

**Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized
Education of the Republic of
UZBEKISTAN**

**SAMARKAND STATE INSTITUTE OF FOREIGN
LANGUAGES**

***LECTURE ON
COUNTRY STUDY***

A MANUEL FOR COUNTRY STUDY

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Introduction

The Subject Country Study helps to develop the knowledge, habits and skills of students. Students are introduced to the culture, geography, history, literature, customs and traditions, and political system of Great Britain and other countries.

Theoretical and practical lessons on Country Study are led in Institutes and Universities.

The aims and tasks of country study are the following:

- **To have students' basic knowledge for the future activities;**
- **To acquire habits and skills through the theoretical and practical lessons;**
- **To study Country Study.**

The requirements on students' knowledge.

Students should have the following knowledge on country study:

- **To get acquainted to the spirituality of the nation in the lessons;**
- **To possess the history of the England;**
- **To study the culture, art, literature, historical sites, queens and kings in the history of England and other English speaking countries.**

GREAT BRITAIN

PART I.

General Information

1. Geographical position 2. Landscape 3. Population 4. Climate

KEYWORDS:

Eire, partition, boundary, coniferous, the coloureds, to impoverish, whirlwind, humid.

1. Geographical position

The United of Great Britain and Northern Ireland lies at the northwestern edge of Europe, separated from the European mainland by the English Channel, the NORTH SEA, and the narrow Strait of Dover. It consists of the formerly separate kingdoms of ENGLAND and Scotland and the principality of WALES - which are collectively referred to as GREAT – BRITAIN – and the six counties of NORTHERN, which elected to remain within the United Kingdom in 1921 when southern Ireland withdrew to form the Iris Free State (after 1949, the Republic of Ireland, or Eire). The loss of and its withdrawal from the COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS in 1949 rendered politically obsolete the use of the Collective term British Isles. Other integral parts of the United Kingdom are the outlying HEBRIDES, ORKNEY ISLANDS, and SHETLAND, off the coast of Scotland; Anglesey, off the coast of Wales; and the ISLE OF WIGHT and the SHILLY ISLES, off the Southwest coast of England. Separate from the kingdom but administered by the crown, each with its own laws and systems of taxation, are the ISLE OF MAN, located in the Irish Sea; and the CHANNEL ISLANDS, located off the northwest coast of France.

England is the largest and most populous unit in the kingdom, with an area of 130,439 sq km and a population (1992est) of 48,378,300. Wales, located to the west and separated from England by a boundary dating back to the Middle Ages, has an area of 20,768 sq km and 898,500 inhabitants it became part of the English kingdom in 1282 but continues to maintain separate language and national identity. Scotland – with an area of 78,772 sq km and 5,111,200 inhabitants—lies to the north, separated from Eng land by a boundary that extends from Sol way Firth (estuary) on the west, across the sparsely populated Tweed. Scotland and England were ruled by the same monarchs after 1603 and were united in 1707 to form the kingdom in 1801, changing the official name to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The present name was adopted after the partition of Ireland has an area of 14,121 sq km and a population of 1,610,300.

2. Landscape

Great Britain is situated in the temperate zone of Europe. The nature of Great Britain is greatly affected by the sea. There is no place situated more than 100-120 km from the seashore, in the northern parts only 40-60 km. The territory of Great Britain can be divided into 3 natural regions:

- 1) Scotland with highland and upland relief and coniferous and mixed forests;
- 2) Wales and mountainous England with upland considerably cut by ravines and valleys and covered with meadows, moorland and cultivated farmland, with patches of broadleaf forest;
- 3) Southeast England with plain landscape, fertile soils, the predominance of cultivated farmlands, with patches of broadleaf forest.

The coastline of Great Britain is greatly indented, especially in the west and northwest where the mountains come close to the coasts. In the south and east, the land gradually slopes down towards the sea, and the coasts are sandy and gentle, here and there interrupted by the ends of hill-ranges which form low cliffs. The mountains cover the greater part of northern, western and middle Great Britain.

3. Population

The population of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is over 57 million people. The population lives mostly in towns, cities, and their suburbs. Four out of every five people live in towns.

The distribution of the population is rather uneven. Over 48 million people live in England, over 3 million in Wales, a little over 5 million in Scotland and over 1,5 million in Northern Ireland.

Greater London, the south and the southeast are the most densely populated areas. Only London's population is over 7 million. Most of the mountainous parts of the UK, including much of Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and the Pennine Chain in Northern England are very sparsely populated.

The UK is inhabited by the English, the Scots, the Welsh, and the Irish who constitute the British nation. The British are the descendants of different peoples who settled in the British Isles at different times.

The earliest known people of Britain were of Iberian origin. Then followed a long succession of invaders including the Celts, the Romans, the Anglo-Saxon, the Danes and at last in 1066 the Normans. It was the last time Britain was invaded.

Now there are also many people of all colours and races in the UK. These are mostly former inhabitants of the former British colonies. These people, called "the coloureds", came to the UK in search of better living standards as their own countries had been impoverished by centuries of the British colonial oppression.

English is the official language of the UK. Besides standard literary English, there are several regional and social dialects. A well-known example is the cockney of East Londoners. The Scottish and Irish forms of Gaelic survive in some parts of Scotland and Northern Ireland.

Wales is officially bilingual, Welsh is spoken by about a fifth of its population. Welsh is the first language in most of the western counties of Wales and at least formally has the same status as English. Nowadays there is a growing movement in Wales and Scotland for a revival of national culture and languages.

4. Climate

The climate in the UK is generally mild and temperate due to the influence of the Gulf Stream. The southwestern winds carry the warmth and moisture into Britain. The climate in Britain is usually described as cool, temperate and humid.

The weather is so changeable that the English often say that they have no climate but only weather. As the weather changes with the wind and Britain is visited by winds from different parts of the world, the most characteristic feature of Britain's weather is its variability. The English also say that they have 3 variants of weather: when it rains in the morning, when it rains in the afternoon and when it rains all day long. Sometimes it rains so heavily that they say 'It's raining cats and dogs'.

Rainfall is more or less even throughout the year. In the mountains there is so heavier rainfall than in the plains of the south and east. The driest period is from March

to June and the wettest months are from October to January. The average range of temperature (from winter to summer) is from 15 to 23 degrees above zero. During a normal summer, a temperature sometimes rises above 30 degrees in the south. Winter temperatures below 10 degrees are rare. January and February are usually the coldest months, July and August the warmest. Still the wind may bring winter cold in spring or summer days. Sometimes it brings the whirlwinds or hurricanes. Droughts are rare.

So we may say that the British climate has 3 main features: it is mild, humid and changeable. That means that it is never too hot or too cold. Winters are extremely mild. Snow may come but it melts quickly. In winter the cold, not the dry one.

This humid and mild climate is good for plants. The trees and flowers begin to blossom early in spring.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

- 1.** What is the whole area of the U.K. of Great Britain and Northern Ireland?
- 2.** What kind of forests does Scotland include?
- 3.** What can you say about the landscape of the U.K.?
- 4.** From when were Scotland and England ruled by the same monarch?
- 5.** Which islands does the U.K. include?
- 6.** How many natural regions can Great Britain be divided?
- 7.** How much population does the U.K. have?
- 8.** What nationalities live in the U.K.?
- 9.** What do you know about "the coloureds"?
- 10.** From what does the weather of Great Britain depend on?
- 11.** Why is the climate of the U.K. mild and temperate?
- 12.** Which months are the coldest and the hottest in the U.K.?
- 13.** How many natural regions of Great Britain can be divided?

PART II. History of Great Britain

The problem to be discussed:

1. *The earliest men*
2. *The Celts*
3. *Roman Invasion*
4. *Anglo-Saxon Conquest*
5. *Danish Raids on England*
6. *Norman Conquest*
7. *Wars Abroad and at Home*

KEYWORDS:

Herd, to breed

clay, pattern, feast, earthenware, polytheistic, sacred, mistletoe, to sacrifice, fort, minstrel, spear, chariot, to fortify, quay, swamp, fierce, revolt, rebellion, turret, acre, to retreat, ditch, hood, rye, barley, pirate, confessor, reign, noble, baron, Plantagenet, contemporary, crusade, liberty, bourgeoisie, feudal, fleet, arrow, archer, cannon, combat, peasant, plague, to perish, to diminish, treacherously, heiress, to collide, merchant.

Around 10,000 BC Britain was peopled by small groups of hunters and fishers. They followed herds of deer, which provided them with food and clothing.

In the course of time different groups of people kept arriving in Britain, bringing their customs and skills. The Romans, who occupied Britain in the first century, brought the skills of reading and writing. The written word was important for spreading ideas and culture.

1. *The earliest men*

Little is known about the ancient population of the British Isles. Like other primitive people in other parts of the world, they lived in caves and hunted animals for food. Gradually they learned to grow corn and breed domestic animals. They made primitive tools and weapons. Archaeologists find their tools and weapons, as well as remains of the primitive houses.

These people were religious, though we know very little about their religion. Some temples that they built still stand in many parts of England and Scotland. These temples are also very primitive. They are just circles of great stones standing vertically. The greatest of them is Stonehenge in the south of England.

2. *The Celts*

About 500-600 BC new people – the Celts – appeared in Britain. They were tall strong people with long red or sandy hair, armed with iron swords and knives that were much stronger than the bronze weapons used by the native population. They crossed the English Channel from the territory of the present-day France. The Romans called these people Britons and the Island – Britannia. In the course of centuries, the Britons partly killed the native population, partly mixed with it. The Britons were skilful workers. They made things out of iron, bronze, tin, clay and wood, and decorated them with beautifully drawn lines and patterns. They made money out of gold and silver. They began to make roads, along which they traveled, about the country, buying and selling things.

There were some good and rather big houses in Britain, which had many rooms and corridors. The richer Britons lived in these big houses. When they had feasts in their houses, they sat round low tables. There were no forks or spoons. They took big pieces of meat in their fingers and tore them apart, or cut them with their knives. They drank from big cups made of earthenware or silver.

Not all parts of Britain were civilized. In the mountains and forests of the west and north, there were people who did not know the use of iron and did not use many. They had no real houses but still lived in caves. The parts in the southeast of Britain were most civilized because they were nearest to the continent, from which people got new knowledge.

The Britons were polytheistic, that is they believed in many gods. They believed that different gods lived in the thickest parts of the forests. Some plants, such as the mistletoe and the oak-tree, were considered sacred. Some historians think that the Britons were governed by a class of priests called Druids who had great power over them. Stonehenge was the temple of the Druids, just as it had been the temple of the primitive men before. The Druids were cruel men and their ways of worshipping their gods were cruel too. They often declared that a god was angry, and to get the god's pardon the people had to offer up sacrifices of human beings. The Druids put men into huge baskets and burned them in the presence of the people.

The Britons often fought among themselves. The remains of forts built by the Britons can be seen in different parts of the country. From time to time the Britons had feasts and entertainments. During a feast, a minstrel usually sang songs about brave deeds of famous warriors. After the minstrel's songs, his listeners began to boast of their own brave deeds. Moreover, when they had drunk too much, they began quarreling and fighting, and usually some men were very killed.

3. Roman Invasion

In the year 55 BC the great Roman general Julius Caesar sailed to Britain with about 12,000 soldiers in 80 ships. When they were near the coast, they saw the Britons armed with spears and swords, ready to fight them. Still the Roman soldiers landed and fought with the Britons. They won the battle, but did not stay long and soon departed. In the following year Julius Caesar came to Britain again. This time, after fighting the Britons on the shore, the Romans marched northwest where London stands today. The British attacked them in chariots and on foot, but the Romans had better arms and armor, and were much better trained. The Britons could not stop them.

Having stayed in Britain some time, the Romans left again and did not appear on the British shores for about a hundred years. Then in the year 43 AD, the Roman Emperor Claudius sent a general with 40,000 men to conquer Britain all over again. The British fought bravely, but could not back the trained Roman army. Soon the whole of the south of Britain was conquered.

The Romans were very practical people, and the first thing they did in Britain was to make and fortify the ports where they landed their soldiers and supplies. The Roman ports were very well built, with stone quays and warehouses. There were big cranes, which lifted the cargo from the ships' holds, and many carts transported goods along the great Roman roads which ran in long straight lines to different parts of the country.

Although the Romans had occupied Britain, there were many British men and women hidden away in the great forests and swamps that refused to submit. These men were fierce fighters, and they often came out of their hiding places and attacked small Roman forts or outposts. Then when the Romans brought up reinforcements, they disappeared into the forests where the Romans could not find them.

Some of the British tribes were more warlike than others, and one of this was the tribe of the Iceni, that lived in what is now Norfolk. In those days this part of England was covered with swamps, and the Roman soldiers had never completely conquered it.

Less than 20 years after the Roman invasion, the men of the Iceni tribe revolted headed by their warlike Queen Boadicea.

The Roman army was far away fighting in north Wales, when Boadicea with 100,000 fighting men, destroyed first the Roman town of Colchester, and then, soon afterwards, the towns of London and St.Albans. These towns were all burned to the ground, and all the people were cruelly killed.

The roman Governor of Britain at that time was a famous soldier named Suetonius. When the news of the revolt of the Iceni reached him, he was in the middle of a campaign against the men of Wales. In spite of it he decided that he must march across England and attack Boadicea and the Iceni as soon as possible.

He had about 10,000 trained roman soldiers with him, and although Boadicea had ten times that number, Suetonius had no doubt that the training and discipline of the roman army would give him the victory.

Suetonius placed his men on the slope of a hill, protected by woods on both sides. The British thought that the Romans were trapped, and they crowded in the woods to attack them. At the right moment, when Boadicea's men were so crowded together that they could not use their arms, the Romans attacked, and the British were completely beaten.

In the year 70 AD, when the Romans had been nearly 30 years in Britain, many Britons could not remember a time when the country had been free, and it seemed quite natural to them to be governed, not by British kings or chiefs, but by governors from Rome.

There were still 3 legions of roman soldiers in the country but everything was now so quiet that the soldiers spent most of their time enjoying themselves in sports or at the games in the amphitheaters.

Although Britain was now fairly peaceful, the Romans realized that at any moment some tribes might try to revolt. So they built forts in many parts of the country, in which they stationed small groups of soldiers.

For the next 325 years, Britain remained a Roman province, governed by Roman Governors and protected by the Roman legions. During this time, there were long periods of peace, and Britain became a civilized country of towns and villages and good roads.

The south of England was covered with villas of wealthy Romans and Britons. There were large farmhouses, often with water supply and baths.

In the year 122 the Roman Emperor Hadrian came to Britain was a great traveler and wherever he went on the Roman Empire, he strengthened its frontiers.

Some years before there had been a serious rebellion in the north of Britain. Tribes of the Picts, the people who lived to the north and south of the Scottish border,

had risen in revolt and killed the whole of the 9th Roman legion that was stationed at York. Not a man was left.

The rebellion was crushed, but Hadrian decided that in future it should be made much more difficult for the Picts to cross the border into peaceful Britain. Therefore, he chose 3 legions of Roman soldiers – about 20.000 men – and set them the task of building a great wall running right across the country from Newcastle on the eastern shore to Carlisle on the western shore. In even years the building of the wall was finished. Parts of this wall can still be seen.

Hadrian's wall was 73 miles long, 7 to 10 feet thick, and 17 to 20 feet high. It was built of stone and it had a row of forts situated about 4 miles from each other. A every mile there was a Hadrian's Wall was the strongest of all the Roman frontier fortifications.

The Romans remained in Britain for 350 years, and during that time they built many towns. London was not the chief in early Roman times. The capital city, from which the Romans governed the island, was Colchester.

Many of these towns were large. The walls of St.Albans, for instance, were two miles round, and the town covered 200 acres of land. We know where the Roman towns have stood from the names of the English towns that were later built on their ruins. The names of modern towns ending in – *chester* or – *caster*, like Dorchester or Lancaster, come from the Latin word *Castrs* meaning a camp or a fortified place.

4. Anglo-Saxon Conquest

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

For a long the tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes fought with one another for foremen power. Britain split up into 7 kingdoms: Kent, Sussex, Essex, Wessex, Mercia, East, Anglia and Northumbria.

The Anglo- Saxon lived in small villages. Round each village, there was a ditch and an earthen wall with a wooden fence on top. The earthen wall and the fence served to defend the village against robbers and wild beasts.

The Anglo-Saxons were tall, strong men with blue eyes and long blond hair. They were dressed in tunics and cloaks, which they fastened with a brooch above the right shoulder. On their feet they wore rough lather shoes. Some rich men had iron swords, which they carried at their left side. The women long dresses with wide sleeves. Their heads were covered with a hood.

In their villages, the Anglo-Saxons bred cows, sheep and pigs. They ploughed the fields and grew what, rye, and oats for bread and barley for beer.

5. Danish Raids on England

As we know, Anglo-Britain was not a united country. There were a lot of small kingdoms, which constantly waged wars against one another for supreme power. As a

result, these little kingdoms were weak and could not hold out against attacks from abroad.

Beginning with the 8th century pirates from Scandinavia and Denmark began raiding the eastern shores of Britain. They are known in English history as the Danes. They were brave, cruel and merciless people. They landed their long boats, killed and robbed the population of the towns and villages and sailed away. They returned over and over again and continued killing and robbing the population. Gradually they began settling in Britain and seized more and more land.

The Anglo-Saxons understood that their small kingdoms must unite in order to struggle against the successfully. In the 9th century Egbert, the king of Wessex, one of the stronger Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, united several neighboring kingdoms. The united kingdoms got the name of England, and Egbert became the first king of the united country.

Alfred, the grandson of Egbert, became king in the year 871, when England's danger was great. The Danes, who had settled on the eastern shores of Britain, continued robbing and killing the people of England and occupying more land. Alfred gathered a big army and gave the Danes a great battle at Maldon in 891. The Danes were defeated in this battle, but still they remained very strong and dangerous, and Alfred hurried to make peace with them. He had to give the Danes the greater portion of England. The kingdom that was left in Alfred's possession was Wessex. There were some years of peace, and during this time Alfred built the first English navy.

Alfred is the only king of England who got the name «the Great». And he was really a great king. He was very well educated for his time. He had learned to read and write when he was quite young. He had traveled on the continent and had visited France. He knew Latin. He is famous not only for having built the first navy, but also for having tried to enlighten his people. He worked out a code of laws. He translated the Church history and parts of the Bible from Latin into Anglo-Saxon. He started the famous Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, which is the first history of England; it begins with the history of the early Britons. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle was continued by various authors for 250 years after the death of Alfred.

The Anglo-Saxon kings that ruled after Alfred the Great continued fighting the Danes, until all England was once more ruled by English kings. But 80 years after Alfred's death the Danes came again with great and occupied much of the territory. Again Britain was divided into 2 parts; the northern part ruled by the Danes, and Wessex in the south ruled by English kings. The Danes continued their attacks on Wessex and finally occupied the whole of the territory. In 1016, the king of Denmark Canute became also the king of England.

Canute was a strong monarch and gave England peace for nearly 20 years. When he died in 1035, his 2 sons ruled England for a short time after the other. With the death of Canute's second son in 1042, the Danish rule was over. An English king came to the throne. It was Edward the Confessor. He got the name of Confessor for being a very religious man. The famous Westminster Abbey in London was built during his reign, and died in 1066 he was buried in the Abbey.

6. Norman Conquest

For a hundred and fifty years the time of Alfred the Great people were continually fighting one another all over England. What the country needed was a strong king who could keep order.

In France there was a young boy named William, who was the son of the Duke of Normandy. This boy came and conquered England.

The Duke Robert of Normandy, William's father, was a cousin of King Edward the Confessor of England, and when William was 24 years old, he came to England to visit his relative.

When William saw what a green and pleasant country England was, he wanted very much to be its king. King Edward the Confessor liked his young nephew and promised him the crown.

At the same time there was in England a young Saxon named Harold, who was the son of the Earl of Wessex, one of the most powerful English nobles of the time. Most Saxon nobles did not want a French king, and after Edward the Confessor's death, they proclaimed Harold King of England.

William gathered a great army and sailed across the English Channel on hundred's of ships, Harold's army met him on the English coast. There was a great battle at Hastings on October 14, 1066. Harold's soldiers fought bravely, but William's army was stronger. Harold was killed in the battle, and with the death of their leader, the English understood that the battle was lost.

William marched his army to London. Nobody tried to stop him on the way and when he approached London, he found the gates of the city open. The Saxon bishops and nobles met him. They knew that they could not stop William, so they asked him to be the king of England without any more tithing.

Therefore, a Norman duke became king of England. He was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas day, December 25, 1066.

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

William the Conqueror took lands from Saxon nobles and gave them to his Norman barons who became new masters of the land. William and his barons, as well as all the other Normans who had come with him, did not know the Anglo-Saxon language and did not want to learn it. And for a very long time 2 languages were spoken in the country. Norman French was the official language of the court, law and government administration. Common Saxon people and the few Saxon nobles who remained alive spoke Anglo-Saxon.

There were many people in England who did not want to be ruled by a Norman king, and in many parts of the country there were rebellions. But with the strong army of his barons and knights, William cruelly put down all the rebellions. Lots of people were killed, villages and towns were completely destroyed.

William sent groups of men all over the country to make lists of all the population together with the information of how much land every family had and how much land every family had and how much cattle and what other property they had on their land. All this information was put into a book, which was called *the Domesday*

Book. By means of the *Domes day Book*, William's government knew exactly where everyone lived and how much property they owned. Thus, for the first time in the history of England, it was made possible to collect the right taxes for the king.

After William the Conqueror's death in 1087, 3 kings of the Norman dynasty ruled England: his two sons, William II (1087-1100) and Henry I (1100-1135), and his grandson, the son his daughter, Stephen (1135-1154). After Stephen's death, the English throne passed to the Plantagenet dynasty.

William the Conqueror's son Henry. I had a daughter, Matilda, who was married to the French count of Anjou, Geoffrey Plantagenet. Their son Henry Plantagenet was made King of England after Stephen's death in 1154.

Richard I the Lion-Heart (Richard Coeur de Lion) (1189-1199) was the second king of the Plantagenet dynasty. He was famous for his good education (he knew Latin and was fond of music and poetry) and courage. His contemporaries described him as a man of excellent manners, kind to his friends and cruel merciless to his enemies. Richard was seldom seen in England, spending most of his time taking part in crusades in Palestine. At home the barons, in the king's absence, strengthened their castles and acted like little kings. Prince John, the king's brother, with help of barons, tried to seize the English throne. Common people were cruelly oppressed.

Richard the Lion-Heart was killed in one of the battles in France, and the English throne passed to his brother John.

At that time great territories in France belonged to England. Naturally, the French kings and nobles did not like it and wanted to win back these lands, so the English and the French waged continuous wars in France. King John wanted a lot of money to wage these wars. He made the barons give him that money, and the barons did not like it. There was constant struggle for power between the king and the barons. Finally, the barons organized an open rebellion. In 1215, the king was made to sign a document called *the Great Charter (Magna Carta in Latin)*. For the first time in the history of England, *the Great Charter* officially stated certain rights and liberties of the people, which the king had to respect.

8. Wars Abroad and at Home

By the 14th century the process of centralization of the king's power was completing. The same methods of government were applied to all parts of England. The old contradictions between the Normans and Saxons were gradually disappearing.

The Norman kings made London their residence. It became the largest town in England. The London dialect of the English language became the central dialect and was understood throughout the country. It was the London dialect from which the national language developed.

Other towns were also growing. The townspeople, that is the craftsmen and tradesmen, who later formed the class of bourgeoisie, were becoming an important social force. They became rich by trading with Flanders (a country across the English Channel that is now called Belgium). The English traders shipped wool to Flanders, where it was sold as raw material. Flanders had busy towns, and the weavers who lived and worked there, produced the finest cloth. Flemish ports were the world market of northern Europe and commercial rivals of England. Flemish weavers were even invited to England to teach the English their trade.

The Hundred Year's War is the name traditionally given to the Anglo-French conflicts that occurred between 1337 and 1453, but a more accurate set of dates would be the 150-year period from 1294 to 1444.

In the first half of the 14th century the king of England was Edward III. He was a powerful king, and he wanted to become king of France as well, because some of the French provinces, such as Normandy, had once belonged to England and others had been the property of Edward's mother, a French princess. Meanwhile the feudal lords in France were making plans to seize the free towns of Flanders. For England, it would mean losing its wool market. Saying that he wished to deferent English trade, Edward III declared war on France in 1337. This war is now called the Hundred Years' War because it lasted over a hundred years.

At first England was successful in the war. The English fleet defeated the French fleet in the English Channel. Then the English also won battles on land. The English had certain advantages over the French. They had cannons, which had just been invented and which the French army did not have. Besides, the English archers could shoot their arrows from a distance, whereas the French knights, armed with swords, could only fight in hand-to hand combats. When the thunder of the first cannons had scared of the horses of the enemy, the arrows of the English archers reached the French knights before they could use their broad swords.

The Peasants' Revolt of 1381

The ruin of France and the Famine that followed caused an epidemic of the plague. It was so infectious that there was no escape from it. People died within 24 hours. From France the epidemic was brought over to England. The English soldiers called it *the Black Death*. By the year 1348 one third of England's population had perished.

The position of the peasants was very hard. They had to give part of their harvest to the lord. They also had to work on the lord's fields regularly. After the epidemic of the Black Death, when the population of England had diminished by one third, there were not enough labourers to work on the lord's fields. So the surviving peasants were made to work on the lord's fields much more. They were paid for their work, but the payment was very little.

As years went by, the French feudal united against their enemy, and the English began to lose their advantage. As the king needed money for the war, Parliament voted for extra taxes, which made the life of peasants still harder. In 1381 the peasants revolted. 30,000 people from the counties of Essex and Kent marched to London led by Wat Tyler and Jack Straw. In London, they broke open the prisons, destroyed many buildings and killed many royal officials. They came to the royal palace and demanded to see the king. The king of England Richard II was then a 14-year-old boy. He boldly appeared before the crowd of rebels, listened to them and promised to fulfill their demands. But the king did not keep his promise. Wat Tyler was treacherously murdered and the rebellion was suppressed.

The War of the Roses

The Hundred Years' War, in which England list practically all its lands in France, ended in 1453, but there was no peace in the country. Long before the end of this war, a feudal struggle had broken out between the descendants of Edward of Edward III.

When the Magna Cart was signed in 1215, the Norman barons were united with the Saxon nobles and the growing bourgeoisie of the big towns, and they took part in the governing. The country. During the Hundred Years' War some of the barons, who were professional soldiers, built castles with high walls and kept private armies of thousands of men. They wished to lead their armies over to France to seize lands there. These big barons formed a small group of their "family politics" than about national politics and were a real threat to the king's power. Realizing the danger that these big barons represented to the crown Edward III tried to marry his sons to their daughters, the heiresses of these Houses. Thus representatives of the royal family became relatives of many big barons. But that did not help to strengthen the position of the House of Plantagenet's. During the reign of Richard II (1377-1399), the last king of the Plantagenet dynasty, Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Lancaster, seized the crown and became the first king of the Lancaster dynasty, Henry IV (1399-1413).

The interests of the House of Lancaster supported by the big barons collided with the interests of the lesser barons and merchants of the towns, who supported the house of York. The feudal struggle grew into an open war between the Lancastrians and the Yolkiest. The Lancaster's had a red rose in their coft of arms, the Yolkiest had a white rose. That's why the war between them got the name of **the War of the Roses**. This war, which lasted off 30 years (1455-1485), turned into a bitter struggle for the Crown, in which every party murdered every likely heir to the throne of the opposite party. It was a dark time for England, a time of anarchy, when the kings and nobles were busy fighting and murdering each other and had no time to take care of the common people, who suffered greatly.

The War of the Roses ended with the battle of Bosworth in 1485. King Richard III of the House of York was killed in the battle, and, right in the field, Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, was proclaimed King of England, The war was over at last, and everybody sighed with relief.

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

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

1. Which skills did the Romans bring to Britain?
2. Where the Stonehenge located?
3. Tell about the earliest activities of people of Great Britain?
4. When did the Celts appear in Britain? Can you describe them?
5. How did you imagine the Celts' party while reading the paragraph?
6. Compare the Celts' civilization with the civilization in our lands at that time.
7. Where did the Celts live?
8. What qualities of soldiers brought victory to Romans over Britons?
9. Why could not Romans conquer completely the tribe of Iceni?
10. When did the men of the Iceni revolt headed by Boadicea?
11. Why did the Romans have to live Britons to themselves?
12. When and by whom was the country taken the name "England"?
13. What reason caused to sign Magna Charta?

14. What do you think? What was the main aim of Edward III from the war?
15. Count the complications and traces of the war of Roses.

LECTURE II.

United Kingdom of Great and Northern Ireland

The problem to be discussed:

1. *The Official Name of the Country. The Union Jack.*
2. *Forming the Nation. Language*
3. *England*
4. *Wales*
5. *Scotland*
6. *Northern Ireland*
7. *English Channel*

KEYWORDS:

Vikings, precision, cathedral, shortage, exploitation, stalagmite, stalactite, flour milling, drained, urban, magnet, brewing, concentration, administration, cockney, cherished, dominant, hillside, and moderate.

1. The Official Name of the Country. The Union Jack.

The British Isles is the geographical name that refers to all the islands situated off the north-west coast of the European continent: *Great Britain*, the whole of *Ireland* (Northern and Southern), and all the smaller islands situated between and around them: *the Isle of Wight, the Orkneys, the Hebrides, the Isles of Sicily, the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man.*

Great Britain is the name of the largest island of the British Isles. It is historically divided into 3 parts, which were once independent states: *England, Scotland and Wales*. The people who live in England are *English*, in Scotland – *Scots*, in Wales – *Welsh*. At the same time all these people are British because they live in Britain. As to the word *Great* in the name of the island, it was first introduced by the French to distinguish the island from the area in the north of France called *Britannia* (the French language has the same word for *Britain*).

The united Kingdom (or UK) is an abbreviation of *the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland*, which is the political name of the country consisting of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland (sometimes called *Ulster*). Southern Ireland is a completely independent state: *the Republic of Ireland* (also called *Eire*).

It took centuries and a lot of armed struggle to form the United Kingdom. In the 15th century a Welsh prince Henry Tudor, became King Henry VII of England. Then his son, Henry VIII united England and Wales under one Parliament in 1536. In Scotland a similar thing happened. The King of Scotland inherited the crown of England and Wales in 1603, so he became King James VI of Scotland. The Parliaments of England, Wales and Scotland were united a century later, in 1707.

The Scottish and Welsh are proud and independent people. In recent years there have been attempts at devolution in the two countries, particularly in Scotland where the Scottish Nationalist Party was very strong for a while. However, in a referendum in 1978 the majority of the Welsh people rejected devolution, and in 1979 the Scots did the same. Nevertheless, most Welsh and Scots sometimes complain that England dominates them, and of course they don't like to be referred to as English.

The whole of the land was united with Great Britain from 1801 till 1921. In 1921 it was divided into some parts. The larger southern part formed the independent

Republic of Ireland (Fire), while Northern Ireland (Ulcer) became part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

The Union Jack is the flag of the United Kingdom of Great Britain of Northern Ireland. It is made up of three crosses. The upright red cross is the cross of Saint George, the patron saint of England. The white diagonal cross is the cross of Saint Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland. The red diagonal cross is the cross of Saint Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland. The Union Jack's origin is nautical; a jack is a small identifying flag usually flown on the bow of a ship. The flag in its present form has been used since 1801, when Ireland joined the Union. Its colours are red, white, and blue, and variations of it are the official flags of many former British dependencies.

2. Forming the Nation. Language

About 2,000 years ago the British Isles were inhabited by the Celts, who had originally come from continental Europe. During the next 1,000 years there were many invasions. The Romans came from Italy in AD 43. The Angles and Saxons came from Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands in the 5th century and gave the country the name England (Angle-land), *The Vikings* kept coming from Denmark and Norway throughout the 9th century. In 1066 *the Normans* invaded from France. All these invasions drove the Celts into Wales and Scotland, and of course they also remained in Ireland. The present-day English are the descendants of all the invaders, although they are more Anglo-Saxon than anything else. These various origins explain many of the differences, which exist between England, Wales and Ireland – differences in education, religion, the legal systems and in language.

The Celts spoke *Celtic*, which survives to day in the form of *Welsh*, *Scottish Gaelic* and *Irish Gaelic*. *Welsh*, *Scottish Gaelic* and *Irish Gaelic* are still spoken by some people, although they have suffered from the spread of English. However, all three languages are now officially encouraged and taught at schools.

English developed from *Anglo-Saxon* and it is a language of *the Germanic group*. All the invading peoples, particularly the *Norman French*, influenced the English language, and we can find many words in English, which in origin. Nowadays all Welsh, Scottish and Irish people speak English (even if they speak their own language as well), but they have their own special accents and dialects, so you can tell what part of Britain a person is from as soon as they begin to speak. Sometimes the differences in accents are so great that people from different parts of the UK have difficulty in understanding one another. The southern accent is generally accepted as *Standard English*.

2. England

Historically England proper is divided into the following economic regions: the South Industrial and Agricultural region (the South of England), Central England or the Midlands, Lancashire, Yorkshire and Northern England.

THE SOUTH OF ENGLAND THE SOUTH-EAST

This is the most important region in the country in terms of industry, agriculture and population. This region includes both the South East and the South West. Its northern border runs from the British Channel to the Wash. The South is a region of various industries and of intensive agriculture.

The Southeast is the largest and more highly developed region with London and the Greater London area as the major centers.

London is Britain's and England's capital and main communication centre, one of the world's most important financial centers (second – only after New York), one of the world's three largest cities (with Tokyo and New York), and one of the largest ports (with New York and Rotterdam). London is the main centre in Britain of printing, cinema film production and of manufacture of clothing, food and drink, furniture, materials for arts, precision instruments and many other specialized products.

London is also important, especially its Outer Ring, for light engineering, chemical and consumer goods. There are heavy-engineering plants and a number of leading research establishments in the area. Some of the largest aircraft plants are near London (in the town of Hatfield) and factories manufacturing motor vehicles – lorries – are also situated here (in the town of Luton).

In the estuaries of the Thames and other rivers of the region there are large oil refineries as well as shipyards.

Major motor vehicle manufacturing plants are some 50 miles northwest of London, near Oxford. Oxford and Cambridge are famous university centers. Oxford being also a car-manufacturing centre, while Cambridge includes industries which have depended to a considerable extent on university connections and orders as diverse as instrument making, printing, electronics.

EAST ANGLIA

This region contains low plateau country, which is mostly an improved farmland. Rural population predominates and more than half of the total area is under cultivation. The most important towns are: Norwich, Ipswich, Colchester, Yarmouth, Cambridge, Ely, Peterborough.

Barley and wheat are the most extensive crops. Oats, potatoes and sugar-beet are also common. In the part nearer to London vegetables, small fruit and flowers are grown for sale. The number of cattle and sheep is low, but poultry is numerous and Norfolk turkeys have a high reputation in the Christmas market.

East Anglia remains a region of villages, isolated farmstead and small market towns. Some time ago the villages were more numerous than they are today, for parts of East Anglia suffered from depopulation. Most of the towns of East Anglia have little tendency to grow. It has ancient market towns such as the cathedral city of Norwich, minor ports such as Harwich, fishing centers in Lowestoft and Yarmouth and a score of quiet villages where only the names such as Worsted indicate that East Anglia was once the major wool textile area. But now sheep have almost disappeared from East Anglia.

Norwich is the largest town in the region. It stands on the Weald and was once the greatest weaving town in Britain. As early as the 14th century it was famous throughout the country for its trade fair. But today the manufacture of wool is lost.

Yarmouth is located on the sandy east coast of the region. It is a well-known resort and receives about half a million visitors a year. As a fishing port Yarmouth has a long history which is chiefly connected with the North Sea. Each year catches have continued to decrease and the shortage has depressed the fishing of Yarmouth. Great

Yarmouth and Lowestoft have fish processing plants. In recent times they have also become bases for natural gas exploitation in the North Sea.

East Anglia is rather isolated from the rest of Britain because of its position away from the main national routes and because of shape. It is more than half surrounded by sea. To the North and South of Norwich are the Broads; nearly 150 miles of waterways, popular with weekend sailors, fishermen and nature-lovers.

Sand Ingham is one of the Royal family, who usually spend Christmas there.

KENT – THE GARDEN OF ENGLAND

The county Kent is known as the Garden of England because it produces a lot of fruit and vegetables, which are eaten all over the country. The soil and climate make ideal growing conditions. It is also the main area for growing another kind of fruit called hops. You cannot eat them because they are very bitter, but they are an important flavoring for Britain's most popular alcoholic drink – beer! It is said that they also have medicinal properties, and local people sometimes put them in their pillows to sleep on as a cure for headaches!

THE SOUTH-WEST

This is literally "Land's End", the most westerly point of Great Britain. The peninsula used to be well known for its pirates. This part of the area is known for its extensive grassland, which is three times as extensive as the area under cultivation. The growth of grass is promoted by frequent rains and the mild warm climate.

The principal activity here is farming. Although there are some big farms, most are small family farms with a mixture of cows, sheep and cereal crops. There is a long-established dairy-farming industry throughout the region. Butter, cheese and cream are the chief products. In the eastern part of the region there are many pigs and the production of bacon and other products, including pork sausages, is prominent. The small town of Calve is especially well known for the latter product.

Industry is centered on three large ports: Bristol in the north, and Portsmouth and Southampton in the southeast. In Bristol, aircraft are designed and built. In Portsmouth and Southampton, the main industries are shipbuilding and oil refining.

The Cheddar Caves are a popular place with tourists. These underground caves contain amazing stalagmites and stalactites.

Dart moor is a National Park. It is 365 square miles (945 sq. km.) in area and is mainly moorland and hills, surrounded by farmland. The New Forest is an area of heath and forest, and is best known for its wild ponies.

BRISTOL

The counties of Devon, Cornwall, and Somerset are often called the West Country. Urban development of this region is very limited and Bristol is the great exception among the towns of the area, other settlements in this part of the country being small.

Bristol is situated at the junction of the Avon and the Frome. It is a major port and industrial centre. It is an ancient city and it has always been a strictly commercial place and has remained such to this day. Little is known of its early history but its mediaeval trade was extended to Gascony, Spain and Portugal.

In 1400, it was considered the second greatest port of England. Now it is eighth in the United Kingdom. It is a regional capital and five times as large as the next town in the area. Bristol has a large Variety of industries, of which aircraft design and construction at Filton is the most important. Other significant industries are papermaking, printing and flour-milling.

Bristol is a University town. Its university was founded in 1876 first as a university college. Now there are flourishing colleges of science and technology, art and commerce.

The Mendip hills separate Bristol from the lowland of the Somerset plain. Once this area was marshy but now that it has been extensively drained it carries great numbers of dairy cattle. Cheddar cheese is one of its best-known products.

CENTRAL ENGLAND OR THE MIDLANDS

The Midlands (or the Midland region) represent the largest concentration of manufacturing industry. Metalworking on the basis of local coals was the source of the “Black Country” development.

The characteristic industries of the West Midlands are metallurgy (steel tubes and nonferrous metals) machine tool building, electrical engineering, and the car, carpets and pottery industries (with over 80 per cent of Britain’s ceramic industry located in Staffordshire, around Stoke-on-Trent).

Birmingham is the regional capital, a “city of a thousand trades”, including not only motor cars and bicycles but engines for aircraft production. Coventry is the centre of the car and aircraft industries.

In the East Midlands, Leicester is noted for hosiery and knitwear, boots and shoes and machinery for making these products, Nottingham – for lace and bicycles, tobacco and pharmaceutical goods, Corby – a new town – for steel industry (it was nearly condemned to death by the closure of steelworks by the British Steel Corporation).

In agriculture, is important in the Midlands as a supplier of food for the local urban population.

THE HEART OF ENGLAND

In the heart of England, about 112 miles northwest of London, is Birmingham, a city with over a million inhabitants. The growth of this city during the last century has been very rapid, for it owes its importance, almost entirely to its iron industry. Although it has no outlet on the sea-coast and does not stand on any great, river, it has become a busy hive of industry.

The district around Birmingham is known as the Black Country. It is a land of factories and mines. Steam engines, gas-engines, motor-cars, railway carriages, rails, guns, bicycles, agricultural Implements, cooking utensils, carpenter’s tools, screws, and nails are among the articles manufactured in the factories of the Black Country.

Birmingham is surrounded by typically English countryside – quiet meadows and woodland, old-world villages, impressive castles and ancient and ancient churches. South of Birmingham lies the historic town of Warwick with its great castle. Nearby is Stratford-upon-Avon, the birthplace of Shakespeare. Coventry is famous for its mangiest modern cathedral. The waters of Lamington Spa can cure medical problems.

In the beautiful fruit growing countryside of the Severn valley, are the famous cathedral-towns of Worcester, Hereford and Gloucester, plus ancient Tewkesbury.

BIRMINGHAM

Long famous as an international business centre, Birmingham has developed into a modern and exciting city whose buildings and shops are second to none.

Birmingham is at the heart of Britain's motorway system. The superbly designed inner ring road is easily identified by its red surface and gives easy access to the city centre.

Massive post-war development schemes have meant exciting new buildings. But the best of the has been preserved.

The city's museum and art gallery has some of the finest examples of pre-Raphaelite painting, with works by Burne-Jones and William Morris. The Museum houses the earliest English locomotive actually built (1784)

Birmingham's ultra-modern library is one of the largest and best stocked in Europe and includes the Shakespeare Memorial Library with 40.000 books in 90 languages.

The city possesses several interesting churches and two cathedrals. Shopping facilities in Birmingham are a magnet for thousands: there is a wealth of variety few plissés in Britain can rival. The multilevel Bull Ring Shopping Cantered is completely traffic free and linked by subways with the major shopping streets of the city. It includes most kinds of retail shops, open air and covered markets, banks, restaurants and offices. Equally impressive is the air-conditioned New Steen Shopping Centre.

Birmingham has more canals than Venice. Some canal basins have been developed as recreational centers, with walks, pubs, restored building and boat trips from Gas Street Basin and Cambrian Wharf.

The city has excellent facilities for all of sport. It boar's twenty swimming pools and eight municipal golf courses, as many private clubs. Edgartown Reservoir is a 60-acre lake for sailing, rowing and fishing, and the Windily Leisure Centre at Sutton Cold field provides facilities for indoor sports. Test and Country cricked is played at Edgartown; Aston Villa, Birmingham City and West Bromwich Albion are the local football teams.

NOTTINGHAM SHIRE

Nottinghamshire lies in the heart of England's East Midlands. (The capital city of Nottingham is ancient. Its is a very modern city of some 300.000 people with a range of shops comparable with those found in the West End of London(which lies some 120 miles to the south), several fine hotels, an Art Gallery, lovely parks and a multitude of other attractions and amenities. These include two modern theatres, the Nottingham Playhouse, which since its opening in the mid-1960s has won a national reputation as one of the leading repertory theatres in Britain; and the Nottingham Theatre Royal, more than a century old and recently completely refurbished.

Nottinghamshire's prosperity comes from its varied industry in which coal mining and agriculture each feature strongly. Textiles, lace, hosiery, engineering, bicycles, tobacco, pharmaceuticals, chemicals, telecommunications, brewing, shoes and furniture are also extremely important products from a country which is "home" to worldwide household names such as Players, Boots, Raleigh and Plessey.

Nottinghamshire is further enriched by its market towns of Newark, Mansfield, Retford, Worksop and Southwell. Each has a special attraction: Newark with its Castle, historic buildings and Civil War connections; Mansfield with its new centre. Retford's attractive market square;

Worksop's Priory Church with its ancient Gate House; and Southwell with its beautiful Norman Cathedral and village-like atmosphere.

LANCASHIRE AND YORKSHIRE

Two major industrial regions are situated to the north of the Midlands. They are Lancashire, which is on the western slopes of the Pennines and Yorkshire on the eastern side.

LANCASHIRE

Lancashire – the region to the northwest of the Midlands, with the largest cities of Manchester and Liverpool – is the centre of the cotton and related textile industries, chemicals of all kinds and textile machinery. Shipbuilding and repairing is also essential for the region.

Lancashire is a historic centre of British industry, it is the birthplace of capitalism and it was here that the Industrial Revolution started.

Liverpool is the second port of Britain, a great commercial and insurance centre and, after London, the greatest centre for processing imported foodstuffs and raw materials (flour milling, soap manufacture, sugar refining and rubber products) and motor-car manufacture. Now a city of 580,000. It was chartered in 1207 by the King John who signed the Magna Carta. His Majesty told everybody to move to Liverpool, but nobody did, to speak of. The town rather dozed until the 18th century, when American cotton began to float on barges down the Mississippi River toward Liverpool and English factories.

The port of Liverpool grew up where a stream flowed onto the Mersey estuary and formed a pool, where the small vessels of the Middle Ages could take shelter. In the space of two hundred years from 1650 to 1850 – Liverpool grew from a small fishing village to become Britain's leading port. Many factors contributed to this development. The port served the Lancashire cotton industry, which was the fastest growing industry in the world.

The centre of the cotton industry is Manchester, which, with its large suburb, Salford, has a population of nearly one million.

Manchester stands on the river Orwell, a tributary of the Mersey. On the opposite bank of the Orwell, is Salford, which is closely connected with Manchester, but functions as a separate town, and for instance, has its own university distinct that of its neighbor.

Like Birmingham, Manchester is of recent growth. It cannot boast of many ancient buildings. Few English cities, however, have better public parks, of which there are over fifty, the largest, named Heaton Park, being over one square mile in extent. In libraries and schools the city is likewise rich: and University of Manchester, founded in 1880 and reorganized in 1903, is famous for its modern studies.

Manchester is the commercial capital of the cotton and man-made fiber textile industries, a very important financial centre and, major port.

Lancashire – a county of great variety with its moorlands and mountains: industrial towns, little villages and farmland. It is famous for its coastline, in particular for the seaside town off Blackpoll

YORKSHIRE

Yorkshire – the eastern neighbor of Lancashire- is separated from the latter by the Pennines. About three- fourth of Britain’s worsted and woolen industries are found here.

Leeds (709,000) is the commercial centre of the woolen textile area and has a large ready-made clothing industry.

Sheffield (532,300) is a heavy-engineering centre famous for its high-quality steels, cutlery and tools. The area’s extensive coal-fields provide nearly one-fourth of Britain’s coal. Here, from small scattered beginnings, arose the great industries which have made the words “Sheffield, England” famous throughout the world. For the people who for centuries have lived among the hills learned from before the days of Chaucer how to shape metal for the service of man; proud of their craft and zealous for its survival they passed on their knowledge and experience from father to son. It is this industrial concentration which makes Sheffield unique among English manufacturing towns in allowing astonishing contrasts: For there is scarcely a street in the city’s centre from which green fields and wooded hillsides cannot be seen. Few such cities can boast that grouse can be shot within their boundaries.

Hull, Kingston-upon-Hull(268,000), to give its full name, is by its size and importance «the capital» of Humberside. It stands at the point where the small river Hull enters the estuary, on the north bank. Hull, one of the world’s largest fishing ports, is also important for vegetable oil processing, paints and saw-milling.

In North Yorkshire the largest town is York (100,000). York – a historic city with Viking and Roman associations and many mediaeval remains. It has also been important as a route centre. Railway engineering developed, and another leading industry is the manufacture of confectionery (including chocolate).

The Yorkshire Dales, are suitable for sheep-breeding, dairying and beef farming, some cultivation of cereals and root-crops for sale off the farm.

West Yorkshire is a very good country for sheep-farming, and it has long been Britain’s most important area for the wool industry.

Lindisfarne, or Holy Island, is connected to the mainland by a causeway at low tide. The monastery there was birthplace of Christianity in England.

THE NORTH OF ENGLAND

This northernmost region of England contains some of the wildest and loneliest parts in the country, but also some of the busiest centers.

The North of England consists of two different areas: the North-West (including Cumbria, otherwise well known as the Lake District – a popular tourist centre due to the picturesque scenery), and the industrial North-East.

THE NORTH-EAST

The Ice Age formed many deep valleys in the counties of Cumbria and North Yorkshire, made rivers into waterfalls and left behind hills and mountains. Beneath the

earth is coal-the foundation of the regions industry. Cambria with its mountains and lakes is one of the most dramatic counties in England.

The North- West has a small industrial district on the west coast –the Cumberland Coalfield.

The first British atomic power station –Calder Hall-was built in the North- West. The unpopulated parts of the area occupied by environmental factors, i.e. the relief and climate.

THE NORTH-EAST

The industrial NORTH-EAST is more dependent than other parts of England on traditional heavy industries- coal-mining, iron and steel manufacture, shipbuilding, ship-repairing and chemicals.

Newcastle-upon-Tyne was the first town to export coal. Today it is the centre of the heavy engineering industry, particularly shipbuilding. Sunderland is another important shipbuilding centre.

Newcastle (Newcastle-upon-Tyne) has the population over 200,000. It is the principle centre of the North East. Newcastle is known for its coal deposits, and “to carry coals you Newcastle” is justly considered “to be suing unnecessary things”. Together with Middles rough, which manufactures steel, Newcastle forms the backbone of the areas basic industries.

Middle borough (149,000), the chief town of the Cleveland area, was merely a small village at the beginning of the nineteenth century. Iron works, later steel works, were established at Middle borough. Shipbuilding also developed.

Northwestern the river Severn, is Shoeshine, the birthplace of the industrial revolution. Iron bridge, where iron was first made, is a living museum. However, there is also a lot of Farming country, for example in the counties of Shoeshine, Worcestershire and Leicestershire. The moorland and hills of Staffordshire and Derbyshire are part of the Peak District. This region has some beautiful countryside in the Peak District Nation anal Park, the Cotswold Hill and the Malvern Hills.

The population of England is ethnically diverse. On the original Celtic population were superimposed the Romans: the Germanic Angles, Saxons, and Jutes: the Scandinavians: the Norman-French: and countless smaller groups. Many Scots, Welsh, and Irish have also settled in England. The most recent arrivals are the Commonwealth immigrants from India and Pakistan and the West Indies, who are estimated to number about 4% of the population.

In Europe, only the Netherlands is more densely peopled than England. The population is over 48 million. About 90% of the population is urban, of which about a third live in seven large conurbations: there are 89 cites with a population over 100,000.

English is the prevailing language, although there are strong dialect variations. England has a moderate marine **climate** that is characterized by mild winters and cool summers. January temperatures range from 3 deg to 7 deg C, and July averages range from 15 deg to 18 deg C. The temperature range is greatest toward the east. Rainfall varies from 510 mm near some parts of the east coast to 1,015 mm in the hills of the west and north. The highest rainfall occurs in the Lake District of Cambria, where in averages 3,290 mm at Seat Waite. Snow occurs widely in winter but rarely remains on the ground for more than a few dais, except in the hills. Humidity is generally high,

and, fogs are common, especially in industrial areas where they may be compounded by air pollution.

England is governed from Westminster (London) as part of the United Kingdom. For purposes of local administration it is divided into Greater London, 39 counties, and 7 metro polities.

LONDON

London is a very old city. It began two thousand ago as a Roman Fortification at a place where it was possible to cross the River Thames. Around the town the Romans built a wall for defense. After the Norman Conquest there was a long period of peace, during which people began building outside the walls. This building continued for a very long time, specially to the west of the city, so that in a few centuries London covered a very large territory. In 1665, during the terrible plague in London, many people left the city and escaped to the villages in the surrounding countryside. In 1666 the Great Fire of London ended the plague, but it also destroyed much of the city. After the plague and Great Fire London was rebuilt and people returned to it, but never again were there so many Londoners living in the city centre.

Today, although many people live in the city centre, but London has spread further outward into the country, including surrounding villages. Greater London now covers about 1600 square kilometers and suburbs of London continue even beyond this area. Some people travel over 150km every day to work in London, while living far away from the city in the country or in other towns.

It is difficult to speak about the centre of London as one definite place. Actually, it has a number of centres, each with a distinct character: the financial and business centre called the City, (spelt with a capital C), the Shopping and entertainment centre in the West End, the government centre in Westminster. Some places on the outskirts of London have kept their village-like character.

Modern London is not one city that has steadily become larger through the centuries: it is a number of cities, towns, and villages that have, during the past centuries, grown together to make one vast urban area.

London is situated upon both banks of the River Thames; it is the largest city in Britain and one of the largest in the world. Its population is about 7 million people.

London dominates the life of Britain. It is the chief port of the country and the most important commercial, manufacturing and cultural centre. There is little heavy industry in London, but there is a wide range of light industry in Greater London.

London consists of three parts: the City of London, the West End and the East End.

About half a million people work in the city but only less than 6000 live there. It is the financial centre of the UK with many banks, offices and Stock Exchange. But the city is also a market for goods of almost every kind, from all parts of the world/

The West End can be called the center of London. Here are the historical palaces as well as the famous parks. Hyde Park with its Speakers corner is also here. Among other parks are Kensington Gardens, St. James Park. In the West End, there is Buckingham Palace, which is the Queen's residence, and the Palace of Westminster, which is the seat of Parliament.

The best known streets here are Whitehall with important Government offices, Downing Street, the London residence of Prime minister and the place where the

Cabinet meets, Fleet Street where most newspapers have their offices, Harley Street where the highest paid doctors live, and some others.

The name West End came to be associated with, luxury, and goods of high quality. It is the area of the largest department stores, cinemas and hotels. There are about 40 theaters, several concert halls, many museums including the British Museum, and the best art galleries.

It is in West End where the University of London is centered with Bloomsbury as London's Student quarter.

The Port of London is the east of the City. Here, today are remains of docks, and the great industrial areas that depend upon shipping. There are many wharfs and warehouses along the river banks. This is the East End of London, unattractive in appearance, but very important to the country's commerce.

Rationally, someone born in the East End is known as a cockney, although this name is now given to anyone who speaks like a Londoner.

4. Wales

Wales is a small country, bounded on the north and west by the Irish Sea, and on the south by the Bristol Channel. Its total area is 8,006 square miles and its total population is 2,8 million people.

The ancient capital of Wales is Caernarvonshire, where the British monarchs eldest son is traditionally crowned Prince of Wales.

Wales is divided into thirteen counties, but 70 per cent of the population resides in the three industrial counties of the South – Glamorgan, Monmouth and Carmarthen. Agriculture is the main occupation in the remaining ten counties in Mid – Wales and North-Wales.

Of the three industrial counties in the south, Glamorgan is the biggest, with nearly one-half of the total population of Wales. Its main industries are coal mining, iron and steel, and engineering. About two-thirds of the population lives in the South Wales coastal area, where the three biggest towns are located: Swansea, Cardiff and Newport.

Cardiff (280.000), the modern national capital of Wales, is the largest city in industrial South Wales. It rose to importance with the coal mining and iron industries. Today the cargoes it handles are mainly imports, to be distributed throughout South Wales. On imported grain flour milling developed as well as other food processing. Cardiff has a modern shopping centre. North of Cardiff lie the valleys. These are the heart of the Welsh coal and steel industries.

The main port of Wales today is Milford Haven (situated in the very southwest) because of its oil tanker traffic. It is one of the leading oil terminals, of Britain. Refineries grew up on opposite shores and Milford Haven became an important refining center. A pipeline takes petroleum to a refinery near Swansea.

Swansea is an important container port. CAE Philly has one of the biggest castles in Europe, including a famous leaning tower. It was built by the Normans to defend themselves against the Welsh. Swansea and Newport shared coal exports too. However, later they suffered the same decline like Cardiff.

South Wales is a region of contrasts. The industrial cities of Swansea, Cardiff and Newport are only a short journey away from sandy beaches and busy holiday resorts.

Mid Wales is rather sparsely populated. Along the coast are many fishing ports. North Wales has several impressive castles built by English kings. Anglesey is flat, but the rest of the region is very mountainous. Recently two nuclear power stations were built: one in North Wales, the other in Anglesey.

Tourism is mainly concentrated in the northern coastal strip. Surrounded on three sides by an attractive coastline, Wales has become a popular holiday resort. It is also well known for its hills and dales and in these places a great number of people derive their livelihood from tourists and holiday-makers.

There are several more lakes and artificial reservoirs, some of them providing the water supply for the cities of Birmingham and Liverpool in England as well as one or two power dams providing electricity.

There is no other part of the British Isles where national spirit is stronger, national pride more intense or national tradition more cherished than in Wales still proudly wear their national dress on festive occasions; the Welsh language is still very much a living force and is taught side by side with English in schools; and Welshmen, who have a highly developed artistic sense, have a distinguished record in the realm of poetry, song and drama. Aberystwyth is the centre of Welsh education and learning.

The Welsh call their country “*Camry*”, and themselves they call “*Camry*”, a word which has same root as “*comprador*” (friend or comrade).

5. *Scotland*

At the beginning of the 6th century, Scotland was ruled by Scottish kings and queens, but was divided between different groups of people: the Pictas and Celts, who were the oldest inhabitants, the Scots, who came from Northern Ireland, the Britons, who were driven north by the Anglo-Saxon invaders of England, and the Angels, who originally came from what is now Germany. The Romans had left two centuries earlier.

England and Scotland were finally united when, in 1603, the son of Mary Queen of Scots became James I of England. This was because Mary's cousin Elizabeth I of England had left no heir when she died.

Today Scotland is part of the United Kingdom and is governed from London. There is a special minister in the Government, the Secretary of State for Scotland, who is responsible for education, local government and other matters in Scotland. Although the legal education and banking systems are slightly different from those in England, life is very similar to the rest of the United Kingdom.

Comprising an area of some 30,000 square miles. Scotland has a population of just over five million people of whom about one third live in the cities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Dundee.

All the inhabitants speak English although about 100,000 still speak Scottish Gaelic. Many of the Scottish accents of English are very strong, and visitors from abroad (or even England) sometimes have difficulty in understanding them.

In terms of physical geography Scotland can be divided into the Southern Uplands, which never rise to much more than about two thousand five hundred feet, the Central Lowlands, which include the valleys of the rivers Tay, Clyde and Forth,

and the northern Highlands which are themselves divided by the Great Glen, which runs from fort William to Inverness. In this area are the tallest peaks, the highest of which is Ben, Nevis (4,406-ft high-about 1,342 m) in the Grampian Mountains. The Northern Highlands are sparsely populated but contain much of the most beautiful and loch, moorland, mountain and coastal scenery in the country.

Scotland is a very mountainous country; there –fourth of the area of Scotland is occupied by mountains with a great amount of moorland, in which dew people live.

Scotland is famous for its beautiful large lakes with mountains, round them. They are not like the English ones: there are not so many trees and flowers, and green hills around them as in England. There are many rivers in Scotland, but they are not long. The longest and the most important Scottish river is the Clyde.

Scottish steel has long been used chiefly by heavy industries of the Glasgow area. Where shipbuilding has been paramount. For a time Clyde side was the most famous shipbuilding district in the world. Shipyards extended along both banks of the Clyde estuary for about 30 km/

Clyde side also benefited by having pioneered the building of ships. Foreign competition, which drove Britain from first to fourth place among shipbuilding nations, seriously affected Clyde side. In the 1970s, further beset by the economic crisis, Clyde side lost its place as the leading shipbuilding area in Britain.

Glasgow (715,600) is Scotland's most population city and third largest in the British Isles. It stands at the lowest bridging point on the river Clyde and thus became the outstanding market centre for western Scotland, and commercially and industrially dominates Clyde side.

The industrial picture in Glasgow has rather changed. Engineering has not drunk to the same extent as coal mining and shipbuilding. But nowadays practically as many workers are in the service industries as in manufacturing. Of the latter, textile and clothing production as long been important, and carpets are among woolen goods. Food products, furniture and office equipment are also manufactured. An activity, which is extremely important in Scotland export trade, is the blending of Scotch whisky produced in Highland distilleries.

Glasgow is also the home two well-known football clubs, Glasgow Rangers and Celtic.

In the New Towns, which emerged in the 1960s to the east of Glasgow, new engineering industries developed, especially electronics.

Edinburgh (438,700) has long been recognized as the capital of Scotland, in spite of being second in size to Glasgow. The latter began to overtake Edinburgh in population with the Industrial Revolution. While Glasgow led the development of heavy industry, Edinburgh remained the country's political and cultural centre. It is also the centre of government and commercial life.

Several factors have made Edinburgh the outstanding centre of tourism in Scotland. Its picturesque surface features led to being called "The Athens of the North". On the cultural side, a great number of visitors is attracted to the city by the annual Edinburgh International Festival in the late summer. Edinburgh has castle on a high rock, Holyrood Palace, the ancient residence of the Scottish Kings, the University and many famous schools. The capital of Scotland is famous for rubber manufacturing and engineering and also for its biscuit industry/

Every citizen in Edinburgh checks his watch by the One O'Clock Gun which is fired every day in Edinburgh Castle.

Scotland's third is Aberdeen (200,00), the centre of Scotland's fishing industry. When North Sea oil was exploited from the late 1960s, Aberdeen became a centre of the new industry and also the administration and supply base for the offshore oilfields. Aberdeen is built of granite which is found locally and the quarrying of it is one of the main industries.

Dundee (177,000), situated on the wide mouth of the most famous salmon river the Tay, is the fourth city in Scotland. It is a port important for shipbuilding. It is also the centre of lute manufacture in Britain. Dundee cakes and marmalade are exported all over the world.

Summing up economic activity in Scotland one should bear in mind that the region is beset by the decline of the traditional industries which has led to high unemployment. Despite attract new industries into the region, their development has been extensive enough to compensate the decline of coal mining steel production and shipbuilding. This explains the slow growth of the population and as emigration has remained unchecked, there is an actual decline of the overall population of Scotland as compared with the 1960s

THE BEAUTIES OF SCOTLAND

Scotland is a country of hills and lakes. Hills dominate in the northern part of Scotland, traditionally called the Highlands.

The Scottish coastline is very irregular. The estuaries of Scottish rivers, called firths, are long narrowing arms of the sea going deep inland. Scottish lakes, called loch, are also long and narrow. In the past all those lochs joined the sea and some of them still do so. The largest and the most beautiful of all the in Scotland is Loch Lomond, which is 23 miles in length and 5 miles at its widest point. Loch Lomond has more than 30 beautiful islands. It lies within easy reach of Glasgow

The most famous of the Scottish lochs, however, is Loch Ness, because of the mystery of the Loch Ness monster. It is difficult to say exactly when and how the story arose. According to a chronicler of the 6th century, reported appearances of the creature date from the time of St. Columba who saw it about to attack a man in the water. The lake became popular in the early thirties when a new road was opened around Loch Ness. According to a report in a London newspaper, a tourist driving his car along the banks of Loch Ness in April 1933 noticed a very strange creature in the water. It was about 30 yards long with two humps in its back, the head of a snake and two very short front legs. Since that time, there been many similar reports, particularly in the holiday season if there is a shortage of other exciting news.

According to one theory, some prehistoric creatures swam into Loch Ness when it was still joined to the sea and were later – and present-day monsters are their descendants. According to another view, the strange creatures, which supposedly live in the waters of Loch Ness, are simply seals or otters. There are people, however, who treat the whole problem very seriously indeed. From time to time investigations are conducted with the use of all kinds of modern equipment, photographs are taken and films are made. Unfortunately, the photographs are not very clear. The strange dark shapes, which appear in them, can easily be plants or branches of sunken trees.

The mystery of the Loch Ness monster has not been solved so far. But “Nessie”, whatever it is, has certainly done some good. It has become a great tourist attraction, bringing a lot of money to the region.

Alan Ross, a London artist, has made a sculpture, “Nessie” reproducing the Loch Ness monster. It was towed through London on its way to the Scottish lake. The cement-and-steel monster is about 50 feet long 13 feet high and 14 feet tall.

EDINBURGH

Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, is one of the most beautiful cities in Europe, full of historical monuments of great interest.

The dominating feature of the city is the Castle, standing high on a steep rock. It is in the royal apartments of the Castle that the son of marry Queen of Scots, the future King James I, was born.

The Royal Palace of Holly rood House, which is the official residence of the present queen of England, Elizabeth II, when she comes on a visit to Scotland, is also associated with the memory of Mary Stuart.

The finest street in Edinburgh and the main shopping area is Prince’s Street. In the gardens on its south side stands the monument of Walter Scott, the famous writer of historical novels. Beyond the Scott monument, at the food of the Castle, is the National Gallery of Scotland.

To the north of Edinburgh is the Firth of Forth. The Forth Bridge, which goes across it, is one of the great engineering achievements of the world.

Edinburgh University, which was founded in 1582, is famous for its medical faculty.

Edinburgh is also an important centre of cultural life, and each year, in late August and early September, it produces a festival of music and drama, which is famous all over the world.

6. Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland, part of the United Kingdom, occupies 14,120 sq km, or about 17 percent, of the island, of Ireland. Its six counties were part of the ancient northeastern Irish province of ULSTER. The population of Northern Ireland is 1,577,836 (1991 census). BELFAST is the capital.

A dominant lowland centered on Laugh Neigh is almost surrounded by rugged mountains. The highest are the Antrim Mountains in the northeast, the Mourner, Mountains in the southeast, and the Sprain Mountains on the west. The River Bann flows northward to the Atlantic Ocean, draining the central plain. The southwest is drained by the River Shannon.

The region has cool winters, with January temperatures averaging 4 degrees C. Summers are warm, with July average temperatures of 15 degrees C. Annual precipitation exceeds 1,650 mm in upland areas: Northern Ireland experienced glaciations, and the lowlands are covered with poorly drained boulder clay. The mild climate and abundant rain at all seasons enable grass to grow well, giving the landscape its rich, green color.

More than two-thirds of the land is used for agriculture, and most farms are small family holdings. Dairying is important, and most of the land is used for producing fodder for livestock.

Barley and potatoes are planted on much of the remaining farmland. Flax, once an important crop, is now imported for the linen industry.

Two imported industries developed during the 1800s: linen weaving and shipbuilding.

Textile weaving, now dominated by synthetics, employs about one-fifth of the work force, especially in greater Belfast. Extensive shipyards lie along Belfast Lough, northeast of the city. Other industries include engineering, apparel manufacturing, and food processing.

BELFAST- THE CAPITAL CITY

For many people coming to Ulster, Belfast is their port of entrance. Some of them will perhaps pass through it quickly, valuing it as the gateway to one of the most beautiful areas of mountain, lake, seashore and open countryside in Europe: but for those with time and interest, it is worth exploring for its own sake. It also gives key to a deeper understanding of the whole province. As the relative size of population shows, Belfast stands in the province of Ulster rather like a big house in a moderate-sized garden: and even if we prefer the garden to the house, it is well to become acquainted with the people who live in the house.

One of the first things that must strike the visitor to Belfast, if he comes here by sea up the landlocked waters of Belfast Lough or descends upon the city from the hills by the road that leads from Alder Grove Airport, is that Belfast is beautifully situated. Lying in a broad natural amphitheatre, gracefully surrounded by hills, and looking down a deep inlet of the sea, Belfast has rich variety and offers many pleasant surprises. The centre of the city is built like Amsterdam on piles driven into mud, a tight-packed area of industrial and commercial buildings, but as the broad roads that radiate from the centre bring us out to the suburban districts on the hillsides or by the sea or southwards along the valley of the River Lagan, we find the city ringed with open and attractive residential suburbs.

Belfast is a modern city of the 19th century and of the industrial revolution. Its expansion was rather later than that of most other British industrial cities and it is thus avoided some of their worst features. There are a few trim Georgian buildings and one or two houses dating from the 17th century, but the mass of the city's buildings are late Victorian or belong to the present century. The City Hall Donegal Square, with its lofty dome, is one of the chief landmarks. There are a number of public and ecclesiastical buildings worth seeing, including the huge Law Courts and Protestant (Church of Ireland) Cathedral.

To the north and west lie the Belfast Hills. The most commanding viewpoint among these, though not the highest, is the Cave Hill (which can be ascended if one has an energetic disposition).

The usual approach is through one of the three public parks. These parks give access to fine scenery and cliff, and command excellent views across the sea, the city and the surrounding countryside.

EXPLORING BELFAST

The central area of Belfast consists of very marshy ground and this has necessitated the piling of most large buildings, including the City Hall. The handsome Telephone House at the end of May Street, for example, has as its foundation a

concrete raft supported on 400 concrete piles sunk to an average depth of 43 feet. The Albert Memorial clock in High Street is one of those buildings, which despite piling have shown signs of subsidence. Built nearly a hundred years ago, this Belfast landmark shows visible evidence of a desire to emulate the leaning tower of Pisa. The hands, by the way, move only each half-minute. The “Albert” great night is New Years Eve, when celebrating crowds gather around it and many a bottle is splintered against its massive walls.

Up till 1st April, the Museum and Art Gallery at Stranmillis Road was under the aegis of the Belfast Corporation. On that date, it became a national institution, known as “The Ulster museum”, under the control of a board of trustees. The present building, opened, in 1929, was erected by Belfast Corporation and represents about two-fifths of the ultimate scheme. It houses an art gallery which is particularly rich in modern Irish painting, a fine collection of Irish silverware, and exhibits which give a vivid picture of Ulster history, geology, and animal life. There is a specialist library, which includes early Belfast-printed books, a fascinating collection of photographs, which record Ulster life half a century ago, and the Homer collection of painting wheels.

The Transport Museum, situated in William Street, is administered by the Belfast Corporation. It houses one of the finest collections of transport vehicles in Europe. Franking the Ulster Museum is one of Belfast’s oldest and most pleasant parks, the Botanic Gardens, which was originally owned by a private society but has been the property of the public for about seventy year. Its main features are the conservatory, the tropical greenhouses, and the ropewalks.

Behind the conservatory are grouped the main building of the Queens University of Belfast, so called because it was originally one of these colleges founded by Queen Victoria under an 1845 Act of Parliament. The beautiful main buildings were designed by Sir Charles Lanyon and were opened in 1849. Since that time, many other fine buildings have been added and the pace of expansion is still rapid. Typical of the newer buildings is the vast David Keir Building, straddling a site from the Steamy Road to the Malone Road, completed in 1958 at a cost of about 2,000,000 pounds. There are additional university buildings in Elmwood Avenue and other areas adjacent to the original site.

Among the modern buildings in Belfast, the six-storey Telephone House in May Street and the six-storey Broadcasting House in Ormolu Avenue are perhaps the most pleasing. The use of silver-grey bricks on a Mourner granite base gives character to the functional exchange and a handsome curved front is a feature of the impressive BBC buildings. Not far away from the BBC, fronting on Ormolu Road, is the headquarters of Ulster Television, the commercial television contractors. They have converted and modernized two traditional linen warehouses to form a block of studios and administrative offices which by their contemporary brightness lighten a district dominated by the red brick of the vast gasworks opposite, and its towering gasholders

COUNTY ANTRIM

In county Antrim, which lies to the north of Belfast, there are many delightful holiday resorts. The county is bounded by the sea on the north and east and the river Bann and the Lake of Lough Neagh on the west. The eastern part of the county consists of a basalt plateau through which deep glens descend north-eastward to

the sea, a wide area of splendid moorland scenery. At its northeast corner at Fair Head the county looks out towards Scotland with a black perpendicular cliff 636 feet in height. Along the north coast, Antrim meets the Atlantic Ocean with a line of stem and splendid cliffs. Some of the ships of the great Armada sent by Philip 11 of Spain against England were smashed to pieces against these in the wild weather of 1588. At gaps in the cliffs, at the foot of glens, there are many pleasant seaside resorts and some fine beaches.

If we set out northward from Belfast by the road around the of Belfast Lough, the first town of importance is Carrick Fergus, once the principal town in Ulster, with its 12th century castle in good preservation. Then we come to the pleasant residential and seaside town of Whitehead. From there the road runs beside Lame Lough, a long inlet of the sea, beyond which lies the peninsula of Island Magee, popular as a seaside resort of the quieter kind. Larne is a port town and a steamship service to and from Starrier in Scotland, the shortest sea crossing between Great Britain and Ireland. The town is also a holiday resort.

7. ENGLISH CHANNEL

The English Channel (French: La Manche, "the sleeve") is an arm of the Atlantic Ocean extending between southern England and northern France and connecting the Atlantic on the west with the North sea on the east via the Strait of Dover. The English ports of Plymouth, Southampton, Portsmouth, Folkestone, and Dover and the French ports of Brest, Cherbourg, Le Havre, and Calais are on the Channel. It is 34 to 240km wide, 560km long, and has an area of 89, 900 sq km. Its maximum depth is 172m. Surface water temperatures range from 7 degrees in February to 16 degrees C in September, to 16 degrees C in September, with higher temperatures occurring at the west end, warmed by the Gulf Stream.

Because of the effect of the Atlantic Ocean waves being forced into the narrow Channel, its tides are strong and unusual, particularly at the new moon. The average speed of the tidal stream is moderate, although tidal races such as that off the Isle of Portland (a peninsula of southern England) and the one between the island of Alderney and the French coast may be quite fast. Weather in the Channel is unpredictable and often windy, cloudy, and rainy; the famous Channel fog is most common during the winter. The Channel has important fishing grounds.

The Channel was first crossed by balloon in 1785. The first man to swim across the Channel was Matthew Webb in 1875. Ferries and hovercraft link several port cities on both Channel coast. As a physical barrier to invasion, however, the Channel has served well. Julius Caesar's legions crossed it in 55 BC, and in 1066 William the Conqueror sailed over it with his Norman armies. But neither Napoleon nor Hitler managed the crossing- although both threatened to make it. As a psychological barrier the Channel has been even more effective, providing the British with their sense of proactive isolation from the "corrupting" influences of the Continent. The Channel Tunnel, the first land link between the British Isles and continental Europe since a land bridge vanished 10,000 ago, threatens to end that sense of apartness. Opened in 1994, its train service speeds passengers and their cars under 38km of choppy Channel waters in a brief 30 minutes.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

1. What is the origin the word “Great Britain”?
2. Can you draw the Union Jack?
3. How the Standard English accepted?
4. Does the English language have any relations with other European languages? Give any examples.
5. How many parts is England divided according to economy of the country?
6. Which city is the largest in East Anglia?
7. For what is the county Kent popular?
8. Which region is considered as a heart of the motorway?
9. Do you know the meaning of the suffix “shire”?
10. How many cities with the population over 100000 are there?
11. Do you know of any information about the reasons of the Great Fire?
12. What is the ancient capital of Wales?
13. How many main centres of Wales you know besides Cardiff?
14. What does the word “Cumry” mean?
15. Scotland’s the most populous city is...
16. Describe the monster of Loch Ness.
17. Which university of Great Britain is famous for its medical faculty?



LECTURE III. Britain’s Government

The Problem to be discussed:

1. *Political system*
2. *Queen Elisabeth II*
3. *Queen Elisabeth II*

4. Prime Minister and the Cabinet

KEYWORDS:

Monarch, commander-in-chief, legislature, integral, convention, the Speaker, retirement, legislation, “royal assent”, arbitrary.

1. Political system

Great Britain is a parliamentary monarchy. Officially, the head of the state is the king or the queen. The power of the monarch is not absolute but constitutional. The monarch acts only on the advice of the ministers.

The hereditary principle upon which the monarchy is founded is strictly observed. The now reigning monarch queen Elisabeth II is a descendent of the Saxon king Egbert.

The monarch, be it king or queen, is the head of executive body, in integral part of the legislature, the head of the judicial body, the commander-in-chief of the armed forces of the crown, the head of the Established Church of England and the head of the British Commonwealth of Nations.

Practically speaking, there is no written constitution in Great Britain. The term “English Constitution” means the leading principles, conventions and laws, many of which have been existed for centuries, though they have undergone modifications and extensions in agreement with the advance of civilization. These principles are expressed in such documents of major importance of *Magna Carta*, a famous document in English history agreed upon in 1215 by King John and the barons, which set certain limits on royal power and which later regarded as a law stating basic civil rights, Habeas Corpus Act, a law passed in 1679, which guarantees to a person arrested the right to appear in court of justice so that the jury should decide whether he is guilty or not guilty; *The Bill of Rights*, an act of Parliament passed in 1689, which confirmed certain rights of the people; the laws deciding the succession of the royal family, and a number of constitutional acts, separate laws and agreements.

2. Queen Elisabeth II

Elisabeth II, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories and Head of the commonwealth, as her proper title puts it, celebrated the 40th anniversary of her accession in 1992. Her ancestry dates back to William I, the Norman who seized the throne of England in 1066.

Born on Apr. 21, 1926 Elisabeth became heir to the throne when her father became king as GEORGE VI upon the abdication of his brother EDWARD VIII in December 1936. on Nov. 20, 1947, she married Philip Mountbatten, duke of EDINBURGH, a distant cousin whose mother was a great-granddaughter of Queen Victoria. When George died on Feb. 6, 1952, Elisabeth came to the throne at the age of 25.

The public duties of the British monarch were then entirely ceremonial, but Queen Elisabeth took her responsibilities seriously, inspecting state papers daily and consulting with prime ministers. She was educated in the role of constitutional monarch by her father and her grandmother Queen Mary, wife of George V. She was

also trained by her mother, Queen Mother. Harold Macmillan, Prime Minister from 1957 to 1963, wrote of her: “She loves her duty, and means to be a Queen and not a puppet.” Her constitutional role obliges her to keep opinions to herself. This makes her a somewhat colorless public personality, but those who know her speak of her shrewdness and sense of humor.

Queen Elisabeth is the wealthiest woman in Britain, having inherited the extensive royal family estates. Under pressure from public opinion, she volunteered in 1992 for the first time to pay income tax. She has four children: CHARLES, PRINCE OF WALES (b.1948), the heir to the throne, who married Lady Diana Spencer in 1981 and separated from her in 1992; Anne, the Princess Royal (b.1950), who divorced her husband of 18 years, Capt. Mark Phillips, in 1992 and married Timothy Laurence that year; Andrew, duke of York (b.1960), who married Sarah Ferguson in 1986 and separated from her in 1992; and Prince Edward (b.1964). Prince William (b.1982), Charles and Diana’s older son, is second in line to the throne.

3. *The British Parliament*

Power in Great Britain is divided among three branches: *the legislative branch*, *the executive branch* and *the judicial branch*.

The Parliament of Great Britain is *the legislative body* of that nation. Formally, Parliament consists of the monarch, the House of Commons, and the House of Lords. In common usage, however, the term refers to Commons and Lords only. Virtually all power rests with the House of Commons. The power exercised by Parliament is unlimited, making it in fact the sovereign of the nation.

The House of Commons has about 650 elected members and is presided over by the Speaker. The maximum period between elections is five years, but the actual timing of an election is usually decided by the PRIME MINISTER. The minimum voting age is 18, and the voting is taken by secret ballot. Each Member of Parliament (called MPs for short) represents an area in England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. MPs are elected either at a general election or at a by-election following the death or retirement of an MP. The total membership of the Lords is about 1,200, but the majority of the nation’s peers take no active part in the proceedings of the house. Members of the Lords include hereditary peers, life peers, the ten senior judges, the archbishops of Canterbury and York, and 24 bishops of the Church of England. The chairman of the House of Lords is the Lord Chancellor and he sits on a special seat called the Woolsack. Both houses, and especially the Commons, are organized along party lines. Normally the largest party in Commons from the government and the leading members of this party are appointed to senior ministerial positions (the cabinet). They must explain and defend their policies and acts to Commons.

All important legislation is introduced into Parliament by the government. House of Lords no longer has the power to kill a piece of legislation. It can initiate amendments on bills (except money bills) and delay legislation.

Because the government usually has a majority in Commons, it can normally ensure that its major policies are accepted by Parliament. Party loyalty and discipline in Commons are strong. When the government, however, does not have an actual majority in Commons (because of third-party members), it must enlist enough support from minority members to get legislation passed. When such coalitions fail on an

important vote, the government falls. The Prime Minister and cabinet resign, and if no other party leader is able to form a government, Parliament is dissolved and a new election is called.

Parliament's main function is no make House of Commons proposes a bill, which is discussed by the House. If the bill is approved, it is sent to the House of Lords, which, in case it does not like it, has the right to veto it for one year. If the House of Commons pass the bill again the following year, the House of Lords cannot reject it. Finally, the bill is sent to the Queen for the "royal assent", after which it becomes a law.

4. Prime Minister and the Cabinet

The executive branch is headed by the Prime Minister, who is appointed by the king (queen). According to the tradition, the Prime minister is the leader of the party that has won the elections and has the majority in the House of Commons. The Prime Minister appoints the ministers to compose the government. After that, the newly appointed ministers are presented to the monarch for the formal approval. The most important ministers of the government (about 20), each responsible for a particular area of the government, form the Cabinet. The Cabinet is responsible to the legislature, and it remains in power as long as it retains the confidence and support of the legislature or until the dissolution of the legislature prior to national elections. Members of the Cabinet make joint decisions or advise the Prime Minister.

The main function of the executive branch of government is to administer the laws (to see to it that the laws are carried out, actually to rule the country).

The second largest party becomes the official opposition with its own leader and "Shadow cabinet". Leader of the opposition is a recognized post in the House of Commons.

The judicial branch interprets the laws.

The highest judicial body is Supreme Court of Judicature, which consist of two divisions: the High Court of Justice and the Court of Appeal. It is often said that English law is superior to the law of most other countries. Indeed, the English judicial system contains many rules, which protect the individual against arbitrary action by the police and the government.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

1. What kind of governments do you know generally?
2. Why do we call the government of the U.K. parliamentary monarchy?
3. After which events did Queen Elisabeth come to throne?
4. Were there any uses for common people by Queen Elisabeth?
5. Explain the word "parliament". What is it?
6. How can the law be appeared?
7. For which areas are the ministers responsible? Give examples.
8. Are there any similarities or differences between English and Uzbek governments?
9. If you were British citizen which party would you choose to be accepted? Why?
10. Do the parties always do their principles?



LECTURE IV Political Parties of Great Britain

The Problem to be discussed:

1. *The Conservative Party*
2. *The Labour Party*
3. *The Liberal Party*

KEYWORDS:

To hamper, membership, eventually, untimely, unified.

Political Parties first emerged in Britain at the end of the 17th century. The Conservative and Liberal Parties are the oldest and until the end of the 19th century they were the only parties elected to the House of Commons. The main British political groupings are the Conservative and Labour parties and the Party of Liberal Democrats. The Conservative Party is the ruling party, the Labour Party – the opposition to the Conservative – and the Party of Liberal Democrats is called “conservatively oriented”. Social Democratic Party was formed in 1981 and made in alliance with the Liberal Party in 1988.

There are also some other parties: the Scottish National and Welsh Nationalist Parties, the Communist Party of Britain and the Communist Party of Great Britain.

Because of the electoral method in use, only two major parties obtain seats in the House of Commons. People belonging to smaller political parties join one of the larger parties work from within to make their influence felt. The exception to this are members of the Scottish National and Welsh Nationalist Parties, who, because their influence votes are concentrated in specific geographical areas, can manage to win seats although their total support is relatively small.

1. The Conservative Party

The Conservative party of Great Britain developed as the result of the Reform Bill of 1832, which gave more parliamentary seats to industrial areas and lowered the property requirements for voting. In order to appeal to a wider electorate, the leader of the TORY PARTY, Sir Robert PEEL, adopted the name Conservative and set out to broaden the Tory program. His abolition of the CORN LAWS in 1846 enraged traditional Tories, whose primary policy – after support of the crown and the established church – was the protection of agriculture. As a result, Peel’s followers gravitated toward the emerging Liberal party. Benjamin DISRAELI, who assumed leadership of the Conservatives in the mid-century, however, gave new formulation to the party’s principles: to preserve the nation’s institutions, especially the crown; to

maintain the empire; to secure peace with honour; and to ameliorate the condition of the people.

Conservative reform measures attracted the votes of many middle-class people, and in 1886 the party was strengthened by the accession to its ranks of the Liberal Unionists, those Liberals who opposed home rule for Ireland. From 1886 to 1905, the Conservatives were in office for all but 3 years. They were returned to office in 1915, as part of a wartime coalition, and from 1922 to 1945 they were in power almost continuously. Later they held office from 1951 to 1964 and from 1970 to 1974 and were returned again in 1979. Their devotion to the principles of Disraeli has been reasserted by such 20th century leaders as Sir Winston CHURCHILL, Anthony EDEN, and Harold MACMILLAN. Under THE leadership of Edward HEATH and Margaret THATCHER from the 1960s through the 1980s, the party negotiated (1873) British entry into the European Economic Community and advanced strong antiunion measures to fight inflation. Thatcher, who was Prime Minister for over 11 years (1979-90), was succeeded by John MAJOR.

2. The Labour Party

The Labour Party, one of Great Britain's two major political parties, came into being in 1900 as the offspring of the British trade union and socialist movements of the late 19th century. The reform Acts of 1867 and 1884, which enfranchised the workers, the founding (1868) of the TRADES UNION CONGRES (TUC) to coordinate the burgeoning labour movement, and the forming of the socialist FABIAN SOCIETY (1883) and of the Independent Labour party (ILP, 1893) laid the groundwork for a viable Labour party. In 1900 the TUC and the ILP—at the urging of the Fabian Society and of Keir HARDIE, who had founded the Scottish Labour party in 1888—merged to form the Labour Representation Committee. In 1906 this organization was renamed the Labour party. Its early development was hampered by poor organization and by widely divergent political views. In World War I the pacifist stand of the Labour party's leader Ramsay MAKDONALD led to his replacement in 1914 by Arthur HENDERSON. The party joined in the coalition governments during the war, but it withdrew in 1918. by 1922, growing postwar economic and social problems, a split in the Liberal party, and the resolution of many of the differences between the trade union and the socialist factions resulted in Labour becoming the second strongest party in Great Britain.

The Macdonald Governments

In 1924, with Liberal support, the first Labour government was formed, led by Ramsay Macdonald. Macdonald encountered political difficulties over the question of relations with the USSR, and the government fell before the year was out. Labour returned to power in 1929-31 with another minority government. Faced with the world economic crisis, MacDonald turned to conservative policies that were rejected by his own cabinet; he formed (1931) a new coalition with Liberals and Conservatives. Although the Labour party expelled him from its ranks, he continued as prime minister with support from other parties until 1935. labour did not return to power until 1940, when it joined Winston Churchill's wartime coalition government.

The Atlee Era

By the 1940s, the party had developed a broad program of social reform involving nationalization of key industries. In July 1945, it won a decisive victory at the polls, and Clement ATLEE became prime minister in Labour's first majority government. Attlee's able cabinet included Ernest BEVIN as foreign secretary, Sir Stafford CRIPPS as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Aneurin BEVAN as minister of health. The government passed a comprehensive national health bill and nationalized the Bank of England and major industries. By 1951, nationalization extended to one-fifth of the economy. Labour also oversaw the granting of independence to India in 1947 and supported the formation of NATO.

The 1950 elections severely reduced Labour's parliamentary majority, and in 1951 the Conservatives returned to power for 13 years. Ensuing years were marked by ideological conflict within Labour's ranks. Left-wingers, led by Aneurin Bevan, advocated further nationalization of industry and a reduced dependence on the United States. They lost to those led by Hugh GAITSKELL, who wanted a less doctrinaire program. A change also took place in party membership, with suburban and middle-class people joining in greater numbers.

The 1960s and After

The Labour party was in power again from 1964 to 1970 under Harold WILSON and returned once more in 1974. The country's economic difficulties were a continuing burden. Great Britain's participation in the European Economic Community troubled many members and inflationary wage demands by unions that formed the core of the party caused considerable friction. An energy crisis, low productivity, and the huge costs of the welfare state compounded its difficulties. James CALLAGHAN, who succeeded Harold Wilson in 1976, had some success in fighting inflation, but a series of strikes and renewed economic problems in the winter of 1978-79 led to Labour's losing to a vote of confidence in the house of Commons (March 1979) and then to the party's crushing defeat by the Conservatives in May 1979. The split between the left- and right wing factions of the party widened decisively in 1980 over issues of party organization. In November, Callaghan was succeeded by Michael FOOT, a left-wing moderate. In 1981, amid great controversy, the party voted to adopt a system of choosing a leader in which representatives of the unions and local organizations participated as well as members of Parliament (who had previously been the sole electors). This left-wing victory caused four former cabinet members to leave the party and form the new Social Democratic party, (The Social Democrats subsequently allied with the Liberal party, eventually as the Liberal Democrats.) Weakened by this defection, Labour was defeated at the polls in the general elections of 1983, 1987, and 1992. Meanwhile leadership of the party passed in 1983 to Neil KINNOCK, in 1992 to John SMITH, and in 1994, after Smith's untimely death, to Tony BLAIR.

3. The Liberal Party

The Liberal party in Great Britain was formed in the mid-19th century by members of the WING PARTY who joined with industrialists, businessmen, Radicals, and Peelites (supporters of Sir Robert PEEL, who broke with the Tories) in support of such policies as free trade and freedom of the individual. In time, the Liberal party was

responsible for important social legislation in such fields as education and labour. In their outlook the important social thinkers as Jeremy Bentham, John Locke, John Stuart Mill, and Herbert Spencer. In politics, they regarded the state in general and the crown in particular as the principal potential enemy of freedom. In economics, they strongly favored competition.

The government formed in 1846 by Lord John Russell (later 1st Earl RUSSELL) is sometimes considered to have been the first Liberal government. As an organized party, however, the Liberals made their appearance under William GLADSTONE, who was four times prime minister (1868-74, 1880-85, 1886, 1892-94). Gladstone's policies as prime minister included free trade, home rule for Ireland and electoral reform. His advocacy of home rule split the party in 1886, when some of his supporters, led by Joseph CHAMBERLAIN, assumed the name Liberal Unionists and allied themselves with the Conservatives. The Liberal party, under such leaders as Sir Henry CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN, Herbert ASQUITH, and David LLOYD GEORGE, alternated in power with the Conservative party until soon after World War I. By that time, a serious split between Lloyd George and Asquith, economic depression, the growth of working-class radicalism, and renewed trouble in Ireland had led to the sapping of Liberal strengths and the emergence of the Labour party, which quickly became the chief opposition to the Conservatives. The Liberals was able to win nearly 30 percent of the vote in 1923 but declined afterward; except for coalition governments in 1931-32 and during World War II (1940-45), they remained out of power. Under such leaders as Joe Grimond, Jeremy THORPE, and David STEEL, they remained Britain's third party in the postwar period. During the 1980s, they joined the Social party (SDP) in an electoral grouping called the Alliance, hoping to displace Labour as the main opposition party. The Alliance won 25.4 percent of the vote in the 1983 elections and 22.6 percent in 1987. Formally allied as the Social and the Liberal Democrats in 1988 and called Liberal Democrats from 1990, the unified party polled 17.9 percent of the votes in 1992.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS



LECTURE V

British Educational System

The Problem to be discussed:

- 1. Universal Education*
- 2. Higher Education*

KEYWORDS:

Fee, mandatory, medieval, infants, junior, bilingual, SCE, GSCE, safeguard, Bachelor of Arts, Master of Arts, nonresidential, chancellor, Ph.D.

British education has, for many centuries, influenced and been influenced by British society. It is an unusual system, characterized by national financing and local control.

Earliest education in the United Kingdom began in medieval churches and monasteries; for the most part, religious subjects were taught. Many people educated by apprenticeship to an employer or in a guild.

Elementary education for children from the ages of 5 to 10 first became free and mandatory after the passage of the Elementary Education Act of 1870. An extensive network of voluntary schools, many of them provided by churches and charities, existing long before that date. Indeed, by contemporary European standards, a high proportion of the British population was already literate by 1870. Compulsory education was extended by law to 11-year-olds in 1893 and to 12-year-olds in 1899. At the end of World War I the minimum age at which children could leave school was raised to 14; at the end of World War II it was raised to 15. In 1973, it was raised to 16, although a growing proportion of pupils stay in school until they are 17 or 18.

1. Universal Education

There are more than 10 million students in Britain's 35,000 schools. About 50,000 attend the nation's 1,000 nursery schools, which children between the age of 3 and 5 – the start of compulsory schooling. About 4.8 million are educated in the 27,000 primary schools, which are usually divided into infants' departments, for children up to age 7, and junior schools for those aged 8 to 11. There are 4 million pupils enrolled in Britain's 5,400 secondary schools. In addition, about 150,000 students with learning difficulties and other handicaps attend 1,800 special schools.

Primary Schools

Since the 1950s the traditional approach to the education of younger children, having pupils sitting in rows and learning by rote, has been replaced by a more relaxed and informal approach. This change was highlighted by the report on primary schools (1967) by a committee under Lady Plowden. This report recommended, among other things, the abolition of corporal punishment and the hiring of more teachers. It also recommended that educational priority areas be established in the most deprived areas of Britain's cities.

The primary curriculum has also been greatly extended in recent years. New approaches to reading and mathematics have been developed, on the whole with considerable success. Modern languages, in particular French, have been introduced into primary schools, but with less success. The moves to liberalize the primary schools have been strongly supported by the teachers themselves, in particular by the National Union of Teachers, to which most British teachers belong.

Welsh is the main language of instruction in primary and some secondary schools in primarily Welsh-speaking areas of Wales; in English-speaking areas of the country, schools are bilingual, with classes taught in English or Welsh. Irish is taught as a second language in Roman Catholic schools in Northern Ireland.

Secondary schools

Many of the beneficial changes in primary education have been made possible by the abolition of the notorious "plus examination after the age at which children took it. This examination, based largely on verbal reasoning and mathematical ability, was used to decide which children would go on to strictly academic secondary modern schools, which included vocational courses. Even in the few areas where this dual system of secondary schools still exists, children are now assessed on the basis of their total school performance, not by examinations.

In most parts of Britain the old grammar and secondary modern schools have been replaced by comprehensive secondary schools that all children in the district attend, whatever their academic ability. This change was initiated by the Labour government in 1970. After the return of Labour in 1974 the changeover to comprehensive schools was accelerated. The return of the conservatives to power in 1979 has not affected this trend

The creation of the comprehensive school has also led to radical changes in school examinations which until recently oriented almost exclusively to the academic pupil and in particular to those wishing to enter higher education. Even today the brighter children normally take the ordinary level (O level) of the Graduate Certificate of Education (GCE) in five to eight separate subjects at about the age of 16 and take the advanced level (A level) of the GCE in two or three subjects two years later. Their chances of being admitted to university or other institution of higher education depend on their performance on A level examinations, which are graded A to E.

Almost one-fourth of those leaving school pass examinations in at least five subjects at O level, and about half of these receive two A level passes, the minimum required for entry to a university degree course. In the 1970s less academic examination system, called the Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE), was introduced for the majority of students, those who do not aim for higher education. About a quarter of the British students, however, leave school without any formal

qualification. In the late 1980s, the O level examination was expected to be replaced by a broader General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). Different systems of secondary educations have been used in Northern Ireland and in Scotland. The Scottish examination system has not emphasized the dichotomy between academic and vocational subjects. In most Commonwealth countries, secondary students take qualifying examinations prepared in collaboration with Cambridge University. Pre-university-level education is the responsibility of each country.

Independent Schools

About 8% of British children attend independent schools private, preparatory, and other independent schools- for which fees are charged. The education offered in these institutions is generally deemed superior to that offered in the state system. The educational privilege and social prestige have enabled many graduates of these schools to achieve high positions in all phases of British society. The “public schools”—so called because they were endowed, in contrast with private schools that operated at the financial risk of the master-include CHARTERHOUSE, ETON COLLEGE , HARROW SCHOOL, RUGBY SCHOOL, and WINCHESTER COLLEGE. Girl’s public schools include Cheltenham Ladies’ College and Roedean School.

2. Higher Education

The pinnacle of British education is the 45 universities, which enrol about students, 65,000 of them postgraduates. Admission is highly competitive: only 9% in the 18 year old age group are offered places. But the close attention undergraduates receive, which is still one of the most remarkable attributes of British higher education, makes it difficult for a student to fail. The dropout rate is just over 5%.

OXFORD (12th century) and CAMBRIDGE (13th century) are the two oldest and most famous universities, but four of the eight Scottish universities were established before 1600. The majority of universities began far more recently. The earliest, great civic 296,000 universities (e.g., at Birmingham, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester) of the Midlands and the North were founded in the Victorian era, as were the universities of London and Wales. More universities (e.g., at Exeter, Hull, Leicester, Southampton) were established by the middle of the 20th century. Twenty one new universities (e.g., at Essex, Kent, Stirling, Sussex, Warwick, York) were founded in the 1960s and ‘70s.

British universities enjoy a high degree of autonomy: they admit whom they award wish, teach them as they wish, and award their own degrees. Since the early days of the 20th century, however, they have received a growing proportion of their income from the government. Today taxation is almost their only significant source of support. Historically, the autonomy of universities was safeguarded by the University Grants Committee (UGC), a buffer between them and the state consisting largely of academics, which advised the government on the financial needs of the universities. In the late 1980s, however, the UGC was slated to be replaced by a University Funding Council under direct political control.

One of the world’s oldest universities and greatest architectural treasures, *Oxford University*, in Oxford, England, had no formal date of founding, but it undisputedly dates from the 12th century. About a century later the first of its 35 self-governing colleges and 5 private halls was established, heralding its development into

a federal, self-governing university. Every member of the university is also a member of a college or hall.

Today the university has more than 1,500 teach and 13,000 students. Undergraduates normally enter from secondary school to study (generally for 3 years) for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, with Honours. Entrance is by examination; standards are high and competition is intense. On the basis of examination results and individual preference, colleges select their students, presenting them to the University for Formal Admission, matriculation. Thereafter the college assumes responsibility for their welfare and their academic progress— through allocation to a personal tutor— while the university provides lectures, libraries, laboratories, examinations, and degrees appropriate to their course of study. Courses are organized by faculties, with their constituent departments. The student may take one, two, or three subjects. Degrees, classified according to final examination performance, are awarded by the university.

After a statutory period of 7 years from date of matriculation, a Bachelor of Arts may progress to a master of Art without further examination or residence, by paying a fee and attending a formal degree ceremony.

The University is financed by government grants, student fees, endowment, and private fund-raising. Congregation, consisting of all university teachers and senior administrative staff, is its governing body, with Hebdomadal Council—18 members elected by Congregation, 7 *ex officio*—its chief executive body, presided over by the vice-chancellor, whom Congregation appoints for 4 years. The titular head of the university is the chancellor, an honorific life appointment.

Each college, governed by its head and fellows (mainly senior resident members.), is financed by government grants allocated by the university, by student fees, and by its own endowments. Most of the colleges are co residential.

The complex weave of university college faculty and department fosters high academic standards and scholarship. At Oxford is the Ashmolean Museum, with one of the World's most important collections of European and Near eastern archaeological finds. It is also known for its paintings and decorative arts. Library facilities include the BODLEIAN (5,000,000 volumes) and the colleges' own libraries Oxford University Press was founded in 1478.

Cambridge University, in Cambridge, England, was founded at the beginning of the 13th century. Originally, scholars were assigned to masters, who saw to their lodging and instructions; this practice soon led to the establishment of residential colleges, of which there are now 31, more than one-third constituted as colleges since 1949. The latter includes Churchill College, recognized by Sir Winston Churchill as his national monument. Women students were first admitted in 1869, but only in 1948 did they gain full membership and all the privileges of degrees; their numbers were limited because only two colleges provided for them .Since the 1960s most colleges have become co residential (coeducational).

All students of the university must be members of the largely autonomous colleges. Admission of undergraduates, numbering about 9,900, is controlled entirely by the colleges, but acceptance of the graduate students is decided primarily by university bodies. The colleges which have their own incomes and property are responsible for the accommodation and general welfare of their students; they provide

tutorial teaching to undergraduates either individually or in small groups. The university provides formal teaching through lectures, seminars, classes, and practical work in laboratories. Homerton College is restricted to students of education, but in the other colleges, students of all subjects are mixed.

The university's main governing body is, as in medieval times, the Regent House, made up of resident university officers and college fellows (tutors and researchers). They vote on graces (resolution) submitted to them by the chief executive body, the Council of the Senate. Graces regulate the 20 faculties and other academic and administrative institutions and deal with their needs and proposals. The ceremonial and nominal head of the university is the chancellor, who is elected for life.

Almost all undergraduates seek the 3-year Bachelor of Arts degree. The honours examination is called a tripos, the name originating in the three-legged stool on which a 15th century examiner sat to dispute formally with the senior undergraduate. A tripos is usually divided into two or more parts, and possibility of combining parts of more than one tripos allows flexibility of study. Graduate students work generally for the 3-year Ph.D. degree or for the 1-year or 2-year M.Phil. degree. Their courses consist of research for a thesis, preparation for written examinations, or a combination of the two. The M.A. degree is awarded without additional examinations to B.A.s, university officers, and college fellows after payment of a fee and a minimum lapse of two years.

Special features of the university include the university library (more than 4 million volumes), the colleges' libraries, the FITZWILLIAM MUSEUM and other specialized museums, and the Cavendish Laboratories, for the study of physics. Cambridge University Press was founded in 1521.

Other Institutions

The British system of higher education also includes 32 new institutions called polytechnics, which have their roots in earlier technical educations. In many respects, they are similar universities, although their admission requirements are slightly less demanding, and they are more committed to vocational subjects, such as social work, teacher educational, and business management. In the 1960s, the polytechnics absorbed the formerly independent colleges of art and business; in the late 1970s, they assumed principal responsibility for teacher training, which had previously been done in independent colleges of education.

Altogether, more than 500,000 students are enrolled in full-time higher education, and almost 3 million students are enrolled part-time, most of them in the more than 600 colleges of further education and in adult education. Perhaps the War II is the OPEN UNIVERSITY, Which teaches about 120.000 degree-level students by radio, television, and correspondence.

Established in 1969 with the financial support of the Labour government, the OPEN University (enrollment: 163,000) is a British correspondence university granting undergraduate and graduate degrees to adults in Great Britain. Instruction, which commenced in January 1971, is by television, radio tutorial help, resident summer school, and correspondence materials. Thirteen regional offices coordinate the university's work. There are no entrance requirements, nor is there a time limit for completion of degree courses. Unlike other British universities, the Open University awards degree on a cumulative-credit system: six one-year courses for a degree, eight

for an honours degree. Two foundation courses must be taken in mathematics, science, literature and culture, or sociology. All students are necessarily part-time, as only two courses may be taken concurrently. Blind, deaf, or disabled people, prisoners, and some military personnel are able to study at the Open University. There is no campus, but the administrative offices are in Milton Keynes, Buckinghamshire, England.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

1. When Edinburgh University was founded? Which kind of faculty is medicine faculty?
2. When OXFORD University was founded?
3. How many teachers and students are there in Oxford University?
4. What do you need to enter the University?
5. When other Universities were established?
6. What kind of University is the OPEN University?
7. What special features does Cambridge University include?



LECTURE VI. Customs and traditions.

The Problem to be discussed:

1. *Cultural life*
2. *Holidays*

KEYWORDS:

Festival, bagpipes, buttonhole, procession, warp up, cracker, mince pie, pagan, resurrection, fireworks, bonfire, anonymous, convey, fairs, parades.

Cultural life

Annual festivals of music and drama are very popular in Britain. Some of them are famous not only in Britain, but all over the world.

Burn's night. January 25 is the birthday of Scotland's greatest poet *Robert Burns*. There are hundreds of Burns clubs not only in Britain, but also throughout the world, and on the 25th of January they all hold *Burns Night celebrations*. Thousands of people drink a toast to the immortal memory of Robert Burns. To the sound of the bagpipes, there appear on the tables the traditional dishes of the festival dinner:

chicken broth, boiled salt-herring, and haggis a typical Scottish dish made from the heart and other organs of a sheep. It is eaten with boiled turnip and potatoes. The dinner is followed by dancing, pipe music, and reciting selections from Burns's lyrics. The celebration concludes with singing the poet's famous *Auld Lang Syne*.

Shakespeare's Birthday. Every year the anniversary of the birth of William Shakespeare is celebrated in *Stratford-upon-Avon*, where he was born on April 23, 1564. Flags are hung in the main street; people wear sprigs of rosemary (for remembrance) in their buttonholes. A long procession goes along the streets to the church where everyone in the procession puts a wreath or a bouquet, or just one flower at the poet's grave. In the evening there is a performance of the chosen *Birthday Play* in the *Royal Shakespeare Theatre*.

In London *the Aldwych Theatre* which has close ties with the Royal Shakespeare Theatre in Stratford-upon-Avon, holds *International Shakespeare festivals*, during which famous companies from abroad, including the *comédie Française* from Paris, *the Moscow Art Theatre*, *The Schiller Theatre* of Berlin, *the Abbey Theatre* from Dublin, and others, perform Shakespeare's plays.

The Edinburgh International Festival is held annually during three weeks in late August and early September. **The Festival** is quite international in its character, as it gives a varied representation of artistic production from many countries. Leading musicians of the world and world-famous theatre companies always take part in it.

The first Festival was held in 1947, and since that time, the Edinburgh International festival has firmly established its reputation as one of the important events of its kind in the world.

Holidays

In the matter of holidays, the British are less well-off than other Europeans. Most people have only three weeks paid holiday per year, and the bank holidays put Britain at the bottom of the list of Common market countries as far as public holidays are concerned. British 'bank holidays' are

New Year's Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, May Day, Spring Bank Holiday, Summer Bank Holiday, Christmas Day and Boxing Day. Only when the UK joined the E.E.C. New Year's Day became a public holiday. The patron saints days are not celebrated with a holiday. They are St. David's Day (March First) in Wales, St. George's Day (April 23rd) in England and St. Andrew's Day (November 30th) in Scotland. Only Ireland, both North and South, has a holiday on St. Patrick's Day, March 17th.

Christmas

If you try to catch a train on 24th of December you may have difficulty in finding a seat. This is the day when many people are traveling home to be with their families on Christmas Day, 25th of December. For most British families, this is the most important festivities of winter.

On the Sunday before Christmas many churches hold a carol service where special hymns are sung. Sometimes carol-singers can be heard on the streets as they collect money for charity. People are reminded of Charles Dickens' story "Christmas Carol".

Most families decorate their houses with brightly-colored paper or holly, and they usually have a Christmas tree in the corner of the front room, glittering with colored lights and decorations.

There are a lot of traditions connected with Christmas but perhaps the most important one is the giving of presents. Family members wrap up their gifts and leave them at the bottom of the Christmas tree to be found on Christmas Eve, 24th December, hoping that Father Christmas will come down the chimney during the night and bring them small presents, fruit and nuts. They are usually not disappointed! At some time on Christmas Day the family will sit down to a big turkey dinner followed by Christmas pudding. They will probably pull a cracker with another member of the family. It will make a loud crack and a coloured hat. Small toy and joke will fall out!

Later in the afternoon they may watch the Queen on the television as she delivers her traditional Christmas message to the United Kingdom and the Commonwealth. If they have room for even more food they may enjoy a piece of Christmas cake or eat a hot mince pie. 26th December is also a public holiday. Boxing Day and this is the time to visit friends and relatives, or watch football.

Hogmanay and First Footing

At midnight on 31st December throughout Great Britain people celebrate the coming of the New Year, by holding hands in a large circle and singing the song ‘Auld Lang Syne’ ‘For auld lang syne’ means ‘in memory of past times’ and the words were written by Scotland’s most famous poet, Robert Burns. He wrote much of his poetry in the Scots dialect of English.

New Year’s Eve is a more important festival in Scotland than it is in England, and it even has a special name. It is not clear where the word ‘Hogmanay’ comes from, but it is connected with the provision of food and drink for all visitors to your home on 31st December.

It was believed that the first person to visit one’s house on New Year’s Day could bring good or bad luck. Therefore, people tried to arrange for the person of their own choice to be standing outside their houses ready to be let in the moment midnight had come. Usually a dark complexioned man was chosen, and never a woman, for she would bring bad luck. The first footer was required to carry three articles: a piece of coal to wish warmth, a piece of bread to wish food, and a silver coin to wish wealth. In parts of northern England this pleasing custom is still observed.

Easter

Although the Christian religion gave the world Easter as we know it today, the celebration owes its name and many of its customs and symbols to a pagan festival called Eostre. Eostre, the Anglo-Saxon goddess of springtime and sunrise, got her name from the word *east*, where the sun rises. Every spring northern European peoples celebrate the festival of Eostre to honour the awakening of new life in nature. Christians related the rising of the sun to the resurrection of Jesus and their own spiritual rebirth.

Many modern Easter symbols come from pagan times. The egg, for instance, was a fertility symbol long before the Christian era. The ancient Persians, Greeks, and Chinese exchanged eggs at their spring festivals. In Christian times the egg took on a

new meaning symbolizing the tomb from which Christ rose. The ancient customs of dyeing eggs at Easter time is still very popular.

The Easter bunny also originated in pre-Christian fertility lore. The rabbit was the most fertile animal our ancestors knew, so they selected it as a symbol of new life. Today, children enjoy eating candy bunnies and listening to stories about the Raster bunny, who supposedly brings Easter eggs in a fancy basket.

Egg - Rolling

Egg-rolling_ is a traditional Easter pastime which still flourishes in northern England, Scotland, Ulster, the Isle of Man, and Switzerland. It takes place on Easter Sunday or Monday, and consists of rolling coloured, hard-boiled eggs down a slope until they are cracked and broken after which they are eaten by their owners. In some districts, this is a competitive game, the winner being the player whose egg remains longest undamaged, but more usually, the fun consists simply of the rolling and eating. This is evidently the older form of the customs, since egg rolling does not appear to have been originally a game to be lost or won. In the Hebrides, formerly, it provided an opportunity for divination. Each player marked his or her egg with an identifying sign, and then watched to see how it fared as it sped down the slope. If it reached the bottom unscathed, the owner could expect good luck in the future, but if it was broken, misfortune would follow before the year was out. Similarly, at Connell Ferry in Argyllshire, where it was customary for young men to roll their eggs in one place, and for young women to roll their in another, the man or girl whose egg went farthest and most smoothly would be the first person to marry in that particular group.

May Day Celebrations

The beautiful springtime festival of May Day is observed in every nation, each according to its own customs and traditions. In most countries on May 1st a new life begins for both nature and man.

May Day is more important in Northern Europe than in warmer countries farther south. People grow tired of snow and ice short winter days to which May Day signifies an end. The people of Belgium welcome spring with parades and fairs. Holland celebrates with tulip festivals and in Switzerland people offer up special May Day prayers. In France people buy flowers at sidewalk stands. They wear them and give them to their friends for luck.

As summer comes, Britain likes to celebrate the end of winter. Much of this celebration is connected with dancing, which is performed to encourage life and growth and drive away harmful spirits. Children may be seen dancing round the Maypole on village greens, weaving their bright-coloured scarves into a beautiful pattern. Morris men dance all day long on May 1st waving their handkerchiefs to drive away the evil spirits and welcome in the new ones.

St. Valentine's Day

February 14th is the day on which young lovers in England send each other anonymous Valentines –bright, lacy, coloured cards, with loving emblems and amorous doggerel.

The shops are full of these cards.

The message the Valentine conveys is simple. Love's message has always been so.

The fifth of November – Guy Fawkes Day

There is a special day in England, which is called Guy Fawkes Day.

On the fifth of November every year English boys and girl carry funny figures about the streets. These figures are made of straw and dressed in an old coat and a hat, with a mask for a face.

The children expect people to give them some money, which is spent on fireworks. In the evening a bonfire is made, and the figures are burnt on it. Each of these figures is called guy fawkes.

On November 5, 1605, Guy Fawkes and some other people planned to blow up the English Parliament. The plot was discovered and Guy Fawkes was hanged. At the moment of his arrest he wore a mask on his face.

So ever since, as November 5th approaches, children let off fireworks and burn stew figures on a big bonfire.

Spring Bank Holiday

Is celebrated on the last Monday in May. It is an official holiday, when all the offices are closed and people don't go to work.

Late Summer Bank Holiday

Is another official or public holiday, and it is celebrated on the last Monday in August.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

1. When is Burn's Night celebrated?
2. What traditional dishes does this holiday consist?
3. Where is Shakespeare's birthday celebrated?
4. Why is Edinburgh festival international?
5. Which holidays does UK have?
6. What do people do on 24th December?
7. Why did they call this holiday "Christmas"?
8. How did most families decorate their houses?
9. When comes the Christmas Eve?
10. Who is congratulating with Christmas in the afternoon?
11. Who is Hogmanay?
12. What was mean three articles when the first footer required to carry?
13. Who is celebrated Easter? When was celebrated this holiday?
14. Why is symbolize egg in this day?

15. Which are holidays having in springtime?

16. What kind of holiday celebrates in the 14th February?

17. Which is the special day that celebrates boys and girls every year?



LECTURE VII

The Media, the Press, TV, Britain's Industry and Trade

The Problem to be discussed:

1. *Newspaper*
2. *TV and Radio*
3. *Britain's Industry and Trade*

KEYWORDS:

Daily, Sunday newspapers, quality, popular, authoritative, BBC, IBA, advertisements, broadcast, export-shipping, insurance, aviation, tourism, pottery, glassware, woolen, international market.

Newspaper

Fleet Street in London is the home of most national daily and Sunday newspapers. British newspapers are more serious and cover home and foreign news while popular newspapers like shocking, personal stories. These two groups of papers can be distinguished easily because the quality newspapers are twice the size of the popular newspapers.

The quality daily papers are the 'Times', the 'Guardian', the 'Daily Telegraph' and the 'Financial times'. The 'Times', founded in 1785 is considered to be the most authoritative newspaper voice in the country and is said to be the paper of the Establishment. The 'Guardian' appeals to well-educated readers interested in intellectual and social affairs. The 'Daily Telegraph' is bought by educated upper-middle and middle-class readers. The 'Financial Times' printed on pink paper is read by businessmen.

The 'popular' press consists of the 'Daily Mail', the 'Daily Express', the 'Daily Star' and the "Daily Mirror". In all the newspapers there is a desperate fight to maintain or improve their circulations but it is worst among the "popular" papers whose main weapons are sex, scandal and sport.

Apart from London-based papers, there are many local newspapers. Most of these are evening papers (there is only one London evening paper) and many appear weekly.

TV and Radio

Broadcasting in the United Kingdom is controlled by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and the Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA). The BBC receives its income from the Government but the private companies controlled by the IBA earn money from advertising.

Nation radio is controlled by the BBC, and listeners can choose between 4 stations. Radio 1 is a pop-music station with news and magazine-style programs. Radio 2 plays light music and reports on sport. Radio 3 plays classical music, and Radio 4 has news programmes, drama and general interest programmes. There are many local stations some private and some run by the BBC. Their programmes consist mainly of music and local news.

The BBC has 2 TV channels. BBC 2 has more serious programmes and news features. There is a break for advertisements about every 15-20 minutes. The IBA is responsible for looking after the regional independent TV companies who broadcast their own programmes and those they have bought from other regions. The most recent independent channel is Channel 4, and it has more specialized programmes than the main channels. In general people think the programmes offered on British television are of a very high standard.

Britain's Industry and Trade

Britain lives by industry and trade. Her 55.5 million people provide one of the world's biggest markets for food and raw materials. In return, British manufactured goods of every kind are sent all over the world. They make up about an eighth of the world's total exports of manufactures. Invisible export-shipping, insurance, aviation, tourism, etc.- earn nearly as much as commodity exports.

Just over 200 years ago the first industrial revolution began in Britain with such epoch-making inventions as the steam engine and the first machinery for weaving textiles. Later, British inventors and engineers gave the world the first railway, steamships, pneumatic tyres, miners safety lamps, mechanic reapers, matches and many other things that are now familiar everywhere.

Today, in a new age of modern technology, Britain has made important advances in such new industries as electronics and telecommunication equipment, in aircraft and aircraft engines, in plastic and synthetic materials, radio-isotopes and new drugs-all major exports. At the same time Britain has harnessed traditional craftsmanship to modern method to continue to produce those items for which she is just famous, such as pottery, glassware, woolen and leather goods.

Engineers industries produce many leading exports: electrical machinery, cars, tractors and commercial vehicles, bicycles and precision instruments of many kinds make up nearly half the goods exported.

Britain's is the world's third largest trading nation, accounting for about 11 per cent of international trade in manufactured goods. Over a quarter of total exports go to Commonwealth countries and over a third to Western Europe. The United States,

Canada, Australia, India, New Zealand and the Federal Republic of Germany are among Britain's chief trading partners.

Britain's role as a trading nation and as center of the Sterling Area, which holds a quarter of the world's population, includes a vast network of financial services, centered on the Stock Exchange and Lloyd's and its international markets for commodities such as rubber, metals and tea, the City has for over a century held a place of first importance in world trade.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS



LECTURE VIII.

The United States of America

The Problem to be discussed:

1. *Geography*
2. *Population*
3. *Climate*
4. *Government*
5. *Capital*

KEYWORDS:

Continent, conterminous, delta, shallow, petroleum, rock, Appalachians, debris, bay, plateau, crust, seaboard, ephemeral, capacity, tobacco, soybean, hydroelectricity, geothermal, averaging, industrialized, variability, cold-wet, cold-dry, traverse, leeward, latitude, eligible, federal, municipal, vice-president.

1. Geography

The United States come in to existence as a result of the AMERICAN REVOLUTION (1775-83), during which the original thirteen states declared and won their independence from Great Britain. During the 19th century, while the European power built worldwide empires, the young United States focused on expansion across the North American continent and on internal development. However, the country gradually acquired some overseas territories, collectively known as the UNITED STATES OUTLYING TERRITORIES. These include GUAM and PUERTO RICO (both acquired in 1899); AMERICAN SAMOA (acquired in 1900); PANAMA CANAL ZONE (acquired in 1903 but scheduled for return to Panama by the year 2000); and the U.S. VIRGIN ISLANDS (acquired in 1917). The Trust Territory of the

Pacific Islands was established in 1947 by the United Nation and administrated by the United States. It was dissolved in 1994.

The United States of America is located in the middle of North American continent. The 48 states of the conterminous United States stretch from the Atlantic Ocean in the east where the country has a 6,000-km-long coastline-including the Gulf of Mexico-to the Pacific where the coast stretches for 2,100km. The United States shares borders with only two other countries. In the north the border extends across the width of both Canada and The United States and between Alaska (the 49th state) and Canada for 8,900km; in the south the shorter border with Mexico is 3,111km long Hawaii (the 50th state) is composed of a group of Pacific islands about 3,400km southwest of San Francisco; Alaska occupies the northwestern extremity of North America, with a 10,700km coastline on the Pacific and Arctic oceans.

The United States divides into several large natural regions.

Eastern United States.

Along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic Ocean northward to Long Island is a coastal plain, almost all of it below 100m in altitude and with an average width of 160-320km. This coastal plain covers about 10 percent of the country's total land areas. Except for the muddy delta of the Mississippi River, the shores of the plain are sandy; most of them with barrier beached surmounted by dunes and backed by shallow muddy estuaries of brackish or salt water.

These include marshlands, so-called wetlands that are biologically important because they breed quantities of the primitive plants and animals that provide the basic food supply for all higher organisms living there.

The coastal plain extends under the Gulf of Mexico and Atlantic Ocean, more than 320km in places, where it forms the continental shelf. LONG ISLAND, MARTHA'S VINEYARD, NANTUCKET ISLANDS, and Block Island are actually tops of coastal-plain hills. The coastal plain is the subject of conflicting interests among its fishing, shipping, petroleum, mineral-resources, seashore-recreation, and residential uses.

Inland from the coastal plain, and almost parallel to the Atlantic coast, is the APPALACHIAN MOUNTAIN system, which extends from Alabama and Georgia north to Canada; in new England the old rocks of the highlands extend to the coast and from rocky shores. The Appalachian Mountains divide into natural regions. To the east, bordering the Atlantic coastal plain, is a transitional zone, the PEIDMONT PLATEAU, which has elevations ranging from approximately 100 to 300m above sea level. The boundary between the Piedmont and the coastal plain is an escarpment across which the rivers tumble in falls to the lower coastal plain. This Fall Line marks the head of navigation, and cities of the urban corridor such as Trenton, N.J; Wilmington, Del.; Baltimore, Md.; Washington, D.C.; and Richmond, Va-are located on the Fall Line.

In NEW ENGLAND are found the GREEN MOUNTAINS, the WHITE MOUNTAINS, and the BERKSHIRE HILLS. Farther south the mountain ridges of the BLUE RIDGE reach 2,037m at Mount MITCHELL in North Carolina, the highest point east of the Mississippi River. West of the Blue Ridge is a hilly region called the Ridge and Valley Province, about 40-120km wide. Farther west are the coal-rich,

roughly dissected and mountainous Appalachian Plateaus; the easternmost portion, ALLEGHENY MOUNTAINS (or Plateau), mostly between 300 and 1,000m in altitude, rise up abruptly from the ridge Valley Province. Throughout the Appalachian Plateaus as whole local relief commonly exceeds 5000m. Moreover, the steep mountainsides are unstable, which makes coal mining difficult. To the west of the GREAT SMOKY MOUNTAINS, the Ridge and Valley Province separates them from the CUMBERLAND PLATEAU.

Midwest

The Appalachians give way to central lowland and the GREAT PLAINS that extend 1,600km west to the Rocky Mountains and reach from Canada south to the Gulf coastal plain. Some highlands areas in the Midwest are OZARK Mountains in Arkansas and Missouri, the BLACK HILLS in South Dakota. The lowest of the region is along the Mississippi River, at about 300m. West of the river the plains rise westward to the 1-mi-high base of the Rocky Mountains. The northern section of the central lowlands has more irregular topography, partly because of its glacial debris.

Rockies and Great Basin

The ROCKY MOUNTAINS, extending northward from New Mexico into Canada, have many summit ridges higher than 3,000m, and many peaks reach above 4,250m. The highest point in the U.S. portion of the Rockies, Mount ELBERT, reaches 4,399m in Colorado. The Rockies from a bold, east-facing mountain front-including the dramatic Front Range in Colorado-that was a major barrier to the westward expansion of the United States. In Wyoming the mountain ranges are isolated from one another by intermontane basins and plains. The Wyoming Basin was the main passage through the Rockies used by wagon trains traveling west.

Beyond the Rockies are elevated plateaus. In the south is COLORADO PLATEAU, averaging about 1,500m above sea level. The plateau is cut by spectacular canyons, including the GRAND CANYON of the Colorado River. To the north are somewhat lower lava plateaus along the Snake and Columbia rivers.

West of the Colorado Plateaus and south of the lava plateaus is the GREAT BASIN, part of the BASIN AND RANGE PROVINCE. It consists of scores of closed desert basins containing playa, or ephemeral lakes, and separated by equally numerous rocky and mountains ridges, most of which trend north-south. Most of the basins range between 1,200 and 1,500m in altitude. The mountain ranges separating the basins are mostly 500 to 2,000m higher. South of the Great Basin is a lower area without exterior drainage and including DEATH VALLEY and VALLEY and the SALTON SEA, both below sea level. East of the Colorado River, more desert basins and ranges extend east to the Great Plains. THE RIO GRANDE, rising in southwestern Colorado and flowing south New Mexico, connects several of these basins.

West Coast

Much larger basins and ranges from the Pacific Mountains. In California is the SIERRA NEVADA, mostly a granite block, about 725km long and 125km wide. The highest peak, Mount WHITNEY, reaches 4,418m. In northernmost California and in

Oregon and Washington the Sierra gives way to the volcanic CASCAD E RANGE. Mount RAINIER reaches 4,392m. West of these mountains are broad, long basins-the Great Valley in central California and the valley of the WILLAMETTE RIVER and Puget Trough in Oregon and Washington. The low parts of these basins are only a little higher than sea level. West of them are the COAST RANGES, which extend from California to Alaska. These ranges are only half as high as the Sierra and Cascades and from rocky headlands facing the Pacific Ocean. Sandy beaches are found mostly in coves between the headlands and at a few protected bays. Almost no continental shelf borders the Pacific coast.

Alaska and Hawaii

Alaska, whose area is equal to one-sixth of the area of the lower 48 states, consists of mountain ranges curving concentrically around the Gulf of Alaska and extending west in an arc forming the ALEUTIAN ISLANDS. North America's highest point, mount MCKINLEY (6,194M), is in the Alaska Range. North of these mountains is a broad plateau bisected by the Yukon River. North of it is the BROOKS RANGE, the northern base of which slopes to the Arctic Ocean, including the oil-rich PRUDHOE BAY area.

Hawaii, the 50th state, located near the center of the Pacific Ocean, consists of volcanic islands aligned in a northwesterly direction. The volcanism is older and the islands are lower northwestward. Either the ocean crust is moving northwest across a hot spot, or the hot spot is moving southeast under the crust. Active volcanoes, KILAUEA and MAUNALO A, are located on Hawaii, the southeastern most islands.

Inland water covers about 200,000sq km, or almost 2 percent of the total area of the United States. The MISSISSIPPI RIVER, flowing south across the eastern half of the conterminous United States, is major both in length (3,779km) and annual discharge (18,200cu m per sec). by contrast, the COLORADO RIVERS (Colorado) is about one- third as long as the Mississippi River system, but its average annual discharge is only 2 percent as great. An area the Atlantic seaboard, only slightly larger than the Colorado river basin, has 20 rivers- including the CONNECTICUT RIVER, DELAWARE RIVER, HUDSON RIVER, and SUSQUEHANNA RIVER –each only one-third as long as the Colorado but together discharging 20times as much as the Colorado.

In terms of discharge, the major rivers, in addition to the Mississippi, are the SAINT LAWRENCE RIVER, OHIO RIVER, MISSOURI RIVER, COLUMBIA RIVER and SNAKE RIVER. The YUKON RIVER is Alaska's principal river. Where annual precipitation averages less than mm, even small streams are mostly ephemeral, flowing only when there are wet seasons or local storms. Water supplies in those areas, to a considerable degree, must be obtained from groundwater, and in parts of the arid southwestern states withdrawals (mostly for irrigation) have caused groundwater levels to fall alarmingly in places, enough to cause localized subsidence of the land surface and even damage to buildings.

Lakes and peat bogs are numerous in the glaciated parts of the United States, especially in northern Minnesota .The lakes are small and used primarily for recreation, but the GREAT LAKES are important arteries of transportation. Florida has lakes and bogs at limestone sinks,

Including Lake OKEECHOBEE. The troughs of the Great Basin have ephemeral lakes. A few permanent ones are located at the eastern foot of the Sierra Nevada. The Salton Sea and Great Salt Lake are saline. Many of them, especially in the west, have been created by dams; Lake MEAD has the greatest capacity.

Resources

Agriculturally, the United States is richly productive, with many crops providing a surplus for export. Most of the eastern two-thirds of the conterminous United States is arable; the land of the western United States is used mostly for grazing but has considerable irrigated lands for crops. The principal U.S. crops are: fruit, truck farming products, and special crops (including rice and sugarcane) along the Gulf coast, in irrigated areas of the west, and near urban areas in the east; cotton in the southeastern states and on some irrigated lands in the west; tobacco, peanuts, fruit and general farm products on the Atlantic coastal plain and in the eastern Appalachian; dairy products and hay in the northern states; and corn, wheat, and soybeans on the plains.

Livestock on farms habitually totals over 100 million cattle, additional millions of hogs and sheep and hundreds of millions of chickens and turkeys. The grazing capacity of the land is very unequal. The humid half of the country can support as many as cows per year per sq mi (193 per sq km), whereas the semiarid and arid western half can support fewer than 100 per sq mi (40 per sq km) and some parts support only about 10 head sq mi (4 per sq km).

Commercial forests cover more than 2,000,000 sq km, especially in the northwestern, northern Midwestern, and the southeastern states. They produce, besides lumber, paper pulp, resins, and syrup. The annual forest cut and burn is less than growth, but care is needed to minimize water and erosion losses due to grazing and lumbering. In recent years increased recycling of paper is reducing consumption of paper pulp.

Changing interests in water resources are reflected in the history of water management. First, the need for transportation led to the building of canals, such as the ERIE CANAL, in the eastern states in the early 19th century. Second came the great period of flood control, especially along the Mississippi River. Third came a period of large-scale development of irrigation systems in the west, beginning around the turn of the century. Fourth came a period of developing hydroelectricity, beginning during the 1930s. Today's principal concern is pollution control. In the future will come a stage when controls will be needed to prevent groundwater withdrawals from exceeding recharge.

Mineral production, although less than 5 percent of the GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT (GNP), is vitally important. No nation is self-sufficient in minerals, and although the United States has more than its share, nevertheless domestic production of many minerals is less than demand, necessitating imports. Fossil-fuel shortages combined with high demand threaten the United States with severe economic problems. Alternate sources of energy such as solar, geothermal, and wind energy are in the early stages of development.

2. Population

Prior to the discovery (1492) of the New World by Christopher Columbus the area of the United States had an Indian population averaging only about 1 person per 13 to 26 sq km. When George Washington was president in 1790 the population had grown to almost 4,000,000; only 5 cities had populations exceeding 10,000. During the next 100 years the population doubled 4 times—to about 8 million in 1815, to 16 million in 1840, to 32 million in 1861-62, and 64 million in 1890. By 1990 the population had reached nearly 250 million.

In 1990 the Native American population totaled more than 1.9 million. Of the Indians, who constitute the overwhelming majority, approximately half live on or near some 300 reservations. Most reservation land is located in Arizona, New Mexico, Utah, South Dakota Washington, and Montana. The half of the Indian population off reservations lives mostly in cities, especially in the north, central, and western states and in Alaska.

About 12.1 percent of the total population—29,986,060 persons (1990)—are African Americans, almost all descendants of slaves. Slightly more than half are concentrated in the southern and southeastern states, the remainder mainly in urban centers of the northeast, north central, and Pacific states. The vast majority of Americans, however, are descended from Europeans who were attracted to the United States by religious and political freedom and economic opportunities. During the colonial period most settlers came from the British Isles and settled along the eastern seaboard; the French settled the St. Lawrence River valley. The first great IMMIGRATION wave—from 1820 to 1860—saw the arrival of more than 5 million new Americans. Of these, 90 percent were from England, Ireland, and Germany.

After the Civil War, immigration increased dramatically; between 1860 and 1920, about 29 million persons arrived. The composition of the immigrant population had shifted, and most came from eastern and southern Europe—Russia, Poland, the Balkans, and Italy. During the same period increasing numbers of Asians, especially Chinese and Japanese, migrated to the Pacific coast and to Hawaii. The white immigrants mixed to a considerable degree with the earlier western European stocks, beginning the so-called American melting pot.

The population of Spanish origin in the United States is 22,354,059 (1990). From 1980 to 1990 the Hispanic population grew by 53 percent, making it the second-fastest-growing ethnic group (after the Asian population, which grew by 107, 8 percent). In southern Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and southern California, a considerable percentage of the population is of Mexican-American origin.

At the 1990 census the country's overall population density was about 27 persons per sq

Km, but great regional variations exist: New Jersey has the highest density among the 50 states: the lightest density in the lower 48 states is in Wyoming, although Alaska has the least density of any of the states. Between 1980 and 1990, Iowa, North Dakota, West Virginia, and Wyoming lost population, and various other states, many in the north-eastern and Midwestern regions experienced only a minuscule rate of growth. The fastest-growing states were Nevada, Alaska, Arizona, Florida, California, and New Hampshire. The birthrate in the United States is about 15 per 1,000 inhabitants (1993 EST.), a figure higher than Canada and Western Europe. The death rate, nearly 9

per 1,000 inhabitants, is generally about equal to, or a bit lower than of the other industrialized nations.

3. Climate

Most of the United States has a continental climate, characterized by considerable annual variability. Coastal regions, moderated by the oceans, have less variable climates; Hawaii has slight variability, with most of the variation due to elevation. Alaska is partly cold-wet and partly cold-dry. Much of the northern half of the states is permanently frozen, in places to depths as great as 300m.

The eastern United States is humid, with annual precipitation averaging more than 500mm. the western part of the country- beginning approximately at 100 degrees west longitude-expect for the mountains and the maritime Pacific coast, is mostly semiarid with annual precipitation averaging between 250 and 500mm, but parts are arid with annual precipitation averaging less than 250mm. the western mountains received about 500mm of precipitation yearly. The northwestern coast receives more than 2,500mm of precipitation each year.

A traverse eastward across the United States illustrates the importance of seasonal differences in precipitation. Along the Pacific coast precipitation occurs mostly during the winter. In the central United States it is greatest during the summer growing season, further contributing (along with the rich soils) to the agricultural productivity of that region. In eastern states precipitation is rather even throughout the year. The traverse also shows that precipitation is greatest at the mountains and least to the leeward of them.

The country's temperatures are as varied as precipitation and are heavily influenced by latitude; with longer and colder winters farther north. Temperatures are also influenced by proximity to the oceans. In the northeastern part of the country the average annual temperature in New York is 13 degrees C. Farther south is a subtropical zone: Charleston, S.C has an average annual temperature of 19 degrees C. The only tropical zone of the United States occurs in southern Florida, and Miami experiences an average temperature of 24 degrees C. In the central United States the continental climate is not moderated by the ocean, and seasonal differences are more extreme. In Minneapolis, Minn., the average temperature is 7 degrees C, whereas in Tulsa, Okla ., only about 2 degrees farther west but 1,030km south, the temperature averages 16 degrees C. Along the west coast, temperatures, moderated by the ocean, are mild. Portland, Oreg., has an average annual temperature of 12 degrees C; Los Angeles, in the Mediterranean climate zone, experiences a temperature of 17 degrees C.

Climate hazards in the United States include hurricanes along the Gulf and Atlantic coast, tornadoes in the southeast and central states; hail on the western plains, dry electric storms that cause forest fires on western mountains, floods in the central and eastern states and along the Pacific coast in winter, and droughts in most of the western states.

4. Government

The United States has a democratic government, meaning that it is <<elected by the people and for the people. >> Every adult (age18 and over) can vote, yet only

about 55 percent of the eligible voters exercise this right. Votes usually choose between the two political parties that dominate U.S politics the DEMOCRATIC PARTY and the REPUBLICAN PARTY.

The country has a federal system of government in which power is divided between the national, or federal, government and the governments of the 50 states. A third level of government is provided at the local level by municipal and country authorities. Theoretically, the responsibilities of the different levels are delineated in the federal and states constitutions, although actually the responsibilities overlap.

The federal government and each of the 50 state governments are divided into three branches-executive, legislative, and judicial. Municipal and country governments are more varied but to a considerable degree are patterned after the federal and state models. The executive branch of the federal government is headed by the president and vice-president, elected every 4 years. The president of the United States functions in many capacities; head of state, head of government, commander in chief of the armed forces, and leader of the president's political party. The president is thus the most unifying in a political system in which power is highly dispersed, both government and between the government and the people. The administrative duties of the executive branch are divided among 14 departments: State, Treasury, Defense, Justice, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, Labour, Health and Human Services Housing and Urban Development, Transportation, Energy, Education, and Veterans Affairs. Numerous federal agencies, including those for regulation of the private sector, supplement the activities of these departments. The secretary of each department sits on the cabinet, the president's principal advisory body.

The legislative branch of the federal government –CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES—consist of the 100 member SENATE, with 2 senator elected from each state, and a HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVE, with 435 elected members, one for approximately every 600,000 persons. Reapportionment for the letter occurs every 10 years. Senators serve every 6-year terms and representative serve for 2 years. All budget appropriations originate in the House of Representatives, but the senate must concur. Presidential appointees are confirmed by the Senate. The Senate also has the responsibility approving treaties with foreign governments. Similarly, most states have 2 legislative bodies, although Nebraska has a unicameral body of 49members. The chief executive of each state is the GOVERNOR.

The federal judicial branch consists of the SUPRIME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES—the nations highest judicial body—with a chief justice and eight members appointed by the president with the advice and consent of the Senate; and 90 district courts at least one in each state. They consider violations of the federal low and certain civil cases involving persons in different states. Decision may be appealed to the 12 U.S. appealed courts. Each state has a system of the courts paralleling the federal system.

State and local governments have responsibility for such local services as water supply, Waste disposal, police and fire protection, hospitals and health, parks and recreation, schools, and libraries, but to a considerable degree each of these activities is shorted by all levels of government including the federal government. The federal government

alone has responsibility for national defense, but even this responsibility is shared with the states to the degree that each state has a national guard or militia.

5. Capital

Washington, the capital of the United States, is located in and conterminous (as of 1878) with the DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, a federally owned enclave surrounded on three sides by Maryland and across the Potomac River from Arlington and Fairfax counties. The city is the center of a metropolitan area that is the eighth most populous in the country. The population of the city proper is 606,900(1990), and that of the metropolitan area, 3,923,574. Washington is divided along a north-south axis by Rock Creek, historically a barrier to east-west movement. Additions to the city's total area—at present 179 sq km—have been made by adding landfill along the shores of the Potomac.

CONTEMPORARY CITY

As the seat of the U.S. government, Washington plays a unique role both in national and international life. As the only major planner city in the country, it is also one of the eastern seaboard's most impressive. The central north western portion of the city, surrounding the Mall, is

The focus of governmental activity and is defined by the structures housing the various units of government: the CAPITOL, atop Capitol Hill; the WHITE HOUSE, at 1600 Pennsylvania Avenue; the Supreme Court; the LIBRARY OF CONGRESS; the State Department; the Justice Department; the Federal Bureau of Investigation; and many more. Interspersed among these buildings are the Washington Monument (169,1m 1885); the Lincoln (1922) and Jefferson (1943) memorials on either side of the Tidal Basin, around which a profusion of Japanese cherry trees flowers each spring; and the imposing neo-Gothic façade of the SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION. The PENTAGON complex lies across the Potomac in Virginia adjacent to ARLINGTON NATIONAL CEMETERY.

Economy

The economy of the city is predicated on its governmental role. About a third of the work force is federally employment, with large numbers also employment in retailing, construction and printing. Little manufacturing takes place. The embassies of more than 100 nations as well as several major international organizations, such as the World Bank, the International monetary Fund, and the Organization of American State, are located there. Also headquartered in Washington are hundreds of national associations, nonprofit organizations, and research institutes, including the National Academy of Sciences, the Carnegie Institution, and the Brookings Institution. Tourism is Washington's second largest industry; catering to millions of foreign and domestic visitors and each year. Registered lobbyists number in the thousands.

Washington has excellent national and international air linkage from Washington National, Baltimore-Washington International, and Dulles International airports as well as rail service to New York and Boston, Chicago, and points south. The city is a focal point on the Interstate Highway System, although direct access is only by way of a beltway girdling the city.

A subway system began operating in downtown Washington in 1976.

People and Government

The city has 399,604(1990) black residents, 179,667 white, and small but rapidly increasing Asian and Hispanic populations. Although the proportion of blacks in the population has doubled since 1950, the city's population has relatively stable; a decrease of about 5% was registered in the years 1980-90. The Washington suburbs, however, have experienced a growth rate of more than 20% during the decade.

Washington is governed under the Home Rule Act of 1974, which provided for self-government under an elected mayor and city council. From 1874 to 1967 the city was governed by a presidentially appointed board of commissioners. At the national level, District of Columbia residents gained the right to vote in presidential elections 1961, and in 1971 they obtained limited representation in Congress.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

1. Where the USA is situated?
2. What is the typical weather of the country?
3. What is the scenery of the country?
4. What kind of natural regions do you know?
5. What is the population of the country?
6. Who was the first president in the USA?
7. What was nationality have in the USA?
8. What are the most famous places to enjoy the beauty and power of wild America?
9. Which country won the Revolutionary war? When was it?
10. How many parties are there in the US?
11. How many branches are there in the federal government?
12. Who is a head of the executive branch?
13. What is the US Congress? How is it divided?
14. How many people does each state send to the Senate?
15. Does the number of senators depend on the size of the state?
16. Who carries out the laws that the Congress makes?
17. When do American vote for the President?
18. What do you call third branch of the US government?
19. How many judges does the Supreme Court consist of?
20. What is the capital of the USA?
21. Where is located Washington?
22. Why Washington was called a contemporary city?
23. Why does the Grand Canyon attract people?
24. Which big mountainous chains can you name?
25. What mighty rivers of the USA do you know?



LECTURE IX. OTHER ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRIES

CANADA

The Problem to be discussed:

1. *Geography*
2. *Population*

3. *Climate*
4. *Government*
5. *Capital*

KEYWORDS:

Hemisphere, exclusion, lumber, pulp, hay, pasture, unsettled, marine, steppe-type, sub arctic, precipitation, unicameral, metropolitan, ethnic mix, “open space therapy” , innovative.

1. Geography

Canada the world’s second-largest country (after Russia), is the largest country in the Western Hemisphere and comprises all the North American continent north of the United States, with the exclusion of Alaska, Greenland, and the tiny French islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon. Its most easterly point is Cape Spear, Newfoundland, and its western limit is Mount St. Elias in the Yukon Territory, near the Alaska border. Its east-west extent is 5,514km (3,426mi) and is so wide that six time zones lie within its borders. The southernmost point is Middle Island, in Lake Erie; the northern tip of land is Cape Columbia, on ELLEMERE ISLANDS, 1,850 km north of the Arctic Circle.

Canada is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the west by the Pacific Ocean and on the east by the Atlantic Ocean and its associated bodies of water, including Baffin Bay and the Labrador Sea. Its only international land boundary is which the United States—on the northwestern, between Canada and the state of Alaska, and on the south, where the U.S-Canada border is 6,416km long.

Canada is rich in natural recourses =. It is a world leader of mineral exports and produces and exports many of the minerals needed for modern industrial economies, although a few minerals, such as manganese, chromium, bauxite, and tin, must be imported. Its soils, which are especially rich in the three prairie provinces of Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba, are intensively utilized and make Canada one of the world’s largest exporters of agricultural products.

Forests cover much of the land, and Canada is the world’s largest exporter of newsprint and a leading supplier of lumber, pulp, paper, and wood products.

Agriculture

Although by climate and topography to the southern of the country, agriculture remains an important segment of Canada’s economy. Because the large production exceeds the needs of the small population, much agricultural produce is exported. Roughly half of all farm income is divided from field crops and half from livestock. The principal field crops are wheat (of which Canada is the world’s second-largest exporter, after United States), barley and oats. Most of the grain crops are grown in the three Prairie Provinces. Other important western crops are rye, flaxseed, and rapeseed. In other parts of Canada mixed farming predominates, with the output of field crops tied to the dairy and livestock economy and more land devoted to hay, pasture, and feed grains. Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick grew large quantities potatoes, and soybeans are produced mainly in southwestern Ontario.

Most of the farms in Canada raise livestock. Generally, beef cattle are raised in Alberta and the Cordilleran Region, and dairy cattle in the Great Lakes-St.

Lawrence Lowlands. Hogs, the fourth-largest agricultural product by value (after wheat, cattle, and dairy products), are raised in southern Ontario, Quebec and Alberta.

Since the 1920s the number of farm workers has declined as farms have become more commercialized, and mechanized and larger. The acreage devoted to farmland as also declined, with the significant decline in the east not offset by the slight increase in the west. Most farms are owner-operated.

Canada has a dual cultural heritage that stems from the British conquest (1763) of the French colony of New France. Today both French and English are official languages. The threat of separatism by the largely French-speaking province of Quebec was an issue through the 1980s and early 1990s; although a 1980 referendum mandating the sovereignty of Quebec was defeated by Quebec's electorate. The 1987 Meech Lake accord, an addition to the 1982 constitution that acknowledges Quebec's distinctness, failed in 1990 when two provinces refused to finalize it.

The name Canada is thought to be derived from Kanata, the Huron-Iroquois word meaning <<village >> or <<community>>.

2. Population

Canada has a total estimate population about 29 million, or approximately one-tenth that of the United States. About 80 percent of this number lives within 160km of the U.S. border on the south; approximately 89 percent of the country is virtually unsettled. Because of these vast tracts of virtually uninhabited northern forests and tundra, Canada has only one of the lowest population densities in the world.

Canada has two official languages, English and French, which have equal status in affairs of the federal and provincial government and federal courts. Of the total population, more than 60 percent speak English and significant minorities speak French or are bilingual. A few speak neither language. The majority of new immigrants prefer to learn English rather than French and to enroll their children in which the language of instruction is English.

3. Climate

The populated southern areas of Canada have a wide variety of temperate climates. The Pacific coastal areas have a temperate marine west coast type of climate, with cool summers in the -16 degrees -18 degrees C range and mild winter in the 0 degrees -4 degrees C range. The interior plains have a middle-latitude steppe-type climate in the drier southern sections and a more humid and extreme continental type of climate elsewhere. Temperatures average about -20 degrees to -15 degrees C in long winters and -18 degrees C in short summers.

The Great Lakes-St. Lawrence Lowland and the Appalachian Region have a more humid version of a continental type of climate. Both areas have long, cold winter, with January averages about -10 degrees C in the eastern sections and 4-degrees C in the Ontario Peninsula, and short, warm summers with average temperatures of near -20 degrees C.

Precipitation is heaviest in the west, moisture-laden winds from the Pacific Ocean and forced to rise over the mountainous coastal regions and bring more than 5,000mm of rain a year to some areas, although average annual precipitation is 1,525 to 2,540mm. Precipitation is least in the Interior Plains, where many areas receive less

than 500mm a year. Expect for the low-lying Pacific Coast areas, winter precipitation throughout Canada is usually in the form of snow, and thick blankets of accumulated snow cover most of Canada east of the Rockies for 3 to 6 months of the year.

The sparsely settled northern areas have an arctic or tundra, type of climate on the islands and northern coastal areas and a subarctic type of climate in the vast transitional area between the frozen north and the settled south. The arctic type of climate is characterized by long, very cold winter, with average temperatures far below freezing and no summer month with in average temperature higher than 10 degrees C. in the subarctic areas, winters are similarly long and bitterly cold, but summers are warm enough (more than 10 degrees C) to support vegetation growth. Precipitation is generally light in the western areas of the arctic and subarctic regions and heavier in northern Quebec and Labrador. Despite the low precipitation, snow covers the ground permanently for more than 6 month of every year.

4. Government

Canada is a self-governing federal union of ten provinces (Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, and Saskatchewan) and two territories (Northwest Territories and Yukon Territory) with the Commonwealth of Nations. The core of the constitution is derived, with modifications, from the BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN ACT of 1867, patriated(brought under direct Canadian control) and renamed the Constitution Act in 1982. Queen Elizabeth II is head of state and is represented in the federal government by the governor-general and in the provinces by lieutenant governors.

Legislative power is vested in Parliament, which comprises the queen; the Senate, with 104 members appointed to age 75 (or for life before 1965) and House of Commons, with 295 elected members (as of the 1993 election). National elections are held at least once every five years or whenever the majority party is voted down or calls an election. The leader of the political party with the largest number of seats in the House of Commons usually serves as prime minister.

Provincial legislative power, which extends to education, municipal affairs, direct taxation, and civil law, is vested in unicameral, elected legislatures known as legislative assemblies except in Newfoundland, where it is the House of Assembly, and Quebec, where it is the National Assembly. The legislatures of the provinces are headed by premiers, who are usually the leaders of the majority party. The provincial legislatures are elected every five years or less.

The principal political parties are the Liberal party, Progressive Conservatives, and the New Democratic Party. Major regional parties include the Bloc Quebecois and the western provinces Reform Party, which become the second and third largest parties in Parliament in 1993.

5. Capital

Ottawa, the capital of Canada and seat of the Ottawa-Carleton municipal region in Ontario, is in the southeastern part of the country. Ottawa is the fourth—largest metropolitan area in Canada, with a population of 920,857, of which 313,987 live within the city limits. The city is located at the juncture of the Ottawa, Rideau, and Gatineau rivers. The Rideau River plunges over Rideau Falls to join the Ottawa River

from the south. The Gatineau River enters from the north without a fall, but a short distance up the Ottawa itself is its impressive Chaudière Falls. The Ottawa River marks the provincial boundary between Ontario and Quebec, with the city of Ottawa on the Ontario side and the large secondary city of Hull on the Quebec side. Ottawa's Lower Town contains much of the mid-19th –century city, including the restored <<Mile of History>>.

Ottawa was named for the Ottawa Indian tribe, although the name previously been applied to the river in recent years it has been one of the nation's fastest growing urban areas. Temperatures average -10 deg C in January and 21 deg C in July. The populace of Ottawa-Hull is representative of the Canadian ethnic mix and includes substantial French-Canadian population. As probably the most bilingual city in Canada, Ottawa is also the epitome of the Canadian bicultural <<ideal>>.

The industrial heritage of early Ottawa is still maintained in the forest products plants and hydroelectric facilities on both sides of the river. Industries include paper mills and appliance, furniture, and cement manufacturing. In addition, Ottawa has considerable commercial activity, based in part on a prosperous agricultural hinterland, a number of financial institutions, and an important tourist industry. The major employment in Ottawa, however, is the federal government.

Ottawa is noted for its parks, gardens, scenic drives, and monuments. A long-range National Capital Plan was promulgated after World War II for development of the metropolitan area in diverse ways, some of them quiet innovative. Ottawa had one of the first pedestrian shopping malls in the world. An <<open space therapy>> plan provides for an extensive green belt around the city. Points of interest include the Parliament Buildings, National Library, National Museum of Science and Technology, and the new National Gallery (1988). Carleton University and the University of Ottawa are in the city.

Ottawa was chosen as the capital for United Canada in 1857, despite bitter opposition from four rival cities. The choice was confirmed when the new Dominion of Canada was established in 1867.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

1. Which countries were bounded with Canada?
2. What kind of natural resources does Canada have?
3. What goods does Canada export?
4. What is the official language in Canada?
5. What is the meaning of the word "Canada"?
6. How much population is there in Canada?
7. What is the difference between climate of Canada and USA?
8. How many parties are there in Canada?
9. What is the capital of Canada?
10. What is the main product of Canada?



LECTURE X. AUSTRALIA

The Problem to be discussed:

1. Geography

2. *Population*
3. *Climate*
4. *Government*
5. *Capital*

KEYWORDS:

Proportionately, density, merge, possesses, ash, bauxite, peninsula, consumption, mutton, lamb, deficient, overexploited, unfit, immigration, specified, residual, suffrage, subterranean, bicentennial.

1. Geography

Australia is the world's smallest continent and sixth-largest country. With proportionately more desert land than any other continent, Australia has a low population density. Lying completely in the Southern Hemisphere, Australia is bounded by the Indian Ocean on the west and south and by the Pacific Ocean on the east. These oceans merge on the north in the Arafura Sea between Australia and Indonesia and New Guinea, and on the south in the Bass Strain. The coastline length, estimate at 19,200km, is remarkably short for so large an area a result of the relative lack of indentation. Major inlets other than the Gulf of CARPENTARIA and the great AUSTRALIAN BIGHT are few.

Australia is primarily a flat low-lying plateau, with about 95 percent of the land standing less than 600m above sea level. The continent was not affected by recent geological mountain building forces, and all its landforms are highly eroded; Australia's mountains reach only 2,228m in Mount KOSCIUSKO in southeastern New South Wales.

Australia can be divided into three major physical regions: the vast Western Plateau, the Eastern Highlands, and the GREAT ARTESIAN BASIN.

Mineral Resources

Australia possesses enormous mineral resources. Coal reserves are large, and although much is high in ash content, about a third is of coking quality. New discoveries of iron ore in the Hamersley Range (Pilbara region) of the northwest have helped to keep annual production increasing. Vast bauxite reserves are concentrated in the Grove and Cape York peninsulas. Other abundant metal ores include zinc, lead, nickel, and copper. Gemstones include sapphires from the northern Great Dividing Range and the distinctive Australia fire opals from inland fields in the southeast.

Petroleum, first exploited in Queensland, now comes chiefly from the continental shelf off northwestern Australia and the Bass Strain. Production is increasing and supplies about two-third of domestic consumption. Recoverable reserves of natural gas were little topped before 1969 but by 1990 output was about 20,090 million cu m a year. At double the present output and consumption rates, coal, oil, and gas would last 100 to 300 years.

Agriculture

Arable land amounts to only 6 percent of the continent's area, while about 58 percent is in pasture used mainly for low-intensity grazing by cattle and sheep. The

arable land, 80 percent of which is under cultivation, is confined to the nations humid and sub humid areas located in the southwestern of the continent and in a narrow fringe extending inland (no more than 250km) from the southeastern and eastern coastlands between Cairns in the north and Adelaide in the south. The lands used for pasture are concentrated in the generally drier parts of the continent, some 25 percent of all Australia being occupied by 16,000 ranches, or stations, averaging 75,000 acres in extend.

Australia is an important producer and exporter of agricultural products. It leads the world in wool production and is also an important supplier of wheat, other cereals, dairy produce, meat, sugar, and fruit. Australia's sheep constitute about 12 percent of the world's total sheep population and yield about 25 percent of the world's wool as well as substantial quantities of mutton and lamb. Wheat, the chief crop, occupies nearly 70 percent of all cultivated land and is grown in almost all the states. Sugar is grown in the subtropical areas of coastal Queensland and New South Wales. The major fruit products include barriers, apples, bananas, and pin apples.

Water Resources

The driest of continents, Australia must carefully regulate its existing water resources. Even in some externally drained basins, water supply is at times deficient. Significant groundwater reserves occur beneath one quarter of Australia, most prominently in the Great Artesian Basin, but they are generally overexploited and such in unfit for human consumption.

2. Population

In 1994, Australia had an estimated population of 17,800,000, up from 10,100, 000in 1960. Immigration continues to play a major in population increase, more than 4 million new immigrants having settled in Australia since 1945. Despite a more diversified pattern of immigration in recent years, the population of Australia remains ethnically dominated by a majority that is of British descent (more than 90 percent from Great Britain and Ireland) or is recently arrived from the United Kingdom. Smaller ethnic groups of European origin include many of Greek, German, Italian, and Yugoslav descent. Aborigines and people of past Aboriginal descent constitute a small minority (only 1.5 percent of the total population); there are small but growing Chinese and other Asian minorities. Some of the descendants of Australia's pre-European inhabitants, the Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders, live on designated tribal lands, and others work o ranches or live in the deteriorated inner-city areas along the coast. In general, the Aborigines have a higher birthrate and a shorter life expectancy than other Australians do.

3. Climate

The climate of Australia varies with latitude. Because the continent lacks relief features and is favored with the moderating influence of the surrounding seas, few dramatic regional variations exist. The northern part of the continents is tropical and influenced by the trade winds. The southern parts lie in the belt of westerly winds and

have a more temperate climate. The vast center of the continent is arid and extremely hot during the summer (December to March).

The tropical region, and especially the northern coast, experiences a hot, wet summer. The average January temperature in DARWIN is 28 degrees C, and the average annual rainfall is 1,240 mm, nearly 80 percent of which falls between December and March.

In winter, hurricanes tend to develop over the Coral and Arafura seas, some following the part of the East Australia Current as far south as Sydney. Hurricanes in 1974 devastated Darwin and flooded BRISBANE.

Southern Australia has mild, wet winters, resembling a Mediterranean climate. The southwest experiences hot, dry summers, dominated by subtropical high-pressure system. Average temperatures at Perth are 23 degrees C in January and 13 degrees C in July; the average annual rainfall is 900mm. A similar climate affects an area around ADELAIDE. Southern New South Wales, Victoria, and Tasmania have rainfall maximums in winter, but they receive the most dependable year-round precipitation of any region in Australia. The eastern coast of Queensland and New South Wales receive tropical summer rain. With increasing distance southward, however, temperatures decline and the seasonality of rainfall becomes less marked. On the southern Eastern Highlands is a sub humid belt, important for agriculture.

About half of Australia is arid. Dry seasons average eight months in length and a mean annual rainfall of 255mm or less. Summers are hot and winters are warm, and the daily temperature variation is great. The average temperature at ALICE SPRINGS is 26 degrees C in January and 12 degrees C in July. As with most of Australia, precipitation is undependable, and on rare occasions floods occur. For instance, 450,000 sq km of the Lake Eyre Basin (a region that normally receives only about 125 mm of rain annually) were completely flooded in 1974. The arid zone is encircled by a broad belt of semiarid climate. North of the tropic of Capricorn this belt records a wet summer season; south of the tropic of Capricorn, and especially in southwest Australia, the average summer is distinctly dry. Extreme high temperatures in the arid and semiarid regions exceed 38 degrees C.

Snow is rare except in the higher parts of the southern Eastern Highlands, principally the Snowy Mountains.

4. Government

The commonwealth of Australia is a fully independent member of the Commonwealth of Nations. The Australian constitution (1901) resembles that of the United States in that it establishes a federal form of government; the powers of the Commonwealth are specified, leaving residual powers to the states.

Supreme executive powers (although more ceremonial than actual) rest in the British monarch, represented in Australia by the governor-general and in each of the six states by a governor. These officials are appointed by the British monarch, but the government in 1993 proposed making Australia a republic, severing its ties to the British crown by the year 2001.

Legislative power rests with the parliament of Australia, which consists of an upper house, the Senate, and the House of Representatives. The leader of the majority

party in the House is named prime minister and appoints a cabinet from members of the Senate and House.

The Senate consists of ten senators from each state and two from each territory, each elected for 6-year terms. The number of representatives is proportional to the populations of the states and territories, and House elections are held at least once every three years. Members of Parliament are elected by universal adult suffrage, and voting is compulsory.

The principal political parties are the Australian labor, the Liberal party, and the National Country Party.

The organization of the state governments is similar to that of the Commonwealth. Each state has an appointed governor, an elected premier, and a legislature. State governments are responsible for education, health, public utilities, justice, and transportations. Since 1974 both the Northern territory and the Australian Capital Territory have had elected legislative assemblies.

5. Capital

Canberra, the national capital of Australia, is located in the AUSTRALIAN CAPITAL TERRITORY, an enclave in New South Wales. It is 250 km southwest of Sydney in southeast Australia. Canberra is small compared with most state capitals, but it is Australia's largest inland city and has a population of 278,900. It has long had a high growth rate, having mushroomed from less than 25,000 in the early 1950s. The people of Canberra are predominantly of British ancestry, but embassy staff members are a conspicuous foreign element. Government is the leading employer, primarily at the white-collar level. The city has little industry.

Canberra is a model of city planning and rigid zoning. Its focal point is the large artificial lake, Burley Griffin. Another distinguishing characteristic is Canberra's landscaping; the many trees and shrubs have been carefully selected to provide variety in color and texture. For instance, the city gives free plants to owners of new houses. Other visual attractions are the official buildings-especially the embassies-the Australian War Memorial, the National Library, and the new Parliament House. Construction of Canberra began in 1913, based on a design by Walter Burley GRIFFIN a Chicago architect. Although Griffin was discharged in 1920, the city developed in basic accord with his plan. The first Parliament House opened in 1927; a new, largely subterranean Parliament House on Capital Hill opened for Australia's 1988 bicentennial.

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

1. Where is Australia situated?
2. What water bodies wash the continent?
3. How many major physical regions are there in Australia?
4. What are the three Australian deserts?
5. What places in Australia are least populated and least developed?
6. In what way is Australia divided?
7. What is type of climate in Australia?
8. Can you name Australian states and territories? What are they?
9. What is the capital of Australia? Where is it?

10. How many parts Australia is divided?

11. For what is the government of Australia responsible?



LECTURE XI. NEW ZEALAND

The Problem to be discussed:

1. *Geography*
2. *Population*
3. *Climate*
4. *Government*
5. *Capital*

1. **Geography**

New Zealand, an island nation in the middle latitudes of the Southern Hemisphere, is the most physically isolated of the advanced industrialized countries. Its nearest neighbor, Australia is some 1,9000km (1,200mi) to the northwest. New Zealand is bordered by the TASMAN SEA on the west and the South Pacific Ocean on the east. The country is about the size of Colorado and larger than Great Britain. It comprises two main islands, the North Island (114,469km) and the South Island (150,660 sq km); Steward Island (1,751 sq km); and numerous tiny islands and islets, including the ANTIPODES ISLANDS and the AUCKLAND ISLANDS. In addition, New Zealand administers the ROSS DEPENDENCY in Antarctica and the TOKELAU ISLANDS, NIUE, and the COOK ISLANDS are self-governing, but New Zealand manages their external affairs, and their residents are citizens of New Zealand.

The MAORI, a Polynesian people, reached the islands in about AD 900. The Dutch were the first European to arrive, in 1642, but the area remained relatively unknown until the arrival of Capt. James COOK in 1769. The Treaty of WAITANGI (1840) ceded sovereignty of the area to Great Britain while granting the Maoris continued possession of their lands and other holdings. New Zealand becomes an internally self-governing dominion within the British Empire in 1907 and an independent member of the Commonwealth of the Nations in 1947. Although New Zealand is an isolated land, it's foreign policy is not isolationist. It retains close ties to Great Britain and plays an increasing role in Pacific affairs.

The two major islands of New Zealand, which are separated by the narrow COOK STRAIT, could be considered parts of two separate continents. The North Island and the northwest corner of the South Island are carried on the same continental plate as India and Australia, while the South Island is on the Pacific plate. The two plates slide past each other in opposite directions along the Alpine Fault. This movement creates many earthquakes in New Zealand.

New Zealand is generally mountainous, with only about 30 percent of the land classified as flat or rolling. The North Island was shaped by internal volcanic activity and includes regions of boiling mud and steam, which are often harnessed for power and heat. The highest point on the island is Raunchy volcano (2,797m). The South Island has some 20 peaks exceeding 3,000m. The highest, Mount Cook (3,764m), is part of the impressive Southern Alps range.

New Zealand most fertile soils were found in the Canterbury Plains near Christchurch and the Southland-Otago alluvial plains at the southern end of the South Island. New Zealand has more than 3 billion tons of coal reserves and abundant offshore natural-gas reserves. The country is also rich in hydroelectric potential. It was thought to lack petroleum until 1988, when a field estimated to contain 40 million barrels of petroleum was discovered in the western part of the North Island. Other resources include geothermal energy, iron sands, and limestone.

Although fewer than 1 percent of New Zealand people are farmers, agricultural productions has generated most of the nation's wealth. New Zealand is the world's third-largest producer and second-largest exporter of wool and produces approximately 50 percent of the world's lamb and mutton exports. Sheep in New Zealand outnumber people by more than 15 to

1. There are also more than 8 million cattle, and the country is the world's largest and most efficient exporter of dairy products. New Zealand is also a major exporter of fresh fruit, beef and fish. The government is funding research to make farming more efficient and adaptable to world market trends. The strategy is to grow, make, and market anything the climate will support and a world market will buy. Thus, the emphasis is on marketing food for specialized markets rather than on bulk exporting.

2 Population

New Zealand is one nation and two peoples and is only new coming to grips with its biculturalism. The initials Maori settlers are far outnumbered by people of European descent, primarily of England and Scottish heritage. The pakeha (the Maori word for European settlers) make up 86 percent of the total population. Maori constitute approximately 9 percent and other Pacific islanders 3 percent. Immigration to New Zealand is not significant. A recent census revealed that 85 percent of the residents were New Zealanders by birth, and the country suffered a net out-migration of more than 30,000 between 1982 due to adverse economic conditions.

Climate

New Zealand weather and climate is of paramount importance to the people of New Zealand, as many New Zealander's make their living from the land. New Zealand has mild temperatures, moderately high rainfall, and many hours of sunshine throughout most of the country. New Zealand's climate is dominated by two main geographical features: the mountains and the sea.

New Zealand lies between 37 and 47 degrees south of the Tropic of Capricorn. Both the North and South Islands of New Zealand enjoy moderate, maritime climate, weather and temperatures.

New Zealand Climate and Weather

New Zealand weather and climate is of paramount importance to the people of New Zealand, as many New Zealander's make their living from the land. New Zealand has mild temperatures, moderately high rainfall, and many hours of sunshine throughout most of the country. New Zealand's climate is dominated by two main geographical features: the mountains and the sea.

New Zealand Temperatures

New Zealand has a largely temperate climate. While the far north has subtropical weather during summer, and inland alpine areas of the South Island can be as cold as -10 C in winter, most of the country lies close to the coast, which means mild temperatures, moderate rainfall, and abundant sunshine.

Because New Zealand lies in the Southern Hemisphere, the average temperature decreases as you travel south. The north of New Zealand is subtropical and the south temperate. The warmest months are December, January and February, and the coldest June, July and August. In summer, the average maximum temperature ranges between 20 - 30°C and in winter between 10 - 15°C.

New Zealand Regional Temperatures

The following temperatures are mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures in Celsius and Fahrenheit for New Zealand. Rainfall is indicated as the average rainfall days per season.

New Zealand Sunshine

Most places in New Zealand receive over 2,000 hours of sunshine a year, with the sunniest areas—Bay of Plenty, Hawke's Bay, Nelson and Marlborough—receiving over 2,350 hours.

As New Zealand observes daylight saving, during summer months daylight can last up until 9.00 pm.

GOVERNMENT

New Zealand is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary democracy. Although it has no codified constitution, the Constitution Act 1986 is the principal formal statement of New Zealand's constitutional structure. The constitution has been described as "largely unwritten" and a "mixture of statutes and constitutional convention." Queen Elizabeth II is the head of state and is titled Queen of New Zealand under the Royal Titles Act 1974. She is represented by the Governor-General, whom she appoints on the exclusive advice of the Prime Minister. The current Governor-General is Anand Satyanand.

The Governor-General exercises the Crown's prerogative powers, such as the power to appoint and dismiss ministers and to dissolve Parliament, and in rare situations, the reserve powers. The Governor-General also chairs the Executive Council, which is a formal committee consisting of all ministers of the Crown. The main *constitutional* function of the governor-general is to "arrange for the leader of the majority political party to form a government"; by constitutional convention, the governor-general "acts on the advice of ministers who have majority support in parliament."

Members of the Executive Council are required to be Members of Parliament, and most are also in Cabinet. Cabinet is the most senior policy-making body and is led by the Prime Minister, who is also, by convention, the Parliamentary leader of the governing party or coalition. This is the highest policymaking body in the government. The New Zealand Parliament has only one chamber, the House of Representatives, which usually seats 120 Members of Parliament.

Parliamentary general elections are held every three years under a form of proportional representation called Mixed Member Proportional. The Economist magazine explains: "Under MMP (Mixed Member Proportional) there is usually a 120-seat parliament; an

extra seat can sometimes be added to ensure truly proportional representation. Of the total number of seats, 65 electorate (directly elected constituency) seats are contested on the old first-past-the-post basis, including seven seats reserved for the indigenous Māori people. The remaining 55 or so seats are allocated so that representation in parliament reflects overall support for each party (the party vote).

Under the MMP system, a party has either to win a constituency seat or more than 5% of the total party vote in order to gain representation in parliament. The government can continue to rule only if it retains majority support in the House of Representatives, or can secure the support of other political parties to give it a majority to pass legislation and survive parliamentary confidence votes." The 2008 General Election created an 'overhang' of two extra seats, occupied by the Māori Party, due to that party winning more seats in electorates than the number of seats its proportion of the party vote would have given it.

New Zealand government "Beehive" and the Parliament Buildings, in Wellington.

From October 2005 until November 2008, the Labour-led government was in formal coalition with the Progressive Party, Jim Anderton being its only MP. In addition, New Zealand First and United Future provided confidence and supply in return for their leaders being ministers outside cabinet. An arrangement was also made with the Green Party, which gave a commitment not to vote against the government on confidence and supply. In 2007 Labour also had the proxy vote of Taito Phillip Field, a former Labour MP. These arrangements assured the government of a majority of seven MPs on confidence votes.

Labour was defeated by the National Party in the general elections of November 8, 2008. Following the victory, National leader John Key moved quickly to form a government, negotiating coalition agreements with the right-wing ACT party, led by Rodney Hide, the centrist United Future party, albeit with its single seat held by leader Peter Dunne, and the Māori Party, led by Tariana Turia and Pita Sharples. Each of these leaders are to hold ministerial posts but remain outside of Cabinet. There are three parties in Opposition: the Labour Party, led by Phil Goff; the Greens, co-led by Metiria Turei and Russel Norman and the Progressive Party, under Jim Anderton.

The new executive was sworn in on 19 November 2008.

The highest court in New Zealand is the Supreme Court of New Zealand, established in 2004 following the passage of the Supreme Court Act 2003. The act abolished the option to appeal to the Privy Council in London. The current Chief Justice is Dame Sian Elias. New Zealand's judiciary also includes the Court of Appeal; the High Court, which deals with serious criminal offences and civil matters at the trial level and with appeals from lower courts and tribunals; and subordinate courts.

While the Judiciary can sometimes place limits on acts of Parliament, and the 1990 New Zealand Bill of Rights enables some review by the Judiciary of executive action, there is no document ascertaining formal power of judicial review. Its constitutional independence from Parliament is maintained by non-political appointments and strict rules regarding tenure in office.

New Zealand is the only country in the world in which all the highest offices in the land have been occupied simultaneously by women: Queen Elizabeth II, Governor-General Dame Silvia Cartwright, Prime Minister Helen Clark, Speaker of the House of Representatives Margaret Wilson and Chief Justice Dame Sian Elias were all in office

between March 2005 and August 2006. New Zealand's largest listed company, Telecom New Zealand, had a woman – Theresa Gattung – as its CEO at the time.

CAPITAL

A **capital city** (or just **capital**) is the area of a *country, province, region, or state*, regarded as enjoying primary status; although there are exceptions, a capital is almost always a city which physically encompasses the offices and meeting places of the seat of government and is fixed by law. An alternate term is **political capital**, but this phrase has a second meaning based on an alternative sense of *capital*. Often, a capital city is the largest city in that country but not always.

The word *capital* is derived from the Latin *caput* meaning "head," and, in the United States, the related term *Capitol* refers to the building where government business is chiefly conducted.

The seats of government in major sub-state jurisdictions are often called "capitals", but this is typically the case only in countries with some degree of federalism, where major substate jurisdictions have an element of sovereignty. In unitary states, "administrative center" or other similar terms are typically used. For example, the seat of government in a U.S. state is usually called its "capital", but the main city in a region of England is usually not, even though in Ireland, a county's main town is usually regarded as its capital. At lower administrative subdivisions, terms such as county town, county seat, or borough seat are usually used.

Historically, the major economic center of a state or region often becomes the focal point of political power, and becomes a capital through conquest or amalgamation. This was the case for London, Berlin, and Moscow. The capital naturally attracts the politically motivated and those whose skills are needed for efficient administration of government such as lawyers, journalists, and public policy researchers. A capital that is the prime economic, cultural, or intellectual center is sometimes referred to as a primate city. Such is certainly the case with Paris, London and Madrid among national capitals, and Milan, Irkutsk or Phoenix in their respective state or province.

Capitals are sometimes sited to discourage further growth in an existing major city. Brasília was situated in Brazil's interior because the old capital, Rio de Janeiro, and southeastern Brazil in general, were considered over-crowded.^[citation needed]

The convergence of political and economic or cultural power is by no means universal. Traditional capitals may be economically eclipsed by provincial rivals, as occurred with Nanjing by Shanghai. The decline of a dynasty or culture could also mean the extinction of its capital city, as occurred with Babylon and Cahokia. Many present-day capital cities, such as New Delhi, Abuja, Ankara, Brasília, Canberra, Astana, Islamabad, Ottawa and Washington, D.C. are planned cities that were built as an alternative to the seat of government residing in an established population centre for various reasons. In many cases in their own right they have become gradually established as new business or commercial centres.

India

Republic of India *Bharat Ganrajya*



[Flag](#)



सत्यमेव जयते

[Emblem](#)

Motto: "[Satyameva Jayate](#)" ([Sanskrit](#))

"Truth Alone Triumphs"^[1]

India (ⁱndiə/ˈɪndiə/), officially the **Republic of India** (*Bharat Ganrajya*)^[c], is a country in [South Asia](#). It is the [seventh-largest](#) country by area, the [second-most populous](#) country with [over 1.2 billion people](#), and the most populous [democracy](#) in the world. Bounded by the [Indian Ocean](#) on the south, the [Arabian Sea](#) on the south-west, and the [Bay of Bengal](#) on the south-east, it shares land borders with Pakistan to the west,^[d] China, [Nepal](#), and [Bhutan](#) to the north-east; and [Burma](#) and [Bangladesh](#) to the east. In the Indian Ocean, India is in the vicinity of [Sri Lanka](#) and the [Maldives](#); in addition, India's [Andaman and Nicobar Islands](#) share a maritime border with [Thailand](#) and [Indonesia](#).

Home to the ancient [Indus Valley Civilisation](#) and a region of historic trade routes and vast empires, the [Indian subcontinent](#) was identified with its commercial and cultural wealth for much of its long history.^[1] Four world religions—[Hinduism](#), [Buddhism](#), [Jainism](#), and [Sikhism](#)—originated here, whereas [Zoroastrianism](#), [Christianity](#), and [Islam](#) arrived in the 1st millennium [CE](#) and also helped shape the region's [diverse culture](#). Gradually annexed by and brought under the administration of the [British East India Company](#) from the early 18th century and [administered directly by the United Kingdom](#) from the mid-19th century, India became an independent nation in 1947 after a [struggle for independence](#) that was marked by [non-violent resistance](#) led by [Mahatma Gandhi](#).

The [Indian economy](#) is the world's tenth-largest by [nominal GDP](#) and third-largest by [purchasing power parity](#) (PPP).^[12] Following [market-based economic reforms](#) in 1991, India became one of the [fastest-growing major economies](#); it is considered a [newly industrialised country](#). However, it continues to face the challenges of [poverty](#), [illiteracy](#), [corruption](#), [malnutrition](#), [inadequate public healthcare](#), and [terrorism](#). A [nuclear weapons state](#) and a [regional power](#), it has the [third-largest standing army](#) in the world and ranks [seventh in military expenditure](#) among nations. India is a [federal constitutional republic](#) governed under a [parliamentary system](#) consisting of [28 states and 7 union territories](#). India is a pluralistic, [multilingual](#), and [multi-ethnic society](#). It is also home to a diversity of [wildlife](#) in a variety of [protected habitats](#).

Etymology

Main article: [Names of India](#)

The name *India* is derived from *Indus*, which originates from the [Old Persian](#) word *Hindu*. The latter term stems from the [Sanskrit](#) word *Sindhu*, which was the historical local appellation for the [Indus River](#).^[13] The [ancient Greeks](#) referred to the Indians as *Indoi* (Ἰνδοί), which translates as "the people of the Indus".^[14] The geographical term *Bharat* (pronounced [ˈbʱaːrət] ⁱlisten)), which is recognised by the [Constitution of India](#) as an official name for the country, is used by [many Indian languages](#) in its

variations.^[15] The [eponym](#) of *Bharat* is [Bharata](#), a theological figure that Hindu scriptures describe as a legendary emperor of ancient India. [Hindustan](#) ([hɪndʊˈstɑːn] [ⓘ] [Ⓘ]) was originally a [Persian](#) word that meant "Land of the Hindus"; prior to 1947, it referred to a region that encompassed northern India and Pakistan. It is occasionally used to solely denote India in its entirety.^{[16][17]}

History

Main articles: [History of India](#) and [History of the Republic of India](#)

Ancient India

The earliest [anatomically modern human](#) remains found in South Asia date from approximately 30,000 years ago.^[18] Nearly contemporaneous [Mesolithic](#) rock art sites have been found in many parts of the Indian subcontinent, including at the [Bhimbetka rock shelters](#) in [Madhya Pradesh](#).^[19] Around 7000 BCE, the first known [Neolithic](#) settlements appeared on the subcontinent in [Mehrgarh](#) and other sites in western Pakistan.^[20] These gradually developed into the [Indus Valley Civilisation](#),^[21] the first urban culture in South Asia,^[22] it flourished during 2500–1900 BCE in Pakistan and western India.^[23] Centred around cities such as [Mohenjo-daro](#), [Harappa](#), [Dholavira](#), and [Kalibangan](#), and relying on varied forms of subsistence, the civilization engaged robustly in crafts production and wide-ranging trade.^[22]

During the period 2000–500 BCE, in terms of culture, many regions of the subcontinent transitioned from the [Chalcolithic](#) to the [Iron Age](#).^[24] The [Vedas](#), the oldest scriptures of Hinduism,^[25] were composed during this period,^[26] and historians have analysed these to posit a [Vedic culture](#) in the [Punjab region](#) and the upper [Gangetic Plain](#).^[24] Most historians also consider this period to have encompassed several waves of [Indo-Aryan migration](#) into the subcontinent from the north-west.^{[27][25][28]} The [caste system](#), which created a hierarchy of priests, warriors, and free peasants, but which excluded indigenous peoples by labelling their occupations impure, arose during this period.^[29] On the [Deccan Plateau](#), archaeological evidence from this period suggests the existence of a chiefdom stage of political organisation.^[24] In southern India, a progression to sedentary life is indicated by the large number of [megalithic](#) monuments dating from this period,^[30] as well as by nearby traces of agriculture, irrigation tanks, and craft traditions.^[30]



Paintings at the [Ajanta Caves](#) in [Aurangabad, Maharashtra](#), 6th century

During the period 230 BCE to 220 CE, [Satavahana](#) empire covered much of India. The Satavahanas are credited for establishing peace in the country, resisting the onslaught of foreigners after the decline of Mauryan Empire. Satavahanas are also credited with furthering Buddhism in India including [Ajanta](#) caves.

In the late [Vedic period](#), around the 5th century BCE, the small chiefdoms of the [Ganges](#) Plain and the north-western regions had consolidated into 16 major oligarchies and monarchies that were known as the [mahajanapadas](#).^{[31][32]} The emerging urbanisation and the orthodoxies of this age also created the religious reform movements of [Buddhism](#) and [Jainism](#),^[33] both of which became

independent religions.^[34] Buddhism, based on the teachings of [Gautama Buddha](#) attracted followers from all social classes excepting the middle class; chronicling the life of the Buddha was central to the beginnings of recorded history in India.^{[33][35][36]} Jainism came into prominence around the same time during the life of its exemplar, [Mahavira](#).^[37] In an age of increasing urban wealth, both religions held up [renunciation](#) as an ideal,^[38] and both established long-lasting monasteries.^[31] Politically, by the 3rd century BCE, the kingdom of [Magadha](#) had annexed or reduced other states to emerge as the [Mauryan Empire](#).^[31] The empire was once thought to have controlled most of the subcontinent excepting the far south, but its core regions are now thought to have been separated by large autonomous areas.^{[39][40]} The Mauryan kings are known as much for their empire-building and determined management of public life as for [Ashoka](#)'s renunciation of militarism and far-flung advocacy of the Buddhist [dhamma](#).^{[41][42]}

The [Sangam literature](#) of the [Tamil language](#) reveals that, between 200 BCE and 200 CE, the southern peninsula was being ruled by the [Cheras](#), the [Cholas](#), and the [Pandyas](#), dynasties that traded extensively with the [Roman Empire](#) and with [West](#) and [South-East Asia](#).^{[43][44]} In North India, Hinduism asserted patriarchal control within the family, leading to increased subordination of women.^{[45][31]} By the 4th and 5th centuries, the [Gupta Empire](#) had created in the greater Ganges Plain a complex system of administration and taxation that became a model for later Indian kingdoms.^{[46][47]} Under the Guptas, a renewed Hinduism based on devotion rather than the management of ritual began to assert itself.^[48] The renewal was reflected in a flowering of [sculpture](#) and [architecture](#), which found patrons among an urban elite.^[47] [Classical Sanskrit literature](#) flowered as well, and [Indian science](#), [astronomy](#), [medicine](#), and [mathematics](#) made significant advances.^[47]

Medieval India



The granite [tower](#) of [Brihadeeswarar Temple](#) in [Thanjavur](#) was completed in 1010 CE by [Raja Raja Chola I](#).

The Indian early medieval age, 600 CE to 1200 CE, is defined by regional kingdoms and cultural diversity.^[49] When [Harsha](#) of [Kannauj](#), who ruled much of the Indo-Gangetic Plain from 606 to 647 CE, attempted to expand southwards, he was defeated by the [Chalukya](#) ruler of the Deccan.^[50] When his successor attempted to expand eastwards, he was defeated by the [Pala](#) king of [Bengal](#).^[50] When the Chalukyas attempted to expand southwards, they were defeated by the [Pallavas](#) from farther south, who in turn were opposed by the Pandyas and the Cholas from still farther south.^[50] No ruler of this period was able to create an empire and consistently control lands much beyond his core region.^[49] During this time, pastoral peoples whose land had been cleared to make way for the growing agricultural economy were accommodated within caste society, as were new non-traditional ruling classes.^[51] The caste system consequently began to show regional differences.^[51]

In the 6th and 7th centuries, the first [devotional hymns](#) were created in the Tamil language.^[52] They were imitated all over India and led to both the resurgence of Hinduism and the development of all [modern languages of the subcontinent](#).^[52] Indian royalty, [big](#) and [small](#), and the temples they patronised, drew citizens in great numbers to the capital cities, which became economic hubs as well.^[53] Temple towns of various sizes began to appear everywhere as India underwent another urbanisation.^[53] By the 8th and 9th centuries, the effects were felt in South-East Asia, as South Indian culture and political systems were exported to lands that became part of modern-day [Myanmar](#), [Thailand](#), [Laos](#), [Cambodia](#), [Vietnam](#), [Malaysia](#), and [Java](#).^[54] Indian merchants, scholars, and sometimes armies were involved in this transmission; South-East Asians took the initiative as well, with many sojourning in Indian seminaries and translating Buddhist and Hindu texts into their languages.^[54]

After the 10th century, Muslim Central Asian nomadic clans, using [swift-horse](#) cavalry and raising vast armies united by ethnicity and religion, repeatedly overran South Asia's north-western plains, leading eventually to the establishment of the Islamic [Delhi Sultanate](#) in 1206.^[55] The sultanate was to control much of North India, and to make many forays into South India. Although at first disruptive for the Indian elites, the sultanate largely left its vast non-Muslim subject population to its own laws and customs.^{[56][57]} By repeatedly repulsing [Mongol raiders](#) in the 13th century, the sultanate saved India from the devastation visited on West and Central Asia, setting the scene for centuries of migration of fleeing soldiers, learned men, mystics, traders, artists, and artisans from that region into the subcontinent, thereby creating a syncretic Indo-Islamic culture in the north.^{[58][59]} The sultanate's raiding and weakening of the regional kingdoms of South India paved the way for the indigenous [Vijayanagara Empire](#).^[60] Embracing a strong [Shaivite](#) tradition and building upon the military technology of the sultanate, the empire came to control much of peninsular India,^[61] and was to influence South Indian society for long afterwards.^[60]

Early modern India



Scribes and artists in the Mughal court, 1590–1595


In the early 16th century, northern India, being then under mainly Muslim rulers,^[62] fell again to the superior mobility and firepower of a new generation of Central Asian warriors.^[63] The resulting [Mughal Empire](#) did not stamp out the local societies it came to rule, but rather balanced and pacified them through new administrative practices^{[64][65]} and diverse and inclusive ruling elites,^[66] leading to more systematic, centralised, and uniform rule.^[67] Eschewing tribal bonds and Islamic identity, especially under [Akbar](#), the Mughals united their far-flung realms through loyalty, expressed through

a Persianised culture, to an emperor who had near-divine status.^[66] The Mughal state's economic policies, deriving most revenues from agriculture^[68] and mandating that taxes be paid in the well-regulated silver currency,^[69] caused peasants and artisans to enter larger markets.^[67] The relative peace maintained by the empire during much of the 17th century was a factor in India's economic expansion,^[67] resulting in greater patronage of [painting](#), literary forms, textiles, and [architecture](#).^[70] Newly coherent social groups in northern and western India, such as the [Marathas](#), the [Rajputs](#), and the [Sikhs](#), gained military and governing ambitions during Mughal rule, which, through collaboration or adversity, gave them both recognition and military experience.^[71] Expanding commerce during Mughal rule gave rise to new Indian commercial and political elites along the coasts of southern and eastern India.^[71] As the empire disintegrated, many among these elites were able to seek and control their own affairs.^[72]

By the early 18th century, with the lines between commercial and political dominance being increasingly blurred, a number of European trading companies, including the English [East India Company](#), had established coastal outposts.^{[73][74]} The East India Company's control of the seas, greater resources, and more advanced military training and technology led it to increasingly flex its military muscle and caused it to become attractive to a portion of the Indian elite; both these factors were crucial in allowing the Company to gain control over the [Bengal](#) region by 1765 and sideline the other European companies.^{[75][73][76][77]} Its further access to the riches of Bengal and the subsequent increased strength and size of its army enabled it to annex or subdue most of India by the 1820s.^[78] India was now no longer exporting manufactured goods as it long had, but was instead supplying the British empire with raw materials, and many historians consider this to be the onset of India's colonial period.^[73] By this time, with its economic power severely curtailed by the British parliament and itself effectively made an arm of British administration, the Company began to more consciously enter non-economic arenas such as education, social reform, and culture.^[79]

Modern India



 The British Indian Empire, from the 1909 edition of *The Imperial Gazetteer of India*. Areas directly governed by the British are shaded pink; the [princely states](#) under British [suzerainty](#) are in yellow.

Historians consider India's modern age to have begun sometime between 1848 and 1885. The appointment in 1848 of [Lord Dalhousie](#) as Governor General of the [East India Company](#) set the stage for changes essential to a modern state. These included the consolidation and demarcation of sovereignty, the surveillance of the population, and the [education](#) of citizens. Technological changes—among them, railways, canals, and the telegraph—were introduced not long after their introduction in Europe.^{[80][81][82][83]} However, disaffection with the Company also grew during this time, and set off the [Indian Rebellion of 1857](#). Fed by diverse resentments and perceptions, including invasive British-style social reforms, harsh land taxes, and summary treatment of some rich landowners and princes, the rebellion rocked many regions of northern and central India and shook the foundations of Company rule.^{[84][85]} Although the rebellion was suppressed by 1858, it led to the dissolution of the East India Company and to the [direct administration of India](#) by the British

government. Proclaiming a unitary state and a gradual but limited British-style parliamentary system, the new rulers also protected princes and landed gentry as a feudal safeguard against future unrest.^{[86][87]} In the decades following, public life gradually emerged all over India, leading eventually to the founding of the [Indian National Congress](#) in 1885.^{[88][89][90][91]}



[Jawaharlal Nehru](#) (left) became India's first prime minister in 1947. [Mahatma Gandhi](#) (right) led the independence movement.

The rush of technology and the commercialisation of agriculture in the second half of the 19th century was marked by economic setbacks—many small farmers became dependent on the whims of far-away markets.^[92] There was an increase in the number of large-scale [famines](#),^[93] and, despite the risks of infrastructure development borne by Indian taxpayers, little industrial employment was generated for Indians.^[94] There were also salutary effects: commercial cropping, especially in the newly called Punjab, led to increased food production for internal consumption.^[95] The railway network provided critical famine relief,^[96] notably reduced the cost of moving goods,^[96] and helped nascent Indian-owned industry.^[95] After World War I, in which [some one million Indians served](#),^[97] a new period began. It was marked by British reforms but also repressive legislation, by more strident Indian calls for self-rule, and by the beginnings of a non-violent movement of non-cooperation, of which [Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi](#) would become the leader and enduring symbol.^[98] During the 1930s, slow legislative reform was enacted by the British; the Indian National Congress won victories in the resulting elections.^[99] The next decade was beset with crises: [Indian participation in World War II](#), the Congress's final push for non-cooperation, and an upsurge of Muslim nationalism. All were capped by the advent of independence in 1947, but tempered by the [bloody partition](#) of the subcontinent into two states: India and Pakistan.^[100]

Vital to India's self-image as an independent nation was its constitution, completed in 1950, which put in place a secular and democratic republic.^[101] In the 60 years since, India has had a mixed record of successes and failures.^[102] It has remained a democracy with civil liberties, an activist Supreme Court, and a largely independent press.^[102] Economic liberalisation, which was begun in the 1990s, has created a large urban middle class, transformed India into [one of the world's fastest-growing economies](#),^[103] and increased its geopolitical clout. Indian movies, music, and spiritual teachings play an increasing role in global culture.^[102] Yet, India has also been weighed down by seemingly unyielding poverty, both rural and urban;^[102] by [religious](#) and [caste-related violence](#);^[104] by [Maoist-inspired Naxalite insurgencies](#);^[105] and by [separatism in Jammu and Kashmir](#) and [in Northeast India](#).^[106] It has unresolved territorial disputes with China, which escalated into the [Sino-Indian War](#) of 1962,^[107] and with Pakistan, which flared into wars fought in [1947](#), [1965](#), [1971](#), and [1999](#).^[107] The India–Pakistan nuclear rivalry came to a head in 1998.^[108] India's sustained democratic freedoms are unique among the world's new nations; however, in spite of its recent economic successes, freedom from want for its disadvantaged population remains a goal yet to be achieved.^[109]

Geography

Main article: [Geography of India](#)

See also: [Geology of India](#)



A topographic map of India

India comprises the bulk of the Indian subcontinent and lies atop the minor [Indian tectonic plate](#), which in turn belongs to the [Indo-Australian Plate](#).^[110] India's defining geological processes commenced 75 million years ago when the Indian subcontinent, then part of the southern supercontinent [Gondwana](#), began a north-eastward [drift](#) across the then-unformed Indian Ocean that lasted fifty million years.^[110] The subcontinent's subsequent collision with, and [subduction](#) under, the [Eurasian Plate](#) bore aloft the planet's highest mountains, the [Himalayas](#). They abut India in the [north](#) and the [north-east](#).^[110] In the former seabed immediately south of the emerging Himalayas, plate movement created a vast [trough](#) that has gradually filled with river-borne sediment;^[111] it now forms the [Indo-Gangetic Plain](#).^[112] To the west lies the [Thar Desert](#), which is cut off by the [Aravalli Range](#).^[113]

The original Indian plate survives as [peninsular India](#), which is the oldest and geologically most stable part of India; it extends as far north as the [Satpura](#) and [Vindhya](#) ranges in central India. These parallel chains run from the Arabian Sea coast in Gujarat in the west to the coal-rich [Chota Nagpur Plateau](#) in Jharkhand in the east.^[114] To the south, the remaining peninsular landmass, the [Deccan Plateau](#), is flanked on the west and east by coastal ranges known as the [Western](#) and [Eastern Ghats](#);^[115] the plateau contains the nation's oldest rock formations, some of them over one billion years old. Constituted in such fashion, India lies to the north of the equator between 6° 44' and 35° 30' north latitude^[e] and 68° 7' and 97° 25' east longitude.^[116]



The Kedar Range of the Greater Himalayas rises behind [Kedarnath Temple](#), which is one of the twelve [jyotirlinga shrines](#).

India's coastline measures 7,517 kilometres (4,700 mi) in length; of this distance, 5,423 kilometres (3,400 mi) belong to peninsular India and 2,094 kilometres (1,300 mi) to the Andaman, Nicobar, and Lakshadweep island chains.^[117] According to the Indian naval hydrographic charts, the mainland coastline consists of the following: 43% sandy beaches; 11% rocky shores, including cliffs; and 46% [mudflats](#) or marshy shores.^[117]

Major Himalayan-origin rivers that substantially flow through India include the [Ganges](#) and the [Brahmaputra](#), both of which drain into the [Bay of Bengal](#).^[118] Important tributaries of the Ganges include the [Yamuna](#) and the [Kosi](#); the latter's extremely low gradient often leads to severe floods and

course changes.^[119] Major peninsular rivers, whose steeper gradients prevent their waters from flooding, include the [Godavari](#), the [Mahanadi](#), the [Kaveri](#), and the [Krishna](#), which also drain into the Bay of Bengal;^[120] and the [Narmada](#) and the [Tapti](#), which drain into the [Arabian Sea](#).^[121] Coastal features include the marshy [Rann of Kutch](#) of western India and the alluvial [Sundarbans](#) delta of eastern India; the latter is shared with Bangladesh.^[122] India has two archipelagos: the [Lakshadweep](#), coral atolls off India's south-western coast; and the [Andaman and Nicobar Islands](#), a volcanic chain in the [Andaman Sea](#).^[123]

The [Indian climate](#) is strongly influenced by the Himalayas and the Thar Desert, both of which drive the economically and culturally pivotal summer and winter [monsoons](#).^[124] The Himalayas prevent cold Central Asian [katabatic winds](#) from blowing in, keeping the bulk of the Indian subcontinent warmer than most locations at similar latitudes.^{[125][126]} The Thar Desert plays a crucial role in attracting the moisture-laden south-west summer monsoon winds that, between June and October, provide the majority of India's rainfall.^[124] Four major climatic groupings predominate in India: [tropical wet](#), [tropical dry](#), [subtropical humid](#), and [montane](#).^[127]

Biodiversity

Main article: [Wildlife of India](#)



The [brahminy kite](#) (*Haliastur indus*) is identified with [Garuda](#), the [mythical mount](#) of [Vishnu](#). It hunts for fish and other prey near the coasts and around inland wetlands.

India lies within the [Indomalaya ecozone](#) and contains three [biodiversity hotspots](#).^[128] One of 17 [megadiverse countries](#), it hosts 8.6% of all mammalian, 13.7% of all avian, 7.9% of all reptilian, 6% of all amphibian, 12.2% of all piscine, and 6.0% of all flowering plant species.^{[129][130]} [Endemism](#) is high among plants, 33%, and among [ecoregions](#) such as the [shola forests](#).^[131] Habitat ranges from the [tropical rainforest](#) of the [Andaman Islands](#), [Western Ghats](#), and [North-East India](#) to the [coniferous forest](#) of the Himalaya. Between these extremes lie the moist deciduous [sal](#) forest of eastern India; the dry deciduous [teak](#) forest of central and southern India; and the [babul](#)-dominated [thorn forest](#) of the central Deccan and western Gangetic plain.^[132] Under 12% of India's landmass bears thick jungle.^[133] The medicinal [neem](#), widely used in rural Indian herbal remedies, is a key Indian tree. The luxuriant [pipal](#) fig tree, shown on the seals of [Mohenjo-daro](#), shaded Gautama Buddha as he sought enlightenment.



[Shola](#) highlands are found in [Kudremukh National Park](#), [Chikmagalur](#) which is part of the Western Ghats.

Many Indian species descend from [taxa](#) originating in Gondwana, from which the [Indian plate](#) separated more than 105 million years [before present](#).^[134] [Peninsular India's](#) subsequent [movement](#) towards and collision with the [Laurasian](#) landmass set off a mass exchange of species. [Epochal volcanism](#) and climatic changes 20 million years ago forced a mass extinction.^[135] Mammals then entered India from Asia through two [zoogeographical](#) passes flanking the rising Himalaya.^[132] Thus, while 45.8% of reptiles and 55.8% of amphibians are endemic, only 12.6% of mammals and 4.5% of birds are.^[130] Among them are the [Nilgiri leaf monkey](#) and [Beddome's toad](#) of the Western Ghats. India contains 172 [IUCN](#)-designated [threatened species](#), or 2.9% of endangered forms.^[136] These include the [Asiatic lion](#), the [Bengal tiger](#), and the [Indian white-rumped vulture](#), which, by ingesting the carrion of [diclofenac](#)-laced cattle, nearly went extinct.

The pervasive and ecologically devastating human encroachment of recent decades has critically endangered Indian wildlife. In response the system of [national parks](#) and [protected areas](#), first established in 1935, was substantially expanded. In 1972, India enacted the [Wildlife Protection Act](#)^[137] and [Project Tiger](#) to safeguard crucial wilderness; the Forest Conservation Act was enacted in 1980 and amendments added in 1988.^[138] India hosts [more than five hundred wildlife sanctuaries](#) and [thirteen biosphere reserves](#),^[139] four of which are part of the [World Network of Biosphere Reserves](#); [twenty-five wetlands](#) are registered under the [Ramsar Convention](#).^[140]

Politics

Main article: [Politics of India](#)



A parliamentary joint session is held in the [Sansad Bhavan](#).

India is the world's most populous democracy.^[141] A [parliamentary republic](#) with a [multi-party system](#),^[142] it has six [recognised national parties](#), including the [Indian National Congress](#) and the [Bharatiya Janata Party](#) (BJP), and more than 40 [regional parties](#).^[143] The Congress is considered centre-left or "liberal" in Indian [political culture](#), and the BJP centre-right or "conservative". For most of the period between 1950—when India first became a republic—and the late 1980s, the Congress held a majority in the parliament. Since then, however, it has increasingly shared the political stage with the BJP,^[144] as well as with powerful regional parties which have often forced the creation of multi-party [coalitions](#) at the centre.^[145]

In the Republic of India's first three general elections, in 1951, 1957, and 1962, the [Jawaharlal Nehru](#)-led Congress won easy victories. On Nehru's death in 1964, [Lal Bahadur Shastri](#) briefly became prime minister; he was succeeded, after his own unexpected death in 1966, by [Indira Gandhi](#), who went on to lead the Congress to election victories in 1967 and 1971. Following public discontent with the [state of emergency](#) she declared in 1975, the Congress was voted out of power in 1977; the then-new [Janata Party](#), which had opposed the emergency, was voted in. Its government lasted just over three years. Voted back into power in 1980, the Congress saw a change in leadership in 1984, when Indira Gandhi was assassinated; she was succeeded by her son [Rajiv Gandhi](#), who won an easy victory in the general elections later that year. The Congress was voted out again in 1989 when a [National Front](#) coalition, led by the newly formed [Janata Dal](#) in alliance with the [Left Front](#), won the elections; that government too proved relatively short-lived: it lasted just under two years.^[146] Elections were held again in 1991; no party won an absolute majority. But the Congress, as the largest single party, was able to form a [minority government](#) led by [P. V. Narasimha Rao](#).^[147]

A two-year period of political turmoil followed the general election of 1996. Several short-lived alliances shared power at the centre. The BJP formed a government briefly in 1996; it was followed by two comparatively long-lasting [United Front](#) coalitions, which depended on external support. In 1998, the BJP was able to form a successful coalition, the [National Democratic Alliance](#) (NDA). Led by [Atal Bihari Vajpayee](#), the NDA became the first non-Congress, [coalition government](#) to complete

a five-year term.^[148] In the [2004 Indian general elections](#), again no party won an absolute majority, but the Congress emerged as the largest single party, forming another successful coalition: the [United Progressive Alliance](#) (UPA). It had the support of left-leaning parties and MPs who opposed the BJP. The UPA returned to power in the [2009 general election](#) with increased numbers, and it no longer required external support from [India's communist parties](#).^[149] That year, [Manmohan Singh](#) became the first prime minister since [Jawaharlal Nehru](#) in [1957](#) and [1962](#) to be re-elected to a consecutive five-year term.^[150]

Government

Main article: [Government of India](#)

See also: [Elections in India](#)



The [Rashtrapati Bhavan](#) is the official residence of the president of India.

India is a [federation](#) with a [parliamentary system](#) governed under the [Constitution of India](#), which serves as the country's supreme legal document. It is a [constitutional republic](#) and [representative democracy](#), in which "[majority rule](#) is tempered by [minority rights](#) protected by [law](#)". [Federalism in India](#) defines the power distribution between the federal government and the [states](#). The government abides by constitutional [checks and balances](#). The Constitution of India, which came into effect on 26 January 1950,^[151] states in its [preamble](#) that India is a [sovereign, socialist, secular, democratic republic](#).^[152] India's form of government, traditionally described as "quasi-federal" with a strong centre and weak states,^[153] has grown increasingly federal since the late 1990s as a result of political, economic, and social changes.^{[154][155]}

National symbols^[1]

Flag	Tricolour
Emblem	Sarnath Lion Capital
Anthem	Jana Gana Mana
Song	Vande Mataram
Calendar	Saka
Game	Not declared ^[156]
Flower	Lotus
Fruit	Mango
Tree	Banyan
Bird	Indian Peafowl
Land animal	Royal Bengal Tiger
Aquatic animal	River Dolphin
River	Ganga (Ganges)

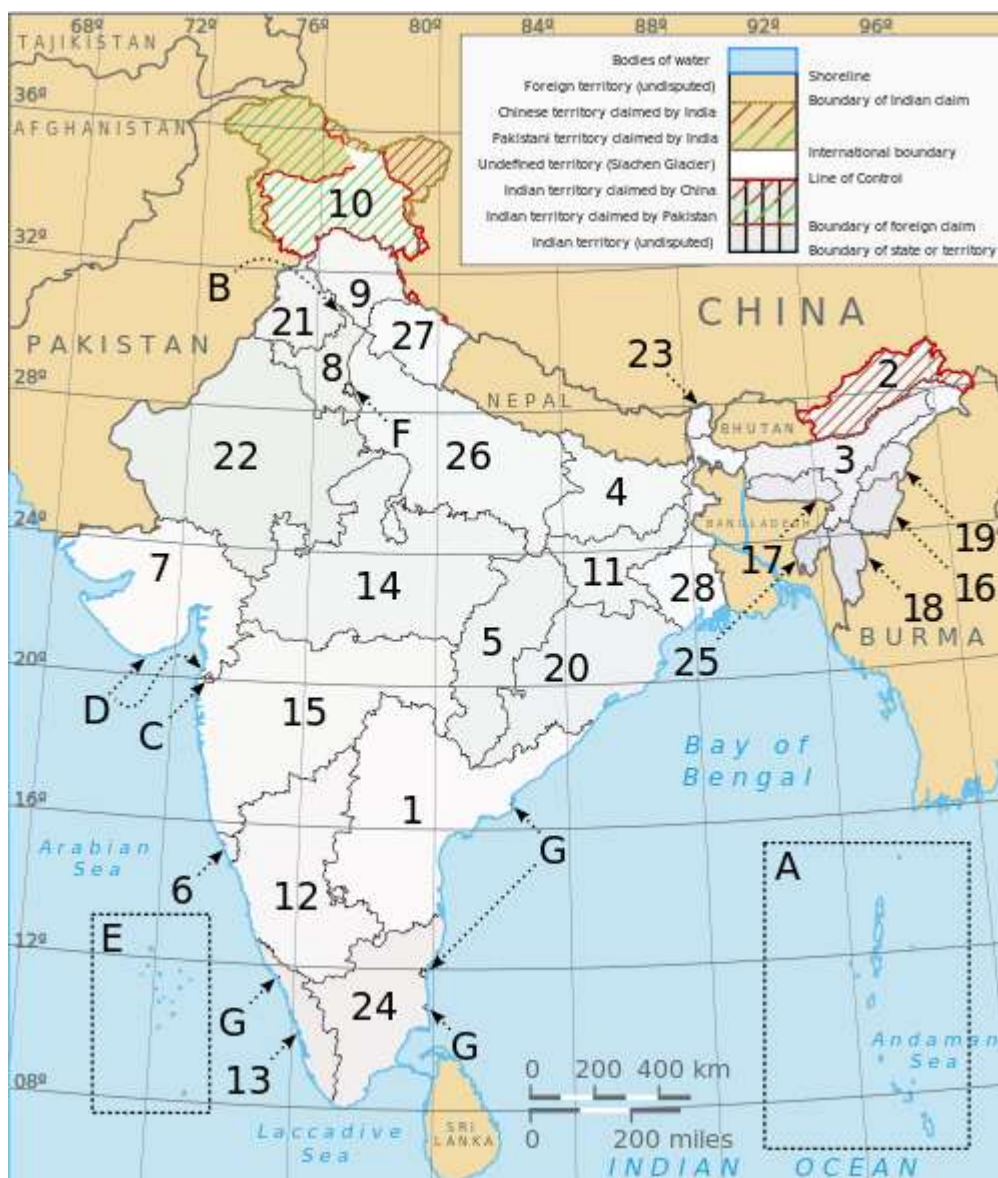
The federal government comprises **three** branches:

- **Executive:** The [President of India](#) is the head of state^[157] and is elected indirectly by a national [electoral college](#)^[158] for a five-year term.^[159] The [Prime Minister of India](#) is the [head of government](#) and exercises most [executive power](#).^[160] Appointed by the president,^[161] the prime minister is by convention supported by the [party](#) or political alliance holding the majority of seats in the lower house of parliament.^[160] The executive branch of the Indian government consists of the president, the vice-president, and the [Council of Ministers](#)—the [cabinet](#) being its executive committee—headed by the prime minister. Any minister holding a portfolio must be a member of one of the houses of

parliament.^[157] In the Indian parliamentary system, the executive is subordinate to the legislature; the prime minister and his council directly responsible to the lower house of the parliament.^[162]

- **Legislative:** The legislature of India is the [bicameral parliament](#). It operates under a [Westminster-style](#) parliamentary system and comprises the upper house called the [Rajya Sabha](#) ("Council of States") and the lower called the [Lok Sabha](#) ("House of the People").^[163] The Rajya Sabha is a permanent body that has 245 members who serve in staggered six-year terms.^[164] Most are elected indirectly by the [state and territorial](#) legislatures in numbers proportional to their state's share of the national population.^[161] All but two of the Lok Sabha's 545 members are directly elected by popular vote; they represent individual [constituencies](#) via five-year terms.^[165] The remaining two members are nominated by the president from among the [Anglo-Indian](#) community, in case the president decides that they are not adequately represented.^[166]
- **Judicial:** India has a unitary three-tier [independent judiciary](#)^[167] that comprises the [Supreme Court](#), headed by the [Chief Justice of India](#), 24 [High Courts](#), and a large number of trial courts.^[167] The Supreme Court has [original jurisdiction](#) over cases involving [fundamental rights](#) and over disputes between states and the centre; it has [appellate jurisdiction](#) over the High Courts.^[168] It has the power both to declare the law and to strike down union or state laws which contravene the constitution.^[169] The Supreme Court is also the ultimate interpreter of the constitution.^[170]

Subdivisions



A clickable map of the 28 states and 7 union territories of India

Main article: [Administrative divisions of India](#)

See also: [Political integration of India](#)

India is a federation composed of 28 states and 7 [union territories](#).^[171] All states, as well as the union territories of [Puducherry](#) and the [National Capital Territory of Delhi](#), have elected legislatures and governments, both patterned on the Westminster model. The remaining five union territories are directly ruled by the centre through appointed administrators. In 1956, under the [States Reorganisation Act](#), states were reorganised on a linguistic basis.^[172] Since then, their structure has remained largely unchanged. Each state or union territory is further divided into administrative [districts](#). The districts in turn are further divided into [tehsils](#) and ultimately into villages.

States

1. [Andhra Pradesh](#)
2. [Arunachal Pradesh](#)
3. [Assam](#)
4. [Bihar](#)
5. [Chhattisgarh](#)
6. [Goa](#)
7. [Gujarat](#)
8. [Haryana](#)
9. [Himachal Pradesh](#)
10. [Jammu and Kashmir](#)
11. [Jharkhand](#)
12. [Karnataka](#)
13. [Kerala](#)
14. [Madhya Pradesh](#)
15. [Maharashtra](#)
16. [Manipur](#)
17. [Meghalaya](#)
18. [Mizoram](#)
18. [Nagaland](#)
20. [Odisha](#)
21. [Punjab](#)
22. [Rajasthan](#)
23. [Sikkim](#)
24. [Tamil Nadu](#)
25. [Tripura](#)
26. [Uttar Pradesh](#)
27. [Uttarakhand](#)
28. [West Bengal](#)

Union territories

- A. [Andaman and Nicobar Islands](#)
- B. [Chandigarh](#)
- C. [Dadra and Nagar Haveli](#)
- D. [Daman and Diu](#)
- E. [Lakshadweep](#)
- F. [National Capital Territory of Delhi](#)
- G. [Puducherry](#)

Foreign relations and military

Main articles: [Foreign relations of India](#) and [Indian Armed Forces](#)



[Manmohan Singh](#) meets [Dmitry Medvedev](#) at the [34th G8 summit](#). India and Russia share extensive economic, defence, and technological [ties](#).

Since its independence in 1947, India has maintained cordial relations with most nations. In the 1950s, it strongly supported decolonisation in Africa and Asia and [played a lead role](#) in the [Non-Aligned Movement](#).^[173] In the late 1980s, the Indian military twice intervened abroad at the invitation

of neighbouring countries: a [peace-keeping operation](#) in Sri Lanka between 1987 and 1990; and an armed intervention to prevent a [coup d'état attempt](#) in Maldives. India has [tense relations](#) with neighbouring Pakistan; the two nations [have gone to war four times](#): in [1947](#), [1965](#), [1971](#), and [1999](#). Three of these wars were fought over the [disputed territory of Kashmir](#), while the fourth, the 1971 war, followed from India's support for the [independence of Bangladesh](#).^[174] After waging the 1962 [Sino-Indian War](#) and the 1965 war with Pakistan, India pursued close military and economic [ties with the Soviet Union](#); by the late 1960s, the Soviet Union was its largest arms supplier.^[175]

Aside from ongoing strategic [relations with Russia](#), India has wide-ranging [defence relations with Israel](#) and [France](#). In recent years, it has played key roles in the [South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation](#) and the [World Trade Organisation](#). The nation has provided 100,000 [military](#) and [police](#) personnel to serve in 35 UN peacekeeping operations across four continents. It participates in the [East Asia Summit](#), the [G8+5](#), and other multilateral forums.^[176] India has close economic ties with South America, Asia, and Africa; it pursues a "[Look East](#)" [policy](#) that seeks to strengthen partnerships with the [ASEAN](#) nations, [Japan](#), and [South Korea](#) that revolve around many issues, but especially those involving economic investment and regional security.^{[177][178]}



The [HAL Tejas](#) is a light supersonic fighter developed by the [Aeronautical Development Agency](#) and manufactured by [Hindustan Aeronautics](#) in [Bangalore](#).^[179]

China's [nuclear test of 1964](#), as well as its repeated threats to intervene in support of Pakistan in the 1965 war, convinced India to develop nuclear weapons.^[180] India conducted its [first nuclear weapons test](#) in 1974 and carried out [further underground testing](#) in 1998. Despite criticism and military sanctions, India has signed neither the [Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty](#) nor the [Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty](#), considering both to be flawed and discriminatory.^[181] India maintains a "[no first use](#)" nuclear policy and is developing a [nuclear triad](#) capability as a part of its "[minimum credible deterrence](#)" doctrine.^{[182][183]} It is developing a [ballistic missile defence shield](#) and, in collaboration with Russia, a [fifth-generation fighter jet](#).^[184] Other indigenous military projects involve the design and implementation of [Vikrant-class aircraft carriers](#) and [Arihant-class nuclear submarines](#).^[184]

Since the end of the [Cold War](#), India has increased its economic, strategic, and military cooperation with the [United States](#) and the [European Union](#).^[185] In 2008, a [civilian nuclear agreement](#) was signed between India and the United States. Although India possessed nuclear weapons at the time and was not party to the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty, it received waivers from the [International Atomic Energy Agency](#) and the [Nuclear Suppliers Group](#), ending earlier restrictions on India's nuclear technology and commerce. As a consequence, India became the sixth *de facto* nuclear weapons state.^[186] India subsequently signed cooperation agreements involving [civilian nuclear energy](#) with Russia,^[187] France,^[188] the [United Kingdom](#),^[189] and [Canada](#).^[190]

The [President of India](#) is the supreme commander of the nation's armed forces; with 1.6 million active troops, they compose the [world's third-largest military](#).^[191] It comprises the [Indian Army](#), the [Indian Navy](#), and the [Indian Air Force](#); auxiliary organisations include the [Strategic Forces Command](#) and three [paramilitary groups](#): the [Assam Rifles](#), the [Special Frontier Force](#), and the [Indian Coast Guard](#).^[8] The official Indian [defence budget](#) for 2011 was US\$36.03 billion, or 1.83% of GDP.^[192] For the fiscal year spanning 2012–2013, US\$40.44 billion was budgeted.^[193] According to a 2008

[SIPRI](#) report, India's annual military expenditure in terms of purchasing power stood at US\$72.7 billion,^[194] In 2011, the annual defence budget increased by 11.6%,^[195] although this does not include funds that reach the military through other branches of government.^[196] As of 2012, India is the world's largest arms importer; between 2007 and 2011, it accounted for 10% of funds spent on international arms purchases.^[197] Much of the military expenditure was focused on defence against Pakistan and countering growing Chinese influence in the Indian Ocean.^[195]

Economy

Main article: [Economy of India](#)

See also: [Economic history of India](#), [Economic development in India](#), and [Transport in India](#)



🔍 A farmer in [Rajasthan](#) milks his cow. Milk is India's [largest crop by economic value](#). Worldwide, as of 2011, India had the largest herds of buffalo and cattle, and was the largest producer of milk.

According to the World Bank, as of 2011, the Indian economy is nominally worth US\$1.848 trillion,^[121] it is the tenth-largest economy by market exchange rates, and is, at US\$4.457 trillion, the third-largest by [purchasing power parity](#), or PPP.^[198] With its average annual GDP growth rate of 5.8% over the past two decades, and reaching 6.1% during 2011–12,^[199] India is one of the [world's fastest-growing economies](#).^[200] However, the country ranks 140th in the world in [nominal GDP per capita](#) and 129th in [GDP per capita at PPP](#).^[198] Until 1991, all Indian governments followed [protectionist](#) policies that were influenced by socialist economics. Widespread [state intervention and regulation](#) largely walled the economy off from the outside world. An acute [balance of payments crisis in 1991](#) forced the nation to [liberalise its economy](#),^[201] since then it has slowly moved towards a free-market system^{[202][203]} by emphasising both foreign trade and direct investment inflows.^[204] India's recent economic model is largely capitalist.^[203] India has been a member of [WTO](#) since 1 January 1995.^[205]

The 487.6-million worker [Indian labour force](#) is the [world's second-largest](#), as of 2011.^[81] The service sector makes up 55.6% of GDP, the industrial sector 26.3% and the [agricultural sector](#) 18.1%. Major agricultural products include rice, wheat, oilseed, cotton, jute, tea, sugarcane, and potatoes.^[171] Major industries include textiles, telecommunications, chemicals, pharmaceuticals, biotechnology, food processing, steel, transport equipment, cement, mining, petroleum, machinery, and software.^[171] In 2006, the share of external trade in India's GDP stood at 24%, up from 6% in 1985.^[202] In 2008, India's share of world trade was 1.68%;^[206] In 2011, India was the world's [tenth-largest importer](#) and the [nineteenth-largest exporter](#).^[207] Major exports include petroleum products, textile goods, jewellery, software, engineering goods, chemicals, and leather manufactures.^[171] Major imports include crude oil, machinery, gems, fertiliser, and chemicals.^[171] Between 2001 and 2011, the contribution of petrochemical and engineering goods to total exports grew from 14% to 42%.^[208] Averaging an economic growth rate of 7.5% for several years prior to 2007,^[202] India has more than doubled its hourly wage rates during the first decade of the 21st century.^[209] Some 431 million Indians have left poverty since 1985; India's middle classes are projected to number around 580 million by 2030.^[210] Though ranking 51st in [global competitiveness](#), India ranks 17th in financial market sophistication, 24th in the banking sector, 44th in business sophistication, and 39th in innovation, ahead of several advanced economies, as of 2010.^[211] With 7 of the world's top 15 information technology outsourcing companies based in India, the country is viewed as the second-

most favourable outsourcing destination after the United States, as of 2009.^[212] India's consumer market, currently the world's [eleventh-largest](#), is expected to become fifth-largest by 2030.^[210]

India's [telecommunication industry](#), the world's fastest-growing, added 227 million subscribers during the period 2010–11.^[213] Its [automotive industry](#), the world's second fastest growing, increased domestic sales by 26% during 2009–10,^[214] and exports by 36% during 2008–09.^[215] Power capacity is 250 gigawatts, of which 8% is [renewable](#). The [Pharmaceutical industry in India](#) is among the significant emerging markets for global pharma industry. The Indian pharmaceutical market is expected to reach \$48.5 billion by 2020. India's R & D spending constitutes 60% of [Biopharmaceutical](#) industry.^{[216][217]} India is among the top 12 Biotech destinations of the world.^[218]^[219] At the end of 2011, [Indian IT Industry](#) employed 2.8 million professionals, generated revenues close to US\$100 billion equaling 7.5% of Indian GDP and contributed 26% of India's merchandise exports. An irrigation canal near [Channagiri, Davanagere, Karnataka](#). [Agriculture in India](#) is demographically the broadest sector and employs over 50% of the Indian workforce.

Despite impressive economic growth during recent decades, India continues to face socio-economic challenges. India contains the [largest concentration](#) of people living below the World Bank's international poverty line of US\$1.25 per day,^[221] the proportion having decreased from 60% in 1981 to 42% in 2005.^[222] Half of the children in India are underweight,^[223] and 46% of children under the age of three suffer from [malnutrition](#).^[221] The [Mid-Day Meal Scheme](#) attempts to lower these rates.^[224] Since 1991, [economic inequality](#) between India's states has consistently grown: the per-capita [net state domestic product](#) of the richest states in 2007 was 3.2 times that of the poorest.^[225] [Corruption in India](#) is perceived to have increased significantly,^[226] with one report estimating the illegal capital flows since independence to be US\$462 billion.^[227] Driven by growth, India's nominal [GDP per capita](#) has steadily increased from US\$329 in 1991, when economic liberalisation began, to US\$1,265 in 2010, and is estimated to increase to US\$2,110 by 2016; however, it has always remained lower than those of other Asian developing countries such as Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Thailand, and is expected to remain so in the near future.^[228]

According to a 2011 [PricewaterhouseCoopers](#) report, India's GDP at purchasing power parity could overtake that of the United States by 2045.^[229] During the next four decades, Indian GDP is expected to grow at an annualised average of 8%, making it potentially the world's fastest-growing major economy until 2050.^[229] The report highlights key growth factors: a young and rapidly growing working-age population; growth in the manufacturing sector because of rising education and engineering skill levels; and sustained growth of the consumer market driven by a rapidly growing middle class.^[229] The World Bank cautions that, for India to achieve its economic potential, it must continue to focus on public sector reform, [transport infrastructure](#), agricultural and rural development, removal of labour regulations, [education](#), [energy security](#), and [public health](#) and nutrition.^[230]

Citing persistent [inflation](#) pressures, weak [public finances](#), limited progress on fiscal consolidation and ineffectiveness of the government, rating agency [Fitch](#) revised India's Outlook to Negative from Stable on 18 June 2012.^[231] Another [credit rating agency S&P](#) had warned previously that a slowing GDP growth and political roadblocks to economic policy-making could put India at the risk of losing its [investment grade rating](#).^[232] However, [Moody](#) didn't revise its outlook on India keeping it stable,^[233] but termed the national government as the "single biggest drag" on the business activity.^[234]

Demographics

Main articles: [Demographics of India](#) and [List of most populous cities in India](#)



A population density and [Indian Railways](#) connectivity map. The already densely settled [Indo-Gangetic Plain](#) is the main driver of Indian population growth.

With 1,210,193,422 residents reported in the 2011 provisional census,^[5] India is the world's second-most populous country. Its population grew at 1.76% per annum during 2001–2011,^[5] down from 2.13% per annum in the previous decade (1991–2001).^[235] The human sex ratio, according to the 2011 census, is 940 females per 1,000 males.^[5] The median age was 24.9 in the 2001 census.^[8] The first post-colonial census, conducted in 1951, counted 361.1 million people.^[236] Medical advances made in the last 50 years as well as increased agricultural productivity brought about by the "[Green Revolution](#)" have caused India's population to grow rapidly.^[237] India continues to face several public health-related challenges.^{[238][239]} According to the World Health Organisation, 900,000 Indians die each year from [drinking contaminated water or breathing polluted air](#).^[240] There are around 50 physicians per 100,000 Indians.^[241] The number of Indians living in urban areas has grown by 31.2% between 1991 and 2001.^[242] Yet, in 2001, over 70% lived in rural areas.^{[243][244]} According to the 2001 census, there are 27 [million-plus cities in India](#),^[242] among them [Delhi](#), [Mumbai](#), [Kolkata](#), [Chennai](#), [Bangalore](#), [Hyderabad](#) and [Ahmedabad](#) are the [most populous metropolitan areas](#). The literacy rate in 2011 was 74.04%: 65.46% among females and 82.14% among males.^[5] Kerala is the most literate state,^[245] Bihar the least.^[246]

India is home to [two major language families](#): [Indo-Aryan](#) (spoken by about 74% of the population) and [Dravidian](#) (24%). Other languages spoken in India come from the [Austroasiatic](#) and [Tibeto-Burman](#) language families. India has no national language.^[247] Hindi, with the largest number of speakers, is the official language of the government.^{[248][249]} English is used extensively in business and administration and has the status of a "subsidiary official language";^[250] it is important in [education](#), especially as a medium of higher education. Each state and union territory has one or more official languages, and the constitution recognises in particular 21 "scheduled languages". The Constitution of India recognises 212 [scheduled tribal](#) groups which together constitute about 7.5% of the country's population.^[251] The 2001 census reported that [Hinduism](#), with over 800 million adherents (80.5% of the population), was the largest [religion in India](#); it is followed by [Islam](#) (13.4%), [Christianity](#) (2.3%), [Sikhism](#) (1.9%), [Buddhism](#) (0.8%), [Jainism](#) (0.4%), [Judaism](#), [Zoroastrianism](#), and the [Bahá'í Faith](#).^[252] India has the world's largest Hindu, Sikh, Jain, Zoroastrian, and Bahá'í populations, and has the [third-largest](#) Muslim population and the largest Muslim population for a non-Muslim majority country.^{[253][254]}

Culture

Main article: [Culture of India](#)



A [Warli](#) tribal painting by [Jivya Soma Mashe](#) from [Thane](#), Maharashtra

Indian cultural history spans more than 4,500 years.^[255] During the [Vedic period](#) (c. 1700–500 BCE), the foundations of [Hindu philosophy](#), [mythology](#), and [literature](#) were laid, and many beliefs and practices which still exist today, such as [dhárma](#), [káarma](#), [yóga](#), and [moksa](#), were established.^[14] India is notable for its [religious diversity](#), with Hinduism, Sikhism, Islam, Christianity, and Jainism among the nation's major religions.^[256] The predominant religion, Hinduism, has been shaped by various historical schools of thought, including those of the [Upanishads](#),^[257] the [Yoga Sutras](#), the [Bhakti movement](#),^[256] and by [Buddhist philosophy](#).^[258]

Art and architecture

Much of [Indian architecture](#), including the [Taj Mahal](#), other works of [Mughal architecture](#), and [South Indian architecture](#), blends ancient local traditions with imported styles.^[259] [Vernacular architecture](#) is also highly regional in its flavours. [Vastu shastra](#), literally "science of construction" or "architecture" and ascribed to [Mamuni Mayan](#),^[260] explores how the laws of nature affect human dwellings;^[261] it employs precise geometry and directional alignments to reflect perceived cosmic constructs.^[262] As applied in [Hindu temple architecture](#), it is influenced by the [Shilpa Shastras](#), a series of foundational texts whose basic mythological form is the *Vastu-Purusha mandala*, a square that embodied the "absolute".^[263] The Taj Mahal, built in [Agra](#) between 1631 and 1648 by orders of Emperor [Shah Jahan](#) in memory of his wife, has been described in the [UNESCO World Heritage List](#) as "the jewel of Muslim art in India and one of the universally admired masterpieces of the world's heritage."^[264] [Indo-Saracenic Revival architecture](#), developed by the British in the late 19th century, drew on [Indo-Islamic architecture](#).^[265]

Literature

The earliest literary writings in India, composed between 1400 BCE and 1200 CE, were in the Sanskrit language.^{[266][267]} Prominent works of this [Sanskrit literature](#) include [epics](#) such as the [Mahābhārata](#) and the [Ramayana](#), the dramas of [Kālidāsa](#) such as the *Abhijñānaśākuntalam* (*The Recognition of Śakuntalā*), and poetry such as the [Mahākāvya](#).^{[268][269][270]} [Kamasutra](#), the famous book about [sexual intercourse](#) also originated in India. Developed between 600 BCE and 300 CE in South India, the [Sangam literature](#), consisting of 2,381 poems, is regarded as a predecessor of [Tamil literature](#).^{[271][272][273][274]} From the 14th to the 18th centuries, India's literary traditions went through a period of drastic change because of the emergence of [devotional poets](#) such as [Kabīr](#), [Tulsīdās](#), and [Guru Nānak](#). This period was characterised by a varied and wide spectrum of thought and expression; as a consequence, medieval Indian literary works differed significantly from classical traditions.^[275] In the 19th century, Indian writers took a new interest in social questions and psychological descriptions. In the 20th century, Indian literature was influenced by the [works](#) of Bengali poet and novelist [Rabindranath Tagore](#).^[276]

Performing Arts

[Indian music](#) ranges over various traditions and regional styles. [Classical music](#) encompasses two genres and their various folk offshoots: the northern [Hindustani](#) and southern [Carnatic](#) schools.^[277] Regionalised popular forms include [filmi](#) and [folk music](#); the syncretic tradition of the [bauls](#) is a well-known form of the latter. [Indian dance](#) also features diverse folk and classical forms. Among the better-known [folk dances](#) are the [bhangra](#) of the Punjab, the [bihu](#) of Assam, the [chhau](#) of West Bengal and Jharkhand, [sambalpuri](#) of Odisha, [ghoomar](#) of Rajasthan, and the [lavani](#) of Maharashtra. Eight dance forms, many with narrative forms and mythological elements, have been accorded [classical dance status](#) by India's [National Academy of Music, Dance, and Drama](#). These are: [bharatanatyam](#) of the state of Tamil Nadu, [kathak](#) of Uttar Pradesh, [kathakali](#) and [mohiniyattam](#) of Kerala, [kuchipudi](#) of Andhra Pradesh, [manipuri](#) of Manipur, [odissi](#) of Odisha, and the [sattriya](#) of Assam.^[278] [Theatre in India](#) melds music, dance, and improvised or written dialogue.^[279] Often based on Hindu mythology, but also borrowing from medieval romances or social and political events, Indian theatre includes the [bhavai](#) of Gujarat, the [jatra](#) of West Bengal, the [nautanki](#) and [ramlila](#) of North India, [tamasha](#) of Maharashtra, [burrakatha](#) of Andhra Pradesh, [terukkuttu](#) of Tamil Nadu, and the [yakshagana](#) of Karnataka.^[280]

Motion Pictures

The [Indian film industry](#) produces the world's most-watched cinema.^[281] Established regional cinematic traditions exist in the [Assamese](#), [Bengali](#), [Hindi](#), [Kannada](#), [Malayalam](#), [Marathi](#), [Oriya](#), [Tamil](#), and [Telugu](#) languages.^[282] South Indian cinema attracts more than 75% of national film revenue.^[283] Television broadcasting began in India in 1959 as a state-run medium of communication, and had slow expansion for more than two decades.^[284] The [state monopoly](#) on television broadcast ended in 1990s and, since then, satellite channels have increasingly shaped popular culture of Indian society.^[285] Today, television is the most penetrative media in India; industry estimates indicate that as of 2012 there are over 554 million TV consumers, 462 million with satellite and/or cable connections, compared to other forms of mass media such as press (350 million), radio (156 million) or internet (37 million).^[286]

Society



Tourists from [North-East India](#), wrapped in sarongs and shawls, visit the Taj Mahal.

Traditional Indian society is defined by a relatively strict social hierarchy. The [Indian caste system](#) embodies much of the social stratification and many of the social restrictions found in the Indian subcontinent. Social classes are defined by thousands of endogamous hereditary groups, often termed as [jātis](#), or "castes".^[287] India declared untouchability illegal in 1947 and has since enacted other anti-discriminatory laws and social welfare initiatives, albeit numerous reports suggest that many [Dalits](#) ("ex-Untouchables") and other [low castes](#) in rural areas continue to live in segregation and face [persecution and discrimination](#).^{[288][289][290]} Family values are important in the Indian tradition, and multi-generational patriarchal joint families have been the norm in India, though nuclear families are becoming common in urban areas.^[291] An overwhelming majority of Indians, with their consent, have [their marriages arranged](#) by their parents or other family members.^[292] Marriage is thought to be for

life,^[292] and the divorce rate is extremely low.^[293] [Child marriages](#) are common, especially in rural areas; more than half of [women in India](#) wed before reaching 18, which is their legal marriageable age.^[294]

Many [Indian festivals](#) are religious in origin; among them are [Diwali](#), [Ganesh Chaturthi](#), [Thai Pongal](#), [Navaratri](#), [Holi](#), [Durga Puja](#), [Eid ul-Fitr](#), [Bakr-Id](#), [Christmas](#), and [Vaisakhi](#). India has [three national holidays](#) which are observed in all states and union territories: [Republic Day](#), [Independence Day](#), and [Gandhi Jayanti](#). Other sets of holidays, varying between nine and twelve, are officially observed in individual states. Traditional [Indian dress](#) varies in colour and style across regions and depends on various factors, including climate and faith. Popular styles of dress include draped garments such as the [sari](#) for women and the [dhoti](#) or [lungi](#) for men. Stitched clothes, such as the [shalwar kameez](#) for women and [kurta-pyjama](#) combinations or European-style trousers and shirts for men, are also popular.^[295] Use of delicate jewellery, modelled on real flowers worn in ancient India, is part of a tradition dating back some 5,000 years; gemstones are also worn in India as talismans.^[296]

[Indian cuisine](#) features an unsurpassed reliance on herbs and spices, with dishes often calling for the nuanced usage of a dozen or more condiments;^[297] it is also known for its *tandoori* preparations. The *tandoor*, a clay oven used in India for almost 5,000 years, grills meats to an "uncommon succulence" and produces the puffy flatbread known as *naan*.^[298] The staple foods are wheat (predominantly in the north),^[299] rice (especially in the south and the east), and lentils.^[300] [Many spices](#) that have worldwide appeal are native to the Indian subcontinent,^[301] while [chili pepper](#), native to the Americas and introduced by the [Portuguese](#), is widely used by Indians.^[302] *Ayurveda*, a system of traditional medicine, used six *rasas* and three *gunas* to help describe comestibles.^[303] Over time, as Vedic animal sacrifices were supplanted by the notion of [sacred-cow](#) inviolability, [vegetarianism](#) became associated with high religious status and grew increasingly popular,^[304] a trend aided by the rise of [Buddhist](#), [Jain](#), and *bhakti Hindu* norms.^[305] India has the world's highest concentration of vegetarians: a 2006 survey found that 31% of Indians were [lacto vegetarian](#), and another 9% were [ovo-lacto vegetarianism](#).^[305] Common [traditional eating customs](#) include meals taken on or near the floor, caste and gender-segregated dining,^{[306][307]} and a lack of cutlery in favour of the right hand or a piece of *roti*.

Sport

Main article: [Sport in India](#)



📄 [Sachin Tendulkar](#) celebrates his 38th [Test century](#) during a match against Australia in 2008. Tendulkar holds [multiple world records](#) including the world's leading run-scorer and century maker in both Tests and ODIs.

In India, several traditional indigenous sports remain fairly popular, among them [kabaddi](#), [kho kho](#), [pehlwani](#) and [gilli-danda](#). Some of the earliest forms of Asian [martial arts](#), such as [kalarippayattu](#),

musti yuddha, *silambam*, and *marma adi*, originated in India. The [Rajiv Gandhi Khel Ratna](#) and the [Arjuna Award](#) are the highest forms of government recognition for athletic achievement; the [Dronacharya Award](#) is awarded for excellence in coaching. [Chess](#), commonly held to have [originated in India](#) as *chaturanga*, is regaining widespread popularity with the rise in the number of Indian [grandmasters](#).^{[308][309]} *Pachisi*, from which [parcheesi](#) derives, was played on a giant marble court by Akbar.^[310] The improved results garnered by the [Indian Davis Cup team](#) and other [Indian tennis players](#) in the early 2010s have made tennis increasingly popular in the country.^[311] India has a [comparatively strong presence](#) in shooting sports, and has won several medals at the Olympics, the [World Shooting Championships](#), and the Commonwealth Games.^{[312][313]} Other sports in which Indians have succeeded internationally include badminton,^[314] boxing,^[315] and wrestling.^[316] [Football](#) is popular in West Bengal, Goa, Tamil Nadu, Kerala, and the north-eastern states.^[317]

[Field hockey](#) in India is administered by [Hockey India](#). The [Indian national hockey team](#) won the 1975 [Hockey World Cup](#) and have, as of 2012, taken eight gold, one silver, and two bronze Olympic medals, making it the sport's most successful team. India has also played a major role in popularizing [Cricket](#), thus cricket is by far the most popular sport of India; the [Indian national cricket team](#) won the [1983](#) and [2011 Cricket World Cup](#) events, the [2007 ICC World Twenty20](#), and shared the [2002 ICC Champions Trophy](#) with Sri Lanka. [Cricket in India](#) is administered by the [Board of Control for Cricket in India](#), or BCCI; the [Ranji Trophy](#), the [Duleep Trophy](#), the [Deodhar Trophy](#), the [Irani Trophy](#), and the [NKP Salve Challenger Trophy](#) are domestic competitions. The BCCI conducts a Twenty20 competition known as the [Indian Premier League](#). India has hosted or co-hosted several international sporting events: the [1951](#) and [1982 Asian Games](#); the [1987](#), [1996](#), and [2011 Cricket World Cup](#) tournaments; the [2003 Afro-Asian Games](#); the [2006 ICC Champions Trophy](#); the [2010 Hockey World Cup](#); and the [2010 Commonwealth Games](#). Major international sporting events held annually in India include the [Chennai Open](#), the [Mumbai Marathon](#), the [Delhi Half Marathon](#), and the [Indian Masters](#). The first [Indian Grand Prix](#) featured in late 2011.^[318] India has traditionally been the dominant country at the [South Asian Games](#). An example of this dominance is the [basketball competition](#) where [Team India](#) won three out of four tournaments to date.^[319]

Notes

1. [^] "[...] *Jana Gana Mana* is the National Anthem of India, subject to such alterations in the words as the Government may authorise as occasion arises; and the song *Vande Mataram*, which has played a historic part in the struggle for Indian freedom, shall be honoured equally with *Jana Gana Mana* and shall have equal status with it." ([Constituent Assembly of India 1950](#)).
2. [^] "The country's exact size is subject to debate because some borders are disputed. The Indian government lists the total area as 3,287,260 km² (1,269,220 sq mi) and the total land area as 3,060,500 km² (1,181,700 sq mi); the United Nations lists the total area as 3,287,263 km² (1,269,219 sq mi) and total land area as 2,973,190 km² (1,147,960 sq mi)." ([Library of Congress 2004](#)).
3. [^] See also:([Official names of India](#))
4. [^] The [Government of India](#) regards Afghanistan as a bordering country, as it considers all of [Kashmir](#) to be part of India. However, this is [disputed](#), and the region bordering Afghanistan is administered by Pakistan. Source: "[Ministry of Home Affairs \(Department of Border Management\)](#)" (DOC). Retrieved 1 September 2008..
5. [^] The northernmost point under Indian control is the disputed [Siachen Glacier](#) in Jammu and Kashmir; however, the Government of India regards the entire region of the former princely state of Jammu and Kashmir, including the [Northern Areas](#) administered by Pakistan, to be its territory. It therefore assigns the longitude 37° 6' to its northernmost point.

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