

**Учреждение образования
«Брестский государственный университет имени А.С. Пушкина»**

**The Commonwealth
Страны Британского содружества**

**Учебное пособие
для иностранных студентов, обучающихся
на факультете иностранных языков**

Брест 2013

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Учебное пособие разработано с учетом требований программы по курсу «Страны Британского содружества». Содержит основные события, факты и тенденции исторического развития стран англоговорящего мира.

Пособие состоит из 9 разделов: *the Commonwealth, the First British Empire, the Second British Empire, Canada, Canadian Culture, the Commonwealth of Australia, Social Etiquette in Australia, South Africa, the History of South Africa*. Каждый раздел содержит аутентичный текст по историческому и культурному развитию указанной общности и сопровождается подробными комментариями, раскрывающими значение реалий страны, вопросами по содержанию текста для выяснения того, как студенты поняли текст, а также ситуациями для обсуждения содержания раздела. Издание предназначено для иностранных студентов факультета иностранных языков.

УДК 911.7=111(075.8)

ББК 81.2Англ

С 83

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Предисловие

Данное пособие дает возможность студентам, обучающимся на факультете иностранных языков, познакомиться с некоторыми реалиями стран Британского содружества – крупнейшего добровольного межгосударственного объединения суверенных государств, в которое входят Великобритания и почти все её бывшие доминионы, колонии и протектораты. В пособии рассматриваются причины интеграционного развития данных стран, проблемы формирования Содружества, его базовые документы, этапы эволюции, механизмы и тенденции его развития, основные направления сотрудничества, а также особенности истории и культуры некоторых стран Содружества.

Пособие предназначено для аудиторной и самостоятельной работы студентов второго курса факультета иностранных языков в общем, и в частности – иностранных студентов, обучающихся на факультете. Пособие рассчитано на 30 часов аудиторной работы под руководством преподавателя.

Основная цель пособия – формирование у студентов социокультурной компетенции в целях осуществления межкультурной коммуникации, необходимой для творческой самореализации в различных сферах профессиональной деятельности; совершенствование навыков и умений эффективного речевого взаимодействия в ситуациях межкультурного общения, а также приобщение студентов к культурному наследию и духовным ценностям своей и иных стран.

Интегрируя в едином комплексе сведения о странах изучаемого языка географического, экономического, культурного и социального характера, учебное пособие «Страны Британского содружества» призвано способствовать усвоению системы знаний о географии, об основных этапах истории, социальной действительности стран Британского содружества, особенностях национального характера людей, проживающих в этих странах, а также формированию социокультурной компетенции в целях межкультурной коммуникации, необходимой для адекватного владения иностранным языком как средством общения и профессионального обучения. Подобный подход соответствует основным требованиям образовательного стандарта Республики Беларусь по специальности 1-21 06 01 Современные иностранные языки (английский, немецкий языки) со специализацией 1-21 06 01-01 03 Компьютерная лингвистика.

Пособие состоит из девяти разделов: the Commonwealth, the First British Empire, the Second British Empire, Canada, Canadian Culture, the Commonwealth of Australia, Social Etiquette in Australia, South Africa, the History of South Africa. Каждый раздел пособия основан на информации, представленной одним, реже несколькими текстами, заимствованными из аутентичных источников, и подвергнутой частичной обработке.

Пособие имеет определенную структуру: раздел начинается с вводного текста, в котором сообщаются самые общие сведения о стране, затем дается основной текст, разбитый на подтексты, в которых дана разносторонняя информация о стране. После текста (текстов) представлены:

- подробные комментарии, объясняющие языковые трудности текста и различного рода реалии;
- ориентировочные вопросы по содержанию текста для выяснения того, как студенты поняли текст;
- вопросы-задания проблемного характера, направленные на развитие неподготовленной речи студентов, а также критического отношения к прочитанному и умения выразить собственное суждение с опорой на языковой материал текста.

Работа с пособием может быть организована следующим образом. В процессе аудиторной работы преподаватель сообщает студентам некоторые сведения о той или иной стране в общем или о некоторых особенностях развития страны в определенный период в частности с целью заинтересовать студентов и обеспечить положительную мотивацию к дальнейшему более детальному изучению материала самостоятельно. На данном этапе используются географические карты, слайды, а также мультимедийные презентации для облегчения восприятия студентами изучаемых реалий стран Британского содружества.

В качестве домашнего задания студентам предлагается внимательно прочитать соответствующий раздел в пособии, изучить комментарии, что позволит существенно облегчить восприятие новой информации, т.к. комментарии не только объясняют различные реалии, но и максимально возможно снимают языковые трудности текста. Также дома студентам предлагается найти ответы на вопросы по содержанию прочитанного материала с целью выяснения того, насколько хорошо понят изученный текст. Необходимо отметить, что вопросы выстроены так, что охватывают весь языковой материал текста и являются своеобразным индикатором качества подготовки студентами домашнего задания.

В процессе аудиторной работы после ответов на вопросы и иллюстрации определенных моментов изучаемых реалий с помощью наглядности преподаватель организует дискуссию, круглый стол, мини-конференцию или другие виды работ интерактивного характера, используя вопросы-задания проблемного характера, представленные в конце каждого раздела, с целью развития у студентов умений и навыков извлекать смысловую информацию, анализировать, отбирать и творчески использовать изучаемый материал в речи для изложения собственных суждений и оценок.

Unit 1. The Commonwealth

Read the text. Study the explanatory notes. Answer the questions after the text.

Introduction

The Commonwealth of Nations¹ is a worldwide association of nations and their dependencies, whose members share a common commitment² to promoting human rights, democracy, and economic development. All members accept the British monarch as the symbolic head of the Commonwealth. All but one, Mozambique (South Africa), were once associated in some constitutional way with either the former British Empire³ or with another member country. The association was formerly known as the British Commonwealth of Nations, but today is referred to simply as the Commonwealth.

About 1.7 billion people live in the 54 independent nations and more than 20 dependencies that make up the Commonwealth. Commonwealth members share many customs and traditions as a result of their association with Britain. Many have parliamentary systems of government on the British model, and their judicial⁴ and educational institutions are often similar to those in Britain. English is an official language of many members of the Commonwealth. Since 1977 the second Monday in March has been celebrated as Commonwealth Day; on that day the British monarch, as the head of the Commonwealth, presents an annual message to all member countries.

Development of the Commonwealth

Almost all members of the Commonwealth were once ruled by Britain as part of the British Empire. Some of them, such as Australia and Canada, were largely settled by British people. Others, such as India and Nigeria, were areas where British administrators governed a large non-British population.

The British Empire, established over the course of three centuries, began in the late 16th century with chartered commercial ventures in sugar and tobacco plantations, slave trading, and missionary activities in North America and the Caribbean Islands. During the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the British Empire reached the height of its power, ruling over large parts of Africa, Asia, and North America. Most of these former colonies are now part of today's Commonwealth of Nations.

During the first half of the 19th century the British government granted settlers of European origin in the colonies of Canada and Australia some self-government. At first, self-government was limited to local affairs, but it was

gradually extended. In the 19th and early 20th centuries a number of areas under British control gained almost full independence and became known as dominions, rather than colonies. These included the Irish Free State, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. In 1926 dominions became defined as free and equal countries within the British Empire. The Statute of Westminster⁵, enacted by the British Parliament in 1931, officially proclaimed the Commonwealth a free association of self-governing dominions united by a common allegiance⁶ to the Crown. As such, Commonwealth members were entitled to join international organizations as independent nations.

In 1949 Commonwealth prime ministers issued the London Declaration. The declaration changed membership in the Commonwealth from one based on common allegiance to the British Crown to one in which members agreed to recognize the British monarch as a symbol of their association, and thus head of the Commonwealth. Commonwealth nations were no longer required to recognize the Crown as their head of state. India became the first republican member with its own president as head of state. Today the British monarch is considered the head of state in only 16 Commonwealth countries, which are now formally called realms⁷. Realms include Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. The other members recognize the Crown only as head of the Commonwealth.

During the decades following the London Declaration, many of Britain's colonies and dependencies in Africa, Asia, the Caribbean, and the Pacific gained their independence and joined the Commonwealth, although some Commonwealth members have also withdrawn⁸. Ireland left the Commonwealth in 1949. South Africa withdrew in 1961 after many Commonwealth members condemned its policies of apartheid⁹ (racial separation) and white supremacy. South Africa rejoined the Commonwealth in 1994 after apartheid ended. Fiji¹⁰ lost its membership in 1987 when a military coup¹¹ took over its government, but its membership was reinstated¹² in 1997 after the country adopted a new constitution more in line with Commonwealth principles.

Organization of the Commonwealth

Citizenship

Before World War II (1939–1945), in theory, all the people of the Commonwealth had a common nationality as British subjects. In practice, however, most Commonwealth countries had immigration policies that restricted the admission of British subjects from other parts of the Commonwealth. For example, in Canada and Australia, where most of the inhabitants are of European descent, the immigration of people from African and Asian Commonwealth countries was forbidden or limited. In 1946 Canada became the first Commonwealth country to legally distinguish between its own

citizens¹³ and other British subjects¹⁴. Although all Canadian citizens were British subjects, all British subjects were not Canadian citizens. Under a law passed in 1977 Canadians became “citizens of the Commonwealth” instead of British subjects. Today the people of independent Commonwealth countries are citizens of their own country first and Commonwealth citizens second.

Types of membership

The Commonwealth consists of 54 independent nations, their dependencies¹⁵, and two special members – the independent island nations of Nauru¹⁶ and Tuvalu¹⁷. As special members, Nauru and Tuvalu contribute to the organization’s budget on a voluntary basis and receive aid from the Commonwealth, but do not participate in the meetings attended by heads of governments. Only independent nations can be considered full members; they are all fully sovereign and in no way subordinate to Britain. Dependencies of Commonwealth nations are also included in the Commonwealth, although not as full members, and can participate in many Commonwealth activities.

Administration

The Commonwealth is a flexible and often informal association. Its main function is to encourage communication and cooperation among its diverse members, with their different needs and concerns. In 1965 the Commonwealth Secretariat was established in London to serve as a clearinghouse¹⁸ for the exchange of information. The Secretariat is headed by the Commonwealth secretary general¹⁹ and is responsible for carrying out programs formulated during the various meetings. The secretary general is elected by the Commonwealth heads of government from among the many Commonwealth diplomats and ministers. The Commonwealth Foundation provides financial and other support to professional associations and nongovernment organizations, enabling these groups to travel to other Commonwealth countries to work together. The Commonwealth Games, established in 1930 as the British Empire Games, bring together athletes from nations around the world every four years.

Emblem and flag of the Commonwealth of Nations

The flag consists of the Commonwealth symbol in gold on a blue field. The symbol centres on a globe, representing the global nature of the Commonwealth and the breadth of its membership. The globe is surrounded by 61 radiating, approximately quadrilateral²⁰, spears, which form a ‘C’ for ‘Commonwealth’. The number of spears does not represent the number of member states (there have never been 61 members); instead, the large number represents the many ways in which the Commonwealth cooperates around the world.

Trade and Economic Development

For many years economic relations formed a major link among Commonwealth countries. Patterns of trade established during the British Empire survived even after most dependencies became independent, and some of the old economic ties were preserved under a system of mutual tariff preferences set up in 1932. The system benefited the less-developed members by reducing or eliminating British duties on certain exports, mainly foodstuffs. In return, these countries favored Britain in their imports of certain manufactured goods. The importance of this tariff system declined in the 1960s as Britain increased its trade with other developed nations, especially in Europe. Other Commonwealth nations also diversified their economies and found new trading partners outside the Commonwealth. In 1973 Britain entered the European Economic Community, now the European Union (EU), and adopted its tariffs, which changed the established trading patterns among the Commonwealth nations.

The exchange of technical experts and advice, through the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation, plays a significant role in Commonwealth affairs. Several of the more prosperous Commonwealth countries are members of the Colombo Plan, which provides funds for the economic development of southern Asia and parts of the Pacific. The larger Commonwealth nations are also helping the smaller, less-developed members become part of the global economy. To this end, they have established more liberal trade arrangements and organized regional private investment funds.

The Commonwealth in World Affairs

The Commonwealth does not act as a bloc in world affairs. In the United Nations, for example, some Commonwealth countries, such as Canada, usually support the United States and Britain, while others do not. Members of the Commonwealth are free to join other international or regional organizations. Britain and Canada, for example, are members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). The African members have all joined the Organization of African Unity (OAU), and Guyana, Canada, and the Caribbean countries are members of the Organization of American States (OAS).

In 1971 the Commonwealth set forth the Singapore Declaration of shared principles that included commitments to peace, individual liberty, freedom from racism, international cooperation, and economic and social development. These commitments were reaffirmed in the Harare Declaration in 1991, which emphasized democracy and human rights. To deal with serious and persistent violations of these principles, the Commonwealth Ministerial Action Group (CMAG) was set up in 1995. It includes eight ministers who assess the extent of

violations and recommend measures for collective action. The Commonwealth can enforce these principles with such punitive measures as economic sanctions or suspension from involvement in the Commonwealth. The Commonwealth's efforts to promote democracy have encouraged a number of its members with military regimes to convert to civilian governments.

Explanatory notes

1. The Commonwealth of Nations – Содружество Наций (межгосударственное объединение Великобритании и большинства бывших английских доминионов, колоний и зависимых территорий; создавалось Великобританией для сохранения её экономических и военно-политических позиций в подвластных странах и территориях)

2. commitment [kə'mɪtmənt] – обязательство (по отношению к чему-л.)

3. British Empire [brɪtɪʃ'empaɪə] – Британская империя (термин, обозначающий совокупность Соединённого Королевства Великобритании и Северной Ирландии, её доминионов и колониальных владений, захваченных вследствие экспансии XVII–XX вв.; распалась в результате роста национально-освободительного движения)

4. judicial [dʒu:'dɪʃ(ə)l] – судебный; законный, принадлежащий закону

5. the Statute of Westminster [stætju:təv'westmɪnsə] – Вестминстерский статут (1931 г.; акт парламента о правовом положении британских доминионов и их взаимоотношениях с Великобританией; подтвердил полный суверенитет доминионов, однако фактически сохранил контроль Великобритании над их внешней политикой)

6. allegiance [ə'li:dʒ(ə)ns] – лояльность, преданность

7. realm [reɪlm] – королевство; государство

8. withdraw [wɪð'drɔ:] – удаляться, уходить

9. apartheid [ə'pɑ:θaɪt] – апартеид (политика жестокой расовой дискриминации и сегрегации в отношении цветного населения, проводившаяся в ЮАР до конца 1980-х гг.)

10. Fiji (the Republic of the Fiji Islands) – Республика Островов Фиджи (островное государство в юго-западной части Тихого океана, в Меланезии)

11. military coup [ku:] – военный переворот, путч

12. reinstate ['ri:ɪn'steɪt] – восстанавливать (в прежнем положении, правах)

13. citizen ['sɪtɪz(ə)n] – гражданин

14. subject ['sʌbdʒekt] – подданный, гражданин
15. dependency [dɪ'pendənsɪ] – зависимая страна, территория
16. the Republic of Nauru – Республика Науру (островное государство в юго-западной части Тихого океана)
17. Tuvalu [tu:'vʌ:lu:] – Тувалу (группа островов в юго-западной части Тихого океана)
18. clearinghouse ['klɪərɪŋhaus] – информационный центр
19. secretary general – генеральный секретарь (должность руководителя в международной организации)
20. quadrilateral [kwɒdrɪ'lætərəl] – четырёхугольник

Give detailed answers to the following questions.

1. What is the Commonwealth?
2. What is the difference between a colony, a dependency, a realm, a sovereign state?
3. What commitment do members of the Commonwealth share? Who is the symbolic head of the Commonwealth?
4. How many countries are there in the Commonwealth? How many people live in them?
5. When is Commonwealth Day celebrated? Who addresses the member countries on that day?
6. What is the connection between the British Empire and the Commonwealth?
7. When and why was the British Empire established? When was the height of power of the British Empire?
8. What did the Statute of Westminster and the London Declaration state?
9. Do all countries within the Commonwealth recognize the Crown as their head of state?
10. What does the flag of the Commonwealth of Nations symbolize?
11. Why did South Africa and Fiji have to withdraw from the Commonwealth?
12. What types of membership are there in the Commonwealth? What's interesting about citizenship in the Commonwealth?
13. What is the main function of the Commonwealth?
14. Why was the Commonwealth Secretariat established? Who is it headed by?
15. What is the function of the Commonwealth Foundation?
16. What was the 'system of mutual tariff preferences' like? Why was it changed?
17. What are the members of the Colombo Plan responsible for?
18. Does the Commonwealth act as a bloc in world affairs?

19. What commitments were stated in the Singapore Declaration? What punitive measures can the Commonwealth use to enforce these principles?

Discussion

1. Why do most countries not leave the Commonwealth of Nations? Does our country belong to any commonwealth? Does our country benefit from this kind of alliance? Explain your point of view.

2. Can Belarus become a member of the Commonwealth of Nations one day? Why? Would you like it to? Explain your point of view.

3. Do you think that the UK is still the most powerful country within the Commonwealth and that the Statute of Westminster and the London Declaration didn't change anything? Why?

4. What do you consider to be the most important function of the Commonwealth? Why?

5. For how long will the Commonwealth last? Why? Can it be seen as the most powerful alliance in the world? What makes you think so?

Unit 2. The First British Empire

Read the text. Study the explanatory notes. Answer the questions after the text.

Introduction

The British Empire was the name given to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the former dominions, colonies, and other territories throughout the world that owed allegiance to the British Crown from the late 1500s to the middle of the 20th century. At its height in the early 1900s, the British Empire included over 20 percent of the world's land area and more than 400 million people.

The foundations of the British Empire were laid during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1558–1603). Under Elizabeth, English support for naval exploration increased dramatically, and in 1580 Sir Francis Drake became the first Englishman to sail around the world.

The establishment of the empire resulted primarily from commercial and political motives and emigration movements; its long endurance resulted from British command of the seas and preeminence¹ in international commerce, and from the flexibility of British rule. At its height in the late 19th and early 20th century, the empire included territories on all continents, comprising about one quarter of the world's population and area. Probably the outstanding impact of

the British Empire has been the dissemination² of European ideas, particularly of British political institutions and of English as a lingua franca, throughout a large part of the world.

17th century

North America

The origins of the empire date from the late 16th century with the private commercial ventures (chartered and encouraged by the crown) of chartered companies. Chartered companies were associations for foreign trade, exploration, and colonization that came into existence with the formation of the European nation states and their overseas expansion. An association received its charter from the state and sometimes had state support. The company received a monopoly of trade or colonization in a certain region and customarily exercised lawmaking, military, and treaty-making functions, subject to the approval of the home government, besides other privileges.

In the 17th century European demand for sugar and tobacco led to the growth of plantations on the islands of the Caribbean and in SE North America. These colonies, together with those established by Roman Catholics and Protestant dissenters³ in NE North America, attracted European settlers. Organized by chartered companies, the colonies soon developed representative institutions, evolving from the company governing body and modeled on English lines.

The first permanent English settlement in North America was established in 1607 at Jamestown, Virginia. In 1620 the Pilgrims landed in Massachusetts Bay and founded Plymouth Colony⁴, the first permanent English settlement in New England. The colonists set up a Puritan community, forming the Massachusetts Bay Company⁵ in 1628.

Other religious colonies were established in Rhode Island (1636), Connecticut (1639), and Maryland (1634).

These colonies stayed close to the coastline, never penetrating far inland, and in fact each was linked more closely to England than to the other colonies. However, because of the distances involved, effective government from England was impossible, so colonial governors were authorized to form assemblies elected from among the colonists to act as a legislative body and advise the executive.

English presence was gradually extended further down the eastern coastline. In 1664 New Amsterdam was seized from the Netherlands and renamed New York. The Dutch inhabitants were the first large, established community overseas to be brought forcefully under English rule. In 1681 under a royal grant the colony of Pennsylvania was formed.

After 1688 wars with France led to further English expansion. Colonies in New England grew steadily, and the Hudson's Bay Company⁶ was established

near Hudson Bay to participate in the fur trade. This growing English presence intensified friction in the 1690s with New France.

It's worth mentioning that at its peak in 1712, New France's territory stretched from Newfoundland to Lake Superior, and from the Hudson's Bay to the Gulf of Mexico. It included five colonies, each with its own government: Canada (most of the current provinces of Quebec and Ontario); Acadie (also called, with current Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, eastern Quebec, and most of New England (Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut); Terre Neuve (current Newfoundland); La Baie d'Hudson (the Hudson's Bay); La Louisiane (the entire basin of the Mississippi).

As a result of the War of the Spanish Succession (1701–1714), in which England (by now Great Britain) and its allies fought against France and Spain, British forces captured the French American possessions of Acadia and Newfoundland. The Spanish islands of Gibraltar⁷ and Minorca⁸ were seized in the same conflict, giving Britain for the first time a territorial presence in the Mediterranean Sea. The Peace of Utrecht (the Netherlands) (1713) resolved the war, and officially ceded the conquered lands to the British. It also extended British rights to supply slaves and other trade goods to the Spanish Americas, and as a result, established Britain's status as an overseas power approximately equal to its main European competitors.

The West Indies

The first British foothold in the West Indies was Saint Christopher (later Saint Kitts), acquired in 1623. The English plantations established in the West Indies were worked initially by white indentured servants⁹ from England. The West Indian tobacco boom gradually petered out and was replaced by sugar production, which required a larger labor force that was provided by slaves from Africa. This began the transformation of the islands into a plantation economy based on slavery.

In 1655 the English conquered the Spanish colony of Jamaica – the first English colony taken by force. During the 1660s, semilegitimate English privateers (private vessels commissioned by a government to attack possessions or trade of a rival country) raided Spanish trade and settlements. In 1670 England and Spain signed the Treaty of Madrid, in which Spain finally acknowledged English possessions in the Caribbean. The sugar economy expanded, and the Royal Africa Company was formed in 1672 to bring large numbers of African slaves to the Caribbean. The plantation owners obtained labor, but at the cost of anxiety about their own security; by the 1670s slaves had become the largest proportion of the population in the English islands. An integrated imperial trade arose, involving the exchange of American slaves for West Indian molasses¹⁰ and sugar, English cloth and manufactured goods, and American fish and timber.

To achieve the imperial self-sufficiency required by prevailing theories of *mercantilism* and to increase British wealth and naval strength, *the Navigation Acts* were passed, restricting colonial trade exclusively to British ships and making England the sole market for importing colonial products.

Mercantilism¹¹ was the economic system of the major trading nations during the 16th, 17th, and 18th century, based on the premise that national wealth and power were best served by increasing exports and collecting precious metals in return. The period 1500–1800 was one of religious and commercial wars, and large revenues were needed to maintain armies and pay the growing costs of civil government. Mercantilist nations were impressed by the fact that the precious metals, especially gold, were in universal demand as the ready means of obtaining other commodities. As the best means of acquiring bullion, foreign trade was favored above domestic trade, and manufacturing or processing, which provided the goods for foreign trade, was favored at the expense of the extractive industries (e.g., agriculture). Under a mercantilist policy a nation sought to sell more than it bought so as to accumulate bullion. Besides bullion, raw materials for domestic manufacturers were also sought, and duties were levied on the importation of such goods in order to provide revenue for the government. The state exercised much control over economic life, chiefly through corporations and trading companies. Production was carefully regulated with the object of securing goods of high quality and low cost, thus enabling the nation to hold its place in foreign markets. Treaties were made to obtain exclusive trading privileges, and the commerce of colonies was exploited for the benefit of the mother country. In England mercantilist policies were effective in creating a skilled industrial population and a large shipping industry.

The Navigation Acts¹² were passed by the English Parliament in the seventeenth century. The Acts were originally aimed at excluding the Dutch from the profits made by English trade. The mercantilist theory behind the Navigation Acts assumed that world trade was fixed and the colonies existed for the parent country.

The Navigation Acts of 1660 and 1696 restricted American trade in the following ways:

1. Only British ships could transport imported and exported goods from the colonies.
2. The only people who were allowed to trade with the colonies had to be British citizens.
3. Commodities such as sugar, tobacco, and cotton wool which were produced in the colonies could be exported only to British ports.

Before 1763 the English civil war and the Glorious Revolution were taking place in Europe. During this time the British had to deal with the wars in Europe and really didn't enforce the Navigation Acts, due to their preoccupation

with the war. Colonists then stopped following the laws, and smuggling and bribery became a common sight throughout the colonies. The colonists began trading with non-British colonies in the Caribbean, this trading contributed to many colonial merchants and farmers prospering. Britain once again tried to enforce these laws after the French and Indian War, but the colonists sternly objected. These acts aroused great hostility in the American colonies. The Navigation Acts were finally revoked in 1849 after Britain supported the policy of free trade.

18th century

The Seven Years' War

During the Seven Years' War in Europe (1756–1763), Britain made large imperial gains at the expense of France. The North American segment of the Seven Years' War was launched by the British against French possessions in North America in 1754, and in 1758 the British captured the French fortress of Louisbourg, which gave them access to French territory in the St. Lawrence Valley. In the following year Quebec was captured, marking the end of the French presence in Canada. In the Caribbean, British forces captured many of the French possessions, including the large sugar-producing islands of Martinique and Guadeloupe.

The early 18th century saw a reorganization and revitalization of many of the old chartered companies. In India, from the 1740s to 1763, the British East India Company and its French counterpart were engaged in a military and commercial rivalry in which the British were ultimately victorious. The political fragmentation of the Mughal¹³ empire permitted the absorption of one area after another by the British. The Treaty of Paris firmly established the British in India and Canada.

At the Treaty of Paris in 1763, which ended both the Seven Years' War and the French and Indian War, the British handed Guadeloupe and Martinique back to France, but retained control of Canada. This was especially important to the British in guaranteeing the security of the New England colonies. From this treaty dated the colonial and maritime supremacy of Great Britain.

East India Company¹⁴ (1600–1874)

East India Company was a company chartered by Queen Elizabeth I for trade with Asia. The original object of the group of merchants involved was to break the Dutch monopoly of the spice trade with the East Indies. However, after 1623, when the English traders at Amboina (an island in Indonesia) were massacred¹⁵ by the Dutch, the company admitted defeat in that endeavor and concentrated its activities in India. It had established its first factory in 1611, and it gradually acquired unequalled trade privileges from the Mughal emperors. The

company was soon reaping large profits from its Indian exports (chiefly textiles). By that time the company had established in India the three presidencies. As Mughal power declined, these settlements became subject to increasing harassment¹⁶ by local princes, and the company began to protect itself by intervening more and more in Indian political affairs. It had, moreover, a serious rival in the French East India Company, which launched an aggressive policy of expansion. The victories (1751–1760) over the French made the company dominant in India. By the East India Act of 1784 the government assumed more direct responsibility for British activities in India, setting up a board of control for India. The company continued to control commercial policy and lesser administration, but the British government became increasingly the effective ruler of India. Parliamentary acts of 1813 and 1833 ended the company's trade monopoly. Finally, after the Indian Mutiny¹⁷ of 1857–1858 the government assumed direct control, and the East India Company was dissolved.

The American Revolution

For the British, an expanded empire meant new responsibilities and new costs. The British government wanted to tap American revenues to pay for American necessities, and consequently increased taxation with the Stamp Act (1765). Although the British considered the act to be perfectly fair, many American colonists saw it as a violation of their rights. After riots in the colonies, the Stamp Act was repealed, but other taxes soon replaced it, setting off a controversy in which the colonies united against Britain in the Continental Congress. A skirmish at Concord, Massachusetts, in April 1775 deteriorated into general fighting, and in July 1776 the Congress issued the Declaration of Independence. During the American Revolution that followed, the Congress controlled most of the land area, but the British were secure in their stronghold in New York until their position was weakened by a defeat at Saratoga (1777), which encouraged France to intervene on behalf of the rebellious colonists. British resistance ended at Yorktown, Virginia, in October 1781.

This defeat marked not only the end of the American war, but also the end of the First British Empire. Yet because France had not been able to challenge British supremacy at sea, Britain's losses did not extend beyond the American colonies themselves. At the same time, the British presence in Canada was reinforced by the establishment of the colony of New Brunswick, resulting from the migration northwards of over 30,000 citizens of the American colonies who were still loyal to Britain.

Explanatory notes

1. preeminence [pri'emi'nəns] – превосходство

2. dissemination [dɪ'semɪ'neɪʃən] – распространение

3. dissenter [dɪ'sentə] – инакомыслящий

4. Plymouth Colony – Плимутская колония, первое постоянное английское поселение в современной Новой Англии, основано английскими пуританами, вошедшими в историю как «отцы-пилигримы»

5. Massachusetts Bay Company – Компания Массачусетского залива, по королевской хартии получившая право не только на рыболовство и пользование другими ресурсами новой территории, но и на создание своего правительства.

6. Hudson's Bay Company – Компания Гудзонова залива. Первоначально компания ставила задачи освоения региона и поиска северо-западного морского пути. Обладала монополией на продажу пушнины в некоторых районах до 1859 г. Продолжает оставаться крупной фирмой по продаже пушнины, железной руды, нефти, газа, древесины; является одной из старейших корпораций мира.

7. Gibraltar [dʒɪ'brɔːltə] – Гибралтар (заморская территория Великобритании; столица – Гибралтар)

8. Minorca [mɪ'nɔːkə] – Менорка (остров в Средиземном море, принадлежит Испании)

9. indentured [ɪn'dentʃəd] servant – законтрактованный работник; лицо, обязанное выполнять оговоренную работу в течение определенного времени в качестве платы за оказанную ему услугу или с целью выплаты долга. В XVII–XVIII вв. в эту категорию входили лица, добровольно подписавшие контракт, по условиям которого за их перевоз через Атлантику они обязывались работать в течение 4–7 лет. Хозяин, в свою очередь, обязывался кормить, одевать и обеспечивать жильем своего работника.

10. molasses [mə'læsɪz] – продукт, полученный из крахмала; в США по традиции широко применяется в кулинарии вместо сахара

11. mercantilism – меркантилизм (система взглядов на вопросы экономической политики, господствовавшая в XVI–XVIII вв.; основой богатства государства считалось количество золота и серебра, поэтому экономическая политика была направлена на привлечение драгоценных металлов в страну; в последствии в рамках данной концепции международная торговля стала объясняться стремлением стран увеличить благосостояние за счет чистого притока иностранной валюты).

12. Navigation Acts – законы о мореплавании, принятые английским парламентом. Они имели целью поставить американские колонии в

полную зависимость от Англии. В торговле с колониями разрешалось использовать только английские суда и суда других английских колоний. Запрещалось перевозить товары на иностранных судах. Колонии не имели права торговать с другими странами непосредственно, а только при посредничестве Англии и только через британские порты. Жесткое требование Англии об исполнении этих законов после 1763 г. вызвало напряженность в отношениях между Англией и ее американскими колониями и в конце концов стало прологом Войны за независимость.

13. Mughal – могол; потомок завоевателей Индии

14. East India Company – Британская Ост-Индская компания – акционерное общество, получившее обширные привилегии для торговых операций в Индии. С помощью Ост-Индской компании была осуществлена британская колонизация Индии и ряда стран Востока.

15. massacre ['mæsəkə] – убивать с особенной жестокостью

16. harassment ['hærəsmənt], [hə'ræsmənt] – агрессия, притеснение

17. mutiny ['mju:t(ə)nɪ] – мятеж, восстание, бунт

Give detailed answers to the following questions.

1. How big was the British Empire? When was it started? What did the establishment and long endurance of the Empire result from?

2. What are the origins of the Empire associated with? What is 'a chartered company'?

3. Why did North America attract European settlers? What colonies were founded in North America? How were they governed? What's 'New England'?

4. What happened to New Amsterdam in 1664? Why was the Hudson's company established?

5. What territories officially became English after the peace of Utrecht?

6. Where are the West Indies situated? What brought about the transformation of the islands into a plantation economy? Who worked on the plantations?

7. When was Jamaica conquered? When did Spain acknowledge English possessions in the Caribbean? Why was the Royal African Company formed?

8. What did the policy of mercantilism aim at? Why were the Navigation Acts passed?

9. What imperial gains were made by Britain during the Seven Years' War and after the Treaty of Paris?

10. Why was the East India Company organized? Who fought for dominance India? What did this fighting result in?

11. Why did the American war start? How did it end?

Discussion

1. What triggered the origins of the First British Empire? Why can chartered companies be considered the key element in the development of the First British Empire? Explain your point of view.
2. Do you approve or disapprove of the UK's expansion? Explain your point of view.
3. How did the policy of mercantilism affect the development of the First British Empire? Prove your point of view.
4. Who do you consider to be the main rivals of the British Crown in the 17th–18th centuries? Could the world be different now if it hadn't been for the power of the British Crown? Explain your point of view.
5. Why did the First British Empire have a great impact on global trade practices in the 17th–18th centuries? Give examples to explain your opinion.

Unit 3. The Second British Empire

Read the text. Study the explanatory notes. Answer the questions after the text.

Introduction

After the loss of the American colonies, British commerce turned from the *Americas* (another name for America) – to the east in its search both for spices for re-export and, increasingly, for markets to sell ever-growing amounts of British manufactured goods. The Industrial Revolution had transformed the British economy from a primarily agricultural one to one based much more on mechanized manufacturing, and as a result had drastically increased the amount of British products available for export. The quest for new markets for international trade was the economic incentive¹ behind the Second British Empire. Free trade, the belief that international trade should not be restricted by any one nation, replaced the old colonial system, which had relied on mercantilist ideas of protected commerce.

The Second British Empire, focused more on Asia and Africa, continued to expand in the 1800s and early 1900s and reached its apex² at the end of World War I. However, a growing nationalism among the British colonies gradually weakened the power of the empire, and Britain was eventually forced to grant independence to many of its former colonies.

18th century

India

Although the first empire was centered in the Americas, the English were also active in India in the 17th century. The English East India Company founded trading posts (stores or small settlements established for trading, typically in a remote place known as factories) at Surat (1612) and Madras, now Chennai, (1639) under the auspices³ of the native Mughal Empire. Rapid expansion followed, and in 1690 the company set up a new factory further up the River Hugli, on a site that became Calcutta (now Kolkata). By 1700 the company was extending its commercial activities in Bengal (a region in the northeast of the Indian subcontinent, in 1947, the province was divided into West Bengal, which has remained a state of India, and East Bengal, which is now Bangladesh) and had established itself as a leading player in Indian politics.

After the death of the Mughal emperor in 1707, the Mughal Empire in India entered a period of instability. During this time the East India Company – while remaining above all a commercial organization – entered more directly into politics in order to preserve its position. Then, during the 1740s and 1750s, the East India Company fought the French East India Company for primacy in India. A series of engagements culminated in June 1757, in which the British defeated their Indian and French rivals and established the East India Company as the dominant power in the important region of Bengal.

Australia

Though English expeditions had landed in Australia in the late 1600s, original assessments of the usefulness of the continent were not enough to motivate a large-scale interest in colonization. It was the more thorough explorations of Captain James Cook in the 1770s, coupled with the loss of the American colonies around the same time, that changed this. Though remote, Australia became important to the British, both as a strategic port near East Asia, and as a destination for British convicts⁴ after the loss of the American colonies. As a result, a British fleet composed mainly of convicts was dispatched to Botany Bay in the Australian region of New South Wales, resulting in the foundation of Sydney in 1788.

In the years following the American Revolution, the British government attempted to consolidate⁵ and tighten control over its territory in India and Canada. The India Act of 1785 subjected the East India Company's administration to the scrutiny⁶ of a board of control. Under the governor-generalship (1786–1793) of Lord Cornwallis, Britain put administration in India into the hands of a professional civil service within the East India Company, though the company itself remained a trading concern. The Canada Act of 1791 attempted to ease tensions between French and British inhabitants in Canada

somewhat by separating the region into Upper Canada, primarily English speaking, and Lower Canada, primarily French speaking.

19th century

The Napoleonic Wars

Britain's involvement in wars with France after 1793 gave a fresh spur⁷ to the growth of its empire. In 1794 Britain again captured the French sugar-producing islands in the Caribbean. This resulted in a glut⁸ of sugar on the British market and contributed indirectly to British legislation in 1807 abolishing the slave trade, by virtue of the fact⁹ that production was so high that few new slaves were needed.

Britain's Mediterranean position and its route to the east were secured during the Napoleonic Wars (1799–1815), primarily due to the naval triumphs of British Admiral Nelson. First, Nelson stopped Napoleon's invasion of Egypt at the Battle of the Nile, which gave control of the entire Mediterranean to the British. Then, at the Battle of Trafalgar¹⁰, Nelson destroyed a French fleet on its way to land troops in Italy. By decimating¹¹ the French navy, Nelson ended any possible threat to the British islands from Napoleon and ensured British naval superiority for much of the 19th century.

America was not a theatre of operations until friction¹² over neutral trading rights and boundaries led to the War of 1812, during which the Americans seized York (now Toronto) in Upper Canada, and the British sacked¹³ Washington, D.C. The inability of American forces to make significant advances into Canada confirmed the survival of British North America.

During the Napoleonic Wars, the Netherlands sided with France, and Britain seized several Dutch possessions, including the Cape Colony, in South Africa; Ceylon (later Sri Lanka) off the Indian coast; Java, in Indonesia; and parts of Guiana, in South America. Though Java was returned to the Dutch, most of these possessions were retained by the British under the agreement reached in 1815.

It should be noted that Cape Colony was early name (1814–1910) for the former Cape Province¹⁴. Cape Province was a former province of South Africa, containing the Cape of Good Hope. The area became a British colony in 1814: it was known as Cape Colony from then until 1910, when it joined the Union of South Africa. In 1994 it was divided into the provinces of Northern Cape, Western Cape, and Eastern Cape.

South Africa

The acquisition of the Cape Colony from the Dutch during the Napoleonic Wars allowed the British to establish a strong presence in southern Africa. Thousands of British colonists began to arrive after 1820, and English became the official language in 1822. Slavery, which had been heavily relied upon by

the Dutch, was abolished in 1833. In 1843 the British established the coastal colony of Natal a province on the eastern coast of South Africa that was renamed KwaZulu-Natal in 1994.

The Boers¹⁵ who were descendants of the original Dutch and German settlers that settled in southern Africa in the late 17th century, resented British rule, and thousands of the Boers migrated north, eventually founding the interior African republics of the Transvaal¹⁶ and the Orange Free State¹⁷.

The Boers were Calvinist in religion and fiercely self-sufficient. Conflict with the British administration of Cape Colony after 1806 led to the Great Trek of 1835–1837 and the Boer Wars, after which the Boer republics of Transvaal and Orange Free State became part of the Republic of South Africa. The Boers' present-day descendants are the Afrikaners¹⁸.

India

In India, Lord Arthur Wellesley, later the Duke of Wellington, made a series of conquests, so that by 1805 Britain in effect controlled Delhi and had made the native Mughal emperor into a puppet. In 1828 English replaced Persian, as the official language of government in India, and Christian missionary activity increased. British superiority was finally completed with the conquest of the Punjab and Sind regions in the 1840s.

However, the Indian population gradually began to resent British rule, feeling that the British had no respect for native cultures and traditions. These feelings came to a head in the Sepoy Rebellion of 1857, in which Indian soldiers (called sepoys) under the command of the East India Company staged an armed uprising. The rebellion was put down by the British, but not before extensive loss of life on both sides. As a result, the British gave up trying to anglicize India and focused on governing efficiently while working in tandem with traditional elements of Indian society. After 1858 India ceased to be administered through the East India Company and was brought directly under British government, with a viceroy (a ruler exercising authority in a colony on behalf of a sovereign) and a separate secretary of state in London who served in the Cabinet.

Burma

During the 19th century, Britain was using its strong armies in India to expand into Southeast Asia. The Burmese Konbaung dynasty had expanded the borders of Burma (now Myanmar¹⁹) greatly, until they began to bump up against British India. Attempted Burmese incursions into India resulted in the First Anglo-Burmese War (1824–1826), in which the Burmese were overpowered by the British and were forced to cede several coastal areas to them. Over the course of the Second and Third Anglo-Burmese Wars (1852 and 1885) Britain established its dominance in the region, conquering all of Burma. In 1886 Burma was officially made a province of India.

The Beginning of Responsible Government

An empire based on *free trade* (interchange of commodities across political boundaries without restrictions such as tariffs, quotas, or foreign exchange controls; this economic policy contrasts with protectionist policies that use trade restrictions to protect or stimulate domestic industries) required less regulation than one based on mercantilist principles. As a result, the concept of responsible government, or government by the citizens of a colony, emerged. It was applied in the British North American colonies during the 1840s, and in 1867 Canada was confederated²⁰. Confederation allowed Britain to withdraw its military presence while retaining control of foreign affairs and external defense. In the 1850s the new Australian colonies of South Australia, Western Australia, Victoria, and Queensland that had been established in the 1830s and 1840s were accorded²¹ responsible government, along with the existing colony of New South Wales. However, their fragmented character delayed federation until 1901. Britain did not grant responsible government to its colonies in southern Africa because of tensions between the settlers and the native Africans. However, in the 1850s Britain withdrew from overseeing the interior republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

The mid-1800s was an era of relative stability in imperial affairs, without unbridled²² expansion overseas. However, Britain did continue its aggressive trading policy, which often led to conflict. The primary examples of this were the conflicts with China over the British importation of opium into China, which led to the Opium Wars in the mid-19th century and the British acquisition of Hong Kong (now administrative region of China) in 1841.

New Imperialism

The government of Benjamin Disraeli (British prime minister) (1874–1880) adopted a more active British policy overseas. This so-called New Imperialism was characterized by much more aggressive imperial expansion and defense of British interests overseas. Though it was sometimes the result of local instability, as in 1882 when British troops occupied Egypt in order to preserve control of the Suez Canal²³, it was more often fueled by the British government's desire to extend its empire.

After the occupation of Egypt, a race to establish colonies in Africa ensued. Britain, which competed principally against France and Germany, made a series of claims in West Africa in the 1880s, mainly in the Niger River Valley. Additional colonies were established in southern Africa, where the activities of Cecil Rhodes led to the annexation²⁴ of Bechuanaland (now Botswana) in 1885 and the founding of Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) in 1890. The most resolute opponents of British expansion were the Boers of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State in southern Africa, until the British finally defeated them in the Boer War (1899–1902).

In East Africa, British explorers were active from the 1850s in the search for the source of the Nile, and in 1864 Sir Samuel Baker discovered Lake Albert; the acquisition of Uganda in 1894 eventually secured Britain's political dominance in the region. About the same time, British settlement in Kenya began.

20th century

The British government of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, who took office in 1905, followed a less active imperial style. Britain granted self-government to the Transvaal and the Orange Free State in 1907, which paved the way for the establishment of the Union of South Africa in 1910.

World War I and the Empire at its Height

During World War I (1914–1918) the British Empire remained essentially united. The Dominions, as those colonies granted responsible government were now called, were loyal to Britain at first, apart from a minor and easily repressed Boer revolt in 1914. However, the Easter Rebellion in Ireland in 1916 marked the beginning of an increasing desire for independence in many of the colonies.

Troops from the Dominion countries were prominent in World War I, but as the sacrifices of war increased after 1916, loyalty to Britain waned²⁵. Conscription²⁶, a system by which private citizens were forced to join the armed services, was rejected in Australia in 1917 and was strongly opposed in French Quebec.

The war expanded the British Empire to its greatest extent. The Treaty of Versailles in 1919 gave Britain most of the German Empire in Africa, (now Burundi, Rwanda and Tanganyika (the mainland part of present Tanzania). while the collapse of the Ottoman Empire (dynastic state centered in what is now Turkey) in the Middle East led to the British acquisition of Palestine (the state of Israel was established in what was traditionally Palestine) and Iraq in 1918.

However, the war also accelerated support for nationalist movements in the colonies, and the British government found that it could do little to stop this trend. After World War I Britain was exhausted, and the empire was overextended. As a result, during the 1920s and 1930s Britain searched for policies that would both reduce the cost of the empire and the risk of its falling apart. It granted independence to Egypt in 1922 and to Iraq in 1932. The demands of the Dominions for full constitutional autonomy were granted in the Statute of Westminster in 1931, which eliminated all control by the British Parliament over dominion government. The statute also established the British Commonwealth of Nations as an association of equal and independent states united by common allegiance to the British Crown. After the Irish Revolution (1912–1922), southern Ireland had been granted dominion status as the Irish Free State, though in 1937 it withdrew from the empire and became Ireland.

In India discontent with British rule increased throughout this period, culminating in the Amritsar (a city in northwestern India). Massacre, in which the British army fired indiscriminately²⁷ at demonstrators, killing nearly 400. Though the British colonial government passed constitutional reforms in 1919 and 1935, tensions remained high. In its African colonies, Britain did not as yet have to cope with nationalism and concentrated on administering the populations indirectly and

inexpensively through existing local institutions. Nevertheless, there was occasional African resistance to colonial control, especially where the British levied²⁸ new taxes or interfered with traditional practices.

Decolonization

If the British Empire still clung to a fragile equilibrium²⁹ in 1939, World War II (1939–1945) upset it. Some British possessions, including Hong Kong (China) and Burma, were conquered by Japan. There was a revolt in India in August 1942, and some dissidence (protest against official policy) in the Indian Army. Although India nevertheless contributed extensively to the Allied war effort, by 1945 the British colonial government in India was a spent force. The Dominions entered the war alongside Britain in 1939, but afterwards showed their determination to judge the nature and limits of their participation. In the colonies still directly under British authority, especially those in Africa and the Caribbean, the British government sought to develop a more progressive image in keeping with a war supposedly being fought *on behalf of freedom*. Colonial Development and Welfare Acts were passed in 1940 and 1945, and Prime Minister Winston Churchill joined with United States President Franklin Delano Roosevelt in issuing the Atlantic Charter in 1941, which declared the right of self-determination for all countries. While Britain was quite successful overall at mobilizing its empire for the war, the promises it issued and the actions it took to elicit this mobilization ultimately hastened its end.

The results of these actions were seen quickly in Asia, where India and Pakistan gained independence in 1947, and Ceylon and Burma in 1948. Only Burma did not remain a member of the Commonwealth. Of Britain's Asian possessions, only Hong Kong was still under British control after 1950, and it was returned to the People's Republic of China in 1997. In 1948 Britain also gave up its control over Palestine. In Africa, Britain assumed that self-government would be much longer in coming. Riots in Accra in February 1948, however, forced a relatively rapid transition in the Gold Coast, which in 1957 became the independent nation of Ghana. In the 1950s the British government recognized the winds of change in Africa, and many African nations gained independence in the late 1950s and early 1960s: Sudan (1956), Nigeria (1960), Sierra Leone (1961), Tanganyika (1961, later Tanzania), Uganda (1962), Kenya (1963), Zambia (1964), Malawi (1964), The Gambia (1965), Botswana (1966), and Swaziland (1968). These and other transfers of power were for the most part very smooth, with the exception of Rhodesia, where a revolt by white settlers led to years of guerrilla warfare before Zimbabwe was legally established in 1980.

There were no such troubles in the West Indies, although the various islands gained their independence as separate, and not always viable³⁰ units. Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago became independent in 1962, and the other islands followed thereafter.

Throughout this process, British governments did not resist decolonization, provided that it was possible to transfer power to friendly regimes and the circumstances were not humiliating to national pride. Where British prestige was hurt, as in the war with Argentina over the Falkland Islands (Islas Malvinas) in 1982, the response was militant³¹.

With the end of the empire, a multiracial, coequal Commonwealth of Nations evolved, which had modest utility but generally cooperative feelings. Today there are 54 Commonwealth nations, and even most of those states that left the Commonwealth for one reason or another (such as South Africa and Pakistan) have found cause to return.

Explanatory notes

1. incentive [ɪn'sentɪv] – побуждение, стимул
2. apex ['eɪpeks] – высшая точка, вершина
3. under the auspices – при содействии чего-л.
4. convicts ['kɒnvɪkt] – заключённый
5. to consolidate – усиливать, укреплять
6. scrutiny ['skruːtɪni] – внимательный осмотр; наблюдение
7. spur – толчок, побуждение, стимул
8. glut – избыток, излишек
9. by virtue of the fact – на основании чего-л.
10. Trafalgar [trə'fælgə] – мыс на юге Испании
11. decimate ['desɪmeɪt] – истреблять
12. friction – разногласие
13. sack – присваивать
14. Cape Province – Капская провинция (ЮАР)
15. Boer ['bəʊə] – бур, африканер (потомок голландских переселенцев в Южной Африке)
16. Transvaal [trænzvɑːl] – Трансвааль (провинция ЮАР)
17. the Orange Free State – Оранжевая провинция (в ЮАР, переименованная в 1994 г. в Free State).
18. Afrikaner [æfrɪ'kɑːnər] – африканер (самоназвание жителей Южно-Африканской Республики нидерландского, а также французского и немецкого происхождения); бур
19. Myanmar [miːæn'mɑː] – Мьянма (республика; до 1989 г. называлась «Бирма»)

20. confederate – составлять федерацию; объединяться
21. accord [ə'kɔ:d] – предоставлять
22. unbridled [ʌn'braɪld] – несдержанный
23. the Suez Canal ['su:ɪzkə'næl] – Суэцкий канал (в Египте, соединяет Красное море со Средиземным)
24. annexation [ænek'seɪʃ(ə)n] – захват, насильственное присоединение территории какого-л. государства к другому государству или насильственное удержание какой-л. народности в границах чужого государства
25. wane [weɪn] – падать, ослабевать
26. conscription [kən'skrɪpʃ(ə)n] – воинская повинность
27. indiscriminately [ɪndɪ'skrɪmɪnətli] – без разбора
28. levied ['levɪ] – взимать (налог)
29. equilibrium [i:kwi'libriəm] – равновесие, баланс
30. viable ['vaɪəbl] – жизнеспособный
31. militant ['mɪlɪt(ə)nt] – воинственный

Give detailed answers to the following questions.

1. What was the main economic incentive behind the Second British Empire?
2. What continents did the Second British Empire focus on?
3. How did Great Britain manage to establish its strong presence in India?
- What was Great Britain's interest in Australia?
4. How did Great Britain try to tighten control over its territory in India and Canada?
5. Why was slave trade abolished?
6. What secured Britain's Mediterranean position and its route to the east?
7. What territories were seized by Great Britain during the Napoleonic Wars?
8. What conflict did the British have with the Boers?
9. Was British presence in India strong? Why did an armed uprising break out in India? When was Burma turned into an Indian province?
10. Why did the concept of responsible government emerge?
11. What colonies were granted responsible government by Britain?
12. What was the reason for the Opium Wars?

13. Why can British policy in Africa in the second half of the 19th century be called aggressive? What changes took place in the 20th century?
14. What fact marked the beginning of an increasing desire for independence in many of the colonies?
15. What territories were brought under British control after WWI?
16. Why did Britain have to grant independence to some of its colonies? What colonies were first to become free?
17. What facts prove the increasing discontent of the colonies with the British control? What measures were taken? What triggered the decolonization?
18. Did British government always support decolonization?

Discussion

1. Why was the end of the First British Empire inevitable?
2. Why was India of interest to the British Crown? Was the British Crown of interest to India? What makes you think so?
3. What were the main functions of Canada and Australia as British colonies? What colony was of most importance to the British Crown? Why?
4. Why did the British Empire manage to last so long despite numerous problems and wars? What makes you think so?
5. How did WWII trigger decolonization? Explain your point of view.

Unit 4. The Commonwealth of Australia

Read the text. Study the explanatory notes. Answer the questions after the text.

Introduction

Australia is the smallest continent situated between the Indian and Pacific oceans. With the island state of Tasmania to the south, the continent makes up the Commonwealth of Australia, a federal parliamentary. Australia's capital is Canberra¹. Its largest city is Sydney, closely followed in population by Melbourne. There are five continental states (Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Western Australia, in addition to the aforementioned Tasmania) as well as the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory (an enclave within New South Wales, containing Canberra). Australia's external territories include Norfolk Island, Christmas Island, the Cocos (Keeling) Islands, and the Australian Antarctic Territory.

Land

The Australian continent extends from east to west some 3,860 km and from north to south nearly 3,220 km. It is on the whole exceedingly flat and dry. Less than 50.8 cm of precipitation² falls annually³ over 70% of the land area. From the narrow coastal plain in the west the land rises abruptly⁴ in what, from the sea, appear to be mountain ranges but are actually the escarpments⁵ of a rough plateau⁶ that occupies the western half of the continent. It is generally from 305–610 m high but several mountain ranges rise to nearly 1,520 m; there are no permanent rivers or lakes in the region. In the southwest corner of the continent there is a small moist and fertile⁷ area, but the rest of Western Australia is arid, with large desert areas.

The northern region fronts partly on the Timor Sea, separating Australia from Indonesia; it also belongs to the plateau, with tropical temperatures and a winter dry season. Its northernmost section, Arnhem Land⁸ (much of which is an aboriginal reserve), faces the Arafura Sea in the north and the huge Gulf of Carpentaria on the east. On the eastern side of the gulf is the Cape York Peninsula, which is largely covered by woodland. Off the coast of NE Queensland is the Great Barrier Reef, the world's largest coral reef.

In E Australia are the mountains of *the Eastern Highlands* (a system of mountain ranges and plateaus in eastern Australia, also known as the Great Divide or Great Dividing Range⁹), which run down the entire east and southeast coasts. The rivers on the eastern and southeastern slopes run to the Coral Sea and the Tasman Sea through narrow but rich coastal plains; the rivers on the western slopes flow either N to the Gulf of Carpentaria or W and SW to the Indian Ocean. The longest of all Australian river systems, the Murray River and its tributaries, drains the southern part of the interior basin that lies between the mountains and the great plateau. The rivers of this area are used extensively for irrigation and hydroelectric power.

Australia, remote from any other continent, has many distinctive forms of plant life – notably species of giant eucalyptus – and of animal life, including the kangaroo, the koala, the flying opossum, the wombat, the platypus¹⁰, and the spiny anteater; it also has many unusual birds. Foreign animals, when introduced, have frequently done well. Rabbits, brought over in 1788, have done entirely too well, multiplying until by the middle of the 19th century they became a distinct menace to sheep raising. In 1907 a fence (still maintained) 1,610 km long was built from the north coast to the south to prevent the rabbits from invading Western Australia.

People

Most Australians are of British and Irish ancestry and the majority of the country lives in urban areas. The population has more than doubled since the end of World War II, spurred¹¹ by an ambitious postwar immigration program. In the postwar years, immigration from Greece, Turkey, Italy, and other countries began to increase Australia's cultural diversity. When Australia officially ended (1973) discriminatory policies dating to the 19th century that were designed to prevent immigration by nonwhites, substantial Asian immigration followed. By 1988 about 40% of immigration to Australia was from Asia, and by 2005 Asians constituted 7% of the population. Also by 2005 roughly one fourth of all Australians had been born outside the country.

The indigenous population¹², the Australian aborigines¹³, estimated to number as little as 300,000 and as many as 800,000 at the time of the Europeans' arrival, was numbered at 366,429 in 2001. Although still more rural than the general population, the aboriginal population has become more urbanized, with some two thirds living in cities. New South Wales and Queensland account for just over half of the Australian aboriginal population. In Tasmania the aboriginal population was virtually wiped out¹⁴ in the 19th century.

There is no state religion in Australia. The largest religions are the Roman Catholic, Anglican, and other Christian groups.

Economy

Most of the rich farmland and good ports are in the east and particularly the southeast, except for the area around Perth in Western Australia. Melbourne, Sydney, Brisbane, and Adelaide are the leading industrial and commercial cities. There was considerable industrial development in the last two decades of the 20th century. While the Australian economy fell into a severe recession¹⁵ in the late 1980s, it experienced an extended period of growth beginning in the 1990s. It then suffered somewhat from the Asian economic slump of the 1990s and from the "Big Dry" drought of the early 21st century.

Australia is highly industrialized, and manufactured goods account for most of the gross domestic product¹⁶. Its chief industries include mining, food processing, and the manufacture of industrial and transportation equipment, chemicals, iron and steel, textiles, machinery, and motor vehicles. Australia has valuable mineral resources, including coal, iron, copper, tin, gold, silver, uranium, nickel, mineral sands, lead, zinc, natural gas, and petroleum; the country is an important producer of opals and diamonds.

The country is self-sufficient in food, and the raising of sheep and cattle and the production of grain have long been staple occupations. Tropical and subtropical produce – citrus fruits, sugarcane, and tropical fruits – are also important, and there are numerous vineyards and dairy and tobacco farms.

Australia maintains a favorable balance of trade. Its chief export commodities are metals, minerals, coal, wool, beef, mutton, cereals, and manufactured products. The leading imports are machinery, transportation and telecommunications equipment, computers and office machines, crude oil, and petroleum products. Australia's economic ties with Asia and the Pacific Rim have become increasingly important, with Japan, China, and the United States being its main trading partners.

Government

The executive power of the commonwealth is vested¹⁷ in a governor-general (representing the British sovereign) and a cabinet, presided over by the prime minister, which represents the party or coalition holding a majority in the lower house of parliament. The parliament consists of two houses, the Senate, whose 76 members are elected to six- or three-year terms, depending on whether they represent a state or territory, and the House of Representatives, whose 150 members are elected to three-year terms. British intervention in Australian affairs was formally abolished in 1986. From its early years the federal government has been noted for its liberal legislation, such as woman suffrage¹⁸ (1902), old-age pensions (1909), and maternity allowances¹⁹ (1912).

Early History. Colonization

The groups comprising the aborigines are thought to have migrated from Southeast Asia. Skeletal remains indicate that aborigines arrived in Australia more than 40,000 years ago, and some evidence suggests that they were active there about 100,000 years ago. The aborigines spread throughout Australia and remained isolated from outside influences until the arrival of the Europeans. Dutchman Willem Janszoon is the first European confirmed to have seen (1606) and landed in Australia. Other Dutch navigators later visited the continent, and the Dutch named it New Holland. In 1688 the Englishman William Dampier landed at King Sound on the northwest coast. Little interest was aroused, however, until the fertile east coast was observed when Captain James Cook reached Botany Bay in 1770 and sailed N to Cape York, claiming the coast for Great Britain (he named the coast New South Wales).

In 1788 the first British settlement was made a penal²⁰ colony on the shores of Port Jackson, where Sydney now stands. By 1829 the whole continent was a British dependency. Van Diemen's Land, now known as Tasmania, was settled in 1803 and became a separate colony in 1825. The United Kingdom formally claimed the western part of Western Australia (the Swan River Colony) in 1828.

Separate colonies were carved from parts of New South Wales: South Australia in 1836, Victoria in 1851, and Queensland in 1859. The Northern Territory was founded in 1911 when it was excised from South Australia. South Australia was founded as a “free province” – it was never a penal colony. Victoria and Western Australia were also founded “free”, but later accepted transported convicts²¹. Australia was long used as a dumping ground for criminals, bankrupts, and other undesirables from the British Isles. A campaign by the settlers of New South Wales led to the end of convict transportation to that colony; the last convict ship arrived in 1848.

Sheep raising was introduced early, and before the middle of the 19th century wheat was being exported in large quantities to England. A gold strike²² in Victoria in 1851 brought a rush to that region. Other strikes were made later in the century in Western Australia. With minerals, sheep, and grain forming the base of the economy, Australia developed rapidly. By the mid-19th century systematic, permanent colonization had completely replaced the old penal settlements.

Modern Australia

Confederation of the separate Australian colonies did not come until a constitution, drafted in 1897–1898, was approved by the British parliament in 1900. It was put into operation in 1901; under its terms, the colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, and Tasmania, all of which had by then been granted self-government, were federated in the Commonwealth of Australia. The Northern Territory was added to the Commonwealth in 1911. The new federal government moved quickly to institute high protective tariffs (to restrain competition to Australian industry) and to initiate a strict anti-Asian “White Australia” immigration policy, which was not lifted until 1956.

Australia fought alongside Great Britain in both world wars. During World War I, the nation was part of *the Australia and New Zealand Army Corps* (ANZAC²³), which fought bravely in many battles, notably in the Gallipoli campaign of 1915. During World War II, Darwin, Port Jackson, and Newcastle were bombed or shelled by the Japanese. The Allied victory in the battle of the Coral Sea (1942) probably averted a full-scale attack on Australia. After the war Australia became increasingly active in world affairs, particularly in defense and development projects with its Asian neighbors; it furnished troops to aid the U.S. war effort in South Vietnam.

In a 1999 referendum, voters rejected a plan to replace the British monarch as head of state with a president elected by the parliament.

After Great Britain, Australia was the most prominent supporter militarily of the United States' invasion of Iraq in 2003, sending a force of about 2,000 to the Persian Gulf, and the country has taken an increasingly interventionist role in surrounding region, sending forces to the Solomon Islands, Papua New Guinea, and East Timor to restore law and order.

By late 2006, Australia was experiencing its sixth dry year in a row, and many observers termed the worsening "Big Dry" as the worst in the nation's history; 2003 and 2006 were especially dry years.

Parliamentary elections in November, 2007, brought the Labor party into office; party leader Kevin Rudd, a former diplomat, became prime minister. The new government embarked on significant reversals of the previous policies, promising to withdraw Australian combat troops from Iraq, moving to adopt the Kyoto Protocol on climate change, and apologizing to the aborigines for Australia's past mistreatment of them.

Language

Although Australia has no official language, English has always been entrenched²⁴ as the *de facto* national language. Australian English is a major variety of the language with a distinctive accent and lexicon. General Australian serves as the standard dialect. Spelling is similar to that of British English with a number of exceptions. According to the 2011 census, English is the only language spoken in the home for close to 81% of the population. The next most common languages spoken at home are Mandarin (1.7%), Italian (1.5%), Arabic (1.4%), Cantonese (1.3%), Greek (1.3%), and Vietnamese (1.2%); a considerable proportion of first- and second-generation migrants are bilingual. A 2010–2011 study by the Australia Early Development Index found the most common language spoken by children after English was Arabic, followed by Vietnamese, Greek, Chinese, and Hindi.

Between 200 and 300 Indigenous Australian languages are thought to have existed at the time of first European contact, of which only about 70 have survived. Many of these are exclusively spoken by older people; only 18 Indigenous languages are still spoken by all age groups. At the time of the 2006 census, 52,000 Indigenous Australians, representing 12 percent of the Indigenous population, reported that they spoke an Indigenous language at home. Australia has a sign language known as Auslan, which is the main language of about 5,500 deaf people.

Way of Life

Most Australians enjoy or aspire²⁵ to middle-class suburban lifestyles in their homes. Apartments – called flats – were not common until recent years. They became more prevalent because of reduced family sizes, the adoption of more cosmopolitan modes of living, a trend toward rented accommodation, and state government efforts to revitalize the inner cities and maximize expensive infrastructure investments in transportation, water supplies, and other services. These developments were accompanied to some extent by an increased sophistication, especially in the capital cities.

Australian fashion generally follows Western styles of dress, but is distinctive for the lightweight, colorful casual wear that reflects the absence of harsh winters. Food and drink preferences are influenced by global tastes, but also mirror the rise of ethnic diversity and the country's capacity to produce most kinds of food, wine, and other beverages in abundance.

Popular culture is dominated by an emphasis on leisure activities and outdoor recreation. Great pleasure is taken in traditional backyard barbecues, bush picnics, and a wide range of organized sports, including soccer, Australian Rules football, rugby, cricket, tennis, baseball, basketball, volleyball, netball (a game similar to basketball, played by women), track and field, cycling, boating, swimming, horseback riding, and horse racing. Fishing and gardening are popular activities.

Customs of Australia

Marriage and Family

Many couples live together before or instead of getting married, and there has been an increase in the number of single-parent families. Couples generally marry in their 20s. Church weddings are still the norm.

The average family has two or three children, and Australian family life is similar to family life in western Europe and North America, with many mothers working outside the home. In Australia, women and men are generally treated equally. Women have roughly the same amount of education as men, they earn fairly equal wages, and they occupy important leadership positions in the private and public sectors. Women make up almost half of the workforce.

Eating

A wide range of fruits and vegetables is available year-round. Take-away and fast-food outlets are popular. Popular snacks include meat pies and sausage rolls. All varieties of fish and meat are common. There is a trend toward eating lighter and more healthful foods. Australia's cosmopolitan ethnic mix has brought with it a range of cuisine, and Asian food is now widely available. Most people eat their main meal in the evening. The evening meal is usually called dinner, although some (mostly older) people may refer to it as tea.

Socializing

Australians greet friends with a casual “Hi” or *G’day* (“Good day”) and a handshake. More formal greetings involve a simple “Hello, how are you?” Most adults prefer to use first names, even with those they have just met, but children use the terms “Mr.”, “Miss”, and “Ms.” with their elders. Australians frequently entertain in the home, often hosting barbecues. Guests are greeted warmly, and Australians tend to be informal hosts.

Recreation

Australians have a passion for sports, and outdoor activities are an important part of Australian life. Australian Rules football is the country’s main spectator sport, followed by rugby and cricket (Australia’s national teams are among the best in the world). Soccer and horse racing are also popular. Australians also enjoy a wide range of other sports and outdoor pursuits, including basketball, netball (similar to basketball, but played almost exclusively by women), cycling, bush walking (hiking), golf, tennis, and lawn bowls. With the majority of Australians living on or near the coast, there is great enthusiasm for sailing, surfing, swimming, and fishing. Australians watch a great deal of television, and cinemas are also popular.

Holidays and Celebrations

National holidays include New Year’s Day (1 January), Australia Day (26 January), Easter (Good Friday through Easter Monday), Anzac Day (or Veteran’s Memorial Day, 25 April), Queen Elizabeth II’s Official Birthday (second Monday in June), Christmas Day (25 December), and Boxing Day (26 December).

Australia Day commemorates the arrival of the British in 1788. The British prisons had become overcrowded, so Captain Arthur Phillip brought a group of convicts to the spacious continent. The city of Sydney grew out of the penal colony founded by those early settlers. Aborigines do not celebrate this holiday.

On Anzac Day, Australians celebrate the anniversary of the Anzac troops landing at Gallipoli Peninsula in Turkey during World War I. The word Anzac is derived from Australia and New Zealand Army Corps. Anzac Day honors those who gave their lives for their country during wartime.

Australians celebrate a warm Christmas, which falls in summertime and is accompanied by vacation from work and school.

Unofficial holidays include Canberra Day, on the third Monday in March, which celebrates the founding of Canberra, the capital city of Australia. Eight Hour Day, generally known as Labour Day, is celebrated on various dates depending on location. This holiday celebrates the improvement of working conditions since the trade unions succeeded in limiting daily working hours to eight, encouraging adequate rest and recreation among the population.

Explanatory notes

1. Canberra ['kænb(ə)rə] – Канберра (столица Австралии)
2. precipitation [prɪsɪpɪ'teɪʃ(ə)n] – выпадение осадков
3. annually ['ænjuəlɪ] – ежегодно
4. abruptly [ə'brʌptlɪ] – внезапно; круто, отвесно
5. escarpments [ɪs'kɑ:pment] – крутой откос насыпи, вала
6. plateau ['plætəu] – плоскогорье, плоская возвышенность
7. fertile ['fɜ:taɪl] – плодородный; изобилующий, богатый
8. Arnhem Land ['ɑ:nəm -] – Арнемленд (полуостров на севере Австралии)
9. the Great Dividing Range – Большой Водораздельный хребет, горная система, протягивается вдоль восточного и юго-восточного побережья Австралии на 4 тыс. км.
10. platypus ['plætɪpəs] – утконос
11. spur [spɜ:] – подгонять, побуждать; стимулировать
12. indigenous [ɪn'dɪdʒɪnəs] population – коренное население
13. aborigine [æbə'rɪdʒəɪ] – абориген Австралии
14. wipe out – уничтожить
15. recession [rɪ'seɪʃ(ə)n] – спад (производства, спроса на товары и т.п.)
16. gross domestic product (GDP) – валовой внутренний продукт, ВВП (совокупная стоимость товаров и услуг, созданных внутри страны за определенный период)
17. vest – наделять (правом), давать права
18. suffrage ['sʌfrɪdʒ] – право голоса, избирательное право
19. allowance [ə'laʊən(t)s] – денежное пособие
20. penal ['pi:n(ə)l] – уголовный; карательный
21. convict ['kɒnvɪkt] – заключённый; каторжник
22. strike – открытие месторождения
23. ANZAC ['ænzæk] – АНЗАК, Австралийский и новозеландский армейский экспедиционный корпус (во время Первой мировой войны)
24. entrench [ɪn'trenʃ] – обезопасить, защитить себя
25. aspire [əs'paɪə] – стремиться к достижению чего-л.

Give detailed answers to the following questions.

1. Where is Australia situated? What territories and states does Australia consist of? What is the capital of Australia?
2. Are the relief and climate different in Western Australia, the northern region, and Eastern Australia?
3. What plants and animals make Australian flora and fauna unique?
4. Who are the ancestors of modern Australians?
5. What triggered the growth of population after WWII? Who originally populated the country?
6. What is the state religion in Australia?
7. Where are good ports and most of the rich farmland situated? What are the leading industrial and commercial cities in Australia?
8. What are the chief industries in Australia? What mineral resources is Australia rich in? What are Australian chief exports?
9. How is Australia governed?
10. Representatives of what countries discovered Australia? What parts of Australia were discovered?
11. Who claimed Australia as its colony in the end? What were the first colonies used for?
12. When did the six colonies federate?
13. What facts from the modern history of Australia do you consider to be of interest?
14. What is the official language of Australia?
15. What can be said about Australian way of life and the customs of the country?
16. What holidays are celebrated in Australia?

Discussion

1. Would you like to visit Australia? Why?
2. What facts from the history of Australia were of interest to you? Why?
3. What's the difference between British English and Australian English?
4. What do you think of Australian way of life? Will it suit you? Why?
5. What customs and traditions of Australia are similar to those we have in Belarus?

Unit 5. Social Etiquette in Australia

Read the text. Study the explanatory notes. Answer the questions after the text.

Australian rules of social etiquette are a little different from most countries around the world. The rules do not relate to how a fork should be held, or who should be served first at a dinner table. Instead, most of Australia's rules relate to expressing *equality*. Basically, as long as you appreciate that Australians want to be treated as equal irrespective of their social, racial or financial background, anything is acceptable.

Displays of wealth may be seen as signs of superiority and frowned upon accordingly. Likewise, the acceptance of generosity may be seen as a sign of bludging¹ or inferiority. Likewise, it may be frowned upon.

The relaxed attitude of Australians has been known to cause problems. Because Australians are difficult to offend, they are not sensitive to causing offence in others. To outsiders, Australians often appear very blunt² and rude. They tend to call a spade a spade when perhaps more tact is required.

Furthermore, because Australians see people as equal, they frequently offend international visitors who feel a more respectful attitude is warranted³. Australians may refer to some foreigners as "mate" instead of using more respectful titles such as *your honour, sir, madam, mrs, mr, ms, lord, and your highness*. Likewise, cricketer *Dennis Lillee* expressed his egalitarian⁴ sentiments when he greeted *Queen Elizabeth* using the words:

"G'day, how ya goin'?"

In Dennis' mind, he was just treating the Queen as an equal. But to many English people, Lillee's expression of equality was the act of an upstart⁵ buffoon⁶.

Egalitarianism

"Australia seems refreshingly free of class prejudice. Here people take you for what you are, and are less concerned with how you speak, what job you do, where you went to school etc. I enjoy meeting people from many walks of life and treating each other as equals." *Paul Davies (English migrant)*

In myth, Australia is a country where people are assessed on the content of their character rather than the colour of their skin, economic background or job. For temporary periods of time, the myth becomes practice in various areas of Australian life. A salient⁷ example of the myth can be seen in Melbourne's *Section 8* bar. Located in an alley in the middle of Melbourne, *Section 8* uses packing crates as seats. The toilets are made out of shipping containers and the bar is just enclosed with a fence. *Section 8* attracts rich businessmen, Japanese tourists, struggling⁸ artists and even homeless people. It is deliberately designed to be unpretentious. As a result, it attracts people from all walks of life that want to mingle with someone different from themselves.

Egalitarianism is also expressed with the male Australian accent. Around 20 percent of Australian men speak with what is known as a broad accent.

It is rare for women to speak with the accent. For one reason or another, women who speak with the accent are ridiculed as being low class.

The Rounds at the Pub

The social rules of the *round* or *shout* are perhaps the most important of all social rules that need to be mastered. A round is where one individual will pay for the drinks of the other members of the drinking party. Once the drinks have been drunk, another member of the drinking party will get the next round. Every member of the drinking party must buy the same number of rounds.

Like splitting the bill at a restaurant, there is no consideration given to each member's financial status, background or to their gender.

Even generous acts of appreciation, such as buying a drink for an old Digger⁹ on ANZAC Day, are likely to be rejected by the intended recipient of the generosity.

The round is one of the principle reasons why Australia has avoided the racial ghettos and race riots that are common in America and Britain. The custom allows an outsider to be inducted into the social group and treated as if they are of equal status. It also allows individuals to demonstrate that are trustworthy characters who are not bludgers and who do not consider themselves to be superior. The round is central to affirming Australia's egalitarian sensibilities.

The round is also a reason why non-sexual relationships between men and women are very common in Australia. A lone woman can go out drinking with men and provided she buys her round, she will be treated as one of the boys.

Splitting the Bill at a Restaurant

In most Asian countries, if a group of friends go out for dinner, the wealthiest member of a dining party may offer to pay for the entire meal. Furthermore, if a man and woman go to dinner, irrespective¹⁰ of whether they are friends or lovers, the man will usually pay. This is not the case in Australia. If a group of friends go to a restaurant, the bill will be split amongst all the diners. It is unlikely that one individual will feel an obligation to pay for others. Nor do any of the other members of the dining party want to be paid for. To accept the generosity may evoke feelings of shame that one is a bludger.

In business, these rules are bent¹¹ a little as a bill may be picked up as a way of fostering¹² "good relations."

Mateship

People in all countries have friends, but arguably no country lionises¹³ mateship to the same degree as does Australia. An Australian's lionisation of mateship is particularly evident in the way mateship is celebrated in ANZAC Day services. Whereas most countries use their military day to affirm all that is good and just about their nation, Australians use their military day to remember the character of those who died in war. A central feature of the Anzac Day service is a paragraph taken from the poem '*Ode for the Fallen*':

"They shall grow not old, as we that are left grow old; Age shall not weary them, nor the years condemn. At the going down of the sun and in the morning We will remember them."

Along with the Ode, Australian military tradition lionises mateship with the immortalisation of *John Simpson* and his donkey. During the Gallipoli campaign, Simpson deserted his unit and saved hundreds of wounded men by carrying them from the battlefield to the army hospital. It was an act of self sacrifice that ultimately cost him his life.

Although mate is a gender-neutral term, it is more commonly used by men than by women. It carries with it a sense of obligation to do the right thing by one's close friends. In many respects, mates in Australia serve the role that family serves in other countries. Mates can be relied upon in times of need and will stand by you through the good times and the bad.

Perhaps the importance that Australia places on mateship can be attributed to its history as an immigrant nation. Convicts, orphans, prostitutes and lone individuals came to Australia without families. Consequently, their friends substituted for their lack of a family network.

Another explanation is that it came from the hardships of the first century. It has long been known in psychological circles that social bonding coincides with extreme difficulty. Consequently, the hardships endured by Convicts and farmers caused them to feel a great sense of reliance upon each other.

A final explanation is that it stems from Australia's wars being fought on foreign territory. When a Digger was dying, a mate was brought to stand next to him so he wouldn't die alone. Contrasted to Australia, most other countries have suffered battles on home territory. When men died, they often died with their families. When men survived, they often saw their wives, children and grandparents raped and killed. Accordingly, their scars of war were of a different nature to Australians.

Taking the Piss¹⁴

Around the world, most jokes are based on some variety of derogatory theme. In order to avoid offending the victim's feelings, most nationalities usually only say the joke when its victim is not present. In Australia, this can be a risky thing to do. Some Australians don't like people making jokes about groups that they are not part of. If they hear a joke about a different group, instead of laughing, they may get angry.

Australians seem fonder of using derogatory jokes when the victim of the joke is present. "Taking the piss" is the term given to making a joke about someone or an ethnic group, when that person or ethnic group is present. If an American lady married an Australian man, she should expect to hear lots of her husband's friends and family asking her why she would want to marry such a low-life bastard. They don't actually mean that he is a low life bastard, they are just trying to say that they think he is a good bloke.

Targets of a piss-take are expected to reply in kind. An insulting joke in return often increases an Australian's appreciation for you. If you are offended by an Australian taking the piss, it is best to smile and change the topic. Showing the joke hurt your feelings may simply increase the motivation of the Australian to keep saying the joke. Getting angrier and threatening violence may simply result in the Australian taking you up on your offer.

It is also worth being careful about what things you take the piss about. There are topics that may cut a nerve and elicit an angry response. There are no hard and fast rules. It is recommended that no piss be taken until you get to know your friend well and understand what makes them laugh or angry.

Tipping

Tipping is optional in Australia. In restaurants, a tip is only left if above average service has been delivered. Taxi drivers are usually only tipped if they initiate a good conversation and don't rip off their customers. (When getting into a taxi, sitting in the front seat is the etiquette. The back seat feels too much like one is being chauffeured and it is difficult to have a conversation.) Bar staff are not usually tipped unless a customer has thoughts of seducing them. Even if the staff are not tipped, they will continue to serve you on your subsequent visits. No grudge is held against those who don't tip.

Bringing Booze¹⁵ to a Barbecue

There is an Australian adage¹⁶ that when hosting a barbecue, a knock on the door should never be answered as it means the guest isn't carrying the required case of beer. (One should only answer a kick on the door.)

If invited to someone's home for a barbecue, etiquette stipulates¹⁷ that you make a contribution to the alcohol that will be drunk. If bringing beer, a six-pack is ok but a case is more ideal.

Depending upon the nature of the barbecue, sometimes etiquette allows un-drunk beers to be taken home. But if the host has provided a large banquet, it is usually safer to leave un-drunk beers for the host as a gesture of thanks.

Sometimes people get away with just bringing a potatoe salad or pavlova¹⁸. Generally this is ok but a few traditionalists frown upon the absence of grog.

Honesty

It may seem strange for a society that came from Convicts, but Australians value honesty. It is acceptable to be dishonest to pull someone's leg or play a joke, but on serious issues, honesty is the best policy. This is reflected in the creation of sayings such as: "poor but honest", "fair dinkum"¹⁹, "honest toiler"²⁰, "honesty of substance", "having an honest crack."

Australians vilify²¹ the fallen millionaire (or politician) like no other nationality around the world. They become a bit like a pack of dogs tearing apart a carcass²².

Many Australians are quite cynical and almost seem to presume strangers to be guilty until they prove themselves otherwise. Perhaps this is why buying your round at the pub is such an important thing to do. It shows that you are not out for all you can get.

Aside from being distrustful of individuals, Australians may be distrustful of spin doctoring²³. As the myriad of failed media, political and marketing campaigns show, Australians are quite sensitive to any cues that indicate everything is not above board. If they are suspicious, they tend to reject it. In 2004, a *Quantum/AustraliaSCAN* survey found that only four percent had much confidence in consumer information from major companies. Such figures indicate that a lot of companies are wasting money on the public relations, as Australians simply do not believe them.

Wine for the Dinner Party

At a dinner party, wine is the appropriate alcoholic contribution made by guests. At the end of the night, it is not usually etiquette to take home any undrunk wine. Instead, it should be left as a gift for the hosts.

Depending upon who is on the guest list, the choice of wine is very important. If the guests are knowledgeable about wine, anyone who brings a cheap wine will be frowned upon and the wine will just be left unopened.

No wine is too expensive at a dinner party. The better the wine that a guest brings, the more they will be appreciated. By bringing a good wine, the guest is saying that it is an honour to drink with other guests and the host.

Those who share the wine should be appreciative of the honour, without expressly saying so. Although the wine can be praised, the bringer of the wine can not. In such situations, a very important rule is that the cost of the wine should not be asked, and *never* volunteered.

If the host takes it upon themselves to open all the wine for the evening, it is generally good form to acknowledge who brought the wine that is being opened. If it is a unique wine, this gives the guest the opportunity to talk about where the wine came from and why he/she thinks it is interesting.

It is very poor form for the host not to open a bottle of good wine that has been brought. I.e. for the host to open the cheap plonk²⁴ with the hope he/she can drink the good wine by themselves at a later date.

If the wine is not opened, then the host should suggest that the guest take it home with them. In such circumstances, the guest can accept. Alternatively, the host should say the wine will be saved for the next time the guest comes over.

Seek and Express Empathy, not Sympathy

In America, people feel no shame when talking about the fact they are seeing a counsellor or psychiatrist. Oddly, revealing one's emotional distress almost seems to be a status symbol. In Australia, an ethic of "no worries" reins. Irrespective of whether they have just lost two legs in a car accident or their business has just collapsed, Australians try to maintain a facade of cheerfulness. If you feel the need to talk about your problems, it is more polite to try to turn the problem into a funny story.

The reasons for no worries mantra is best understood by appreciating that Australia was built by victims. The first of these victims were Convicts who over an 80 year period, suffered some of the worst human rights violations the world has ever seen. After World War II, Australia became a new home for war, political and economic refugees.

As victims, these groups did not want sympathy from others, nor were they prepared to give it to others. When recording his experiences, the Convict *J.F. Mortlcok* wrote: "In Australia, silent composure under suffering is strictly prescribed by convict etiquette."

Sometimes these victims were willing to give and receive empathy. The melancholic music of Convicts was the first of such means to express empathy. In modern times, empathy is expressed at ANZAC Day Dawn Services and when reciting the Ode in RSLs. (support organisation for men and women who have served or are serving in the Australian Defence Force (ADF).

If you consider yourself to be a victim, bear in mind that Australia is a country where respect is given to underdogs²⁵ who stand up for themselves. The victim that doesn't stand up for themselves, or needs someone else to fight for their cause, will gain no respect.

Explanatory notes

1. bludge [blʌdʒ] – бездельничать, нахлебничать
2. blunt [blʌnt] – грубоватый; прямой, резкий
3. warrant ['wɜr(ə)nt] – гарантировать, обеспечивать (кому-л. что-л.)
4. egalitarianism [ɪgæli'tɛərɪənɪz(ə)m] – эгалитаризм (концепция всеобщего равенства прав или благосостояния как принцип организации общественной жизни)
5. upstart ['ʌpstɑ:t] – выскочка
6. buffoon [bʊ'fu:n] – шут
7. salient ['seɪlɪənt] – заметный; яркий, бросающийся в глаза
8. struggling ['strʌɡlɪŋ] – в бедственном положении
9. digger ['dɪgə] – австралийский или новозеландский солдат (во время Первой и Второй мировой войны)
10. irrespective [ɪrɪ'spektɪv] – не зависимый от (of)
11. to bend the rules – нарушать правил
12. foster ['fɒstə] – способствовать, содействовать, продвигать
13. lionise ['laɪənəɪz] – поднимать шум вокруг кого-л.
14. take the piss (слэнг) – насмехаться, высмеивать, издеваться
15. booze (разг.) [bu:z] – выпивка, спиртное
16. adage ['ædɪdʒ] – поговорка
17. stipulate ['stɪpjəleɪt] – ставить условием
18. pavlova (австрал.) [pæv'ləʊvə] – торт со взбитыми сливками и фруктами
19. fair dinkum (австрал., разг.) – честно, серьёзно, по-настоящему
20. toiler ['tɔɪlə] – работага, труженик
21. vilify ['vɪlɪfaɪ] – поносить, чернить (кого-л.)
22. carcass ['kɑ:kəs] – туша (животного)

- 23. spin doctor – менеджер рекламы
- 24. plonk (брит.; разг.) [plɒŋk] – дешёвое вино
- 25. underdog ['ʌndədɔg] – неудачник; аутсайдер

Give detailed answers to the following questions.

1. What's the difference between social etiquette in Australia and most other countries around the world?
2. How may displays of wealth and the acceptance of generosity be interpreted in Australia?
3. Why can Australians seem rude to people from other countries?
4. How do people address each other?
5. What is of more importance to Australians – income or character?
6. What is Australian accent? Who speaks with it?
7. What is *a round*? What is its significance?
8. Who usually pays the bill at the restaurant in Australia?
9. Is there a strong sense of “mateship” in Australia? What are its roots?
10. What does *taking the piss* refer to?
11. What are the rules of tipping in Australia?
12. What one should bear in mind when going to a barbecue in Australia?
13. Is honesty the best policy for Australians?
14. In what cases do Australians tend to be distrustful?
15. What kind of wine should be brought by the guests for a dinner party?
16. Why do Australians always try to maintain a facade of cheerfulness?
17. Is it typical of Australians to complain about anything? What's the difference between empathy and sympathy?
18. Who are *underdogs*? What is Australians' attitude to them?

Discussion

1. Why can Australian character be considered as something unique? Explain your point of view.
2. What could have given the start for Australian egalitarianism? Give examples. Is Belarus free of class prejudice? Explain your point of view.
3. Would you like to adopt the famous policy of honesty that exists in Australia? Why? What appeals to you in Australian behavior?
4. What does *siding with the underdog* mean? How does it characterize the nation? Who do you usually support – the winner or the loser? Why?
5. What rules of social behaviour in Australia strike you as unusual?

Unit 6. Canada

Read the text. Study the explanatory notes. Answer the questions after the text.

Introduction

Canada is a federated country in North America, made up of ten provinces and three territories. Canada is a vast nation with a wide variety of geological formations, climates, and ecological systems. It has rain forest, prairie grassland, deciduous¹ forest, tundra, and wetlands. Canada has more lakes and inland waters than any other country. It is renowned² for its scenery, which attracts millions of tourists each year. On a per capita³ basis, its resource endowments⁴ are the second richest in the world after Australia.

Canada is the second largest country in the world. But Canada's population density, at 3.3 inhabitants per square kilometre, is among the lowest in the world. This is because the north of Canada, with its harsh Arctic and sub-Arctic climates, is sparsely inhabited. Most Canadians live in the southern part of the country. More than three-quarters of them live in metropolitan areas, the largest of which are Toronto, Ontario; Montréal, Quebec; Vancouver, British Columbia; Ottawa, Ontario; Hull, Quebec; and Edmonton, Alberta. French and English are the official languages, and at one time most Canadians were of French or English descent. However, diversity⁵ increased with a wave of immigration in the late 19th and early 20th centuries that brought in people from many other European nations. This trend continues into the 21st century: Canada is one of the few countries in the world that still has significant immigration programs. Since the 1970s most immigrants have come from Asia, increasing still further the diversity of the population. The most densely populated part of the country is the Quebec City – Windsor Corridor, situated in Southern Quebec and Southern Ontario along the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River.

Geography

By total area (including its waters), Canada is the second-largest country in the world, after Russia. By land area alone, Canada ranks fourth. Canada has the longest coastline in the world.

Since the end of the last glacial⁶ period, Canada has consisted of eight distinct forest regions, including extensive boreal⁷ forest on the Canadian Shield (a large plateau that occupies more than two fifths of the land area of Canada). Canada has around 31,700 large lakes, more than any other country, containing

much of the world's fresh water. There are also fresh-water glaciers in the Canadian Rockies and the Coast Mountains. Canada is geologically active, having many earthquakes and potentially active volcanoes, notably Mount Meager, Mount Garibaldi, Mount Cayley, and the Mount Edziza volcanic complex.

Average winter and summer high temperatures across Canada vary from region to region. Winters can be harsh in many parts of the country, particularly in the interior and Prairie provinces (Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba), which experience a continental climate, where daily average temperatures are near -15°C , but can drop below -40°C with severe wind chills. In noncoastal regions, snow can cover the ground for almost six months of the year, while in parts of the north snow can persist year-round. Coastal British Columbia has a temperate climate, with a mild and rainy winter. On the east and west coasts, average high temperatures are generally in the low 20s $^{\circ}\text{C}$, while between the coasts, the average summer high temperature ranges from 25 to 30 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, with temperatures in some interior locations occasionally exceeding 40 $^{\circ}\text{C}$.

Provinces and Territories

Canada is a federation composed of ten provinces and three territories. In turn, these may be grouped into four main regions: *Western Canada* (British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba), *Central Canada* (Ontario and Quebec), *Atlantic Canada* (the three Maritime provinces – New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Nova Scotia – and Newfoundland and Labrador), and *Northern Canada* (Yukon, Northwest Territories, and Nunavut). 'Eastern Canada' refers to Central Canada and Atlantic Canada together. Provinces have more autonomy than territories, having responsibility for social programs such as health care, education, and welfare⁸. Together, the provinces collect more revenue⁹ than the federal government, an almost unique structure among federations in the world. Using its spending powers, the federal government can initiate national policies¹⁰ in provincial areas, such as the Canada Health Act; the provinces can opt out of these, but rarely do so in practice. Equalization payments are made by the federal government to ensure that reasonably uniform standards of services and taxation are kept between the richer and poorer provinces.

Natural Resources and Industry

Canada has impressive reserves of timber, minerals, and fresh water, and many of its industries are based on these resources. Many of its rivers have been harnessed for hydroelectric power, and it is self-sufficient in fossil fuel. Industrialization began in the 19th century and a significant manufacturing sector

emerged, especially after World War II (1939–1945). Canada's resource and manufacturing industries export about one-third of their output. Transportation equipment is the leading manufacturing industry. While Canada's prosperity is built on the resource and manufacturing industries, most Canadians work in service occupations, including transportation, trade, finance, personal services, and government.

Canada's chief manufacturing industry is transportation equipment, especially automobiles and auto parts. Subsidiaries of the American big three auto companies, General Motors, Ford, and Chrysler, are Canada's largest manufacturers; in the 1980s Toyota, Honda, and Hyundai also established branch plants. Nearly all transportation equipment is produced in southern Ontario and southern Quebec.

Other significant manufacturing sectors, in declining order of output, are food processing, paper products, chemical products, primary metal processing, petroleum refining, electrical and electronic products, metal fabricating, and wood processing. Many of these manufactures rely on Canada's vigorous¹¹ resource industries. Unlike the motor vehicles and other consumer products industries, which are highly localized in the heartland, resource processing is much more widely distributed across the country.

Government

Canada is a parliamentary democracy and a constitutional monarchy. The federal, provincial, and territorial legislatures¹² are all directly elected by citizens. Queen Elizabeth II of the United Kingdom is recognized as the queen of Canada. She is the official head of state. The queen is represented in Canada by the governor-general¹³ and ten lieutenant governors. Canada's constitution guarantees equality under the law to all of its citizens. Powers of the federal and provincial governments are spelled out separately under the constitution, but over the past 50 years they have increasingly cooperated in programs that provide a wide range of social services – often called the “welfare state” – to the public.

Population

Canada's indigenous peoples (original inhabitants) are often called First Nations or Indians. The name *Canada* comes from a word meaning “village” or “community” in one of the indigenous Iroquoian¹⁴ languages. Indigenous peoples had developed complex societies and intricate political relations before the first Europeans, the Vikings, arrived in the 11th century. The Vikings soon left, but more Europeans came in the 16th century and were made welcome because they brought manufactured goods and traded them for furs and other native products. However, the Europeans settled down and gradually displaced the indigenous peoples over the next 250 years.

European settlers came in a series of waves. First were the French, followed by the English, and these two groups are considered the founding nations. France lost its part of the territory to Britain in a war in 1760, but most of the French-speaking colonists remained. Their effort to preserve their language and culture has been a continuing theme of Canadian history and has led in recent years to a movement to become independent of the rest of Canada.

Modern Canada was formed in an event that Canadians call Confederation, in 1867, when three colonies of Britain merged to create a partially independent state of four provinces. Since then, six more provinces and three territories have been added. Canada achieved full independence in 1931 but continues to belong to the Commonwealth of Nations, a voluntary association of countries with ties to the United Kingdom.

Long distances and a challenging physical environment make transportation and communication across the country very difficult. This reality has made it a challenge for Canadians to maintain a sense of nationhood¹⁵.

Demographic Trends

Canada is a nation of people who came from somewhere else. All but the indigenous people arrived within the past 400 years, most within the past few generations. For that reason most Canadians still feel some attachment to their old homelands. The majority of the population is of European descent¹⁶, but the proportion of Asians is increasing. About half of all immigrants in the decade from 1981 to 1991 came from Asia, and Chinese is the fastest-growing mother tongue in Canada. As ethnic groups intermarry, however, ethnic identities are becoming more blurred; 29 percent of Canadians report more than one ethnic origin. Indigenous peoples make up about 3 percent and blacks about 2 percent of the population.

Immigration is important to maintaining Canada's population. The current childbearing generation has smaller families than earlier generations: the fertility rate (average number of children born per woman) is 1.6, less than the population replacement rate of 2.1. At the same time, older people are living longer, so that the average age of the population is higher. In 2005 Canada's rate of natural increase was 0.31 percent, resulting from a birth rate of 10.8 per 1,000 persons and a death rate of 7.7 per 1,000. There is a downward trend in the birth index – in 1981 it was 15.3 – and the likely end result will be zero growth or population loss. For this reason the Canadian government decided in the 1980s to compensate for the low birth rate by allowing more immigration.

Languages

Canada is officially bilingual, and all services provided by the federal government are available in English and French. The selection of Ottawa as the national capital, located on the Ontario-Quebec border, reflects the long-standing political and cultural importance of the two founding nations. The 2001 census¹⁷ reported that only 1.5 percent of Canadians don't have at least some ability to speak one of the official languages; 18 percent of Canadians are fluently bilingual. The majority speak English: 59 percent reported English as their mother tongue in 2001, while 23 percent reported French and 18 percent a nonofficial language. The most prevalent nonofficial languages in Canada are, in order of prominence, Chinese, Italian, Punjabi, Spanish, Portuguese, and Polish.

The indigenous peoples spoke dozens of different languages, and many are still spoken today. Almost all fall into groups of related languages traceable from a common ancestral tongue.

Way of Life

The complex regional and cultural composition of Canadian society means that there is no single Canadian way of life, but certain generalizations can be made. Perhaps the clearest is that Canada shares with the United States, most European countries, and Japan a high standard of living relative to the remainder of the world. Most Canadians are well housed, fed, and clothed. Canadians also enjoy an advanced, efficient health care system that is universally available to all citizens and landed immigrants (immigrants who are allowed permanent residence in the country) regardless of their location, income, or social standing. In fact, recent opinion polls have shown that Canadians see this system of socialized medicine as a defining characteristic of their national identity.

Generally, Canadians devote the highest portion of their income to housing (22 percent of household expenditures in 1992). Most (63 percent) own their homes, and the majority (57 percent) reside in single-family detached homes. Housing quality is generally high, and only about 1 percent live in units defined by government agencies as crowded. However, housing quality is not as high in rural and northern areas as it is in Canada's cities. Problems are especially prevalent on Indian Reserves¹⁸ (lands set aside for Status Indians); in 1991, some 39 percent of all dwellings on Indian Reserves required major repairs as opposed to a national average of 8 percent. Housing in the Arctic region poses special problems; permafrost can cause foundations to shift and makes providing water and sanitary services difficult. Frequently, aboveground, insulated utility systems are the only feasible solution.

The nature of Canadian households has changed considerably over the past quarter-century. With the liberalization of divorce legislation in the late 1960s and changing social attitudes about marriage, the number of single-parent households and common-law unions has increased.

Canadian eating habits are also being transformed. Concern for better health has led to a small decline in total meat consumption; Canadians are also spending more on fruits, vegetables, pasta, and other complex carbohydrates. Canadians, especially those in the larger cities, have also acquired more cosmopolitan tastes. The range of foods and beverages available is far greater than ever before, and includes dishes from Ethiopia, Thailand, Latin America, and a variety of Chinese regions. Still, many traditional regional eating habits have been retained, such as the distinctive diets of the Inuit and other indigenous groups, and the French-influenced cuisine of Quebec.

Although *lacrosse* (a team game, originally played by North American Indians, in which the ball is thrown, caught, and carried with a long-handled stick having a curved L-shaped or triangular frame at one end with a piece of

shallow netting in the angle) was Canada's first national game, ice hockey is its most popular sport. At the professional level, there are six National Hockey League (NHL) teams in Canada, including two of its most venerable, the Montréal Canadiens and the Toronto Maple Leafs. The Canadian Football League was created in 1956. Baseball has been played in Canada since at least 1838, and a Canadian professional league was established in 1876.

Amateur sport also thrives, and Canada consistently produces Olympic medal winners in a variety of sports, such as rowing, track and field, and, most notably, ice skating. Ordinary Canadians are participating in sporting leagues, fitness classes, and individual exercise to a greater extent than ever before.

History

The first inhabitants of Canada were native Indian peoples, primarily the Inuit (Eskimo). The Norse explorer Leif Eriksson probably reached the shores of Canada (Labrador or Nova Scotia) in 1000, but the history of the white man in the country actually began in 1497, when John Cabot, an Italian in the service of Henry VII of England, reached Newfoundland or Nova Scotia. Canada was taken for France in 1534 by Jacques Cartier. The actual settlement of New France, as it was then called, began in 1604 at Port Royal in what is now Nova Scotia; in 1608, Quebec was founded. France's colonization efforts were not very successful, but French explorers by the end of the 17th century had penetrated beyond the Great Lakes to the western prairies and south along the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico. Meanwhile, the English Hudson's Bay Company had been established in 1670. Because of the valuable fisheries and fur trade, a conflict developed between the French and English; in 1713, Newfoundland, Hudson Bay, and Nova Scotia (Acadia) were lost to England. During the Seven Years' War (1756–1763), England extended its conquest, and the British won their famous victory over the French outside Quebec on September 13, 1759. The Treaty of Paris in 1763 gave England control over the region.

At that time the population of Canada was almost entirely French, but in the next few decades, thousands of British colonists emigrated to Canada from the British Isles and from the American colonies. In 1849, the right of Canada to self-government was recognized. By the British North America Act of 1867, the dominion of Canada was created through the confederation of Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. In 1869, Canada purchased from the Hudson's Bay Company the vast middle west (Rupert's Land) from which the provinces of Manitoba (1870), Alberta (1905), and Saskatchewan (1905) were later formed. In 1871, British Columbia joined the dominion, and in 1873, Prince Edward Island followed. The country was linked from coast to coast in 1885 by the Canadian Pacific Railway.

By the Statute of Westminster in 1931 the British dominions, including Canada, were formally declared to be partner nations with Britain, “equal in status, in no way subordinate to each other,” and bound together only by allegiance to a common Crown.

Newfoundland became Canada’s tenth province on March 31, 1949, following a plebiscite. Canada also included three territories – the Yukon Territory, the Northwest Territories, and the newest territory, Nunavut. This new territory included all of the Arctic north of the mainland, Norway having recognized Canadian sovereignty over the Sverdrup Islands in the Arctic in 1931.

In 1976, the Parti Québécois won the provincial Quebec elections. The Quebec government passed Bill 101 in 1977, which established numerous rules promoting the French-speaking culture; for example, only French was to be used for commercial signs and for most public school instruction. Many of Bill 101’s provisions have since been amended, striking more of a compromise; commercial signs, for example, may now be in French and English, provided that the French lettering is twice the size of the English. Quebec held a referendum in May 1980 on whether it should seek independence from Canada; it was defeated by 60% of the voters.

Queen Elizabeth II signed the Constitution Act (also called the Canada Act) in Ottawa on April 17, 1982, thereby cutting the last legal tie between Canada and Britain. The constitution retains Queen Elizabeth as queen of Canada and keeps Canada’s membership in the Commonwealth. This constitution was accepted by every province except Quebec.

The issue of separatist sentiments in French-speaking Quebec flared up again in 1990 with the failure of the Meech Lake Accord¹⁹. The accord was designed to bring Quebec into the constitution while easing its residents’ fear of losing their identity within the English-speaking majority by giving it status as a “distinct society.”

The Quebec referendum on secession in October 1995 yielded a narrow rejection of the proposal (sovereignty was rejected by a slimmer margin²⁰ of just 50.6 to 49.4 percent).

On April 1, 1999, the Northwest Territories were officially divided to create a new territory in the east that would be governed by Canada’s Inuits, who make up 85% of the area’s population.

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

In addition to the issues of Quebec sovereignty, a number of crises shook Canadian society in the late 1980s and early 1990s. These included the explosion of Air India Flight 182 in 1985, the largest mass murder in Canadian history; the École Polytechnique massacre²¹ in 1989 (a university shooting targeting female students), when a twenty-five-year-old Marc Lépine, armed with a legally obtained Mini-14 rifle and a hunting knife, shot twenty-eight people before killing himself; and the Oka Crisis of 1990, the first of a number of violent confrontations between the government and Aboriginal groups. The crisis developed from a local dispute between the town of Oka and the Mohawk community of Kanesatake. The town of Oka was developing plans to expand a golf course and residential development onto land which had traditionally been used by the Mohawk. It included pineland and a burial ground, marked by standing tombstones of their ancestors. The Mohawks had filed a land claim for the sacred grove and burial ground near Kanesatake, but their claim had been rejected in 1986. The Oka Crisis lasted 78 days, and gunfire early in the crisis killed SQ Corporal Marcel Lemay. The golf course expansion which had originally triggered the crisis was cancelled by the mayor of Oka.

Canada also joined the Gulf War in 1990 as part of a US-led coalition force, and was active in several peacekeeping missions in the late 1990s. Canada sent troops to Afghanistan in 2001, but declined to send forces to Iraq when the US invaded in 2003. In 2009, Canada's economy suffered in the worldwide Great Recession, but has since rebounded²² modestly. In 2011, Canadian forces participated in the NATO-led intervention into the Libyan civil war.

Explanatory notes

1. deciduous [dɪ'sɪdʒuəs] – лиственный (о деревьях)
2. renowned [rɪ'naʊnd] – знаменитый, известный
3. per capita [pə'kæpɪtə] – на человека, на душу населения
4. endowment – наделенность (количество ресурсов, которыми изначально обладает страна)
5. diversity [daɪ'vɜ:sɪtɪ] – разнообразие; многообразие
6. glacial ['gleɪʃəl] – ледниковый
7. boreal ['bɔ:riəl] – нордовый, северный, арктический
8. welfare ['welfɛə] – благосостояние; социальное обеспечение
9. evenue ['rev(ə)nju:] – доход; выручка
10. to initiate policy – положить начало политике

11. vigorous ['vɪg(ə)rəs] – сильный, энергичный; решительный
12. legislature ['ledʒɪsləʃə] – законодательная власть; законодательные учреждения
13. governor-general – генерал-губернатор
14. Iroquoian – ирокезские (языки)
15. nationhood ['neɪʃ(ə)nhud] – статус нации, государственность
16. descent [dɪ'sent] – происхождение
17. census ['sensəs] – перепись; сбор сведений
18. reserve [rɪ'zɜ:v] – резервация
19. accord [ə'kɔ:d] – соглашение; договор
20. by a slim/narrow margin – с небольшим преимуществом
21. massacre ['mæsəkə] – резня; бойня
22. rebound [rɪ'baund] – оправиться (после какого-л. потрясения)

Give detailed answers to the following questions.

1. Where is Canada situated? Why is the population density not high in Canada? Where do most Canadians live?
2. Where is the Canadian Shield situated? What is this region characterized by?
3. How many lakes are there in the country? Where are the supplies of fresh water concentrated? Is Canada geologically active?
4. What are average winter and summer temperatures across Canada?
5. What is the administrative division of Canada?
6. What mineral resources is Canada rich in? What is the leading manufacturing industry in Canada? What are other significant manufacturing sectors in Canada? In what occupations do most Canadians work?
7. How is Canada governed? What does Canadian constitution guarantee?
8. What programs do the federal and provincial governments cooperate in?
9. What does the name *Canada* come from? Who originally populated the country? What European groups are considered the two founding nations?
10. What can be said about Canadian demographic trends? Why is emigration important to Canada?
11. When was Canada formed and when did it achieve full independence?
12. What languages are spoken in Canada? What languages are official?
13. What does the selection of Ottawa as the national capital signify?
14. What can be said about Canadian way of life?

15. When did the history of the white man begin in Canada? Who was the first to settle in Canada? How far did the French explorers penetrate?

16. What initiated the conflict between the French and the English? What did the conflict end in?

17. When was the dominion of Canada formed? Which colonies confederate? What territory was bought from the Hudson's Bay Company?

18. What did the Statute of Westminster declare?

19. What are Quebec separatist sentiments based on?

20. What crises shook Canadian society in the late 1980s and early 1990s?

21. Has Canada always supported the USA in its military missions?

Discussion

1. Would you like to visit Canada? Why? Where would you go first in Canada? Explain your choice.

2. What Canadian province or territory is most suitable to live in? What makes you think so?

3. What factors make Canada one of the most successful countries in the world? How often do you hear about Canada? Why?

4. Why is immigration essential for Canada? Is it really so easy to immigrate to Canada? Prove your point of view.

5. Who originally possessed the land of modern Canada? Could the history of Canada be different now but for the British Crown? Why?

Unit 7. Canadian Culture

Read the text. Study the explanatory notes. Answer the questions after the text.

Symbolism

Canada is often symbolically connected with three key images – hockey, the beaver¹, and the dress uniform of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police².

Hockey, often described as Canada's national sport, is a vigorous, often violently competitive team sport and, as such, it carries the same kind of symbolic weight as baseball does for many Americans. Hockey is used, in its symbolic form, to signify national unity and a national sense of purpose and community. That most Canadians do not follow hockey in any serious way does not diminish³ its role as a key cultural symbol.

The beaver, which appears often on Canadian souvenirs, might seem to be an odd animal to have as a national symbol. It is a ratlike character, with a broad flat tail and, in caricature, a comical face highlighted by front chewing teeth of considerable prominence. What gives the beaver its special merit as a cultural symbol, however, are its industriousness, toiling⁴ to create elaborate nesting sites out of mud and twigs, and its triumph over the seasons. The beaver is humble, nonpredatory⁵, and diligent, values that form a fundamental core⁶ of Canadian self-identification.

The Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP), often represented in their dress uniform which includes a tight-fitting red coat, riding pants, high black boots, and broad-brimmed felt hat, also represent this Canadian concern with diligence and humility⁷. Canada was opened to European occupation not by a pioneering spirit fighting against all odds⁸ to push open a wild and dangerous frontier, as in the United States, but by a systematic effort to bring the vastness of the Canadian landscape under police control. The RCMP, along with agents of colonial economic interests such as the Hudson's Bay Company, expanded the scope of colonial control and occupation of Canada in a systematic and orderly way, not so much by conquest as by coordination. That is, Canada was opened to European occupation and control almost as a bureaucratic exercise in extending the rule of law. Where the American frontier was a lawless and wild place, later brought under control by centralizing government bodies, the Canadian frontier never quite existed. Instead, Canada was colonized by law rather than by force.

The core values that inform these symbols are cooperation, industriousness, and patience – that is, a kind of national politeness. The Canadian symbolic order is dominated by a concern for order and stability, which marks Canadian identity as something communal⁹ rather than individualistic.

Emergence of the Nation

Canada throughout its history might best be described as a nation of nations. Two European colonial powers dominate the history of Canada and its emergence¹⁰ as a nation: France and Great Britain. In time Britain emerged as the dominant political and cultural force in Canada, but that emergence exemplifies the sense of compromise and cooperation on which Canadian social identity is founded. While Britain, and later English Canada, came to be and remain the most powerful part of the Canadian cultural landscape, this dominance and power exists in a system of joint cultural identity, with French Canada, in Quebec and in other parts of eastern Canada, remaining a singular and distinctive cultural entity in its own right.

The Canadian novelist Hugh McLennan, writing in the 1940's, spoke of the two solitudes¹¹ which in many ways govern the cultural and political life of Canada. Two communities, distinguished by language, culture, religion, and politics live in isolation from each other with divergent¹² aspirations¹³ and very divergent views of the history of Canada as a nation. The peace between the French and English sides of the Canadian coin is a peace born in war, with Britain defeating French colonial forces in the late eighteenth century. It is a peace born of common purpose when the now English colony of Canada withstood invasion from the newly formed United States, with the sometimes uneven assistance of the remaining French community in Lower Canada, later to be called Quebec. It is also a peace driven by controversy and scandal. During the opening of the westward railroad in the late nineteenth century, a process of pacification of the Canadian frontier most noteworthy for its having been planned and carried out by a series of government committees, French Canadians felt, not without cause, that they were being excluded from this nation building. And it is a peace marked, even today, by a deep sense of ethnic antagonism, most particularly in Quebec, where French Canadian nationalism is a vibrant, if not the dominant political force.

This complex antagonism, which has been a thread throughout Canada's emergence as a nation, has also led to a particular kind of nation. Most important, the development of the Canadian nation, however uneven the power of the English and the French, has been characterized by discussion, planning, and compromise. The gradual opening of all of Canada to European control, and its coming together in 1867 as a national entity, was not the result of war or revolution but instead, of negotiation and reconciliation. It was an orderly transition managed almost like a business venture¹⁴, through which Canada obtained a degree of sovereignty and Great Britain continued to hold Canada's allegiance as a member of the British Empire. When, in the early 1980s Canada would take the final step towards political independence by adopting its own constitution, it would do so through negotiation as well, and again, the antagonism between English and French Canada, which resulted in the Government of Quebec refusing to sign the constitutional enabling agreement would provide both the drama of the moment, and its fundamental character, one of compromise and collaboration.

It is these qualities of combining co-operation with ethnic independence which continue to shape Canada's development as a nation. Developments in human rights law, for example, with a new emphasis on the importance of group rights and in particular group rights under conditions of inequality among groups, were pioneered in Canada. The model of universal health care for all citizens in Canada which, while currently stressed by economic changes in the final decades of the twentieth century, illustrates how a system of co-operative

engagement between multiple and independent political partners can produce institutions which benefit everyone. While Canada remains an often contentious and divided place in many ways, with regional and ethnic communities making greater demands for independence, they do so because the history of Canada's emergence as a nation has been a history of interdependence in which these polarities and debates are not so much a sign of dissolution but evidence of a continued vitality. An early colonial governor of Canada is reputed to have said that it is "nearly impossible to govern a nation where one half the people are more British than the Queen, and the other more Catholic than the Pope." While he may have been right about the difficulty, nearly a century and a half of Canadian nationhood has demonstrated that it is indeed possible to build a nation where diversity serves as the keystone of unity.

National Identity

Leading up to and following the emergence of Canada as an independent political state in 1867, English Canada and English identity dominated the political and cultural landscape. The remaining French presence, in Quebec and throughout the eastern part of the country, while a strong cultural entity in itself, exercised only limited influence and effect at the national level. English symbols, the English language, and the values of loyalty to the English crown prevailed throughout the nation as the core underpinnings¹⁵ of national identity.

Ethnic Relations

The dominance of English Canada in terms of national identity, especially in a federal system in which binationalism and biculturalism were enshrined¹⁶ in the founding legislation of the country, exercised a powerful effect on ethnic relations, but that effect was not ethnic homogenization. Instead, the dominance of English Canada served as a major locus of ongoing tension between the two national identities of Canada, a tension which, in the period from the 1960s onward, has come to be expressed in growing French-Canadian nationalism and so far unsuccessful attempts on the part of French Canada to secede from the Canadian confederation. This tension – which is built into the principles of the confederation itself, which recognizes the duality of Canadian national identity – while regularly threatening the unity of the federation, has also had a mollifying effect on ethnic divisions more generally.

Canada has seen successive waves of immigration, from the Netherlands, Germany and Italy, England and Ireland, China and Japan, and more recently from south and east Asia and from many countries throughout Africa. While some of these migration waves have resulted in considerable political and social

conflict, as in the large-scale migration of Chinese laborers brought into Canada to work on the national railroad, the overall pattern of in-migration and settlement has been characterized by relatively smooth transitions. This is in large part an effect of the legislated binationalism and biculturalism on which Canada is founded. Such a model of confederation, which institutionalizes cultural diversity, has meant the new cohorts of migrants have not experienced the kind of assimilationist and acculturationalist pressures which have characterized ethnic relations in the United States. Where, in the United States, there was considerable pressure on migrant cohorts to become “American”, in Canada these cohorts have more often than not retained their identity of birth. This has created a kind of mosaic-like quality in Canadian ethnic relations in which being Canadian does not necessarily take precedence over being Japanese or Italian or Somalian or Pakistani. Instead, the two identities can and often do carry the same social and political weight, creating in Canada a diversity of identity unlike that found in other large nation-states. This cooperative national identity, with its multiple cultural orientations, has not been without its tensions and conflicts. English Canadian cultural domination has created flash points of assimilationist sentiment, and the fact that Japanese-Canadians, for example, were seen as being both Japanese and Canadian, helped justify the imprisonment of people of Japanese ancestry throughout Canada during World War II. Overall, however, ethnic relations in Canada have tended to not be exclusionary and assimilationist.

The main exception to this has been the relationship between the dominant French-English state and aboriginal peoples. Colonial relations with indigenous ethnic groups worldwide have often been marked by violent conquest. While violence did play a role in these relationships in Canada, more often than not aboriginal peoples simply had their ethnic and cultural identities erased. The use of forced schooling, including the removal of children from their families, for example, sought to annul aboriginal cultural identities through a process of denial. Historically the policy in Canada has been to not recognize aboriginal cultural and ethnic identity as an identity at all. In more recent years, First Nations people throughout Canada have adopted a renewed expression of ethnic and cultural identity, as part of the process of asserting claims to sovereignty and their right of historical redress. These claims have been only moderately successful, in part because First Nations people are asserting an identity and a claim¹⁷ to ethnic coherence that had been denied them for more than one hundred years, and in part because the dominating ethic of multi-cultural cooperation in Canadian ethnic relations, which gives their claim to ethnic identity legitimacy in the Canadian system, also diminishes and undermines¹⁸ their claim to a special ethnic status. While First Nations peoples are indeed emerging as real ethnic, cultural, and political entities, they do so in a

system that relegates them to the position of one among many. The future direction of First Nations ethnicity, and their position within this Canadian mosaic, is likely to be complex, contentious, and a long time in its resolution.

Urbanism, Architecture, and the Use of Space

Space has symbolic importance for Canadian culture, in part because of the vastness of Canadian geography coupled with its sparse¹⁹ population, and in part because a sense of distance in Canada has tended to create regional tensions based on the isolation of the larger pockets of the population. Most Canadians live in towns and cities, a trend away from rural residence not unlike that found throughout the rest of the industrialized world. Canadian cities are found at important hubs of interchange between agriculture and manufacturing, such that most Canadian cities emerged as points of connection between farm production and industrial development. Because of this, Canadian cities have tended to develop haphazardly as the larger scale processes of industrialization and changes in farming have developed. Such historical processes are not amenable²⁰ to planning.

Canadian cities look like cities almost anywhere in the industrialized world, save the fact they tend to be cleaner due to an effect of the way that orderliness has been a dominant feature of the history of Canadian material culture. Canadian cities, even during phases of urban decay, have tended to be more carefully planned and better run, at least in terms of amenities and services, than those in many other industrialized nations.

Unlike European cities, however, space in Canadian cities tends to be privatized. While most cities have some space, such as a formal plaza²¹ at a city hall, at which public events are held, in general there are no large communal spaces in which social interactions occur. Instead, Canadians in cities of whatever size socialize in private spaces: their homes or commercial sites, such as restaurants. Like cities throughout North America, space in Canadian cities is dominated by movement, and Canadian cities are designed as networks through which goods, vehicles, and people move on their way to or from some place. As such, streets are designed to control the flow of vehicular traffic, to in some way isolate foot traffic, and in all instances to direct traffic toward destinations rather than allow traffic to accumulate. This has led, over the last several decades, to the gradual disappearance of urban commercial streetscapes, replaced by indoor shopping malls as a key destination of traffic flow. Rural towns, however, counter this trend somewhat. Many smaller towns have endeavored²² to revitalize their commercial streetscapes in recent decades and the decline of this streetscape is often seen as a sign of the decline and decay of the town as a whole.

Residence in Canadian cities is generally private rather than communal, dominated by private homes or residences. Vertical residence structures, such as apartment buildings, dominate much of the urban renewal of core areas in cities, while expansion of cities has been dominated by the development of large tracts of private single-family dwellings.

Official architecture in Canada has, historically, been neoclassical though not to the same extent as one finds in the United States. While official buildings in the early part of the twentieth century were often modeled on massive classical buildings, in the latter part of the century these buildings took on shapes not unlike other functional commercial buildings. Key symbolically important buildings, such as courthouses and city halls, are often grand in scale; what marks them today is their diversity rather than the application of a single stylistic model.

Food in Daily Life

The agricultural and ethnic richness of Canada has led to two distinctive characteristics of everyday food consumption. The first is its scale. Canadians are “big eaters,” with meat portions in particular dominating the Canadian meal. There are generally three regular meals in a given day. Breakfast, often large and important in rural areas, but less so in urban areas, is most often not eaten in a group. Lunch, at midday, is most often a snack in urban areas, but remains a substantial meal in rural centers. Dinner, the final formal meal of the day, is also the meal most likely to be eaten by a residential group as a whole, and it is the largest and the most socially important meal of the day. It is the meal most often used as a social event or to which invitations to nonfamily members are extended, in contrast with lunch which is often, for adults, shared with coworkers. Meat plays a key role in all three of the formal meals, but with increasing importance at breakfast and dinner. Dinner should have some special, and most often, large, meat portion as its key component. Each of these three meals can be, and often are, very substantial. There are general rules concerning appropriate foods for each meal, rules that can be quite complex. For example, pork can figure in each meal, but only particular kinds of pork would be considered appropriate. Pork at breakfast may appear as bacon, or sausage, in small portions. Both of these products are made with the least valuable portion of the pig. At lunch, pork may appear in a sandwich in the form of processed meats, also made from the least valuable portion of the pig. For dinner, pork appears in large and more highly valued forms, such as roasts or hams, which require often elaborate preparation and which are presented to diners in a way that highlights their value and size.

The other main feature of Canadian food is diversity. The complex ethnic landscape of Canada and the tendency of ethnic groups to retain a dual cultural

orientation have meant that Canadian cuisine is quite diverse in its content, with many ethnic dishes seen as somehow quintessentially Canadian as well. Whether pizza or chow mein, cabbage rolls or plum pudding, Canadian cuisine is best characterized as eclectic rather than consistent in content. There are a small number of food items that are considered distinctively Canadian, such as maple syrup, but overall the Canadian diet is drawn from a panoply²³ of ethnic sources.

Food Customs at Ceremonial Occasions

Ceremonial food does not generally differ greatly in content from everyday foods. What distinguishes food in ceremonial settings, such as state dinners, is not the type of food but the amount of food served and the complexity of its presentation and consumption. Ceremonial dinners are often made up of a long list of dishes served in a rigid sequence, eaten with utensils specified for each portion, and presented in often elaborate arrangement either generally, on the table as a whole, or in the particular portions placed on each diner's plate.

The same general consideration applies to meals for more private special occasions, such as those marking important religious holidays such as Christmas. The number of discrete dishes is usually quite large, the preparation of each is often specialized and involved, and portions consumed are more often than not greater than what one would consume under other circumstances. These more private special occasion meals often involve entire extended families sharing in both preparing and eating the meal.

There is another special meal worth mentioning, the potluck. "Potluck" is derived from the word *potlatch*, a special occasion of many West Coast First Nations peoples. The potluck involves each guest preparing and bringing a dish to the event, to be shared by all the diners. The key component of this particular kind of meal is food sharing among friends as opposed to food making for family. In general, potluck meals are meals shared by friends or coworkers. They express the symbolic importance of the meal as a part of the moral geography of social relations among nonkin²⁴, but distinguish this meal as an act of food sharing rather than an act of food preparation. That is, the potluck meal expresses a sense of community and kindness, while the family meal expresses a sense of service, duty, and family solidarity.

Land Tenure²⁵ and Property

Property in Canada is primarily by rental and freehold. Immediate, and some closely related secondary kin have some claims on the disposition of property, usually through inheritance. Some land, and other kinds of property, may be held in cooperative ownership, such as, for example, land held by religious communities or farmers co-op groups. To a limited extent, the property of married couples, and some property of common-law couples²⁶, is also held in common, each partner having some degree of claim on the total joint property. This joint ownership is also being extended to same-sex conjugal partners, whose property rights are now similar to those of common-law opposite sex couples. The state has right of expropriation of privately held land, and the right of criminal seizure of other properties. Private ownership of both land and moveable property is also subject to statutes governing financial solvency, such that bankrupts, for example, can have their land and other property sold to balance their debt.

Social Stratification

Classes and castes

Class is a contentious²⁷ issue in Canada, in no small part because the rhetoric of Canadian identity, with its emphasis on equality, unity in diversity, and mutual respect and cooperation, does not match the actual distribution of economic wealth and political power. Indeed, this culture of diversity has had the effect, on the one hand, of disguising class divisions, and on the other, of allowing them to flourish. Combined with ethnic diversity and strong regional disparities²⁸, class in Canada is a complex web of factors, which make easy descriptions of working and upper class, for example, difficult.

Average incomes in the central provinces are closest to the national average, but in eastern provinces average incomes can be as much as 25 percent lower than the national average. This has led to the emergence of low-skill, low-pay service sector jobs being located in the eastern provinces, creating a strong regional class division.

Symbols of social stratification

Class symbolism in Canada is mostly modest, again in large part as a result of the rhetoric of identity that prizes diversity and even humility. Signs of class excess, such as massive residences, or conspicuous²⁹ over-consumption, are not common in Canada, except in rare cases. Some symbolic sites of class expression, such as purchasing subscription tickets to and attending local symphony concerts, constitute a dual discourse of class. In one sense, members of a particular class express cultural solidarity, and in another sense, it is an avenue for class mobility, with members of lower classes using these events as a way of marking their movement between classes. Unlike in England, for

example, where accent and dress can clearly mark class position, the symbolic expression of stratification in Canada is less obvious and so more difficult to decipher. Dark business suits, jewelry, hairstyles, and types of leisure activities and leisure sites, such as exclusive clubs, can express status, but in the absence of enforced rules concerning admission and even who may or may not employ particular symbols, stratification is not often explicitly expressed.

Social Welfare and Change Programs

Canada is an example of a capitalist welfare state, in that tax-base-funded programs exist to provide some measure of protection to the impoverished and those at risk of impoverishment. These programs, usually administered at the town or city level, but funded from taxes collected at the provincial and federal level, take two main forms. The first is an insurance program designed to provide income support in the event of unemployment. Individual workers pay premiums based on their wages, and the fund is supplemented by general tax revenue as needed. There are strict guidelines for qualification and the income support paid out of the fund represents a percentage of the unemployed person's previous income. There are also time limits on this support. This is a national program, and while guidelines regarding qualification vary from region to region, it is generally available to all employed persons. The second program, a general welfare program, provides subsistence support for persons and families unable to work or unemployed for longer periods than those covered by the insurance program. Levels of support in this program are often very low, providing incomes to both individuals and families well below the low-income cutoff points used by governments to measure poverty. Recently these programs have been altered to require recipients to perform some labor for the community in order to qualify. This change, along with reductions in levels of actual income support, have been controversial in Canada, with the debate focusing on the role of the state in providing support to the economically disadvantaged, a basic principle of the welfare state.

Etiquette

The ethnic diversity of Canada means that rules of social propriety are quite complex. There are certain general expectations. Greeting, except in formal settings, does not require touching in the form of embraces or handshakes. Behavior in public should be subdued. Rowdiness³⁰ and loud speech, for example, are considered inappropriate except under special circumstances or in places such as bars or other venues. As a community, Canadians are in general soft spoken, patient, and almost apologetic in their public behavior. They are also in general tolerant of the complex network of cultural differences in public behavior, more so in cities perhaps, where such diversity is more common place.

Individuals concerned with the group

Canadians are generally a tolerant, polite and extremely community-oriented people. Although they are individualistic in terms of their basic cultural traits, they nevertheless place a great deal of emphasis on the individual's

responsibility to the community. This is seen as giving balance and a good quality of life.

Regionalism

Most Canadians have a strong allegiance to their province or region, sometimes more so than to the country. There are some broad differences between regions, which can generally be summed up as follows:

1. Atlantic Provinces (Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland): the people are somewhat reserved and provincial, to the point that they are seen as old-fashioned.

2. Ontario: this is the business hub and the people tend to be business-like and conservative.

3. Western Canada (Alberta, Manitoba and Saskatchewan): the people are open, friendly and relaxed.

4. British Columbia: the people are less conventional. This province is often viewed as the Canada of the future.

5. Quebec: the French region, has a distinct cultural identity. The people are extremely regionalistic/independent.

6. North: the people have a strong pioneer spirit.

Meeting and Greeting

1. The most common greeting is the handshake.

2. It should be firm and accompanied by direct eye contact and a sincere smile.

3. Wait until invited before using someone's first name although Canadians tend to move to a first-name basis rapidly.

4. French Canadian friends may greet each other by lightly kissing on the cheeks (once on the left cheek and once on the right).

5. If using French in Quebec always use the formal pronoun "vous" (you) when speaking to someone and do not switch to the informal "tu" unless invited to do so.

Gift Giving

1. In general, Canadians give gifts for birthdays and Christmas.

2. If invited to someone's home for dinner, take a box of good chocolates, flowers or a bottle of wine.

3. In Quebec, sending flowers in advance of the dinner party is proper protocol.

4. In Quebec, if you give wine, make sure it is of the highest quality you can afford.

5. Do not give white lilies as they are used at funerals.

6. Do not give cash or money as a present.

7. Gifts are usually opened when received.

Dining Etiquette

1. Table manners are relatively relaxed and informal in Canada.
2. Quebec does see a little more formality.
3. Table manners are generally Continental, i.e. the fork is held in the left hand and the knife in the right while eating.
4. Wait to be shown to your seat.
5. Do not begin eating until the hostess starts.
6. Do not rest your elbows on the table.
7. Feel free to refuse individual foods or drink without offering an explanation.
8. Leaving a small amount at the end of the meal is generally acceptable.
9. In formal situations, the host gives the first toast. An honoured guest should return the toast later in the meal. Women may give toasts.

Canadian Communication Styles

It is difficult to specify any national trait in terms of communication in Canada due to its regionalism and cultural diversity. However, there are some basic communication styles that are fairly standard across the country. For example, businesspeople are generally polite, easy-going and somewhat informal.

In general, communication is “moderately indirect” perhaps reflecting an amalgamation of both North American and British tendencies. Although most Canadians can disagree openly when necessary, they prefer to do so with tact and diplomacy. Their communication style is essentially pragmatic and relies on common sense. If you come from a culture where communication is very direct, you may wish to soften your demeanour and tone so as not to appear threatening. Communication styles vary most between Anglophone and Francophone parts of the country. Francophones are generally more indirect than Anglophones, although less so than the French. They also tend to be more exuberant than Anglophones. Anglophones do not generally interrupt someone who is speaking. They consider it rude not to let a person complete their thought before entering the discussion. Francophones are more likely to interrupt another speaker. Canadians communicate more by the spoken word rather than non-verbal expressions. Non-verbal expressions are only really used to add emphasis to a message or are part of an individual’s personal communication style. Canadians like their space and prefer to be at an arm’s length when speaking to someone. Canadians are reticent to discuss their personal lives with business associates. They expect people to speak in a straightforward manner and to be able to back up their claims with examples. They do not make exaggerated claims and are suspicious of something that sounds too good to be true.

Secular Celebrations

Canadian holidays may be either political or religious. The major celebrations, which are often marked by a statutory holiday away from work, include two religious holidays: Christmas, 25 December; and Easter, which varies from year to year. There are five main political or secular celebrations: Canada Day, 1 July; New Year's Day, 1 January; Victoria Day, which honors Queen Victoria of England and varies from year to year; Labor Day, September; and Thanksgiving, in October.

Explanatory notes

1. beaver ['bi:və] – бобр
2. Royal Canadian Mounted Police – Королевская Канадская Конная Полиция
3. diminish [di'mɪnɪʃ] – умялять, преуменьшать (значение чего-л.)
4. toil [tɔɪl] – выполнять тяжёлую работу
5. nonpredatory – мирный, нехищный
6. core [kɔ:] – центр; сокровенная часть; суть, сущность
7. humility [hju:'mɪləti] – подчинение; сдержанность
8. odds [ɒdz] – трудности, сложности
9. communal ['kɒmjʊn(ə)l] – общий, совместный
10. emergence [i'mɜ:dʒ(ə)ns] – выход; появление
11. solitude ['sɒlɪtju:d] – одиночество; уединение (о человеке)
12. divergent [daɪ'vɜ:dʒənt] – отличающийся, другой
13. aspiration [æsp(ə)'reɪʃ(ə)n] – стремление (к достижению чего-л.)
14. venture ['ventʃə] – рискованное предприятие; фирма
15. underpinnings [ʌndə'pɪnɪŋ] – обоснование; основа
16. enshrine [ɪn'ʃraɪn] – бережно хранить (чувства, воспоминания)
17. assert a claim – заявлять претензию
18. undermine [ʌndə'maɪn] – подрывать, расшатывать, разрушать
19. sparse [spɑ:s] – разбросанный, редкий
20. amenable [ə'mi:nəbl] – поддающийся, подверженный, склонный

21. plaza ['plɑ:zə] – открытая площадка (перед городскими зданиями)
22. endeavour [In'devə] – пытаться
23. panoply ['rænəplɪ] – богатство, великолепие, роскошь
24. kin – родственники
25. tenure ['tenjə] – владение недвижимостью
26. common-law marriage – гражданский брак
27. contentious [kən'tenʃəs] – дискуссионный, спорный
28. disparity [dɪs'pærəti] – неравенство; несоответствие
29. conspicuous [kən'spɪkjʊəs] – видный, бросающийся в глаза
30. rowdiness – хулиганство, грубость

Give detailed answers to the following questions.

1. What are Canadian three main national symbols? What core values do they represent?
2. What gives the beaver its special merit as a cultural symbol of Canada? Why are Canadians proud of the RCMP?
3. When did Canadians emerge as a nation? What was the antagonism between the French and the English in Canada based on?
4. What does the model of universal health care symbolize for Canadians?
5. Why does space play symbolic importance for Canadian culture? What are Canadian cities like? What's special about private and official architecture in Canada?
6. What's Canadian daily food like? Is Canadian cuisine consistent or eclectic in content? What's *the potluck*? What does it symbolize?
7. What's peculiar about property in Canada?
8. Why is *class* a contentious issue in Canada? What are the symbols of social stratification in Canada? What measures of protection are provided for the impoverished in Canada?
9. What social welfare and change programs are there in Canada?
10. Are there broad differences between regions concerning people in Canada?
11. What etiquette rules should be observed in Canada? What's peculiar about Canadian communication style?
12. What secular celebrations are held in Canada?

Discussion

1. How do national symbols of Canada characterize Canadians as a nation? Explain your point of view.
2. What questions would you ask a Canadian if you had a chance?
3. In what way are Canadians similar to (or different from) the people of Belarus? Explain your point of view.
4. Is Canada more British or French? What makes you think so? Do you think that Quebec will leave Canada one day? Why? How could it affect the country?
5. What rules of social behavior in Canada strike you as unusual? Why?

Unit 8. South Africa

Read the text. Study the explanatory notes. Answer the questions after the text.

Introduction

South Africa, southernmost country in Africa, bordered on the north by Namibia [nə'mɪblə], Botswana [bɒ'tswɑ:nə], Zimbabwe [zɪm'bɑ:bwɪ], Mozambique [məʊzæm'bi:k], and Swaziland ['swɑ:zɪlənd]; on the east and south by the Indian Ocean; and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean. Lesotho [lə'su:tu:], forms an enclave¹ in the northeastern part of the country.

South Africa has a diverse and dramatic landscape. Most of the interior is covered by high plateaus², which are separated from the country's long coastline by chains of tall mountains. South Africa is rich in minerals such as gold and diamonds, and its industrial base grew up around the mining industry.

Black Africans comprise three quarters of South Africa's population, and whites, Coloureds (people of mixed race), and Asians (mainly Indians) make up the remainder. Among the black population there are numerous ethnic groups and 11 official languages. Until recently, whites dominated the nonwhite majority population under the political system of racial segregation³ known as apartheid. Apartheid ended in the early 1990s, but South Africa is still recovering from the racial inequalities in political power, opportunity, and lifestyle. The end of apartheid led to the lifting of trade sanctions against South Africa imposed by the international community. It also led to a total reorganization of the government, which since 1994 has been a nonracial democracy based on majority rule.

South Africa is divided into nine provinces. These provinces are Gauteng, Northern Province, Mpumalanga, North-West Province, Free State, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, Western Cape, and KwaZulu-Natal. The country has three

capitals: Cape Town is the legislative capital; Pretoria [prɪ'tɔ:riə], the executive⁴ capital; and Bloemfontein ['blu:mfən'teɪn], the judicial⁵ capital.

Climate

South Africa enjoys a generally warm, temperate climate. Most of the country experiences light rainfall and long hours of sunshine. Rainfall is typically unpredictable. Prolonged droughts⁶ often end with severe floods.

There is a striking difference between temperatures on the east and west coasts. The east coast is influenced by the warm Agulhas [ə'gʌləs] Current and the west coast by the cold Benguela Current. Average temperature ranges in January are 21° to 27 °C in Durban, 14° to 26° in Johannesburg [dʒəu'hæni'sbɜ:g], and 12° to 34°C in Cape Town. In July the temperature ranges are 11° to 22 °C in Durban, 4° to 17 °C in Johannesburg, and 4° to 24 °C in Cape Town. Snow is rare except in the higher parts of the Drakensberg, but winter frosts occur on the higher parts of the plateau.

People

The population of South Africa is about 80% black (African) and 10% white (European), with about 9% people of mixed white and black descent (formerly called 'Coloured'), and a small minority of South and East Asian background. Although these ethnic divisions were rigidly enforced under the policy of apartheid, racial distinctions are often arbitrary⁷. People of African descent fall into several groups, based on their first language.

South Africa has 11 official languages, nine of which are indigenous (Zulu, Xhosa and others). Many blacks also speak Afrikaans⁸ (the first language of about 60% of the whites and the majority of those of mixed race) or English (the first language of most of the rest of the nonblacks). Afrikaans originates from the 17th century Dutch dialects spoken by the mainly-Dutch settlers of what is now South Africa, where it began to develop independently. Hence, historically, it is a daughter language of Dutch. About 80% of the population is Christian; major groups include the Zionist, Pentecostal, Roman Catholic, Methodist, Dutch Reformed, and Anglican churches. There are small minorities of Muslims, Hindus, Jews, and followers of traditional African religions.

Economy

Until about 1870 the economy of the region was almost entirely based on agriculture. With the discovery of diamonds and gold in the late 19th century, mining became the foundation for rapid economic development. In the 20th century the country's economy was diversified, so that by 1945 manufacturing was the leading contributor to the gross national product⁹ (GNP). By 2006, services contributed some 67% of the GNP, while industry contributed over 30% and agriculture only about 2.5%. The economy is still largely controlled by whites, but nonwhites make up more than 75% of the workforce. Working conditions and pay are often poor, and many nonwhites are subsistence¹⁰ farmers.

South Africa has a limited amount of arable¹¹ land (about 12%) and inadequate irrigation; production is diminished during periodic droughts. The chief crops are corn, wheat, sugarcane, fruits, vegetables, potatoes, peanuts, cotton, and tobacco. In addition, large numbers of dairy and beef cattle, sheep, goats (including many Angora goats), and hogs are raised. There is a large fishing industry, and much fish meal is produced. Tourism also contributes significantly to the economy.

The main industrial centers are Johannesburg, Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Durban, Pretoria, and Germiston. There is food processing and a large wine industry. Principal manufactures include machinery, textiles, iron and steel, chemicals, fertilizer, and forest products. South Africa is a world leader in the production of platinum, gold, chromium, diamonds, aluminosilicates, manganese, and vanadium. Other leading minerals extracted are copper ore, coal, asbestos, iron ore, silver, titanium, and uranium. Automobile assembly, metalworking, and commercial ship repair are also important.

The main imports are machinery and equipment, chemicals, petroleum products, scientific instruments, and foodstuffs. The chief exports are gold, diamonds, platinum, other metals and minerals, equipment, chemicals, and arms. The principal trade partners are Germany, the United States, Japan, and Great Britain. South Africa carries on a large-scale foreign trade and generally maintains a favorable trade balance.

Government

South Africa is a federal republic. Until 1994 it was governed by the white minority with minimal mixed-race and Asian representation and virtually¹² no black representation. In April 1994, the country became a fully multiracial democracy, under an interim¹³ constitution; a permanent constitution was adopted in 1996. It provides for a strong central government headed by a president, who is elected by the National Assembly for a five-year term and serves as both the head of state and head of government. The bicameral¹⁴ Parliament consists of a 400-member National Assembly, which is elected by

proportional representation, and a 90-seat National Council of Provinces, which is elected by the provincial legislatures¹⁵. Legislators serve five-year terms. The constitution contains an extensive bill of rights and provides for an independent judiciary; the Constitutional Court is the highest court of appeal¹⁶. The leading political parties are the African National Congress, the predominantly white Democratic Alliance, and the Zulu-based Inkatha Freedom party. Administratively, the country is divided into nine provinces. Provinces are given exclusive powers in only a few areas, such as roads and recreation.

Way of Life

The apartheid system left a profound imprint on South African society. Most whites enjoy a standard of living and way of life comparable to people in the world's most developed countries. Distinctive features of this lifestyle include an emphasis on sports and open-air living, which reflect South Africa's pleasant climate. Sports play a major role in schools. Rugby is particularly popular among Afrikaners. Cricket is popular among Afrikaners, English speakers, and increasingly among other groups as opportunities and facilities gradually improve. Swimming and water sports, tennis, and golf are all popular in the white community.

Affluent whites typically live in detached single-story homes with large gardens, often with swimming pools and sometimes tennis courts. The *braaivleis* (barbecue) is a popular way of entertaining. Food is essentially English, with a few distinctive Afrikaans dishes and some North American influences. The white South African lifestyle traditionally depended on servants to take care of the home, look after children, and tend the garden; many servants lived in small rooms on the employers' property. This became less common after the end of apartheid as white incomes decreased, proportionately, and servants' wages increased.

Wealthy Asians, Coloured people, and a small but growing minority of blacks have lifestyles similar to whites. For the great majority of South Africans, however, life is vastly different. Housing in the townships consists of mostly single-story dwellings, but houses are much closer together than in predominantly white suburbs. Barracklike hostels house single black men and migrant workers. An increasing number of urban blacks live in shantytowns¹⁷ around major cities with minimal facilities and long distances to travel to work and shops.

Recreational facilities are minimal in both townships and rural areas, but people play soccer wherever there is open ground. There are many churches, even in informal settlements, and they play an important role in social life. Township *shebeens* (unofficial drinking houses) take the place of pubs. Incomes restrict most blacks to a staple¹⁸ diet of *mealies*, or maize¹⁹, which is made into porridge, cheaper cuts of meat, some fruit, and vegetables. People commonly

drink tea; beer, which is often home-brewed, especially in rural areas, is the main alcoholic drink.

Women are still more disadvantaged in South African society than in Europe or North America. The post-apartheid government is anxious to promote gender equality, but traditional attitudes are slow to change. Women from all ethnic and racial groups are involved in the labor market, although this often reflects economic necessity rather than preference.

Customs of South Africa

Eating

The South African diet is diverse. The general diet includes beef, mutton, a variety of curries, green vegetables, pumpkins, and staples such as potatoes and rice. Wine, tea, coffee, beer, and soft drinks are the common beverages. Many South Africans, particularly in rural areas, eat mealie meal or pap, which is maize meal porridge, sometimes cooked with vegetables and meat. The evening meal is usually the main one. The *braaivleis*, or barbecue, is a popular weekend event and usually features *boerewors* (beef and pork sausage). Fresh fruits and vegetables are abundant and are often sold by farmers from roadside stalls. Biltong is dried, spiced meat and a popular snack, especially among the Afrikaners.

Each ethnic group has its own eating customs and etiquette. People in urban areas are more likely to follow Western patterns. In rural areas, people often eat with spoons, and use other cutlery at weddings and parties.

Socializing

Because of the country's ethnic diversity, many different greetings are used in South Africa. English-speakers use "Hello" and "Good morning" phrases that are understood by most South Africans. Afrikaans-speakers say *Goeie more* ("Good Morning"). The Zulu and Swazi greet each other with *Sakubona*, which literally means "I see you" but is used also as "hello," or *Kunjani* ("How are you?"). An acceptable answer to "Sakubona" is *Yebo* ("Yes"). Usual responses to "Kunjani" are *Sikhona* or *Sisaphila*. The Xhosa greeting, *Molo*, and the Sotho and Tswana *Dumela* have similar meanings. All South Africans shake hands when they greet. Many people in rural areas use both hands. Sometimes black friends greet with an intricate triple handshake that involves interlocking²⁰ the smallest fingers, claspings fists, and interlocking fingers again. In all groups, close friends and relatives may hug.

It is generally impolite to use first names with strangers or older people. Titles are used for adults unless one has developed a closer relationship. It is respectful to call an older African man "Father," which is *Tata* in Isixhosa, *Ntate* in Sesotho, or *Baba* in Isizulu. An older black woman is called "Mother," which is *Mama* in Isixhosa and Isizulu and *Mme* in Sesotho. Therefore, an older

African Xhosa man can be addressed as “Tata,” and an older Zulu woman can be addressed as “Mama.”

When possible, visits are arranged in advance, but unannounced visits among good friends or relatives are common. Among most people, dinner guests are not expected to bring a gift, but it is accepted when offered. Customs and etiquette in the home vary from group to group.

Recreation

South Africa’s rugby and cricket teams are among the world’s best. Rugby is most popular among Afrikaners and cricket among English speakers. A wide variety of other sports – including soccer, squash, field hockey, boxing, swimming, sailing, tennis, lawn bowling, and golf – are also enjoyed. Horse and car racing draw crowds.

South Africans appreciate their many beaches and recreational facilities, including swimming pools, parks, libraries, and cinemas. Television is popular among those with access to a set. Dancing, music, attending festivals, and enjoying cultural events are popular activities throughout the year. African men in urban areas often socialize with friends over drinks at *shebeens* (informal bars).

Holidays and Celebrations

National holidays include New Year’s Day (1 January); Human Rights Day (21 March); Easter (Good Friday through Easter Monday, which is also known as Family Day); Freedom Day (27 April); Workers’ Day (1 May); Youth Day (16 June); National Women’s Day (9 August); Heritage Day (24 August); Day of Reconciliation (16 December); Christmas (25 December); and Day of Goodwill (26 December).

A Zulu festival featuring dancing and colorful costumes lasts for most of the month of July. South Africans celebrate a warm Christmas, which is occasion for a summer vacation.

Social Issues

The apartheid heritage has left a strong connection between race and socioeconomic class. Under apartheid, from 1948 to 1994, a person’s race influenced occupation, place of residence, education, choice of partner, freedom of movement, and use of facilities and amenities. This legacy will take decades to erase. In 1993 blacks made up 76 percent of the population but earned only 29 percent of the country’s total income. Whites, who constituted only 13 percent of the population, accounted for 58 percent of total income. For Coloured people the shares were 8 percent of the population and about 7 percent of the income; for Asians, 3 percent of the population and 5 percent of the income.

During most of the 20th century, race was the central issue in South African politics, but since the end of apartheid attention has focused on other

problems in South African society as well. The most prominent of these issues are unemployment, lack of housing, poverty, and crime. Women, especially black women, are disproportionately the victims of violent crime. These social issues are closely related to one another, and to some degree they are also the legacy of apartheid. They are among the main concerns of the government's Reconstruction and Development Programme.

Explanatory notes

1. enclave ['enkleɪv] – анклав (территория, окруженная чужими владениями)

2. plateau ['plætəu] – плоскогорье, плоская возвышенность

3. segregation [segrɪ'geɪʃ(ə)n] – отделение, сегрегация (один из способов дискриминации, предполагающий изоляцию расовой, этнической и т.п. группы в одной или нескольких сферах общественной жизни, например в образовательной системе, по месту проживания и др.)

4. executive [ɪg'zekjʊtɪv] – исполнительный, принадлежащий к структурам исполнительной власти

5. judicial [dʒu:'dɪʃ(ə)l] – судебный; законный, принадлежащий закону

6. drought [draut] – засуха

7. arbitrary ['ɑ:bɪtr(ə)rɪ] – произвольный, случайный

8. Afrikaans [æfrɪ'kɑ:ns] – язык африкаанс (относится к германской группе языков, распространен в ЮАР, носителей 6 млн чел.)

9. gross national product – валовой национальный продукт (суммарная стоимость всех товаров и услуг, произведенных резидентами страны на ее территории и за ее пределами за период времени)

10. subsistence [səb'sɪst(ə)ns] – средства к существованию; пропитание

11. arable ['ærəbl] – пахотный; пастбищный; обрабатываемый

12. virtually ['vɜ:ʃuəlɪ] – фактически, в сущности

13. interim ['ɪnt(ə)rɪm] – временный, промежуточный

14. bicameral [baɪ'kæm(ə)rəl] – двухпалатный (о парламенте)

15. legislature ['ledʒɪsləʃə] – законодательная ветвь власти, законодательные органы

16. court of appeal [kɔ:təvə'pi:l] – Апелляционный суд (отделение Верховного суда; рассматривает апелляции по гражданским делам)

17. shantytown – трущобы
18. staple ['steɪpl] – главный продукт, производимый в данном районе
19. maize [meɪz] – кукуруза; маис
20. interlock [ɪntə'lɒk] – соединять, сцеплять

Give detailed answers to the following questions.

1. Where is South Africa situated? What countries does South Africa border with? What is unusual about its border with Lesotho?
2. What is the relief of South Africa like?
3. What provinces does South Africa consist of? How many capitals are there in South Africa?
4. What was the economy of the region almost entirely based on until about 1870? What became the industrial base for South African economy later?
5. What minerals is South Africa rich in? What are the leading sectors in South African economy?
6. What does South Africa import and export? Who are the country's chief business partners?
7. How would you characterize South African climate?
8. What languages are spoken in South Africa? What is Afrikaans and what are its origins?
9. Speak of the diverse population of South Africa. Who are Afrikaners?
10. What is apartheid? When did it end? What changes took place after the end of apartheid? Who makes the 75% of the workforce in South Africa?
11. What changes took place in South Africa in 1994? Who is the head of the country?
12. How is South Africa governed? What are the two leading parties in the country?
13. What can be said about life-style of people in South Africa (housing conditions, leisure activities, racial equality, rights of women etc.)?
14. What did you read about South African customs and recreation?
15. What holidays and celebrations are held in South Africa?
16. Did there use to be a strong connection between race and socioeconomic class in South Africa? Is this connection still felt nowadays?
17. What was the central issue in South African politics? What issues are of importance nowadays?

Discussion

1. Would you like to live in South Africa? Explain your point of view.
2. Do you know any other countries that had the political system of racial segregation? Is it possible that one day this system will be employed again in any part of the world? What makes you think so?
3. What was of most interest to you when you read some facts about South African society and its way of life? Give examples and comment on them.
4. Would you like to speak Afrikaans? Why?
5. Do you consider South Africa to be a powerful country on the world arena? Explain your point of view.

Unit 9. The History of South Africa

Read the text. Study the explanatory notes. Answer the questions after the text.

‘Khoikhoi’ and ‘San’ are the first known inhabitants of South Africa, believed to have emerged from the same gene pools¹ as the black people, but to have developed separately. In 1488, a Portuguese navigator², became the first European to round the Cape of Good Hope (so named by King John II of Portugal).

Colonialism and African-European relations

Although European vessels³ frequently passed by South Africa on their way to E Africa and India, and sometimes stopped for provisions⁴ or rest, no permanent European settlement was made until 1652, when Jan van Riebeeck and about 90 other persons set up a provisioning station for the Dutch East India Company at Table Bay on the Cape of Good Hope.

Soon van Riebeeck began to trade with nearby Khoikhoi (native inhabitants), gave Europeans land for farms, and bought slaves. By 1662, about 250 Europeans were living near the Cape and gradually they moved inland. In 1689 about 200 Huguenot⁵ refugees⁶ from Europe arrived; they established a wine industry and intermarried with the earlier Dutch settlers. By 1707 there were about 1,780 freeholders⁷ of European descent in South Africa, and they owned about 1,100 slaves.

By the early 18th century, most San had migrated into inaccessible⁸ parts of the country to avoid European domination; the more numerous Khoikhoi either remained near the Cape, where they became virtual slaves of the Europeans, or dispersed⁹ into the interior. A great smallpox outbreak in 1713 killed many Europeans and most of the Khoikhoi living near the Cape. During the 18th century intermarriage between Khoikhoi slaves and Europeans began to create what became later known as the Coloured population. At the same time white farmers (known as Boers or Afrikaners) began to trek (journey) increasingly farther from the Cape in search of pasture and cropland.

By 1750 some farmers had migrated to the region between the Gamtoos and Great Fish rivers, where they encountered the Xhosa (a people living in South Africa). At first the whites and blacks engaged in friendly trade, but in 1779 the first of a long series of Xhosa Wars broke out between them, primarily over land and cattle ownership. The whites sought to establish the Great Fish River as the southern frontier of the Xhosa.

The British and the Boers

In 1820, 5,000 British settlers were given small farms near the Great Fish River. They were intended to form a barrier to the southern movement of the Xhosa, but most soon gave up farming and moved to nearby towns such as Port Elizabeth and Grahamstown. They were the first large body of Europeans not to be assimilated into the Afrikaner culture that had developed in the 17th and 18th century.

Great Britain alienated¹⁰ the Boers by remodeling the administration along British lines, by calling for better treatment of the Coloured and blacks who worked for the Boers as servants or slaves, by granting free nonwhites legal rights equal to those of the whites, and by restricting the acquisition¹¹ of new land by the Boers.

In 1833 slavery was abolished in the British Empire, an act that angered South African slave-owners, but the freed slaves remained oppressed and continued to be exploited by white landowners.

To escape the restrictions of British rule as well as to obtain new land, about 12,000 Boers left the Cape between 1835 and 1843 in what is known as the Great Trek. The Voortrekkers (as these Boers are known) migrated beyond the Orange River. In time, these Voortrekkers started to build a unique identity and started calling themselves Afrikaners. They also developed a hybrid language, Afrikaans, which stemmed from high Dutch but incorporated strong French, Malay, German and Black influences. The Afrikaans-speaking descendants of these people would later simply be called “Boere” (boers or farmers).

A large group traveled eastward into what became Natal, where 70 Boers were killed (in February, 1838) in an attack by Zulu forces. The Zulu were defeated at the battle of Blood River (in December, 1838), and the Boers proceeded to establish farms in Natal. After Britain annexed¹² Natal in 1843, however, most of the Boers there returned to the interior. In the 1850s the Boer republics of the Orange Free State and the Transvaal [ˈtrænzvɑ:l] were established.

Natural riches and British victory

In 1871 the British annexed the diamond-mining region (known as Griqualand West), despite the protests of the Orange Free State. Britain annexed the Transvaal in 1877 but, after a revolt, restored its independence in 1881. In 1889, Cape Colony and the Orange Free State joined in a customs union, but the Transvaal adamantly refused to take part.

In 1896, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State formed an alliance, and in 1899 they declared war on Great Britain. The South African War (Boer War; 1899–1902) was won by the British.

The Union of South Africa

In 1910 the Union of South Africa, with dominion status, was established by the British; it included Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal as provinces. Under the Union’s constitution, power was centralized; the Dutch language and Afrikaans were given equal status with English, and each province retained its existing franchise¹³ qualifications (the Cape permitted voting by some nonwhites).

Hertzog (prime minister 1924–1939) curtailed¹⁴ the electoral power of nonwhites and furthered¹⁵ the system of allocating¹⁶ “reserved” areas for blacks as their permanent homes, at the same time regulating their movement in the remainder of the country.

South African troops made an important contribution to the Allied war effort, helping to end Italian control in Ethiopia [i:θi'əupɪə] and fighting with distinction in Italy and Madagascar [mædə'gæskə].

National party ascendancy and apartheid

The National party won the 1948 elections. These governments greatly strengthened white control of the country. The policy of apartheid in almost all social relations was further implemented by a varied series of laws that included additional curbs¹⁷ on free movement (partly through the use of *passbooks*, which most blacks were required to carry) and the planned establishment of a number of independent homelands for African ethnic groups.

Black South Africans had long protested their inferior treatment through organizations such as the African National Congress (ANC, founded 1912) and the Industrial and Commercial Workers Union of Africa. In the 1950s and early 60s there were various protests against the National party's policies, involving passive resistance and the burning of passbooks; in 1960 a peaceful protest against the pass laws organized ended when police opened fire, massacring 70 protesters and wounding about 190 others. In the 1960s most leaders (including ANC leader *Nelson Mandela*) of the opposition to apartheid were either in jail or were living in exile¹⁸, and the government proceeded with its plans to segregate blacks on a more permanent basis.

The republic of South Africa and racial strife

In 1961, South Africa left the Commonwealth of Nations (whose members were strongly critical of South Africa's apartheid policies) and became a republic.

From the late 1960s, the government began to try to start a dialogue on racial and other matters with independent African nations; these attempts met with little success, except for the establishment of diplomatic relations with Malawi [mə'lɑ:wɪ] and the adjacent nations of Lesotho [lə'su:tu:], Botswana [bɔ'tswɑ:nə], and Swaziland ['swɑ:zɪlənd], all of which were economically dependent on South Africa.

South Africa was strongly opposed to the establishment of black rule in the white-dominated countries of Angola [æŋ'gəʊlə], Mozambique, and Rhodesia, and gave military assistance to the whites there. However, by late 1974, with independence for Angola and Mozambique under majority rule imminent¹⁹, South Africa, as one of the few remaining white-ruled nations of Africa, faced the prospect of further isolation from the international community.

In the early 1970s, black workers staged strikes and violently revolted against their inferior conditions. South Africa invaded Angola in 1975 in an attempt to crush mounting opposition in exile, but the action was a complete failure. In 1976, open rebellion erupted²⁰ in the black township of Soweto near

Johannesburg as a protest against the requirement of the use of Afrikaans as the medium of instruction in black schools. Over the next months rioting spread to other large cities of South Africa, resulting in the deaths of more than 600 blacks.

In the early 1980s, as the regime launched military strikes on the exiled ANC and other insurgent²¹ groups in neighboring countries, including Lesotho, Mozambique, Botswana, Zimbabwe [zɪm'bɑ:bwɪ], and Zambia ['zæmbɪə].

In 1984, a new constitution was enacted²² which provided for a tricameral parliament²³. The new Parliament included the House of Representatives, comprised of Coloureds; the House of Delegates, comprised of Indians; and the House of Assembly, comprised of whites. This system left the whites with more seats in the Parliament than the Indians and Coloureds combined. Blacks violently protested being shut out of the system, and the ANC, which had traditionally used nonviolent means to protest inequality, began to advocate more extreme measures as well.

A regime unravels²⁴

As attacks against police stations and other government installations²⁵ increased, the regime announced (1985) an indefinite state of emergency. In 1986 a black South African leader, addressed the United Nations and urged further sanctions against South Africa. The government began relaxing apartheid restrictions, and in 1990, Nelson Mandela was freed after 27 years of imprisonment and became head of the recently legalized ANC.

The new South Africa

Despite obstacles and delays, a new constitution was completed in 1993, ending nearly three centuries of white rule in South Africa and marking the end of white-minority rule on the African continent. A 32-member multiparty government council was formed with blacks in the majority. In April 1994, days the republic's first multiracial election was held. The ANC won an overwhelming victory, and Nelson Mandela became president. South Africa rejoined the Commonwealth in 1994 and also relinquished its last hold in Namibia, ceding the exclave of Walvis Bay.

In 1994 and 1995 the last vestiges²⁶ of apartheid were dismantled²⁷, and a new national constitution was approved and adopted in May, 1996. It provided for a strong presidency and eliminated provisions guaranteeing white-led and other minority parties representation in the government.

Explanatory notes

1. gene pool – генетический фонд
2. navigator ['nævɪɡeltə] – мореплаватель
3. vessel ['ves(ə)l] – корабль, судно

4. provisions [prə'vɪʒ(ə)nz] – продовольственные товары
5. huguenot ['hju:gənəu] – гугенот (сторонник кальвинизма во Франции в XVI–XVII вв.)
6. refugee [refju'dʒi:] – беженец
7. freeholder ['fri:həuldə] – свободный землевладелец
8. inaccessible [ɪnək'sesəbl] – недостижимый; недоступный
9. disperse [dɪ'spɜ:s] – рассеиваться; расходиться
10. alienate ['ellɪneɪt] – отвращать; отдалять, заставляя отвернуться
11. acquisition [ækwɪ'zɪʃ(ə)n] – приобретение, овладение
12. annex ['æneks] – присоединять, включать в состав
13. franchise ['fræntʃaɪz] – право участвовать в выборах, право голоса
14. curtail [kɜ:'teɪl] – сокращать; урезывать
15. further ['fɜ:ðə] – продвигать; способствовать
16. allocate ['æləkeɪt] – располагать в определённом месте
17. curb [kɜ:b] – сдерживание (чего-л.)
18. in exile ['eksall] – в ссылке
19. imminent ['ɪmɪnənt] – неминуемый (обычно об опасности, беде)
20. erupt [ɪ'rʌpt] – выливаться, перерасти (во что-л.)
21. insurgent [ɪn'sɜ:dʒ(ə)nt] – повстанец; мятежник
22. enact ['nækt] – предписывать; вводить закон; постановлять
23. tricameral parliament – трехпалатный парламент (ЮАР)
24. unravel [ʌn'ræv(ə)l] – слабесть; рушиться; переставать действовать
25. installation [ɪnstə'leɪʃ(ə)n] – специальное здание, сооружение
26. vestige ['vestɪdʒ] – след, остаток
27. dismantle [dɪs'mæntl] – ликвидировать

Give detailed answers to the following questions.

1. What were the first people to inhabit the South Africa?
2. Who were the first Europeans to discover Africa and give the first European name to a place in South Africa?

3. Who made the first permanent settlement in South Africa? From what countries did people come for permanent residence in South Africa? What attracted them about the country?

4. Why did San migrate into inaccessible parts of the country? How was the colored population created?

5. Who were the Boers? Why did they trek further inland?

6. Why did the Boers fight with the Xhosa? What was the Great Trek?

7. Why were Orange Free State and the Transvaal formed? Why did the states wage a war against Great Britain? What was the result of the war?

8. When was the Union of South Africa established? What provinces did it include? What new policy was started?

9. What changes took place from 1948 till 1960s under the ascendancy of the National party?

10. Why did South Africa leave the Commonwealth of Nations? Why did the country face the prospect of further isolation from the international community?

11. What restrictions were put on the blacks? How were the advocates for the end of apartheid treated?

12. What was wrong with the tricameral parliament of 1984? Was it different from the council formed after the adoption of the new constitution in 1993?

13. Who was the first South African president?

Discussion

1. Could South Africa be different now if it hadn't been for the British expansion? In what way? What makes you think so?

2. Do the Boers have all rights to call South Africa their homeland? Explain your opinion. How can you characterize them as a nation?

3. What did the Boers try to prove when they formed the Orange Free State and the Transvaal? What makes you think so?

4. Was the racial strife justified in South Africa? Do you think that all people are equal in their rights in South Africa now?

5. Did Nelson Mandela deserve the post of the president of South Africa? Explain your point of view.

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