empire. Britain had lost its most important American colonies in a war of independence.

1834 The Poor Law set up workhouses, where people without homes or jobs could live in return for doing unpaid work.

Victorian Britain 1837 - 1901

During the long reign of *Queen Victoria* (1837-1901), the revolutionary changes that had transformed Britain from a mainly agricultural nation to an industrial one were followed by developments that took it further along the road of industrialism.

Soon after the end of the century, Britain controlled the biggest empire the world had ever seen. One section of this empire was Ireland. During this century, it was part of the UK, where the British culture and way of life predominated.

Another part of the empire was made up of Canada, Australia and New Zealand. These countries had complete internal self-government but recognized the overall authority of the British government.

Another part was India. The British officials developed a distinctly Anglo-Indian way of life. They imposed British institutions and methods of government on the country.

Large parts of Africa also belonged to the empire. Most of Britain's African colonies started as trading bases on the coast, and were incorporated into the empire at the end of the century. The empire also included numerous smaller areas and islands, which were acquired because of their strategic position along trading routes.

There was a change in attitude in Britain towards colonization during this century. Previously, it had been seen as a matter of settlement, of commerce, or of military strategy. By the end of the century, it was seen as a matter of destiny. Britain became the world's foremost economic power. This gave the British a sense of supreme confidence, even arrogance, about their culture and civilization. The British came to see themselves as having a duty to spread this culture and civilization around the world.

Political developments Further parliamentary reform came later in the 1800's. The Reform Act of 1867 extended the vote to working men in the towns. The Reform Act of 1884 gave the vote to agricultural labourers. Both these acts also redistributed parliamentary seats.

Industrial developments. British industry continued to expand. *Coal output* more than doubled between 1846 and 1862, and *iron production* increased by six times between 1833 and 1865. The steel industry replaced iron in engineering, railways, and shipbuilding. In 1844, Isambard Brunei laid the first electric telegraph on the Great Western Railway from Paddington to Slough. In 1866, British engineers laid the first telegraph cable across the Atlantic Ocean. In 1884, Sir Charles Parsons made the first practical steam turbine. In 1826, Patrick Bell invented a reaping machine for cutting cereals. He also devised a way of extracting sugar from sugar beet.

Near the end of the 1800s, Britain faced growing competition overseas. Such industrialized countries as France, Germany, and the United States protected their own manufactures against British goods by imposing high tariffs (taxes on imports). The United States and Germany overtook Britain in steel production. Britain's exports went into decline. Only coal, machinery, and ships maintained their share of the export market. Britain suffered an industrial slump between 1875 and 1896.

Modern Britain 1900 -2020

By the beginning of this century, Britain was no longer the world's richest country. The first twenty years of the century were a period of extremism. *The Suffragettes*, women demanding the right to vote, were prepared both to damage property and to die for their beliefs; the problem of Ulster in the north of Ireland led to a situation in which some sections of the army were ready to disobey the government; and the government's introduction of new taxes was opposed by the House of Lords so that even Parliament seemed to have an uncertain future in its traditional form. But by the end of the First World War, two of these issues had been resolved to most people's satisfaction (the Irish problem remained)

In the first half of the 1900s, Britain fought in two world wars that considerably changed its international influence and status. Many countries that before 1945 were British colonies became independent countries as the British Empire developed into the Commonwealth of Nations. In 1906, Britain was the world's richest and most powerful nation, but the Soviet Union and the United States, with their vast resources of people and materials, eventually overtook Britain.

World War I.

World War I began in 1914. The Allies—Britain, France, the United States, and other countries—fought the Central Powers—Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire, and Bulgaria. The war was caused chiefly by political and economic rivalry among the various nations. Britain entered the war on August 4, 1914, after German troops invaded neutral Belgium on their way to attack France. =

The fighting lasted until 1918, when the Allies finally defeated Germany. On August 8, 1918 the allied forces staged a major breakthrough surrounding and destroying 16 German divisions. Germany was defeated and the Armistice was signed on November 11, 1918.

Lloyd George served as prime minister during the second half of the war. He helped write the Treaty of Versailles, which officially ended the war with Germany. The treaty set up the League of Nations, and gave Britain control over German colonies in Africa. The Treaty of Sevres, signed with the Turkish Ottoman Empire, gave Britain control over some Turkish possessions in the Middle East.

The war had a shattering effect on Britain. About 750,000 members of the British armed forces died. German submarines sank about 7 million metric tons of British shipping. The war also created severe economic problems for Britain and shook its position as a world power.

In the 1929 elections, the Labour Party became the largest party for the first time. MacDonald returned as prime minister. A few months later, the worldwide Great Depression began. In 1931, MacDonald formed a government of Labour, Conservative, and Liberal leaders to deal with the emergency. The government increased taxes, abandoned free trade, and cut its own spending. But the United Kingdom could not escape the effects of the Great Depression.

In the depth of the depression, Adolf Hitler and his Nazi Party won control of Germany. Germany began to rearm, but few leaders in the United Kingdom, or elsewhere, saw the danger.

Meantime, the United Kingdom faced an unusual problem at home. King George

V died in 1936, and his oldest son became King Edward VIII. Edward wanted to marry an American divorcee, Mrs. Wallis Warfield Simpson. The government, the Church of England, and many British people objected. Edward then gave up the throne to marry "the woman I love." His brother became king as George VI.

Neville Chamberlain, a Conservative, became prime minister in 1937. Chamberlain thought he could deal with Hitler. In 1938, Hitler seized Austria and then demanded part of Czechoslovakia. Chamberlain and Premier Edouard Daladier of France flew to Munich, Germany, to confer with Hitler. They gave in to Hitler's demands after the German dictator said he would seek no more territory. Chamberlain returned to Britain and said: "I believe it is peace in our time." The people sighed in relief. But Chamberlain met sharp attacks in the House of Commons. Winston Churchill, a Conservative, called the Munich Agreement "a disaster of the first magnitude."

World War II. Chamberlain resigned on May 10, and Churchill became prime minister. On that same day, Germany attacked Belgium, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands.

Churchill told the British people he had nothing to offer but "blood, toil, tears, and sweat" to win "victory at all costs." Germany conquered France in June, and the UK stood alone against the Nazi war machine.

The United Kingdom prepared for invasion, and Churchill urged his people to make this "their finest hour." He inspired them to heights of courage, unity, and sacrifice. Hundreds of German planes bombed the UK nightly. German submarines tried to cut the UK's lifeline by torpedoing ships bringing supplies to the island country. Severe rationing limited each person's share of food, clothing, coal, and oil. The British refused to be beaten, and Hitler gave up his invasion plans.

In June 1941, Germany invaded the Soviet Union. In December, Japan attacked Pearl Harbor, in Hawaii, and the United States entered the war. The UK, the United States, the Soviet Union, and the other Allies finally defeated Germany and Japan in 1945. Near the end of the war, the UK helped establish the United Nations.

About 360,000 British servicemen, servicewomen, and civilians died in the war. Great sections of London and other cities had been destroyed by German bombs. The war had shattered the UK economy, and the country had piled up huge debts.

The welfare state. The Labour Party won a landslide victory in 1945. The party had campaigned on a socialist programme. Clement Attlee became prime minister, and the Labour Party stayed in power until 1951. During those six years, the UK became a *welfare* state. The nation's social security system was expanded to provide welfare for the people "from the cradle to the grave." The Labour government also began to nationalize industry by putting private businesses under public control. The nationalized industries included the Bank of England, the coal mines, the iron and steel industry, the railways, and the road haulage industry.

Although the Labour government struggled to restore the economy, conditions improved little. Rationing and other wartime controls continued. The government borrowed heavily from the United States.

Decline of the empire. World War II sealed the fate of the British Empire, though the UK had begun loosening control over its empire earlier. In 1931, the UK

granted independence within the empire to Australia, Canada, the Irish Free State, New Zealand, Newfoundland, and South Africa. They became the first members of the Commonwealth of Nations, an association of countries and dependencies that succeeded the empire.

After World War II, the peoples of Africa and Asia increased their demands for independence. The UK could no longer keep control of its colonies. Nevertheless, Britain tried to keep international ties with its former colonies through a new organisation called *the British Commonwealth of Nations*. All the former colonies were invited to join it as free and equal members. Now there are *53 member states* with the population of more than 1, 7 billion people.

While the UK was breaking up its empire during the postwar years, other nations of Western Europe joined together in various organizations to unite economically and politically. The UK was reluctant to join them. Throughout history, the UK had preferred to stay out of European affairs—except to keep the balance of power in Europe. By joining the new organizations, the UK feared it might lose some of its independence, and would also be turning its back on the Commonwealth.

Most important, it did not join the European Economic Community (EEC). This association, also called the European Common Market, was set up by France and five other nations. After the EEC showed signs of succeeding, the UK set up the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) with six other nations. But it was only a mild success, and the UK later regretted its refusal to join the EEC.

In the years after World War II, British foreign policy was closely allied with that of the United States. The UK joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and fought in the Korean War (1950-1953).

In 1965 Parliament adopted a five-year national plan of economic recovery. This plan was based on encouraging monopoly development. Wilson's government also lowered the voting age from 21 to 18. But at the same time the Labour government maintained a typical wage-freeze policy which led to wide-scale industrial unrest.

The government faced mounting economic problems. The UK was importing far more goods than it was exporting, and its industrial growth rate was too slow. The country's financial reserves shrank, and it had to borrow more and more money from other countries and international agencies. In 1966, the government began an austerity programme by increasing taxes and putting a ceiling on wages and prices. In October 1967, the UK was again rejected for membership of the EEC. In November, the government devalued the pound in response to the serious economic situation.

Long-standing conflicts between Catholics and Protestants in Northern Ireland became a serious problem during the late 1960's and the 1970's. In 1969, the government began sending troops to Northern Ireland to try to stop riots from occurring. But the violence continued. The UK Parliament at Westminster established direct rule over the country at various times.

Some people in Scotland and Wales demanded complete independence from the UK for their countries. In March 1979, the UK government allowed the people of Scotland and Wales *to vote on the question of whether they should have their own legislatures*. The voters in both countries failed to approve the establishment of the

legislatures. The process under which Scotland and Wales would have received more control over their affairs is called *devolution*.

Elections held in May 1979 returned the Conservatives to power. Margaret Thatcher replaced Callaghan as prime minister. She became the first woman ever to hold the office. She headed the cabinet for more than 10 years. The government's economic policy was focused on encouraging private enterprise and denationalization. As prime minister, Thatcher worked to reduce government involvement in the economy. The introduction of the poll tax in 1989 met overwhelming opposition in the country.

In November 1990, Thatcher resigned as Conservative Party leader and prime minister. John Major succeeded her in both positions. In August 1990, Iraq invaded Kuwait. In early 1991, UK forces took part in the allied bombing of Iraqi military targets and in the ground offensive to liberate Kuwait.

In 1997, Britain's opposition Labour party routed the ruling Conservative party in the national election, and its leader Tony Blair replaced Major as head of the government. He became Britain's youngest Prime Minister since 1812, ending 18 years of Tory rule since 1979. Blair repeated his success in the general election of 2002.

As Prime Minister Tony Blair presided over an optimistic first term in which Devolution brought self-governing powers to both Scotland and Wales, reversing control from London. The late 1990s and into the millennium saw an increased celebration of British culture in its myriad of aspects from the Queen's Golden Jubilee celebrations of 2002 to huge programmes of urban renewal of the long neglected industrial cities of the north, Manchester, Liverpool, Newcastle and Glasgow, making them the great cities of culture they are today.

On 27 June 2007, the new Prime Minister Gordon Brown replaced Blair. Brown is the first prime minister from a Scottish constituency since 1964. He is also one of only five prime ministers who attended a university other than Oxford or Cambridge. Brown has proposed moving some traditional prime ministerial powers to the realm of Parliament, such as the power to declare war and approve appointments to senior positions. He has also proposed moving some powers from Parliament to citizens, including the right to form "citizens' juries", easily petition Parliament for new laws, and rally outside Westminster.

Brown was committed to the Iraq War, but said in a speech in June 2007 that he would "learn the lessons" from the mistakes made in Iraq. Brown said in a letter published on 17 March 2008 that the United Kingdom will hold an inquiry into the Iraq war.

In a speech in July 2007, Brown personally clarified his position regarding Britain's relationship with the USA: "We will not allow people to separate us from the United States of America in dealing with the common challenges that we face around the world."

In the local elections on 1 May 2008, Labour suffered their worst results in 40 years. Gordon Brown was quoted in the press as having said that the results were "a painful defeat for Labour".

As for the domestic policies, the Labour government admitted that the recession

had been deeper than predicted, but claimed that the government's action to pump money into the economy had made a "real difference" to families and businesses. Later the year of 2009, a number of measures to help economic recovery were announced, including a public sector pay freeze, a levy on bank bonuses and a package of measures to help the unemployed.

The country's leading economic think tank forecasts that with spending on health and education protected, the areas most likely to face severe cuts are defence, housing, transport and higher education. Moreover, it is estimated that the cost to each individual family of paying back the national debt will be £2,400 a year for eight years.

On 20 February 2016, British Prime Minister David Cameron announced that a referendum on the UK's membership of the European Union would be held on 23 June 2016, following years of campaigning by eurosceptics. Debates and campaigns by parties supporting both "Remain" (Britain Stronger in Europe) and "Leave" (Vote Leave) focused on concerns regarding trade and the European Single Market, security, migration and sovereignty. The result of the referendum was in favour of the country leaving the EU with 51.9% of voters wanting to leave.] David Cameron resigned from Parliament on 13 July, with Theresa May becoming Prime Minister.

During the 2016 campaign on the referendum Conservative Boris Johnson became a leading proponent of Vote Leave. A victory for Brexit, he argued, would be "independence day" for Britain if it leaves the European Union. By 2019 Johnson was Prime Minister and pushed hard for an exit on 31 October 2019.

LECTURE 2. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

Complete the dates

1. 800BC Celtic invasions --The Celts mixed with the original inhabitants.
2. _____ Roman invasions. The Romans conquered England and Wales and stayed for 400 years. Queen Boudicca of the Iceni tribe leads a bloody revolt against the Roman occupation.
3. Hadrian's Wall was built between England and Scotland, which remained independent.
4. _____ Anglo-Saxon invasions. Angles, Saxons and Jutes started to colonise Britain when the Romans left. By 600AD, they were well established in most of Britain.
5. ____ Viking raids. The Vikings raided the east coast of Britain and some settled.
6. In 885 the Danes were given a large part of northern England, which was known as the Danelaw, and Danish kings ruled England from 1016-42.
7. _____ The Norman Conquest. The Normans under William the Conqueror defeated the Anglo-Saxons at the Battle of Hastings. Normans replaced Saxons in most positions of authority and, for a while, French was the more important language. Eventually the two races and the two languages merged to become English.
8. ____ A treaty called the Magna Carta was signed by King John and his lords. It is an important document on the long road to democracy in that it limits the king's rights and establishes the rights of his subjects.

9. ___ Wales was conquered by the English king.
10. ___ William Shakespeare was born: the greatest writer of English that has ever lived. He died in 1616.
11. ___ Scotland and England were united under King James I.
12. 1605 The Gunpowder Plot: Guy Fawkes and other Catholic conspirators tried to blow up the Houses of Parliament when the king was there.
13. _____ The Civil War took place, in which the king was defeated and later executed by the Parliamentarians. This was followed by ten years when England did not have a monarch, but was ruled by Parliament under Oliver Cromwell.
14. 1750 The start of the Industrial Revolution.
15. ___ Ireland was joined with Great Britain.
16. ___ England under Wellington defeated Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo.
17. 1912 The south of Ireland became independent when the Republic of Ireland (or Eire) was established.
18. ___ The First World War
19. ___ The Second World War
20. ___ Great Britain joined the European Economic Community (EEC) which became the European Union (EU).
21. _____, a referendum on the UK's membership of the European Union. The result of the referendum was in favour of the country leaving the EU with 51.9% of voters wanting to leave.

LECTURE 3

POLITICAL SYSTEM IN THE UK

- The Constitution of the UK
- The Crown
- Legislative power
- Executive power
- Electoral system
- Legal system

The Constitution of the UK.

Constitution monarchy and parliamentary democracy

The Constitution of the UK has evolved over many centuries. Unlike the constitutions of the USA, France and many Commonwealth countries, the British constitution has never been assembled into a single consolidated document. Britain does not have a written constitution. The constitution of the United Kingdom is uncodified, being made up of constitutional conventions and statutes. This system of government, known as the Westminster system, has been adopted by other countries, especially those that were formerly parts of the British Empire. Britain has some important constitutional documents, including the Magna Carta (1215) which protects the community against the Crown (61 clauses deal with "free church", feudal law, towns, trade, and merchants, (fae behaviour of royal officials, royal forests); the Bill of Rights (1689) which extended the powers of parliament, making it impossible for the sovereign to ignore the wishes of government; the Reform Act (1832), which provided that all men could exercise their franchise, that members of parliament were paid, that electoral districts of roughly equal population were created. The Reform Act of 1867 extended the vote to working men in towns; The Refonn act of 1884 gave the vote to agricultural labourers.

The system of government. In theory, the constitution has three branches:

- *Parliament*, which makes laws,
- *the Government*, which executes laws, i.e. puts them into effect, and
- *the law courts*, which interpret laws.

The United Kingdom is a unitary state with **devolution** (delegation of power (укр: передача влади) that is governed within the framework of a parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarchy in which the monarch, currently *Queen Elizabeth II*, is the head of state while the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (currently *Boris Johnson*) is the head of government.

Legislative power is vested in the two chambers of the Parliament of the United Kingdom, the House of Commons and the House of Lords, as well as in the Scottish and Welsh parliaments and the Northern Ireland Assembly.

Executive power is exercised by the British government, on *behalf of and by the consent of the monarch*, and the devolved (delegated) governments of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

The judiciary is independent of the executive and the legislature.

There is no absolute doctrine of separation of powers in the UK constitution.

Overlaps exist both in terms of the functions of the organs of state and the personnel operating within them. The UK relies on **a system of checks and balances** to prevent against abuses of power.

Visible overlaps are found in legislative, judiciary and executive however system of checks and balances are there. This involves each branch having eye on the others but also required each organ to be protected against interference by others out of their perimeters The prime minister can advise the queen to dissolve a Parliament but it must meet within a year. The Queen in emergency can dissolve or refuse to dissolve Parliament. Individual ministers are accountable before Parliament. House of Lords is a partial check over the executive. Judicial appointments are made either by Queen on the recommendation of Lord Chancellor or in the case of lay magistrate and certain other junior judges by Lord Chancellor directly.. The senior judicial element must be chosen by the judges` Council.

The Crown

Although *the Queen* is officially head of all three branches, she has little direct power.

The Sovereign. Her Most Excellent Majesty Elizabeth the Second by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen. Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith.



Queen Elizabeth II

The UK is a constitutional monarchy. The Queen is the official Head of State and, for many people, a symbol of the unity of the nation. Other countries have "citizens", but in the UK people are legally described as "*subjects of Her Majesty the Queen*". The Queen has a central role in state affairs, not only through her ceremonial functions, such as opening Parliament, but also because she meets the Prime Minister every week and receives copies of all Cabinet papers. However, she is expected to be impartial or "above politics", and any advice she may offer the Prime Minister is kept secret. Moreover, there is a principle of English law that the monarch can do nothing that is generally wrong. In other words. Queen Elizabeth II is above the law.

The British monarch, currently Queen Elizabeth II, is the head of state of the United Kingdom. Though she takes little direct part in government, the Crown remains the fount/source in which ultimate executive power over government lies. These powers are known *as royal prerogative* and can be used for a vast amount of things, such as *the issue or withdrawal* of passports, to the *dismissal of the Prime Minister or even the declaration of war*. The powers are delegated from the monarch

personally, in the name of the Crown, and can be handed to various ministers, or other officers of the Crown, and can purposely bypass the consent of Parliament.

The head of *Her Majesty's* Government, the prime minister, also has weekly meetings with the sovereign, where she may express her feelings, warn, or advise the prime minister in the government's work.

According to the uncodified constitution of the United Kingdom, the monarch has the following powers:

Domestic powers

The power to dismiss and appoint a prime minister

The power to dismiss and appoint other ministers

The power to summon and prorogue Parliament

The power to grant or refuse Royal Assent to bills (making them valid and law)

The power to commission officers in the Armed Forces

The power to command the Armed Forces of the United Kingdom

The power to appoint members to the Queen's Counsel

The power to issue and withdraw passports

The power to grant prerogative of mercy (though capital punishment is abolished, this power is still used to change sentences)

The power to grant honours

The power to create corporations via Royal Charter

Foreign powers

The power to ratify and make treaties

The power to declare war and peace

The power to deploy/position the Armed Forces overseas

The power to recognise states

The power to credit and receive diplomats

Functions of the Sovereign:

– opening Parliament every autumn. The Queen makes a speech in which she says what "my government" intends to do in the coming year. As far as the law is concerned, she can choose anybody to run the government for her. In reality, she appoints the head of the party that has won the majority of seats in the House of Commons.

– approving the appointment of the Prime Minister; giving her Royal Assent to bills; giving honours such as peerages, knighthoods and medals.

– Head of the Commonwealth. The Commonwealth is a voluntary organisation of 54 independent countries who all share a common history as part of Britain's imperial past. The countries are as diverse as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Paldstan, Cyprus, India, Barbados, Sri Lanka and Zambia. The British Commonwealth of Nations was set up in 1931 on dismantling of the British Empire, since 1949 it has been known simply as the Commonwealth. Any nation wishing to join must be independent, and its application must be acceptable to existing members. All member states recognise the British monarch as Head of the Commonwealth,

though he\she is not necessarily the head of each individual state. Members of the Commonwealth have special links with the UK and with each other. All members are equal and agree to work together to advance democracy, human rights and social and economic development, and to organise special programmes to help promote trade, science, health, young people and many other specific issues in its member countries. There are no legal or constitutional obligations involved in the membership;

- Head of the Church of England;
- Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces.

The National Anthem originated as a patriotic song first performed in 1745. There is no authorised version - the words used as a matter of tradition. On official occasions it is usual to sing the first verse only, the words of which are as follows:

God save our gracious Queen!
Long live our noble Queen!
God save the Queen!
Send her victorious^
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign oyer us,
God save the Queen!

Legislative power

The UK Parliament is the supreme legislative body in the United Kingdom (i.e., there is parliamentary sovereignty), and Government is drawn from and answerable to it. Parliament is bicameral, consisting of the House of Commons and the House of Lords. There are also devolved Scottish and Welsh Parliaments and a devolved Assembly in Northern Ireland, with varying degrees of legislative authority.

UK PARLIAMENT

HOUSE OF COMMONS



House of Commons

The Countries of the United Kingdom are divided into parliamentary constituencies of broadly equal population by the four Boundary Commissions. Each constituency elects a Member of Parliament (MP) to the House of Commons at

general elections and, if required, at by-elections. As of 2010 there are 650 constituencies.

In modern times, all Prime Ministers and Leaders of the Opposition have been drawn from the Commons, not the Lords. One party usually has a majority in Parliament, because of the use of the First Past the Post electoral system, which has been conducive in creating the current two party system. The monarch normally asks a person commissioned to form a government simply whether it can survive in the House of Commons, something which majority governments are expected to be able to do. In exceptional circumstances the monarch asks someone to 'form a government' with a parliamentary minority which in the event of no party having a majority requires the formation of a coalition government or 'confidence and supply' arrangement. This option is only ever taken at a time of national emergency, such as war-time. It was given in 1916 to Bonar Law, and when he declined, to David Lloyd George and in 1940 to Winston Churchill. A government is not formed by a vote of the House of Commons, it is a commission from the monarch. The House of Commons gets its first chance to indicate confidence in the new government when it votes on the Speech from the Throne (the legislative programme proposed by the new government).

HOUSE OF LORDS



House of Lords

The House of Lords was previously a largely *hereditary aristocratic chamber*, although including life peers, and Lords Spiritual. It is currently midway through extensive reforms, the most recent of these being enacted in the House of Lords Act 1999. The house consists of two very different types of member, the *Lords Temporal and Lords Spiritual*. Lords Temporal include appointed members (life peers with no hereditary right for their descendants to sit in the house) and ninety-two remaining hereditary peers, elected from among, and by, the holders of titles which previously gave a seat in the House of Lords. The Lords Spiritual represent the established Church of England and number twenty-six: the Five Ancient Sees (Canterbury, York, London, Winchester and Durham), and the 21 next-most senior bishops.

The House of Lords currently *acts to review legislation initiated by the House of Commons*, with the *power to propose amendments, and can exercise a suspensive veto*. This allows it to delay legislation if it does not approve it for twelve months. However, the use of vetoes is limited by convention and by the operation of the Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949: the Lords may not veto the "money bills" or major manifesto promises (see Salisbury convention). However the Lords still retain a full veto in acts which would extend the life of Parliament beyond the 5-year term limit introduced by the Parliament Act 1911.

The Constitutional Reform Act 2005 outlined plans for a Supreme Court of the United Kingdom to replace the role of the Law Lords.

The House of Lords was replaced as the final court of appeal on civil cases within the United Kingdom on 1 October 2009, by the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom.

Devolved national legislatures

Though the UK parliament remains the sovereign parliament, Scotland and Wales have *devolved parliaments* and Northern Ireland has *an assembly*. De jure, each could have its powers broadened, narrowed or changed by an Act of the UK Parliament. The UK is a unitary state with a devolved system of government. This contrasts with a federal system, in which sub-parliaments or state parliaments and assemblies have a clearly defined constitutional right to exist and a right to exercise certain constitutionally guaranteed and defined functions and cannot be unilaterally abolished by Acts of the central parliament.

All three devolved institutions are elected by proportional representation: the Additional Member System is used in Scotland and Wales, and Single Transferable Vote is used in Northern Ireland.

England, therefore, is the only country in the UK not to have its own devolved parliament. However, senior politicians of all main parties have voiced concerns in regard to the West Lothian Question, which is raised where certain policies for England are set by MPs from all four constituent nations whereas similar policies for Scotland or Wales might be decided in the devolved assemblies by legislators from those countries alone. England is therefore governed according to the balance of parties across the whole of the United Kingdom.

The government has no plans to establish an English parliament or assembly although several pressure groups are calling for one. One of their main arguments is that MPs (and thus voters) from different parts of the UK have inconsistent powers. Currently an MP from Scotland can vote on legislation which affects only England but MPs from England (or indeed Scotland) cannot vote on matters devolved to the Scottish parliament. Indeed, the former Prime Minister Gordon Brown, who is an MP for a Scottish constituency, introduced some laws that only affect England and not his own constituency. This anomaly is known as the West Lothian question.

The policy of the UK Government in England was to establish elected regional assemblies with no legislative powers. The London Assembly was the first of these, established in 2000, following a referendum in 1998, but further plans were

abandoned following rejection of a proposal for an elected assembly in North East England in a referendum in 2004. Unelected regional assemblies remain in place in eight regions of England.

Scottish parliament

The Scottish Parliament is the national, unicameral legislature of Scotland, located in the Holyrood area of the capital Edinburgh. The Parliament, informally referred to as "Holyrood"(cf. "Westminster"), is a democratically elected body comprising 129 members who are known as Members of the Scottish Parliament, or MSPs. Members are elected for four-year terms under the mixed member proportional representation system. As a result, 73 MSPs represent individual geographical constituencies elected by the plurality ("first past the post") system, with a further 56 returned from eight additional member regions, each electing seven MSPs.

The current Scottish Parliament was established by the Scotland Act 1998 and its first meeting as a devolved legislature was on 12 May 1999. The parliament has the power to pass laws and has limited tax-varying capability. Another of its roles is to hold the Scottish Government to account. The "devolved matters" over which it has responsibility include education, health, agriculture, and justice. A degree of domestic authority, and all foreign policy, remains with the UK Parliament in Westminster.

The public take part in Parliament in a way that is not the case at Westminster through Cross-Party Groups on policy topics which the interested public join and attend meetings of alongside Members of the Scottish Parliament (MSPs).

The resurgence in Celtic language and identity, as well as 'regional' politics and development, has contributed to forces pulling against the unity of the state. This was clearly demonstrated when - although some argue it was influenced by general public disillusionment with Labour - the Scottish National Party (SNP) became the largest party in the Scottish Parliament by one seat.

Alex Salmond (leader of SNP) has since made history by becoming the first First Minister of Scotland from a party other than Labour. The SNP governed as a minority administration at Holyrood following the 2007 Scottish Parliament election. Nationalism (support for breaking up the UK) has experienced a dramatic rise in popularity in recent years, with a pivotal moment coming at the 2011 Scottish Parliament election where the SNP capitalised on the collapse of the Liberal Democrat support to improve on their 2007 performance to win the first ever outright majority at Holyrood (despite the voting system being specifically designed to prevent majorities), with Labour remaining the largest opposition party.

This election result prompted the leader of the three main opposition parties to resign. Iain Gray was succeeded as Scottish Labour leader by Johann Lamont, Scottish Conservative and Unionist leader, Annabel Goldie was replaced by Ruth Davidson, and Tavish Scott, leader of the Scottish Liberal Democrats was replaced by Willie Rennie.

A major SNP manifesto pledge was to hold a referendum on Scottish Independence, which was duly granted by the UK Government and held on 18

September 2014. When the nationalists came to power in 2011, opinion polls placed support for independence at around 31%, but in 2014, 45% voted to leave the union. In the wake of the referendum defeat, membership of the SNP surged to over 100,000, overtaking the Liberal Democrats as the third largest political party in the UK by membership, and in the general election of May 2015 the SNP swept the board and took 56 of the 59 Westminster constituencies in Scotland (far surpassing their previous best of 11 seats in the late 1970s) and winning more than 50% of the Scottish vote.

Alex Salmond resigned as First Minister of Scotland and leader of the SNP following the country's rejection of independence in September 2014, and was succeeded in both roles by the deputy First Minister and deputy leader of the SNP, Nicola Sturgeon. Also in the wake of the referendum, Scottish Labour leader, Johann Lamont, stood down and Jim Murphy was elected to replace her. Mr Murphy was the leader of Scottish Labour Party until the general election in 2015 in which he lost his seat in Westminster, after the defeat he resigned his position and her deputy MSP Kezia Dugdale became leader of the party and leader of SLP in Holyrood. At 2017 she unexpectedly resigned and was elected as SLP leader the English born Richard Leonard.

Welsh Parliament (Senedd)

The Welsh Parliament (Senedd) is the devolved legislature of Wales with power to make legislation and vary taxes. The Parliament comprises 60 members, who are known as Members of the Senedd, or MSs (Welsh: Aelod y Cynulliad). Members are elected for four-year terms under an additional members system, where 40 MSs represent geographical constituencies elected by the plurality system, and 20 MSs from five electoral regions using the d'Hondt method of proportional representation.

The Welsh Parliament was created by the Government of Wales Act 1998, which followed a referendum in 1997. On its creation, most of the powers of the Welsh Office and Secretary of State for Wales were transferred to it. The Welsh Parliament had no powers to initiate primary legislation until limited law-making powers were gained through the Government of Wales Act 2006. Its primary law-making powers were enhanced following a Yes vote in the referendum on 3 March 2011, making it possible for it to legislate without having to consult the UK parliament, nor the Secretary of State for Wales in the 20 areas that are devolved.

Northern Ireland Assembly

The government of Northern Ireland was established as a result of the 1998 Good Friday Agreement. This created the Northern Ireland Assembly. The Assembly is a unicameral body consisting of 90 members elected under the Single Transferable Vote form of proportional representation. The Assembly is based on the principle of power-sharing, in order to ensure that both communities in Northern Ireland, unionist and nationalist, participate in governing the region. It has power to legislate in a wide range of areas and to elect the Northern Ireland Executive (cabinet). It sits at Parliament Buildings at Stormont in Belfast.

The Assembly has authority to legislate in a field of competences known as

"transferred matters". These matters are not explicitly enumerated in the Northern Ireland Act 1998 but instead include any competence not explicitly retained by the Parliament at Westminster. Powers reserved by Westminster are divided into "excepted matters", which it retains indefinitely, and "reserved matters", which may be transferred to the competence of the Northern Ireland Assembly at a future date. Health, criminal law and education are "transferred" while royal relations are all "excepted".

While the Assembly was in suspension, due to issues involving the main parties and the Provisional Irish Republican Army (IRA), its legislative powers were exercised by the UK government, which effectively had power to legislate by decree. Laws that would normally be within the competence of the Assembly were passed by the UK government in the form of Orders-in-Council rather than legislative acts.

There has been a significant decrease in violence over the last twenty years, though the situation remains tense, with the more hard-line parties such as Sinn Féin and the Democratic Unionist Party now holding the most parliamentary seats .

Executive power

The United Kingdom Government

The monarch appoints a Prime Minister as the head of Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, guided by the strict convention that the Prime Minister should be the member of the House of Commons most likely to be able to form a Government with the support of that House. In practice, this means that the leader of the political party with an absolute majority of seats in the House of Commons is chosen to be the Prime Minister. If no party has an absolute majority, the leader of the largest party is given the first opportunity to form a coalition. The Prime Minister then selects the other Ministers which make up the Government and act as political heads of the various Government Departments. About twenty of the most senior government ministers make up the Cabinet and approximately 100 ministers in total comprise the government. In accordance with constitutional convention, all ministers within the government are *either Members of Parliament or peers in the House of Lords*.

As in some other parliamentary systems of government (especially those based upon the Westminster System), the executive (called "the government") is drawn from and is answerable to Parliament - a successful vote of no confidence will force the government either to resign or to seek a parliamentary dissolution and a general election. In practice, members of parliament of all major parties are strictly controlled by whips who try to ensure they vote according to party policy. If the government has a large majority, then they are very unlikely to lose enough votes to be unable to pass legislation.

The Prime Minister and the Cabinet

The Prime Minister is the most senior minister in the Cabinet. They are responsible for chairing Cabinet meetings, selecting Cabinet ministers (and all other positions in Her Majesty's government), and formulating government policy. The Prime Minister being the de facto leader of the UK, he or she exercises executive

functions that are nominally vested in the sovereign (by way of the Royal Prerogatives). Historically, the British monarch was the sole source of executive powers in the government. However, following the lead of the Hanoverian monarchs, an arrangement of a "Prime Minister" chairing and leading the Cabinet began to emerge. Over time, this arrangement became the effective executive branch of government, as it assumed the day-to-day functioning of the British government away from the sovereign.

Theoretically, the Prime Minister is *primus inter pares* (i.e., Latin for "first among equals") among their Cabinet colleagues. While the Prime Minister is the senior Cabinet Minister, they are theoretically bound to make executive decisions in a collective fashion with the other Cabinet ministers. The Cabinet, along with the PM, consists of Secretaries of State from the various government departments, the Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain, the Lord Privy Seal, the Lord President of the Council, the President of the Board of Trade, the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster and Ministers without portfolio. Cabinet meetings are typically held weekly, while Parliament is in session.

Government departments and the Civil Service

The Government of the United Kingdom contains a number of ministries known mainly, though not exclusively as departments, e.g., Department for Education. These are politically led by a Government Minister who is often a Secretary of State and member of the Cabinet. He or she may also be supported by a number of junior Ministers. In practice, several government departments and Ministers have responsibilities that cover England alone, with devolved bodies having responsibility for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, (for example - the Department of Health), or responsibilities that mainly focus on England (such as the Department for Education).

Implementation of the Minister's decisions is carried out by a permanent politically neutral organisation known as the *civil service*. Its constitutional role is to support the Government of the day regardless of which political party is in power. Unlike some other democracies, senior civil servants remain in post upon a change of Government. Administrative management of the Department is led by a head civil servant known in most Departments as a Permanent Secretary. The majority of the civil service staff in fact work in executive agencies, which are separate operational organisations reporting to Departments of State.

"Whitehall" is often used as a metonym for the central core of the Civil Service. This is because most Government Departments have headquarters in and around the former Royal Palace Whitehall.

England is divided into 9 governmental regions: Greater London, South East England, South West England, East of England, East Midlands, North West England, West Midlands, Yorkshire and the Humber and North East England.

Scottish Government

The Scottish Government is responsible for all issues that are not explicitly reserved to the United Kingdom Parliament at Westminster, by the Scotland Act;

including NHS Scotland, education, justice, rural affairs, and transport. It manages an annual budget of more than £25 billion. The government is led by the First Minister, assisted by various Ministers with individual portfolios and remits. The Scottish Parliament nominates a Member to be appointed as First Minister by the Queen. The First Minister then appoints their Ministers (now known as Cabinet Secretaries) and junior Ministers, subject to approval by the Parliament. The First Minister, the Ministers (but not junior ministers), the Lord Advocate and Solicitor General are the Members of the 'Scottish Executive', as set out in the Scotland Act 1998. They are collectively known as "the Scottish Ministers".

Welsh Government

The Welsh Government and Senedd Cymru – Welsh Parliament have more limited powers than those devolved to Scotland, although following the passing of the Government of Wales Act 2006 and the 2011 Welsh devolution referendum, the Assembly can now legislate in some areas through an Act of the Senedd. The current First Minister is Mark Drakeford of Welsh Labour.

Northern Ireland Executive

The Northern Ireland Executive and Assembly have powers closer to those already devolved to Scotland. The Northern Ireland Executive is led by a diarchy (government by two independent authorities), most recently First Minister Arlene Foster (Democratic Unionist Party) and deputy First Minister Michelle O'Neill (Sinn Féin).

ELECTORAL SYSTEMS

The United Kingdom is divided into 650 parliamentary constituencies, each with an electorate of about 60,000 voters. Each British citizen over eighteen has the vote (although voting is not compulsory). Each constituency is represented by one MP in the House of Commons. More rural constituencies are known as "county constituencies", more urban ones are called "borough constituencies". Any number of candidates can stand for election in each constituency. The main political parties are usually represented, and sometimes candidates representing minority parties also stand. The winner is the candidate who gets more votes than any other single candidate, even if the difference is only one vote. This is the first past the post system. The first-past-the-post system is used for general elections to the House of Commons, and also for some local government elections in England and Wales.

The leader of the party with most seats becomes Prime Minister and forms a Government, which can remain in power for up to five years unless the Prime Minister decides to hold an earlier election. The second biggest party becomes the official Opposition. Its leader forms a "Shadow Cabinet". Since 1945 the Conservatives and Labour have been either the Government or the Opposition.

Elections and political parties in the United Kingdom are affected by Duverger's law, the political science principle which states that *plurality voting systems*, such as *first-past-the-post*, tend to lead to the development of two-party systems. The UK, like several other states, has sometimes been called a "*two-and-a-half*" party system,

because parliamentary politics is dominated by the Labour Party and Conservative Party, while the Liberal Democrats, used to hold a significant number of seats (but still substantially less than Labour and the Conservatives), and several small parties (some of them regional or nationalist) trailing far behind in number of seats, although this changed in the 2015 general election.

In the last few general elections, voter mandates for Westminster in the 30–40% ranges have been swung into 60% parliamentary majorities. No single party has won a majority of the popular vote since the Third National Government of Stanley Baldwin in 1935. On two occasions since World War II – 1951 and February 1974 – a party that came in second in the popular vote actually came out with the larger number of seats.

Conservatives (Tories)

The Conservative Party can trace its origin back to 1662, with the Court Party and the Country Party being formed in the aftermath of the English Civil War. The Court Party soon became known as the Tories, a name that has stuck despite the official name being 'Conservative'. The term "Tory" originates from the Exclusion Bill crisis of 1678-1681 - the Whigs were those who supported the exclusion of the Roman Catholic Duke of York from the thrones of England, Ireland and Scotland, and the Tories were those who opposed it. Both names were originally insults: a "whiggamore" was a horse drover (See Whiggamore Raid), and a "tory" (Tóraidhe) was an Irish term for an outlaw, later applied to Irish Confederates and Irish Royalists, during the Wars of the Three Kingdoms.

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

Labour(Whigs)

The history of the Labour Party goes back to 1900, when a Labour Representation Committee was established and changed its name to "The Labour Party" in 1906. After the First World War, this led to the demise of the Liberal Party as the main reformist force in British politics. The existence of the Labour Party on the left-wing of British politics led to a slow waning of energy from the Liberal Party, which has consequently assumed third place in national politics. After performing poorly at the general elections of 1922, 1923 and 1924, the Liberal Party was superseded by the Labour Party as being the party of the left.

A subset of Labour MPs stand as joint Labour and Co-operative candidates due to a long-standing electoral alliance between the Labour Party and the Co-op Party - the political arm of the British co-operative movement.

Breaking Conservative and Labour dominance. The Westminster Parliament

has traditionally been dominated by the two-party system. Over the years these have been Whigs and Tories, Liberals and Conservatives and since the development of the Labour Party at the beginning of the 20th century. Labour and Conservatives. In 1981 a new party was formed to try to break this dominance.

Liberal Democrats

The Liberal Democrats were founded in 1988 by an amalgamation of the Liberal Party with the Social Democratic Party, but can trace their origin back to the Whigs and the Rochdale Radicals who evolved into the Liberal Party. The Liberal Democrats are a party with policies on constitutional and political reforms, including changing the voting system for general elections, abolishing the House of Lords and replacing it with a 300-member elected Senate, introducing fixed five-year Parliaments, and introducing a National Register of Lobbyists.

Scottish National Party

The Scottish National Party won the third-largest number of seats in the House of Commons at the 2015 general election, winning 56 MPs from the 59 constituencies in Scotland having won 50% of the popular vote. This was an increase of 50 MPs on the result achieved in 2010.

At the 2019 general election, the SNP won 48 seats, a net gain of 13 seats.

The SNP has enjoyed parliamentary representation continuously since 1967. Following the 2007 Scottish parliamentary elections, the SNP emerged as the largest party with 47 MSPs and formed a minority government with Alex Salmond as First Minister. After the 2011 Scottish parliamentary election, the SNP won enough seats to form a majority government, the first time this had ever happened since devolution was established in 1999.

Members of the Scottish National Party and Plaid Cymru work together as a single parliamentary group following a formal pact signed in 1986. This group currently has 51 MPs.

Northern Ireland parties

The Democratic Unionist Party (DUP) had 8 MPs elected at the 2019 general election. Founded in 1971 by Ian Paisley, it has grown to become the larger of the two main unionist political parties in Northern Ireland. Sinn Féin MPs had 7 MPs elected at the 2019 election, but Sinn Féin MPs traditionally abstain from the House of Commons and refuse to take their seats in what they view as a "foreign" parliament.

Plaid Cymru

Plaid Cymru has enjoyed parliamentary representation continuously since 1974 and had 4 MPs elected at the 2019 general election, though one was suspended. Following the 2007 Welsh Assembly elections, they joined Labour as the junior partner in a coalition government, but have fallen down to the third-largest party in the Assembly after the 2011 Assembly elections, and have become an opposition party.

The House of Lords is an unelected chamber so is not involved in the electoral process. It closes when Parliament dissolves and formally re-assembles for the State Opening of Parliament.

THE LEGAL SYSTEM

British law comes from two main sources: laws made in Parliament (usually drawn up by government departments and lawyers), and Common Law, which is based on previous judgements and customs. Common law has never been clearly defined - it is deduced from custom or legal precedents and interpreted in court cases by judges. Many conventions derive from the historical events through which the British system of Government has evolved. Just as there is no written constitution, so England and Wales have no criminal code or civil code and the interpretation of the law is based on what has happened in the past. The laws which are made in Parliament are executed by the courts, but changes in the law itself are made in Parliament.

The highest court is the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom.

History

- Treaty of Union agreed by commissioners for each parliament on 22 July 1706.
- Acts of Union 1707, passed by both the Parliament of England and the Parliament of Scotland to form the Kingdom of Great Britain.
- Act of Union 1800, passed by both the Parliament of Great Britain and the Parliament of Ireland to form the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.
- Government of Ireland Act 1920, passed by the Parliament of the United Kingdom and created the partition of Ireland. The republican southern part of Ireland became Republic of Ireland (also known as Eire), leaving Northern Ireland part of the union.
- The Accession of the United Kingdom to the European Communities (EC) took effect on 1 January 1973.
- The UK withdrew from the EU on 31 January 2020.

The most common type of law court in England and Wales is the magistrates' court. There are 700 magistrates' courts and about 30,000 magistrates. More serious criminal cases then go to the Crown Court, which has 90 branches in different towns and cities. Civil cases (for example, divorce or bankruptcy cases) are dealt with in County courts. Appeals are heard by higher courts. For example, appeals from magistrates' courts are heard in the Crown Court, unless they are appeals on points of law. The highest court of appeal in England and Wales is the House of Lords. Scotland has its own High Court in Edinburgh which hears all appeals from Scottish courts. Certain cases may be referred to the European Court of Justice (Luxembourg).

The Public Attitude to Politics. Politicians in Britain do not have a good reputation. To describe someone as a "politician" means to criticize them, suggesting a lack of trustworthiness. It is not that people hate their politicians. They just regard them with high degree of suspicion. They do not expect them to be corrupt or to use

their position to amass personal wealth, but they do expect them to be frequently dishonest. People are not really shocked when the government is caught lying. On the other hand, they would be very shocked indeed if it was discovered the government was doing something really illegal.

The British were not always so unenthusiastic. In the centuries past, it was a maxim of gentlemen's clubs that *nobody should mention politics or religion in polite conversation*. If anybody did, there was a danger that the conversation would become too heated, people would become too bad-tempered and perhaps violent. However, there has not been any real possibility of a revolution or even of a radical change in the style of government for almost two centuries now. *The stability is now taken for granted*. Most people rarely see any reason to become passionate about politics and nobody regards it as a "dangerous" topic of conversation. They are more likely to regard it as a boring topic of conversation. Still, three-quarters of the adult population are interested enough in politics to vote at national elections.

The Style of Democracy. Two unique aspects of British life will make this clear. Britain is one of the few European countries whose people do not have identity cards. Before the 1970s, when tourism to foreign countries became popular (and so holding of passports became more common), most people went through life without ever owning a document. Even now British people do not have to carry their identification with them. You even do not have to have your driving license with you in your car. If the police ask to see it, you have 24 hours to take it to them. Britain is also the only country in the EU without a Freedom of Information Act. There is no law which obliges a government authority or agency to show you what information it has collected about you.

The relationships between an individual and the state - both should "*leave each other alone*" as much as possible. The duties of an individual towards the state are confined to not breaking the law and to paying taxes. There is no military service; people are not obliged to vote at elections; people do not have to register their change of address with any authority if they move house. Similarly, if the government wants to make an important change in the way the county is run (e.g. the electoral system or the powers of Prime Minister) it does not have to ask people to vote in a referendum. It does not even have to have a special vote in Parliament with an especially high number of MPs in favour. It just needs to get Parliament agree.

LECTURE 3. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. The United Kingdom is a unitary state with _____ (delegation of power) that is governed within the framework of a parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarchy.

2. Currently _____ is the monarch and the head of state while Boris Johnson is the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom and the head of government.

3. The constitution of the United Kingdom is _____, being made up of constitutional conventions and statutes. Britain has some important constitutional documents, including the Magna Carta (1215) which protects the community against the Crown (61 clauses deal with "free church", feudal law, towns, trade, and

merchants, behaviour of royal officials, royal forests); the Bill of Rights (1689) which extended the powers of parliament, making it impossible for the sovereign to ignore the wishes of government.

4. The constitution has three branches: 1. _____ power (which makes law) is vested in the two chambers of the Parliament of the United Kingdom, the House of Commons and the House of Lords, as well as in the Scottish and Welsh parliaments and the Northern Ireland Assembly.

5. 2. _____ power (which executes laws, i.e. puts them into effect) is exercised by the British government, on behalf of and by the consent of the monarch, and the devolved (delegated) governments of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

6. 3. _____ power (the law courts), which interprets laws.

7. The UK political system relies on a system of _____ to prevent against abuses of power.

8. Each British citizen over _____ has the vote (although voting is not compulsory).

9. The _____ Party is still manifesting the unionist tendency, a scepticism or opposition to devolution, firm support for the continued existence of the United Kingdom in the face of movements advocating independence from the UK, and a historic link with the cultural unionism of Northern Ireland.

10. British law comes from two main sources: laws made in Parliament (usually drawn up by government departments and lawyers), and _____, which is based on previous judgements and customs.









11. Boris Johnson is a British politician serving as Prime Minister of the United Kingdom and Leader of the _____ Party since July 2019.

LECTURE 4

ECONOMY OF THE UK

- Government spending and economic management
- Sectors of the UK economy: Agriculture, Production industries, Service industries
- Economy by region
- Social security expenditure

Currency	Pound sterling (GBP, £)
Fiscal year	6 April – 5 April
Trade organisations	WTO, AIIB, OECD
Country group	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Developed/Advanced ● High-income economy
Statistics	
Population	▲ 68,025,542 (January 2021, provisional)
GDP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ▲ \$3.12 trillion (nominal; 2021 est.) ● ▲ \$3.17 trillion (PPP; 2020)
GDP rank	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 5th (nominal, 2021) ● 10th (PPP, 2021)
GDP growth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 1.3% (2018) 1.4% (2019) ● -9.9% (2020) 6.5% (2021e) 7.3% (2022e)
GDP per capita	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ▲ \$46,344 (nominal; 2021 est.) ● ▲ \$47,089 (PPP; 2021 est.)
GDP per capita rank	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 21st (nominal, 2021) ● 22nd (PPP, 2021)
GDP by sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● agriculture: 0.6% ● industry: 19.2% ● services: 80.2% ● (2016 est.)
Inflation (CPI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 2.2% (2020 est.) ● ▼ 2.0% (July 2020) ● RPI: ▼ 3.6% (July 2020) ● ▼ 3.6% (2020 est.)
Base borrowing rate	● 0.25%
Population below poverty line	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ▲ 24% in poverty (2018) ● ▲ 23.1% at risk of poverty or social exclusion (AROPE, 2018)
Gini coefficient	● ▲ 33.5 medium (2018, Eurostat)
Human Development Index	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ▲ 0.932 very high (2019) (15th) ● ▲ 0.856 very high IHDI (2019)
Labour force	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ▲ 34,699,630 (2020, ILO) ● ▲ 75.0% employment rate (Jan 2021)
Labour force by occupation	● agriculture: 1.5%

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● industry: 18.8% ● services: 79.7% ● (2011 est.)
Unemployment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ▼ 5.0% (March 2021) ● ▲ 14.7% youth unemployment (15 to 24 year-olds; May 2020)
Average gross salary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● £585 weekly median (April 2019)
Ease-of-doing-business rank	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ▲ 8th (very easy, 2020)
External	
Exports	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ▲ \$837 billion (6th; 2019 est.)
Export goods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Manufactured goods ● fuels ● chemicals ● food ● beverages ● tobacco
Main export partners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● show ●  European Union(+) 48.8% ●  United States(+) 18.6% ●  China(-) 3.6% ●  Switzerland(+) 3.1% (2020)
Imports	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ▼ \$876.6 billion (5th; 2018 est.)
Import goods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Manufactured goods ● machinery ● fuels ● foodstuffs
Main import partners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● show ●  European Union(+) 51.2% ●  United States(+) 10.9% ●  China(-) 6.8* ●  Turkey(+) 5.2* (2020)

The **economy of the United Kingdom** is a highly developed social market and market-orientated economy. It is the fifth-largest national economy in the world measured by nominal gross domestic product (GDP), ninth-largest by purchasing power parity (PPP), and twenty first-largest by GDP per capita, constituting 3.3% of world GDP.

The UK is one of the most globalised economies, and comprises England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. In 2019, the UK was the fifth-largest exporter in the world and the fifth-largest importer. It also had the third-largest inward foreign direct investment, and the fifth-largest outward foreign direct investment. In 2020, the UK's trade with the 27 member states of the European Union accounted for 49% of the country's exports and 52% of its imports.

The service sector dominates, contributing 79% of GDP; the financial services industry is particularly important, and London is the second-largest financial centre in the world. Edinburgh is ranked 21st in the world, and 6th in Europe for its financial services industry in 2021. Britain's aerospace industry is the second-largest national aerospace industry. Its pharmaceutical industry, the tenth-largest in the world, plays an important role in the economy. Of the world's 500 largest companies, 26 are headquartered in the UK. The economy is boosted by North Sea oil and gas production; its reserves were estimated at 2.8 billion barrels in 2016, although it has been a net importer of oil since 2005. There are significant regional variations in prosperity, with South East England and North East Scotland being the richest areas per capita. The size of London's economy makes it the largest city by GDP per capita in Europe.

In the 18th century Britain was the first nation to industrialise, and during the 19th century, through its expansive colonial empire and technological superiority, had a preeminent role in the global economy, accounting for 9.1% of the world's GDP in 1870. The Second Industrial Revolution was also taking place rapidly in the United States and the German Empire; this presented an increasing economic challenge for the UK leading into the 20th century. The cost of fighting both the First and Second World Wars further weakened the UK's relative position. Despite a relative decline in global dominance, in the 21st century the UK retains the ability to project significant power and influence around the world.

Government involvement is primarily exercised by Her Majesty's Treasury, headed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the Department for Business, Energy and Industrial Strategy. Since 1979 management of the economy has followed a broadly laissez-faire approach. The Bank of England is the UK's central bank, and since 1997 its Monetary Policy Committee has been responsible for setting interest rates, quantitative easing, and forward guidance.

The currency of the UK is the *pound sterling*, which is the world's fourth-largest reserve currency after the United States dollar, the Euro and the Japanese yen, and is also one of the 10 most-valued currencies in the world.

The UK is a founding member of the Commonwealth, the G7, the G20, the International Monetary Fund, the Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe, NATO, the United Nations Security Council, the World Bank, the World Trade Organization, Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank and the United Nations.

GOVERNMENT SPENDING AND ECONOMIC MANAGEMENT



The Bank of England, London

Government involvement in the economy is primarily exercised by HM Treasury (Her Majesty's Treasury, sometimes referred to as the Exchequer, or more informally the Treasury, is the department of the Government of the United Kingdom responsible for developing and executing the government's public finance policy and economic policy) headed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer. In recent years, the UK economy has been managed in accordance with principles of market liberalisation and low taxation and regulation. Since 1997, the Bank of England's Monetary Policy Committee, headed by the Governor of the Bank of England, has been responsible for setting interest rates at the level necessary to achieve the overall inflation target for the economy that is set by the Chancellor each year. The Scottish Government, subject to the approval of the Scottish Parliament, has the power to vary the basic rate of income tax payable in Scotland by plus or minus 3 pence in the pound, though this power has not yet been exercised.

Taxation in the United Kingdom may involve payments to at least two different levels of government: local government and central government (HM Revenue & Customs). Local government is financed by grants from central government funds, business rates, council tax, and, increasingly, fees and charges such as those from on-street parking. Central government revenues are mainly from income tax, national insurance contributions, value added tax, corporation tax and fuel duty

Sectors of the UK economy

Agriculture

Production industries: manufacturing, mining

Service industries: creative industries, education, health and social work, financial and business services, real estate and renting activities, tourism, wholesale and retail trade, transportation, education, health and social work

Agriculture in the UK is intensive, highly mechanised, and efficient by European standards. The country produces around 65% of its food needs. Barley, wheat, rapeseed, potatoes, sugar beets, fruits, and vegetables are the main crops. The widespread dairy industry produces milk, eggs, and cheese. Beef cattle and large numbers of sheep, as well as poultry and pigs, are raised throughout much of the country. There is also a sizable fishing industry, with cod, haddock, mackerel, whiting, trout, salmon, and shellfish making up the bulk of the catch.

Agriculture added gross value of £12.18 billion to the economy in 2018, and around 392,000 people were employed in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing. It contributes around 0.6% of the UK's national GDP. Around two-thirds of production

by value is devoted to livestock, and one-third to arable crops. The agri-food sector as a whole (agriculture and food manufacturing, wholesale, catering, and retail) was worth £120 billion and accounts for 4 million jobs in the UK

Production industries

Manufacturing

In the 1970s, manufacturing accounted for 25 percent of the economy. Total employment in manufacturing fell from 7.1 million in 1979 to 4.5 million in 1992 and only 2.7 million in 2016, when it accounted for 10% of the economy.

In 2011 the UK manufacturing sector generated approximately £140,539 million in gross value added and employed around 2.6 million people. Of the approximately £16 billion invested in R&D by UK businesses in 2008, approximately £12 billion was by manufacturing businesses. In 2008, the UK was the sixth-largest manufacturer in the world measured by value of output.

In 2008 around 180,000 people in the UK were directly employed in the UK automotive manufacturing sector. In that year the sector had a turnover of £52.5 billion, generated £26.6 billion of exports and produced around 1.45 million passenger vehicles and 203,000 commercial vehicles. The UK is a major centre for engine manufacturing, and in 2008 around 3.16 million engines were produced in the country.

The aerospace industry of the UK is the second- or third-largest aerospace industry in the world, depending upon the method of measurement. The industry employs around 113,000 people directly and around 276,000 indirectly and has an annual turnover of around £20 billion. British companies with a major presence in the industry include BAE Systems and Rolls-Royce (the world's second-largest aircraft engine maker). European aerospace companies active in the UK include Airbus, whose commercial aircraft, space, helicopter and defence divisions employ over 13,500 people across more than 25 UK sites.

The pharmaceutical industry employs around 67,000 people in the UK and in 2007 contributed £8.4 billion to the UK's GDP and invested a total of £3.9 billion in research and development. In 2007 exports of pharmaceutical products from the UK totalled £14.6 billion, creating a trade surplus in pharmaceutical products of £4.3 billion. The UK is home to GlaxoSmithKline and AstraZeneca, respectively the world's third- and seventh-largest pharmaceutical companies.

Mining (гірничодобувна)

The UK is rich in a number of natural resources including coal, tin, limestone, iron ore, salt, clay, chalk, gypsum, lead and silica (*вугілля, олово, вапняк, залізна руда, сіль, глина, крейда, гіпс, свинець та кремній*).

The Blue Book 2013 reports that this sector added gross value of £31,380 million to the UK economy in 2011. In 2009, the UK produced 1.5 million barrels per day (bbl/d) of oil and consumed 1.7 million bbl/d. Production is now in decline and the UK has been a net importer of oil since 2005.

In 2009 the UK was the 13th largest producer of natural gas in the world and the largest producer in the EU. Production is now in decline and the UK has been a net

importer of natural gas since 2004.

In 2009 the UK produced 19.7 million tons of coal and consumed 60.2 million tons. It has been estimated that identified onshore areas have the potential to produce between 7 billion tonnes and 16 billion tonnes of coal through underground coal gasification (UCG). Based on current UK coal consumption, these volumes represent reserves that could last the UK between 200 and 400 years.

The UK is home to a number of large energy companies, including two of the six oil and gas "supermajors" – BP and Royal Dutch Shell.

Service industries

The service sector is the dominant sector of the UK economy, and it accounted for 79% of GDP in 2019.

Creative industries

The creative industries accounted for 7% of gross value added (GVA) in 2005 and grew at an average of 6% per annum between 1997 and 2005. Key areas include London and the North West of England, which are the two largest creative industry clusters in Europe. According to the British Fashion Council, the fashion industry's contribution to the UK economy in 2014 is £26 billion, up from £21 billion in 2009. The UK is home to the world's largest advertising company, WPP.

Financial services

The UK financial services industry added gross value of £116,363 million to the UK economy in 2011. The UK's exports of financial and business services make a significant positive contribution towards the country's balance of payments.



Paternoster Square, home of the London Stock Exchange

London is a major centre for international business and commerce and is one of the three "command centres" of the global economy (alongside New York City and Tokyo). There are over 500 banks with offices in London, and it is the leading international centre for banking, insurance, Eurobonds, foreign exchange trading and energy futures. London's financial services industry is primarily based in the City of London and Canary Wharf. The City houses the London Stock Exchange, the London International Financial Futures and Options Exchange, the London Metal Exchange, Lloyds of London, and the Bank of England. Canary Wharf began development in the 1980s and is now home to major financial institutions such as Barclays Bank, Citigroup and HSBC, as well as the UK Financial Services Authority. London is also a major centre for other business and professional services, and four of the six largest law firms in the world are headquartered there.

Several other major UK cities have large financial sectors and related services.

Edinburgh has one of the largest financial centres in Europe and is home to the headquarters of Lloyds Banking Group, NatWest Group and Standard Life. Leeds is the UK's largest centre for business and financial services outside London, and the largest centre for legal services in the UK after London.

According to a series of research papers and reports published in the mid-2010s, Britain's financial firms provide sophisticated methods to launder billions of pounds annually, including money from the proceeds of corruption around the world as well as the world's drug trade, thus making the city a global hub for illicit finance. According to a Deutsche Bank study published in March 2015, Britain was attracting circa one billion pounds of capital inflows a month not recorded by official statistics, up to 40 percent probably originating from Russia, which implies misreporting by financial institutions, sophisticated tax avoidance, and the UK's "safe-haven" reputation.

Real estate and renting activities

Notable real estate companies in the United Kingdom include British Land, Land Securities, and The Peel Group. The UK property market boomed for the seven years up to 2008, and in some areas property trebled in value over that period. The increase in property prices had a number of causes: low interest rates, credit growth, economic growth, rapid growth in buy-to-let property investment, foreign property investment in London and planning restrictions on the supply of new housing. In England and Wales between 1997 and 2016, average house prices increased by 259%, while earnings increased by 68%. An average home cost 3.6 times annual earnings in 1997 compared to 7.6 in 2016. Rent has nearly doubled as a share of GDP since 1985, and is now larger than the manufacturing sector. In 2014, rent and imputed rent – an estimate of how much home-owners would pay if they rented their home – accounted for 12.3% of GD.

Tourism



The British Museum received 6.2 million visitors in 2019.

With over 40 million visits in 2019, inbound tourism contributed £28.5 billion to the British economy, although just over half of that money was spent in London, which was the third most visited city in the world (21.7 million), behind second-placed Bangkok and first-placed Hong Kong.

Effects of the COVID-19 pandemic

The travel restrictions and lockdowns necessitated by the pandemic negatively affected the entire hospitality/tourism section in 2020 with a 76% reduction in "inbound tourism" to the UK that year.

Wholesale and retail trade

This sector includes the motor trade, auto repairs, personal and household goods industries. The Blue Book 2013 reports that this sector added gross value of £151,785 million to the UK economy in 2011.

As of 2016, high-street retail spending accounted for about 33% of consumer spending and 20% of GDP. Because 75% of goods bought in the United Kingdom are made overseas, the sector only accounts for 5.7% of gross value added to the British economy. Online sales account for 22% of retail spending in the UK, third highest in the world after China and South Korea, and double that of the United States.

The UK grocery market is dominated by four companies: Tesco (27% market share), Sainsbury's (15.4%), Asda (14.9%) and Morrisons (10%), when these supermarkets are known as the "Big Four". However discount supermarkets such as ALDI have grown in popularity.

London is a major retail centre and in 2010 had the highest non-food retail sales of any city in the world, with a total spend of around £64.2 billion. Outside of London, Manchester and Birmingham are also major retail destinations, the UK is also home to many large out of town shopping centres like Meadowhall, away from the main high streets in town and city centres. Whilst the big international names dominate most towns and cities have streets or areas with many often quirky independent businesses. The UK-based Tesco is the fourth-largest retailer in Europe measured by turnover (after Swartz, Aldi, and Carrefour in 2019).

Transportation

UK transportation is one of the best and oldest one; it has a very rich history behind it. Transport in Britain is very high-tech and at the peak of its scientific invention. The UK has an integrated transport system of airports, seaports, rail and road.

Britain is one of the few countries in Europe where double-decker buses (i.e. with two floors) are a common sight. Although single-deckers have also been in use since the 1960s, London still has more than 3000 double-deckers in operation. In their original form, they were "hop-on, hop-off" buses. That is, there were no doors, just an opening at the back to the outside. There was a conductor who walked around collecting fares while the bus was moving. However, most buses these days, including double-deckers, have separate doors for getting on and off and no conductor (fares are paid to the driver).

The famous London Underground, known as "the tube", is feeling the effects of its age (it was first opened in 1863). It is now one of the dirtiest and least efficient of all such systems in European cities. However, it is still heavily used because it provides excellent connections with the main line train stations and with the suburbs surrounding the city.

Another symbol of London is the distinctive black taxi (in fact, they are not all black these days, nor are they confined to London).

The UK has some of the largest and busiest international airports in Europe. Leading international airports include: London Heathrow; London Gatwick; Manchester; Birmingham International; etc.

The UK has a network of 417.000 kilometres of roads, including 3.600 kilometres of motorways. The majority are toll free. The road network provides for easy access to major cities both within the UK and in mainland Europe.

The rail network provides links nationwide and to Europe through the Eurostar connection and the Channel Tunnel.

Sea transport may be a good option if you need to transport large volumes of goods cheaply. There are a total of 100 active ports in the UK, handling over 550 million tonnes of freight each year.

Education, health and social work



The Queen Elizabeth Hospital Birmingham, a major NHS hospital

According to The Blue Book 2013 the education sector added gross value of £84,556 million in 2011 whilst human health and social work activities added £104,026 million in 2011.

In the UK the majority of the healthcare sector consists of the state funded and operated National Health Service (NHS), which accounts for over 80% of all healthcare spending in the UK and has a workforce of around 1.7 million, making it the largest employer in Europe, and putting it amongst the largest employers in the world. The NHS operates independently in each of the four constituent countries of the UK. The NHS in England is by far the largest of the four parts and had a turnover of £92.5 billion in 2008.

The NHS is very typically British. This is in its avoidance of bureaucracy. The system, from the public's point of view, is beautifully simple. There are no forms to fill-in and payments to be made which are later refunded. About 83% of the cost of the health service is paid for by general taxation and the rest is met from the National Insurance contributions paid by those in work. There are charges for prescriptions and dental care but many people, such as children, pregnant women, pensioners and those on Income Support, are exempt from payment.

Most people are registered with a local doctor (a GP, or General Practitioner) who is increasingly likely to be a part of a health centre which serves the community. A visit to the GP is the first step towards getting any kind of treatment. The GP then arranges for whatever tests, surgery, specialist consultation or "medicine are considered necessary . Only if it is an emergency or if the patient is away from home

can treatment be obtained in some other way. Family Practitioners Committees monitor and plan local GP, dentist, optician, and chemist services, and are directly responsible to the secretary of state for health.

The UK spends less money per person on health care than any other country in the western world. One possible reason for this is the way that GPs are paid. The money which they get from the government does not depend on the number of consultations they perform. Instead, it depends on the number of registered patients they have - they get a "capitation" allowance for each one. It is in their interest that patients remain as healthy as possible, so that they can have more patients on their books. The other possible reason is that people do not like to make a big drama out of being ill. If the doctor tells them that there is nothing to worry about, they are likely to accept this diagnosis.

In 2007/08 higher education institutions in the UK had a total income of £23 billion and employed a total of 169,995 staff. In 2007/08 there were 2,306,000 higher education students in the UK (1,922,180 in England, 210,180 in Scotland, 125,540 in Wales and 48,200 in Northern Ireland).

Economy by region

The strength of the UK economy varies from country to country and from region to region. Excluding the effects of North Sea oil and gas (which is classified in official statistics as extra-region), England has the highest gross value added (GVA) and Wales the lowest of the UK's constituent countries.

Rank	Country	GVA per head, 2018
1	England	£32,857 (\$43834)
2	Scotland	£29,660 (\$39569)
3	Northern Ireland	£25,981 (\$34661)
4	Wales	£23,866 (\$31839)

Within England, GVA per capita is highest in London. The following table shows the GVA per capita of the nine statistical regions of England.

Rank	Region	GVA per head, 2018
1	London	£54,686 (\$72955)
2	South East England	£34,083 (\$45469)
3	East of England	£30,069 (\$40114)
4	North West England	£28,449 (\$37953)
5	South West England	£28,231 (\$37662)
6	West Midlands	£27,087 (\$36136)
7	East Midlands	£25,946 (\$34614)
8	Yorkshire and the Humber	£25,859 (\$34498)
9	North East England	£23,569 (\$31443)

Social security expenditure

The benefits system. The most straightforward way is direct payments of government money. Any adult who cannot find paid work, or any family whose total

income is not enough for its basic needs, is entitled to financial help. It comes in various ways and is usually paid by the *Department of Social Security*. Anyone below the retirement age of sixty-five who has previously worked for a certain minimum period of time can receive *unemployment benefit* (known as "*the dole*"). This is organised by the *Department of Employment*. All retired people are entitled to the *standard old-age pension*, provided they have paid their national insurance contributions for most of their working lives. After a certain age even people who are still earning can receive their pension (at a slightly reduced rate). The government pension is not very high. Many people therefore make arrangements during their working lives to have some additional form of income after they retire. They may, for instance, contribute to a *pension fund* (also called a *superannuation scheme*). These are usually organised by employers and both employer and employee make regular contributions to them. A life insurance policy can also be used as a form of saving. Some people are entitled to neither pension nor unemployment benefit (because they have not previously worked for long enough or they have been unemployed for a long time). These people can apply for *income support* (previously called supplementary benefit) and if they have no significant savings, they receive it. Income support is also paid to those with paid work but who need extra money, e.g. because they have a particularly large family or their earnings are especially low.

The whole social security system is coming under increasing pressure because of the rising numbers of both unemployed people and pensioners. It is argued that this blanket distribution of benefits should be modified and that only those who really need them should get them. Still, this would presuppose constant means tests for millions of households, which is very unpopular.

Social services and charities. As well as giving financial help, the government also takes a more active role in looking after people's welfare. Services are run either directly or indirectly (contracting out to private companies) by local government, e.g. building and running of old people's homes and the provision of "*home helps*" for the disabled. Professional social workers have the task of identifying and helping members of the community in need; the old, the mentally handicapped and children suffering from neglect or from maltreatment. There are also around 6 million informal carers in the UK, about 58% of whom are women. However, there seems to be a values conflict in modern Britain. On the one hand, there is the traditional respect for privacy and the importance placed on "family values"; on the other hand, there is the modern expectation that public agencies will intervene in people's private lives and their legal ability to do so.

Before the welfare state was established and the concept of "social services" came into being, the poor and the needy in Britain turned to charitable organisations. These were and are staffed by unpaid volunteers, especially women and relied and still rely on voluntary contributions from the public. There are more than 150,000 registered charities in the UK today. *The Samaritans* organisation offers free counselling by phone, with anonymity guaranteed, to anybody who is in despair and thinking of committing suicide. *The Salvation Army* grew out of Christian missionary work in slums of London in the 19th century. It offers help to the most desperate, e.g. overnight accommodation in hostels for the homeless. *Barnardo's* founded used to

provide homes for orphans and still helps children in need. *MENCAP* is a charity for the mentally handicapped and campaigns on their behalf.

Everyday life

Earning money. People are employed in the three sectors: *agriculture*, *manufacturing* and *services*. Earlier in history, Britain had a very large manufacturing sector. Food, fuel and raw materials such as cotton were imported in large quantities and paid for with finished goods manufactured in Britain: it was known as "the workshop of the world". Today, the manufacturing sector and the small primary sector are employing even fewer people mainly through the increase of productivity, so that fewer workers are producing the same output more efficiently. Meanwhile, service industries like banking and catering are expanding their workforce.

At the upper end of the social scale sceptic attitude to work exists because leisure has always been the main sign of aristocracy. If you have to work, then the less it looks like work the better. Employment is often divided into sections according to type of work and social class. These categories include professional, manual and non-manual. Traditionally therefore, a major sign of being middle class (as opposed to working class) has been that you do non-manual work. The fact that skilled manual (or "blue-collar") workers have been paid more than the lower grades of "*white-collar*" (i.e. non-manual) worker for several decades has only slightly changed this perception. This "anti-work" outlook among the working class has led to a relative lack of ambition and a belief that high earnings are more important than job satisfaction. These attitudes are slowly changing.

The old distinction between the white-collar and blue-collar workers has become less clear as Britain's new technology has become more important. The Institute of Practitioners in Advertising defines six social classes, based on the occupation of the head of the household:

Class Occupation

A	Higher managerial, administrative or professional
B	Managerial, administrative or professional
C1	Supervisory or clerical, junior managerial, administrative professional
C2	Skilled manual workers
D	Semi- and unskilled manual workers
E	State pensioners, casual or lowest grade workers or long-term unemployed

By 2000 21% of jobs were part-time and 44% of workers were women. The basic employment trend of the 1980s continued, with a general rise in the number of part-time jobs for women, particularly in service industries. The number of people who were self-employed also rose due partly to new technologies and to changing work patterns. The high unemployment of the 1980s fell during the 1990s. As well as regional and occupational variations there are big differences in pay between men and women. Certain highly-skilled occupations such as surgery are still almost exclusively confined to men.

The traditional lack of enthusiasm for work is the reason why the working day, in comparison with most European countries, starts rather late (usually 8 o'clock for

manual workers and around 9 for non-manual workers). The normal lunch-break is an hour or less, and most people unless they work part-time continue working until 5 or later. Many people work several hours overtime a week. In addition, a comparatively large proportion of the British stay in the workforce for comparatively large proportion of their lives. The normal retiring age for most people is 65 (60 for a greater proportion of women). The level of unemployment is gradually rising and most jobs opportunities are in the service sector (communications, health care and social care).

Spending money: shopping. The British are not very adventurous shoppers. They like reliability and buy brand-name goods, preferably with the price clearly marked (they are not very keen on haggling over prices). It is therefore not surprising that a high proportion of the country's shops are branches of chain stores. Visitors from Europe are surprised by the shabbiness of shop-window displays, even in prosperous areas. This is not necessarily a sign of economic depression. It is just that the British do not demand art in their shop windows. In general, they have been rather slow to take on the idea that shopping might actually be fun. On the positive side, visitors are also sometimes struck by the variety of types of shop. Most shops are chain stores but among those that are not, there is much individuality. Independent shop owners feel no need to follow conventional ideas about what a particular shop does and does not sell. In the last quarter of the twentieth century supermarkets were moving out of town, they were becoming bigger and turning into "hypermarkets" stocking a wider variety of items. However, this trend has not gone as far as it has in some EU countries. For example, few supermarkets sell clothes, shoes, kitchen utensils or electrical goods. They still concentrate mainly on everyday needs.

The move out of town however is already well established, with many of the country's chain stores following the supersets into specially built *shopping centres*. The area in town where the local shops are concentrated is known as the *High Street*. British high streets have suffered from the move towards out-of-town shopping. In the worst-affected towns, as many as a quarter of the shops in the High Street are vacant. But High Streets have often survived by adapting. In larger towns, shops have tended to become either more specialised or to sell especially cheap goods (for people who are too poor to own a car and drive out of town). Many have become *charity shops* (selling second-hand items and staffed by volunteers) and *discount stores*.

A shop in a residential area is often referred to as *the corner shop*. These sometimes sell various kinds of food, but they are not always general grocers. Usually their main business is newspapers, magazines, sweets and tobacco products. Only in corner shops do shopkeepers know their customers personally, only in these is the interaction across the counter often social as well as transactional. People working in other shops are often very helpful but the conversation usually has some clear purpose. In the last quarter of the 20th century, many corner shops were taken over by people from southern Asia and delighted the neighbourhood by staying open very long hours.

The best known supermarket chains are Sainsbury and Tesco. Asda is the best known of many discount stores. There is only one department store with a large number of branches. This is Marks & Spencer. It is so well-known that it is often

referred to as "Marks and Sparks" or just "M and S". To the British, clothes at M&S are typical of the middle range: of fairly good quality, neither cheap nor expensive, and rather conservative.

LECTURE 4. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. The economy of the United Kingdom is a _____ economy.
2. British currency is _____ (GBP, £).
3. Gross domestic product is \$ _____ in 2021.
4. The main economic sector contributing _____% of GDP is service sector
5. Population below poverty line is _____% in 2018.
6. Labour force by occupation: agriculture: 1.5%, industry: 18.8%, services: _____% estimated in 2011.
7. Average gross salary £ _____ weekly median (April 2019)
8. Main import partners are European Union (____%) and the USA (10%)
9. England has _____ gross value added (GVA) and Wales the lowest of the UK's constituent countries.
10. Within England, GVA per capita is _____ in London.
11. Anyone below the retirement age of _____ who has previously worked for a certain minimum period of time can receive unemployment benefit known as "the dole".
12. The skilled manual workers are called _____ while non-manual workers who often work in service industries are called _____.
13. _____ (also referred to as "Marks and Sparks", "M and S" or M&S) is a major British multinational retailer with headquarters in London, that specialises in selling clothing, home products and food products.

LECTURE 5. LANGUAGE. NATIONAL IDENTITY

- Language
- A short history of the origins and development of the English language: Old, Middle and Modern periods
- Spread of Modern English
- English as a global language
- Dialects, accents and varieties
- The national identity. Britishness

Statistics:

Ethnithity: English people, Anglo-Saxons (historically)

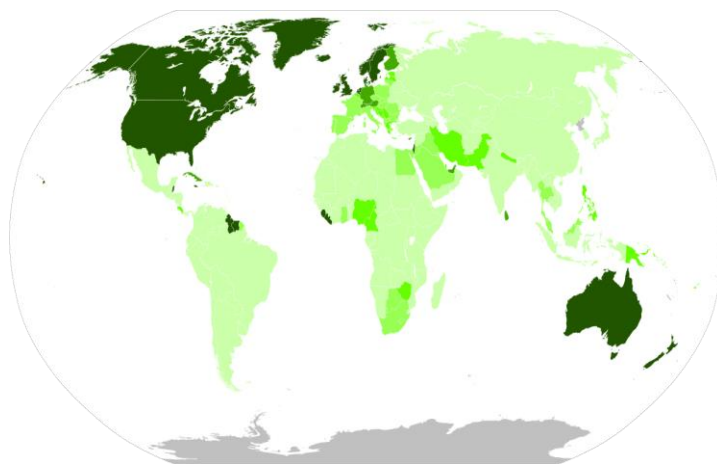
Native speakers: 360-400 mln (2010)

As a foreign language: 600-700 mln

Language family: Indo-European Germanic: West Germanic: Ingvaeonic: Anglo-Frisian- Anglic – English

Early forms: Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English

A short history of the origins and development of the English language. English is an Indo-European language and belongs to the West Germanic group of the Germanic languages. It is the largest language by number of speakers, and *the third most-spoken native language* in the world, after Standard Chinese and Spanish. It is the most widely learned second language and is either the official language or one of the official languages in almost 60 sovereign states. There are more people who have learned it as a second language than there are native speakers. It is estimated that there are over *2 billion speakers of English*. English is the majority native language in the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Ireland, and it is widely spoken in some areas of the Caribbean, Africa and South Asia. It is an official language in 67 countries. It is a co-official language of the United Nations, the European Union and many other world and regional international organisations.



Percentage of English speakers by country and dependency as of 2014.

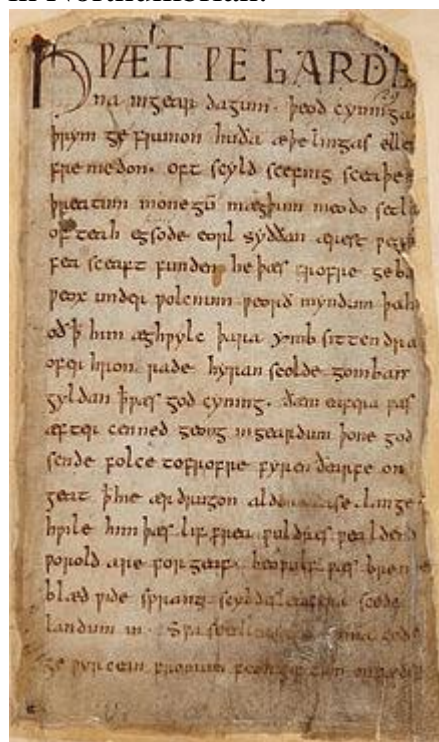
■ 80–100% ■ 60–80% ■ 40–60% ■ 20–40% ■ 0.1–20%

The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders - mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland

Old English (450-1100 AD)

The earliest form of English is called Old English or Anglo-Saxon (550–1066). Old English developed from a set of West Germanic dialects, often grouped as Anglo-Frisian or North Sea Germanic, and originally spoken along the coasts of Frisia, Lower Saxony and southern Jutland by Germanic peoples known to the historical record as the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. From the 5th century, the Anglo-Saxons settled Britain as the Roman economy and administration collapsed. By the 7th century, the Germanic language of the Anglo-Saxons became dominant in Britain, replacing the languages of Roman Britain (43–409): Common Brittonic, a Celtic language, and Latin, brought to Britain by the Roman occupation. *England* and *English* (originally *Ænglaland* and *Ænglisc*) are named after the Angles.

Old English was divided into four dialects: the Anglian dialects (Mercian and Northumbrian) and the Saxon dialects, Kentish and West Saxon. Through the educational reforms of King Alfred in the 9th century and the influence of the kingdom of Wessex, the West Saxon dialect became the standard written variety. The epic poem *Beowulf* is written in West Saxon, and the earliest English poem, *Cædmon's Hymn*, is written in Northumbrian.



The opening to the Old English epic poem *Beowulf*, handwritten in half-uncial script: *Hwæt pē Gārde/na ingēar dagum pēod cyninga / þrym ge frunon...* "Listen! We of the Spear-Danes from days of yore have heard of the glory of the folk-kings..

Modern English developed mainly from Mercian, but the Scots language

developed from Northumbrian. A few short inscriptions from the early period of Old English were written using a runic script. By the 6th century, a Latin alphabet was adopted, written with half-uncial letter forms. It included the runic letters wynn ⟨ƿ⟩ and thorn ⟨þ⟩, and the modified Latin letters eth ⟨ð⟩, and ash ⟨æ⟩.

Old English is essentially a distinct language from Modern English and is virtually impossible for 21st-century unstudied English-speakers to understand. Its grammar was similar to that of modern German, and its closest relative is Old Frisian. Nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs had many more inflectional endings and forms, and word order was much freer than in Modern English. Modern English has case forms in pronouns (*he, him, his*) and has a few verb inflections (*speak, speaks, speaking, spoke, spoken*), but Old English had case endings in nouns as well, and verbs had more person and number endings.

Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words *be, strong and water*, for example, derive from Old English. Old English was spoken until around 1100.

Middle English (1100-1500)

From the 8th to the 12th century, Old English gradually transformed through language contact into Middle English. Middle English is often arbitrarily defined as beginning with the conquest of England by William the Conqueror in 1066, but it developed further in the period from 1200 to 1450.

First, the waves of Norse colonisation of northern parts of the British Isles in the 8th and 9th centuries put Old English into intense contact with Old Norse, a North Germanic language. Norse influence was strongest in the north-eastern varieties of Old English spoken in the Danelaw area around York, which was the centre of Norse colonisation; today these features are still particularly present in Scots and Northern English. However the centre of norsified English seems to have been in the Midlands around Lindsey, and after 920 CE when Lindsey was reincorporated into the Anglo-Saxon polity, Norse features spread from there into English varieties that had not been in direct contact with Norse speakers. An element of Norse influence that persists in all English varieties today is the group of pronouns beginning with *th-* (*they, them, their*) which replaced the Anglo-Saxon pronouns with *h-* (*hie, him, hera*).

In 1066 William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy (part of modern France), invaded and conquered England. The new conquerors (called the Normans) brought with them a kind of French, which became the language of the Royal Court, and the ruling and business classes. The Norman language in England eventually developed into Anglo-Norman. Because Norman was spoken primarily by the elites and nobles, while the lower classes continued speaking Anglo-Saxon (English). For a period there was a kind of linguistic class division, where the lower classes spoke English and the upper classes spoke French. The main influence of Norman was the introduction of a wide range of loanwords related to politics, legislation and prestigious social domains. Middle English also greatly simplified the inflectional system, probably in order to reconcile Old Norse and Old English, which were inflectionally different but morphologically similar. The distinction between nominative and accusative cases was lost except in personal pronouns, the instrumental case was dropped, and the use of the genitive case was limited to

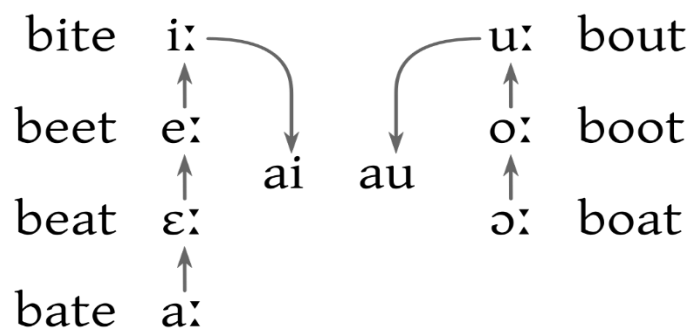
indicating possession. The inflectional system regularised many irregular inflectional forms, and gradually simplified the system of agreement, making word order less flexible. In the Wycliffe Bible of the 1380s, the verse Matthew 8:20 was written: *Foxis han dennes, and briddis of heuene han nestis*. Here the plural suffix *-n* on the verb *have* is still retained, but none of the case endings on the nouns are present. By the 12th century Middle English was fully developed, integrating both Norse and French features. In the 14th century English became dominant in Britain again, but with many French words added. It continued to be spoken until the transition to early Modern English around 1500. Middle English literature includes Geoffrey Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*, and Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur*. In the Middle English period, the use of regional dialects in writing proliferated, and dialect traits were even used for effect by authors such as the great poet Chaucer (1340-1400), but it would still be difficult for native English speakers to understand today.

Modern English. Early Modern English (1500-1800)

The next period in the history of English was Early Modern English (1500–1700). Early Modern English was characterised by the *Great Vowel Shift* (1400–1700), inflectional simplification, and linguistic standardisation.

The Great Vowel Shift affected the stressed long vowels of Middle English. It was a chain shift, meaning that each shift triggered a subsequent shift in the vowel system. Mid and open vowels were raised, and close vowels were broken into diphthongs. For example, the word *bite* was originally pronounced as the word *beet* is today, and the second vowel in the word *about* was pronounced as the word *boot* is today. Towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter. From the 16th century the British had contact with many peoples from around the world.

The Great Vowel Shift explains many *irregularities* in spelling since English retains many spellings from Middle English, and it also explains why English vowel letters have very different pronunciations from the same letters in other languages.



Graphic representation of the *Great Vowel Shift*, showing how the pronunciation of the long vowels gradually shifted, with the high vowels *i:* and *u:* breaking into diphthongs and the lower vowels each shifting their pronunciation up one level

English began to rise in prestige, relative to Norman French, during the reign of Henry V. Around 1430, the Court of Chancery in Westminster began using English in

its official documents, and a new standard form of Middle English, known as Chancery Standard, developed from the dialects of London and the East Midlands. In 1476, William Caxton introduced the printing press to England and began publishing the first printed books in London, expanding the influence of this form of English. Literature from the Early Modern period includes the works of William Shakespeare and the translation of the Bible commissioned by King James I. Even after the vowel shift the language still sounded different from Modern English: for example, the consonant clusters /kn gn sw/ in *knight*, *gnat*, and *sword* were still pronounced. Many of the grammatical features that a modern reader of Shakespeare might find quaint or archaic represent the distinct characteristics of Early Modern English.

In the 1611 King James Version of the Bible, written in Early Modern English, Matthew 8:20 says, "The Foxes haue holes and the birds of the ayre haue nests." This exemplifies the loss of case and its effects on sentence structure (replacement with subject–verb–object word order, and the use of *of* instead of the non-possessive genitive), and the introduction of loanwords from French (*ayre*) and word replacements (*bird* originally meaning "nestling" had replaced OE *fugo*).

English comprises Latin (29%) e.g., human, animal, station, lunar, solar, decimal, digit, library; Germanic (29%) e.g., parts of the body (short ones) eye, arm, feet, boy, girl, health, hand, bread; Greek (with Christianity) academic words e.g., androids, climate cinema, democracy, history, idea, politics, technology, French (29%) e.g., food words: beef, pork, veal, continue, liberty, justice, journey, people, very.

Spread of Modern English

By the late 18th century, the British Empire had spread English through its colonies and geopolitical dominance. Commerce, science and technology, diplomacy, art, and formal education all contributed to English becoming the first truly global language. English also facilitated worldwide international communication. England continued to form new colonies, and these later developed their own norms for speech and writing. English was adopted in parts of North America, parts of Africa, Australasia, and many other regions. When they obtained political independence, some of the newly independent nations that had multiple indigenous languages opted to continue using English as the official language to avoid the political and other difficulties inherent in promoting any one indigenous language above the others. In the 20th century the growing economic and cultural influence of the United States and its status as a superpower following the Second World War has, along with worldwide broadcasting in English by the BBC and other broadcasters, caused the language to spread across the planet much faster. In the 21st century, English is more widely spoken and written than any language has ever been.

As Modern English developed, explicit norms for standard usage were published, and spread through official media such as public education and state-sponsored publications. In 1755 Samuel Johnson published his *A Dictionary of the English Language* which introduced standard spellings of words and usage norms. In 1828, Noah Webster published the *American Dictionary of the English language* to try to establish a norm for speaking and writing American English that was independent of

the British standard. Within Britain, non-standard or lower class dialect features were increasingly stigmatised, leading to the quick spread of the prestige varieties among the middle classes.

In modern English, the loss of grammatical case is almost complete (it is now only found in pronouns, such as *he* and *him*, *she* and *her*, *who* and *whom*), and SVO word order is mostly fixed. Some changes, such as the use of do-support have become universalised. (Earlier English did not use the word "do" as a general auxiliary as Modern English does; at first it was only used in question constructions, and even then was not obligatory. Now, do-support with the verb *have* is becoming increasingly standardised.) The use of progressive forms in *-ing*, appears to be spreading to new constructions, and forms such as *had been being built* are becoming more common. Regularisation of irregular forms also slowly continues (e.g. *dreamed* instead of *dreamt*), and analytical alternatives to inflectional forms are becoming more common (e.g. *more polite* instead of *politer*). British English is also undergoing change under the influence of American English, fuelled by the strong presence of American English in the media and the prestige associated with the US as a world power.

English as a global language

English has ceased to be an "English language" in the sense of belonging only to people who are ethnically English. Use of English is growing country-by-country internally and for international communication. Most people learn English for practical rather than ideological reasons. Many speakers of English in Africa have become part of an "Afro-Saxon" language community that unites Africans from different countries.

As decolonisation proceeded throughout the British Empire in the 1950s and 1960s, former colonies often did not reject English but rather continued to use it as independent countries setting their own language policies. For example, the view of the English language among many Indians has gone from associating it with colonialism to associating it with economic progress, and English continues to be an official language of India. English is also widely used in media and literature, and the number of English language books published annually in India is the third largest in the world after the US and UK. However English is rarely spoken as a first language, numbering only around a couple hundred-thousand people, and less than 5% of the population speak fluent English in India. David Crystal claimed in 2004 that, combining native and non-native speakers, India now has more people who speak or understand English than any other country in the world, but the number of English speakers in India is very uncertain, with most scholars concluding that the United States still has more speakers of English than India.

Modern English, sometimes described as the first global lingua franca, is also regarded as the first world language. English is the world's most widely used language in newspaper publishing, book publishing, international telecommunications, scientific publishing, international trade, mass entertainment, and diplomacy. English is, by international treaty, the basis for the required controlled natural languages Seaspeak and Airspeak, used as international languages

of seafaring and aviation. English used to have parity with French and German in scientific research, but now it dominates that field. It achieved parity with French as a language of diplomacy at the Treaty of Versailles negotiations in 1919. By the time of the foundation of the United Nations at the end of World War II, English had become pre-eminent and is now the main worldwide language of diplomacy and international relations. It is one of six official languages of the United Nations. Many other worldwide international organisations, including the International Olympic Committee, specify English as a working language or official language of the organisation.

Many regional international organisations such as the European Free Trade Association, Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), and Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) set English as their organisation's sole working language even though most members are not countries with a majority of native English speakers. While the European Union (EU) allows member states to designate any of the national languages as an official language of the Union, in practice English is the main working language of EU organisations.

Although in most countries English is not an official language, it is currently the language most often taught as a foreign language. In the countries of the EU, English is the most widely spoken foreign language in nineteen of the twenty-five member states where it is not an official language (that is, the countries other than Ireland and Malta). In a 2012 official Eurobarometer poll (conducted when the UK was still a member of the EU), 38 percent of the EU respondents outside the countries where English is an official language said they could speak English well enough to have a conversation in that language. The next most commonly mentioned foreign language, French (which is the most widely known foreign language in the UK and Ireland), could be used in conversation by 12 percent of respondents.

A working knowledge of English has become a requirement in a number of occupations and professions such as medicine and computing. English has become so important in scientific publishing that more than 80 percent of all scientific journal articles indexed by *Chemical Abstracts* in 1998 were written in English, as were 90 percent of all articles in natural science publications by 1996 and 82 percent of articles in humanities publications by 1995.

International communities such as international business people may use English as an auxiliary language, with an emphasis on vocabulary suitable for their domain of interest. This has led some scholars to develop the study of English as an auxiliary language. The trademarked Globish uses a relatively small subset of English vocabulary (about 1500 words, designed to represent the highest use in international business English) in combination with the standard English grammar. Other examples include Simple English.

The increased use of the English language globally has had an effect on other languages, leading to some English words being assimilated into the vocabularies of other languages. This influence of English has led to concerns about language death, and to claims of linguistic imperialism, and has provoked resistance to the spread of English; however the number of speakers continues to increase because many people around the world think that English provides them with opportunities for better

employment and improved lives.

Although some scholars mention a possibility of future divergence of English dialects into mutually unintelligible languages, most think a more likely outcome is that English will continue to function as a koineised language in which the standard form unifies speakers from around the world. English is used as the language for wider communication in countries around the world. Thus English has grown in worldwide use much more than any constructed language proposed as an international auxiliary language, including Esperanto.

Dialects, accents and varieties

English comprises Latin (29%) e.g., human, animal, station, lunar, solar, decimal, digit, library; Germanic (29%) e.g., parts of the body (short ones) eye, arm, feet, boy, girl, health, hand, bread; Greek (with Christianity) academic words e.g., androids, climate cinema, democracy, history, idea, politics, technology, French (29%) e.g., food words: beef, pork, veal, continue, liberty, justice, journey, people, very.

Dialectologists identify many English dialects, which usually refer to regional varieties that differ from each other in terms of patterns of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. The pronunciation of particular areas distinguishes dialects as separate regional accents. The major native dialects of English are often divided by linguists into the two extremely general categories of British English (BrE) and North American English (NAE). There also exists a third common major grouping of English varieties: Southern Hemisphere English, the most prominent being Australian and New Zealand English.

Since the English language first evolved in Britain and Ireland, the archipelago is home to the most diverse *dialects*, particularly in England. Within the United Kingdom, *the Received Pronunciation (RP)*, an educated dialect of South East England, is traditionally used as the broadcast standard and is considered the most prestigious of the British dialects. The spread of RP (also known as BBC English) through the media has caused many traditional dialects of rural England to recede, as youths adopt the traits of the prestige variety instead of traits from local dialects. At the time of the Survey of English Dialects, grammar and vocabulary differed across the country, but a process of lexical attrition has led most of this variation to disappear.



Map showing the main dialect regions in the UK and Ireland

Nonetheless, this attrition has mostly affected dialectal variation in grammar and vocabulary, and in fact, only 3 percent of the English population actually speak RP, the remainder speaking in regional accents and dialects with varying degrees of RP influence. There is also variability within RP, particularly along class lines between Upper and Middle-class RP speakers and between native RP speakers and speakers who adopt RP later in life. Within Britain, there is also considerable variation along lines of social class, and some traits though exceedingly common are considered "non-standard" and are associated with lower class speakers and identities. An example of this is H-dropping, which was historically a feature of lower-class London English, particularly *Cockney*, and can now be heard in the local accents of most parts of England—yet it remains largely absent in broadcasting and among the upper crust of British society.

English in England can be divided into four major dialect regions, *Southwest English*, *South East English*, *Midlands English*, and *Northern English*. Within each of these regions several local subdialects exist: Within the Northern region, there is a division between the *Yorkshire dialects* and the *Geordie dialect* spoken in

Northumbria around Newcastle, and *the Lancashire dialects* with local urban dialects in Liverpool (*Scouse*) and Manchester (*Mancunian*). Having been the centre of Danish occupation during the Viking Invasions, *Northern English dialects*, particularly the *Yorkshire* dialect, retain Norse features not found in other English varieties.

Since the 15th century, southeastern England varieties have centred on London, which has been the centre from which dialectal innovations have spread to other dialects. In London, the Cockney dialect was traditionally used by the lower classes, and it was long a socially stigmatised variety. The spread of Cockney features across the south-east led the media to talk of Estuary English as a new dialect, but the notion was criticised by many linguists on the grounds that London had been influencing neighbouring regions throughout history. Traits that have spread from London in recent decades include the use of intrusive R (*drawing* is pronounced *drawring* /'drɔ:riŋ/), *t*-glottalisation (*Potter* is pronounced with a glottal stop as *Po'er* /poʔʌ/), and the pronunciation of *th-* as /f/ (*thanks* pronounced *fanks*) or /v/ (*bother* pronounced *bover*).

Scots is today considered a separate language from English, but it has its origins in early Northern Middle English and developed and changed during its history with influence from other sources, particularly Scots Gaelic and Old Norse. Scots itself has a number of regional dialects. And in addition to Scots, Scottish English comprises the varieties of Standard English spoken in Scotland; most varieties are Northern English accents, with some influence from Scots.

In *Ireland*, various forms of English have been spoken since the Norman invasions of the 11th century. In County Wexford, in the area surrounding Dublin, two extinct dialects known as Forth and Bargy and Fingallian developed as offshoots from Early Middle English, and were spoken until the 19th century. Modern Irish English, however, has its roots in English colonisation in the 17th century. Today Irish English is divided into Ulster English, the Northern Ireland dialect with strong influence from Scots, and various dialects of the Republic of Ireland. Like Scottish and most North American accents, almost all Irish accents preserve the rhoticity which has been lost in the dialects influenced by RP.

North American English

North American English is fairly homogeneous compared to British English. Today, American accent variation is often increasing at the regional level and decreasing at the very local level, though most Americans still speak within a phonological continuum of similar accents, known collectively as General American (GA), with differences hardly noticed even among Americans themselves (such as Midland and Western American English). In most American and Canadian English dialects, rhoticity (or r-fulness) is dominant, with non-rhoticity (r-dropping) becoming associated with lower prestige and social class especially after World War II; this contrasts with the situation in England, where non-rhoticity has become the standard.

Separate from GA are American dialects with clearly distinct sound systems,

historically including Southern American English, English of the coastal Northeast (famously including Eastern New England English and New York City English), and African American Vernacular English, all of which are historically non-rhotic. Canadian English, except for the Atlantic provinces and perhaps Quebec, may be classified under GA as well, but it often shows the raising of the vowels /aɪ/ and /aʊ/ before voiceless consonants, as well as distinct norms for written and pronunciation standards.

In Southern American English, the most populous American "accent group" outside of GA, rhoticity now strongly prevails, replacing the region's historical non-rhotic prestige. Southern accents are colloquially described as a "drawl" or "twang," being recognised most readily by the Southern Vowel Shift initiated by glide-deleting in the /aɪ/ vowel (e.g. pronouncing *spy* almost like *spa*), the "Southern breaking" of several front pure vowels into a gliding vowel or even two syllables (e.g. pronouncing the word "press" almost like "pray-us"), the pin–pen merger, and other distinctive phonological, grammatical, and lexical features, many of which are actually recent developments of the 19th century or later

Today spoken primarily by working- and middle-class African Americans, African-American Vernacular English (AAVE) is also largely non-rhotic and likely originated among enslaved Africans and African Americans influenced primarily by the non-rhotic, non-standard older Southern dialects. A minority of linguists, contrarily, propose that AAVE mostly traces back to African languages spoken by the slaves who had to develop a pidgin or Creole English to communicate with slaves of other ethnic and linguistic origins. AAVE's important commonalities with Southern accents suggests it developed into a highly coherent and homogeneous variety in the 19th or early 20th century. AAVE is commonly stigmatised in North America as a form of "broken" or "uneducated" English, as are white Southern accents, but linguists today recognise both as fully developed varieties of English with their own norms shared by a large speech community.

Australia and New Zealand

Since 1788, English has been spoken in Oceania, and Australian English has developed as a first language of the vast majority of the inhabitants of the Australian continent, its standard accent being General Australian. The English of neighbouring New Zealand has to a lesser degree become an influential standard variety of the language. Australian and New Zealand English are each other's closest relatives with few differentiating characteristics, followed by South African English and the English of southeastern England, all of which have similarly non-rhotic accents, aside from some accents in the South Island of New Zealand. Australian and New Zealand English stand out for their innovative vowels: many short vowels are fronted or raised, whereas many long vowels have diphthongised. Australian English also has a contrast between long and short vowels, not found in most other varieties. Australian English grammar aligns closely to British and American English; like American English, collective plural subjects take on a singular verb (as in *the government is* rather than *are*). New Zealand English uses front vowels that are often even higher than in Australian English.

The national identity. Britishness is the state or quality of being British, or of embodying British characteristics. It comprises the qualities that distinguish the British people and form the basis of their unity and identity, and the expressions of British culture—such as *habits, behaviours, or symbols* — that have a common, familiar or iconic quality readily identifiable with the United Kingdom. Ethnic identity: the native British.

National ('ethnic') loyalties can be strong among the people in Britain whose ancestors were not English. For some people living in England who call themselves Scottish, Welsh or Irish, this loyalty is little more than a matter of emotional attachment.

People in Scotland have constant reminders of their distinctiveness:

- several important aspects of public life are organised separately, and differently, from the rest of Britain - notably, education, law and religion.
- the Scottish way of speaking English is very distinctive. A modern form of the dialect known as Scots is spoken in everyday life by most of the working classes in the Lowlands. It has many features which are different from other forms of English and cannot usually be understood by people who are not Scottish.

However, *the feeling of being Scottish* is not that simple. This is partly because of the historical cultural split between Highland and Lowland Scotland. A genuinely *Scottish Gaelic sense of cultural identity* is, in modern times, felt only by a few tens of thousands of people in some of the western isles of Scotland and the adjoining mainland. These people speak Scottish Gaelic which they call "Gaelic" as a first language.

The people of **Wales** do not have as many reminders of their Welshness in everyday life. The organisation of public life is identical to that in England. Nor are there as many well-known symbols of Welshness. In addition, a large minority of the people in Wales probably do not consider themselves to be especially Welsh at all. In the 19 century large numbers of Scottish, Irish and English people went to find work there, and today many English people still make their homes in Wales or have holiday houses there. As a result a *feeling of loyalty to Wales* is often similar in nature to the fairly weak loyalties to particular geographical areas found throughout England - it is *regional rather than nationalistic*.

However, there is one single highly-important symbol of Welsh identity – *the Welsh language*. Everybody in Wales can speak English but it is not everybody's first language. For about 20% of the population (that's more than half a million people), the *mother-tongue is Welsh*. For these people Welsh identity obviously means more than just living in the region known as Wales. Moreover, in comparison to the other small minority languages of Europe, *Welsh shows signs of continued vitality*. Thanks to successive campaigns, the language receives a lot of public support. All children in Wales learn it at school, there are many local newspapers in Welsh, there is a Welsh television channel and nearly all public notices and signs are written in both Welsh and English.

As for *English identity*, most people who describe themselves as English usually make no distinction in their minds between "*English*" and "*British*".

The *question of identity in Northern Ireland* is a much more complex issue. In

this part of the UK, the pattern of *identity and loyalty* outlined above does not apply.

Here, *ethnicity, family, politics and religion* are all inter-related, and social class has a comparatively minor role in establishing identity. Northern Ireland is a polarised society where people are born into, and stay in one or other of the two communities for the whole of their lives. On one side of the divide there are people whose ancestors came from lowland Scotland or England. They are self-consciously Protestant and want Northern Ireland to remain in the UK. On the other side there are people whose ancestors were native Irish. They are self-consciously Catholic and would like Northern Ireland to become part of the Irish Republic. Although the two communities live side-by-side, their lives are almost entirely segregated. They live in different housing estates, listen to different radio and television programmes, register with different doctors, have prescriptions made up by chemists of their own denominations, march to commemorate different anniversaries and read different newspapers. Their children go to different schools, so that those who go on to university often find themselves mixing with people from the "other" community for the first time in their lives. For the majority who do not go to university, merely talking to somebody from the other community is a rare event. The extremes of these hard-line attitudes are gradually softening. It should also be noted that they apply to a much lesser extent among the middle-classes.

Being British (British identity and loyalty).

Because of the long tradition of a *clear separation* between the individual and the state, British people, although many of them *feel proud to be British*, are *not normally actively patriotic*. They are *individualistic* and do not like to feel that they are personally representing their country. During the last quarter of the 20 century there has been a severe *loss of confidence* in British public institutions accompanied by a change in the previous rather patronising attitude to foreigners and foreign ways. In the days of empire, foreigners were often considered amusing, even interesting, but not really to be taken seriously. These days, many foreign ways of doing things are admired (although perhaps a bit resentfully) and there is a *greater openness to foreign influences*. Along with this openness, however, goes a *sense of vulnerability (вразливимость)*, so that *patriotism often takes a rather defensive form*. The modern British are not really chauvinistic. *Open hostility* to people from other countries is very rare.

Geographical identity. A sense of identity based on the *place of birth is not very common or strong* in most parts of Britain. People are just too mobile and very few live in the same place all their lives. There is quite a lot of local pride and people find many opportunities to express it. This pride, however arises because people are happy to live in what they consider to be a nice place and often when they are fighting to preserve it. It does not mean that people of the locality feel strongly that they belong to the place.

A sense of identity with a larger geographical area is a bit stronger! Nearly everybody has a spoken accent that identifies them as coming from a particular large city or region. In some cases there is quite a *strong sense of identification*.

In other cases, identity is associated with a *county*. These are the most ancient divisions of England. Although their boundaries and names do not always conform to

the modern arrangement of local government, they still claim the allegiance (devotion, loyalty) of some people. Many English people see themselves as either "southerners" or "northerners". The fact that the south is on the whole richer than the north, and the domination of the media by the affairs in London and the south-east, leads to *resentment* in the north. This reinforces the pride in their northern roots felt by many northerners, who, stereotypically see themselves as *tougher, more honest and warmer-heated* than the *soft, hypocritical and unfriendly southerners*. To people in the south, the stereotypical northerner (usually male) is rather *ignorant and uncultured* and interested in sport and beer-drinking.

Religious and political identity. In comparison with some other European countries, and with the one notable exception of Northern Ireland, neither religion nor politics is an important part of people's social identity in modern Britain. This is partly because the two do not, as they do in some other countries, go together in any significant way. Of course, there are many people who regard themselves as belonging to this or that church or party. Some people among the minority who are regular churchgoers and the very small minority who are active members of political parties feel this sense of belonging strongly and deeply. It may form a very important part of their own idea of themselves as individuals. But even for these people it plays little part in determining other aspects of their lives such as where they work, which trade union they belong to, who their friends are or who they would like their neighbours to be. For the vast majority of parents in the country (some ethnic groups excepted), the religion or voting habits of their future son-in-law's or daughter-in-law's family are of only passing interest and rarely the major cause of objection to the proposed marriage.

Men and women. Generally speaking, British people invest about the same amount of their identity in their *gender* as people in other parts of Northern Europe do. On the one hand, society no longer overtly endorses (відверто схвалюють) differences in the public and social roles of men and women, and it is illegal to discriminate on the basis of sex. On the other hand, people still (often unconsciously) expect a fairly large number of differences in everyday behaviour and domestic roles. In terms of everyday habits and mannerisms, British society probably expects a sharper difference between the sexes than most other European societies do. As far as roles are concerned, most people assume that a family's financial situation is not just the responsibility of the man. On the other hand, they would still normally complement the woman, not the man, on a beautifully decorated or well-kept house. Everyday care of the children is still seen as mainly the woman's responsibility. Although almost as many women have jobs as men, nearly half of the jobs done by women are part-time. In fact, the majority of mothers with children under the age of twelve either have no job or work only during school hours. Men certainly take a more active domestic role than they did forty years ago. Some things, however, never seem to change. A comparison of child-bearing habits (практики виховання дітей) of the 1950s and the 1980s showed that proportion of men who never changed a baby's nappy had remained the same (40%)!

At the public level there are contradictions. Britain was one of the first European countries to have a woman Prime Minister (Margaret Thatcher) and a woman chairperson of debate in its Parliament (Betty Boothroyd). However, in the early

nineties women formed only a tiny fraction of the total number of MPs (about 5%), only one out of five lawyers in Britain was a woman, less than one in ten accountants was a woman and there was only one female consultant brain surgeon in the whole country.

Class. Historians say that the class system has survived in Britain because of its flexibility. It has always been possible to buy or many or even work your way up, so that your children (and their children) belong to a higher social class than you do. As a result, the class system has never been swept away by a revolution and awareness of class forms *a major part of most people's sense of identity.*

People in modern Britain are very *conscious of class differences.* They regard it difficult to become friends with somebody from a different class. This feeling has little to do with conscious loyalty, and a positive belief in the class system itself. Most people say they do not approve of class divisions. It results from the fact that different classes have different sets of attitudes and daily habits. Typically, they tend to eat different food at different times of day (and call the meals by different names, e.g. *pudding, sweet, dessert*). They like to talk about different topics using different styles and accents of English, they enjoy different pastimes and sports, they have different values about what things in life are most important and different ideas about the correct way to behave.

An interesting feature of the *class structure* in Britain is that it is just, or even mainly, relative *wealth* or the appearance of it which determines someone's class. Of course, wealth is part of it - if you become wealthy, you can provide the conditions to enable your children to belong to the higher class than you do. But it is not always to guess reliably the class to which a person belongs by looking at his or her clothes, car or bank balance. The most obvious immediate sign comes when a person opens his or her mouth, giving the listener clues to the speaker's attitudes and interests, both of which are indicative of class.

During the last quarter of the twentieth century, the way that people wish to identify themselves seems to have changed. In Britain, as anywhere else where there are recognised social classes, a certain amount of "social climbing" goes on; that is, people try to appear as if they belong to as high a class as possible. These days, however, nobody wants to be thought of as *snobbish.*

Working-class people in particular are traditionally proud of their class membership and would not usually wish to be thought of as belonging to any other class. In general, the different classes mix more readily and easily with each other than they used to. There has been a great increase in the number of people from working-class who do traditionally middle-class jobs.

ATTITUDES. English vs. British. Because English culture dominates the cultures of the other three nations of the British Isles, everyday habits, attitudes and values among the peoples of the four nations are very similar. However, they are not identical, and what is regarded as typically British may be in fact typically English.

This is especially true with regard to one notable characteristic - *anti-intellectualism.*

Among the people in Britain there exists *a suspicion of intelligence, education and "high culture".* Teachers and academic staff, although respected, do not have as high a status as they do in many European countries. Nobody normally proclaims

their academic qualifications or title to the world at large. There are large sections of both upper and working class who, traditionally at least, have not encouraged their children to go to university. This lack of enthusiasm is certainly decreasing. Nevertheless, it is still unusual for parents to arrange extra private tuition for their children, even among those who can easily afford it.

Multiculturalism. In the cities, at least, Britain is a multicultural society due to large-scale immigration to Britain in the 20th century. The "new British people" have brought widely differing sets of attitudes with them. The new British have made their own contribution to British life and attitudes. They have probably helped to make people less formal; the most popular, well-attended festival in the whole Britain is the annual Noting Hill Carnival in London at the end of August, which is of Caribbean inspiration and origin.

Conservatism. The British do not like change. They may not behave in traditional ways but they like symbols of tradition and stability.

- The British value *continuity* over modernity for its own sake. They do not consider it especially smart to live in a new house, in fact, there is prestige in living in an absolutely old one. They have a general sentimental attachment to older, supposedly safer times.

- The two most popular children's writers are noticeably un-modern (and both dead); Roald Dahl, whose fantasy stories are set in a rather old-fashioned world; Enid Blyton, whose stories take place in a comfortable white middle-class world before 1960s. They contain no references to other races or classes and mention nothing more modern than a radio.

- They might never agree to change from driving on the left-hand side of the road to driving on the right-hand side.

- Whenever an EU committee makes a recommendation about standardising the size and shape of buses, it provokes warnings from British bus builders about "the end of the double-decker as we know it". The British public is always ready to listen to such predictions of doom.

- The British government has been trying for years to promote the *metric system* measurement and to get British people to use the same scales that are used nearly everywhere in the world. British manufacturers are obliged to give the weight of their tins and packets in kilos and grams but everybody in Britain still shops in pounds and ounces. The weather forecasters on television use the Celsius scale of temperature but nearly everybody still thinks in Fahrenheit. Even the use of the 24-hour clock is comparatively restricted.

<i>Imperial /Metric</i>	<i>Imperial /Metric</i>
1 inch 2.54 cm	1 ounce 28.35 gr
12 inches (1 foot) 30.48 cm	16 ounces { 1 pound) 0.456 kg
3 feet (1 yard) 0.92 m	14 pounds (1 stone) 6.38 kg
1760 yards (1mile) 1.6 km	1 pint 0.58 l
	2 pints (1 quart) 1.16 l
	8 pints (1 gallon) 4.64 l

The love of nature. Most of the British live in towns or cities. But they have an idealised vision of the countryside. To the British, the countryside has almost none of

the negative associations such as poor facilities, lack of educational opportunities, unemployment and poverty. To them countryside means peace and quiet, beauty, good health and no crime. Most of them would live in a village if they thought they could find a way of earning a living there. Ideally, this village would consist of *thatched cottages* built around an area of grass known as a "village green". Nearby there would be a pond with ducks in it. Nowadays such a village is not common, but it is a stereotypical picture that is well-known to the British.

This love of the countryside is another aspect of British conservatism – the countryside represents *stability*. Those who live in towns and cities take an active interest in the country matters and the British regard it as both the right and privilege to be able to "go into the country" whenever they want to. Large areas of the country are official "national parks" where almost no building is allowed. A notable indication of the British reverence for both the countryside and the past is the strength of the *National Trust*. This is an officially recognised charity whose aim is to preserve as much of Britain's countryside and as many of its historic buildings as possible by acquiring them "for the nation".

Even if they cannot go into the countryside, many British people spend a lot of their time "with nature". They grow plants. Gardening is one of the most popular hobbies in the country. Even those unlucky people who do not have a garden can participate. Each local authority owns several areas of land which it rents very cheaply to these people in small parcels. On those "'allotments" (area) people grow mainly vegetables.

The love of animals. Nearly half of the households in Britain keep at least nearly domestic pet. The status of pets is taken seriously. The love of animals goes beyond sentimental attachment to domestic pets. Wildlife programmes are by far the most popular kind of TV' documentary. Millions of families have "bird-tables" (raised platforms where birds can eat) in their garden. There is even a special hospital (St Tiggywinkies) which treats injured wild animals. Thousands of people are enthusiastic bird-watchers. This peculiarly British pastime often involves hours lying in wet and cold undergrowth, trying to get a glimpse of some rare species.

Formality and informality. There is a difference between observing formalities and being formal in everyday life. Attitudes towards clothes are a good example of this. It all depends on whether a person is playing a public or a private role. When people are "on duty", they have to obey some quite rigid rules. On the other hand, when people do not play any public role, there are no rules at all. The British are probably more tolerant to "strange" clothing than people of other European countries. Perhaps because many have to follow clothing formalities during the week, the British, unlike many other countries, like to "dress down " on Sundays, slip into sth really scruffy. The British are comparatively uninterested in clothes. They spend a lower proportion of their income on clothing than people in most other EU countries do. Many people buy second hand clothes and are not embarrassed to admit it.

The difference between formalities and formality is the key to what people from other countries sometimes experience as coldness among the British. Being friendly in Britain often involves showing that you are not bothering with formalities, i.e.:

- not addressing someone by his/her title (Mr, Mrs, Professor);
- not dressing smartly when entertaining guests;

- not shaking hands when meeting;
- not saying "please" when asking for sth.

It is probably true that the British, especially the English, are more *reserved* than the people from many other countries. They find it comparatively difficult to indicate friendship by open displays of affection: friendship is symbolised by behaving as casually as possible.

Respect for privacy underlies many aspects of British life. It is not just privacy in your own home which is important. Just as important is the individual's right to keep information about himself/herself private. Despite the increase in informality, it is still seen as rude to ask people what is called "personal questions" (e.g. about how much money they earn or about their family or sex life) unless you know them well.

LECTURE 5. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

A brief chronology of English

English belongs to an _____ language family of the Germanic languages group.

Pre English (Local inhabitants speak Celtic)

55 BC - AD 450 Roman invasion and occupation. Roman rule of Britain. Influence of the _____ language on English

Old English or Anglo-Saxon (c. 550–1066)

450-480 Influence of _____ languages on English

Earliest known Old English inscriptions _____ is written in West Saxon, and the earliest English poem, Cædmon's Hymn is written in Northumbrian 1066 William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy, invades and conquers England *Influence of the _____ language on English*

Middle English (1100-1500)

1348 English replaces Latin as the language of instruction in most schools

1150 Earliest surviving manuscripts in Middle English

1362 English replaces French as the language of law. English is used in Parliament for the first time

Middle English literature includes Geoffrey Chaucer's _____, and Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur*.

1400 The _____ Shift begins, inflectional simplification, and linguistic standardisation

Modern English 1500-1800

1476 William Caxton establishes the first English printing press

1564 -1616 _____

1702 The first daily English-language newspaper, *The Daily Courant*, is published in London

1755 Samuel Johnson publishes *A _____ of the English Language*

1828, Noah Webster published the *American Dictionary of the English language*

1928 The _____ English Dictionary is published.

LECTURE 6

BRITISH HOLIDAYS, TRADITIONS AND FOOD

- Holidays
- Traditions, sport
- Food

Every nation and every country has its own customs and traditions. In Britain traditions play more important part in the life of the people than in some other countries. They are proud of their traditions and carefully keep them up.

Britain is full of culture and traditions which have been around for hundreds of years. British customs and traditions are famous all over the world. When people think of Britain they often think of people drinking tea, eating fish and chips and wearing bowler hats, but there is more to Britain than just those things.

There are some holidays a year and national festivals throughout the country. Most holiday are national holidays, called Bank Holidays, because banks and government offices close on that days. Bank Holidays include Christmas Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, May Day, New Year's Day, and Boxing Day. Each nation has additional holidays.

31 December – 1 January. New Year's Eve is celebrated by loud and happy groups of families and friends. Food and drink are featured and, at the stroke of midnight, the parties cheer loudly and make toasts in honour of the New Year.

25 January. Burns Night is celebrated in Scotland. The day also celebrates Burns' contribution to Scottish culture. Burns Night is an observance but it is not a bank holiday in the United Kingdom. Many people and organizations hold a Burns supper on or around Burns Night. Formal events include toasts and readings of pieces written by Robert Burns.

February. Pancake (Shrove) Tuesday is the day before Ash Wednesday. It is a time for people to eat pancakes or participate in pancake races. Shrove Tuesday is not a bank holiday in the United Kingdom.

Many Christian churches in the United Kingdom observe Ash Wednesday as the first day of Lent. It is the day after Pancake (Shrove) Tuesday.

14 February. Many people send Valentine's Day cards, gifts or text messages to their partner or somebody for whom they have romantic feelings. St. Valentine's Day is not a public holiday in the UK.

1 March is St. David's Day in Wales. Many people pin a daffodil or leek to their clothes and some, especially children, wear traditional costumes. St. David is the patron saint of Wales.

6 March. Mother's Day, or Mothering Sunday, is now a day to honor mothers and other mother figures, such as grandmothers, stepmothers and mothers-in-law. Many people make a special effort to visit their mother. They take cards and gifts to her and may treat her to brunch, lunch or high tea in a cafe, restaurant or hotel. People who cannot visit their mother usually send gifts or cards to her.

17 March. St. Patrick's Day is a national holiday in Ireland. This day commemorates one of its patron saints, St. Patrick. It is a bank holiday in Northern

Ireland.

25 March. Good Friday commemorates the crucifixion of Jesus Christ and is a public holiday in the United Kingdom. Many Catholics do not eat meat on Good Friday. This means that, in some areas, it is common to eat fish on this day. Hot cross buns are traditionally eaten by Christians in the UK on Good Friday.

March – April. Easter, one of the oldest Christian traditions, is the celebration of the last week of Jesus' life, his death, and his resurrection. Easter Sunday is rich in traditional foods. Breakfast consists of boiled eggs and the exchanging of Easter gifts and cards. Roast lamb with mint sauce served as the main meal for Easter Sunday.

23 April. St George's Day in England remembers St George, England's patron saint.

May. The first Monday of May is a bank holiday in the United Kingdom. It is called May Day in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. It is known as the Early May Bank Holiday in Scotland. It is celebrated as the start of the summer season.

The spring bank holiday, also known as the late May bank holiday, is a time for people in the United Kingdom to have a day off work or school. It falls on the last Monday of May.

June. Father's Day is held on the third Sunday of June in the United Kingdom. It is a day to honor fathers and father figures, such as grandfathers and fathers-in-law. Many people make a special effort to visit their fathers or to send them a card or gifts.

5 November. Guy Fawkes' Night, or Bonfire Night, commemorates the prevention of a plot to blow up the Houses of Parliament in London in 1605. Guy Fawkes' Day is not a public holiday.



13 November. Remembrance Day in the United Kingdom (UK) honors the heroic efforts, achievements and sacrifices that were made in past wars.

30 November. St Andrew's Day is a bank holiday in Scotland.

25 December. Christmas Day is a holiday that traditionally celebrates Jesus Christ's birth. People usually give presents this day. Traditional English dinner on Christmas is turkey and pudding.

26 December. For many people Boxing Day is a time to recover from the

excesses of Christmas Day and an opportunity to spend time with family, friends, and neighbors. Some people choose to go for a walk in the countryside, while others flock to the post-Christmas sales that often begin on Boxing Day. Some people even spend part of the night and early morning queuing to get into the stores when the best bargains are still available.

British food

Attitudes to food. The British do not bother about food. The country has neither a widespread "restaurant culture" nor a "cafe society". In the middle of the day people just want to eat up quickly and are not interested much in the quality (a lunch break is an hour at most). Young people and families with children who eat at fast food restaurants are similarly not interested in the quality.

Even at home food and drink is given relatively little attention to. British supermarkets tend to sell far more instant coffee than the "real" coffee: instant coffee is less trouble. Meals tend to be eaten quickly and the table cleared. Parties and celebrations are not centred around food.

British people have been mostly urban, having almost no contact with "the land" for longer than people of other countries. That is why the range of plants and animals which they eat is rather narrow. To most people the idea of going out to pick wild plants for eating is quite exotic.

However, if the British are conservative about the ingredients, they are no longer conservative about the way they are served. By now, the British are extremely open to cuisine of other countries (the increasingly multinational culture of the population has helped in this respect).

What British people eat. A *fry up* is a phrase used informally for several things fried together. The most common items are eggs, bacon, sausages, tomatoes, mushrooms, and even bread. It is not always accompanied by "chips" (the normal word for French fried potatoes). The British eat rather a lot of fried food. Although it is sometimes poetically referred to as "the staff of life" *bread* is NOT an accompaniment to every meal. It is not even normally on the table at either lunch or evening meal. It is most commonly eaten with butter or almost anything else, for a snack, either as a sandwich or a toast. On the other hand, the British use a lot of flour for making pastry dishes, savoury and sweet, called pies and for making cakes. *Eggs* are a basic part of most people's diet. *Cold meats* are not very popular. To many British people, preserved meats are typically "Continental". It is quite common in most households to finish a meal with a prepared sweet dish (mainly served hot). The British are the world's greatest consumers of *sugar* - more than 5 kg per person per year, and they also love "sweets" (both chocolates and what Americans call "candy").

British food has traditionally been based on beef, lamb, pork, chicken and fish and generally served with potatoes and one other vegetable. The most common and typical foods eaten in Britain include the sandwich, fish and chips, pies like the Cornish pasty, trifle and roasts dinners. Some of the main dishes have strange names like Bubble and Squeak and Toad-in-the-Hole.

The staple foods of Britain are meat, fish, potatoes, flour, butter and eggs. Many of their dishes are based on these foods.

Roast beef is still the national culinary pride. It is called a "joint", and is served

at midday on Sunday with roasted potatoes, Yorkshire pudding, two vegetables, a good strong horseradish, gravy, and mustard.

Haggis

Made predominantly from sheep's heart, liver, lungs, and oats, then stuffed in a sheep's stomach; whilst it may not sound appetising, haggis is a firm favourite for many Scots.

Jellied eels originated primarily in London's east end. Chopped eels are boiled in stock, then left to cool to form a jelly. The dish is typically served in pubs, and eaten with vinegar and pepper.

A **Mars bar** is a popular chocolate bar that the Scottish are famously known for covering in batter and deep-frying. This delicacy is typically sold in chip shops.

Black pudding. Whilst at first glance, this may look like chocolate, black pudding (sometimes referred to as blood pudding or blood sausage) is made from pigs' blood and fat – another Scottish favourite.



Black pudding

Another traditional dish is a typical British **fry-up**: eggs (scrambled, poached, omelettes, sunny side up), bacon, sausages (also known as bangers), mushrooms, fried tomatoes, and baked beans.

Eleven is a morning snack taken around 11am – it typically consists of a cup of tea or coffee with some biscuits or cake.

Fish and chips are a mainstay of British cuisine. Cod, haddock, and or plaice are dipped in batter then deep-fried and then served with chips. Mushy or green peas and tartar sauce often accompany this dish.

Bacon (also referred to as rashers in the UK) is a hugely popular food item in UK households and cafes. It is king of the breakfast meats, thus a staple part of the full English breakfast. Unlike Americans, the British traditionally use back bacon which has a larger surface area of meat than the more fatty US side bacon. As well as breakfast, bacon is much-loved in bacon sandwiches (colloquially known as bacon butties).

Shepherd's pie or Cottage pie. Neither Shepherd's pie or Cottage pie are "pies" in the traditional sense (pastries with a lid). They are essentially identical dishes: minced meat cooked with vegetables and topped with mashed potato. The difference lies in the meat that is used; minced lamb in the shepherd's pie, and minced beef in a cottage pie



Shepherd's pie or Cottage pie

The British love their desserts also known as puddings.

A well-known food item eaten in the UK is pancakes. Although not traditionally British, pancakes are very popular in the UK. Bakewell tarts, roly-poly puddings, trifles, Battenbergs, Victoria sponges, rice puddings, bread and butter pudding, English crumpets, sticky toffee puddings – these are just some of the fantastic British desserts to try.

What British people drink. Tea is the most essential of English drinks. It was not until the middle 17th century that beverage first appeared in England. The use of tea spread slowly from its Asian homeland and reached Europe around 1560. Dutch and Portuguese traders imported tea to Europe with regular shipments by 1610. In the early 1800s Anna, 7th Duchess of Bedford, launched the idea of having tea in the late afternoon. Afternoon tea is said to have originated with one person.

People from around the world often wonder why the English always drink milk with their tea. The answer is that in the 17th and 18th centuries the china cups tea was served in were so delicate they would crack from the heat of the tea. Milk was added to cool the liquid and stop the cups from cracking. That is why, even today, many English people add milk to their cups before adding the tea.

As well as large amounts of *hot drink* such as tea, coffee, and cocoa, British people, especially children, drink squash (a sweetened fruit concentrate which has to be diluted with water) and brand-name soft drinks. They also expect to be able to drink water direct from the tap. Before 1960s *wine* was drunk only by the higher social classes and was associated in most people with expensive restaurants. Since that time, it has increased enormously in popularity. *Beer* is still the most popular alcoholic drink. The most popular pub beer is "bitter" which is draught (from the barrel), has no gas in it and is conventionally, as are all British beers, drunk at room temperature. A sweeter, darker version of bitter is "mild". These beers have a comparatively low alcoholic content. This is a reason why people are able to drink so much of them. In pubs, several kinds of bottled beer, usually known as ales, are also available. Beer which has gas in it and is closer to continental varieties is known as "*lager*"

In some pubs *cider* is available on draught, and in some parts of Britain, especially in the English west country, it is this, and not beer, which is the most common pub drink. *Shandy* (half beer and half a fizzy lemonade) has a reputation for being very good for quenching the thirst.

When people eat (generalizations are dangerous; below is described what everybody knows, but not necessarily does). *Breakfast* is usually a packeted cereal (e.g. cornflakes) and/or toast and marmalade. It isn't usually a traditional breakfast. "*Elevenes* " is traditionally a cup of tea or coffee and some biscuits at around 11 am. In fact, people drink tea or coffee whenever they feel like it. *Lunch* is typically at 1 pm. But it is usually a bit earlier for schoolchildren and those who start to work at 8 o'clock. For the urban working class (and a wider section of population in Scotland and Ireland) tea is the evening meal, eaten as soon as people get home from work (at around 6 pm). For other classes, it means a cup of tea and a snack at around 4 o'clock. "*Supper* " is the usual word for the evening meal among most people who do not call it "tea". "*Dinner*" is also sometimes used for an evening meal. It suggests something rather grander and eaten comparatively late (at around 8 o'clock). It is associated with relative formality (e.g. "Christmas dinner" even if eaten in the middle of the day). It is also used to refer to the midday meal at some schools.

Eating out. Although a far less unusual than it used to be, going to a restaurant is still a comparatively rare event for most British people. Regular restaurant going is confined mostly to the richest sector of the society. Partly for this reason there is an element of *snobbery* in it. Merely being in an expensive restaurant sometimes means more for the people than the food eaten in it.

Another expression of snobbery in the more expensive restaurants is in the menus. In the county where few public notices appear in any language rather than English, these are a unique phenomenon - all the dishes have a non-English name, usually French. Most customers of these restaurants have little idea of what actually goes in the dish they have chosen.

The "adventure" concept of eating out is widespread. It helps to explain why so many restaurants in Britain are not British. Because they do it so rarely, when people go out for a meal in the evening, they want to be served something they don't usually eat. Every town in the country has at least one Indian restaurant and perhaps a Chinese one too. Larger towns and cities have restaurants representing cuisine from all over the world.

Eating places which serve British food are used only for more everyday purposes. Apart from pubs, there are two more types which are comparatively cheap. One is used during the day, most typically by manual workers, and therefore described as "*a workman's cafe* ". It is also used by anybody who likes a filling meal, the informal atmosphere and not over-worried about cleanness. It offers mostly fried food and for this reason sometimes jokingly called a "*greasy spoon*". Many of them are "transport cafes" at the side of the road. The other type is "*fish-and-chip shop* ", used in the evening 'to take away" meals. Again, fish is (deep) fried.

The British *pub* (short for public house) is unique. Without pubs Britain would be a less sociable country. Pubs unlike other eating places where the atmosphere is rather formal are classless. As with so many aspects of British life, pubs became a bit less distinctive in the last quarter of the 20th century. They used to serve almost nothing but beer and spirits. Today, you can get coffee, wine and some hot food at most of them as well. This helped to widen their appeal. At one time, it was unusual for women to go to pubs. Today, only a few pubs exist where it is surprising for a

woman to walk in. Nevertheless, pubs have retained their specific character:

- *there is no waiter* which may seem not very welcoming and a strange way to make clients feel comfortable. If you want something you have to go and ask for it at the bar. For the British, to be served at the table means to be on their best behaviour. Because you have to go and fetch your drinks yourself, it is less formal. You can get up and walk around whenever you want - like being in your own house. This "home from home" atmosphere is enhanced by relationships between customers and those who work in the pub. Unlike any other eating or drinking places in Britain, the staff are expected to know regular customers personally, to know what their usual drink is and to chat with them when they are not serving anyone else. It is also helped by the availability of pub games (most typically darts) *and*, frequently, a *television*.

- *the idea of tradition*. Each pub has its own name, proclaimed on a sign outside, always with old-fashioned associations. Many are called by a name of an aristocrat, after a monarch, can take names from traditional occupations, can have rural associations (e.g. *the Tatton Arms, the Queen Vic, the Old Shepherd's, the Coach and Horses*). For the same reason, the owner of the pub is called a landlord (nearly always a man) - even though in reality he is the opposite, a tenant. Nearly all pubs are owned by a brewery and the "landlord" is employed by the brewery as the manager.

Fast food outlets are today more popular in Britain. Their popularity is better explained sociologically. Other types of eating place in Britain tend to have class association. As a result, large sections of society feel unable to relax in them. A fast food restaurant does not have such strong association. Although there is sometimes local middle-class protest when a new one appears in the area, people -almost from any class can feel comfortable in them.

The attitude to alcohol in Britain is ambivalent: it is accepted and welcomed as a part of the British culture. The local pub plays an important part in the life of the neighbourhood (aimed at drinking beer and spirits). A certain level of drunkenness is acceptable, provided it does not lead to violence, there is no shame attached to it.

the puritan tradition has led to the widespread view that drinking is something potentially dangerous which should therefore be restricted, in terms of both who can do it and where it can be done. People cannot be served in pubs until the age of eighteen and they even are not allowed inside until they are fourteen. Wine or beer is not as much a part of home life as in some European countries. Most cafes are not allowed to serve even beer.

SPORT plays a more important role in people's lives in Britain than it does in most other countries. For a very large number, and this is especially true for men, it is their main form of entertainment. 71 % of men and 57% of women take part in the least one sporting activity at least once a week. Many millions more are regular spectators and follow one or more sports. There are hours of televised sport each week. Every newspaper, national or local, quality or popular devotes several pages entirely to sport.

The British are so fond of competition that they even introduce it into gardening. Many people indulge in an informal rivalry with their neighbours as to who can grow the better flowers or vegetables. But the rivalry is sometimes formalized. Through the

country, there are competitions in which gardeners enter their cabbages, leeks, onions, carrots or whatever in the hope that they will be judged "the best". There is a similar situation with animals. There are hundreds of dog and cat shows in the country at which owners hope that their pet will win a prize. So strong is the desire to win that cases are occasionally discovered of owners trying to poison the pets of their rivals.

The importance of participation in sport has legal recognition in Britain. Every local authority has a duty to provide and maintain playing fields and other facilities, which are usually very cheap to use and sometimes even free. Spectator sport is also a matter of official public concern.

Sometimes the traditions which accompany an event can seem as important as the actual sporting contest. Wimbledon, for example, is not just a tennis tournament. It means summer fashions, strawberries and cream, garden parties and long, warm English summer evenings. Because Wimbledon is essentially a middle-class event, British tennis fans would never allow themselves to be treated like football fans. Wimbledon with security fences, policemen on horses and other measures to keep fans off the court is impossible to imagine.

The long history of such events has meant that many of them, and their venues, have become world-famous. Therefore, it is not only the British who tune in to watch. The Grand National, for example, attracts a television audience of 300 million. This worldwide enthusiasm has little to do with the standard of British sport. The cup finals of other countries often have better quality and more entertaining football on view - but more Europeans watch the English Cup Final than any other. The standard of British tennis is poor, and Wimbledon is only one of the world's major tournaments. But if you ask any top tennis player, you find that Wimbledon is the one they really want to win. Every footballer in the world dreams of playing at Wembley, every cricketer in the world of playing at Lord's. Wimbledon, Wembley and Lord's are the "spiritual homes" of their respective sports. Sport is a British "export".

Cricket. Judging by the numbers of people who play it and watch it, cricket is definitely not the national sport of Britain. In Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, interest in it is confined to the middle classes. Only in England and a small part of Wales it is played at top level. And even in England, where its enthusiasts come from all classes, the majority of the population do not understand its rules. Moreover, it is rare for the English national team to be the best in the world.

When people refer to cricket as the English national game, they are not thinking so much of its level of popularity or of the standard of English players but more of the very English associations that it carries with it. Cricket is much more than just a sport, *it symbolizes a way of life* a slow and peaceful rural way of life. Cricket is special because it combines competition with the British dream of rural life. Cricket is what the village green is for.

Cricket is, therefore the national English game in a symbolic sense. However, to some people cricket is more than just a symbol. The comparatively low attendance at top class matches does not give a true picture of the level of interest in the country. One game of cricket takes a terribly long time, which a lot of people simply don't have to spare (in fact there are millions of people in the country who do not just enjoy

cricket but are passionate about it! These people spend up to thirty days each summer tuned to the live radio commentary. When they get the chance, they watch a bit of the live television coverage). Some people even do both at the same time - they turn the sound down on the television and listen to the radio. And if cricket fans are too busy to listen to the radio commentary, they can always phone a special number to be given the latest score.

Football. The official name of "soccer" (as it is called in the USA and Britain) is "association football". This distinguishes it from other kinds such as rugby football (almost always called simply "rugby"), Australian football and American football. However, most people in Britain call it simply "football". This is indicative of its dominant role. Everywhere in the country except south Wales, it is most popular spectator sport, the most-played sport in the country state schools and one of the most popular participatory sports for adults. In terms of numbers, *football, not cricket, is the national sport*, just as it is everywhere like in Europe.

British football has traditionally drawn its main following fans the working class. In general, the intelligent people ignored it. But in the last century, it has started to attract wider interest. The appearance of *fanzines* is an indication of this. (Fanzines are magazines written in an informal but often highly intelligent and witty style, published by the fans of some of the clubs).

Many team sports in Britain, but especially football, tend to be "men-only" affairs. In the USA, the whole family goes to watch the baseball. Similarly, the whole family goes along to cheer the Irish national football team. But in Britain, only a handful of children or women go to football matches. This is why active support for local teams has had a tendency to become violent. English fans visiting Europe are now no worse in their behaviour than the fans of many other countries.

Rugby. There are two versions of this fast and aggressive ball game: *rugby union* and *rugby league*. They are so similar that somebody who is good at one of them can quickly learn to become good at the other. The real difference between them is a matter of social history. Rugby union is the older of the two. In the 19th century it was enthusiastically taken up by most of Britain's public schools. Rugby league split off from rugby union at the end of the century. Although it has now spread to many of the same places in the world where rugby union is played, its traditional home is among the working class of the north of England, where it was a way for miners and factory workers to make a little bit of extra money from their sporting talents.

The Olympic-style *Commonwealth Games* are held every four years in a different member country. Known as the Empire Games until 1950, the first event was held in Hamilton, Canada, in 1930. There were only eleven participating countries, and the sports included athletics, boxing, bowls, rowing, swimming and wrestling. England has only hosted the Games twice: in London in 1934 and in Manchester in 2002. They have only been held twice outside of Canada, Britain or Australasia - in Jamaica in 1966 and in Malaysia in 1998. The number of countries participating in the Games has slowly grown to over 70, and thousands of athletes now participate. Without competition from the USA and the major European countries, Australia, Canada and the British countries (which compete separately) usually win the most medals. The Commonwealth Games have their own version of

the Olympic ceremony.

Animals in sport Traditionally, the favourite sports of the British upper classes are *hunting*, *shooting* and *fishing*. The most widespread form of hunting is *foxhunting* - that is what the word *hunting* usually means in Britain. This is a popular pastime among some members of higher social classes and a few people from lower social classes, who often see their participation as a mark of a newly won status. Still, foxhunting is strongly opposed by some people. The League Against Cruel Sports wants it made illegal and the campaign has been steady intensifying. There are sometimes violent encounters between foxhunters and protestors (whom the hunters call "saboteurs").

Apart from being hunted, another way animals are used in sport is when they race. *Horse-racing* is a long-established and a popular sport in Britain. It became known as "the sport of Kings" in the 17th century, and modern British royalty has close connections with sport involving horses: some members of the royal family own racehorses and attend certain annual race meetings (e.g. Ascot); some are also active participants in the sports of polo and show-jumping.

Gambling. Even if they are not taking part or watching, British people like to be involved in sport. They can do this by placing bets on future results. Gambling is widespread throughout all social classes. It is so basic as to sport that the word "sportsman" used to be synonym for "gambler". Every year a total of £12.7 billion is wagered (risk (a sum of money, bet) by the British - that's £ 289 for every adult in the country. £ 9.5 billion is won. The government takes £ 1 billion in taxes. The rest is kept by the bookmakers.

LECTURE 6. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. When people think of Britain they often think of people drinking _____, eating _____ and _____ and wearing _____ hats, but there is more to Britain than just those things.

2. Most holiday are national holidays, called _____ Holidays, because banks and government offices close on that days and they include Christmas Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, May Day, New Year's Day, and Boxing Day.

3. _____ Night is celebrated in Scotland on the 25th of January. The day also celebrates Burns' contribution to Scottish culture.

4. _____ Day is a national holiday in Ireland on 17th March.

5. 23 April is _____ Day in England to remembers St George, England's patron saint.

6. _____ night is the annual commemoration of the foiling of the Gunpowder Plot - when 14 individuals planned to blow up the House of Lords during the State Opening of Parliament on 5 November 1605.

7. 30 November is _____ Day is a bank holiday in Scotland.

8. For many people _____ Day is a time to recover of Christmas Day and an opportunity to spend time with family, friends, and neighbors.

9. _____ beef is still the national culinary pride. It is called a "joint", and is served at midday on Sunday with roasted potatoes, Yorkshire pudding, two vegetables, a good strong horseradish, gravy, and mustard.

10. _____ made predominantly from sheep's heart, liver, lungs, and oats, then stuffed in a sheep's stomach; whilst it may not sound appetizing, haggis is a firm favourite for many Scots.

11. Whilst at first glance, this may look like chocolate, _____pudding (sometimes referred to as blood pudding or blood sausage) is made from pigs' blood and fat – another Scottish favourite.

12. _____ is a morning snack taken around 11am – it typically consists of a cup of tea or coffee with some biscuits or cake

13. _____ and _____ are a mainstay of British cuisine. Cod, haddock, and or plaice are dipped in batter then deep-fried and then served with chips. Mushy or green peas and tartar sauce often accompany this dish.

14. As well as large amounts of *hot drink* such as _____, _____, and _____, British people, especially children, drink _____ (a sweetened fruit concentrate which has to be diluted with water) and brand-name soft drinks

15. The _____ is the only indoor place where the average person can comfortably meet others, even strangers, and get into prolonged conversation with them. They used to serve almost nothing but beer and spirits.

16. _____ is much more than just a sport, *it symbolizes a way of life* a slow and peaceful rural way of life. Cricket is special because it combines competition with the British dream of rural life. Cricket is what the village green is for.

17. _____ not cricket, is the national sport, just as it is everywhere like in Europe.

18. The most widespread form of hunting is _____ - that is what the word *hunting* usually means in Britain

19. _____ is a long-established and a popular sport in Britain. It became known as "the sport of Kings" in the 1 century, and some modern British royalty own racehorses and attend certain annual race meetings (e.g. Ascot).

LECTURE 7. CULTURAL AND NATIONAL ICONS

- Arts: literature, theatre, music, performing arts, carnivals, parades
- Broadcasting, Museums and galleries, libraries
- National costumes and traditional dress

British culture is influenced by the combined nations' history; its historically Christian religious life, its interaction with the cultures of Europe, the traditions of England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland, and the impact of the British Empire. Although British culture is a distinct entity, the individual cultures of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are diverse and have varying degrees of overlap and distinctiveness.

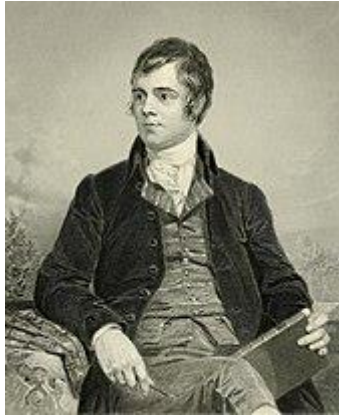
British literature is particularly esteemed. The modern novel was invented in Britain, and playwrights, poets, and authors are among its most prominent cultural figures. Britain has also made notable contributions to music, cinema, art, architecture and television. The UK is also the home of the Church of England, the state church and mother church of the Anglican Communion, the third-largest Christian denomination. Britain contains some of the world's oldest universities, has made many contributions to philosophy, science, technology and medicine, and is the birthplace of many prominent scientists and inventions. The Industrial Revolution began in the UK and had a profound effect on the family socio-economic and cultural conditions of the world. As a result of the British Empire significant British influence can be observed in the language, law, culture and institutions of its former colonies, most of which are members of the Commonwealth of Nations. A subset of these states form the Anglosphere, and are among Britain's closest allies. British colonies and dominions influenced British culture in turn, particularly British cuisine. Sport is an important part of British culture, and numerous sports originated in the country including football.

The UK has been described as a "**cultural superpower**", and London has been described as a world cultural capital. A global opinion poll for the BBC saw the UK ranked the third most positively viewed nation in the world (behind Germany and Canada) in 2013 and 2014.

ARTS

Literature

The United Kingdom inherited the literary traditions of England, Scotland and Wales. These include Arthurian literature and its Welsh origins, Norse-influenced Old English literature, the works of English authors Geoffrey Chaucer and William Shakespeare, and Scots works such as John Barbour's *The Brus*.



Robert Burns is regarded as the national poet of Scotland.

The early 18th century period of British literature is known as the Augustan Age and included the development of the novel. Daniel Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe* (1719) and *Moll Flanders* (1722) are often seen as the first English novels, however the development of the novel took place in a wider literary context that included the rise of prose satires – which reached a high point with *Gulliver's Travels* – and earlier foreign works like the Spanish *Don Quixote*. Also linked to the Augustan period is Samuel Johnson's *A Dictionary of the English Language*. Published in 1755, it was viewed as the pre-eminent British dictionary until the completion of the *Oxford English Dictionary* 150 years later.

The subsequent Romantic period showed a flowering of poetry comparable with the Renaissance 200 years earlier, and a revival of interest in vernacular literature. In Scotland the poetry of Robert Burns revived interest in Scots literature, and the Weaver Poets of Ulster were influenced by literature from Scotland. In Wales the late 18th century saw the revival of the eisteddfod tradition, inspired by Iolo Morganwg. The period also saw the publication of *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* (1792), by Mary Wollstonecraft, is one of the earliest works of feminist philosophy.

The late Georgian and Victorian era saw a renewed focus on the novel. A key theme of these novels was social commentary. Early in the period Jane Austen satirised the lifestyle of the gentry and nobility, while the later novels of Charles Dickens often used humour and keen observations to criticise poverty and social stratification. The three Brontë sisters and George Eliot commented on Northern England and the Midlands respectively, though all four women wrote under male pen names during their lifetimes, partly to deflect anti-feminist criticism. Nevertheless, openly female authors achieved considerable success in the period, such as the predominantly religious poems of Elizabeth Barrett Browning and Christina Rossetti.

Rudyard Kipling exemplifies the British Empire's influence on British literature. His novels *The Jungle Book* and *The Man Who Would Be King* are both set in British India, the poem *If*— evokes the concept of the "stiff upper lip", while *The White Man's Burden* demonstrates a white supremacist Imperialist outlook.



Welsh native Roald Dahl is frequently ranked the best children's author in British polls.

World War I gave rise to British war poets and writers such as Wilfred Owen, Siegfried Sassoon, and Rupert Brooke, who wrote (often paradoxically) of their expectations of war, and their experiences in the trenches. Initially idealistic and patriotic in tone, as the war progressed the tone of the movement became increasingly sombre and pacifistic. The beginning of the twentieth century also saw the Celtic Revival stimulate a new appreciation of traditional Irish literature, while the Scottish Renaissance brought modernism to Scottish literature as well as an interest in new forms in the literatures of Scottish Gaelic and Scots. The English novel developed in the 20th century into much greater variety and it remains today the dominant English literary form.

The contemporary British literary scene is marked by awards such as the Man Booker Prize, created in 1969, and festivals including the Welsh Hay Festival, held since 1988. The prominent status of children's literature in the UK was demonstrated in the opening ceremony of the London 2012 Olympic Games, which contained sequence dedicated to prominent children's literary characters. In 2003 the BBC carried out a British survey entitled *The Big Read* in order to find the "nation's best-loved novel", with works by English novelists J. R. R. Tolkien, Jane Austen, Philip Pullman, Douglas Adams and J. K. Rowling making up the top five on the list. More than 75% of the British public read at least one book annually. The UK is also among the largest publishers of books. As of 2017, six firms in the United Kingdom rank among the world's biggest publishers of books in terms of revenue: Bloomsbury, Cambridge University Press, Informa, Oxford University Press, Pearson, and RELX Group.

Theatre



William Shakespeare has had a significant impact on British theatre and drama.

From its formation in 1707 the United Kingdom has had a vibrant tradition of theatre, much of it inherited from England, Scotland and Wales. The Union of the Crowns coincided with the decline of highbrow and provocative Restoration comedy in favour of sentimental comedy, domestic tragedy such as George Lillo's *The London Merchant* (1731), and by an overwhelming interest in Italian opera. Popular entertainment became more important in this period than ever before, with fair-booth burlesque and mixed forms that are the ancestors of the English music hall. These forms flourished at the expense of other forms of English drama, which went into a long period of decline. In Scotland the opposite occurred, with the emergence of specifically Scottish plays including John Home's *Douglas* and the works of Walter Scott, which included original plays as well as adaptations of his *Waverley* novels. The late 19th century saw revival of English theatre with arrival of Irishmen George Bernard Shaw and Oscar Wilde, who influenced domestic English drama and revitalised it. Their contemporaries Gilbert and Sullivan had a similar impact on musical theatre with their comic operas. The Shakespeare Memorial Theatre was opened in Shakespeare's birthplace Stratford upon Avon in 1879 and Herbert Beerbohm Tree founded an Academy of Dramatic Art at Her Majesty's Theatre in 1904.

The early twentieth century was dominated by drawing-room plays produced by the likes of Noël Coward, which were then challenged by the kitchen sink realism and absurdist drama influenced by Irishman Samuel Beckett in the 1950s and 60s. Conversely 1952 saw the first performance of Agatha Christie's *The Mousetrap*, a drawing-room murder mystery that has seen over 25,000 performances and is the longest-running West End show. At the same time the performing arts theatre Sadler's Wells, under Lilian Baylis, nurtured talent that led to the development of an opera company, which became the English National Opera (ENO); a theatre company, which evolved into the National Theatre; and a ballet company, which eventually became the English Royal Ballet. Elsewhere the Royal Shakespeare Company was founded in 1959 at Stratford-upon-Avon, and continues to mainly stage Shakespeare's plays.

Contemporary British theatre is focused on the West End, London's major theatre district. The Theatre Royal, Drury Lane in the City of Westminster dates back to 1663, making it the oldest London theatre, however the Theatre Royal at the

Bristol Old Vic is the oldest continually-operating theatre in the English speaking world, opening in 1768. The musicals of Andrew Lloyd Webber have dominated the West End since the late 20th century, leading him to be dubbed "the most commercially successful composer in history". A National Theatre of Scotland was set up in 2006.

Music

Classical music



The Grenadier Guards band playing “The British Grenadiers” at Trooping the Colour. Formed in 1685 the band performs at British ceremonial events.

British Baroque music was heavily influenced by continental fashions. This is exemplified by George Frideric Handel, a German-born naturalised British citizen whose choral music set British taste for the next two centuries. His operas also helped Britain challenge Italy as a centre of operatic production. Classical music attracted much attention from 1784 with the formation of the Birmingham Triennial Music Festival, which was the longest running classical music festival of its kind until the final concerts in 1912. Beyond this, the establishment of the London Philharmonic Society in 1813, Royal Academy of Music in 1822, and Irish Academy of Music in 1848 aided the professionalisation of British classical music and patronage of composers. The Philharmonic Society was a strong supporter of the German Felix Mendelssohn, an early Romantic composer who also strongly influenced British music. In Ireland, John Field invented the nocturne and may have been an influence on Chopin and Liszt. A notable development of the mid- to late-nineteenth century was the resurgence of English-language opera and the establishment of several prominent orchestras, including the Royal Liverpool Philharmonic in 1840, Manchester-based Hallé in 1858, the Scottish Orchestra in 1891 and the City of Birmingham Symphony Orchestra in 1920. The most notable trend in classical music at the turn of the century was the nationalistic trend that developed. Modern and contemporary classical music takes a variety of forms. Composers such as Benjamin Britten developed idiosyncratic and avant-garde styles, while the likes of William Walton produced more conventional ceremonial and patriotic music. The UK now has several major orchestras, including the BBC Symphony Orchestra, and the Philharmonia, while the establishment of the Opera North in 1977 sought to redress the balance of operatic institutions away from London. There are several classical festivals, such as Aldeburgh and Glydebourne, while the BBC Proms are an important annual fixture in the classical calendar.

Popular music



The Beatles are the most commercially successful and critically acclaimed band in popular music, with estimated sales of over one billion.

Popular commercial music in Britain can be traced back at least as far as the seventeenth-century broadside ballad, and also encompasses brass band music and music hall. Genres such as beat and British blues were re-exported to America by bands such as the Beatles and Rolling Stones, in a move that came to be called the British Invasion. In the 1960s saw the development of heavy metal out of Birmingham and the wider area. The development of blues rock helped differentiate rock and pop music, leading to the emergence of several sub-genres of rock in the 1970s. Jazz saw a resurgence as black British musicians created new fusions such as Acid Jazz. Indie rock was a reaction to the perceived saturation of the music industry by pop, exemplified by Stock Aitken Waterman's domination of the charts. This continued in the 1990s, as boy bands, all-female and mixed groups dominated the singles chart, while the Madchester scene helped drive alternative rock and Britpop to the mainstream. British soul saw a rise that continued into the 2000s, including the global success of Adele. Dance music also saw innovation, with genres such as dubstep and new rave emerging.

Folklore

Robin Hood and the ballad tradition

Much of the folklore of the United Kingdom pre-dates the 18th century. Though some of the characters and stories are present throughout all of the UK, most belong to specific countries or regions. Common folkloric beings include pixies, giants, elves, bogeymen, trolls, goblins and dwarves. While many legends and folk-customs are thought to be ancient, such as the tales of Offa of Angeln and Weyland Smith, others date from after the Norman invasion of England, such as Robin Hood and his Merry Men of Sherwood and their battles with the Sheriff of Nottingham. Richard the Lionheart, Christian leader of the Third Crusade, came to be seen as a contemporary and supporter of Robin Hood. A plaque features Richard marrying Robin and Maid Marian outside Nottingham Castle.

During the High Middle Ages tales originated from Brythonic traditions, notably the Arthurian legend. Deriving from Welsh source; King Arthur, Excalibur and Merlin, while the Jersey poet Wace introduced the Knights of the Round Table. These stories are most centrally brought together within Geoffrey of Monmouth's

Historia Regum Britanniae (History of the Kings of Britain). Another early figure from British tradition, King Cole, may have been based on a real figure from Sub-Roman Britain. Many of the tales make up part of the wider Matter of Britain, a collection of shared British folklore.

The Loch Ness Monster is a cryptid that is reputed to inhabit Loch Ness in the Scottish Highlands. The legendary monster has been affectionately referred to by the nickname "Nessie" since the 1950s. The leprechaun figures large in Irish folklore. A mischievous fairy-type creature in emerald green clothing who when not playing tricks spends all its time busily making shoes, the leprechaun is said to have a pot of gold hidden at the end of the rainbow, and if ever captured by a human it has the magical power to grant three wishes in exchange for release. In mythology, English fairy tales such as *Jack and the Beanstalk* and *Jack the Giant Killer* helped form the modern perception of giants as stupid and violent, while the dwarf Tom Thumb is a traditional hero in English folklore.

English fairy tale *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* is one of the most popular fairy tales in the English language. Some folk figures are based on semi- or actual historical people whose story has been passed down centuries: Lady Godiva, for instance, was said to have ridden naked on horseback through Coventry; the heroic English figure Hereward the Wake resisted the Norman invasion; Herne the Hunter is an equestrian ghost associated with Windsor Forest and Great Park, and Mother Shipton is the archetypal witch. The chivalrous bandit, such as Dick Turpin, is a recurring character.

Performing arts, carnivals, parades



The Proms are held annually at the Royal Albert Hall during the summer. Regular performers at the Albert Hall include Eric Clapton who has played at the venue over 200 times.

Large outdoor music festivals in the summer and autumn are popular, such as Glastonbury (the largest greenfield festival in the world), V Festival, Reading and Leeds Festivals. The UK was at the forefront of the illegal, free rave movement from the late 1980s, which led to pan-European culture of teknivals mirrored on the British free festival movement and associated travelling lifestyle.

The most prominent *opera house* in England is the Royal Opera House at Covent Gardens. The Proms, a season of orchestral classical music concerts held at the Royal Albert Hall, is a major cultural event held annually.

The Royal Ballet is one of the world's foremost classical ballet companies, its reputation built on two prominent figures of 20th-century dance, *prima ballerina* Margot Fonteyn and choreographer Frederick Ashton. Irish dancing is popular in

Northern Ireland and among the Irish diaspora throughout the UK; its costumes feature patterns taken from the medieval Book of Kells.

The circus is a traditional form of entertainment in the UK. Chipperfield's Circus dates back more than 300 years in Britain, making it one of the oldest family circus dynasties. The Hughes Royal Circus was popular in London in the 1780s. Pablo Fanque's Circus Royal, among the most popular circuses of Victorian England, showcased William Kite, which inspired John Lennon to write "Being for the Benefit of Mr. Kite!" on The Beatles' album *Sgt. Pepper's Lonely Hearts Club Band*. Joseph Grimaldi, originator of whiteface clown make-up, is considered the father of modern clowning.



The Notting Hill Carnival is Britain's biggest street festival. Led by members of the British African-Caribbean community, the annual carnival takes place in August and lasts three days.

The Edinburgh Festival Fringe is the world's largest arts festival. Established in 1947, it takes place in Scotland's capital during three weeks every August alongside several other arts and cultural festivals. The Fringe mostly attracts events from the performing arts, particularly theatre and comedy, although dance and music also feature. The Notting Hill Carnival is an annual event that has taken place on the streets of Notting Hill, London since 1966. Led by the British African-Caribbean community, the carnival has attracted around one million people, making it Britain's biggest street festival and one of the largest in the world. Also of note is the extensive impact of Irish culture for St. Patrick's Day. The largest St Patrick's Day Parade takes place in Digbeth, Birmingham, where there is a strong Irish community.

Broadcasting

The UK has been at the forefront of developments in film, radio and television. Broadcasting in the UK has historically been dominated by the taxpayer-funded but independently run British Broadcasting Corporation (commonly known as the *BBC*), although other independent radio and television (ITV, Channel 4, Five) and satellite broadcasters (especially BSkyB which has over 10 million subscribers) have become more important in recent years. BBC television, and the other three main television channels are public service broadcasters who, as part of their licence allowing them to operate, broadcast a variety of minority interest programming. The BBC and Channel 4 are state-owned, though they operate independently.

Museums and galleries



Titanic Belfast museum on the former shipyard in Belfast where the RMS *Titanic* was built

The British Museum in London with its collection of more than seven million objects, is one of the largest and most comprehensive in the world, and sourced from every continent, illustrating and documenting the story of human culture from its beginning to the present. On display since 1802, the Rosetta Stone is the most viewed attraction. The Natural History Museum, London was established by Richard Owen (who coined the term "dinosaur") to display the national collection of dinosaur fossils and other biological and geological exhibits. The National Museums of Scotland bring together national collections in Scotland. Amgueddfa Cymru – National Museum Wales comprises eight museums in Wales. National Museums Northern Ireland has four museums in Northern Ireland including the Ulster Museum.

The Titanic Belfast museum, a visitor attraction in the Titanic Quarter, east Belfast, Northern Ireland on the regenerated site of the shipyard where *Titanic* was built, was opened to the public in 2012. The architecture is a tribute to *Titanic* itself, with the external facades a nod to the enormous hull of the ocean liner.

The first Madame Tussauds wax museum opened in London in 1835, and today displays waxworks of famous people from various fields, including royalty (Princess Diana), historical figures (Henry VIII), sport (David Beckham), music (Freddie Mercury), literature (Charles Dickens), politics (Winston Churchill), television (Gordon Ramsay), and cinema (Michael Caine) among others.

The most senior art gallery is the National Gallery in Trafalgar Square, which houses a collection of over 2,300 paintings dating from the mid-13th century to 1900. The Tate galleries house the national collections of British and international modern art; they also host the famously controversial Turner Prize. The National Galleries of Scotland are the five national galleries of Scotland and two partner galleries. The National Museum of Art, Wales, opened in 2011.

Libraries

The British Library in London is the national library and is one of the world's largest research libraries, holding over 150 million items in all known languages and formats; including around 25 million books. The library has two of the four remaining copies of the original Magna Carta (the other two copies are held in Lincoln Castle and Salisbury Cathedral) and has a room devoted solely to them. The British Library Sound Archive has over six million recordings (many from the BBC Sound Archive, including Winston Churchill's wartime speeches.)

The National Library of Scotland in Edinburgh holds 7 million books, 14 million printed items (such as the last letter written by Mary, Queen of Scots) and over 2 million maps. The National Library of Wales is the national legal deposit library of Wales, and holds over 6.5 million books, portraits, maps and photographic images in Wales.

Historical markers



English Heritage blue plaque commemorating Sir Alfred Hitchcock at 153 Cromwell Road, London

Blue plaques, the oldest historical marker scheme in the world, are permanent signs installed in a public places to commemorate a link between that location and a famous person or event. The scheme was the brainchild of politician William Ewart in 1863 and was initiated in 1866. It was formally established by the Society of Arts in 1867, and since 1986 has been run by English Heritage.

The first plaque was unveiled in 1867 to commemorate Lord Byron at his birthplace, 24 Holles Street, Cavendish Square, London. Events commemorated by plaques include John Logie Baird's first demonstration of television at 22 Frith Street, Westminster, W1, London, the first sub 4-minute mile run by Roger Bannister on 6 May 1954 at Oxford University's Iffley Road Track, and a sweet shop in Llandaff, Cardiff that commemorates the mischief by a young Roald Dahl who put a mouse in the gobstoppers jar.

National costume and dress



Highland dancing in traditional Gaelic dress with its tartan pattern

As a multi-national state, the UK has no single national costume. However, different countries within the United Kingdom have national costumes or at least are associated with styles of dress. Scotland has the kilt and Tam o'shanter, and tartan

clothing – its pattern consisting of criss-crossed horizontal and vertical bands in multiple colours – is a notable aspect of Gaelic culture. A traditional Welsh costume with Welsh hat is worn by some women during Eisteddfodau. In England, the topic of a national costume has been in debate, since no officially recognized clothing is anointed "national". However, the closest to an English national costume can be the smock or smock-frock in the Midlands and Southern England and the maud in Northern England. English Country Clothing is also very popular among rural folk, flat caps and brogue shoes also forming part of the country clothing.



The Royal Stewart tartan. It is also the personal tartan of Queen Elizabeth II. Tartan is used in clothing, such as skirts and scarves, and has also appeared on tins of Scottish shortbread.

Certain military uniforms such as the Beefeater or the Queen's Guard are considered to be symbolic of Englishness. Morris dancers or the costumes for the traditional English May dance are sometimes cited as examples of traditional English costume, but are only worn by participants in those events. Designed in 1849 by the London hat-makers Thomas and William Bowler, the Bowler hat is arguably the most iconic stereotyped view of an Englishman (complete with Bowler and rolled umbrella), and was commonly associated with City of London businessmen. Traced back to the north of England in the 14th century, the flat cap is associated with the working classes in the UK. The flat cap has seen a 21st-century resurgence in popularity, possibly influenced by various British public figures wearing them, including David Beckham, Harry Styles and Guy Ritchie, with clothing sellers Marks & Spencer reporting that flat cap sales significantly increased in the 2010s. In 1856 William Henry Perkin discovered the first synthetic dye (Mauveine – a purple colour), which was suitable as a dye of silk and other textiles, helping to revolutionise the world of fashion.

Burberry is most famous for creating the trench coat: they were worn by British soldiers in the trenches in World War I. Among various British youth subcultures, Dr. Martens boots (often referred to as DMs) have been the choice of footwear: in the 1960s skinheads started to wear them, and they later became popular among scooter riders, punks, and some new wave musicians. Male mods adopted a sophisticated look that included tailor-made suits, thin ties, button-down collar shirts, Chelsea boots and Clarks desert boots.



Queen Victoria in her white wedding dress with Prince Albert on their return from the marriage service at St James's Palace, London, 10 February 1840.

British sensibilities have played an influential role in world clothing since the 18th century. Particularly during the Victorian era, British fashions defined acceptable dress for men of business. Key figures such as the future Edward VII, Edward VIII, and Beau Brummell, created the modern suit and cemented its dominance. Brummell is credited with introducing and establishing as fashion the modern man's suit, worn with a tie. The use of a coloured and patterned tie (a common feature in British school uniforms) indicating the wearer's membership in a club, regiment, school, professional association etc. stems from the 1880 oarsmen of Exeter College, Oxford, who tied the bands of their straw hats around their necks. The Wellington boot (first worn by Arthur Wellesley, 1st Duke of Wellington) became a staple for outdoor wear.

The tradition of a white wedding is commonly credited to Queen Victoria's choice to wear a white wedding dress at her wedding to Prince Albert in 1840, at a time when white was associated with purity and conspicuous consumption (because it was difficult to keep clean, and thus could not be worn by servants or labourers), and when it was the colour required of girls being presented to the royal court. The 1981 wedding dress of Lady Diana Spencer became one of the most famous dresses in the world, and was considered one of the most closely guarded secrets in fashion history.

Traditional communication and greeting cards

The red telephone box and Royal Mail red post box appear throughout the UK.

A familiar sight throughout the UK, the red telephone box and Royal Mail red post box are considered British cultural icons. Designed by Sir Giles Gilbert in 1924, the red telephone box features a prominent crown representing the British government. The post pillar box was introduced in the 1850s during the reign of Queen Victoria following Sir Rowland Hill's postal reforms in the 1830s where the reduction in postal rates with the invention of the postage stamp (Penny Black) made sending post an affordable means of personal communication. The red telephone box has appeared in British pop culture, such as in Adele's video



"Hello", the front cover of One Direction's album *Take Me Home*, and the back cover of David Bowie's album *The Rise and Fall of Ziggy Stardust and the Spiders from Mars*.

The world's first postcard was received by Theodore Hook from Fulham, London in 1840. The first pillar boxes had the distinctive Imperial cypher of Victoria Regina. Most pillar boxes produced after 1905 are made of cast iron and are cylindrical, and have served well throughout the reigns of George V, Edward VIII, George VI and Elizabeth II.

The sending and receiving of greeting cards is an established tradition in the UK, with card sending or card display in the home being an important part of British culture.

Sir Henry Cole devised the concept of sending greetings cards at Christmas time. Designed by John Callcott Horsley for Cole in 1843, the Christmas card accounts for almost half of the volume of greeting card sales in the UK, with over 600 million cards sold annually. The robin is a common sight in gardens throughout the UK. It is relatively tame and drawn to human activities, and is frequently voted Britain's national bird in polls. The robin began featuring on many Christmas cards in the mid-19th century. The association with Christmas arises from postmen in Victorian Britain who wore red jackets and were nicknamed "Robins"; the robin featured on the Christmas card is an emblem of the postman delivering the card.

Sending Valentine's Day cards became hugely popular in Britain in the late 18th century, a practice which has since spread to other nations. The day first became associated with romantic love within the circle of Geoffrey Chaucer in the 14th century, when the tradition of courtly love flourished. In Chaucer's *Parlement of Foules* (1382) he wrote; *For this was on seynt Volantynys day. When euery bryd comets there to chese his make.* The modern cliché Valentine's Day poem can be found in the 1784 English nursery rhyme *Roses Are Red*; "The rose is red, the violet's blue. The honey's sweet, and so are you. Thou art my love and I am thine. I drew thee to my Valentine."

In 1797, a British publisher issued *The Young Man's Valentine Writer* which contained scores of suggested sentimental verses for the young lover unable to compose his own. In 1835, 60,000 Valentine cards were sent by post in the UK, despite postage being expensive. A reduction in postal rates (with the 1840 invention of the postage stamp, the Penny Black) increased the practice of mailing Valentines, with 400,000 sent in 1841. In the UK just under half the population spend money on gifts. Other popular occasions for sending greeting cards in the UK are birthdays, Mother's Day, Easter and Father's Day.

LECTURE 7. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. The early 18th century period of British literature is known as the _____ Age and included the development of the novel. Daniel Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe* (1719) and *Moll Flanders* (1722) are often seen as the first English novels

2. Robert Burns is regarded as the national _____ of Scotland.

3. Samuel _____ "A Dictionary of the English Language" was published in 1755.

4. One of the earliest works of _____ philosophy was publication of "A Vindication of the Rights of Woman" (1792), by Mary Wollstonecraft.

5. The late Georgian and Victorian era saw a renewed focus on the novel. A key theme of these novels was social commentary. Early in the period Jane _____ satirised the lifestyle of the gentry and nobility, while the later novels of Charles _____ often used humour and keen observations to criticise poverty and social stratification.

6. The _____ Brontë sisters and George Eliot commented on Northern England and the Midlands respectively, though all four _____ wrote under male pen names during their lifetimes, partly to deflect anti-feminist criticism.

7. Rudyard Kipling exemplifies the British Empire's influence on British literature. His novels *The _____ Book* and *The Man Who Would Be King* are both set in British India, the poem _____ - evokes the concept of the "stiff upper lip", while *The White Man's Burden* demonstrates a white supremacist Imperialist outlook.

8. Welsh native Roald _____ is frequently ranked the best children's author in British polls.

9. In 2003 the BBC carried out a British survey entitled *The Big Read* in order to find the "nation's best-loved novel", with works by English novelists J. R. R. Tolkien, Jane Austen, Philip Pullman, Douglas Adams and J. K. _____ making up the top five on the list.

10. William _____ has had a significant impact on British theatre and drama

11. The Grenadier Guards band playing "The British _____" at Trooping the Colour. Formed in 1685 the band performs at British ceremonial events.

12. The _____ are the most commercially successful and critically acclaimed band in popular music, with estimated sales of over one billion.

13. Much of the folklore of the United Kingdom pre-dates the 18th century. Though some of the characters and stories are present throughout all of the UK, most belong to specific countries or regions. Common folkloric beings include pixies, giants, elves, bogeymen, trolls, goblins and dwarves. While many legends and folk-customs are thought to be ancient, such as the tales of Offa of Angeln and Weyland Smith, others date from after the Norman invasion of England, such as Robin _____ and his _____ Men of Sherwood and their battles with the Sheriff of Nottingham.

14. English fairy tale *Goldilocks and the -- _____* is one of the most popular fairy tales in the English language.

15. The UK has been at the forefront of developments in film, radio and television. Broadcasting in the UK has historically been dominated by the taxpayer-funded but independently run British Broadcasting Corporation (commonly known as the _____).

16. The first Madame Tussauds _____ museum opened in London in 1835, and today displays waxworks of famous people.

17. The most senior art gallery is the National Gallery in Trafalgar Square, which houses a collection of over _____ paintings dating from the mid-13th century to 1900.

18. Blue _____, the oldest historical marker scheme in the world, are permanent signs installed in a public places to commemorate a link between that location and a famous person or event.

19. The different countries within the United Kingdom have national costumes or at least are associated with styles of dress. Scotland has the _____ and Tam o'shanter, and tartan clothing – its pattern consisting of criss-crossed horizontal and vertical bands in multiple colours – is a notable aspect of Gaelic culture. A traditional Welsh costume with Welsh _____ is worn by some women during Eisteddfodau.

20. Certain military uniforms such as the Beefeater or the Queen's _____ are considered to be symbolic of Englishness.

21. A familiar sight throughout the UK, the _____ telephone box and Royal Mail _____ post box are considered British cultural icons.

LECTURE 8

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA. GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY OF THE USA

- Geography and climate
- National symbols
- History

Capital: Washington, D.C.

Population: 329,256,465 (2018)

Official Language: None, but most of the country is English-speaking

Currency: US dollar (USD)

Form of Government: Constitutional federal republic

Total Area: 3,796,725 square miles (9,833,517 square kilometers)

Highest Point: Denali at 20,308 feet (6,190 meters)

Lowest Point: Death Valley at -282 feet (-86 meters)

Geography and Climate

The U.S. borders both the North Atlantic and North Pacific Oceans and is bordered by Canada and Mexico. It is the third-largest country in the world by area and has a varied topography. The eastern regions consist of hills and low mountains, while the central interior is a vast plain (called the Great Plains region). The west has high rugged mountain ranges (some of which are volcanic in the Pacific Northwest). Alaska also features rugged mountains as well as river valleys. Hawaii's landscape varies but is dominated by volcanic topography.

Like its topography, the climate of the U.S. also varies depending on location. It is considered mostly temperate, but tropical in Hawaii and Florida, arctic in Alaska, semiarid in the great plains west of the Mississippi River, and arid in the Great Basin of the southwest; low winter temperatures in the northwest are ameliorated occasionally in January and February by warm chinook winds from the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains

Official Flag of the United States



The U.S. flag is a strong symbol of American identity and national pride. Also called Old Glory, The Star Spangled Banner, or simply The Stars and Stripes, the U.S. flag has a colorful history and has undergone many changes since the first official flag of 1777.

Symbolism of Stars, Stripes, and Colors

Stars are a symbol of the heavens and the goals to which humankind aspires;

stripes are symbolic of rays of light from the sun. Thirteen stripes represent the original thirteen colonies that declared independence from England; fifty stars symbolize the current 50 United States. White signifies purity and innocence, red signifies valor and bravery; and blue signifies vigilance, perseverance, and justice.

The national coat of arms

The **Great Seal** is a principal national symbol of the United States. The phrase is used both for the physical seal itself, which is kept by the United States Secretary of State, and more generally for the design impressed upon it. The obverse of the Great Seal depicts the national coat of arms of the United States



Obverse (left) and reverse (right) side of the Great Seal, adopted in 1782. The obverse depicts the national arms, while the reverse depicts "A pyramid unfinished. In the zenith an eye in a triangle, surrounded by a glory, proper" and the Latin mottoes *Annuit cœptis* and *Novus ordo seclorum*

The recurring number 13 refers to the 13 original states. The arrows and olive branch together symbolize that the United States has "a strong desire for peace, but will always be ready for war."

The supporter of the shield is a bald eagle with its wings outstretched (or "displayed", in heraldic terms). From the eagle's perspective, it holds a bundle of 13 arrows in its left talon, and an olive branch in its right talon. Although not specified by law, the olive branch is usually depicted with 13 leaves and 13 olives. In its beak, the eagle clutches a scroll with the motto *E pluribus unum* ("Out of Many, One"). Over its head there appears a "glory" with 13 mullets (stars) on a blue field

History

The First Inhabitants

No one knows exactly how people first came to North America. However, many scientists believe that America's first settlers were hunters who came from Siberia. 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.

Europe's First Explorers

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.

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.

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 harbour of New Amsterdam. The English forces were much stronger than the garrison of New Amsterdam, 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.

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.

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 harbour. 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.

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.

Trouble with Britain

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.

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 harbour 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.

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.

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.

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 school teachers 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.

The Pioneers

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, 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.

The Civil War

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 Slave System

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 labour 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 Road to War

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 neighbours from Virginia.

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.

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. 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.

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. 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.

LECTURE 8. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. The U.S. borders both the _____ and _____ Oceans and is bordered by Canada and _____. It is the third-largest country in the world by area.

2. Old Glory, The Star Spangled Banner, or simply _____ is the U.S. flag since the first official flag of 1777. Stars are a symbol of the heavens and the goals to which humankind aspires; stripes are symbolic of rays of light from the sun. Thirteen stripes represent the original thirteen _____ that declared independence from England; _____ stars symbolize the current _____ United States. White signifies purity and innocence, red signifies valor and bravery;

and blue signifies vigilance, perseverance, and justice.

3. The national coat of arms is the Great Seal of the United States. The _____ holds a bundle of 13 arrows in its left talon, and an olive branch in its right talon. In its beak, the eagle clutches a scroll with the motto *E pluribus unum* ("Out of Many, One").

4. On October 12, 1492, _____ 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.

5. By the 1750's there were _____ English colonies along the eastern coast of North America.

6. In 1620 a large group of such people left England and sailed to North America on ship called The Mayflower. These people were called _____. William Penn founded the colony of Pennsylvania and joined a religious group called the Society of Friends. The Friends, or _____, as they called themselves, believed in the goodness of all people.

7. The _____ Tea Party is called when the colonists refused to pay the tax on the tea on the night of December 16, 1773.

8. 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. In 1783 the British and Americans met in Paris and signed a treaty and agreed to recognize the independence of the USA.

9. The Constitution of the USA was written in 1787. 10 amendments of the Bill of Rights were added in _____.

10. The Civil War began on April 12, _____. Southerners wanted slavery to be allowed in the new western lands. Northerners were against allowing slavery there. The differences led to war. On April 9, 1865 General _____ surrendered.

11. In the period between 1800 and 1900 the United States changed from a small farming nation to a big industrial country. 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.

12. *The _____ 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.

13. On Dec. 7, 1941 Japanese bombs fell on _____, a US naval base in Hawaii. The US declared war, and 4 days later Germany and Italy declared war to the US.

14. On Aug. 6, 1945 the USA bombed _____ with the atomic bomb.

15. In 1948 US played the leading role in forming a new alliance of Western nations, the _____ Treaty Organization (NATO).

16. In 1964 the US Congress decided to send American soldiers to Vietnam to help _____ Vietnam in his fighting with North Vietnam. The USSR and China helped North Vietnam. In 1973 all sides agreed to stop fighting.

LECTURE 9

POLITICAL SYSTEM OF THE USA

- Federal government
- Political divisions
- Parties and elections
- Foreign relations
- Military
- Religion

The United States is a federal republic of 50 states, a federal district, five territories and several uninhabited island possessions. It is the world's oldest surviving federation. It is a *federal republic and a representative democracy* "in which majority rule is tempered by minority rights protected by law." Since 2015, the U.S. has ranked 25th on the Democracy Index, and is described as a "flawed democracy".

In the American federalist system, citizens are usually subject to three levels of government: **federal, state, and local**. The local government's duties are commonly split between county and municipal governments. In almost all cases, executive and legislative officials are elected by a plurality vote of citizens by district.

The government is regulated by *a system of checks and balances* defined by the U.S. Constitution, which serves as the country's supreme legal document. The original text of the Constitution establishes the structure and responsibilities of the federal government and its relationship with the individual states. Article One protects the right to the writ of habeas corpus. The Constitution has been amended 27 times; the first ten amendments, which make up the Bill of Rights, and the Fourteenth Amendment form the central basis of Americans' individual rights. All laws and governmental procedures are subject to judicial review, and any law can be voided if the courts determine that it violates the Constitution. The principle of judicial review, not explicitly mentioned in the Constitution, was established by the Supreme Court in *Marbury v. Madison* (1803) in a decision handed down by Chief Justice John Marshall.

The federal government comprises three branches:

- *Legislative*: The bicameral Congress, made up of the Senate and the House of Representatives, makes federal law, declares war, approves treaties, has the power of the purse, and has the power of impeachment, by which it can remove sitting members of the government.

- *Executive*: The president is the commander-in-chief of the military, can veto legislative bills before they become law (subject to congressional override), and appoints the members of the Cabinet (subject to Senate approval) and other officers, who administer and enforce federal laws and policies.

- *Judicial*: The Supreme Court and lower federal courts, whose judges are appointed by the president with Senate approval, interpret laws and overturn those they find unconstitutional.

The House of Representatives has 435 voting members, each representing a congressional district for a two-year term. House seats are apportioned among the

states by population. Each state then draws single-member districts to conform with the census apportionment. The District of Columbia and the five major U.S. territories each have one member of Congress—these members are not allowed to vote.

The Senate has 100 members with each state having two senators, elected at-large to six-year terms; one-third of Senate seats are up for election every two years. The District of Columbia and the five major U.S. territories do not have senators. The president serves a four-year term and may be elected to the office no more than twice. The president is not elected by direct vote, but by an indirect electoral college system in which the determining votes are apportioned to the states and the District of Columbia. The Supreme Court, led by the chief justice of the United States, has nine members, who serve for life.

Political divisions

The 50 states are the principal political divisions in the country. Each state holds jurisdiction over a defined geographic territory, where it shares sovereignty with the federal government. They are subdivided into counties or county equivalents and further divided into municipalities. The District of Columbia is a federal district that contains the capital of the United States, the city of Washington. The states and the District of Columbia choose the president of the United States. Each state has presidential electors equal to the number of their representatives and senators in Congress; the District of Columbia has three because of the 23rd Amendment. Territories of the United States such as Puerto Rico do not have presidential electors, and so people in those territories cannot vote for the president.

The United States also observes tribal sovereignty of the American Indian nations to a limited degree, as it does with the states' sovereignty. American Indians are U.S. citizens and tribal lands are subject to the jurisdiction of the U.S. Congress and the federal courts. Like the states they have a great deal of autonomy, but also like the states, tribes are not allowed to make war, engage in their own foreign relations, or print and issue currency. Reservations are usually part of a single state, though 12 reservations cross state boundaries. Indian country jurisdiction over civil and criminal matters is shared by tribes, states, and the federal government.

Citizenship is granted at birth in all states, the District of Columbia, and all major U.S. territories except American Samoa

Parties and elections



Joe Biden 46th President



Kamala Harris 49th Vice President since January 20, 2021

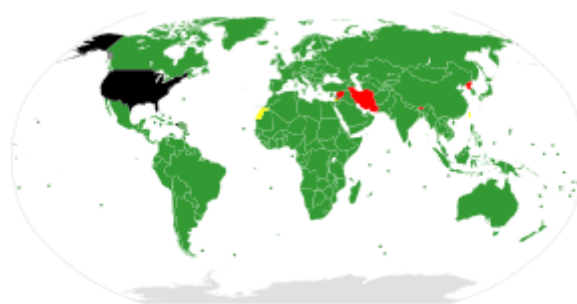
The United States has operated under a two-party system for most of its history. For elective offices at most levels, state-administered primary elections choose the major party nominees for subsequent general elections. Since the general election of 1856, the major parties have been the Democratic Party, founded in 1824, and the Republican Party, founded in 1854. Since the Civil War, only one third-party presidential candidate—former president Theodore Roosevelt, running as a Progressive in 1912—has won as much as 20% of the popular vote. The president and vice president are elected by the Electoral College.

In American political culture, the center-right Republican Party is considered "conservative" and the center-left Democratic Party is considered "liberal". The states of the Northeast and West Coast and some of the Great Lakes states, known as "blue states", are relatively liberal. The "red states" of the South and parts of the Great Plains and Rocky Mountains are relatively conservative.






Democrat Joe Biden, the winner of the 2020 presidential election and former vice president, is serving as the 46th president of the United States. Leadership in the Senate includes Vice President Kamala Harris, President pro tempore Patrick Leahy, Majority Leader Chuck Schumer, and Minority Leader Mitch McConnell. Leadership in the House includes Speaker of the House Nancy Pelosi, Majority Leader Steny Hoyer, and Minority Leader Kevin McCarthy.

In the 117th United States Congress, the House of Representatives and the Senate are narrowly controlled by the Democratic Party. The Senate consists of 50 Republicans and 48 Democrats with two Independents who caucus with the Democrats; the House consists of 222 Democrats and 211 Republicans. Of state governors, there are 27 Republicans and 23 Democrats. Among the D.C. mayor and the five territorial governors, there are three Democrats, one Republican, and one New Progressive.

Foreign relations



Diplomatic relations of the United States

-  United States
-  Countries that have diplomatic relations with the United States
-  Countries that do not have diplomatic relations with the United States
-  Disputed territories
-  Antarctica

The United States has an established structure of foreign relations. It is a permanent member of the United Nations Security Council. New York City is home to the United Nations Headquarters. Almost all countries have embassies in

rapidly deployed by the Air Force's large fleet of transport aircraft, the Navy's 11 active aircraft carriers, and Marine expeditionary units at sea with the Navy, and Army's XVIII Airborne Corps and 75th Ranger Regiment deployed by Air Force transport aircraft. The Air Force can strike targets across the globe through its fleet of strategic bombers, maintains the air defense across the United States, and provides close air support to Army and Marine Corps ground forces. The Space Force operates the Global Positioning System, operates the Eastern and Western Ranges for all space launches, and operates the United States' Space Surveillance and Missile Warning networks. The military operates about 800 bases and facilities abroad, and maintains deployments greater than 100 active duty personnel in 25 foreign countries.

The United States spent \$649 billion on its military in 2019, 36% of global military spending. At 4.7% of GDP, the rate was the second-highest among the top 15 military spenders, after Saudi Arabia. Defense spending plays a major role in science and technology investment, with roughly half of U.S. federal research and development funded by the Department of Defense. Defense's share of the overall U.S. economy has generally declined in recent decades, from early Cold War peaks of 14.2% of GDP in 1953 and 69.5% of federal spending in 1954 to 4.7% of GDP and 18.8% of federal spending in 2011. In total number of personnel, the United States has the third-largest combined armed forces in the world, behind the Chinese People's Liberation Army and Indian Armed Forces.

The country is one of the five recognized nuclear weapons states and one of nine countries to possess nuclear weapons. The United States possesses the second-largest stockpile of nuclear weapons in the world, behind Russia. More than 40% of the world's 14,000 nuclear weapons are held by the United States.

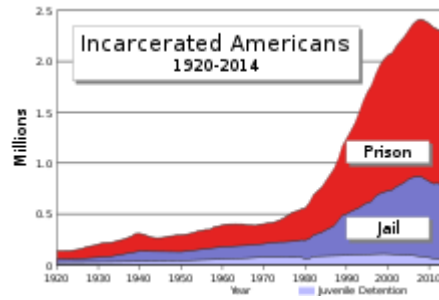
Law enforcement and crime



The New York City Police Department is the nation's largest municipal law enforcement agency.

Law enforcement in the United States is primarily the responsibility of local police departments and sheriff's offices, with state police providing broader services. Federal agencies such as the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) and the U.S. Marshals Service have specialized duties, including protecting civil rights, national security and enforcing U.S. federal courts' rulings and federal laws. State courts conduct most criminal trials while federal courts handle certain designated crimes as well as certain appeals from the state criminal courts.

A cross-sectional analysis of the World Health Organization Mortality Database from 2010 showed that United States homicide rates "were 7.0 times higher than in other high-income countries, driven by a gun homicide rate that was 25.2 times higher." In 2016, the U.S. murder rate was 5.4 per 100,000.

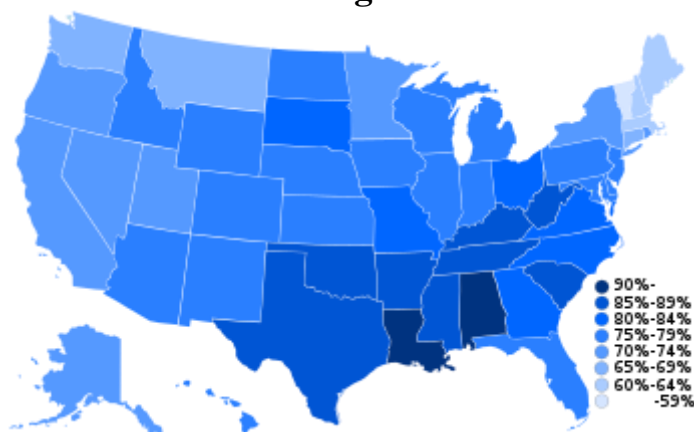


Total incarceration in the United States by year (1920–2014)

The United States has the highest documented incarceration rate and largest prison population in the world. As of 2020, the Prison Policy Initiative reported that there were some 2.3 million people incarcerated. According to the Federal Bureau of Prisons, the majority of inmates held in federal prisons are convicted of drug offenses. The imprisonment rate for all prisoners sentenced to more than a year in state or federal facilities is 478 per 100,000 in 2013. About 9% of prisoners are held in privatized prisons, a practice beginning in the 1980s and a subject of contention.

Although most nations have abolished capital punishment, it is sanctioned in the United States for certain federal and military crimes, and at the state level in 28 states, though three states have moratoriums on carrying out the penalty imposed by their governors. In 2019, the country had the sixth-highest number of executions in the world, following China, Iran, Saudi Arabia, Iraq, and Egypt. No executions took place from 1967 to 1977, owing in part to a U.S. Supreme Court ruling striking down the practice. Since the decision, however, there have been more than 1,500 executions. In recent years the number of executions and presence of capital punishment statute on whole has trended down nationally, with several states recently abolishing the penalty.

Religion



Percentage of respondents in the United States saying that religion is "very important" or "somewhat important" in their lives (2014).

The First Amendment of the U.S. Constitution guarantees the free exercise of religion and forbids Congress from passing laws respecting its establishment.

The United States has the world's largest Christian population. In a 2014 survey, 70.6% of adults in the United States identified themselves as Christians; Protestants accounted for 46.5%, while Catholics, at 20.8%, formed the largest single Christian

denomination. In 2014, 5.9% of the U.S. adult population claimed a non-Christian religion. These include Judaism (1.9%), Islam (0.9%), Hinduism (0.7%), and Buddhism (0.7%). The survey also reported that 22.8% of Americans described themselves as agnostic, atheist or simply having no religion—up from 8.2% in 1990. Membership in a house of worship fell from 70% in 1999 to 47% in 2020, much of the decline related to the number of Americans expressing no religious preference. However, membership also fell among those who identified with a specific religious group.

Protestantism is the largest Christian religious grouping in the United States, accounting for almost half of all Americans. Baptists collectively form the largest branch of Protestantism at 15.4%, and the Southern Baptist Convention is the largest individual Protestant denomination at 5.3% of the U.S. population. Apart from Baptists, other Protestant categories include nondenominational Protestants, Methodists, Pentecostals, unspecified Protestants, Lutherans, Presbyterians, Congregationalists, other Reformed, Episcopalians/Anglicans, Quakers, Adventists, Holiness, Christian fundamentalists, Anabaptists, Pietists, and multiple others.

The Bible Belt is an informal term for a region in the Southern United States in which socially conservative evangelical Protestantism is a significant part of the culture and Christian church attendance across the denominations is generally higher than the nation's average. By contrast, religion plays the least important role in New England and in the Western United States.

LECTURE 9. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. The United States is a federal republic of _____ states, a federal district, _____ territories . It is a _____ *republic and a* _____ *democracy*. 2
2. In the American federalist system, citizens are usually subject to three levels of government: _____.
3. The government is regulated by *a system of _____ and balances* defined by the U.S. Constitution, which serves as the country's supreme legal document.
4. The federal government comprises three branches:
 - _____: The bicameral Congress, made up of the Senate and the House of Representatives, makes federal law, declares war, approves treaties, and has the power of impeachment, by which it can remove sitting members of the government.
 - _____: The president is the commander-in-chief of the military, can veto legislative bills before they become law (subject to congressional override), and appoints the members of the Cabinet (subject to Senate approval) and other officers, who administer and enforce federal laws and policies.
 - _____: The Supreme Court and lower federal courts, whose judges are appointed by the president with Senate approval, interpret laws and overturn those they find unconstitutional.
5. The House of Representatives has _____ voting members, each representing a congressional district for a two-year term.
6. The Senate has _____ members with each state having two senators, elected at-large to six-year terms; one-third of Senate seats are up for election every

two years.

7. The 50 states are the principal political divisions in the country. Each state holds jurisdiction over a defined geographic territory, where it shares sovereignty with the federal government. They are subdivided into counties or county equivalents and further divided into municipalities. The District of Columbia is a _____ district that contains the _____ of the United States, the city of Washington.

8. The United States has operated under a _____ political system for most of its history. The major parties have been the _____ Party, founded in 1824, and the _____ Party, founded in 1854.

9 In American political culture, the center-right _____ Party is considered "conservative" and the center-left _____ Party is considered "liberal".

10. The president is the _____ of the United States Armed Forces and appoints its leaders, the secretary of defense and the Joint Chiefs of Staff. The Department of Defense administers five of the six service branches, which are made up of the Army, Marine Corps, Navy, Air Force, and Space Force.

11. Law enforcement in the United States is primarily the responsibility of local police departments and _____ offices, with state police providing broader services. Federal agencies such as the _____ (FBI) and the U.S. Marshals Service have specialized duties, including protecting civil rights, national security and enforcing U.S. federal courts' rulings and federal laws.

12. State courts conduct most criminal _____ while federal courts handle certain designated crimes as well as certain appeals from the state criminal courts.

13. The First Amendment of the U.S. Constitution guarantees the free exercise of religion.

14. In a 2014 survey, 70.6% of adults in the United States identified themselves as Christians; _____ accounted for 46.5%, while _____ at 20.8%, formed the largest single Christian denomination.

15. The _____ Belt is an informal term for a region in the Southern United States in which socially conservative evangelical Protestantism is a significant part of the culture

LECTURE 10

THE USA. ECONOMY, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE OF THE USA

- Economy
- Science and technology
- Income, wealth, and poverty
- Language
- Education
- Culture: literature, philosophy, and visual art, cinema,
- Mass media, sport
- Food

Economy

According to the International Monetary Fund, the U.S. GDP of \$22.7 trillion constitutes 24% of the gross world product at market exchange rates and over 16% of the gross world product at purchasing power parity. The United States is the largest importer of goods and second-largest exporter, though exports per capita are relatively low. In 2010, the total U.S. trade deficit was \$635 billion. Canada, China, Mexico, Japan, and the European Union are its top trading partners.

From 1983 to 2008, U.S. real compounded annual GDP growth was 3.3%, compared to a 2.3% weighted average for the rest of the G7. The country ranks fifth in the world in nominal GDP per capita and seventh in GDP per capita at PPP. The U.S. dollar is the world's primary reserve currency.

In 2009, the private sector was estimated to constitute 86.4% of the economy. While its economy has reached a post-industrial level of development, the United States remains an industrial power. In August 2010, the American labor force consisted of 154.1 million people (50%). With 21.2 million people, the public sector is the leading field of employment. The largest private employment sector is health care and social assistance, with 16.4 million people. It has a smaller welfare state and redistributes less income through government action than most other high-income countries.

The United States is the only advanced economy that does not guarantee its workers paid vacation and is one of a few countries in the world without paid family leave as a legal right. 74% of full-time American workers get paid sick leave, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, although only 24% of part-time workers get the same benefits. In 2009, the United States had the third-highest workforce productivity per person in the world, behind Luxembourg and Norway.



Science and technology

The United States has been a leader in technological innovation since the late 19th century and scientific research since the mid-20th century. Methods for producing interchangeable parts were developed by the U.S. War Department by the Federal Armories during the first half of the 19th century. This technology, along with the establishment of a machine tool industry, enabled the U.S. to have large-scale manufacturing of sewing machines, bicycles, and other items in the late 19th century and became known as the American system of manufacturing. Factory electrification in the early 20th century and introduction of the assembly line and other labor-saving techniques created the system of mass production. In the 21st century, approximately two-thirds of research and development funding comes from the private sector. The United States leads the world in scientific research papers and impact factor.

In 1876, Alexander Graham Bell was awarded the first U.S. patent for the telephone. Thomas Edison's research laboratory, one of the first of its kind, developed the phonograph, the first long-lasting light bulb, and the first viable movie camera. The latter led to emergence of the worldwide entertainment industry. In the early 20th century, the automobile companies of Ransom E. Olds and Henry Ford popularized the assembly line. The Wright brothers, in 1903, made the first sustained and controlled heavier-than-air powered flight.

The rise of fascism and Nazism in the 1920s and 30s led many European scientists, including Albert Einstein, Enrico Fermi, and John von Neumann, to immigrate to the United States. During World War II, the Manhattan Project developed nuclear weapons, ushering in the Atomic Age, while the Space Race produced rapid advances in rocketry, materials science, and aeronautics.

The invention of the transistor in the 1950s, a key active component in practically all modern electronics, led to many technological developments and a significant expansion of the U.S. technology industry. This, in turn, led to the establishment of many new technology companies and regions around the country such as Silicon Valley in California. Advancements by American microprocessor companies such as Advanced Micro Devices (AMD) and Intel, along with both computer software and hardware companies such as Adobe Systems, Apple Inc., IBM, Microsoft, and Sun Microsystems, created and popularized the personal computer. The ARPANET was developed in the 1960s to meet Defense Department requirements, and became the first of a series of networks which evolved into the Internet. The United States was ranked third (after Switzerland and Sweden) in the Global Innovation Index in 2019 and 2020.

Income, wealth, and poverty

Accounting for 4.24% of the global population, Americans collectively possess 29.4% of the world's total wealth, the largest percentage of any country. The U.S. also ranks first in the number of billionaires and millionaires in the world, with 724 billionaires and 10.5 million millionaires as of 2020. Prior to the 2019–2021 global SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, Credit Suisse listed some 18.6 million U.S. citizens as having a net worth in excess of \$1 million. The Global Food Security Index ranked

the U.S. number one for food affordability and overall food security in March 2013. Americans on average have more than twice as much living space per dwelling and per person as EU residents. For 2017 the United Nations Development Programme ranked the United States 13th among 189 countries in its Human Development Index (HDI) and 25th among 151 countries in its inequality-adjusted HDI (IHDI).

Wealth, like income and taxes, is highly concentrated; the richest 10% of the adult population possess 72% of the country's household wealth, while the bottom half possess only 2%. According to the Federal Reserve, the top 1% controlled 38.6% of the country's wealth in 2016. In 2017, Forbes found that just three individuals (Jeff Bezos, Warren Buffett and Bill Gates) held more money than the bottom half of the population. According to a 2018 study by the OECD, the United States has a larger percentage of low-income workers than almost any other developed nation, largely because of a weak collective bargaining system and lack of government support for at-risk workers. The top one percent of income-earners accounted for 52 percent of the income gains from 2009 to 2015, where income is defined as market income excluding government transfers.

After years of stagnation, median household income reached a record high in 2016 following two consecutive years of record growth. Income inequality remains at record highs however, with the top fifth of earners taking home more than half of all overall income. The rise in the share of total annual income received by the top one percent, which has more than doubled from nine percent in 1976 to 20 percent in 2011, has significantly affected income inequality, leaving the United States with one of the widest income distributions among OECD members. The extent and relevance of income inequality is a matter of debate.

There were about 567,715 sheltered and unsheltered homeless persons in the U.S. in January 2019, with almost two-thirds staying in an emergency shelter or transitional housing program. In 2011, 16.7 million children lived in food-insecure households, about 35% more than 2007 levels, though only 845,000 U.S. children (1.1%) saw reduced food intake or disrupted eating patterns at some point during the year, and most cases were not chronic. As of June 2018, 40 million people, roughly 12.7% of the U.S. population, were living in poverty, including 13.3 million children. Of those impoverished, 18.5 million live in deep poverty (family income below one-half of the poverty threshold) and over five million live "in 'Third World' conditions" In 2017, the U.S. states or territories with the lowest and highest poverty rates were New Hampshire (7.6%) and American Samoa (65%), respectively. The economic impact and mass unemployment caused by the COVID-19 pandemic raised fears of a mass eviction crisis, with an analysis by the Aspen Institute indicating that between 30 and 40 million people were at risk for eviction by the end of 2020.

Language

English (specifically, American English) is the de facto national language of the United States. Although there is no official language at the federal level, some laws—such as U.S. naturalization requirements—standardize English, and most states have declared English as the official language. Three states and four U.S. territories have recognized local or indigenous languages in addition to English, including Hawaii

(Hawaiian), Alaska (twenty Native languages), South Dakota (Sioux), American Samoa (Samoan), Puerto Rico (Spanish), Guam (Chamorro), and the Northern Mariana Islands (Carolinian and Chamorro). In Puerto Rico, Spanish is more widely spoken than English.

According to the American Community Survey, in 2010 some 229 million people (out of the total U.S. population of 308 million) spoke only English at home. More than 37 million spoke Spanish at home, making it the second most commonly used language in the United States. Other languages spoken at home by one million people or more include Chinese (2.8 million), Tagalog (1.6 million), Vietnamese (1.4 million), French (1.3 million), Korean (1.1 million), and German (1 million).

The most widely taught foreign languages in the United States, in terms of enrollment numbers from kindergarten through university undergraduate education, are Spanish (around 7.2 million students), French (1.5 million), and German (500,000). Other commonly taught languages include Latin, Japanese, American Sign Language, Italian, and Chinese. 18% of all Americans claim to speak both English and another language

Education

American public education is operated by state and local governments and regulated by the United States Department of Education through restrictions on federal grants. In most states, children are required to attend school from the age of five or six (beginning with kindergarten or first grade) until they turn 18 (generally bringing them through twelfth grade, the end of high school); some states allow students to leave school at 16 or 17.

About 12% of children are enrolled in parochial or nonsectarian private schools. 3.4% of children are homeschooled as of 2012. The U.S. spends more on education per student than any nation in the world, spending an average of \$12,794 per year on public elementary and secondary school students in the 2016–2017 school year. Some 80% of U.S. college students attend public universities.

Of Americans 25 and older, 84.6% graduated from high school, 52.6% attended some college, 27.2% earned a bachelor's degree, and 9.6% earned graduate degrees. The basic literacy rate is approximately 99%. The United Nations assigns the United States an Education Index of 0.97, tying it for 12th in the world.

The United States has many private and public institutions of higher education. The majority of the world's top universities, as listed by various ranking organizations, are in the U.S. There are also local community colleges with generally more open admission policies, shorter academic programs, and lower tuition.

In 2018, U21, a network of research-intensive universities, ranked the United States first in the world for breadth and quality of higher education, and 15th when GDP was a factor. As for public expenditures on higher education, the U.S. trails some other OECD (Organization for Cooperation and Development) nations but spends more per student than the OECD average, and more than all nations in combined public and private spending. As of 2018, student loan debt exceeded 1.5 trillion dollars.



For many immigrants, the Statue of Liberty was their first view of the United States. It signified new opportunities in life, and thus the statue is an iconic symbol of the American Dream as well as its ideals

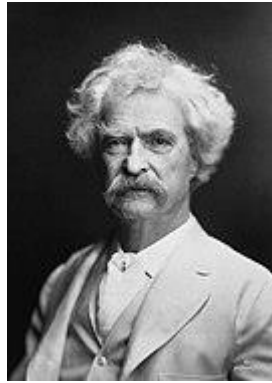
Culture

The United States is home to many cultures and a wide variety of ethnic groups, traditions, and values. Aside from the Native American, Native Hawaiian, and Native Alaskan populations, nearly all Americans or their ancestors immigrated or were imported as slaves within the past five centuries. Mainstream American culture is a Western culture largely derived from the traditions of European immigrants with influences from many other sources, such as traditions brought by slaves from Africa. More recent immigration from Asia and especially Latin America has added to a cultural mix that has been described as both a homogenizing melting pot, and a heterogeneous salad bowl in which immigrants and their descendants retain distinctive cultural characteristics.

Americans have traditionally been characterized by a strong work ethic, competitiveness, and individualism, as well as a unifying belief in an "American creed" emphasizing liberty, equality, private property, democracy, rule of law, and a preference for limited government. Americans are extremely charitable by global standards: according to a 2006 British study, Americans gave 1.67% of GDP to charity, more than any other nation studied.

The American Dream, or the perception that Americans enjoy high social mobility, plays a key role in attracting immigrants. Whether this perception is accurate has been a topic of debate. While mainstream culture holds that the United States is a classless society, scholars identify significant differences between the country's social classes, affecting socialization, language, and values. Americans tend to greatly value socioeconomic achievement, but being ordinary or average is also generally seen as a positive attribute.

Literature, philosophy, and visual art



Mark Twain, American author and humorist

In the 18th and early 19th centuries, American art and literature took most of its cues from Europe, contributing to Western culture. Writers such as Washington Irving, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Edgar Allan Poe, and Henry David Thoreau established a distinctive American literary voice by the middle of the 19th century. Mark Twain and poet Walt Whitman were major figures in the century's second half; Emily Dickinson, virtually unknown during her lifetime, is now recognized as an essential American poet. A work seen as capturing fundamental aspects of the national experience and character—such as Herman Melville's *Moby-Dick* (1851), Twain's *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (1885), F. Scott Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby* (1925) and Harper Lee's *To Kill a Mockingbird* (1960)—may be dubbed the "Great American Novel."

Thirteen U.S. citizens have won the Nobel Prize in Literature. William Faulkner, Ernest Hemingway and John Steinbeck are often named among the most influential writers of the 20th century. Popular literary genres such as the Western and hardboiled crime fiction developed in the United States. The Beat Generation writers opened up new literary approaches, as have postmodernist authors such as John Barth, Thomas Pynchon, and Don DeLillo.

The transcendentalists, led by Thoreau and Ralph Waldo Emerson, established the first major American philosophical movement. After the Civil War, Charles Sanders Peirce and then William James and John Dewey were leaders in the development of pragmatism. In the 20th century, the work of W. V. O. Quine and Richard Rorty, and later Noam Chomsky, brought analytic philosophy to the fore of American philosophical academia. John Rawls and Robert Nozick also led a revival of political philosophy.

In the visual arts, the Hudson River School was a mid-19th-century movement in the tradition of European naturalism. The 1913 Armory Show in New York City, an exhibition of European modernist art, shocked the public and transformed the U.S. art scene. Georgia O'Keeffe, Marsden Hartley, and others experimented with new, individualistic styles. Major artistic movements such as the abstract expressionism of Jackson Pollock and Willem de Kooning and the pop art of Andy Warhol and Roy Lichtenstein developed largely in the United States. The tide of modernism and then postmodernism has brought fame to American architects such as Frank Lloyd Wright,

Philip Johnson, and Frank Gehry. Americans have long been important in the modern artistic medium of photography, with major photographers including Alfred Stieglitz, Edward Steichen, Edward Weston, and Ansel Adams.

Cinema



The Hollywood Sign in Los Angeles, California

Hollywood, a northern district of Los Angeles, California, is one of the leaders in motion picture production. The world's first commercial motion picture exhibition was given in New York City in 1894, using Thomas Edison's Kinetoscope. Since the early 20th century, the U.S. film industry has largely been based in and around Hollywood, although in the 21st century an increasing number of films are not made there, and film companies have been subject to the forces of globalization.

Director D. W. Griffith, an American filmmaker during the silent film period, was central to the development of film grammar, and producer/entrepreneur Walt Disney was a leader in both animated film and movie merchandising. Directors such as John Ford redefined the image of the American Old West, and, like others such as John Huston, broadened the possibilities of cinema with location shooting. The industry enjoyed its golden years, in what is commonly referred to as the "Golden Age of Hollywood", from the early sound period until the early 1960s, with screen actors such as John Wayne and Marilyn Monroe becoming iconic figures. In the 1970s, "New Hollywood" or the "Hollywood Renaissance" was defined by grittier films influenced by French and Italian realist pictures of the post-war period. In more recent times, directors such as Steven Spielberg, George Lucas and James Cameron have gained renown for their blockbuster films, often characterized by high production costs and earnings.

Notable films topping the American Film Institute's AFI 100 list include Orson Welles's *Citizen Kane* (1941), which is frequently cited as the greatest film of all time, *Casablanca* (1942), *The Godfather* (1972), *Gone with the Wind* (1939), *Lawrence of Arabia* (1962), *The Wizard of Oz* (1939), *The Graduate* (1967), *On the Waterfront* (1954), *Schindler's List* (1993), *Singin' in the Rain* (1952), *It's a Wonderful Life* (1946) and *Sunset Boulevard* (1950). The Academy Awards, popularly known as the Oscars, have been held annually by the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences since 1929, and the Golden Globe Awards have been held annually since January 1944.

Mass media



The headquarters of the National Broadcasting Company (NBC) at 30 Rockefeller Plaza in New York City

The four major broadcasters in the U.S. are the National Broadcasting Company (NBC), Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS), American Broadcasting Company (ABC), and Fox Broadcasting Company (FOX). The four major broadcast television networks are all commercial entities. Cable television offers hundreds of channels catering to a variety of niches. Americans listen to radio programming, also largely commercial, on average just over two-and-a-half hours a day.

In 1998, the number of U.S. commercial radio stations had grown to 4,793 AM stations and 5,662 FM stations. In addition, there are 1,460 public radio stations. Most of these stations are run by universities and public authorities for educational purposes and are financed by public or private funds, subscriptions, and corporate underwriting. Much public radio broadcasting is supplied by NPR. NPR was incorporated in February 1970 under the Public Broadcasting Act of 1967; its television counterpart, PBS, was created by the same legislation. As of September 30, 2014, there are 15,433 licensed full-power radio stations in the U.S. according to the U.S. Federal Communications Commission (FCC).

Well-known newspapers include *The Wall Street Journal*, *The New York Times*, and *USA Today*. Although the cost of publishing has increased over the years, the price of newspapers has generally remained low, forcing newspapers to rely more on advertising revenue and on articles provided by a major wire service, such as the Associated Press or Reuters, for their national and world coverage. With very few exceptions, all the newspapers in the U.S. are privately owned, either by large chains such as Gannett or McClatchy, which own dozens or even hundreds of newspapers; by small chains that own a handful of papers; or in a situation that is increasingly rare, by individuals or families. Major cities often have "alternative weeklies" to complement the mainstream daily papers, such as New York City's *The Village Voice* or Los Angeles' *LA Weekly*. Major cities may also support a local business journal, trade papers relating to local industries, and papers for local ethnic and social groups. Aside from web portals and search engines, the most popular websites are Facebook, YouTube, Wikipedia, Yahoo!, eBay, Amazon, and Twitter.

More than 800 publications are produced in Spanish, the second most commonly used language in the United States behind English

Sports



The most popular sports in the U.S. are American football, basketball, baseball and ice hockey.

American football is by several measures the most popular spectator sport in the United States; the National Football League (NFL) has the highest average attendance of any sports league in the world, and the Super Bowl is watched by tens of millions globally. Even on the collegiate level, college football games receive millions of viewers per television broadcast; most notably the College Football Playoff, which averages 25 million viewers. Baseball has been regarded as the U.S. national sport since the late 19th century, with Major League Baseball (MLB) being the top league. Basketball and ice hockey are the country's next two leading professional team sports, with the top leagues being the National Basketball Association (NBA) and the National Hockey League (NHL). College football and basketball attract large audiences. The NCAA Final Four is one of the most watched sporting events. In soccer (a sport that has gained a footing in the United States since the mid-1990s), the country hosted the 1994 FIFA World Cup, the men's national soccer team qualified for ten World Cups and the women's team has won the FIFA Women's World Cup four times; Major League Soccer is the sport's highest league in the United States (featuring 23 American and three Canadian teams). The market for professional sports in the United States is roughly \$69 billion, roughly 50% larger than that of all of Europe, the Middle East, and Africa combined.

Eight Olympic Games have taken place in the United States. The 1904 Summer Olympics in St. Louis, Missouri, were the first-ever Olympic Games held outside of Europe. As of 2017, the United States has won 2,522 medals at the Summer Olympic Games, more than any other country, and 305 in the Winter Olympic Games, the second most behind Norway. While most major U.S. sports such as baseball and American football have evolved out of European practices, basketball, volleyball, skateboarding, and snowboarding are American inventions, some of which have become popular worldwide. Lacrosse and surfing arose from Native American and Native Hawaiian activities that predate Western contact. The most-watched individual sports are golf and auto racing, particularly NASCAR and IndyCar.

Food



Roasted turkey is a traditional menu item of an American Thanksgiving dinner.

Early settlers were introduced by Native Americans to such indigenous, non-European foods as turkey, sweet potatoes, corn, squash, and maple syrup. They and later immigrants combined these with foods they had known, such as wheat flour, beef, and milk to create a distinctive American cuisine.

Homegrown foods are part of a shared national menu on one of America's most popular holidays, Thanksgiving, when some Americans make traditional foods to celebrate the occasion.

The American fast food industry, the world's largest, pioneered the drive-through format in the 1940s. Characteristic dishes such as apple pie, fried chicken, pizza, hamburgers, and hot dogs derive from the recipes of various immigrants. French fries, Mexican dishes such as burritos and tacos, and pasta dishes freely adapted from Italian sources are widely consumed. Americans drink three times as much coffee as tea. Marketing by U.S. industries is largely responsible for making orange juice and milk ubiquitous breakfast beverages.

LECTURE 10. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. The United States is the largest _____ of goods and second-largest _____. According to the International Monetary Fund, the U.S. GDP of \$22.7 trillion constitutes 24% of the _____ at market exchange rates and over 16% of the gross _____ product at purchasing power parity.

2. The U.S. dollar is the world's primary reserve _____.

3. The _____ sector was estimated to constitute 86.4% of the economy with 21.2 million people. The largest private employment sector is _____ care and social assistance, with 16.4 million people.

4. The United States is the only advanced economy that does not guarantee its workers _____ vacation and is one of a few countries in the world without _____ family leave as a legal right.

5. The United States had the _____-highest workforce productivity per person in the world, behind Luxembourg and Norway.

6. The United States has been a leader in _____ innovation since the late 19th century and scientific research since the mid-20th century.

7. Accounting for 4.24% of the global population, Americans collectively possess 29.4% of the world's _____ wealth, the largest percentage of any country. The U.S. also ranks first in the number of billionaires and millionaires in the _____, with 724 billionaires and 10.5 million millionaires as of 2020.

8. The Global Food Security Index ranked the U.S. number _____ for food affordability and overall food security in March 2013. Americans on average have more than twice as much living space per _____ and per person as EU residents.

9. Wealth, like income and taxes, is highly concentrated; the _____ 10% of the adult population possess 72% of the country's household wealth, while the bottom half possess only 2%. According to the Federal Reserve, the _____ 1% controlled 38.6% of the country's wealth in 2016. In 2017, Forbes found that just _____ individuals (Jeff Bezos, Warren Buffett and Bill Gates) held more money than the bottom half of the population.

10. As of June 2018, 40 million people, roughly 12.7% of the U.S. population, were living in _____, including 13.3 million children.

11. English (specifically, American English) is the de-facto _____ language of the United States. More than 37 million spoke _____ at home, making it the second most commonly used language in the United States. Other languages spoken at home by one million people or more include _____ (2.8 million), Tagalog (1.6 million), Vietnamese (1.4 million), French (1.3 million), Korean (1.1 million), and German (1 million).

12. American public education is operated by state and local governments and regulated by the United States Department of _____ through restrictions on federal grants. In most states, children are required to attend school from the age of five or six (beginning with kindergarten or first grade) until they turn 18 (generally bringing them through twelfth grade, the end of high school); some states allow students to leave school at 16 or 17.

13. The United States is home to many cultures and a wide variety of ethnic

groups, traditions, and values. More recent immigration from Asia and especially Latin America has added to a cultural mix that has been described as both a _____ melting pot, and a _____ salad bowl in which immigrants and their descendants retain distinctive cultural characteristics.

14. While mainstream culture holds that the United States is a _____ society, scholars identify significant differences between the country's social classes, affecting socialization, language, and values.

15. Writers such as _____ Irving, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Edgar Allan _____, and Henry David Thoreau established a distinctive American literary voice by the middle of the 19th century.

16. Thirteen U.S. citizens have won the _____ Prize in Literature. William Faulkner, Ernest _____ and _____ Steinbeck are often named among the most influential writers of the 20th century. Popular literary genres such as the _____ and hardboiled crime fiction developed in the United States.

17. _____, a northern district of Los Angeles, California, is one of the leaders in motion picture production. The world's first commercial Hollywood, a northern district of Los Angeles, California, is one of the leaders in motion picture production.

18. The American _____ food industry is the world's largest, pioneered the drive-through format.

LECTURE 11

CANADA. NATIONAL SYMBOLS, GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY OF CANADA

- National symbols of Canada
- Geography, Wildlife and Climate
- History: Indigenous peoples, European colonization, British North America, Confederation and expansion, early 20th century and contemporary era

Canada is a country in North America. Its ten provinces and three territories extend from the Atlantic to the Pacific and northward into the Arctic Ocean, covering 9.98 million square kilometres (3.85 million square miles), making it the world's second-largest country by total area. Its southern and western border with the United States, stretching 8,891 kilometres (5,525 mi), is the world's longest bi-national land border. Canada's capital is Ottawa, and its three largest metropolitan areas are Toronto, Montreal, and Vancouver.

Indigenous peoples have continuously inhabited what is now Canada for thousands of years. Beginning in the 16th century, British and French expeditions explored and later settled along the Atlantic coast. As a consequence of various armed conflicts, France ceded nearly all of its colonies in North America in 1763. In 1867, with the union of three British North American colonies through Confederation, Canada was formed as a federal dominion of four provinces. This began an accretion of provinces and territories and a process of increasing autonomy from the United Kingdom. This widening autonomy was highlighted by the Statute of Westminster 1931 and culminated in the Canada Act 1982, which severed the vestiges of legal dependence on the Parliament of the United Kingdom.

Canada is a *parliamentary democracy and a constitutional monarchy* in the Westminster tradition. The country's head of government is the prime minister—who holds office by virtue of their ability to command the confidence of the elected House of Commons—and is appointed by the governor general, representing the monarch, who serves as head of state. The country is a Commonwealth realm and is officially bilingual at the federal level. It ranks among the highest in international measurements of government transparency, civil liberties, quality of life, economic freedom, and education. It is one of the world's most ethnically diverse and multicultural nations, the product of large-scale immigration from many other countries. Canada's long relationship with the United States has had a significant impact on its economy and culture.

A highly developed country, Canada has the seventeenth-highest nominal per-capita income globally and the sixteenth-highest ranking in the Human Development Index. Its advanced economy is the tenth-largest in the world, relying chiefly upon its abundant natural resources and well-developed international trade networks. Canada is part of several major international and intergovernmental institutions or groupings including the United Nations, NATO, the G7, the Group of Ten, the G20, the

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the World Trade Organization (WTO), the Commonwealth of Nations, the Arctic Council, the Organisation internationale de la Francophonie, the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation forum, and the Organization of American States.

National symbols of Canada



The mother beaver on the Canadian parliament's Peace Tower. The five flowers on the shield each represent an ethnicity—Tudor rose: English; Fleur de lis: French; thistle: Scottish; shamrock: Irish; and leek: Welsh.

Canada's national symbols are influenced by natural, historical, and Indigenous sources. The use of the maple leaf as a Canadian symbol dates to the early 18th century. The maple leaf is depicted on Canada's current and previous flags, and on the Arms of Canada. The Coat of Arms of Canada are closely modelled after the royal coat of arms of the United Kingdom with French and distinctive Canadian elements replacing or added to those derived from the British version. Other prominent symbols include the national motto "*A Mari Usque Ad Mare*" ("From Sea to Sea"), the sports of ice hockey and lacrosse, the beaver, Canada goose, common loon, Canadian horse, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, the Canadian Rockies, and more recently the totem pole and Inuksuk. Material items such as Canadian beer, maple syrup, tuques, canoes, nanaimo bars, butter tarts and the Quebec dish of poutine are defined as uniquely Canadian. Canadian coins feature many of these symbols: the loon on the \$1 coin, the Arms of Canada on the 50¢ piece, the beaver on the nickel. The penny, removed from circulation in 2013, featured the maple leaf. The Queen's image appears on \$20 bank notes, and on the obverse of all current Canadian coins.

Geography

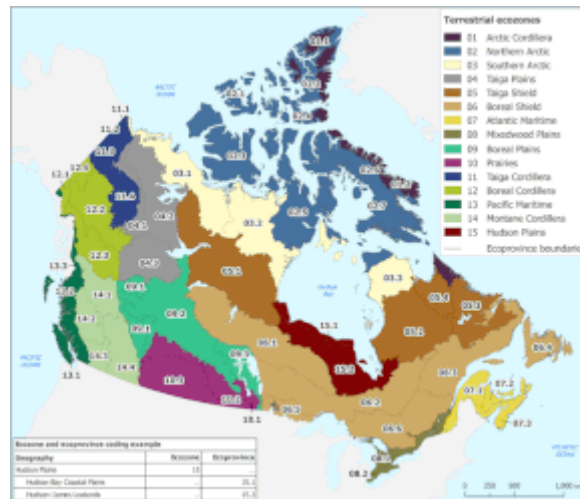


A topographic map of Canada, in polar projection (for 90° W), showing elevations shaded from green to brown (higher)

By total area (including its waters), Canada is the second-largest country in the world, after Russia. By land area alone, however, Canada ranks fourth, due to having the world's largest proportion of fresh water lakes. Stretching from the Atlantic Ocean in the east, along the Arctic Ocean to the north, and to the Pacific Ocean in the west, the country encompasses 9,984,670 km² (3,855,100 sq mi) of territory. Canada also has vast maritime terrain, with the world's longest coastline of 243,042 kilometres (151,019 mi). In addition to sharing the world's largest land border with the United States—spanning 8,891 km (5,525 mi)—Canada shares a maritime boundary with Greenland to the northeast and with the France's overseas collectivity of Saint Pierre and Miquelon to the southeast. Canada is also home to the world's northernmost settlement, Canadian Forces Station Alert, on the northern tip of Ellesmere Island—latitude 82.5°N—which lies 817 kilometres (508 mi) from the North Pole.

The physical geography of Canada is widely varied. Boreal forests prevail throughout the country, ice is prominent in northern Arctic regions and through the Rocky Mountains, and the relatively flat Canadian Prairies in the southwest facilitate productive agriculture. The Great Lakes feed the St. Lawrence River (in the southeast) where the lowlands host much of Canada's economic output. Canada has over 2,000,000 lakes—563 of which are greater than 100 km² (39 sq mi)—containing much of the world's fresh water. There are also fresh-water glaciers in the Canadian Rockies, the Coast Mountains and the Arctic Cordillera. Canada is geologically active, having many earthquakes and potentially active volcanoes, notably Mount Meager massif, Mount Garibaldi, Mount Cayley massif, and the Mount Edziza volcanic complex.

Wildlife of Canada



Terrestrial ecozones and ecoprovinces of Canada. Ecozone are identified with a unique colour. Ecoprovinces are subdivisions of ecozones and are identified with a unique numeric code

Canada is divided into fifteen terrestrial and five marine ecozones. These ecozones encompass over 80,000 classified species of Canadian wildlife, with an equal number yet to be formally recognized or discovered. Due to human activities, invasive species and environmental issues in the country, there are currently more than 800 species at risk of being lost. Over half of Canada's landscape is intact and relatively free of human development. The boreal forest of Canada is considered to be the largest intact forest on Earth, with approximately 3,000,000 km² (1,200,000 sq mi) undisturbed by roads, cities or industry. Since the end of the last glacial period, Canada has consisted of eight distinct forest regions, with 42 percent of its land area covered by forests (approximately 8 percent of the world's forested land).

Approximately 12.1 percent of the nation's landmass and freshwater are conservation areas, including 11.4 percent designated as protected areas. Approximately 13.8 percent of its territorial waters are conserved, including 8.9 percent designated as protected areas. Canada's first National Park, Banff National Park established in 1885, spans 6,641 square kilometres (2,564 sq mi) of mountainous terrain, with many glaciers and ice fields, dense coniferous forest, and alpine landscapes. Canada's oldest provincial park, Algonquin Provincial Park established in 1893, covers an area of 7,653.45 square kilometres (2,955.01 sq mi) is dominated by old-growth forest with over 2,400 lakes and 1,200 kilometres of streams and rivers. Lake Superior National Marine Conservation Area is the world's largest freshwater protected area spanning roughly 10,000 square kilometres (3,900 sq mi) of lakebed, its overlaying freshwater, and associated shoreline on 60 square kilometres (23 sq mi) of islands and mainland's. Canada's largest national wildlife region is the Scott Islands Marine National Wildlife Area, which spans 11,570.65 square kilometres (4,467.45 sq mi), protects critical breeding and nesting habitat for over 40 percent of British Columbia's seabirds. Canada's 18 UNESCO Biosphere Reserves cover a total area of 235,000 square kilometres (91,000 sq mi).

Climate

Köppen climate types of Canada



Köppen climate classification types of Canada

Average winter and summer high temperatures across Canada vary from region to region. Winters can be harsh in many parts of the country, particularly in the interior and Prairie provinces, which experience a continental climate, where daily average temperatures are near $-15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$), but can drop below $-40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($-40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$) with severe wind chills. In non-coastal regions, snow can cover the ground for almost six months of the year, while in parts of the north snow can persist year-round. Coastal British Columbia has a temperate climate, with a mild and rainy winter. On the east and west coasts, average high temperatures are generally in the low 20s $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (70s $^{\circ}\text{F}$), while between the coasts, the average summer high temperature ranges from 25 to 30 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (77 to 86 $^{\circ}\text{F}$), with temperatures in some interior locations occasionally exceeding 40 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (104 $^{\circ}\text{F}$).

Much of Northern Canada is covered by ice and permafrost; however, the future of the permafrost is uncertain because the Arctic has been warming at three times the global average as a result of climate change in Canada. Canada's annual average temperature over land has warmed by 1.7 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (3.1 $^{\circ}\text{F}$), with changes ranging from 1.1 to 2.3 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (2.0 to 4.1 $^{\circ}\text{F}$) in various regions, since 1948. The rate of warming has been higher across the North and in the Prairies. In the southern regions of Canada, air pollution from both Canada and the United States—caused by metal smelting, burning coal to power utilities, and vehicle emissions—has resulted in acid rain, which has severely impacted waterways, forest growth and agricultural productivity in Canada.

History

Indigenous peoples



Linguistic areas of North American Indigenous peoples at the time of European contact

Indigenous peoples in present-day Canada include the First Nations, Inuit, and Métis, the last being of mixed-descent who originated in the mid-17th century when First Nations people married European settlers and subsequently developed their own identity.

The first inhabitants of North America are generally hypothesized to have migrated from Siberia by way of the Bering land bridge and arrived at least 14,000 years ago. The Paleo-Indian archeological sites at Old Crow Flats and Bluefish Caves are two of the oldest sites of human habitation in Canada. The characteristics of Indigenous societies included permanent settlements, agriculture, complex societal hierarchies, and trading networks. Some of these cultures had collapsed by the time European explorers arrived in the late 15th and early 16th centuries and have only been discovered through archeological investigations.

The Indigenous population at the time of the first European settlements is estimated to have been between 200,000 and two million, with a figure of 500,000 accepted by Canada's Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples. As a consequence of European colonization, the Indigenous population declined by forty to eighty percent, and several First Nations, such as the Beothuk, disappeared. The decline is attributed to several causes, including the transfer of European diseases, such as influenza, measles, and smallpox to which they had no natural immunity, conflicts over the fur trade, conflicts with the colonial authorities and settlers, and the loss of Indigenous lands to settlers and the subsequent collapse of several nations' self-sufficiency.

Although not without conflict, European Canadians' early interactions with First Nations and Inuit populations were relatively peaceful. First Nations and Métis peoples played a critical part in the development of European colonies in Canada, particularly for their role in assisting European *coureur des bois* and *voyageurs* in their explorations of the continent during the North American fur trade. The Crown and Indigenous peoples began interactions during the European colonization period,

though the Inuit, in general, had more limited interaction with European settlers. However, from the late 18th century, European Canadians encouraged Indigenous peoples to assimilate into their own culture. These attempts reached a climax in the late 19th and early 20th centuries with forced integration and relocations. A period of redress is underway, which started with the appointment of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada by the Government of Canada in 2008.

European colonization



Map of territorial claims in North America by 1750, before the French and Indian War, which was part of the greater worldwide conflict known as the Seven Years' War (1756 to 1763). Possessions of Britain (pink), New France (blue), and Spain (orange, *California, Pacific Northwest, and Great Basin not indicated*)

It is believed that the first European to explore the east coast of Canada was Norse explorer Leif Erikson. In approximately 1000 AD, the Norse built a small encampment that only lasted a few years at L'Anse aux Meadows on the northern tip of Newfoundland. No further European exploration occurred until 1497, when Italian seafarer John Cabot explored and claimed Canada's Atlantic coast in the name of King Henry VII of England. In 1534, French explorer Jacques Cartier explored the Gulf of Saint Lawrence where, on July 24, he planted a 10-metre (33 ft) cross bearing the words "Long Live the King of France" and took possession of the territory New France in the name of King Francis I. The early 16th century saw European mariners with navigational techniques pioneered by the Basque and Portuguese establish seasonal whaling and fishing outposts along the Atlantic coast. In general, early settlements during the Age of Discovery appear to have been short-lived due to a combination of the harsh climate, problems with navigating trade routes and competing outputs in Scandinavia

In 1583, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, by the royal prerogative of Queen Elizabeth I, founded St. John's, Newfoundland, as the first North American English seasonal camp. In 1600, the French established their first seasonal trading post at Tadoussac along the Saint Lawrence. French explorer Samuel de Champlain arrived in 1603 and established the first permanent year-round European settlements at Port Royal (in 1605) and Quebec City (in 1608). Among the colonists of New France, *Canadiens* extensively settled the Saint Lawrence River valley and Acadians settled the present-day Maritimes, while fur traders and Catholic missionaries explored the Great Lakes, Hudson Bay, and the Mississippi watershed to Louisiana. The Beaver Wars broke out

in the mid-17th century over control of the North American fur trade.

The English established additional settlements in Newfoundland, beginning in 1610 and the Thirteen Colonies to the south were founded soon after. A series of four wars erupted in colonial North America between 1689 and 1763; the later wars of the period constituted the North American theatre of the Seven Years' War. Mainland Nova Scotia came under British rule with the 1713 Treaty of Utrecht, and Canada and most of New France came under British rule in 1763 after the Seven Years' War.

British North America



Benjamin West's *The Death of General Wolfe* (1771) dramatizes James Wolfe's death during the Battle of the Plains of Abraham at Quebec.

The Royal Proclamation of 1763 established First Nation treaty rights, created the Province of Quebec out of New France, and annexed Cape Breton Island to Nova Scotia. St. John's Island (now Prince Edward Island) became a separate colony in 1769. To avert conflict in Quebec, the British Parliament passed the Quebec Act 1774, expanding Quebec's territory to the Great Lakes and Ohio Valley. More importantly, the *Quebec Act* afforded Quebec special autonomy and rights of self-administration at a time when the Thirteen Colonies were increasingly agitating against British rule. It re-established the French language, Catholic faith, and French civil law there, staving off the growth of an independence movement in contrast to the Thirteen Colonies. The Proclamation and the Quebec Act in turn angered many residents of the Thirteen Colonies, further fuelling anti-British sentiment in the years prior to the American Revolution.

After the successful American War of Independence, the 1783 Treaty of Paris recognized the independence of the newly formed United States and set the terms of peace, ceding British North American territories south of the Great Lakes and east of the Mississippi River to the new country. The American war of independence also caused a large out-migration of Loyalists, the settlers who had fought against American independence. Many moved to Canada, particularly Atlantic Canada, where their arrival changed the demographic distribution of the existing territories. New Brunswick was in turn split from Nova Scotia as part of a reorganization of Loyalist settlements in the Maritimes, which led to the incorporation of Saint John, New Brunswick, as Canada's first city. To accommodate the influx of English-speaking Loyalists in Central Canada, the *Constitutional Act* of 1791 divided the province of Canada into French-speaking Lower Canada (later Quebec) and English-speaking Upper Canada (later Ontario), granting each its own elected legislative assembly.

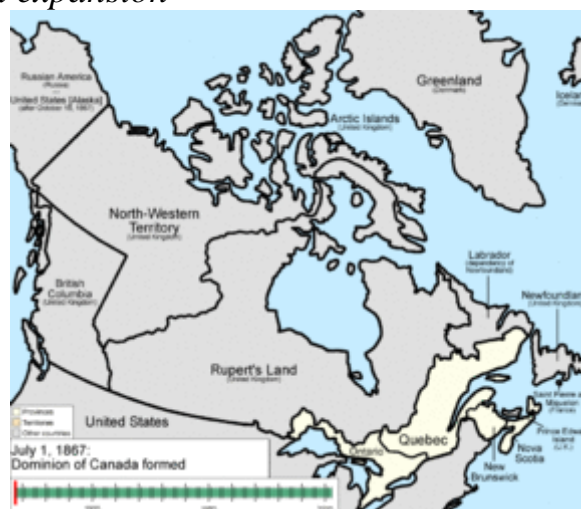


War of 1812 heroine Laura Secord warning British commander James FitzGibbon of an impending American attack at Beaver Dams

The Canadas were the main front in the War of 1812 between the United States and the United Kingdom. Peace came in 1815; no boundaries were changed. Immigration resumed at a higher level, with over 960,000 arrivals from Britain between 1815 and 1850. New arrivals included refugees escaping the Great Irish Famine as well as Gaelic-speaking Scots displaced by the Highland Clearances. Infectious diseases killed between 25 and 33 percent of Europeans who immigrated to Canada before 1891.

The desire for responsible government resulted in the abortive Rebellions of 1837. The Durham Report subsequently recommended responsible government and the assimilation of French Canadians into English culture. The Act of Union 1840 merged the Canadas into a united Province of Canada and responsible government was established for all provinces of British North America east of Lake Superior by 1855. The signing of the Oregon Treaty by Britain and the United States in 1846 ended the Oregon boundary dispute, extending the border westward along the 49th parallel. This paved the way for British colonies on Vancouver Island (1849) and in British Columbia (1858). The Anglo-Russian Treaty of Saint Petersburg (1825) established the border along the Pacific coast, but, even after the US Alaska Purchase of 1867, disputes continued about the exact demarcation of the Alaska–Yukon and Alaska–BC border.

Confederation and expansion



Animated map showing the growth and change of Canada's provinces and territories since Confederation in 1867

Following several constitutional conferences, the British North America Act

1867 officially proclaimed Canadian Confederation on July 1, 1867, initially with four provinces: Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. Canada assumed control of Rupert's Land and the North-Western Territory to form the Northwest Territories, where the Métis' grievances ignited the Red River Rebellion and the creation of the province of Manitoba in July 1870. British Columbia and Vancouver Island (which had been united in 1866) joined the confederation in 1871 on the promise of a transcontinental railway extending to Victoria in the province within 10 years, while Prince Edward Island joined in 1873. In 1898, during the Klondike Gold Rush in the Northwest Territories, Parliament created the Yukon Territory. Alberta and Saskatchewan became provinces in 1905. Between 1871 and 1896, almost one quarter of the Canadian population emigrated southwards, to the U.S.

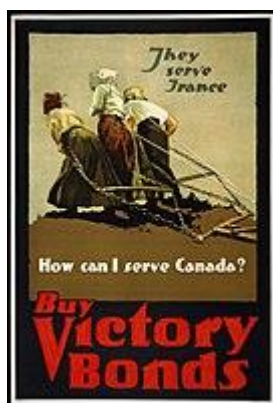
To open the West and encourage European immigration, Parliament approved sponsoring the construction of three transcontinental railways (including the Canadian Pacific Railway), opening the prairies to settlement with the *Dominion Lands Act*, and establishing the North-West Mounted Police to assert its authority over this territory. This period of westward expansion and nation building resulted in the displacement of many Indigenous peoples of the Canadian Prairies to "Indian reserves", clearing the way for ethnic European block settlements. This caused the collapse of the Plains Bison in western Canada and the introduction of European cattle farms and wheat fields dominating the land. The Indigenous peoples saw widespread famine and disease due to the loss of the bison and their traditional hunting lands. The federal government did provide emergency relief, on condition of the Indigenous peoples moving to the reserves. During this time, Canada introduced the *Indian Act* extending its control over the First Nations to education, government and legal rights.

Early 20th century

1918 Canadian War bond posters depicting three French women pulling a plow that had been constructed for horses.



French version of the poster roughly translates as "They serve France—Everyone can serve; Buy Victory Bonds".



The same poster in English, with subtle differences in text. "They serve France—How can I serve Canada? Buy Victory Bonds".

Because Britain still maintained control of Canada's foreign affairs under the British North America Act, 1867, its declaration of war in 1914 automatically brought Canada into World War I. Volunteers sent to the Western Front later became part of the Canadian Corps, which played a substantial role in the Battle of Vimy Ridge and other major engagements of the war. Out of approximately 625,000 Canadians who served in World War I, some 60,000 were killed and another 172,000 were wounded. The Conscription Crisis of 1917 erupted when the Unionist Cabinet's proposal to augment the military's dwindling number of active members with conscription was met with vehement objections from French-speaking Quebecers. The *Military Service Act* brought in compulsory military service, though it, coupled with disputes over French language schools outside Quebec, deeply alienated Francophone Canadians and temporarily split the Liberal Party. In 1919, Canada joined the League of Nations independently of Britain, and the Statute of Westminster 1931 affirmed Canada's independence.

The Great Depression in Canada during the early 1930s saw an economic downturn, leading to hardship across the country. In response to the downturn, the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF) in Saskatchewan introduced many elements of a welfare state (as pioneered by Tommy Douglas) in the 1940s and 1950s. On the advice of Prime Minister William Lyon Mackenzie King, war with Germany was declared effective September 10, 1939, by King George VI, seven days after the United Kingdom. The delay underscored Canada's independence.

The first Canadian Army units arrived in Britain in December 1939. In all, over a million Canadians served in the armed forces during World War II and approximately 42,000 were killed and another 55,000 were wounded. Canadian troops played important roles in many key battles of the war, including the failed 1942 Dieppe Raid, the Allied invasion of Italy, the Normandy landings, the Battle of Normandy, and the Battle of the Scheldt in 1944. Canada provided asylum for the Dutch monarchy while that country was occupied and is credited by the Netherlands for major contributions to its liberation from Nazi Germany.

The Canadian economy boomed during the war as its industries manufactured military materiel for Canada, Britain, China, and the Soviet Union. Despite another Conscription Crisis in Quebec in 1944, Canada finished the war with a large army and strong economy.

Contemporary era

The financial crisis of the Great Depression had led the Dominion of Newfoundland to relinquish responsible government in 1934 and become a Crown colony ruled by a British governor. After two referendums, Newfoundlanders voted to join Canada in 1949 as a province.

Canada's post-war economic growth, combined with the policies of successive Liberal governments, led to the emergence of a new Canadian identity, marked by the adoption of the Maple Leaf Flag in 1965, the implementation of official bilingualism (English and French) in 1969, and the institution of official multiculturalism in 1971. Socially democratic programs were also instituted, such as Medicare, the Canada Pension Plan, and Canada Student Loans, though provincial governments, particularly Quebec and Alberta, opposed many of these as incursions into their jurisdictions.



A copy of the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*

Finally, another series of constitutional conferences resulted in the UK's Canada Act 1982, the patriation of Canada's constitution from the United Kingdom, concurrent with the creation of the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*. Canada had established complete sovereignty as an independent country, although the monarch is retained as sovereign. In 1999, Nunavut became Canada's third territory after a series of negotiations with the federal government.

At the same time, Quebec underwent profound social and economic changes through the Quiet Revolution of the 1960s, giving birth to a secular nationalist movement. The radical Front de libération du Québec (FLQ) ignited the October Crisis with a series of bombings and kidnappings in 1970 and the sovereigntist Parti Québécois was elected in 1976, organizing an unsuccessful referendum on sovereignty-association in 1980. Attempts to accommodate Quebec nationalism constitutionally through the Meech Lake Accord failed in 1990. This led to the formation of the Bloc Québécois in Quebec and the invigoration of the Reform Party of Canada in the West. A second referendum followed in 1995, in which sovereignty was rejected by a slimmer margin of 50.6 to 49.4 percent. In 1997, the Supreme Court ruled unilateral secession by a province would be unconstitutional and the *Clarity Act* was passed by parliament, outlining the terms of a negotiated departure from Confederation.

In addition to the issues of Quebec sovereignty, a number of crises shook Canadian society in the late 1980s and early 1990s. These included the explosion of Air India Flight 182 in 1985, the largest mass murder in Canadian history; the École Polytechnique massacre in 1989, a university shooting targeting female students; and

the Oka Crisis of 1990, the first of a number of violent confrontations between the government and Indigenous groups. Canada also joined the Gulf War in 1990 as part of a United States–led coalition force and was active in several peacekeeping missions in the 1990s, including the UNPROFOR mission in the former Yugoslavia. Canada sent troops to Afghanistan in 2001 but declined to join the United States–led invasion of Iraq in 2003.

In 2011, Canadian forces participated in the NATO-led intervention into the Libyan Civil War, and also became involved in battling the Islamic State insurgency in Iraq in the mid-2010s. The COVID-19 pandemic in Canada began on January 27, 2020, with wide social and economic disruption. In 2021, the remains of hundreds of Indigenous people were discovered near the former sites of Canadian Indian residential schools. Administered by the Canadian Catholic Church and funded by the Canadian government from 1828 to 1997, these boarding schools attempted to assimilate Indigenous children into Euro-Canadian culture.

LECTURE 11. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. Canada is a country in _____ America with its southern and western borders with the _____ States. Its _____ provinces and three territories extend from the Atlantic to the Pacific and northward into the Arctic Ocean, covering 9.98 million square kilometres, making it the world's second-largest country by total area. Canada's capital is _____, and its three largest metropolitan areas are Toronto, Montreal, and Vancouver.

2. Canada's national symbols are influenced by natural, historical, and Indigenous sources. The _____ leaf is depicted on Canada's current and previous flags, and on the Coat of Arms of Canada. The Coat of Arms of Canada are closely modelled after the royal coat of arms of the _____ with French and distinctive Canadian elements. The mother _____ on the Canadian parliament's Peace Tower describes five flowers on the shield each represent an ethnicity—Tudor _____: English; Fleur de lis: French; _____: Scottish; _____: Irish; and _____: Welsh.

3. Other prominent symbols include the national motto "From _____ to Sea", the sports of _____ hockey and lacrosse, the beaver, Canada _____, common loon, Canadian horse, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, the Canadian Rockies. Material items such as Canadian beer, _____ syrup, tuques, canoes, nanaimo bars, butter tarts and the Quebec dish of _____ are defined as uniquely Canadian.

4. Canada ranks _____, due to having the world's largest proportion of fresh water lakes. Canada also has vast maritime terrain, with the world's longest coastline of 243,042 kilometres.

5. Average winter and summer high temperatures across Canada vary from _____ to region. Winters can be harsh in many parts of the country, particularly in the interior and Prairie provinces, which experience a continental climate, where daily _____ temperatures are near $-15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$), but can drop _____ $-40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($-40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$) with severe wind chills.

6. Indigenous peoples in present-day Canada include the First Nations, _____, and Métis, the last being of mixed-descent who originated in the mid-17th century

when First Nations people married European settlers and subsequently developed their own identity.

7. It is believed that the first European to explore the east coast of Canada was Norse explorer Leif _____.

8. In general, early settlements during the Age of Discovery appear to have been short-lived due to a combination of the harsh climate, problems with navigating trade routes and competing outputs in Scandinavia.

9. In 1583, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, by the royal prerogative of Queen Elizabeth I, founded St. John's, Newfoundland, as the first North American _____ seasonal camp. In 1600, the French established their first seasonal trading post at Tadoussac along the Saint Lawrence. Nova Scotia came under British rule with the 1713 Treaty of Utrecht, and Canada and most of New France came under British rule in 1763 after the Seven Years' War.

10. The Constitutional Act of 1791 divided the province of Canada into _____-speaking Lower Canada (later Quebec) and _____-speaking Upper Canada (later Ontario), granting each its own elected legislative assembly.

11. Following several constitutional conferences, the British North America Act 1867 officially proclaimed Canadian Confederation on July ____ 1867, initially with four provinces: Ontario, _____, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. British Columbia and Vancouver Island (which had been united in 1866) joined the confederation in 1871. In 1898, Parliament created the Yukon Territory. Alberta and Saskatchewan became provinces in _____.

12. In 1919, Canada joined the League of Nations independently of Britain, and the Statute of Westminster 1931 affirmed Canada's independence.

13. In all, over a million Canadians served in the armed forces during World War II and approximately 42,000 were killed and another 55,000 were wounded.

14. Canada's post-war economic growth, combined with the policies of successive Liberal governments, led to the emergence of a new Canadian identity, marked by the adoption of the _____ Leaf Flag in 1965, the implementation of official _____ (English and French) in 1969, and the institution of official multiculturalism in 1971.

15. Socially democratic programs were also instituted, such as Medicare, the Canada Pension _____, and Canada Student _____.

LECTURE 12

CANADA. GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS, ECONOMY, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE OF CANADA

- Government and Politics, Law, Foreign relations and military
- Provinces and territories
- Economy
- Science and technology
- Demographics
- Education
- Ethnicity: Canadians
- Languages
- Religion
- Culture, Literature, Visual arts and Music
- Sports

Government and Politics

Canada is described as a "full democracy", with a tradition of liberalism, and an egalitarian, moderate political ideology. An emphasis on social justice has been a distinguishing element of Canada's political culture. Peace, order, and good government, alongside an implied bill of rights are founding principles of the Canadian government.



Parliament Hill, home of the federal government in Canada's capital city, Ottawa

At the federal level, Canada has been dominated by two relatively centrist parties practising "brokerage politics", the centre-left leaning Liberal Party of Canada and the centre-right leaning Conservative Party of Canada (or its predecessors). The historically predominant Liberal Party position themselves at the centre of the Canadian political spectrum, with the Conservative Party positioned on the right and the New Democratic Party occupying the left. Far-right and far-left politics have never been a prominent force in Canadian society. Five parties had representatives elected to the Parliament in the 2019 election—the Liberal Party, who currently form a minority government; the Conservative Party, who are the Official Opposition; the New Democratic Party; the Bloc Québécois; and the Green Party of Canada.

Canada has a parliamentary system within the context of a constitutional monarchy—the monarchy of Canada being the foundation of the executive,

legislative, and judicial branches. The reigning monarch is Queen Elizabeth II, who is also monarch of 15 other Commonwealth countries and each of Canada's 10 provinces. The person who is the Canadian monarch is the same as the British monarch, although the two institutions are separate. The monarch appoints a representative, the governor general, with the advice of the prime minister, to carry out most of her federal royal duties in Canada.

While the monarchy is the source of authority in Canada, in practice its position is mainly symbolic. In practice, the use of the executive powers is directed by the Cabinet, a committee of ministers of the Crown responsible to the elected House of Commons and chosen and headed by the prime minister (at present Justin Trudeau), the head of government. The governor general or monarch may, though, in certain crisis situations exercise their power without ministerial advice. To ensure the stability of government, the governor general will usually appoint as prime minister the individual who is the current leader of the political party that can obtain the confidence of a plurality in the House of Commons. The Prime Minister's Office (PMO) is thus one of the most powerful institutions in government, initiating most legislation for parliamentary approval and selecting for appointment by the Crown, besides the aforementioned, the governor general, lieutenant governors, senators, federal court judges, and heads of Crown corporations and government agencies. The leader of the party with the second-most seats usually becomes the leader of the Official Opposition and is part of an adversarial parliamentary system intended to keep the government in check.



The Senate chamber within the Centre Block on Parliament Hill

Each of the 338 members of Parliament in the House of Commons is elected by simple plurality in an electoral district or riding. General elections must be called by the governor general, either on the advice of the prime minister or if the government loses a confidence vote in the House. The *Constitution Act, 1982* requires that no more than five years pass between elections, although the *Canada Elections Act* limits this to four years with a fixed election date in October. The 105 members of the Senate, whose seats are apportioned on a regional basis, serve until age 75.

Canada's federal structure divides government responsibilities between the federal government and the ten provinces. Provincial legislatures are unicameral and operate in parliamentary fashion similar to the House of Commons. Canada's three territories also have legislatures, but these are not sovereign and have fewer constitutional responsibilities than the provinces. The territorial legislatures also differ structurally from their provincial counterparts.

The Bank of Canada is the central bank of the country. In addition, the minister

of finance and minister of innovation, science and industry utilize the Statistics Canada agency for financial planning and economic policy development. The Bank of Canada is the sole authority authorized to issue currency in the form of Canadian bank notes. The bank does not issue Canadian coins; they are issued by the Royal Canadian Mint.

Law

The Constitution of Canada is the supreme law of the country, and consists of written text and unwritten conventions. The *Constitution Act, 1867* (known as the British North America Act prior to 1982), affirmed governance based on parliamentary precedent and divided powers between the federal and provincial governments. The Statute of Westminster 1931 granted full autonomy, and the *Constitution Act, 1982* ended all legislative ties to Britain, as well as adding a constitutional amending formula and the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*. The *Charter* guarantees basic rights and freedoms that usually cannot be over-ridden by any government—though a notwithstanding clause allows Parliament and the provincial legislatures to override certain sections of the *Charter* for a period of five years.



The Supreme Court of Canada in Ottawa, west of Parliament Hill

Canada's judiciary plays an important role in interpreting laws and has the power to strike down Acts of Parliament that violate the constitution. The Supreme Court of Canada is the highest court and final arbiter and has been led since December 18, 2017, by Richard Wagner, the chief justice of Canada. Its nine members are appointed by the governor general on the advice of the prime minister and minister of justice. All judges at the superior and appellate levels are appointed after consultation with non-governmental legal bodies. The federal Cabinet also appoints justices to superior courts in the provincial and territorial jurisdictions.

Common law prevails everywhere except in Quebec, where civil law predominates. Criminal law is solely a federal responsibility and is uniform throughout Canada. Law enforcement, including criminal courts, is officially a provincial responsibility, conducted by provincial and municipal police forces. However, in most rural areas and some urban areas, policing responsibilities are contracted to the federal Royal Canadian Mounted Police.

Canadian Aboriginal law provides certain constitutionally recognized rights to land and traditional practices for Indigenous groups in Canada. Various treaties and case laws were established to mediate relations between Europeans and many Indigenous peoples. Most notably, a series of eleven treaties known as the Numbered Treaties were signed between the Indigenous peoples and the reigning monarch of Canada between 1871 and 1921. These treaties are agreements between the Canadian

Crown-in-Council with the duty to consult and accommodate. The role of Aboriginal law and the rights they support were reaffirmed by section 35 of the *Constitution Act, 1982*. These rights may include provision of services, such as health care through the Indian Health Transfer Policy, and exemption from taxation.

Foreign relations and military



The Canadian delegation to the United Nations Conference on International Organization, San Francisco, May 1945

Canada is recognized as a middle power for its role in international affairs with a tendency to pursue multilateral solutions. Canada's foreign policy based on international peacekeeping and security is carried out through coalitions and international organizations, and through the work of numerous federal institutions. Canada's peacekeeping role during the 20th century has played a major role in its global image. The strategy of the Canadian government's foreign aid policy reflects an emphasis to meet the Millennium Development Goals, while also providing assistance in response to foreign humanitarian crises.

Canada was a founding member of the United Nations and has membership in the World Trade Organization, the G20 and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Canada is also a member of various other international and regional organizations and forums for economic and cultural affairs. Canada acceded to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights in 1976. Canada joined the Organization of American States (OAS) in 1990 and hosted the OAS General Assembly in 2000 and the 3rd Summit of the Americas in 2001. Canada seeks to expand its ties to Pacific Rim economies through membership in the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation forum (APEC).

Canada and the United States share the world's longest undefended border, cooperate on military campaigns and exercises, and are each other's largest trading partner. Canada nevertheless has an independent foreign policy, most notably maintaining full relations with Cuba, and declining to officially participate in the 2003 invasion of Iraq. Canada also maintains historic ties to the United Kingdom and France and to other former British and French colonies through Canada's membership in the Commonwealth of Nations and the *Organisation internationale de la Francophonie*. Canada is noted for having a positive relationship with the Netherlands, owing, in part, to its contribution to the Dutch liberation during World War II.

Canada's strong attachment to the British Empire and Commonwealth led to

major participation in British military efforts in the Second Boer War, World War I and World War II. Since then, Canada has been an advocate for multilateralism, making efforts to resolve global issues in collaboration with other nations. During the Cold War, Canada was a major contributor to UN forces in the Korean War and founded the North American Aerospace Defense Command (NORAD) in cooperation with the United States to defend against potential aerial attacks from the Soviet Union.

Provinces and territories
Canadian federalism



Political map of Canada showing its 10 provinces and 3 territories

Canada is a federation composed of ten provinces and three territories. In turn, these may be grouped into four main regions: Western Canada, Central Canada, Atlantic Canada, and Northern Canada (*Eastern Canada* refers to Central Canada and Atlantic Canada together). Provinces have more autonomy than territories, having responsibility for social programs such as health care, education, and welfare. Together, the provinces collect more revenue than the federal government, an almost unique structure among federations in the world. Using its spending powers, the federal government can initiate national policies in provincial areas, such as the *Canada Health Act*; the provinces can opt out of these, but rarely do so in practice. Equalization payments are made by the federal government to ensure reasonably uniform standards of services and taxation are kept between the richer and poorer provinces.

The major difference between a Canadian province and a territory is that provinces receive their power and authority from the *Constitution Act, 1867*, whereas territorial governments have powers delegated to them by the Parliament of Canada. The powers flowing from the *Constitution Act, 1867* are divided between the federal government and the provincial governments to exercise exclusively. As the division of powers between the federal government and the provinces are defined in the constitution, any changes require a constitutional amendment. The territories, being creatures of the federal government, changes to their role and division of powers may be performed unilaterally by the Parliament of Canada.

Economy

Canada is the world's tenth-largest economy as of 2018, with a nominal GDP of approximately US\$1.73 trillion. It is one of the least corrupt countries in the world, and is one of the world's top ten trading nations, with a highly globalized economy. Canada has a mixed economy ranking above the U.S. and most western European nations on The Heritage Foundation's Index of Economic Freedom, and experiencing a relatively low level of income disparity. The country's average household disposable income per capita is "well above" the OECD average. The Toronto Stock Exchange is the ninth-largest stock exchange in the world by market capitalization, listing over 1,500 companies with a combined market capitalization of over US\$2 trillion.

In 2018, Canadian trade in goods and services reached CA\$1.5 trillion. Canada's exports totalled over CA\$585 billion, while its imported goods were worth over CA\$607 billion, of which approximately CA\$391 billion originated from the United States, CA\$216 billion from non-U.S. sources. In 2018, Canada had a trade deficit in goods of CA\$22 billion and a trade deficit in services of CA\$25 billion.

Since the early 20th century, the growth of Canada's manufacturing, mining, and service sectors has transformed the nation from a largely rural economy to an urbanized, industrial one. Like many other developed countries, the Canadian economy is dominated by the service industry, which employs about three-quarters of the country's workforce. However, Canada is unusual among developed countries in the importance of its primary sector, in which the forestry and petroleum industries are two of the most prominent components.



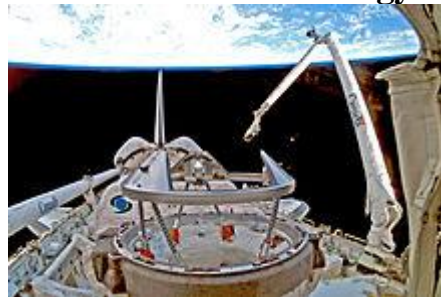
The Toronto financial district is the second largest financial centre in North America, the seventh largest globally in employment and the heart of Canada's finance industry.

Canada's economic integration with the United States has increased significantly since World War II. The Automotive Products Trade Agreement of 1965 opened Canada's borders to trade in the automobile manufacturing industry. In the 1970s, concerns over energy self-sufficiency and foreign ownership in the manufacturing sectors prompted Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau's Liberal government to enact the National Energy Program (NEP) and the Foreign Investment Review Agency (FIRA). In the 1980s, Prime Minister Brian Mulroney's Progressive Conservatives abolished the NEP and changed the name of FIRA to Investment Canada, to encourage foreign investment. The Canada – United States Free Trade Agreement (FTA) of 1988

eliminated tariffs between the two countries, while the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) expanded the free-trade zone to include Mexico in 1994 (later replaced by the Canada–United States–Mexico Agreement). Canada has a strong cooperative banking sector, with the world's highest per-capita membership in credit unions.

Canada is one of the few developed nations that are net exporters of energy. Atlantic Canada possesses vast offshore deposits of natural gas, and Alberta also hosts large oil and gas resources. The vastness of the Athabasca oil sands and other assets results in Canada having a 13 percent share of global oil reserves, comprising the world's third-largest share after Venezuela and Saudi Arabia. Canada is additionally one of the world's largest suppliers of agricultural products; the Canadian Prairies are one of the most important global producers of wheat, canola, and other grains. The federal Department of Natural Resources provides statistics regarding its major exports; the country is a leading exporter of zinc, uranium, gold, nickel, platinum, aluminum, steel, iron ore, coking coal, lead, copper, molybdenum, cobalt, and cadmium. Many towns in northern Canada, where agriculture is difficult, are sustainable because of nearby mines or sources of timber. Canada also has a sizeable manufacturing sector centred in southern Ontario and Quebec, with automobiles and aeronautics representing particularly important industries.

Science and technology



The Canadarm robotic manipulator in action on Space Shuttle Discovery during the STS-116 mission in 2006.

In 2018, Canada spent approximately CA\$34.5 billion on domestic research and development, of which around \$7 billion was provided by the federal and provincial governments. As of 2020, the country has produced fifteen Nobel laureates in physics, chemistry, and medicine, and was ranked fourth worldwide for scientific research quality in a major 2012 survey of international scientists. It is furthermore home to the headquarters of a number of global technology firms. Canada has one of the highest levels of Internet access in the world, with over 33 million users, equivalent to around 94 percent of its total 2014 population. Canada was ranked 17th in the Global Innovation Index in 2019 and 2020.

Some of the most notable scientific developments in Canada include the creation of the modern alkaline battery and the polio vaccine and discoveries about the interior structure of the atomic nucleus. Other major Canadian scientific contributions include the artificial cardiac pacemaker, mapping the visual cortex, the development of the electron microscope, plate tectonics, deep learning, multi-touch technology and the

identification of the first black hole, Cygnus X-1. Canada has a long history of discovery in genetics, which include stem cells, site-directed mutagenesis, T-cell receptor and the identification of the genes that cause Fanconi anemia, cystic fibrosis and early-onset Alzheimer's disease, among numerous other diseases.

The Canadian Space Agency operates a highly active space program, conducting deep-space, planetary, and aviation research, and developing rockets and satellites. Canada was the third country to design and construct a satellite after the Soviet Union and the United States, with the 1962 Alouette 1 launch. Canada is a participant in the International Space Station (ISS), and is a pioneer in space robotics, having constructed the Canadarm, Canadarm2 and Dextre robotic manipulators for the ISS and NASA's Space Shuttle. Since the 1960s, Canada's aerospace industry has designed and built numerous marques of satellite, including Radarsat-1 and 2, ISIS and MOST. Canada has also produced one of the world's most successful and widely used sounding rockets, the Black Brant; over 1,000 Black Brants have been launched since the rocket's introduction in 1961.

Demographics



The Quebec City–Windsor Corridor is the most densely populated and heavily industrialized region of Canada and spans 1,200 km (750 mi).

The 2016 Canadian Census enumerated a total population of 35,151,728, an increase of around 5.0 percent over the 2011 figure. Between 2011 and May 2016, Canada's population grew by 1.7 million people, with immigrants accounting for two-thirds of the increase. Between 1990 and 2008, the population increased by 5.6 million, equivalent to 20.4 percent overall growth. The main drivers of population growth are immigration and, to a lesser extent, natural growth.

Canada has one of the highest per-capita immigration rates in the world, driven mainly by economic policy and also family reunification. The Canadian public, as well as the major political parties, support the current level of immigration. In 2019, a total of 341,180 immigrants were admitted to Canada, mainly from Asia. India, Philippines and China are the top three countries of origin for immigrants moving to Canada. New immigrants settle mostly in major urban areas in the country, such as Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver. Canada also accepts large numbers of refugees, accounting for over 10 percent of annual global refugee resettlements; it resettled more than 28,000 in 2018.

Canada's population density, at 3.7 inhabitants per square kilometre (9.6/sq mi), is among the lowest in the world. Canada spans latitudinally from the 83rd parallel

north to the 41st parallel north, and approximately 95 percent of the population is found south of the 55th parallel north. About four-fifths of the population lives within 150 kilometres (93 mi) of the border with the contiguous United States. The most densely populated part of the country, accounting for nearly 50 percent, is the Quebec City–Windsor Corridor in Southern Quebec and Southern Ontario along the Great Lakes and the Saint Lawrence River. An additional 30 percent live along the British Columbia Lower Mainland and the Calgary–Edmonton Corridor in Alberta.

The majority of Canadians (67.7 percent) live in family households, 28.2 percent report living alone, and those living with unrelated persons reported at 4.1 percent. 6.3 percent of households are multigenerational with 34.7 percent of young adults aged 20 to 34 living with their parents. 69.0 percent of households own their dwellings with 58.6 percent of those homes having an ongoing mortgage.

Education



14th G7 summit leaders at the University of Toronto: (left to right) Jacques Delors, Ciriaco De Mita, Margaret Thatcher, Ronald Reagan, Brian Mulroney, François Mitterrand, Helmut Kohl and Noboru Takeshita.

Education in Canada is for the most part provided publicly, funded and overseen by federal, provincial, and local governments. Education is within provincial jurisdiction and the curriculum is overseen by the province. Education in Canada is generally divided into primary education, followed by secondary education and post-secondary. Education in both English and French is available in most places across Canada. Canadian provinces and territories are responsible for education provision. Canada has a large number of Universities, almost all of which are publicly funded. Established in 1663, Université Laval is the oldest post-secondary institution in Canada. The largest university is the University of Toronto with over 85,000 students. Four universities are regularly ranked among the top 100 world-wide, namely University of Toronto, University of British Columbia, McGill University and McMaster University, with a total of 18 universities ranked in the top 500 worldwide.

According to a 2019 report by the OECD, Canada is one of the most educated countries in the world; the country ranks first worldwide in the number of adults having tertiary education, with over 56 percent of Canadian adults having attained at least an undergraduate college or university degree. Canada spends about 5.3 percent of its GDP on education. The country invests heavily in tertiary education (more than US\$20,000 per student). As of 2014, 89 percent of adults aged 25 to 64 have earned

the equivalent of a high-school degree, compared to an OECD average of 75 percent.

The mandatory education age ranges between 5–7 to 16–18 years, contributing to an adult literacy rate of 99 percent. Just over 60,000 children are homeschooled as of 2016. In 2002, 43 percent of Canadians aged 25 to 64 possessed a post-secondary education; for those aged 25 to 34, the rate of post-secondary education reached 51 percent. The Programme for International Student Assessment indicates Canadian students perform well above the OECD average, particularly in mathematics, science, and reading, ranking the overall knowledge and skills of Canadian 15-year-olds as the sixth-best in the world. Canada is a well-performing OECD country in reading literacy, mathematics, and science with the average student scoring 523.7, compared with the OECD average of 493 in 2015.





Ethnicity: Canadians

According to the 2016 Canadian Census, the country's largest self-reported ethnic origin is Canadian (accounting for 32 percent of the population), followed by English (18.3 percent), Scottish (13.9 percent), French (13.6 percent), Irish (13.4 percent), German (9.6 percent), Chinese (5.1 percent), Italian (4.6 percent), First Nations (4.4 percent), Indian (4.0 percent), and Ukrainian (3.9 percent). There are 600 recognized First Nations governments or bands, encompassing a total of 1,525,565 people. The Indigenous population in Canada is growing at almost twice the national rate, and four percent of Canada's population claimed an Indigenous identity in 2006. Another 22.3 percent of the population belonged to a non-Indigenous visible minority. In 2016, the largest visible minority groups were South Asian (5.6 percent), Chinese (5.1 percent) and Black (3.5 percent). Between 2011 and 2016, the visible minority population rose by 18.4 percent. In 1961, less than two percent of Canada's population (about 300,000 people) were members of visible minority groups. Indigenous peoples are not considered a visible minority in Statistics Canada calculations.

Languages



Approximately 98 percent of Canadians can speak either or both English and French:

-  English – 56.9%
-  English and French – 16.1%
-  French – 21.3%
-  Sparsely populated area (< 0.4 persons per km²)

A multitude of languages are used by Canadians, with English and French (the official languages) being the mother tongues of approximately 56 percent and 21 percent of Canadians, respectively. As of the 2016 Census, just over 7.3 million Canadians listed a non-official language as their mother tongue. Some of the most common non-official first languages include Chinese (1,227,680 first-language speakers), Punjabi (501,680), Spanish (458,850), Tagalog (431,385), Arabic (419,895), German (384,040), and Italian (375,645). Canada's federal government practises official bilingualism, which is applied by the commissioner of official languages in consonance with section 16 of the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms* and the federal *Official Languages Act*. English and French have equal status in federal courts, Parliament, and in all federal institutions. Citizens have the right, where there is sufficient demand, to receive federal government services in either English or French and official-language minorities are guaranteed their own schools in all provinces and territories.

The 1977 *Charter of the French Language* established French as the official language of Quebec. Although more than 85 percent of French-speaking Canadians live in Quebec, there are substantial Francophone populations in New Brunswick, Alberta, and Manitoba; Ontario has the largest French-speaking population outside Quebec. New Brunswick, the only officially bilingual province, has a French-speaking Acadian minority constituting 33 percent of the population. There are also clusters of Acadians in southwestern Nova Scotia, on Cape Breton Island, and through central and western Prince Edward Island.

Other provinces have no official languages as such, but French is used as a language of instruction, in courts, and for other government services, in addition to English. Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec allow for both English and French to be spoken in the provincial legislatures, and laws are enacted in both languages. In Ontario, French has some legal status, but is not fully co-official. There are 11 Indigenous language groups, composed of more than 65 distinct languages and dialects. Several Indigenous languages have official status in the Northwest Territories. Inuktitut is the majority language in Nunavut, and is one of three official languages in the territory.

Additionally, Canada is home to many sign languages, some of which are Indigenous. American Sign Language (ASL) is spoken across the country due to the prevalence of ASL in primary and secondary schools. Due to its historical relation to the francophone culture, Quebec Sign Language (LSQ) is spoken primarily in Quebec, although there are sizeable Francophone communities in New Brunswick, Ontario and Manitoba.

Religion

Canada is religiously diverse, encompassing a wide range of beliefs and customs. Canada has no official church, and the government is officially committed to religious pluralism. Freedom of religion in Canada is a constitutionally protected right, allowing individuals to assemble and worship without limitation or interference. The practice of religion is now generally considered a private matter throughout society and the state. With Christianity in decline after having once been

central and integral to Canadian culture and daily life, Canada has become a post-Christian, secular state. The majority of Canadians consider religion to be unimportant in their daily lives, but still believe in God.

According to the 2011 National Household Survey, 67.3 percent of Canadians identify as Christian; of these, Roman Catholics make up the largest group, accounting for 38.7 percent of the population. Much of the remainder is made up of Protestants, who accounted for approximately 27 percent in a 2011 survey. The largest Protestant denomination is the United Church of Canada (accounting for 6.1 percent of Canadians), followed by the Anglican Church of Canada (5.0 percent), and various Baptist sects (1.9 percent). Secularization has been growing since the 1960s. In 2011, 23.9 percent declared no religious affiliation, compared to 16.5 percent in 2001. Islam is the largest non-Christian religion in Canada, constituting 3.2 percent of its population. It is also the fastest growing religion in Canada. 1.5 percent of the Canadian population is Hindu and 1.4 percent is Sikh.

Culture



Monument to Multiculturalism, by Francesco Pirelli in Toronto.

Canada's culture draws influences from its broad range of constituent nationalities, and policies that promote a "just society" are constitutionally protected. Canada has placed emphasis on equality and inclusiveness for all its people. Multiculturalism is often cited as one of Canada's significant accomplishments, and a key distinguishing element of Canadian identity. In Quebec, cultural identity is strong, and there is a French Canadian culture that is distinct from English Canadian culture. However, as a whole, Canada is, in theory, a cultural mosaic—a collection of regional ethnic subcultures.

Canada's approach to governance emphasizing multiculturalism, which is based on selective immigration, social integration, and suppression of far-right politics, has wide public support. Government policies such as publicly funded health care, higher taxation to redistribute wealth, the outlawing of capital punishment, strong efforts to eliminate poverty, strict gun control—alongside legislation with a social liberal attitude toward women's rights (like pregnancy termination), LGBTQ rights, assisted euthanasia and cannabis use—are indicators of Canada's political and cultural values. Canadians also identify with the country's foreign aid policies, peacekeeping roles, the National park system and the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*.

Historically, Canada has been influenced by British, French, and Indigenous cultures and traditions. Through their language, art and music, Indigenous peoples continue to influence the Canadian identity. During the 20th century, Canadians with African, Caribbean and Asian nationalities have added to the Canadian identity and its culture. Canadian humour is an integral part of the Canadian identity and is reflected in its folklore, literature, music, art, and media. The primary characteristics of Canadian humour are irony, parody, and satire. Many Canadian comedians have achieved international success such as in the American television and film industries and are amongst the most recognized in the world.

Canada has a well-developed media sector, but its cultural output—particularly in English films, television shows, and magazines—is often overshadowed by imports from the United States. As a result, the preservation of a distinctly Canadian culture is supported by federal government programs, laws, and institutions such as the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC), the National Film Board of Canada (NFB), and the Canadian Radio-television and Telecommunications Commission (CRTC).

Literature

Canadian literature is often divided into French- and English-language literatures, which are rooted in the literary traditions of France and Britain, respectively. There are four major themes that can be found within historical Canadian literature; nature, frontier life, Canada's position within the world, all three of which tie into the garrison mentality. By the 1990s, Canadian literature was viewed as some of the world's best. Canada's ethnic and cultural diversity are reflected in its literature, with many of its most prominent modern writers focusing on ethnic life. Arguably, the best-known living Canadian writer internationally (especially since the deaths of Robertson Davies and Mordecai Richler) is Margaret Atwood, a prolific novelist, poet, and literary critic. Numerous other Canadian authors have accumulated international literary awards, including Nobel laureate Alice Munro, who has been called the best living writer of short stories in English; and Booker Prize recipient Michael Ondaatje, who is perhaps best known for the novel *The English Patient*, which was adapted as a film of the same name that won the Academy Award for Best Picture.

Visual arts



The Jack Pine by Tom Thomson. Oil on canvas, 1916, in the collection of the National Gallery of Canada.

Canadian visual art has been dominated by figures such as Tom Thomson – the country's most famous painter – and by the Group of Seven. Thomson's career painting Canadian landscapes spanned a decade up to his death in 1917 at age 39. The Group of Seven were painters with a nationalistic and idealistic focus, who first exhibited their distinctive works in May 1920. Though referred to as having seven members, five artists—Lawren Harris, A. Y. Jackson, Arthur Lismer, J. E. H. MacDonald, and Frederick Varley—were responsible for articulating the Group's ideas. They were joined briefly by Frank Johnston, and by commercial artist Franklin Carmichael. A. J. Casson became part of the Group in 1926. Associated with the Group was another prominent Canadian artist, Emily Carr, known for her landscapes and portrayals of the Indigenous peoples of the Pacific Northwest Coast. Since the 1950s, works of Inuit art have been given as gifts to foreign dignitaries by the Canadian government.

Music

The Canadian music industry is the sixth-largest in the world producing internationally renowned composers, musicians and ensembles. Music broadcasting in the country is regulated by the CRTC. The Canadian Academy of Recording Arts and Sciences presents Canada's music industry awards, the Juno Awards, which were first awarded in 1970. The Canadian Music Hall of Fame established in 1976 honours Canadian musicians for their lifetime achievements. Patriotic music in Canada dates back over 200 years as a distinct category from British patriotism, preceding the Canadian Confederation by over 50 years. The earliest, *The Bold Canadian*, was written in 1812. The national anthem of Canada, "O Canada", was originally commissioned by the lieutenant governor of Quebec, Théodore Robitaille, for the 1880 St. Jean-Baptiste Day ceremony, and was officially adopted in 1980. Calixa Lavallée wrote the music, which was a setting of a patriotic poem composed by the poet and judge Sir Adolphe-Basile Routhier. The text was originally only in French before it was adapted into English in 1906.

Sports



Canada's ice hockey victory at the 2010 Winter Olympics in Vancouver

The roots of organized sports in Canada date back to the 1770s, culminating in the development and popularization of the major professional games of ice hockey, lacrosse, basketball, baseball and football. Canada's official national sports are ice hockey and lacrosse. Golf, soccer, baseball, tennis, skiing, badminton, volleyball, cycling, swimming, bowling, rugby union, canoeing, equestrian, squash and the study

of martial arts are widely enjoyed at the youth and amateur levels.

Canada shares several major professional sports leagues with the United States. Canadian teams in these leagues include seven franchises in the National Hockey League, as well as three Major League Soccer teams and one team in each of Major League Baseball and the National Basketball Association. Other popular professional sports in Canada include Canadian football, which is played in the Canadian Football League, National Lacrosse League lacrosse, and curling.

Canada has participated in almost every Olympic Games since its Olympic debut in 1900, and has hosted several high-profile international sporting events, including the 1976 Summer Olympics, the 1988 Winter Olympics, the 1994 Basketball World Championship, the 2007 FIFA U-20 World Cup, the 2010 Winter Olympics and the 2015 FIFA Women's World Cup. Most recently, Canada hosted the 2015 Pan American Games and 2015 Parapan American Games in Toronto, the former being one of the largest sporting event hosted by the country. The country is also scheduled to co-host the 2026 FIFA World Cup, alongside Mexico and the United States.

LECTURE 12 COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. Canada is described as a "full democracy", with a tradition of _____. Peace, order, and good _____, alongside an implied bill of rights are founding principles of the Canadian government.

2. At the federal level, Canada has been dominated by two relatively centrist parties: the centre-_____ leaning Liberal Party of Canada and the centre-_____ leaning Conservative Party of Canada.

3. Canada has a parliamentary system within the context of a _____ – the monarchy of Canada being the foundation of the executive, legislative, and _____ branches. The reigning monarch is Queen Elizabeth II, who is also monarch of _____ other Commonwealth countries and each of Canada's _____ provinces. The monarch whose position is mainly symbolic appoints a representative, the _____ general, with the advice of the prime minister, to carry out most of her federal royal duties in Canada.

4. The executive powers is directed by the _____, a committee of ministers of the Crown responsible to the elected House of Commons and chosen and headed by the prime minister (at present Justin Trudeau), the _____ of government.

5. The Prime Minister's Office (PMO) is thus one of the most powerful institutions in government, initiating most legislation for parliamentary approval and selecting for appointment by the _____.

6. Each of the _____ members of Parliament in the House of Commons is elected by simple plurality in an electoral district or riding. The _____ members of the Senate, whose seats are apportioned on a regional basis, serve until age 75.

7. Canada's federal structure divides government responsibilities between the _____ government and the _____ provinces. Canada's three territories also have legislatures, but these are not _____ and have fewer constitutional responsibilities than the provinces.

8. Canada has an independent foreign policy. Canada also maintains historic ties to the _____ Kingdom and _____ and to other former British and French

colonies through Canada's membership in the Commonwealth of Nations and the *Organisation internationale de la Francophonie*.

9. Canada is a federation composed of ten provinces and three territories. In turn, these may be grouped into _____ main regions: Western Canada, Central Canada, Atlantic Canada, and Northern Canada.

10. Canada is the world's _____-largest economy with a nominal GDP of approximately US\$1.73 trillion. Since the early 20th century, the growth of Canada's manufacturing, mining, and service sectors has transformed the nation from a largely rural economy to an urbanized, _____ one. Like many other developed countries, the Canadian economy is dominated by the _____ industry, which employs about three-quarters of the country's workforce. In Canada the forestry and petroleum industries are _____ of the most prominent components. Canada is one of the few developed nations that are net exporters of _____ and is additionally one of the world's largest suppliers of _____ products.

11. Canada has one of the _____ levels of Internet access in the world, with over 33 million users, equivalent to around 94 percent of its total 2014 population .

12. Canada's population density, at 3.7 inhabitants per square kilometre is among the _____ in the world.

13. Education in Canada is for the most part provided publicly, funded and overseen by _____, provincial, and local governments.

14. According to the 2016 Canadian Census, the country's largest self-reported ethnic origin is Canadian (accounting for 32 percent of the population), followed by _____ (18.3 percent), Scottish (13.9 percent), French (13.6 percent), Irish (13.4 percent), German (9.6 percent), Chinese (5.1 percent), Italian (4.6 percent), First Nations (4.4 percent), Indian (4.0 percent), and Ukrainian (3.9 percent).

15. English and French are the official languages of approximately 56 percent and 21 percent of Canadians. Some of the most common non-official first languages include _____ (1,227,680 first-language speakers), Punjabi (501,680), Spanish (458,850), Tagalog (431,385), Arabic (419,895), German (384,040), and Italian (375,645).

16. Canada has no official church, and the government is officially committed to _____ pluralism. 67.3 percent of Canadians identify as Christian; of these, _____ Catholics make up the largest group, accounting for 38.7 percent of the population. Much of the remainder is made up of Protestants, who accounted for approximately 27 percent.

17. Canada has placed emphasis on equality and inclusiveness for all its _____.

18. Multiculturalism is one of Canada's significant accomplishments, and a key distinguishing element of Canadian _____. In Quebec, cultural identity is strong, and there is a _____ Canadian culture that is distinct from _____ Canadian culture. However, as a whole, Canada is, in theory, a cultural _____—a collection of regional ethnic subcultures.

19. Canadian literature is often divided into _____ - and _____ - language literatures, which are rooted in the literary traditions of France and Britain, respectively. There are _____ major themes that can be found within historical

Canadian literature; nature, frontier life, Canada's position within the world, all three of which tie into the garrison mentality.

20. The best-known living Canadian writer internationally is Margaret _____, a prolific novelist, poet, and literary critic. Numerous other Canadian authors have accumulated international literary awards, including Nobel laureate Alice _____, who has been called the best living writer of short stories in English; and Booker Prize recipient Michael Ondaatje, who is perhaps best known for the novel *The English Patient*.

21. The national anthem of Canada, "_____ Canada", was originally commissioned by the lieutenant governor of Quebec, Théodore Robitaille, and was officially adopted in 1980.

22. Canada's official national sports are _____ hockey and lacrosse.

LECTURE 13

AUSTRALIA. GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY OF AUSTRALIA

- Physical geography
- Fauna and Flora
- Regions
- Climate
- Natural Hazards
- HISTORY
- Prehistory
- Indigenous Australians
- European arrival
- Colonial expansion
- Nationhood

Australia, officially the **Commonwealth of Australia**, is a sovereign country comprising the mainland of the Australian continent, the island of Tasmania, and numerous smaller islands. It is the largest country by area in Oceania and the world's sixth-largest country. Australia's population of nearly 26 million, in an area of 7,617,930 square kilometres (2,941,300 sq mi), is highly urbanised and heavily concentrated on the eastern seaboard. Canberra is the nation's capital, while the largest city is Sydney, and other major metropolitan areas are Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth, and Adelaide.

The **geography of Australia** encompasses a wide variety of biogeographic regions being the world's smallest continent, while comprising the territory of the sixth-largest country in the world. The population of Australia is concentrated along the eastern and south-eastern coasts. The geography of the continent is extremely diverse, ranging from the snow-capped mountains of the Australian Alps and Tasmania to large deserts, tropical and temperate forests, grasslands, heathlands and woodlands.

The countries that govern nearby regions include Indonesia, East Timor, and Papua New Guinea to the north; the Solomon Islands, Vanuatu, and the French dependency of New Caledonia to the east; and New Zealand to the southeast.

Indigenous Australians inhabited the continent for about 65,000 years, prior to the first arrival of Dutch explorers in the early 17th century, who named it New Holland. In 1770, Australia's eastern half was claimed by Great Britain and initially settled through penal transportation to the colony of New South Wales from 26 January 1788, a date which became Australia's national day. The population grew steadily in subsequent decades, and by the time of an 1850s gold rush, most of the continent had been explored by European settlers and an additional five self-governing crown colonies established. On 1 January 1901, the six colonies federated, forming the Commonwealth of Australia. Australia has since maintained a stable liberal democratic political system that functions as a federal parliamentary constitutional monarchy, comprising six states and ten territories.

Australia is the oldest, flattest, and driest inhabited continent, with the least

fertile soils. It is a megadiverse country, and its size gives it a wide variety of landscapes and climates, with deserts in the centre, tropical rainforests in the north-east, and mountain ranges in the south-east. Australia generates its income from various sources, including mining-related exports, telecommunications, banking, manufacturing, and international education.

Australia is a highly developed country, with the world's twelfth-largest economy. It has a high-income economy, with the world's tenth-highest per capita income. Australia is a regional power, and has the world's thirteenth-highest military expenditure. Immigrants account for 30% of the country's population, the highest proportion among major Western nations. Having the eighth-highest Human Development Index, and the ninth-highest ranked democracy globally as of 2020, Australia ranks highly in quality of life, health, education, economic freedom, civil liberties, and political rights, with all its major cities faring exceptionally in global comparative livability surveys. It is a member of the United Nations, the G20, the Commonwealth of Nations.

The name Australia (pronounced /ə'streɪliə/ in Australian English) is derived from the Latin Terra Australis ("southern land"), a name used for a hypothetical continent in the Southern Hemisphere since ancient times. When Europeans first began visiting and mapping Australia in the 17th century, the name Terra Australis was naturally applied to the new territories.

Until the early 19th century, Australia was best known as "New Holland", a name first applied by the Dutch explorer Abel Tasman in 1644 (as Nieuw-Holland) and subsequently anglicised



Physical geography



Physical map of Australia

Australia on the globe with Australia's Antarctic claims hatched

Australia is a continent and an island located in Oceania between the Indian Ocean and the South Pacific Ocean. It shares its name with the country that claims control over it. Properly called the Commonwealth of Australia, its territory consists of the entire continent and smaller outlying islands. This makes it the sixth largest country in the world by area of jurisdiction, which comprises 7,686,850 km² (2,967,910 sq mi) (including Lord Howe Island and Macquarie Island), which is slightly smaller than the 48 states of the contiguous United States and 31.5 times larger than that of the United Kingdom.

The Australian mainland has a total coastline length of 35,821 km (22,258 mi) with an additional 23,860 km (14,830 mi) of island coastlines. There are 758 estuaries around the country with most located in the tropical and sub-tropical zones. A recent global remote sensing analysis suggested that there was 8,866 km² of tidal flat area in Australia, making it the 3rd ranked country in terms of how much tidal flat occurs there. Australia has the 3rd largest exclusive economic zone of 8,148,250 km² (3,146,060 sq mi). This EEZ does not include the Australian Antarctic Territory (an additional 5,896,500 km²).

Australia has the largest area of ocean jurisdiction of any country on Earth. It has no land borders. The northernmost points of the continental mainland are the Cape York Peninsula of Queensland and the Top End of the Northern Territory, but the northernmost point of the country lies in the Torres Strait Islands.

The western half of Australia consists of the Western Plateau, which rises to mountain heights near the west coast and falls to lower elevations near the continental centre. The Western Plateau region is generally flat, though broken by various mountain ranges such as the Hamersley Range, the MacDonnell Ranges, and the Musgrave Range. Surface water is generally lacking in the Western Plateau, although there are several larger rivers in the west and north, such as the Murchison, Ashburton, and Victoria rivers.

The Eastern Highlands, or Great Dividing Range, lie near the eastern coast of Australia, separating the relatively narrow eastern coastal plain from the rest of the continent. These Eastern Australian temperate forests have the greatest relief, the most rainfall, the most abundant and varied flora and fauna, and the densest human settlement.

Between the Eastern Highlands and the Western Plateau lie the Central Lowlands, which are made up of the Great Artesian Basin and Australia's largest river systems, the Murray-Darling Basin and the Lake Eyre Basin.

Off the eastern coast of Australia is the world's largest coral reef complex, the Great Barrier Reef. The large and mountainous island of Tasmania, also a State of Australia, lies south of the south-eastern corner of the Australian mainland. It receives abundant rainfall, and has highly fertile soils particularly in comparison to the mainland.

Australia is the lowest, flattest, and oldest continental landmass on Earth and it has had a relatively stable geological history. Geological forces such as tectonic uplift of mountain ranges and clashes between tectonic plates occurred mainly in Australia's early prehistory, when it was still a part of Gondwana. Its highest peak is Mount

Kosciuszko at 2,228 m (7,310 ft), which is relatively low in comparison to the highest mountains on other continents.

Charles Rowland Twidale estimates that between 10% and 20% of Australia's modern landscapes formed during the Mesozoic when the continent was part of Gondwana.

Australia is situated in the middle of the tectonic plate, and therefore currently has no active volcanism. Minor earthquakes which produce no damage occur frequently, while major earthquakes measuring greater than magnitude 6 occur on average every five years. The terrain is mostly low plateau with deserts, rangelands and a fertile plain in the southeast. Tasmania and the Australian Alps do not contain any permanent icefields or glaciers, although these may have existed in the past. The Great Barrier Reef, by far the world's largest coral reef, lies a short distance off the north-east coast.

Fauna and Flora



The koala and the *eucalyptus* form an iconic Australian pair.

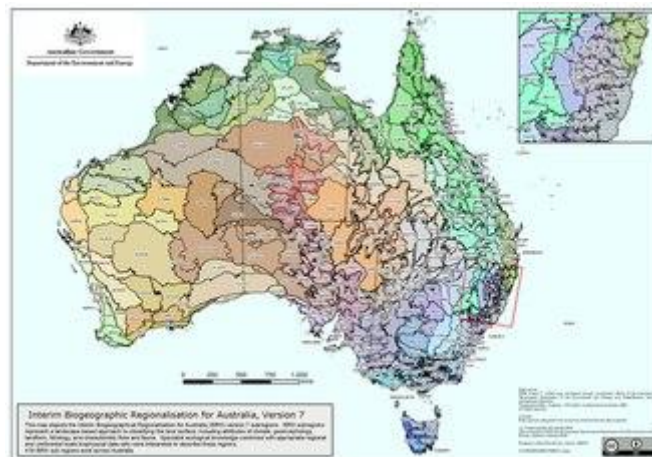
Although most of Australia is semi-arid or desert, the continent includes a diverse range of habitats from alpine heaths to tropical rainforests. Fungi typify that diversity—an estimated 250,000 species—of which only 5% have been described—occur in Australia. Because of the continent's great age, extremely variable weather patterns, and long-term geographic isolation, much of Australia's biota is unique. About 85% of flowering plants, 84% of mammals, more than 45% of birds, and 89% of in-shore, temperate-zone fish are endemic. Australia has at least 755 species of reptile, more than any other country in the world. Besides Antarctica, Australia is the only continent that developed without feline species. Feral cats may have been introduced in the 17th century by Dutch shipwrecks, and later in the 18th century by European settlers. They are now considered a major factor in the decline and extinction of many vulnerable and endangered native species. Australia is also one of 17 megadiverse countries.

Australian forests are mostly made up of evergreen species, particularly eucalyptus trees in the less arid regions; wattles replace them as the dominant species in drier regions and deserts. Among well-known Australian animals are the monotremes (the platypus and echidna); a host of marsupials, including the kangaroo, koala, and wombat, and birds such as the emu and the kookaburra. Australia is home to many dangerous animals including some of the most venomous snakes in the

world. The dingo was introduced by Austronesian people who traded with Indigenous Australians around 3000 BCE. Many animal and plant species became extinct soon after first human settlement, including the Australian megafauna; others have disappeared since European settlement, among them the thylacine.

Many of Australia's ecoregions, and the species within those regions, are threatened by human activities and introduced animal, chromistan, fungal and plant species. All these factors have led to Australia's having the highest mammal extinction rate of any country in the world. The federal *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999* is the legal framework for the protection of threatened species. Numerous protected areas have been created under the National Strategy for the Conservation of Australia's Biological Diversity to protect and preserve unique ecosystems; 65 wetlands are listed under the Ramsar Convention, and 16 natural World Heritage Sites have been established. Australia was ranked 21st out of 178 countries in the world on the 2018 Environmental Performance Index. There are more than 1,800 animals and plants on Australia's threatened species list, including more than 500 animals.

Regions



IBRA version 7 map

The Australian continental landmass consists of six distinct landform divisions. These are:

- The Eastern Highlands—including the Great Dividing Range, the fertile Brigalow Belt strip of grassland behind the east coast, and the Eastern Uplands
- The Eastern alluvial Plains and Lowlands—the Murray Darling basin covers the southern part; also includes parts of the Lake Eyre Basin and extends to the Gulf of Carpentaria
- The South Australian Highlands—including the Flinders Range, Eyre Peninsula, and Yorke Peninsula
- The Western Plateau—including the Nullarbor Plain
- The Central Deserts
- Northern Plateau and Basins—including the Top End

Climate

By far the largest part of Australia is arid or semi-arid. A total of 18% of Australia's mainland consists of named deserts, while additional areas are considered to have a desert climate based on low rainfall and high temperature. Only the south-east and south-west corners have a temperate climate and moderately fertile soil. The northern part of the continent has a tropical climate: part is tropical rainforests, part grasslands, and part desert.

Rainfall is highly variable, with frequent droughts lasting several seasons thought to be caused in part by the El Niño-Southern Oscillation. Occasionally a dust storm will blanket a region or even several states and there are reports of the occasional large tornado. Rising levels of salinity and desertification in some areas is ravaging the landscape.

Australia's tropical/subtropical location and cold waters off the western coast make most of western Australia a hot desert with aridity, a marked feature of the greater part of the continent. These cold waters produce little moisture needed on the mainland. A 2005 study by Australian and American researchers investigated the desertification of the interior, and suggested that one explanation was related to human settlers who arrived about 50,000 years ago. Regular burning by these settlers could have prevented monsoons from reaching interior Australia. The outback covers 70 percent of the continent.

Natural hazards

Cyclones along the northern coasts, severe thunderstorms, droughts, occasional floods, heat waves, and frequent bushfires are natural hazards that are present in Australia.

States and territories of Australia



A clickable map of Australia's states, mainland territories and their capitals

Australia consists of six states, two major mainland territories, and other minor territories. The states are New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, and Western Australia. The two major mainland territories are the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory. Western Australia is the largest state covering just under one third of the Australian landmass, followed by Queensland, South Australia, and New South Wales.

Australia also has several minor territories; the federal government administers a separate area within New South Wales, the Jervis Bay Territory, as a naval base and sea port for the national capital. In addition Australia has the following inhabited, external territories: Norfolk Island, Christmas Island, Cocos (Keeling) Islands, and several largely uninhabited external territories: Ashmore and Cartier Islands, Coral Sea Islands, and Heard Island and McDonald Islands. Australia also claims a portion of Antarctica as the Australian Antarctic Territory, although this claim is not widely recognized

History

Prehistory

Indigenous Australians

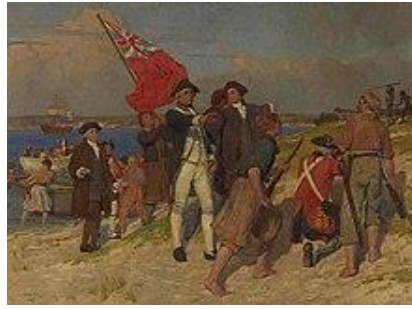


Aboriginal rock art in the Kimberley region of Western Australia

Human habitation of the Australian continent is known to have begun at least 65,000 years ago, with the migration of people by land bridges and short sea-crossings from what is now Southeast Asia. The Madjedbebe rock shelter in Arnhem Land is recognised as the oldest site showing the presence of humans in Australia. The oldest human remains found are the Lake Mungo remains, which have been dated to around 41,000 years ago. These people were the ancestors of modern Indigenous Australians. Aboriginal Australian culture is one of the oldest continual cultures on Earth.

At the time of first European contact, most Indigenous Australians were hunter-gatherers with complex economies and societies. Recent archaeological finds suggest that a population of 750,000 could have been sustained. Indigenous Australians have an oral culture with spiritual values based on reverence for the land and a belief in the Dreamtime. The Torres Strait Islanders, ethnically Melanesian, obtained their livelihood from seasonal horticulture and the resources of their reefs and seas. The northern coasts and waters of Australia were visited sporadically for trade by Makassan fishermen from what is now Indonesia.

European arrival



Captain Cook landing at Botany Bay, 1770

The first recorded European sighting of the Australian mainland, and the first recorded European landfall on the Australian continent, are attributed to the Dutch. The first ship and crew to chart the Australian coast and meet with Aboriginal people was the *Duyfken* captained by Dutch navigator, Willem Janszoon. He sighted the coast of Cape York Peninsula in early 1606, and made landfall on 26 February 1606 at the Pennefather River near the modern town of Weipa on Cape York. Later that year, Spanish explorer Lu s Vaz de Torres sailed through, and navigated, Torres Strait islands. The Dutch charted the whole of the western and northern coastlines and named the island continent "New Holland" during the 17th century, and although no attempt at settlement was made, a number of shipwrecks left men either stranded or, as in the case of the *Batavia* in 1629, marooned for mutiny and murder, thus becoming the first Europeans to permanently inhabit the continent. William Dampier, an English explorer and privateer, landed on the north-west coast of New Holland in 1688 (while serving as a crewman under pirate Captain John Read) and again in 1699 on a return trip. In 1770, James Cook sailed along and mapped the east coast, which he named New South Wales and claimed for Great Britain.

With the loss of its American colonies in 1783, the British Government sent a fleet of ships, the "First Fleet", under the command of Captain Arthur Phillip, to establish a new penal colony in New South Wales. A camp was set up and the Union flag raised at Sydney Cove, Port Jackson, on 26 January 1788, a date which later became Australia's national day, Australia Day. Most early convicts were transported for petty crimes and assigned as labourers or servants upon arrival. While the majority settled into colonial society once emancipated, convict rebellions and uprisings were also staged, but invariably suppressed under martial law. The 1808 Rum Rebellion, the only successful armed takeover of government in Australia, instigated a two-year period of military rule.

The indigenous population declined for 150 years following settlement, mainly due to infectious disease. Thousands more died as a result of frontier conflict with settlers. A government policy of "assimilation" beginning with the *Aboriginal Protection Act 1869* resulted in the removal of many Aboriginal children from their families and communities—referred to as the Stolen Generations — a practice which also contributed to the decline in the indigenous population. As a result of the 1967 referendum, the Federal government's power to enact special laws with respect to a particular race was extended to enable the making of laws with respect to Aboriginals. Traditional ownership of land ("native title") was not recognised in law

until 1992, when the High Court of Australia held in *Mabo v Queensland (No 2)* that the legal doctrine that Australia had been *terra nullius* ("land belonging to no one") did not apply to Australia at the time of British settlement.

Colonial expansion



Tasmania's Port Arthur penal settlement is one of eleven UNESCO World Heritage-listed Australian Convict Sites.

The expansion of British control over other areas of the continent began in the early 19th century, initially confined to coastal regions. A settlement was established in Van Diemen's Land (present-day Tasmania) in 1803, and it became a separate colony in 1825. In 1813, Gregory Blaxland, William Lawson and William Wentworth crossed the Blue Mountains west of Sydney, opening the interior to European settlement. The British claim was extended to the whole Australian continent in 1827 when Major Edmund Lockyer established a settlement on King George Sound (modern-day Albany). The Swan River Colony (present-day Perth) was established in 1829, evolving into the largest Australian colony by area, Western Australia. In accordance with population growth, separate colonies were carved from parts of New South Wales: South Australia in 1836, New Zealand in 1841, Victoria in 1851, and Queensland in 1859. The Northern Territory was excised from South Australia in 1911. South Australia was founded as a "free province" — it was never a penal colony. Western Australia was also founded "free" but later accepted transported convicts, the last of which arrived in 1868, decades after transportation had ceased to the other colonies. In the mid-19th century, explorers such as Burke and Wills went further inland to determine its agricultural potential and answer scientific questions.

A series of gold rushes beginning in the early 1850s led to an influx of new migrants from China, North America and continental Europe, and also spurred outbreaks of bushranging and civil unrest; the latter peaked in 1854 when Ballarat miners launched the Eureka Rebellion against gold license fees. Between 1855 and 1890, the six colonies individually gained responsible government, managing most of their own affairs while remaining part of the British Empire. The Colonial Office in London retained control of some matters, notably foreign affairs and defence.

Nationhood



The Last Post is played at an Anzac Day ceremony in Port Melbourne, Victoria. Similar ceremonies are held in many suburbs and towns.

On 1 January 1901, federation of the colonies was achieved after a decade of planning, consultation and voting. After the 1907 Imperial Conference, Australia and the other self-governing British colonies were given the status of "dominion" within the British Empire. The Federal Capital Territory (later renamed the Australian Capital Territory) was formed in 1911 as the location for the future federal capital of Canberra. Melbourne was the temporary seat of government from 1901 to 1927 while Canberra was being constructed. The Northern Territory was transferred from the control of the South Australian government to the federal parliament in 1911. Australia became the colonial ruler of the Territory of Papua (which had initially been annexed by Queensland in 1883) in 1902 and of the Territory of New Guinea (formerly German New Guinea) in 1920. The two were unified as the Territory of Papua and New Guinea in 1949 and gained independence from Australia in 1975.

In 1914, Australia joined Britain in fighting World War I, with support from both the outgoing Commonwealth Liberal Party and the incoming Australian Labor Party. Australians took part in many of the major battles fought on the Western Front. Of about 416,000 who served, about 60,000 were killed and another 152,000 were wounded. Many Australians regard the defeat of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZACs) at Gallipoli as the birth of the nation — its first major military action. The Kokoda Track campaign is regarded by many as an analogous nation-defining event during World War II.

Britain's Statute of Westminster 1931 formally ended most of the constitutional links between Australia and the United Kingdom. Australia adopted it in 1942, but it was backdated to 1939 to confirm the validity of legislation passed by the Australian Parliament during World War II. The shock of Britain's defeat in Asia in 1942, followed soon after by the bombing of Darwin and other Japanese attacks, led to a widespread belief in Australia that an invasion was imminent, and a shift towards the United States as a new ally and protector. Since 1951, Australia has been a formal military ally of the United States, under the ANZUS treaty.

After World War II, Australia encouraged immigration from mainland Europe. Since the 1970s and following the abolition of the White Australia policy, immigration from Asia and elsewhere was also promoted. As a result, Australia's demography, culture, and self-image were transformed. The *Australia Act 1986* severed the remaining constitutional ties between Australia and the United Kingdom.

In a 1999 referendum, 55% of voters and a majority in every state rejected a proposal to become a republic with a president appointed by a two-thirds vote in both Houses of the Australian Parliament. There has been an increasing focus in foreign policy on ties with other Pacific Rim nations while maintaining close ties with Australia's traditional allies and trading partners.

LECTURE 13. COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. Australia, officially *the Commonwealth of _____* is a sovereign country comprising the mainland of the Australian continent, the island of Tasmania, and numerous smaller islands. It is the largest country by area in Oceania and the world's sixth-largest country.

2. Australia's population of nearly _____million, in an area of 7,617,930 square kilometres is highly urbanised and heavily concentrated on the eastern seaboard. _____ is the nation's capital, while the largest city is Sydney.

3. The name Australia in Australian English is derived from the Latin Terra Australis ("_____ land"), a name used for a hypothetical continent in the Southern Hemisphere since ancient times. Until the early 19th century, Australia was best known as "_____ Holland", a name first applied by the Dutch explorer Abel Tasman in 1644.

4. Australia is a highly developed country, with the world's twelfth-largest _____. Immigrants account for _____% of the country's population, the highest proportion among.

5. Australia is a continent and an island located in Oceania between the Indian _____ and the South Pacific _____.

6. Off the eastern coast of Australia is the world's largest coral reef complex, the _____ Barrier Reef.

7. The large and mountainous _____ of Tasmania is also a State of Australia.

8. Australian forests are mostly made up of evergreen species, particularly _____ trees in the less arid regions. Among well-known Australian animals are the monotremes (the platypus and echidna); a host of marsupials, including the kangaroo, koala, and wombat, and birds such as the _____ and the kookaburra.

9. The Australian continental landmass consists of six distinct landform divisions. These are:

- The _____ Highlands—including the Great Dividing Range, the fertile Brigalow Belt strip of grassland behind the east coast, and the Eastern Uplands

- The _____ alluvial Plains and Lowlands—the Murray Darling basin covers the southern part; also includes parts of the Lake Eyre Basin and extends to the Gulf of Carpentaria

- The _____ Australian Highlands—including the Flinders Range, Eyre Peninsula, and Yorke Peninsula

- The _____ Plateau—including the Nullarbor Plain

- The Central Deserts

- Northern Plateau and Basins—including the Top End

10. A total of _____% of Australia's mainland consists of named deserts, while additional areas are considered to have a _____ climate based on low rainfall and high temperature. Only the south-east and south-west corners have a _____ climate and moderately fertile soil. The northern part of the continent has a tropical climate: parts tropical rainforests, part grasslands, and part desert.. Rainfall is highly variable, with frequent droughts.

11. Cyclones along the northern coasts, severe thunderstorms, droughts, floods, heat waves, and frequent bushfires are natural hazards that are present in Australia.

12. Australia consists of six states, _____ major mainland territories, and other minor territories. The states are New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, _____, Victoria, and Western Australia. The two major mainland territories are the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory. Western Australia is the largest state covering just under one third of the Australian landmass, followed by Queensland, South Australia, and New South Wales.

13. In 1770, _____ Cook sailed along and mapped the east coast, which he named New South Wales and claimed for Great Britain.

14. With the loss of its American colonies in 1783, the British Government sent a fleet of ships, the "First _____", under the command of Captain Arthur Phillip, to establish a new penal colony in New South Wales. A camp was set up and the Union flag raised at Sydney Cove, Port Jackson, on 26 January 1788, a date which later became Australia's national day, _____ Day.

15. The indigenous population declined for 150 years following settlement, mainly due to infectious disease. Thousands more died as a result of frontier conflict with settlers. A government policy of "assimilation" beginning with the *Aboriginal Protection Act 1869* resulted in the removal of many Aboriginal children from their families and communities—referred to as the _____ Generations — a practice which also contributed to the decline in the indigenous population

16. The expansion of British control over other areas of the continent began in the early _____th century, initially confined to coastal regions. Between 1855 and 1890, the _____ colonies individually gained responsible government, managing most of their own affairs while remaining part of the British Empire. The Colonial Office in London retained control of some matters, notably foreign affairs and defence.

17. On 1 January 1901, federation of the colonies was achieved after a decade of planning, consultation and voting. After the 1907 Imperial Conference, Australia and the other self-governing British colonies were given the status of " _____ " within the British Empire.

18. Britain's Statute of Westminster 1931 formally ended most of the constitutional links between Australia and the _____ Kingdom. Australia adopted it in 1942, but it was backdated to 1939 to confirm the validity of legislation passed by the Australian Parliament during World War II.

19. After World War II, Australia encouraged immigration from mainland Europe. Since the 1970s and following the abolition of the White Australia policy, immigration from Asia and elsewhere was also promoted.

LECTURE 14

AUSTRALIA. GOVERNMENT, POLITICS AND CULTURE OF AUSTRALIA

- States and territories of Australia
- Economy of Australia
- Demography of Australia
- Languages of Australia
- Education
- Culture of Australia
- Arts

Government and Politics



**Elizabeth II, Queen of
Australia**



**David Hurley, Governor-
General of Australia**



**Scott Morrison, Prime
Minister of Australia**

Australia is a federal parliamentary constitutional monarchy. The country has maintained a stable liberal democratic political system under its constitution, which is one of the world's oldest, since Federation in 1901. It is also one of the world's oldest federations, in which power is divided between the federal and state and territorial governments. The Australian system of government combines elements derived from the political systems of the United Kingdom (a fused executive, constitutional monarchy and strong party discipline) and the United States (federalism, a written constitution and strong bicameralism with an elected upper house), along with distinctive indigenous features.

The federal government is separated into three branches:

- **Legislature:** the bicameral Parliament, comprising the monarch (represented by the governor-general), the Senate, and the House of Representatives;
- **Executive:** the Federal Executive Council, which in practice gives legal effect to the decisions of the cabinet, comprising the prime minister and other ministers of state appointed by the governor-general on the advice of Parliament;
- **Judiciary:** the High Court of Australia and other federal courts, whose judges are appointed by the governor-general on advice of Parliament

Elizabeth II reigns as Queen of Australia and is represented in Australia by the governor-general at the federal level and by the governors at the state level, who by convention act on the advice of her ministers. Thus, in practice the governor-general acts as a legal figurehead for the actions of the prime minister and the Federal

Executive Council. The governor-general does have extraordinary reserve powers which may be exercised outside the prime minister's request in rare and limited circumstances, the most notable exercise of which was the dismissal of the Whitlam Government in the constitutional crisis of 1975.



Parliament House, Canberra

In the Senate (the upper house), there are 76 senators: twelve each from the states and two each from the mainland territories (the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory). The House of Representatives (the lower house) has 151 members elected from single-member electoral divisions, commonly known as "electorates" or "seats", allocated to states on the basis of population, with each original state guaranteed a minimum of five seats. Elections for both chambers are normally held every three years simultaneously; senators have overlapping six-year terms except for those from the territories, whose terms are not fixed but are tied to the electoral cycle for the lower house; thus only 40 of the 76 places in the Senate are put to each election unless the cycle is interrupted by a double dissolution.

Australia's electoral system uses preferential voting for all lower house elections with the exception of Tasmania and the ACT which, along with the Senate and most state upper houses, combine it with proportional representation in a system known as the single transferable vote. Voting is compulsory for all enrolled citizens 18 years and over in every jurisdiction, as is enrolment. The party with majority support in the House of Representatives forms the government and its leader becomes Prime Minister. In cases where no party has majority support, the Governor-General has the constitutional power to appoint the Prime Minister and, if necessary, dismiss one that has lost the confidence of Parliament. Due to the relatively unique position of Australia operating as a Westminster Parliamentary democracy with an elected upper house, the system has sometimes been referred to as having a "Washminster mutation", or as a Semi-parliamentary system.

There are two major political groups that usually form government, federally and in the states: the Australian Labor Party and the Coalition which is a formal grouping of the Liberal Party and its minor partner, the National Party. The Liberal National Party and the Country Liberal Party are merged state branches in Queensland and the Northern Territory that function as separate parties at a federal level. Within Australian political culture, the Coalition is considered centre-right and the Labor Party is considered centre-left. Independent members and several minor parties have achieved representation in Australian parliaments, mostly in upper houses. The Australian Greens are often considered the "third force" in politics, being the third largest party by both vote and membership.

The most recent federal election was held on 18 May 2019 and resulted in the Coalition, led by Prime Minister Scott Morrison, retaining government.

States and territories of Australia



A clickable map of Australia's states, mainland territories and their capitals

Australia consists of six states, two major mainland territories, and other minor territories. The states are New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, and Western Australia. The two major mainland territories are the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory. Western Australia is the largest state covering just under one third of the Australian landmass, followed by Queensland, South Australia, and New South Wales.

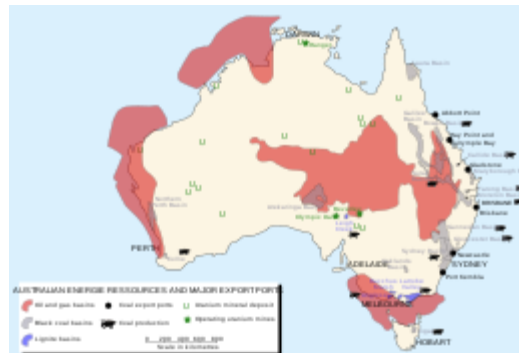
Australia also has several minor territories; the federal government administers a separate area within New South Wales, the Jervis Bay Territory, as a naval base and sea port for the national capital. In addition Australia has the following inhabited, external territories: Norfolk Island, Christmas Island, Cocos (Keeling) Islands, and several largely uninhabited external territories: Ashmore and Cartier Islands, Coral Sea Islands, and Heard Island and McDonald Islands. Australia also claims a portion of Antarctica as the Australian Antarctic Territory, although this claim is not widely recognized

Economy of Australia

A wealthy country, Australia has a market economy, a high GDP per capita, and a relatively low rate of poverty. In terms of average wealth, Australia ranked second in the world after Switzerland from 2013 until 2018. In 2018, Australia overtook Switzerland and became the country with the highest average wealth. Australia's relative poverty rate is 13.6%. It was identified by the Credit Suisse Research Institute as the nation with the highest median wealth in the world and the second-highest average wealth per adult in 2013.

The Australian dollar is the currency for the nation, including Christmas Island,

Cocos (Keeling) Islands, and Norfolk Island, as well as the independent Pacific Island states of Kiribati, Nauru, and Tuvalu. With the 2006 merger of the Australian Stock Exchange and the Sydney Futures Exchange, the Australian Securities Exchange became the ninth largest in the world.



Australian energy resources and major export ports map

Ranked fifth in the Index of Economic Freedom (2017), Australia is the world's 13th largest economy and has the tenth highest per capita GDP (nominal) at US\$55,692. The country was ranked third in the United Nations 2017 Human Development Index. Melbourne reached top spot for the fourth year in a row on *The Economist's* 2014 list of the world's most liveable cities, followed by Adelaide, Sydney, and Perth in the fifth, seventh, and ninth places respectively. Total government debt in Australia is about A\$190 billion—20% of GDP in 2010. Australia has among the highest house prices and some of the highest household debt levels in the world.

An emphasis on exporting commodities rather than manufactured goods has underpinned a significant increase in Australia's terms of trade since the start of the 21st century, due to rising commodity prices. Australia has a balance of payments that is more than 7% of GDP negative, and has had persistently large current account deficits for more than 50 years. Australia has grown at an average annual rate of 3.6% for over 15 years, in comparison to the OECD annual average of 2.5%.

Australia was the only advanced economy not to experience a recession due to the global financial downturn in 2008–2009. However, the economies of six of Australia's major trading partners were in recession, which in turn affected Australia, significantly hampering its economic growth. From 2012 to early 2013, Australia's national economy grew, but some non-mining states and Australia's non-mining economy experienced a recession.



The Boddington Gold Mine in Western Australia is the nation's largest open cut mine.

The Howard Government followed with a partial deregulation of the labour

market and the further privatisation of state-owned businesses, most notably in the telecommunications industry. The indirect tax system was substantially changed in July 2000 with the introduction of a 10% Goods and Services Tax (GST). In Australia's tax system, personal and company income tax are the main sources of government revenue.

As of June 2021, there were 13,154,200 people employed (either full-time or part-time), with an unemployment rate of 4.9%. Data released in mid-November 2013 showed that the number of welfare recipients had grown by 55%. In 2007 228,621 Newstart unemployment allowance recipients were registered, a total that increased to 646,414 in March 2013. According to the Graduate Careers Survey, full-time employment for newly qualified professionals from various occupations has declined since 2011 but it increases for graduates three years after graduation.

As of 2020 interest rates in Australia were set at a record low of 0.1%, targeting an inflation rate of 2 to 3%. The service sector of the economy, including tourism, education, and financial services, accounts for about 70% of GDP. Rich in natural resources, Australia is a major exporter of agricultural products, particularly wheat and wool, minerals such as iron-ore and gold, and energy in the forms of liquified natural gas and coal. Although agriculture and natural resources account for only 3% and 5% of GDP respectively, they contribute substantially to export performance. Australia's largest export markets are Japan, China, the United States, South Korea, and New Zealand. Australia is the world's fourth largest exporter of wine, and the wine industry contributes A\$5.5 billion per year to the nation's economy.

Access to biocapacity in Australia is much higher than world average. In 2016, Australia had 12.3 global hectares of biocapacity per person within its territory, much more than the world average of 1.6 global hectares per person. In 2016 Australia used 6.6 global hectares of biocapacity per person – their ecological footprint of consumption. This means they use half as much biocapacity as Australia contains. As a result, Australia is running a biocapacity reserve.

In 2020 the Australian Council of Social Service released a report stating that relative poverty was growing in Australia, with an estimated 3.2 million people, or 13.6% of the population, living below an internationally accepted relative poverty threshold of 50% of a country's median income. It also estimated that there were 774,000 (17.7%) children under the age of 15 in relative poverty.

Demography of Australia



Australia has one of the world's most highly urbanised populations with the majority living in metropolitan cities on the coast, such as Gold Coast, Queensland.

Australia has an average population density of 3.4 persons per square kilometre of total land area, which makes it one of the most sparsely populated countries in the

world. The population is heavily concentrated on the east coast, and in particular in the south-eastern region between South East Queensland to the north-east and Adelaide to the south-west.

Australia is highly urbanised, with 67% of the population living in the Greater Capital City Statistical Areas (metropolitan areas of the state and mainland territorial capital cities) in 2018. Metropolitan areas with more than one million inhabitants are Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth and Adelaide.

In common with many other developed countries, Australia is experiencing a demographic shift towards an older population, with more retirees and fewer people of working age. In 2018 the average age of the Australian population was 38.8 years. In 2015, 2.15% of the Australian population lived overseas, one of the lowest proportions worldwide.

Ancestry and immigration

Between 1788 and the Second World War, the vast majority of settlers and immigrants came from the British Isles (principally England, Ireland and Scotland), although there was significant immigration from China and Germany during the 19th century. In the decades immediately following the Second World War, Australia received a large wave of immigration from across Europe, with many more immigrants arriving from Southern and Eastern Europe than in previous decades. Since the end of the White Australia policy in 1973, Australia has pursued an official policy of multiculturalism, and there has been a large and continuing wave of immigration from across the world, with Asia being the largest source of immigrants in the 21st century.

Today, Australia has the world's eighth-largest immigrant population, with immigrants accounting for 30% of the population, the highest proportion among major Western nations. 160,323 permanent immigrants were admitted to Australia in 2018–2019 (excluding refugees), whilst there was a net population gain of 239,600 people from all permanent and temporary immigration in that year. The majority of immigrants are skilled, but the immigration program includes categories for family members and refugees. In 2020, the largest foreign-born populations were those born in England (3.8%), India (2.8%), Mainland China (2.5%), New Zealand (2.2%), the Philippines (1.2%) and Vietnam (1.1%).

In the 2016 Australian census, the most commonly nominated ancestries were:^[N 9]

- English (36.1%)
- Australian (33.5%)^[N 10]
- Irish (11.0%)
- Scottish (9.3%)
- Chinese (5.6%)
- Italian (4.6%)
- German (4.5%)
- Indian (2.8%)
- Indigenous (2.8%)^[N 11]
- Greek (1.8%)

- Dutch (1.6%)
- Filipino (1.4%)
- Vietnamese (1.4%)
- Lebanese (1%)

At the 2016 census, 649,171 people (2.8% of the total population) identified as being Indigenous — Aboriginal Australians and Torres Strait Islanders.^[N 12] Indigenous Australians experience higher than average rates of imprisonment and unemployment, lower levels of education, and life expectancies for males and females that are, respectively, 11 and 17 years lower than those of non-indigenous Australians. Some remote Indigenous communities have been described as having "failed state"-like conditions.

Languages of Australia

Although Australia has no official language, English is the *de facto* national language. Australian English is a major variety of the language with a distinctive accent and lexicon, and differs slightly from other varieties of English in grammar and spelling. General Australian serves as the standard dialect.

According to the 2016 census, English is the only language spoken in the home for 72.7% of the population. The next most common languages spoken at home are Mandarin (2.5%), Arabic (1.4%), Cantonese (1.2%), Vietnamese (1.2%) and Italian (1.2%). Over 250 Indigenous Australian languages are thought to have existed at the time of first European contact, of which fewer than twenty are still in daily use by all age groups. About 110 others are spoken exclusively by older people. At the time of the 2006 census, 52,000 Indigenous Australians, representing 12% of the Indigenous population, reported that they spoke an Indigenous language at home. Australia has a sign language known as Auslan, which is the main language of about 10,112 deaf people who reported that they spoke Auslan language at home in the 2016 census.^[3]

Education



Five Australian universities rank in the top 50 of the *QS World University Rankings*, including the Australian National University (19th).

School attendance, or registration for home schooling, is compulsory throughout Australia. Education is the responsibility of the individual states and territories so the rules vary between states, but in general children are required to attend school from the age of about 5 until about 16. In some states (e.g., Western Australia, the Northern Territory and New South Wales), children aged 16–17 are required to either attend school or participate in vocational training, such as an apprenticeship.

Australia has an adult literacy rate that was estimated to be 99% in 2003. However, a 2011–2012 report for the Australian Bureau of Statistics reported that Tasmania has a literacy and numeracy rate of only 50%.

Australia has 37 government-funded universities and three private universities, as well as a number of other specialist institutions that provide approved courses at the higher education level. The OECD places Australia among the most expensive nations to attend university. There is a state-based system of vocational training, known as TAFE, and many trades conduct apprenticeships for training new tradespeople. About 58% of Australians aged from 25 to 64 have vocational or tertiary qualifications, and the tertiary graduation rate of 49% is the highest among OECD countries. 30.9% of Australia's population has attained a higher education qualification, which is among the highest percentages in the world.

Australia has the highest ratio of international students per head of population in the world by a large margin, with 812,000 international students enrolled in the nation's universities and vocational institutions in 2019. Accordingly, in 2019, international students represented on average 26.7% of the student bodies of Australian universities. International education therefore represents one of the country's largest exports and has a pronounced influence on the country's demographics, with a significant proportion of international students remaining in Australia after graduation on various skill and employment visas

Culture of Australia



The Royal Exhibition Building in Melbourne was the first building in Australia to be listed as a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 2004.

Since 1788, the primary influence behind Australian culture has been Anglo-Celtic Western culture, with some Indigenous influences. The divergence and evolution that has occurred in the ensuing centuries has resulted in a distinctive Australian culture. The culture of the United States has served as a significant influence, particularly through television and cinema. Other cultural influences come from neighbouring Asian countries, and through large-scale immigration from non-English-speaking nations.

Arts

Australia has over 100,000 Aboriginal rock art sites, and traditional designs, patterns and stories infuse contemporary Indigenous Australian art, "the last great art movement of the 20th century" according to critic Robert Hughes; its exponents include Emily Kame Kngwarreye. Early colonial artists showed a fascination with the unfamiliar land. The impressionistic works of Arthur Streeton, Tom Roberts and

other members of the 19th-century Heidelberg School—the first "distinctively Australian" movement in Western art—gave expression to nationalist sentiments in the lead-up to Federation. While the school remained influential into the 1900s, modernists such as Margaret Preston, and, later, Sidney Nolan and Arthur Boyd, explored new artistic trends. The landscape remained a central subject matter for Fred Williams, Brett Whiteley and other post-war artists whose works, eclectic in style yet uniquely Australian, moved between the figurative and the abstract. The national and state galleries maintain collections of local and international art. Australia has one of the world's highest attendances of art galleries and museums per head of population.



Sidney Nolan's *Snake* mural (1970), held at the Museum of Old and New Art in Hobart, Tasmania, is inspired by the Aboriginal creation myth of the Rainbow Serpent, as well as desert flowers in bloom after a drought.

Australian literature grew slowly in the decades following European settlement though Indigenous oral traditions, many of which have since been recorded in writing, are much older. In the 1870s, Adam Lindsay Gordon posthumously became the first Australian poet to attain a wide readership. Following in his footsteps, Henry Lawson and Banjo Paterson captured the experience of the bush using a distinctive Australian vocabulary. Their works are still popular; Paterson's bush poem "Waltzing Matilda" (1895) is regarded as Australia's unofficial national anthem. Miles Franklin is the namesake of Australia's most prestigious literary prize, awarded annually to the best novel about Australian life. Its first recipient, Patrick White, went on to win the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1973. Australian Booker Prize winners include Peter Carey, Thomas Keneally and Richard Flanagan. Authors David Malouf, Germaine Greer, Helen Garner, playwright David Williamson and poet Les Murray are also renowned.

Many of Australia's performing arts companies receive funding through the federal government's Australia Council. There is a symphony orchestra in each state, and a national opera company, Opera Australia, well known for its famous soprano Joan Sutherland. At the beginning of the 20th century, Nellie Melba was one of the world's leading opera singers. Ballet and dance are represented by The Australian Ballet and various state companies. Each state has a publicly funded theatre company.

Sport in Australia



The Melbourne Cricket Ground is strongly associated with the history and

development of cricket and Australian rules football, Australia's two most popular spectator sports.

Cricket and football are the predominate sports in Australia during the summer and winter months, respectively. Australia is unique in that it has professional leagues for four football codes. Originating in Melbourne in the 1850s, Australian rules football is the most popular code in all states except New South Wales and Queensland, where rugby league holds sway, followed by rugby union; the imaginary border separating areas where Australian rules football dominates from those where the two rugby codes prevail is known as the Barassi Line. Soccer, while ranked fourth in popularity and resources, has the highest overall participation rates. Cricket is popular across all borders and has been regarded by many Australians as the national sport. The Australian national cricket team competed against England in the first Test match (1877) and the first One Day International (1971), and against New Zealand in the first Twenty20 International (2004), winning all three games. It has also participated in every edition of the Cricket World Cup, winning the tournament a record five times.

Cricket and football are the predominate sports in Australia during the summer and winter months, respectively.. In 2016, the Australian Sports Commission revealed that swimming, cycling and soccer are the three most popular participation sports.

Cuisine

Main article: Australian cuisine



The meringue-based pavlova is generally eaten at Christmas time.

Most Indigenous Australian groups subsisted on a simple hunter-gatherer diet of native fauna and flora, otherwise called bush tucker. The first settlers introduced British food to the continent, much of which is now considered typical Australian food, such as the Sunday roast. Multicultural immigration transformed Australian cuisine; post-World War II European migrants, particularly from the Mediterranean, helped to build a thriving Australian coffee culture, and the influence of Asian cultures has led to Australian variants of their staple foods, such as the Chinese-inspired dim sim and Chiko Roll. Vegemite, pavlova, lamingtons and meat pies are regarded as iconic Australian foods.

Australian wine is produced mainly in the southern, cooler parts of the country. Australia is also known for its cafe and coffee culture in urban centres, which has influenced coffee culture abroad, including New York City. Australia was responsible for the flat white coffee—purported to have originated in a Sydney cafe in the mid-

1980s.

LECTURE 14 COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. Australia is a federal parliamentary constitutional _____.
2. The country has maintained a stable _____ democratic political system under its constitution, which is one of the world's oldest, in which power is divided between the federal and state and territorial governments.
3. The Australian system of government combines elements derived from the political systems of the _____ Kingdom (a fused executive, constitutional monarchy and strong party discipline) and the _____ States (federalism, a written constitution and strong bicameralism with an elected upper house), along with distinctive indigenous features.
4. The federal government is separated into _____ branches:
 - _____: the bicameral Parliament, comprising the monarch (represented by the governor-general), the Senate, and the House of Representatives;
 - _____: the Federal Executive Council, which in practice gives legal effect to the decisions of the cabinet, comprising the prime minister and other ministers of state appointed by the governor-general on the advice of Parliament;
 - _____: the High Court of Australia and other federal courts, whose judges are appointed by the governor-general on advice of Parliament.
5. Elizabeth II reigns as Queen of Australia and is represented in Australia by the _____-general at the federal level and by the governors at the state level, who by convention act on the advice of her ministers.
6. In the Senate (the upper house), there are _____ senators: twelve each from the states and two each from the mainland territories.
7. The House of Representatives (the lower house) has _____ members elected from single-member electoral divisions.
8. The party with majority support in the House of Representatives forms the government and its leader becomes _____ Minister.
9. There are two major political groups that usually form government, federally and in the states: the Australian Labor _____ and the Coalition which is a formal grouping of the Liberal Party and its minor partner, the National Party.
10. A wealthy country, Australia has a _____ economy, a high GDP per capita, and a relatively low rate of poverty. In terms of average wealth, Australia ranked second in the world after Switzerland from 2013 until 2018.
11. An emphasis on exporting commodities rather than manufactured goods has underpinned a significant increase in Australia's trade since the start of the 21st century, due to rising commodity prices.
12. As of June 2021, there were 13,154,200 people employed (either full-time or part-time), with an _____ rate of 4.9%
13. Australia has an average population density of 3.4 persons per square kilometre of total land area, which makes it one of the most sparsely populated countries in the world. The population is heavily concentrated on the east coast, and in particular in the south-eastern region between South East Queensland to the north-

east and Adelaide to the south-west Australia is _____ urbanised, with 67% of the population living in the Greater Capital _____.

14. Between 1788 and the Second World War, the vast majority of settlers and immigrants came from the _____ Isles (principally England, Ireland and Scotland), although there was significant immigration from China and Germany during the 19th century. Today, Australia has the world's eighth-largest immigrant population, with immigrants accounting for _____% of the population, 160,323 permanent immigrants were admitted to Australia in 2018–2019

15. Although Australia has no official language, English is the *de facto* _____ language. Australian English is a major variety of the language with a distinctive accent and lexicon, and differs slightly from other varieties of English in grammar and spelling. General Australian serves as the _____ dialect.

16. According to the 2016 census, English is the only language spoken in the home for 72.7% of the population. The _____ most common languages spoken at home are _____ (2.5%), Arabic (1.4%), Cantonese (1.2%), Vietnamese (1.2%) and Italian (1.2%).

17. Since 1788, the primary influence behind Australian culture has been _____ Western culture, with some Indigenous influences.

18. Australia has one of the world's highest attendances of _____ galleries and museums per head of population.

19. Paterson's bush poem "Waltzing Matilda" (1895) is regarded as Australia's unofficial _____ anthem.

20. _____ and football are the predominate sports in Australia during the summer and winter months, respectively.

LECTURE 15

NEW ZEALAND

- Geographical location
- History
- Government system
- Demographic and economic situation
- Languages
- National symbols
- Traditions and holidays

New Zealand [Māori Aotearoa] is an island country in the South Pacific Ocean, the southwesternmost part of Polynesia. New Zealand is a remote land - one of the last sizable territories suitable for habitation to be populated and settled - and lies more than 1,000 miles (1,600 km) southeast of Australia, its nearest neighbour. The country comprises two main islands - the North and the South Island - and a number of small islands, some of them hundreds of miles from the main group. The capital city is Wellington and the largest urban area Auckland; both are located on the North Island. New Zealand administers the South Pacific island group of Tokelau and claims a section of the Antarctic continent. Niue and the Cook Islands are self-governing states in free association with New Zealand.

New Zealand is a land of great contrasts and diversity. Active volcanoes, spectacular caves, deep glacier lakes, verdant valleys, dazzling fjords, long sandy beaches, and the spectacular snowcapped peaks of the Southern Alps/Kā Tiritiri o te Moana on the South Island - all contribute to New Zealand's scenic beauty. New Zealand also has a unique array of vegetation and animal life, much of which developed during the country's prolonged isolation. It is the sole home, for example, of the long-beaked, flightless kiwi, the ubiquitous nickname for New Zealanders.

New Zealand is about 1,000 miles (1,600 km) long (north-south) and about 280 miles (450 km) across at its widest point. The country has slightly less surface area than the U.S. state of Colorado and a little more than the United Kingdom. About two-thirds of the land is economically useful, the remainder being mountainous. Because of its numerous harbours and fjords, the country has an extremely long coastline relative to its area.

New Zealand was the largest country in Polynesia when it was annexed by Great Britain in 1840. Thereafter it was successively a crown colony, a self-governing colony (1856), and a dominion (1907). By the 1920s it controlled almost all of its internal and external policies, although it did not become fully independent until 1947, when it adopted the Statute of Westminster. It is a member of the Commonwealth.

The ascent of Mount Everest by New Zealander Sir Edmund Hillary with Sherpa Tenzing Norgay in 1953 was one of the defining moments of the 20th century. "In some ways," Hillary suggested, "I believe I epitomise the average New Zealander: I have modest abilities, I combine these with a good deal of determination, and I rather like to succeed."

Despite New Zealand's isolation, the country has been fully engaged in

international affairs since the early 20th century, being an active member of a number of intergovernmental institutions, including the United Nations. It has also participated in several wars, including World Wars I and II. Economically the country was dependent on the export of agricultural products, especially to Great Britain. The entry of Britain into the European Community in the early 1970s, however, forced New Zealand to expand its trade relations with other countries. It also began to develop a much more extensive and varied industrial sector. Tourism has played an increasingly important role in the economy, though this sector has been vulnerable to global financial instability. The social and cultural gap between New Zealand's two main groups - the indigenous Māori of Polynesian heritage and the colonizers and later immigrants from the British Isles and their descendants - has decreased since the 1970s, though educational and economic differences between the two groups remain. Immigration from other areas - Asia, Africa, and eastern Europe - has also made a mark, and New Zealand culture today reflects these many influences. Minority rights and race-related issues continue to play an important role in New Zealand politics.

The **history** of New Zealand dates back to between 1320 and 1350 CE, when the main settlement period started, after it was discovered and settled by Polynesians, who developed a distinct Māori culture. Like other Pacific cultures, Māori society was centred on kinship links and connection with the land but, unlike them, it was adapted to a cool, temperate environment rather than a warm, tropical one.

The first European explorer known to sight New Zealand was Dutch navigator Abel Tasman on 13 December 1642. In 1643 he charted the west coast of the North Island, his expedition then sailed back to Batavia without setting foot on New Zealand soil. British explorer James Cook, who reached New Zealand in October 1769 on the first of his three voyages, was the first European to circumnavigate and map New Zealand. From the late 18th century, the country was regularly visited by explorers and other sailors, missionaries, traders and adventurers.

In 1840 the Treaty of Waitangi was signed between representatives of the United Kingdom and various Māori chiefs, bringing New Zealand into the British Empire and giving Māori the same rights as British subjects. Disputes over the differing translations of the Treaty and settler desire to acquire land from Māori led to the New Zealand Wars from 1843. There was extensive British settlement throughout the rest of the 19th century and into the early part of the next century. The effects of European infectious diseases, the New Zealand Wars and the imposition of a European economic and legal system led to most of New Zealand's land passing from Māori to Pākehā (European) ownership, and Māori became impoverished.

The colony gained responsible government in the 1850s. From the 1890s the New Zealand Parliament enacted a number of progressive initiatives, including women's suffrage and old age pensions. After becoming a self-governing Dominion with the British Empire in 1907, the country remained an enthusiastic member of the empire, and over 100,000 New Zealanders fought in World War I as part of the New Zealand Expeditionary Force. After the war, New Zealand signed the Treaty of Versailles (1919), joined the League of Nations, and pursued an independent foreign policy, while its defence was still controlled by Britain. When World War II broke out in 1939, New Zealand contributed to the defence of Britain and the Pacific War; the country contributed some 120,000 troops. From the 1930s the economy was highly

regulated and an extensive welfare state was developed. From the 1950s Māori began moving to the cities in large numbers, and Māori culture underwent a renaissance. This led to the development of a Māori protest movement which in turn led to greater recognition of the Treaty of Waitangi in the late 20th century.

The country's economy suffered in the aftermath of the 1973 global energy crisis, the loss of New Zealand's biggest export market upon Britain's entry to the European Economic Community, and rampant inflation. In 1984, the Fourth Labour Government was elected amid a constitutional and economic crisis. The interventionist policies of the Third National Government were replaced by "Rogernomics", a commitment to a free market economy. Foreign policy after 1984 became more independent especially in pushing for a nuclear-free zone. Subsequent governments have generally maintained these policies, although tempering the free market ethos somewhat.

New Zealand has a parliamentary form of **government** based on the British model. Legislative power is vested in the single-chamber House of Representatives (Parliament), the members of which are elected for three-year terms. The political party or coalition of parties that commands a majority in the House forms the government. Generally, the leader of the governing party becomes the prime minister, who, with ministers responsible for different aspects of government, forms a cabinet. The cabinet is the central organ of executive power. Most legislation is initiated in the House on the basis of decisions made by the cabinet; Parliament must then pass it by a majority vote before it can become law. The cabinet, however, has extensive regulatory powers that are subject to only limited parliamentary review. Because cabinet ministers sit in the House and because party discipline is customarily strong, legislative and executive authorities are effectively fused.

The British monarch is the formal head of state and is represented by a governor-general appointed by the monarch (on the recommendation of the New Zealand government) to a five-year term. The governor-general has limited authority, with the office retaining some residual powers to protect the constitution and to act in a situation of constitutional crisis. For example, the governor-general can dissolve Parliament under certain circumstances.

The structure of the New Zealand government is relatively simple, but the country's constitutional provisions are more complex. Like that of Great Britain, New Zealand's constitution is a mixture of statute and convention. Where the two clash, convention has tended to prevail. The Constitution Act of 1986 simplified that by consolidating and augmenting constitutional legislation dating from 1852.

The business of government is carried out by some 30 departments of varying size and importance. Most departments correspond to a ministerial portfolio, department heads being responsible to their respective ministers for the administration of their departments. Recruiting and promoting of civil servants is under the control of the State Services Commission, which is independent of partisan politics. Heads of departments and their officials do not change with a change of government, thus ensuring a continuity of administration.

As a check on possible administrative injustices, an office of parliamentary commissioner for investigations (ombudsman) was established in 1962; the scope of the office's jurisdiction was enlarged in 1968 and again in 1975. In addition, the

Official Information Act of 1982 permits public access, with specific exceptions, to government documents.

There are also a certain number of non-civil-service appointees within the government. They fill positions in government corporations—commercial ventures in which the government is the sole or major stockholder, such as NZ On Air (the government’s broadcast funding agency) and Kiwibank (which provides commercial banking and financial services)—and in a host of bodies with administrative or advisory functions. Political affiliations, as well as expertise and experience, often figure in appointment decisions for those institutions.

Local government

Local government bodies consist of elected councils at the regional and city levels together with specialist and community boards. Those entities have limited powers conferred by statute. The responsibilities of the city councils include the provision of community services and local infrastructure and the management of resources and the local environment. Regional councils carry out larger environmental and infrastructure functions requiring coordination (such as water quality, flood control, civil defense, and transportation planning). Community boards serve as a liaison between the people of the community and local authorities. They are made up of elected members; it is also common, though not obligatory, for a smaller number of additional members to be appointed. Elections for local government bodies are contested every three years.

Over time, many councils and boards have been consolidated by the central government into larger authorities. A major amalgamation brought together several cities and their councils in the Auckland region in 2010. City and regional councils are empowered within their jurisdictions to levy taxes on business and property owners, debate and approve plans, and manage a large range of facilities and services. In the case of Auckland, new entities controlled by the city council have been created to manage major infrastructure development and facilities.

Economy

New Zealand’s **economy** is developed, but it is comparatively small in the global marketplace. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, New Zealand’s standard of living, based on the export of agricultural products, was one of the highest in the world, but after the mid-20th century the rate of growth tended to be one of the slowest among the developed countries. Impediments to economic expansion have been the slow growth of the economy of the United Kingdom (which formerly was the main destination of New Zealand’s exports) and its eventual membership in the European Community (later the European Union) and the high tariffs imposed by the major industrial nations against the country’s agricultural products (e.g., butter and meat). New Zealand’s economic history since the mid-20th century has consisted largely of attempts to grow and diversify its economy by finding new markets and new products (such as wine and paper products), expanding its manufacturing base, and entering into or supporting free-trade agreements.

New Zealand has had a long history of government intervention in the economy, ranging from state institutions’ competing in banking and insurance to an extensive social security system. Until the early 1980s most administrations strengthened and supported such policies, but since then government policy has generally shifted away from intervention, although retaining the basic elements of social security. Most of

the subsidies and tax incentives to agricultural and manufacturing exporters have been abolished, and such government enterprises as the Post Office have become more commercially oriented and less dependent on government subsidies. In addition, administrations have attempted to increase the flexibility of the labour market by amending labour laws and encouraging immigration.

New Zealand's farming base required a relatively complex economy. Highly productive pastoral farming, embracing extensive sheep grazing and large-scale milk production, was made possible by a temperate climate, heavy investment in land improvement (including the introduction of European grasses and regular application of imported fertilizers), and highly skilled farm management by owner-occupiers, who used one of the highest ratios of capital to labour in farming anywhere in the world. The farms supported and required many specialized services: finance, trade, transport, building and construction, and especially the processing of butter, cheese, and frozen lamb carcasses and their by-products. That economy could be described as an offshore European farm, which exported wool and processed dairy products and imported a variety of finished manufactured consumer and capital goods, raw materials, and petroleum. Pastoral farming, especially dairying, has remained significant, but other sectors such as forestry (and the production of paper and other wood products), horticulture, fishing, deer farming, and manufacturing have produced a more-balanced economy. Viticulture has also flourished, and many New Zealand wines have come to rank among the world's best. Apart from gold mining's brief heyday in the mid- to late 19th century, biological resources have always been more significant than minerals. Domesticated animals introduced from Europe thrived in New Zealand. Forestry has always been important, but the emphasis has swung from felling the original forest for timber to afforestation with pine and fir trees for both timber and pulp. Although New Zealand's forestry industry is small on the world scale, it is a significant supplier of wood products to the Asia-Pacific region.

Even in the 19th century New Zealand's relative geographic isolation made necessary a proportionately large industrial labour force engaged in the manufacture and repair of agricultural machinery and in shipbuilding, brewing, and timber processing. After the 1880s the factory processing of farm products swelled those numbers, while the country's temporary isolation during World Wars I and II stimulated the production of a wide range of manufactured goods that previously had been imported. Protectionist policies first espoused, although weakly, by governments in the late 19th century were strengthened after World War I. From the end of World War II until the early 1970s, manufacturing industries were protected by import-licensing fees in order to maintain full employment. Some labour-intensive, heavily protected, and uneconomic activities—such as automobile and consumer-electronics assembly (with the manufacture of some parts and components) - were developed but were not able to remain competitive. Some industries have taken their manufacturing activities offshore, although the sector has remained significant as an employer and as a contributor to gross domestic product.

Languages

New Zealand has three official **languages**: English, Māori and New Zealand Sign Language

English is the predominant language and a de facto official language of New Zealand. Almost the entire population speak it either as native speakers or

proficiently as a second language. The New Zealand English dialect is most similar to Australian English in pronunciation, with some key differences. The Māori language of the indigenous Māori people was made the first de jure official language in 1987. New Zealand Sign Language (NZSL) has been an official language since 2006. Many other languages are used by New Zealand's minority ethnic communities.

English is spoken by 95.4 percent of the population. It has long been the predominant language and the de facto official language. It is the primary language used in parliament, government, the courts, and the education system. Its official status has been presumed and is not codified in statute. In 2018, New Zealand First MP Clayton Mitchell introduced a bill to parliament to statutorily recognise English as an official language.

New Zealand English is mostly non-rhotic with the exception of the "southern burr" found principally in Southland and parts of Otago. It is similar to Australian English and many speakers from the Northern Hemisphere are unable to tell the two accents apart. In New Zealand English the short (as in kit) has become centralised, leading to the shibboleth fish and chips sounding like "fush and chups" to the Australian ear. The words rarely and really, reel and real, doll and dole, pull and pool, witch and which, and full and fill can sometimes be pronounced as homophones. New Zealand English exhibits the near-square merger, so hair, hare, hear and here are homophones. Some New Zealanders pronounce the past participles grown, thrown and mown using two syllables, whereas groan, throne and moan are pronounced as one syllable. New Zealanders often reply to a question or emphasise a point by adding a rising intonation at the end of the sentence. New Zealand English has also borrowed words and phrases from Māori, such as haka (war dance), kia ora (a greeting), mana (power or prestige), puku (stomach), taonga (treasure) and waka (canoe)

The *Māori* language of the indigenous Māori people has been an official language by statute since 1987, with rights and obligations to use it defined by the Maori Language Act 1987. It can, for example, be used in legal settings, such as in court, but proceedings are recorded in English only, unless private arrangements are made and agreed by the judge.

An Eastern Polynesian language, Māori is closely related to Tahitian and Cook Islands Māori. After the Second World War, Māori were discouraged from speaking their language in schools and workplaces and it existed as a community language only in a few remote areas. As a consequence of this, many Māori came to view te reo Māori as a language without purpose and chose not to teach their children. Since the 1970s, the language has undergone a process of revitalisation and is spoken by a larger number of people. Of the 185,955 people (4.0 percent of respondents) who claimed they could hold a conversation in Māori in the 2018 census, 86.2 percent identified as Māori, but, conversely, only 18.4 percent of Māori-identifying spoke te reo Māori. No adult Māori alive in New Zealand today does not also speak English

New Zealand Sign Language, the main language of the deaf community in New Zealand, has been an official language by statute since 2006, by virtue of the New Zealand Sign Language Act 2006. It is legal to use it and have access to it in legal proceedings and government services. In the 2018 census, 22,986 people (0.5%) reported the ability to use New Zealand Sign Language.

National symbols

National symbols of New Zealand are used to represent what is unique about the nation, reflecting different aspects of its cultural life and history. They are the Flag, Coat of Arms, “God Defend New Zealand” and “God Save the Queen” Anthems and national colours. National symbols of New Zealand have used red ochre, black and white/silver which are considered as national colours. The Māori flag, official since 1990, also uses these colours with attached symbolism.

The Kiwi bird is considered an unofficial national symbol of New Zealand and is found only here. It is a favorite symbol of New Zealand culture, depicted on coins, postage stamps, etc. Kiwi is also a humorous nickname of the New Zealanders themselves.

The Hangi is one of the few dishes that has been preserved in the New Zealand cuisine from the traditions of the Maori. Any food, usually meat with vegetables, fish, root vegetables, is prepared in a special oven underground. All the ingredients are wrapped in leaves (in our time, and in foil), then they are lowered to the bottom of the pit, covered with earth and make a fire. After three to four hours, the food is ready. The Hangi is usually considered a national New Zealand dish.

New Zealand observes many different festivals and celebrations throughout the year. These include arts, music and film festivals, as well as traditional celebrations like Easter and Christmas. Some of these special days are also public holidays.

In New Zealand, Christmas comes in the middle of Summer, so many people like to spend time at the beach or at their “baches”, holiday homes, for Christmas. The traditional Christmas colors red, green, and white take on a whole different meaning for kiwis, or the inhabitants of New Zealand; red symbolizes the bright red flowers of the Pōhutukawa tree, green symbolizes the lush tropical foliage that blooms in the Summer, and white symbolizes the pale sandy beaches on which Christmas is often celebrated.

Santa might swap his traditional red coat and boots for “jandals”, sunglasses, and don a swimsuit or sports apparel to help keep cool. He can often be seen surfing, jet-skiing, and sailing along the coasts. Children leave out carrots for his reindeer, along with a beer and some pineapple chunks for the man himself.

Cities across New Zealand have Christmas parades featuring floats decorated by local businesses and churches, marching bands, and Santa Claus. The largest and most famous parade is the Auckland Santa Parade, which has been attracting thousands every year since 1934. Impressive Christmas light shows and carol services can also be found throughout the nation during the Christmas season.

In addition to classics like Silent Night and White Christmas, New Zealand has some special carols of their own, such as Te Harinui, Christmas in New Zealand, A Pukeko in a Ponga Tree, Sticky Beak the Kiwi, and A Kiwiana Christmas. One carol, The Southern Cross Looks Down, is based on a constellation called the Southern Cross, which is the Kiwi version of the star that guided the magi to Bethlehem on their journey to visit the baby Jesus.

Like western nations, Kiwis have Christmas trees in their homes and decorate them with garland, ornaments, lights, and stars. An alternative to the traditional pine tree is their very own special Christmas tree; the Pōhutukawa, a large tree which blossoms bright red flowers in the summer. It only grows on the North Island, and

flowers from mid-December until the 2nd week of January. One might find the nation's national bird, the Kiwi, as a popular decoration on tree tops.

On Christmas Eve, the nation's Christians attend a midnight mass, when cathedrals and churches are packed. The next morning, the family gathers around the Christmas tree to open presents together. One popular present is a pair of "jandals", equivalent to flip-flops or sandals. The name comes from combining the words "Japanese Sandals".

After the gift-giving comes the Christmas lunch. The traditional Christmas meal in New Zealand is a barbecue, eaten at home, a park, or at the beach. The food cooked on the barbie is ham, turkey, venison, and seafood like shrimp and whitebait fritters, served alongside exotic salads and seasonal vegetables. Another popular meal is Hāngī, a traditional Māori roast dinner cooked in an underground pit.

Dessert is mostly served cold, like pavlova, a meringue covered in whipped cream and topped with strawberries and kiwifruit, cold fruit salad, and ice cream. More traditional Christmas foods, however, like plum pudding, Christmas cake, and Christmas Crackers can also help make for a memorable holiday in New Zealand.

Top 20 interesting facts about New Zealand

The world's first commercial bungee jump was a 43 metre leap off the Kawarau Bridge in Queenstown in 1988.

New Zealanders love their cars! 2.5 million cars for 4 million people (including the kids) makes New Zealand's car ownership rate one of the highest in the world.

Although it is around the size of Japan, New Zealand's population is just over four million, making it one of the world's least populated countries.

In 1893, New Zealand became the first country to give women the right to vote.

Sir Edmund Hillary, the first person to climb Mount Everest in 1953, was a New Zealander.

Baron Ernest Rutherford, the first person in the world to split the atom in 1919, was also a New Zealander.

It's no wonder New Zealanders have always been ahead with regards to things like inventions and politics.... New Zealand is after all the very first country to greet each new day!

While Rugby remains the most popular spectator sport in New Zealand, golf is the most popular participation sport, with more golf courses in New Zealand per capita of population, than any other country in the world.

Auckland also has the largest number of boats per capita than any other city in the world.

New Zealand won the first ever Rugby World Cup, held in 1987.

New Zealand has won more Olympic gold medals per capita, than any other country.

The Hector's Dolphin, the world's smallest marine dolphin, which grows to a maximum length of 1.5 metres, is found nowhere else in the world but in New Zealand waters.

New Zealand is also home to the world's only flightless parrot, the Kakapo.

Dairy farmers produce a whopping 100 kg of butter and 65 kg of cheese each year, for each person who lives in New Zealand!

Notable New Zealand filmmakers include 'The Piano' director Jane Campion

and Peter Jackson, who made King Kong and the 'Lord of the Rings' trilogy.

The most popular New Zealand films include 'Once were Warriors', 'The Whale Rider', 'The Piano' and the 'Lord of the Rings' trilogy.

Here's a really good reason to visit New Zealand – there are no snakes in the country!

There are also no nuclear power stations in New Zealand.

The Maori name for New Zealand is 'Aotearoa'. It means "the land of the long white cloud".

Another great reason to live in New Zealand if you love surfing and other watersports is that nowhere in New Zealand is more than 120 km from the coast.

LECTURE 15 COMPREHENSIVE TEST

1. Another name for New Zealand is _____ – The land of the Long White Cloud.

2. The country consists of two large islands –the _____ Island and the _____ Island.

3. _____ is the place of earthquake and volcanic activity

4. New Zealand is in the _____ Hemisphere

5. _____ is the capital of the country

6. "Kiwi" is a common self-reference used by New Zealanders, though it is also used internationally. Unlike many demographic labels, its usage is not considered offensive; rather, it is generally viewed as a symbol of pride and endearment for the people of New Zealand. The name derives from the kiwi, a native flightless _____, which is a national symbol of New Zealand.

7. The "history of New Zealand" dates back at least 700 years to when it was discovered and settled by Polynesians, who developed a distinct _____ culture centred on kinship links and land.

8. The first European explorer to reach New Zealand was Dutch navigator Abel Tasman on 13 December _____. The Dutch were also the first non-natives to explore and chart New Zealand's coastline. Captain _____, who reached New Zealand in October 1769 on the first of his three voyages, was the first European explorer to circumnavigate and map New Zealand. From the late 18th century, the country was regularly visited by explorers and other sailors, missionaries, traders and adventurers.

9. In 1840 the Treaty of _____ was signed between the British Crown and various Māori chiefs, bringing New Zealand into the British Empire and giving Māori the same rights as British subjects.

10. In the 1860s disputes over the land purchases led to the Maori _____ which resulted into land confiscation by colonial government.

11. New Zealand became an independent _____ on September 26, 1907. In 1931 New Zealand was granted independence by the UK Parliament.

WORKSHOP DISCUSSION TOPICS

1. A Historical outline of England. Geographical location of England. Cultural life of England. Language (lexical, phonetic, grammatical features). Varieties of English.
2. A Historical outline of Scotland and Wales. Geographical location of Scotland and Wales. Cultural life of Scotland and Wales. Languages (lexical, phonetic, grammatical feature) of Scotland and Wales.
3. A Historical outline of the Irish Republic and Northern Ireland. Geographical location of the Irish Republic and Northern Ireland. Cultural life of the Irish Republic and Northern Ireland. Languages (lexical, phonetic, grammatical features) the Irish Republic and Northern Ireland.
4. A Historical outline of the USA. Geographical location of the USA. Cultural life of the USA. American English (lexical, phonetic, grammatical features) .
5. A Historical outline of Canada. Geographical location of Canada. Cultural life of Canada. Canadian English (lexical, phonetic, grammatical features).
6. A Historical outline of Australia. Geographical location of Australia. Cultural life of Australia. Australian English (lexical, phonetic, grammatical features).
7. A Historical outline of New Zealand. Geographical location of New Zealand. Cultural life of New Zealand. Languages of New Zealand

РЕКОМЕНДОВАНІ ДЖЕРЕЛА ІНФОРМАЦІЇ

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ЗАХІДНОУКРАЇНСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
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