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COUNTRY STUDIES THROUGH ENGLISH LANGUAGE

(lecture notes)

ЛІНГВОКРАЇНОЗНАВСТВО АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

(конспект лекцій)

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Preface

Students are more connected to the world than ever before, through social media, online gaming, and popular culture that is more international than ever. Unfortunately, there is a difference between being connected to the world through popular culture and the Internet, and having an actual understanding of the world outside of one's home country.

The purpose of this manual is to help students be competent in a county study of the UK and the USA through a language and develop their communicative competence. This study attempts to review the history, geography, arts and culture of the UK and the USA in a concise and objective manner.

The country study of the UK and the USA is a fascinating field in its own right, but it also provides a valuable perspective for the contemporary study of the language. The historical account promotes a sense of identity and continuity, and enables us to find coherence in many fluctuations and conflicts of present-day English language use. It is mainly focused on its dominant social, political, economic, and cultural aspects.

The manual consists of a preface, introduction, 15 chapters: 1) Country Studies as a theoretical discipline; 2) The British Isles; 3) The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland; 4)Short Outline of British History; 5) England; 6) Scotland; 7) Wales; 8) The Northern Ireland; 9) The Republic of Ireland; 10) The United States of America; 11) American History in Short; 12) The USA in present world; 13) Canada; 14) Australia; 15) Some More Glimpse on the English-Speaking World.

Sources of information include country study books, scholarly journals, foreign and domestic newspapers.

Lecture 1.
Country Study as a theoretical discipline

Plan

1. Country Study as a theoretical discipline. The subject-matter, the aim of the discipline
2. Learning Objectives
3. Expected Learning Outcomes
4. Course Contents
5. Bibliography

1. Country Study as a theoretical discipline. The subject-matter, the aim of the discipline.

The English language is widely dispersed around the world because of the influence of the British Empire in the 18th century, and of the United States since the mid 20th century. English has become the leading language of international discourse. Also, it has become a lingua franca in many regions. Today, English is the third most widely spoken language in the world, after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish. All in all, it is an official language in 53 countries world-wide.

In this course you will learn about the **most popular** English-speaking countries in the world. Read about each country's most important facts and figures, geography, government, religion and economy.

Students are more connected to the world than ever before, through social media, online gaming, and popular culture that is more international than ever. Unfortunately, there is a difference between being connected to the world through popular culture and the Internet, and having an actual understanding of the world outside of one's home country.

The purpose of this manual is to help students be competent in a county study of the UK through a language and develop their communicative competence. This study attempts to review the history, geography, arts and culture of the UK in a concise and objective manner. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, called the United Kingdom, GB or UK, is a sovereign state in Northern Europe. It unites England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland as one Kingdom. It is a member of the United Nations, the Commonwealth, NATO and the G8. It has the sixth largest economy in the world.

The country study of the UK is a fascinating field in its own right, but it also provides a valuable perspective for the contemporary study of the language. The historical account promotes a sense of identity and continuity, and enables us to find coherence in many fluctuations and conflicts of present-day English language use. It is mainly focused on its dominant social, political, economic, and cultural aspects.

Sources of information include country study books, scholarly journals, foreign and domestic newspapers, official reports of government and international organizations, and numerous periodicals and international affairs.

This course is aimed to help students broaden your professional outlook as future teachers of English, linguists, interpreters and translators. If you still cannot give a quick answer to the following questions, such as

How many times the UK is smaller than the USA? What is highest temperature ever recorded in England? What is England's oldest recorded tourist attraction? How long was French the official language of the UK? What schools are called state schools?

What dish is more traditional than fish 'n chips? Do British police carry guns?

Where can the world's largest second-hand book market be found?

What art collection in the UK is one of the world's most important, rivalling with that of the Louvres Museum and New York Metropolitan Museum?

What is the oldest and largest royal residence in the world still in use?

This course will be a great resource for you. If you want to be successful in country studies. Hopefully this course will help you get motivated to study.

This course consists of two modules: “Linguistic country studies of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Scotland, Wales” and “Linguistic country studies of the United States of America, Canada, Canada”. It is consists: 5 ECTS credits, 15 lectures, 15 practical tasks: 1. Country Studies as a theoretical discipline; 2. The British Isles; 3. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland; 4. Short Outline of British History; 5. England; 6. Scotland; 7. Wales; 8. The Northern Ireland; 9. The Republic of Ireland; 10. The United States of America; 11. American History in Short; 12. The USA in present world; 13. Canada; 14. Australia;15. Some More Glimpse on the English-Speaking World.

“Linguistic country studies of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Scotland, Wales”: the given course presents a cross-scientific survey of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland in terms of History, Sociology, Anthropology, Politics, and Linguistics. However, it is aimed not only at delivering information on the key events and aspects of British history and political life but, more importantly, at giving practical knowledge crucial for successful intercultural communication. The students will obtain theoretical knowledge which will help them grasp the hallmarks and trends in the political, historical, and cultural processes in the UK. Moreover, the students are taught to apply their intercultural skills relying on the system of background knowledge native to British citizens of various identities. Students are also taught to critically assess the content of provided authentic texts. Students are expected to improve and expand their specialist vocabulary in the sphere of history, politics, economy, culture etc.

“Linguistic country studies of the United States of America, Canada, Australia”: this course is dedicated to theories and practices of communicating across cultures as an increased awareness of asymmetrical power relationships and their historical contexts can lead to improved communication between people from differently situated cultural identities. Through lectures, practices, written assignments, class discussion, and engaged methodology, students will explore some of the theoretical issues that will

provide them with basic knowledge on intercultural communication (ICC).

2. Learning Objectives

- to provide extensive knowledge on history, geography, culture, political environment, educational system, social life of the UK
- to develop skills of intercultural communication in English-speaking environment
- to further develop the students' critical thinking skills
- to give the students a grounding of basic intercultural communication (ICC) theories, methodology and scientific approaches on ICC
- to teach the students to analize ICC phenomena and find successful solution of the problems
- to train the students for skill based intercultural communication

3. Expected Learning Outcomes

- Students will demonstrate in-depth knowledge in history, geography, economic and political environment, cultural life in the UK after WWII
- Students will possess a system of sociocultural knowledge necessary for successful intercultural communication
- Students will adhere to British behavioral culture taking into consideration English, Scottish, Welsh, Irish attitudes, values, linguistic norms, and conversational formulas
- Students will review, analyze, and evaluate the context, causes, and effects of major political and socio-cultural events in the UK after WWII.
- Students will analyze the current political situation in the UK, paying special attention to the reasons and outcomes of Brexit.
- Students will adhere to British behavioral culture taking into consideration English, Scottish, Welsh, Irish attitudes, values, linguistic norms, and conversational formulas.
- demonstrate in-depth knowledge in history, geography, economic and political environment, cultural life in the UK
- possess a system of sociocultural knowledge necessary for successful intercultural communication
- adhere to British behavioral culture taking into consideration English, Scottish, Welsh, Irish attitudes, values, linguistic norms and conversational formulas
- identify the major perspectives in the field of intercultural communication
- use multidisciplinary theoretical perspectives to analyze media texts in their cultural context
- debate the ethical issues of intercultural communication in practice
- critically assess institutional and individual intercultural communication practices
- use multidisciplinary theoretical perspectives to analyze media texts in
- use multidisciplinary theoretical perspectives to analyze media texts in their cultural contexts

4. Course Contents

Module 1

1. Country Studies as a theoretical discipline. The subject-matter, the aim of the discipline.

2. The British Isles. The problem of the term. General characteristics of the group of islands.

3. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Geographical position. Nature. Climate. Relief. Inland Waters. Vegetation. Animal Life. Economy. Mineral Resources. Composition of the Country. The Union Jack. . The Coat-of-Arms. The system of law and government. UK's international policy. Population. Politics and Money. Society and religion. The Welfare state.

4. Short Outline of British History. The History of UK in short. British Royalty.Germanic Tribes. The Normans. Famous British monarchs.

5. England. General characteristics. Physical geography. Demographics. The systemof law and government. The system of education. Universities of England. London. Places of Interest. Religion. Windsor Castle. The status of the English language. Arts and Culture.

6. Scotland. General characteristics. Physical geography. Demographics. New Industries. The system of law and government. The system of education. The Capital City.Places of Interest. Religion. Lake District. Loch Ness. Arts and Culture. Language problem.

7. Wales. General characteristics. Physical geography. Demographics. The system oflaw and government. The National Assembly. The system of education. The Capital city.Places of Interest. Religion. Industry. The status of the English language. Celtic Language.Arts and Culture.

8. The Northern Ireland. General characteristics. Physical geography. Demographics. Flag. The system of law and government. The system of education. The Capital City. Places of Interest. Religion. Windsor Castle. The status of the English language. Arts and Culture.

9. The Republic of Ireland. General characteristics. Physical geography. Demographics. Flags and National Symbols. The system of law and government. The system of education. Places of Interest. Religion. History. Rebellion. Dublin. The status of the English language. Arts and Culture.

Module 2

10. The United States of America. General characteristics. National geography. Flag and National Symbols. The system of law and government. Washington D.C.

11. American History in Short. Native Americans. Civil War. The original states. Independence.

12. The USA in present world. Money system. The system of education. Religion. Language. Mass Media. Sport.

13. Canada. General characteristics. National geography. Flag and National Symbols. History. The system of law and government. The Capital City. Ottawa and

Toronto. Money system. The system of education. Religion. Language. Mass Media. Sport.

14. Australia. General characteristics. National geography. Flag and National Symbols. History. The system of law and government. The Capital City. Money system. Thesystem of education. Religion. Language. Mass Media. Sport.

15. Some More Glimpse on the English-Speaking World. The Isle of Man. NewZealand. Tasmania. Countries of Commonwealth.

5. Bibliography

Recommended Core Bibliography

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2. Benzak, J., & Cook, S. (2009). The Rough Guide to the USA (Vol. 9th [updated] ed). London: Penguin Random House LLC. Retrieved from http://search.ebscohost.com

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4. Гапонів А.Б., Возна М.О. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англомовні країни. Підручник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. – Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2005. – 464с.

Lecture 2.

The British Isles

Plan

1. Definition of the British Isles
2. Geography
3. Climate
4. Demographics
5. History
6. Politics
7. British-Irish Council
8. Culture
9. Transport

1. Definition of the British Isles

The British Isles are a group of islands in the North Atlantic Ocean off the north-western coast of continental Europe, consisting of the islands of Great Britain, Ireland, the Isle of Man, the Inner and Outer Hebrides, the Northern Isles (Orkney and Shetland), and over six thousand smaller islands. They have a total area of 315,159 km2 (121,684 sq mi) and a combined population of almost 72 million, and include two sovereign states, the Republic of Ireland (which covers roughly five-sixths of Ireland), and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The Channel Islands, off the north coast of France, are normally taken to be part of the British Isles, even though they do not form part of the archipelago.

The oldest rocks are 2.7 billion years old and are found in Ireland, Wales and the northwest of Scotland. During the Silurian period, the north-western regions collided with the south-east, which had been part of a separate continental landmass. The topography of the islands is modest in scale by global standards. Ben Nevis, the highest mountain, rises to only 1,345 metres (4,413 ft), and Lough Neagh, which is notably larger than other lakes in the island group, covers 390 square kilometres (151 sq mi). The climate is temperate marine, with cool winters and warm summers. The North Atlantic drift brings significant moisture and raises temperatures 11 °C (20 °F) above the global average for the latitude. This led to a landscape that was long dominated by temperate rainforest, although human activity has since cleared the vast majority of forest cover. The region was re-inhabited after the last glacial period of Quaternary glaciation, by 12,000 BC, when Great Britain was still part of a peninsula of the European continent. Ireland was connected to Great Britain by way of an ice bridge before 14,000 BC, and was not inhabited until after 8000 BC. Great Britain became an island by 7000 BC with the flooding of Doggerland.

The Hiberni (Ireland), Picts (northern Great Britain) and Britons (southern Great Britain), all speaking Insular Celtic languages, inhabited the islands at the beginning of the 1st millennium BC. Much of Brittonic-occupied Britain was conquered by the Roman Empire from AD 43. The first Anglo-Saxons arrived as Roman power waned in the 5th century, and eventually they dominated the bulk of what is now England. Viking invasions began in the 9th century, followed by more permanent settlements and political change, particularly in England. The Norman conquest of England in 1066 and the later Angevin partial conquest of Ireland from 1169 led to the imposition of a new Norman ruling elite across much of Britain and parts of Ireland. By the Late Middle Ages, Great Britain was separated into the Kingdom of England and Kingdom of Scotland, while control in Ireland fluxed between Gaelic kingdoms, Hiberno-Norman lords and the English-dominated Lordship of Ireland, soon restricted only to The Pale. The 1603 Union of the Crowns, Acts of Union 1707 and Acts of Union 1800 aimed to consolidate Great Britain and Ireland into a single political unit, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, with the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands remaining as Crown Dependencies. The expansion of the British Empire and migrations following the Irish Famine and Highland Clearances resulted in the dispersal of some of the islands' population and culture throughout the world, and rapid depopulation of Ireland in the second half of the 19th century. Most of Ireland seceded from the United Kingdom after the Irish War of Independence and the subsequent Anglo-Irish Treaty (1919–1922), with six counties remaining in the UK as Northern Ireland.

In Ireland, the term "British Isles" is controversial, and there are objections to its usage. The Government of Ireland does not officially recognise the term, and its embassy in London discourages its use. "Britain and Ireland" is used as an alternative description, and "Atlantic Archipelago" has also seen limited use in academia. In official documents created jointly by Ireland and the United Kingdom, such as the Good Friday Agreement, the term "these islands" is used.

2. Geography

The British Isles lie at the juncture of several regions with past episodes of tectonic mountain building. These orogenic belts form a complex geology that records a huge and varied span of Earth's history. Of particular note was the Caledonian orogeny during the Ordovician and early Silurian periods, when the craton Baltica collided with the terrane Avalonia to form the mountains and hills in northern Britain and Ireland. Baltica formed roughly the northwestern half of Ireland and Scotland. Further collisions caused the Variscan orogeny in the Devonian and Carboniferous periods, forming the hills of Munster, southwest England, and southern Wales. Over the last 500 million years the land that forms the islands has drifted northwest from around 30°S, crossing the equator around 370 million years ago to reach its present northern latitude.

The islands have been shaped by numerous glaciations during the Quaternary Period, the most recent being the Devensian. As this ended, the central Irish Sea was deglaciated and the English Channel flooded, with sea levels rising to current levels some 8,000 years ago, leaving the British Isles in their current form.

There are about 136 permanently inhabited islands in the group, the largest two being Great Britain and Ireland. Great Britain is to the east and covers 83,700 sq mi (217,000 km2). Ireland is to the west and covers 32,590 sq mi (84,400 km2). The largest of the other islands are to be found in the Hebrides, Orkney and Shetland to the north, Anglesey and the Isle of Man between Great Britain and Ireland, and the Channel Islands near the coast of France. The most densely populated island is Portsea Island, which has an area of 9.5 sq mi (25 km2) but has the third highest population behind Great Britain and Ireland.

The islands are at relatively low altitudes, with central Ireland and southern Great Britain particularly low-lying: the lowest point in the islands is the North Slob in County Wexford, Ireland, with an elevation of −3.0 metres (– 9.8 ft). The Scottish Highlands in the northern part of Great Britain are mountainous, with Ben Nevis being the highest point on the islands at 1,345 m (4,413 ft). Other mountainous areas include Wales and parts of Ireland, although only seven peaks in these areas reach above 1,000 m (3,281 ft). Lakes on the islands are generally not large, although Lough Neagh in Northern Ireland is an exception, covering 150 square miles (390 km2). The largest freshwater body in Great Britain (by area) is Loch Lomond at 27.5 square miles (71 km2), and Loch Ness (by volume) whilst Loch Morar is the deepest freshwater body in the British Isles, with a maximum depth of 310 m (1,017 ft). There are a number of major rivers within the British Isles. The longest is the Shannon in Ireland at 224 mi (360 km). The river Severn at 220 mi (354 km) is the longest in Great Britain.

3. Climate

The climate of the British Isles is mild, moist and changeable with abundant rainfall and a lack of temperature extremes. It is defined as a temperate oceanic climate, or Cfb on the Köppen climate classification system, a classification it shares with most of northwest Europe. The North Atlantic Drift ("Gulf Stream"), which flows from the Gulf of Mexico, brings with it significant moisture and raises temperatures 11 °C (20 °F) above the global average for the islands' latitudes. Most Atlantic depressions pass

to the north of the islands; combined with the general westerly circulation and interactions with the landmass, this imposes a general east-west variation in climate. There are four distinct climate patterns: south-east, with cold winters, warm and dry summers; south-west, having mild and very wet winters, warm and wet summers; north-west, generally wet with mild winters and cool summers; and north-east with cold winters, cool summers.

4. Demographics

England has a generally high population density, with almost 80% of the total population of the islands. Elsewhere in Great Britain and Ireland, high density of population is limited to areas around a few large cities. The largest urban area by far is the Greater London Built-up Area with 9 million inhabitants. Other major population centres include the Greater Manchester Built-up Area (2.4 million), West Midlands conurbation (2.4 million) and West Yorkshire Urban Area (1.6 million) in England, Greater Glasgow (1.2 million) in Scotland and Greater Dublin Area (1.9 million) in Ireland.

The population of England rose rapidly during the 19th and 20th centuries, whereas the populations of Scotland and Wales showed little increase during the 20th century; the population of Scotland has remained unchanged since 1951. Ireland for most of its history had much the same population density as Great Britain (about one-third of the total population). However, since the Great Irish Famine, the population of Ireland has fallen to less than one-tenth of the population of the British Isles. The famine caused a century-long population decline, drastically reduced the Irish population and permanently altered the demographic make-up of the British Isles. On a global scale, this disaster led to the creation of an Irish diaspora that numbers fifteen times the current population of the island.

The linguistic heritage of the British Isles is rich, with twelve languages from six groups across four branches of the Indo-European family. The Insular Celtic languages of the Goidelic sub-group (Irish, Manx and Scottish Gaelic) and the Brittonic sub-group (Cornish, Welsh and Breton, spoken in north-western France) are the only remaining Celtic languages – the last of their continental relations were extinct before the 7th century. The Norman languages of Guernésiais, Jèrriais and Sercquiais spoken in the Channel Islands are similar to French, a language also spoken there. A cant, called Shelta, is spoken by Irish Travellers, often to conceal meaning from those outside the group. However, English, including Scots, is the dominant language, with few monoglots remaining in the other languages of the region. The Norn language of Orkney and Shetland became extinct around 1880.

5. History

2.5 million years ago the British Isles were repeatedly submerged beneath an ice sheet which extended into the middle of the North Sea, with a larger ice sheet that covered a significant proportion of Scandinavia on the opposite side. Around 1.9 million years ago these two ice sheets frequently merged, essentially creating a land bridge between Scandinavia and northern Great Britain. Further south, there was a direct land bridge, now known as Doggerland, which was gradually submerged as sea

levels rose. However, the Irish Sea was formed before Doggerland was completely covered in water, with Ireland becoming an island roughly 6,000 years before Great Britain did.

At the time of the Roman Empire, about two thousand years ago, various tribes, which spoke Celtic dialects of the Insular Celtic group, were inhabiting the islands. The Romans expanded their civilisation to control southern Great Britain but were impeded in advancing any further, building Hadrian's Wall to mark the northern frontier of their empire in 122 AD. At that time, Ireland was populated by a people known as Hiberni, the northern third or so of Great Britain by a people known as Picts and the southern two thirds by Britons.

Anglo-Saxons arrived as Roman power waned in the 5th century AD. Initially, their arrival seems to have been at the invitation of the Britons as mercenaries to repulse incursions by the Hiberni and Picts. In time, Anglo-Saxon demands on the British became so great that they came to culturally dominate the bulk of southern Great Britain, though recent genetic evidence suggests Britons still formed the bulk of the population. This dominance created what is now England and left culturally British enclaves only in the north of what is now England, in Cornwall and what is now known as Wales. Ireland had been unaffected by the Romans except, significantly, for being Christianised –traditionally by the Romano-Briton, Saint Patrick. As Europe, including Britain, descended into turmoil following the collapse of Roman civilisation, an era known as the Dark Ages, Ireland entered a golden age and responded with missions (first to Great Britain and then to the continent), the founding of monasteries and universities. These were later joined by Anglo-Saxon missions of a similar nature.

Viking invasions began in the 9th century, followed by more permanent settlements, particularly along the east coast of Ireland, the west coast of modern-day Scotland and the Isle of Man. Though the Vikings were eventually neutralised in Ireland, their influence remained in the cities of Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Waterford and Wexford. England, however, was slowly conquered around the turn of the first millennium AD, and eventually became a feudal possession of Denmark. The relations between the descendants of Vikings in England and counterparts in Normandy, in northern France, lay at the heart of a series of events that led to the Norman conquest of England in 1066. The remnants of the Duchy of Normandy, which conquered England, remain associated to the English Crown as the Channel Islands to this day. A century later, the marriage of the future Henry II of England to Eleanor of Aquitaine created the Angevin Empire, partially under the French Crown. At the invitation of Diarmait Mac Murchada, a provincial king, and under the authority of Pope Adrian IV (the only Englishman to be elected pope), the Angevins invaded Ireland in 1169. Though initially intended to be kept as an independent kingdom, the failure of the Irish High King to ensure the terms of the Treaty of Windsor led Henry II, as King of England, to rule as effective monarch under the title of Lord of Ireland. This title was granted to his younger son, but when Henry's heir unexpectedly died, the title of King of England and Lord of Ireland became entwined in one person.

By the Late Middle Ages, Great Britain was separated into the Kingdoms of England and Scotland. Power in Ireland fluxed between Gaelic kingdoms, Hiberno-Norman lords and the English-dominated Lordship of Ireland. A similar situation

existed in the Principality of Wales, which was slowly being annexed into the Kingdom of England by a series of laws. During the course of the 15th century, the Crown of England would assert a claim to the Crown of France, thereby also releasing the King of England from being vassal of the King of France. In 1534, King Henry VIII, at first having been a strong defender of Roman Catholicism in the face of the Reformation, separated from the Roman Church after failing to secure a divorce from the Pope. His response was to place the King of England as "the only Supreme Head in Earth of the Church of England", thereby removing the authority of the Pope from the affairs of the English Church. Ireland, which had been held by the King of England as Lord of Ireland, but which strictly speaking had been a feudal possession of the Pope since the Norman invasion was declared a separate kingdom in personal union with England.

Scotland meanwhile had remained an independent Kingdom. In 1603, that changed when the King of Scotland inherited the Crown of England, and consequently the Crown of Ireland also. The subsequent 17th century was one of political upheaval, religious division and war. English colonialism in Ireland of the 16th century was extended by large-scale Scottish and English colonies in Ulster. Religious division heightened, and the king of England came into conflict with parliament over his tolerance towards Catholicism. The resulting English Civil War or War of the Three Kingdoms led to a revolutionary republic in England. Ireland, largely Catholic, was mainly loyal to the king, but by military conquest was subsumed into the new republic. Following defeat to the parliament's army, large scale land distributions from loyalist Irish nobility to English commoners in the service of the parliamentary army created a new Ascendancy class which obliterated the remnants of Old English (Hiberno-Norman) and Gaelic Irish nobility in Ireland. The new ruling class was Protestant and English, whilst the populace was largely Catholic and Irish. This theme would influence Irish politics for centuries to come. When the monarchy was restored in England, the king found it politically impossible to restore the lands of former landowners in Ireland. The "Glorious Revolution" of 1688 repeated similar themes: a Catholic king pushing for religious tolerance in opposition to a Protestant parliament in England. The king's army was defeated at the Battle of the Boyne and at the militarily crucial Battle of Aughrim in Ireland. Resistance held out, eventually forcing the guarantee of religious tolerance in the Treaty of Limerick. However, the terms were never honoured and a new monarchy was installed.

The Kingdoms of England and Scotland were unified in 1707 creating the Kingdom of Great Britain. Following an attempted republican revolution in Ireland in 1798, the Kingdoms of Ireland and Great Britain were unified in 1801, creating the United Kingdom. The Isle of Man and the Channel Islands remaining outside of the United Kingdom, but with their ultimate good governance being the responsibility of the British Crown (effectively the British government). Although the colonies of North America that would become the United States of America were lost by the start of the 19th century, the British Empire expanded rapidly elsewhere. A century later, it would cover one-third of the globe. Poverty in the United Kingdom remained desperate, however, and industrialisation in England led to terrible conditions for the working classes. Mass migrations following the Irish Famine and Highland Clearances resulted in the distribution of the islands' population and culture throughout the world and a

rapid de-population of Ireland in the second half of the 19th century. Most of Ireland seceded from the United Kingdom after the Irish War of Independence and the subsequent Anglo-Irish Treaty (1919-1922), with the six counties that formed Northern Ireland remaining as an autonomous region of the UK.

6. Politics

There are two sovereign states in the British Isles: Ireland and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Ireland, sometimes called the Republic of Ireland, governs five-sixths of the island of Ireland, with the remainder of the island forming Northern Ireland. Northern Ireland is a part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, usually shortened to simply "the United Kingdom", which governs the remainder of the archipelago with the exception of the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands. The Isle of Man and the two Bailiwicks of the Channel Islands, Jersey and Guernsey, are known as the Crown Dependencies. They exercise constitutional rights of self-government and judicial independence; responsibility for international representation rests largely with the UK (in consultation with the respective governments); and responsibility for defence is reserved by the UK. The United Kingdom is made up of four constituent parts: England, Scotland and Wales, forming Great Britain, and Northern Ireland in the northeast of the island of Ireland. Of these, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have devolved governments, meaning that each has its own parliament or assembly and is self-governing with respect to certain matters set down by law. For judicial purposes, Scotland, Northern Ireland and England and Wales (the latter being one entity) form separate legal jurisdictions, with there being no single law for the UK as a whole.

Ireland, the United Kingdom and the three Crown dependencies are all parliamentary democracies, with their own separate parliaments. All parts of the United Kingdom return Members of Parliament (MPs) to parliament in London. In addition to this, voters in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland return members to a devolved parliament in Edinburgh and in Cardiff and an assembly in Belfast. Governance in the norm is by majority rule; however, Northern Ireland uses a system of power sharing whereby unionists and nationalists share executive posts proportionately and where the assent of both groups is required for the Northern Ireland Assembly to make certain decisions. (In the context of Northern Ireland, unionists are those who want Northern Ireland to remain a part of the United Kingdom and nationalists are those who want Northern Ireland to join with the rest of Ireland.) The British monarch is the head of state of the United Kingdom, while in the Republic of Ireland the head of state is the President of Ireland.

Ireland is the only part of the isles that is a member state of the European Union (EU). The UK was a member between 1 January 1973 and 31 January 2020, but the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands were not. Since the partition of Ireland, an informal free-travel area has existed across the island of Ireland. This area required formal recognition in 1997 during the course of negotiations for the Amsterdam Treaty of the European Union, and (together with the Crown dependencies) is now known as the Common Travel Area. As such, Ireland is not part of the Schengen Area, which allows passport-free travel between most EU member states, and is the only member state with

an opt-out from the obligation to join the Schengen Zone.

Reciprocal arrangements allow British and Irish citizens specific voting rights in the two states. In Ireland, British citizens can vote in General and local elections, but not in European Parliament elections, constitutional referendums or presidential elections (for which there is no comparable franchise in the United Kingdom). In the United Kingdom, Irish and Commonwealth citizens can vote in every election for which British citizens are eligible. In the Crown dependencies, any resident can vote in general elections, but in Jersey and the Isle of Man only British citizens can run for office. These pre-date European Union law, and in both jurisdictions go further than what was required by European Union law (EU citizens may only vote in local elections in both states and European elections in Ireland). In 2008, a UK Ministry of Justice report investigating how to strengthen the British sense of citizenship proposed to end this arrangement, arguing that "the right to vote is one of the hallmarks of the political status of citizens; it is not a means of expressing closeness between countries". In addition, some civil bodies are organised throughout the islands as a whole – for example, the Samaritans, which is deliberately organised without regard to national boundaries on the basis that a service which is not political or religious should not recognise sectarian or political divisions. The Royal National Lifeboat Institution (RNLI), a charity that operates a lifeboat service, is also organised throughout the islands as a whole, covering the waters of the United Kingdom, Ireland, the Isle of Man, and the Channel Islands.

The Northern Ireland peace process has led to a number of unusual arrangements between the Republic of Ireland, Northern Ireland and the United Kingdom. For example, citizens of Northern Ireland are entitled to the choice of Irish or British citizenship or both, and the Governments of Ireland and the United Kingdom consult on matters not devolved to the Northern Ireland Executive. The Northern Ireland Executive and the Government of Ireland also meet as the North/South Ministerial Council to develop policies common across the island of Ireland. These arrangements were made following the 1998 Good Friday Agreement.

7. British-Irish Council

Another body established under the Good Friday Agreement, the British-Irish Council, is made up of all of the states and territories of the British Isles. The British-Irish Parliamentary Assembly (Irish: Tionól Pharlaiminteach na Breataine agus na hÉireann) predates the British–Irish Council and was established in 1990. Originally it comprised 25 members of the Oireachtas, the Irish parliament, and 25 members of the parliament of the United Kingdom, with the purpose of building mutual understanding between members of both legislatures. Since then the role and scope of the body has been expanded to include representatives from the Scottish Parliament, the Senedd (Welsh Parliament), the Northern Ireland Assembly, the States of Jersey, the States of Guernsey and the High Court of Tynwald (Isle of Man).

The Council does not have executive powers but meets biannually to discuss issues of mutual importance. Similarly, the Parliamentary Assembly has no legislative powers but investigates and collects witness evidence from the public on matters of

mutual concern to its members. Reports on its findings are presented to the Governments of Ireland and the United Kingdom. During the February 2008 meeting of the British-Irish Council, it was agreed to set up a standing secretariat that would serve as a permanent 'civil service' for the Council. Leading on from developments in the British-Irish Council, the chair of the British-Irish Inter-Parliamentary Assembly, Niall Blaney, has suggested that the body should shadow the British-Irish Council's work.

8. Culture

The United Kingdom and Ireland have separate media, although British television, newspapers and magazines are widely available in Ireland, giving people in Ireland a high level of familiarity with the culture of the United Kingdom. Irish newspapers are also available in the UK, and Irish state and private television are widely available in Northern Ireland. Certain reality TV shows have embraced the whole of the islands, for example The X Factor, seasons 3, 4 and 7 of which featured auditions in Dublin and were open to Irish voters, whilst the show previously known as Britain's Next Top Model became Britain and Ireland's Next Top Model in 2011. A few cultural events are organized for the island group as a whole. For example, the Costa Book Awards are awarded to authors resident in the UK or Ireland. The Mercury Music Prize is handed out every year to the best album from a British or Irish musician or group.

Many globally popular sports had their modern rules codified in the British Isles, including golf, association football, cricket, rugby, snooker and darts, as well as many minor sports such as croquet, bowls, pitch and putt, water polo and handball. A number of sports are popular throughout the British Isles, the most prominent of which is association football. While this is organized separately in different national associations, leagues and national teams, even within the UK, it is a common passion in all parts of the islands. Rugby union is also widely enjoyed across the islands with four national teams from England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales.

The British and Irish Lions is a team chosen from each national team and undertakes tours of the Southern Hemisphere rugby-playing nations every four years. Ireland plays as a united team, represented by players from both Northern Ireland and the Republic. These national rugby teams play each other each year for the Triple Crown as part of the Six Nations Championship. Also, since 2001, the professional club teams of Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Italy and South Africa compete against each other in the United Rugby Championship.

The Ryder Cup in golf was originally played between a United States team and a team representing Great Britain and Ireland. From 1979 onwards, this was expanded to include the whole of Europe.

9. Transport

London Heathrow Airport is Europe's busiest airport in terms of passenger traffic, and the Dublin-London route is the busiest air route in Europe collectively, the busiest route out of Heathrow and the second-busiest international air route in the

world. The English Channel and the southern North Sea are the busiest seaways in the world. The Channel Tunnel, opened in 1994, links Great Britain to France and is the second-longest rail tunnel in the world.

The idea of building a tunnel under the Irish Sea has been raised since 1895, when it was first investigated. Several potential Irish Sea tunnel projects have been proposed, most recently the Tusker Tunnel between the ports of Rosslare and Fishguard proposed by The Institute of Engineers of Ireland in 2004. A rail tunnel was proposed in 1997 on a different route, between Dublin and Holyhead, by British engineering firm Symonds. Either tunnel, at 50 mi (80 km), would be by far the longest in the world, and would cost an estimated £15 billion or €20 billion. A proposal in 2007, estimated the cost of building a bridge from County Antrim in Northern Ireland to Galloway in Scotland at £3.5bn (€5bn).

Lecture 3.
The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

Plan

1. General characteristics
2. Flag and National Symbols
3. Geographical position
4. Climate and weather
5. Population

1. General characteristics

"Great Britain" is a geographical expression but "the United Kingdom" is a political expression. Great Britain is the biggest of the group of islands which lie between **the North Sea** and **the Atlantic Ocean** and separated from Europe by the **English Channel**. It is approximately two and a half times the size of **Ireland**, the second largest, separated by **the Irish Sea.** "Britain" and "British" have two meanings. They sometimes refer to Great Britain alone and sometimes to the UK including Northern Ireland. "England" and "English" are often incorrectly used to refer to the whole of Great Britain.

The British Isles are shared today by two separate and independent states. The smaller of these is **the Republic of Ireland (or Eire)**, with its capital in **Dublin**. The larger, with **London** as its capital, is ***the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland***. The long title is usually shortened to the United Kingdom or the **UK**. With an area of about 243, 000 sq km (93,000 sq mi), the UK is just under 1,000 km (about 600 mi) from the South coast to the extreme North of Scotland and just under 500 km (about 300 mi) across at the widest point.

The island of Great Britain contains three "nations" which were separate at earlier stages of their history: **England, Scotland and Wales**. Wales (with its capital city **Cardiff**) has become part of the English administrative system by the 16th century. The Welsh call their country **Cymru** and themselves **Cymry**, a word which has the

same root as "a friend". Scotland (poetically called **Caledonia** with its capital city **Edinburgh**) was not completely united with England until 1707. The United Kingdom is the name, which was introduced in 1801 when Great Britain was united with Ireland. When the Republic of Ireland became independent of London in 1922, the title was changed to its present form. (The capital city of Northern Ireland is **Belfast**). There are two small parts of the British Isles which have special political arrangements. These "**Crown Dependencies**" – The **Isle of Man** and the **Channel Islands** – are not part of the UK. They are largely self- governing with their own legislative assemblies and systems of law. The British Government is, however, responsible for their defence and international relations.

2. Flag and National Symbols

The flag of Britain, commonly known as the **Union Jack** (which derives from the use of the Union Flag on the jack-staff of naval vessels), embodies the Union of three countries under one Sovereign. The emblems that appear on the Union Flag are the crosses of three patron saints: the red cross of St. George, for England, on a white ground; the white diagonal cross of St. Andrew, for Scotland, on a blue ground; the red diagonal cross of St. Patrick, for Ireland, on a white ground. The final version of the flag appeared in 1801, following the union of Great Britain with Ireland. The cross remains in the flag although now only Northern Ireland is part of the UK. Wales is not represented in the Union Flag because, when the first version of the flag appeared, Wales was already united with England. The national flag of Wales – a red dragon on a field of white and green – dates from the 15th century.

The national flower of England is the *rose*. The flower has been adopted as England's emblem since the time of the Wars of Roses (civil wars) – 1455-1485 between the royal House of Lancaster (whose emblem was a red rose) and the royal House of York (whose emblem was a white rose). With the defeat of King Richard III (of York) by the future Henry VII on 22 August 1485, the two roses were united into the Tudor rose (a red rose with a white centre) when Henry VII married Elizabeth of York. The national flower of Northern Ireland is the *shamrock* (трилисник), a plant similar to clover which is said to have been used by St. Patrick to illustrate the doctrine of the Holy Trinity. The Scottish national flower is the *thistle* which was first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defence. The national flower of Wales is usually considered to be the *daffodil*; however, humble *leek* (лук-порей) is also considered to be a traditional emblem of Wales, possibly because its colours, white over green, echo the ancient Welsh standard.

In the centre of the national emblem is situated a heraldic shield, divided into 4 parts. Left upper part and right lower part symbolize England (3 gold leopards on a red ground). Right upper part – Scottish emblem (a red lion on a gold ground). Left lower part – Irish emblem (yellow harpon a blue ground). Around the shield there is a garter with French words "Honi soit qui mal ypense" ("Evil be to him who evil thinks"). This garter symbolizes the Order of Garter, an ancient order of knighthood founded by Edward III in 1348, of which the Queen is the Sovereign. The shield is held by two **Royal Beasts** – the Lion with the crown in the left, the Unicorn in the right. Under them there is a blue ribbon with words "Dieu et mon droit" (God and my

right) chosen by Richard I which since then have been the official motto of the Sovereign. In the background there is rose (England), thistle (Scotland), trefoil (Ireland), and leek (Wales).

3. Geographical position

Britain is unpredictable in climate and varied in scenery. There is a dramatic contrast between **Highland and Lowland Britain**. The most precise distinction is geological. The rocks of most of the *North and West* of Great Britain are harder and older than those of the South and East. These older rocks are covered by large areas of **moorland** such as the **Lake District**, **the Pennines** (England's main mountain chain, "the backbone of England") and much of Scotland and Wales, where the soils are poor, thin and stony. In addition these areas are wetter and harder to reach than the lower land to the south and east. As a result these areas of the British Isles are thinly populated except where coal or iron have been discovered. *The South and East* are rarely flat, but instead of continuous moorland there are bands of hills which alternate with areas of lowland. The soils are generally deeper and richer, the climate is drier and better suited for farming. Industry benefits from easier communications. Thus human settlement in these areas is dense and more evenly spread.

- The highest mountain **Ben Nevis**, in the Highlands of Scotland, 1,343 m (4,406 ft)
- The longest river **the Severn**, 354 km (220 mi) long which rises in central Wales and flows through Shrewsburry, Worcester, and Gloucester in England to the Bristol Channel. The largest lake is **Lough Neagh** [lok nei], Northern Ireland, 396 sq km (153 sq mi).
- The closest point to mainland Europe: Dover, Kent. The Channel Tunnel, which links England and France, is a little over 50 km (31 mi) long, of which nearly 38 km (24 mi) are under the English Channel.

4. Climate and weather

The weather. Britain is as far north as Canada's Hudson Bay or Siberia, yet its climate is much milder because of the Gulf Stream, which brings warm water and air across the Atlantic from the Gulf of Mexico. Snow only falls occasionally and does not remain for long, except in the Scottish mountains. Average temperatures in England and Wales vary from +4C in January to +16Cin July and August. In Scotland averages are one or two degrees cooler. The wind brings rain from the Atlantic to the hills of the west. This means that western parts of Britain are wetter than the east, which is fairly sheltered. London is drier than continental cities such as Hamburg.

5. Population

The UK population in mid-2000 was estimated at 59.8 mln, the second largest in the European Union. England accounts for about 84%, Scotland – 9%, Wales – 5%, Northern Ireland – 3%. The UK population is projected to rise to nearly 61.8 mln by 2011. The number of ***households*** in GB rose by almost half between 1961 and 2001, from 16.3 mln to 24.1 mln. Over the same period the average household size fell from 3.3 to 2.4 people per household. Although most people still live in a couple

household, an increasing proportion of people are living on their own. In spring2000 almost three in ten households in GB comprised one person living alone. During 1970s and 1980s there was emphasis on the provision of first public and then private housing which enabled households to occupy separate accommodation. Households containing a lone parent family living on their own formed one in seventeen out of all households in 1961, but one in eleven in 2000.

Analysis of the Labour Force Survey found the following patterns of population by ethnic groups. On average between spring 2000 and winter 2000/01 over 4 mln people (7.1%) in GB described themselves as belonging to a non-White ethnic group, about one person in fourteen. The Indian group forms the largest non-White ethnic group, representing about 1.7% of all groups in the UK. Ethnic minorities are concentrated in the cities. The percentage of members of ethnic minorities who are unemployed, or in low-grade jobs, is higher than in the population as a whole. Racial discrimination and poor living conditions have contributed to racial violence especially in day-to-day form of relations between young blacks and the police, or in the more extreme form of inner-city riots. This is despite the Race Relations Act (1976) designed to promote equality of opportunity for people of all races. The 2001 Census included, for the first time in GB since 1851, a question of religion. Although many people say they are Christians, this is not reflected in church membership, which is only 13% of the population of England; it is much higher in Northern Ireland (80%).

Christianity is the predominant religious tradition in the UK in size of its followers. There are two churches legally recognized as the official churches of the state, or established churches: in England, **the Anglican Church of England**, and in Scotland, **the Presbyterian Church of Scotland**. There is no longer an established Church of Wales or Northern Ireland.

The ***Hindu*** **community** in the UK numbers between 400,000 and 550,000 although some community members suggest 1,000,000. The UK now has over 140 Hindu temples. The *Jewish community* in the UK numbers about 300,000 and around 30% are affiliated to synagogues. There are about 1.5 mln *Muslims* in the UK. There are about 1,000 mosques and numerous community Muslim centres. There are between 400,000 and 500,000 members of the *Sikh community* in the UK. Other faiths represented in GB include *Buddhism* (with some 50 monasteries and temples), the *Zoroastrian religion*, the *Baha'i* etc.

Every British region has its own way of pronouncing words and sentences of English that identifies the speaker with a particular geographical area. After 1500 the language of London gradually emerges ad the most dominant form, and today the London or Southern accent is usually accepter as Standard English. This is sometimes referred to as "**BBC English**" since at one time all announcers on BBC radio and television were required to speak it. Standard correct English as traditionally spoken by an educated southerner is also called **Queen's English**, while a simplified form of the language intended at as an international means of communication with a basic vocabulary of 850 words is called **Basic English**. **RP (Received Pronunciation)** is a non-regional accent of Standard English, often regarded as a prestige form. Its informal name is **Oxford accent**.

Except English, there are numerous native languages spoken in the UK. According to the 1991 census, 527,510 people spoke ***Welsh***. It is increasingly used in schools and by some local authorities. A Welsh TV channel, S4C, began broadcasting in 1983 and there are radio stations and newspapers. The most common Welsh family names were all originally Christian names in some sort, (e.g. Geoffrey Jones – from John). Many other names come from the tradition of calling a child "son of" his father using the Welsh word *ap/ab.* This *p* can be found at the beginning of many common Welsh names, such as *Pritchard* (the same as the English Richardson). Welshmen are often nicknamed "*Taffy*". This may come from the river Taff, which runs through the capital Cardiff, or may come from Dafydd, the Welsh form of David.

In some areas, the Use of English in schools and in the media has contributed to the decline of minority languages. There were about 69,000 speakers of ***Gaelic*** in Scotland in 1991, according to that year's census. The language, especially strong in the Outer Hebrides ['hebridi:z], is used in some schools but speakers have limited legal rights. It is not used in courts, and it plays no part in the national government. The ***Scots language***, different from Gaelic, is so close a relative of English that it is often regarded simply as a northern dialect, spoken in central Scotland and the Lowlands. It was the everyday language from the 14th century until the 17th century. The upper classes slowly turned to English, influenced by the Union England and Scotland. Most Scots speak a mixture of Scots and English, but English is the language of education and government. There has been the Scots revival in recent years: the New Testament in Scots was published in 1985, and Scots is used in parts of the Scottish press. There are speakers of the ***Irish Gaelic***, but it has no official status there. The influence of Irish Gaelic is found in the names of people: Sean (John), Seamus (James), Liam (William), Seanna (Joanna). Paddy (short for Patrick) and Micky (short for Michael) are not Gaelic names but they are found so often in Ireland that these two names are sometimes used jokingly to mean an "Irishman". Many Irish surnames begin with O' (O'Brien; O'Niel) meaning "from the family of"; Fitz (Fitzgerald) meaning "son of"; Mac (MacHugh) meaning "son of"; Kil (Kilmartin) meaning "son of"; Gil (Gilmurray) meaning "son of".

Other native languages in GB include ***Cornish*** in Cornwall and ***Manx Gaelic*** on the Isle of Man. The last native speaker of Cornish died in 1777 and the last speaker of Manx in 1974. There have been recent revivals, although the languages have no legal status.

Essential vocabulary

Basic English	Спрощена форма англійської мови
BBC English	Мова дикторів Бі-Бі-Сі
Belfast	Белфаст
Ben Nevis	г. Бен Невіс
Caledonia	Каледонія
Cardiff	Кардіфф
Channel Islands	Нормандські острови
Cornish	Корнська мова

Cymru	Уельс
Cymry	валійці
Dublin	Дублін
Edinburgh	Единбург
Eire	Ейре
England	Англія
English Channel	Протока Ла-Манш
Gaelic	Гельська мова
Highland Britain	Гориста частина Великобританії
Hindu community	індуїстська громада
Ireland	Ірландія
Irish Gaelic	Ірландський варіант гельської мови
Isle of Man	о. Мен
Lake District	Озерний край
Lough Neagh	Озеро Лох Ней
Lowland Britain	Низинна частина Великобританії
Manx Gaelic	Менкська мова
Oxford accent	Оксфордський акцент
Queen’s English	Королівська/нормативна англійська мова
RP (Received Pronunciation)	Нормативна вимова
Scotland	Шотландія
Scots language	Шотландський діалект англійської мови
the Anglican Church of England	Англіканська церква
The British Isles	Британські острови
the Irish Sea.	Ірландське море
the North Sea	Північне море
the Pennines	Пеннінські гори
the Presbyterian Church of Scotland	Пресвітеріанська церква Шотландії
the Republic of Ireland	Республіка Ірландія
the Severn	р. Северн
the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (UK)	Сполучене королівство Великої Британії та Північної Ірландії
Union Jack	Державний прапор
Wales	Уельс
Welsh	Валійська мова

Lecture 4.
Short Outline of British History

Plan

1. Main periods in British history
2. "The Middle-Ages" in British history (1066-1485)
3. The Tudor Age (1485-1603): Renaissance, Reformation and a New World
4. The English Civil War
5. Major Colonies in the British Empire

1. Main periods in British history

STONE AGE BRITAIN (5000 BC- 55BC)
THE CELTS (800-600 BC- Roman occupation)
ROMAN BRITAIN (55BC- AD 440)
ANGLO-SAXON AND VIKING PERIOD (440-1066)
EARLY MIDDLE AGES (1066-1290)
LATER MIDDLE AGES (1290-1485
THE TUDOR AGE (1485-1603)
THE STUARTS(1603-1714)
GEORGIAN ENGLAND (1714-1837)
THE VICTORIAN AGE (1837-
MODERN BRITAIN (20th Century-)

The Beginnings of British History: Stone Age Britain

Over thousands of years, groups of people came from the continent of Europe to Britain. The very first people were Stone Age hunters living all over Europe and the British Isles. It was about 2400 BC when the first farmers arrived in England from southern Europe; these are the people who built the mysterious stone monuments like Stonehenge. Then, about 1700 BC another group of taller and stronger invaders who used metal tools came from Holland and Germany. Like all the groups who invaded Britain throughout its early history, they married and mixed in with the native population.

The Celts

The Celts came to England about 800 BC from Central Europe (France and Germany). Another group of warlike Celts invaded in the 4th century BC and conquered land in the north of England and Scotland and Ireland. They became the first aristocracy to control most of Britain. They imposed their language (Gaelic) on the people, which still survives today to some degree in Ireland and Scotland and Wales.

The Romans

After the Celts, the next group of people to come to Britain and rule over it was the Romans. The Romans first came in 55 and 54 BC. They lived peacefully in England for about 300 years. The brought to Britain a highly developed legal system, system of taxation, engineering skills, Roman architecture and the Latin

language. In the 4th century Rome was converted to Christianity and Christian missionaries went to Britain to spread that religion. We sometimes call talk about this period as the *Celtic-Roman* period because the two different cultures lived together peacefully. In the 4th century AD, during the period of the collapse of the
Roman Empire, the Roman troops in Britain left. Some historians say the Romans were important in British history, others say that their influence was really very small. In any case, after the Romans left, the Celtic people who remained were then invaded by a new group of people who had a very big influence on British history: the Anglo-Saxons.

The Anglo-Saxons

After the Romans left England in the 4th century, the peaceful Celtic Britons were attacked by the warlike Angles, Saxons and Jutes, three groups of people who came from West Germany and Denmark. They took control of most of the country
they called, "Aengla-land" between AD 450 and 600. They were an agricultural people who lived in long houses and spoke a language we now call "Old English," which is, of course, a Germanic language.

The Vikings

The Vikings came from Scandinavia. They were similar to the Anglo-Saxons, but more aggressive and warlike. Their Scandinavian language (Old Norse) was also Germanic so that was relatively easy for them to communicate with the Anglo-Saxons who had come from Germany and Denmark years before. When Vikings attacked in their long boats, the Anglo-Saxons united under King Alfred the Great (872-901) to try to fight them off. King Alfred is called The Great because he kept
part of England free from Viking control. The Danish Vikings controlled the east northeast by the 9th century; the Saxons were able to maintain control in the west.

2. "The Middle-Ages" in British History (1066-1485)

Key facts:

_ England was ruled by the Norman French.
_ The country was united under a feudal system.
_ Great castles, cathedrals and monasteries were built.
_ England went to war with France over land and lost.
_ The Norman French rulers gradually became English.
_ The language of the people gradually changed into what we call "Middle English."
_ England went to war with Scotland and lost.
_ The Black Death (plague) killed off almost half the population.

The Normans

In October 1066 William, the Norman king invaded England, becoming King William I (William the Conqueror) of England. Within five years, the Normans had conquered all of England. They imposed unity on England and helped to link England with the culture of the rest of Europe. William gave a lot of land to the Norman nobility (known as *barons*). These barons then owed military service to the king. The nobility gave land to others to work on as farmers. People in the village who received land had to work 2 or 3 days a week on the rich person's land or pay taxes. This system of land holding is known as feudalism. The French invaders became the upper-class aristocracy who ruled over the English. French was the language of the upper classes, of law and

government and the army. The Anglo-Saxon peasants did not speak French. The Normans built many castles which helped them to rule the land they had conquered. They also built beautiful churches in the shape of a cross. The arches above the doorways were always rounded (Romanesque style). They build fine monasteries which became the center of village life.

The Rise of the English Nation

By the 13th century, the rulers of England thought of themselves as English, not French. The rulers eventually spoke English like everyone else, not French. English and French had mixed over the years and evolved into what we now call Middle English. This period was a time of great changes in government and society. Oxford and Cambridge universities started in the 13th century. Also the power of a Parliament started growing in this period. Edward I (1272-1307) was a strong king who tried to take Scotland- but failed (because of brave Scotsmen like William Wallace and Robert Bruce). Then in (1348-9) the Black Death (plague) came to England killing almost half the population.

3. The Tudor Age (1485-1603): Renaissance, Reformation and a New World

The social and economic order of the medieval period was beginning to break down. More and more people were rejecting the authority of kings and the Catholic Church. This was the period of the English Renaissance, and the growth of a new form of Christianity which rejected the authority of the Roman Catholic Church: Protestantism. The two most famous English monarchs in this period were Henry VIII and Elizabeth I of the House of Tudor.

Henry VIII (1509-1547)

Henry VIII was a typical Renaissance prince: a poet, musician, fine horseman and lover of the arts. When he was 36, he still had no son and became tired of his Spanish wife Catherine of Aragon. He loved Anne Boleyn and asked the Pope permission to divorce Catherine so he could marry Anne. The Pope said no, and Henry broke with Rome. There was a lot of anti-Catholic feeling in England so Parliament and the people supported Henry against the Pope. Parliament made the king the "Supreme Head of the Church of England," and helped him to destroy the Catholic Church. Henry took church lands and buildings and gave much of the wealth to his friends. He ordered that church services should be in English instead of Latin and that each church should have an English bible.

Queen Elizabeth I (1558-1603)

Henry's first daughter, Mary, was Catholic like her mother Catherine, and tried to bring Catholicism back to England. However, when she died, the next in line was Henry's second daughter Elizabeth (by Henry's second wife, Ann Boleyn). She came to be queen at age 25. She was fluent in Greek, Latin, French, and Italian. She studied theology and became a strong Protestant. When she came to power England had no army or police and a weak bureaucracy. When she died in 1603, she left England as one of the most powerful nations on earth. In 1559 Elizabeth made Protestantism as the national religion by having Parliament pass the Act of Supremacy: this law made the queen (or king) the supreme head of the Church of England. There were rumors that Catholics

were going to try to assassinate Elizabeth and that Mary, Queen of Scots was involved. Parliament wanted her executed and Elizabeth had her head cut off (in 1587). King Philip of Spain wanted to help the Catholics in England (this was a time of fighting between Catholics and Protestants). Also, English and Spanish ships were coming into conflict on the ocean. By the mid 1580's it became clear that Spain and England would go to war with each other. In one of the most famous battles in English history, the English beat the whole Spanish fleet in the English Channel (1588). In this same year Shakespeare arrived in London. He wrote 20 plays which Elizabeth enjoyed very much. Many of his historical plays celebrated England's greatness. This was a time of great economic growth for England. This was also the beginning of the great age of exploration and discovery around the world.

The Stuart period (1603-1714)

The **Stuart period** of British history lasted from 1603 to 1714 during the dynasty of the House of Stuart. The period ended with the death of Queen Anne and the accession of King George I from the German House of Hanover.

The period was plagued by internal and religious strife, and a large-scale civil war which resulted in the execution of King Charles I in 1649. The Interregnum, largely under the control of Oliver Cromwell, is included here for continuity, even though the Stuarts were in exile. The Cromwell regime collapsed and Charles II had very wide support for his taking of the throne in 1660. His brother James II was overthrown in 1689 in the Glorious Revolution. He was replaced by his Protestant daughter Mary II and her Dutch husband William III. Mary's sister Anne was the last of the line. For the next half century James II and his son James Francis Edward Stuart and grandson Charles Edward Stuart claimed that they were the true Stuart kings, but they were in exile and their attempts to return with French aid were defeated.

Georgian England (1714-1837)

The Georgian era was a period in British history from 1714 to c. 1830-1837, named after the Hanoverian kings George I, George II, George III and George IV. The definition of the Georgian era is also often extended to include the relatively short reign of William IV, which ended with his death in 1837. The subperiod that is the Regency era is defined by the regency of George IV as Prince of Wales during the illness of his father George III.[2] The transition to the Victorian era was characterized in religion, social values, and the arts by a shift in tone away from rationalism and toward romanticism and mysticism.

The term *Georgian* is typically used in the contexts of social and political history and architecture. The term *Augustan literature* is often used for Augustan drama, Augustan poetry and Augustan prose in the period 1700-1740s. The term *Augustan* refers to the acknowledgement of the influence of Latin literature from the ancient Roman Republic.[3]

The term *Georgian era* is not applied to the time of the two 20th-century British kings of this name, George V and George VI. Those periods are simply referred to as *Georgian*.

The Victorian Age (1837-1901)

In the history of the United Kingdom and the British Empire, the **Victorian era** was the period of Queen Victoria's reign, from 20 June 1837 until her death on 22

January 1901. Slightly different definitions are sometimes used. The era followed the Georgian era and preceded the Edwardian era, and its later half overlaps with the first part of the *Belle Époque* era of continental Europe.

Various liberalising political reforms took place in the UK including expanding the electoral franchise. The Great Famine caused mass death in Ireland early in the period. The British Empire had relatively peaceful relations with the other great powers. It participated in various military conflicts mainly against minor powers. The British Empire expanded during this period and was the predominant power in the world.

Victorian society valued a high standard of personal conduct which reflected across all sections of society. The emphasis on morality gave impetus to social reform but also placed restrictions on the liberty of certain groups. Prosperity rose during the period though debilitating undernutrition continued to exist. Literacy and childhood education became near universal in Great Britain for the first time. Whilst some attempts were made to improve living conditions, slum housing and disease remained a severe problem.

The period saw significant scientific and technological development. Britain was advanced in industry and engineering in particular, but somewhat undeveloped in art and education. The population of Great Britain increased rapidly, whilst the population of Ireland fell sharply.

Modern Britain (20th century –)

The Britain of the year 2000 was unimaginable at the end of the Victorian era in 1901. The 20th century saw two world wars catalyse enormous social change across the country, including dramatic enhancements in health and education. The motor car stormed through town and country, transforming both, and Britain no longer ruled a third of the planet.

4. The English Civil War

Under Elizabeth, the power of Parliament was growing. After she died, her cousin, king of Scotland, became King James I of England (1603). This was the end of the Tudor dynasty and the beginning of the **House of Stuart**. At this time, there were religious reformers who thought the Anglican Church (Church of England) was not strict enough and they wanted to reform it. These groups of religious reformers were called **Puritans**, because they wanted to purify the church. There was a lot of hostility towards these Puritans and some escaped England to make a new religious community, first in Holland, and then later in America (in Massachusetts). After King James I died, his son became King Charles I (1625). Charles believed in the divine power of kings and tried to rule without Parliament. He tried to arrest Members of Parliament. Parliament fought back. Thus began the English Civil War. Civil war started in 1640, with **Oliver Cromwell** as the leader of Parliament. The main issues of this war were religious toleration (for Puritans and other Protestant groups) and more power for Parliament (and less power for the king). Puritans supported the Parliament against the king. King Charles I was defeated by Cromwell's army and executed on January 30, 1649, and for the first and only time in English history, there was no monarch.

England without a King: "The Commonwealth" (1649-1660)

England now had no king. It was ruled by Cromwell as a "**commonwealth**" rather than a kingdom. There were many different groups (religious and political) competing for power, and so the army generals under Cromwell took control. England became a **military dictatorship** under Puritan rule. There were strict religious laws (e.g., the theaters were all closed).

The Restoration (1660-1713)

Eventually the people got tired of this Puritan form of government and wanted a king. King Charles II was invited back to England and the people rejoiced (1660). Theatres were opened and a period of great artistic and cultural achievement began. The main spirit of the Restoration was that of **reason**. The power and wealth of the middle classes grew. This was a time of great commercial success around the world, and scientific achievement. This was also the beginning of science and medicine and the period known as the English Enlightenment. Also, the king no longer had absolute power; from then on, he had to share power with the Parliament.

The Rise of the British Empire

During the 17th and 18th centuries the British sailed across the seas with the purpose of increasing British power and wealth, competing mostly with France for colonies around the world. Emigration was a solution to the over population problem in Britain. Little by little, people looking for freedom or wealth settled in these far away places. By the late 19th century, under queen Victoria, England ruled about 1/4 of the world's land and population. During this period, England also became the leading industrial nation in Europe. In fact, England was the birthplace of the Industrial Revolution. In 1834, Britain stopped slavery in all its colonies. In the 19th and 20th centuries, her colonies became more and more independent, and the big companies were not allowed to monopolized trade. It became too difficult to maintain such a huge Empire, and so it gradually disappeared; today there is only a linguistic and cultural connection with Great Britain.

5. Major Colonies in the British Empire:

America

1607 – Jamestown was founded in Virginia as for trade (tobacco and cotton).
1620 – Massachusetts: A religious colony started by strict Puritans (Pilgrims).
By mid-18th century there were 13 English colonies stretching up and down the east coast of America.

Canada

The Hudson Bay Company was important for exploring Canada and setting up trade (especially furs). The British went to war with France in Canada and won (1763). Many French stayed there living peacefully with the British in eastern Canada. After America won its independence, many pro-British colonists went north to Canada (especially the Toronto area). On the west Coast of Canada (British Columbia), Vancouver was started for the China trade (1788). In 1936 Canada became a self-governing nation in the British Commonwealth.

India: "The Jewel in the Crown"

The East India Company started in 1600; it had a monopoly on trade for the next 150 years; the import of tea (and export of tea to America) made the company rich because the English became addicted to tea in the 18th century. In 1750, the British defeated the French in India and the British East India Company to take control of India. The Indian people tried to revolt in 1857 but lost. After this, the British government took over the administration of India, until Indian independence in 1947.

Australia and New Zealand

New Zealand and Australia (called New South Wales) were discovered by the British (Captain Cook) and made part of Britain (in 1770). In the beginning, Australia was a prison colony for Britons convicted of fairly minor crimes. In 1813 the islands of New Zealand were made part of New South Wales, under British protection. Many Scottish farmers made New Zealand into a rich colony. New Zealand was colonized from 1840. Like Australia, New Zealand became an independent country within the British Commonwealth and Empire. By the 1840, six separate colonies covering all of Australia were decided; in 1910 they formed into one Commonwealth of Australia. South Africa In the 19th century, the British and the Dutch (Boers) fought each other for control of South Africa. In 1880 an Independent Boer Republic was started, but South Africa remained under British rule. Finally in 1948 the Boers (Afrikaner National Party) took control of the government.

Hong Kong

In 1841 the British took Hong Kong Island to trade with China. The shipped opium from India and sold it to China and imported lots of Chinese goods. Britain had a year lease (till 1997) on Hong Kong. They never gave the Hong Kong people democracy.

Other:

Britain controlled many other lands around the world, such as Singapore, which became Britain's main naval base in Asia, Caribbean islands like Jamaica, and Egypt.

The British Empire came to an end in the 20th century after Britain fought in two world wars. Many profound changes occurred in English social and political life, as was the case throughout most of Europe and America in the 20th century. This last century of ours, the 20th century, really requires a separate textbook to fully understand all the important changes that have taken place. Although Great Britain is now radically different from its pre-20th century history, it still has many influences from the past. Hopefully this textbook has given you, the student, a good basic understanding of the roots of British history for your further study of this great nation.

British History Timeline

250,000-50,000 year ago: hunter-gather people (all over Europe) about 600 B.C.– Celts come to Britain from

43 AD – Large Roman invasion; Romans rule Britain for almost 400 years

[4th century – The Roman Empire converts to Christianity]

6th century – Four large Germanic tribes (Jutes and Angles from Denmark, Saxons from

Northern Germany, Frisians from Northern Germany and Holland); by 550 they occupied the whole of England
597 – St. Augustine comes to England from Rome to bring Christianity to the Anglo-Saxons. By end of the 7th century had spread to all of England.
8th, 9th and 10th centuries – Viking invasions from Scandanavia
878 – King Alfred of Wessex defeats the Vikings
879-1042 – Vikings become Christianized and live peacefully with Anglo-Saxons.
1066 – Norman French invasion of England
1348 – Black Death plague: population drops and French language loses its importance.
1485 – Tudor period begins; Henry VII becomes first Tudor king.
[16th century: the age of "Merchant Adventurers"; the discovery of a sea route to India and the East by way of Africa; the discovery of America and Canada; West coast of Africa;
1529-1536 – Henry VIII breaks with the Pope
1558 – Elizabeth becomes queen
[17th century: conflict between Puritan Parliament and Anglican monarchy/Stuart Kings]
1601 – The East India Company created
1603 – Queen Elizabeth dies and her cousin James of Scotland becomes king; the start of the Stuart period; Scotland and England are finally united the two kingdoms.
1642-49 – The English Civil War
1649-1660 – England is a republic called "The Commonwealth" – a Puritan controlled one.
1660 – The restoration of the Stuarts
1759 – French armies defeated by the British in India and Canada.
1776 – American Declaration of Independence
1782 – Colonies in North America, with French help, became the United States of America
1793-1815 France and Napoleon fight British; British victory in
1815 making it the supreme power in Europe.
1812-14 War with America
1832 – the First Parliamentary Reform Act
1837 (-1901) Queen Victoria
1899-1902 Boer War
1921 Southern Ireland becomes independent
1928 Women can vote

The Royal Houses of Britain
Saxons and Danes (802-1066)
House of Normandy (1066-1154)
House of Angevin (1154-1216)
House of Anjou Anjou/Plantagenet (1216-1399)
House of Lancaster (1399-1461)
House of York (1461-1485)
House of Tudor (1485-1603)

House of Stewart (1603-1414)
House of Hanover (1741-1901).
House of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha (later Windsor) (1901-1910)
House of Windsor (1910-)

Kings and Queens of England from Norman Times

_ William I (1066-87)
_ William II (1087-1100)
_ Henry I (1100-1135)
_ Stephen (1135-1154)
_ Henry II (1154-1189)
_ Richard I (1189-1199) Richard the Lion Heart
_ John (1199-1216)
_ Henry III (1216-1272)
_ Edward I (1272-1307) “Longshanks”
_ Edward II (1307-1327)
_ Edward III (1327-1377)
_ Richard II (1377-1399)
_ Henry IV (1399-1413)
_ Henry V (1413-1422)
_ Henry VI (1422-1461, 1470-71)
_ Edward IV (1461-1483)
_ Edward V (1483)
_ Richard III (1485)
_ Henry VII (1485-1509)
_ Henry VIII (1509-1547)
_ Edward VI (1547-53)
_ Jane (1553)
_ Mary (1553-1558) “Bloody Mary”
_ Elizabeth I (1558-1603)
_ James I (1603-1625)
_ Charles I (1625-1649)
_ Oliver Cromwell (1658)
_ R. Cromwell (1660)
_ Charles II (1660-1685)
_ James II (1685-1689)
_ Mary II (1689-1694)
_ William III (1689-1702)
_ Anne (1702-1714)
_ George I (1714-1727)
_ George II (1727-1760)
_ George III (1760-1820)
_ George IV (1820-1830)
_ William IV (1830-1837)
_ Victoria (1837-1901)

_ Edward VII (1901-1910)
_ George V (1910-1936)
_ Edward VIII (1936)
_ George VI (1936-1952)
_ Elizabeth II (1952-2022)

Lecture 5.
England

Plan
1. General characteristics
2. Physical geography
3. The demography of Egland
4. The systemof government
5. Education in England
6. London
7. Religion
8. Windsor Castle
9. The status of the English language
10. Arts and Culture

1. General characteristics

England is a country that is part of the United Kingdom. It shares land borders with Wales to its west and Scotland to its north. The Irish Sea lies northwest and the Celtic Sea area of the Atlantic Ocean to the southwest. It is separated from continental Europe by the North Sea to the east and the English Channel to the south. The country covers five-eighths of the island of Great Britain, which lies in the North Atlantic, and includes over 100 smaller islands, such as the Isles of Scilly and the Isle of Wight.

The area now called England was first inhabited by modern humans during the Upper Paleolithic, but takes its name from the Angles, a Germanic tribe who settled during the 5th and 6th centuries. England became a unified state in the 10th century and has had a significant cultural and legal impact on the wider world since the Age of Discovery, which began during the 15th century. The Kingdom of England, which after 1535 included Wales, ceased being a separate sovereign state on 1 May 1707, when the Acts of Union put into effect the terms agreed in the Treaty of Union the previous year, resulting in a political union with the Kingdom of Scotland to create the Kingdom of Great Britain.

The English language, the Anglican Church, and English law, which collectively served as the basis for the common law legal systems of many other countries around the world, developed in England, and the country's parliamentary system of government has been widely adopted by other nations. The Industrial Revolution began in 18th-century England, transforming its society into the world's first

industrialized nation. England is also home to the two oldest institutions of higher learning in the English-speaking world, the University of Cambridge, founded in 1209, and the University of Oxford, founded in 1096, both of which are routinely ranked among the most prestigious universities globally.

England's terrain is chiefly low hills and plains, especially in the centre and south. Upland and mountainous terrain is mostly restricted to the north and west, including the Lake District, Pennines, Dartmoor and Shropshire Hills. The capital is London, whose greater metropolitan population of 14.2 million as of 2021 represents the United Kingdom's largest metropolitan area. England's population of 56.3 million comprises 84% of the population of the United Kingdom, largely concentrated around London, the South East, and conurbations in the Midlands, the North West, the North East, and Yorkshire, which each developed as major industrial regions during the 19th century.

2. Geography of England

England comprises most of the central and southern two-thirds of the island of Great Britain, in addition to a number of small islands of which the largest is the Isle of Wight. England is bordered to the north by Scotland and to the west by Wales. It is closer to continental Europe than any other part of mainland Britain, divided from France only by a 33 km (21 mi) sea gap, the English Channel. The 50 km (31 mi) Channel Tunnel, near Folkestone, directly links England to mainland Europe. The English/French border is halfway along the tunnel.

Most of England consists of low hills and plains, with upland and mountainous terrain in the north and west. Uplands in the north include the Pennines, an upland chain dividing east and west, the Lake District, containing the highest mountains in the country, the Cheviot Hills across the Anglo-Scottish border, and the North York Moors near the North Sea. Uplands in the west include Dartmoor and Exmoor in the south west and the Shropshire Hills near Wales. The approximate dividing line between terrain types is often indicated by the Tees–Exe line. To the south of that line, there are larger areas of flatter land, including East Anglia and the Fens, although hilly areas include the Cotswolds, the Chilterns, and the North and South Downs.

The largest natural harbour in England is at Poole, on the south-central coast. Some regard it as the second largest harbour in the world, after Sydney, Australia, although this fact is disputed (see harbours for a list of other large natural harbours).

Climate

The climate of United Kingdom is temperate oceanic, mild and humid (more humid in Northern Ireland, and Scotland, colder and drier). The weather is mainly influenced by the warm oceanic current of the Gulf Stream. The sea, surrounding the country from all sides, does not allow the air over land to heat up or cool too much. Therefore, sudden temperature changes rarely occur, but the weather conditions change often. Four different regions represent the climate throughout the territories:

- Southeast – cold winters and warm, dry summers
- Southwest – soft and very wet winters and warm and humid summers
- Northwest – mild winters, cool summers and frequent rain all year

• Northeast – cold winters, cool summers and steady rain throughout the year

3. The demography of England

The **demography of England** has since 1801 been measured by the decennial national census, and is marked by centuries of population growth and urbanization. Due to the lack of authoritative contemporary sources, estimates of the population of England for dates prior to the first census in 1801 vary considerably. The population of England at the 2021 census was 56,489,800.

4. The system of government

Her Majesty's Government (HMG; Welsh: Llywodraeth Ei Mawrhydi), commonly referred to as the British government, is the central government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The government is led by the Prime Minister, who selects all the remaining ministers. The prime minister and the other most senior ministers belong to the supreme decision-making committee, known as the Cabinet. The government ministers all sit in Parliament, and are accountable to it. The government is dependent on Parliament to make primary legislation, and since the Fixed-terms Parliaments Act 2011, general elections are held every five years to elect a new House of Commons, unless there is a successful vote of no confidence in the government in the House of Commons, in which case an election may be held sooner. After an election, the monarch (currently Queen Elizabeth II) selects as prime minister the leader of the party most likely to command a majority of MPs in the House of Commons.

Under the uncodified British constitution, executive authority lies with the monarch, although this authority is exercised only by, or on the advice of, the prime minister and the cabinet. The Cabinet members advise the monarch as members of the Privy Council. They also exercise power directly as leaders of the Government Departments. The current prime minister is Theresa May, who took office on 13 July 2016. She is the leader of the Conservative Party, which won a majority of seats in the House of Commons in the general election on 7 May 2015, when David Cameron was the party leader. Prior to this, Cameron and the Conservatives led a coalition government from 2010 to 2015 with the Liberal Democrats, in which Cameron was prime minister. A key principle of the British Constitution is that the government is responsible to Parliament. This is called responsible government. Britain is a constitutional monarchy in which the reigning monarch (that is, the King or Queen who is the Head of State at any given time) does not make any open political decisions. All political decisions are taken by the government and Parliament. This constitutional state of affairs is the result of a long history of constraining and reducing the political power of the monarch, beginning with the Magna Carta in 1215. Parliament is split into two houses: the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The House of Commons is the lower house and is the more powerful. The House of Lords is the upper house and although it can vote to amend proposed laws, the House of Commons can usually vote to overrule its amendments. Although the House of Lords can introduce bills, most important laws are introduced in the House of Commons – and most of those are introduced by the government, which schedules the vast majority of parliamentary time

in the Commons. Parliamentary time is essential for bills to be passed into law, because they must pass through a number of readings before becoming law. Prior to introducing a bill, the government may run a public consultation to solicit feedback from the public and businesses, and often may have already introduced and discussed the policy in the Queen's Speech, or in an election manifesto or party platform. Ministers of the Crown are responsible to the House in which they sit; they make statements in that House and take questions from members of that House. For most senior ministers this is usually the elected House of Commons rather than the House of Lords. There have been some recent exceptions to this: for example, cabinet ministers Lord Mandelson (First Secretary of State) and Lord Adonis (Secretary of State for Transport) sat in the Lords and were responsible to that House during the government of Gordon Brown. British Parliament Since the start of Edward VII's reign, in 1901, the prime minister has always been an elected member of Parliament (MP) and therefore directly accountable to the House of Commons. A similar convention applies to the Chancellor of the Exchequer: it would likely be politically unacceptable for the budget speech to be given in the Lords, with MPs unable to directly question the Chancellor, especially now that the Lords have very limited powers in relation to money bills; the last Chancellor of the Exchequer to be a member of the House of Lords was Lord Denman, who served as interim Chancellor of the Exchequer for one month in 1834.

Under the British system the government is required by convention and for practical reasons to maintain the confidence of the House of Commons. It requires the support of the House of Commons for the maintenance of supply (by voting through the government's budgets) and in order to pass primary legislation. By convention if a government loses the confidence of the House of Commons it must either resign or a General Election is held. The support of the Lords, while useful to the government in getting its legislation passed without delay, is not vital. A government is not required to resign even if it loses the confidence of the Lords and is defeated in key votes in that House. The House of Commons is thus the responsible House. The prime minister is held to account during Prime Minister's Question Time (PMQs) which provides an opportunity for MPs from all parties to question the PM on any subject. There are also departmental questions when ministers answer questions relating to their specific departmental brief. Unlike PMQs both the cabinet ministers for the department and junior ministers within the department may answer on behalf of the government, depending on the topic of the question. During debates on legislation proposed by the government, ministers—usually with departmental responsibility for the bill—will lead the debate for the government and respond to points made by MPs or Lords. Committees of both the House of Commons and House of Lords hold the government to account, scrutinise its work and examine in detail proposals for legislation. Ministers appear before committees to give evidence and answer questions.

Government ministers are also required by convention and the Ministerial Code, when Parliament is sitting, to make major statements regarding government policy or issues of national importance to Parliament. This allows MPs or Lords to question the government on the statement. When the government instead chooses to make announcements first outside Parliament, it is often the subject of significant criticism from MPs and the Speaker of the House of Commons.

British monarchy

The British monarch, currently Queen Elizabeth II, is the head of state and the sovereign, but not the head of government. The monarch takes little direct part in governing the country, and remains neutral in political affairs. However, the legal authority of the state that is vested in the sovereign and known as the Crown remains the source of the executive power exercised by the government. In addition to explicit statutory authority, in many areas the Crown also possesses a body of powers known as the Royal Prerogative, which can be used for many purposes, from the issue or withdrawal of passports to declaration of war. By long-standing custom, most of these powers are delegated from the sovereign to various ministers or other officers of the Crown, who may use them without having to obtain the consent of Parliament. The head of the government, the prime minister, also has weekly meetings with the monarch, when she "has a right and a duty to express her views on Government matters. ... These meetings, as with all communications between The Queen and her Government, remain strictly confidential. Having expressed her views, The Queen abides by the advice of her ministers.".

Royal Prerogative powers include, but are not limited to, the following: Domestic powers The power to dismiss and appoint a prime minister. This power is exercised by the monarch herself. By strong convention she must appoint the individual most capable of commanding a majority in the House of Commons. The power to dismiss and appoint other ministers. This power is exercised by the prime minister alone. The power to grant Royal Assent to bills, making them valid laws. This is exercised by the monarch, who also theoretically has the power to refuse assent, although no monarch has refused assent to a bill passed by Parliament since Queen Anne in 1708. The power to commission officers in the Armed Forces The power to command the Armed Forces of the United Kingdom. This power is exercised by the Defence Council in the Queen's name. The power to appoint members to the Her Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council The power to issue and withdraw passports. This is exercised by the Home Secretary. The Prerogative of mercy (though capital punishment has been abolished, this power is still used to remedy errors in sentence calculation) The power to grant honours The power to create corporations via Royal Charter Foreign powers The power to ratify and make treaties.

The power to declare war and conclude peace with other nations. The power to deploy the Armed Forces overseas The power to recognize states The power to credit and receive diplomats Even though the United Kingdom has no single constitutional document, the government published the above list in October 2003 in order to increase transparency, as some of the powers exercised in the name of the monarch and which are part of the Royal Prerogative. However, the complete extent of the Royal Prerogative powers, many of them originating in ancient custom and the period of absolute monarchy, or modified by later constitutional practice, has never been fully set out. Government departments Government ministers are supported by 560,000.Civil Servants and other staff working in the 24 Ministerial Departments and their executive agencies. There are also an additional 26 non-Ministerial Departments with a range of further responsibilities. Main entrance of 10 Downing Street, the residence and offices of the First Lord of HM Treasury The prime minister is based at

10 Downing Street in Westminster, London. Cabinet meetings also take place here. Most government departments have their headquarters nearby in Whitehall. Since 1999, certain areas of central government have been devolved to accountable governments in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. These are not part of Her Majesty's Government, and are accountable to their own institutions, with their own authority under the Crown. By contrast, there is no devolved government in England.

Local government

Refurbishment notice at Old Fire Station, Oxford, showing HM Government support. Up to three layers of elected local authorities (such as County, District and Parish Councils) exist throughout all parts of the United Kingdom, in some places merged into Unitary Authorities. They have limited local tax-raising powers. Many other authorities and agencies also have statutory powers, generally subject to some central government supervision. Limits of government power The government's powers include general executive and statutory powers, delegated legislation, and numerous powers of appointment and patronage. However, some powerful officials and bodies, (e.g. HM judges, local authorities, and the Charity Commissions) are legally more or less independent of the government, and government powers are legally limited to those retained by the Crown under Common Law or granted and limited by Act of Parliament, and are subject to European Union law and the EU competencies that it defines. Both substantive and procedural limitations are enforceable in the Courts by judicial review. Nevertheless, magistrates and mayors can still be arrested for and put on trial for corruption, and the government has powers to insert commissioners into a local authority to oversee its work, and to issue directives that must be obeyed by the local authority, if the local authority is not abiding by its statutory obligations. By contrast, as in every other EU member state, EU officials cannot be prosecuted for any actions carried out in pursuit of their official duties, and foreign country diplomats (though not their employees) and foreign

Members of the European Parliament are immune from prosecution in the UK for anything at all. As a consequence, neither EU bodies nor diplomats have to pay taxes, since it would not be possible to prosecute them for tax evasion. This caused a dispute in recent years when the US Ambassador to the UK claimed that London's congestion charge was a tax, and not a charge (despite the name), and therefore he did not have to pay it - a claim the Greater London Authority disputed. Similarly, the monarch is totally immune from criminal prosecution and may only be sued with her permission (this is known as sovereign immunity). The monarch, by law, is not required to pay income tax, but Queen Elizabeth II has voluntarily paid it since 1993, and also pays local rates voluntarily. However, the monarchy also receives a substantial grant from the government, the Sovereign Support Grant, and her inheritance from the Queen Mother was exempt from inheritance tax. In addition to legislative powers, HM Government has substantial influence over local authorities and other bodies set up by it, by financial powers and grants. Many functions carried out by local authorities, such as paying out housing benefit and council tax benefit, are funded or substantially part-funded by central government. Even though the British Broadcasting Corporation is supposed to be independent of the government on a day-to-day level and is supposed

to be politically unbiased, some commentators have argued that the prospects of the BBC having its funding cut or its charter changed in future charter renewals in practice cause the BBC to be subtly biased towards the government of the day (or the likely future government as an election approaches) at times.

Neither the central government nor local authorities are permitted to sue anyone for defamation. Individual politicians are allowed to sue people for defamation in a personal capacity and without using government funds, but this is relatively rare (although George Galloway, who was a backbench MP for a quarter of a century, has sued or threatened to sue for defamation a number of times). However, it is a criminal offence to make a false statement about any election candidate during an election, with the purpose of reducing the number of votes they receive (as with libel, opinions do not count). The political system of the United Kingdom: short summary6 Here is Expatica's short introduction to the political system of the United Kingdom, and some notable UK political parties of influence. Are the islands called the United Kingdom or just Britain? And what about England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland – are they separate countries? These questions are often asked by bemused internationals, and, depending on whom you ask, you will most likely get a different answer. The 'countries' of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have distinct cultures and proud independent histories that identify them. Acts of Union passed centuries ago brought these countries into one political union. This union is what is formally known as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland – which is often considered a bit of a mouthful. The historical significance of the Union is important because it underpins some of the political dynamics of the country and possibly contributes as to why it has become so multi-cultural.

Norman Tebbit, once Member of Parliament, voiced a controversial opinion in 1990 that suggested that a person's origins were indicated by which national sports team they supported. If you put this to the test today and ask a Scot which rugby team they support, their answer likely won't be England or Wales. Such proud differences are friendly, but the reasons for them stretch back across centuries of historical conflict. The politics in the United Kingdom operate within a 'constitutional monarchy' similar to some other countries like Spain, Sweden, Thailand, Denmark, Japan, and the Netherlands to name a few. Whilst the Queen is head of state, the Prime Minister is head of government. Since 1999, the UK government has shared executive powers with the devolved governments of the Scottish Parliament, Welsh Assembly and Northern Ireland Assembly. Each of the United Kingdom parliaments or assemblies has elected political parties. In England, the most dominant are the Labour, Conservative and Liberal Democratic parties. Meanwhile in the other regions notable parties are: The Scottish National Party in Scotland, Plaid Cymru in Wales, and various unionist parties and Sinn Fein in Northern Ireland. The UK Parliament in London is at the heart of the political system in Britain and is the legislative body for the UK and British overseas territories. Parliament has two legislative parliamentary bodies, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The House of Lords includes three types of members, Bishops from the Church of England, nobility (British honours system) and Law Lords (Judges). Its members are not elected and appointed by the Queen on the advice of the Prime Minster. The House of Commons consists of democratically elected Members of

Parliament from various different political parties. Elections are held every five years. Below are brief introductions to the most well-known political parties in the United Kingdom. Political parties in England The Conservative Party (or Tory party) was in government for two thirds of the twentieth century, but it has been in opposition since losing the 1997 election to the Labour Party. Its modern politics are considered to be 'centre-right'. The Labour Party was founded at the start of the twentieth century. In 1997 it won the general election under Tony Blair, its first since 1974. The Party describes itself as the 'democratic socialist party' and is considered to be 'centre-left'. The Liberal Democrats (Lib Dems.) are the third-largest party in the UK parliament. However the Party has never been in government. Their ideology is described as giving 'power to the people' with politics considered to be 'centre/centre-left'. United Kingdom Independence Party (UKIP) has had a growing influence in the United Kingdom. The party's principal aim is the withdrawal of the UK from the European Union. British National Party (BNP) is a 'far right' political party which is hugely controversial in the United Kingdom. It aims to protect native British homogeneity by reducing UK immigration. The Green Party's radical politics are underpinned by core values to do with ensuring we look after the natural environments around us. Political parties in Scotland Parties represented in Scottish parliament are, the Scottish National Party, Labour, Conservatives, Liberal Democrats and the Scottish Green Party.

The Scottish National party is the largest party in the Scottish Parliament since elections in 2007. It is a 'centre-left' political party. Political parties in Wales Parties represented in the Welsh Assembly include, Welsh Labour, Plaid Cymru, Conservatives and the Liberal Democrats. Currently Plaid Cymru and Welsh Labour work together as a coalition government. Political parties in Northern Ireland The Northern Ireland Assembly elects the Northern Ireland Executive which consists of a number of key ministers, including the First Minister. Each party has a share of ministerial positions. Key political parties are: The Ulster Unionist Party, Democratic Unionist Party, Sinn Féin and Social Democratic and Labour Party. For up to date in-depth news coverage on British and international politics it is worth watching Panorama on the BBC or alternatively tuning into Radio Four's Today programme, broadcast every morning. Meanwhile if you are more into reading, The Spectator is a good read and a highly rated magazine for coverage of both British and world politics. British politics is rarely boring. It is said a week is not long in politics especially with the British media's speed in creating spins on new dramatic stories.

5. Education in England

Education in England is overseen by the United Kingdom's Department for Education. Local government authorities are responsible for implementing policy for public education and state-funded schools at a local level.

England also has a tradition of private schools (some of which call themselves *public schools*) and home education: legally, parents may choose to educate their children by any permitted means. State-funded schools may be selective *grammar schools* or non-selective *comprehensive schools* (non-selective schools in counties that have grammar schools may be called by other names, such as *high schools*). Comprehensive schools are further subdivided by funding into free schools,

other academies, any remaining Local Authority schools and others. More freedom is given to free schools, including most religious schools, and other academies in terms of curriculum. All are subject to assessment and inspection by Ofsted (the Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills).

The state-funded education system is divided into *Key Stages*, based upon the student's age by August 31. The Early Years Foundation Stage is for ages 3-4. Primary education is divided into Key Stage 1 for ages 5-6 and Key Stage 2 for ages 7-10. Secondary education is divided into Key Stage 3 for ages 11-13 and Key Stage 4 for ages 14-15. Key Stage 5 is for ages 16-17. Students 18 and older receive tertiary education.

At the end of Year 11 (at age 15 or 16, depending on their birthdays) students typically take General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) exams or other Level 1 or Level 2 qualifications. For students who do not pursue academic qualifications until the end of Year 13, these qualifications are roughly equivalent to the completion of high school in many other countries, or high school graduation in the United States and Canada.

While *education* is compulsory until 18, *schooling* is compulsory to 16: thus post-16 education can take a number of forms, and may be academic or vocational. This can involve continued schooling, known as "sixth form" or "college", leading (typically after two years of further study) to A-level qualifications, or a number of alternative Level 3 qualifications such as Business and Technology Education Council (BTEC), the International Baccalaureate (IB), Cambridge Pre- U, WJEC or Eduqas. It can also include work-based apprenticeships or traineeships, or volunteering.

Higher education often begins with a three-year bachelor's degree. Postgraduate degrees include master's degrees, either taught or by research, and doctoral level research degrees that usually take at least three years. Tuition fees for first degrees in public universities are £9,250 per academic year for English, Welsh and European Union students with settled or pre-settled status.

The Regulated Qualifications Framework (RQF) covers national school examinations and vocational education qualifications. It is referenced to the European Qualifications Framework, and thus to other qualifications frameworks across the European Union.[14] The Framework for Higher Education Qualifications (FHEQ), which is tied to the RQF, covers degrees and other qualifications from degree-awarding bodies.[15] This is referenced to the Qualifications Framework of the European Higher Education Area developed under the Bologna process.

The Programme for International Student Assessment coordinated by the OECD currently ranks the overall knowledge and skills of British 15-year-olds as 13th in the world in reading literacy, mathematics and science, with the average British student scoring 503.7, compared with the OECD average of 493. In 2011, the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) rated 13-14-year-old pupils in England and Wales 10th in the world for maths and 9th for science.

Britain’s Universities

There are about 90 universities in Britain. They are divided into three types: the old universities (Oxford, Cambridge and Edinburgh Universities), the 19th century

universities such as London and Manchester universities, and the new universities. Some years ago there were also **polytechnics**. After **graduating from** a polytechnic a student **got a degree**, but it was not a **university degree**. 31 **former** polytechnics **were given university status** in 1992.

Full **courses of study offer the degree of Bachelor of Arts or Science**. Most **degree courses** at universities last 3 years, language courses 4 years (including a year spent abroad). **Medicine** and **dentistry courses** are longer (5-7 years).

Students may **receive grants** from their **Local Education Authority** to help **pay for** books, **accommodation**, transport and food. This grant **depends on the income of** their parents.

Most students **live away from home**, in flats or **halls of residence**.

Students don't usually have a job during term time because the lessons, called lectures, seminars, classes or **tutorials** (small groups), are full time. However, many students now have to work in the evenings.

University life is considered «an experience». The exams are **competitive** but the social life and living away from home are also important. The social life is excellent with a lot of clubs, parties, concerts, bars.

There are not only universities in Britain but also **colleges**. Colleges **offer courses in teacher training, courses in technology** and some professions connected with medicine.

6. London

London is the capital of Great Britain or the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. It is an old city, its history counts more than two thousand years. London is both the capital oi the country and a huge port. London is situated upon both banks of the Thames, about forty miles from the mouth and is divided into two parts by the river: north and south. There are 17 bridges that cross the river. The population of London is more than 9 million people.

The history of London goes back to Roman times. Due to favourable geographical position, soon after the Roman conquest, a small town became an important trade centre. Actually, London can be divided into several parts: the City or Downtown of London, Westminster, the West End and the East End. The City is the oldest part of London with narrow streets and pavements. There are many offices, companies and banks in this part of London. The City of London is the financial centre of the United Kingdom. Only a few thousand people live there, but in the day-time it is full of people: as about half a million people come to work there. The biggest Banks and offices are concentrated in the City. The West End is the centre of London. It is full of richest hotels, largest supermarkets, best cinemas and concerthalls. There are a lot of beautiful houses and gardens. Only well-to-do people can live there.

Another important district of London is Westminster, where most of Government buildings are situated. Westminster Palace is the seat of the British Parliament. Westminster Palace was founded in 1050. It is situated in the centre of London. Many great Englishmen were buried in the Abbey: Newton, Darwin and others.

The Towers of the Houses of Parliament stand high above the city. On the highest tower there is the largest clock in the country which is known to the whole world as

Big Ben. One can hear Big Ben strike every quarter of an hour. The clock «Big Ben» came into service in 1859. Big Ben is the biggest clock bell in Britain. The official London residence of the Queen is Buckingham Palace. It was built in the 18th century.

There are many nice squares in London. Trafalgar Square is one of them and it is in the centre of the West End. One can see a statue of Lord Nelson in the middle of this square. There are many museums, libraries and galleries in London. The Tate Gallery is one of the well-known galleries in London. Henry Tate was a sugar manufacturer. He was fond of paintings and collected many pictures. The British Museum is a very interesting place in London. It was founded in 1753. The library of this museum has lots of books.

The East End of London is the industrial area and the place where the working people live. There are many factories, workshops and docks there. The East End, lying eastwards from the City is very large and crowded. There are many cars and buses in London. There is the Tube (an underground) in London too. The underground, constructed in London, was the first underground in the World.

Religion

British religion used to be closely connected with kings, queens and politics. England was a Roman Catholic country until 1534.

In 1525 King Henry VIII decided to divorce his queen, Catherine of Aragon, because he fell in love with Anne Boleyn. But when Henry asked the Pope for permission to divorce Catherine, he refused.

Henry was so angry with the Pope that he ended all contact between England and Rome. He divorced Catherine of Aragon without the Pope's permission and married Anne Boleyn.

In 1534 Parliament named Henry head of the Church of England. This was the beginning of the Anglican Church. The Anglican Church did not start as a Protestant Church and Henry certainly did not regard himself as a Protestant. However the Protestant movement in Europe was growing very strong at that time. When Henry quarreled with Rome and ordered the Bible to be translated into English, the way was open for Protestantism to spread in England.

Over the next years many people changed to this new religion. In 1553 Mary, Henry's daughter by Catherine of Aragon, became Queen of England. The country re-entered the Roman Church, because she was a Roman Catholic.

Protestants were glad when Mary died, because while she was Queen, many Protestants were burned for their beliefs. After Marry, Elizabeth became head of the Anglican Church and Roman Catholicism was never again the official religion in England.

The Church of England is still the established church in England nowadays. But in spite of the great variety of forms of worship, only a minority of people regularly go to church in Britain today. Most people see Sunday more as a day for relaxing with the family or for doing jobs around the house and the garden.

7. Windsor Castle

Windsor Castle holds the distinct title of being both the oldest and largest occupied castle in the world. Located in Windsor, England, it was built in the 11th century and has been home to 39 British monarchs, and now, it serves as the final resting place for Elizabeth II.

Here's everything you need to know about the history of Windsor Castle—including the fateful 1992 Windsor Castle fire.

William the Conqueror built Windsor Castle around 1070.

William the Conqueror, the first Norman king of England, chose Windsor Castle's location, "high above the river Thames and on the edge of a Saxon hunting ground." The construction of the castle began in 1070, four years after his invasion of England. By 1086, Windsor Castle was complete, made of timber.

During the reign of King Henry II (1154 - 1189), he started to replace Windsor Castle's walls with stone, and converted the castle into a palace, and added royal apartments. Under King Edward III (1327 - 1377), Windsor Castle was transformed "from a military fortification into a gothic palace." According to the Royal Collection Trust, Edward III spent £50,000 transforming Windsor transforming the castle, "more than any other medieval English king spent on a single building."

King Edward IV started the construction of St. George's Chapel at Windsor Castle, and it was completed under King Henry VIII.

Construction of the chapel, a famous part of Windsor Castle, started in 1475 by Edward IV and was completed by Henry VIII in 1528. It was built in "Perpendicular style," a style of late Gothic architecture.

In the 15th century, Windsor Castle was a "favored royal residence," home to Henry V, Henry VII, and Henry VIII, who all stayed there regularly. During the English Civil War (1642 - 1651), Charles I was held at Windsor under arrest before he was executed. When the monarchy was restored and Charles II came to the throne, "he was determined to establish Windsor as his principal country residence and an important symbol of the restoration of the monarchy itself."

King George IV restored Windsor Castle in the 1800s.

Under King George IV, the Royal Collection Trust explains, "the gothic transformation" of Windsor Castle continued: "George IV and his artistic adviser Sir Charles Long wanted the exterior of the Castle to have a more imposing appearance."

His restoration of Windsor Castle was "so comprehensive" that his successors did little to change anything of the building. Indeed, he is the monarch "most closely associated with the appearance" of Windsor Castle today, per the Royal Collection Trust.

Queen Victoria, who reigned from 1837 to 1901, spent the majority of her time at Windsor Castle, making it her principal palace. When King George VI succeed to the throne after the abdication of his brother King Edward VIII, he was already living at Royal Lodge in Windsor Great Park.

His daughters, Princesses Elizabeth and Princess Margaret, were raised at Windsor, and it remained a special place for the Queen throughout her reign.

The Windsor Castle fire in 1992.

On November 20, 1992, a fire broke out in Windsor Castle, beginning in Queen

Victoria's Private Chapel, "where a faulty spotlight ignited a curtain next to the altar." Quickly, the fire became unstoppable, and burned for 15 hours, destroying 115 rooms, including nine state rooms. Two works of art were lost in the fire—a rosewood sideboard and a painting by Sir William Beechey. Restoration efforts began swiftly, and were completed five years later.

The present-day Windsor Castle is open to visitors year round.

Windsor, just a 35-minute train ride from London, is a popular tourist destination.

It's famous for its history, but it has also been the site of momentous royal weddings over the years, including some big ones in the past few decades: Meghan Markle and Prince Harry married at St George's Chapel in May 2018, and Princess Beatrice and Jack Brooksbank married there in October 2018. Queen Elizabeth's youngest son, Prince Edward, married Sophie Rhys-Jones at St George's Chapel in 1999, and Prince Charles and Camilla Parker Bowles had a civil ceremony at Guildhall in Windsor in 2005.

In addition, many British monarchs are buried at Windsor, including the late Queen Elizabeth. She is buried with her husband, her parents, and sister in Windsor Castle's King George VI Memorial Chapel in the Royal Vault.

8. The status of the English language

It originated in early medieval England and, today, is the most spoken language in the world and the third most spoken native language, after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish. English is the most widely learned second language and is either the official language or one of the official languages in 59 sovereign states.

Over 380 million people currently speak English as a first language, over 550 million use it as their second language, and approximately a billion people are learning it worldwide. From this analysis, the total population that can use English is over 1.5 billion as compared to 1.2 billion in China. Since the majority group uses English, a high number of populace tends to use it as a way of obtaining benefits from 1.5 billion. In non-English speaking nations, several legislators have made laws that protest against the continuous invasion of English in their countries, but their actions have not resulted to the control in the use of English since the pace at which people speak the language has intensified. The high numbers of learners and speakers prove the continuous dominance of English at present and in the future. Consequently, this continuous action will strengthen the use of English as a key language in the entire globe.

Additionally, English status in the world tends to be brighter, given that it is simple and flexible in its rules. The language has clear grammatical rules and is extremely simple to use. The simplicity is evident in the rules that govern the use of nouns, verbs, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs amongst others.

For example, it has borrowed words from different cultures and languages hence giving it an edge over other languages in adaptability in the global aspect. As a result, when one learns English, he/she becomes diverse in many cultures, thus keeping himself/herself updated with global events and developments.

Moreover, there is a huge immersion of the English culture in the life of many nations. For instance, a country like Poland has even filed a law prohibiting the use of English in some occasions to prevent wiping out of the local culture, but this move has been seen as a waste of time since over 75% of the online materials are written in English.

Attempts by governments to ban the use of English limit access to knowledge, as most people are enthusiastic about acquiring pieces of information that are in English. Some people also prefer speaking English to their native language.

Further, English has remained essential in the business sector, and with the expansion of markets beyond borders of countries, companies have to use English to reach out to many customers and potential employees.

Even though China urges her companies to use Chinese in conducting businesses to secure its language, the truth is that there are high numbers of consumers that speak and learn English in the whole world. Therefore, most of these companies need English to satisfy the needs of the customers and gain a competitive advantage over their competitors.

Conclusively, English proves to be the sole language that the whole world will continue to use in their daily activities. Therefore, there is full assurance on the future status of English in this globe.

9. Arts and culture of England Literature

In its literature, England arguably has attained its most influential cultural expression. For more than a millennium, each stage in the development of the English language has produced its masterworks.

Little is known of English literature before the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons, though echoes of England's Celtic past resound in Arthurian legend. Anglo-Saxon literature, written in the Old English language, is remarkably diverse. Its surviving corpus includes hymns, lyric poems such as "The Wanderer" and "The Seafarer," riddles and spells, songs, and the epic poem *Beowulf*, which dates from the 9th or 10th century. Following the Norman Conquest of 1066, French influence shaped the vocabulary as well as the literary preoccupations of Middle English. Geoffrey Chaucer epitomized both the courtly philosophical concerns and the earthy vernacular of this period in his *Troilus and Criseyde* and *The Canterbury Tales*, respectively, while William Langland's *Piers Plowman* was an early expression of the religious and political dissent that would later characterize English literature. The Elizabethan era of the late 16th century fostered the flowering of the European Renaissance in England and the golden age of English literature. The plays of William Shakespeare, while on their surface representing the culmination of Elizabethan English, achieve a depth of characterization and richness of invention that have fixed them in the dramatic repertoire of virtually every language. The publication of the King James Version of the Bible in 1611 infused the literature of the period with both religious imagery and a remarkably vigorous language, and it served as an important instrument for the spread of literacy throughout England. Political and religious conflicts of the 17th century provided a backdrop for a wealth of poetry, ranging from the metaphysical introspections of John Donne to the visionary epics of John Milton, in

addition to the prose allegory *Pilgrim's Progress* by John Bunyan.

The dichotomy of Classicism and Romanticism as well as of reason and imagination came to dominate the 18th century, with the Neoclassical satire and criticism of Alexander Pope, Jonathan Swift, and Samuel Johnson on the one hand and the somewhat later Romantic self-expression of William Blake, William Wordsworth, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, and John Keats on the other. Also during this period, the novel emerged as a form capable of bringing everyday life into the province of literature, as can be seen in the work of Jane Austen. At roughly this point, the distinctive regions of England began to exert a powerful influence on many writers—such as the Lake District on Wordsworth, the Yorkshire moors on the Brontë sisters (Anne, Charlotte, and Emily), Dorset on Thomas Hardy, the Midlands coalfields on D.H. Lawrence, and London on Charles Dickens. In the mid to late 19th century, English literature increasingly addressed social concerns, yielding the utopian writings of William Morris and Samuel Butler, the psychological analysis of George Eliot, the realistic novels of Elizabeth Gaskell, and the nationalistic stories and fables of Rudyard Kipling. Many writers also found a new audience in children, giving rise to work such as Lewis Carroll's *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* and generating later classics such as Kenneth Grahame's *The Wind in the Willows*, Beatrix Potter's Peter Rabbit stories, A.A. Milne's *Winnie-the-Pooh*, J.R.R. Tolkien's *The Hobbit*, and even, it can be argued, the late 20th-century work of J.K. Rowling.

English literature in the 20th century was remade by native writers such as Virginia Woolf. It also absorbed and transmuted alien elements, taking into the mainstream of its tradition poets as Irish as William Butler Yeats, as Welsh as Dylan Thomas, or as securely in the classic line as the American expatriates T.S. Eliot and Henry James. Popular novelists such as Agatha Christie, P.D. James, Dick Francis, and John Le Carré fed the English love for mysteries and police procedurals, while poets W.H. Auden, Ted Hughes, and Philip Larkin brought a new approach to questions of personal relationships, and novelists Anthony Burgess, Graham Greene, and Kingsley Amis dealt with moral ambiguities and modern dilemmas. Many others, including Iris Murdoch and Martin Amis, worked in a well-established comic or satiric vein. Immigration continued to diversify England's literary landscape, producing writers such as V.S. Naipaul, Salman Rushdie, and Kazuo Ishiguro.

Painting

Painting in England emerged under the auspices of the church. From the 8th to the 14th century the illumination of Gospel manuscripts developed from essentially abstract decoration derived from Celtic motifs to self-contained pictorial illustration more in keeping with the style of the European continent. In the 15th century, Italian innovations in perspective and composition began to appear in English work. The advent of printing during this period, however, rendered the labour-intensive illumination increasingly rare. English painting remained largely unaffected by the concerns of the Renaissance, and it was not until the 1630s, when Charles I employed the Flemish Baroque painters Peter Paul Rubens and Anthony Van Dyck in his court, that a broader artistic current reached England's shores. Even so, provincial themes and the genres of portrait and landscape continued to preoccupy English painters for the next 150 years.

The foundation of the Royal Academy of Arts in 1768 provided a focal point for the currents of Neoclassicism in English architecture, sculpture, and painting. Under the aegis of the academy, painters rendered historical and mythological subjects with a bold linear clarity. Just as the strictures of Neoclassicism developed partly in reaction to the excesses of the Baroque and Rococo, Romanticism emerged partly in defiance of academic formality. Classical antiquity, however, particularly in its ruined state, continued to provide themes and imagery. The works of the poet and painter William Blake epitomize the spiritual preoccupations of the period. Advances in science inspired a renewed artistic interest in the natural world. John Constable and J.M.W.

Turner anticipated the French Impressionist movement by more than half a century in their landscape paintings charged with light and atmosphere. The early Romantic fascination with biblical and medieval themes resurged in the mid 19th century among the so-called Pre-Raphaelite painters, who combined technical precision with explicit moral content.

Theatre

Theatre is probably the performing art for which England is best known. Theatrical performance as such emerged during the Middle Ages in the form of mumming plays, which borrowed elements from wandering entertainers, traditional and ancient folk agricultural rituals, and dances such as the Morris dance (with its set character parts). Under the influence of Christianity, mumming plays gradually were absorbed by mystery plays (centred on the Passion of Christ).

In the 16th century, when England's King Henry VIII rejected Rome and formed a national church, Latin theatrical traditions also were rejected; consequently, the Elizabethan and Jacobean ages forged a distinctive tradition and produced some extraordinary and highly influential playwrights, particularly Christopher Marlowe, Shakespeare, and Ben Jonson. A later influence on theatre in England was the rise in the 19th century of the actor-manager, the greatest being Henry Irving.

That England remains one of the foremost contributors to world theatre can be seen in its lively theatrical institutions, such as the Royal Shakespeare Company (1864; reorganized in 1961 by Peter Hall), the Royal National Theatre (1962), regional theatres such as the Bristol Old Vic, and the great number of theatres that flourish in London's celebrated West End district. Moreover, throughout the 20th century the works of English playwrights were much acclaimed: from Noël Coward's bittersweet plays of the 1930s to the "kitchen sink" dramas of the 1950s by the Angry Young Men, such as John Osborne, to the more recent contributions of Harold Pinter, Edward Bond, David Hare, Howard Brenton, Alan Ayckbourn, Tom Stoppard, and Caryl Churchill and the musical extravaganzas of Andrew Lloyd Webber. Similarly, English actors, many of them trained at the Royal Academy of Dramatic Art, continue to be among the world's best-known. Many are skilled dramatic actors, but just as many are comic. Honed on the stages in the music-hall tradition, English comedy – from the lowbrow humour of Benny Hill to the more cerebral work of Rowan Atkinson, Spike Milligan, Peter Sellers, and the Monty Python group – has been one of the country's most successful cultural exports.

Lecture 6.
Scotland

Plan

1. General characteristics
2. Geography and natural history
3. Geology and geomorphology
4. Climate
5. Demographics
6. Religion
7. Education
8. Politics and government
9. Diplomacy and relations
10. Constitutional changes
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12. Law and criminal justice
13. Currency
14. Culture and society
15. National identity
16. Cuisine
17. Sport

1. General characteristics

Scotland is a country that is part of the United Kingdom. Covering the northern third of the island of Great Britain, Scotland is the second-largest country in the United Kingdom, and accounted for 8% of the population in 2019. Scotland's only land border is a 96-mile (154-kilometre) border with England to the southeast and is otherwise surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean to the north and west, the North Sea to the northeast and east, and the Irish Sea to the south. Scotland is divided into 32 administrative subdivisions and contains more than 790 islands, principally in the archipelagos of the Hebrides and the Northern Isles. Most of the population, including the capital Edinburgh, is concentrated in the Central Belt – the plain between the Scottish Highlands and the Southern Uplands – in the Scottish Lowlands.

The Kingdom of Scotland emerged in the 9th century, from the merging of the Gaelic Kingdom of Dál Riata and the Kingdom of the Picts, and continued to exist as an independent sovereign state until 1707. In 1603, James VI inherited England and Ireland, forming a personal union of the three kingdoms. Scotland subsequently entered into a political union with the Kingdom of England on 1 May 1707 to create the new Kingdom of Great Britain, with the Parliament of Scotland subsumed into the Parliament of Great Britain. In 1999, a Scottish Parliament was re-established, in the form of a devolved unicameral legislature comprising 129 members, having authority over many areas of domestic policy. The head of the Scottish Government is the first minister. Scotland is represented in the United Kingdom Parliament by 59 members of parliament (MPs). Scotland is a member of the British-Irish Council, the

British-Irish Parliamentary Assembly and the Heads of Government Council.

Within Scotland, the monarchy has continued to use various styles, titles and other royal symbols of statehood specific to the pre-union Kingdom of Scotland. The legal system within Scotland has also remained separate from those of England and Wales and Northern Ireland; Scotland constitutes a distinct jurisdiction in both public and private law. The continued existence of legal, educational, religious and other institutions distinct from those in the remainder of the UK have all contributed to the continuation of Scottish culture and national identity since the 1707 incorporating union with England.

Scotland comes from *Scoti*, the Latin name for the Gaels. Philip Freeman has speculated on the likelihood of a group of raiders adopting a name from an Indo-European root, **skot*, citing the parallel in Greek *skotos* (σκότος), meaning "darkness, gloom". The Late Latin word *Scotia* ('land of the Gaels') was initially used to refer to Ireland, and likewise in early Old English *Scotland* was used for Ireland. By the 11th century at the latest, *Scotia* was being used to refer to (Gaelic-speaking) Scotland north of the River Forth, alongside *Albania* or *Albany*, both derived from the Gaelic *Alba*. The use of the words *Scots* and *Scotland* to encompass all of what is now Scotland became common in the Late Middle Ages.

2. Geography and natural history

The mainland of Scotland comprises the northern third of the land mass of the island of Great Britain, which lies off the north-west coast of Continental Europe. The total area is 30,414 square miles (78,772 km^2), comparable to the size of the Czech Republic. Scotland's only land border is with England, and runs for 96 miles (154 km) between the basin of the River Tweed on the east coast and the Solway Firth in the west. The Atlantic Ocean borders the west coast and the North Sea is to the east. The island of Ireland lies only 13 miles (21 km) from the south-western peninsula of Kintyre; Norway is 190 miles (305 km) to the east and the Faroe Islands, 168 miles (270 km) to the north.

The territorial extent of Scotland is generally that established by the 1237 Treaty of York between Scotland and the Kingdom of England and the 1266 Treaty of Perth between Scotland and Norway. Important exceptions include the Isle of Man, which having been lost to England in the 14th century is now a crown dependency outside of the United Kingdom; the island groups Orkney and Shetland, which were acquired from Norway in 1472; and Berwick-upon-Tweed, lost to England in 1482.

The geographical centre of Scotland lies a few miles from the village of Newtonmore in Badenoch. Rising to 1,344 metres (4,409 ft) above sea level, Scotland's highest point is the summit of Ben Nevis, in Lochaber, while Scotland's longest river, the River Tay, flows for a distance of 118 miles (190 km).

3. Geology and geomorphology

The whole of Scotland was covered by ice sheets during the Pleistocene ice ages and the landscape is much affected by glaciation. From a geological perspective, the country has three main sub-divisions.

The Highlands and Islands lie to the north and west of the Highland Boundary

Fault, which runs from Arran to Stonehaven. This part of Scotland largely comprises ancient rocks from the Cambrian and Precambrian, which were uplifted during the later Caledonian orogeny. It is interspersed with igneous intrusions of a more recent age, remnants of which formed mountain massifs such as the Cairngorms and Skye Cuillins. In north-eastern mainland Scotland weathering of rock that occurred before the Last Ice Age has shaped much of the landscape.

A significant exception to the above are the fossil-bearing beds of Old Red Sandstones found principally along the Moray Firth coast. The Highlands are generally mountainous and the highest elevations in the British Isles are found here. Scotland has over 790 islands divided into four main groups: Shetland, Orkney, and the Inner Hebrides and Outer Hebrides. There are numerous bodies of freshwater including Loch Lomond and Loch Ness. Some parts of the coastline consist of machair, a low-lying dune pasture land. The Central Lowlands is a rift valley mainly comprising Paleozoic formations. Many of these sediments have economic significance for it is here that the coal and iron bearing rocks that fuelled Scotland's industrial revolution are found. This area has also experienced intense volcanism, Arthur's Seat in Edinburgh being the remnant of a once much larger volcano. This area is relatively low-lying, although even here hills such as the Ochils and Campsie Fells are rarely far from view.

The Southern Uplands are a range of hills almost 125 miles (200 km) long, interspersed with broad valleys. They lie south of a second fault line (the Southern Uplands fault) that runs from Girvan to Dunbar. The geological foundations largely comprise Silurian deposits laid down some 400 to 500 million years ago. The high point of the Southern Uplands is Merrick with an elevation of 843 m (2,766 ft). The Southern Uplands is home to Scotland's highest village, Wanlockhead (430 m or 1,411 ft above sea level).

4. Climate

The climate of most of Scotland is temperate and oceanic, and tends to be very changeable. As it is warmed by the Gulf Stream from the Atlantic, it has much milder winters (but cooler, wetter summers) than areas on similar latitudes, such as Labrador, southern Scandinavia, the Moscow region in Russia, and the Kamchatka Peninsula on the opposite side of Eurasia. Temperatures are generally lower than in the rest of the UK, with the temperature of −27.2 °C (−17.0 °F) recorded at Braemar in the Grampian Mountains, on 11 February 1895, the coldest ever recorded anywhere in the UK. Winter maxima average 6 °C (43 °F) in the Lowlands, with summer maxima averaging 18 °C (64 °F). The highest temperature recorded was 35.1 °C (95.2 °F) at Floors Castle, Scottish Borders on 19 July 2022.

The west of Scotland is usually warmer than the east, owing to the influence of Atlantic ocean currents and the colder surface temperatures of the North Sea. Tiree, in the Inner Hebrides, is one of the sunniest places in the country: it had more than 300 hours of sunshine in May 1975. Rainfall varies widely across Scotland. The western highlands of Scotland are the wettest, with annual rainfall in a few places exceeding 3,000 mm (120 in). In comparison, much of lowland Scotland receives less than 800 mm (31 in) annually. Heavy snowfall is not common in the lowlands, but becomes

more common with altitude. Braemar has an average of 59 snow days per year, while many coastal areas average fewer than 10 days of lying snow per year.

5. Demographics Population

Scotland population cartogram. The size of councils is in proportion to their population.

The population of Scotland at the 2001 Census was 5,062,011. This rose to 5,295,400, the highest ever, at the 2011 Census. The most recent ONS estimate, for mid-2021, was 5,480,000.

In the 2011 Census, 62% of Scotland's population stated their national identity as 'Scottish only', 18% as 'Scottish and British', 8% as 'British only', and 4% chose 'other identity only'.

In August 2012, the Scottish population reached an all-time high of 5.25 million people. The reasons given were that, in Scotland, births were outnumbering the number of deaths, and immigrants were moving to Scotland from overseas. In 2011, 43,700 people moved from Wales, Northern Ireland or England to live in Scotland.

Mid-2020 Scottish Government estimates the population of Scotland to stand at 5,470,824 inhabitants. The most recent census in Scotland was conducted by the Scottish Government and the National Records of Scotland in March 2022.

Over the course of its history, Scotland has long had a tradition of migration from Scotland and immigration into Scotland. In 2021, the Scottish Government released figures showing that an estimated 41,000 people had immigrated from other international countries into Scotland, whilst an average of 22,100 people had migrated from Scotland. Scottish Government data from 2002 shows that by 2021, there had been a sharp increase in immigration to Scotland, with 2002 estimates standing at 27,800 immigrants. While immigration had increased from 2002, migration from Scotland had dropped, with 2002 estimates standing at 26,200 people migrating from Scotland.

Languages

Scotland has three officially recognised languages: English, Scots, and Scottish Gaelic. Scottish Standard English, a variety of English as spoken in Scotland, is at one end of a bipolar linguistic continuum, with broad Scots at the other. Scottish Standard English may have been influenced to varying degrees by Scots. The 2011 census indicated that 63% of the population had "no skills in Scots". Others speak Highland English. Gaelic is mostly spoken in the Western Isles, where a large proportion of people still speak it. Nationally, its use is confined to 1% of the population. The number of Gaelic speakers in Scotland dropped from 250,000 in 1881 to 60,000 in 2008.

Immigration since World War II has given Glasgow, Edinburgh, and Dundee small South Asian communities. In 2011, there were an estimated 49,000 ethnically Pakistani people living in Scotland, making them the largest non-White ethnic group. Since the enlargement of the European Union more people from Central and Eastern Europe have moved to Scotland, and the 2011 census indicated that 61,000 Poles live there.

There are many more people with Scottish ancestry living abroad than the total

population of Scotland. In the 2000 Census, 9.2 million Americans self-reported some degree of Scottish descent. Ulster's Protestant population is mainly of lowland Scottish descent, and it is estimated that there are more than 27 million descendants of the Scots-Irish migration now living in the US. In Canada, the Scottish-Canadian community accounts for 4.7 million people. About 20% of the original European settler population of New Zealand came from Scotland.

6. Religion

Forms of Christianity have dominated religious life in what is now Scotland for more than 1,400 years. In 2011 just over half (54%) of the Scottish population reported being a Christian while nearly 37% reported not having a religion. Since the Scottish Reformation of 1560, the national church (the Church of Scotland, also known as The Kirk) has been Protestant in classification and Reformed in theology. Since 1689 it has had a Presbyterian system of church government independent from the state. Its membership dropped just below 300,000 in 2020 (5% of the total population) The Church operates a territorial parish structure, with every community in Scotland having a local congregation.

Scotland also has a significant Roman Catholic population, 19% professing that faith, particularly in Greater Glasgow and the north-west. After the Reformation, Roman Catholicism in Scotland continued in the Highlands and some western islands like Uist and Barra, and it was strengthened during the 19th century by immigration from Ireland. Other Christian denominations in Scotland include the Free Church of Scotland, and various other Presbyterian offshoots. Scotland's third largest church is the Scottish Episcopal Church.

There are an estimated 75,000 Muslims in Scotland (about 1.4% of the population), and significant but smaller Jewish, Hindu and Sikh communities, especially in Glasgow. The Samyé Ling monastery near Eskdalemuir, which celebrated its 40th anniversary in 2007, is the first Buddhist monastery in western Europe.

7. Education

The Scottish education system has always had a characteristic emphasis on a broad education. In the 15th century, the Humanist emphasis on education cumulated with the passing of the Education Act 1496, which decreed that all sons of barons and freeholders of substance should attend grammar schools to learn "perfyct Latyne", resulting in an increase in literacy among a male and wealthy elite. In the Reformation, the 1560 *First Book of Discipline* set out a plan for a school in every parish, but this proved financially impossible. In 1616 an act in Privy council commanded every parish to establish a school. By the late seventeenth century there was a largely complete network of parish schools in the lowlands, but in the Highlands basic education was still lacking in many areas. Education remained a matter for the church rather than the state until the Education (Scotland) Act 1872.

Education in Scotland is the responsibility of the Scottish Government and is overseen by its executive agency Education Scotland. The *Curriculum for Excellence*, Scotland's national school curriculum, presently provides the curricular framework for

children and young people from age 3 to 18. All 3- and 4-year-old children in Scotland are entitled to a free nursery place. Formal primary education begins at approximately 5 years old and lasts for 7 years (P1-P7); children in Scotland study National Qualifications of the Curriculum for Excellence between the ages of 14 and 18. The school leaving age is 16, after which students may choose to remain at school and study further qualifications. A small number of students at certain private schools may follow the English system and study towards GCSEs and A and AS-Levels instead.

There are fifteen Scottish universities, some of which are amongst the oldest in the world. The four universities founded before the end of the 16th century – the University of St Andrews, the University of Glasgow, the University of Aberdeen and the University of Edinburgh – are collectively known as the ancient universities of Scotland, all of which rank among the 200 best universities in the world in the THE rankings, with Edinburgh placing in the top 50. Scotland had more universities per capita in QS' World University Rankings' top 100 in 2012 than any other nation. The country produces 1% of the world's published research with less than 0.1% of the world's population, and higher education institutions account for 9% of Scotland's service sector exports. Scotland's University Courts are the only bodies in Scotland authorised to award degrees.

8. Politics and government

Scotland is part of the United Kingdom, a constitutional monarchy whose current sovereign is Charles III. The monarchy uses a variety of styles, titles and other symbols specific to Scotland, most of which originated in the pre-Union Kingdom of Scotland. These include the Royal Standard of Scotland, the royal coat of arms, and the title Duke of Rothesay, which is traditionally given to the heir apparent. There are also distinct Scottish Officers of State and Officers of the Crown, and the Order of the Thistle, a chivalric order, is specific to the country.

The Parliament of the United Kingdom and the Parliament of Scotland are the country's primary legislative bodies. The UK Parliament is sovereign and therefore has supremacy over the Scottish Parliament, but generally restricts itself to legislating over reserved matters: primarily taxes, social security, defence, international relations, and broadcasting. There is a convention the UK Parliament will not legislate over devolved matters without the Scottish Parliament's consent. Scotland is represented in the House of Commons, the lower chamber of the UK Parliament, by 59 Members of Parliament (out of a total of 650). They are elected to single-member constituencies under the first-past-the-post system of voting. The Scotland Office represents the British government in Scotland and represents Scottish interests within the government. The Scotland Office is led by the Secretary of State for Scotland, who sits in the Cabinet of the United Kingdom. The Conservative MP Alister Jack has held the position since July 2019.

The Scottish Parliament is a unicameral legislature with 129 members (MSPs): 73 of them represent individual constituencies and are elected on a first-past-the-post system, and the other 56 are elected in eight different electoral regions by the additional member system. MSPs normally serve for a five-year period. The largest party since the 2021 Scottish Parliament election, has been the Scottish National Party (SNP), which won 64

of the 129 seats. The Scottish Conservatives, Scottish Labour, the Scottish Liberal Democrats and the Scottish Greens also have representation in the current Parliament. The next Scottish Parliament election is due to be held on 7 May 2026. The Scottish Government is led by the First Minister, who is nominated by MSPs and is typically the leader of the largest party in the Parliament. Other ministers are appointed by the first minister and serve at their discretion. Since March 2023 the first minister has been Humza Yousaf, the leader of the SNP.

Diplomacy and relations

Whilst foreign policy remains a reserved matter, the Scottish Government may promote the economy and Scottish interests on the world stage and encourage foreign businesses, international devolved, regional and central governments to invest in Scotland. Whilst the first minister usually undertakes a number of international visits to promote Scotland, international relations, European and Commonwealth relations are also included within the portfolios of the Cabinet Secretary for Culture, Tourism and External Affairs (responsible for international development) and the Minister for International Development and Europe (responsible for European Union relations and international relations). Overall, accountability for intergovernmental relations is the responsibility of the First Minister. The First Minister is a member of the Heads of Government Council ("The Council") (previously the Joint Ministerial Committee). Other cabinet secretaries and junior ministers within the Scottish Government participate in tier two (the Inter-ministerial Standing Committee) and tier 3 (the Inter-ministerial Group) of The Council which may include areas including education, finance and economy, investment and trade and rural affairs.

Whilst an independent sovereign nation, Scotland had a close "special relationship" with France (known then as the Kingdom of France). In 1295, Scotland and France signed what became known as the Auld Alliance in Paris, which acted as a military and diplomatic alliance between English invasion and expansion. The French military sought the assistance of Scotland in 1415 during the Battle of Agincourt which was close to bringing the Kingdom of France to collapse. It is argued that the Auld Alliance was never formally ended by either Scotland or France, meaning many elements of the treaty may remain in place today. Scotland and France continue to have a special relationship, with a Statement of Intent being signed in 2013 between the Scottish Government and the Government of France.

First Minister Jack McConnell and the then Scottish Executive pioneered the way forward to launch what would become the Scotland Malawi Partnership which co-ordinates Scottish activities to strengthen existing links with Malawi. During McConnell's time as first minister, several relations with Scotland, including Scottish and Russian relations strengthened following a visit by President of Russia Vladimir Putin to Edinburgh. McConnell, speaking at the end, highlighted that the visit by Putin was a "post-devolution" step towards "Scotland regaining its international identity". During an official visit to the Republic of Ireland in 2016, Sturgeon became the first head of government to address the Seanad Éireann, the upper house of the Oireachtas (the Irish parliament). Scotland has forged international relations in a number of countries and territories such as the United States, Canada, China, Hong

Kong, Germany, France, Iceland, Denmark and India.

Scotland has historical and cultural ties with northern countries outside the British Isles, such as the countries of Scandinavia. Scottish Government policy advocates for stronger political relations with the Nordic and Baltic countries, which has resulted in some Nordic-inspired policies being adopted such as baby boxes. There have been calls for Scotland to be granted permanent member status of the Nordic Council. Representatives from the Scottish Parliament attended the Nordic Council for the first time in 2022.

9. Constitutional changes

A policy of devolution had been advocated by the three main British political parties with varying enthusiasm during recent history. A previous Labour leader, John Smith, described the revival of a Scottish parliament as the "settled will of the Scottish people". The devolved Scottish Parliament was created after a referendum in 1997 found majority support for both creating the Parliament and granting it limited powers to vary income tax.

The Scottish National Party (SNP), which supports Scottish independence, was first elected to form the Scottish Government in 2007. The new government established a "National Conversation" on constitutional issues, proposing a number of options such as increasing the powers of the Scottish Parliament, federalism, or a referendum on Scottish independence from the United Kingdom. In rejecting the last option, the three main opposition parties in the Scottish Parliament created a commission to investigate the distribution of powers between devolved Scottish and UK-wide bodies. The Scotland Act 2012, based on proposals by the commission, was subsequently enacted devolving additional powers to the Scottish Parliament.

In August 2009 the SNP proposed a bill to hold a referendum on independence in November 2010. Opposition from all other major parties led to an expected defeat. After the 2011 Scottish Parliament election gave the SNP an overall majority in the Scottish Parliament, the 2014 Scottish independence referendum was held on 18 September. The referendum resulted in a rejection of independence, by 55.3% to 44.7%. During the campaign, the three main parties in the British Parliament pledged to extend the powers of the Scottish Parliament. An all-party commission chaired by Robert Smith, Baron Smith of Kelvin was formed, which led to a further devolution of powers through the Scotland Act 2016.

Following the European Union Referendum Act 2015, the 2016 United Kingdom European Union membership referendum was held on 23 June 2016 on Britain's membership of the European Union. A majority in the United Kingdom voted to withdraw from the EU, whilst a majority within Scotland voted to remain a member. The first minister, Nicola Sturgeon, announced the following day that as a result a new independence referendum was "highly likely". On 31 January 2020, the United Kingdom formally withdrew from the European Union. Because constitutional affairs are reserved matters under the Scotland Act, the Scottish Parliament would again have to be granted temporary additional powers under Section 30 in order to hold a legally binding vote.

10. Administrative subdivisions

Historical subdivisions of Scotland included the mormaerdom, stalwartly, earldom, burgh, parish, county and regions and districts. Some of these names are still sometimes used as geographical descriptors.

Modern Scotland is subdivided in various ways depending on the purpose. In local government, there have been 32 single-tier council areas since 1996, whose councils are responsible for the provision of all local government services. Decisions are made by councilors who are elected at local elections every five years. The head of each council is usually the Lord Provost alongside the Leader of the council, with a Chief Executive being appointed as director of the council area. Community Councils are informal organisations that represent specific sub-divisions within each council area.

In the Scottish Parliament, there are 73 constituencies and eight regions. For the Parliament of the United Kingdom, there are 59 constituencies. Until 2013, the Scottish fire brigades and police forces were based on a system of regions introduced in 1975. For healthcare and postal districts, and a number of other governmental and non-governmental organisations such as the churches, there are other long-standing methods of subdividing Scotland for the purposes of administration.

City status in the United Kingdom is conferred by letters patent. There are eight cities in Scotland: Aberdeen, Dunfermline, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Inverness, Stirling and Perth.

11. Law and criminal justice

Scots law has a basis derived from Roman law, combining features of both uncodified civil law, dating back to the *Corpus Juris Civilis*, and common law with medieval sources. The terms of the Treaty of Union with England in 1707 guaranteed the continued existence of a separate legal system in Scotland from that of England and Wales. Prior to 1611, there were several regional law systems in Scotland, most notably Udal law in Orkney and Shetland, based on old Norse law. Various other systems derived from common Celtic or Brehon laws survived in the Highlands until the 1800s. Scots law provides for three types of courts responsible for the administration of justice: civil, criminal and heraldic. The supreme civil court is the Court of Session, although civil appeals can be taken to the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom (or before 1 October 2009, the House of Lords). The High Court of Justiciary is the supreme criminal court in Scotland. The Court of Session is housed at Parliament House, in Edinburgh, which was the home of the pre-Union Parliament of Scotland with the High Court of Justiciary and the Supreme Court of Appeal currently located at the Lawnmarket. The sheriff court is the main criminal and civil court, hearing most cases. There are 49 sheriff courts throughout the country. District courts were introduced in 1975 for minor offences and small claims. These were gradually replaced by Justice of the Peace Courts from 2008 to 2010. The Court of the Lord Lyon regulates heraldry.

For three centuries the Scots legal system was unique for being the only national legal system without a parliament. This ended with the advent of the Scottish

Parliament in 1999, which legislates for Scotland. Many features within the system have been preserved. Within criminal law, the Scots legal system is unique in having three possible verdicts: "guilty", "not guilty" and "*not proven*". Both "not guilty" and "not proven" result in an acquittal, typically with no possibility of retrial in accordance with the rule of double jeopardy. A retrial can hear new evidence at a later date that might have proven conclusive in the earlier trial at first instance, where the person acquitted subsequently admits the offence or where it can be proved that the acquittal was tainted by an attempt to pervert the course of justice. Scots juries, sitting in criminal cases, consist of fifteen jurors, which is three more than is typical in many countries.

The Lord Advocate is the chief legal officer of the Scottish Government and the Crown in Scotland. The Lord Advocate is the head of the systems in Scotland for the investigation and prosecution of crime, the investigation of deaths as well as serving as the principal legal adviser to the Scottish Government and representing the government in legal proceedings. They are the chief public prosecutor for Scotland and all prosecutions on indictment are conducted by the Crown Office and Procurator Fiscal Service in the Lord Advocate's name on behalf of the Monarch. The officeholder is one of the Great Officers of State of Scotland. The current Lord Advocate is Dorothy Bain, who was nominated by First Minister Nicola Sturgeon and appointed in June 2021. The Lord Advocate is supported by the Solicitor General for Scotland.

The Scottish Prison Service (SPS) manages the prisons in Scotland, which collectively house over 8,500 prisoners. The Cabinet Secretary for Justice is responsible for the Scottish Prison Service within the Scottish Government.

12. Currency

Although the Bank of England is the central bank for the UK, three Scottish clearing banks issue Sterling banknotes: the Bank of Scotland, the Royal Bank of Scotland and the Clydesdale Bank. The issuing of banknotes by retail banks in Scotland is subject to the Banking Act 2009, which repealed all earlier legislation under which banknote issuance was regulated, and the Scottish and Northern Ireland Banknote Regulations 2009.

The value of the Scottish banknotes in circulation in 2013 was £3.8 billion, underwritten by the Bank of England using funds deposited by each clearing bank, under the Banking Act 2009, in order to cover the total value of such notes in circulation.

13. Culture and society Scottish music

Robert Burns, regarded as the national poet of Scotland is a well known and respected poet worldwide (left). The bagpipes are a well-known symbol of Scotland and an early example of popular Scottish music (right).

Scottish music is a significant aspect of the nation's culture, with both traditional and modern influences. A famous traditional Scottish instrument is the Great Highland bagpipe, a woodwind reed instrument consisting of three drones and a melody pipe (called the chanter), which are fed continuously by a reservoir of air in a bag. The popularity of pipe bands – primarily featuring bagpipes, various types of snares and

drums, and showcasing Scottish traditional dress and music—has spread throughout the world. Bagpipes are featured in holiday celebrations, parades, funerals, weddings, and other events internationally. Many military regiments have a pipe band of their own. In addition to the Great Highland pipes, several smaller, somewhat quieter bellows-blown varieties of bagpipe are played in Scotland, including the small pipes and the Border pipes.

Scottish popular music has gained an international following, with artists such as Lewis Capaldi, Amy Macdonald, KT Tunstall, Nina Nesbitt, Chvrches, Gerry Cinnamon and Paolo Nutini gaining international success. DJ Calvin Harris was one of the most streamed artists on Spotify in 2023. Musical talent in Scotland is recognised via the Scottish Music Awards, Scottish Album of the Year Award, the Scots Trad Music Awards and the BBC Radio Scotland Young Traditional Musician award.

Literature and media

Scotland has a literary heritage dating back to the early Middle Ages. The earliest extant literature composed in what is now Scotland was in Brythonic speech in the 6th century, but is preserved as part of Welsh literature. Later medieval literature included works in Latin, Gaelic, Old English and French. The first surviving major text in Early Scots is the 14th-century poet John Barbour's epic *Brus*, focusing on the life of Robert I, and was soon followed by a series of vernacular romances and prose works. In the 16th century, the crown's patronage helped the development of Scots drama and poetry, but the accession of James VI to the English throne removed a major centre of literary patronage and Scots was sidelined as a literary language. Interest in Scots literature was revived in the 18th century by figures including James Macpherson, whose Ossian Cycle made him the first Scottish poet to gain an international reputation and was a major influence on the European Enlightenment. It was also a major influence on Robert Burns, whom many consider the national poet, and Walter Scott, whose Waverley Novels did much to define Scottish identity in the 19th century. Towards the end of the Victorian era a number of Scottish-born authors achieved international reputations as writers in English, including Robert Louis Stevenson, Arthur Conan Doyle, J. M. Barrie and George MacDonald.

In the 20th century the Scottish Renaissance saw a surge of literary activity and attempts to reclaim the Scots language as a medium for serious literature. Members of the movement were followed by a new generation of post-war poets including Edwin Morgan, who would be appointed the first Scots Makar by the inaugural Scottish government in 2004. From the 1980s Scottish literature enjoyed another major revival, particularly associated with a group of writers including Irvine Welsh. Scottish poets who emerged in the same period included Carol Ann Duffy, who, in May 2009, was the first Scot named the monarch's Poet Laureate.

National newspapers such as the *Daily Record*, *The Herald*, *The Scotsman* and *The National* are all produced in Scotland. Important regional dailies include the Evening News in Edinburgh, *The Courier* in Dundee in the east, and *The Press and Journal* serving Aberdeen and the north. Scotland is represented at the Celtic Media Festival, which showcases film and television from the Celtic countries. Scottish entrants have won many awards since the festival began in 1980.

Scotland's national broadcaster is BBC Scotland, a division of the BBC, which runs three national television stations BBC One Scotland, BBC Scotland channel and the Gaelic-language broadcaster BBC Alba, and the national radio stations, *BBC Radio Scotland* and *BBC Radio nan Gàidheal*, amongst others. The main Scottish commercial television station is STV which broadcasts on two of the three ITV regions of Scotland.

14. National identity

The image of St. Andrew, martyred while bound to an X-shaped cross, first appeared in the Kingdom of Scotland during the reign of William I. Following the death of King Alexander III in 1286 an image of Andrew was used on the seal of the Guardians of Scotland who assumed control of the kingdom during the subsequent interregnum. Use of a simplified symbol associated with Saint Andrew, the saltire, has its origins in the late 14th century; the Parliament of Scotland decreeing in 1385 that Scottish soldiers should wear a white Saint Andrew's Cross on the front and back of their tunics. Use of a blue background for the Saint Andrew's Cross is said to date from at least the 15th century. Since 1606 the saltire has also formed part of the design of the Union Flag. There are numerous other symbols and symbolic artefacts, both official and unofficial, including the thistle, the nation's floral emblem (celebrated in the song, The Thistle o' Scotland), the Declaration of Arbroath, incorporating a statement of political independence made on 6 April 1320, the textile pattern tartan that often signifies a particular Scottish clan and the royal Lion Rampant flag. Highlanders can thank James Graham, 3rd Duke of Montrose, for the repeal in 1782 of the Act of 1747 prohibiting the wearing of tartans.

Although there is no official national anthem of Scotland, *Flower of Scotland* is played on special occasions and sporting events such as football and rugby matches involving the Scotland national teams and since 2010 is also played at the Commonwealth Games after it was voted the overwhelming favourite by participating Scottish athletes. Other currently less popular candidates for the National Anthem of Scotland include *Scotland the Brave*, *Highland Cathedral*, *Scots Wha Hae* and *A Man's A Man for A' That*.

St Andrew's Day, 30 November, is the national day, although Burns' Night tends to be more widely observed, particularly outside Scotland. In 2006, the Scottish Parliament passed the St Andrew's Day Bank Holiday (Scotland) Act 2007, designating the day an official bank holiday. Tartan Day is a recent innovation from Canada.

The national animal of Scotland is the unicorn, which has been a Scottish heraldic symbol since the 12th century.

15. Cuisine

Scottish cuisine has distinctive attributes and recipes of its own but shares much with wider British and European cuisine as a result of local and foreign influences, both ancient and modern. Traditional Scottish dishes exist alongside international foodstuffs brought about by migration. Scotland's natural larder of game, dairy products, fish, fruit, and vegetables is the chief factor in traditional Scots cooking, with

a high reliance on simplicity and a lack of spices from abroad, as these were historically rare and expensive.

Irn-Bru is the most common Scottish carbonated soft drink, often described as "Scotland's other national drink" (after whisky). During the Late Middle Ages and early modern era, French cuisine played a role in Scottish cookery due to cultural exchanges brought about by the "Auld Alliance", especially during the reign of Mary, Queen of Scots. Mary, on her return to Scotland, brought an entourage of French staff who are considered responsible for revolutionising Scots cooking and for some of Scotland's unique food terminology.

Lecture 7.
Wales

Plan

1. General characteristics
2. Etymology
3. National symbols and identity
4. Geography and natural history
5. Language
6. Religion
7. Government and law
8. Education
9. Arts and culture

1. General characteristics

Wales (Welsh: *Cymru* [ˈkəm.ɾɨ]) is a country that is part of the United Kingdom. It is bordered by England to the east, the Irish Sea to the north and west, the Celtic Sea to the southwest and the Bristol Channel to the south. As of the 2021 census, it had a population of 3,107,494. It has a total area of 21,218 km^2 (8,192 sq mi) and over 1,680 miles (2,700 km) of coastline. It is largely mountainous with its higher peaks in the north and central areas, including Snowdon (*Yr Wyddfa*), its highest summit. The country lies within the north temperate zone and has a changeable, maritime climate. The capital and largest city is Cardiff.

Welsh national identity emerged among the Celtic Britons after the Roman withdrawal from Britain in the 5th century, and Wales was formed as a kingdom under Gruffydd ap Llywelyn in 1055. Wales is regarded as one of the Celtic nations. After over 200 years of war, the conquest of Wales by King Edward I of England was completed by 1283, though Owain Glyndŵr led the Welsh Revolt against English rule in the early 15th century, and briefly re-established an independent Welsh state with its own national parliament (Welsh: *senedd*). In the 16th century the whole of Wales was annexed by England and incorporated within the English legal system under the Laws in Wales Acts 1535 and 1542. Distinctive Welsh politics developed in the 19th century. Welsh Liberalism, exemplified in the early 20th century by David Lloyd George, was displaced by the growth of socialism and the

Labour Party. Welsh national feeling grew over the century: a nationalist party, Plaid Cymru, was formed in 1925, and the Welsh Language Society in 1962. A governing system of Welsh devolution is employed in Wales, of which the most major step was the formation of the Senedd (Welsh Parliament, formerly the National Assembly for Wales) in 1998, responsible for a range of devolved policy matters.

At the dawn of the Industrial Revolution, development of the mining and metallurgical industries transformed the country from an agricultural society into an industrial one; the South Wales Coalfield's exploitation caused a rapid expansion of Wales's population. Two-thirds of the population live in South Wales, including Cardiff, Swansea, Newport and the nearby valleys. The eastern region of North Wales has about a sixth of the overall population, with Wrexham being the largest northern city. The remaining parts of Wales are sparsely populated. Now that the country's traditional extractive and heavy industries have gone or are in decline, the economy is based on the public sector, light and service industries, and tourism. Agriculture in Wales is largely livestock based, making Wales a net exporter of animal produce, contributing towards national agricultural self-sufficiency. The country has a distinct national and cultural identity and from the late 19th century onwards Wales acquired its popular image as the "land of song", in part due to the *eisteddfod* tradition and rousing choir singing. Both Welsh and English are official languages. A majority of the population in most areas speaks English whilst a majority of the population in parts of the north and west speak Welsh, with a total of 538,300 Welsh speakers across the whole country.

2. Etymology

The English words "Wales" and "Welsh" derive from the same Old English root (singular *Wealh*, plural *Wēalas*), a descendant of Proto-Germanic **Walhaz*, which was itself derived from the name of the Gauls known to the Romans as Volcae. This term was later used to refer indiscriminately to inhabitants of the Western Roman Empire.[13] Anglo-Saxons came to use the term to refer to the Britons in particular; the plural form *Wēalas* evolved into the name for their territory, Wales. Historically in Britain, the words were not restricted to modern Wales or to the Welsh but were used to refer to anything that Anglo-Saxons associated with Britons, including other non-Germanic territories in Britain (e.g. Cornwall) and places in Anglo-Saxon territory associated with Britons (e.g. Walworth in County Durham and Walton in West Yorkshire).

The modern Welsh name for themselves is *Cymry*, and *Cymru* is the Welsh name for Wales. These words (both of which are pronounced [ˈkəm.rɨ]) are descended from the Brythonic word *combrogi*, meaning "fellow-countrymen", and probably came into use before the 7th century. In literature, they could be spelt *Kymry* or *Cymry*, regardless of whether it referred to the people or their homeland. The Latinised forms of these names, *Cambrian*, *Cambric* and *Cambria*, survive as names such as the Cambrian Mountains and the Cambrian geological period.

3. National symbols and identity

The red dragon, a popular symbol in Wales.

Wales is regarded as a modern Celtic nation which contributes to its national identity, with Welsh artists regularly appearing at Celtic festivals. The red dragon is the principal symbol of national identity and pride, personifying the fearlessness of the Welsh nation.

The dragon is first referenced in literature as a symbol of the people in the Historia Brittonum. Vortigern (Welsh: *Gwrtheyrn*), King of the Celtic Britons, is interrupted whilst attempting to build a fort at Dinas Emrys. He is told by Ambrosius to dig up two dragons beneath the castle. He discovers a red dragon representing the Celtic Britons, and a white dragon representing Anglo-Saxons. Ambrosius prophesies that the Celtic Britons will reclaim the island and push the Anglo-Saxons back to the sea.

As an emblem, the red dragon of Wales has been used since the reign of Cadwaladr, King of Gwynedd from around 655AD, and is present on the national flag of Wales, which became an official flag in 1959. The banner of Owain Glyndŵr is associated with Welsh nationhood; it was carried into battle by Welsh forces during Glyndŵr's battles against the English, and includes four lions on red and gold. The standard is similar to the arms of Llywelyn ap Gruffudd (Llywelyn the Last), the last Prince of Wales before the conquest of Wales by Edward I of England. The design may also be influenced by the arms of Glyndwr's parents, both of whom had lions in their arms. Owain Glyndŵr Day is celebrated on 16 September in Wales and there have been calls to make it a national bank holiday. The Prince of Wales's feathers is also used in Wales: it consists of three white feathers emerging from a gold coronet, and the German motto *Ich dien* (I serve). Several Welsh representative teams, including the Welsh rugby union, and Welsh regiments in the British Army, including the Royal Welsh, use the badge or a stylised version of it.

On 1 March, Welsh people celebrate St David's day, commemorating the death of the country's patron saint in 589. It is not a recognised Bank holiday although there have been calls to make it so. The day is celebrated by schools and cultural societies across Wales, and customs include the wearing of a leek or a daffodil, which are two national emblems of Wales. Children also wear the national costume. The origins of the leek can be traced to the 16th century, while the daffodil became popular in the 19th century, encouraged by David Lloyd George. This is attributed to confusion (or association) between the Welsh for leek, *cenhinen*, and that for daffodil, *cenhinen Bedr* or St. Peter's leek. A report in 1916 gave preference to the leek, which has appeared on British pound coins.[321] Other Welsh festivals include Mabsant when parishes would celebrate the patron saint of their local church, although this is now rarely observed,[322] and a more modern celebration, Dydd Santes Dwynwen (St Dwynwen's Day), observed on 25 January in a similar way to St Valentine's Day.

"Hen Wlad Fy Nhadau" (English: Land of My Fathers) is the National Anthem of Wales, and is played at events such as football or rugby matches involving the Wales national team, as well as the opening of the Senedd and other official occasions. "*Cymru am byth*" ("Wales forever") is a popular Welsh motto. Another Welsh motto "Y Ddraig Goch Ddyry Cychwyn" ("the red dragon inspires action") has been used on the Royal Badge of Wales when it was created in 1953.

4. Geography and natural history

Wales is a generally mountainous country on the western side of central southern Great Britain. It is about 170 miles (270 km) north to south. The oft-quoted "size of Wales" is about 20,779 km^2 (8,023 sq mi). Wales is bordered by England to the east and by sea in all other directions: the Irish Sea to the north and west, St George's Channel and the Celtic Sea to the southwest and the Bristol Channel to the south.[140][141] Wales has about 1,680 miles (2,700 km) of coastline (along the mean high water mark), including the mainland, Anglesey and Holyhead. Over 50 islands lie off the Welsh mainland, the largest being Anglesey, in the north-west.

Much of Wales's diverse landscape is mountainous, particularly in the north and central regions. The mountains were shaped during the last ice age, the Devensian glaciation. The highest mountains in Wales are in Snowdonia (*Eryri*), of which five are over 1,000 m (3,300 ft). The highest of these is Snowdon (*Yr Wyddfa*), at 1,085 m (3,560 ft). The 14 Welsh mountains, or 15 if including Carnedd Gwenllian – often discounted because of its low topographic prominence – over 3,000 feet (910 metres) high are known collectively as the Welsh 3000s and are located in a small area in the north-west.[The highest outside the 3000s is Aran Fawddwy, at 905 metres (2,969 feet), in the south of Snowdonia. The Brecon Beacons (*Bannau Brycheiniog*) are in the south (highest point Pen y Fan, at 886 metres (2,907 feet)), and are joined by the Cambrian Mountains in Mid Wales (highest point Pumlumon, at 752 metres (2,467 feet)).

Wales has three national parks: Snowdonia, Brecon Beacons, and Pembrokeshire Coast (*Arfordir Penfro*). It has five Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty: Anglesey, the Clwydian Range and Dee Valley, the Gower Peninsula, the Llŷn Peninsula, and the Wye Valley. The Gower Peninsula was the first area in the United Kingdom to be designated as an Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty, in 1956. As of 2019, the coastline of Wales had 40 Blue Flag beaches, three Blue Flag marinas and one Blue Flag boat operator. Despite its heritage and award-winning beaches, the south and west coasts of Wales, along with the Irish and Cornish coasts, are frequently blasted by Atlantic westerlies/south-westerlies that, over the years, have sunk and wrecked many vessels. In 1859 over 110 ships were destroyed off the coast of Wales in a hurricane that saw more than 800 lives lost across Britain. The greatest single loss occurred with the sinking of the *Royal Charter* off Anglesey in which 459 people died.[153] The 19th century saw over 100 vessels lost with an average loss of 78 sailors per year. Wartime action caused losses near Holyhead, Milford Haven and Swansea. Because of offshore rocks and unlit islands, Anglesey and Pembrokeshire are still notorious for shipwrecks, most notably the *Sea Empress* oil spill in 1996.

The first border between Wales and England was zonal, apart from around the River Wye, which was the first accepted boundary. Offa's Dyke was supposed to form an early distinct line but this was thwarted by Gruffudd ap Llewellyn, who reclaimed swathes of land beyond the dyke. The Act of Union of 1536 formed a linear border stretching from the mouth of the Dee to the mouth of the Wye. Even after the Act of Union, many of the borders remained vague and moveable until the Welsh Sunday Closing act of 1881, which forced local businesses to decide which country they fell

within to accept either the Welsh or English law.

Geology

The earliest geological period of the Palaeozoic era, the Cambrian, takes its name from the Cambrian Mountains, where geologists first identified Cambrian remnants. In the mid-19th century, Roderick Murchison and Adam Sedgwick used their studies of Welsh geology to establish certain principles of stratigraphy and palaeontology. The next two periods of the Palaeozoic era, the Ordovician and Silurian, were named after ancient Celtic tribes from this area.

Climate

A Red kite, considered one of the national symbols of Wales and voted the nation's favourite bird.

Wales lies within the north temperate zone. It has a changeable, maritime climate and is one of the wettest countries in Europe. Welsh weather is often cloudy, wet and windy, with warm summers and mild winters.

- Highest maximum temperature: 37.1 °C (99 °F) at Hawarden, Flintshire on 18 July 2022.
- Lowest minimum temperature: −23.3 °C (−10 °F) at Rhayader, Radnorshire (now Powys) on 21 January 1940.
- Maximum number of hours of sunshine in a month: 354.3 hours at Dale Fort, Pembrokeshire in July 1955.
- Minimum number of hours of sunshine in a month: 2.7 hours at Llwynon, Brecknockshire in January 1962.
- Maximum rainfall in a day (0900 UTC − 0900 UTC): 211 millimetres (8.3 in) at Rhondda, Glamorgan, on 11 November 1929.
- Wettest spot – an average of 4,473 millimetres (176 in) rain a year at Crib Goch in Snowdonia, Gwynedd (making it also the wettest spot in the United Kingdom).

5. Language

Welsh is an official language in Wales as legislated by the Welsh Language (Wales) Measure 2011. Both Welsh and English are also official languages of the Senedd. The proportion of the Welsh population able to speak the Welsh language fell from just under 50 per cent in 1901 to 43.5 per cent in 1911, and continued to fall to a low of 18.9 per cent in 1981. The results of the 2001 Census showed an increase in the number of Welsh speakers to 21 per cent of the population aged 3 and older, compared with 18.7 per cent in 1991 and 19 per cent in 1981. This compares with a pattern of steady decline indicated by census results during the 20th century. In the 2011 census it was recorded that the proportion of people able to speak Welsh had dropped from 20.8 per cent to 19 per cent (still higher than 1991). Despite an increase in the overall size of the Welsh population this still meant that the number of Welsh speakers in Wales dropped from 582,000 in 2001 to 562,000 in 2011. However this figure was still much higher than 508,000 or 18.7 per cent of people who said they could speak Welsh in the 1991 census.

According to the 2021 census, the Welsh-speaking population of Wales aged

three or older was 17.8 per cent (538,300 people) and nearly three quarters of the population in Wales said they had no Welsh language skills. Other estimates suggest that 29.7 per cent (899,500) of people aged three or older in Wales could speak Welsh in June 2022.

English is spoken by almost all people in Wales and is the main language in most of the country. Code-switching is common in all parts of Wales and is known by various terms, though none is recognised by professional linguists. "Wenglish" is the Welsh English language dialect. It has been influenced significantly by Welsh grammar and includes words derived from Welsh. Northern and western Wales retain many areas where Welsh is spoken as a first language by the majority of the population, and English learnt as a second language. Although monoglotism in young children continues, life-long monoglotism in Welsh no longer occurs.

Since Poland joined the European Union, Wales has seen a significant increase in Polish immigrants. This has made Polish the most common main language in Wales after English or Welsh, at 0.7 per cent of the population.

6. Religion

Forms of Christianity have dominated religious life in what is now the Wales for more than 1,400 years. The 2021 census recorded 46.5 per cent had "No religion", more than any single religious affiliation and up from 32.1 per cent in 2011. The largest religion in Wales is Christianity, with 43.6 per cent of the population describing themselves as Christian in the 2021 census. The patron saint of Wales is Saint David (*Dewi Sant*), with Saint David's Day (*Dydd Gŵyl Dewi Sant*) celebrated annually on 1 March. The early 20th century saw a religious revival, the 1904–1905 Welsh Revival, which started through the evangelism of Evan Roberts and brought large numbers of converts, sometimes whole communities, to non-Anglican Christianity.

The Church in Wales with 56,000 adherents has the largest attendance of the denominations. It is a province of the Anglican Communion, and was part of the Church of England until disestablishment in 1920 under the Welsh Church Act 1914. The first Independent Church in Wales was founded at Llanvaches in 1638 by William Wroth. The Presbyterian Church of Wales was born out of the Welsh Methodist revival in the 18th century and seceded from the Church of England in 1811. The second largest attending faith in Wales is Roman Catholic, with an estimated 43,000 adherents.

Non-Christian religions are small in Wales, making up approximately 2.7 per cent of the population. Islam is the largest, with 24,000 (0.8 per cent) reported Muslims in the 2011 census. There are also communities of Hindus and Sikhs, mainly in the south Wales cities of Newport, Cardiff and Swansea, while the largest concentration of Buddhists is in the western rural county of Ceredigion. Judaism was the first non-Christian faith to be established in Wales since Roman times, though by 2001 the community had declined to approximately 2,000 and as of 2019 only numbers in the hundreds.

7. Government and law

Wales is a country that is part of the sovereign state of the United Kingdom. Constitutionally, the UK is a *de jure* unitary state, with a parliament and government in Westminster. Wales has a devolved, unicameral legislature known as the Senedd (Senedd Cymru - Welsh Parliament) which holds devolved powers from the UK Parliament via a reserved powers model. For the purposes of local government, Wales has been divided into 22 council areas since 1996. These "principal areas" are responsible for the provision of all local government services.

In the House of Commons – the 650-member lower house of the UK Parliament – there are 40 members of Parliament (MPs) who represent Welsh constituencies. At the 2019 general election, 22 Labour and Labour Co-op MPs were elected, along with 14 Conservative MPs and 4 Plaid Cymru MPs from Wales. The Wales Office is a department of the UK government responsible for Wales, whose minister, the secretary of state for Wales (Welsh secretary), sits in the UK cabinet.

Law

By tradition, Welsh Law was compiled during an assembly held at Whitland around 930 by Hywel Dda, king of most of Wales between 942 and his death in 950. The 'law of Hywel Dda' (Welsh: *Cyfraith Hywel*), as it became known, codified the previously existing folk laws and legal customs that had evolved in Wales over centuries. Welsh Law emphasised the payment of compensation for a crime to the victim, or the victim's kin, rather than punishment by the ruler. Other than in the Marches, where March law was imposed by the Marcher Lords, Welsh Law remained in force in Wales until the Statute of Rhuddlan in 1284. Edward I of England annexed the Principality of Wales following the death of Llywelyn ap Gruffudd, and Welsh Law was replaced for criminal cases under the Statute. Marcher Law and Welsh Law (for civil cases) remained in force until Henry VIII of England annexed the whole of Wales under the Laws in Wales Acts 1535 and 1542 (often referred to as the Acts of Union of 1536 and 1543), after which English law applied to the whole of Wales. The Wales and Berwick Act 1746 provided that all laws that applied to England would automatically apply to Wales (and the Anglo- Scottish border town of Berwick) unless the law explicitly stated otherwise; this Act was repealed with regard to Wales in 1967. English law has been the legal system of England and Wales since 1536.

English law is regarded as a common law system, with no major codification of the law and legal precedents are binding as opposed to persuasive. The court system is headed by the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom which is the highest court of appeal in the land for criminal and civil cases. The Senior Courts of England and Wales is the highest court of first instance as well as an appellate court. The three divisions are the Court of Appeal, the High Court of Justice, and the Crown Court. Minor cases are heard by magistrates' courts or the County Court. In 2007 the Wales and Cheshire Region (known as the Wales and Cheshire Circuit before 2005) came to an end when Cheshire was attached to the North-Western England Region. From that point, Wales became a legal unit in its own right, although it remains part of the single jurisdiction of England and Wales.

The Senedd has the authority to draft and approve laws outside of the UK Parliamentary system to meet the specific needs of Wales. Under powers approved by a referendum held in March 2011, it is empowered to pass primary legislation, at the time referred to as an Act of the National Assembly for Wales but now known as an Act of Senedd Cymru in relation to twenty subjects listed in the Government of Wales Act 2006 such as health and education. Through this primary legislation, the Welsh Government can then also enact more specific subordinate legislation.

Wales is served by four regional police forces: Dyfed-Powys Police, Gwent Police, North Wales Police, and South Wales Police. There are five prisons in Wales: four in the southern half of the country, and one in Wrexham. Wales has no women's prisons: female inmates are imprisoned in England.

8. Education

A distinct education system has developed in Wales. Formal education before the 18th century was the preserve of the elite. The first grammar schools were established in Welsh towns such as Ruthin, Brecon and Cowbridge. One of the first successful schooling systems was started by Griffith Jones, who introduced the circulating schools in the 1730s; these are believed to have taught half the country's population to read. In the 19th century, with increasing state involvement in education, Wales was forced to adopt an education system that was English in ethos even though the country was predominantly Non-conformist, Welsh-speaking and demographically uneven because of the economic expansion in the south. In some schools, to ensure Welsh children spoke English at school, the Welsh Not was employed as corrective punishment; this was much resented, although the extent of its use is difficult to determine. State and local governmental edicts resulted in schooling in the English language which, following the 1847 Inquiry into the State of Education in Wales – an event subsequently referred to as the Treachery of the Blue Books (Welsh: *Brad y Llyfrau Gleision*) – was seen as more academic and worthwhile for children.

The University College of Wales opened in Aberystwyth in 1872. Cardiff and Bangor followed, and the three colleges came together in 1893 to form the University of Wales. The Welsh Intermediate Education Act of 1889 created 95 secondary schools. The Welsh Department for the Board of Education followed in 1907, which gave Wales its first significant educational devolution. A resurgence in Welsh-language schools in the latter half of the 20th century at nursery and primary level saw attitudes shift towards teaching in the medium of Welsh. Welsh is a compulsory subject in all of Wales's state schools for pupils aged 5–16 years old. While there has never been an exclusively Welsh-language college, Welsh-medium higher education is delivered through the individual universities and has since 2011 been supported by the Coleg Cymraeg Cenedlaethol (Welsh National College) as a delocalised federal institution. In 2021-2022, there were 1,470 maintained schools in Wales. In 2021-22, the country had 471,131 pupils taught by 25,210 full-time equivalent teachers.

9. Arts and culture

Wales has a distinctive culture including its own language, customs, holidays and music. There are four UNESCO World Heritage Sites in Wales: The Castles and

Town Walls of King Edward I in Gwynedd; Pontcysyllte Aqueduct and Canal; the Blaenavon Industrial Landscape; and The Slate Landscape of Northwest Wales.

Literature

Wales has one of the oldest unbroken literary traditions in Europe going back to the sixth century and including Geoffrey of Monmouth and Gerald of Wales, regarded as among the finest Latin authors of the Middle Ages. The earliest body of Welsh verse, by poets Taliesin and Aneirin, survive not in their original form, but in much-changed, medieval versions. Welsh poetry and native lore and learning survived the Dark Ages, through the era of the Poets of the Princes (c. 1100-1280) and then the Poets of the Gentry (c. 1350-1650). The former were professional poets who composed eulogies and elegies to their patrons while the latter favoured the cywydd metre. The period produced one of Wales's greatest poets, Dafydd ap Gwilym. After the Anglicisation of the gentry the tradition declined.

Despite the extinction of the professional poet, the integration of the native elite into a wider cultural world did bring other literary benefits. Renaissance scholars such as William Salesbury and John Davies brought humanist ideals from English universities. In 1588 William Morgan became the first person to translate the Bible into Welsh. From the 16th century the proliferation of the 'free-metre' verse became the most important development in Welsh poetry, but from the middle of the 17th century a host of imported accentual metres from England became very popular. By the 19th century the creation of a Welsh epic, fuelled by the eisteddfod, became an obsession with Welsh-language writers. The output of this period was prolific in quantity but unequal in quality. Initially excluded, religious denominations came to dominate the competitions, with bardic themes becoming scriptural and didactic.

Developments in 19th-century Welsh literature include Lady Charlotte Guest's translation into English of the Mabinogion, one of the most important medieval Welsh prose works of Celtic mythology. 1885 saw the publication of *Rhys Lewis* by Daniel Owen, credited as the first novel written in the Welsh language. The 20th century saw a move from the verbose Victorian Welsh style, with works such as Thomas Gwynn Jones's *Ymadawiad Arthur*. The First World War had a profound effect on Welsh literature with a more pessimistic style championed by T. H. Parry-Williams and R. Williams Parry.[285] The industrialisation of south Wales saw a further shift with the likes of Rhydwen Williams who used the poetry and metre of a bygone rural Wales but in the context of an industrial landscape. The inter-war period is dominated by Saunders Lewis, for his political and reactionary views as much as his plays, poetry and criticism.

The careers of some 1930s writers continued after World War Two, including those of Gwyn Thomas, Vernon Watkins, and Dylan Thomas, whose most famous work *Under Milk Wood* was first broadcast in 1954. Thomas was one of the most notable and popular Welsh writers of the 20th century and one of the most innovative poets of his time. The attitude of the post-war generation of Welsh writers in English towards Wales differs from the previous generation, with greater sympathy for Welsh nationalism and the Welsh language. The change is linked to the nationalism of Saunders Lewis and the burning of the Bombing School on the Llŷn Peninsula in 1936.

In poetry R. S. Thomas (1913-2000) was the most important figure throughout the second half of the twentieth century. He "did not learn the Welsh language until he was 30 and wrote all his poems in English". Major writers in the second half of the twentieth century include Emyr Humphreys (born 1919), who during his long writing career published over twenty novels, and Raymond Williams (1921-1988).

Museums and libraries

Amgueddfa Cymru – Museum Wales was founded by royal charter in 1907 as the National Museum of Wales. It operates at seven sites: National Museum Cardiff, St Fagans National History Museum, Big Pit National Coal Museum, National Wool Museum, National Slate Museum, National Roman Legion Museum, and the National Waterfront Museum. Entry to all sites is free. The National Library of Wales, based in Aberystwyth, houses important collections of printed works, including the Sir John Williams Collection and the Shirburn Castle collection, as well as art collections including portraits and photographs, ephemera and Ordnance Survey maps.

Visual arts

Works of Celtic art have been found in Wales. In the Early Medieval period, the Celtic Christianity of Wales was part of the Insular art of the British Isles. A number of illuminated manuscripts from Wales survive, including the 8th- century Hereford Gospels and Lichfield Gospels. The 11th-century Ricemarch Psalter (now in Dublin) is certainly Welsh, made in St David's, and shows a late Insular style with unusual Viking influence.

Some Welsh artists of the 16th-18th centuries tended to leave the country to work, moving to London or Italy. Richard Wilson (1714-1782) is arguably the first major British landscapist; although more notable for his Italian scenes, he painted several Welsh scenes on visits from London. By the late 18th century, the popularity of landscape art grew and clients were found in the larger Welsh towns, allowing more Welsh artists to stay in their homeland. Artists from outside Wales were also drawn to paint Welsh scenery, at first because of the Celtic Revival.

An Act of Parliament in 1857 provided for the establishment of a number of art schools throughout the United Kingdom, and the Cardiff School of Art opened in 1865. Graduates still very often had to leave Wales to work, but Betws-y-Coed became a popular centre for artists, and its artists' colony helped to form the Royal Cambrian Academy of Art in 1881. The sculptor Sir William Goscombe John made works for Welsh commissions, although he had settled in London. Christopher Williams, whose subjects were mostly resolutely Welsh, was also based in London. Thomas E. Stephens and Andrew Vicari had very successful careers as portraitists, based respectively in the United States and France.

Welsh painters gravitated towards the art capitals of Europe. Augustus John and his sister Gwen John lived mostly in London and Paris. However, the landscapists Sir Kyffin Williams and Peter Prendergast lived in Wales for most of their lives, while remaining in touch with the wider art world. Ceri Richards was very engaged in the Welsh art scene as a teacher in Cardiff and even after moving to London; he was a figurative painter in international styles including Surrealism. Various artists have

moved to Wales, including Eric Gill, the London-Welshman David Jones, and the sculptor Jonah Jones. The Kardomah Gang was an intellectual circle in Swansea, centred on the poet Dylan Thomas and the poet and artist Vernon Watkins, which also included the painter Alfred Janes.

South Wales had several notable potteries, one of the first important sites being the Ewenny Pottery in Bridgend, which began producing earthenware in the 17th century. In the 18th and 19th centuries, with more scientific methods becoming available, more refined ceramics were produced: this was led by the Cambrian Pottery (1764-1870, also known as "Swansea pottery"), and later Nantgarw Pottery near Cardiff, which was in operation from 1813 to 1820 making fine porcelain, and then utilitarian pottery from 1833 until 1920. Portmeirion Pottery, founded in 1960 by Susan Williams-Ellis (daughter of Clough Williams-Ellis, creator of the Italianate village of Portmeirion, Gwynedd) is based in Stoke-on-Trent, England.

Places to visit

One can visit a number of beautiful places in Wales. There are three national parks: Snowdonia, Brecon and Pembrokeshire Coast. Wales has also four Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty.

Lecture 8.
Northern Ireland

Plan

1. General characteristics
2. Demographics and politics
3. Nationality and identity
4. Symbols
5. Geography and climate
6. Counties, cities, town and villages. Places of interest
7. Economy
8. History
9. Culture
10. Languages
11. Education

1. General characteristics

Northern Ireland is part of the United Kingdom and covers 5,459 square miles (14,139 km²) in the northeast of the island of Ireland, about a sixth of the total area of the island. It has a population of 1,685,000 (April 2001) — between a quarter and a third of the island's total population. It consists of six counties situated within the province of Ulster, and in the UK is generally known as one of its four Home Nations, forming a constituent country of the United Kingdom. Some of these terms have controversial implications in relation to political ideologies concerning the constitutional status of Northern Ireland.

As an administrative division of the United Kingdom, Northern Ireland was defined by the Government of Ireland Act, 1920, and has had its own form of devolved government in a similar manner to Scotland and Wales. The Northern Ireland Assembly is, however, currently in suspension.

Northern Ireland has been for many years the site of a violent and bitter ethno-political conflict between those claiming to represent Nationalists (who are predominantly Catholic and want it to be unified with the Republic of Ireland) and those claiming to represent Unionists (who are predominantly Protestant and want it to remain part of the United Kingdom). Unionists are in the majority in Northern Ireland, though Nationalists do represent a significant minority. The campaign of violence has become known popularly as The Troubles. The majority of both sides of the community have had no actual association with the violent campaigns waged, and most have not supported the violent representatives of their respective communities. Since the signing of the Belfast Agreement in 1998, many of the major paramilitary campaigns have either been on ceasefire or have declared their "war" to be over.

2. Demographics and politics

The population of Northern Ireland was estimated as being 1,710,300 on 30 June 2004. In the 2001 census, 53.1% of the Northern Irish population were Protestant, (Presbyterian, Church of Ireland, Methodist and other Protestant denominations), 43.8% of the population were Roman Catholic, 0.4% Other and 2.7% none.

A plurality of the present-day population (38%) define themselves as Unionist, 24% as Nationalist and 35% define themselves as neither, 59% express long term preference of the maintenance of Northern Ireland's membership of the United Kingdom, while 22% express a preference for membership of a united Ireland. Possible explanations for this discrepancy may be due to disillusionment with Northern Irish politics surrounding the constitutional question, and others who support the Union but only so long as that is the preference of the majority of the people of Northern Ireland. (See demographics and politics of Northern Ireland) Official voting figures, which reflect both views on the "national question" along with issues of candidate, geography, personal loyalty and historic voting patterns show 54% of Northern Ireland voters vote for Pro-Unionist parties, and 42% voting for Pro-Nationalist parties and 4% vote "other". Opinion polls consistently show that the election results are not necessarily an indication of the electorate's stance regarding the constitutional status of Northern Ireland.

Most of the population of Northern Ireland are at least nominally Christian. The ethno-political loyalties are allied, though not absolutely, to the Roman Catholic and Protestant denominations and these are the labels used to categorise the opposing views. This is however, becoming increasingly irrelevant, as the Irish Question is very complicated. Many voters (regardless of religious affiliation) are attracted to Unionism's conservative policies, while other voters are instead attracted to the traditionally leftist, nationalist SDLP and its party platform for Social Democracy. A majority of Protestants feel a strong connection with Great Britain and wish for Northern Ireland to remain part of the United Kingdom. Many Catholics desire a greater connection with the Republic of Ireland, with 42% of Catholics, according to a

2004 survey, supporting a united Ireland. According to the same 2004 survey, 24% of Northern Irish Catholics support Northern Ireland remaining a part of the United Kingdom (see Catholic Unionist). Official voting figures, again, have these figures much higher.

There have been moves to make Northern Ireland's political scene more in keeping with other parts of the United Kingdom, with some local voters frustrated by the endemically sectarian nature of local political parties. The British Conservative Party now accepts members from Northern Ireland and has contested elections – and has a strong presence in the parliamentary constituency of North Down. The Labour Party, because of a claimed affiliation to the (Irish Nationalist) SDLP, has been reluctant to contest elections locally. The Alliance Party is loosely aligned with the UK Liberal Democrat Party.

Protestants have a slight majority in Northern Ireland, according to the latest Northern Ireland Census. The make-up of the Northern Ireland Assembly reflects the appeals of the various parties within the population. Of the 108 members, 59 are Unionists and 42 are Nationalist (the remaining seven are classified as "other"). Although the Protestant population is the majority, the largest religious denomination is the Roman Catholic Church, followed by the Presbyterian Church in Ireland, the Church of Ireland (Anglican), and the Methodist Church.

The two opposing views of British unionism and Irish nationalism are linked to deeper cultural divisions. Unionists are predominantly Protestant and often descendants of mainly Scottish, English, Welsh and Huguenot settlers and indigenous Irishmen who had converted to one of the Protestant denominations.

Nationalists are predominantly Catholic and usually descend from the population predating the settlement. Discrimination against nationalists under the Stormont government (1921-1972) gave rise to the nationalist civil rights movement in the 1960s. Some Unionists argue that any discrimination was not just because of religious or political bigotry, but also the result of more complex socio- economic, socio-political and geographical factors. Whatever the cause, the existence of discrimination, and the manner in which Nationalist anger at it was handled, was a major contributing factor which led to the long-running conflict known as The Troubles. The political unrest has gone through its most violent phase in recent times between 1968-1994.

The main actors have been the Provisional IRA and other republican groups determined to end the union with Great Britain, and the Royal Ulster Constabulary, British army and various loyalist paramilitary groups who were defending it. As a consequence of the worsening security situation, self-government for Northern Ireland was suspended in 1972. Since the mid 1990s, the main paramilitary group, the Provisional IRA, has observed an uneasy ceasefire. Following negotiations, the Belfast Agreement of 1998 provides for an elected Northern Ireland Assembly, and a power-sharing Northern Ireland Executive comprising representatives of all the main parties. These institutions have been suspended since 2002 because of unionist impatience at the pace of Sinn Féin's movement away from its associations with the Provisional IRA, which reached breaking point after PSNI allegations of spying by people working for Sinn Féin at the Assembly (Stormontgate). The resulting case against the accused Sinn

Fein member collapsed and the defendant later admitted to being a British agent.

On 28 July 2005, the Provisional IRA declared an end to its campaign and have since decommissioned what is thought to be all of their arsenal. This final act of decommissioning was performed in accordance with the Belfast Agreement 1998, and under the watch of the International Decommissioning Body and two external church witnesses. Many unionists, however, remain sceptical. Many Loyalist paramilitaries also remain sceptical and have refused to decommission their arsenals. *See Independent International Commission on Decommissioning*

3. Nationality and identity

People from Northern Ireland are citizens of the UK on the same basis as people from any other part of the UK (i.e. by birth in the UK to at least one parent who is a UK permanent resident or citizen, or by naturalisation).

In addition to UK citizenship, people who were born in Northern Ireland on or before 31 December 2004 (and most persons born after this date) are entitled to claim citizenship of the Republic of Ireland. This is as a result of the Republic of Ireland extending its nationality law on an extra-territorial basis in 2001 as a result of the Belfast Agreement of 1998, which stated that:

The two governments recognise the birthright of all the people of Northern Ireland to identify themselves and be accepted as Irish or British, or both, as they may so choose, and accordingly confirm that their right to hold both British and Irish citizenship is accepted by both Governments and would not be affected by any future change in the status of Northern Ireland.

This was subsequently qualified by the Twenty-seventh Amendment to the Constitution of Ireland, which stated that, "notwithstanding any other provision of [the] Constitution," no-one would be automatically entitled to Irish citizenship unless they had at least one parent who was (or was entitled to be) an Irish citizen. The subsequent legislation (Irish Nationality and Citizenship Act 2004) brought Irish nationality law into line with British citizenship laws with regard to parentage and ended the anomalous Northern Ireland situation.

In general, Protestants in Northern Ireland see themselves as being British, while Catholics regard themselves as being Irish. *Details from attitude surveys are in Demographics and politics of Northern Ireland.*

4. Symbols

Today, Northern Ireland comprises a diverse patchwork of communities, whose national loyalties are represented in some areas by flags flown from lamp posts. The Union Flag and former governmental Flag of Northern Ireland therefore appear in some loyalist areas, with the Irish national flag, the tricolour appearing in some republican areas. Even kerbstones in some areas are painted red-white-blue or green-white-orange, depending on whether local people express unionist/loyalist or nationalist/republican sympathies.

The only "*official*" flag of Northern Ireland is the Union Flag. The Northern Ireland Flag (also known as the ' Ulster Banner' or 'Red Hand Flag') is no longer used officially by government, due to the abolition of the Parliament of Northern Ireland in

1973. The Ulster Banner, however, still remains the main de facto flag used to uniquely represent Northern Ireland. The Ulster Banner is based on the flag of Ulster.

Some unionists tend to use the Union flag, the Ulster Banner, while some nationalists typically use the Irish Tricolour. Many people, however, prefer to avoid flags due to their divisive nature. Violent paramilitary groups on both sides have also developed their own flags. Some unionists also occasionally use the flags of secular and religious organizations to which they belong.

Some groups, including the Irish Rugby Football Union and the Church of Ireland have used the Flag of St. Patrick as a symbol of Ireland which lacks nationalist or unionist connotations. However, this is felt by some to be a loyalist flag, as it was used to represent Ireland when the whole island was part of the UK and is used by some British army regiments. Foreign flags are also found, such as the Palestinian flags in some Nationalist areas and Israeli flags in some Unionist areas, which represent general comparisons made by both sides with conflicts in the wider world.

The national anthem played at state events in Northern Ireland is *God Save The Queen*. At some cross-community events, however, the *Londonderry Air*, also known as the tune of *Danny Boy*, may be played as a neutral, though unofficial, substitute.

At the Commonwealth Games, the Northern Ireland team uses the Ulster Banner as its flag and *Danny Boy* is used as its National Anthem. The Northern Ireland football team also uses the Ulster Banner as its flag.

5. Geography and climate

Northern Ireland was covered by an ice sheet for most of the last ice age and on numerous previous occasions, the legacy of which can be seen in the extensive coverage of drumlins in Counties Fermanagh, Armagh, Antrim and particularly Down. The centrepiece of Northern Ireland's geography is Lough Neagh, at 151 square miles (392 km²) the largest freshwater lake both on the island of Ireland and in the British Isles, and the third largest lake in Western Europe. A second extensive lake system is centred on Lower and Upper Lough Erne in Fermanagh.

There are substantial uplands in the Sperrin Mountains (an extension of the Caledonian fold mountains) with extensive gold deposits, granite Mourne Mountains and basalt Antrim Plateau, as well as smaller ranges in South Armagh and along the Fermanagh –Tyrone border. None of the hills are especially high, with Slieve Donard in the dramatic Mournes reaching 848 m (2782 feet), Northern Ireland's highest point. The volcanic activity which created the Antrim Plateau also formed the eerily geometric pillars of the Giant’s Causeway.

The Lower and Upper River Bann, River Foyle and River Blackwater form extensive fertile lowlands, with excellent arable land also found in North and East Down, although much of the hill country is marginal and suitable largely for animal husbandry.

The valley of the River Lagan is dominated by Belfast, whose metropolitan area includes over a third of the population of Northern Ireland, with heavy urbanisation and industrialisation along the Lagan Valley and both shores of Belfast Lough.

The whole of Northern Ireland has a temperate maritime climate, rather wetter in the west than the east, although cloud cover is persistent across the region. The

weather is unpredictable at all times of the year, and although the seasons are distinct, they are considerably less pronounced than in interior Europe or the eastern seaboard of North America. Average daytime maximums in Belfast are 6.5°C (43.7°F) in January and 17.5°C (63.5°F) in July. The damp climate and extensive deforestation in the 16th and 17th centuries resulted in much of the region being covered in rich green grassland.

Highest maximum temperature: 30.8°C (87.4°F) at Knockarevan, near Garrison, County Fermanagh on 30 June 1976 and at Belfast on 12 July 1983.

Lowest minimum temperature: -17.5°C (0.5°F at Magherally, near Banbridge, County Down on 1 January 1979.

6. Counties, cities, town and villages. Places of interest Counties

Northern Ireland consists of six counties:

- County Antrim
- County Armagh
- County Down
- County Fermanagh
- County Londonderry
- County Tyrone

These counties are no longer used for local government purposes; instead there are twenty-six districts of Northern Ireland which have different geographical extents, even in the case of those named after the counties from which they derive their name. Fermanagh District Council most closely follows the borders of the county from which it takes its name. Coleraine Borough Council, on the other hand, derives its name from the town of Coleraine in County Londonderry.

Cities

There are 5 settlements with city status in Northern Ireland:

- Belfast
- Derry
- Newry
- Armagh
- Lisburn

Towns and villages

- Ahoghill, Antrim
- Ballycastle, Ballyclare, Ballymena, Ballymoney, Ballynahinch, Banbridge, Bangor , Bushmills
- Carnmoney, Carrickfergus, Castlerock, Comber, Coleraine, Cookstown, Craigavon , Crumlin
- Donaghadee, Downpatrick, Dromore, Dundonald, Dungannon, Dungiven
- Enniskillen
- Glengormley, Garvagh
- Garrison, County Fermanagh

- Hillsborough, Holywood
- Kilkeel
- Larne, Limavady, Lurgan
- Magherafelt, Macosquin
- Newcastle, Newtownards, Newtownstewart
- Omagh
- Portrush, Portstewart, Portadown, Portaferry, Poyntzpass
- Strabane
- Warrenpoint

Places of interest

- Belfast City
- Walled City of Derry
- Political Murals in Derry and Belfast
- Cave Hill
- Carrick-a-Rede Rope Bridge
- The Giant's Causeway
- Castlerock and Mussenden Temple
- The Glens of Antrim
- Navan Fort Armagh, Emain Macha
- Portstewart
- The Sperrin Mountains
- Rathlin Island
- Lough Erne
- The Mountains of Mourne
- Lough Neagh
- Strangford Lough
- Carlingford Lough
- River Foyle and Lough Foyle
- National parks of Northern Ireland
- National Trust Properties in Northern Ireland

Variations in geographic nomenclature

Many people inside and outside Northern Ireland use other names for Northern Ireland, depending on their point of view:

The most common names used are

Unionist/Loyalist

- ***Ulster*** **–** to suggest that Northern Ireland has an older ancestry that predates its founding in 1921, dating back both to the Plantation of Ulster in the early 17th century and to the millennium-old province of Ulster, one of four provinces on the island of Ireland. The historic province of Ulster covers a greater landmass than Northern Ireland: six of its counties are in Northern Ireland, three in the Republic of Ireland.
- ***The Province*** **–** to again link to the historic Irish province of Ulster, with its mythology. Also refers to the fact that NI is a *province* of the UK.

Nationalist/Republican

▪ ***North of Ireland*** –- to link Northern Ireland to the rest of the island, by describing it as being in the 'north *of* Ireland' and so by implication playing down Northern Ireland's links with Great Britain. (The northernmost point in Ireland, in County Donegal, is in fact in the Republic.)
▪ ***The Six Counties*** – language used by republicans e.g. Sinn Féin, which avoids using the name given by the British-enacted *Government of Ireland Act, 1920*. (The Republic is similarly described as the *Twenty-Six Counties*.) Some of the users of these terms contend that using the official name of the region would imply acceptance of the legitimacy of the *Government of Ireland Act*.
▪ ***The Occupied Six Counties***. The Republic, whose legitimacy is not recognised by republicans opposed to the Belfast Agreement, is described as being "The Free State", referring to the Irish Free State, the Republic's old name.
▪ ***British Occupied Ireland***. Similar in tone to the *Occupied Six Counties* this term is used by more dogmatic anti- Belfast Agreement republicans who still hold that the First Dáil was the last legitimate government of Ireland and that all governments since have been foreign imposed usurpations of Irish national self-determination.
▪ ***Fourth Green Field***. From the song Four Green fields by Tommy Makem which describes Ireland as divided with one of the four green fields (the traditional provinces of Ireland) being *In strangers hands*, referring to the partition of Ireland.

Other
▪ ***The Black North*** – a term sometimes used in different ways - either pejoratively or ironically, depending on one's political affiliation / sympathies. Often used by people from the Republic of Ireland.
▪ ***Norn Iron*** – a joke term used by both nationalists and unionists in reference to their own accent. Often refers to the Northern Ireland national football team.

7. Economy

The Northern Ireland economy is the smallest of the four economies making up the United Kingdom. Northern Ireland has traditionally had an industrial economy, most notably in shipbuilding, rope manufacture and textiles, but most heavy industry has since been replaced by services, primarily the public sector. Tourism also plays a big role in the local economy. More recently the local economy has benefitted from major investment by many large multi-national corporations into high tech industry. These large organisations are attracted by government subsidies and the highly skilled workforce in Northern Ireland.

8. History

The area now known as Northern Ireland has had a diverse history. From serving as the bedrock of Irish resistance in the era of the plantations of Queen Elizabeth and James I in other parts of Ireland, it became itself the subject of major planting of Scottish and English settlers after the Flight of the Earls in 1607 (when the native Gaelic aristocracy fled to Catholic Europe).

The all-island Kingdom of Ireland (1541-1800) merged into the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in 1801 under the terms of the Act of Union,

under which the kingdoms of Ireland and Great Britain merged under a central parliament, government and monarchy based in London. In the early 20th century Unionists, led by Sir Edward Carson, opposed the introduction of Home Rule in Ireland. Unionists were in a minority on the island of Ireland as a whole, but were a majority in the northern province of Ulster, and a very large majority in the counties of Antrim, and Down, small majorities in the counties of Armagh and Londonderry, with substantial numbers also concentrated in the nationalist-majority counties of Fermanagh and Tyrone. These six counties, containing an overall unionist majority, would later form Northern Ireland.

The clash between the House of Commons and House of Lords of the controversial budget of Chancellor of the Exchequer David Lloyd-George, produced the *Parliament Act 1911* which enabled the veto of the Lords to be overturned. Given that the Lords had been the unionists' main guarantee that a home rule act would not be enacted, because of the majority of pro-unionist peers in the House, the Parliament Act made Home Rule a likely prospect in Ireland. Opponents to Home Rule, from Conservative Party leaders like Andrew Bonar Law and Lord Randolph Churchill to militant unionists in Ireland threatened the use of violence, producing the Larne Gun Running incident in 1912, when they smuggled thousands of rifles and rounds of ammunition from Imperial Germany for the Ulster Volunteer Force. Randolph Churchill famously told a unionist audience in Ulster that "Ulster will fight, and Ulster will be right".

The prospect of civil war in Ireland was seen by some as likely. In 1914 the *Third Home Rule Act*, which contained provision for a *temporary* partition, received the Royal Assent. However its implementation was suspended for the duration of the intervening First World War, which was only expected to last a few weeks but lasted four years. But by the time it concluded, the Act was seen as dead in the water, with public opinion in the majority nationalist community having moved from a demand for home rule to something more substantial, independence. Lloyd-George proposed in 1919 a new bill which would divide Ireland into two Home Rule areas, twenty-six counties being ruled from Dublin, six being ruled from Belfast, with a shared Lord Lieutenant of Ireland appointing both executives and a Council of Ireland, which Lloyd-George believed would evolve into an all-island parliament.

Partition of Ireland, partition of Ulster

In United Kingdom law, Ireland was partitioned in 1921 under the terms of the Government of Ireland Act 1920. Six of the nine Ulster counties in the north-east formed Northern Ireland and the remaining three counties joined those of Leinster, Munster and Connacht to form Southern Ireland. Whilst the former came into being, the latter had only a momentary existence to ratify (in United Kingdom law) the Anglo-Irish Treaty that ended the Anglo-Irish War.

Under the Anglo-Irish Treaty, Northern Ireland was provisionally scheduled to be included in the Irish Free State, though it could opt out should the Parliament of Northern Ireland elect so to do. As expected it did so immediately. Once that happened, as provided for, an Irish Boundary Commission came into being, to decide on the territorial boundaries between the Irish Free State and Northern Ireland. Though

leaders in Dublin expected a substantial reduction in the territory of Northern Ireland, with nationalist areas like south Armagh, Tyrone, southern Londonderry and urban territories like Derry and Newry moving to the Free State, it appears that the Boundary Commission decided against this. The British and Irish governments agreed to leave the boundaries as they were defined in the 1920 Act. The Council of Ireland provided for in the Treaty, to link Northern Ireland and the Irish Free State, did not come into being.

1925 to the present

In June 1940, to encourage the Irish state to join with the Allies, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill indicated to the Taoiseach Éamon de Valera that the United Kingdom would push for Irish unity but, believing that Churchill could not deliver, de Valera declined the offer. The British did not inform the Northern Ireland government that they had made the offer to the Dublin government.

The *Ireland Act 1949* gave the first legal guarantee to the Parliament and Government that Northern Ireland would not cease to be part of the United Kingdom without consent of the majority of its citizens, and this was most recently reaffirmed by the Northern Ireland Act 1998. This status was echoed in the Anglo-Irish Agreement in 1985, which was signed by the governments of the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland. Bunreacht na hÉireann, the constitution of the Republic, was amended in 1999 to remove a claim of the "Irish nation" to sovereignty over the whole of Ireland (in Article 2), a claim qualified by an acknowledgement that the southern state only could exercise legal control over the territory formerly known as the Irish Free State. The new Articles 2 and 3, added to the Bunreacht to replace the earlier articles, implicitly acknowledge that the status of Northern Ireland, and its relationships with the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland, would only be changed with the agreement of a majority of voters in Northern Ireland. An acknowledgement that a decision on whether to remain in the United Kingdom or join the Republic of Ireland rests with the people of Northern Ireland was also central to the Belfast Agreement, which was signed in 1998 and ratified by plebiscites held simultaneously in both Northern Ireland and the Republic. However, many unionist leaders equivocate when asked if they would peacefully accept a reunited Ireland if a majority in Northern Ireland sought it.

A plebiscite within Northern Ireland on whether it should remain in the United Kingdom, or join the Republic, was held in 1973. The vote went heavily in favour (98.9%) of maintaining the status quo with approximately 57.5% of the total electorate voting in support, but most nationalists boycotted the poll (see Northern Ireland referendum, 1973 for more). Though legal provision remains for holding another plebiscite, and former Ulster Unionist Party leader David Trimble some years ago advocated the holding of such a vote, no plans for such a vote have been adopted as of 2006.

Lives lost and injured in the "Troubles"

Bombings in Great Britain tended to have had more publicity since attacks in

Britain were comparatively rare (in the context of the troubles) indeed 93% of killings happened in Northern Ireland. Republican paramilitaries have contributed to nearly 60% (2056) of these. Loyalists have killed nearly 28% (1020) while the security forces have killed just over 11% (362) with 9% percent of those attributed to the British Army.

Civilians killed

Civilians account for the highest death toll at 53% or 1798 fatalities. Loyalist paramilitaries account for a higher proportion of civilian deaths (those with no military or paramilitary connection) according to figures published in Malcolm Sutton's book, "Bear in Mind These Dead: An Index of Deaths from the Conflict in Ireland 1969 - 1993". According to research undertaken by the CAIN organisation, based on Sutton's work, 85.6% (873) of Loyalist killings, 52.9% (190) by the security forces and 35.9% (738) of all killings by Republican paramilitaries took the lives of civilians between 1969 and 2001. The disparity of a relatively high civilian death toll yet low Republican percentage is explained by the fact that they also had a high combatant's death toll, while on the other hand the Loyalists focused almost exclusively on civilians as they rarely discriminated between the Catholic community and Republicans.

9. Culture

With its improved international reputation, Northern Ireland has recently witnessed rising numbers of tourists who come to appreciate the area's unique heritage. Attractions include cultural festivals, musical and artistic traditions, countryside and geographical sites of interest, pubs, welcoming hospitality and sports (especially golf and fishing). In 1987, pubs were allowed to open on Sundays, despite vocal opposition.

10. Languages

The Mid Ulster dialect of English spoken in Northern Ireland shows influence from both the West Midlands and Scotland, thereby giving it a distinct accent compared to Hiberno-English, along with the use of such Scots words as *wee* for 'little' and *aye* for 'yes'. Some jocularly call this dialect phonetically by the name *Norn Iron*.

There are supposedly some minute differences in pronunciation between Protestants and Catholics, the best known of which is the name of the letter *h*, which Protestants tend to pronounce as "aitch", as in British English, and Catholics tend to pronounce as "haitch", as in Hiberno-English. However, geography is a much more important determinant of dialect than ethnic background. English is by far the most widely spoken language in Northern Ireland.

Under the Good Friday Agreement, Irish and Ulster Scots (one of the dialects of the Scots language), sometimes known as **Ullans**, have recognition as "part of the cultural wealth of Northern Ireland". Often the use of the Irish language in Northern Ireland has met with the considerable suspicion of Unionists, who have associated it with the largely Catholic Republic of Ireland, and more recently, with the republican movement in Northern Ireland itself.

Ulster Scots comprises varieties of the Scots language spoken in Northern Ireland. Mac Póilin states that "While most argue that Ulster-Scots is a dialect or variant of Scots, some have argued or implied that Ulster-Scots is a separate language

from Scots. The case for Ulster-Scots being a distinct language, made at a time when the status of Scots itself was insecure, is so bizarre that it is unlikely to have been a linguistic argument."

Chinese and Urdu are also spoken by Northern Ireland's Asian communities. Though the Chinese community is often referred to as the "third largest" community in Northern Ireland – it is tiny by international standards.

Since the accession of new member states to the European Union in 2004, Eastern European languages, particularly Polish, are becoming increasingly common.

The most common sign language in Northern Ireland is British Sign Language (BSL), but as Catholics tended to send their deaf children to schools in Dublin (St Joseph's Institute for Deaf Boys and St Mary's Institute for Deaf Girls, in Cabra), Irish Sign Language (ISL) is commonly used in the Nationalist community. The two languages are not related: BSL is in the British family (which also includes Auslan), and ISL is in the French family (which also includes ASL/Amerislan). A third language, Northern Ireland Sign Language, is also attested by some.

11. Education

Unlike most areas of the United Kingdom, in the last year of primary school, many children sit entrance examinations for grammar schools.

Integrated schools, which attempt to ensure a balance in enrolment between pupils of Protestant, Roman Catholic, and other faiths (or none), are becoming increasingly popular, although Northern Ireland still has a primarily *de facto* religiously segregated education system. In the primary school sector, 40 schools (8.9% of the total number) are integrated schools and 32 (7.2% of the total number) are Gaelscoileanna (Irish language-medium schools).

The main universities in Northern Ireland are Queen's University Belfast and Ulster University, and the distance learning Open University which has a regional office in Belfast.

Lecture 9.
Republic of Ireland

Plan

1. General characteristics
2. History
3. Politics
4. Administrative divisions
5. Geography
6. Education
7. Economy
8. Military
9. Demographics
10. Religion
11. Culture

1. General characteristics

The **Republic of Ireland** (Irish: *Poblacht na hÉireann*) is the official description of the sovereign state which covers approximately five-sixths of the island of Ireland, off the coast of north-west Europe. The state's official name is **Ireland** (in the Irish language: *Éire*) and this is how international organisations and residents usually refer to the country. It is a member of the European Union, has a developed economy and a population of slightly more than 4.2 million. The remaining sixth of the island of Ireland is known as Northern Ireland and is part of the United Kingdom. The constitution provides that the name of the state is Éire, or, in the English language, Ireland. However, the state is sometimes referred to as the "Republic of Ireland," in order to distinguish it from the island of Ireland. The name *Republic of Ireland* came into use after the Republic of Ireland Act defined it as the official description of the state in 1949 (the purpose of the act being to declare that the state was a republic rather than a form of constitutional monarchy). It is also the accepted legal name of the state in the United Kingdom as per the Ireland Act 1949. Today, while *Republic of Ireland* is a valid term for the state, *Ireland* is used for official purposes such as treaties, government and legal documents, and membership of international organisations. However with Irish being named the European Union's 21st official language in 2007; the state will be referred to in both constitutional official languages, the Irish and English languages, similarly to other countries such as Finland and Belgium using more than one language at EU level. This means the label 'Éire Ireland' will be used on various signage and nameplates referring to the state.

The state is also known by many other names in English, such as *Éire*, *The Free State* and the *Twenty-six Counties*. The use of Éire when speaking English in Ireland has become increasingly rare, not least due to historical condescending connotations. Often in the United Kingdom the state is referred to as Southern Ireland, though this term is used informally and was only used officially for a brief period in the state's history. Irish people sometimes refer to the state as "The South" – it is not uncommon to hear Northern Irish people talking about going "down south". The same is true of "The North". When entering Northern Ireland from the South, you are said to be going "up north". The names "North" and "South" are used in common speech to refer to the individual states, rather than their geographical location; when one enters County Donegal (in the Republic) from County Fermanagh (in Northern Ireland), one is still said to be going "down south", despite Donegal being further north geographically than Fermanagh.

The state has had more than one official title. The revolutionary state, declared in 1919 by the large majority of Irish Members of (the United Kindom) Parliament elected in 1918, was known as the " Irish Republic"; when the state achieved *de jure* independence in 1922, it became known as the " Irish Free State" (in the Irish language *Saorstát Éireann*), a name that was retained until 1937.

To confuse matters further, from 1 January 2007, the country will be known, at EU level as **Eire Ireland** in official documents. This is due to the *Irish Language* becoming an official language of the European Union on that date.

2. History

The state known today as the Republic of Ireland came into being when 26 of the counties of Ireland seceded from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (UK) in 1922. The remaining six counties remained within the UK as Northern Ireland. This action, known as the Partition of Ireland, came about because of complex constitutional developments in the early twentieth century.

From 1 January 1801 until 6 December 1922, Ireland was part of the United Kingdom. During the Great Famine from 1845 to 1849 the island's population of over 8 million fell by 30 percent. One million Irish died of starvation and another 1.5 million emigrated,(see: Mokyr, Joel (1984). "New Developments in Irish Population History 1700-1850". *Irish Economic and Social History* **xi**: 101-121.) which set the pattern of emigration for the century to come and would result in a constant decline up to the 1960s. From 1874, but particularly from 1880 under Charles Stewart Parnell, the Irish Parliamentary Party moved to prominence with its attempts to achieve Home Rule, which would have given Ireland some autonomy without requiring it to leave the United Kingdom. It seemed possible in 1911 when the House of Lords lost their veto, and John Redmond secured the Third Home Rule Act 1914. The unionist movement, however, had been growing since 1886 among Irish Protestants, fearing that they would face discrimination and lose economic and social privileges if Irish Catholics were to achieve real political power. Though Irish unionism existed throughout the whole of Ireland, in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century unionism was particularly strong in parts of Ulster, where industrialisation was more common in contrast to the more agrarian rest of the island. (Any tariff barriers would, it was feared, most heavily hit that region.) In addition, the Protestant population was more strongly located in Ulster, with unionist majorities existing in about four counties. Under the leadership of the Dublin-born Sir Edward Carson and the northerner Sir James Craig they became more militant. In 1914, to avoid rebellion in Ulster, the British Prime Minister H. H. Asquith, with agreement of the leadership of the Irish Parliamentary Party leadership, inserted a clause into the bill providing for home rule for 26 of the 32 counties, with an as of yet undecided new set of measures to be introduced for the area temporarily excluded. Though it received the Royal Assent, the Third Home Rule Act 1914's implementation was suspended until after the Great War. (The war at that stage was expected to be ended by 1915, not the four years it did ultimately last.) For the prior reasons Redmond and his Irish National Volunteers supported the Allied cause, and tens of thousands joined the British Army.

History of Ireland series
Early history
Early Christian Ireland
Early medieval and Viking era
Norman Ireland
Early Modern Ireland 1536 – 1691
Ireland 1691–1801
Union with Great Britain
History of the Republic
History of Northern Ireland
Economic history

In January 1919, after the December 1918 general elections, 73 of Ireland's 106 MPs elected were Sinn Féin members who refused to take their seats in the British House of Commons. Instead, they set up an extra-legal Irish parliament called Dáil Éireann. This Dáil in January 1919 issued a Unilateral Declaration of Independence and proclaimed an Irish Republic. The Declaration was mainly a restatement of the 1916 Proclamation with the additional provision that Ireland was no longer a part of the United Kingdom. Nevertheless the Republic's Aireacht (ministry) sent a delegation under Ceann Comhairle Sean T. O'Kelly to the Paris Peace Conference, 1919, but it was not admitted. After the bitterly fought War of Independence, representatives of the British government and the Irish rebels negotiated the Anglo-Irish Treaty in 1921 under which the British agreed to the establishment of an independent Irish State whereby the Irish Free State (in the Irish language *Saorstát Éireann*) with dominion status was created. The Dáil narrowly ratified the treaty.

The Treaty was not entirely satisfactory to either side. It gave more concessions to the Irish than the British had intended to give but did not go far enough to satisfy republican aspirations. The new Irish Free State was in theory to cover the entire island, subject to the proviso that six counties in the north-east, termed "Northern Ireland" (which had been created as a separate entity under the *Government of Ireland Act 1920*) could opt out and choose to remain part of the United Kingdom, which they duly did. The remaining twenty-six counties became the Irish Free State, a constitutional monarchy over which the British monarch reigned (from 1927 with the title King of Ireland). It had a Governor-General, a bicameral parliament, a cabinet called the "Executive Council" and a prime minister called the President of the Executive Council.

The Irish Civil War was the direct consequence of the creation of the Irish Free State. Anti-Treaty forces, led by Eamon de Valera, objected to the fact that acceptance of the Treaty *abolished* the Irish Republic of 1919 to which they had sworn loyalty, arguing in the face of public support for the settlement that the "people have no right to do wrong". They objected most to the fact that the state would remain part of the British Commonwealth and that Teachtaí Dála would have to swear an oath of fidelity to King George V and his successors. Pro-Treaty forces, led by Michael Collins, argued that the Treaty gave "not the ultimate freedom that all nations aspire to and develop, but the freedom to achieve it".

At the start of the war, the Irish Republican Army (IRA) split into two opposing camps: a pro-treaty IRA and an anti-treaty IRA. The pro-Treaty IRA became part of the new National Army. However, through the lack of an effective command structure in the anti-Treaty IRA, and their defensive tactics throughout the war, Collins and his pro-treaty forces were able to build up an army capable of overwhelming the anti-Treatyists. British supplies of artillery, aircraft, machine-guns and ammunition boosted pro-treaty forces, and the threat of a return of Crown forces to the Free State removed any doubts about the necessity of enforcing the treaty. The lack of public support for the anti-treaty Irregulars, and the determination of the government to overcome them, contributed significantly to their defeat.

The National Army suffered 800 fatalities and perhaps as many as 4,000 people

were killed altogether. As their forces retreated, the Irregulars showed a major talent for destruction and the economy of the Free State suffered a hard blow in the earliest days of its existence.

On 29 December 1937 a new constitution, the Constitution of Ireland, came into force. It replaced the Irish Free State by a new state called simply "Ireland". Though this state's *constitutional* structures provided for a President of Ireland instead of a king, it was not technically a republic; the principal key role possessed by a head of state, that of symbolically representing the state internationally remained vested, in *statute law*, in the King as an *organ*. On 21 December 1948 the Republic of Ireland Act declared a republic, with the functions previously given to the Governor-General acting on the behalf of the King given instead to the President of Ireland.

The Irish state had remained a member of the then- British Commonwealth after independence until the declaration of a republic on 18th April 1949. Under Commonwealth rules declaration of a republic automatically terminated membership of the association; since a reapplication for membership was not made, Ireland consequently ceased to be a member.

The Republic of Ireland joined the United Nations in 1955 and the European Community (now the European Union) in 1973. Irish governments have sought the peaceful reunification of Ireland and have usually cooperated with the British government in the violent conflict with the Provisional IRA and UVF in Northern Ireland known as the " Troubles". A peace settlement for Northern Ireland, the Belfast Agreement, was approved in 1998 in referenda north and south of the border, and is currently being implemented, albeit more slowly than many would like.

3. Politics

The state is a republic, with a parliamentary system of government. The President of Ireland, who serves as head of state, is elected for a seven-year term and can be re-elected only once. The president is largely a figurehead but can still carry out certain constitutional powers and functions, aided by the Council of State, an advisory body. The *Taoiseach* (prime minister), is appointed by the president on the nomination of parliament. The Taoiseach is normally the leader of the political party which wins the most seats in the national elections. It has become normal in the Republic for coalitions to form a government, and there has not been a single-party government since the period of 1987–1989.

The bicameral parliament, the *Oireachtas*, consists of a Senate, Seanad Éireann, and a lower house, Dáil Éireann. The Seanad is composed of sixty members; eleven nominated by the Taoiseach, six elected by two universities, and 43 elected by public representatives from panels of candidates established on a vocational basis. The Dáil has 166 members, *Teachtaí Dála*, elected to represent multi-seat constituencies under the system of proportional representation by means of the Single Transferable Vote. Under the constitution, parliamentary elections must be held at least every seven years, though a lower limit may be set by statute law. The current statutory maximum term is every five years.

The Government is constitutionally limited to fifteen members. No more than two members of the Government can be selected from the Senate, and the

Taoiseach, *Tánaiste* (deputy prime minister) and Minister for Finance *must* be members of the Dáil. The current government consists of a coalition of two parties; Fianna Fáil under Taoiseach Bertie Ahern and the Progressive Democrats under Tánaiste Michael McDowell.

The main opposition in the current Dáil consists of Fine Gael and Labour. Smaller parties such as the Green Party, Sinn Féin and the Socialist Party also have representation in the Dáil.

Ireland joined the European Union in 1973.

4. Administrative divisions

The Republic of Ireland has traditionally had 26 counties, and these are used in political, cultural and sporting contexts. Dáil constituencies are required by statute to follow county boundaries, as far as possible. Hence counties with greater populations have multiple constituencies (e.g. Limerick East/West) and some constituencies consist of more than one county (e.g. Sligo-Leitrim), but by and large, the actual county boundaries are not crossed. As local government units, however, some have been restructured, with the now-abolished County Dublin distributed between three new county councils in the 1990s and County Tipperary having been administratively two separate counties since the 1890s, giving a present-day total of 29 administrative counties and five cities. The five cities – Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Galway, and Waterford – are administered separately from the remainder of their respective counties. Five boroughs – Clonmel, Drogheda, Kilkenny, Sligo and Wexford – have a level of autonomy within the county:

5. Geography

The island of Ireland extends over 84,421 km² of which 83% (or five-sixths) belong to the Republic (at 70,280 km²), with the remainder constituting Northern Ireland. It is bound to the west by the Atlantic Ocean, to the northeast by the North Channel. To the east is found the Irish Sea which reconnects to the ocean via the southwest with St George's Channel and the Celtic Sea. The west-coast of Ireland mostly consists of cliffs, hills and low mountains (the highest point being Carrauntoohil at 1,041 m). In from the perimeter of the country is mostly relatively flat farmland, traversed by rivers such as the River Shannon and several large lakes or *loughs*. The centre of the country is part of the River Shannon watershed, containing large areas of bogland, used for peat production.

The local temperate climate is modified by the North Atlantic Current and is relatively mild. Summers are rarely very hot (temperatures only exceed 30ºC usually once every decade, though commonly reach 29ºC most summers), but it freezes only occasionally in winter (temperatures below -5ºC are very rare). Precipitation is very common, with up to 275 days with rain in some parts of the country. Chief cities are the capital Dublin on the east coast, Cork in the south, Limerick, Galway on the west coast, and Waterford on the south east coast.

6. Education

Ireland has three levels of education: primary, secondary and higher education. The education systems are largely under the direction of the Government via the Minister for Education. Recognised primary and secondary schools must adhere to the curriculum established by the relevant authorities. Education is compulsory between the ages of six and fifteen years, and all children up to the age of eighteen must complete the first three years of secondary, including one sitting of the Junior Certificate examination.

There are approximately 3,300 primary schools in Ireland. The vast majority (92%) are under the patronage of the Catholic Church. Schools run by religious organisations, but receiving public money and recognition, cannot discriminate against pupils based upon religion or lack thereof. A sanctioned system of preference does exist, where students of a particular religion may be accepted before those who do not share the ethos of the school, in a case where a school's quota has already been reached.

The Leaving Certificate, which is taken after two years of study, is the final examination in the secondary school system. Those intending to pursue higher education normally take this examination, with access to third-level courses generally depending on results obtained from the best six subjects taken, on a competitive basis. Third-level education awards are conferred by at least 38 Higher Education Institutions – this includes the constituent or linked colleges of seven universities, plus other designated institutions of the Higher Education and Training Awards Council. According to the 2022 US News rankings, Ireland is among the top twenty best countries for education.

The Programme for International Student Assessment, coordinated by the OECD, currently ranks Ireland as having the fourth highest reading score, ninth highest science score and thirteenth highest mathematics score, among OECD countries, in its 2012 assessment. In 2012, Irish students aged 15 years had the second highest levels of reading literacy in the EU. Ireland also has 0.747 of the World's top 500 Universities per capita, which ranks the country in 8th place in the world. Primary, secondary and higher (university/college) level education are all free in Ireland for all EU citizens.[202] There are charges to cover student services and examinations.

In addition, 37 percent of Ireland's population has a university or college degree, which is among the highest percentages in the world.

7. Economy

The economy of Ireland has transformed in recent years from an agricultural focus to one dependent on trade, industry and investment. Economic growth in Ireland averaged an exceptional 10% from 1995-2000, and 7% from 2001-2004. Industry, which accounts for 46% of GDP, about 80% of exports, and 29% of the labor force, now takes the place of agriculture as the country's leading sector.

Exports play a fundamental role in the state's robust growth, but the economy also benefits from the accompanying rise in consumer spending, construction, and business investment. On paper, the country is the largest exporter of software-related goods and services in the world. In fact, a lot of foreign software, and sometimes music, is filtered through the country to avail of the state's non-taxing of royalties from

copyrighted goods.

One key reason for the country's economic surge might be the government's role in the past ten years. A number of initiatives to address the problems of high inflation (with poor results in recent years), large tax burdens, government spending, lack-lustre foreign investment and low job skills have been introduced.

A key part of economic policy, since 1987, has been Social Partnership which is a neo-corporatist set of voluntary 'pay pacts' between the Government, employers and trades unions. These usually set agreed pay rises for three-year periods.

The state joined in launching the euro currency system in January 1999 (leaving behind the Irish pound) along with ten other EU nations. The 1995 to 2000 period of high economic growth led many to call the country the Celtic Tiger. The economy felt the impact of the global economic slowdown in 2001, particularly in the high-tech export sector – the growth rate in that area was cut by nearly half. GDP growth continued to be relatively robust, with a rate of about 6% in 2001 and 2002. Growth for 2004 was over 4%, and for 2005 was 4.7%.

With high growth came high levels of inflation, particularly in the capital city. Prices in Dublin, where nearly 30% of Ireland's population lives, are considerably higher than elsewhere in the country , especially in the booming property market.

Ireland has the fourth-highest GDP (based on PPP) per capita in the world after Luxembourg, Norway and the United States, and lies 4th in the 2006 UN Human Development Index, which counts GDP per capita as a factor.

The Economist Intelligence Unit's Quality of Life Index ( ) placed Ireland in 1st place in its World in Review 2005 survey.

Poverty figures show that 6.8% of Ireland's population suffer "consistent poverty" (2004).

8. Military

The Republic's armed forces are organised under the Irish Defence Forces (*Óglaigh na hÉireann*). The Irish Army is relatively small(compared to other armies in the region), but well equipped, with 8,500 full-time military personnel (13,000 in the reserve army). This is principally due to Ireland's designation as a neutral country. Due to the "triple-lock" rules governing participation in conflicts, deployments are on UN peace-keeping duties and protection of the Republic's territorial waters (in the case of the Irish Naval Service). See Irish neutrality.

There is also an Irish Air Corps and Reserve Defence Forces (Irish Army Reserve and Naval Service Reserve) under the Defence Forces. Over 40,000 servicemen have served in UN peacekeeping missions around the world.

9. Demographics

General situation

The Irish peoples are mainly of indigenous Neolithic ancestry; although some of the population are also of English, Scottish, Anglo-Norman, Viking and Welsh ancestry, these groups have been assimilated and do not form distinct minority groups. Celtic culture and language forms an important part of national identity (see language section

below). The Irish Travellers are an ethnic minority group.

Languages

The official languages are Irish and English. Teaching of the Irish language is compulsory in primary and secondary level schools which receive money and recognition from the state. Some students may be exempt from the requirement to receive instruction in the language. English is by far the predominant language spoken throughout the country. People living in predominantly Irish-speaking communities (the Gaeltacht) are limited to the low tens of thousands in isolated pockets largely on the western seaboard. Roads signs are usually bilingual, except in the Gaeltacht, where they are in Irish only. The legal status of place names has recently been the subject of controversy, with an order made in 2005 under the Official Languages Act changing the official name of certain locations from English to Irish (e.g. Dingle is now officially named *An Daingean*). Most public notices are only in English, as are most of the print media. National media in Irish exist on TV, radio, and in print.

Recent population growth

According to "Marketing Ireland" Ireland has experienced a massive influx in the number of people from the 10 new EU accession states. Some 210,000 PPS numbers have been issued to people from Poland, Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia. 140,000 PPS number have been given to Poles in Ireland. However, not all those who have received PPS numbers will have remained in Ireland. There are also around 10,000 Americans living in Ireland. There is also a significant Asian, largely Chinese, community in Ireland with an estimated 22,000 people and a Nigerian population of around 9,000 in 2002 . It is estimated that 10,000 Poles arrive in Ireland to work every month.

The CSO published preliminary findings based on the 2006 Census of Population on July 19, 2006. These indicate:

▪ The total population of Ireland on Census Day, April 23, 2006, was 4,234,925, an increase of 317,722, or 8.1% since 2002

▪ Allowing for the incidence of births (245,000) and deaths (114,000), the derived net immigration of people to Ireland between 2002 and 2006 was 186,000. It is estimated that the cohort of non-nationals resident in Ireland is of the order of 400,000 – a number that will be clarified in April 2007.

▪ The average annual rate of increase, 2%, is the highest on record – compared to 1.3% between 1996 and 2002 and 1.5% between 1971 and 1979.

▪ The 2006 population was last exceeded in the 1861 Census when the population then was 4.4 million The lowest population of Ireland was recorded in the 1961 Census – 2.6 million.

▪ All provinces of Ireland recorded population growth. The population of Leinster grew by 8.9%; Munster by 6.5%; and the long-term population decline of Connacht – Ulster has stopped.

▪ The ratio of males to females has declined in each of the four provinces between 1979 and 2006. Leinster is the only province where the number of females exceeds the

number of males. Males predominate in rural counties such as Cavan, Leitrim, and Roscommon while the are more females in cities and urban areas.

Detailed statistics into the population of Ireland since 1841 are available at Irish Population Analysis.

10. Religion

The National Cathedral of the Church of Ireland, part of the Anglican communion.

The Republic of Ireland is 88% nominally Roman Catholic, and has one of the highest rates of church attendance in the Western World. However, there has been a major decline in Mass attendance among Irish Catholics since the liturgical, disciplinary and theological reforms of the Second Vatican Council were implemented. Between 1996 and 2001, regular Mass attendance, already previously in decline, declined from 60% to 48% (it had been above 90% before 1973), and all but two of its sacerdotal seminaries have closed.

The second largest Christian denomination, the Church of Ireland (Anglicanism), having been in decline for most of the twentieth century, has now experienced an increase in membership, according to the 2002 census, as have other small Christian denominations, and Islam. The largest other Protestant denominations are the Presbyterian Church in Ireland, followed by the Methodist Church in Ireland. The very small Jewish community in the state also recorded a marginal increase(see History of the Jews in Ireland).

Religion and politics

The 1937 Constitution of Ireland gave the Roman Catholic Church a "special position" as the church of the majority, but also recognised other Christian and Jewish sects. As with other predominantly Roman Catholic European states (e.g., Italy), the Irish state underwent a period of legal secularisation in the late 20th century. In 1972, the articles mentioning specific religions groups, including the Catholic Church were deleted from the Irish constitution by the Fifth Amendment of the Constitution of Ireland.

Still remaining in the Constitution is Article 44, which begins:

The State acknowledges that the homage of public worship is due to Almighty God. It shall hold His Name in reverence, and shall respect and honour religion.

The article also establishes freedom of religion (for belief, practice, and organisation without undue interference from the state), prohibits endowment of any particular religion, prohibits the state from religious discrimination, and requires the state to treat religious and non-religious schools in a non-prejudicial manner.

Catholic doctrine prohibits abortion in most circumstances, putting it in conflict with the pro-choice movement. In 1983, the Eighth Amendment of the Constitution of Ireland recognised "the right to life of the unborn", subject to qualifications concerning the "equal right to life" of the mother. The case of *Attorney General v. X* prompted passage of the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments, guaranteeing the right to travel abroad to have an abortion performed, and the right of citizens to learn about "services" that are illegal in Ireland but legal outside the country.

Catholic and Protestant attitudes in 1937 also disfavoured divorce, which was prohibited by the original Constitution. It was not until 1995 that the Fifteenth Amendment repealed this ban.

The Catholic Church was hit in the 1990s by a series of sexual abuse scandals and cover-up charges against its hierarchy. In 2005, a major inquiry was made into child sexual abuse allegations. The Ferns report, published on 25 October 2005, revealed that more than 100 cases of child sexual abuse, between 1962 and 2002, by 21 priests, had taken place in the Diocese of Ferns alone. The report criticised the Garda and the health authorities, who failed to protect the children to the best of their abilities; and in the case of the Garda before 1988, no file was ever recorded on sexual abuse complaints. (See Roman Catholic sex abuse cases.)

10. Culture

The island of Ireland has produced the Book of Kells, and writers such as George Berkeley, Jonathan Swift, James Joyce, George Bernard Shaw, Richard Brinsley Sheridan, Oliver Goldsmith, Oscar Wilde, W.B. Yeats, Patrick Kavanagh, Samuel Beckett, John Millington Synge, Seán O'Casey, Séamus Heaney, Bram Stoker and others. Shaw, Yeats, Beckett and Heaney are Nobel Literature laureates. Other prominent writers include John Banville, Roddy Doyle, Séamus Ó Grianna, Dermot Bolger, Maeve Binchy, Frank McCourt, Edna O'Brien, Joseph O'Connor, John McGahern and Colm Tóibín.

Ireland is known for its Irish traditional music, but has produced many other internationally influential artists in other musical genres; Blues guitarist Rory Gallagher, folk singer Christy Moore, the Wolfe Tones, Shane MacGowan with his band The Pogues and singer Sinéad O'Connor.

In classical music, the Island of Ireland was also the birthplace of the notable composers Turlough O'Carolan, John Field (inventor of the Nocturne), Gerald Barry, Michael William Balfe, Sir Charles Villiers Stanford and Charles Wood.
Successful entertainment exports in the late twentieth century include acts such as Horslips, Thin Lizzy, Boomtown Rats, The Corrs, Boyzone, Ronan Keating, The Cranberries, Flogging Molly, Gilbert O'Sullivan, Westlife and Enya, and the internationally acclaimed dance shows *Riverdance* and *Lord of the Dance*. In the early twenty-first century, Damien Rice rose to international fame.

Notable Irish Hollywood actors include Barry Fitzgerald, Colin Farrell, Liam Neeson, Pierce Brosnan, Gabriel Byrne, Daniel Day Lewis (by citizenship), Colm Meaney and Cillian Murphy.

Ireland has produced a number of talented sportsmen and women. In soccer, former players include Roy Keane, Packie Bonnar and Paul McGrath, while footballers whose careers are ongoing include Shay Given and Robbie Keane. In rugby Ireland has produced Ronan O'Gara and Brian O'Driscoll while in athletics Sonia O'Sullivan and Derval O'Rourke have had success in international events. Notable GAA players include the now retired pair of DJ Carey and Peter Canavan.

Ernest Walton of Trinity College Dublin shared the 1951 Nobel Prize in Physics for "splitting the atom". William Rowan Hamilton was a significant mathematician.

Lecture 10.
The United States of America

Plan

1. General characteristics
2. Geography
3. History
4. Government and politics
5. Economy
6. Demographics
7. Language
8. Religion
9. Education
10. Culture

1. General characteristics

The **United States of America**, also known as the **United States**, the **U.S.**, the **U.S.A.**, the **U.S. of A.**, **The States** and **America**, is a country in North America that extends from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean and shares land borders with Canada and Mexico. The United States is a federal republic, with its capital in Washington, D.C.

At over 3.7 million square miles (over 9.5 million km²), the U.S. (including its non-contiguous and overseas states and territories) is the third largest country by total area. It is the world's third most populous nation, with over 300 million people, as well as the world's most populous Christian-majority nation, with members representing all major denominations.

American military, economic, cultural, and political influence increased through the 19th and 20th centuries. With the collapse of the Soviet Union at the end of the Cold War, the nation emerged as the world's sole remaining superpower, and today, the United States plays a major role in world affairs.

The earliest known use of the name *America* is from 1507, when a globe and a large map created by the German cartographer Martin Waldseemüller in Saint-Dié-des-Vosges described the combined continents of the North and South Americas. Although the origin of the name is uncertain, the most widely held belief is that expressed in an accompanying book, *Cosmographiae Introductio*, which explains it as a feminized version of the Latin name of Italian explorer Amerigo Vespucci (*Americus Vespucius*); in Latin, the other continents' names were all feminine. Vespucci theorized, correctly, that Christopher Columbus, on reaching islands in the Caribbean Sea in 1492, had come not to India but to a "New World".

The Americas were also known as *Columbia*, after Columbus, prompting the name *District of Columbia* for the land set aside as the U.S. capital. *Columbia* remained a popular name for the United States until the early 20th century, when it fell into relative disuse; but it is still used poetically and appears in various names and titles. One female personification of the country is called *Columbia*; she is similar to

Britannia. Columbus Day is a holiday in the U.S. and other countries in the Americas commemorating Columbus' October 1492 landing.

The term "united States of America" was first used officially in the Declaration of Independence, adopted on July 4, 1776. On November 15, 1777, the Second Continental Congress adopted the Articles of Confederation, the first of which stated "The Stile *[sic]* of this Confederacy shall be 'The United States of America.'" The name was originally proposed by Thomas Paine.

The adjectival and demonymic forms for the United States are *American*, although the use of this term has been disputed, as it can also refer to inhabitants of both North and South America.

2. Geography

A satellite composite image of the contiguous U.S. Deciduous vegetation and grasslands prevail in the east, transitioning to prairies, boreal forests, and the Rocky Mountains in the west, and deserts in the southwest. In the northeast, the coasts of the Great Lakes and Atlantic seaboard host much of the country's population.

The United States is the world's third or fourth largest country by total area, and the second largest by land area alone, after Russia. Its contiguous portion is bounded by the North Atlantic Ocean to the east, the North Pacific Ocean to the west, Mexico and the Gulf of Mexico to the south, and Canada to the north. The state of Alaska also borders Canada, with the Pacific Ocean to its south and the Arctic Ocean to its north. West of Alaska, across the narrow Bering Strait, is Russia. The state of Hawaii occupies an archipelago in the Pacific Ocean, southwest of the North American mainland.

Terrain

The U.S. has an extremely varied geography, particularly in the West. The eastern seaboard has a coastal plain which is widest in the south and narrows in the north. The coastal plain does not exist north of New Jersey, although there are glacial outwash plains on Long Island, Martha's Vineyard, and Nantucket. In the extreme southeast, Florida is home to the ecologically unique Everglades.

Beyond the coastal plain, the rolling hills of the Piedmont region end at the Appalachian Mountains, which rise above 6,000 feet (1,830 m) in North Carolina, Tennessee, and New Hampshire. From the west slope of the Appalachians, the Interior Plains of the Midwest are relatively flat and are the location of the Great Lakes as well as the Mississippi-Missouri River, the world's 4th longest river system. West of the Mississippi River, the Interior Plains slope uphill and blend into the vast and often featureless Great Plains.

The abrupt rise of the Rocky Mountains, at the western edge of the Great Plains, extends north to south across the continental U.S., reaching altitudes over 14,000 feet (4,270 m) in Colorado. In the past, the Rocky Mountains had a higher level of volcanic activity; nowadays, the range only has one area of volcanism (the supervolcano underlying Yellowstone National Park in Wyoming, possibly the world's largest volcano), although rift volcanism has occurred relatively recently near the Rockies' southern margin in New Mexico.

Alaska has numerous mountain ranges, including Mount McKinley (Denali), the highest peak in North America. Numerous volcanoes can be found throughout the Alexander and Aleutian Islands extending south and west of the Alaskan mainland. The Hawaiian islands are tropical, volcanic islands extending over 1,500 miles (2,400 km), and consisting of six larger islands and another dozen smaller ones that are inhabited.

Climate

Due to its large size and wide range of geographic features, the United States contains examples of nearly every global climate. The climate is temperate in most areas, tropical in Hawaii and southern Florida, polar in Alaska, semiarid in the Great Plains west of the 100th meridian, Mediterranean in coastal California and arid in the Great Basin. Its comparatively generous climate contributed (in part) to the country's rise as a world power, with infrequent severe drought in the major agricultural regions, a general lack of widespread flooding, and a mainly temperate climate that receives adequate precipitation.

3. History

Native Americans

Before the European colonization of the Americas, a process that began at the end of the 15th century, the present-day continental U.S. was inhabited exclusively by various indigenous tribes, including Alaskan natives, who migrated to the continent over a period that may have begun 35,000 years ago and may have ended as recently as 11,000 years ago.

European colonization

The first confirmed European landing in the present-day United States was by Christopher Columbus, who visited Puerto Rico on November 19, 1493, during his second voyage. San Juan, the United States' first European settlement was founded there on August 8, 1508 by Juan Ponce de León. Ponce de León went on to become the first confirmed European to arrive in the continental US when he landed in Florida on April 2, 1513. Florida was home to the continental United States' earliest European colonies; these were Pensacola (founded by Tristán de Luna y Arellano in 1559), Fort Caroline (by René Goulaine de Laudonnière in 1564), and St. Augustine (by Pedro Menéndez de Avilés in 1565), the last of which is the only one which was continuously inhabited since its foundation.

The French colonized some of the northeastern portions, and the Spanish colonized most of the southern and western United States. The first successful English settlement was at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607, followed in 1620 by the Pilgrims' landing at Plymouth, Massachusetts, then the arrival of the colony of Massachusetts Bay, started by the Puritans. In 1609 and 1617, respectively, the Dutch settled in part of what became New York and New Jersey. In 1638, the Swedes founded New Sweden, in part of what became Delaware, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania after passing through Dutch hands. Throughout the 17th and early 18th centuries, England (and later Great Britain) established new colonies, took over Dutch colonies, and split others.

With the division of the Carolinas in 1729, and the colonization of Georgia in 1732, the British colonies in North America – excluding present-day Canada, and the loyal colonies of East and West Florida –numbered thirteen.

American Revolution

Tensions between American colonials and the British during the revolutionary period of the 1760s and 1770s led to open military conflict in 1775. George Washington commanded the Continental Army during the American Revolutionary War (1775-1783) as the Second Continental Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776. The Congress had been formed to confront British actions and created the Continental Army, but it did not have the authority to levy taxes or make federal laws. In 1777, the Congress adopted the Articles of Confederation, uniting the states under a weak federal government, which operated from 1781 until 1788, when enough states had ratified the United States Constitution. The Constitution, which strengthened the union and the federal government, has since remained the supreme law of the land and holds the record for the set of laws to stay in effect the longest in the world.

Westward expansion

From 1803 to 1848, the size of the new nation nearly tripled as settlers (many embracing the concept of Manifest Destiny as an inevitable consequence of American exceptionalism) pushed beyond national boundaries even before the Louisiana Purchase. The expansion was tempered somewhat by the stalemate in the War of 1812, but it was subsequently reinvigorated by victory in the Mexican-American War in 1848.

Between 1830-1880 up to 40 million American Buffalo were slaughtered for skins and meat, and to aid railway expansion. The expansion of the railways reduced transit times for both goods and people, made westard expansion less arduous for the pioneers, and increased conflicts with the Indians over the land and its uses. The loss of the buffalo, a primary resource for the plains Indians, added to the pressures on native cultures and individuals for survival.

Civil War

As new territories were being incorporated, the nation was divided over the issue of states' rights, the role of the federal government, and – by the 1820s – the expansion of slavery, which had been legal in all thirteen colonies but was rarer in the north, where it was abolished by 1804. The Northern states were opposed to the expansion of slavery whereas the Southern states saw the opposition as an attack on their way of life, since their economy was dependent on slave labor. The failure to permanently resolve these issues led to the Civil War, following the secession of many slave states in the South to form the Confederate States of America after the 1860 election of Abraham Lincoln. The 1865 Union victory in the Civil War effectively ended slavery and settled the question of whether a state had the right to secede. The event was a major turning point in American history, with an increase in federal power.

Reconstruction and industrialization

After the Civil War, an unprecedented influx of immigrants, who helped to provide labor for American industry and create diverse communities in undeveloped areas – together with high tariff protections, national infrastructure building, and national banking regulations – hastened the country's rise to international power. The growing power of the United States enabled it to acquire new territories, including the annexation of Puerto Rico after victory in the Spanish-American War, which marked the debut of the United States as a major world power.

World War I and II

At the start of the World War I in 1914, the United States remained neutral. In 1917, however, the United States joined the Allied Powers, helping to turn the tide against the Central Powers. For historical reasons, American sympathies were very much in favour of the British and French, even though a sizable number of citizens, mostly Irish and German, were opposed to intervention. After the war, the Senate did not ratify the Treaty of Versailles because of a fear that it would pull the United States into European affairs. Instead, the country pursued a policy of unilateralism that bordered at times on isolationism.

During most of the 1920s, the United States enjoyed a period of unbalanced prosperity as farm prices fell and industrial profits grew. A rise in debt and an inflated stock market culminated in a crash in 1929, triggering the Great Depression. After his election as President in 1932, Franklin Delano Roosevelt instituted his plan for a New Deal, which increased government intervention in the economy in response to the Great Depression.

The nation did not fully recover until 1941, when the United States was driven to join the Allies against the Axis Powers after a surprise attack on Pearl Harbour by Japan. World Ear II was the costliest war in economic terms in American history, but it helped to pull the economy out of depression because the required production of military materiel provided much-needed jobs, and women entered the workforce in large numbers for the first time. During this war, scientists working for the United States federal government succeeded in producing nuclear weapons, making the United States the world's first nuclear power. Toward the end of World War II, after the end of World War II in Europe, the United States dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan. The Hiroshima and Nagasaki bombs were the second and third nuclear devices detonated and the only ones ever employed as weapons.
Japan surrendered soon after, on 2 September 1945, which ended World War II.

Cold War and civil rights

After World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union became superpowers in an era of ideological rivalry dubbed the Cold War. The United States promoted liberal democracy and capitalism, while the Soviet Union comminism and a centrally planned economy. The result was a series of proxy wars, including the Korean War, the Vietnam War, the tense nuclear showdown of the Cuban Missile

Crisis, and the Soviet war in Afghanistan.

The perception that the United States was losing the space race spurred government efforts to raise proficiency in mathematics and science in schools and led to President John F.Kennedy's call for the United States to land "a man on the moon" by the end of the 1960s, which was realized in 1969.

Meanwhile, American society experienced a period of sustained economic expansion. At the same time, discrimination across the United States, especially in the South, was increasingly challenged by a growing civil-rights movement headed by prominent African Americans such as Martin Luther King, Jr., which led to the abolition of the Jim Crow laws in the South.

After the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991, the United States continued to intervene in overseas military conflicts such as the Gulf War. It remains the world's only superpower.

September 11, 2001 and the War on Terrorism

On September 11, 2001, 19 al-Qaeda operatives hijacked four commercial airplanes and flew two planes into the World Trade Centre towers, one plane into The Pentagon; the fourth plane was brought down by passengers in Shanksville, Pennsylvania. After the 9/11 attacks, U.S. foreign policy then focused on the global threat of terrorism. In response, the United States government under President George W.Bush began a series of military and legal operations termed the War on Terror. The War on Terror began on October 7, 2001 when a U.S.-led coalition launched military operations in Afghanistan which led to the removal of the Taliban rule and the expulsion of the terrorist organization al-Qaeda and its leader Osama Bin Laden. The events of September 11 led to a preemptive policy against threats to U.S. security, known as the Bush Doctrine.

In the 2002 State of the Union address, President George W. Bush labeled North Korea, Iraq, and Iran "the axis of evil," and stated that these countries "constitute a grave threat to the security of the U.S. and its allies." Beginning later that year, the Bush administration began to press for regime change in Iraq. After many failed U.N. resolutions and Saddam Hussein rejecting demands to surrender, the United States and its allies invaded Iraq in March of 2003. The Bush administration justified its invasion with a charge that Iraq had stockpiled weapons of mass destruction, and was seeking nuclear weapons. After the invasion, only a limited number of non-nuclear stockpiles were found, and the Bush administration later admitted having acted on flawed intelligence. As of November 2006, Operation Iraqi Freedom remains an ongoing event.

4. Government and politics Political system

The United States is the longest-surviving extant constitutional republic, with the oldest wholly written constitution in the world. Its government operates as a representative democracy through a congressional system under a set of powers specified by its Constitution. There are three levels of government: federal, state, and local. Officials at all three levels are either elected by voters in a secret ballot or appointed by other elected officials. Executive and legislative offices are decided by a

plurality vote of citizens in their respective districts, with judicial and cabinet-level offices nominated by the Executive branch and approved by the Legislature. In some states, judicial posts are filled by popular election rather than executive appointment.

The federal government comprises three branches, which are designed to check and balance one another's powers:

- Legislative: The Congress, made up of the Senate and the House of Representatives, which makes federal law, declares war, approves treaties and has powers of impeachment.
- Executive: The President, who appoints, with Senate approval, the Cabinet and other officers, who administers and enforces federal law, can veto bills, and is Commander in Chief of the military.
- Judiciary: The Supreme Court and lower federal courts, whose judges are appointed by the President with Senate approval, that interpret laws and their validity under the Constitution, and can overturn laws they deem unconstitutional.

The United States Congress is a bicameral legislature. The House of Representatives has 435 members, each representing a congressional district for a two-year term. House seats are apportioned among the states according to population every tenth year. Each state is guaranteed at least one representative: currently, seven states have one each; California, the most populous state, has 53. Each state has two senators, elected at large to six-year terms; one third of Senate seats are up for election every second year. The United States Constitution is the supreme legal document in the American system, and serves as a social contract between the people of the United States and their government. All laws and procedures of both state and federal governments are subject to review, and any law ruled to violate the Constitution by the judicial branch is overturned. The Constitution is a living document. It can be amended by a variety of methods, all of which require the approval of an overwhelming majority of the states. The Constitution has been amended 27 times, the last time in 1992.

The Constitution contains a dedication to "preserve liberty" with a “Bill of Rights” and other amendments, which guarantee freedom of speech, religion, and the press; the right to a fair trial; the right to keep and bear arms; universal suffrage; and property rights. However, the extent to which these rights are protected and universal in practice is heavily debated. The Constitution also guarantees to every State "a Republican Form of Government". However, the meaning of that guarantee has been only slightly explicated.

Since 2001, the President has been George W.Bush, a Republican. Following the 2006 mid-term elections, the Democratic Party holds a majority of seats in both the House and Senate for the first time since 1994, except for a Democratic plurality in the Senate in 2001–02,

Foreign relations and military

The United States has vast economic, political, and military influence on a global scale, which makes its foreign policy a subject of great interest and discussion around the world. Almost all countries have embassies in Washington, D.C., and consulates around the country. However, Cuba, Iran, North Korea, and Sudan do not have formal diplomatic relations with the United States. The United States is a founding

member of the United Nations (with a permanent seat on the Security Council), among many other international organizations.

The United States has a long-standing tradition of civilian control over military affairs. The Department of Defense administers the U.S. armed forces, which comprise the Army, the Navy, the Marine Corps, and the Air Force. The Coast Guard falls under the jurisdiction of the Department of Homeland Security in peacetime but is placed under the Department of the Navy in times of war.

The military of the United States comprises 1.4 million personnel on active duty, along with several hundred thousand each in the Reserves and the National Guard. Service in the military is voluntary, though conscription may occur in times of war through the Selective Service System. The United States is considered to have the most powerful military in the world, partly because of the size of its defense budget; American defense expenditures in 2005 were estimated to be greater than the next 14 largest national military budgets combined, even though the U.S. military budget is only about 4% of the country's gross domestic product. The U.S. military maintains over 700 bases and facilities on every continent except Antarctica.

Administrative division

The conterminous, or contiguous, forty-eight states – all the states but Alaska and Hawaii – are also called the continental United States. Some include Alaska in the "continental" states, because, although it is separated from the "lower forty-eight" by Canada, it is part of the North American mainland. All of these terms commonly include the District of Columbia. Hawaii, the fiftieth state, occupies an archipelago in the Pacific Ocean.

The United States also holds several other territories, districts, and possessions, notably the federal district of the District of Columbia – which contains the nation's capital city, Washington – and several overseas insular areas, the most significant of which are American Samoa, Guam, the Northern Marianna Islands, Puerto Rico and the United States Virgin Islands. Palmyra Atoll is the United States' only incorporated territory; but it is unorganized and uninhabited. The United States Minor Outlying Islands consist of uninhabited islands and atolls in the Pacific and Caribbean Sea. In addition, since 1898, the United States Navy has leased an extensive naval base at Guantanamo Bay, Cuba.

In addition to the actual states and territories of the United States, there are also nations which are associated states of the U.S. The Federated States of Micronesia (since 1986), Palau (since 1994), and the Marshall Islands (since 1986) are associated with the United States under what is known as the Compact of Free Association, giving the states international sovereignty and ultimate control over their territory. However, the governments of those areas have agreed to allow the United States to provide defense and financial assistance.

5. Economy

General situation

The economic history of the United States is a story of economic growth that began with marginally successful colonial economies and progressed to the largest

industrial economy in the world in the 20th and early 21st century.

The economic system of the United States can be described as a capitalist mixed economy, in which corporations, other private firms, and individuals make most microeconomic decisions, and governments prefer to take a smaller role in the domestic economy, although the combined role of all levels of government is relatively large, at 36% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The U.S. has a small social safety net, and regulation of businesses is slightly less than the average of developed countries. The United States' median household income in 2005 was $43,318.

Economic activity varies greatly across the country. For example, New York City is the centre of the American financial, publishing, broadcasting and advertising industries, while Los Angeles is the most important centre for film and television production. The San Francisco Bay Area and the Pacific Northwest are major centers for technology. The Midwest is known for its reliance on manufacturing and heavy industry, with Detroit serving as the historic centre of the American automotive industry, and Chicago serving as the business and financial capital of the region. The Southeast is a major area for agriculture, tourism, and the lumber industry, and, because of wages and costs below the national average, it continues to attract manufacturing.

A farm near Klingerstown, Pennsylvania. Farming accounts for less than 1% of the total GDP of the United States but still is a major economic activity.

The largest sector in the United States economy is services, which employs roughly three quarters of the work force.

The economy is fueled by an abundance in natural resources such as coal, petroleum, and precious metals. However, the country still depends for much of its energy on foreign countries. In agriculture, the country is a top producer of corn, soy beans, rice and wheat, with the Great Plains labeled as the "breadbasket of the world" for its tremendous agricultural output. The U.S. has a large tourist industry, ranking third in the world, and is also a major exporter in goods such as airplanes, steel, weapons and electronics. Canada accounts for 19% (more than any other nation) of the United States' foreign trade, followed by China, Mexico and Japan.

While the *per capita* income of the United States is among the highest in the world, the wealth is comparatively concentrated. The per capita income is higher than the western European, but in 1990 income was distributed less equally. Since 1975, the U.S. has a "two-tier" labor market in which virtually all the real income gains have gone to the top 20% of households, with most of those gains accruing to the very highest earners within that category. This polarization is the result of a relatively high level of economic freedom.

The social mobility of U.S. residents relative to that of other countries is the subject of much debate. Some analysts have found that social mobility in the United States is low relative to other OECD states, specifically compared to Western Europe, Scandinavia and Canada. Low social mobility may stem in part from the U.S. educational system. Public education in the United States is funded mainly by local property taxes supplemented by state revenues. This frequently results in a wide difference in funding between poor districts or poor states and more affluent jurisdictions. In addition, the practice of legacy preference at elite universities gives

preference to the children of alumni, who are often wealthy. This practice reduces available spaces for better-qualified lower income students. Some analysts argue that relative social mobility in the U.S. peaked in the 1960s and declined rapidly beginning in the 1980s. Former Federal Reserve Board Chairman Alan Greenspan has also suggested that the growing income inequality and low class mobility of the U.S. economy may eventually threaten the entire system in the near future.

Innovation

The United States is an influential country in scientific and technological research and the production of innovative technological products. During World War II, the U.S. was the first to develop the atomic bomb, ushering in the atomic age. Beginning early the Cold War, the U.S. achieved successes in space science and technology, leading to a space race which led to rapid advances in rocketry, weaponry, material science, computers, and many other areas. This technological progress was epitomized by the first visit of a man to the moon, when Neil Armstrong stepped off Apollo 11 in July 1969. The U.S. was also the most instrumental nation in the development of the Internet, developing its predecessor, Arpanet. The U.S. also controls most of its infrastructure.

In the sciences, Americans have a large share of Nobel Prizes, especially in the fields of physiology and medicine. The National Institutes of Health, a focal point for biomedical research in the United States, has contributed to the completion of the Human Genome Project. The main governmental organization for aviation and space research is the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. Major corporations, such as Boeing and Lockheed Martin, also play an important role.

Transportation

The automobile industry developed earlier and more rapidly in the United States than in most other countries. The backbone of the nation's transportation infrastructure is a network of high-capacity highways which carry large numbers of both passenger cars and freight trucks. From data taken in 2004, there are about 3,981,521 miles (6,407,637 km) of roadways in the U.S., the most in the world.

Mass transit systems exist in large cities, such as New York, which operates one of the busiest subway systems in the world. With a few exceptions, American cities are less dense than those in other parts of the world. Low density partly results from and largely necessitates automobile ownership by most households.

The U.S. had been unique in its high number of private passenger railroads. During the 1970s, government intervention reorganized freight railroads, consolidating passenger service under the government-backed Amtrak corporation. No other country has more miles of rail.

Air travel is the preferred means of passenger travel for long distances. In terms of passengers, seventeen of the world's thirty busiest airports in 2004 were in the U.S., including the world's busiest, Hartsfield–Jackson Atlanta International Airport (ATL). In terms of cargo, in the same year, twelve of the world's thirty busiest airports were in the U.S., including the world's busiest, Memphis International Airport.

Several major seaports are in the United States; the three busiest are California's

Port of Los Angeles and Port of Long Beach, and the Port of New York and New Jersey, all among the world's busiest. The interior of the U.S. also has major shipping channels, via the St. Lawrence Seaway and the Mississippi River. The first water link between the Great Lakes and the Atlantic, the Erie Canal, allowed the rapid expansion of agriculture and industry in the Midwest and made New York City the economic centre of the country.

6. Demographics

On October 17, 2006 at 7:46 a.m. EST, the United States' population stood at an estimated 300,000,000, with an annual growth rate of about 0.59%. This figure includes persons living in the U.S. without legal permission to do so, estimated at 12 million, and excludes U.S. citizens living abroad, estimated at 3 million to 7 million. Thus any population estimate needs to be seen as a somewhat rough figure, according to the US Department of Commerce. According to the 2000 census, about 79% of the population lived in urban areas.

About 15.8% of households have annual incomes of at least $100,000, and the top 10% of households had annual gross incomes exceeding $118,200 in 2003. Overall, the top quintile, those households earning more than $86,867 a year, earned 49.8% of all income in 2003.

In the 2000 census, the country had 31 ethnic groups with at least one million members each, with numerous others represented in smaller amounts. By the federal government's categorization of race, most Americans (80.4% in 2004) are white. These white Americans are mostly European Americans – the descendants of European immigrants to the United States – along with some non-Europeans counted as white in government nomenclature (those with origins in the original peoples of the Middle East and North Africa). To the exclusion of Hispanic-origin European Americans, non-Hispanic whites constituted 67.4% of the population. The non-Hispanic white population is proportionally declining, because of both immigration by, and a higher birth rate among, ethnic and racial minorities. If current immigration trends continue, the number of non-Hispanic whites is expected to be reduced to a plurality by 2040-2050. The largest ethnic group of European ancestry is German at 15.2%, followed by Irish (10.8%), English (8.7%), Italian (5.6%) and Scandinavian (3.7%). Many immigrants also hail from French Canada, as well as from such Slavic countries as Poland and Ukraine. African Americans, or Blacks, largely descend from Africans who arrived as slaves during the 17th through 19th centuries, and number about 35 million or 12.9% of the population. At about 1.5% of the total population, Native Americans and Alaska Natives number about 4.4 million, approximately 35% of whom were living on reservations in 2005.

Current demographic trends include the immigration of Hispanics from Latin America into the Southwest, a region that is home to about 60% of the 35 million Hispanics in the United States. Immigrants from Mexico make up about 66% of the Hispanic community, and are second only to the German-descent population in the single-ethnicity category. The Hispanic population, which has been growing at an annual rate of about 4.46% since the 1990s, is expected to increase significantly in the coming decades, because of both immigration and a higher birth rate among Latinos

than among the general population.

Crime in the United States is characterised by relatively high levels of gun violence and homicide, compared to other developed countries. Levels of property crime and other types of crime in the United States are comparable to other developed countries.

7. Language

Although the United States has no official language, English is the *de facto* national language. In 2003, about 215 million, or 82%, of the population aged five years and older spoke only English at home. Although not all Americans speak English, it is the most common language for daily interaction among both native and non-native speakers. Nowadays, more languages are being used in daily life for mainly Spanish speakers who cannot understand English. Knowledge of English is required of immigrants seeking naturalization. Some Americans advocate making English the official language, which is the law in twenty-seven states. Three states also grant official status to other languages alongside English: French in Louisiana, Hawaiian in Hawaii, and Spanish in New Mexico. Besides English, languages spoken at home by at least one million Americans aged five years and up are Spanish or Spanish Creole, spoken by 29.7 million; Chinese, 2.2 million; French (including Patois and Cajun), 1.4 million; Tagalog, 1.3 million; Vietnamese, 1.1 million; and German, 1.1 million.

8. Religion

The United States government keeps no official register of Americans' religious status. However, in a private survey conducted in 2001 and mentioned in the Census Bureau's *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 76.7% of American adults identified themselves as Christian; about 52% of adults described themselves as members of various Protestant denominations. Roman Catholics, at 24.5%, were the most populous individual denomination. The most popular other faiths include Judaism (1.4%), Islam (0.6%), Buddhism (0.5%) and Hinduism (0.4%) and Unitarian Universalism (0.3%). About 14.2% of respondents described themselves as having no religion. The religious distribution of the 5.4% who elected not to describe themselves for the survey is unknown.

Religion among some Americans is highly dynamic: over the period 1990–2001, those groups whose portion of the population at least doubled were, in descending order of growth, Wiccans, nondenominational Christians, Deists, Sikhs, Evangelical Christians, Disciples of Christ, New Age adherents, Hindus, Full Gospel adherents, Quakers, independent Christians, those who refused to answer the question, Buddhists, and Foursquare Gospel adherents.

9. Education

Education in the United States has been a state or local, not federal, responsibility. The Department of Education of the federal government, however, exerts some influence through its ability to control funding. Students are generally obliged to attend school starting with kindergarten, and ending with the 12th grade, which is normally completed at age 18, but many states may allow students to drop out

as early as age 16. Besides public schools, parents may also choose to educate their own children at home or to send their children to parochial or private schools. After high school, students may choose to attend universities, either public or private. Public universities receive funding from the federal and state governments, as well as from other sources, but most students still have to pay student loans after graduation. Tuition at private universities is generally much higher than at public universities.

There are many competitive institutions of higher education in the United States, both private and public. The United States has 168 universities in the world's top 500, 17 of which are in the top 20. There are also many smaller universities and liberal arts colleges, and local community colleges of varying quality across the country with open admission policies.

The United States ranks 24th out of 29 surveyed countries in the reading and science literacy as well as mathematical abilities of its high school students when compared with other developed nations. The United States also has a low literacy rate compared to other developed countries, with a reading literacy rate at 86 - 98% of the population over age 15. As for educational attainment, 27.2% of the population aged 25 and above have earned a bachelor's degree or higher, and 84.6% have graduated high school.

10. Culture

The culture of the United States began as the culture of its first English colonists. The culture quickly evolved as an independent frontier culture supplemented by indigenous and Spanish–Mexican cowboy culture and by the cultures of subsequent waves of immigrants, first from Europe and Africa and later from Asia. Overall, significant cultural influences came from Europe, especially from the German, English and Irish cultures and later from Italian, Greek and Ashkenazi cultures. Descendants of enslaved West Africans preserved some cultural traditions from West Africa in the early United States. Geographical place names largely reflect the combined English, Dutch, French, Spanish, and Native American components of U.S. American history.

There are two dominant sociological models of cultural assimilation. The traditional melting pot model describes a form of homogenization. Immigrants from other cultures bring unique cultural aspects which are incorporated into the larger American culture, but then the immigrant populations gradually adopt the unified culture, forming a single "alloy". A more recently articulated model is that of the salad bowl, in which immigrant cultures retain some of the unique characteristics. Instead of merging with a unified American culture, they intermingle, forming a heterogenous mixture, not unlike a salad composed of different vegetables. There is considerable contemporary political debate over the merits of cultural assimilation versus pluralism or multiculturalism.

An important component of American culture is the American Dream: the idea that, through hard work, courage, and self-determination, regardless of social class, a person can gain a better life.

Cuisine

American cuisine uses Native American ingredients such as turkey, potatoes, corn and squash, which have become integral parts of American culture. Such popular icons as apple pie, pizza, and hamburgers are either derived from or are actual European dishes. Burritos and tacos have their origins in Mexico. Soul food, which originated among African slaves, is popular in the U.S. as well. However, many foods now enjoyed worldwide either originated in the United States or were altered by American chefs.

Visual arts

In the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries American art took most of its cues from Europe. Painting, sculpture, and literature looked to Europe as a model, and for approval. By the end of the U.S. Civil War, a more native voice had emerged in American literature. Mark Twain, Emily Dickensen, and Walt Whitman all spoke in an American vernacular and voice. Visual art was slower to find its own distinct American expression. The 1913 Armory show in New York City, an exhibition which brought European modernist artists' work to the U.S., both shocked the public and influenced artmaking in the United States for the remainder of the twentieth century. The exhibition had a two-fold effect of communicating to American artists that artmaking was about expression, not only aesthetics or realism, and at the same time showing that Europe had abandoned its conservative model of ranking artists according to a strict academic hierarchy. This encouraged American artists to find a personal voice, and a modernist movement, responding to American civilization, emerged in the United States. Alfred Stieglitz (1864-1946), photographer, Charles Demuth (1883-1935) and Marsden Hartley (1877-1943), both painters, helped establish an American viewpoint in the fine arts. The Museum of Modern Art in New York, founded in 1929, became a showcase for American and International contemporary art. Following the conclusion of the Second World War, a shift occured with the decline of Paris as the world's art center and the emergence of New York as the centre of contemporary fine art for the U.S. and the world.

Music

Music also traces to the country's diverse cultural roots through an array of styles. Rock, soul, hip hop, country, blues and jazz are among the country's most internationally renowned genres. Since the late 19th century, popular recorded music from the United States has become increasingly known across the world, such that some forms of American popular music are heard almost everywhere.

Cinema

The birth of cinema, as well as its development, largely took place in the United States. In 1878, the first recorded instance of sequential photographs capturing and reproducing motion was Eadweard Muybridge's series of a running horse, which the British-born photographer produced in Palo Alto, California, using a row of still cameras. Since then, the American film industry, based in Hollywood, California, has had a profound effect on cinema across the world. Other genres that originated in the

United States and spread worldwide include the comic book and Disney's animated films.

Sports

Sports are a national pastime, and playing sports, especially American football, baseball and basketball, is very popular at the high school level. Professional sports in the U.S. is big business and contains most of the world's highest paid athletes. The "Big Four" sports are baseball, American football, ice hockey, and basketball. Baseball is thought of "the national pastime"; but, since the early 1990s, American football has largely been considered the most popular sport in America. Hockey has also lost its popularity recently.

Other sports, including auto racing, lacrosse, soccer, golf and tennis, have significant followings. The United States is among the most influential countries in shaping three popular board-based recreational sports: surfboarding, skateboarding, and snowboarding. Eight Olympiads have taken place in the United States; in medals won, the United States ranks third all-time in the Winter Games, with 218 (78 gold, 81 silver, and 59 bronze), and first in the Summer Games, with 2,321 (943 gold, 736 silver, and 642 bronze).

Lecture 11.
American History in Short

Plan

1. Europeans Arrive in the Americas
2. The Colonial Period
3. The American Revolution
4. The New Nation
5. The Country Divides and Reunites
6. Growth of the Nation
7. World War I
8. From Prosperity to Depression
9. The New Deal
10. World War II
11. The Cold War Begins
12. Civil Rights
13. Vietnam War and Watergate
14. Reagan and Bush Administrations
15. After the Cold War

The land that became the United States has been inhabited for some 60,000 years. The first people to live on the land were hunters who most likely migrated to North America from Asia. Eventually these people and their descendants – the **Native Americans –** spread across North and South America.

1. Europeans Arrive in the Americas

The history of the Americas forever changed when the explorer **Christopher Columbus** arrived from Spain in 1492. This voyage and three later ones revealed vast new lands to the Europeans. The continents of North and South America and the nearby islands became known as the New World. Columbus' discovery began an era of European exploration and **colonization** that had a devastating effect on the Native Americans. Many died of diseases carried by the Europeans. Others were killed in warfare or forced into slavery.

When the king and queen of Spain learned of what Columbus had found, they laid claim to much of the new lands. The Spanish established colonies in the West Indies, Mexico, Central America, and South America.

The first Spanish explorer to reach the shores of what is now the United States was Juan Ponce de León. He landed in what is now **Florida** in 1513 and claimed it for his country. Through later explorations, Spain also established control over what is now the southwestern United States.

Meanwhile, three other countries also became interested in the new land: England, France, and the Netherlands. In 1497 the Englishman **John Cabot** explored the coast of what is now eastern Canada. England laid claim to North America based on this voyage, though for decades it made little effort to colonize the land. In 1524 a French expedition commanded by **Giovanni de Verrazzano** explored the coast of North America from North Carolina northward to Canada. Ten years later another French expedition led by **Jacques Cartier** sailed up the Saint Lawrence River. In 1609 **Henry Hudson**, in command of a Dutch ship, sailed into New York Bay and up the river that later was named after him. (*See also* **Americas, Exploration and Settlement of the**.)

2. The Colonial Period

The 13 Colonies Are Established

The English founded their first permanent settlement on the continent at Jamestown, **Virginia**, in 1607. In 1619 the people of Virginia organized the first representative assembly in America. This was the House of Burgesses (or citizens).

The second English colony to be established in America was **Plymouth**. It was founded by the Pilgrims in 1620. The Pilgrims were a group of Protestants who left England because they objected to some of the beliefs and practices of the Church of England. They crossed the Atlantic Ocean in a ship called the ***Mayflower***. After landing in what became the state of **Massachusetts**, they established their colony. Near Plymouth, another group of English Protestants called the **Puritans** founded the larger Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1630. The Puritans also had left England because of disagreements with the Church of England. Plymouth Colony was made part of the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1691.

English colonies spread along the coast near Massachusetts and Virginia in the 1620s and 1630s. Permanent settlements were made in what is now **New Hampshire** in 1623. People from the Massachusetts Bay Colony established the colonies of **Connecticut** in 1635 and **Rhode Island** in 1636. **Maryland**, just north of

Virginia, was settled in 1634.

Meanwhile, in 1624, Dutch settlers had founded a colony called New Netherland in the area of the Hudson River. The English colonists in New England and Virginia viewed the Dutch as intruders. In 1664 an English fleet seized the Dutch colony. The English changed its name from New Netherland to **New York**. The English also seized nearby **New Jersey** and **Delaware** from the Dutch in 1664. **Pennsylvania** was founded in 1681 by an English Quaker named **William Penn**.

South of Virginia, the land known as Carolina was settled by the English during the second half of the 1700s. In 1729 the territory was divided into the colonies of **North** and **South Carolina**. **Georgia**, the last of the original **13 colonies**, was settled in 1733.

Early Relations with the Native Americans

Life in the colonies was influenced by the Native American tribes that had lived on the land since long before the Europeans arrived. The early colonists adopted Native American foods and herbs, methods of raising crops, war techniques, and words. Some of the colonists established friendly relations with the Native Americans living near them. Over the years, however, the interaction between the colonists and the Native Americans turned more often to conflict.

Colonial Government and Economy

Most of the colonies established assemblies similar to the English **Parliament** to govern themselves. Only citizens who owned property or paid taxes, however, were allowed to vote or to become a member of the assembly. In New England, where most of the people lived in villages and towns, local government was conducted in town meetings. In the South, where most people lived on large farms and plantations, the county was the basis for local government.

Most of the early colonists were farmers because they had to grow their own food. In time, however, the living patterns of the colonists changed. In New England people turned their land over to livestock raising and began lumbering, shipbuilding, and fishing industries. In the South colonists grew tobacco, rice, and indigo, which they traded with other colonies and with England. The large plantations in the South were worked by **enslaved peoples** brought from Africa. The colonists of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania grew grains for their own use and for export.

Expansion of the Colonies

Along with economic development, the colonies steadily made gains in such areas as religious freedom, education, travel, communication, and self-government. These advancements led to rapid population growth. In 1700 about 250,000 people lived in the 13 colonies. By 1760 this number had reached nearly 1.7 million. Many of the newcomers had come from Scotland, Ireland, Germany, and France. Part of the population growth, however, was due to huge increases in the number of African slaves brought to the colonies. By 1765, for example, Blacks outnumbered whites in South Carolina by about 2 to 1.

As the population of the colonies grew, people began to expand their settlements westward. This brought them into conflict with the Native Americans already living in the territory. The colonists and the Native Americans often fought for control of the land. In nearly every struggle the outcome was the same: the Europeans pushed the

Native Americans farther and farther from their homelands.

The expansion of the colonies also heightened tensions between the English and the French. French people had settled in the Saint Lawrence Valley, the Great Lakes region, and the Mississippi Valley. The English and French soon came into conflict over fishing rights, the fur trade, and Native American alliances. There was also bitter hostility between France and England in Europe. Between 1689 and 1748 the two countries fought three separate wars, both in Europe and in America. In 1754 French and British forces began another conflict, which came to be called the **French and Indian War**. The war ended in 1763 with the defeat of France and its Native American allies. The victory gave Great Britain control over all French lands in Canada and between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River. Britain had become the supreme power in North America.

3. The American Revolution

After the French and Indian War, relations between the British government and the American colonies began to break down. For more than 150 years the colonies had been developing their own society, economy, and some self-government. The British had governed them only lightly. But in 1763 this began to change. The British decided that the colonies should help pay for the cost of the war just ended and for their future defense.

Events Leading to the Revolution

The British Parliament passed a series of acts (laws) calling for taxes on colonial trade. The colonists argued that because the colonies did not have representatives in the English Parliament, it was wrong for the British to tax them. Many colonists refused to pay the taxes and organized protests. Sometimes they clashed with British forces. In 1770 British soldiers fired into an angry mob in Boston. Five Americans were killed in the incident, which became known as the **Boston Massacre**. In 1773, in response to a tax on tea, colonists disguised as Native Americans dumped tea from British ships into Boston Harbor. This event was later called the **Boston Tea Party**.

First and Second Continental Congresses Meet

The British government responded to the Tea Party by passing restrictive laws that angered the colonists even more. In 1774 representatives from all 13 colonies except Georgia met in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, to discuss their complaints against the British government. This meeting was called the First **Continental Congress**. A few representatives from New England and Virginia talked about gaining independence from Britain. Most of the representatives, however, favored putting pressure on Parliament by refusing to trade with Britain. This approach failed, and in April 1775 fighting broke out in Concord and Lexington, Massachusetts, between colonists and British troops. The colonists were known as minutemen because they could be ready to fight at a moment's notice. These battles began the American Revolution.

The Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia in May 1775. The representatives chose **George Washington** to command the colonial troops. In 1776 **Thomas Jefferson** and other representatives drafted a statement calling for separation from Britain. This document, called the **Declaration of Independence**, was adopted by

the Second Continental Congress on July 4, 1776.

Independence

The war for independence did not go well for the colonists at first. General Washington barely managed to keep his small army together because of defeats and lack of supplies. Finally the tide turned in the colonists' favor in 1777, when the British were defeated at the Battles of Saratoga in New York. After that victory, France joined the colonies in their war against Britain. The fighting ended in 1781 with the surrender of the British at Yorktown, Virginia. By the Treaty of Paris in 1783, Britain recognized the independence of the American colonies. The new nation extended from Canada on the north to Florida on the south and westward to the Mississippi River. (*See also* **Revolution, American**.)

4. The New Nation

The Constitution

Before the war ended, the Second Continental Congress drafted a plan of government called the **Articles of Confederation**. The Articles, adopted in 1781, provided for a loose union of states and kept most of the powers of government for the individual states. It soon became clear that the Articles were not adequate for governing the growing nation.

In 1787 a convention was held in Philadelphia to amend the Articles of Confederation. Soon the representatives decided to draft an entirely new constitution. The new document was approved by the states in 1788 and took effect in 1789. The Constitution provided for a federal type of government: a union of states under a strong central government. The first 10 amendments to the Constitution – known as the **Bill of Rights –** were adopted in 1791. (*See also* **United States Constitution**.)

The first elections under the new Constitution were held in 1789. George Washington became the first president. **Alexander Hamilton**, the secretary of the treasury, and others who believed in a strong central government came to be called Federalists. Thomas Jefferson and his followers, who feared that the national government might exercise too much power, were called Anti-Federalists, or Republicans. These groups marked the beginning of **political parties** in the United States.

Westward Expansion

After the United States became independent, people began to move into the region between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River. The first states created west of the Appalachians were **Kentucky** in 1792 and **Tennessee** in 1796. Most of the people who lived in the West were farmers. They shipped their farm products down the Ohio and Mississippi rivers to New Orleans for shipping outside the country.

At the time, New Orleans and the surrounding area were French territories. In 1803 Thomas Jefferson, who had been elected president in 1800, decided that the United States should buy New Orleans and the land along the lower Mississippi River from France. In a surprise move, France agreed to sell all of its land west of the Mississippi to the United States for about 15 million dollars. This land was known as the Louisiana Territory, and the deal was called the **Louisiana Purchase**. It nearly

doubled the size of the United States. Between 1804 and 1806 Meriwether Lewis and William Clark led an exploration of this territory. The movement into the lands west of the Appalachians then became a flood. The United States also expanded to the south. In 1819 Spain signed a treaty that gave Florida to the United States.

The New Country's Foreign Policies

Foreign affairs caused the United States much concern during the early 1800s. Wars between Britain and France interfered with U.S. trade. To make matters worse, the British began stopping U.S. ships to search for British seamen who had deserted. Sometimes they forced U.S. sailors to serve on British ships. In 1812 the United States declared war on Britain. The two countries fought for more than two years. Neither side was able to win a clear victory before a peace treaty was signed in 1814.

During the early 1800s Spain's colonies in Central and South America declared themselves independent. Later Spain tried to regain control over these colonies, and it appeared that some European powers might help. President **James Monroe** responded by issuing the Monroe Doctrine in 1823. It stated that North and South America were no longer open to colonization. It also declared that the United States would not allow European countries to interfere with independent governments in the Western Hemisphere. From then on the Monroe Doctrine was a key part of U.S. foreign policy.

Developments in Industry and Transportation

The 1800s was a period of great industrial growth in the United States. An important development was **Eli Whitney**'s invention of the cotton gin in 1793. This machine speeded up the process of separating seeds from cotton fibers. It led to a major expansion of the textile industry. It also caused the growing of cotton to spread throughout the Southern states. Farmers in the North were helped by other inventions, such as Cyrus McCormick's mechanical reaper for harvesting grain. Ironworks were set up to manufacture these farm tools, along with household utensils, factory machines, and other items.

A key part of the economic growth of the United States in the 1800s was the development of better means of transportation. Goods had to be shipped from factories to farms and from farms to towns and cities. To meet this need, new roads and canals were built. The **Erie Canal**, opened in 1825, connected Lake Erie with the Hudson River. It provided a major boost to shipping between New York City and the Great Lakes region. The invention and improvement of the steam engine led to even more important developments in transportation and trade. The first successful steamboat was built by **Robert Fulton**. It made its first voyage on the Hudson in 1807. In the early 1830s the first American **railroads** were built. Thousands of miles of track were laid in the following decades.

Manifest Destiny

Improvements in transportation encouraged further expansion to the west. The growth of the United States was also encouraged by an idea called manifest destiny. In the mid-1800s many Americans came to believe that the United States was destined to expand westward to the Pacific Ocean, and even beyond. But the push toward the Pacific coast led to conflict with foreign powers. Mexico owned **Texas**, **California**, and much of the Southwest. The British had a strong claim to **Oregon**. In each case Americans first penetrated and then won complete control of the area.

The conquest of the Mexican territories began in Texas. In 1836 Americans who had settled in Texas revolted against Mexican rule and declared their independence. Nine years later Texas became part of the United States. The addition of Texas to the United States led to a conflict known as the **Mexican War**, which lasted from 1846 to 1848. After Mexico was defeated, the United States took possession of Texas, California, and almost the entire Southwest. The discovery of gold in California in 1848 attracted tens of thousands of newcomers to the Pacific coast.

Meanwhile, pioneers had begun following the **Oregon Trail** to the Pacific Northwest. Heavy migration to Oregon won the region for the United States. In 1846 the United States and Britain agreed on the boundary line between British Canada and the United States.

5. The Country Divides and Reunites Dissension in the Union

The westward expansion of the United States heightened tensions over the issue of **slavery**. The growth of cotton and tobacco plantations in the South had made the Southern economy increasingly dependent on slave labor. Meanwhile, many Americans, especially in the northern states, began to oppose slavery. They wanted to abolish (end) the practice because they thought it was wrong. By 1804 all of the states north of Maryland had abolished slavery.

This difference of opinion regarding slavery led to conflict when the new Western territories began to apply for admission to the Union (the United States). When **Missouri** asked to be admitted as a "slave" state – one that allowed slavery – the northern states objected. In 1820 Congress reached an agreement known as the **Missouri Compromise**. Missouri entered the Union as a slave state and **Maine** entered as a "free" state – one that prohibited slavery. In addition, slavery was prohibited north of the southern border of Missouri. Another compromise over slavery came in 1850. California had asked to join the Union as a free state. California was admitted as a free state, and slavery was prohibited in the District of Columbia. But the people who lived in the rest of the territory that had been won in the Mexican War were to decide for themselves whether they would have slavery.

Many people thought that these compromises had solved the matter of slavery for good. In 1854, however, Congress passed the controversial **Kansas-Nebraska Act**. This law permitted the **Kansas** and **Nebraska** territories – both north of the Missouri Compromise line – to decide whether they should have slavery. People from both the North and South rushed into Kansas to help decide the matter, and fighting broke out. Eventually, in 1861, Kansas was admitted as a free state.

The Civil War

Slavery was the main campaign issue in the presidential election of 1860. **Abraham Lincoln** of the antislavery Republican Party became the new president. Shortly after Lincoln's election, the Southern states began to secede (withdraw) from the Union. They formed the **Confederate States of America** and elected **Jefferson Davis** of Mississippi as president.

The American Civil War began in April 1861 when Confederate forces fired on **Fort Sumter** in Charleston, South Carolina. Neither side was ready for war, but the

North had more ships, railroads, soldiers, and supplies. Fierce battles were fought in both the East and the West. In 1863 Lincoln issued the **Emancipation Proclamation**, a document that freed enslaved people in the Southern states. In that same year the Union Army won major battles at Gettysburg in Pennsylvania and Vicksburg in Mississippi. But fighting continued until April 1865, when Confederate General **Robert E. Lee** surrendered to Union General **Ulysses S. Grant** at Appomattox Court House in Virginia.

Reconstruction

Only a few days after the close of the war, Lincoln was assassinated, and Vice President **Andrew Johnson** became president. At the close of the war the South lay in ruins, for most of the fighting had occurred there. Nevertheless, the Republicans who controlled Congress after the war still wanted to punish the Southern states for leaving the Union. The South was placed under military rule, and new state governments were formed. The new governments were made to accept the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which provided citizenship to all of the former enslaved people. The Southern states were readmitted to the Union between 1866 and 1870.

In the decade after the war, plantation farming by enslaved people was replaced by the sharecropping system. Sharecroppers farmed a piece of land owned by someone else in return for a share of the crops that they produced. The very low incomes provided by this system forced on Blacks a miserable existence that was little better than slavery. This difficult period of political, social, and economic changes in the South after the Civil War is known as **Reconstruction**.

6. Growth of the Nation

The population of the United States in 1880 was slightly more than 50 million. In 1900 it was almost 76 million, a gain of more than 50 percent. Much of the population increase was due to millions of immigrants who entered the country during this period. They sought new jobs and new homes in a prosperous land. Many came from northern or western Europe, as they had since the earliest days of the republic. Beginning in the 1890s, however, the majority of the immigrants arrived from southern or eastern Europe – largely Italy, Poland, Greece, and Russia. Most of them settled in big cities such as Boston, New York City, Philadelphia, and Chicago. Many other Americans moved from farms to cities during this period as well.

Movement to the West

As the cities grew, other Americans continued moving westward across the vast, mostly unpopulated plains in the country's heartland. Some sought mineral wealth. In the 30 years after the discovery of gold in California, prospectors found gold or silver in every state and territory of the Far West. Others began to raise cattle on the open ranges of such states as Texas, Kansas, Nebraska, and the Dakotas. The expansion of the railroads provided a way for the cattle ranchers to ship their goods to the East and West. The first railroad to cross the entire country was completed in Utah in 1869.

Treatment of Native Americans

The government had set aside large tracts of land in the West for the use of Native American tribes. But these lands were invaded during the westward movement of the prospectors, cattlemen, farmers, and railroads. By 1870 these invasions had

resulted in the outbreak of a series of savage wars between the Native Americans and the white settlers. By the late 1880s most Native Americans had been forced off their lands and onto reservations. The final defeat of the Native Americans came in the battle of **Wounded Knee** in South Dakota in 1890.

Industrial Development

The movement of people from farms to cities was a sign of the tremendous industrial growth in the United States during the late 1800s and early 1900s. People went to the cities to work in the rapidly expanding factories. In the 1880s and 1890s industrial production and the number of workers employed in industry more than doubled.

Many factors combined to produce this burst of industrial activity. The construction of railroads led to increased demand for **steel** rails and the growth of the steel industry. A new method of steelmaking – called the Bessemer process – resulted in improved products. The coming of the gasoline engine led to the development of the **automobile** and of the **airplane**. By 1893 the Duryea brothers had made the first successful gasoline-driven automobile in the United States. Within a decade several people, including **Henry Ford**, had built factories to manufacture cars. In 1903 **Orville and Wilbur Wright** made the first successful flight in an airplane. The production of aircraft had just started when World War I began in 1914.

Advancements in manufacturing procedures during this period made factories much more productive. In 1913, for example, Henry Ford introduced the assembly-line method of making cars. In this method each worker performed only one step in the manufacturing process. Splitting up the work in this way is known as the division of labor. By the beginning of the 1900s factories were producing all sorts of goods, from locomotives and farm machinery to household utensils. Through developments in transportation and sales techniques, all kinds of goods and services became available to almost everyone.

This industrial activity was led by a group of powerful businessmen. The best known were Andrew Carnegie and John D. Rockefeller. They were among the first people in the United States to organize business on a large scale. Carnegie made a fortune as the leader of the enormous expansion of the steel industry. Rockefeller grew wealthy after founding the Standard Oil Company, which dominated oil production in the United States.

Reform Movements

As industry developed, competing firms began joining together to form large organizations capable of dominating an entire industry. These organizations were called trusts. Because they had no competition, trusts could control production within an industry and set high prices for their goods. Many people, including small business owners and workers, protested against the trusts. In 1890 Congress passed the Sherman Anti-Trust Act, which outlawed practices that allowed trusts to gain a monopoly (complete control) of an industry. In 1914 Congress created an agency called the Federal Trade Commission to prevent unfair methods of business competition.

Even with the restrictions placed on industry, individual workers found it difficult to protect their rights as businesses expanded. To deal with this problem, workers joined together in **labor unions**. The first important national labor

organization in the United States was the Knights of Labor (KOL), founded in 1869. In the late 1800s the American Federation of Labor (AFL) replaced the KOL as the country's most powerful union. The AFL brought together craft and trade unions (such as the carpenters' union) into a loose federation. It worked for reforms such as the establishment of a shorter workday and workweek. In the 1900s the AFL merged with another labor federation, the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO), to form the AFL-CIO.

The labor movements also helped improve working conditions for women and children. Another victory for **women** in this period was the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment to the Constitution. This amendment, adopted in 1919, gave women the right to vote.

New Territories

In the second half of the 1800s the United States took over lands that lay far beyond its borders. In 1867 **Russia** sold **Alaska** to the United States for 7.2 million dollars. In 1898 the United States claimed possession of the Hawaiian Islands in the Pacific Ocean. Alaska and **Hawaii** would be made states in 1959.

In 1898 the United States and **Spain** went to war because of U.S. support for the independence movement in **Cuba**, which was then ruled by Spain. At the close of the war the United States gained control over **Puerto Rico** and the island of **Guam**. The United States also took possession of the **Philippines** after paying Spain 20 million dollars. Cuba was granted independence. This conflict, known as the Spanish-American War, began the rise of the United States as a world power.

Around this time the United States became interested in building a canal across the Central American country of **Panama**. The waterway would provide a valuable short cut for ships traveling between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. At the time **Colombia** ruled Panama. When Colombia objected to U.S. plans for the project, Panama declared its independence. The United States immediately recognized Panama as an independent country. Two weeks later the two countries signed a treaty that allowed the United States to build the canal. Construction began in 1904, and the **Panama Canal** opened in 1914.

7. World War I

The United States paid a price for its growing status in world politics. In 1914 war broke out in Europe. On one side were the Central Powers – Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria. On the other side were the Allies – more than 20 nations led by Britain and France. The United States tried to remain neutral. The American people reelected President **Woodrow Wilson** in 1916 partly because he had kept the country out of the war. By 1917, however, the United States found it impossible to remain outside the struggle. Soon after German submarines began sinking U.S. ships, the United States declared war on the Central Powers. Two million U.S. soldiers helped the Allies to victory on the battlefields of Europe. The fighting ended in November 1918. The peace treaty that officially ended the war was signed in Versailles, France, in 1919. President Wilson insisted that the treaty provide for the creation of the **League of Nations**. This organization was designed to maintain peace among the countries of the world. The United States Senate rejected the Treaty of

Versailles, however. As a result, the United States never joined the League of Nations.

8. From Prosperity to Depression

After the difficult war years, the United States hoped for a return to what was called "normalcy." Americans wanted to put reminders of the war behind them. And for most of the 1920s they enjoyed peace and prosperity. Business boomed, providing many jobs at good wages. Banks loaned money freely to farmers and businessmen to buy land and machinery. Consumers demanded and received an endless variety of goods – from refrigerators and radios to new homes and cars. Millions of people began buying stocks and bonds in the hope of making quick profits.

Many Americans began to think that prosperity had come to stay. In October 1929, however, a financial panic occurred. Prices on the stock market tumbled as thousands of stockholders tried to sell their stocks. The stock market crash was the beginning of a severe worldwide financial downturn known as the **Great Depression**.

Herbert Hoover, who had been elected president in 1928, and Congress took steps to try to improve the economy. But when the presidential election of 1932 arrived, millions of U.S. workers were still without jobs. Years of poor land use combined with drought to turn large rural areas in the West into a so-called "dust bowl." Farmers lost their farms when they could not repay loans to banks. Banks closed because they were unable to collect the loans they had made. State and local governments were no longer able to provide relief payments to the unemployed. Amid these difficult conditions, voters elected **Franklin D. Roosevelt** to replace Hoover. The new president promised a "New Deal" in the United States.

9. The New Deal

Roosevelt began work on the New Deal as soon as he took office in 1933. He encouraged Congress to pass laws to help banks that were in trouble and to reopen closed banks. Other new laws provided relief for the unemployed and encouraged industry and agriculture. New public-works projects provided work for millions of people. Perhaps the most far-reaching New Deal measure was the Social Security Act, passed in 1935. It provided financial assistance to people of retirement age, to the blind, and to mothers and dependent children. It also set up a system of unemployment insurance. The Social Security system was later expanded to provide benefits for more workers.

By the end of the 1930s the United States had made some progress toward recovering from the depression. Factory production had increased and more people were back at work. Farmers were enjoying better incomes. But what ultimately pulled the country out of the depression was the production of supplies for World War II.

10. World War II

War broke out in Europe in 1939 when Germany attacked Poland. Germany was led at the time by the **Nazi** party of **Adolf Hitler**. In response to the invasion of Poland, Britain and France declared war on Germany. Soon Germany was joined by Italy and Japan. These countries formed the Axis powers. The countries opposed to the Axis

powers were called the Allies.

In the early part of the war the United States supported the Allies by supplying military aid. At the same time it began to strengthen its own armed forces. The question of how much and what type of additional aid should be given to the Allies was a major issue of the presidential election of 1940. Roosevelt was elected to a third term. He was the first U.S. president to serve more than two terms.

United States Enters the War

Soon U.S. involvement in the war changed drastically. On December 7, 1941, Japanese planes attacked the U.S. naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. The surprise attack crippled the U.S. fleet. The United States declared war on Japan the next day. Three days later Germany and Italy declared war on the United States.

War at Home and Abroad

Millions of American men and women joined the military. Industry was expanded to produce ships, tanks, planes, and other war supplies. By 1944 U.S. factories were producing twice as much as all the factories of Germany, Italy, and Japan combined. In the months after the attack on Pearl Harbor, however, the United States was not prepared to begin fighting in the Pacific. The Japanese were able to capture the Philippines and other Pacific islands. But in June 1942 Allied forces defeated the Japanese on Midway Island. This battle was the turning point of the war in the Pacific. Meanwhile, U.S. forces fought with other Allied troops in Europe and North Africa. Italy surrendered in September 1943, leaving Germany to fight alone in Europe. On June 6, 1944, Allied forces invaded France. This attack is known as the D-Day invasion. For months thereafter Germany fought a losing battle against advancing Soviet armies in the east and Allied armies in the west. Germany surrendered in May 1945, ending the war in Europe.

End of the War and Plans for Peace

The war in the Pacific ended a few months later. In August 1945 the United States dropped atom **bombs** on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. These new, very powerful weapons devastated the cities and killed tens of thousands of people. Japan surrendered within days of the second bombing.

Even before the end of the war, Allied leaders had taken steps aimed at ensuring the future peace of the world. In April 1945 representatives from 50 countries met in San Francisco to plan the organization of the **United Nations** (UN). The purpose of the UN was to promote peace and to advance the social, economic, and political progress of all peoples of the world.

11. The Cold War Begins

During World War II the United States and the Soviet Union worked together against a common enemy. When peace came, however, a rivalry developed between the two great powers. The United States became the leader of the Western nations, which mostly had democratic governments. The Soviet Union, with a **Communist** government, achieved dominance over eastern Europe. The Soviets also encouraged the rise of Communism in other parts of the world. The United States was determined to stop Communism from spreading. The tense competition between the

United States and the Soviet Union became known as the **Cold War**.

New foreign policies announced by the United States in the late 1940s were aimed at combating Communism. One major new policy was the Truman Doctrine, named after **Harry S. Truman**, who had become president upon the death of Roosevelt in 1945. It provided money and military aid to countries that were threatened by the spread of Communism. Another new policy was the Marshall Plan, named after secretary of state George C. Marshall. It offered money to the countries of Europe so that they could recover from the war. The United States believed that creating stable economies in European countries would help them stay free of Communist influence. In 1949 the United States joined Canada and 10 European countries in forming the **North Atlantic Treaty Organization** (NATO) as a defense against possible Soviet attacks.

Korean War

In 1950 war broke out in Asia. Troops sent by the Soviet-supported, Communist government of **North Korea** invaded **South Korea**. They wanted to unite the country under Communist rule. The UN Security Council voted to help to South Korea, and the United States and other UN countries sent troops. Chinese Communist troops went to the aid of North Korea. This conflict became known as the Korean War. The war ended in 1953 with the establishment of a neutral zone between North and South Korea. (*See also* **Korean War**.)

The Space Race

The Cold War expanded into the realm of space exploration in 1957. In October of that year the Soviet Union launched Sputnik 1, the first artificial satellite to orbit the Earth. The achievement stunned the United States. In response, the government of President **Dwight D. Eisenhower** encouraged space research in the United States. The first U.S. satellite, Explorer 1, was launched in January 1958. In 1969 the United States landed the first man on the moon.

Cuba

One of the most serious issues to develop after World War II was that of the spread of nuclear weapons. Both the United States and the Soviet Union built up large arsenals of such weapons. Tensions between the two powers often led to fears of nuclear warfare. These fears reached new levels in 1962, when the U.S. government learned that the Soviet Union had set up nuclear missiles in Cuba. Communists had taken control of Cuba in 1959. U.S. President **John F. Kennedy** demanded that the missiles be removed. Many people feared war. After two tense weeks, however, the Soviet Union agreed to remove the missiles. This confrontation is known as the Cuban missile crisis.

12. Civil Rights

The 1960s was a troubled decade at home as well. One especially notable development was the growth of the **civil rights movement**. More and more **African Americans** began protesting against laws that were unfair to them. They had already won an important victory in 1954, when the U.S. Supreme Court **ruled** that public schools could no longer be segregated—that is, white and Black students could not be required to go to different schools. The best-known leader of the civil rights movement

was **Martin Luther King, Jr.** He used nonviolent methods such as marches to draw attention to his causes.

The civil rights movement had a great impact on the United States and its leaders. President Kennedy stressed civil rights legislation and submitted a major civil rights bill to Congress in June 1963. On November 22, 1963, however, Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas, Texas. Vice President **Lyndon B. Johnson** immediately took over as president. He successfully urged Congress to pass the historic **Civil Rights Act** of 1964. Johnson also supported a number of other social reforms, including increased funds for education and antipoverty measures. Despite these efforts, however, many Blacks were dissatisfied with the slow progress they were making. In the mid-1960s race riots broke out in most of the nation's large cities. Rioting began again after Martin Luther King, Jr., was assassinated in 1968.

13. Vietnam War and Watergate

The biggest problem faced by President Johnson was war in **Vietnam**. Since the late 1950s rebels supported by the Communist government of North Vietnam had been trying to overthrow the anti-Communist government of South Vietnam. Kennedy had sent military advisers and supplies to the South Vietnamese. Under Johnson, U.S. participation in the war greatly expanded. The United States sent soldiers and began bombing the North. By the end of 1967 about 500,000 United States troops were in South Vietnam. The huge cost of the war and the growing casualties upset many Americans, especially young people. Protests against the war took place throughout the country. Johnson became unpopular and chose not to run for reelection in 1968.

Richard M. Nixon followed Johnson as president. At first he continued to support the war. Soon, however, Nixon began pulling U.S. troops out of Vietnam. A peace treaty was signed in 1973, but fighting continued after the U.S. departure(*see* **Vietnam War**). Nixon's historic visit to Communist China in 1972 led to the establishment of official relations between the United States and that country. Later that year Nixon was reelected. But after the election an investigation showed that Nixon had been involved in illegal activities that helped him win. As a result of this scandal – known as Watergate – Nixon resigned from the presidency in 1974. Vice President **Gerald R. Ford** became president.

The economy was a problem during the terms of both Ford and the next president, **Jimmy Carter**. Energy shortages during the late 1970s led to attempts to get the United States to rely less on imported oil. In 1977 the United States and Panama signed treaties in which the United States agreed to turn over control of the Panama Canal in 1999. In November 1979 a group of Iranians seized the U.S. embassy in Teheran, Iran. They held the Americans inside the embassy as hostages until January 1981.

14. Reagan and Bush Administrations

In the 1980 presidential election **Ronald Reagan** defeated Carter by a huge margin to become the 40th president. He was reelected in 1984. In his second term Reagan supported Soviet leader **Mikhail Gorbachev**'s efforts to achieve economic

and social changes in the Soviet Union. The two leaders also signed the intermediate-range nuclear forces (INF) treaty in 1987. The treaty was a step toward reducing the nuclear threat in the two countries.

In 1989 Reagan was succeeded by his vice president, **George Bush**. Initially Bush worked with Congress to resolve the federal government's economic problems. Overall, however, he was more active in foreign affairs. He signed two nuclear arms treaties, one with Soviet leader Gorbachev and the second with Russian President Boris Yeltsin after the Soviet Union had dissolved.

In December 1989 Bush ordered an invasion of Panama to capture that country's leader, General Manuel Noriega. Noriega was then put on trial in the United States for his role in international sales of illegal drugs. After **Iraq** invaded the neighboring country of **Kuwait** in 1990, the United States led a group of countries in a war against Iraq. This short conflict was known as the **Persian Gulf War**. It began in January 1991 and ended six weeks later with the defeat of Iraq.

15. After the Cold War

The Clinton Administration

The breakup of the Soviet Union in late 1991 left the United States as the world's only superpower. The first U.S. president to be elected following the end of the Cold War was **Bill Clinton**. He defeated Bush in the election of 1992 and was reelected in 1996. Under Clinton the economy improved dramatically. Economic production rose while unemployment and the national debt fell. The Clinton government also signed the North American Free Trade Agreement, which encouraged trade between the United States, Canada, and Mexico.

Despite these economic successes, however, Clinton's presidency was troubled by several scandals. The biggest of these scandals centered on an affair between Clinton and a White House intern, Monica Lewinsky. In 1998-99 Clinton was accused of lying about this affair and impeached (put on trial) by Congress, which had the power to remove him from office. Clinton was not found guilty of the charges against him and remained in office. He was only the second president in United States history to be impeached.

The Bush Administration

The 2000 presidential election was one of the closest in U.S. history. The candidates were Clinton's vice president, Al Gore, and former president Bush's son, Governor **George W. Bush** of Texas. The outcome of the election remained undecided for several weeks because of a controversy regarding the counting of votes in Florida. Eventually the U.S. Supreme Court issued a ruling in favor of Bush.

During his first year in office Bush faced a major crisis – the deadliest **terrorist** attacks in U.S. history. In **September 2001** terrorists hijacked four airplanes. They crashed two of the planes into the twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York City, destroying both buildings. The third plane was flown into the Pentagon, the center of U.S. military operations, near Washington, D.C. The fourth crashed in Pennsylvania. The United States blamed Osama bin Laden for the attacks, which killed nearly 3,000 people. The United States also accused the Taliban, the government of **Afghanistan**, of sheltering bin Laden and his terrorist group. Within a month the

United States launched attacks against Afghanistan. By the end of the year the Taliban government had collapsed, but the fight against terrorism continued.

In 2002 President Bush turned the world's attention to Iraq. He accused the government of Iraq of having ties to terrorists. He also accused the government of ignoring a weapons ban that had been imposed on Iraq at the end of the Persian Gulf War in 1991. In the years since the end of the war inspectors from the UN had been sent to Iraq to make sure that Iraq had destroyed its weapons. President Saddam Hussein refused to cooperate with the inspectors, and the situation turned into an ongoing dispute.

The United States brought the matter before the UN in November 2002, and the inspectors were eventually allowed to return to Iraq. Bush soon declared that Iraq was not cooperating with the inspectors. While several member countries of the UN Security Council called for further talks between the two sides, the United States and Great Britain threatened to take military action against Iraq. In March 2003 the talks came to an end, and U.S.-led troops invaded Iraq. They soon overthrew the government of Saddam Hussein, and in December they captured the former leader. Advisers from the United States and other countries then attempted to help establish a new government in Iraq. But fighting in the country continued.

A powerful hurricane struck the southeastern United States in late August 2005. Hurricane Katrina and its aftermath claimed more than 1,800 lives. It ranked as the costliest natural disaster in U.S. history.

In 2008 the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan were still going on as several candidates campaigned to become the next president. In the late summer of that year the country's economy began to develop major problems. People lost their jobs and their homes. Because of the problems at home and abroad many citizens were unhappy with the government and wanted change. The two main candidates were **Barack Obama**, of the **Democratic Party**, and **John McCain**, of the **Republican Party**. Both were members of the Senate, but McCain belonged to the same political party as President Bush. In the election held on November 4 Obama defeated McCain. Obama was the first African American to be elected president of the United States.

The Obama Administration

During his first year in office, President Obama worked to improve the economy and to reform the health care system. In 2010 he signed a new health care law. Republicans and a new conservative movement called the Tea Party were very critical of the law. They thought that the government should be less involved in health care. They also thought that the government needed to cut its spending. At times, debate between Democrats and Republicans became very tense.

In April 2010 an explosion on an oil drilling platform in the Gulf of Mexico caused a massive oil spill. The oil slick spread over thousands of square miles and killed many fish, birds, and other animals. The leaking oil well finally was stopped that July.

The last U.S. combat troops left Iraq in 2010, but the war in Afghanistan continued. In 2011 the United States joined in military actions against the government of **Libya**. Later that year U.S. forces killed bin Laden, the leader of the terrorist group

al-Qaeda, in **Pakistan**.

In April 2011 several hundred **tornadoes** ripped across the southeastern United States. Hundreds of people were killed, mainly in **Alabama**, and many buildings were destroyed. The "Super Outbreak" of 2011 was the largest outbreak of tornadoes ever recorded.

In 2012 Obama ran for a second term as president. His opponent was Mitt Romney, a wealthy businessman who had been the governor of Massachusetts. The election was close, but Obama was reelected in November.

In 2014 an extremist Islamic group, often known as **ISIL**, emerged in Iraq and took over important cities in Iraq and Syria. The United States began air strikes against ISIL in August 2014. In December 2014 Obama announced that the United States would open up relations with **Cuba** for the first time in 50 years.

The candidates for the 2016 presidential election were former first lady and senator **Hillary Clinton** and businessman **Donald Trump**. After a close election, Trump emerged the winner.

Lecture 12.
History of the United States (2008–present)

Plan

1. Conflicts
2. Politics
3. Societal trends
4. Race
5. Covid-19

The **history of the United States from 2008 to the present** began with the collapse of the housing bubble, which led to the Great Recession. The resulting economic downturn and general discontent led Barack Obama to win the presidential election in 2008, becoming the country's first African-American president. Obama's domestic agenda notably included economic stimulus packages and the Affordable Care Act. The year 2011 saw the formal end to the Iraq War as well as the killing of Al-Qaeda leader Osama bin Laden. The War on Terror continued with a shift in attention toward the Islamic State in the 2010s.

Increased political polarization present during Obama's presidency led to a contentious election for president in 2016 which saw businessman Donald Trump defeat former Secretary of State Hillary Clinton. Trump ran on a populist message, enacting tax cuts, immigration restrictions, attempting to "Build a Wall" on the US–Mexico border, and an "America First" foreign policy. In December 2019, the Democratic-controlled House of Representatives voted to pass articles of impeachment against Trump for his role in a scandal involving Ukraine. In the 2020 presidential election, Joe Biden defeated Trump, who (along with his supporters) made multiple attempts to overturn the election results, which included an attack on the

United States Capitol on January 6, 2021. The attack and Trump's involvement led to his second impeachment. Biden has overseen the lasting effects of the COVID-19 pandemic as well as the end to the War in Afghanistan and the trade war with China.

1. Conflicts

War in Afghanistan

The War in Afghanistan continued. In September 2008, President Bush announced he would shift 4,500 US Armed Forces troops from Iraq to the conflict in Afghanistan.[1] This was followed with recently elected President Barack Obama announcing in February 2009 that the United States would deploy an additional 17,000 troops to Afghanistan. The Obama administration also later announced a "troop surge" of an additional 30,000 US military forces to be deployed in the summer of 2010, and to begin withdrawals of the 100,000 total US troops in July 2011. With the surge in effect, the NATO-led International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) launched Operation Moshtarak, an offensive determined to eliminate Taliban insurgents from Helmand Province. At 15,000 troops, it was the largest joint operation of the war.

After a 2010 profile on US Army general and ISAF Commander Stanley McChrystal was published in the magazine *Rolling Stone*, McChrystal was forced to resign from his position after making controversial remarks about Obama administration officials. President Obama then announced ISAF to be commanded by General David Petraeus.

On May 1, 2011, President Barack Obama announced that the US conducted an operation that killed al-Qaeda leader Osama bin Laden at his compound in Abbottabad, Pakistan. The announcement drew worldwide praise, with spontaneous celebrations at Ground Zero, Times Square, and outside of the White House. The raid on bin Laden's compound in Abbottabad led to a rise in diplomatic tensions between the US and Pakistan. With civilian deaths from the United States' drone program in so-called "signature strikes", the 2011 NATO attack in Pakistan, which led to the deaths of 24 Pakistani military officers, and the closure of NATO supply lines to neighboring Afghanistan, Pakistan–United States relations remain fractured as a result of the War on Terror.

In mid-2011 Obama announced the start of the withdrawal of the additional 33,000 troops deployed from the 2010 troop surge.[14] By December 2011, the first round of 10,000 troops were withdrawn, with the second round of 23,000 troops later withdrawn in September 2012.

As of February 2014, a total of 2,307 US troops were killed and 19,656 injured due to the Afghanistan War.[17] Estimates from the Costs of Wars Project based at Brown University's Watson Institute for International Studies also suggest that between 16,725 and 19,013 Afghan civilians died as a result of the war.

The International Security Assistance Force ceased combat operations and was disbanded in December 2014, with a small number of troops remaining behind in an advisory role as part of ISAF's successor organization, the Resolute Support Mission. On April 13, 2021, President Joe Biden announced his plan to withdraw all troops from Afghanistan by September 11, 2021, this date being the twentieth

anniversary of the September 11 Attacks. The date for US troops to withdraw from Afghanistan was moved forward to August 31. The withdrawal of US soldiers and other foreign soldiers coincided with the 2021 Taliban offensive, where the Taliban defeated the Afghan Armed Forces culminating with the fall of Kabul on August 15, 2021. On the same day, the president of Afghanistan Ashraf Ghani fled to Tajikistan and the Taliban declared victory and the war had ended. Following a massive airlift of more than 120,000 people, the US military mission in Afghanistan ended on August 30, 2021.

Iraq War

As the situation in Iraq became increasingly difficult and deadly, policymakers began looking for new options. This led to the formation of the Iraq Study Group, a nonpartisan commission chaired by James Baker and Lee H. Hamilton. This produced a variety of proposals; some of the more notable ones were to seek decreased US presence in Iraq, increased engagement with neighboring countries, and greater attention to resolving other local conflicts, such as the Israeli–Palestinian conflict. The recommendations were generally ignored, and instead, President Bush ordered a surge of troops to Iraq in 2007 and 2008. Violence in the country declined in 2008 and 2009 and the US combat role ended in August 2010. US forces were withdrawn in large numbers in 2009 and 2010, and the war was declared formally over in December 2011.

2. Politics

Great Recession

In 2007, while US unemployment dropped to its lowest level since the year 2000, the housing bubble reached its peak and economic growth slowed down, and by December 2007, the United States entered the severe long-lasting Great Recession. By mid-2008, property values and the values of other assets plummeted, and the stock market crashed in October 2008, spurred by a lack of investor confidence as the liquidity of assets began to evaporate. With the decline in wealth and the lack of investor and consumer confidence, growth and economic activity came to a screeching halt and the job growth of previous years was soon wiped out, with mass layoffs and unemployment rising rapidly in late 2008, and continuing into 2009.

Federal Reserve chairman Ben Bernanke told a federal commission in November 2009, "As a scholar of the Great Depression, I honestly believe that September and October of 2008 was the worst financial crisis in global history, including the Great Depression." Of the 13 most important US financial institutions, "12 were at risk of failure within a period of a week or two".

The Federal Reserve and the Treasury cooperated by pouring trillions into a financial system that had frozen up worldwide. They rescued many of the large financial corporations from bankruptcy – with the exception of Lehman Brothers, which went bankrupt – and took government control of insurance giant AIG, mortgage banks Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac, and both General Motors and Chrysler.

In October 2008, Bush sought, and Congress passed, the Emergency Economic Stabilization Act of 2008 (commonly referred to as the "bank bailout") with the goal of protecting the US financial system from complete collapse in the wake of the late-

2000s recession, which brought significant declines in the stock market. The bill provided federal government guarantees of up to $700 billion to troubled financial institutions through the Troubled Asset Relief Program (TARP). By 2010, only a fraction of that money was ever spent, as banks were able to quickly repay loans from the federal government or ended up never needing the money.

Meanwhile, unemployment doubled to nearly 10%, with states such as California and Michigan especially hard hit. While the stock market rebounded by 2011, and corporate profits had recovered, unemployment remained over 9% into 2011. The recession was worldwide, with Europe and Japan hard hit, while China, India and Canada fared much better.

Democratic backsliding

Scholars and historians of democracy identified a democratic backsliding in the United States since the late 2010s. The V-Dem Democracy indices's electoral democracy index score for the United States peaked in 2015 and declined sharply after 2016,[31] for which year it was also downgraded to "flawed democracy" by the Economist Intelligence Unit in its annual Democracy Index report. Both V-Dem and Freedom House downgraded the United States in 2018. According to James Grumbach, beyond the national level, democratic backsliding has occurred in American states under unified Republican Party control while Democratic Party-controlled and divided states have become more democratic. Grumbach also states "policies are more varied across the states as red and blue party coalitions implement increasingly distinct agendas." This backsliding has been accompanied by legislation restricting the civil rights of gender and sexual minorities, abortion rights, and voting rights.

Obama administration

The nation went into the 2008 election cycle having a Republican president and Democratic Congress both with extremely low approval ratings. New York Senator Hillary Clinton had the inside track for the nomination but faced an unexpected challenge from Barack Obama, the nearly unknown junior Senator from Illinois. The GOP nominated Arizona Senator John McCain. During the general election, Obama's youthfulness, charisma, and widespread media support proved effective against McCain, seen as a stodgy Washington insider. In addition, his relatively advanced age (72) and injuries from captivity in the Vietnam War drew doubts over his health and stamina. Overall disillusionment with the Republican Party and George Bush's administration did not help McCain's cause, and his choice of Alaska governor Sarah Palin as his running mate also drew some controversy. Obama also drew some doubts over his inexperience and controversial associations with Weather Underground founder William Ayers and Reverend Jeremiah Wright, the pastor of an African-American church Obama had attended for years who was discovered to have made anti-white sermons. The decisive event was the collapse of the national financial system over the summer, launching a severe worldwide depression[37] On November 4, 2008, Obama defeated McCain 365 to 173 in the electoral vote and 52.9% to 45.7% in the popular vote to become the 44th president of the United States, making history in

becoming the first African American to be elected to the highest executive office. Part of the strong showing came from a surge of support from younger voters, African Americans, Hispanics and independents. Democrats made further gains in Congress, adding to the majorities they had won in 2006.

Obama's early policy decisions addressed a continuing global financial crisis and have included changes in tax policies, foreign policy initiatives and the phasing out of detention of prisoners at the Guantanamo Bay detention camp in Cuba. Within a few weeks of taking office, the new president and Congress passed the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009, which was ostensibly aimed at recovering from the economic collapse. This entailed a $700 billion stimulus package for the economy, although there were considerable questions over the amount of money spent or its actual effectiveness.

Barack Obama and Sonia Sotomayor sitting in front of the Oval Office fireplace. A domestic initiative passed by the 111th Congress and signed into law by President Obama was the Affordable Care Act, an important statute guaranteeing comprehensive medical coverage to all Americans, regardless of age, sex, pre-existing health conditions or ability to pay. The Don't Ask, Don't Tell Repeal Act, which allowed openly gay people to serve in the military, was enacted in 2010.

In foreign policy, President Obama withdrew US troops from Iraq in large numbers, bringing the Iraq War to an end in December 2011. At the same time, he also increased troop levels in the Afghanistan War. Early in his presidency, he successfully negotiated the New START treaty with the Russian Federation, which made significant reductions in their nuclear arsenals. The US also maintained ongoing talks, led by Secretary of State Hillary Clinton, with North Korea over its nuclear weapons program, as well as with Israel and the Palestinian Authority over a two-state solution to the Israeli–Palestinian conflict. In May 2011, President Obama announced in a televised speech to the nation that al-Qaeda leader and culprit behind many deadly acts of terrorism (including the September 11 attacks) Osama bin Laden was killed by US forces at a compound in Abbottabad, Pakistan.

Tea Party protesters on the West Lawn of the US Capitol and the National Mall at the Taxpayer March on Washington in September 2009.

Although the recession reached its bottom in June 2009 and began to move up again, voters remained frustrated with the slow pace of the economic recovery. In the spring of 2009, large protests erupted in Washington, DC from conservative groups who began calling themselves the "Tea Party" and who were particularly opposed to the controversial stimulus act. The Tea Party would end up in a few years as a springboard for a large-scale Republican revival. In the 2010 midterms, the GOP retook control of the House, although the Senate remained in Democratic hands.

Under the new Congress, which had a Republican House and a Democratic Senate, President Obama and Congress clashed for months over whether or not to raise the debt ceiling and whether or not to extend the payroll tax cuts for middle-income citizens that Obama signed into law. After months of heated debate, the debt ceiling was ultimately raised and the tax cuts extended. However, Obama's approval ratings continued to hover at around 46%, while Congress had an even lower approval rating of 11%.

In the 2012 presidential election, the GOP nominated former Massachusetts governor Mitt Romney. Much like John McCain four years earlier, Romney was largely seen as a tepid moderate and a Beltway insider who did not inspire the conservative base of the Republican Party, nor independents. He also drew controversy for his stand on Obamacare, which had been based on the system he implemented as Governor of Massachusetts. Obama defeated his opponent to win a second term, with a tally in the Electoral College by 332 to 206 and in the popular vote by 51.06% to 47.21%. The electoral map remained the same as 2008, with the exception of North Carolina and Indiana flipping back as red states, and the party balance in Congress remained largely unchanged.

In the November 2014 midterm elections, the Republican Party took control of the Senate and expanded its majority in the House of Representatives, an event that portended an ill omen for the Democrats.

On December 17, 2014, President Barack Obama announced a restoration of full diplomatic relations with Cuba for the first time since 1961. A deal between the United States and Cuba was brokered during 18 months of secret talks hosted by Canada, with a final meeting hosted by Pope Francis at the Vatican. Although the US embargo remains in effect and ordinary tourism by Americans is still prohibited, the United States will ease travel restrictions, release three Cuban spies, and open an embassy in Havana.

The New York Times reported in January 2015:

In short: The state of union, while far stronger than when Mr. Obama took office, remains troubled. The financial crisis has ended, with job growth picking up and the American economy among the world's strongest right now. Yet the great 21st-century wage slowdown continues, with pay raises for most workers still meager. In other positive news, the deficit has fallen sharply, thanks to a combination of slower health-cost growth and budget cuts (the latter championed by Republicans). Many more people have health insurance, thanks to Mr. Obama's health law. More people are graduating from college – although Mr. Obama is likely to fall short of his vow to have the United States lead the world in college graduates by 2020.

On the negative side, climate change appears to be accelerating, creating serious health and economic risks. The fall in gasoline prices, though welcome for many struggling families, won't help the climate. And with Mr. Obama delivering his address the day after Martin Luther King's Birthday, it's also worth remembering that the country's racial divides remain deep, with African-Americans still far behind other Americans by many measures.

Outside the Supreme Court, a crowd celebrates the Court's decision that same-sex marriage is a constitutionally protected right under the 14th Amendment, a key win for gay rights.

On June 26, 2015, the Supreme Court ruled, 5-4, in the case of *Obergefell vs. Hodges* that same-sex marriage was a constitutionally protected right under the 14th Amendment. Shortly before the ruling, polling showed the majority of Americans approving of same-sex marriage. The ruling was celebrated by many, and President Obama advertised his support for the ruling by coloring the White House in gay pride colors using lights. This ruling was not achieved without controversy, as it did little to

change the minds of those that disapproved of homosexuality in general.

In regards to the Supreme Court, President Obama faced three vacancies during his administration. Justice David Souter retired in June 2009 and the president nominated as his replacement Sonia Sotomayor, the first Hispanic Supreme Court Justice in US history. Justice John Paul Stevens retired exactly one year later and Obama replaced him with Elena Kagan. Justice Antonin Scalia died on February 13, 2016. President Obama nominated Merrick Garland as his replacement, but the United States Senate, led by Republican Majority Leader Mitch McConnell refused to give Garland a hearing, instead arguing that the winner of the ongoing presidential election be given the opportunity to nominate Scalia's replacement instead. Justice Ruth Bader Ginsburg was pressured by liberal groups to retire while the Democrats remained in control of the White House, but declined to do so.

On September 25, 2015, John Boehner announced that he would step down as Speaker and resign from Congress at the end of October 2015. Boehner's resignation took place after Pope Francis' address to Congress the day before, an event considered by Boehner as a high point in his legislative career. Boehner was replaced by Republican Paul Ryan, the US representative for Wisconsin's 1st congressional district and former candidate for vice president along with Mitt Romney. Sources in Boehner's office indicated he was stepping aside in the face of increasing discord while trying to manage passage of a continuing resolution to fund the government. Conservative opposition to funding Planned Parenthood as part of the resolution, and stronger threats to Boehner's leadership on account of the controversy, prompted the abrupt announcement. Members of the caucus indicated that the resignation opened the way for a "clean bill" for government funding to pass, and “a commitment [was] made that there [would] be no shutdown.”

Trump administration

In the 2016 presidential election, the GOP had 17 candidates. The Democratic Party had fewer potential candidates to choose from, and the campaign early on centered on Hillary Clinton, former Secretary of State, United States Senator from New York, and First Lady of the United States. A surprise challenger to Clinton appeared in 74-year-old Vermont Senator Bernie Sanders, a self-identified democratic socialist and the one of only two independents in the Senate. Despite attracting a large, enthusiastic following among mostly young voters, Sanders was unable to secure the nomination. When the primary season finished in the spring, Clinton secured the Democratic nomination. Senator Bernie Sanders finally conceded the race, endorsing then presumptive nominee Hillary Clinton.

Meanwhile, in June 2015, real estate mogul Donald Trump announced that he was seeking the presidency. Although Trump's announcement received little attention at first (he had mounted a short-lived third-party presidential run in 2000), he quickly bounded out of the gate with a populist message about his perceived decline of American economic and geopolitical prestige under the previous two administrations. By the start of the primary season in early 2016, Trump was polling ahead of the other GOP candidates despite his lack of political experience and attracting a considerable following among the party base. By the spring of 2016, most GOP candidates had

dropped out of the running and Trump had no remaining challengers other than Ted Cruz and John Kasich. Some right wing conservatives and Christian groups continued to support Cruz, especially as there was controversy over Trump's personal life and relatively liberal attitude on social issues. However, Trump's economic message had widespread populist appeal and on May 3, Ted Cruz officially ended his presidential campaign. John Kasich followed suit the following day. As the primaries gave way to the general election, Hillary Clinton faced numerous controversies over her tenure as Secretary of State, namely an email server scandal. Polls and surveys showed that both Clinton and Trump had an overall negative image among voters. Meanwhile, Donald Trump chose as his running mate Indiana Governor Mike Pence. Pence, a staunch conservative Christian, was seen as a way of winning over heartland conservatives, many of whom were Ted Cruz supporters wary of Trump's attitude on social issues. Clinton chose as her running mate Virginia Senator Tim Kaine, seen as a way of connecting with blue collar white voters, Trump's base of support.

During the general election, controversies over remarks Donald Trump had made over the years seen as demeaning to women came up, including a beauty pageant he had been a judge on in the 1990s where he had criticized the appearance of a contestant, as well as a leaked 2005 audio tape in which he made vulgar statements about the treatment of women. Hillary Clinton, however, continued to be embroiled in controversies of her own, the biggest being the revelation that she had used an unsecured private email server during her tenure as Secretary of State, leaving the possibility of having mismanaged or compromised classified documents. In addition, John Podesta, Clinton's campaign manager, had his private email account hacked, releasing over 20,000 campaign emails in October and November 2016 by WikiLeaks.

On Election Day, November 8, Trump carried 306 electoral votes against Clinton's 232. He made considerable inroads into the old Rust Belt, carrying states such as Michigan, Wisconsin and Pennsylvania that had been safe Democratic territory since 1988. However, Donald Trump did not win the popular vote. This was the fifth time in American history that the outcome of the Electoral College did not match the outcome of the popular vote, the others happening in 1824, 1876, 1888, and 2000. The GOP also retained control a majority in both the House of Representatives and the Senate, controlling all branches of government. Allegations of Russian interference on behalf of Trump's candidacy in the 2016 election caused controversy during and after the election.

On January 20, 2017, Trump took the oath of office as the 45th US president in the face of large-scale demonstrations from protesters unhappy with the outcome of the election and of the incoming president. On his first day in office, he undertook a series of executive orders aimed at dismantling the Affordable Care Act and Trans-Pacific Partnership, and also moved to pass a temporary ban on refugees from several Middle Eastern states. This last action met with widespread criticism, and the 9th Circuit Court of Appeals dismissed it as unconstitutional. On June 26, the Supreme Court overturned the 9th Circuit's decision, ruling that part of President Trump's executive order is constitutional. One of Trump's major accomplishments was nominating Associate Justice Neil Gorsuch to the Supreme Court. On April 10, Gorsuch was sworn in. In

2018, President Trump nominated Brett Kavanaugh to replace the departing Associate Justice Anthony Kennedy. The nomination process soon became contentious after several women, most notably Palo Alto University psychology professor Christine Blasey Ford, accused Kavanaugh of past instances of sexual assault. After a series of hearings, the US Senate voted to confirm Kavanaugh despite the controversy.
US Secretary of Commerce Wilbur Ross meets with Chinese Minister of Industry and Information Technology Miao Wei, Beijing, September 2017 a meeting dealing with the China – United States trade war.

In December 2017, Congress passed and President Trump signed into law the Tax Cuts and Jobs Act of 2017. The Act amended the Internal Revenue Code of 1986 based on tax reform advocated by congressional Republicans and the Trump administration. Major elements include reducing tax rates for businesses and individuals; a personal tax simplification by increasing the standard deduction and family tax credits, but eliminating personal exemptions and making it less beneficial to itemize deductions; limiting deductions for state and local income taxes (SALT) and property taxes; further limiting the mortgage interest deduction; reducing the alternative minimum tax for individuals and eliminating it for corporations; reducing the number of estates impacted by the estate tax; and repealing the individual shared responsibility provision of the Affordable Care Act (ACA). The nonpartisan Congressional Budget Office (CBO) reported that, under the Act, individuals and pass-through entities like partnerships and S corporations would receive about $1,125 billion in net benefits (i.e. net tax cuts offset by reduced healthcare subsidies) over 10 years, while corporations would receive around $320 billion in benefits. The individual and pass-through tax cuts fade over time and become net tax increases starting in 2027 while the corporate tax cuts are permanent. This enabled the Senate to pass the bill with only 51 votes, without the need to defeat a filibuster, under the budget reconciliation process. Tax cuts were reflected in individual worker paychecks as early as February 2018 and with the corporate tax rate being reduced from 35% to 21%, numerous major American corporations announced across-the-board pay raises and bonuses for their workers, expanded benefits and programs, and investments in capital improvements.

Trump announced plans to withdraw the United States from the Paris Climate Agreement in June 2017. The agreement prevented any country from leaving less than three years after it began, so the United States had to wait until November 4, 2019, to officially start the withdrawal process. After a mandatory one-year waiting period, the country left on November 4, 2020.
President Trump signs the Coronavirus Preparedness and Response Supplemental Appropriations Act into law on March 6, 2020.

On May 9, 2018, the Trump Administration withdrew from the Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action (JCPOA) (also known as the Iran Nuclear Deal) with Iran, and other Great Powers, over alleged violations of the agreement by the Iranians in regards toward their nuclear program.

The effects of the tax cuts resulted in the US economy stabilizing for a short period between early 2018 and September 2019. During that time, the 2018 midterm elections took place. The elections had the highest voter turnout of any midterm

election since 1914; the Democratic Party regained majority control of the House of Representatives and the Republican Party expanded their majority in the Senate even though they received a minority of the popular vote.

In October 2019, the Federal Reserve announced that it would conduct a repurchase agreement operation to provide funds in the repo markets after the overnight lending rates spiked well above the Fed's target rate during the week of September 16.

At that time, the United States began to feel the effects of a global synchronized economic slowdown that began after global growth peaked in 2017 and industrial output started to decline in 2018. The International Monetary Fund blamed 'heightened trade and geopolitical tensions' as the main reason for the slowdown, citing Brexit and the China – United States trade war as primary reasons for slowdown in 2019, while other economists blamed liquidity issues.

On December 18, 2019, the House of Representatives brought forth two articles of impeachment (abuse of power and obstruction of Congress) against President Trump. Both articles were passed, impeaching Trump. Trump became the third president in American history to be impeached, after Andrew Johnson and Bill Clinton.

On December 20, 2019, Trump signed the 2020 National Defense Authorization Act, establishing the United States Space Force as the sixth armed service branch, with Air Force General John "Jay" Raymond, the head of Air Force Space Command and US Space Command, becoming the first Chief of Space Operations.

On January 3, 2020, President Trump responded to an attack on the US Embassy in Baghdad by ordering a drone strike against the Islamic Revolutionary Guard Corps's commanding general Qasem Soleimani and the Popular Mobilization Forces leader Abu Mahdi al-Muhandis at Baghdad International Airport. The incident sharply escalated a period of already strong tensions with Iran and lead to missile strikes on US military forces in Iraq on January 8, 2020. At the same time, Iranian military forces mistakenly shot down Ukraine International Airlines Flight 752, leading to domestic unrest and international condemnation.

In June 2020, the Supreme Court ruled against the Trump administration's order to rescind Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA), saying the administration had not provided adequate reasoning under the Administrative Procedure Act. DACA is a United States immigration policy that allows some individuals with unlawful presence in the United States after being brought to the country as children to receive a renewable two-year period of deferred action from deportation and become eligible for a work permit in the US. To be eligible for the program, recipients cannot have felonies or serious misdemeanors on their records. Unlike the proposed DREAM Act, DACA does not provide a path to citizenship for recipients.

In September 2020, the death of Associate Justice Ruth Bader Ginsburg prompted President Trump to nominate Amy Coney Barrett to fill the Supreme Court vacancy. Barrett's nomination was controversial because of its proximity to the 2020 presidential election. The Senate voted to confirm Barrett in a partisan vote.

President Trump lost the 2020 presidential election to Joe Biden, who previously served as Vice President under President Barack Obama. He became the first president

to lose the popular vote in both elections contested, as well as the first president since George H. W. Bush's loss in 1992 to be defeated after his single term. Biden himself became the oldest person to win a United States presidential election and was the oldest president upon his inauguration. The election also saw Kamala Harris become the first woman, as well as first person of African-American and Asian-American ancestry, to be elected as Vice President.

Donald Trump and his allies attempted several efforts to overturn the election results and remain in office, none of which were successful. During the counting of electoral votes on January 6, the United States Capitol was attacked by supporters of Trump following a rally in support of his presidency. In the final days of his presidency, Trump was impeached for a second time due to his role in the attack, although he was acquited by the Senate after leaving office. Trump was later indicted in August 2023 over his role, as well as for other criminal proceedings including his mishandling of classified documents and hush money payments.

Biden administration

Joe Biden was inaugurated on January 20, 2021. He is the oldest president at his inauguration at 78 years old beating his predecessor Donald Trump's record of 70. His vice president, Kamala Harris, was elected alongside Biden and is the first female vice president in American history.

On the first day of his presidency, Biden made an effort to revert President Trump's energy policy by restoring U.S. participation in the Paris Agreement and revoking the permit for the Keystone XL pipeline. He also halted funding for Trump's border wall, an expansion of the Mexican border wall. On his second day, he issued a series of executive orders to reduce the impact of COVID-19, including invoking the Defense Production Act of 1950, and set an early goal of achieving one hundred million COVID-19 vaccinations in the United States in his first 100 days.

Biden signed into law the American Rescue Plan Act of 2021; a $1.9 trillion stimulus bill that temporarily established expanded unemployment insurance and sent $1,400 stimulus checks to most Americans in response to continued economic pressure from COVID-19. He signed the bipartisan Infrastructure Investment and Jobs Act; a ten-year plan brokered by Biden alongside Democrats and Republicans in Congress, to invest in American roads, bridges, public transit, ports and broadband access. He appointed Ketanji Brown Jackson to the U.S. Supreme Court – the first Black woman to serve the court. Biden proposed a significant expansion of the U.S. social safety net through the Build Back Better Act, but those efforts, along with voting rights legislation, failed in Congress. However, in August 2022, Biden signed the Inflation Reduction Act of 2022, a domestic appropriations bill that included some of the provisions of the Build Back Better Act after the entire bill failed to pass. It included significant federal investment in climate and domestic clean energy production, tax credits for solar panels, electric cars and other home energy programs as well as a three-year extension of Affordable Care Act subsidies. From June 2022 until the loss of Democratic control of the House following the 2022 midterm elections, Biden went on a string of legislative achievements including: The Bipartisan Safer Communities Act, the CHIPS and Science Act, a massive investment in

the Semiconductor industry and manufacturing, Honoring our PACT Act of 2022, expansion of veterans healthcare, and the Respect for Marriage Act, repealing the Defense of Marriage Act and codifying Same-sex and Interracial marriage.

In foreign policy, Biden completed the withdrawal of U.S. military forces from Afghanistan, declaring an end to nation-building efforts and shifting U.S. foreign policy toward strategic competition with China and, to a lesser extent, Russia. However, during the withdrawal, the Afghan government collapsed and the Taliban seized control, leading to Biden receiving bipartisan criticism. He responded to the Russian invasion of Ukraine in February 2022 by imposing sanctions on Russia as well as providing Ukraine with over $100 billion in combined military, economic, and humanitarian aid. Biden also approved a raid which led to the death of Abu Ibrahim al-Hashimi al-Qurashi, the leader of the Islamic State, and approved a drone strike which killed Ayman Al Zawahiri, leader of Al-Qaeda. Biden called for the expansion of NATO with the addition of Finland and Sweden, and rallied NATO allies in support of Ukraine.

3. Societal trends

Religion

A 2014 Religious Landscape Study conducted by Pew Research Center from June 4 to September 30, 2014, found Christianity declined 7.8% from 78.4% in 2007 to 70.6% in 2014, unaffiliated rose 6.7% from 16.1% in 2007 to 22.8% in 2014, and non-Christian religions rose 1.2% from 4.7% in 2007 to 5.9% in 2014.

Technology

The usage of the internet grew during this time period. A Pew Research Center factsheet from 2021 noted that the number of adults using the internet in 2008 was 74% while in 2021 it had increased to 93%. However there was a decline in television viewership during this period. A Pew Research Center poll from 2021 reported that in 2015, 76% of American adults received TV via satellite or cable while in 2021 this had declined to 56%. This decline in cable and satellite TV viewership has been attributed to the COVID-19 pandemic and the growth of internet streaming platforms.

Crime and violence

In a 2021 Statistica datasheet, there would be a much lower reported violent crime rate in the late 2000s and throughout the 2010s and 2020s (until that point) than any year in the 1990s; with the peak year being in 2008 with 458.6 violent crimes per 100,000 people. The number of full-time law enforcement officers during this period peaked in 2008 at 708,569. It declined to 626,942 by 2013 before the amount once again rose peaking at 697,195 in 2019 before declining once again.

Continuing the increase in high-profile mass school shootings seen in the late 1990s and 2000s, additional school shootings shocked the country in the 2010s and 2020s, the deadliest of which were the Sandy Hook Elementary School shooting (2012), the Stoneman Douglas High School shooting (2018), and the Robb Elementary School shooting (2022). These shootings heightened the debate over gun politics and continued the public dialogue about improving mental health care and school safety.

In November 2009, US Army major Nidal Malik Hasan killed 13 fellow soldiers and injured 30 in the Fort Hood shooting in Killeen, Texas. While the act was called

terrorism by some due to Hasan's Muslim heritage, the attack was ruled out by the FBI to have been perpetrated by a terrorist organization. On September 16, 2013, another mass murder on a US military base surpassed the incident when a former navy reservist fired a shotgun at the Washington Navy Yard Shooting, killing 12 civilian contractors and injured four more at the headquarters of the Naval Sea Systems Command (NAVSEA) in Southeast Washington, D.C.

On January 8, 2011, US Representative Gabby Giffords was the target of an assassination attempt, when a gunman went on a shooting spree, critically injuring Giffords, killing federal judge John Roll and five other people, and wounding 14 others.

On July 20, 2012, a man shot 70 people (up to that time, the highest number of victims of any mass shooting in American history) at a movie theater in Aurora, Colorado, killing 12 and injuring 58 others.

On October 1, 2017, the Orlando incident was surpassed by the 2017 Las Vegas shooting as the deadliest mass shooting in American history when a gunman fired from his 32nd-floor hotel room of the Mandalay Bay onto a crowd of concertgoers at the Route 91 Harvest music festival, killing 58 and injuring 869 others before committing suicide. This shooting led to increased dialogue and debate over gun control, particularly the use of bump stocks which allowed the shooter to fire his semi-automatic rifle at a rate similar to a fully automatic weapon. Concerns about public event safety and hotel security also became a focus of public dialogue in the wake of this event. In addition, the investigation was the focus of intense scrutiny, particularly as the official reports and timelines changed several times throughout the investigation. This also led to a number of conspiracy theories.

However, the following month on November 5, a former and troubled USAF soldier killed 26 churchgoers at the First Baptist Church in Sutherland Springs church shooting. It was the worst mass shooting that occurred in both the State of Texas and at an American place of worship in modern history, surpassing the Charleston church shooting of 2015 and the Waddell Buddhist temple shooting of 1991. The Pittsburgh Synagogue shooting of 2018 and also led to major debates on weapon control and brought attention to gaps in reporting to the federal background-check system intended to ban convicted domestic abusers.

Hate crimes

After a decrease and legislation toughening laws in the 2000s, the late 2010s saw a rise in hate crimes. Hate crimes became the motive of many mass shootings, with race, sexual orientation, and religion becoming prominent targets.

On June 12, 2016, an mass shooting in a Florida gay nightclub killed 50 people, including the man responsible for it. It surpassed 2007's Virginia Tech shooting as the deadliest mass shooting in American history, and was also classified as a terrorist attack and a hate crime against the LGBT community. A rise in attacks and killings of transgender individuals also occurred, with attention on underreporting in both statistics and media attention. The Anthony Avalos killing and a 2022 mass shooting in Colorado Springs have continually brought renewed attention to attacks against the LGBT community.

On October 27, 2018, a gunman opened fire at the Tree of Life synagogue

during Shabbat morning services, killing 11 people and injuring six more. The attack was the deadliest ever against the Jewish community in America; many of those killed had been Holocaust survivors. The shooting brought awareness to an increase in antisemitism.

Hate crimes based on race continued to be the leading motive. White supremacy attacks against black Americans garnered significant public attention, as did increasing attacks on Americans of Mexican descent and Americans of Asian descent. Examples include the 2019 El Paso shooting, 2022 Buffalo shooting and an increase in Anti-Asian attacks during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Domestic terrorism

Concurrently to the rise in mass shootings, the late 2010s saw a sharp increase in domestic terror incidents. Several studies attributed this rise to an increase in attacks from groups with links to far right-wing extremism, religious extremism, and white supremacy.

On April 15, 2013, two bombs exploded near the finish line of the Boston Marathon in Boston, Massachusetts, killing three people and injuring over 280. Three days later, suspects Tamerlan and Dzhokhar Tsarnaev led the Boston Police Department on a high speed chase, after killing one officer at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Tamerlan was killed in a shootout with police[116] and a seriously injured Dzhokhar was taken into custody in nearby Watertown the following day.

On December 2, 2015, in the 2015 San Bernardino attack, 14 people were killed and 22 were injured in a mass shooting at a workplace Christmas party at the Inland Regional Center in San Bernardino, California. Both a workplace shooting and a terrorist attack, the incident was perpetrated by Rizwan Farook, a healthcare worker who was employed at the facility, and his wife Tashfeen Malik. The pair were US citizens of Pakistani descent who had become radicalized and had expressed a commitment to jihadism prior to the attack. The attack also included an attempted bombing. Four hours after the attack, the perpetrators were killed by police in a shootout that left two officers injured.

In late October 2018, 16 packages containing pipe bombs were mailed via the US Postal Service to several prominent critics of US President Donald Trump, including leading Democratic Party politicians such as former US President Barack Obama, former US Vice President Joe Biden, and former US Secretary of State Hillary Clinton, as well as CNN offices in New York City. On March 21, 2019, Cesar Sayoc, 57, pleaded guilty to 65 felony charges related to the bombing, including using weapons of mass destruction and domestic terrorism.

2020 was marked by a rise in domestic terrorist threats and widespread conspiracy theories around mail-in voting and COVID-19. The QAnon conspiracy theory, a fringe far-right political movement among conservatives, gained publicity. Multiple major cities were hit by rioting and brawls between far-left antifascist affiliated groups and far right groups such as the Proud Boys. In March 2021, FBI director Christopher Wray confirmed an October 2020 report from the Department of Homeland Security that said white supremacists posed the top domestic terrorism threat. Wray noted that the threat from these groups had been elevated to the same level

as ISIS. The January 6 attack on the United States Capitol attack was considered by many to be a domestic terror attack. The 2022 elections saw continued attempts of intimidation, and concern for attacks, at voting stations and election offices around the country.

4. Race

"A Post-Racial Nation"

Some Americans saw the presidential candidacy of Barack Obama, and his election in 2008 as the first black president of the United States, as a sign that the nation had, in fact, become post-racial.[129][130] The conservative radio host Lou Dobbs, for example, said in November 2009, "We are now in a 21st-century post-partisan, post-racial society."[131] Two months later, Chris Matthews, an MSNBC host, said of President Obama, "He is post-racial by all appearances. You know, I forgot he was black tonight for an hour."

However, public opinion on whether the United States is post-racial is itself divided starkly by race. In a Washington Post/ABC News poll conducted in December 2014, about 50% of white respondents said they believed that the justice system treats Americans of all races equally, but only 10% of African Americans said the same. In the spring of 2015, according to a Gallup poll, 13 percent of black Americans surveyed identified race relations as the most important problem the United States faces, compared with 4 percent of white Americans.

Arguments that the United States is *not* post-racial frequently emphasize the treatment of African Americans and other racial minorities in the criminal justice system and in interactions with the police. Killings of unarmed African Americans, often by police officers, have been widely publicized. In 2015, according to a study by *The Guardian*, police officers in the United States killed 7.13 black Americans per million, compared with 2.91 white Americans per million. Additionally:

Young black men were nine times more likely than other Americans to be killed by police officers in 2015, according to the findings of a Guardian study that recorded a final tally of 1,134 deaths at the hands of law enforcement officers this year. Despite making up only 2% of the total US population, African-American males between the ages of 15 and 34 comprised more than 15% of all deaths logged this year by an ongoing investigation into the use of deadly force by police. Their rate of police-involved deaths was five times higher than for white men of the same age.

Such killings had a marked effect on public perceptions of race relations in America. The 13 percent of black Americans who called race relations the most pressing problem in the United States in the spring 2015 Gallup poll dwarfed the 3 percent that Gallup reported at the beginning of 2014. And the percentage of white Americans who said race relations were the most important issue rose to 4 percent in 2015 from 1 percent in 2014.

In response to high-profile incidents such as the fatal shootings of Michael Brown, Aiyana Jones, Trayvon Martin, Laquan McDonald, Tamir Rice, and Walter Scott, and the death of Freddie Gray from a spinal-cord injury sustained in police custody, academics and journalists have denounced claims that America is post-

racial. Ta-Nehisi Coates wrote in *The Atlantic* in 2015 that the phrase "post-racial" was "usually employed by talk-show hosts and news anchors looking to measure progress in the Obama era."[137] And Anna Holmes wrote in *The New York Times*, "Chattel slavery and the legacies it left behind continue to shape American society. Sometimes it seems as if the desire for a 'post-racial' America is an attempt by white people to liberate themselves from the burden of having to deal with that legacy."

However, others argue that post-racial politics champions aggressive action to deliver economic opportunity and weed out police misconduct, without the divisive framing of racial identity.

Under this view, there is no claim that America has attained a fully post-racial society, however it is argued that news selection is skewed toward amplifying racial conflict, events demonstrating racial harmony are dismissed as non-newsworthy, and that such media conflict-bias acts to undermine trust and impede progress. Rather, any true measure of race relations must gauge the everyday daily experiences of Americans in interacting with people of differing backgrounds. An assumption is that the media will cherry-pick the most outrageous, racially-inflammatory events to cover no matter how infrequently they are occurring, and thus misreport progress toward a post-racial ideal. The central tenet of post-racial problem-solving practice is to seek the "alternative explanation" when conflict arises (presuming non-racist motives in others), in order to find common ground and creatively resolve the conflict. Examples of post-racial framing in attacking misconduct by the Criminal Justice System are video recording of all police-citizen interactions, creating a Citizens Review Board with investigative powers, and assigning an independent prosecutor. Or, in the educational sphere, creating charters, academies and school choice to turn around under-performing schools. The divide in public opinion on the status of race in America was reflected in reactions to the Black Lives Matter movement. In response to the "black lives matter" rallying cry, some people, including politicians, began using the phrase "all lives matter".[139][140][141] After a sheriff's deputy in Harris County, Texas, was fatally shot while pumping gas in August,[142] Sheriff Ron Hickman claimed that the rhetoric of Black Lives Matter activists had contributed to the killing and said, "We've heard 'black lives matter'. All lives matter. Well, cops' lives matter, too. So why don't we just drop the qualifier and just say 'lives matter', and take that to the bank.'[143] Supporters of the Black Lives Matter movement criticized the "all lives matter" phrase, arguing that it minimized the systemic threats faced by African Americans.[144][145][146] President Obama said in October, "There is a specific problem that is happening in the African-American community that's not happening in other communities." Andrew Rosenthal wrote, similarly, in *The New York Times*, "The point of 'Black Lives Matter' is that the lives of African-Americans have come under special and deadly threat since before the birth of this country."

Evidence of continued racial divisions in the United States can also be found in demographics. For instance, African Americans account for less than 15 percent of the total population of Michigan, but more than 82 percent of the population of the state's largest city, Detroit – and Detroit, like many cities whose residents are

predominantly black, has "self-segregated schools, dwindling tax bases and decaying public services".

African Americans and law enforcement

Even after the end of the crack epidemic, there remained a large disparity in crime rates between black people and whites, with black people accounting for 28% of arrests in 2013; over 50% of homicides and robberies where the race of the offender was known were committed by black suspects. As most crime is interracial, most of their victims were black as well, and crime remained concentrated within black communities. Due to high crime rates, many inner city areas were heavily policed, often by police forces drawn from the population of the greater urban area rather than the local, primarily black, population, resulting in many black people feeling that they were being discriminated against by law enforcement. By 2009, black people accounted for 39.4% of the prison population in the United States. The incarceration rate of black males was over six times higher than that of white males, with a rate of 4,749 per 100,000 US residents.

In August 2014, Darren Wilson, a white policeman in Ferguson, Missouri shot and killed Michael Brown, an 18-year-old unarmed black man who had robbed a nearby convenience store fifteen minutes earlier. While a grand jury investigation found that Wilson had acted in self-defense after Brown attacked him on two separate occasions, locals hostile to the police claimed that Brown had been gunned down while surrendering. Racial tensions in Ferguson between the mainly black population and mainly white police force led to both peaceful protests and riots, and several buildings were looted and set on fire. In response, the Ferguson Police Department deployed military-grade riot gear and riot control weaponry to disperse crowds and maintain order. Further protests erupted after the death of Eric Garner, a 43-year-old black resident of Staten Island, New York who died after being put in a nineteen-second long chokehold by New York City Police Department officer Daniel Pantaleo while resisting arrest. Garner was being investigated by the NYPD under suspicion of illegally selling cigarettes. Pantaleo's acquittal by a grand jury in December led to nationwide protests by a movement which came to call itself Black Lives Matter.

As media coverage of police shootings intensified, protests erupted in the wake of the July 5, 2016 shooting of Alton Sterling in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, and the July 6 shooting of Philando Castile in Falcon Heights, Minnesota. On July 7, towards the end of one of these protests in Dallas, Texas, Micah Xavier Johnson ambushed and fired upon a group of police officers, killing five officers and injuring nine others. Two civilians were also wounded. Johnson was an Army Reserve Afghan War veteran who was reportedly angry over police shootings of black men and stated that he wanted to kill white people, especially white police officers. Following the shooting, Johnson fled inside a building on the campus of El Centro College. Police followed him there, and a standoff ensued. In the early hours of July 8, police killed Johnson with a bomb attached to a remote control bomb disposal robot. It was the first time US law enforcement used a robot to kill a suspect. The shooting was the deadliest incident for US law enforcement officers since the September 11 attacks in 2001 and saw a massive

uprising of public support for US police officers in the form of the Blue Lives Matter movement.

The George Floyd protests and riots against police brutality that began as local protests in the Minneapolis–Saint Paul metropolitan area of Minnesota before spreading throughout the United States and then worldwide. The protests began in Minneapolis on May 26, 2020, following the murder of George Floyd during an arrest the previous day. Minneapolis Police Department officer Derek Chauvin knelt on Floyd's neck for over nine minutes, asphyxiating him, with the help of three other police. Floyd had been handcuffed and pinned to the ground. Protests quickly spread across the United States and internationally in support of Black Lives Matter.

At least twelve major cities declared a curfew on the evening of Saturday, May 30, and as of June 2, governors in 24 states and Washington, D.C, had called in the National Guard, with over 17,000 troops activated.

Unite the Right rally

On August 13, 2017, Trump condemned violence "on many sides" after a gathering of hundreds of white nationalists in Charlottesville, Virginia, the previous day (August 12) turned deadly. A white supremacist drove a car into a crowd of counter-protesters, killing one woman, Heather Heyer and injuring 19 others. According to Attorney General Jeff Sessions, that action met the definition of domestic terrorism. During the rally there had been other violence, as some counter- protesters charged at the white nationalists with swinging clubs and mace, throwing bottles, rocks, and paint. Trump did not expressly mention Neo-Nazis, white supremacists, or the alt-right movement in his remarks on August 13, but the following day (August 14) he did denounce white supremacists as he had done as a candidate the previous year. He condemned "the KKK, neo-Nazis, white supremacists, and other hate groups". Then the next day (August 15), he again blamed "both sides".

Many Republican and Democratic elected officials condemned the violence and hatred of white nationalists, neo-Nazis and alt-right activists. Trump came under criticism from world leaders and politicians, as well as a variety of religious groups and anti-hate organizations for his remarks, which were seen as muted and equivocal. *The New York Times* reported that Trump "was the only national political figure to spread blame for the 'hatred, bigotry and violence' that resulted in the death of one person to 'many sides'", and said that Trump had "buoyed the white nationalist movement on Tuesday as no president has done in generations". White nationalist groups felt "emboldened" after the rally and planned additional demonstrations.

The End Domestic Terrorism rally (sometimes referred to by the slogan "Better Dead Than Red") was a Proud Boys demonstration held in Portland, Oregon, on August 17, 2019. The event received national attention.

5. COVID-19 pandemic

In January 2020, the first cases of COVID-19 were detected in the United States with the first death occurring on February 6. By February 2, the Trump administration restricted travel to and from China. On March 11, the WHO declared the virus to be a

pandemic. In March, many state and local governments imposed "stay at home" orders to slow the spread of the virus, with the goal of reducing patient overload in hospitals. By March 26, *New York Times* data showed the United States to have the highest number of known cases of any country. By March 27, the country had reported over 100,000 cases. On April 2, at President Trump's direction, the Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS) and CDC ordered additional preventive guidelines to the long-term care facility industry. On April 11, the U.S. death toll became the highest in the world when the number of deaths reached 20,000, surpassing that of Italy. On April 19, the CMS added new regulations requiring nursing homes to inform residents, their families and representatives, of COVID-19 cases in their facilities. On April 28, the total number of confirmed cases across the country surpassed 1 million. By May 2020, 100,000 Americans had died with COVID-19. This corresponded with a relaxing of lockdown restrictions, leading to a surge of cases in July.

National, state, and local elections were impacted as a result of the pandemic. Many primary elections scheduled in March and April were postponed and sometimes cancelled.[202] Voting by mail was also widely used as an alternative, with restrictions initially being relaxed to support the influx of mail voters.[203] Campaign events were also altered, with Democratic candidate Joe Biden suspending many in-person rallies. President Trump continued with in-person rallies, receiving widespread criticism.[204][203][205] An outbreak at the White House resulted in at least 48 people testing positive including President Trump and First Lady Melania Trump. This resulted in the cancellation of a scheduled presidential debate between Trump and Biden.

COVID-19 vaccines began to be developed quickly after the pandemic began. In December, the FDA granted emergency use authorization for the Pfizer-BioNTech vaccine and the Moderna vaccine, followed shortly after by the Janssen COVID-19 vaccine. Booster doses were later approved for all 3 vaccines to improve immunity over time.[211] Many companies, universities, and state governments began giving bonuses and rewards in mid-2021 to encourage higher vaccine rates. Localities such as New York City, private companies such as United Airlines, and organizations such as the US Army issued vaccine mandates. This was accompanied by an executive order by Biden to enforce a vaccine requirement for large companies, although this was later blocked by the Supreme Court.

By June 2021, the Delta Variant caused a surge in COVID-19 cases, hospitalizations, and deaths, especially among those not vaccinated. By August, the Delta Variant accounted for 99% of all cases of COVID-19, with the country surpassing 35 million cases. In September, the country neared 700,000 deaths, becoming the deadliest pandemic in US history. The Omicron Variant became widespread by January 2022, causing a massive increase in cases, averaging over 1,000,000 new cases daily.

By February and March 2022, all 50 states and many localities began to lift restrictions and mask mandates. In his 2022 State of the Union Address, President Biden announced a new national strategy against the pandemic, including an increased

emphasis on antiviral pills and combating new variants. On April 18, 2022, the federal transportation mask mandate, which had been extended to May 3 by the Biden administration on the advice of the CDC, was ended nationwide by U.S. District Judge Kathryn Kimball Mizelle, a Trump-appointed federal judge in Florida. Cases and deaths decreased throughout 2022, leading to President Biden stating his belief in a September interview that the COVID-19 pandemic was "over" in the United States, a statement which received backlash from many in the medical community. The WHO ended its designation of the pandemic as public health emergency of international concern on May 5, 2023.

The impact of the pandemic was widespread across social and economic sectors. COVID-19 lockdowns contributed to mass changes in social behavior for Americans. COVID-19 also had immediate consequences for prison populations, public transport, and cultural events such as sports. School closures also contributed to a learning gap for students as well as a rise in mental health concerns. Nearly all schools and universities transitioned to a completely online or hybrid method of teaching in spring 2020. Racial disparities were also exasperated by the pandemic, with a disproportionate number of cases being observed amongst Black and Latino populations. These groups were also more likely to die from COVID-19 and less likely to have received a vaccine. Native American reservations were also hit particularly hard, with lack of access to vaccines contributing to higher cases. Anti- Asian racism and xenophobia was also widely reported due to perceived Chinese faulthood for the virus. The economy entered a recession following an initial stock market crash in February 2020. National unemployment rose to a high of 14.7% in April 2020. Long lasting economic effects continued throughout the early 2020s resulting in supply-chain issues and a period of inflation.

Lecture 13.
Canada

Plan

1. General characteristics
2. Geography
3. National symbols
4. History
5. The system of law and government
6. Ottawa and Toronto
7. Money system
8. Education
9. Religion
10. Languages

1. General characteristics

Canada, the second largest country in the world in area (after Russia), occupying roughly the northern two-fifths of the continent of North America.

Despite Canada's great size, it is one of the world's most sparsely populated countries. This fact, coupled with the grandeur of the landscape, has been central to the sense of Canadian national identity, as expressed by the Dublin-born writer Anna Brownell Jameson, who explored central Ontario in 1837 and remarked exultantly on "the seemingly interminable line of trees before you; the boundless wilderness around you; the mysterious depths amid the multitudinous foliage, where foot of man hath never penetrated…the solitude in which we proceeded mile after mile, no human being, no human dwelling within sight." Although Canadians are comparatively few in number, they have crafted what many observers consider to be a model multicultural society, welcoming immigrant populations from every other continent. In addition, Canada harbours and exports a wealth of natural resources and intellectual capital equaled by few other countries.

Canada is officially bilingual in English and French, reflecting the country's history as ground once contested by two of Europe's great powers. The word Canada is derived from the Huron-Iroquois *kanata*, meaning a village or settlement. In the 16th century, French explorer Jacques Cartier used the name Canada to refer to the area around the settlement that is now Quebec city. Later, Canada was used as a synonym for New France, which, from 1534 to 1763, included all the French possessions along the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes. After the British conquest of New France, the name Quebec was sometimes used instead of Canada. The name Canada was fully restored after 1791, when Britain divided old Quebec into the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada (renamed in 1841 Canada West and Canada East, respectively, and collectively called Canada). In 1867 the British North America Act created a confederation from three colonies (Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Canada) called the Dominion of Canada. The act also divided the old colony of Canada into the separate provinces of Ontario and Quebec. Dominion status allowed Canada a large measure of self-rule, but matters pertaining to international diplomacy and military alliances were reserved to the British crown. Canada became entirely self-governing within the British Empire in 1931, though full legislative independence was not achieved until 1982, when Canada obtained the right to amend its own constitution.

Canada shares a 5,525-mile- (8,890-km-) long border with the United States (including Alaska) – the longest border in the world not patrolled by military forces – and the overwhelming majority of its population lives within 185 miles (300 km) of the international boundary. Although Canada shares many similarities with its southern neighbor – and, indeed, its popular culture and that of the United States are in many regards indistinguishable – the differences between the two countries, both temperamental and material, are profound. "The central fact of Canadian history," observed the 20th-century literary critic Northrop Frye, is "the rejection of the American Revolution." Contemporary Canadians are inclined to favour orderly central government and a sense of community over individualism; in international affairs, they are more likely to serve the role of peacemaker instead of warrior, and, whether at home or abroad, they are likely to have a pluralistic way of viewing the world. More than that, Canadians live in a society that in most legal and official matters resembles Britain – at least in the English-speaking portion of the country. Quebec, in particular,

exhibits French adaptations: more than three-fourths of its population speaks French as their primary language. The French character in Quebec is also reflected in differences in religion, architecture, and schooling. Elsewhere in Canada, French influence is less apparent, confined largely to the dual use of French and English for place names, product labels, and road signs. The French and British influences are supplemented by the cultures of the country's Native American peoples (in Canada often collectively called the First Nations) and Inuit peoples, the former being far greater in number and the latter enjoying semiautonomous status in Canada's newest territory, Nunavut. In addition, the growing number of immigrants from other European countries, Southeast Asia, and Latin America has made Canada even more broadly multicultural.

Canada has been an influential member of the Commonwealth and has played a leading role in the organization of French-speaking countries known as La Francophonie. It was a founding member of the United Nations and has been active in a number of major UN agencies and other worldwide operations. In 1989 Canada joined the Organization of American States and signed a free trade agreement with the United States, a pact that was superseded in 1992 by the North American Free Trade Agreement (which also includes Mexico). A founding member (1961) of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Canada is also a member of the Group of Seven (G7), which includes the world's seven largest industrial democracies and, as the Group of Eight (G8), had included Russia until it was indefinitely suspended from membership in 2014.

The national capital is Ottawa, Canada's fourth largest city. It lies some 250 miles (400 km) northeast of Toronto and 125 miles (200 km) west of Montreal, respectively Canada's first and second cities in terms of population and economic, cultural, and educational importance. The third largest city is Vancouver, a centre for trade with the Pacific Rim countries and the principal western gateway to Canada's developing interior. Other major metropolitan areas include Calgary and Edmonton, Alberta; Quebec city, Quebec; and Winnipeg, Manitoba.

2. Geography

Canada has a vast geography that occupies much of the continent of North America, sharing a land border with the contiguous United States to the south and the U.S. state of Alaska to the northwest. Canada stretches from the Atlantic Ocean in the east to the Pacific Ocean in the west; to the north lies the Arctic Ocean. Greenland is to the northeast with a shared border on Hans Island. To the southeast Canada shares a maritime boundary with France's overseas collectivity of Saint Pierre and Miquelon, the last vestige of New France. By total area (including its waters), Canada is the second-largest country in the world, after Russia. By land area alone, however, Canada ranks fourth, the difference being due to it having the world's largest proportion of fresh water lakes. Of Canada's thirteen provinces and territories, only two are landlocked (Alberta and Saskatchewan) while the other eleven all directly border one of three oceans.

Canada is home to the world's northernmost settlement, Canadian Forces Station Alert, on the northern tip of Ellesmere Island – latitude 82.5°N – which lies 817

kilometres (508 mi) from the North Pole. Much of the Canadian Arctic is covered by ice and permafrost. Canada has the longest coastline in the world, with a total length of 243,042 kilometres (151,019 mi); additionally, its border with the United States is the world's longest land border, stretching 8,891 kilometres (5,525 mi). Three of Canada's Arctic islands, Baffin Island, Victoria Island and Ellesmere Island, are among the ten largest in the world.

Canada can be divided into seven physiographic regions: the Canadian Shield, the interior plains, the Great Lakes-St. Lawrence Lowlands, the Appalachian region, the Western Cordillera, Hudson Bay Lowlands and the Arctic Archipelago. Canada is also divided into fifteen terrestrial and five marine ecozones, encompassing over 80,000 classified species of life.[11] Since the end of the last glacial period, Canada has consisted of eight distinct forest regions, including extensive boreal forest on the Canadian Shield; 42 percent of the land acreage of Canada is covered by forests (approximately 8 percent of the world's forested land), made up mostly of spruce, poplar and pine. Canada has over 2,000,000 lakes – 563 greater than 100 km^2 (39 sq mi) – which is more than any other country, containing much of the world's fresh water. There are also freshwater glaciers in the Canadian Rockies, the Coast Mountains and the Arctic Cordillera. A recent global remote sensing analysis also suggested that there were 6,477 km^2 of tidal flats in Canada, making it the 5th ranked country in terms of how much tidal flat occurs there. Protected areas of Canada and National Wildlife Areas have been established to preserve ecosystems.

Canada is geologically active, having many earthquakes and potentially active volcanoes, notably the Mount Meager massif, Mount Garibaldi, Mount Cayley, and the Mount Edziza volcanic complex. Average winter and summer high temperatures across Canada range from Arctic weather in the north, to hot summers in the southern regions, with four distinct seasons.

3. National symbols

Canada's most well known symbol is the maple leaf, which was first used by French colonists in the 1700s. Since the 1850s, under British rule, the maple leaf has been used on military uniforms and, subsequently, engraved on the headstones of individuals who have served in the Canadian Armed Forces. The maple leaf is prominently depicted on the country's current and previous flags and on the country's coat of arms. The maple leaf has also been seen on the penny before circulation of that coin was stopped in 2013. Canada's official tartan, known as the “Maple leaf tartan”, consists of four colours reflecting those of the maple leaf as it changes through the seasons – green in the spring, gold in the early autumn, red at the first frost, and brown after falling.

Other prominent symbols include the national motto, *A Mari Usque Ad Mare* (*From Sea to Sea)*, the sports of hockey and lacrosse, the beaver, Canada goose, Canadian horse, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, the Canadian Rockies, the Canadian parliamentary complex, the Canadarm, and, more recently, the Canadianization of totem poles and Inuksuks, With material items such as Canadian beer, maple syrup, tuques, canoes, nanaimo bars, butter tarts, and the Quebec dish of

poutine being defined as uniquely Canadian. A six-pointed, hexagonal snowflake used as the insignia for the Order of Canada has come to symbolize Canada's northern heritage and diversity. The country's institutions of healthcare, military peacekeeping, the national park system, and the Charter of Rights and Freedoms are seen as uniquely Canadian by its citizens.

The Crown, displaying traditional cross pattées and fleurs-de-lis, symbolizes the Canadian monarchy and appears on the coat of arms, the governor general's flag, the coats of arms of many provinces and territories; the badges of several federal departments, the Canadian Armed Forces and Royal Military College of Canada, many regiments, police forces, on buildings, as well as some highway signs and licence plates. Also, the image of Queen Elizabeth II (Canada's erstwhile monarch) is on Canadian stamps, $20 bank notes, and all coins. A poll taken in 2022 determined that 55 per cent of respondents agreed the country's monarchy helps define Canadian identity and six in 10 felt it helps to differentiate Canada from the United States.

4. History

Aboriginal Peoples

When Europeans explored Canada they found all regions occupied by native peoples they called Indians, because the first explorers thought they had reached the East Indies. The native people lived off the land, some by hunting and gathering, others by raising crops. The Huron-Wendat of the Great Lakes region, like the Iroquois, were farmers and hunters. The Cree and Dene of the Northwest were hunter-gatherers. The Sioux were nomadic, following the bison (buffalo) herd. The Inuit lived off Arctic wildlife. West Coast natives preserved fish by drying and smoking. Warfare was common among Aboriginal groups as they competed for land, resources and prestige. The arrival of European traders, missionaries, soldiers and colonists changed the native way of life forever. Large numbers of Aboriginals died of European diseases to which they lacked immunity. However, Aboriginals and Europeans formed strong economic, religious and military bonds in the first 200 years of coexistence which laid the foundations of Canada.

The First Europeans

The Vikings from Iceland who colonized Greenland 1,000 years ago also reached Labrador and the island of Newfoundland. The remains of their settlement, l'Anse aux Meadows, are a World Heritage site.

European exploration began in earnest in 1497 with the expedition of John Cabot, who was the first to draw a map of Canada's East Coast.

John Cabot, an Italian immigrant to England, was the first to map Canada's Atlantic shore, setting foot on Newfoundland or Cape Breton Island in 1497 and claiming the.

New Founde Land for England. English settlement did not begin until 1610

Exploring a River, Naming Canada

Between 1534 and 1542, Jacques Cartier made three voyages across the Atlantic, claiming the land for King Francis I of France. Cartier heard two captured guides speak the Iroquoian word *kanata*, meaning "village." By the 1550s, the name of *Canada*

began appearing on maps.

Royal New France

In 1604, the first European settlement north of Florida was established by French explorers Pierre de Monts and Samuel de Champlain, first on St. Croix Island (in present-day Maine), then at Port-Royal, in Acadia (present-day Nova Scotia). In 1608 Champlain built a fortress at what is now Québec City. The colonists struggled against a harsh climate. Champlain allied the colony with the Algonquin, Montagnais, and Huron, historic enemies of the Iroquois, a confederation of five (later six) First Nations who battled with the French settlements for a century. The French and the Iroquois made peace in 1701.

The French and Aboriginal people collaborated in the vast fur-trade economy, driven by the demand for beaver pelts in Europe. Outstanding leaders like Jean Talon, Bishop Laval, and Count Frontenac built a French Empire in North America that reached from Hudson Bay to the Gulf of Mexico.

Count Frontenac refused to surrender Quebec to the English in 1690, saying: "My only reply will be from the mouths of my cannons!" Pierre Le Moyne, Sieur d'Iberville, was a great hero of New France, winning many victories over the English, from James Bay in the north to Nevis in the Caribbean, in the late 17th and early 18th centuries. Sir Guy Carleton (Lord Dorchester), as Governor of Quebec, defended the rights of the *Canadiens*, defeated an American military invasion of Quebec in 1775, and supervised the Loyalist migration to Nova Scotia and Quebec in 1782-83.

Struggle for a Continent

In 1670, King Charles II of England granted the Hudson's Bay Company exclusive trading rights over the watershed draining into Hudson Bay. For the next 100 years the Company competed with Montreal-based traders. The skilled and courageous men who travelled by canoe were called *voyageurs* and *coureurs des bois*, and formed strong alliances with First Nations.

English colonies along the Atlantic seaboard, dating from the early 1600s, eventually became richer and more populous than New France. In the 1700s France and Great Britain battled for control of North America. In 1759, the British defeated the French in the Battle of the Plains of Abraham at Québec City – marking the end of France's empire in America. The commanders of both armies, Brigadier James Wolfe and the Marquis de Montcalm, were killed leading their troops in battle.

The Province of Quebec

Following the war, Great Britain renamed the colony the "Province of Quebec." The Frenchspeaking Catholic people, known as *habitants* or *Canadiens*, strove to preserve their way of life in the English-speaking, Protestant-ruled British Empire.

A Tradition of Accommodation

To better govern the French Roman Catholic majority, the British Parliament passed the *Quebec Act* of 1774. One of the constitutional foundations of Canada, the *Quebec Act* accommodated the principles of British institutions to the reality of the province. It allowed religious freedom for Catholics and permitted them to hold public office, a practice not then allowed in Britain. The *Quebec Act* restored French civil law while maintaining British criminal law.

United Empire Loyalists

In 1776, the 13 British colonies to the south of Quebec declared independence and formed the United States. North America was again divided by war. More than 40,000 people loyal to the Crown, called "Loyalists," fled the oppression of the American Revolution to settle in Nova Scotia and Quebec. Joseph Brant led thousands of Loyalist Mohawk Indians into Canada. The Loyalists came from Dutch, German, British, Scandinavian, Aboriginal and other origins and from Presbyterian, Anglican, Baptist, Methodist, Jewish, Quaker, and Catholic religious backgrounds. About 3,000 black Loyalists, freedmen and slaves, came north seeking a better life. In turn, in 1792, some black Nova Scotians, who were given poor land, moved on to establish Freetown, Sierra Leone (West Africa), a new British colony for freed slaves.

The Beginnings of Democracy

Democratic institutions developed gradually and peacefully. The first representative assembly was elected in Halifax, Nova Scotia, in 1758. Prince Edward Island followed in 1773, New Brunswick in 1785. The *Constitutional Act* of 1791 divided the Province of Quebec into Upper Canada (later Ontario), which was mainly Loyalist, Protestant and English-speaking, and Lower Canada (later Quebec), heavily Catholic and French-speaking.

The Act also granted to the Canadas, for the first time, legislative assemblies elected by the people. The name *Canada* also became official at this time and has been used ever since. The Atlantic colonies and the two Canadas were known collectively as British North America.

The first elected Assembly of Lower Canada, in Québec City, debates whether to use both French and English, January 21, 1793

Abolition of Slavery

Slavery has existed all over the world, from Asia, Africa and the Middle East to the Americas. The first movement to abolish the transatlantic slave trade emerged in the British Parliament in the late 1700s. In 1793, Upper Canada, led by Lieutenant Governor John Graves Simcoe, a Loyalist military officer, became the first province in the Empire to move toward abolition. In 1807, the British Parliament prohibited the buying and selling of slaves, and in 1833 abolished slavery throughout the Empire. Thousands of slaves escaped from the United States, followed "the North Star" and settled in Canada via the Underground Railroad, a Christian anti-slavery network.

A Growing Economy

The first companies in Canada were formed during the French and British regimes and competed for the fur trade. The Hudson's Bay Company, with French, British and Aboriginal employees, came to dominate the trade in the northwest from Fort Garry (Winnipeg) and Fort Edmonton to Fort Langley (near Vancouver) and Fort Victoria – trading posts that later became cities.

The first financial institutions opened in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. The Montreal Stock Exchange opened in 1832. For centuries Canada's economy was based mainly on farming and on exporting natural resources such as fur, fish and timber, transported by roads, lakes, rivers and canals.

Lieutenant Colonel John Graves Simcoe was Upper Canada's first Lieutenant

Governor and founder of the City of York (now Toronto). Simcoe also made Upper Canada the first province in the British Empire to abolish slavery

Mary Ann Shadd Cary was an outspoken activist in the movement to abolish slavery in the U.S.A. In 1853 she became the first woman publisher in Canada, helping to found and edit The Provincial Freeman, a weekly newspaper dedicated to anti-slavery, black immigration to Canada, temperance (urging people to drink less alcohol), and upholding British rule.

French-Canadian militiamen helped defend Canada in the War of 1812

The War of 1812: The Fight for Canada

After the defeat of Napoleon Bonaparte's fleet in the Battle of Trafalgar (1805), the Royal Navy ruled the waves. The British Empire, which included Canada, fought to resist Bonaparte's bid to dominate Europe. This led to American resentment at British interference with their shipping. Believing it would be easy to conquer Canada, the United States launched an invasion in June 1812. The Americans were mistaken. Canadian volunteers and First Nations, including Shawnee led by Chief Tecumseh, supported British soldiers in Canada's defence. In July, Major-General Sir Isaac Brock captured Detroit but was killed while defending against an American attack at Queenston Heights, near Niagara Falls, a battle the Americans lost. In 1813, Lieutenant-Colonel Charles de Salaberry and 460 soldiers, mostly French Canadiens, turned back 4,000 American invaders at Châteauguay, south of Montreal. In 1813 the Americans burned Government House and the Parliament Buildings in York (now Toronto). In retaliation in 1814, Major-General Robert Ross led an expedition from Nova Scotia that burned down the White House and other public buildings in Washington, D.C. Ross died in battle soon afterwards and was buried in Halifax with full military honours.

By 1814, the American attempt to conquer Canada had failed. The British paid for a costly Canadian defence system, including the Citadels at Halifax and Québec City, the naval drydock at Halifax and Fort Henry at Kingston – today popular historic sites. The present-day Canada-U.S.A. border is partly an outcome of the War of 1812, which ensured that Canada would remain independent of the United States.

HMS *Shannon*, a Royal Navy frigate, leads the captured USS *Chesapeake* into Halifax harbour, 1813. There were also naval battles on the Great Lakes. Major General Sir Isaac Brock and Chief Tecumseh. Together, British troops, First Nations, and Canadian volunteers defeated an American invasion in 1812-14.

The Duke of Wellington sent some of his best soldiers to defend Canada in 1814. He then chose Bytown (Ottawa) as the endpoint of the Rideau Canal, part of a network of forts to prevent the U.S.A. from invading Canada again. Wellington, who defeated Napoleon in 1815, therefore played a direct role in founding the national capital.

In 1813, Laura Secord, pioneer wife and mother of five children, made a dangerous 19 mile (30 km) journey on foot to warn Lieutenant James FitzGibbon of a planned American attack. Her bravery contributed to victory at the Battle of Beaver Dams. She is recognized as a heroine to this day.

Rebellions of 1837-38

In the 1830s, reformers in Upper and Lower Canada believed that progress toward full democracy was too slow. Some believed Canada should adopt American republican values or even try to join the United States. When armed rebellions occurred in 1837-38 in the area outside Montreal and in Toronto, the rebels did not have enough public support to succeed. They were defeated by British troops and Canadian volunteers. A number of rebels were hanged or exiled; some exiles later returned to Canada.

Lord Durham, an English reformer sent to report on the rebellions, recommended that Upper and Lower Canada be merged and given *responsible government*. This meant that the ministers of the Crown must have the support of a majority of the elected representatives in order to govern. Controversially, Lord Durham also said that the quickest way for the *Canadiens* to achieve progress was to assimilate into English-speaking Protestant culture. This recommendation demonstrated a complete lack of understanding of French Canadians, who sought to uphold the distinct identity of French Canada.

Some reformers, including Sir Étienne-Paschal Taché and Sir George-Étienne Cartier, later became Fathers of Confederation, as did a former member of the voluntary government militia in Upper Canada, Sir John A. Macdonald.

Responsible Government

In 1840, Upper and Lower Canada were united as the Province of Canada. Reformers such as Sir Louis-Hippolyte La Fontaine and Robert Baldwin, in parallel with Joseph Howe in Nova Scotia, worked with British governors toward responsible government.

The first British North American colony to attain full responsible government was Nova Scotia in 1847-48. In 1848-49 the governor of United Canada, Lord Elgin, with encouragement from London, introduced responsible government.

This is the system that we have today: if the government loses a confidence vote in the assembly it must resign. La Fontaine, a champion of democracy and French language rights, became the first leader of a responsible government in the Canadas.

Sir Louis-Hippolyte La Fontaine, a champion of French language rights, became the first head of a responsible government (similar to a prime minister) in Canada in 1849

Confederation

From 1864 to 1867, representatives of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and the Province of Canada, with British support, worked together to establish a new country. These men are known as the Fathers of Confederation. They created two levels of government: federal and provincial.

The old Province of Canada was split into two new provinces: Ontario and Quebec, which, together with New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, formed the new country called the Dominion of Canada. Each province would elect its own legislature and have control of such areas as education and health.

The British Parliament passed the *British North America Act* in 1867. The Dominion of Canada was officially born on July 1, 1867. Until 1982, July 1 was celebrated as “Dominion Day” to commemorate the day that Canada became a self-

governing Dominion. Today it is officially known as Canada Day. The Fathers of Confederation established the Dominion of Canada on July 1, 1867, the birth of the country that we know today

Dominion of Canada $1 bill, 1923, showing King George V, who assigned Canada's national colours (white and red) in 1921, the colours of our national flag today

Dominion from Sea to Sea

Sir Leonard Tilley, an elected official and Father of Confederation from New Brunswick, suggested the term *Dominion of Canada* in 1864. He was inspired by Psalm 72 in the Bible which refers to "dominion from sea to sea and from the river to the ends of the earth." This phrase embodied the vision of building a powerful, united, wealthy and free country that spanned a continent. The title was written into the Constitution, was used officially for about 100 years, and remains part of our heritage today.

Expansion of the Dominion

1867 – Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick
1870 – Manitoba, Northwest Territories (N.W.T.)
1871 – British Columbia
1873 – Prince Edward Island
1880 – Transfer of the Arctic Islands (to N.W.T.)
1898 – Yukon Territory
1905 – Alberta, Saskatchewan
1949 – Newfoundland and Labrador
1999 – Nunavut

Did you know? In the 1920s, some believed that the British West Indies (British territories in the Caribbean Sea) should become part of Canada. This did not occur, though Canada and Commonwealth Caribbean countries and territories enjoy close ties today.

Sir John A. Macdonald, the first Prime Minister of the Dominion of Canada

Canada's First Prime Minister

In 1867, **Sir John Alexander Macdonald**, a Father of Confederation, became Canada's first Prime Minister. Born in Scotland on January 11, 1815, he came to Upper Canada as a child. He was a lawyer in Kingston, Ontario, a gifted politician and a colourful personality. Parliament has recognized January 11 as Sir John A. Macdonald Day. His portrait is on the $10 bill.

Sir George-Étienne Cartier was the key architect of Confederation from Quebec. A railway lawyer, Montrealer, close ally of Macdonald and patriotic *Canadien*, Cartier led Quebec into Confederation and helped negotiate the entry of the Northwest Territories, Manitoba and British Columbia into Canada.

Challenge in the West

When Canada took over the vast northwest region from the Hudson's Bay Company in 1869, the 12,000 Métis of the Red River were not consulted. In response, Louis Riel led an armed uprising and seized Fort Garry, the territorial capital. Canada's future was in jeopardy. How could the Dominion reach from sea to sea if it could not control the interior?

Ottawa sent soldiers to retake Fort Garry in 1870. Riel fled to the United States and Canada established a new province: Manitoba. Riel was elected to Parliament but never took his seat. Later, as Métis and Indian rights were again threatened by westward settlement, a second rebellion in 1885 in present-day Saskatchewan led to Riel's trial and execution for high treason, a decision that was strongly opposed in Quebec. Riel is seen by many as a hero, a defender of Métis rights and the father of Manitoba.

After the first Métis uprising, Prime Minister Macdonald established the North West Mounted Police (NWMP) in 1873 to pacify the West and assist in negotiations with the Indians. The NWMP founded Fort Calgary, Fort MacLeod and other centres that today are cities and towns. Regina became its headquarters. Today, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP or "the Mounties") are the national police force and one of Canada's best-known symbols. Some of Canada's most colourful heroes, such as Major General Sir Sam Steele, came from the ranks of the Mounties.

Fort Garry, 1863: the flag of the Hudson's Bay Company flew over Western Canada for 200 years before Confederation Sir Sam Steele: A great frontier hero, Mounted Policeman, and soldier of the Queen Métis Resistance: Gabriel Dumont was the Métis' greatest military leader.

Members of the train crew pose with a westbound Pacific Express, at the first crossing of the Illecillewaet River near Glacier, B.C., 1886.

A Railway from Sea to Sea

British Columbia joined Canada in 1871 after Ottawa promised to build a railway to the West Coast. On November 7, 1885, a powerful symbol of unity was completed when Donald Smith (Lord Strathcona), the Scottish-born director of the Canadian Pacific Railway (CPR), drove the last spike. The project was financed by British and American investors and built by both European and Chinese labour. Afterwards the Chinese were subject to discrimination, including the Head Tax, a race-based entry fee. The Government of Canada apologized in 2006 for this discriminatory policy. After many years of heroic work, the CPR's "ribbons of steel" fulfilled a national dream.

Moving Westward

Canada's economy grew and became more industrialized during the economic boom of the 1890s and early 1900s. One million British and one million Americans immigrated to Canada at this time.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier became the first French-Canadian prime minister since Confederation and encouraged immigration to the West. His portrait is on the $5 bill. The railway made it possible for immigrants, including 170,000 Ukrainians, 115,000 Poles and tens of thousands from Germany, France, Norway and Sweden to settle in the West before 1914 and develop a thriving agricultural sector.

The First World War

Maple leaf cap badge from the First World War. Canada's soldiers began using the maple leaf in the 1850s.

The Vimy Memorial in France honours those who served and died in the Battle of Vimy Ridge on April 9, 1917, the first British victory of the First World War.

Most Canadians were proud to be part of the British Empire. Over 7,000 volunteered to fight in the South African War 1899–1902), popularly known as the Boer War, and over 260 died. In 1900, Canadians took part in the battles of Paardeberg ("Horse Mountain") and Lillefontein, victories that strengthened national pride in Canada.

When Germany attacked Belgium and France in 1914 and Britain declared war, Ottawa formed the Canadian Expeditionary Force (later the Canadian Corps). More than 600,000 Canadians served in the war, most of them volunteers, out of a total population of eight million.

On the battlefield, the Canadians proved to be tough, innovative soldiers. Canada shared in the tragedy and triumph of the Western Front. The Canadian Corps captured Vimy Ridge in April 1917, with 10,000 killed or wounded, securing the Canadians' reputation for valour as the "shock troops of the British Empire." One Canadian officer said: "It was Canada from the Atlantic to the Pacific on parade… In those few minutes I witnessed the birth of a nation." April 9 is celebrated as Vimy Day.

Regrettably, from 1914 to 1920, Ottawa interned over 8,000 former Austro-Hungarian subjects, mainly Ukrainian men, as "enemy aliens" in 24 labour camps across Canada, even though Britain advised against the policy.

In 1918, under the command of General Sir Arthur Currie, Canada's greatest soldier, the Canadian Corps advanced alongside the French and British Empire troops in the last hundred days. These included the victorious Battle of Amiens on August 8, 1918 – which the Germans called "the black day of the German Army" – followed by Arras, Canal du Nord, Cambrai and Mons. With Germany and Austria's surrender, the war ended in the Armistice on November 11, 1918. In total 60,000 Canadians were killed and 170,000 wounded. The war strengthened both national and imperial pride, particularly in English Canada.

Sir Arthur Currie, a reserve officer, became Canada's greatest soldier Women Get the Vote.

More than 3,000 nurses, nicknamed "Bluebirds," served in the Royal Canadian Army Medical Corps, 2,500 of them overseas.

Agnes Macphail, a farmer and teacher, became the first woman MP in 1921.

At the time of Confederation, the vote was limited to property-owning adult white males. This was common in most democratic countries at the time. The effort by women to achieve the right to vote is known as the women's suffrage movement. Its founder in Canada was Dr. Emily Stowe, the first Canadian woman to practise medicine in Canada. In 1916, Manitoba became the first province to grant voting rights to women.

In 1917, thanks to the leadership of women such as Dr. Stowe and other suffragettes, the federal government of Sir Robert Borden gave women the right to vote in federal elections – first to nurses at the battle front, then to women who were related to men in active wartime service. In 1918, most Canadian female citizens aged 21 and over were granted the right to vote in federal elections. In 1921 Agnes Macphail, a farmer and teacher, became the first woman MP. Due to the work of Thérèse Casgrain and others, Quebec granted women the vote in 1940.

Canadian soldiers observe Remembrance Day Remembrance Day poppy Canadian war veteran.

Canadians remember the sacrifices of our veterans and brave fallen in all wars up to the present day in which Canadians took part, each year on November 11: Remembrance Day. Canadians wear the red poppy and observe a moment of silence at the 11th hour of the 11th day of the 11th month to honour the sacrifices of over a million brave men and women who have served, and the 110,000 who have given their lives. Canadian medical officer Lieutenant-Colonel John McCrae composed the poem "In Flanders Fields" in 1915; it is often recited on Remembrance Day:

In Flanders fields the poppies blow Between the crosses, row on row, That mark our place; and in the sky The larks, still bravely singing, fly Scarce heard amid the guns below. We are the dead. Short days ago

We lived, felt dawn, saw sunset glow, Loved, and were loved, and now we lie In Flanders fields

Take up our quarrel with the foe:

To you from failing hands we throw The torch; be yours to hold it high. If ye break faith with us who die

We shall not sleep, though poppies grow In Flanders fields.

Phil Edwards was a Canadian track and field champion. Born in British Guiana, he won bronze medals for Canada in the 1928, 1932, and 1936 Olympics, then graduated from McGill University Medical School. He served as a captain in the Canadian Army during the Second World War, and, as a Montreal doctor, became an expert in tropical diseases

Between the Wars

After the First World War, the British Empire evolved into a free association of states known as the British Commonwealth of Nations. Canada remains a leading member of the Commonwealth to this day, together with other successor states of the Empire such as India, Australia, New Zealand, and several African and Caribbean countries.

The "Roaring Twenties" were boom times, with prosperity for businesses and low unemployment. The stock market crash of 1929, however, led to the Great Depression or the "Dirty Thirties." Unemployment reached 27% in 1933 and many businesses were wiped out. Farmers in Western Canada were hit hardest by low grain prices and a terrible drought.

There was growing demand for the government to create a social safety net with minimum wages, a standard work week and programs such as unemployment insurance. The Bank of Canada, a central bank to manage the money supply and bring stability to the financial system, was created in 1934. Immigration dropped and many refugees were turned away, including Jews trying to flee Nazi Germany in 1939.

In the Second World War, the Canadians captured Juno Beach as part of the Allied invasion of Normandy on D-Day, June 6, 1944

The D-Day Invasion, June 6, 1944

In order to defeat Nazism and Fascism, the Allies invaded Nazi-occupied Europe.

Canadians took part in the liberation of Italy in 1943-44. In the epic invasion of Normandy in northern France on June 6, 1944, known as D-Day, 15,000 Canadian troops stormed and captured Juno Beach from the German Army, a great national achievement shown in this painting by Orville Fisher. Approximately one in ten Allied soldiers on D-Day was Canadian. The Canadian Army liberated the Netherlands in 1944-45 and helped force the German surrender of May 8, 1945, bringing to an end six years of war in Europe.

The Second World War

The Second World War began in 1939 when Adolf Hitler, the National Socialist (Nazi) dictator of Germany, invaded Poland and conquered much of Europe. Canada joined with its democratic allies in the fight to defeat tyranny by force of arms.

More than one million Canadians and Newfoundlanders (Newfoundland was a separate British entity) served in the Second World War, out of a population of 11.5 million. This was a high proportion and of these, 44,000 were killed.

The Canadians fought bravely and suffered losses in the unsuccessful defence of Hong Kong (1941) from attack by Imperial Japan, and in a failed raid on Nazi-controlled Dieppe on the coast of France (1942).

The Royal Canadian Air Force (RCAF) took part in the Battle of Britain and provided a high proportion of Commonwealth aircrew in bombers and fighter planes over Europe. Moreover, Canada contributed more to the Allied air effort than any other Commonwealth country, with over 130,000 Allied air crew trained in Canada under the British Commonwealth Air Training Plan.

The Royal Canadian Navy (RCN) saw its finest hour in the Battle of the Atlantic, protecting convoys of merchant ships against German submarines. Canada's Merchant Navy helped to feed, clothe and resupply Britain. At the end of the Second World War, Canada had the third-largest navy in the world.

In the Pacific war, Japan invaded the Aleutian Islands, attacked a lighthouse on Vancouver Island, launched fire balloons over B.C. and the Prairies, and grossly maltreated Canadian prisoners of war captured at Hong Kong. Japan surrendered on August 14, 1945 – the end of four years of war in the Pacific.Regrettably, the state of war and public opinion in B.C. led to the forcible relocation of Canadians of Japanese origin by the federal government and the sale of their property without compensation. This occurred even though the military and the RCMP told Ottawa that they posed little danger to Canada. The Government of Canada apologized in 1988 for wartime wrongs and compensated the victims.

5. The system of law and government

The legal system of Canada is pluralist: its foundations lie in the English common law system (inherited from its period as a colony of the British Empire), the French civil law system (inherited from its French Empire past), and Indigenous law systems[3] developed by the various Indigenous Nations.

The Constitution of Canada is the supreme law of the country, and consists of written text and unwritten conventions. The *Constitution Act, 1867* (known as the British North America Act prior to 1982), affirmed governance based on parliamentary

precedent and divided powers between the federal and provincial governments. The Statute of Westminster 1931 granted full autonomy, and the *Constitution Act, 1982* ended all legislative ties to Britain, as well as adding a constitutional amending formula and the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*. The *Charter* guarantees basic rights and freedoms that usually cannot be over-ridden by any government—though a notwithstanding clause allows Parliament and the provincial legislatures to override certain sections of the *Charter* for a period of five years.

Canada's judiciary plays an important role in interpreting laws and has the power to strike down Acts of Parliament that violate the constitution. The Supreme Court of Canada is the highest court and final arbiter and has been led since December 18, 2017, by Richard Wagner, the chief justice of Canada. Its nine members are appointed by the governor general on the advice of the prime minister and minister of justice. All judges at the superior and appellate levels are appointed after consultation with non-governmental legal bodies. The federal Cabinet also appoints justices to superior courts in the provincial and territorial jurisdictions. Common law prevails everywhere except in Quebec, where civil law predominates. Criminal law is solely a federal responsibility and is uniform throughout Canada. Law enforcement, including criminal courts, is officially a provincial responsibility, conducted by provincial and municipal police forces. However, in most rural areas and some urban areas, policing responsibilities are contracted to the federal Royal Canadian Mounted Police.

Canadian Aboriginal law provides certain constitutionally recognized rights to land and traditional practices for Indigenous groups in Canada. Various treaties and case laws were established to mediate relations between Europeans and many Indigenous peoples. These treaties are agreements between the Canadian Crown-in-Council with the duty to consult and accommodate.[18] Indigenous law in Canada refers to the legal traditions, customs, and practices of Indigenous Nations and communities.

Constitution of Canada

Pursuant to section 52 of the *Constitution Act, 1982*, Canada's constitution is its supreme law, and any law passed by any federal, provincial, or territorial government that is inconsistent with the constitution is invalid.

The *Constitution Act, 1982* stipulates that Canada's constitution includes that act, a series of thirty Acts and orders referred to in a schedule to that Act (the most notable of which is the *Constitution Act, 1867*), and any amendment to any of those Acts. However, the Supreme Court of Canada has found that this list is not intended to be exhaustive, and in 1998's *Reference re Secession of Quebec* identified four "supporting principles and rules" that are included as unwritten elements of the constitution: federalism, democracy, constitutionalism and the rule of law, and respect for minorities.[24] While these principles are an enforceable part of Canada's constitution, Canadian courts have not used them to override the written text of the constitution, instead confining their role to "filling gaps".

Because the *Constitution Act, 1867* provides that Canada's constitution is "similar in Principle to that of the United Kingdom", which is considered to be an uncodified constitution, the Supreme Court has also recognized the existence of

constitutional conventions. In 1981's *Reference re a Resolution to amend the Constitution*, the Court provided three factors necessary for the existence of a constitutional convention: a practice or agreement developed by political actors, a recognition that they are bound to follow that practice or agreement, and a purpose for that practice or agreement. It also found that, while these conventions are not law and are therefore unenforceable by the courts, courts may recognize conventions in their rulings.

The *Constitution Act, 1867* assigns powers to the provincial and federal governments. Matters under federal jurisdiction include criminal law, trade and commerce, banking, and immigration.[28] The federal government also has the residual power to make laws necessary for Canada's "peace, order and good government". One of the major areas of provincial jurisdiction is property and civil rights, which includes broad power to enact laws of a civil nature, such as property law, contract law and family law. Provincial jurisdiction includes other matters, such as natural resources, hospitals, municipalities, education (except education on First Nation reserves).

The *Constitution Act, 1867* also provides that, while provinces establish their own superior courts, the federal government appoints their judges.[31] It also gives the federal Parliament the right to establish a court system responsible for federal law and a general court of appeal to hear appeals of decisions of both federal and provincial courts.[32] This last power resulted in the federal Parliament's creation of the Supreme Court of Canada.

The *Constitution Act, 1982* created a mechanism by which Canada's constitution could be amended by joint action of federal and provincial legislatures; prior to 1982, most of it could be amended only by the Parliament of the United Kingdom. It also contains the Charter of Rights and Freedoms, which grants individual rights that may not be contravened by any provincial or federal law.

Legislation

Acts passed by the Parliament of Canada and by provincial legislatures are the primary sources of law in Canada. Sections 91 and 94A of the *Constitution Act, 1867* set out the subject matters for exclusive federal jurisdiction, while sections 92, 92A, and 94 set out the areas of exclusive provincial legislation. Section 95 sets out areas of concurrent federal and provincial jurisdiction.

Laws passed by the federal Parliament are initially published in the Canada Gazette, a federal government newspaper published regularly and which includes new statutes and regulations. Federal statutes are subsequently published in the Annual Statutes of Canada. From time to time, the federal government will prepare a consolidation of federal statuts, known as the Revised Statutes of Canada. The most recent federal consolidation was in 1985.

Laws passed by the provinces follow a similar practice. The Acts are pronounced in a provincial gazette, published annually and consolidated from time to time.

The Revised Statutes of Canada is the federal statutory consolidation of statutes enacted by the Parliament of Canada. In each Canadian province, there is a similar consolidation of the statute law of the province. The Revised Statutes of British

Columbia, Revised Statutes of Alberta, Statutes of Manitoba, Revised Statutes of Saskatchewan, 1978, Revised Statutes of New Brunswick, Revised Statutes of Nova Scotia, Statutes of Prince Edward Island, Consolidated Statutes of Newfoundland and Labrador, Revised Statutes of Ontario, and Revised Statutes of Quebec are the statutory consolidations of each Canadian province. They contain all of the major topic areas and most of the statutes enacted by the governments in each province. These statutes in these provinces do not include criminal law, as the criminal law in Canada is an exclusive jurisdiction of the federal Parliament, which has enacted the *Criminal Code*, which is included in the Revised Statutes of Canada.

Judicial system

Under the *Constitution Act, 1867*, the federal Parliament and the provincial legislatures both have the constitutional authority to create courts: Parliament under s. 101, and the Provinces under s. 92(14). However, the federal power to create courts is much more limited than the provincial power. The provincial courts have a much more extensive jurisdiction, including the constitutionally entrenched power to determine constitutional issues.

Through Section 35 of the *Constitution Act, 1982*, Indigenous nations retain significant rights and title. It, however, remains unclear the degree to which Indigenous nations have authority over judicial matters. Especially since 1995, the Government of Canada has maintained a policy of recognizing the inherent right of self-governance under section 35. The evolution through cases such as *Delgamuukw-Gisday'wa* and the *Tsilhqot'in Nation v British Columbia* has affirmed the Euro-Canadian courts' needs to meaningfully engage with Indigenous legal systems, including through Indigenous structures of dispute resolution.

The Supreme Court of Canada (French: *Cour suprême du Canada*) is the highest court of Canada and is the final court of appeal in the Canadian justice system. Parliament created it by Act of Parliament in 1875, as a "general court of appeal for Canada". Prior to 1949, cases could be appealed to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in the United Kingdom, and some cases bypassed the Supreme Court of Canada entirely.

Other than the Supreme Court, the Canadian court system is divided into two classes of courts: superior courts of general jurisdiction, and courts of limited jurisdiction, sometimes referred to as inferior courts. The superior courts, created and maintained by the provinces, are divided into superior courts of original jurisdiction and superior courts of appeal. These courts are sometimes also referred to as "Section 96" courts, in reference to s. 96 of the *Constitution Act, 1867*, which grants the federal government the power to appoint the judges of these courts.[31] As courts of general jurisdiction, the provincial superior courts of original jurisdiction have jurisdiction over all matters, under both federal and provincial law, unless the matter has been assigned to some other court or administrative agency by a statute passed by the appropriate legislative body. The superior courts of original jurisdiction have an extensive civil jurisdiction, under both federal and provincial laws. Under the *Criminal Code*, a federal statute, they have jurisdiction over the most serious criminal offences, such as

murder. They also hear appeals from the Provincial Courts in criminal matters and some civil matters. A further appeal normally lies to superior court of appeal, the highest court in each province.

The provinces also can establish courts of limited jurisdiction, whose jurisdiction is limited solely to what is included in the statutory grant of jurisdiction. These courts are often called "Provincial Courts", even though the superior courts established by the provinces are also provincial courts. The Provincial Courts have an extensive criminal jurisdiction under the *Criminal Code*, a federal statute, and also typically have a limited civil jurisdiction in matters under provincial jurisdiction, such as small claims and some family matters. The judges of the Provincial Courts are appointed by the provincial governments.

There are also additional federal courts established by Parliament, which have a specialised jurisdiction in certain areas of federal law. These courts are the Federal Court of Appeal, the Federal Court, the Tax Court of Canada, and the Court Martial Appeal Court of Canada.

6. Ottawa and Toronto

Ottawa, city, capital of Canada, located in southeastern Ontario. In the eastern extreme of the province, Ottawa is situated on the south bank of the Ottawa River across from Gatineau, Quebec, at the confluence of the Ottawa (Outaouais), Gatineau, and Rideau rivers. The Ottawa River (some 790 miles [1,270 km] long), the principal tributary of the St. Lawrence River, was a key factor in the city's settlement and development; its watershed, covering more than 57,000 square miles (148,000 square km), facilitated the transport of resources such as furs, timber, and minerals from the region. The river's Chaudière Falls, just west of the Rideau Canal, while initially a navigational hazard for the fur trade and later for the transport of logging rafts, ultimately proved to be an asset in the production of hydroelectric power for the city and a boon to the growth of industry. Originally a trading and lumbering community that grew into a town of regional significance, Ottawa was named the capital of the Province of Canada in 1857 and retained that status when Canada became a dominion within the British Commonwealth in 1867. Because of its location on the boundary between English- speaking Ontario and French-speaking Quebec and its position as national capital, Ottawa is one of the most bilingual cities in the country. Area, 1,077 square miles (2,790 square km); Ottawa-Gatineau metro. area, 2,427 square miles (6,287 square km). Pop. (2011) 883,391; Ottawa-Gatineau metro. area, 1,254,919; (2021) 1,017,449; Ottawa-Gatineau metro. area, 1,488,307.

Toronto is the most populous city in Canada and the capital city of the Canadian province of Ontario. With a recorded population of 2,794,356 in 2021, it is the fourth-most populous city in North America. The city is the anchor of the Golden Horseshoe, an urban agglomeration of 9,765,188 people (as of 2021) surrounding the western end of Lake Ontario, while the Greater Toronto Area proper had a 2021 population of 6,712,341. Toronto is an international centre of business, finance, arts, sports and culture, and is recognized as one of the most multicultural and

cosmopolitan cities in the world.

Indigenous peoples have travelled through and inhabited the Toronto area, located on a broad sloping plateau interspersed with rivers, deep ravines, and urban forest, for more than 10,000 years. After the broadly disputed Toronto Purchase, when the Mississauga surrendered the area to the British Crown, the British established the town of York in 1793 and later designated it as the capital of Upper Canada. During the War of 1812, the town was the site of the Battle of York and suffered heavy damage by American troops. York was renamed and incorporated in 1834 as the city of Toronto. It was designated as the capital of the province of Ontario in 1867 during Canadian Confederation. The city proper has since expanded past its original limits through both annexation and amalgamation to its current area of 630.2 km^2 (243.3 sq mi).

The diverse population of Toronto reflects its current and historical role as an important destination for immigrants to Canada. More than half of residents were born outside of Canada, more than half of residents belong to a visible minority group, and over 200 distinct ethnic origins are represented among its inhabitants. While the majority of Torontonians speak English as their primary language, over 160 languages are spoken in the city. The mayor of Toronto is elected by direct popular vote to serve as the chief executive of the city. The Toronto City Council is a unicameral legislative body, comprising 25 councillors since the 2018 municipal election, representing geographical wards throughout the city.

Toronto is a prominent centre for music, theatre, motion picture production, and television production, and is home to the headquarters of Canada's major national broadcast networks and media outlets. Its varied cultural institutions, which include numerous museums and galleries, festivals and public events, entertainment districts, national historic sites and sports activities, attract over 43 million tourists each year. Toronto is known for its many skyscrapers and high-rise buildings, in particular the tallest free-standing structure on land outside of Asia, the CN Tower.

The city is home to the Toronto Stock Exchange, the headquarters of Canada's five largest banks, and the headquarters of many large Canadian and multinational corporations. Its economy is highly diversified with strengths in technology, design, financial services, life sciences, education, arts, fashion, aerospace, environmental innovation, food services, and tourism. Toronto is the third-largest tech hub in North America after Silicon Valley and New York City, and the fastest growing.

7. Money system

The **Canadian dollar** (symbol: **$**; code: **CAD**; French: *dollar canadien*) is the currency of Canada. It is abbreviated with the dollar sign $. There is no standard disambiguating form, but the abbreviations **Can$**, **CA$** and **C$** are frequently used for distinction from other dollar-denominated currencies (though C$ remains ambiguous with the Nicaraguan córdoba). It is divided into 100 cents (¢).

Owing to the image of a common loon on its reverse, the dollar coin, and sometimes the unit of currency itself, may be referred to as the *loonie* by English-speaking Canadians and foreign exchange traders and analysts.

Accounting for approximately 2% of all global reserves, the Canadian dollar is the sixth-most held reserve currency in the world, behind the U.S. dollar, euro, yen, sterling, and renminbi. The Canadian dollar is popular with central banks because of Canada's relative economic soundness, the Canadian government's strong sovereign position, and the stability of the country's legal and political systems.

8. Education

Under the British North America Act of 1867, organizing and administering public education are provincial responsibilities. The federal government is directly concerned only with providing education in Yukon, the Northwest Territories, and Nunavut, where it allocates funds but does not administer the system; in First Nations schools throughout Canada; for inmates of federal penitentiaries; for the families of members of the Canadian forces on military stations; and through Canada's Royal Military College in Kingston, Ontario. In addition, the federal government finances vocational training of adults and provides financial support to the provinces for the operating costs of postsecondary education.

Education policies vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction, but each province has a department of education headed by a minister who is a member of the provincial cabinet. Before they enter an eight-grade elementary school at age 6 or 7, Canadian children in some provinces attend kindergarten for two years, whereas those in other provinces attend kindergarten for only one year. At about 14 years of age, most children enroll in a regular four-year secondary school.

Traditionally, higher education was the preserve of universities. Now, however, they are supplemented by various institutions without degree-granting status – for example, regional colleges in British Columbia, institutes of technology in Alberta, institutes of applied arts and sciences in Saskatchewan, colleges of applied arts and technology in Ontario and *collèges d'enseignement general et professionel* (community colleges) in Quebec. Canada has some 75 degree-granting institutions and more than 200 community colleges, ranging from institutions with a single faculty and enrollments of a few hundred to institutions with many faculties and research institutes and more than 50,000 students. Among the largest universities are the multicampus Université du Québec (founded 1968) and the University of Toronto (1827). One of Canada's most prestigious universities is McGill University (1821), a private state-supported English-language university in Montreal.

The oldest French-speaking university in Canada, Laval, in Quebec city, traces its roots to 1663; it was officially founded as a university in 1852 and was recognized by a papal bull in 1872. Universities in English-speaking Canada were established after the American Revolution. University of King's College (1789) in Nova Scotia and what is now the University of New Brunswick (1785) were patterned on King's College (now Columbia University) in pre-Revolutionary New York City. Most other universities in pioneer days were begun by churches, but almost all have since become secular and almost entirely financially dependent on the provincial governments. Beginning in the late 1950s, Ontario established a number of new postsecondary institutions. One of these, the University of Waterloo (founded in 1957 and

incorporated as a university in 1959), has a cooperative program (alternating academic and work terms) and has gained an international reputation in mathematics and computer science. A number of private universities have been established in Canada, including Royal Roads University, which was established at a former federal military college near Victoria, British Columbia. A somewhat unusual characteristic of Canadian universities has been the system of “affiliated colleges” linked to a “parent” degree-granting institution though separated from it physically. English is the common language of instruction at most universities, except for a few bilingual institutions and several French-language schools.

9. Religion

Religion in Canada encompasses a wide range of groups and beliefs. Christianity is the most widely professed religion in Canada, with Catholicism being its largest denomination. Christians, representing 53.3% of the population in 2021, are followed by people having no religion at 34.6% of the total population. Other faiths include Islam (4.9%), Hinduism (2.3%), Sikhism (2.1%), Buddhism (1.0%), Judaism (0.9%), Indigenous spirituality (0.2%) and Jainism (0.1%).

Rates of religious adherence are steadily decreasing. The preamble to the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms refers to God. The monarch carries the title of "Defender of the Faith". However, Canada has no official religion, and support for religious pluralism and freedom of religion is an important part of Canada's political culture.

Before the European colonization, a wide diversity of Aboriginal religions and belief systems were largely animistic or shamanistic, including an intense tribal reverence for spirits and nature. The French colonization beginning in the 16th century established a Roman Catholic francophone population in New France, especially Acadia (later Lower Canada, now Nova Scotia and Quebec). British colonization brought waves of Anglicans and other Protestants to Upper Canada, now Ontario. The Russian Empire spread Eastern Orthodoxy to a small extent to the tribes in the far north and western coasts, particularly hyperborean nomadics like the Inuit; Orthodoxy would arrive on the mainland with immigrants from the Soviet Union, Eastern Bloc, Greece and elsewhere during the 20th century.

With Christianity in decline after having once been central and integral to Canadian culture and daily life, Canada has become a post- Christian, secular state despite the majority of Canadians claiming an affiliation with Christianity. The majority of Canadians consider religion to be unimportant in their daily lives, but still believe in God. The practice of religion is now generally considered a private matter throughout society and the state. On Sundays, between 15 and 25 percent of Catholic Canadians attend Mass (15 percent weekly attenders and another 9 percent monthly).

Canada is a Commonwealth realm in which the head of state is shared with 14 other countries. As such, Canada follows the United Kingdom's succession laws for its monarch, which bar Roman Catholics from inheriting the throne. Within Canada, the monarch's title includes the phrases "By the Grace of God" and "Defender of the Faith.".

Christmas and Easter are nationwide holidays, and while Jews, Muslims, and other religious groups are allowed to take their holy days off work, they do not share the same official recognition. In 1957, the Parliament declared Thanksgiving "a day of general thanksgiving to almighty God for the bountiful harvest with which Canada has been blessed."

There was an ongoing battle in the late 20th century to have religious garb accepted throughout Canadian society, mostly focused on Sikh turbans. The Canadian Armed Forces authorized the wearing of turbans in 1986, eventually the Royal Canadian Mounted Police followed in 1988 and eventually other federal government agencies accepted members wearing turbans.

10. Language

A multitude of languages have always been spoken in Canada. Prior to Confederation, the territories that would become Canada were home to over 70 distinct languages across 12 or so language families. Today, a majority of those indigenous languages are still spoken; however, most are endangered and only about 0.6% of the Canadian population report an Indigenous language as their mother tongue. Since the establishment of the Canadian state, English and French have been the co-official languages and are, by far, the most-spoken languages in the country.

According to the 2016 census, English and French are the mother tongues of 56.0% and 21.4% of Canadians respectively. In total, 86.2% of Canadians have a working knowledge of English, while 29.8% have a working knowledge of French. Under the *Official Languages Act* of 1969, both English and French have official status throughout Canada in respect of federal government services and most courts. All federal legislation is enacted bilingually. Provincially, only in New Brunswick are both English and French official to the same extent. French is Quebec's official language, although legislation is enacted in both French and English and court proceedings may be conducted in either language. English is the official language of Ontario, Manitoba and Alberta, but government services are available in French in many regions of each, particularly in regions and cities where Francophones form the majority. Legislation is enacted in both languages and courts conduct cases in both. In 2022, Nova Scotia recognized Mi'kmawi'simk as the first language of the province and maintains two provincial language secretariats: the Office of Acadian Affairs and Francophonie (French language) and the Office of Gaelic Affairs (Canadian Gaelic). The remaining provinces (British Columbia, Saskatchewan, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland and Labrador) do not have an official provincial language *per se* but government is primarily English- speaking. Territorially, both the Northwest Territories and Nunavut have official Indigenous languages alongside French and English: Inuktut (Inuktitut and Inuinnaqtun) in Nunavut and, in the NWT, nine (Cree, Dënësųłıné, Dene Yatıé/Zhatıé, Gwich'in, Inuinnaqtun, Inuktitut, Inuvialuktun, Sahtúgot'ịné Yatı́/Shíhgot'ịne Yatı́/ K'ashógot'ịne Goxedə́, and Tłı̨chǫ Yatıì).

Canada's official languages commissioner (the federal government official charged with monitoring the two languages) said in 2009, "[I]n the same way that race

is at the core of what it means to be American and at the core of an American experience and class is at the core of British experience, I think that language is at the core of Canadian experience." To assist in more accurately monitoring the two official languages, Canada's census collects a number of demolinguistic descriptors not enumerated in the censuses of most other countries, including home language, mother tongue, first official language, and language of work.

Canada's linguistic diversity extends beyond English, French and numerous Indigenous languages. "In Canada, 4.7 million people (14.2% of the population) reported speaking a language other than English or French most often at home and 1.9 million people (5.8%) reported speaking such a language on a regular basis as a second language (in addition to their main home language, English or French). In all, 20.0% of Canada's population reported speaking a language other than English or French at home. For roughly 6.4 million people, the other language was an immigrant language, spoken most often or on a regular basis at home, alone or together with English or French whereas for more than 213,000 people, the other language was an Indigenous language. Finally, the number of people reporting sign languages as the languages spoken at home was nearly 25,000 people (15,000 most often and 9,800 on a regular basis)."

Lecture 14.

Australia

Plan

1. General characteristics
2. Etymology
3. History
4. Geography
5. Government and politics
6. Language
7. Religion
8. Education
9. Arts and culture

1. General characteristics

Australia, officially the **Commonwealth of Australia**, is a sovereign country comprising the mainland of the Australian continent, the island of Tasmania, and numerous smaller islands. Australia is the largest country by area in Oceania and the world's sixth-largest country. Australia is the oldest, flattest, and driest inhabited continent, with the least fertile soils. It is a megadiverse country, and its size gives it a wide variety of landscapes and climates, with deserts in the centre, tropical rainforests in the north-east, tropical savannas in the north, and mountain ranges in the south-east.

The ancestors of Aboriginal Australians began arriving from south-east Asia approximately 65,000 years ago, during the last ice age. Arriving by sea, they settled the continent and had formed approximately 250 distinct language groups by the time

of European settlement, maintaining some of the longest known continuing artistic and religious traditions in the world. Australia's written history commenced with the European maritime exploration of Australia. The Dutch navigator Willem Janszoon was the first known European to reach Australia, in 1606. In 1770, the British explorer James Cook mapped and claimed the east coast of Australia for Great Britain, and the First Fleet of British ships arrived at Sydney in 1788 to establish the penal colony of New South Wales. The European population grew in subsequent decades, and by the end of the 1850s gold rush, most of the continent had been explored by European settlers and an additional five self-governing British colonies established. Democratic parliaments were gradually established through the 19th century, culminating with a vote for the federation of the six colonies and foundation of the Commonwealth of Australia on 1 January 1901. This began a process of increasing autonomy from the United Kingdom, highlighted by the *Statute of Westminster Adoption Act 1942*, and culminating in the *Australia Act 1986*.

Australia is a federal parliamentary constitutional monarchy, comprising six states and ten territories. Australia's population of nearly 27 million is highly urbanised and heavily concentrated on the eastern seaboard. Canberra is the nation's capital, while its most populous city and financial centre is Sydney. The next four largest cities are Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth, and Adelaide. It is ethnically diverse and multicultural, the product of large-scale immigration, with almost half of the population having at least one parent born overseas. Australia's abundant natural resources and well-developed international trade relations are crucial to the country's economy, which generates its income from various sources including services, mining exports, banking, manufacturing, agriculture and international education. Australia ranks amongst the highest in the world for quality of life, health, education, economic freedom, civil liberties and political rights.

Australia has a highly developed market economy and one of the highest per capita incomes globally. Australia is a regional power, and has the world's thirteenth-highest military expenditure. It is a member of international groupings including the United Nations; the G20; the OECD; the World Trade Organization; Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation; the Pacific Islands Forum; the Pacific Community; the Commonwealth of Nations; and the defence/security organisations ANZUS, AUKUS, and the Five Eyes. It is a major non-NATO ally of the United States.

2. Etymology

The name *Australia* (pronounced /əˈstreɪliə/ in Australian English) is derived from the Latin *Terra Australis* ("southern land"), a name used for a hypothetical continent in the Southern Hemisphere since ancient times. Several sixteenth century cartographers used the word Australia on maps, but not to identify modern Australia. When Europeans began visiting and mapping Australia in the 17th century, the name *Terra Australis* was naturally applied to the new territories.

Until the early 19th century, Australia was best known as *New Holland*, a name first applied by the Dutch explorer Abel Tasman in 1644 (as *Nieuw-Holland*) and subsequently anglicised. *Terra Australis* still saw occasional usage, such as in

scientific texts. The name *Australia* was popularised by the explorer Matthew Flinders, who said it was "more agreeable to the ear, and an assimilation to the names of the other great portions of the Earth". The first time that *Australia* appears to have been officially used was in April 1817, when Governor Lachlan Macquarie acknowledged the receipt of Flinders' charts of Australia from Lord Bathurst. In December 1817, Macquarie recommended to the Colonial Office that it be formally adopted. In 1824, the Admiralty agreed that the continent should be known officially by that name. The first official published use of the new name came with the publication in 1830 of *The Australia Directory* by the Hydrographic Office.

Colloquial names for Australia include "Oz" and "the Land Down Under" (usually shortened to just "Down Under"). Other epithets include "the Great Southern Land", "the Lucky Country", "the Sunburnt Country", and "the Wide Brown Land". The latter two both derive from Dorothea Mackellar's 1908 poem "My Country".

3. History

Indigenous peoples

Indigenous Australians comprise two groups: the Aboriginal peoples of the Australian mainland (and surrounding islands including Tasmania), and the Torres Strait Islanders, who are a distinct Melanesian people. Human habitation of the Australian continent is estimated to have begun 50,000 to 65,000 years ago, with the migration of people by land bridges and short sea crossings from what is now Southeast Asia. It is uncertain how many waves of immigration may have contributed to these ancestors of modern Aboriginal Australians. The Madjedbebe rock shelter in Arnhem Land is recognised as the oldest site showing the presence of humans in Australia. The oldest human remains found are the Lake Mungo remains, which have been dated to around 41,000 years ago.

Aboriginal Australian culture is one of the oldest continuous cultures on Earth. At the time of first European contact, Aboriginal Australians were complex hunter-gatherers with diverse economies and societies and about 250 different language groups. Recent archaeological finds suggest that a population of 750,000 could have been sustained. Aboriginal Australians have an oral culture with spiritual values based on reverence for the land and a belief in the Dreamtime.

The Torres Strait Islander people first settled their islands around 4000 years ago. Culturally and linguistically distinct from mainland Aboriginal peoples, they were seafarers and obtained their livelihood from seasonal horticulture and the resources of their reefs and seas.

European exploration and colonisation

Landing of James Cook at Botany Bay on 29 April 1770 to claim Australia's east coast for Great Britain

The northern coasts and waters of Australia were visited sporadically for trade by Makassan fishermen from what is now Indonesia. The first recorded European sighting of the Australian mainland, and the first recorded European landfall on the Australian continent, are attributed to the Dutch. The first ship and crew to chart the Australian coast and meet with Aboriginal people was the *Duyfken* captained by Dutch

navigator, Willem Janszoon. He sighted the coast of Cape York Peninsula in early 1606, and made landfall on 26 February 1606 at the Pennefather River near the modern town of Weipa on Cape York. Later that year, Spanish explorer Luís Vaz de Torres sailed through and navigated the Torres Strait Islands. The Dutch charted the whole of the western and northern coastlines and named the island continent "New Holland" during the 17th century, and although no attempt at settlement was made, a number of shipwrecks left men either stranded or, as in the case of the *Batavia* in 1629, marooned for mutiny and murder, thus becoming the first Europeans to permanently inhabit the continent. In 1770, Captain James Cook sailed along and mapped the east coast, which he named "New South Wales" and claimed for Great Britain.

Following the loss of its American colonies in 1783, the British Government sent a fleet of ships, the First Fleet, under the command of Captain Arthur Phillip, to establish a new penal colony in New South Wales. A camp was set up and the Union Flag raised at Sydney Cove, Port Jackson, on 26 January 1788, a date which later became Australia's national day. Most early convicts were transported for petty crimes and assigned as labourers or servants to "free settlers" (non-convict immigrants). While the majority of convicts settled into colonial society once emancipated, convict rebellions and uprisings were also staged, but invariably suppressed under martial law. The 1808 Rum Rebellion, the only successful armed takeover of government in Australia, instigated a two-year period of military rule. The following decade, social and economic reforms initiated by Governor Lachlan Macquarie saw New South Wales transition from a penal colony to a civil society.

The indigenous population declined for 150 years following settlement, mainly due to infectious disease. Thousands more died as a result of frontier conflict with settlers.

Colonial expansion

Tasmania's Port Arthur penal settlement is one of eleven UNESCO World Heritage-listed Australian Convict Sites.

The British continued to push into other areas of the continent in the early 19th century, initially along the coast. In 1803, a settlement was established in Van Diemen's Land (present-day Tasmania), and in 1813, Gregory Blaxland, William Lawson and William Wentworth crossed the Blue Mountains west of Sydney, opening the interior to European settlement. The British claim extended to the whole Australian continent in 1827 when Major Edmund Lockyer established a settlement on King George Sound (modern-day Albany). The Swan River Colony (present-day Perth) was established in 1829, evolving into the largest Australian colony by area, Western Australia. In accordance with population growth, separate colonies were carved from New South Wales: Tasmania in 1825, South Australia in 1836, New Zealand in 1841, Victoria in 1851, and Queensland in 1859. South Australia was founded as a "free province" – it was never a penal colony. Western Australia was also founded "free" but later accepted transported convicts, the last of which arrived in 1868, decades after transportation had ceased to the other colonies.

In 1823, a Legislative Council nominated by the governor of New South Wales was established, together with a new Supreme Court, thus limiting the powers of

colonial governors. Between 1855 and 1890, the six colonies individually gained responsible government, thus becoming elective democracies managing most of their own affairs while remaining part of the British Empire. The Colonial Office in London retained control of some matters, notably foreign affairs and defence.

In the mid-19th century, explorers such as Burke and Wills went further inland to determine its agricultural potential and answer scientific questions. A series of gold rushes beginning in the early 1850s led to an influx of new migrants from China, North America and continental Europe, as well as outbreaks of bushranging and civil unrest; the latter peaked in 1854 when Ballarat miners launched the Eureka Rebellion against gold license fees.

From 1886, Australian colonial governments began introducing policies resulting in the removal of many Aboriginal children from their families and communities (referred to as the Stolen Generations).

Federation to the World Wars

On 1 January 1901, federation of the colonies was achieved after a decade of planning, constitutional conventions and referendums, resulting in the establishment of the Commonwealth of Australia as a nation and the entering into force of the Australian Constitution.

After the 1907 Imperial Conference, Australia and several other self-governing British settler colonies were given the status of self-governing "dominions" within the British Empire. Australia was one of the founding members of the League of Nations in 1920, and subsequently of the United Nations in 1945. Britain's Statute of Westminster 1931 formally ended most of the constitutional links between Australia and the United Kingdom. Australia adopted it in 1942, but it was backdated to 1939 to confirm the validity of legislation passed by the Australian Parliament during World War II.

The Federal Capital Territory (later renamed the Australian Capital Territory) was formed in 1911 as the location for the future federal capital of Canberra. Melbourne was the temporary seat of government from 1901 to 1927 while Canberra was being constructed. The Northern Territory was transferred from the control of the South Australian government to the federal parliament in 1911. Australia became the colonial ruler of the Territory of Papua (which had initially been annexed by Queensland in 1883) in 1902 and of the Territory of New Guinea (formerly German New Guinea) in 1920. The two were unified as the Territory of Papua and New Guinea in 1949 and gained independence from Australia in 1975.

The 1942 Bombing of Darwin, the first of over 100 Japanese air raids on Australia during World War II

In 1914, Australia joined the Allies in fighting the First World War, and took part in many of the major battles fought on the Western Front. Of about 416,000 who served, about 60,000 were killed and another 152,000 were wounded. Many Australians regard the defeat of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZACs) at Gallipoli in 1915 as the nation's "baptism of fire" – its first major military action, with the anniversary of the landing at Anzac Cove commemorated each year on Anzac Day.

From 1939 to 1945, Australia joined the Allies in fighting the Second World War. Australia's armed forces fought in the Pacific, European and Mediterranean and Middle East theatres. The shock of Britain's defeat in Asia in 1942, followed soon after by the bombing of Darwin and other Japanese attacks on Australian soil, led to a widespread belief in Australia that a Japanese invasion was imminent, and a shift from the United Kingdom to the United States as Australia's principal ally and security partner. Since 1951, Australia has been a formal military ally of the United States, under the ANZUS treaty.

Post-war and contemporary eras

In the decades following World War II, Australia enjoyed significant increases in living standards, leisure time and suburban development. Using the slogan "populate or perish", the nation encouraged a large wave of immigration from across Europe, with such immigrants referred to as "New Australians".

A member of the Western Bloc during the Cold War, Australia participated in the Korean War and the Malayan Emergency during the 1950s and the Vietnam War from 1962 to 1972. During this time, tensions over communist influence in society led to unsuccessful attempts by the Menzies Government to ban the Communist Party of Australia, and a bitter splitting of the Labor Party in 1955.

As a result of a 1967 referendum, the Federal Government received a mandate to implement policies to benefit Aboriginal people, and all Indigenous Australians were included in the Census. Traditional ownership of land ("native title") was recognised in law for the first time when the High Court of Australia held in *Mabo v Queensland (No 2)* that the legal doctrine of *terra nullius* ("land belonging to no one") did not apply to Australia at the time of European settlement.

Following the final abolition of the White Australia policy in 1973, Australia's demography and culture transformed as a result of a large and ongoing wave of non-European immigration, mostly from Asia. The late 20th century also saw an increasing focus on foreign policy ties with other Pacific Rim nations. While the *Australia Act 1986* severed the remaining vestigial constitutional ties between Australia and the United Kingdom, a 1999 referendum resulted in 55% of voters rejecting a proposal to abolish the Monarchy of Australia and become a republic.

Following the September 11 attacks on the United States, Australia joined the United States in fighting the Afghanistan War from 2001 to 2021 and the Iraq War from 2003 to 2009. The nation's trade relations also became increasingly oriented towards East Asia in the 21st century, with China becoming the nation's largest trading partner by a large margin.

During the COVID-19 pandemic which commenced in Australia in 2020, several of Australia's largest cities were locked down for extended periods of time, and free movement across state borders was restricted in an attempt to slow the spread of the SARS-CoV-2 virus.

4. Geography

Surrounded by the Indian and Pacific oceans, Australia is separated from Asia by the Arafura and Timor seas, with the Coral Sea lying off the Queensland coast, and

the Tasman Sea lying between Australia and New Zealand. The world's smallest continent and sixth largest country by total area, Australia – owing to its size and isolation – is often dubbed the "island continent" and is sometimes considered the world's largest island. Australia has 34,218 km (21,262 mi) of coastline (excluding all offshore islands), and claims an extensive Exclusive Economic Zone of 8,148,250 square kilometres (3,146,060 sq mi). This exclusive economic zone does not include the Australian Antarctic Territory.

Mainland Australia lies between latitudes 9° and 44° South, and longitudes 112° and 154° East. Australia's size gives it a wide variety of landscapes, with tropical rainforests in the north-east, mountain ranges in the south-east, south-west and east, and desert in the centre. The desert or semi-arid land commonly known as the outback makes up by far the largest portion of land. Australia is the driest inhabited continent; its annual rainfall averaged over continental area is less than 500 mm. The population density is 3.4 inhabitants per square kilometre, although the large majority of the population lives along the temperate south-eastern coastline. The population density exceeds 19,500 inhabitants per square kilometre in central Melbourne.

The Great Barrier Reef, the world's largest coral reef, lies a short distance off the north-east coast and extends for over 2,000 km (1,200 mi). Mount Augustus, claimed to be the world's largest monolith, is located in Western Australia. At 2,228 m (7,310 ft), Mount Kosciuszko is the highest mountain on the Australian mainland. Even taller are Mawson Peak (at 2,745 m (9,006 ft)), on the remote Australian external territory of Heard Island, and, in the Australian Antarctic Territory, Mount McClintock and Mount Menzies, at 3,492 m (11,457 ft) and 3,355 m (11,007 ft) respectively.

Eastern Australia is marked by the Great Dividing Range, which runs parallel to the coast of Queensland, New South Wales and much of Victoria. The name is not strictly accurate, because parts of the range consist of low hills, and the highlands are typically no more than 1,600 m (5,200 ft) in height. The coastal uplands and a belt of Brigalow grasslands lie between the coast and the mountains, while inland of the dividing range are large areas of grassland and shrubland. These include the western plains of New South Wales, and the Mitchell Grass Downs and Mulga Lands of inland Queensland. The northernmost point of the mainland is the tropical Cape York Peninsula.

The landscapes of the Top End and the Gulf Country – with their tropical climate – include forest, woodland, wetland, grassland, rainforest and desert. At the north-west corner of the continent are the sandstone cliffs and gorges of The Kimberley, and below that the Pilbara. The Victoria Plains tropical savanna lies south of the Kimberley and Arnhem Land savannas, forming a transition between the coastal savannas and the interior deserts. At the heart of the country are the uplands of central Australia. Prominent features of the centre and south include Uluru (also known as Ayers Rock), the famous sandstone monolith, and the inland Simpson, Tirari and Sturt Stony, Gibson, Great Sandy, Tanami, and Great Victoria deserts, with the famous Nullarbor Plain on the southern coast. The Western Australian mulga shrublands lie between the interior deserts and Mediterranean-climate Southwest

Australia.

5. Government and politics

Australia is a federal parliamentary constitutional monarchy. The country has maintained a stable liberal democratic political system under its constitution, which is one of the world's oldest, since Federation in 1901. It is also one of the world's oldest federations, in which power is divided between the federal and state and territorial governments. The Australian system of government combines elements derived from the political systems of the United Kingdom (a fused executive, constitutional monarchy and strong party discipline) and the United States (federalism, a written constitution and strong bicameralism with an elected upper house), along with distinctive indigenous features.

The federal government is separated into three branches:

- Legislature: the bicameral Parliament, comprising the monarch (represented by the governor-general), the Senate, and the House of Representatives;
- Executive: the Federal Executive Council, which in practice gives legal effect to the decisions of the cabinet, comprising the prime minister and other ministers of state appointed by the governor-general on the advice of Parliament;
- Judiciary: the High Court of Australia and other federal courts, whose judges are appointed by the governor-general on advice of Parliament

Charles III reigns as King of Australia and is represented in Australia by the governor-general at the federal level and by the governors at the state level, who by convention act on the advice of his ministers. Thus, in practice the governor-general acts as a legal figurehead for the actions of the prime minister and the Federal Executive Council. The governor-general, however, does have reserve powers which, in some situations, may be exercised outside the prime minister's request. These powers are held by convention and their scope is unclear. The most notable exercise of these powers was the dismissal of the Whitlam Government in the constitutional crisis of 1975.

In the Senate (the upper house), there are 76 senators: twelve each from the states and two each from the mainland territories (the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory). The House of Representatives (the lower house) has 151 members elected from single-member electoral divisions, commonly known as "electorates" or "seats", allocated to states on the basis of population, with each original state guaranteed a minimum of five seats. Elections for both chambers are normally held every three years simultaneously; senators have overlapping six-year terms except for those from the territories, whose terms are not fixed but are tied to the electoral cycle for the lower house; thus only 40 of the 76 places in the Senate are put to each election unless the cycle is interrupted by a double dissolution.

Australia's electoral system uses preferential voting for all lower house elections with the exception of Tasmania and the ACT which, along with the Senate and most state upper houses, combine it with proportional representation in a system known as the single transferable vote. Voting is compulsory for all enrolled citizens 18 years and over in every jurisdiction, as is enrolment. The party with majority support in the

House of Representatives forms the government and its leader becomes Prime Minister. In cases where no party has majority support, the Governor-General has the constitutional power to appoint the Prime Minister and, if necessary, dismiss one that has lost the confidence of Parliament. Due to the relatively unique position of Australia operating as a Westminster parliamentary democracy with an elected upper house, the system has sometimes been referred to as having a "Washminster mutation", or as a semi-parliamentary system.

There are two major political groups that usually form government, federally and in the states: the Australian Labor Party and the Coalition, which is a formal grouping of the Liberal Party and its minor partner, the National Party. The Liberal National Party and the Country Liberal Party are merged state branches in Queensland and the Northern Territory that function as separate parties at a federal level. Within Australian political culture, the Coalition is considered centre-right and the Labor Party is considered centre-left. Independent members and several minor parties have achieved representation in Australian parliaments, mostly in upper houses. The Australian Greens are often considered the "third force" in politics, being the third largest party by both vote and membership.

The most recent federal election was held on 21 May 2022 and resulted in the Australian Labor Party, led by Anthony Albanese, being elected to government.

States and territories

Australia has six states – New South Wales (NSW), Queensland (Qld), South Australia (SA), Tasmania (Tas), Victoria (Vic) and Western Australia (WA) – and three mainland territories – the Australian Capital Territory (ACT), the Northern Territory (NT), and the Jervis Bay Territory (JBT). The ACT and NT are mostly self-governing, except that the Commonwealth Parliament has the power to modify or repeal any legislation passed by the territory parliaments.

Under the constitution, the states essentially have plenary legislative power to legislate on any subject, whereas the Commonwealth (federal) Parliament may legislate only within the subject areas enumerated under section 51. For example, state parliaments have the power to legislate with respect to education, criminal law and state police, health, transport, and local government, but the Commonwealth Parliament does not have any specific power to legislate in these areas. However, Commonwealth laws prevail over state laws to the extent of the inconsistency.

Each state and major mainland territory has its own parliament – unicameral in the Northern Territory, the ACT and Queensland, and bicameral in the other states. The states are sovereign entities, although subject to certain powers of the Commonwealth as defined by the Constitution. The lower houses are known as the Legislative Assembly (the House of Assembly in South Australia and Tasmania); the upper houses are known as the Legislative Council. The head of the government in each state is the Premier and in each territory the Chief Minister. The King is represented in each state by a governor. In the Commonwealth, the King's representative is the governor-general.

The Commonwealth Parliament also directly administers the external territories of Ashmore and Cartier Islands, Christmas Island, the Cocos (Keeling) Islands, the

Coral Sea Islands, Heard Island and McDonald Islands, and the claimed region of Australian Antarctic Territory, as well as the internal Jervis Bay Territory, a naval base and sea port for the national capital in land that was formerly part of New South Wales. The external territory of Norfolk Island previously exercised considerable autonomy under the *Norfolk Island Act 1979* through its own legislative assembly and an Administrator to represent the monarch. In 2015, the Commonwealth Parliament abolished self-government, integrating Norfolk Island into the Australian tax and welfare systems and replacing its legislative assembly with a council. Macquarie Island is part of Tasmania, and Lord Howe Island of New South Wales.

Foreign relations

Over recent decades, Australia's foreign relations have been driven by a focus on relationships within the Asia-Pacific region and a continued close association with the United States through the ANZUS pact and its status as a major non-NATO ally of that country.[246] A regional power, Australia is a member of regional and cultural groupings including the Pacific Islands Forum, the Pacific Community and the Commonwealth of Nations, and is a participant in the ASEAN+6 mechanism and the East Asia Summit.

Australia is a member of several defence, intelligence and security groupings including the Five Eyes intelligence alliance with the United States, United Kingdom, Canada and New Zealand; the ANZUS alliance with the United States and New Zealand; the AUKUS security treaty with the United States and United Kingdom; the Quadrilateral Security Dialogue with the United States, India and Japan; the Five Power Defence Arrangements with New Zealand, the United Kingdom, Malaysia and Singapore; and the Reciprocal Access defence and security agreement with Japan.

Australia has pursued the cause of international trade liberalisation. It led the formation of the Cairns Group and Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation, and is a member of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the World Trade Organization (WTO). In recent decades, Australia has entered into the Comprehensive and Progressive Agreement for Trans-Pacific Partnership and the Regional Comprehensive Economic Partnership multilateral free trade agreements as well as bilateral free trade agreements with the United States, China, Japan, South Korea, Indonesia, the United Kingdom and New Zealand. Australia maintains a deeply integrated relationship with neighbouring New Zealand, with free mobility of citizens between the two countries under the Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement and free trade under the Closer Economic Relations agreement. The most favourably viewed countries by the Australian people in 2021 include New Zealand, the United Kingdom, Japan, Germany, Taiwan, Thailand, the United States and South Korea. A founding member country of the United Nations, Australia is strongly committed to multilateralism, and maintains an international aid program under which some 60 countries receive assistance. Australia ranked fourth in the Center for Global Development's 2021 Commitment to Development Index.

Military

Australia's armed forces – the Australian Defence Force (ADF) – comprise the Royal Australian Navy (RAN), the Australian Army and the Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF), in total numbering 81,214 personnel (including 57,982 regulars and

23,232 reservists) as of November 2015. The titular role of Commander-in-Chief is vested in the Governor-General, who appoints a Chief of the Defence Force from one of the armed services on the advice of the government. In a diarchy, the Chief of the Defence Force serves as co-chairman of the Defence Committee, conjointly with the Secretary of Defence, in the command and control of the Australian Defence Organisation.

In the 2016-2017 budget, defence spending comprised 2% of GDP, representing the world's 12th largest defence budget. Australia has been involved in United Nations and regional peacekeeping, disaster relief, as well as armed conflicts from the First World War onwards.

6. Language

Although English is not the official language of Australia in law, it is the *de facto* official and national language. Australian English is a major variety of the language with a distinctive accent and lexicon, and differs slightly from other varieties of English in grammar and spelling. General Australian serves as the standard dialect. At the 2021 census, English was the only language spoken in the home for 72% of the population. The next most common languages spoken at home were Mandarin (2.7%), Arabic (1.4%), Vietnamese (1.3%), Cantonese (1.2%) and Punjabi (0.9%).

Over 250 Australian Aboriginal languages are thought to have existed at the time of first European contact. The National Indigenous Languages Survey (NILS) for 2018-19 found that more than 120 Indigenous language varieties were in use or being revived, although 70 of those in use were endangered. The 2021 census found that 167 Indigenous languages were spoken at home by 76,978 Indigenous Australians. NILS and the Australian Bureau of Statistics use different classifications for Indigenous Australian languages.

The Australian sign language known as Auslan was used at home by 16,242 people at the time of the 2021 census.

7. Religion

Australia has no state religion; Section 116 of the Australian Constitution prohibits the federal government from making any law to establish any religion, impose any religious observance, or prohibit the free exercise of any religion. At the 2021 Census, 38.9% of the population identified as having "no religion", up from 15.5% in 2001. The largest religion is Christianity (43.9% of the population).[6] The largest Christian denominations are the Roman Catholic Church (20% of the population) and the Anglican Church of Australia (9.8%). Multicultural immigration since the Second World War has led to the growth of non-Christian religions, the largest of which are Islam (3.2%), Hinduism (2.7%), Buddhism (2.4%), Sikhism (0.8%) and Judaism (0.4%).

In 2021, just under 8,000 people declared an affiliation with traditional Aboriginal religions. In Australian Aboriginal mythology and the animist framework developed in Aboriginal Australia, the Dreaming is a sacred era in which ancestral totemic spirit beings formed The Creation. The Dreaming established the

laws and structures of society and the ceremonies performed to ensure continuity of life and land.

8. Education

School attendance, or registration for home schooling, is compulsory throughout Australia. Education is the responsibility of the individual states and territories so the rules vary between states, but in general children are required to attend school from the age of about 5 until about 16. In some states (Western Australia, Northern Territory and New South Wales), children aged 16-17 are required to either attend school or participate in vocational training, such as an apprenticeship.

Australia has an adult literacy rate that was estimated to be 99% in 2003. However, a 2011–2012 report for the Australian Bureau of Statistics reported that Tasmania has a literacy and numeracy rate of only 50%.

Australia has 37 government-funded universities and three private universities, as well as a number of other specialist institutions that provide approved courses at the higher education level. The OECD places Australia among the most expensive nations to attend university. There is a state-based system of vocational training, known as TAFE, and many trades conduct apprenticeships for training new tradespeople. About 58% of Australians aged from 25 to 64 have vocational or tertiary qualifications and the tertiary graduation rate of 49% is the highest among OECD countries. 30.9% of Australia's population has attained a higher education qualification, which is among the highest percentages in the world.

Australia has the highest ratio of international students per head of population in the world by a large margin, with 812,000 international students enrolled in the nation's universities and vocational institutions in 2019. Accordingly, in 2019, international students represented on average 26.7% of the student bodies of Australian universities. International education therefore represents one of the country’s largest exports and has a pronounced influence on the country's demographics, with a significant proportion of international students remaining in Australia after graduation on various skill and employment visas. Education is Australia's third-largest export, after iron ore and coal, and contributed over $28 billion to the economy in 2016-17.

9. Arts and culture

Culture

The country is home to a diversity of cultures, a result of its history of immigration. Prior to 1850, Australia was dominated by Indigenous cultures. Since then, Australian culture has primarily been a Western culture, strongly influenced by Anglo-Celtic settlers. Other influences include Australian Aboriginal culture, the traditions brought to the country by waves of immigration from around the world, and the culture of the United States. The cultural divergence and evolution that has occurred over the centuries since European settlement has resulted in a distinctive Australian culture.

Arts

Australia has over 100,000 Aboriginal rock art sites, and traditional designs,

patterns and stories infuse contemporary Indigenous Australian art, "the last great art movement of the 20th century" according to critic Robert Hughes; its exponents include Emily Kame Kngwarreye. Early colonial artists showed a fascination with the unfamiliar land. The impressionistic works of Arthur Streeton, Tom Roberts and other members of the 19th-century Heidelberg School – the first "distinctively Australian" movement in Western art – gave expression to nationalist sentiments in the lead-up to Federation. While the school remained influential into the 1900s, modernists such as Margaret Preston, and, later, Sidney Nolan, explored new artistic trends. The landscape remained central to the work of Aboriginal watercolourist Albert Namatjira, as well as Fred Williams, Brett Whiteley and other post-war artists whose works, eclectic in style yet uniquely Australian, moved between the figurative and the abstract.

Australian literature grew slowly in the decades following European settlement though Indigenous oral traditions, many of which have since been recorded in writing, are much older. In the 19th-century, Henry Lawson and Banjo Paterson captured the experience of the bush using a distinctive Australian vocabulary. Their works are still popular; Paterson's bush poem "Waltzing Matilda" (1895) is regarded as Australia's unofficial national anthem. Miles Franklin is the namesake of Australia's most prestigious literary prize, awarded annually to the best novel about Australian life. Its first recipient, Patrick White, went on to win the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1973. Australian Booker Prize winners include Peter Carey, Thomas Keneally and Richard Flanagan. Australian public intellectuals have also written seminal works in their respective fields, including feminist Germaine Greer and philosopher Peter Singer.

Many of Australia's performing arts companies receive funding through the federal government's Australia Council. There is a symphony orchestra in each state, and a national opera company, Opera Australia, well known for its famous soprano Joan Sutherland. At the beginning of the 20th century, Nellie Melba was one of the world's leading opera singers. Ballet and dance are represented by The Australian Ballet and various state companies. Each state has a publicly funded theatre company.

Media

The Story of the Kelly Gang (1906), the world's first feature-length narrative film, spurred a boom in Australian cinema during the silent film era. After World War I, Hollywood monopolised the industry, and by the 1960s Australian film production had effectively ceased. With the benefit of government support, the Australian New Wave of the 1970s brought provocative and successful films, many exploring themes of national identity, such as *Wake in Fright* and *Gallipoli*, while *Crocodile Dundee* and the Ozploitation movement's *Mad Max* series became international blockbusters. In a film market flooded with foreign content, Australian films delivered a 7.7% share of the local box office in 2015. The AACTAs are Australia's premier film and television awards, and notable Academy Award winners from Australia include Geoffrey Rush, Nicole Kidman, Cate Blanchett and Heath Ledger.

Australia has two public broadcasters (the Australian Broadcasting

Corporation and the multicultural Special Broadcasting Service), three commercial television networks, several pay-TV services, and numerous public, non-profit television and radio stations. Each major city has at least one daily newspaper, and there are two national daily newspapers, *The Australian* and *The Australian Financial Review*. In 2020, Reporters Without Borders placed Australia 25th on a list of 180 countries ranked by press freedom, behind New Zealand (8th) but ahead of the United Kingdom (33rd) and United States (44th). This relatively low ranking is primarily because of the limited diversity of commercial media ownership in Australia; most print media are under the control of News Corporation and Nine Entertainment Co.

Cuisine

Most Indigenous Australian groups subsisted on a simple hunter-gatherer diet of native fauna and flora, otherwise called bush tucker. The first settlers introduced British and Irish cuisine to the continent. This influence is seen in the enduring popularity of several British dishes such as fish and chips, and in quintessential Australian dishes such as the Australian meat pie, which is related to the British steak pie. Post-war immigration transformed Australian cuisine. For instance, Southern European migrants helped to build a thriving Australian coffee culture which gave rise to Australian coffee drinks such as the flat white, while East Asian migration led to dishes such as the Cantonese-influenced dim sim and Chiko Roll, as well as a distinct Australian Chinese cuisine. Sausage sizzles, pavlovas, lamingtons, meat pies, Vegemite and Anzac biscuits are regarded as iconic Australian foods.

Australia is a leading exporter and consumer of wine. Australian wine is produced mainly in the southern, cooler parts of the country. The nation also ranks highly in beer consumption, with each state and territory hosting numerous breweries. Australia is also known for its cafe and coffee culture in urban centres.

Sport and recreation

Cricket and football are the predominant sports in Australia during the summer and winter months, respectively. Australia is unique in that it has professional leagues for four football codes. Originating in Melbourne in the 1850s, Australian rules football is the most popular code in all states except New South Wales and Queensland, where rugby league holds sway, followed by rugby union. Soccer, while ranked fourth in popularity and resources, has the highest overall participation rates. Cricket is popular across all borders and has been regarded by many Australians as the national sport. The Australian national cricket team competed against England in the first Test match (1877) and the first One Day International (1971), and against New Zealand in the first Twenty20 International (2004), winning all three games. It has also participated in every edition of the Cricket World Cup, winning the tournament a record five times.

Australia is one of five nations to have participated in every Summer Olympics of the modern era, and has hosted the Games twice: 1956 in Melbourne and 2000 in Sydney. It is also set to host the 2032 Games in Brisbane. Australia has also participated in every Commonwealth Games, hosting the event in 1938, 1962, 1982, 2006 and 2018. As well as being a regular FIFA World Cup participant, Australia has won the OFC Nations Cup four times and the AFC Asian

Cup once – the only country to have won championships in two different FIFA confederations.

Other major international events held in Australia include the Australian Open tennis grand slam tournament and the Australian Formula One Grand Prix. The annual Melbourne Cup horse race and the Sydney to Hobart yacht race also attract intense interest. Australia is also notable for water-based sports, such as swimming and surfing. The surf lifesaving movement originated in Australia, and the volunteer lifesaver is one of the country's icons. Snow sports take place primarily in the Australian Alps and Tasmania.

Lecture 15.
Some more glimpse on the English-speaking world

Plan

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2. Countries where English is an official language
3. English as a global language
4. A mammoth list of English speaking countries
5. Fun facts about countries where English is spoken

1. English-speaking world

The **English-speaking world** comprises the 88 countries and territories where English is either an official, administrative, or cultural language. As of the 2000s, nearly 2 billion people globally speak English, making it the largest language by number of speakers, and the third largest language by number of native speakers, as well as the most geographically widespread language. The regions where English is natively spoken by the *majority* of the population, due to cultural connections to England, are termed " the Anglosphere". Speakers of English are called **Anglophones**.

England and the Scottish Lowlands, countries of the United Kingdom, are the birthplace of the English language, and the modern form of the language has been spread around the world since the 17th century, first by the worldwide influence of England and later the United Kingdom, and then by that of the United States. Through all types of printed and electronic media of these countries, English has become the leading language of international discourse and the lingua franca and professional contexts such as science, navigation and law.

The United States and India have the most total English speakers, with 306 million and 265 million, respectively. These are followed by Pakistan (104 million), the United Kingdom (68 million), and Nigeria (60 million). As of 2022, there were about 373 million native speakers of English. When factoring in those who speak English as a second language, estimates of the total number of Anglophones vary greatly, from 1.5 billion to 2 billion. David Crystal calculates that as of 2003 non-native speakers outnumbered native speakers by a ratio of 3:1.

Besides the major varieties of English, namely American, British,

Canadian, Australian, Irish, New Zealand English, and their sub-varieties, countries such as South Africa, India, Nigeria, the Philippines, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago also have millions of native speakers of dialect continua ranging from English-based creole languages to Standard English. Other countries and territories, such as Ghana and Singapore, also use English as their primary official language even if it is not the native language of the majority of the population.

Majority English-speaking countries

English is the primary natively spoken language in several countries and territories. Five of the largest of these are sometimes described as the "core Anglosphere"; they are the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

The term "Anglosphere" can sometimes be extended to include other countries and territories where English or an English Creole language is also the primary native language and English is the primary language of government and education, such as Ireland, Gibraltar, and the Commonwealth Caribbean.

While English is also spoken by a majority of people as a second language in a handful of countries such as Denmark, the Netherlands, and Sweden, these countries are not considered part of the English-speaking world as the language is still viewed primarily as a foreign tongue and does not serve an important cultural role in society.

2. Countries where English is an official language

English is an official language (*de facto* and *de jure*) of the following countries and territories.

- **North America**: Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bermuda, British Virgin Islands, Canada, Cayman Islands, Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica, Montserrat, Puerto Rico, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago, Turks and Caicos Islands, United States, United States Virgin Islands
- **South America**: Falkland Islands, Guyana
- **Europe**: Akrotiri and Dhekelia, Gibraltar, Guernsey, Ireland, Isle of Man, Jersey, Malta, United Kingdom
- **Africa**: Botswana, Cameroon, Eswatini, Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Saint Helena, Ascension and Tristan da Cunha, Sierra Leone, South Africa, South Sudan, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe
- **Asia**: Christmas Island, Cocos (Keeling) Islands, Hong Kong, India, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore
- **Oceania**: Australia, American Samoa, Cook Islands, Fiji, Guam, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Micronesia, Nauru, New Zealand, Niue, Norfolk Island, Northern Mariana Islands, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Pitcairn Islands, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tokelau, Tuvalu, Vanuatu Although not official, English is also an important language in some former colonies and protectorates of the British Empire where it is used as an administrative language, such as Brunei, Malaysia and Sri Lanka.

3. English as a global language

Because English is so widely spoken, it has often been referred to as a "world language", the lingua franca of the modern era, and while it is not an official language in most countries, it is currently the language most often taught as a foreign language. It is, by international treaty, the official language for aeronautical and maritime communications. English is one of the official languages of the United Nations and many other international organizations, including the International Olympic Committee. It is also one of two co-official languages for astronauts (besides the Russian language) serving on board the International Space Station.

English is studied most often in the European Union, and the perception of the usefulness of foreign languages among Europeans is 67% in favour of English ahead of 17% for German and 16% for French (as of 2012). Among some of the non-English-speaking EU countries, the following percentages of the adult population claimed to be able to converse in English in 2012: 90% in the Netherlands, 89% in Malta, 86% in Sweden and Denmark, 73% in Cyprus, Croatia, and Austria, 70% in Finland, and over 50% in Greece, Belgium, Luxembourg, Slovenia, and Germany. In 2012, excluding native speakers, 38% of Europeans consider that they can speak English.

Books, magazines, and newspapers written in English are available in many countries around the world, and English is the most commonly used language in the sciences with Science Citation Index reporting as early as 1997 that 95% of its articles were written in English, even though only half of them came from authors in English-speaking countries.

In publishing, English literature predominates considerably with 28% of all books published in the world and 30% of web content in 2011 (down from 50% in 2000).

This increasing use of the English language globally has had a large impact on many other languages, leading to language shift and even language death, and to claims of linguistic imperialism. English itself has become more open to language shift as multiple regional varieties feed back into the language as a whole.

English is one of the most widely spoken languages in the world. Currently, it's spoken by over 1.35 billion people around the world. However, not all 1.35 billion speak English as their native language – (only) 360 million do.

But this whopping number of English speakers around the world means that English can open many doors for you whether that's for personal fun and development or as a great language to learn for business purposes – or both! This universal language will allow you to communicate with an overwhelming amount of people from almost any country.

So, whether you're planning a trip to an English speaking country or you're just curious to know where this beautiful language is spoken, here's a list of 75+ countries and non-sovereign entities around the world where English is spoken.

4. A mammoth list of English speaking countries

English is the official language of 67 different countries and 27 non-

sovereign entities around the world. But apart from that, English is also spoken in many countries where it's not an official language.

In fact, some countries where English is commonly spoken may have more than one official language. Many countries use English as a lingua franca or a de facto working language to facilitate communication between citizens who speak different languages or dialects. Our list will include these countries as well, when relevant.

English speaking countries of Europe

In Europe, there are only a handful of countries where English is recognized as an official language. However, in many countries where it's not an official language - such as Norway, Denmark, or the Netherlands – it's still spoken by the majority of the population.

You'd be surprised how well some nations speak English, even though it's not their native language! Here's a short list of all the countries in Europe where English is an official language, with their capital and the percentage of the population that speaks English.

Country	***Flag***	***Capital***	***Population***	***Percentage of the population that speaks English***
England		London	55,980,000	92%
Wales		Cardiff	3,136,000	99%
Scotland		Edinburgh	5,454,000	98.6%
Ireland		Dublin	4,937,786	98.37%
Gibraltar		Gibraltar	33,691	100%
Isle of Man		Douglas	85,033	99.93%

English speaking countries in Africa

Africa is the second biggest continent on the planet with 54 countries. It's only natural for you to wonder if there are any countries which speak English officially or unofficially on this huge and fascinating continent. The answer is, there are! 24 African countries use English as one of their main languages. For some of them, it's the official language, while for others, it's used as a lingua franca or a de facto working language.

Let's take a look at the list of English speaking countries in Africa.

Country	***Flag***	***Capital***	***Population***	***Percentage of the population that speaks English***
South Africa		Johannesburg	59,308,690	31%
Nigeria		Abuja	206,139,589	86.42%
Mauritius		Port Louis	1,271,768	15.97%
Botswana		Gaborone	2,351,627	38.42%
Cameroon		Yaounde	26,545,863	38%
Gambia		Banjul	2,416,668	2.34%
Ghana		Accra	31,072,940	66.67%
Kenya		Nairobi	53,771,296	18.83%
Lesotho		Maseru	2,142,249	27.86%
Liberia		Monrovia	5,057,681	82.87%
Namibia		Windhoek	2,540,905	17.24%
Malawi		Lilongwe	19,129,952	3.88%
Seychelles		Victoria	98,347	37.63%
Sierra Leone		Freetown	7,976,983	83.53%
Saint Helena		Jamestown	6,077	Unknown
Somalia		Mogadishu	15,893,222	Unknown
South Sudan		Juba	11,193,725	Unknown
Sudan		Khartoum	43,849,260	Unknown
Swaziland		Mbabane, Lobamba	1,160,164	48.2%
Tanzania		Dodoma	59,734,218	9.89%
Rwanda		Kigali	12,952,218	15%
Uganda		Kampala	45,741,007	89.9%
Zambia		Lusaka	18,383,955	16%
Zimbabwe		Harare	14,862,924	82.07%

English speaking countries of the Americas

While North part of the Americas mostly speaks English, the main languages spoken in South America are Spanish and Portuguese.
However, in both Central and South America, there are a handful of countries where English is an official language, such as Belize in Central America and Guyana in South America.

Let's take a closer look at the countries in the Americas where English is spoken, from North to South.

Country	***Flag***	***Capital***	***Population***	***Percentage of the population that speaks English***
United States		Washington DC	334,497,000	95.5%
Canada		Ottawa	38,341,700	83.06%
Belize		Belmopan	410,981	81.65%
Guyana		Georgetown	793,000	90.55%
Bermuda		Hamilton	65,000	96.92%
Falkland Islands		Stanley	3,672	Unknown

English speaking countries in the Caribbean

When you think of the Caribbean islands, what comes to mind are palm trees, turquoise water, and white sand beaches. And Spanish-speaking natives. However, you may be surprised to find out that some Caribbean islands speak English as their official language!

Here's a list of countries where English is spoken in the Caribbean.

Country	***Flag***	***Capital***	***Population***	***Percentage of the population that speaks English***
Puerto Rico		San Juan	2,860,853	48.61%
Jamaica		Kingston	2,961,167	97.64%
Antigua and Barbuda		Saint John's	97,929	80%
Anguilla		The Valley	15,003	92.31%

Bahamas		Nassau	393,244	87.13%
Barbados		Bridgetown	287,375	93.91%
British Virgin Islands		The Valley	30,231	86.96%
Cayman Islands		George Town	65,722	76.6%
Sint Maarten		Philipsburg	42,876	Unknown
Dominica		Roseau	71,986	94.03%
Grenada		Saint George's	112,523	90.91%
Saint Kitts and Nevis		Basseterre	53,199	78%
Saint Lucia		Castries	183,627	43.03%
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines		Kingstown	110,940	95%
Turks and Caicos Islands		Cockburn Town	38,717	Unknown
Trinidad and Tobago		Port of Spain	1,399,488	87.74%
US Virgin Islands		Charlotte Amalie	104,425	95.97%

English speaking countries of Asia

Asia is home to a few of the most populated countries in the world, such as India and China. Out of 48 countries in Asia, five recognize and speak English as their official language. However, that doesn't mean that English is not commonly spoken in other Asian countries! In fact, many Asian citizens speak at least some English as their second or even third language.

Here's the list:

Country	***Flag***	***Capital***	***Population***	***Percentage of the population that speaks English***
India		Delhi	1,380,004,385	12%
Pakistan		Islamabad	220,892,340	49%
Philippines		Manila	109,581,078	58.2%
Singapore		Singapore	5,850,342	83.10%
Brunei		Bandar Seri Begawan	437,479	39.07%

English speaking countries in Oceania

Did you know that Oceania is the most diverse region of the planet when it comes to languages? Currently, it's estimated that there are 450 Oceanic languages!

However, aside from a multitude of indigenous languages, most countries in Oceania are English speaking. This is why this article couldn't be complete without a list of countries in Oceania where English is spoken.

Country	***Flag***	***Capital***	***Population***	***Percentage of the population that speaks English***
Australia		Canberra	25,499,884	92.80%
New Zealand		Wellington	4,822,233	97.82%
Cook Islands		Avarua District	17,564	19.80%
Fiji		Suva	896,445	20.62%
Guam		Hagåtña	168,775	91.09%
Kiribati		Tarawa	119,449	24.21%
Marshall Islands		Majuro	59,190	98.33%
Micronesia		Palikir	548,914	57.66%
Nauru		Yaren District	10,824	96.67%
Northern Mariana Islands		Saipan	57,559	83.33%
Palau		Ngerulmud	18,094	92.50%
Papua New Guinea		Port Moresby	8,947,024	49.76%
American Samoa		Pago Pago	55,191	80.1%
Samoa		Apia	198,414	49.86%
Solomon Islands		Honiara	686,884	31.68%
Tonga		Nuku'alofa	105,695	30%
Vanuatu		Port Vila	307,145	83.55%

5. Fun facts about countries where English is spoken

If you enjoy learning languages and discovering other cultures, then you might want to know more about the English language! Curiosities are always fun to learn, so let's go over a few surprising facts about countries where English is

spoken.

1. English is not recognized as an official language of the United States.

Yes, you read that right. Although the USA is one of the countries where English is the primary language of the population, it has never declared it as an official language. In fact, the USA doesn't have an official language. That's because the USA is a multilingual territory, and has been even before the founding of the republic. Not declaring an official language - despite the fact that English has always been its predominant language - was a way of protecting that linguistic diversity.

2. Some American states have their own official language, apart from English.

Although the USA has no official language as a country, some of its states do. While 32 of them have declared English as their official language, there are a few that have also recognized other official languages. For example, Alaska recognizes 20 indigenous official languages, apart from English. In Hawaii, Hawaiian is recognized as an official language next to English.

3. There's only one English speaking country in South America.

While South America is primarily a Spanish-speaking continent, there's one South American country where English is an official language. It's Guyana, and it used to be a British colony until 1966, when it gained its independence. However, even though English is an official language in this country, the majority of the population speaks Guyanese Creole as their main language.

As you can now see, the English speaking world is hugely diverse. English is a language spoken on almost every continent on the planet. It connects different cultures, enabling us to freely communicate with people in different countries.

And as you continue learning English, you'll keep on discovering new things about the countries where English is spoken and sinking deeper and deeper into this fascinating world.

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