

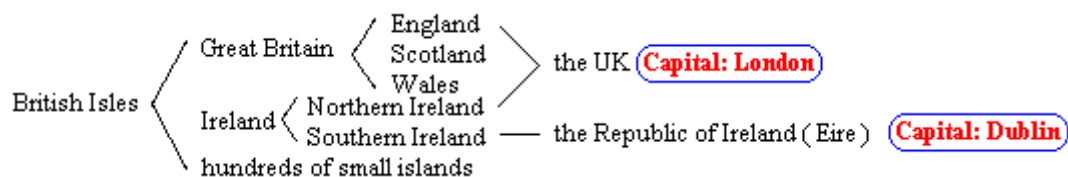
## Part One

### The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

#### Chapter 1 Land and People

##### I .Names

###### 1. Different names for Britain and its parts



###### 2. British Empire (100 years ago)

About 100 years ago, as a result of its imperialist expansion, Britain ruled an empire that had 1/4 of the world's people and 1/4 of the world's land area. It had colonies in North America, Asia, Africa and Australia.

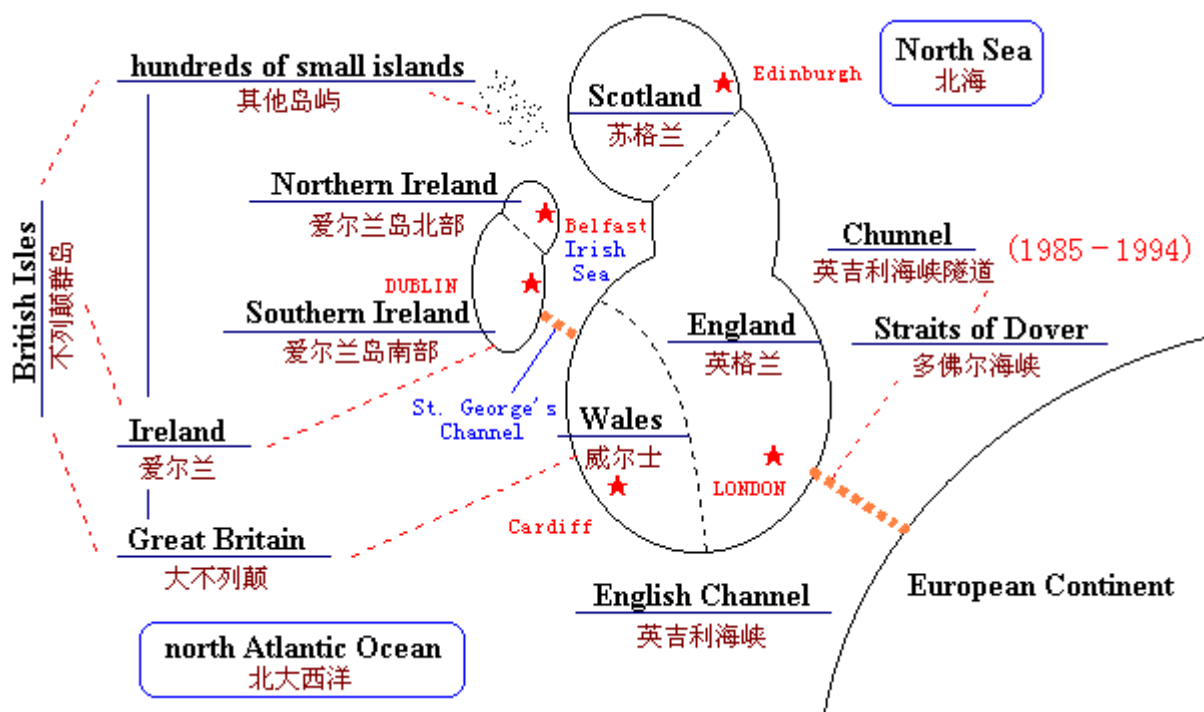
###### 3. Commonwealth (1931)

The commonwealth (of Nations) is a free association of independent countries that were once colonies of Britain. Member nations are joined together economically and have certain trading arrangements. The Commonwealth has no special powers. The decision to become a member of the Commonwealth is left to each nation.

###### 4. Reason for Britain Empire changed into a Commonwealth: the two world wars greatly weakened Britain.

##### II .Features

###### 1. Location



Advantage: No part of Britain is very far from the coast and it provides a valuable resource. The British coast is long and has good, deep harbours. Sea routes extend far inland, providing cheap transportation.

###### 2. General features

- Tilting: ① Rising in North-West cause highlands there; ② Sinking in South-East cause lowlands.
- Ice Age: responsible for Britain's spectacular mountain scenery.

###### 3. England (more than 130,000 square kilometres which takes up nearly 60% of the whole island)

- Pennines, principal mountain chain.
- Scafell (978 m), the highest peak of England.

- c. Capital: London.
- 4. Scotland (78,760 square kilometres)
  - a. Three zone:
    - ① Highlands in the north: plateau;
    - ② Central Lowlands: most important area in Scotland which contain most of the industry and population;
    - ③ Southern Uplands: moorland.
  - b. Ben Nevis (1,343 m), the highest mountain in Britain.
  - c. Capital: Edinburgh.
- 5. Wales (20,761 square kilometres which takes up less than 9% of the whole island)
  - a. Most of Wales is Mountainous;
  - b. 12% of the land is arable;
  - c. Massif 断层;
  - d. Snowdonia (1,085 m), highest mountain in Wales;
  - e. Capital: Cardiff.
- 6. Northern Ireland (14,147 square kilometres which takes up 1/5 of Ireland)
  - a. It has a rocky and wild northern coastline;
  - b. Capital: Belfast.

### III. Rivers and Lakes

- 1. Rivers
  - a. Importance:
    - ① Great ports (through river) to sea;
    - ② Rivers to both European Continent and fishing grounds;
    - ③ Rivers (carry raw materials) to inland.
  - b. Rivers:
    - ① Severn River (338 km): longest river;
    - ② Thames River (336 km): second largest and most important (water transportation, Oxford site);
    - ③ River Clyde: most important river in Scotland.
- 2. Lakes
  - a. Lough Neagh: largest lake in Britain (located in Northern Ireland).
  - b. Lake District:
    - ① One of the popular tourist attractions in Britain;
    - ② 15 lakes, the largest ones are Windermere, Ullswater, Derwentwater and Coniston Water;
    - ③ The home of the lake poets of 19<sup>th</sup> century: Wordsworth, Coleridge and Southey.

### IV. Climate

- 1. Maritime
  - a. Favorable one, winters are mild not too cold and summers are cool not too hot;
  - b. Steady reliable rainfall throughout the whole year;
  - c. Small range of temperature.
- 2. Factors
  - a. The surrounding waters tend to balance the seasonal differences by heating up the land in winter and cooling it off in summer;
  - b. The Westerlies blow over the country all the year round bringing warm and wet air in winter and keeping the temperatures moderate;
  - c. The North Atlantic Drift, which is a warm current, passes the western coast of the British Isles and warms them.
- 3. Rainfall
  - a. General: Britain has a steady reliable rainfall throughout the whole year. The average annual rainfall in Britain is over 1,000 mm;

- b. Character: ① Water surplus in north and west; ② Water deficit in south and east.
- c. Reservoirs have to be built in highland areas such as Central Wales, the Lake District and the Scottish Highlands.

#### 4. Natural calamities

- a. In 1952 the sulphur dioxide in the four-day London smog, an unhealthy atmosphere formed by mixing smoke and dirt with fog, left 4,000 people dead or dying. So most cities in Britain have introduced "Clean air zones" whereby factories and households are only allowed to burn smokeless fuel.
- b. Many areas are subjected to severe gales, which cause flooding, shipwrecks and loss of life, especially in winter.

### V. People (Britain has a population of 57,411,000 in 1990)

#### 1. General features:

- a. Densely populated with an average of 237 people per square kilometer;
- b. Unevenly distributed: 90% in urban, 10% in rural;
- c. Concentration: most in England (most in London and south-eastern England);
- d. Composition: English 81.5%, Scottish 9.6%, Welsh 1.9%, Irish 2.4%, Northern Irish 1.8%, Immigrants 2.8%.

#### 2. English

- a. Origin: Anglo-Saxons.
- b. Language: ① Southern: BBC (except Cockney); ② Northern: broader.
- c. Cockney: A Cockney is a Londoner who is born within the sound of Bow Bells – the bells of the church of St Mary-Le-Bow Bells in east London.
- d. It was from the union of Norman conquerors and the defeated Anglo-Saxons that the English people and the English language were born.

#### 3. Welsh

- a. Origin: Celts.
- b. Language:
  - ① Welsh, an ancient Celtic language: 1% people only speak Welsh, it was given equality with English for all official use in Wales in 1965, names beginning with "Ll";
  - ② English.
- c. Character: emotional, cheerful.
- d. Culture: Eisteddfodau (威尔斯诗人音乐家大会) / National Eisteddfod, with an purpose to keep the Welsh language and culture alive.

#### 4. Scots

- a. Origin: Celts.
- b. Scots are proud that the English never conquered them.
- c. Language:
  - ① Gaelic, old Celtic language of the Scots: it is still heard in the Highlands and the Western Isles and their names beginning with M', Mac, Mc, which means "son of" in Gaelic;
  - ② English;
- d. Character: ① said to be serious, cautious, thrifty; ② in fact they are hospitable, generous, friendly.

#### 5. Irish

- a. Origin: Scots and English Protestants.
- b. Problem: there has been bitter fighting between the Protestants who are dominant group, and the Roman Catholics, who are seeking more social, political and economic opportunities.
- c. Language (爱尔兰共和国):
  - ① Irish or Erse, a form of Gaelic: official first language of the Republic of Ireland;
  - ② English: second.
- d. Character: charm, vivacity, beauty girls.

#### 6. Immigrants

- a. Origin: West Indies, India and Pakistan.

- b. Discrimination: Usually the colored immigrants have to take the lowest paid jobs, and when there is unemployment they are usually the first to be sacked.

## Chapter 2 The Origins of a Nation (5000 BC -1066)

### I .Settlers (5000 BC –55 BC)

#### 1. Iberians (the first known settlers)

- ① At about 3000 BC, these short, dark and long-headed people came to Britain, probably from the Iberian Peninsula, now Spain.
- ② Long barrows in Wiltshire and Dorset were their communal burial mounds.
- ③ Stonehenge in Wiltshire is more dramatic monuments, which may have religious and political means.

#### 2. Beaker Folk

- ① At about 2000 BC they come from the areas now known as Holland and the Rhineland.
- ② They took the name from their bell-shaped drinking vessels with which they were buried in crouching positions in individual graves.
- ③ They built hill forts, with the finest examples of Maiden Castle.

#### 3. Celts

- ① A taller and fairer race began to arrive about 700 BC.
- ② They may originally come from eastern and central Europe, now France, Belgium and southern Germany.
- ③ They came in three main waves: a. Gaels at 600 BC (Gaelic); b. Brythons at 400 BC; c. Belgae at 150 BC (industrious and vigorous).
- ④ The Celtic tribes are ancestors of Highland Scots, the Irish and the Welsh, and their languages are the basis of both Welsh and Gaelic.
- ⑤ The Celts' religion was Druidism (human sacrifices). The Druids were the wise men, astrologers and soothsayers.

### II .Roman Britain (55BC-410AD)

#### 1. Roman Conquest

British recorded history begins with the Roman invasion. Julius Caesar, invaded Britain for the first time in 55BC. He returned the following year, but he didn't succeed. The successful invasion was take place in AD43, headed by the Emperor Claudius.

#### 2. Reasons for untotal occupation: a. some parts of the country resist; b. Roman troops were often withdraw from Britain to fight in other parts of Roman Empire.

#### 3. Ways to keep Picts: They built two great walls to keep the Picts, so called because of their "painted faces", out of the area they had conquered. These were Hadrian's Wall and Antonine Wall.

#### 4. Three problems

- a. Picts still attacked them periodically;
- b. Saxon pirates attacked them in the southeast;
- c. Control was only effective in the south-eastern part of the country.

#### 5. Achievement

- a. Network of towns and roads.
  - ① Caster and Chester means camp.
  - ② Capital: London (Londinium).
  - ③ Two cities: York had been created as a northern stronghold; Bath rapidly developed because of its waters.
- b. Make use of Britain's natural resources, mining lead, iron and tin and manufacturing pottery.

#### 6. Religion: Christianity.

#### 7. Reasons for withdraw in AD 410: a. barbarians from Eastern Europe at the gates of Rome; b. repeated attacks from Picts and Scots; c. needing to set up a new military front on the east coast to hold off the Germanic Saxon tribes invading from Europe.

8. Why was the Roman influence on Britain so limited?

The Romans always treated the Britons as a subject people of slave class. Never during the 4 centuries did the Romans and Britons intermarry. The Romans had no impact on the language or culture of ordinary Britons.

III. Anglo-Saxons (446-871)

1. Anglo-Saxons and the found of Heptarchy

The Anglo-Saxons were three tribes of the Germanic people who originally lived in the northwest of modern Germany. In the mid-5<sup>th</sup> century a new wave of invaders, Jutes, Saxons, and Angles came to Britain. They were three Teutonic tribes. The leader of Jutes, Hengist, became the King of Kent in 449. Then the Saxons established their kingdoms in Essex, Sussex and Wessex from the end of 5<sup>th</sup> century to the beginning of the 6<sup>th</sup> century. The Angles settled in East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria. These seven principal kingdoms of Kent, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria have been given the name of Heptarchy.

2. Wars among Heptarchy

- a. Offa, King of Mercia, built the great earthwork known as Offa's Dyke, control for a long time virtually all central, eastern and south-eastern England.
- b. In 829, Egbert, King of Wessex, became an overlord of all the English.

3. Religion

- a. Teutonic religion (The names Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday derive from their gods)
- b. Christianity
  - ① Columba, 563, convert north commoner.
  - ② In 597, Pope Gregory I sent St. Augustine, the Prior of St. Andrew's Monastery in Rome, to England to convert the heathen English to Christianity. In 597, St. Augustine became the first Archbishop of Canterbury. Augustine was remarkably successful in converting the king and the nobility, but the conversion of the common people was largely due to the missionary activities of the monks in the north.
- c. Disagreement: The Roman missionaries held that the Pope's authority was supreme, and the Celtic missionaries held that Christian belief did not require a final earthly arbiter. They held a conference at Whitby in 664. Finally, the Roman missionaries gained the upper hand.

4. Achievements

The Anglo-Saxons laid the foundations of the English state. They divided the country into shires. They devised the narrow-strip, three-field farming system. They also established the manorial system. And they created the Witan.

5. Questions

IV. Viking and Danish

1. The Norwegian Vikings and the Danes from Denmark attacked various parts of England from the end of the 8<sup>th</sup> century. They became a serious problem in the 9<sup>th</sup> century, especially between 835 and 878. The Vikings and the Danes were posing a threat to the Saxon kingdom.
2. Alfred, king of Wessex was strong enough to defeat the Danes and came to a relatively friendly agreement with them in 879.

- a. Danes gained control of north and east of England, i.e. "the Danelaw".
- b. Alfred, king of Wessex, rule the rest.

3. Alfred's achievements.

Alfred, king of Wessex, is known as "the father of the British navy" as he founded a strong fleet which first beat the Danes at sea, then protected the coasts and encouraged trade. He also reorganized the *fyrð* (the Saxon army), making it more efficient. Alfred, who is said to have taught himself Latin at the age of 40, translated into English Bede's *Ecclesiastical history of the English People*. A learned man himself, he encouraged learning in others, established schools and formulated a legal system. This, as well as his admirable work with the army and the navy, makes him worthy of his title "Alfred the Great".

4. Successors.

- a. King Ethelred the Unready tried paying the invaders, who renewed invasions because the successors reconquered

the Danelaw, to stay away by imposing a tax, called the danegeld, on his people.

- b. Canute, the Danish leader, was chosen by Witan as king. He made England part of Scandinavian empire which included Norway as well as Denmark.

#### V. The Norman Conquest (1066)

1. Background: King is also said to have promised the English throne to William, Duke of Normandy. But, when Edward was on his deathbed, four men laid claim to the English throne. Finally, the Witan chose Harold as king. Four men: King of Norway / Tostig  $\longleftrightarrow$  Harold (king)  $\rightarrow$  Duke of Normandy  
( join together )      ( fight )      ( fight )
2. Process: ① 1066.10.14, the battle on Senlac Field (near Hastings), where Harold was killed; ② 1066 Christmas, William crowned King of England by the Archbishop of York.
3. Measure to face Saxon risings in the north: "harrying of the north".
4. Significance: The Norman Conquest of 1066 is perhaps the best-known event in English history. William the Conqueror confiscated almost all the land and gave it to his Norman followers. He replaced the weak Saxon rule with a strong Norman government. So the feudal system was completely established in England. Relations with the Continent were opened, and civilization and commerce were extended. Norman-French culture, language, manners, and architecture were introduced. The Church was brought into closer connection with Rome, and the church courts were separated from the civil courts.

### Chapter 3 The Shaping of the Nation (1066-1381)

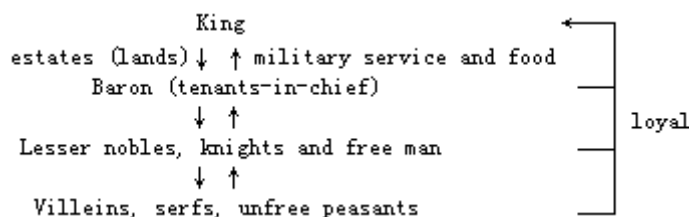
#### I. An outline of this period:

1. Norman House: William I
2. Plantagenet House: Henry II
  - ① Parliament; ② 100 years war; ③ Uprising 1381; ④ Roses (House of Lancaster – House of York)
3. Tudor House (200): ① Civil war; ② Henry VIII; ③ Elizabeth I; ④ Renaissance.
4. Stuart House: ① James I; ② Charles I; ③ Civil war.
5. Commonwealth: Cromwell.
6. Restoration: 1688 Glorious Revolution.
7. Rise and fall of the Empire: Commonwealth.

#### II. Norman Rule (1066-1381)

##### 1. William's Rule (1066-1087)

- ① Feudal system in England was completely established. According to this system, the King owned all the land personally. William gave his barons large estates in England in return for military service and a produce. The barons parceled out land to the lesser nobles, knights and freemen, also in return for goods and services. At the bottom were the villains or serfs, unfree peasants.



- ② Feature: All landowners took the oath of allegiance for the land they held, not only to their immediate lord, but also to the king.
- ③ William replaced the Witan with the Grand Council of his new tenants-in-chief.
- ④ Domesday Book (1086): It was the result of a general survey of England made in 1085, and stated the extent, value, the population, state of cultivation, and ownership of the land.
  - a. 1/2 the cultivated land in the country was in the hands of 170 tenants-in-chief;

- b. 1/5 was held personally by the King;
- c. most of the rest by bishops and abbots and other heads of religious houses.

⑤ His policy towards the church was to keep it completely under his control, but at the same time to uphold its power.

⑥ In the reign of the Norman kings the Norman culture flowered on the English soil.

## 2. Success: three sons

- ① Robert gain Normandy;
- ② William Rufus (William II) gain England; (Killed)
- ③ Henry gains a large sum of money. After William II's death, he gain England's crown. Henry has no son, so King Stephen took the crown with the compromise of receive Henry, son of Henry's daughter, as joint ruler. After King Stephen's death, Henry became king Henry II.

## III. House of Plantagenet

### 1. Henry II's reform

- A. Measures to end the disorders: He forced the Flemish mercenaries to leave England; recalled grants of Royal lands; demolished castles; strengthened the powers of his sheriffs and relied for militia.
- B. Administrative: a. abolished the annual land tax based on hide, and emerged a new tax which assessed at the percentage of a subject's annual rents and chattels; b. revival and elaboration of Henry I's policies.
- C. Legal reform: Henry II greatly strengthened the king's Court and extended its judicial work. He divided the country into six circuits and appointed itinerant justices. The common law and jury system came out. He wishing to reform certain abuses in Church government, instead that all clerks charged with criminal offences should be tried in the king's courts.
- D. Common law: It is the unwritten law common to the whole people and is "case-made", i.e., based on precedent judgments, and derived from acknowledged custom.

### 2. Conflict between king and Becket.

- A. Reason: It was these exceptional privileges and benefit of clergy that brought King Henry into collision with Thomas Becket.
- B. Process:
  - a. In 1154, Thomas Becket was appointed Chancellor of England.
  - b. In 1162, Henry made Becket Archbishop of Canterbury.
  - c. The different view of a murder charge of a clerk man brought matters to a crisis.
  - d. In 1164, the Great Council of Henry II drew up the Constitutions of Clarendon to increase the jurisdiction of the civil courts at the expense of the church courts.
  - e. Becket rejected them after a reluctantly signed, which angry Henry II. So he spend 6 years on the Continent.
  - f. In 1170, Becket returned to England. Fresh quarrels broke out.
  - g. In 1170, four knights of the royal household took literally the King's wish and murdered Becket.
- C. Result: a. grave became a place of pilgrimage; b. Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales (which describes a group of pilgrims traveling to Canterbury to visit Thomas Becket's tomb); c. T.S. Eliot, Murder in the Cathedral.

## IV. Great Charter

- 1. Background: Three crusades and wars against France drain upon financial resources of England, and barons complained that the king had failed to protect the Norman lands from the advances of the French King and he had imposed high taxes.
- 2. Demand contents: Magna Carta (1215); Magna Carta had altogether 63 clauses, of which the most important matters were these: no tax should be made freely; no freeman should be arrested except by the law of the land; the Church should possess all its rights; London and other towns should retain their ancient rights and privileges.
- 3. Result: A committee of 24 barons plus the Mayor of London was chosen to help the king carry out the Charter, with the right of declaring war on him should he break its provisions.
- 4. Significant: Magna Carta has long been popularly regarded as the foundation of English liberties, it was a statement of



the relationship between the Crown and the barons. The spirit of Magna Carta was the limitation the powers of the king.

#### V.Parliament

1. HenryIII: ① an expensive war with France which ended with the loss of the whole of Poitou; ② demands for money to enable his son to be crowned King of Sicily which brought the matters with parliament to a head.
2. Barons, under Simon de Montfort forced the king to swear to accept the Provisions of Oxford: ① Henry should appoint a new Grand Council of twenty-four members, half of whom were to be nominated by the barons themselves; ② the King should have a permanent body of fifteen nobles and bishops to advise him, without whose authority the king could not act.
3. Civil war between HenryIII and barons come to the first Parliament in 1265.

Henry refused to confirm to the Provisions of Oxford put forward by barons. A civil war broke out between the king's supporters and the baronial army. In 1264, the king was defeated. Simon de Montfort summoned in 1265 the Great Council to meet at Westminster, together with two knights from each county and two burgesses from each town, a meeting which has been seen as that of the earliest parliament.

The origin of Parliament is Witan, with the development of Grand Council. Grand Council later developed into the Lords (baron and bishop) and the Commons (knight and citizen, can present petitions), which known as a parliament.

4. 1284 the Statute of Wales.

The Statute of Wales in 1284 placed the country under English law and Edward I presented his new-born son to the Welsh people as Prince of Wales, a title held by the heir to the throne ever since.

#### VI.100 year's war

1. Reason: The causes were partly territorial and partly economic. The territorial causes were the large duchy of Aquitaine. The economic causes were connected with Flanders. England's desire to stop France from giving aid to the Scots and a growing sense of national consciousness. The French refused to recognize EdwardIII's claim of French Crown.
2. Process: ① At first English (EdwardIII) were successful; ② After a long peaceful lull, French (Henry V) won victory; ③ After French King's death, Joan of Arc drove the English out of France.
3. Significance: The expulsion of the English from France is regarded as a blessing for both countries; had they remained, the superior size and wealth of France would certainly have hindered the development of a separate English national identity, while French national identity was hindered so long as a foreign power occupied so much French territory.

#### VII.Black death 1348-1349

1. Definition: Black Death was the modern name given to the deadly bubonic plague, an epidemic disease spread by rat fleas. It spread through Europe in the 14<sup>th</sup> century, particularly in 1347-50.
2. Result: It killed between 1/2 and 1/3 of the population of England. As a result, much land was left untended and there was a terrible shortage of labor.

#### VIII.Uprising

1. Reason: ① unfair treatment by government and land owner (Two Statute: In 1351 the government issued a Statute of Labourers which made it a crime for peasants to ask for more wages; A later statute proposed that any labourer who left his place of work to seek higher wages should be branded with the letter F on his forehead as a sign of falsehood.); ② imposition of a series of taxes known as poll taxes, which caused deep and widespread discontent; ③ the Lollards (They refer to Poor priests and itinerant preachers who were John Wyclif's followers. They went about preaching to the equality of men before God. They served as mental encouragement and stimulation and play an important role in the Peasant Uprising of 1381.).
2. Processes: ① In 1381, army led by Wat Tyler and Jack Straw occupied London; ② They present the demands (abolition of villeinage, reduction of rent, free access to all fairs and markets, general pardon) which were granted by king; ③ Finally, they were suppressed.
3. Significance: The rebellion was a truly social one, directed against the rich clergy and the lawyers as well as against the landowners. The uprising dealt a telling blow to villeinage, and a whole new class of yeomen farmers emerged,



paving the way for the development of capitalism.

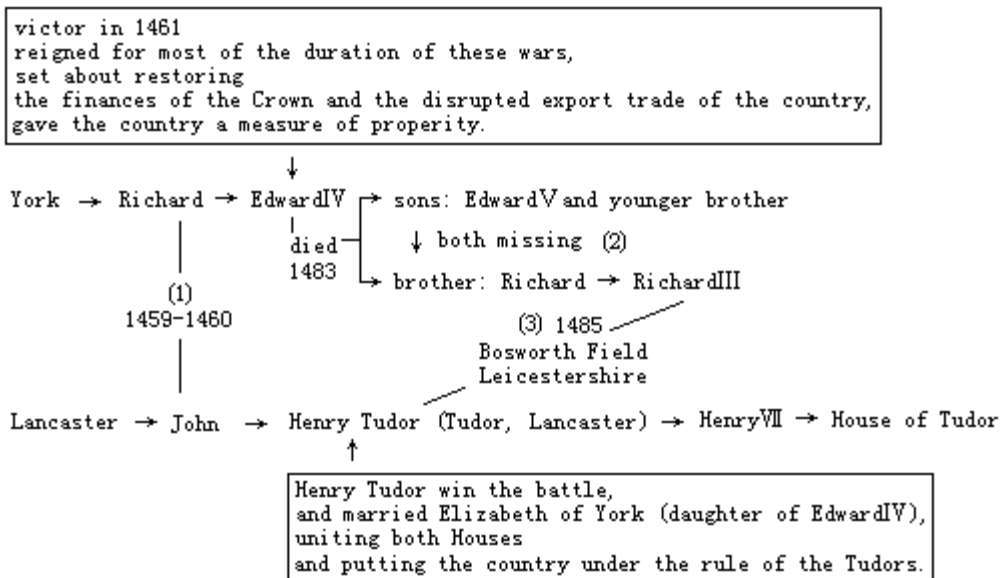
## Chapter 4 Transition to the Modern Age

(1455-1688)

### I. Transition

#### 1. Wars of the Roses (1455-1485)

- ① Reason: After the Hundred Years' War, nobles had to seek a new outlet for their ambition by an attempt to dominate the government at home.
- ② Definition: It referring to these battles between the great House of Lancaster, symbolized by the red rose, and that of York, symbolized by the white.
- ③ Process: (three stages)



- ④ Significant: From these wars feudalism received its deathblow. The great medieval nobility was much weakened and discredited. The king's power now became supreme. But the interests of the majority of the common people were not deeply engaged.

#### 2. Henry VII

- ① Domestic: a. refill treasury; b. control noble's power.
- ② Foreign: a. prevent foreign powers to disrupt the country; b. neutralize to all threats.
- ③ All above bring Henry VII both peace and prestige.

### II. Reformation

#### 1. Henry VIII (6 wives)

- ① Measure:
  - A. Domestic: a. control over border areas; b. gentry control local government (Justices of Peace).
  - B. Foreign: a. aided by Archbishop and Lord Chancellor; b. 1517 peace conference in London; c. ally with superpower.
- ② Reformation:
  - a. Reasons: There were 3 main causes: a desire for change and reform in the Church had been growing for many years and now, encouraged by the success of Martin Luther, many people believed its time had come; the privilege and wealth of the clergy were also resented; and Henry needed money.
  - b. Direct cause: Henry VIII wanted to divorce Catherine of Aragon because she could not produce a male heir for him.
  - c. Purpose: Henry's reform was to get rid of the English Church's connection with the Pope, and to make an independent Church of England. (He made his break with Rome gradually. He dissolved all of England's

monasteries and nunneries.)

- d. Two acts: a. 1534 Act of Succession; b. 1535 Act of Supremacy.
- e. Three important effects: they stressed the power of the monarch; Parliament had never done such important; his attack on the Pope's power encouraged many critics of the abuses of the Catholic Church, and he became Supreme Head of the Church of England in 1535.
- f. Note: Real religious change came in Henry VIII's son Edward's time. People call his switch to Protestant theology "The Reformation".

## 2. Mary Tudor

- ① She attempt to forcibly reconvert England to Roman Catholicism.
- ② She is called "Bloody Mary" for at least 300 Protestants were burnt as heretics.
- ③ The monarch who lost the French port of Calais during a renewed war with France.
- ④ Protestantism and nationalism were now forever synonymous.

## 3. Elizabeth I : England has been Protestant ever since.

### III.Elizabeth I

#### 1. Elizabeth and Parliament

- ① Work with Parliament (the Puritans in the House of Commons demanded further religious reform, but they still loyal to Queen).
- ② Turbulent for Parliament's ask: a. right of free speech; b. discussion at will; c. five personal questions (religion, marriage, foreign policy, the succession to the throne, and finance).

#### 2. Elizabeth and religion

- ① Elizabeth's religious reform was a compromise of views. She broke Mary's ties with Rome and restored her father's independent Church of England. (keep to Catholic doctrines; free from the Papal control)
- ② Conflict: a. Elizabeth – Protestant; b. Mary – Catholic.

#### 3. Elizabeth's foreign policy

- ① France: friendly.
- ② Spain:
  - A. 1588 Philip II : a. want to bring England back to Catholicism; b. stop England's aid to the Netherlands where Protestant rebels were in revolt against their Spanish masters.
  - B. Destruction of Spanish Armada: a. showed England's superiority as a naval power; b. stop the attempt of Catholicism to recover the northern countries of Europe; c. enabled England to become a great trading and colonizing nation.

### IV.James I

#### 1. Controversy: a. Puritan ask for further Reformation; b. James declared "No Bishop, No King".

#### 2. Catholic's plots.

- ① Cobham's Plot: Sir Walter was sent to the Tower of London for 13 years. In 1615, James I release him for the need of money. With 13 ships, he went to Guiana for gold mine, but failed and was executed finally.
- ② Gunpowder Plot: On November 5, 1605, a few fanatical Catholics attempted to blow King James and his ministers up in the Houses of Parliament where Guy Fawkes had planted barrels of gunpowder in the cellars. The immediate result was the execution of Fawkes and severe anti-Catholic laws. (celebration)

#### 3. Puritan's protest

- ① Concession: King James's Bible, Authorized Version 1611.
- ② Flee:
  - A. Many Puritans had left England for Holland.
  - B. In 1620, 201 Pilgrim Fathers sailed from New Plymouth in the Mayflower, and founded New Plymouth in America, Britain's first settlement in the New World.

#### 4. James (a firm believer in the Divine Right of Kings) and Parliament: ① none for 7 years; ② 1621 recall Parliament;

- ③ dissolve Parliament; ④ Court corruption infuriated Parliament; ⑤ Charles I succession and cope with Parliament.

## V. Charles I and Parliament

### 1. Confrontation

- ① Charles: a. Divine Right of King; b. Pro-Catholicism; c. Arminianism.  
② Puritanism (nationalism): a. simple dress; b. high moral standard; c. equal.

### 2. Five parliaments

- ① 1625 first: for the usual import duties, result in the dissolving of Parliament.  
② 1628 third: for the shortage of money, result in Petition of Right (second Magna Carta).  
③ 1629-1640: a. 11 years no parliament; b. managed shipmoney to all inland towns and counties.  
④ 1640-fourth: for the Scottish War and imposing English Book of Common Prayer on Scottish Church.  
⑤ 1640-1660 / fifth / long parliament: for the shortage of money and the attack of Scottish, result in actions by Parliament ( a. arrest ministers; b. limit the king; c. Militia Bill; d. Grand Remonstrance ).

### 3. Fighting

- ① Irish: attack; ② Charles: back, take action; ③ common: flee to London.

## VI. Civil war

### 1. Process

#### ① Two parties:

- A. King – Cavaliers: a. north and west of the country and Wales; b. nobles and gentry; c. Oxford and Cambridge.  
d. Church.  
B. Parliament – Roundheads: a. south-east England and London; b. yeomen farmers; c. middle-class townspeople;  
d. artisans; e. Presbyterians.

#### ② Situation:

##### A. First Civil War (1642-1646)

- a. In 1642, King Charles raised his standard near Nottingham.  
b. In the first major battle, Charles held back Parliament and establishes headquarters at Oxford.  
c. In 1644, Prince Rupert lost to Oliver Cromwell's "Ironsides", so King lost the north, and Cromwell became leader of the New Model Army.  
d. In 1645, Cromwell destroyed the Royalist army at Naseby.  
e. In 1646, Parliament held most of England, and Charles gave himself to the Scottish army.  
f. In 1647, Charles was transferred to Parliament for a payment of \$400,000.

##### B. Second Civil War (1648-1651)

- a. In 1647, Cromwell allowed the discussion of their post war settlement – the Leveller-inspired Agreement of the People, but opposing their democratic ideas as a threat to property.  
b. In 1647, King escaped and made a deal with the Scots.  
c. In 1648, Cromwell defeat Scots army induced by Charles. This is the beginning of the Second Civil War.  
d. In 1648, Charles was arrested.  
e. In 1649, King was signed "Tyrant, Traitor, Murderer and public Enemy" and was executed.  
f. In 1651, Charles's son marched into England from Scotland, but was defeated and flees to France. The Second Civil War was over.

### 2. Significance

- ① The English Civil War is also called the Puritan Revolution, Because the King's opponents were mainly Puritan, and his supporters chiefly Episcopalian and Catholic.  
② It has been a conflict between the economic interests of the urban middle classes (Puritan ideology) and the traditional economic interests of the Crown (Anglican religious belief).  
③ The English Civil War not only overthrew feudal system in England but also shook the foundation of the feudal rule in Europe.

- ④ It is generally regarded as the beginning of modern world history.

## VII. The Commonwealth

1. In 1649, Cromwell and “Rump” (members of the Long Parliament who had voted for Charles’s execution) declared England a Commonwealth.
2. Measures:
  - ① crush without mercy a rebellion in Ireland;
  - ② suppress Leveller (a group within Cromwell’s own army who, led by John Lilburne, proposed a radical political program not at all to his taste);
  - ③ replaced the Rump with an assembly largely chosen by himself, which lasted a few months only;
  - ④ In 1653, by an Instrument of Government, he became Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, and England became a Protectorate;
  - ④ directly military rule.

## VIII. Restoration

1. Definition: People regrets about the execution of the King and the army grew as the Puritans exerted tough control of the nation’s morals and as Oliver Cromwell became more and more a petty tyrant. When Oliver Cromwell died, the regime began immediately to collapse. The Parliament thus elected in 1660 resolved the crisis by asking the late King’s son to return from his long exile in France as King Charles II.
2. Charles II.
  - ① Clarendon Code, a code against the Puritans, known as Nonconformists.
  - ② Test Act in 1673 excluded all Catholics from public office of any kind.
  - ③ In 1678, “supposed” plot of Roman Catholics drive the state into a mess.
  - ④ Disabling Act forbade any Catholics to sit in either House of parliament.
3. Works: Banyan - Pilgrim’s Progress; Milton - Paradise Lost.

## IX. Glorious Revolution 1688

1. Definition: James II was a Catholic. England was no more tolerant of a Catholic as king. The English politicians rejected James II, and appealed to a Protestant king, William. William landed at Torbay in 1688. In England this takeover was relatively smooth, with no bloodshed, nor any execution of the King. This became known as the Glorious Revolution.
2. Age of constitutional monarchy, a monarchy with powers limited by Parliament, began.
3. Bill of Right (1689): a. exclude any Roman Catholic from the succession; b. confirmed supremacy of Parliament; c. guaranteed free speech within both Houses.
4. In 1702, Mary’s sister, Anne, came to the throne. During her reign, the name Great Britain came into being. In 1707, the Act of Union united England and Scotland.

## X. Renaissance

1. Definition: Renaissance was the revival of classical literature and artistic styles in European history from 1350 to 1650.
2. Origin:
  - ① The Renaissance began in northern Italy, and was typified by Leonardo Da Vinci.
  - ② In England, the Renaissance was usually thought of as beginning with the accession of the House of Tudor to the throne in 1485.
  - ③ Politically: a. end of feudalism; b. beginning of capitalist state.
  - ④ Technically: the introduction of printing.
  - ⑤ Culturally: the first important period in England was the reign of the second Tudor monarch, Henry VIII.
3. Five features.

The English Renaissance had 5 characteristic ① English culture was revitalized not so much directly by the classics as by contemporary Europeans under the influence of the classics; ② England as an insular country followed a course of social and political history which was to a great extent independent of the course of history elsewhere in

Europe; ③ owing to the great genius of the 14<sup>th</sup> century poet Chaucer, the native literature was sufficiently vigorous and experienced in assimilating foreign influences without being subjected by them; ④ English Renaissance literature is primarily artistic, rather than philosophical and scholarly; ⑤ The Renaissance coincided with the Reformation in English.

4. Drama:

① Marlow: Tamburlaine, Dr Faustus, The Jew of Malta, Edward II .

② Ben Johnson: masques.

③ Shakespeare (Stratford – on – Avon in Warwickshire): a. historical; b. comedies; c. tragedies.

5. Poetry: a. Spenser – Spenserian, which is written in a stanza of nine lines; b. Donne – metaphysical.

## Chapter 5 The Rise and Fall of the British Empire (1688-1990)

### I .Party

1. Whigs – first leader was First Earl of Shaftsbury – cattle drivers – for parliamentary reform – liberal party:

① reduce Crown patronage; ② sympathy for nonconformists; ③ care for merchants and bankers.

2. Tories – thugs – against parliamentary reform – conservative party:

① preserve king & church of England; ② dislike nonconformists; ③ afraid of mod riot; ④ obey law.

3. Radicals – thorough parliamentary reform:

① utilitarianism, advocated by Jeremy Bentham, suggested that government's function should be to achieve "the greatest happiness of the greatest number"; ② government and administration should be made as efficient as possible, and government should interfere as little as possible with lives of the people as individuals; ③ free trade (laissez faire), which believed that the import and export duties interfered with the natural flow of trade.

### II .Agriculture

1. Traditional – open field village:

① advantage: ideal for simple life;

② drawbacks: a. waste land; b. waste labor and time; c. difficult livestock; d. barrier to experiments.

2. Reason for revolution:

① Greater productivity meant handsome profits, so landowners replace the small farms cultivated on the "open-field" system by larger, economically more efficient farms with hedge-divided fields.

② Enclosure Act enabled wealthier landowners to seize any land to which tenants could prove no legal title and to divide it into enclosed fields.

3. Processes: a. crop rotation; b. artificial fertilizer; c. new machinery – seed drill; d. selective breeding.

4. Thomas – encourage; George III (who was so enthusiastic about changes at Windsor) - Farmer George.

5. Result: a. bigger farms; b. more goods, varied diet; c. disaster for tenants; d. new class hostility.

### III.The Industrial Revolution

1. Definition: The Industrial Revolution refers to the mechanization of industry and the consequent changes in social and economic organization in Britain in the late 18<sup>th</sup> and early 19<sup>th</sup> centuries. (first in Britain)

2. Ten factors: ① good location; ② peaceful society, enough capital; ③ limited monarchy ensure the community could exert their influence over Government policy; ④ town is not far from seaport; ⑤ many rivers provide transport and mineral; ⑥ engineer has good training; ⑦ inventors were respected; ⑧ laissez faire and "Protestant work ethic"; ⑨ customs union abolish the internal custom barriers; ⑩ enough food, labor, raw material for industry.

3. Processes:

① 1770, power-driven machinery, real "revolution" in textiles;

② 1733, flying shuttle, John Kay, speeded up hand weaving;

③ 1766, spinning jenny, James Hargreaves, enabled one hand laborer to spin many threads at a time;

④ 1769, waterframe, Richard Arkwright;

- ⑤ 1779, mule, Samuel Crompton;
- ⑥ 1784, power loom, Edmund Cartwright, enabled weaving to catch up with spinning;
- ⑦ 1765, steam engine, improved by James Watt, first by Thomas Newcomer at the end of 17<sup>th</sup> century;
- ⑧ 1709, smelting iron with coke instead of charcoal, breakthrough;
- ⑨ 1784, puddling and rolling processes, provide increased quantities of high-quality iron;
- ⑩ Improved transportation.

4. Results:

- ① good: workshop of the world, no other country was yet ready to compete with her in industrial production; towns grew rapidly, especially in north of England.
- ② bad: work man worked and lived in appalling conditions.
- ③ proletariat – “Luddites” supposedly led by Ned Ludd attempted to destroy the hated machines, but were severely punished by the government.

#### IV. Chartist Movement

1. Reasons for reform

- ① Power was monopolized by the aristocrats;
- ② Representation of town and country, and North and South was unfair;
- ③ There were also various so-called rotten (refer to those areas once were a busy market towns, but now were deserted, but they could still elect Members of Parliament) or pocket boroughs (refer to elections which were not won by political views but by influence).

2. Three reform bills.

- ① 1832, Reform Act: a. abolish rotten boroughs; b. redistributed seat ; c. vote to householders and tenants;
- ② 1834, New Poor Law: not give money to poor people, but force them into workhouses.

3. London Working Men's Association.

In 1836 a group of skilled workers and small shopkeepers formed the London Working Men's Association. It aimed “to seek by every legal means to place all classes of society in possession of equal political and social rights”. In 1838, they drew up a charter of political demands, known as the People's Charter.

Content: ① the vote for all adult males; ② voting by secret ballot; ③ equal electoral districts; ④ abolition of property qualifications for Members of Parliament; ⑤ payment of Members of Parliament; and ⑥ annual Parliaments with a General Election every June.

4. Two groups.

- ① Moral Force Chartists, headed by William Lovett, wanted to realize their aims by peaceful means (“politics of persuasion”).
- ② Physical Force Chartists, headed by Feargus O'Connor, wanted to achieve their purpose by violence.

5. Processes:

- ① 1840, first petition by Attwood, in National Convention, reveal inner disagreement;
- ② 1842, second, rejected;
- ③ 1848, Chartist Demonstration, ended quietly with it being conveyed to Parliament.

6. Reasons: a. weak and divided leadership; b. no coordinate with trade-unionism; c. immature working class.

7. Significance: a. first nationwide working class movement; b. first five points realized; c. Lenin's comment: “the first broad, really mass, politically formed, proletarian revolutionary movement”.

#### V. Trade Unions

1. Two Acts:

- ① 1799-1800, Combination Act (forbid union);
- ② 1825 Act (allow union).

2. Processes:

- ① 1833, Grand National Consolidated Trade Union (GNCTU), after the trial and transportation of “Tolpuddle Martyrs” (six Dorsetshire agricultural laborers), this attempt came to nothing.



② 1850, Amalgamated Society of Engineers (ASE).

③ 1868, Trades union Congress (TUC), began new phase in which trade unionism had a national organization capable of coordinating the interests of industrial workers.

3. Two Acts to legalize Trade Unions.

① 1871, Trade Union Act, legalized the trade unions and gave financial security;

② 1876, Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, the right to exist as corporation which is able to own property and to defend their rights corporatively in courts of law.

## VI. Labor Party

1. 1893, Independent Labor Party, too idealistic and individualistic to become a mass party.

2. 1900, Labor Representation Committee, to promote in Parliament the interests of labor.

3. 1906, Labor Party, for the general election, later became the main opposition party after participated in the war coalition government, finally formed minority governments.

## VII. Colonial Expansion

1. English colonial expansion began with the colonization of Newfoundland in 1583.

2. Dominions

① Canada

a. 1763, after Seven Year's War, sign Treaty of Paris, Canada was ceded to Britain;

b. 1774, Quebec Act, guaranteed French rights;

c. 1791, Canada Act, Canada divided into Upper (Ontario) Canada for British and Lower (Quebec) Canada for French;

d. 1867, British North America Act, Canada became dominion with four provinces: Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick.

② Australia

a. 1600s, first discovered by Dutch;

b. 1770, James Cook claimed the east coast region for Britain, name it New South Wales;

c. 1788, began to transport convicts to there until 1840;

d. 1851-1892, gold rushes;

e. 1901, the independent Commonwealth of Australia.

③ New Zealand

a. 14<sup>th</sup>, settled by Maoris;

b. 1642, sighted by the Dutch seaman Abel Tasman, name it the Netherlands province of Zeeland;

c. 1770s, claimed by Captain James Cook;

d. 1840, Treaty of Waitangi, between the Maori chiefs and Britain;

e. 1841, became separate colony under Treaty of Waitangi;

f. 1852, achieved self-government;

g. 1907, became dominion under the British crown;

h. 1931, completely independent.

3. India

① 1600, British East India Company, a case of economic penetration which made British government became directly involved in Indian affairs;

② 1784, India Act, set up a "Board of Control" to supervise the Company, further intervention;

③ 1857, mutiny: a. resentment at the reforms of Indian institutions carried out by the British; b. fear to be converted into Christianity; c. offended by cartridges greased with cow-fat (Hindus) and pig-fat (Muslims).

④ 1858, controlled by British Crown totally;

⑤ 1877, Queen Victoria became Empress of India.

4. Africa

① Cape Town

- a. 1652, occupied by Dutch East India Company;
- b. 1806, occupied by Britain to protect its route to India;
- c. 1814, officially recognized by the Netherlands;
- d. 1835-1836, “mass migration”, Boers → Natal, Transvaal, Orange Free State;
- e. Wars between Britain and Boers: 1880-1881 (Boers win the war), 1899-1902 (Britain win the war);
- f. 1910, Union of South Africa: Cape Town / Natal / Transvaal / Orange Free State, under Britain.

② Egypt

- a. 1821, Egypt invaded the Sudan;
- b. French built the Suez Canal, and owned half the shares of it;
- c. Britain bought the remaining shares from the Egyptian ruler in 1875;
- d. 1879, Britain crushed revolt in Egypt, and occupied it at the same time.
- e. 1881, revolt led by the Sudan’s nationalist Mahdi;
- f. 1899, joint Anglo-Egyptian rule.

5. China

- ① reason: opium smuggle began in the 1830s → banned in 1799 → burnt in 1839;
- ② War (1840-1842), Treaty of Nanking (1842);
- ③ Second war (1856-1858), ended with the treaties of Tianjin (1858).

6. British Empire, 1/4 of world’s population and area (1900), a big empire “on which the sun never set”.

It consisted of Protectorates, Crown Colonies, spheres of influence, and self-governing dominions.

VIII. Twentieth century.

1. Pre-war

- ① Feminist movement, led by Mrs. Pankhurst, votes granted to women over 30;
- ② 1911, Parliament Act: severely limiting the powers of the Lords and establishing the Commons as the supreme legislative body.

2. First World War

- ① Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, † Turkey, Bulgaria) 同盟国 / Allies (Britain, France, Russia, † Japan, Italy, U.S.A.) 协约国, last for 4 years;
- ② direct causes: The Austrian Crown Prince Franz Ferdinand was assassinated by a Serbian nationalist at Sarajevo in 1914;
- ③ causes for Britain: a. Britain was afraid that Germany would overrun Europe and gain control of parts of the British Empire; b. the promise to guarantee Belgium’s neutrality;
- ④ result: a. Treaty of Versailles; b. League of Nations;
- ⑤ outcome: a. loss of manpower; b. disruption of economy and society.

3. Between the Two World Wars

- ① 1924, Labor Party to power for the first time;
- ② 1926, general strike, paralyzed the country but improved relations between workers and middle class;
- ③ 1920s, Roaring Twenties;
- ④ 1931, Great Depression, worst in northern England, south Wales and Clydeside in Scotland.

4. Second World War

- ① Reason: Treaty of Versailles brought Hitler and Nazism.  
Hitler occupied: a. Rhineland in 1936; b. Austria in 1938; c. Sudetenland in 1938; d. Czechoslovakia in 1939; e. nonaggression pact with USSR in 1939; f. Poland in 1939.
- ② For the failure of Chamberlain’s policy (appeasement), Churchill became war leader in 1940;
- ③ war effort: a. destroyed many cities; b. changed the face of London; c. people spent their nights in the underground stations; d. some evacuated to the countryside; e. Churchill received massive popular support.

④ Out come: a. 250,000 casualties; b. poor cause economic and financial difficulties; c. end of empire.

⑤ Innovation: Blitz.

## 5. Postwar

① Conservative Party failed, Labor Party win the election.

② Contribution of Conservative Party: The foundations of the welfare state was laid during these years, providing free medical care for everyone and financial help for the old, the sick and the unemployed. The Bank of England, coal mines, railways and steelworks were nationalized.

③ 1940s, end of empire: a. 1947, India, independent; b. 1948, Burma, independent; c. 1949, Newfoundland, joined the Dominion of Canada.

④ 1950s:

a. War of aggression against North Korea in 1950;

b. British and French invaded Egypt, for the nationalized of Suez Canal in 1956;

c. 1957, first hydrogen bomb was tested;

d. 1951, Festival Exhibition, demonstrate the recovery of the United Kingdom;

e. 1952, Queen Elizabeth II crowned in Westminster Abbey;

f. 1957, "never had it so good", declared by Herold Macmillan, the Conservative prime minister;

⑤ 1960s: Swinging Sixties; Permissive age; Pop music (Beatles) make Liverpool a place of pilgrimage.

⑥ 1970s:

a. 1957, Common Market (Treaty of Rome) → 1973, European Economic Community.

b. 1973, State of Emergency by oil embargo and miners' strike;

c. Oil was discovered in North Sea.

⑦ 1980s:

a. In 1979, Margaret Thatcher became the first woman prime minister in Britain.

b. Thatcherism: It included the return to private ownership of state-owned industries, the use of monetarist policies (the supply of money in Britain) to control inflation, the weakening of trade unions, the strengthening of the role of market forces in the economy, and an emphasis on law and order.

c. Falkland Islands war 1982 (with Argentina).

d. Thatcher against European union and adopt poll tax, which bring Major into power.

## Reviews of these chapters above

### I .Religion

#### 1. Roman

① 306 Christianity; ② 563 Columba, common people; ③ 597 St. Augustine, king and nobility.

#### 2. Conflict between Catholic and Protestant

① 664 at Whitby, Roman gained the upper hand.

② Martin Luther: a. Protestantism; b. independence.

③ William I : a. control; b. uphold.

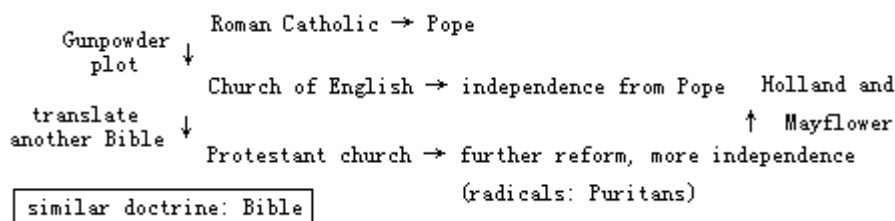
④ Henry II : a. reform; b. collision with Becket.

⑤ Henry VIII: Reformation, result in the church of England.

⑥ Mary: burnt 300 Protestants, Bloody Mary.

⑦ Elizabeth I : compromise to both Catholic and Puritans.

⑧ James I :



⑨ Charles I : the English Book of Common Prayer / Puritans → Grand Remonstrance.

⑩ Charles II : Puritans → Clarendon Code, Catholic → Test Act.

(11) James II : Catholic → Glorious Revolution

(12) Bill of Right.

## II.Parliament

1. Witan
2. Grand Council ← a. Great Charter or Magna Carta; b. Provision of Oxford.
3. 1265 earliest parliament, Simon de Montfort.

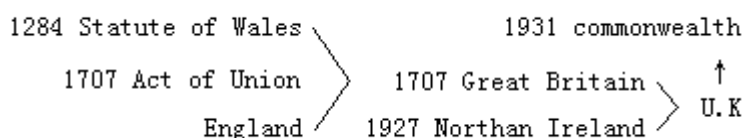
## III.King

1. Norman House: William I , 1066
2. Plantagenet House: Henry II , 1154, civil war
3. Tudors House: HenryVII, 1485, war of Roses
4. Stuart House: James I , 1603, Elizabeth I has no son
5. Commonwealth: Cromwell and Richard
6. Constitutional monarchy:
  - ① Restoration in 1660;
  - ② Glorious Revolution in 1688;
  - ③ the joint rule by William and Mary in 1689.

## IV.Feudalism

1. William I , 11<sup>th</sup>, found;
2. 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup>, flower and prosper;
3. 1381 uprising, telling blow;
4. 1455-1485 War of Roses, death blow;
5. 1649 civil war, overthrow.

## V.How does Great Britain come into being?



## VI.Civil war

1. Heptarchy: Egbert, Offa, Alfred.
2. Norman → Plantagenet: between Stephen and Henry, Henry won the battle and became Henry II .
3. Between king and baron: a. Magna Carta; b. Provision of Oxford; c. Parliament.
4. Uprising: between peasant and king.
5. War of Roses: a. between Lancaster and York; b. result in the House of Tudors.
6. Between Elizabeth I and Mary.
7. 1642-1649 civil war: between king and parliament.
8. Chartism movement: between Chartist and Parliament

## VII.Dividing line in English history

1. Old English → the time before 1066;
2. Medieval English → the time between 1066 and 1649;
3. Modern English → the time from 1649 till now.

## Chapter 6 The Economy

### I .The Evolution of the British Economy since the War

1. Britain is the oldest industrial country in the world. Many goods were manufactured in Britain and then sold all over the world. So Britain was called the factory of the world.
2. British disease  
The term “British disease” is now often used to characterize Britain’s economic decline.
3. Three periods
  - ① Steady development in the 50s and 60s.
    - a. Features: characterized by slow but steady growth, low unemployment and great material prosperity with rising standards of consumption.
    - b. Policy: John M. Keynes’s policy - high consumption and low investment. (Setback: high labor cost)
  - ② Economic recession in the 70s
    - a. Oil shock: 1973 and 1977.
    - b. Policy: restrictive fiscal policies.
  - ③ Economic recovery in the 80s
    - a. Medium-term Financial Strategy: Privatization, deregulation and market liberalization replaced prices and incomes control and state interventionism. It emphasis on improving the long-run supply-side performance of the economy.
    - b. Features: An outstanding feature of the economic recovery in the 80s was its length. Another feature was the improved financial position of the government, with stronger current account of the balance of payments.
    - c. Thatcher’s measures:
      - (1) Macroeconomic measures were directed towards bringing down the rate of inflation and achieving price stability. (a tight control on the exchange rate, the regulation of money growth, reduce public borrowing)
      - (2) Microeconomic policies were aimed at working with the grain of market forces by encouraging enterprise, efficiency and flexibility. (1940s – nationalization, 1980s – privatization)
    - d. Most important labor legislation: Employment Acts of 1980, Trade Union Act of 1984.
4. The Thatcher program was successful to some extent. Mrs. Thatcher tried to cure the “British disease” by applying monetarism and encouraging the market-directed economy but she failed.

### II .Resources and Industries

1. Coal, oil, gas
  - ① General: Important coal areas can be found in Central Lowlands of Scotland, North-East England (most suitable for producing blast-furnace coke in the steelworks), Central England (produce coal suitable for the power station) and South Wales.
  - ② British coal mining is called “sick” industry.

The output of coal reached its peak just before the First World War, and since then the number of miners, collieries and the total output have fallen. Britain is not as dependent on coal energy as it once was. The consumption of coal in 1950 made up 90.4% of the total, but in 1989 it only made up 8.5%.

The exhaustion of old mines, costly extraction, poor old equipment, little money being invested, fall in demand are all the reasons for the decline.
  - ③ The largest and most important coalfield is the large-scale high-technology Selby coalfield in Yorkshire.
  - ④ Importance: Natural gas was discovered in 1965 and oil in 1970 under the North Sea. They are important to Britain’s economy. In 1989 oil accounted for 44.6% of all the energy used in Britain. The transport and domestic heating systems mostly depend on oil. So does the food supply. Modern farming requires things which are all

oil-based.

## 2. Iron and steel

① General: Rich deposits of iron ore were found in central England (Midlands), and this area has become the center of steel industry.

② Major problems:

- a. The original advantages have gone. Local supplies have become exhausted, and new discoveries are largely low grade with impurities.
- b. Britain's steelworks are not efficient. Ovens are old-fashioned. Plants are separated and it is very costly to move old local steelworks to new regions, which means closing down of many steelworks and major unemployment in an area.

## 3. Textiles

① Regions: The main textile producing regions of Britain are now the East Midlands, Yorkshire and Humberside, and Northern Ireland.

② Reasons for decline:

- a. Exports of textiles are not competitive enough.
- b. There has been a rise in cheaper imports of textiles.
- c. Poor and outdated management decisions.
- d. There are more human-made fibres.
- e. An improvement of output per worker.

## 4. Shipbuilding

① Main centers: The two main centers for shipbuilding were on the River Tyne and the Clyde.

② Reason for failure: a. overseas competition; b. outdated equipment; c. decline in demand and order for ships; d. lack of investment in the industry.

## 5. Motor vehicle

① Former regions: West Midlands and South-East of England (early 20<sup>th</sup> century)

② Recent: Four firms (Ford, the Rover Group, GM-Vauxhall, and Peugeot)

## 6. New industries

① Contents: These include microprocessors and computers, biotechnology and other high-tech industries.

② Three areas: the area between London and South Wales, the Cambridge area of East Anglia, and the area between Glasgow and Edinburgh in Scotland (the most important area, which called "Silicon Glen").

③ Scotland has Europe's largest collection of foreign-owned chip factories. Over 90% of them are from the U.S.A., Japan, the Netherlands and Germany.

# III. Agriculture

## 1. Highly mechanized.

① Only 3% of the population are farmers but they manage 70% of the land area.

② Very modern farmers use computers today. (They talk about technological farming, which is called "agribusiness". That is because it is equipped and managed like an industrial business with a set of inputs into the farm or processes which occur on the farm, and outputs or products which leave the farm.)

③ In some areas factory farming methods are used.

## 2. Six areas

Types	Suitable areas
Arable farming emphasizes crop production and occurs on the more fertile soils	The chief areas are in the East and South-East. The chief crops are wheat, barley, oats, sugar beet and potatoes.
Dairy farming rears cattle primarily for milk	a. western regions with moderate rainfall, mild winters



production	and cool summers; b. other dairying areas are based on heavy clay soils; c. dairy farms around all cities.
Stock farming rears livestock primarily for meat.	It is the chief kind of farming in the North and West of Britain.
Mixed farming has elements of cattle-rearing and crop-growing.	It is in most areas of rural Britain.
Hill farming with sheep and cattle	In areas with poorer soils and rougher pastures.
Market gardening is the growing of vegetables and fruit which can be rapidly transported to market while fresh.	Near large urban areas. The Channel Islands, Cornwall and the Scilly Isles are the greatest providers of early vegetables and flowers. The Garden of London refers to the area in South-East London where have many fruit farms. People like to go there to see blossoms in spring.

3. The North Sea has very good fishing grounds.

#### IV. Foreign Trade

1. Nation of shopkeepers

Britain is the fifth largest trading nation in the world. It has been a major trading power since the 17<sup>th</sup> century, when the English East India Company and other trading organization laid the foundations of its empire. Napoleon called it a "nation of shopkeepers".

2. Pattern

	Import	Export
Tradition	Food and basic materials	Manufactured good
Recent	Manufactured	Fuel

3. Britain's foreign trade is mainly with other developed countries. About half of the trade is with the EC.  
4. Traditionally, Britain has had a deficit on visible trade (trade of goods) and a surplus on invisible trade (trade of services).  
5. The City of London is the business center of London where large financial organizations are located.

### Chapter 7 Government and Administration

#### Introduction

- The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy: the head of State is a king or a queen. In practice, the Sovereign reigns, but does not rule: the United Kingdom is governed by His or Her Majesty's Government.
- There is no written constitution in the United Kingdom, it is made up of statute law, common law and conventions.

#### I. The Monarchy

- Origin: 9<sup>th</sup> century. It lasted for 1,000 years, with a stop from 1649 to 1660.
- Title for Elizabeth II (who born on April 21, 1926 and crowned on June 2, 1953) is derived partly from statute and partly from common law rules of descent.
  - United Kingdom: "Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her Other Realms and Territories, Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith".
  - the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man: Lieutenant-Governor.
  - Commonwealth: Governor-General.
  - dependent territories: governors.
- Succession: Son has precedence over daughters. When a daughter succeeds, she becomes Queen Regnant.
- Qualification: Under the Act of Settlement of 1700, only Protestant descendants of a granddaughter of James I of

England and VI of Scotland are eligible to succeed.

5. Accession: The Sovereign proclaimed at an Accession Council. The ceremony takes place at Westminster Abbey in London.
6. Role: The monarchy is the symbol of the whole nation. In law, she is head of the executive, an integral part of the legislature, head of the judiciary, the commander-in-chief of all the armed forces of the Crown and the “supreme governor” of the established Church of England.
7. Birthday: Sovereign’s birthday is officially celebrated in June by Trooping the Color on Horse Guards Parade. And ceremonies are held at Buckingham Palace.
8. Expenditure: a. public duties met by the Civil List (an annual grant, which about 3/4 is required to cover the expenditure on the salaries and expenses of the Royal Household); b. private expenditure met from the Privy Purse (mainly from the revenue of the Duchy of Lancaster).

## II. Parliament

### 1. Parliament

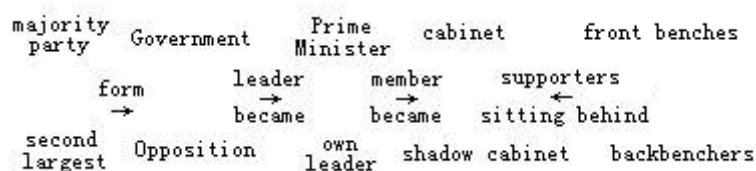
- ① The United Kingdom is a unitary State.
- ② Parliament consists of the Sovereign, the House of Lords and the House of Commons.
- ③ Main functions: a. pass laws; b. provide the means of carrying on the work of government by voting for taxation; c. examine government policy and administration; d. debate the major issues of the day.
- ④ Terms: a maximum duration of five years.
- ⑤ The Houses of Parliament were rebuilt under the design of Sir Charles Barry.

### 2. House of Lords

- ① The House of Lords is made up of the Lords Spiritual (Archbishops of Canterbury and York and 24 senior bishops of the Church of England) and Lords Temporal (a. hereditary peers and peeresses without Ireland; b. life peers who assist the judicial duties in Lords of Appeal or “law lord”; c. other life peers).
- ② Main function: bring the wide experience of its members into the process of lawmaking.
- ③ Head: Lord Chancellor or Speaker of the House, who takes his place on the woolsack
- ④ Clerk of the Parliaments responsible for: a. the records of proceedings; b. the text of Acts of Parliament; c. accounting officer; d. administrative staff (Parliament Office).
- ⑤ Black Rod: responsible for security, accommodation and services in the House of Lords’ part of the Palace of Westminster.

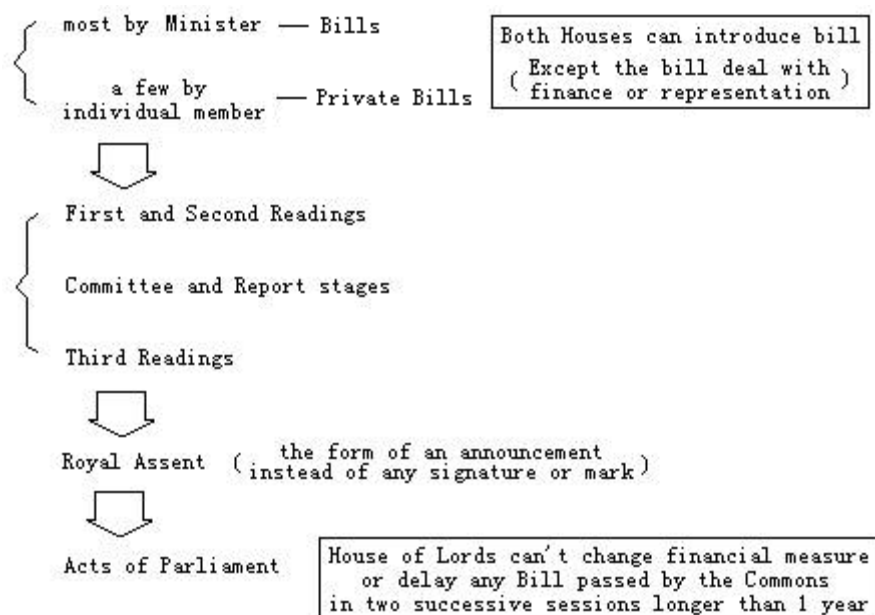
### 3. House of Commons (651 MPs represent 651 constituency)

- ① It is in the House of Commons that the ultimate authority for law-making resides.
- ② Parliamentary Electoral System
  - A. Two types: a. General Election (all the seats are contested); b. by-election (when an MP dies or resigns or is given a peerage).
  - B. Terms: A General Election must be held every five years and is often held at more frequent intervals.
  - C. Qualification: a. voters (aged 18 or over; in the annual register; no disqualification); b. candidates (aged 21 or over; no disqualification; deposit £ 500 which is returned if he takes 5% or more of the vote).
- ③ The Political Party System
  - A. Two-party system: a. Conservative Party; b. Labor Party.
  - B. 1988, Social and Liberal Democratic.
  - C. Government



#### ④ Other Aspects of the House of Commons

- A. Head: Speaker, who is a member and is acceptable to all shades of opinion in the House.
- B. 1992, first woman Speaker.
- C. Bills (Royal Assent)



Other opportunity: a. Question time (55 minutes each day from Monday to Thursday); b. Adjournment debates (House grants leave asked by MP after question time, the matter will be debated for three hours in emergency debate on the following day); c. Early day motions (chance for backbench); d. The 20 Opposition days; e. debates on three days in each session on details of proposed government expenditure, chosen by the Liaison Committee.

### III.The Cabinet and Ministry

#### 1. Prime Minister

- ① Name: First Lord of the Treasury and Minister for the Civil Service
- ② Sits: in the House of Commons
- ③ Official residence: No. 10 Downing Street in London
- ④ Cabinet: The most senior ministers (usually about 20) compose the Cabinet, which meets under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister for a few hours each week to decide Government policy on major issues.

2. Ministers are responsible collectively to Parliament for all Cabinet decisions.

### IV.The Privy Council

- 1. History: ① Witan; ② Great Council.
- 2. Role: Today it's role is largely formal, advising the sovereign to approve certain government decrees (so called orders-in-council) and issuing royal proclamations.
- 3. Its membership is about 400, and includes all Cabinet ministers, the Speaker of the House of Commons, the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, and senior British and Commonwealth statesmen.
- 4. Head: Lord President of the Council

### V.Government Departments and the Civil Service

- 1. Government Departments and their agencies are the main instruments for implementing government policy. (Since 1972, the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland has been the Cabinet Minister responsible for Northern Ireland affairs.)
- 2. Civil Service: whose duty is to assist in carrying out the administration of laws passed by Parliament.
- 3. Civil Service is managed by the Treasury and the Cabinet Office.
- 4. Level in Civil Service: a. grades 1 to 7 are the Open Structure; b. lower structure is based on a system of occupational groups. (The diplomatic service is a separate service, with its own grade structure, linked to that of the Home Civil

Service.)

## VI. Local Government

1. Two tiers: counties and smaller districts.
2. Greater London is divided into 32 boroughs and the City of London, each of which has a council responsible for local government in its area.
3. County councils provide large-scale services; district councils are responsible for the more local ones.

## Chapter 8 Justice and the Law

### Introduction

1. Common features to all systems of law in the United Kingdom: a. there is no complete code; b. the distinction made between criminal law and civil law
2. The sources of law: a. statutes (Acts of Parliament); b. “unwritten” or common law (gathered from experiences); c. equity law (cases uncovered by common law); d. European Community law.

### I. Criminal Proceedings

1. Criminal offence is controlled by:
  - ① England and Wales: Crown Prosecution Service
  - ② Scotland: Lord Advocate
2. The reason for the criminal convicts like to be tried first before the magistrates’ courts:
  - ① Magistrates’ courts try summary offences and “either way” offences.
  - ② In the United Kingdom, as soon as anyone is arrested, he must be charged and brought before the court with the least possible delay.
  - ③ All criminal trials are held in open court because the criminal law presumes the innocence of the accused until he has been proved guilty beyond reasonable doubt.
3. Bail: If the case isn’t very serious, the accused person who can’t be brought before the court within a day will be granted bail.
4. Lawyer: Every accused person has the right to employ a legal adviser. Or, he may be granted aid at public expense, if he shot of money.
5. Jury:
  - ① Role: Jury decides the issue of guilt or innocence.
  - ② Qualification: people between ages of 18 and 70 (65 in Scotland)
  - ③ Numbers: 12 in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, and 15 in Scotland

### II. Criminal Courts

#### 1. England and Wales

Court	Case	Judge	Jury
Magistrates’ Courts	Summary offense and “either way” offences	Justices of peace	Without
Youth Courts	Case involving people under 18 years old	When the child is charged jointly with someone of 18 or over, the case is heard in magistrates’ court or the Crown Court. If he found guilty, the sentence will be left to youth court.	
Crown Court	Most serious offenses and “either way” offences presented by magistrates	High Court judges, full-time Circuit Judges, part-time Recorders. Six circuits: Midland and Oxford, North-eastern, Northern, South-eastern (include London), Wales and Chester, and Western.	
Note: Appeals in criminal cases may be heard by the Crown Court, the High Court, the Court of Appeal, and when it involve general public importance, by the House of Lords.			

## 2. Scotland

Court					
Court	Case		Judge	Jury	Procedure
High Court	Most serious crimes		Judge	Attendance	Solemn procedure
Sheriff Court	Less serious offences	More serious	Judge	Attendance	Solemn procedure
		Less serious	Judge	Without	Summary procedure
District Court	Minor offences		Justices of peace	Without	Summary procedure
Note:					
1. Children under 16 who have committed an offence are normally deal with by children's hearings.					
2. Appeals are heard by three or more judges of the High Court of Justiciary; there is no final appeal to the House of Lords.					

## 3. Northern Ireland

Court	Case	Judge	Jury
Magistrates' courts	Minor summary offences	Magistrate	No mention
County courts	Civil law courts		No mention
(Juvenile court)	Offenders under 17	Magistrate and two specially qualified lay members (one woman)	No mention
Crown Court	Criminal trial on indictment	High Court and county court judges	Contested cases heard by judge and jury
Note:			
1. Appeals from magistrates' courts against sentence are heard by the county court.			
2. Northern Ireland Court of Appeal tries the appeal on a point of law alone and appeals from the Crown Court against sentence.			

## III.Civil Courts

### 1. England and Wales

Court	Case	Detail
Magistrates' courts	Limited civil jurisdiction	Family proceedings for custody, maintenance, adoption, guardianship, and family protection orders; public health cases; the recovery of local taxes.
County Courts	a. actions founded upon contract and tort; b. trust and mortgages cases; c. actions for the recovery of land; d. cases involving disputes between landlords and tenants; e. complaints about race and sex discrimination; f. admiralty cases and patent cases; g. divorce cases and other family matters.	
High Court (It forms part of the Supreme Court of Judicature.)	More complicated civil cases	a. the family Division (family law: adoption and wills); b. the Chancery Division (corporate and personal insolvency, disputes in the running of companies and between landlords and tenants, intellectual property matters, interpretation of trusts and contested wills); c. the Queen's Bench Division (contract, tort, judicial review).
Court of Appeal	More important	Appeals (a few are heard before the house of Lords, which is the ultimate court of appeal in civil cases throughout the U.K.)

### 2. Scotland

Court	Feature	Detail
Sheriff court	Principal local court	
Court of Session (Edinburgh)	Supreme central court, which is subject to the House of Lords in London	a. Outer House: first instance; b. Inner House: appeal court.

### 3. Northern Ireland

- ① county courts (civil law courts under £ 15,000); ② magistrates' court (certain limited classes of civil cases); ③ High Court of Justice (superior civil law court); ④ High Court (appeals from county courts); ⑤ Court of Appeal (appeals from county courts).

## IV. The Judiciary

- 1. Central responsibility: ① the Lord Chancellor; ② the Home Secretary; ③ the Attorney General.
- 2. Scotland: the Secretary of State
- 3. Northern Ireland: Lord Chancellor

## V. Police

- 1. England and Wales: Home Secretary (43 police forces)
- 2. Scotland (8 police forces) and Northern Ireland (1 "the Royal Ulster Constabulary"): Secretaries
- 3. London's Metropolitan Police Force is directly under the control of the Home Secretary.
- 4. Police are not allowed to join a trade union or to go on strike.
- 5. Police in Great Britain do not normally carry firearms, except those in London and Northern Ireland.

## VI. Treatment of Offenders

- 1. Capital punishment for murder has been abolished in the UK, but it remains so for treason and piracy.

## Chapter 9 Social Affairs

### I. Health and Social Services

- 1. Britain is regarded as a welfare state.
  - ① The welfare state is a system of government by which the state provides the economic and social security of its citizens through its organization of health services, pensions and other facilities.
  - ② This system is funded out of national insurance contributions and taxation.
  - ③ The system applies mainly to the National Health Service (NHS), national insurance and social security.
- 2. The National Health Service (NHS)
  - ① The National Health Service provides for every resident a full range of medical services.
  - ② It was based at first on Acts of Parliament, one for England and Wales passed in 1946 and one for Scotland passed in 1974.
  - ③ The NHS is based upon the principle that there should be a full range of publicly provided services designed to help the individual stay healthy.
  - ④ The NHS is now a largely free service. Over 82% of the cost of the health service in Great Britain is funded out of general taxation.
  - ⑤ There are proportional charges for most type of NHS dental treatment, including examinations.
  - ⑥ No one is liable to be charged by the National Health Service for treatment in an accident, emergency or for an infectious disease.
  - ⑦ Central government is directly responsible for the NHS, which is administered by a range of local health authorities and health boards throughout the UK. But people are not obliged to use the service; they may still go to doctors a private patient.
  - ⑧ The NHS provides the family health services and hospital and specialist services.
  - ⑨ Hospital medical staff (consultants and specialists) are salaried and may be employed full time or part time.
  - ⑩ The National Health Service is the largest single employer of labor in the UK.
- 3. Personal Social Services

Personal social services assist elderly people, disabled people, people with learning disabilities or mental illness, children, and families facing special problems.

### II. Social Security

- 1. The social security system is designed to secure a basic standard of living for people in financial need.
- 2. Contributory social security benefits



① Retirement pension

Women at the age of 60 and men at the age of 65 are entitled to a state retirement pension.

② Unemployment Benefit

People seeking unemployment benefit must not have become unemployed voluntarily or have lost their job through misconduct.

③ Sickness and Invalidity Benefit

④ Maternity Allowance and Widows' Benefit

3. Non-contributory social security benefits

① War Pensions

② Industrial Injuries Disablement Benefit

③ Child Benefit

④ Family Credit

### III. Religion

1. Every person in Britain has the right to religious freedom without interference from the community or the State. (The Lord Chancellor may not be a Roman Catholic.)

2. Established churches

① There are two established churches in Britain, that is, churches legally recognized as official churches of the State: in England the Church of England, and in Scotland the (Presbyterian) Church of Scotland.

② Church of England

- a. Church of England is uniquely related to the Crown in that the Sovereign must be a member of that Church and, as "Defender of the Faith", must promise on his or her accession to uphold it.
- b. The Church is also linked with the State through the House of Lords, in which the two archbishops (of Canterbury and York), the bishops of London, Durham and Winchester, and 21 other senior bishops have seats.
- c. The Church of England has 2 provinces: Canterbury (30 dioceses, including the Diocese in Europe) and York (14 dioceses).
- d. The Church of England is not free to change its form of worship, as laid down in the Book of Common Prayer, without the consent of Parliament.

③ Church of Scotland

The government of the Church of Scotland is Presbyterian.

3. Unestablished churches

① The Anglican Churches

In the British Isles there are three unestablished Anglican churches: the Church of Ireland, the Episcopal Church in Scotland, and the Church in Wales.

② The Free Churches

The largest Free Church is the Methodist Church.

③ The Roman Catholic Church (only men may become priests)

4. Other Christian churches

The Principal non-Christian communities in Britain are the Jews, the Moslems and Buddhists.

### IV. Festivals and Public Holidays

1. Christian festivals

① The Christian festivals of the year are Christmas, Easter, and Whit Sunday.

② Christmas Day, December 25<sup>th</sup>, is the greatest of Christian festivals.

A. Significances:

- a. Celebrates the birth of Christ;
- b. The custom of giving gifts;
- c. The habit of spending it with the family.

B. Steps:

- a. At Christmas, the home is decorated beautifully, and the “Christmas tree” is also decorated.
- b. On Christmas Eve, the traditional ritual of hanging up a stocking at the foot of the bed is performed by children. They hope that Father Christmas (Santa Claus) will steal in to deliver presents.
- c. Christmas Day is spent quietly at home. The traditional Christmas dinner includes Turkey, duck or chicken with rich fruity Christmas pudding afterwards.

③ Easter celebrates the Resurrection of Christ, on the first Sunday after the first full moon. During Easter season, Good Friday commemorates the crucifixion of Christ, and Easter Sunday (also called Easter Day) the resurrection. Easter eggs are made of chocolate.

④ Whit Sunday falls on the seventh Sunday after Easter. Whit Sunday celebrates the coming of the Holy Spirit to Christ’s apostles seven weeks after his death.

## 2. Other festivals

① New Year’s Day (January 1<sup>st</sup>) is part of Scottish “Hogmanay” (New Year’s Eve) festival, which is more important than Christmas to Scots.

- a. People stay up late, often at a party or a religious “watch-night service”, to see the New Year in.
- b. It is a Scottish tradition that the first person to cross the threshold of your house on New Year’s Day should be dark-haired – such a person brings luck for the coming year.

② The only other national festival is Guy Fawkes Day.

③ April Fool’s Day (April 1<sup>st</sup>)

People will played some jokes on you to make you an “April Fool” at that day.

④ The birthday of the British Monarch is a National Day in Britain, for there is no fixed day which is a National Day in Britain.

Queen Elizabeth was born on April 21, 1926. But the national celebrations are held on the second Thursday of June every year for the bad weather in April.

⑤ The only really important patriotic festival is Remembrance Sunday (also called Armistice Day).

## 3. Public holidays

Official public holidays are also called “bank holidays”, which goes back to the Bank Holidays act of 1871.

Date	Name	Note
January 1 <sup>st</sup>	New Year’s Day	
January 2 <sup>nd</sup>	Bank Holiday	Scotland only
March / April	Good Friday	
	Easter Monday	Not Scotland
May (first Monday)	May Day Bank Holiday	
May (last Monday)	Spring Bank Holiday	
August (last Monday)	Summer Bank Holiday	Not Scotland
December 25 <sup>th</sup>	Christmas Day	
December 26 <sup>th</sup>	Boxing Day	

## Chapter 10 Cultural Affairs

### I .Education

1. Education is compulsory for all between the ages of 5 (4 in Northern Ireland) and 16.
2. The Secretary of State for Education has overall responsibility for school and postschool education in England. The secretaries of State for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland exercise similar responsibilities in those countries.
3. Most state school education is the responsibility of local education authorities (LEAs); the rest is provided by self-governing grant-maintained (GM) schools. Some GM or voluntary aided secondary schools are technology colleges, which are non-fee-paying independent schools created by a partnership of government and private sector sponsors.

4. The bulk of expenditure on education comes from public funds.
5. Primary education
  - ① Compulsory education begins at 5 in Great Britain and 4 in Northern Ireland, when children go to *infant schools*; at seven many go on to junior schools.
  - ② Children were allocated to different secondary schools on the basis of selection tests taken at the age of 11 (known as eleven-plus). In the 1960s and 1970s this system was gradually replaced by comprehensive schools which take pupils of all abilities.
6. Secondary education
  - ① Differences between state school and public school
    - A. State school is state-run and publicly funded. About 90% of the state secondary school population in Great Britain attend *comprehensive schools*. (English and Welsh schools can be organized in a number of ways. Sixth-form colleges are school which may provide non-academic courses in addition to academic ones.)
    - B. Public school, which is also called independent schools, is privately-run and privately-funded. Many of Britain's public schools are long-established and have gained a reputation for their high academic standards, as well as their exclusiveness and snobbery. Most of the members of the British Establishment were educated at a public school. The boy's schools include such well-known schools as *Eton, Harrow, Westminster* and *Winchester*. The girls' schools are *Roedean* and *Cheltenham Ladies' College*.
  - ② Most other children attend grammar schools or secondary modern schools, to which they are allocated after selection procedures at the age of 11.
  - ③ About 65% of pupils choose to continue in education after 16. Broadly speaking, education after 16 is divided into further education and higher education.
7. Higher education
  - ① There are some 90 universities, including the Open University.
  - ② The British universities are governed by royal charters or by Act of Parliament and enjoy academic freedom.
  - ③ Higher education is largely financed by public funds, tuition fees for students paid through the awards system and income charged by institutions for research and other purposes.
  - ④ The universities of Oxford and Cambridge (popularly known as Oxbridge) date from the 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> centuries.
  - ⑤ First degree courses are mainly full time and usually last 3 years in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. However, there are some four-year courses and medical and veterinary courses normally require 5 years.
  - ⑥ Titles for a first degree are Bachelor of Arts (BA) or Bachelor of Science (BSc) and for a second degree Master of Arts (MA), Master of Science (MSc), and Doctor of Philosophy (PhD).
  - ⑦ The Open University is a non-residential university. It is "open" to all to become students. The University offers degree and other courses for adult students of all ages.

## II. The Media

1. Newspapers
  - ① Ownership of the major national papers is concentrated in the hands of a small number of independent publishing corporations. One of the largest and most powerful of these is Rupert Murdoch's News International which owns 5 national papers (*The Times, The Sunday Times, The Sun, Today, and News of the World*)
  - ② The British press is by far the largest advertising medium in Britain.
  - ③ The national newspapers can be divided into two groups: national dailies and national Sundays.
  - ④ National newspapers are also popularly divided into 3 groups: quality, popular and mid-market papers.
    - a. Quality newspapers are directed at readers who want full information on a wide range of public matters. (*The Times, The Observer*, etc.)
    - b. Popular newspapers appeal to people wanting news of a more entertaining character, presented more concisely.
    - c. "Mid-market" newspapers cover the mid-market.
2. Periodicals

① Weekly reviews are a very important element in the British press. The most important are *The Economist*, *New Statesman and Society*, and *Spectator*.

② Of monthly magazines, *Reader's Digest* has the highest circulation.

### 3. Radio

① The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) still continues to dominate the airwaves.

② The BBC World Service broadcasts international news world wide, using English and 38 other languages.

### 4. Television

① The state-run BBC is financed from the sale of television licences and therefore does not rely on commercials for funding.

② The independent channels, ITV (Independent Television) and C4 (Channel 4), are funded entirely by advertising.

### 5. News agencies

① The principal news agencies in Britain are Reuters, based in London, the Press Association and Exel Financial Ltd/AFP-Exel News Ltd.

② Reuters was founded in 1851 by the German, Julius Reuter. It is now a publicly owned company.

## III. Sports

1. Football (or "soccer" as it is colloquially called), the most popular sport in England as well as in Europe, has its traditional home in England where it was developed in the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

① The Professional football season runs from August until May.

② Teams which dominate the top of English first division are Liverpool, Manchester United, Tottenham Hotspurs and Arsenal.

2. The game "Rugby" was invented at Rugby School in Warwickshire in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century. There are two different forms of rugby in Britain: Rugby Union (a 15-a-side game played by amateurs) and Rugby League (a 13-a-side game played by both professionals and amateurs).

3. Cricket, the most typical English sports, has been in existence since the 16<sup>th</sup> century.

4. Horse racing is a major British industry and takes two forms – flat racing and National Hunt (steeplechasing and hurdle racing).

5. The main national sports center for athletics is at Crystal Palace in South London.

6. The home of golf is Scotland. The most important national event is the Open Championship with the Walker Cup for amateurs and the Ryder Cup for Professionals.

7. Rowing is taught in many schools, universities and rowing clubs throughout Britain.

① The main types of boats are single, pairs and double sculls, fours and eights.

② The Head of the River Race, on the Thames, is the largest assembly of racing craft in the world.

8. Others: Boxing, Swimming, Snooker, etc.

## IV. The Arts

1. Britain's artistic and cultural heritage is one of the richest in the world. London is one of the leading world centers for the arts.

2. Museums and art galleries

Many of the national museums and art galleries are located in London.

3. Music

① In the early 1960s a new pop culture – the Liverpool, or Merseyside, "beat", emerged in Britain.

a. The people responsible for this new pop culture (or the pop revolution) were 4 Liverpool boys who joined together in a group and called themselves the Beatles.

b. The Beatles wrote their own words and music. They wrote not only of love, but of death and old age, poverty and daily life.

c. The Beatles had a close personal relationship with their audience.

② The first National Music Day was held in 1992.

4. Drama

- ① Britain is one of the world's major centers for theatre.
  - ② The National Theatre stages a wide range of modern and classical plays in its three auditoriums (the Olivier, the Lyttelton and the Cottesloe) on the South Bank of the Thames. Another important theatre in London is the Royal Court Theatre.
  - ③ Half of theatres in London are to be found in the West End, centered around Shaftesbury Avenue and Covent Garden.
5. Opera  
The Royal Opera and the English National Opera are among the world's finest opera companies.
  6. Ballet and dance  
It is one of Britain's leading participatory activities.
  7. Arts festivals  
The most famous is the Edinburgh International Festival of Music and Drama.
  8. Films  
In November each year the National Film Theatre hosts the London Film Festival, at which some 250 new films from all over the world are screened.
  9. Literature and libraries
    - ① English literature is taught extensively at schools, colleges and universities throughout Britain.
    - ② Creative writing is also taught at a wide variety of institutions; one of the best known is the University of East Anglia, in Norwich, which also houses the British Centre for Literary Translation.
    - ③ There are several thousand libraries throughout the country, including the great "copyright" libraries.

## **Part Two**

### **The Republic of Ireland**

#### Chapter 11 Geography and History

##### Introduction:

1. Ireland is also called the Emerald Isle because of its rich green countryside.
2. Ireland is divided into two political units: Northern Ireland (part of the UK) and the Republic of Ireland (an independent country, also called Eire).

##### I .Geographical Features

1. General: The Republic of Ireland covers an area of 70,282 sq.km. It's total boundary is 3603 km long, of which its land border with Northern Ireland is 434km.
2. Location: It is bounded on the northeast by Northern Ireland, on the east and southeast by the Irish Sea and St. George's Channel and on the north and west by the Atlantic Ocean.
3. Main urban centers: Dublin (capital), Cork, Limerick, Galway and Waterford.
4. The reason for why Ireland has been compared to a basin.
  - ① It made of limestone plateau rimmed by coastal high lands.
  - ② Ranges of Donegal, Mayo and Munster run along the coastal areas, creating bold headlands, rocky islands and striking cliffs.
  - ③ Central plain area is characterized by many lakes, bogs and low ridges.
  - ④ Rivers slowly flow across the Central Lowlands like streams.
5. Mountain
  - ① The principal mountain ranges are the Mourne Mountains, the Wicklow Mountains and the Macgillicuddy's Reeks.
  - ② The highest peaks are Carrantuohill (1041 m) and Mount Brandon (953 m) and Lugnaquilla (926 m).
6. River  
The largest river in Ireland is the Shannon River. It provides electric power for much of the Republic.

## 7. Plant

- ① There are 1300 species of plants in Ireland, as against 2300 in Britain.
- ② The most common trees in Ireland are oak, ash, elm and birch.

## 8. Animal

- ① There are fewer bird and insect species in Ireland.
- ② Both in Ireland and Britain there are some species absent.

## II .Climate and Weather

### 1. General situation:

- ① The weather of Ireland is described as “mild, moist and changeable.”
- ② Typical maritime climate, monthly temperature is 15°C-16°C in summer and 6°C-7°C in winter.
- ③ Excessive rainfall, 3/5 of the country has a mean around rainfall 762 – 1270 mm.

### 2. Certain figure

	Winter	Summer	Rainfall
East	5°C-6°C (Nov – Mar)		
West	6°C-7°C (Dec – Mar)	5 hours' sunshine	20 – 250 days
South		15°C-16°C	
Southeast		7 hour's sunshine	175 days

### 3. Climatic regions

- ① The Northwest
  - a. Gales are frequent in winter.
  - b. The combination of high rainfall and mild winters permits luxuriant plant growth in sheltered places.
- ② Connacht and Clare
  - d. This region has slightly milder winters and warmer summers compared with Northwest.
  - e. Strong winds limit tree growth.
- ③ The South west
  - a. Excessive rain and warmth winter invite comparison with Mediterranean resorts.
- ④ The Southeast
  - a. The climate is far more favorable than the western regions for farming.
- ⑤ The Central Lowland
  - a. This is the area of the lightest rainfall in Ireland.
- ⑥ The Northeast
  - a. The climate here is cooler than in other regions.
  - b. The region is noted for its excellent cattle pastures and crops.

## III.Population and Religion

1. In Ireland the basic ethnic stock is Celtic, with an admixture of Norse, French, Norman and English.
2. Ireland has heavy population losses in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century.
  - ① The low birthrate, late marriage age (35 for men and 29 for women), excess of males and many single people naturally decreased Ireland's population.
  - ② In 1845, the Great Famine contributed to the decrease.
  - ③ The flow of emigration, some 6 million people left in the 100 years, following the Great Famine.
3. There are two official languages in Ireland. They are Irish (or Gaelic) and English. Irish is the favoured language of Irish nationalists, but English is used as the commercial and administrative language.
4. Ireland is one of the most Catholic countries of Europe.
  - ① Catholicism is an integral and pervasive influence on national life.
  - ② 93% of the Irish population are Roman Catholics.
5. The Anglican Church of Ireland is the largest non-Catholic denomination.



#### IV. Historical Background

1. 4<sup>th</sup> century BC, invaded by Celtic tribes (Gael is the most important one).
  - ① Gaels settled down to establish a flourishing Gaelic civilization.
  - ② Gaels conquered the Picts in the north and Erainn tribe in the south.
  - ③ Erainn tribe given the name Ireland.
2. 3<sup>rd</sup> century AD, 5 permanent kingdoms.
3. 432 AD, arrival of St. Patrick which transformed the island into a centre of learning and Christian culture.
4. 5<sup>th</sup> – 8<sup>th</sup> century, golden age of Irish culture (for example: Book of Kells).
5. End of 8<sup>th</sup> century, Viking invasions.
6. 1014, Danes were defeated and driven away by Brian Boru in battle of Clontarf.
7. 1170, Anglo-Saxons invaded Ireland, which start the conflict between English and Irish.
  - ① Henry VIII was the first king to bring all Ireland under English control. The Tudors forced the law on the Irish.
  - ② By the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century many Irish demanded greater self-government. Catholic emancipation was finally achieved in 1829.
  - ③ Irish nationalism became stronger in the early decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. In 1916, an Irish Republic was proclaimed. In 1921, they achieve dominion. On April 18, 1949, they declared itself a republic.
8. 1690, battle of the Boyne.
9. End of 18<sup>th</sup> century, ask for an independent Irish parliament.
10. 1800, Act of Union abolish Irish parliament.
11. 1916, Easter Uprising.
  - ① Causes
    - a. Irish nationalism grow stronger;
    - b. Violent activities in early decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century;
    - c. Easter Day.
  - ② Ends
    - a. Proclaimed Irish Republic;
    - b. 1919-1921, war between Irish Republican Army (IRA) and British government;
    - c. 1921, Anglo-Irish Treaty establishing an Irish Free State with dominion status with a separate government in the Protestant-dominated Northern Ireland.
12. IRA is a terrorist organization. They dedicated to the unification of all Ireland as a country by means of terrorism and violent.

#### V. Foreign Policy

1. Ireland has adhered to a policy of neutrality and nonalignment.
2. Since Ireland joined the EC in 1973, its foreign policy has shifted from a concentration on relations with the United Kingdom to the broader arena of European unity.
3. In 1981, following a riot outside the British Embassy in Dublin, the Anglo-Irish Intergovernmental Council was established.
4. Ireland established diplomatic relations with China on June 22, 1979.

### Chapter 12 Ireland Today

#### I. Political Structure

1. Ireland is a parliamentary republic and a unitary state under the 1937 Constitution  
Ireland (32 counties)  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Northern Ireland (6 counties)} \\ \text{Republic of Ireland (26 counties)} \end{array} \right.$
2. Executive power
  - ① The head of state is the president, elected by direct suffrage for a term of 7 years. The role of president is follows:
    - a. Summons or dissolves the Oireachtas (Parliament);

- b. Signs and promulgates laws;
- c. Appoints judges, the prime minister and other members of the cabinet;
- d. Commands the defense forces;
- e. Refer certain bills to the Supreme Court or the people.
- ② The head of government is the prime minister (taoiseach). The role of P.M is follows:
  - a. Nominate the ministers of all department;
  - b. Leading the Cabinet collectively responsible to the Parliament;
  - c. Answerable only to the Dail and keeping the president generally informed of demestic and international affairs.
- ③ Definition of taoiseach
  - a. Taoiseach is Irish P.M who appointed by president and responsible for nomination of other members of government.
  - b. Taoiseach has the limited time for the service of the Oireachtas.
  - c. Taoiseach holds office until he or she chooses to resign or loses support of majority in the Dail.

### 3. Legislative power

- ① All the legislative powers are vested in the national parliament.
- ② The national parliament (Oireachtas) has two Houses: the House of Representatives (Dail Eireann) and the Senate (Seanad).
- ③ The House of Representatives (Dail Eireann)
  - f. The Dail has 166 members, called in Irish teachtai dala (T.D.'s).

	Constituencies	Members for each	Total
Type one	13	3	39
Type two	13	4	52
Type three	15	5	75
Total	41		166

- g. TDs are elected for 5-year terms.
- ④ The Senate (Seanad)
  - b. The Seanad has 60 members. (11 nominated by the taoiseach, 43 elected by 5 panels of candidates, 6 by the universities)
  - c. The Senators are elected for 5-year terms.
  - d. The power of the Seanad is in general less than those of Dail, but they still have priorities. A private bill, which is designed to promote the particular interest of a person or locality, as distinct from a measure of public policy, must be introduced in the Seanad first.

### 4. Irish laws and courts

- ① Irish law is based on English common law as modified by subsequent legislation and the 1937 Constitution.
- ② Statutes passed by the British Parliament before 1921 have the force of law except those repealed by the Irish Oireachtas.
- ③ Courts

Court	Component	Power
High Court	A judge and a jury of 12	Original jurisdiction
Supreme Court	A chief justice and 6 other justices	Final appeal

## II .Political Parties

- 1. Ireland has a bipolar political party system with two major parties, Fianna Fail and Fine Gael, which are both descended from Sinn Fein (We Ourselves).
  - ① Fianna Fail (Soldiers of Destiny)
    - a. The minority of Sinn Fein who refused the Anglo-Irish Treaty.
    - b. It was originally a radical republican group. Now it is the largest political party in Ireland.

- c. Neutrality, promotion of Gaelic and strong support for a united Ireland but opposes the use of violence.
- ② Fine Gael (Irish Tribe)
  - a. The larger faction of Sinn Fein who accepted the treaty and dominion status within the British Commonwealth.
  - b. It was originally a conservative party who favoring balanced budgets and lower taxation. During the 1960s it changed into a socially progressive party, advocating a program of expanded social services.

## 2. Other national Party

- ① The Irish Labor Party is the oldest one which was founded in 1912.
- ② The Progressive Democrats were founded in 1985. it is the largest of the minor parties and describe themselves as centre-right.
- ③ The Workers' Party
- ④ The Democratic Socialists
- ⑤ The Communist Party of Ireland

## III. The Economy

- 1. Ireland is a free-market economy with a dominant private sector.
- 2. Its small economy is marked by slow growth, high unemployment and imbalances in public finance.
- 3. Agriculture
  - ① Agriculture still is a major sector.
  - ② As a whole, Irish farming is a mixed economy.
    - a. They depend chiefly for their living on occasional cash crops and some form of livestock.
    - b. The principal crops include barley, wheat, sugar beets and potatoes.
    - c. Dairying is specialized in certain areas, notably the Munster lowlands and the area stretching inland from Donegal Bay.
    - d. Except for the northern farms, Irish agriculture is not intensive.
  - ③ The European Community membership enabled Irish farmers to participate in the Community's Common Agricultural Policy (CAP).
- 4. Manufacturing
  - ① Since the 1960s, manufacturing has become the mainstay of the Irish economy.
  - ② The small industrial units at the time of independence in 1922 had been concentrated in Dublin and the other main ports.
  - ③ The initial expansion was achieved under a policy of strong protectionism and self-sufficiency.
  - ④ 45% of national industrial employment is concentrated in 3 main areas: County Dublin, the Cork city and harbour area and the Limerick-Shannon-Ennis triangle.
  - ⑤ Of industrial employment, 66% are employed in manufacturing. Others: a. chemicals sector; b. industries, such as footwear, clothing and textiles; c. hi-tech industries.
  - ⑥ Successive Irish governments have adopted a consistent and positive approach toward attracting overseas investment.
- 5. Mining
  - ① Ireland has been a major mineral producer since the 1960s.
  - ② Ireland is now the largest producer of lead and zinc concentrates in Europe.
  - ③ In addition to metals, the country's mineral resources include the so-called industrial minerals such as barite, limestone, phosphate and gypsum.
- 6. Energy
  - ① It has a valuable energy source in the peat, or turf, bogs that cover extensive areas of the country.
  - ② Turf is considered as a solid fuel in Ireland.
- 7. Labour
  - ① Unemployment is a chronic problem in Ireland. It is seen by both the government and the trade unions as the country's most serious economic problem.

- ② Ireland has the highest unemployment rate in the EC.
- ③ The young have been particularly hard hit, with those under 25 making up 1/3 of the unemployed. The reasons for this phenomenon are as follows:
  - b. Ireland has a relatively young population – one of the youngest in Europe.
  - c. Agricultural employment is declining.
  - d. Public sector employment is being reduced for budgetary reasons.
  - e. Most of the new hi-tech industries are not labour-intensive.
- ④ Although Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland are separate political entities, unions, like churches, are organized on an all – Ireland basis.
- ⑤ The standard workday is 8 hours and the standard workweek is 40 hours.

#### 8. Foreign trade

- ① Ireland is now an industrial exporter.
- ② Ireland now has a dual export base.
- ③ The United Kingdom has yielded place to EC countries.
- ④ The Value of imports generally exceeds that of exports. That's way Ireland has a chronic negative balance of trade.

#### IV. Education

- 1. Schooling is compulsory between ages 6 and 15.
- 2. The chief language of instruction is English, but Gaelic occupies a place of honor in the curriculum and is compulsory for all students in state-aided schools.
- 3. More than 95% of primary children attend national schools, of which 20% are run by Catholic orders.
- 4. Ireland's oldest university is the University of Dublin.

#### V. Media and Culture

- 1. The first newsheet was published in February 1659.
  - ① Today the *Irish Times* is the nation's most influential daily.
  - ② The *Irish Independent* is a best-selling daily.
- 2. Some 250 magazines are published in Ireland. Almost 1/5 of them deal with religion.  
Irish newspapers are forbidden to refer to the Irish Republican Army because the IRA is an illegal organization in Ireland.
- 3. Ireland has no national news agency.
- 4. Irish broadcasting began in 1926 in a small studio called Dublin Broadcasting Station. In 1960 it was converted into Radio Telefis Eireann (RTE).
- 5. Ireland has two official languages: Irish and English. Irish or Irish Gaelic is a Celtic language. Its history has three periods: Old Irish (from about the 7<sup>th</sup> century to about the 9<sup>th</sup> century); Middle Irish (from about the 9<sup>th</sup> century to the 13<sup>th</sup> century); Modern Irish (13<sup>th</sup> century to the present).
- 6. Old Irish works exist only in Middle Irish copies.
  - ① The most important works of the Middle Irish period are prose sagas and poem-cycles.
  - ② One of the most well-known writers of that period is the poet Ossian.
- 7. The most well-known Irish writer of the modern period is James Joyce whose writing is centred on Dublin.
  - ① One of his main works is the book of realistic short stories *Dubliners*.
  - ② In *A Portrait of the Artist As A Young Man*, he introduced the stream of consciousness technique.
  - ③ *Ulysses* is Joyce's masterpiece. The novel describes the events of one day in the live of several people in Dublin, and explores their subconscious minds.
  - ④ Joyce's innovations in language and style have deeply influenced 20<sup>th</sup> century writing.

### Part Three

#### The United States of America

## Chapter 13 Geography

### I .Location and Size

- Names: ① the United States of America; ② the United States; ③ the U.S; ④ America.
- Ideal location: Its Atlantic coast faces the developed countries of Western Europe and its Pacific coast and Hawaii give the nation an approach to the Far East and Australasia. In the past the Oceans served as natural barriers with little outside interference. Today the United States is well connected to the rest of the world.
- First four biggest countries: Russia, Canada, China, U.S. (9.3 million square kilometers).
- Federal republic with 50 States.
  - Largest: a. Alaska (of all the states); b. Texas (of the mainland).
  - Smallest: Rhode Island.
  - Newest states: Alaska, Hawaii.

### II .Topography

#### 1. Mountains

	the Appalachian mountains	the Rocky mountains
Running	Northeast to southwest	Northwest to southeast
Age	Older	Younger
Height	Lower	Higher (highest peak: Elbert)
Names	The Green mountains, the White mountains, the Catskills, the Alleghenies, the Cumberlands, the Blue Ridge mountains, the Carolinas, the Great Smokies.	
Significance	Industrial, forests, mines.	Backbone / the Continental Divide

#### 2. River

	Position	Significance
Mississippi 3,782km	From north Minnesota to Gulf of Mexico	① “father of waters” or “old man river”; ② drain; ③ water way.
Missouri 3,725km	From southwest Montana join Mississippi at St. Louis	
Ohio 1,500km	From east of Pittsburgh join Mississippi at Cairo	① the American Ruhr; ② coking coal; ③ steel industry; ④ water transportation.
Colorado 2,330km	From Rocky Mountains to the Gulf of California	① drain; ② vital sources of life for the southwestern corner; ③ dams.
Columbia	From Canada to the Pacific	
Rio Grande 3,200km	From southern Rocky mountains to the Gulf of Mexico	① natural boundary between Mexico and the United states.
Hudson	Meets the Atlantic Ocean at New York city	
Potomac	Meets the Atlantic Ocean at Washington D.C.	

#### 3. Lakes:

- Lake Superior (largest), Lake Michigan (entirely in the U.S), Lake Huron, Lake Erie, Lake Ontario.
- Significance: lifeline; upper region- natural wealth; lower region - industry.

#### 4. Benefits of the lakes, rivers and seacoasts:

The Great Lakes are the economic lifeline of the Midwest. The long and irregular seacoasts provide many excellent harbors. A large network of lakes and the Atlantic and Gulf rivers links the interior of the country with the coastal cities. Many swift rivers provide good sources of hydroelectric power.

### III.Climate

#### 1. General

Location	Type	Feature
----------	------	---------

North-eastern (New England)	Humid continental climate	Summers are longer and hotter in the south and winters are colder in the north; plenty of rainfall; a long growing season	Westward to the 100 <sup>th</sup> meridian
South-eastern	Humid subtropical climate	Summer are hot and winters mild; an adequate rainfall; late summer and early autumn hurricanes; favor for agriculture	
Great Plains	Continental steppe climate		
Intermountain region	Continental desert climate		
Pacific northwest	Maritime climate	Like that of Britain	
Pacific south	Mediterranean climate	Warm, dry summers and moist winters	

## 2. Factors

- ① middle latitudes north of the equator: a. wide ranges of temperature; b. many types of climate.
- ② the most important forces: the Atlantic oceans, the Pacific oceans, the Gulf of Mexico, the Great Lakes. (keep temperatures moderate, supply water vapor that falls as rain)
- ③ Ocean currents

Northern part of the west coast and southern Alaska: Warmed by the Japan Current 日本暖流	New England: Cooled by the waters of Labrador Current 拉布拉多寒流
Southern part of the west coast: Moderated by the cool California Current 加利福尼亚寒流	South-eastern: Warmed by the Gulf Stream 墨西哥湾暖流

- ④ Mountain ranges: The western mountain ranges have an important effect on the climate of the Far West. The Nevada and Cascade mountain ranges prevent westerly winds from bringing moisture to the intermountain region of the West.

## IV. Geographical regions

	Location	State	Economic activity	Significance / Major city
New England	northeast	Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut	① Dairying. ② First industrial area: modernizing its traditional industries; making new products; offering commercial services. ③ Tourism.	① Birthplace of America (a. War of Independence of 1776; b. first industrial area). ② Education: Yale, Harvard, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. ③ Yankees, which later came to stand for all Americans.
Mid-Atlantic	southeast	New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia	① Highly industrialized area. (1/5 population) ② The nerve center of the country. 3 topographical regions: the Atlantic Coastal Plain, the Piedmont, the Appalachian Highlands.	① New York (busiest ports, and financial, manufacturing and transportation center of the country.) ② Washington D.C. ③ Megalopolis / super city: Portsmouth, Philadelphia, Norfolk, Wheeling.

Mid-west		north	Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Kansas, Wisconsin, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota	① Agriculture; ② Manufacturing; ③ Heavy industry.	① Chicago: cultural capital of the Midwest / largest and busiest port on the Great Lakes / leading grain and livestock market / farm machinery, iron and steel manufacturer; ② Detroit: the automobile capital of the world ③ Omaha, the agricultural capital of the U.S. ④ St. Louis: center of trade, commerce, manufacturing and education.
South		south	Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Texas, Alabama, Mississippi, Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, Louisiana, Okalahoma,	① Agriculture; ② Vacation resorts; ③ Mineral; ④ Forestation; ⑤ Textile 90% of U.S.; ⑥ Rocket and missile.	Note: ② Florida – winter; Great Smoky and Blue Ridge Mountains – summer. ③ Ala: coal and iron ore; Ark: all bauxite mined in U.S; Tex and Lou: leading sulfur products and important salt-mining state; Ten: leading zinc mining. ④ softwoods esp. southern pine – coastal plain; hardwoods – Appalachian Highlands and interior of the South.
American West	Great Plains	west	Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah,	① Farming; ② Herding; ③ Mining (oil and iron ore) and industry.	① Colorado: steel city of the west; ② Denver: largest city of the Great Plains / recreation center.
	Rockies		Nevada, Idaho, parts of Washington, Oregon, California	① Mining (the ghost mining towns, which was deserted since the end of gold rush days in the 1870s. One of them is Leadville, Colorado); ② Tourism.	The government has set aside large areas of land as national parks. Among them are Yellowstone National Park, Rocky Mountain National Park, and Glacier National Park.



	Inter mountain			① Farming; ② Mining (uranium, copper, gold, silver, lead and zinc); ③ Tourism (the Grand Canyon in north-western Arizona).	① Phoenix: largest city in this area / health resort / vacation spot. ② Tucson: winter resort. ③ Salt Lake City: center of transportation and trade in this area. ④ Albuquerque: center for touring Native American / New Mexico's state university.
	Pacific	northwest	Oregon, California, western parts of Washington	① Fishing (America's leading fishing state: California, Washington, Oregon). ② Mining (gold, silver, copper, zinc, manganese, mercury, coal, oil and natural gas).	① Los Angeles: largest and busiest commercial city in this area; ② San Francisco: second largest city in California; ③ Portland: largest city in Oregon; ④ Seattle, Washington: largest city in the northwest.
New	Alaska	northwest	Largest of all the states / natural resources (oil) / maritime, subarctic, polar climate	Juneau / capital Inuits, who are often called Eskimos.	
	Hawaii	Pacific	Smallest one / volcano / agricultural products / humid tropical climate	Honolulu / capital Mauna Loa, the world's largest active volcano. Two main crops: sugar cane and pineapples.	

## Chapter 14 Population, Race and Ethnic Groups

### I .Introduction

#### 1. Population:

- ① 1992 - 255.5 million; 2000 – 275 million.
- ② First three populous countries: China, India, America.

#### 2. Factor for rapid growth, Immigration: ① Policy: more or less open-door; ② Origin: Asian and Hispanic.

#### 3. Changes

- ① From traditional manufacturing industries to high-technology industries;
- ② Three fastest states: Arizona, Nevada, Florida.

#### 4. Cities

- ① 77% of the population in the U.S. lived in more than 283 city;
- ② Five biggest city: New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, San Francisco, Philadelphia.

#### 5. Age structure: low → higher (1946-1964 “baby boom”) → lower.

### II .Immigration

- 1. A nation of immigrants: Many of its people descend from settlers who came from all over the world to make their homes in the new land (then populated by native American tribes).
- 2. First immigrant.

- ① England and Netherlands;
- ② Reason: a. run away from religious and political persecution; b. adventurers; c. indentured servants (who had to work for a fixed term for their masters to repay the cross-Atlantic fare and debts).
- 3. Three movements. (the largest immigration movement did not take place until 1815)
  - ① Mid-1810s to 1860 (highest at 1845); (1845-1854 Irishmen: Oppression / Potato Famine)
  - ② 1860 to 1890;
  - ③ 1890 to 1914 (the largest).

### III. Population movement

- 1. Mobility.
- 2. Four population movements:
  - ① End of civil war (1860s) – 1880: westward, from east to west;
  - ② 1890 – 1920: industrialization and urbanization, from rural to urban;
  - ③ 1920 – 1960 (peak at 1940s): black people, from south to other areas;
  - ④ 1960s – now: from Northeast and Central North to the West and the South, i.e. sunbelt.
- 3. Another trend: from core city to suburbs.

### IV. Racial and Ethnic Minorities

- 1. Blacks (the largest)
  - ① How to America: slaves; Situation: no better than cattle.
  - ② Two books: *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, *Roots*.
  - ③ Formally end of slave system:
    - a. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation in 1863
    - b. Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution in 1865
  - ④ Resistance:
    - a. Earlier period: run away.
    - b. After the WW II: changes - Brown versus Board of Education in 1954.
    - c. Civil rights movement: Civil Rights Act in 1964, Voting Right Act in 1965.
- 2. Hispanics
  - ① Spanish speaking people (most live in New Mexico, California, Texas).
  - ② Three major groups: Mexican-Americans or Chicanos, Puerto Ricans, Cuban-Americans ("little Cuba" in Miami area).
- 3. Asian-Americans
  - ① Reason for fastest growth: a. education; b. hard work; c. family.
  - ② Chinese-Americans
    - A. Achievement: Chinese immigrants did many contributions to America. Many of them worked in the mining industry, especially in the gold mines. In the construction of cross-country railroads, they also played an important role.
    - B. Fate: When the gold rush was over and the construction of the railroad was completed, the Chinese laborers became unemployed and were turned onto the labor market. Soon there emerged a widespread hostility towards the Chinese laborers.
    - C. Present situation: Many Chinese-Americans are doing fine today. Many first-rate scientists and engineers were Chinese descendants.
  - ③ Japanese-Americans. (relocation)
- 4. Indians
  - ① Columbus given the name: Indian.
  - ② fate:
    - B. Numbers reduced: a. disease; b. warfare; c. famine.
    - C. Land is taken.

D. Buffalo be wipe out.

③ current situation: government reservation, i.e. land specially set aside for the Indians.

④ keep culture: a. powwow i.e. a community celebration including crafts, food, dance, song and the playing of drums;  
b. National Museum of American Indians.

5. White ethnics.

Mainstream Americans called WASPs: White Anglo-Saxon Protestants.

## Chapter 15 American history ( I )

(1600-1900)

### I .Discovery of the New World

1. First Americans: Indians. No one knows just how or when they got to what is now the United States. Some scientist think that they crossed from Asia on the land bridge that once connected Siberia and Alaska.
2. Discovery: ① 1492, Columbus reach some small islands in the now West Indies, and didn't know he had discovered a New Continent; ② Amerigo proved that the land was not India, but a new continent. Therefore, the land was named America after him.

### II .The Colonial Period

1. 13 colonies: 1607-1733 (first colony was founded at Virginia in 1607).
2. Reasons:
  - ① opportunity for better life: a. nobles; b. workman; c. poor and homeless.
  - ② religious freedom: Pilgrim are artisans and peasants (a. 1620 Mayflower; b. Thanksgiving day); Puritans are wealthy, well-educated gentlemen.
3. Puritan tradition, good for capitalism.
4. Features became American character: representative form of government, rule of law, respect of individual rights, religious tolerance and individual enterprise.

### III.The War of Independence

1. Reason:
  - ① colonists – more power.
  - ② British government: a. control; b. more taxes (Stamp Tax).
  - ③ immediate cause: Boston Tea Party.
    - a. reason: The British government allowed the company to sell tea at a lower price in the colonies through its own people, which took away the tea business from American tea merchants.
    - b. process: Some Boston residents dressed as Indians boarded the ships at night and threw many tea into the harbor.
2. Processes:
  - ① Paul Ride;
  - ② Lexington shot: In 1775, about 1,000 British soldiers were to seize the military supplies of the militia in Concord. When the British soldiers set out, a lantern flashed word to Paul Revere who rode off on horseback to arouse the villages. When the British soldiers arrived at Lexington they were met by militiamen. Suddenly a shot was fired and then others followed. The War of Independence had begun.
  - ③ Second Continental Congress:
    - a. Found Continental Army and Navy;
    - b. Thomas Jefferson – Declaration of Independence on 1776.7.4 – a clear explanation of the political theory behind the revolution.
  - ④ Saratoga – turning point – French help.
  - ⑤ 1781, Yorktown, Cornwallis, surrendered.
  - ⑥ 1783, Treaty of Paris, recognized the independence.
3. Significance: a. just war; b. good for capitalism development; c. international influence.

#### IV. A New Form of Government

##### 1. Articles of Confederation.

###### ① unusual:

a. no king, but republic; b. have central government, but emphasis state's power; c. written constitution.

###### ② weakness:

a. no executive; b. congress is too large to function; c. congress has no power to raise taxes.

##### 2. Struggle during the convention

① Between: a. bigger states and smaller states; b. industrial-commercial interests and landed interests.

② Final: Great Compromise, i.e. giving each state an equal vote in the Senate but making representation in the House reflect the size of each state's population.

##### 3. Struggle during ratification

① Between: a. Federalists – Federalist Paper (Beginning in 1787, the newspapers of New York city carried a total of 85 letters written under the name of Publius. Later they came to be called the Federalist Papers, which are regarded as the best explanation of the constitution and the most important works on political theory.); b. Anti-federalists, concerned the absence of Bill of Rights in the Constitution.

② Final: Bill of Rights.

##### 4. Ratification

① 1787, Delaware (first state).

② 1789, first Congress, Washington (first president).

③ 1789, Madison, 12 Amendment with 10 of them be adopted as Bill of Rights.

#### V. The War of 1812

##### 1. Causes

① war in Europe between Britain and France → Britain's blockade → American's ban toward both countries → lift ban against France first → anger Britain.

② British removing seaman → anger America.

③ American's desire for territorial expansion → harm Britain's interest.

##### 2. Only the force under Andrew Jackson later won a victory over the British at New Orleans.

##### 3. Impact.

① realize the importance of a strong national government.

② strengthened the feeling of national unity and patriotism.

③ turned to the development of the western part of the continent.

④ realize that disputes should be solved through negotiation.

#### VI. Territorial Expansion and Westward Movement

##### 1. Processes

① Old Northwest - England.

② Mississippi River (open) - Spain.

③ Louisiana Territory (sell) - France, Napoleon, 1790.

④ Florida, Gulf coast (cede) - Spain.

⑤ Texas - Mexico, 1845.

⑥ California, New Mexico - Mexico (1846-1848).

⑦ Arizona, New Mexico - Gadsden Purchase, Mexico, 1853.

##### 2. Manifest Destiny.

① the inevitability of the founding of the United States of America;

② the legitimacy of the expansion of American Territory;

③ the spread of American democracy being the task of American people who were chosen to do the Lord's work.

#### VII. The Civil War

##### 1. Reasons.

- ① slavery: a. north - disappear; b. south - suited.
- ② Westwards arise problem of whether slavery should be allowed to spread into these areas, and it result in the Compromise of 1850: a. California – free state; b. New Mexico and Utah - territories.
- ③ abolitionists.
- ④ South - Confederate States of America; North - Union.

## 2. Processes

- ① at the beginning of the war → set backs;
- ② Emancipation Proclamation → support the Union;
- ③ Gettysburg victory → turning point;
- ④ Gettysburg Address;
- ⑤ South surrender, 1865.

## VIII. Rapid Growth of Capitalism after the Civil War.

### 1. Reasons

- ① stable environment and capital;
- ② labor supply;
- ③ science and invention → accelerate;
- ④ high taxes on foreign imports to increase the sale of domestic goods;
- ⑤ natural resources.

## Chapter 16 American History II (1900-1945)

### I .Economic Development.

#### 1. Features

- ① a. emerged a growth of industrial and financial mergers; b. appeared a professional managerial class.
- ② urbanization;
- ③ new technology.

### II .Progressivism

- 1. Muckrakers refer to those journalists who expose dark side.
- 2. Progressive Movement ask for government's regulation in social, political, and economic.
- 3. Roosevelt's contribution.
  - ① forest reserve, irrigation project (Roosevelt Dam in Arizona).
  - ② stop mergers (Sherman Antitrust Act).
  - ③ regulate railroad prices, do away with rebates. (Hepburn Act)
- 4. Wilson's New Freedom.
  - ① reduce tariffs, and put certain items on the free list;
  - ② pass the Federal Reserve Act to decentralized the banking system;
  - ③ regulate trusts;
  - ④ low rates' loans for farmer;
  - ⑤ 8-hour workday for railroad workers, and better treatment of seamen;
  - ⑥ income tax;
  - ⑦ adopt the 19<sup>th</sup> amendment of voting right for women.

### III. World War I and the United States

- 1. Reason for World War I : fierce struggle between two imperialist power groups for colonies, markets and spheres of influence, and of an intense arms race.
- 2. Policy: Pro-Ally.
  - ① Britain and France get support; Germany get little support.

- ② U.S. protest British blocking, but threaten German sinking.
3. Reason for America to join the war:
  - ① Germany refused to give up its submarine warfare;
  - ② Britain and France exhausted by the war, and might lose the war and bring great harm to American business interest;
  - ③ Germany was trying to get Mexico into the war against the United States.
4. Results
  - ① Peace Conference: a. dividing colonies of Germany, Austro-Hungary and the Ottoman Empire; b. grabbing as much as possible from the defeated nations..
  - ② Big Four: United States, Britain, France, Italy.
  - ③ Fourteen Points, advance American interests.
  - ④ Versailles Treaty System in Europe; Washington System in Asia.

#### IV. The United States in the 1920s

1. Spiritual frustration and material success (from a debtor nation to a creditor, further urbanization, new technology, mass production).
2. Government's help.
3. Intolerance nationalism: a. Red Scare; b. death sentence of Sacco and Vanzetti (Many historians wrote that they died for their political views, their radicalism); c. KKK (Ku Klux Klan was first organized in 1866 and then reformed in 1867. It terrorized and attacked not only blacks, but also progressives, labor union organizers, Communist or socialist party members).

#### V. 1930s

1. Great Depression: a. GNP shrank; b. jobless and unemployed went up; c. banks failed; d. rural no better.
2. The first blow to the stock market came on October 24, 1929, called the black Thursday.
3. Franklin D. Roosevelt.
  - ① fireside chats.
  - ② Famous words: "This nation asks for action, and action now." "save American democracy".
  - ③ New deal:
    - a. establishment and strengthening of government regulation and control of banking, credit and currency systems;
    - b. federal government management of relief and establishment of social security systems;
    - c. stimulation of the recovery of industry and agriculture;
    - d. formulation and implementation of federal labor laws to raise the role of labor;
    - e. improvement of the situation of minorities and religious groups.

#### VI. World War II and the United States

1. Reason: struggle between the great powers for control of the world and military expansion of the countries of nazi Germany, Fascist Italy and militarist Japan.
2. American policy: isolationist (to keep the United States out of the fighting that was going on in Europe and Asia) → 3 Acts (preventing the United States from being dragged into the war) → away from Acts → Lend-Lease.
3. Wartime subjective:
  - ① the total destruction of the Axis powers (Germany, Italy and Japan).
  - ② the establishment of a world order in accord with American ideals and interests.
4. Basic policy:
  - ① win the war.
  - ② establish a post war political structure in accord with American interests and to prevent the Soviet Union from over-expansion.
5. American's policies towards Britain:
  - ① defeat Germany first;

- ② policy towards Soviet Union;
- ③ status of former colonies after the war.
- 6. American's policies towards Soviet Union:
  - ① keep Soviet Union in war;
  - ② Soviet Union against Japan;
  - ③ Soviet Union's foreign policy.
- 7. Three summits.
  - ① Teheran: overlord, a large-scale attack on the south of France;
  - ② Yalta: United Nation;
  - ③ Potsdam: confirmed the temporary division of Europe.

Chapter 17 American History (III)  
American in Post-W.W. II Era  
(1945-1980s)

I .The origins of the Cold War

- 1. Origin: separate concepts of postwar world order.
- 2. American's policy: containment policy; 1946, Kennan, telegram.

II .The Truman Doctrine and the Marshall Plan

- 1. Truman Doctrine: ① The U.S. government would support any country which said it was fighting against Communism; ② Greece, Turkey.
- 2. Marshall Plan: ① In order to protect Western Europe from possible Soviet expansion, the United States decided to offer Western European countries economic aid; ② Secretary of State, Marshall, 1947; ③ Western Europe.

III.Berlin blockade and the Founding of the NATO

- 1. Berlin blockade
  - ① causes: a. merging of the three Western-occupied zones of Germany; b. currency reform by them.
  - ② Soviet Union's objection.
  - ③ Western Power's rejection.
  - ④ Russians cut off Western routes.
  - ⑤ United States start airlift.
  - ⑥ 1949, Russians lifted the blockade.
- 2. Consequence
  - ① It pushed the West Berliners and the Western European further to the side of the United States.
  - ② It enhanced the prestige of the Truman administration.
  - ③ It paved the way for the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty and the founding of the West Germany.
- 3. The North Atlantic Treaty of 1949: It marked the beginning of U.S. efforts in setting up a military alliance around the Soviet Union and its allies.
- 4. Germany
  - ① West Germany, the federal Republic of Germany, 1949.5.
  - ② East Germany, German Democratic Republic (Soviet Union), 1949.10.

IV.U.S. Support of Chiang Kaishek and the Korean War.

- 1. Support Kuomintang: 1950, 7<sup>th</sup> Fleet, Taiwan.
- 2. Korean War: 1950-1953, Yalu River.

V.The Cuban Missile Crisis

Soviet Union → missile → Cuba → missile site  
American → photos → shocked → naval force > possible nuclear war

VI.The Vietnam War

- 1. Processes:



- ① Beginning: to support France.
- ② Main force: replace France.
- ③ Americanized: the war was fought with American money, weapon, and soldiers.
- ④ Antiwar.
- ⑤ Vietnamization: the war building up South Vietnamese troops to replace American fighting force.
- ⑥ Ceasefire.

## 2. Impact

- ① The United States was weakened as a result of the long war.
- ② American society had never been so divided since the Civil War.
- ③ There was serious disagreement within the ruling circle. (War Power Act)
- ④ The image of the United States was discredited.

## VII. United State's Relations with China – Taiwan Problem

1. Hostility: ① 1959, Mutual Defence Treaty; ② Taiwan Straits Crises.
2. Friendly:
  - ① 1960s-1970s, U.S. look for a way to improve relation: a. get China's help to withdraw from South Vietnam; b. work with China against Soviet Union
  - ② 1972, Nixon visited China, Shanghai Communique.
  - ③ 1979, establish diplomatic relation.
3. Three conditions: a. U.S. withdraw its troops from Taiwan; b. U.S. end diplomatic relations with Taiwan; c. U.S. cancel the Mutual Defence Treaty.
4. Taiwan Relations Act.

## VIII. McCarthyism

1. Alger Hiss case: Hiss was an official of high position in the State Department. He was accused of being a Soviet spy. Later he was declared guilty of making false statements in court.
2. McCarthyism: McCarthy was U.S. senator in the early 1950s. He started his campaign by saying in 1950 that he had the names of over 200 Communists in the State Department. However, he couldn't point out a single one at that time. Later he accused General Marshall and Eisenhower of helping the Russians in their drive for world domination. His campaign of accusation and anti-Communist hysteria was called McCarthyism.
3. Role of the court
  - ① The court also played a role in approving the lawfulness of anti-Communist activities. The Supreme Court decided that the Smith Act was in line with the Constitution. It also confirmed the conviction of 11 high-ranking Communist leaders on the ground that they violated the Smith Act.
  - ② Smith Act: made it unlawful for any group to advocate or teach the violent overthrow of government in the United States, or for any person to belong to such a group.

## IX. The Civil Rights Movement in the 1950s

1. Little Rock Incident: governor, black students, Little Rock, Eisenhower.
2. Rosa Parks Incident: Rosa Parks, black, bus, seat, arrested.
3. Martin Luther King Junior: a national leader of the Civil Rights movement.

## X. American Society During the Postwar Boom: 1945-1960s

1. Economic boom (25 years): automobile, housing, and defense industries.
2. Baby boom (1946-1961): construction boom, automobile manufacturing, military spending.

## XI. Reform, Radicalism and Disappointment 1961-1973

1. Reform
  - ① New Frontier, Kennedy: promising civil rights for blacks, federal aid to farmers and to education, medical care for all and the abolition of poverty.
  - ② War on Poverty, Johnson: wipe out poverty through education and job training programs. It greatly reduced hunger and suffering in the United States.

③ Supreme court uphold: a. Civil Rights Act of 1964; b. Voting Rights Act of 1965.

## 2. Radicalism

① Martin Luther King's non-violent; Malcolm X's violent.

② black nationalism: the concept that black peoples everywhere in the world shared a unique history and cultural heritage that set them apart from whites.

③ Huron:

a. Students for a Democratic Society.

b. Port Huron Statement: condemned racism, poverty amidst plenty, powerful corporations, and Cold War.

c. Free Speech Movement.

④ Counterculture: a movement of revolt against the moral values, the aesthetic standards, the personal behavior and the social relations of conventional society. Revolutionaries like Mao Zedong became models for some of them. Millions of college youths experimented drugs. Music became the chief vehicle for the counter culture attack on the status quo.

⑤ Feminism, National Organization for Women.

## XII. Watergate Scandal

## XIII. New Conservatism and the Election of Ronald Reagan

1. Reasons for New Conservatism: U.S. suffered from "stagflation". Not only were prices rising, economic growth was slowing. Accompanying the slower growth was rising unemployment. People became more and more disappointed and dissatisfied. American prestige became much lower abroad.
2. New Right: it consists of two groups of people: the firm believers of Protestant religious teachings who were more concerned with social and moral issues, and the intellectuals who were more concerned with political and foreign policy issues.
3. Programs: The New Right demanded equal time in school for the teaching of man created by God as opposed to the teaching of evolution, opposed abortion and "affirmative action", that is, preferential treatment for minorities and women in education and employment, demanded tax cuts and cuts in social security spending and the rebuilding of American military strength.

## Chapter 18 The Economy

### Introduction

1. Fastest: ① less than 6% of the world's population; ② produce about 25% of the total world output.
2. Factors: ① the geographical location provides very good conditions; ② rich in mineral resources and fertile farm soil and moderate climate; ③ enough labor supply; ④ good quality of available labor.

### I. The Economic System of the United States

1. System: free-market economy with a dominant private sector.
  - ① privately produce 85% of the total output of the nation;
  - ② professional produce 3% of the total;
  - ③ government produce 12% of the total;
2. Government policy  
Little involvement → involvement → Keynesian → monetarist.
3. Problem: inflation, unemployment, stagnation, foreign debts, trade deficit.
4. Feature: a high degree of monopoly.

### II. Natural Resources

1. Fertile soil.
2. Forest resources:
  - ① Wood, resin and other forest products are the basic raw materials.
  - ② Forests account for 31% of the total land.

3. Water: ① It furnish 63% of the water supply for cities, towns and farmlands; ② 93% of the water used by industries.
4. Rich in minerals: ① U.S. is among the world leaders in the production of coal, iron ore, copper, oil, sulfur, lead, and zinc; ② U.S. are scarce in tin, manganese, and nickel.
5. The production, processing and marketing of such petroleum products as gasoline make up one of America's largest industries.

### III. American Agriculture

1. Figures: ① farmer make up 2.7% of the total population; ② grows 1/4 of the world's grain; ③ supplies 1/2 of the exports of grain in the world (corn, wheat, rice, soybeans, oranges, meat, milk, apples, oats, cotton, tobacco, peanuts and edible vegetable oil).
2. Modern equipment.
3. Types:
  - ① corn: a. produce 50% of the total in the world; b. Corn Belt - Midwest - Iowa (leading producing state).
  - ② wheat: a. Wheat Belt; b. spring wheat – North Dakota (leading); c. winter wheat – Kansas (leading).
  - ③ rice: the rank of export of rice in the world: Thailand, America.
  - ④ cotton: a. leading commercial crop in the South; b. Cotton Belt.
  - ⑤ tobacco: the world's biggest producer and user.
  - ⑥ animal farming: a. ranching; b. cowboys, which refers to ranch-hands or workers.
  - ⑦ dairy farming: a. Dairy Belt (milk) – Midwest; b. rank of milk production: Wisconsin, New York state.
  - ⑧ fruit: Washington ranks first in the production of apples in the U.S.
4. Problems:

Farming is a tricky business, it is influenced by those factors: ① varies rainfall; ② unexpected hailstorm; ③ insect pests; ④ changeable price; ⑤ government's support spend a lot of money.

### IV. American Industry

1. General feature: Manufacturing account for about 1/4 of the GDP, about 1/4 of the national income, and over 1/5 of the work force.
2. Midwest round the Great Lakes.
  - ① general feature: a. the nation's leading center of heavy industry; b. It is most important in the production of motor vehicles and other transportation equipment, nonelectrical machinery, and fabricated metals.
  - ② factors for industrial leaders: a. raw material; b. mineral; c. cheap and convenient transportation; d. skill labor, home market.
3. Middle Atlantic States.
  - ① general feature: a. highly industrialized region; b. produce chemicals, machinery, electrical equipment, textiles, and metal goods.
  - ② factors: a. location; b. skilled workers supply and a good home market; c. transportation and shipping facilities; d. materials.
4. South.
  - ① general feature: newly developed industrial region;
  - ② factors: a. rich natural resources and raw materials; b. good labor supply and a large home market; c. good transportation; d. seacoast provide good harbors for industrial expansion.
  - ③ fastest growing cities: Huston (the third busiest port in U.S.), New Orleans (the second, the first is New York), Atlanta, Dallas, Louisville, Birmingham, Miami, and Norfolk (the sixth).
  - ④ major cities: a. North and South Carolina and Georgia are the South's leading textile manufacturing states; b. Birmingham is an important iron and steel producing city of the South; Texas is the country's leading state in oil and natural gas deposits; c. Houston is now the greatest commercial center of the Southwest and the chemical capital of the world (a center of petrochemical and synthetic rubber production / the home of the space center);
5. Pacific Coast.

① general feature: a. the land of opportunity; b. California state, the most populous state, first in manufacturing, second in instrument making and lumbering and petroleum refining.

② major cities: a. Los Angeles, the Pacific Coast's largest and busiest commercial city; b. San Francisco, the second largest city in California, is in an excellent position to trade with the Far East and the islands of the Pacific.

#### V. Foreign Trade

1. General situation: The United States is the largest importer in the world, and its exports are about 15% of the world's total.
2. Reasons: It imports about 13% of all world imports, for the heavily dependent on foreign sources for a number of essential primary products.
3. Countries: Canada is the largest single source of goods imported by the U.S., accounting for nearly 30% of the total. Europe is the largest source of imports with about 30%. Asia provides about 18% of American imports, with smaller percentages from Latin America, Africa, and Australia.

#### VI. Problems in the U.S. Economy

1. Problems: Unemployment, inflation, financial deficit, and trade deficit.

### Chapter 19 Political Institutions

#### I. The U.S. Constitution

1. The Constitution of the United States is the basic instrument of American government and the supreme law of the land. It is the oldest written constitution in the world.
2. How was it drafted?
  - ① After the War of Independence, the thirteen colonies became thirteen independent nations.
  - ② They don't want to give up their independence, so they set up a loosely knit organization.
  - ③ At the Second Continental Congress, they adopted a constitution, the Articles of Confederation.
  - ④ But, they found there were weakness within it.
  - ⑤ They try to revise this weakness, but they failed.
  - ⑥ This turned out to be a new constitution.
  - ⑦ The new constitution was officially adopted on March 4, 1789. (first passed by Delaware in 1787)
3. Federal system  
Two layers of rule: ① central or federal government; ② state and local governments.
4. Separation of Powers: checks and balances
  - ① three branches: a. the legislative; b. the executive; c. the judicial.
  - ② How do they limit each other?

Each has part of the powers but not all the power. And each branch of government can check the actions of the other branches. The three branches are thus in balance. For example, Congress may pass a law, but the president can veto or cancel it. Then Congress may pass the law again with two-thirds vote and the president cannot veto it. But the law may still be cancelled if the Supreme Court decides that it goes against the Constitution.
  - ③ Underlying idea: "You make it less probable that a majority of the whole will have a common motive to invade the rights of other citizens;" -- James Madison, one of the chief writers of the Constitution
5. Provisions for amendment
  - ① Changes would be needed from time to time if the Constitution were to endure and keep pace with the growth of the nation.
  - ② Their solution was to devise a dual process by which the Constitution could be changed.
    - a. The Congress may initiate an amendment with 2/3 vote in each house.
    - b. The legislatures of 2/3 of the states may ask Congress to draft amendments.
    - c. In either case, amendments must have the approval of the 3/4 of the states before they enter into force.
6. Bill of Rights

① When the Constitution was being drafted, some people find there was not include a bill of rights. They were disappointed. The supporters of Constitution agreed to work for a bill of rights but the Constitution had to be adopted first.

② The Bill of Rights refers to the first ten amendments to the Constitution.

## II. The Executive Branch

### 1. The Presidency

① general: The President is called the first citizen and his wife is called the First Lady. His official residence is the White House. A president can be elected to office only twice.

② qualification: a natural-born American citizen with an age at least 35 years old.

③ presidential election: every 4 years (in years divisible evenly by 4) on the first Tuesday of November.

④ “winner-take-all”: The presidential candidate with the highest number of votes in each state wins all the electoral votes of that state. (except Maine)

⑤ Electoral College: Comprised by the electors of all 50 states and the District of Columbia (538 person).

⑥ the 20<sup>th</sup> Amendment: The presidential term begins on January 20, which was on March before 1933.

⑦ steps after the election: a. with an inauguration ceremony, the President starts his official duties; b. by an inaugural address, the President outlines the policies and plans of his administration; c. finally, there is an oath-taking ceremony, which is administered by the Chief Justice of the United States.

### 2. Presidential Powers

① Legislative powers: The President shares certain lawmaking powers with Congress. (write or veto bill)

② Executive powers: a. The highest duty of the President is the execution, or carrying out of the law; b. He can issue executive orders; c. He is the Commander-in-chief of the armed forces of the United States.

③ Powers in foreign affairs: With the Secretary of State, President is responsible for the relations of the United States with foreign nations.

④ Judicial power: The Constitution allows the President to give reprieves (which stops the carrying out of a sentence) and pardons (which forgives an individual for a crime one may have committed) in federal criminal cases. He can even offer an amnesty (which give pardon to a group of people).

### 3. The Executive departments

① President's Cabinet: The head of the departments, chosen by the President and approved by the Senate, form a council of advisers.

② Executive Office of the President:

13 departments	
The Department of State	The Department of Labour
The Department of Treasury	The Department of Health and Human Services
The Department of Defence	The Department of Housing and Urban Development
The Department of Justice	The Department of Transportation
The Department of interior	The Department of Energy
The Department of Agriculture	The Department of Education
The Department of Commerce	
4 staff organizations	
the White House Staff	the Council of Economic Advisers
the Office of Management and Budget	the Office of Emergency Preparedness

## III. The Legislative Branch

### 1. Two-chamber Congress: Senate and House of Representatives.

	Members of Senate	Members of House of Representatives
Qualification	Age $\geq$ 30 years; Citizen $\geq$ 9 years	Age $\geq$ 25 years; Citizen $\geq$ 7 years

Number	2 Senators each state	According to the population of state
Term	6 years	2 years
Other	Every 2 years 1/3 of them be re-election	The life of a Congress is considered 2 years
General	Sessions: each January 3 in the Capitol Building in Washington D.C.	

## 2. Powers of the House and Senate

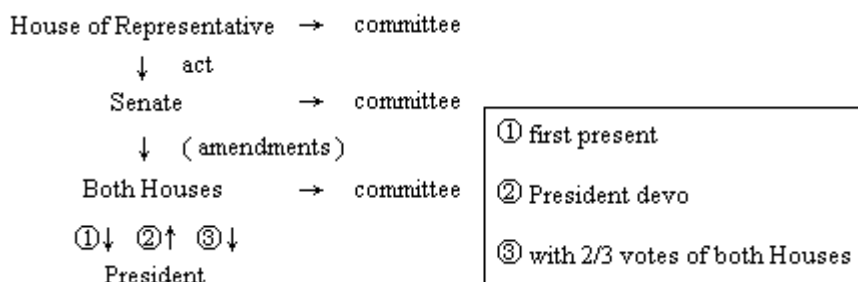
- ① House of Representatives: a. revenue bills; b. bring charges of federal official.
- ② Senate: a. confirm appointments; b. ratify treaties; c. try cases of federal official.

## 3. Officers of the Congress

- ① Senate: President of the Senate (Vice President).
- ② House of Representative: Speaker of the House.

## 4. Functions of the Congress

- ① The most central function is the passage of laws.



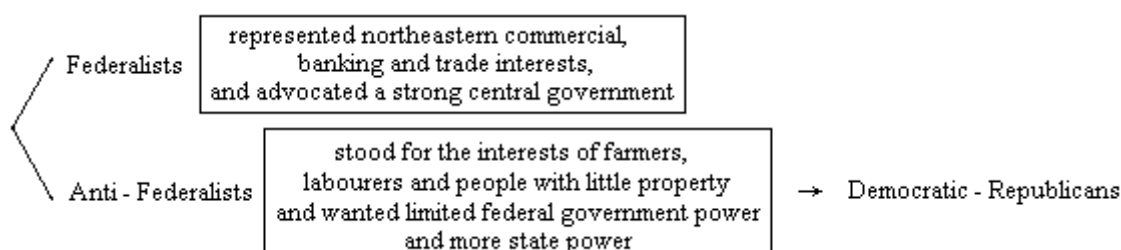
- ② Another function include investigate and compel testimony.

## IV. The Judicial Branch

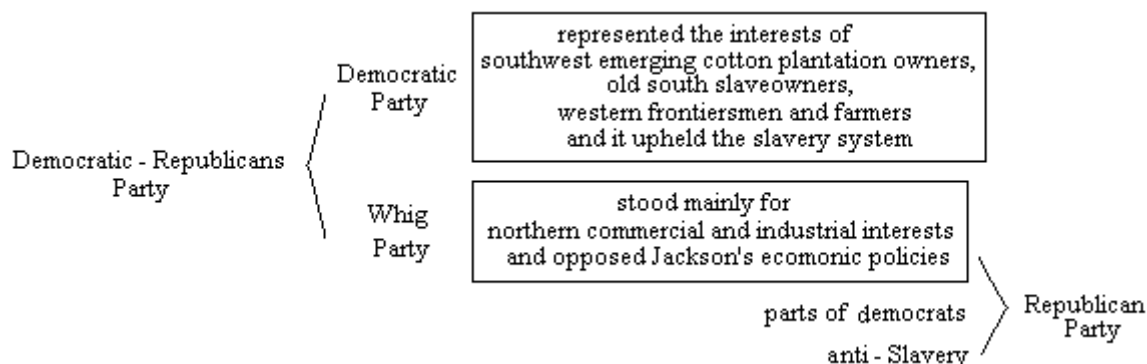
1. The judicial system has evolved into 4 layers: the Supreme Court, 11 courts of appeals, 91 district courts, and 3 courts of special jurisdiction.
2. The Supreme Court
  - ① The Supreme Court is the highest court of the United States and is the only organ which has the power to interpret the Constitution.
  - ② The Supreme Court at present consists of a Chief Justice and eight Associate justices.
  - ③ The Supreme Court has original jurisdiction in only two kinds of cases: those involving foreign dignitaries, and those to which a state is a party.
3. Courts of Appeals and District Courts
  - ① Courts of Appeals help handle cases and ease the burden on the Supreme Court. And District Courts do the same function to Courts of Appeals.
  - ② 91 district courts comprised by: a. 89 districts (among 50 states); b. 1 in the District of Columbia; c. 1 in the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico (which is not a state of the union but the part of the United States).

## V. Political Parties

1. Political parties are the basis of the American political system. In general, America has a two-party system, the Democrats and the Republicans, dominate politics at the federal, state and local levels.
2. History
  - ① 18<sup>th</sup>: two major parties aroused when the debate over the ratification of the Constitution began.



② 1828 – 1860:



③ 1860s – 1920s: Republican Party.

④ 1920s – 1980s: Democratic Party.

3. Differences

① On economic issues: a. Democrats traditionally favour government intervention; b. Republicans stress the role of the market more.

② On social issues: a. Democrats support a strong social security system; b. the Republicans oppose large governmental social security programs.

4. Features

The two parties are actually loose political coalitions. The two parties both believe in individualism, defend capitalism and uphold private ownership of means of production.

5. State parties

The state parties are independent and the National Committee does not have any power over them nor can it remove any of the officials elected by them. In fact, it is a coalition of interests and interest groups.

6. Main function

American politics is party politics and no one can hope to win any election if he does not have a party to back him. So a party's main function is to help its candidates win elections. It is almost impossible for an independent candidate to win an election, especially a nation-wide or state-wide election.

7. Reasons of decline of American political parties' influence

① the decline of patronage using the Party's influence to bring material benefits to its followers;

② the wide use of direct primaries' initial voting by members to select candidates for elections.

## Chapter 20 Education

### I .Education

1. It is a general view that every American has the right and obligation to become educated. Americans believe that, through education, an individual acquires the knowledge, skills, attitudes and abilities which will enable him to fit into society and improve his social status.

2. Characteristics of American Education

① Formal education in the United States consists of elementary, secondary and higher education. Elementary and secondary education, which forms public education, is free and compulsory.

② Education is a function of the state, not the federal government. There is not a national system of education in the United States.

③ Characteristics

a. Diversity is considered to be an outstanding characteristic of American education.

b. On the other hand, there is a remarkable sameness in these systems.

### II .Elementary and Secondary Education

1. Elementary and secondary education in the United States covers 12 years for ages 6 through 18.



2. The revenues to operate schools primarily come from states and localities.
3. It is common that each state delegates its power to an elected or appointed state board of education.
4. The typical organizational pattern for elementary and secondary schools is that of graded schools.
  - ① Usually, the elementary school covers grades 1-8 and the high school 9-12.
  - ② The pattern under which the elementary school covers grades 1-5 or 6, the junior high school 6 or 7-9, and the high school 10-12 is also common.
5. There is a certain degree of similarity in the elementary school curriculum. It mainly consists of mastery of the “basics”, such as reading, writing, and arithmetic or mathematics. Social studies, science, foreign languages, music, health and physical education are also included in almost all grades above the third.
6. High schools are made up of comprehensive, academic, vocational and technical schools with somewhat different tasks. A typical high school curriculum includes almost all the subjects for elementary schools, but is more specialized.
  - ① English courses stress grammar and literature.
  - ② History is split into separate courses in American history, American government and European history.
  - ③ Algebra, geometry and trigonometry are offered, and a one-year course in general science, and then more detailed courses in biology, chemistry and physics are usually required.
  - ④ Many high schools offer dozens and sometimes hundreds of electives, ranging from philosophy and creative writing to community services.
7. A typical school day is 6-7 hours, and a typical school year is 180 school days, usually beginning classes in early September and finishing the school year soon after the end of May.

### III. Higher Education

1. Higher education in the United States began with the founding of Harvard College in 1636.
2. According to the 1994 *Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education*, there are 125 research universities, 111 doctoral universities, 529 master's comprehensive colleges and universities, 637 liberal arts colleges offering BA degree, 1471 junior colleges and 722 specialized institutions.
3. The system of higher education in the United States has three principal functions: teaching, research and public service.
4. Famous universities are Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Columbia and MIT (Massachusetts Institute of Technology) in the east, as well as Stanford and Berkeley on the west coast.
5. The total funding for higher education was approximately \$100 billion. There is a fierce competition for dollars from public and private sources. Administrators both at public and private institutions usually spend a major part of their time trying hard to find resources to support their institutions.
6. New York, Rhode Island, and Michigan set policy for education at all levels, but other states have separate university boards for higher education. Except for some colleges sponsored by the Catholic church, all colleges and universities in the United States, public and private, are governed by a board of trustees composed primarily of laymen.
  - ① The board has total authority as the legal body responsible for the institution, although it delegates much of it to administrators and faculty.
  - ② In most states, trustees (or regents) for boards of state colleges and universities are nominated by the governor of the state, subject to approval by the state senate.
7. Admission to an institution is determined by each college or university. It is selective and competitive, especially in private institutions.
  - ① The general standards for admission include successful completion of high school, high school grade point average (GPA) and class rank, courses studied in areas of English, mathematics, and science, and results from standardized tests such as the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and American College Testing Program's examination (ACTP).
  - ② However open admissions are also being practiced in some public institutions. Admission to some of these institutions requires a high school diploma or its equivalent, but in most cases, involves almost no restriction.
8. Students pay tuition and other educational fees for the higher education they receive. Tuition varies from year to year, state to state and institution to institution, and there is a significant difference between tuition rates in public and

private institutions.

- ① In the past 10 years, tuition has risen tremendously by almost 2 or 3 times.
  - ② Professional programs, both in private and public institutions, are generally even more expensive.
  - ③ For students from other states, the cost is usually doubled. International students fall into the category of out-of-state students, but private colleges and universities charge the same rate of tuition for in-state and out-of-state students.
9. In almost all undergraduate curricula in the United States, the student takes a fixed part of the undergraduate curriculum in general education. The part varies considerably.
  10. The general education requirement in a college or university applies to all students regardless of their field of specialization and includes studies in writing, literature, history, biological sciences, physical sciences, mathematics, social-behavioral sciences and fine arts, usually at the freshman and sophomore levels.
  11. The community called for education to serve the good of both the individual and society.
    - ① Five main functions.
      - c. It prepares students for transferring to a BA program at a four-year institution.
      - d. It provides vocational training for people who are already working or expect to be working in the near future.
      - e. It gives remedial instruction to higher school students who are under prepared for college academically and adults who did not learn basic skills in elementary or secondary school.
      - f. It offers recreational, cultural activities for adults who are not seeking regular vocational or academic skills.
      - g. It absorbs students in a four-year program who are not qualified into a lower-status vocational program.
    - ② The guiding principle of community college is higher education for everyone and the philosophy that equality must mean equal opportunity for self-realization and for the recognition of individual differences.
    - ③ The community college as an institution is one of the most important innovations in the history of American higher education. It has played an important role in making higher education more accessible and in meeting the needs of educated adults, employees of local business, professionals requiring certification as well as community organizations.

#### IV. Adult Education

1. It is called “continuing education” programs or “lifelong education” programs.

#### V. Education Reforms

1. In the 1980s, the problems in education again drew the attention of many people. A report entitled “A Nation At Risk” was issued points as follows:
  - ① high rates of adult illiteracy;
  - ② declining SAT scores;
  - ③ decline of educational standards.
2. At the beginning of 1990s, people found that the reform efforts of the 1980s had little impact. Concern was widespread that American school children were not well-prepared for life in the twenty-first century.
3. In 1995, some improvement has been made in American schools, but there are still some problems. (“America 2000: An Education Strategy”)
  - ① The nation’s high school graduation rate remains 86%.
  - ② There has been no increase in the enrollment for college.
  - ③ Violence is still a serious problem in American schools and the number of students who take drugs keeps going up.

### Chapter 21 Literature, Architecture and Music

#### I. American Literature

1. Benjamin Franklin was the only writer in the colonial period whose works are read today.
  - ① “Lost time is never found again” “God helps those who help themselves” are very famous sayings in his *Poor Richard’s Almanac*, which is an annual collection of proverbs.
  - ② His uncompleted Autobiography is perhaps the first real American writing as well as the first real autobiography in English.

## 2. Washington Irving

- ① The real American literature began after the American War of Independence and Washington Irving was the first American writer who gained international fame.
- ② The period from 1810 to 1840 is known as the “knickerbockers era” of American literature.
- ③ His most famous book *The Sketch Book* contains two of the best-loved stories from American literature: “Rip Van Winkle” and “The Legend of Sleepy Hollow”. The plots of both stories are based on old German folk tales but Irving fills them with the “local color” of New York’s Hudson River Valley.

## 3. Emerson and Hawthorn

- ① In the 1830s and 1840s, there emerged a movement among American young intellectuals which emphasized man’s potentiality for goodness, creativity, and self-development. Ralph Waldo Emerson was regarded as the leader of the movement.
- ② Emerson
  - a. In 1836, Emerson published his famous book *Nature*, which is the clearest statement of Transcendentalist ideas.
  - b. In 1837, Emerson gave a speech at Harvard University: “The American Scholar”, which was considered the intellectual Declaration of Independence.
- ③ Hawthorn
  - a. Nathaniel Hawthorne was one of those who attacked transcendentalism.
  - b. In *The Scarlet Letter*, Hawthorne considers the effect on an individual’s character of guilty conscience, of hypocrisy, and of hatred.

## 4. Mark Twain

- ① Mark Twain’s real name was Samuel Langhorne Clemens.
- ② *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* was an immediate success as “a boy book”, and *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* became his master work.
- ③ *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* tells a story about the United States before the civil war and the journey along the Mississippi River. The novel shows the basic goodness and wisdom of ordinary people and describes the social life of American people.

## 5. Whitman and Dickinson

- ① Whitman
  - a. In Whitman’s masterpiece *Leaves of Grass*, he praised the ideas of equality and democracy and celebrated the dignity, the self-reliant spirit and the joy of the common man.
  - b. Whitman was the first to explore fully the possibilities of free verse.
- ② Emily Dickinson differs from Whitman in a variety of ways. She was born and lived a quiet, very private life. Because she was cut off from the outside world, she was able to create a very personal and pure kind of poetry.

## 6. Theodore Dreiser

- ① During the last decades of the 19<sup>th</sup> century and the first decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, some American writers in their works reported truthfully and objectively the life in the slums. They called themselves naturalists and Dreiser was their representative.
- ② His first novel *Sister Carrie* traces the material rise of Carrie Meeber and the tragic decline of Hurstwood.
- ③ Dreiser’s purpose: a description of the actual state of things in the United States.
- ④ Dreiser is also famous for his *Trilogy of Desire* – *The Financier*, *The Titan*, and *The Stoic*, And *An American Tragedy*, which is considered to be his best.

## 7. T. S. Eliot

- ① His masterpiece, “The Waste Land”, reveals the spiritual crisis of Post War Europe, and is considered the manifesto of the “Lost Generation”.
- ② He won the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1946.

## 8. Ernest Hemingway

- ① Ernest Hemingway was one of the most important American writers in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and was the spokesman for the “Lost Generation” of young intellectuals who became disappointed and bitter after World War I.
- ② In *The Sun Also Rises*, he described “Expatriates” are not only physically impotent, but spiritually impotent too. They are “lost”. Thus, the whole generation becomes the “Lost Generation”.
- ③ *A Farewell to Arms* and *For Whom the Bell Tolls*, are two novels about the First and the Second World War.
- ④ *Old Man and the Sea*, which is considered by many critics as his representative work, Hemingway praises the old fisherman’s attitude towards defeat and failure and thinks that to face defeat courageously and not to take defeat lying down is an admirable quality of man.

#### 9. Hughes and Wright

- ① In the 1920s, Black Literature developed into an upsurge which has come to be known as the Harlem Renaissance. Harlem is the North-eastern part of New York City where black people are concentrated and wrote freely what they wanted to say. They managed to build a battle literature which reflects the feeling, the experience, the history, and the ambitions of the black people. Langston Hughes and Richard Wright were the major figures of those Black writers.
- ② Wright’s masterpiece, *Native Son*, was the first book by a Black author about Black life. In the novel the hero, Bigger Thomas’s fears of the white world cause confusion. And this confusion leads to his crimes. He murders a white woman and murders his own lover. Wright makes readers see that the social situation of blacks causes Bigger to become violent.

### II .Architecture

1. Sears Tower was completed in 1974 in Chicago. It rises 110 stories high, 1454 feet above ground level and is the tallest building in the world.
2. World Trade Center is in New York city.

### III.Music

1. Jazz, Rock and Roll and Western and country music are the main types of popular music.
2. Jazz is considered the United States’ unique contribution to music.
  - ① Jazz began in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century as a music of black Americans.
  - ② It was intended for singing, for dancing and for entertainment and atmosphere at parties or social gatherings.
  - ③ Jazz represents a blending of musical elements from Africa and from Europe. It is irregular in rhythm (polyrhythmic).
3. Country and western music
  - ① It is a native American music and its origins lie in the folk songs of the English, Scottish, and Irish people who settled in Southeastern United States.
  - ② It was blended with other styles – blues, jazz, and the sentimental ballads of the South-west.

## Chapter 22 Holidays and Festivals

### I .New Year’s Day

1. Welcoming the new year is one of the oldest and gayest customs the world over.
2. The celebration of this holiday begins the night before – on New Year’s Eve. People like to hold big parties or go to restaurants, where they have a big dinner. They also make New Year’s decisions.
3. The activities at this festival.
  - ① Most exciting places in the United States on New Year’s Eve is Times Square in New York City.
  - ② Mummers Parade held in Philadelphia is one of the most popular New Year’s Day activities.
  - ③ The Rose Tournament is held in Pasadena, California.
  - ④ People enjoy the famous Rose Bowl football game or other football competitions in a stadium.

### II .Martin Luther King’s Day (Third Monday of January)

1. Martin Luther King was a black minister, who became a great leader of the civil rights movement in the 1950s and 1960s.
2. The best-known speech is “I Have a Dream”.

3. He was awarded the Nobel Prize for peace in 1964.
4. After he died, King was greatly respected and loved by the Americans, both white and black. By vote of Congress, the third Monday of every January is now a federal holiday in Martin Luther King's honour.

### III. Lincoln's Birthday (February 12)

1. He was America's sixteenth President.
2. He led the country during the difficult time of Civil War.
3. He issued the Emancipation Proclamation, which officially freed all slaves in the United States.
4. As a symbol of liberty and justice, Lincoln Memorial is situated in West Potomac Park, Washington D.C.

### IV. Valentine's Day (February 14)

### V. Washington's Birthday (February 22)

1. He is the first President of the United States of America, and also as "the Father of his Country".
2. He led the people to win the War of Independence and a new nation was born.
3. He was surely the "first in war, first in peace, first in the hearts of his countrymen."

### VI. Easter Sunday (A Sunday in March or April)

1. It is on the first Sunday after the full moon that occurs on or after March 21, and it is for celebrating the rising of Jesus Christ from his tomb.
2. American children will carry small basket to look for colored eggs that have been hidden in the grass. They also play egg rolling.
3. The most famous Easter parade is along the Fifth Avenue in New York City.

### VII. Memorial Day (Last Monday in May)

1. It is a day to honour the memory of those who have given their lives for their country.
2. This day is originally called "Decoration Day".

### VIII. Independence Day (July 4)

1. It is America's most important patriotic holiday, the birthday of the nation.
2. On July 4, 1776, the Continental Congress passed and adopted the Declaration of Independence.
3. People will bring their children to visit the birthplace of the nation – Philadelphia.

### IX. Halloween (October 31)

1. Nowadays, more and more children have asked for pennies instead of candies for UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund) to help children in other countries.
2. The 1965 Nobel Peace Prize was awarded to American children.

### X. Veterans' Day (November 11)

1. It honours the memory of all men who have ever fought in defense of the country.

### XI. Thanksgiving Day (Fourth Thursday of November)

1. The theme of thanksgiving has always been peace and plenty, health and happiness.
2. The first Thanksgiving Day was celebrated by the English settlers in Plymouth, Massachusetts on December 13, 1621.
3. The "Puritans", so called because they wanted to "Purify" the Church of England, came to America by Mayflower with 102 people. The first winter was terrible, and only half of them survived. The native Indians became their friends and help them. The Pilgrims reaped a good harvest in the fall. Thus they invited Indians to have a big feast to thank God for his love and mercy.

### XII. Christmas Day (December 25)

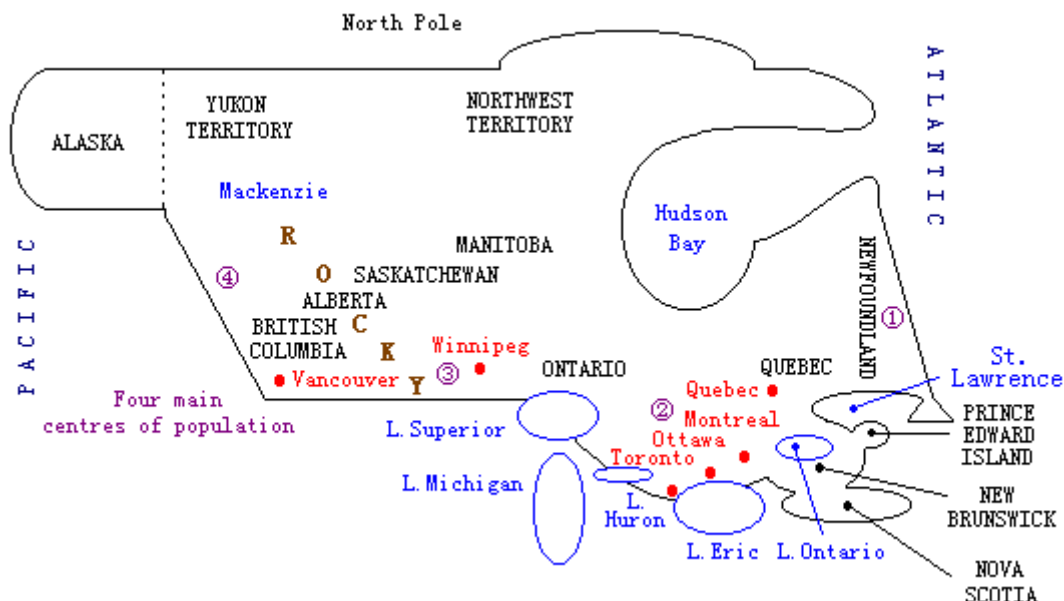
1. Christmas Day is celebrates the birth of Jesus Christ.
2. The Friday after Thanksgiving is the biggest shopping day of the year.
3. The Christmas tree is very popular during this time. Rockfeller Center in New York City has put up a very tall Christmas tree.
4. Most people exchange presents and send Christmas cards.
5. Many families go to church on Christmas Eve or Christmas morning. (choral music: "Messiah")

## Part Four Canada

### Chapter 23 Geography and History

#### I .Geographical Features

1. Size and location: Canada is the world's second largest country. It has a land area of about 10 million square kilometers (9,976,186 to be exact), which covers about 2/5 of the North American continent



2. Population (over 29 million in 1994)
  - ① thinly inhabited: a. 89% of the land has no permanent population; b. 80% of Canadians live in large cities near the border with U.S; c. 60% of the population is concentrated between Quebec City and the western end of Lake Ontario.
  - ② 3 largest cities: Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver.
  - ③ 4 main centers of population: a. the farming, mining and fishing towns of the Atlantic Coast; b. the large manufacturing cities of southern Quebec and Ontario; c. the wheat, cattle, and oil cities of the plains area; d. the Pacific coast of British Columbia.
  - ④ The famous Canadian Mounted Police are still the symbol of law and order in these isolated regions of Canada.
3. Topography
  - ① Extremely varied: a. In the east, it has an irregular coastline; b. St. Lawrence plain and the interior continental plain; c. Westward towards the Pacific, the area is covered by mountain ranges; d. The Pacific border has channels.
  - ② Highest peak in Canada is Mount Logan (6,050m).
  - ③ Great Lakes and nine others.
  - ④ The two principal river systems are the Mackenzie (the second largest river system of North America) and the St. Lawrence.
4. Climate

Generally speaking the climate in Canada is unfavorable. Because of the cold climate that exists throughout most of Canada, a major part of the population lives along the southern border.	
Eastern Canada to the Canadian prairie	A humid continental climate
Southwestern part of British Colombia	A maritime climate
North	Subarctic
Far north	Polar climate

5. Geographical regions  
Canada is made up of ten provinces and two territories. From east to west they can be divided into six geographical regions: Atlantic provinces, St. Lawrence-Great Lakes provinces, the Canadian Shield, Prairie provinces, British



Colombia, Northern provinces and territories.

Region	Business activity
Atlantic provinces	① farming difficult (except potatoes); ② good fishing harbors (Grand Banks, one of the world's great ones); ③ manufacturing (Nova Scotia); ④ mineral; ⑤ tourism.
St. Lawrence-Great Lakes	① most developed part of Canada (River and the Great Lakes provide the most fertile land which is accessible to European settlers, so it is the most densely populated and industrialized part of Canada.); ② Quebec has a strong French culture: a. Quebec city is called the cultural capital of the province; b. Montreal is the second largest city of Canada; ③ Ontario is the chief manufacturing district (Ottawa, the capital of Canada, is located here. Half of the population of the city are French speaking and half are English speaking.).
Canadian Shield	① wealth of minerals; ② much water power; ③ great forests.
Prairie Provinces	① This region is the Canadian section of the Great Plains of North America which provide level and fertile grasslands (which is good for wheat); ② mineral of oil, gas, coal and potash; ③ Winnipeg is the chief city of the wheat region, which is called the Chicago of Canada.
British Columbia	① Vancouver is British Columbia's largest city and the third largest city in Canada, which is the largest cargo port on the Pacific.
Northern provinces	① It takes up 4/5 of the country, and includes the Yukon Territory and Northwest Territories.

## II. The Making of Canada

### 1. The process of the start of French Canada.

- ① The actual settlement of New France began in 1604 at Port Royal in what is now Nova Scotia.
- ② In 1608, Samuel de Champlain established his "habitation" in Quebec City, to lay the roots of French Canada.

### 2. Process

Stage	British	French
European discovery	1497, John Cabot, discovered and claimed Newfoundland and the east coast of Canada in the name of King Henry VII	1535, Jacques Cartier, sailed up the St. Lawrence River to Montreal and opened the interior of Canada to French fur traders and later colonizers
	1610, Henry Hudson, give his name to the center of Canada – Hudson bay	1604, Port Royal (Nova Scotia), the actual settlement of New France
	1670, English Hudson Bay Company, established	1608, Samuel de Champlain, establish "habitation" (Quebec City) and lay the roots of French Canada
	1713, conflict between the English and French for the valuable fisheries and fur trade, Britain gain Newfoundland, Hudson Bay and Nova Scotia	
	1756-1763, Seven Years' War, Britain gain every inch of land of French in North America under Treaty of Paris (the whole of Canada come under the British rule)	
	1763, British province of Quebec (French colony on the St. Lawrence), reorganized	
British Canada	Situation in 1763: Although these Montreal merchants ruled Quebec's commerce, they were too few to transform Quebec into an English-speaking province.	
	1774, Quebec Act, British Parliament granted the people of Quebec rights as French Canadians (English criminal, French civil law, right of Catholic Church)	
	Situation: First British settlers were American refugees who felt they were more British than American, and was called Loyalists. They made their way north to settle for the first time such areas as present day southern Ontario and to lay the base of English-speaking Canada.	



	1791, Canada Act, British in Upper (Ontario) Canada and French in Lower (Quebec) Canada
	1837, conflict between upper Canada and Lower Canada
	1839, Lord Durham's report
	1840, Act of Union, the Upper Canada and Lower Canada were united against
	1848, given internal self-government
Canadian nation	1867, federal union "Confederation", includes: Canada (Quebec and Ontario), New Brunswick and Nova Scotia
	1867, British North America Act, dominion
	1931, Statute of Westminster, dominion became a member of the Commonwealth of Nations

### 3. Self-government and Confederation

- ① Under the first prime minister Sir John Macdonald, another provinces were added to those former province.
- ② In 1885 the Canadian Pacific Railway was completed and the country was linked from coast to coast.
- ③ Between 1866 and 1896 (except 1873-1878), Conservative Party dominate, Sir John Macdonald.
- ④ Between 1896 and 1911, Liberal Party dominate, Sir Wilfrid Laurier (French Canadian).
  - g. Canada experienced rapid growth.
  - h. Farm products came east to market and Montreal and Toronto factories boomed.
  - i. In 1905 new western provinces were created.
  - j. Large-scale mining developed.
  - k. Hydroelectric plants and paper mills arose in central Canada.
- ⑤ Under Laurier a change also took place in Canada's foreign relations.
  - h. He founded the Canadian Navy.
  - i. Canada won the right to sign the Peace Treaty of 1919.
  - j. Canada take a seat as a member of the League of Nation.

### 4. The Canadian nation

- ① 1931, Statute of Westminster, formally declared to be partner nations with Britain.
- ② 1949, Newfoundland became Canada's tenth province.
- ③ 1959, the opening of the St. Lawrence Seaway saw a further growth in Canada's economy.

## Chapter 24 The Economy

### I. Natural Resources

1. Water is one of the most important natural resources.
  - ① hydroelectric power (rank in world: United States, Russia and Canada); ② principal transportation route; ③ flow of Canadian rivers represents 1/10 of water of the world.
2. Longest coastlines for fishing
  - ① Newfoundland cod fishery is over 400 years old; ② Nova Scotians built some of the world's greatest sailing ships; ③ Canada has become the world's largest exporter of fish and Britain Columbia and the Atlantic provinces depend on the fishing industry for much of their income.
3. Forests
  - ① Canada ranks third, in the production of lumber and other forest products in the world; ② most of the trees are softwood trees; ③ Canada is the largest producer of newsprint in the world, providing close to 40% of the world total.
4. Furs

### II. Mineral Resources

1. Mineral in Canada
  - ① primary: nickel, zinc, asbestoses; ② second: potash; ③ third: gold; ④ fourth: copper.
2. The importance of Canadian Shield to Canada's economy
 

The Canadian Shield which once was thought to be a wasteland, has proved to be a source of treasure. Major deposits

of Canada, aside from coal, oil, and natural gas, are found in this area.

### 3. Alberta

- ① About 2/3 of Canada's petroleum and about 4/5 of its natural gas come from Alberta.
- ② Pipeline: a. Trans-Canada pipeline; b. Interprovincial Pipeline; c. Transmountain Pipeline.

## III. Agriculture

- 1. Canadian Prairie: ① The Canadian Prairie is the center of a rich wheat belt; ② Oats, barley, and food crops for animals.
- 2. Eastern Canada: ① Dairying is an important industry in the lowlands of Quebec and Ontario; ② Farther east suited for growing potatoes and other root crops.
- 3. The Canadian Pacific coast specializes in fruit growing and dairy farming.

## IV. Manufacturing

- 1. Manufacturing is the most important economic activity in Canada. Food processing is the leading industry. The manufacture of transportation equipment ranks second. The production of paper and paper related products ranks third. Also important is the production of metal products. (Nearly 25% of Canada's GNP comes from manufacturing. 7% GNP are building industry; 6% GNP are automotive industry.)
- 2. Factors: ① improvements in facilities good for transport; ② fuel more accessible; ③ hydroelectric projects; ④ investment capital (4/5 are American)

## V. The Economy Today

### 1. Industries and services

- ① Pattern: Canada has been shifting from a natural resource-based economy (fishing, forestry, agriculture and mining) towards a "white collar" or service economy (finance, real estate, insurance, and personal and business service, they account for 60% of the country's domestic output).
- ② Trade:
  - a. Motor vehicles and parts, machinery and equipment, fabricated metals and other fabricated materials are the main exports. Another major export is expertise.
  - b. Canada's main trading partner is the United States (2/3 of Canada's trade including exports and imports).
  - c. Canada is a world leader in science and technology. It has designed and manufactured one of the world's most advanced communications satellites.

### 2. Economic management

- ① Government involvement extensive in areas as health, social services and transport. Its role in the economy is limited. Governments provide the necessary framework not detail. They create the favorable environment in which private enterprise can attract the investment.
- ② The ultimate authority for Canada's fiscal policy is in the hands of the federal, and ten provincial governments.
- ③ Government owned corporations: Air Canada; the Canadian National Railway; the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation.
- ④ Much of the capital provided by Canadian banks.
- ⑤ Foreign investment capital is important in Canada's economy. Foreign investors have put more than \$456 billion in Canadian companies and corporations and this number is still growing. Most investment is from the United States. U.S. investment accounts for 4/5 of all foreign investment in Canada. European investors account for about 17% of the total amount.

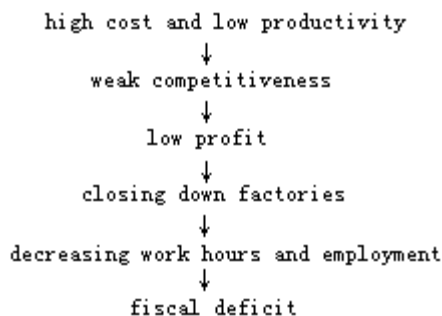
### 3. The work force

- ① Most Canadians are employed by the service sector and manufacturing. 34% in the service trade (rose to 70.1% nowadays); 20% in manufacturing, 18% in trade, 9% in transportation, 12% in construction and finance, 5% in agriculture, 2% in primary industries.
- ② Three Largest labor union: the Canadian Union of Public Employees, the United Steel-workers and the Public Service Alliance of Canada. (70% of union members join the Canadian Labor Congress)

### 4. Economic problems

① Canada's unemployment rate has been high. The unemployment rate in 1990 was 8.1%, and rose to 10% in 1994. It is higher than most of the developed countries.

② Reasons:



③ Regional differences

- a. Ontario and Quebec: most developed area (26% land, 62% population).
- b. Maritime, Prairie, and British Columbia: less developed (Maritime provinces accounts for only 9.1 % population, but they accounts for 14.4% of total unemployed people)

④ Measures

- a. General Development Agreement (helps to coordinate particular development activities to broaden regional and local economic bases, expand production and employment opportunities and assist particular areas in dealing with problems of economic growth and social adjustment)
- b. "equalization payments"
- c. direct federal grants

## Chapter 25 Government and Politics

### I .The System of Government

#### 1. The Government

- ① Federation: a. 10 provinces (4 founding provinces and 6 others); b. 2 territories.
- ② In 1867, the British Parliament passed the British North America (Act) which created a federal union (4 founding provinces).
- ③ The British North America Act provided for the separation and, in certain areas, the sharing of powers.
  - c. The federal Government was assigned powers in areas involving the interests of the whole country. The provinces received exclusive jurisdiction over local or private nature.
  - d. The two levels of government were granted concurrent powers in matters of agriculture, immigration and taxation.

#### 2. The Canadian Constitution

- ① The British North America Act laid the foundation of Confederation, but it doesn't form the entire Canadian Constitution. The Constitution also comprises fundamental acts, customs and parliamentary traditions of British origin.
- ② Constitution Act of 1982, cutting the last legal tie between Canada and Britain, power were transferred from the British government to Canada, and the Canadian Constitution is now entirely in the hands of the Canadians.
- ③ Conferences between the federal and provincial government fall into two categories: administrative and constitutional.

#### 3. Executive power

- ① Head: Queen Elizabeth II . Representation: Governor – General, who acts only on the advice of the Canadian Prime Minister and the Cabinet, who also sit in the federal Parliament.
- ② The Prime Minister is the leader of the majority party in the House of Commons. He and other members of the Cabinet exercise executive power as the "Government". Cabinet, or the "Government", is responsible only to the House of Commons.

#### 4. Legislative power

- ① All the legislative powers are vested in the Parliament of Canada, which consists of the Crown, the Senate and the House of Commons.
- ② Senate: a. has 104 members; b. appointed for life (retire at 75); c. second look at proposed legislation.
- ③ House of Commons: a. 295 members (according to provincial population); b. maximum of five years; c. reach the age of 18 and resides in an electoral area.
- ④ Official Opposition: second highest number of members elected to the House of Commons. Constitutions based on the British parliamentary system give an important place to “the Loyal Opposition”.
5. The provincial government and territories.
  - ① A Lieutenant-Governor represents the Queen in each province.
  - ② Every province has an elected Legislative Assembly, except in Quebec (National Assembly) and Newfoundland (House of Assembly).
  - ③ Each Territory is administered by a Commissioner and assisted by an elected Council.
6. Laws and courts
  - ① Canadian law has its source in acts and judicial decisions, and also in British “common law”.
  - ② Quebec’s system is based on French civil law, particularly in matters concerning the person, the family and property.
  - ③ The federal Parliament created the Supreme Court of Canada, the Federal Court and various courts of special jurisdiction.

## II. Political Parties

1. Two-party system

There are two main federal parties in Canada. They are the Liberal Party and the Progressive Conservative Party.
2. One-party rule

The history of federal politics shows that one main political party may win so many elections and dominate the Canadian politics for so long that it becomes the main ruling party.
3. Other political parties

Both of the two main federal parties need the support of a third party: the New Democratic Party, the Social Credit Party.

## III. The Separatist Issue in Quebec

1. Size and location.
  - ① Population about 6.5 million which accounting for 27% of the total.
  - ② 90% of the population is concentrated in the south.
2. Importance

Quebec is one of Canada’s two most important provinces. The city of Montreal is the chief port and the second largest city in Canada. It is also a busy center of Canadian commerce and the largest overseas grain-shipping city in the world. Southern part of Quebec and Ontario is the most highly developed part of Canada, and it is known as the heartland of Canada.
3. Quiet Revolution

It has been trying to seek either a special status within Canada or outright independence.
4. Difference

It has a strong French culture. French Canadians is accounting for 81.9% of the total population of the province. Their language, traditions, culture and institutions set Quebec apart from all other provinces.
5. Protest (over language, economy and politics)
  - ① Parti Quebecois (founded in 1968) is moderate one.
  - ② Front de Liberation du Quebec (founded in 1962) is radical one
6. Struggle
  - ① language
    - a. In 1969, bilingualism, the Official Language Act made both French and English the official languages of this

largely English-speaking country.

- b. Bilingualism has not had its desired effect.
- c. Unilingual, “Charter of the French Language in Quebec” made French the official language of the province.

② Economy

- c. introduce changes into the workplace so that French Canadians would have better jobs and career opportunities in the private sector;
- d. support and assist French Canadian businessmen and companies so that they would grow and gain a larger share of the market;
- e. have large Canadian and international corporations which operated in the province take Quebec’s specific needs increasingly into account;
- f. make the Quebec government a major partner with private enterprise in Quebec’s economic development.

③ Politics

- a. 2 goals: to increase Quebec’s influence in Confederation and to make itself the government with primary responsibility for French Canadians.
- b. Meech Lake Accord, an agreement offering the province special status within the country and privileges to promote its French culture and language.

## Chapter 26 Society and Culture

### I .Canadian Society

#### 1. Population

- ① It ranks second in land area but thirty first in population in the world.
- ② It is the country with most nationalities as many as 100. Components: British (44.6%), French (28.7%), the native people (the Eskimo or Inuit) and Indians (1.5%), and immigration.
- ③ The native people of Canada came from Asia in prehistoric times. The word Inuit means “the people” in their own language, whereas Eskimo is an Indian word meaning “eaters of raw flesh”. In addition to the Inuit there are Indians. It is said that as many as over 50 languages are spoken by the Indians.

#### 2. Immigration

- ① It is estimated that 1/6 of Canadians were born in other countries. So people often say that the history of Canada is a history of immigration.
- ② In the past Britain and Western Europe were the principal sources of immigration. But in recent years there has an increase in those from Asia, the Caribbean and the United States.
- ③ Policy shifts.

Name	Time	Note
Free immigration	1867-1896	
Selected immigration	1896-1914	
Restricted immigration	1914-1945	
Encouraging migration	Since 1945	
Point system	Since 1967	There was racial discrimination against Asian immigrants before 1967
The new federal Immigration Act (1978)	1978	Fundamental objectives of Canadian immigration law: family unification, non-discrimination, concern for refugees and the promotion of Canada’s economic, social, demographic and cultural goals. Three admissible classes: the family class, convention refugees and independent immigrants.

Citizenship Act	1977	Eliminates distinctions based on country of previous citizenship; Reduces the continuous residency requirement from 5 to 3 years.
Towards “economic” immigrants	Present	Including skilled workers and business people.

### 3. Bilingualism

- ① English and French are the two official languages in Canada. They have equal status and rights.
- ② 67% of Canadians speak English only; 18% speak French only; little more than 13% speak both languages; 2% speak neither.
- ③ French-speaking and English-speaking Canadians share many institutions which operate in both official languages.

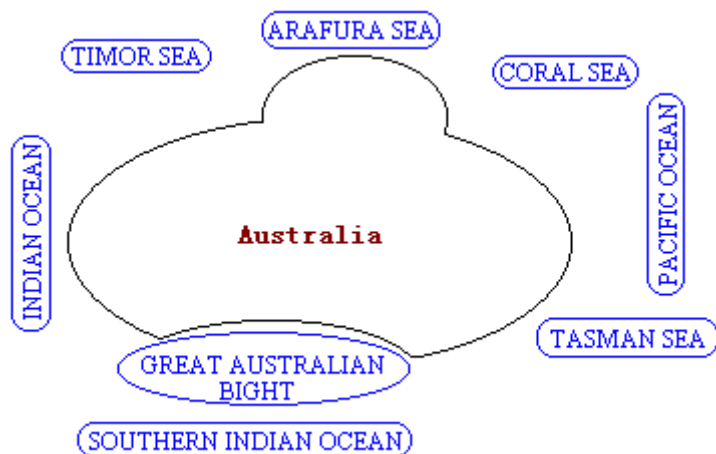
## Part Five Australia

### Chapter 27 Land and People

#### I .Introduction

##### 1. Geographical location of Australia

Australia is in the southern hemisphere. In other words it lies south of the equator. It is surrounded by the Tasman Sea and the Pacific Ocean to the east, by the Indian Ocean to the west, by the Coral Sea, the Arafura Sea and Timor Sea to the north, and the Southern Indian Ocean and the Great Australian Bight to the south.



2. Australia is popularly known in the West as “the Land Down Under”.
3. The geographical features of Australia as a continent
  - ① Australia is the world’s smallest continent.
  - ② Australia is the only continent that contains one country.
  - ③ It is the flattest and lowest of the continents and the only continent where people can get to the top of the highest mountain by car.
4. Australia is the world’s sixth largest country after Russia, Canada, China, the USA and Brazil.
5. The highest point is Mount Kosciusko at 2,255 metres above sea level.

#### II .The Geographical Structure

1. Three topographical regions: ① the Great Western Plateau; ② the Eastern Highlands; ③ the great lowland belt known as the Central Eastern Lowlands.
2. Features:

Region	Name	Features
Great Western Plateau	Outback	① a vast upland; ② cover 2/3 of the continent; ③ rather flat; ④ very dry.

Eastern Highland	Great Dividing Range	① low, broad in the north; ② high in the south.
	① The Australian Alps, the highest plateau in Australia; ② Off the north-eastern coast is a line of coral islands and reefs known as the Great Barrier Reef; ③ The Murray is Australia's longest river.	
Central Eastern Lowlands	Red Centre	① Lake Eyre is regarded as Australia's largest lake, but it is known as a part-time lake; ② This lowland area has the country's richest farmland and best grazing land.

### III.Climate

#### 1. General feature: hot and dry.

- ① A hot continent.
- ② A dry continent.

- e. The lowest annual rainfall occurs at Lake Eyre in South Australia; The highest rainfall is on the eastern coast of Queensland.
- f. Drought is a fact of life in Australia. The worst one, which was between 1885 and 1903, affected the whole of Australia.

#### 2. Causes of the climate

- ① Most of Australia lies 20° and 35° south. This is a hot, dry area of the world.
- ② Australia has few mountains.
- ③ The air masses are dry, sunny, high pressure cells.
- ④ Distance from the ocean also affects the weather.

#### 3. Effects of the climate: The climate has a great effect on vegetation. Only small plants are suitable to grow.

### IV.Plants and Animals

#### 1. Plants: ① Eucalypts; ② wattles.

#### 2. Animals: ① Kangaroos (Marsupials refers to animals whose babies are raised in a bag of skin called a pouch on the mother's belly); ② emus; ③ budgerigar.

### V.People

#### 1. Population

- ① The reason for Australia become a multicultural society: Aboriginal people cover about 1.5% of Australia's population. The majority are immigrants from over 30 countries, or their descendants. These people have come from other countries with a different culture. Australian governments have encouraged people to keep their own cultures. This policy is called multiculturalism.
- ② The influence made by other countries: Great Britain has had the greatest influence because Australia was settled as a British colony. The increasing influence of other countries is obvious. The United States of America is one such country and Japan is another.

#### 2. Population density and distribution

- ① 80% of Australians live in the suburbs, and only 15% of them live in rural areas.
- ② The main reason for few people live in Australia is an environmental one. The hot, dry environment of most of the continent contains little water and food, so it could support only small numbers of people.
- ③ The reason for people prefer to live in a coastal city or town: The north and centre of the continent are generally hot and dry, so 80% of Australians live in the cooler, wetter south and east.

### VI.Australia's Built Environment

#### 1. The built environment refers to those parts of the environment built by people or changed by people.

#### 2. Sprawling cities

- ① The term "urban sprawl" is used to describe a city that has grown over a large area of land. And that is because



most Australians prefer to live in their own homes. Today there are still 72% of Australians who own homes. Most houses have one story of three or four rooms with a front garden and a small backyard.

② Five cities with a population of more than one million:

- a. Eastern coast: Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, and Adelaide.
- b. Western coast: Perth.

### 3. Rural areas

- ① Australia has ranked first in the world export of wool.
- ② Children learn their lessons through a radio educational system called School of the Air.
- ③ People can also use radio to call doctors who will come by plane. They are called flying doctors.

## VII. Political Divisions

	Location	Features	Economy	Capital
New South Wales	South-east	Oldest states (1788) called the premier state, largest population, fourth state.	Industry, shipping, agriculture.	Sydney (largest populous city)
Victoria	South-eastern corner	Smallest mainland state and called the garden state.	Agriculture, pastoral, industries.	Melbourne (second populous city and is regarded as the cultural and sports centre of Australia)
Queensland	North-eastern corner	Youngest, Second largest, third populous state, and called the sunshine state.	Agriculture, mining, export.	Brisbane
South Australia	South	Third largest state	Agriculture, mineral, shipbuilding, lumbering.	Adelaide (known for its arts festival)
Western Australia	West	Biggest state (1/3 of total area), know as the state of excitement.	Mineral.	Perth (more than half the population in the state)
Tasmania	South of the south-eastern corner	Smallest of state, second oldest state, and called the holiday isle.	Tourism.	Hobart
Northern Territory	North	1/5 of the continent.	Cattle-raising, mineral.	Darwin (sunniest)
	Southern area of the Northern Territory is the famous Red mineral resource. Uluru (Ayers Rock) has Australia's best-known national park.			
Australian Capital Territory	Southeast	The garden city.		Canberra
	It was mapped out of the state of New South Wales to be the site of the national capital.			

## Chapter 28 Australian History ( I )

### Australia to Federation

#### Introduction:

Period	Describe
Between 50000 and 100000 years to 1788	Aboriginal society
1788 to 1901	Colonial period
1901 to now	Federation

#### I .Australia to 1788

1. It is believed that the first Aborigines came from Asia. And they lived in three main regions of Australia: the northern coast, the southeast and Tasmania.

## 2. Aboriginal society

### ① General description

- a. The Aborigines had a good knowledge of animals, the seasons and all aspects of the land. They are usually described as hunter-gatherers, which means that they lived from the land by hunting animals and birds, by catching fish and gathering plant foods, shellfish and eggs;
- b. There was a clear division of labour among the Aborigines.

### ② The importance of land

- a. The land was central in the life of the Aborigines. They got their living from it and it shaped their religious beliefs.
- b. Not only did the land give life to the Aborigines, it was life. The Aborigines believed that many things of their land were their ancestors. And they believed in a creative period, usually referred to in English as the Dreaming. Totemism strengthened this belief. (A totem was an animal, bird or plant. Each person believed that he or she was represented by a particular animal.)
- c. The feeling of unity with the land, the spirits and all living things was also demonstrated in family relationships. Family terms not only applied to blood relatives, but also to close people. Such relationship is called kinship.

## 3. Aboriginal culture

Traditional Aboriginal culture was composed of complex religious beliefs, clear rules governing kingship and roles within the tribe, and a high degree of adaptation to the natural world.

## 4. The effects of European settlement on the Aborigines

- ① Aboriginal people were dispossessed of their land. The loss of land to white people was a disaster to the Aborigines because Aboriginal culture was based on the land. So they became dependent on white handouts.
- ② Large numbers of Aborigines were shot and poison by whites. The whites brought many diseases and many of Aborigines died.
- ③ The whites brought many diseases and many of Aborigines died.
- ④ Some tribes completely vanished from areas where they had lived for thousands of years. As the colony expanded, the Aboriginal population decreased rapidly.

## II. Colonial Australia 1788-1900

### 1. Early discoveries

- ① Indonesia, who were Macassans, made annual visits to the north coast of Australia.
- ② First Europeans who reached Australia's shores were Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch and English.
- ③ The Dutch called Australia "New Holland".
  - a. Willem Jansz sailed to the south in a ship called the *Duyfken*.
  - b. Dirk Hartog discovered the west coast of Australia.
  - c. In 1642 Abel Tasman found Van Diemen's Land (now called Tasmania in his honour) and Staten Land (now called New Zealand).

### 2. English discoveries

- ① In 1688, William Dampier anchored on the north west coast of New Holland in a ship called *Cygnets*, and published his journal as a book called *A New Voyage Around the World*.
- ② It was James Cook who finally put Australia on the map. So he has often been called the discoverer of Australia. In 1768 he left England in a ship called the *Endeavour*. Cook sailed south and then west of Tahiti, finding no known continent. He then spent six months exploring both islands of New Zealand. Finally he sighted land. Cook called the land New South Wales.
- ③ In 1770 Cook flew the British flag and took possession of New South Wales in the name of King George III of England.

### 3. Reasons for the British colonization of Australia

In Britain, the prisons were full and convicts were even imprisoned on ships in the river Thames near London, so the government had to transport the convicts to other lands on ships. Because the American was independent, the British

government had to chose Australia. However, some historians argue that the British government's motives were largely imperial.

#### 4. Convict Settlement

- ① 1788.1.18, 736 convicts in 11 ships reach Australia.
- ② 1788.1.26, the small convict settlement became the city of Sydney, named after Lord Sydney.
- ③ 1788.1.26, the date of the first European settlement is still celebrated as Australia's National Day.
- ④ Convicts and the convict system remained an important element in Australia's identity for many years. They were important for the economic progress of Australia, but nothing else.

#### 5. The Goldrushes and the Eureka Stockade

- ① The first major discoveries, made in New South Wales and Victoria in the early 1850s
- ② Problems: a. Thousands of miners went to the New South Wales goldfields where didn't have sufficient housing, transport, food and other essentials there; b. The colonies lacked the necessary police, public servants and government departments to deal with crime, business activities and health matters.
- ③ Eureka Stockade
  - a. Reasons: The miners wanted the license fee abolished and the right to vote at elections. They wanted democracy.
  - b. Process: An armed revolt took place near Ballarat in 1854. Those miners armed themselves behind a stockade of wooden slabs and raised a new Australian flag. Some of them were killed, many were wounded and 120 prisoners were taken. The leader, Peter Lalor, escaped. When 13 miners were tried for high treason, public opinion swung behind them and they were found not guilty.
  - c. Significance: The Eureka Stockade resulted in some reforms on the goldfields. License fees were dropped to ten shillings a month. Victoria introduced voting rights to all men and gave men the right to stand for parliament.

#### 6. The effects of the Goldrushes

- ① The Australian-born people were reduced. And there was also a imbalance of the sexes.
- ② Goldrush immigrants helped the growth and influence of a middle class in Australia.
- ③ The economy was stimulated.
- ④ The Goldrushes also introduced some political changes. (move toward responsible government)
- ⑤ The Goldrushes brought great changes to the cities and rural areas.
- ⑥ Transport was improved.
- ⑦ Attention of racial violence was drawn to the Chinese population.
- ⑧ Gold mining resulted in considerable damage to rivers, valleys and wooded areas.

### III. Australia between the 1860s and 1890s

#### 1. Considerable changes took place in daily life, work , industry and people's attitudes in the cities and in the country.

- ① All the major cities expanded. The most evident was in Melbourne which were calling "Marvellous Melbourne". Later, the name refers to the bad smell which shows that all was not well under the glittering, prosperous surface.
- ② Rural Australia was slowly being opened up: a. A new class of small farmers called selectors took up farming land; b. Squatters, who were wealthier settlers controlling large areas of good pastoral land.
- ③ People's attitudes were also changing. By the end of the 1860-90 period, most Australians were Australian-born. Although patriotic attachment to the British Empire was still strong, a spirit of nationalism began to develop. People began to think about what sort of government and values Australians should have in the future.

## Chapter 29 Australian History ( II )

### Australia Since Federation

#### I .Federation in 1901

1. On 1901.01.01, the Commonwealth of Australia came into being with Edmund Barton as the First Prime Minister.
2. Reasons for Federation:

- ① The people of the colonies had many things in common, so unity seemed inevitable. There was a strong nationalist sentiment among the Australians, and people realized that only one defense force for all of Australia for all of Australia

would make more sense.

② Businessmen argued that free, Australia-wide trade would be an advantage and Australia would be in a strong enough position to deal with major economic setbacks.

③ Some organizations acted as strong pressure groups in the campaign for federation.

3. Measure: One of the first measures was the passage of the Immigration Restriction Act which became known as the White Australia Policy. A dictation test was used to deny entry to non-white immigrants. The policy was not officially abandoned until 1973.

## II. Australia and the First World War

1. Anzacs: On 1914.11.01 the first of the Australian troops, joined by a New Zealand force sailed to Egypt for training. Later they together join British and French to fight the Turks at Gallipoli. The Australian-New Zealand force at Gallipoli was called the Anzacs (Australian and New Zealand Army Corps).

2. Gallipoli campaign

The Gallipoli campaign was seen as a noble defeat, not as something shameful. It was immediately and widely hailed as making Australia both a nation and a partner to the British Empire. By 1916 Anzac Day (25 April) was being celebrated. It has been extended to honor all who have died in military conflicts in which Australia has been involved.

## III. Australia Between the Wars

1. 1920s: There was optimism and economic growth in the 1920s.
2. “Great Depression”: By the end of the 1920s Australia was suffering from a serious economic downfall. World prices of wheat and wool dropped and demand for Australian produce fell. Australia was already in serious economic and social difficulty when the world entered the Great Depression.
3. 1930s: There was an economic recovery with the main factors of external. The world price of raw materials began to raise slowly and secondary industry began to find markets for its goods.
4. In 1938 Australians celebrated the sesquicentenary of the founding of Australia by white people. Meanwhile, Aboriginal groups organized a “Day of Mourning and Protest”.

## IV. Australia and the Second World War

1. The level of enthusiasm was not as high as it was in the First World War.
2. This situation was reversed by Pearl Harbor incident. When Japan bombed the US naval base at Pearl Harbor, the United States and Australia declared war on Japan immediately. And the threat from Japanese forces united the Australian people.

## V. Australia since 1945

1. Chifley (Labor Party)

① Main objective: full employment and social security.

② In 1949 the Chifley government set up the Snowy Mountains Project with the aim to direct the water from Snowy Mountains river into the Murrumbidgee and Murray Rivers. The water would provide energy for electricity and water for irrigation.

③ Secondary industry continued to grow.

④ Immigration scheme.

⑤ Active foreign affairs: In 1948, Dr H.V.Evatt was elected President of the United Nations General Assembly.

2. Menzies (Liberal Party)

“The lucky country” refers to the period under Menzies. There was a boom in economic growth, industrial development, foreign investment and mineral discoveries. There was almost full employment, and the standard of living was high.

3. Turbulent times in the late 1960s and early 1970s.

4. Gough Whitlam (Labour Party)

① Changes:

a. One of them was to establish diplomatic relations with China.

b. A 25% tariff cut was introduced with the aim to make industry more competitive and reduce prices.

- c. A policy of self determination for Aborigines.
- d. A policy of multiculturalism.
- e. “Advance Australia Fair” replaced “God Save the Queen” as the national anthem in 1974.
- ② Difficulties: inflation, unemployment.
- ③ Conflict between Whitlam and Fraser. The Whitlam government make a loan from the Arab countries to pay for its plans to change Australia, which later be considered as a scandal. Fraser voted to block the government’s supply of money in the Senate. Whitlam’s opponents hoped that he would be forced to call an election, but he held out for weeks.
- ④ The Governor-General John Kerr, dismissed the Whitlam government and made Malcolm Fraser Prime Minister. For days the country seemed to be in chaos. Many Australians were outraged that the elected government had been dismissed by the Queen’s representative in Australia.
- 5. Fraser (Liberal-Country Party)
  - ① Problems: inflation, unemployment.
  - ② Domestic policy:
    - a. The Fraser government was noted for cuts in spending and giving assistance to business and farming interests.
    - b. The Fraser government made a significant re-allocation of funding to ethnic-based institutions and groups, for welfare, education and cultural activities.
- 6. Hawke (Labour Party)
  - ① Measures: Hawke’s popularity was a record 74% and he reelected three times. His changes included the introduction of Medicare (a cheap health and medical insurance scheme), tax reform, and the introduction of a prices and incomes accord. This measure helped to control inflation. The economy showed signs of recovery and unemployment dropped, but there was also a decline in the manufacturing sector of the economy.
  - ② Problems: The economic recovery was short-lived. It has a high current account deficit and high levels of inflation
  - ③ Reasons: It is a structural problem, which caused by the fact that demand and growth in the domestic economy is not serviced by domestic production.
  - ④ Reforms:
    - a. The Hawke-Keating government tried to solve this structural problem. The measures taken include deregulation of the financial market, reduction of tariffs, deregulation of the labour market, and privatization of state-owned enterprises. This is known as Australia’s economic reform.
    - b. The aim is to allow greater play of market forces to encourage and improve the efficiency and competitive strength of Australian industries and at the same time to keep control over demand and wage increases.
    - c. Australia has been changing very rapidly since 1945.
  - ⑤ Sex Discrimination Act: In 1984 the Sex Discrimination Act gave greater legal force to the cause of equality for women in the workforce.
- 7. Paul Keating (Labour Party)
  - ① In 1991 Paul Keating replaced Bob Hawke as ALP leader and as Prime Minister.
  - ② Paul Keating was a strong supporter of republicanism.
- 8. John Howard (Liberal Party)

## Chapter 30 The Economy

### Introduction:

1. Australia was a British penal colony.
2. Australia ranks about 20<sup>th</sup> in the world in the value of its international trade.

### I .Manufacturing Industry

1. Early manufacturing: making of bricks.
2. Today’s manufacturing:

- ① Today Australia has a broad industrial base. It is able to produce various manufactured goods.
- ② It accounts for about 15% of the gross domestic product and more than 1/4 of Australia's total exports.
- ③ It is the nation's third largest employer.

### 3. Features:

- ① Inefficiency
  - a. Australia's limited local market, its geographical isolation and high levels of tariff protection are the factors that affect the efficiency of Australian manufacturing.
  - b. The industries that are most inefficient and most highly protected are automobile, textiles, clothing and footwear industries.
- ② Concentration
  - a. Australian industries are in ownership terms highly concentrated. There are about 14 large national monopolies in Australia.
- ③ Foreign investment
  - a. Australian manufacturing relies heavily on foreign investment.

## II .Agriculture

### 1. Efficiency

Today, agriculture is the nation's largest and most diverse industry. Australia is one of the world's leading producers of food and natural fibres. The average Australian farm produces enough food and fibre to meet the needs of 300 human beings.

### 2. Product: Australia is the world's largest exporter of wool, the second largest exporter of meat, the third largest exporter of wheat and a major international supplier of sugar, dairy products, fruits, cotton and rice.

### 3. Natural condition:

- ① Australia is the driest continent in the world. And it hasn't enough and reliable rainfall.
- ② Droughts often occur in many parts of the country.

### 4. Three events to influence

Australia's preferential access to the British market was important to the prosperity of Australian farming.

- ① However there was increasing protection of domestic manufacturing industries which affected the competitiveness of Australian agriculture.
- ② Britain joined the European Economic Community cause the loss of preferential access to the British market.
- ③ The increasing protection of agriculture in developed countries made it more difficult for Australian agriculture to compete on world markets.

## III.The Minerals and Energy Industry

### 1. Minerals

- ① Australia is rich in natural resources. It is one of the world's biggest producers of minerals and metals. It has major deposits of minerals.
- ② Australia is also a leading world supplier of minerals. It is the world's largest exporter of coal, and a major exporter of uranium.
- ③ Catalyst:
  - a. The gold boom of the 1850s brought about an increase in population and investment.
  - b. The minerals boom brought periods of expansion. This resulted in a major structural change in the Australian economy.

### 2. Problems:

- ① There was a heavily dependent on the overseas market. "If the Japanese economy sneezes, Australia catches cold."
- ② Mineral access has been restricted in the name of environmental protection and also as a consequence of the granting of Aboriginal land rights.
- ③ The high incidence of mining-related diseases has focused attention on the very real health hazards associated with the industry.



#### IV. Service Industries

1. Service industries are also called “tertiary” industry. The service sector now includes an additional “quaternary” level, which covers the research, processing and storage of information.
2. Australia’s service sector is the fast-growing sector of industry. This is due to higher living standards and greater demand for more and better transport and housing, and the expansion by governments of educational, health and welfare services.
3. Within the sector as a whole the most dramatic increase has been in information industries.
4. Tourism is the largest and strongest performing sector.
5. International education services provided by Australia are also growing strongly. Australia has become the preferred destination which is second to the US and Britain.
6. Australia is at a disadvantage in the field of computer-based technology. The reason is that Australia relies completely on hardware and software created in the US, Japan or Europe.

#### V. Trade

1. General: Australia’s unique combination of rich natural resources and small population has always made trade the backbone of the economy.
2. Main features: The main feature of Australia’s trade is that it has always involved the exchange of raw materials for finished products.
3. Two reasons: ① One is that the home market is too small for manufacturers to operate efficiently; ② The other is that goods always been cheaper than those produced in Australia.
4. Negative and positive effects: Such specialization of export raw material and import finished goods has been double-edged. It has had both negative and positive effects. On the one hand, it has meant access to a very broad range of finished goods from around the world. On the other hand it has made Australia extremely vulnerable to cycles in commodity prices.
5. Factors:
  - ① The dismantling of the Commonwealth Preference;
  - ② The creation of the European Community produced impediments to trade with European countries;
  - ③ The rise of Japan as an economic power;
  - ④ The emergence of other Asian countries as manufacturers and exporters;
  - ⑤ The oil-price shocks of the 1970s.
6. Relation with China  
Australia exports to China are wool, wheat, metal ores, coal and steel products. Australian imports from China are dominated by textiles and clothing, machinery, electronics and food.

#### VI. Problems in the Australian Economy

1. Over-reliance on commodity exports
  - ① Australia’s economic prosperity was very largely built on exports of primary commodities.
  - ② The problem with this situation is that commodity prices in world markets tend to fluctuate, sometimes sharply. In recent years raw material price levels declined, but the manufactured goods tend to go up. This situation is summarized by saying that the terms of trade have been moving steadily against Australia over the past forty years.
  - ③ The solution to the problem is to reduce Australia’s reliance on commodity exports by diversifying and increasing its manufactured exports.
2. Failure to share in the expansion of international trade.
  - ① In recent decades, the fastest grown countries are those who took advantage of the growth in international trade and whose goods highly competitive in world markets. Unfortunately, these developments seem to have passed Australia by.
  - ② The major reason is that Australia is too heavily dependent on commodity exports. Its share in world trade has declined significantly. The poor trade performance, especially the failure to share in the wealth produced by trade in manufactured goods, is at the root of Australia’s current economic difficulties.



### 3. The decline of manufacturing industries and the effects of tariffs.

- ① Australian policy towards manufacturing industries was to protect them from foreign competition by the use of tariffs and other controls on imported goods.
- ② The policy of protectionism has had bad effects on the Australian economy. Australian manufacturers have failed to take full advantage of the country's abundant natural, especially mineral resources. Value-add industries can produce goods capable of commanding much higher prices in the world markets than the raw materials themselves.
- ③ Up to the present time Australia has made significant progress in microeconomic reforms. Achievements include reform of financial markets, taxation, primary and manufacturing industry protection, aviation, waterfront, telecommunications and government business enterprises. Further initiatives are also underway in road and rail transport, electricity generation and distribution, and the labour market.

## Chapter 31 Government and Politics

### Introduction

1. The Commonwealth of Australia came into being on January 1, 1901 when the Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act was enacted by the British Parliament.
2. The Australian federation has a three-tier system of government: the federal parliament and government, six State parliaments and governments, and about 900 local governments at the city, town, municipal and shire level. The basic structure of Australian government is based on both the British and American models.
3. Britain's monarch is represented in Australia by the Governor-General and six State governors.

### I. The Constitution (written Constitution)

#### 1. Contents

- ① The Australian Constitution deals with the composition of the Australian federal government and the powers of that government and the relationship between the federal government and the governments of the States. It consists of eight parts or chapters.
- ② Chapter 1 Parliament; Chapter 2 Executive Government; Chapter 3 Judiciary; Chapter 4 Finance and Trade.

#### 2. How to change Constitution

- ① A referendum is a vote in which all the people in a country or an area are asked to give their opinion about or decide an important political question. It can become law if:
  - a. by an absolute majority of electors;
  - b. by a majority of electors in a majority of the States.
- ② The High Court still has the power to challenge and interpret the approval.

#### 3. Two principles

- ① The Australian Constitution is based on the principle of federalism and the principle of responsible government. In the Australian Constitution federalism is clearly stated but the basic rules of responsible government are not.
- ② Federalism
  - a. Federalism is a system of government in which political functions are divided constitutionally between the Commonwealth and the State.
  - b. In this respect the Australian system of government is based on the American model.
  - c. In the Australian Constitution federalism is clearly stated.
- ③ Responsible government
  - a. Responsible government is a system of government in which executive authority is vested in a ministry whose members in Australia must be Members of Parliament. The executive authority is divided between the ministry and the Governor-General.
  - b. In this respect the Australian system of government is based on British model, often referred to as the "Westminster system".
  - c. The principle of responsible government is governed solely by convention. A Constitutional convention is a code of political behavior which comes into existence and survives because of its value in facilitating the government

of the country, i.e. without conventions the functioning of government would be at risk.

## II.Parliament (Westminster system)

1. It consists of the Queen (represented by the Governor-General) and two Houses of Parliament: the House of Representatives (the Lower House) and the Senate (the Upper House).
2. The Governor-General
  - ① In Australia the Queen is represented by the governor-General. Under the Constitution the Governor-General exercises the exercises power of the Commonwealth of Australia, and other powers and functions conferred by the Constitution.
    - a. appointing times for holding, proroguing, and dissolution of Parliament;
    - b. assents in the Queen's name to proposed laws passed by both Houses;
    - c. chooses and summons Executive Councilors;
    - d. commander-in-chief of the defence forces.
  - ② 1975 Crisis: Governor-General John Kerr dismiss the Prime Minister Whitlam bring the tension between responsible government and federalism.
3. The House of Representatives
  - ① Members: 147 seats and divided among the States on a population basis.
  - ② Terms: every 3 years.
  - ③ The two Houses have equal powers except that the Senate cannot originate "money bills", which may be initiated only in the House of Representatives.
4. The Executive
  - ① The Executive consists of the Prime Minister and the other members of the ministry.
  - ② The ministers are divided into an "inner" ministry and an "outer" ministry.
  - ③ The "inner ministry" becomes the Cabinet. It consists of the most senior and experienced ministers.
5. The Senate (elected house)
  - ① The Senate in Australia has functioned as a house of review where the legislation is examined and amendments suggested. It has also set up a committee system to review policy on a range of matters. And the Senate was given a further function – to represent the States.
  - ② Members:  $76 = 12 \text{ person} \times 6 \text{ State} + 2 \text{ person} \times 2 \text{ Territory (Capital and Northern Territory)}$
  - ③ Terms: a. State 6 years (half retiring every 3 years); b. Territories 3 years.
  - ④ Double dissolution: A double dissolution is the dissolving of both houses of Parliament by the Governor-General at the request of the Prime Minister.
6. State Parliament
  - ① Upper House
    - a. None in Queensland (abolished in 1922), the Northern Territory, the Australian Capital Territory.
    - b. Keep in other regions with the name as the Legislative Council.
  - ② Lower House
    - a. Called the Legislative Assembly in New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, Western Australia.
    - b. Called the House of Assembly in South Australia and Tasmania.
  - ③ Function: The States administer areas such as education, transport, law enforcement, health services and agriculture.

## III.Political Parties

1. Two main Parties: Australian Labour Party and Liberal Party.
2. System: Australia has a two-and-a-half party system of the Australian Labour Party on one side and the Liberal and National parties on the other, because the Liberal Party and the National Party always operate in coalition with each other.
3. The Australian Labour Party (oldest and largest)

① Reasons for its success: Its recent success owed much to its Accord with the trade unions and also discord within the Liberal Party.

② Recent development

a. There were seven agreements between the Labour government and the Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU). These agreements are known as the Accord. They are mainly concerned with economic and social policies such as wage policies.

b. Factionalism has been formally recognized. In the federal parliamentary party there are a Labour Unity (or Right) faction; a Left faction; and a Centre Left faction.

#### 4. The Liberal Party of Australia (founded in 1945)

Viewpoint: The Liberal Party of Australia is a conservative party. It supports the capitalist system with a market economy. It emphasizes individual rights and civil liberties. It supports the principle of federalism. It usually opposes attempts to increase federal power at the expense of the states.

#### 5. The National Party of Australia

① Country Party in 1920 → National Country Party in 1975 → National Party of Australia in 1982.

② It is also a conservative party and represented the interests of rural Australians.

③ It is the third-largest party, so it has the ability to hold a balance of power in the federal parliament.

④ At the State level the National Party was particularly successful in Queensland.

#### 6. The Australian Democrats (founded in 1977)

① It has been generally favorable to social welfare policies, environmental protection and quality of life.

② Its foreign policy is more neutralist.

### IV. The Judiciary

1. Federal political system consists of the Legislature, the Executive and the Judiciary.

2. The Judiciary includes the High Court of Australia, the Federal Court of Australia, and the Family Court of Australia.

3. The High Court is the most superior. It consists of a chief justice and six justices. Most of the cases heard by the High Court are appeals but it also has original jurisdiction, more notably over interpretation of the Constitution.

## Chapter 32 Society and Culture

### I. Aborigines and Australian Society

#### 1. Present situation

① Australia was built on European culture, mainly British culture.

② Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders representing 1.5% of the total population. They are still the most impoverished group in Australian society.

a. Less than half of them are in the workforce.

b. The majority of them are to be found in the lower skilled and lower paying jobs.

c. The unemployment is at least five times.

③ The incomes are only half the levels.

④ The death rates range from twice to about four times.

⑤ They have a shorter life expectancy.

#### 2. Rights (process)

① For generations Aborigines were segregated on reserves. The situation got some changes from 1950s.

a. In 1972 the Whitlam Labour government acknowledged them as the indigenous peoples and recognized their right to determine their own affairs.

b. In 1976, the Fraser government introduced the Land Rights (Northern Territory) Act.

② At the beginning of the 1970s a movement to gain recognition of Aboriginal land rights was launched by the Aboriginal Australians. This is called the land rights movement.

③ By the 1970s the demand for land rights had become a political issue. In April 1971 the Yirrkala tribe took its claim for land rights to the Australian court. This marked the beginning of a political movement for land rights.

- ④ Opposition to land rights believe that this policy is unnecessary and discriminatory. Those people have come from mining and pastoral groups, some sections of the Liberal and National parties, some Christian groups.
- ⑤ During the 1983 election campaign Bob Hawke promised that if he was elected, a treaty would be signed to recognize that the Aboriginal people were the original owners of the Australian Continent. The treaty has become known as the Makaratta Treaty. (Makaratta is an Aboriginal word meaning “the end of a dispute and the start of normal relations”.)
- ⑥ In June 1992 the High Court of Australia passed a decision which has become known as the Mabo Judgement. The Mabo Judgement has been hailed as a landmark one because it recognizes that Australia was not, in law, unoccupied at the time of European settlement. (Mabo was the name of the Aborigine who brought the case to the Australian court.)
- ⑦ Late in 1993 the Keating government introduced the Native Title Act based on the Mabo Judgement.

## II .Australia’s Transition to a Multicultural Society

1. The term multiculturalism was in official use in Australia by 1973.
2. The history of Australia is a history of migration.
  - ① 40,000 or more years ago – 1788: Aborigines were the first wave of migration.
  - ② 1788 – 1945: Migrants were mainly British or Irish.
  - ③ From 1945: New migrants were from many parts of the non-English-speaking world.
  - ④ Present: Recent waves of refugees are from Indo China.
3. “White Australia” policy (1901-1972)
  - ① The “White Australia” policy (the Immigration Restriction Act 1901) was a cornerstone of the new nation’s policies which led to restrictive immigration laws.
  - ② It was based on the following two beliefs:
    - a. Immigration must strengthen the largely British nature of Australia’s population.
    - b. The Population should remain “white”To conclude, only Europeans, especially British and Irish, were allowed to migrate to Australia.
  - ③ Reasons for the “White Australia” policy was replaced:
    - a. Australia had to look to a wider range of countries for skilled immigration.
    - b. Humanitarian concerns and international pressures.
    - c. Public opinion has become more tolerant of non-European immigration.

## III. Women’s Role in Society

1. 1950s, “suburban dream”. That is, what people wanted was to have a house and car in the suburbs where the wife stayed at home and cared for the children and the husband went out to work to earn enough money to support his family.
2. 1960s, old pattern changed.
  - ① Changes: a. More women have joined the work force; b. Women have also taken on jobs generally considered to be only suited for men.
  - ② Reasons: a. Many families found that one income was not enough to support the standard of living they wanted; b. The influence of the women’s liberation movement.
3. 1980s, legislation.
  - ① the Sex Discrimination Act 1984;
  - ② the Affirmative Action (Equal Opportunity for Women) Act 1986, which giving preference to women, black people, or other groups which are often treated unfairly, when choosing people for a job.
4. Present situation: Gender inequality still exists in Australian society today. It could be said that Australia is still a male-dominated society.
  - ① About 2/3 of female workers work in five occupational groups: sales and shop assistants, clerical workers, teachers, nurses, and community workers.
  - ② Women receive lower pay on average than men.

- ③ Women have a dominant role in the part-time work force.

#### IV. Australian Culture

1. The history of Australia can be divided into several major phases:

Name	Time	Established by
Aboriginal culture	Pre-1778	Aborigine
Dominant culture	1788-1945	British (by force)
Minority culture	1945-1973	Migration (Non-English-speaking country)
Emergence of multicultural	From 1973	a. legislation; b. representation; c. recognition of value of original culture and contributions and all subsequent migrating cultures; d. tolerance and acceptance of Australia's cultural diversity and its relationship to Australia's social context.
Establishment of multicultural	Post-1990	Modern Australian culture is a mixture of many traditions and influences which overlap: British, American, European and Asian.

#### V. Australia: a Republic in 2001?

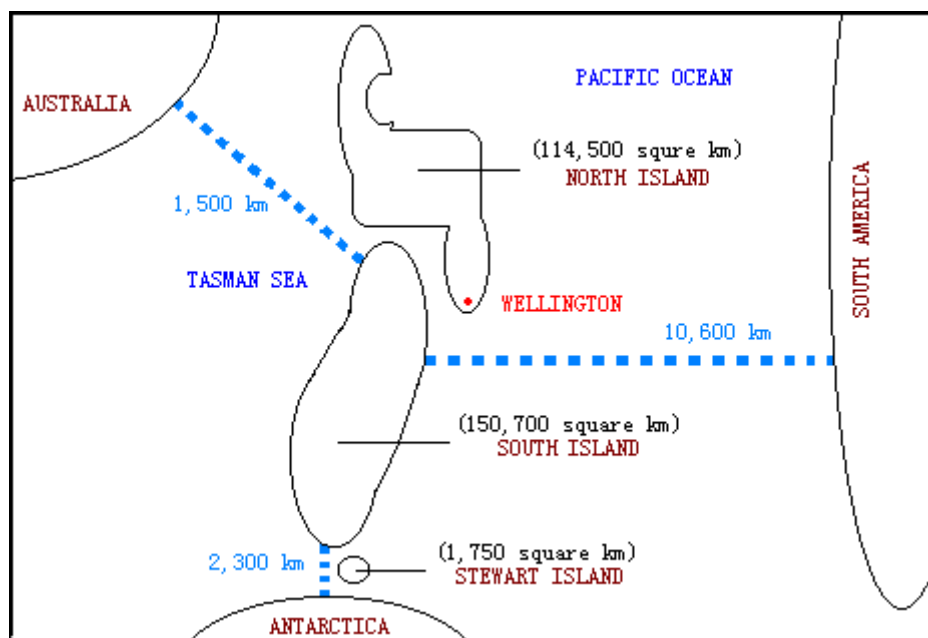
- There is a continuing debate in Australia about whether Australia should remain a monarchy or become a republic. The debate is known as the republicanism debate.
- A brief history of the republicanism versus monarchy debate
  - In 1832, the first republican newspaper was published.
  - In the 1850s, John Dunmore Lang gave several lectures on republicanism.
  - In the 1890s, the republican movement developed.
  - The Commonwealth of Australia was an independent country but there were still links with Britain.
- Views on the republic
  - The most active one is called the Australian Republican Movement which was launched in July 1991.
  - Those who want to take as little action as possible to turn Australia into a republic are called minimalists. Abandoning the monarch of Great Britain as Australia's head of state will mark the final stage in the cessation of colonial ties.
  - Those who want to change the Constitution in other ways are called maximalists.
  - The main arguments for republicanism are as follows:
    - An Australian head of state is essential for Australia's self-respect and the achievement of full independence.
    - Becoming a republic is consistent with Australia's egalitarian and democratic traditions.
    - Becoming a republic will help Australia's image in Asia.

### Part Six New Zealand

#### Chapter 33 The Making of New Zealand

##### Introduction

- The size of the country is similar to Britain or Japan. It has two main islands: North island and South island. A third small island is Stewart island.
- New Zealand is just west of the International Date Line, so it is the first country to get the new day. It has only one time zone.
- Location



## I .Geography

### 1. Geographical features

- ① There are mountains all over New Zealand.
- ② The active volcanic result in pools of boiling mud and boiling water.
- ③ The geysers periodically throw hot water high into the air.

### 2. South island

- ① The highest peak, Mt Cook, 3764 metres, is in the centre of the mountain range, which is called the Southern Alps.
- ② The largest rivers in South island is the Clutha.

### 3. North island

- ① The central plateau is dominated by 3 volcanic mountains.
  - a. Ruapehu, 2797m, active.
  - b. Ngauruhoe, 2290m, active.
  - c. Tongariro, dormant.
- ② The centre of North island, around Rotorua and Taupo, is a volcanic and geothermal area.
- ③ Lake Taupo is the largest lake in New Zealand.
- ④ The two largest North island rivers are the Waikato and the Wanganui.

### 4. A fault line runs the length of the country which means that New Zealand often has earthquakes.

### 5. Apart from occasional storms and flooding, and droughts in some areas, earthquakes and volcanoes are the most serious potential natural disasters.

## II .Climate

1. The climate of New Zealand is generally temperate and varied.
2. In the far north it is subtropical and in some mountainous areas of South island it is almost subarctic.
3. Rain falls all year, but it rains more in the winter.
4. New Zealand is often windy.
5. The sunniest town in New Zealand is Nelson.

## III.Plants and Animals

1. Many of New Zealand's native flowering plants are unique.
2. New Zealand native trees are evergreens, so the country remains green all year round. (kauri, totara)
3. The red pohutukawa is called New Zealand Christmas tree because it flowers in December.
4. The kiwi is a national symbol and New Zealanders refer to themselves as Kiwis.
5. The only native land mammals are two species of bats.

6. Agricultural crops and farm livestock play an important role in the economy.
7. Introduced pine trees supply over 90% of the annual tree cut.

#### IV. Historical Background

##### 1. Before 1840

- ① 1642. 12, first European Abel Tasman.
  - a. He found South island, and then North Island.
  - b. Tasman named the country Statenland, which later changed to Nieuw Zeeland.
- ② 1769, first Englishman James Cook, by the Endeavour.
- ③ 1769, many Europeans came after Cook for several reasons.
  - a. They interested in trade and making money.
  - b. They came to catch whales and seals and for timber and flax, both were necessary for sailing ships.
  - c. Missionaries came to teach their religion to the Maori.
  - d. More people came to New Zealand to buy land for farming.

##### 2. The Treaty of Waitangi 1840

- ① 1840. 2. 6, William Hobson negotiate with Maori leader and sign the Treaty of Waitangi. The day is called Waitangi Day, and celebrates as a National Day.
- ② Contents
  - a. Britain gains the right to make laws for the country.
  - b. Maori gain the possession over their lands, forests, fisheries and other treasured possessions. (If Maori owners wanted to sell land, only the Crown had the right to buy.)
  - c. Maoris were granted all the rights and privileges of British subjects.

##### 3. After 1840

- ① The first British settlers came in 1840.
- ② They founded Wellington which became the capital in 1865.
- ③ In 1852 New Zealand was granted internal self-government.

##### 4. The 1870s and after

##### 5. Social changes

- ① The Liberal government came to power in 1891.
- ② In 1893 New Zealand became the first country to give women the vote.
- ③ In 1898 old age pensions were introduced.

##### 6. The 1930s and 1940s

- ① The economic depression of the early 1930s were severely felt in New Zealand.
- ② In 1935 the Labour Party formed the government and introduced a social security system.

##### 7. After World War II

- ① The Accident Compensation Act of 1972, unique in the world, provides insurance against injury by accident at any time.
- ② The Official Information Act 1983 gives the public more access to government files.

#### V. Notable New Zealanders

#### VI. Maoritanga

##### 1. Definition

- ① Maoritanga is Maoriculture, the Maori way of life and view of the world.
- ② Maoritanga is a growing and changing part of life in Aotearoa (New Zealand).
- ③ More and more New Zealanders now share in the rich heritage of Maori culture.

##### 2. Origins

##### 3. Traditional history

Aotearoa was discovered by the great explorer Kupe who probably lived about 1200 years ago.

##### 4. Everyday life before 1840



## 5. Society

The *Marae* – the meeting house and the land around it – is the focus of Maori community life.

## 6. Race relations

- ① When Maori people started to restrict land sales the government came under pressure from the land hungry settlers.
- ② Relations got worse and war broke out in North island in the 1860's.
- ③ The Maori lost a lot of their land.
- ④ After the Land Wars the relations became assimilation rather than Maori self-determination.
- ⑤ Maori protest movement beginning in the 1970's. Several pieces of land were occupied by Maori.

## 7. Recent developments

- ① In 1974 the first bilingual school was established.
- ② Maori is now one of the two official languages of Aotearoa.

## Chapter 34 New Zealand Today

### Introduction

1. About 55% of total population live in the 7 urban centres of Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch, Dunedin, Hamilton, Palmerston North and Napier-Hastings.
2. Nearly 3/4 of the people live in North Island.

### I. Political system

1. There is no single written constitution. It is contained in a large number of parliamentary statutes (laws), judiciary (court) rulings, and administrative practices.
2. New Zealand has a parliamentary government and a constitutional monarchy. Queen Elizabeth II is Queen of New Zealand as well as Britain. She is represented in New Zealand by the Governor-General.
3. The Parliament
  - ① Queen Elizabeth II is Queen of New Zealand and is represented by the Governor-General.
  - ② New Zealand Parliament has had only one chamber, the House of Representatives.
    - d. General elections have been held about every 3 years.
    - e. New Zealand uses a system of Proportional Representation, which will result in more parties. The two main parties have been the National Party and the Labour Party.
    - f. Qualification: Every permanent resident age at least 18 can vote in way of secret ballot.
4. The executive
  - ① The leader of the party with a majority of members in the House of Representatives becomes Prime Minister. He/she and 20 other chosen members form the Cabinet.
  - ② The work of Cabinet: a. making policy; b. put policy into action; c. responsible for many affairs.
5. The judiciary
  - ① High Court have a jury consists of 12 citizens which is compulsory and paid.
  - ② Lower courts is known as district courts.
    - a. Family Court deal with family disputes.
    - b. Children and Young Persons Court deal with young people's cases.
  - ③ Lesser criminal charges may be heard by Justices of the Peace.
  - ④ Police officers belong to a national service.
6. Local government

The activities of local government are funded by rates, i.e. local taxes paid by property owners in the area.

### II. Characteristic of New Zealand people

1. New Zealanders take a community approach to problems.
2. They are very proud of being independent and self-reliant.
3. They value a practical approach.
4. There is widespread belief in social equality

5. Christianity is the most widespread religion. English and Maori are official languages.

### III. Health Care

1. Treatment at public hospitals is free, as are pre-natal and maternity services and most prescription medicines.

### IV. Education

1. Nearly all schools are run by the state.
2. Early childhood education  
Kindergartens usually only take children from 3 years old.
3. Primary education
  - ① State primary schools are coeducational.
  - ② School is compulsory from the age of 6.
4. Secondary education  
Some secondary schools are single sex school.
5. Rural education  
Correspondence School offers daily radio lessons.
6. Tertiary education
  - ① Specialist courses are provided by medical schools, engineering schools, architectural schools, veterinary science and others.
  - ② “Continuing education”

### V. The International Marketplace

1. General
  - ① Over 75% of imports are raw materials needed for production and transport fuels.
  - ② Greater efficiency and competitiveness are seen as the key to long-term growth.
2. Exports
  - ① New Zealand is one of the world's largest exporters of meat, dairy products and wool.
  - ② Western Europe and particularly Britain have traditionally been New Zealand's major export market.
    - a. Products exported, in order of value, are meat, dairy products, wool, fish and seafood, forest products, fruit and nuts, aluminium, skins and leather, mechanical machinery.
    - b. New Zealand has a world-wide reputation for providing technical expertise. They are successful exporters of computer software and electronic in specialist areas.
3. Imports  
The main imports are industrial raw materials, capital equipment and consumer goods. Many items are imported duty free.
4. Agriculture
  - ① New Zealand is sometimes called “the world's biggest farm”.
  - ② Farming is highly mechanized and electricity is available even in remote areas.
  - ③ New Zealand is the world's largest exporter of lamb and mutton.
5. Crops and horticulture
6. Industry
  - ① There are two steel companies: New Zealand Steel and Pacific Steel.
  - ② New Zealand is a world leader in the CAN (compressed natural gas) industry.
  - ③ The fishing industry has expanded greatly and is now the 4<sup>th</sup> largest export earner.
7. Energy
  - ① Energy policy planning has focused on reducing dependence on imported fuel.
  - ② There is no nuclear power and no foreseeable need for it.
  - ③ Hydroelectricity from rivers and dams supplies 17% of total energy.

### VI. Culture and the Arts

1. The financial assistance is provided by the Queen Elizabeth II Arts Council.
2. The Moari Exhibition in the U.S.A was highly successful and Maori artists both ancient and contemporary, are acknowledged as a powerful force in New Zealand art.
3. The New Zealand Ballet has existed as a permanent full-time company since 1952. The new Zealand Opera Company is gaining in strength.
4. Film industry: "The Piano", "Once Were Warriors and Heavenly Creatures".

#### VII. New Zealand and the World

1. Historical and ethnic links with island neighbours in the South Pacific are strengthened by political and economic ties.
2. Bilateral trade agreement, C.E.R. (Closer Economic Relations) Treaty, was signed with Australia in 1983.
3. There is close cooperation with the countries of ASEAN (Association of South-East Asian Nations).