Ю. Б. Голицынский

United States of America

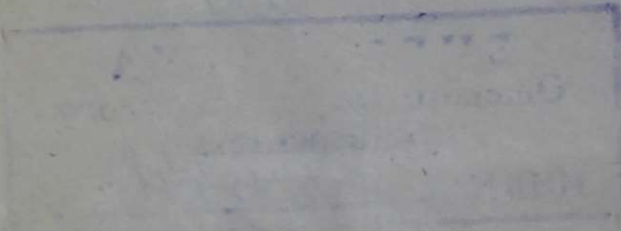# Соединенные Штаты Америки

SECTION ONE
GENERAL INFORMATION

CHAPTER 1
GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY

Part 1. Geographical Position.

The United States[1] territory consists of three separate parts, different in size, natural features, level of development and population:

1) the main part, the United States proper, with an area of 7,800,000 square kilometres. It borders on Canada[2] in the north and on Mexico[3] in the south. It is washed by the Pacific Ocean[4] in the west, the Atlantic Ocean[5] in the east, and the Gulf of Mexico[6] in the south-east;

2) Alaska[7], which occupies the north-western part of the continent of North America[8], including a lot of islands;

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[1] The United States [ðə juˈnaɪtɪdˈsteɪts] Соединённые Штаты
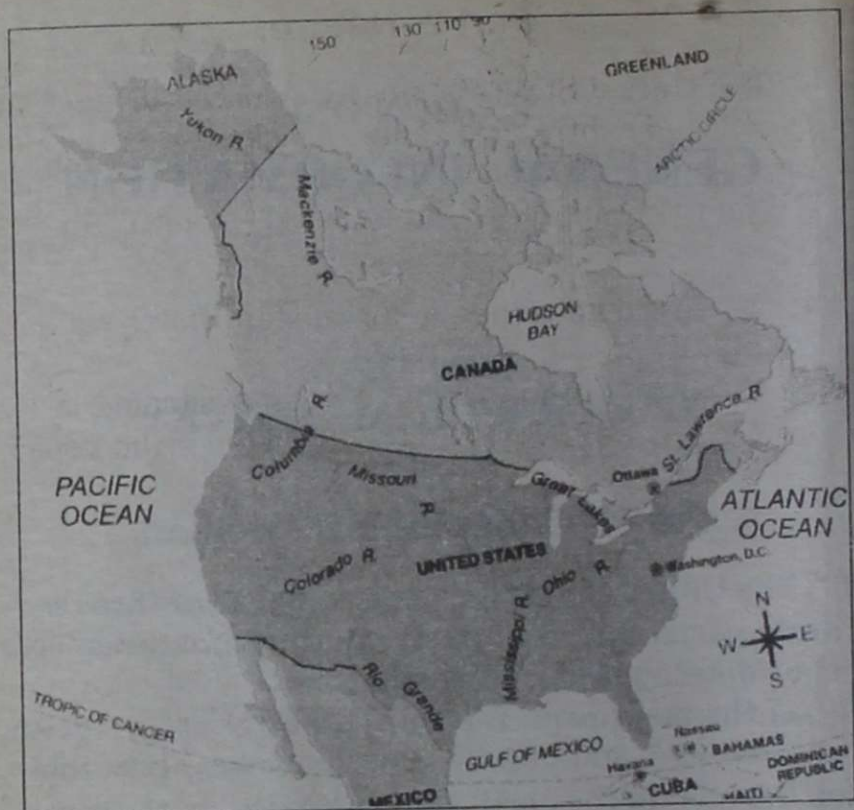[2] Canada [ˈkænədə] Канада
[3] Mexico [ˈmeksɪkou] Мексика
[4] the Pacific Ocean [ðə pəˈsɪfɪkˈouʃn] Тихий океан
[5] the Atlantic Ocean [ðɪ ətˈlæntɪkˈouʃn] Атлантический океан
[6] the Gulf of Mexico [ðəˈgulf ɔvˈmeksɪkou] Мексиканский залив
[7] Alaska [əˈlæskə] Аляска
[8] North America [ˈnɔːθ əˈmerɪkə] Северная Америка

The United States of America

3) Hawaii[1] in the Pacific Ocean.

QUESTIONS.

1. How many separate parts does the United States of America consist of? What are these parts?
2. What countries does the United States border on?
3. What waters is the United States washed by?
4. Where is Alaska situated?
5. Where is Hawaii?

_____

[1] Hawaii [hɑːˈwaɪiː] Гавайи

Part 2. Nature.

The United States is mostly situated in the temperate and subtropical zones. Alaska lies in the sub-arctic and arctic zones. The southern part of Florida[1] and Hawaii are situated in the tropical zone.

QUESTIONS.

1. What natural zones is the United States situated in?
2. What part of the United States is situated in the arctic zone? What parts are situated in the tropical zone?

Part 3. Coasts.

The coastline length of the United States proper is 22,860 km. The Atlantic coast is mostly lowland and greatly indented. The Pacific coast is mountainous, in the northern part cut by numerous fiords.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the length of the United States' coastline?
2. How does the Atlantic coast of the United States differ from the Pacific coast?

Part 4. Relief.

About half the United States' territory is covered by plateaus and mountains.

The eastern part of the country is occupied by the Appalachian Mountains[2], which in the north come close to the Atlantic coast and in the south

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[1] Florida ['flɔrɪdə] Флорида
[2] the Appalachian Mountains [ðɪ‚æpə'leitʃjən'mauntɪnz] Аппалачские горы

5

The United States of America. Relief

are separated from it by the Atlantic Lowland[1].

West of the Appalachians stretch the Central Plains[2], the Great Plains[3], and the Mexican Lowland[4].

The Central Plains are 500—400 m high and have a hilly moraine relief in the north and a more

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[1] the Atlantic Lowland [ðɪ ətˈlæntɪkˈloulənd] Приатлантическая низменность

[2] the Central Plains [ðəˈsentrəlˈpleɪnz] Центральные равнины

[3] the Great Plains [ðəˈgreɪtˈpleɪnz] Великие равнины

[4] the Mexican Lowland [ðəˈmeksɪkənˈloulənd] Примексиканская низменность

6

gentle erosional relief in the middle and southern parts.

The Great Plains (west of west longitudes 97–98°) are a deeply cut plateau with the heights of 500 m in the east to 1600 m at the Cordillera[1] foothills.

The flat Mexican Lowland, with the height of up to 150 m, is swampy along the Gulf coast and fringed by a strip of marshes.

The western part of the country (including almost the whole of Alaska) is màde up of high mountain ranges, tablelands and plateaus of the Cordillera system.

The Cordilleras consist of rows of mountain ranges with the heights of up to 3000–5000 m and a broad strip of intermountain tablelands and plateaus. In Alaska the mountain ranges stretch in the west-east

Mt. McKinley

direction and include the Brooks Range[2], the Yukon Tableland[3], the Aleutian Range[4] with Mount McKinley[5], 6193 m — the highest peak of the USA and the whole of North America.

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[1] the Cordillera [ðə͵kɔːdɪˈljɛərə] Кордильеры
[2] the Brooks Range [ðə͵bruksˈreɪndʒ] Хребет Брукса
[3] the Yukon Tableland [ðəˈjukənˈteɪbllənd] Юконское плоскогорье
[4] the Aleutian Range [ðɪ əˈluːʃɪənˈreɪndʒ] Алеутский хребет
[5] Mount McKinley [ˈmauntməˈkɪnlɪ] Гора Мак Кинли

7

On the territory of the USA proper the mountain ranges stretch in the north-south direction. The first from the east are the Rocky Mountains[1], reaching up to nearly 4400 m. West of the Rockies lie vast plateaus and tablelands: the volcanic Columbia Plateau[2], the Great Basin[3] — a desert tableland with deep depressions (the largest is the Death Valley[4], containing the lowest point in the western hemisphere — 86 m below sea level), the Colorado Plateau[5]. Typical for this area is the alternation of tablelands situated at the height of about 2000 m and mountain ranges reaching up to 3000–5000 m, with numerous deep river canyons.

Further west is a narrow belt of the Cascade Mountains[6], and the Sierra Nevada[7] Range (over 4400 m). Still further west lies an area of valleys (Willamette[8], the Californian Valley[9]).

The Pacific coast is formed by the deeply cut Coastal Ranges[10] with the height of up to 2400 m.

QUESTIONS.

1. Where are the Appalachian Mountains?

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[1] the Rocky Mountains [ðəˈrɔkɪ ˈmauntɪnz] Скалистые горы

[2] the Columbia Plateau [ðə kəˈlʌmbɪə ˈplætou] Колумбийское плато

[3] the Great Basin [ðə ˈgreit ˈbeisn] Большой бассейн

[4] the Death Valley [ðəˈdeθ ˈvælɪ] Долина смерти

[5] the Colorado Plateau [ðə ˌkɔləˈrɑːdou ˈplætou] Плато Колорадо

[6] the Cascade Mountains [ðə kæsˈkeid ˈmauntɪnz] Каскадные горы

[7] the Sierra Nevada [ðə sɪˈerə nəˈvɑːdə] Сьерра Невада

[8] the Willamette [ˌwɪljəˈmet] Уилламетт

[9] the Californian Valley [ðə ˌkælɪˈfɔːnjən ˈvælɪ] Калифорнийская долина

[10] the Coastal Ranges [ðəˈkoustl ˈreɪndʒɪz] Береговые хребты

2. What is the relief of the United States like to the west of the Appalachian Mountains?
3. What is the relief of the Great Plains like?
4. What is the Mexican Lowland like?
5. What kind of relief does the western part of the country have?
6. What does the Cordillera mountain system consist of?
7. In what direction do the Cordillera mountain ranges stretch?
8. What is the highest peak of the Cordilleras? Where is it?
9. Where are the Rocky Mountains?
10. What is the Great Basin? Which is the largest depression of the Great Basin? What is it called?
11. What is typical of the relief of the Great Basin?
12. Where are the Cascade Mountains and the Sierra Nevada?
13. What is the Pacific coast of the USA like?

Part 5. Climate.

The United States of America occupying a large territory, it is natural that a great diversity of climatic conditions can be observed in different parts of the country. Besides, being crossed by mountain ranges from north to south, the country is unprotected from blasts of cold air from the north and warm air from the south. This is the cause of great fluctuations of temperature.

The northern part of the Pacific coast enjoys a moderate climate of temperate zones with a cool summer and a rather warm (for these latitudes) winter without a permanent snow cover and an abun-

dant rainfall on the western slopes of the Cascade Mountains (3000–6000 mm a year).

The southern part of the Pacific coast (California) has a Mediterranean[1] climate: a hot, cloudless and dry summer and a cool and rainy winter with the mean temperatures of 20–25 °C in summer and 5–10 °C in winter. The rainfall is rather small (400–600 mm a year).

The climate on the Atlantic coast is continental-marine with cool summers and rather warm winters with a permanent snow cover in mountainous regions. Further to the south the climate gets warmer, with warmer winters and hotter summers, gradually passing into the monsoon subtropical climate in the extreme south and Florida. The temperatures here are comparable to those on the Pacific coast of California, but the rainfall is heavier and occurs mostly in summer.

The plains of the Appalachian Mountains enjoy a continental climate, with warm summers and cold winters with a permanent snow cover.

The plateaus and tablelands of the Cordilleras have an extreme continental climate with very cold winters and very hot summers. The highest temperature is observed in the Death Valley (sometimes up to 56 °C).

QUESTIONS.

1. How does the relief of the United States tell on the climatic conditions? What causes great fluctuations of temperature?
2. Characterize the climate of the northern part of the Pacific coast.

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[1] Mediterranean [ˌmedɪtəˈreɪnjən] средиземноморский

3. The southern, Californian, part of the Pacific coast enjoys a Mediterranean climate, doesn't it? What is characteristic of this climate?
4. Describe the climate of the Atlantic coast.
5. Which part of the country enjoys a monsoon subtropical climate?
6. Compare the climates in Florida and on the Pacific coast of California. What is in common? What is different?
7. What parts of the United States have a continental climate? Why do they have a continental climate? What is characteristic of this climate?

Part 6. Inland Waters.

The longest river in the United States (and the longest in the world) is the Mississippi[1] with its west tributary Missouri[2] (7,300 km long). The other main tributary of the Mississippi, flowing into it from the east, is the Ohio[3] River. The Mississippi flows to the south and empties into the Gulf of Mexico at New Orleans[4].

Another important river of the United States is the Hudson[5] River which flows across the northeastern part of the country and empties into the Atlantic Ocean at New York[6].

The rivers in the west of the country are unsuitable for navigation because they flow through deep

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[1] the Mississippi [ðə,mɪsɪ'sɪpɪ] Миссисипи
[2] the Missouri [ðə mɪ'zuərɪ] Миссури
[3] the Ohio [ðɪ ou'haɪou] Огайо
[4] New Orleans ['nju:'ɔ:lɪənz] Нью Орлеан
[5] the Hudson [ðə'hʌdsən] Гудзон
[6] New York ['nju:'jɔ:k] Нью Йорк

The Niagara Falls

canyons and are cut by numerous rapids, which fact, however, makes them a good source of electric power. These rivers start in the Cordilleras and empty into the Pacific Ocean. The largest among them are the Columbia River[1] and the Colorado River[2].

World-famous is the region of the Great Lakes[3], situated in the north-east of the United States bordering Canada. It is a system of five great lakes (Lake Superior[4], Lake Michigan[5], Lake Huron[6], Lake Erie[7] and Lake Ontario[8]) joined together by natural

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[1] the Columbia River [ðə kə'lʌmbɪə ˌrɪvə] р. Колумбия
[2] the Colorado River [ðə ˌkɔlə'rɑːdou] р. Колорадо
[3] the Great Lakes [ðə 'greɪt 'leɪks] Великие озера
[4] Lake Superior ['leɪk sju'pɪərɪə] оз. Верхнее
[5] Lake Michigan ['leɪk 'mɪʃɪgən] оз. Мичиган
[6] Lake Huron ['leɪk 'hjuərən] оз. Гурон
[7] Lake Erie ['leɪk 'ɪərɪ] оз. Эри
[8] Lake Ontario ['leɪk ɔn'tɛərɪou] оз. Онтарио

channels. The Niagara Falls[1], great rapids situated on the short Niagara River joining Lakes Erie and Ontario, are famous all over the world and attract lots of tourists. The waters of the Five Great Lakes have their outlet into the Atlantic Ocean by the St. Lawrence River[2], flowing mostly across the territory of Canada.

QUESTIONS.

1. Which is the longest river in the United States? How long is it? Which are its main tributaries?
2. Where is the Hudson River?
3. Why are the rivers in the West unsuitable for navigation? Which are the largest of them?
4. Where are the Great Lakes situated? Name all the five lakes.
5. Where are the Niagara Falls — between which two lakes?
6. The waters of the Five Great Lakes have their outlet into the Atlantic Ocean, don't they? How?

Part 7. Vegetation.

Before the coming of the Europeans, almost half the territory of the country was taken up by forests, covering the whole of the Appalachian region in the east and the Cordillera slopes in the west. Considerable areas in the Central Plains were covered with prairies. By the 1970's almost half the forests had been cut down, and large territories in

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[1] The Niagara Falls [ðə naɪ'æɡərə‚fɔːlz] Ниагарский водопад
[2] the St. Lawrence River [ðə snt'lɔːrəns'rɪvə] p. Святого Лаврентия

13

Sequoia, or red wood

the prairies had been ploughed.

In the north-east of the country and in the region of the Great Lakes there are mixed forests of pine, fir, silver-fir, lime and ash. Further south they are replaced by broad-leaf forests of oak, maple, tulip-tree and plane-tree; still further south, below north latitudes 35-39°, there appear magnolia, laurel, and other evergreen plants.

In the Central Plains the tall-grass prairie vegetation gradually passes (beyond the 100° west meridian) into dry steppe, which is ploughed only partly and mostly used as pastures.

In the Great Basin there are deserts and semi-deserts.

The vegetation in the Cordilleras is represented by coniferous forests, and at the height of 3000 m by alpine meadows.

In California one can come across sequoia, or red-wood, a tree that attracts many tourists because it reaches up to 100 metres high and lives for many hundreds of years.

The prevailing vegetation in the dry Southwest is brushwood of sclerophyllous shrubs and trees.

QUESTIONS.

1. What parts of the United States are covered with forests? Where are the prairies?

2. What trees grow in the mixed forests of the north-eastern part of the country?
3. How does the vegetation of the eastern part of the country change from north to south?
4. How does the vegetation of the Central Plains change from east to west?
5. In what part of the country is the vegetation poorest?
6. What is the vegetation in the Cordilleras represented by?
7. Why does sequoia attract tourists? Where does it grow?
8. What is the prevailing vegetation in the dry Southwest?

Part 8. Animal Life.

The mixed forests zone is the home of the brown bear, lynx, glutton, marten. In the forests of the Appalachians there is Virginia deer, red lynx, chipmunk, mole, different kinds of bats.

The Southeast is represented by alligator, turtle, peccary, opossum, coyote, rattle-snake and many kinds of pole-cats, badgers and gophers. Of birds there is flamingo, pelican, humming-bird.

The semi-desert and desert zones are inhabited by different rodents and reptiles.

On the Cordillera slopes there is Rocky Mountain goat, Rocky Mountain sheep, grizzly bear, and further south — jaguar and armadillo.

QUESTIONS.

1. What animals can be found in the mixed forests of the Northeast?

2. What animals live in the forests of the Appalachian Mountains?
3. What animals inhabit the warm Southeast of the country?
4. What animal life can be found in the desert and semi-desert areas of the Great Basin?
5. What animals can be met on the Cordillera slopes?

Part 9. Natural Resources.

The United States of America is rich in coal, iron and oil. There are coal-mines in the Cordillera Mountains, in the Kansas[1] City region and in the east near Birmingham[2] and Pittsburgh[3]. Iron is mined near the Great Lakes and in the Pittsburgh, Birmingham and Philadelphia[4] areas. In California and Texas[5] there are rich oil-fields. There are also deposits of silver and gold.

QUESTIONS.

1. What natural resources is the United States rich in?
2. Where are the deposits of coal?
3. In what parts of the country is iron mined?
4. What parts of the country are rich in oil?

Part 10. Economy.

The United States is a country of highly developed economy.

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[1] Kansas ['kænzəs] Канзас
[2] Birmingham ['bə:miŋəm] Бермингэм
[3] Pittsburgh ['pitsbə:g] Питтсбург
[4] Philadelphia [ˌfilə'delfjə] Филадельфия
[5] Texas ['teksəs] Техас

Heavy industry includes such branches as mining, metallurgical engineering and chemical industries. Detroit[1] is a large motor-car industry centre. Shipbuilding is developed along the Atlantic coast and in San Francisco[2] on the Pacific coast.

Textile industry is also well-developed, especially in the South near large cotton plantations.

Agriculture is very wide-spread, above all in the prairie regions, where wheat and other grain crops are grown.

Cotton is grown in the Mississippi Valley, tobacco in Maryland[3] and Virginia[4].

California is famous for its fruit plantations, and the West — for its cattle-farming.

Poultry-farming is wide-spread in the countryside near all big cities.

QUESTIONS.

1. The United States' economy is highly developed, isn't it?
2. What branches does heavy industry include?
3. What is Detroit famous for?
4. Where is shipbuilding developed?
5. What industry is well-developed in the South near large cotton plantations?
6. What is grown in the prairie regions?
7. What is California famous for?
8. Where is poultry-farming well-spread?

[1] Detroit [dəˈtrɔɪt] Детройт
[2] San Francisco [ˌsænfrənˈsɪskou] Сан Франциско
[3] Maryland [ˈmɛərɪlænd] Мэрилэнд
[4] Virginia [vəˈdʒɪnɪə] Вирджиния

17

CHAPTER REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

depressions, swampy, enjoy, coniferous, reptiles, McKinley, moraine, canyons, rodents, tablelands, erosional, tributary, rapids, empties.

1. The Central Plains have a hilly _____ relief in the north and a more gentle _____ relief in the middle and southern parts.
2. The Mexican Lowland is _____ along the Gulf coast.
3. Mount _____ is the highest peak of the USA and the whole of North America.
4. West of the Rockies lie vast plateaus and _____ .
5. The Great Basin is a desert tableland with deep _____ .
6. The plains west of the Appalachian Mountains _____ a continental climate.
7. The Ohio River is a _____ of the Mississippi.
8. The Hudson River _____ into the Atlantic Ocean.
9. The rivers in the west of the country flow through deep _____ and are cut by numerous _____ .
10. The vegetation in the Cordilleras is represented by _____ forests.
11. The semi-desert and desert zones are inhabited by different _____ and _____ .

II. Write detailed answers to the following questions:

1. How does the relief change as you cross the Cordillera Mountain system from east to west?
2. How does the climate change as you move along the Atlantic coast of the USA from north to south?
3. Write all you have learned about the region of the Five Great Lakes.

18

CHAPTER 2
COMPOSITION OF THE COUNTRY

The territory of the United States is historically divided into eight regions: 1) New England; 2) the Mid-Atlantic region; 3) the South; 4) the Midwest; 5) the Southwest; 6) the Rocky Mountain region; 7) the Pacific Northwest and Alaska; 8) California and Hawaii.

Part 1. New England.

New England is highly industrial, but it also has many fields, woods and small towns. New England is the part of the United States that is most like
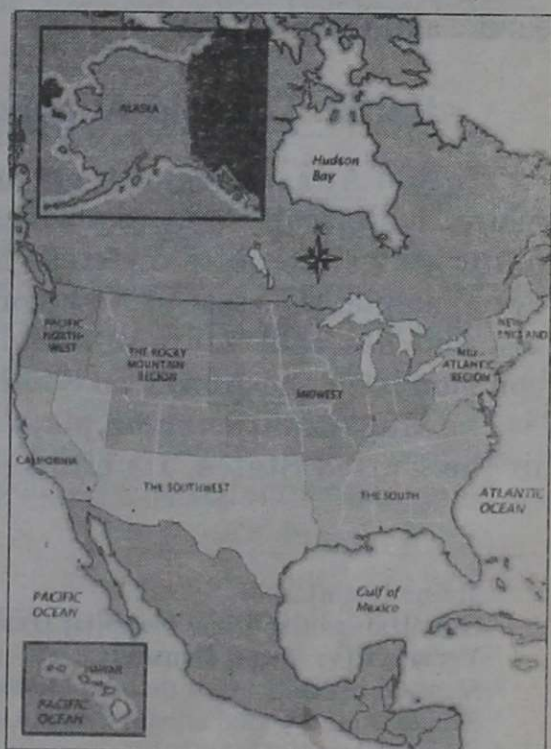
The United States
of America.
Regions
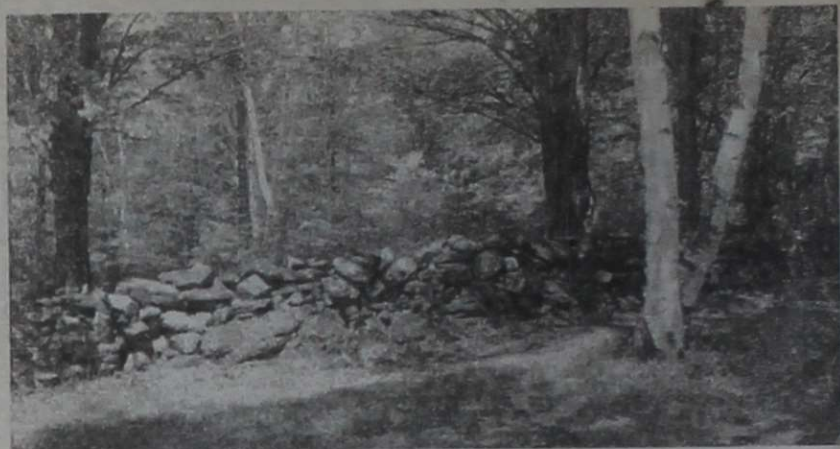
A New England wood

"old" England. It includes six states: Maine[1], New Hampshire[2], Vermont[3], Massachusetts[4], Rhode Island[5], and Connecticut[6].

Part 2. The Mid-Atlantic Region.

The Mid-Atlantic region is not uniform. Geographically, historically and economically, the Mid-Atlantic states are quite different from one another. For example: the state of New York borders on Canada and has cold winters; Maryland has much in common with the American South.

The Mid-Atlantic region plays an important role in the United States. Its cities include Washing-

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[1] Maine [meın] Мэн
[2] New Hampshire ['nju: 'hæmpʃıə] Нью Хэмпшир
[3] Vermont [vəː'mɔnt] Вермонт
[4] Massachusetts [ˌmæsə'tʃuːsets] Массачусетс
[5] Rhode Island ['roud 'aılənd] Род-Айлэнд
[6] Connecticut [kə'nektıkət] Коннектикут

A view of the Appalachians

ton[1] D. C., the nation's capital, and New York City, the nation's financial centre. The Mid-Atlantic region is densely populated. It includes six states: New York, New Jersey[2], Pennsylvania[3], Delaware[4], Maryland and West Virginia.

Part 3. The South.

Economically, historically and culturally, the South is a distinct region. With its warm climate and rich soil, it developed an economy based on cotton export. Conflicts between the North and the South, especially over slavery, led to the Civil War in 1861. The South preserves its traditions, for example good cooking and a slower, more hospitable way of life. The South includes eleven states: Ken-

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[1] Washington [ˈwɔʃɪŋtən] Вашингтон
[2] New Jersey [ˈnjuːˈdʒəːzɪ] Нью Джерси
[3] Pennsylvania [pensɪlˈveɪnjə] Пенсильвания
[4] Delaware [ˈdeləwɛə] Делавэр

A charming old house
in the South

tucky[1], Virginia, North Carolina[2], South Carolina, Tennessee[3], Arkansas[4], Louisiana[5], Mississippi, Alabama[6], Georgia[7] and Florida.

Part 4. The Midwest.

The Midwest is a large, economically important region. It contains major industrial cities and much farmland. Geographically, the Midwest can be subdivided into three smaller regions: the Great Lakes area with many lakes, hills and forests; the prairie area south of it, which is flat and has good soil for farming; the Great Plains area to the west, much drier than the prairie.

Industry in the Midwest

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[1] Kentucky [ken'tʌkɪ] Кентукки
[2] North Carolina ['nɔ:θ‚kærə'laɪnə] Северная Каролина
[3] Tennessee [‚tenə'si:] Теннесси
[4] Arkansas ['ɑ:kənsɔ] Арканзас
[5] Louisiana [lu'i:zɪ'ænə] Луизиана
[6] Alabama [ælə'bæmə] Алабама
[7] Georgia ['dʒɔ:dʒjə] Джорджия

Fields of corn in the Midwest

The Midwest includes twelve states: Minnesota[1], Wisconsin[2], Michigan, Ohio, Indiana[3], Illinois[4], Missouri, Iowa[5], Kansas[6], Nebraska[7], South Dakota[8] and North Dakota.

Part 5. The Southwest.

The Southwest is characterised by geographical variety: from humid lands in eastern Texas[9] to drier prairies in Oklahoma[10] and western Texas to mountains and deserts in Arizona[11] and New Mexico. The Southwest area is rich in minerals. Cattle-breeding is also an important part of the Southwest's economy.

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[1] Minnesota [ˌmɪnəˈsoutə] Миннесота
[2] Wisconsin [wɪsˈkɔnsɪn] Висконсин
[3] Indiana [ˌɪndɪˈænə] Индиана
[4] Illinois [ˌɪlɪˈnɔɪ] Иллинойс
[5] Iowa [ˈaɪouə] Айова
[6] Kansas [ˈkænzəs] Канзас
[7] Nebraska [nɪˈbræskə] Небраска
[8] South Dakota [ˈsauθ dəˈkoutə] Южная Дакота
[9] Texas [ˈteksəs] Техас
[10] Oklahoma [oukləˈhoumə] Оклахома
[11] Arizona [ˌærɪˈzounə] Аризона

23

A city surrounded by desert

The Southwest includes five states: Oklahoma, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona and Nevada[1].

Part 6. The Rocky Mountain Region.

The Rockies are among the earth's youngest mountains. They have steep slopes and many peaks and

In the Rocky Mountains

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[1] Nevada [ne´vɑ:də] Невада

picturesque valleys. The region is very sparcely populated. Most of the population is engaged in mining, cattle-breeding and farming.

The Rocky Mountain region includes five states: Montana[1], Idaho[2], Wyoming[3], Utah[4] and Colorado.

Part 7. The Pacific Northwest and Alaska.

This region is noted for its natural beauty:

The port of Seattle

Alaska

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[1] Montana [mɔn'tænə] Монтана
[2] Idaho ['aɪdəhou] Айдахо
[3] Wyoming [waɪ'oumɪŋ] Вайоминг
[4] Utah ['juːtɑː] Юта

high steep mountains, forests and greatly indented coastlines. Portland[1] and Seattle[2] are important ports for trade with Asia.

This region includes three states: Washington, Oregon[3] and Alaska.

Part 8. California and Hawaii.

These two states are grouped together mainly because they are relatively near each other: Califor-

The coastline of northern California

Hawaii

[1] Portland [ˈpɔːtlənd] Портлэнд
[2] Seattle [sɪˈætl] Сиэттл
[3] Oregon [ˈɔrɪgən] Орегон

26

nia is the state which is situated nearer to Hawaii than any other state. They are not alike: California is one of the largest and most populated states; Hawaii is one of the smallest and least populated ones. Yet there is one thing these two states have in common: lots of sun and sand.

CHAPTER REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

variety, sparcely, financial, picturesque, distinct, economically, breeding, densely, common, indented.

1. Geographically, historically and _____ the Mid-Atlantic states are quite different from one another.
2. Maryland has much in _____ with the American South.
3. New York City is the nation's _____ centre.
4. The Mid-Atlantic region is _____ populated.
5. Economically, historically and culturally, the South is a _____ region.
6. The Southwest is characterized by geographical _____ : from humid lands in eastern Texas to mountains and deserts in Arizona and New Mexico.
7. Cattle _____ is an important part of the Southwest's economy.
8. The Rockies have many peaks and _____ valleys.
9. The Rocky Mountain region is very _____ populated.
10. The coastline of the Pacific Northwest is greatly _____ .

II. Answer the following questions:

1. What eight regions is the territory of the United States historically divided into?

2. How many states are there in the USA?
3. What part of the United States is most like "old" England?
4. Why does the Mid-Atlantic region play an important role in the United States?
5. What is the economy of the South based on? Why?
6. What did the conflicts between the North and the South lead to in 1861?
7. What old traditions has the South preserved?
8. Why is the Midwest an economically important region?
9. What three smaller regions can the Midwest be subdivided into?
10. What geographical features is the Southwest characterized by?
11. What is the Southwest rich in?
12. What is an important part of the Southwest's economy besides mining?
13. Why do the Rocky Mountains have steep slopes, high peaks and deep valleys?
14. What is the population of the Rocky Mountain region engaged in?
15. What is the Pacific Northwest noted for?
16. Which are the two important ports for trade with Asia? Where are they situated?
17. Which is one of the largest and most populated states of the country?

CHAPTER 3
POLITICAL SYSTEM

The United States is an indirect democracy — that is, the people rule through the representatives they elect. In the beginning, only white men with

property could vote. Over time, the vote has been given to more and more people. Today any citizen who is at least 18 years old can vote. The capital of the country is the City of Washington, situated in the Columbia District[1] — a territory not included in any of the states.

QUESTION.

1. What does "indirect democracy" mean?

Part 1. The Constitution.

The United States Constitution, written in 1787, established the country's political system and is the basis for its laws. In the 200 years of its history, the United States has greatly grown and changed. Yet the Constitution works as well today as when it was written. One reason is that the Constitution can be amended (for example, the Fifteenth Amendment gave black Americans the right to vote and the Nineteenth Amendment gave women the right to vote). Another reason is that the Constitution is flexible: its basic principles can be applied and interpreted differently at different times.

QUESTIONS.

1. When was the Constitution of the country written?
2. What did the Constitution establish?
3. The US Constitution can be amended, can't it? What does it mean?
4. Explain the tern "flexible", as applied to the US Constitution.

---

[1] Columbia District [kə'lʌmbɪə'dɪstrɪkt] округ Колумбия

Part 2. Federalism.

The United States has a federalist system. It means that there are individual states, each with its own government, and there is a federal, or national, government. The US Constitution gives certain powers to the federal government, other powers to the state governments, and yet other powers to both. For example, only the national government can print money; the states establish their own school systems; and both the national and the state governments can collect taxes.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is a federalist system?
2. How is power distributed among the federal government and the state governments?

Part 3. Three Branches of Government.

Within the national government, power is divided among three branches: **the legislative branch, the executive branch,** and **the judicial branch**.

The legislative branch is represented by Congress, which consists of two parts — the House of Representatives and the Senate. Congress's main function is to make laws. There are 100 senators (two from each state) and 435 representatives (the number from each state depends on the size of the state's population).

The executive branch is headed by the President, who is also head of the country. The executive branch administers the laws (sees to it that the laws are carried out, actually rules the country). In addition

The Capitol
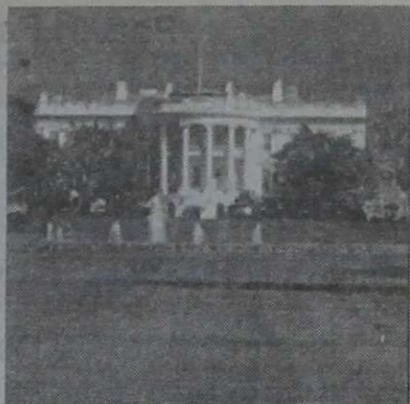
The White House

to the President and the Vice-President, the executive branch consists of departments and agencies. The President appoints the department heads, or advisers, who together make up the President's Cabinet.

The judicial branch interprets the laws and makes sure that new laws are in keeping with the Constitution. The judicial branch is represented by several levels of federal courts. The Supreme Court is the most important body. It has nine members, who are appointed for life[1].

The Supreme Court building

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[1] for life пожизненно

There is a system of checks[1] established by the Constitution, which is meant to prevent any of the three branches from having too much power. Each branch has certain controls over the other branches. For example, Congress makes the laws, but the President can veto a law, and the Supreme Court can decide that the law is unconstitutional.

Organization of the United States Government

Branch	Members	How chosen	Term	Powers
Legislative (Congress)	Senate Two Senators from each state	state election	6 years	Writes new laws Sets federal taxes Approves Presidential appointments Overrules Presidential vetoes Approves treaties Declares war Impeaches a President
	House of Representatives Number of Representatives varies according to state population	state election	2 years	

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[1] There is a system of checks Имеется система проверок

Execu-tive	President	national election	4 years	Enforces federal laws Appoints and removes high federal officials Commands the armed forces Conducts foreign affairs Recommends laws to Congress Approves or vetoes new laws
	Executive Depart-ments	Presi-dential appoint-ment	no set term	Conducts the administration of the national government
	Indepen-dent Agencies	Presi-dential appoint-ment	no set term	Oversees government regulations
Judi-cial	Supreme Court Nine justices	Presi-dential appoint-ment	life	Interprets laws according to the Constitution May declare actions of the Executive and Legislative branches unconstitutional
	Lower Federal Courts	Presi-dential appoint-ment	life	Decides cases that involve the Constitution and federal laws

1. What are the three branches of the US national government?
2. What body is the legislative branch of the government represented by?
3. Which two parts does Congress consist of?
4. What is the main function of Congress?
5. Who is the head of the executive branch?
6. What does the executive branch do?
7. . What does the executive branch consist of?
8. What is the President's Cabinet?
9. What is the judicial branch of the government concerned with?
10. Which is the most important body of the judicial branch? How many members does it have?
11. What system is provided to prevent any of the three branches of the government from having too much power?

Part 4. State and Local Governments.

Each state has its own constitution. Like the national government, state governments are divided into legislative, executive and judicial branches. In each state there are state senators and representatives, state court systems, and, like the President of the country, a governor of the state.

Below the state level of government, there are county and city governments.

1. How many constitutions are there in the United States? Explain.
2. How are state and local governments composed?

3. Who is the head of the executive branch of a state government?

Part 5. Two-Party System.

The United States has two main political parties — the Democratic Party and the Republican Party. There are other, much smaller, parties, which play little, if any, role. There are no clear differences between the Republican and Democratic parties. In general, the Republicans tend to be more conservative and to have more support among the upper classes, while the Democrats tend to be more liberal and to have more support among the working class and the poor.

QUESTIONS.
1. How many political parties are there in the United States of America? What are they called?
2. What is the difference between the Republicans and the Democrats?

CHAPTER REVIEW
I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

differences, judicial, Supreme, amended, Cabinet, executive, veto, vote, legislative, federalist.

1. The US Constitution can be _____ .
2. The Fifteenth Amendment gave black Americans the right to _____ .
3. The United States has a _____ system.
4. The _____ branch is represented by Congress.
5. The President is the head of the _____ branch.
6. The President's _____ is composed of the department heads.

2*   35

7. The _____ branch interprets the laws.
8. The _____ Court is the most important body of the judicial branch.
9. The President can _____ a law passed by Congress.
10. There are no clear _____ between the Republicans and the Democrats.

II. Write detailed answers to these questions:

1. The United States of America has a federalist system. What does it mean?
2. How is power divided among the three branches of the US government?
3. Which are the two main political parties of the United States of America and what is the difference between them?

HISTORY

UNIT ONE
A PERIOD OF EXPLORATION

Imagine a time many thousands of years ago. A group of hunters came to a huge, unexplored land. They were the first people in America.

For many thousands of years the descendants of those hunters moved farther into the new territory. Finally they settled in all parts of the land. Different groups developed different languages and customs. These people were American Indians, or Red Indians.

Then, one day, a new group of travellers came to the land. They had new customs, new languages and a very different way of life. They were Europeans.

CHAPTER 1
THE FIRST INHABITANTS

Part 1. Through the Gateway.

No one knows exactly how people first came to North America. However, many scientists believe that America's first settlers were hunters who came from Siberia[1]. These hunters followed big animals

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[1] Siberia [saɪˈbɪərɪə] Сибирь

The Ice Age

over a land bridge into what is now Alaska.

About two million years ago the weather in the northern half of the earth changed greatly. It grew colder. The snow that fell did not melt in summer. Much of the land was covered with huge glaciers. This period of time is called the Ice Age because so much of the North was covered with ice. Sea water froze, and the water level in the sea dropped. There is a narrow strait between the Bering[1] and Chukchi Seas[2]. During the Ice Age this strait probably became very shallow. In some places it dried up completely and formed a land bridge from Asia to North America.

The scientists think that the people of Asia found this land bridge between 15,000 and 40,000 years

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[1] the Bering Sea [ðə'berɪŋ'siː] Берингово море
[2] the Chukchi Sea [ðə'tʃʊktʃiː'siː] Чукотское море

ago. Group after group moved across the bridge to the unexplored continent of North America. They passed through what is now Alaska and western Canada.

Part 2. Ways of Indian Life.

North America is a land of many geographic features. There are mountains and deserts. There are forests, plains, lakes and oceans. American Indians, descendants of the first settlers, lived in or near all these regions.

The Indians' way of life depended on the geography of the area they lived in. The Indians who settled near the ocean fished. On the Great Plains, where there were many animals, the Indians were hunters. In places with rich soil the Indians farmed.

There were hundreds of different American Indian tribes. Each tribe had its own territory. Tribes had different languages and customs, too.

The American Indians can be divided into five groups, according to where they lived.

The Northwest Indians lived near the forests of the Pacific coast. They sailed along the Pacific coast in very long boats (up to 18 metres) called canoes, and fished.

The California Indians settled between the Rocky Mountains and the California coast. They fished in the Pacific Ocean and hunted in the forests. They also gathered acorns and other nuts in the forests.

39

The Northwest Indians

The Plains Indians hunted in the central part of the continent.

The Southwest Indians

The **Southwest Indians** lived in what is now Nevada, Arizona and New Mexico. They were farmers and grew corn and beans. In dry areas they developed irrigation.

The **Eastern Woodlands Indians** lived in the eastern part of the continent. They fished in the Atlantic Ocean and in the rivers, hunted in the forests. Many of them built villages and became farmers.

The Eastern Woodlands Indians

QUESTIONS.

1. What did the Indians' way of life depend on?
2. What five groups can North America's early Indians be divided into? Where did each of the groups live? What did they do for their living?

CHAPTER 2
SEARCHING FOR RICHES

Part 1. Europe's First Explorers.

From the very first, Europeans who explored North America were looking for riches. It took a lot of courage to be an explorer a thousand years ago. Every trip was a journey into the unknown. Slowly, however, explorers began to learn more about the world. With each voyage they could draw maps more accurately. The early explorers made travelling easier for those who came later.

Viking voyages. In the late 900's the Vikings, who lived in Scandinavia[1], were the best sailors and shipbuilders in Europe. Each year they left their homes and sailed to foreign lands in search of food and riches. They discovered Iceland[2] and Greenland[3].
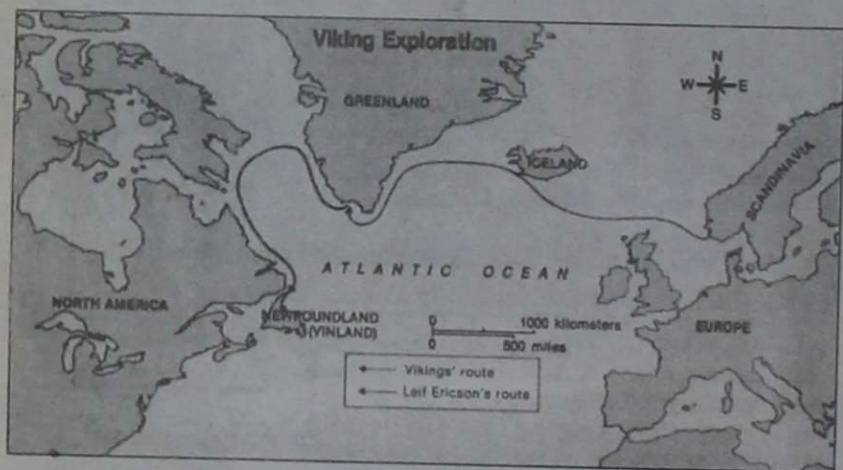
Viking voyages

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[1] Scandinavia [ˌskændɪˈneɪvjə] Скандинавия
[2] Iceland [ˈaɪslənd] Исландия
[3] Greenland [ˈgriːnlənd] Гренландия

Leif Ericsson approaching America

In 1001 a Viking called **Leif Ericsson**[1] sailed west of Greenland and came to the shore of Newfoundland[2]. Most of what we know about Ericsson's voyage comes from stories that the Vikings told. These stories, called sagas, were histories of Viking leaders and their adventures. The sagas of Ericsson's trip describe a land in which Ericsson found grapes, wheat and trees. He called this place Vinland[3]. The sagas also describe a house that Ericsson built there. But Ericsson's settlement did not last long. Because of problems with the American Indians the Vikings sailed away from Vinland.

Riches from the East. While the Vikings were sailing west, other Europeans were travelling east. Some went to the areas around the Mediterranean

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[1] Leif Ericsson [ˈliːfˈeriksn] Лейф Эрикссон
[2] Newfoundland [ˈnjuːfəndlənd] Ньюфаундленд
[3] Vinland [ˈvinlənd] Винлэнд

Sea[1]. Others went as far east as India and China[2]. They found these lands rich in gold, gems and silk. They tasted new spices that could be used to better the taste of food.

One traveller to the East was an Italian[3] named **Marco Polo**[4]. He went to China in 1275 and stayed for seventeen years. When he returned to Italy, he wrote a book about his journey. In his book Marco Polo described the places he had visited and the customs of the people he had met. Many people first learned about China from Marco Polo's book.

At that time routes from Europe to the East crossed both land and water. Land travel was slow and often dangerous. Sometimes bandits attacked the traders. Sometimes the traders were not allowed to pass through certain lands. The traders wanted a fast and safe route to the East. European traders thought that an all-water route would be better.

In 1498 one Portuguese[5] captain, **Vasco da Gama**[6], sailed around the southern tip of Africa. The Portuguese called the tip the Cape of Good Hope[7]. Da Gama sailed to India and then back to Portugal[8]. At last an all-water route to the East had been found.

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[1] the Mediterranean Sea [ðə‚medɪtə'reɪnjən'si:] Средиземное море

[2] China ['tʃaɪnə] Китай

[3] Italian [ɪ'tæljən] итальянец

[4] Marco Polo ['mɑːkou'poulou] Марко Поло

[5] Portuguese [‚pɔːtju'giːz] португальский

[6] Vasco da Gama ['væskou də'gɑːmə] Васко да Гама

[7] the Cape of Good Hope [ðə'keɪp əv'gud'houp] мыс Доброй надежды

[8] Portugal ['pɔːtjugəl] Португалия

44

QUESTIONS.

1. Why did the Vikings travel to foreign lands?
2. What did Leif Ericsson find on the land he discovered? What did he call this land?
3. Why did Europeans travel east to India and China?
4. What lands did Marco Polo travel to? What did he write in his book?
5. Why did Europeans seek an all-water route to the East?
6. Who was the first European to travel to India by sea? By what route did he travel?

Part 2. Spain and the New World.

In the late 1400's Spain[1] began searching for another water route to the East. Instead of it, Spanish[2] explorers found a new continent. A mapmaker called it the New World — the land across the Atlantic that was not part of Asia.

The great explorer. Christopher Columbus[3] was born in Italy[4] and grew up near the sea. As a boy, he loved to go to the port and listen to the sailors' stories.

In 1476, when he was 24 years old, Columbus sailed on a ship bound for England. His ship sank near the coast of Portugal, but he managed to get to the shore.

Columbus remained in Portugal and learned Latin, geography and shipbuilding there. He became a

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[1] Spain [speın] Испания

[2] Spanish ['spænıʃ] испанский

[3] Christopher Columbus ['krıstəfə kə'lʌmbəs] Христофор Колумб

[4] Italy ['ıtəlı] Италия

45

Christopher Columbus

mapmaker and then a sea captain. Like many other Europeans, Columbus began to think that the earth was round. He decided to try to find a quick route to the East by sailing west.

The King of Portugal thought that the plan was too dangerous and refused to pay for the voyage. So, in 1485, Columbus went to Spain for help. Queen Isabella[1] and King Ferdinand[2] of Spain liked Columbus's plan and agreed to give him money for sailors, ships and supplies.

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[1] Queen Isabella [ˈkwiːn ɪzəˈbelə] королева Изабелла
[2] King Ferdinand [ˈkɪŋ ˈfɔːdɪnənd] король Фердинанд

On August 3, 1492, three ships left Spain and sailed to the west. The three small ships sailed for weeks with no sight of land. The sailors became nervous. They asked Columbus to turn back. "Sail on," was the reply.

As time passed, the sailors grew angry. They threatened to rebel, but finally agreed to sail on for three more days. Columbus promised that if they did not see land, they would turn back. On the morning of the third day they saw birds flying in the sky. Then a sailor saw land.

On October 12, 1492, Columbus stepped ashore, holding the Spanish flag.

Columbus thought that he had reached a group of islands near the coasts of China and India which were called the Indies[1]. That's why he called the people he saw Indians.

Columbus made three more voyages to the New World. But he never knew that he had discovered a new world. He was sure that he had approached China and India from the east.

Cortés[2] in Mexico. In the early 1500's a number of Spanish soldiers and adventurers went to Hispaniola[3] and Cuba[4], islands in the West Indies. From these islands they were planning to explore other parts of the New World. These adventurers called themselves conquistadors, which meant conquerors. One of the conquistadors was **Hernando[5] Cortés.**

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[1] the Indies [ðə ˈɪndɪz] Индия
[2] Cortés [ˈkɔːtez] Кортес
[31] Hispaniola [ˌhɪspənˈjoulə] Эспаньола
[4] Cuba [ˈkjuːbə] Куба
[5] Hernando [həːˈnændou] Эрнандо

Hernando Cortés

Many of the conquistadors came to the New World after hearing rumours that there was much gold to be found there. In 1519 Cortés led an expedition to find out if the rumours were true. He went to a land west of Cuba, called Mexico.

In Mexico Cortés met an Indian woman who told him about the rich and powerful **Aztec**[1] Indians. These Indians lived in Central Mexico, in a huge city, she told Cortés. They had much gold and silver.

Cortés led an army to conquer the Aztecs. The march was long and difficult. Along the way, other Indians who wanted to fight the Aztecs joined Cortés. Finally, Cortés and his army came to a land with beautiful blue lakes. On an island in one of the lakes was **Tenochtitlan**[2], the Aztec capital city.

The Spaniards[3] were amazed by the Aztec city and its people. The city had fine architecture and sculpture. Aztec doctors could cure many diseases. The Aztecs also had well-trained soldiers and an efficient government.

Montezuma[4], the Aztec leader, treated Cortés as an honoured guest. He gave Cortés gold and silver.

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[1] Aztec [ˈæzteks] ацтеки
[2] Tenochtitlan [teɪˈnɔktɪˈtlæn] Теночтитлан
[3] Spaniards [ˈspænjədz] испанцы
[4] Montezuma [ˌmɔntɪˈzuːmə] Монтезума

Cortés's Route to Mexico

Cortés's route to Mexico

He offered Cortés a palace to stay in. Montezuna treated Cortés so well because he thought that Cortés was the great Aztec god Quetzalcoatl[1]. Aztec legends described Quetzalcoatl as white-skinned and bearded, just like Cortés.

Soon Montezuma understood that he had been wrong. Cortés was not a god. The Aztec leader gave the Spaniards gifts to make them leave. The Spaniards, however, did not want to leave. They captured Tenochtitlan and took Montezuma prisoner.

The Aztecs tried to get their leader back. Meanwhile, fighting between conquistadors and Aztecs began in other parts of Mexico. The fighting went on for months. Montezuma was killed in Tenochtitlan.

In the end, the Spaniards defeated the Aztecs. They declared themselves masters of Mexico and

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[1] Quetzalcoatl [ˌketsəlkouˈætl] Кетцалкоатл

Ferdinand Magellan

sent shiploads of gold and silver to Spain. King Carlos I[1] of Spain was pleased. It seemed that the rumours about the New World's riches were true.

Around the world. Ferdinand Magellan[2] was the first European who got to the Spice Islands[3] (Indonesia[4]), sailing to the west. He found a passage around South America to the Pacific Ocean.

Four ships were lost on the dangerous journey. Magellan himself was killed by natives in the Philippine Islands[5].

In 1522 a single ship returned to Spain. Of the 265 men who had left in 1519, only 18 returned. They had been gone three years. But they had sailed around the world. They proved that Columbus had been right. Ships could, indeed, reach the East by sailing west.

QUESTIONS.

1. Цho helped Columbus to organize an expedition to the West?

[1] King Carlos I [ˈkɪŋ ˈkɑːləs ðə ˈfɔːst] король Карлос I
[2] Ferdinand Magellan [ˈfəːdɪnənd məˈgelən] Фердинанд Магеллан
[3] the Spice Islands [ðə ˈspaɪs ˈaɪləndz] Пряные острова
[4] Indonesia [ˌɪndouˈniːzjə] Индонезия
[5] the Philippine Islands [ðə ˈfɪlɪpiːn ˈaɪləndz] Филиппинские острова

50

2. Why did the sailors become nervous and ask Columbus to turn back? What did Columbus promise them?
3. What did Columbus call the people he found in the New World? Why?
4. Who was Hernando Cortés? Why did he go to Mexico?
5. What amazed the Spaniards in Tenochtitlan?
6. How did the legend of the god Quetzalcoatl help Cortés?
7. What did Magellan's voyage prove?

Part 3. Other European Explorers.

There were other European explorers who tried to find a water route through or around America. After Magellan's voyage Spain controlled the southern parts of America. So the new explorers decided to look for a water route in the North.

English exploration. John Cabot[1] was an Italian sea captain who explored for England. The English also hoped that Cabot could reach the Spice Islands by sailing west.

In 1447 Cabot set sail with one small ship and eighteen men. After five weeks at sea he reached land and claimed it for England[2]. Cabot thought he was in China.

In fact, Cabot had landed in what is now Newfoundland. Instead of spices, he found one of the richest fishing areas in the world.

The next year Cabot made another trip. He ex-

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[1] John Cabot [ˈdʒɔnˈkæbət] Джон Кабот
[2] claimed it for England заявил на нее права Англии (объявил ее владением Англии)

plored much of the north-eastern coast of North America. It was Cabot's last trip. He and his crew were lost at sea.

French exploration. The French[1] explorer, **Jacques Cartier**[2], made three voyages to the New World between 1534 and 1542. Cartier was looking for the Northwest Passage[3] — a water route through North America to Asia. He found the St. Lawrence River[4] and explored it as far as present-day Montreal[5], Canada.

French explorers kept trying to find the Northwest Passage. In 1603, **Samuel de Champlain**[6] ex-
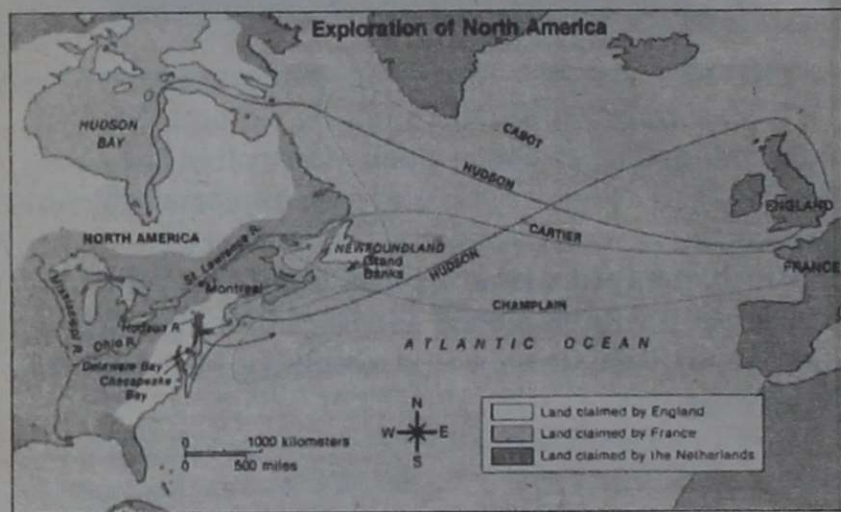
Exploration of North America

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[1] French [frentʃ] французский

[2] Jacques Cartier [ʒæk kɑːˈtjeɪ] Жак Картье

[3] the Northwest Passage [ðəˈnɔːθwestˈpæsɪdʒ] Северо-западный проход

[4] the St. Lawrence River [ðə sntˈlɔːrənsˈrɪvə] река Святого Лаврентия

[5] Montreal [ˌmɔntrɪˈɔːl] Монреаль

[6] Samuel de Champlain [ˈsæmjuəl də ʃæmˈpleɪn] Самюэль де Шамплейн

52

plored much of what is now eastern Canada and northern New York State. He claimed this land for France[1]. He set up a settlement at Quebec[2] and sailed across Lake Huron and Lake Ontario. But he did not find the Northwest Passage.

Some French explorers thought that the Mississippi River might be a passage west to the Pacific Ocean. In 1673 Louis Joliet[3] and Jacques Marquette[4] travelled down the Mississippi by raft and canoe. **Robert La Salle**[5], another French explorer, travelled to the mouth of the Mississippi in 1682. He called the surrounding area Louisiana and claimed the entire Mississippi Valley for France.

Dutch[6] **exploration. Henry Hudson**[7] was an English navigator who made important explorations for the Dutch and English. In 1609 he set sail from The Netherlands[8]. Reaching North America, he explored the Atlantic shore and sailed up the river that was later named for him — the Hudson. He claimed the territory around the Hudson River for The Netherlands. It became New Netherlands — the first Dutch colony in the New World.

The next year a group of English merchants hired Hudson to explore northern Canada. He found what is now known as Hudson Bay[9] and claimed all the surrounding land for England.

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[1] France [frɑːns] Франция
[2] Quebec [kwɪ'bek] Квебек
[3] Louis Joliet [luːˈiː ʒouˈljeɪ] Луи Жолье
[4] Jacques Marquette [ˈʒæk mɑːˈkeɪ] Жак Маркет
[5] Robert La Salle [rɔˈbɛə lɔˈsæl] Робер Ла Салль
[6] Dutch [dʌtʃ] голландский
[7] Henry Hudson [ˈhenrɪ ˈhʌdsən] Генри Гудзон
[8] The Netherlands [ðəˈneðələndz] Нидерланды
[9] Hudson Bay [ˈhʌdsənˈbeɪ] Гудзонов залив

1. What parts of North America did John Cabot explore? What did he find there?
2. Why did the French want to find the Northwest Passage?
3. When did Jacques Cartier travel to America? What river did he discover and explore?
4. What parts of North America did Samuel de Champlain explore? When was it?
5. Why did French explorers travel down the Mississippi River? What did they hope to find?
6. What is Louisiana? Who gave this name to the territory? When?
7. Why were Hudson's voyages important to the Dutch?

UNIT REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

mouth, claimed, tribes, according, set, conquistador, Passage, sagas, all-water, glaciers.

1. La Salle found the _____ of the Mississippi River.
2. During the Ice Age much of North America was covered with _____ .
3. Cortés, a _____ , led the Spanish into Mexico.
4. Plains Indians travelled in groups called _____ .
5. Viking _____ tell about Leif Ericsson's voyage.
6. The American Indians can be divided into five groups _____ to where they lived.
7. French explorers tried to find the Northwest _____ .
8. Hudson _____ the territory around the Hudson River for The Netherlands.

9. In 1497 Cabot _____ sail with one small ship and eighteen men.
10. Vasco da Gama found an _____ route to the East.

II. Write detailed answers to the following questions:

1. How did the American Indians arrive in America?
2. What are the five geographic groups that American Indian tribes are usually divided into?
3. What did Columbus hope to find when he sailed west from Spain in 1492?
4. What was Cortés looking for in Mexico?
5. In spite of the fact that early explorers could not find the Northwest Passage, much was achieved by their voyages. Name some achievements.

III. Who were these people? What did they do? Write in short about each of them.

Leif Erinsson   *John Cabot*
Robert La Salle   *Christopher Columbus*
Jacque Cartier   *Henry Hudson*
Hernando Cortés   *Samuel de Champlain*

UNIT TWO
A PERIOD OF COLONIZATION

The settlers who left Europe and came to the New World brought many European customs with them. Sometimes they even brought the names of their home towns or countries. As a result, there are many places in America which have the names of European towns. There are places called New London, New Orleans[1], New Paris[2], St. Petersburg and Moscow.

CHAPTER 3
EARLY SETTLEMENTS

Part 1. Spanish Settlements

The first Europeans in North America were brave people. They left their homes in Spain, France, England and The Netherlands. They left their families and friends and crossed the wide ocean in small ships. They came to the New World looking for a new life.

When Christopher Columbus visited the New World, he claimed the land for Spain. Soon Spanish soldiers and settlers came to the New World. The Spaniards called their colony New Spain. Mexico City was its centre, but Spanish settlers travelled far from there. They moved into areas that are now part of the United States.

Florida. A Spanish explorer named Ponce de León[3] reached Florida in 1513. He explored this land in

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[1] New Orleans [ˈnjuːˈɔːlɪənz] Нью Орлеан
[2] New Paris [ˈnjuːˈpærɪs] Новый Париж
[3] Ponce de León [ˈpɔns dəˈliːən] Понс де Леон
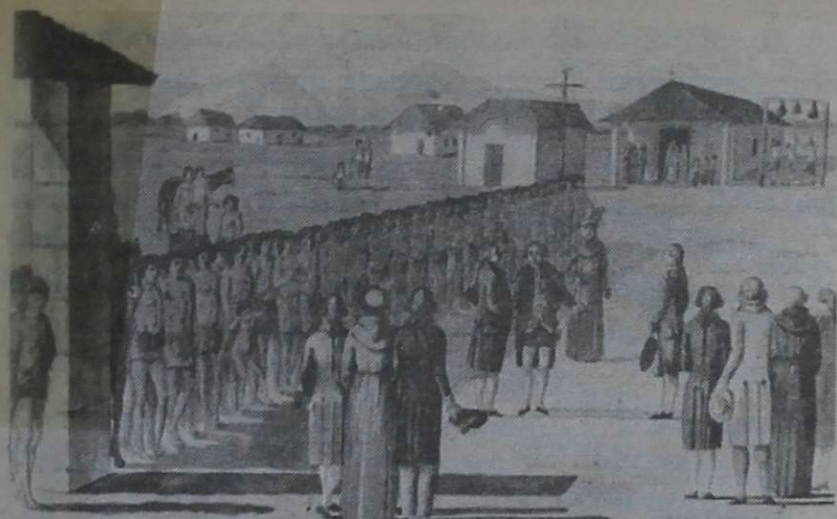
A mission in California

the hope of finding a "Fountain of Youth". American Indians had told the explorer that such a fountain existed. According to the tale, anyone who drank from the fountain remained young forever. Ponce de Leon never found the fountain, but he claimed Florida for Spain.

California. Father Junipero Serra[1] came to the New World in 1749 to fulfil a childhood dream. His dream was to become a Catholic priest and help the Indians in North America. As a boy in Spain he had heard many stories about these Indians.

First Father Serra spent 20 years in Mexico. Then he led the first Spanish settlers to California. At San Diego[2] Father Serra and other priests built a church and a settlement which they called a mission. There priests taught the Indians about Chris-

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[1] Junipero Serra [huːˈniːpərouˈserɑː] Униперо Серра
[2] San Diego [ˈsæn dɪˈeɪɡou] Сан Диего

tianity and Spanish customs. At Father Serra's mission the Indians learned about new ways to farm, breed cattle and build houses.

Father Serra died in 1784. During the next fifty years Spanish priests continued his work. They started twenty-one missions along the California coast. At these missions the Indians and Spanish learned to live together as good neighbours.

QUESTIONS.

1. What parts of America did the Spaniards settle in? What did they call their colony? What was the centre of the Spanish colony?
2. Who explored Florida? What was he looking for?
3. Who was Father Serra and what did he do?

Part 2. French and Dutch Colonies.

In the 1600's other European nations also started colonies in the New World.

New France. In 1608 Samuel de Champlain started the first French settlement in the New World. It was located along the banks of the St. Lawrence River. Champlain called this place Quebec. The entire colony was known as New France. Today this area is part of Canada.

New France did not attract many settlers. Some people came to farm, but the weather in New France was very cold.

Fur trade was the main business of New France. In Europe beaver hats and other clothing made of animal furs were very popular. So French settlers in New France trapped these animals and sent their skins to Europe.

New Netherlands. A few years after Henry Hudson's voyage, Dutch settlers from The Netherlands came to the New World. Like the French, they were planning to make money buying furs from the Indians and selling them to Europe. At the mouth of the Hudson River, on the Island of Manhattan[1], they built a settlement and called it New Amsterdam[2]. There was an excellent harbour at the mouth of the Hudson River, and soon New Amsterdam became a big port and centre of trade with other colonies and with European countries.

In 1664, during the war between The Netherlands and England, an English fleet sailed into the harbour of New Amsterdam. The English forces were much stronger than the garrison of New Amsterdam, and the Dutch surrendered. The King of England gave New Netherlands and New Amsterdam as a present to his brother, the Duke of York. The Duke renamed the colony and the town New York.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who started the French colony in America? When? What settlement was the centre of the French colony?
2. What was the main business of New France?
3. Why did Dutch settlers first come to the New World? Where did they build their settlement? What did they call it?
4. How and when did New Amsterdam turn into New York?
5. Why was it important for the first European settlements to be located near rivers?

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[1] Manhattan [mænˈhætn] Манхаттан
[2] New Amsterdam [ˈnjuːˈæmstəˈdæm] Нью Амстердам

Part 3. English Settlements.

People from England also started colonies. Although these first settlements were very small, they soon grew. By the 1750's there were thirteen English colonies along the eastern coast of North America.

Virginia and Jamestown[1]. In 1606 some merchants in London formed a private business called the Virginia Company. The Company asked England's King James I[2] to give them some land in America to establish a colony. The King agreed. The Virginia Company invited people to go and settle in the new colony, offering to pay their travel costs. In return the settlers agreed to send the Company a share of the crops they grew.

More than 120 people accepted the offer and set out for Virginia, as the colony was called. They arrived in the spring of 1607. They built a settlement and called it Jamestown, in honour of the King.

In the following years more settlers came to Virginia. By 1619 there were eleven settlements in Virginia. The Virginia Company wanted the colony to grow, and the settlers were given the right to vote and elect their own governor. It was the beginning of self-government in the future United States.

The Pilgrims[3]. There were people in England who disagreed with the teachings of the Church of England. In 1620 a large group of such people left England and sailed to North America on a ship called *the Mayflower*[4]. These people were called Pilgrims. They

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[1] Jamestown ['dʒeɪmztaun] Джемстаун
[2] James I ['dʒeɪmz ðə'fɜːst] Джемс I (Яков I)
[3] The Pilgrims [ðə'pɪlgrɪmz] пилигримы
[4] *the Mayflower* [ðə'meɪflauə] Мейфлауэр

60

wanted to find a place where they could worship[1] as they wanted.

The Pilgrims settled in present-day Massachusetts. They called their settlement Plymouth[2]. The Pilgrims' first winter was very hard. Many people died from cold. But the colony survived.

In early 1621 an American Indian called Samoset[3] came to Plymouth and greeted the

The Mayflower

The Pilgrims landing in America

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[1] they could worship ['wɔːʃɪp] смогли бы отправлять богослужение
[2] Plymouth ['plɪmɔθ] Плимут
[3] Samoset ['sæmə'set] Самосет

The first Thanksgiving

Pilgrims in English. The Pilgrims were surprised when they heard the Indian's words. Samoset explained that he had learned the language at sea, sailing with English captains. Soon Samoset returned with a friend, **Squanto**[1]. Squanto stayed with the Pilgrims. He taught them how to survive in the wilderness. Squanto showed the colonists how to grow corn, how to catch fish with a spear and where to hunt deer. He also taught them that they could make the soil rich by burying fish in the earth.

Thanks to Squanto, the Pilgrims had a good harvest that autumn. To give thanks, they invited Squanto and other Indians to a great feast. The celebration, which lasted three days, was the first Thanksgiving[2].

The Puritans[3]. In England there was another group of people who disagreed with the teachings

[1] Squanto ['skwɔntou] Сквонто
[2] Thanksgiving ['θæŋksgɪvɪŋ] благодарение
[3] The Puritans [ðə'pjuərɪtənz] пуритане

The Puritans going to church

of the Church of England. They said that the services of the Church of England had become too complicated and too rich and took too much money. They wanted to make the Church of England more modest, to "purify" it. For this reason they were called Puritans.

The Puritans also decided to sail to North America, to establish a Puritan Church there and to worship as they thought proper.

The Puritans set sail in 1630. Many Puritans were richer than the Pilgrims. Their journey was very different from the Pilgrims' trip on *the Mayflower*. One thousand people took part in it. They sailed in fifteen ships full of supplies and tools.

The Puritans also came to Massachusetts. They explored the coastline and found an excellent har-

bour where the Charles River[1] empties into the ocean. They settled there and called the place Boston[2].

The Puritan Church was very powerful in the Massachusetts colony. The colony's political leaders were also church leaders. They established very strict rules. They told people how to dress and how to act. Everybody was obliged to attend church on Sundays. Anyone who disobeyed the church teachings was punished. One Puritan punishment was putting a person into the pillory[3]. The pillory was a

The pillory

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[1] the Charles River [ðə ˈtʃɑːlz ˈrɪvə] река Чарлз
[2] Boston [ˈbɔstən] Бостон
[3] pillory [ˈpɪlərɪ] позорный столб

wooden frame with holes for a person's head and arms. Those who disobeyed church teachings were locked into the pillory. Then they were left for a time on display as a lesson to the other people.
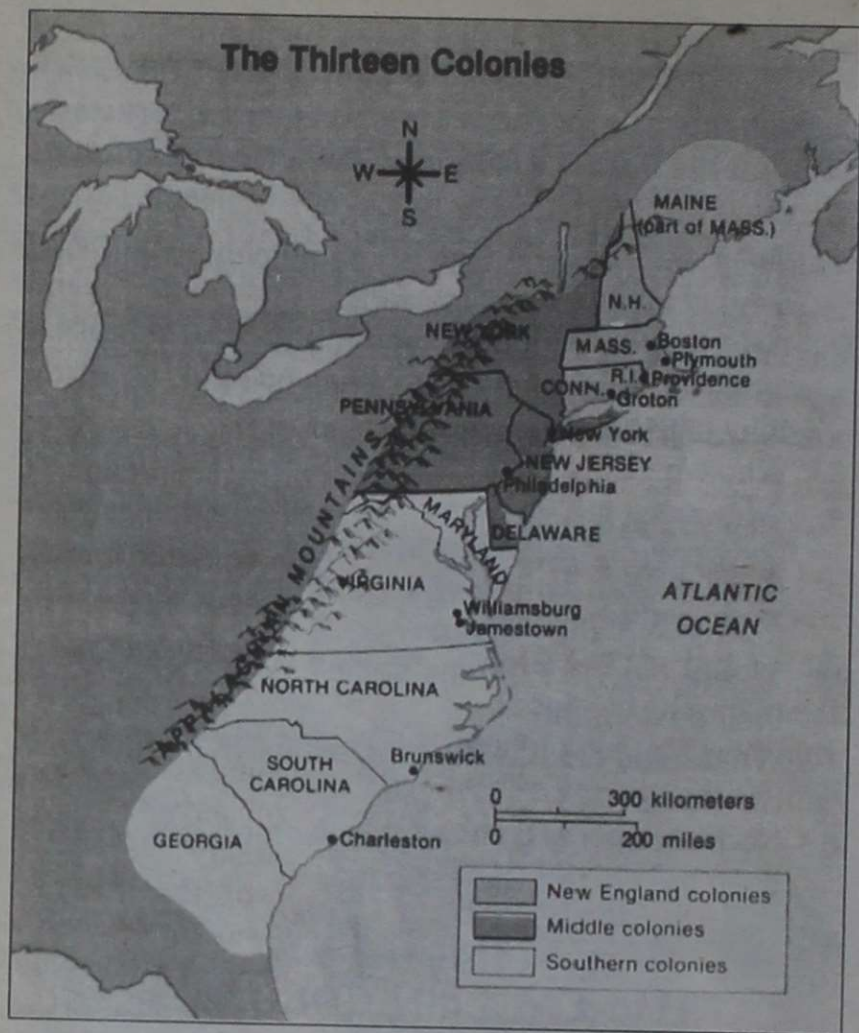
QUESTIONS.

1. What was the first English settlement in the New World? When was it started?
2. Why did the Pilgrims come to the New World? In what place did they start their colony? What did they call their settlement?
3. Who was Squanto? How did he help the Pilgrims?
4. Who were the Puritans? Why did they call themselves puritans? Why did they sail to America?
5. In what way did the voyage of the Puritans differ from that of the Pilgrims?
6. Where did the Puritans settle? What did they call their settlement?
7. What rules did the Puritans establish in their colony?
8. Name some reasons why newcomers come to settle in the United States today.

CHAPTER 4
THE ENGLISH COLONIES

Part 1. New England.

The English settlements on the Atlantic coast grew into thirteen colonies. The colonies can be divided into three regions: the New England colonies, the Middle colonies and the Southern colonies.

The New England colonies were Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut and New Hampshire. New

3

The Thirteen Colonies

MAINE
(part of MASS.)

N.H.

NEW YORK

MASS. • Boston
• Plymouth
CONN. R.I. • Providence
• Groton

PENNSYLVANIA

• New York

NEW JERSEY
• Philadelphia

DELAWARE

MARYLAND

VIRGINIA

ATLANTIC
OCEAN

• Williamsburg
• Jamestown

APPALACHIAN MOUNTAINS

NORTH CAROLINA

SOUTH
CAROLINA

• Brunswick

GEORGIA   • Charleston

0   300 kilometers
0   200 miles

New England colonies
Middle colonies
Southern colonies

The thirteen colonies

England has long and cold winters. The land is rocky and hard to farm. Life was not easy for the colonists, but New Englanders worked hard. By the mid-1700's small villages had grown into towns. One town, Boston, had become a city of major importance in the colonies.

A view of Boston in 1801

Rhode Island. The Massachusets colony had been settled by the Puritans who had come to America for religious freedom. But they themselves did not allow any religious freedom to anybody: they considered their own ideas, the ideas of the Puritan Church, the only right ones. There was no religious toleration in Massachusetts. Yet some people disagreed with the Puritan leaders.

Roger Williams[1], a popular young priest in the colony, disagreed with some of the Puritan teachings. He was told to stop talking about his ideas. When he refused, he was ordered to leave the colony.

Williams walked for four days through a terrible snow storm and freezing cold. Finally he reached a camp of friendly American Indians. The Indians

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[1] Roger Williams [ˈrɔdʒəˈwɪljəmz] Роджер Уильямс

invited Williams to spend the winter with them. In spring they helped him to start his own settlement. He called it Providence[1]. The new settlement grew into a separate colony, Rhode Island. Rhode Island's first law was about religious toleration. It allowed people to worship as they wished.

Life in New England. Religious worship was very important to most New Englanders. The church was often the centre of social life. Families spent long hours listening to sermons.

Each village usually had a large open land area, called the village green, in the middle of the village. The village green belonged to the whole community. It served as an outdoor place for people to gather. The meeting-house, usually a church, was built next to the village green. Each village also had a shop. The village shop sold everything from food to clothes and hardware. Money was seldom used to buy goods. Instead, people used a trading system called barter. They exchanged all kinds of goods. Farmers often traded maple syrup and eggs for flour or candles.

Along the Atlantic coast people made their living by fishing. Timber from nearby forests was used to build ships. Some towns along the coast became ship-building centres.

As the colonies grew, they began to trade with each other and with Great Britain. New Englanders sent pickled meat, vegetables, fish and timber to the West Indies in exchange for sugar and rum. Iron and tobacco were shipped to Great Britain and traded for manufactured goods, such as tools.

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[1] Providence ['prɔvidəns] провидение

With the growth of trade, the ways of life in the colonies were changing. In the early colonial years people had to make or grow everything they needed themselves. But as the colonies grew, some people left their farms to work in the growing colonial towns and cities. They became priests, lawyers, bankers and merchants. There were blacksmiths, shoemakers, candlemakers and barrelmakers.

Education was highly valued in New England. Religious leaders wanted children to be able to read the Bible, so they started schools. Until 1750 only boys went to school. These early schools were usually just one room heated by a wood-burning stove. In winter the boys sat close together to keep warm. They learned reading, writing and arithmetic. Larger towns built secondary schools, where the pupils studied Latin and Greek.
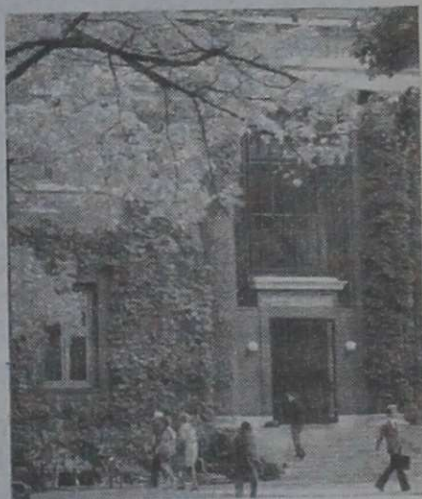
Harvard University

In 1636 Harvard[1] College was founded near Boston. It was the first college in the thirteen colonies. Later it grew into the famous **Harvard University**.

All children were expected to work at home. Young children milked the cows and took care of the animals. Girls helped to make food and cloth-

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[1] Harvard [ˈhɑːvəd] Гарвард

ing. Boys chopped wood and helped to plough the fields.

In the towns children learned their parents' trade. Depending on what their fathers did, boys learned how to make barrels, candles, shoes or iron tools. Sometimes girls worked in a shop. But usually they cleaned, took care of younger children in the family, sewed and cooked with their mothers at home. ..

QUESTIONS.

1. Which three groups are the first thirteen English colonies divided into?
2. Name the New England colonies.
3. What are the natural and climatic conditions of New England like?
4. What city became most important in New England?
5. Why did Roger Williams have to leave Massachusetts? Where did he go?
6. What did Roger Williams call the settlement he founded?
7. What was the first law of the Rhode Island colony?
8. How did a typical village of New Englanders look? Describe.
9. Whit is bartering? Give an example.
10. What products did the New Englanders trade with the West Indies?
11. How was life in the colonies changing with the growth of trade?
12. Life in the colonies was hard, and children were supposed to help about the house, weren't they? What was their work?

Part 2. The Middle Colonies.

New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware were called the Middle colonies. The Middle colonies were between New England and the Southern colonies. These colonies were settled mainly by English, French, Dutch and German[1] people. They developed the region into a rich farming area.

Penn's woods. Like Roger Williams, **William Penn**[2] believed in religious toleration. He founded the colony of Pennsylvania for that purpose.

Penn came from a worthy family in England. His father was an admiral in the English Navy and a friend of the King. As a young man, Penn joined a religious group called the Society of Friends. The Friends, or Quakers[3], as they called themselves, believed in the goodness of all people. They also refused to fight in any wars.

Like the Pilgrims and Puritans, the Quakers were not allowed to practice their religion in England.

In 1681 William Penn made an agreement with the English King. Penn's father had died in 1670, and the King had owed him a lot of money. Now he owed that money to William Penn. As a payment for the debt, he gave Penn some land in America.

In 1681 Penn sent settlers to this land. He called this land Pennsylvania, which means "Penn's woods". It was a beautiful land of thick forests, rich soil and clean rivers.

William Penn worked hard to build up Pennsylvania. He wrote advertisements telling people in

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[1] German ['dʒə:mən] немец, немецкий
[2] William Penn ['wɪljəm'pen] Уильям Пенн
[3] The Quakers [ðə'kweɪkəz] квакеры

William Penn and the Indians

Europe about his colony. Soon people from Germany, The Netherlands, Switzerland[1] and other countries came to Pennsylvania. Unlike New England, where most of the colonists were English, Pennsylvania was settled by people of many different nations.

William Penn said that Pennsylvania would be a place open to settlers of all faiths. He also said that the American Indians should be treated well. Soon after arriving, Penn made up an agreement with the Delaware Indians who lived in the area.

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[1] Switzerland [ˈswɪtsələnd] Швейцария

He paid them a good price for their land. During Penn's lifetime the relations between the settlers and the Indians in Pennsylvania were very good.

Life in Philadelphia[1]. Philadelphia was the first settlement in Pennsylvania. The name "Philadelphia" means "brotherly love" in Greek. For 300 years Philadelphia has been known as the City of Brotherly Love.

By the 1700's more than 4,500 people lived in Philadelphia. Philadelphia, Boston and New York were the three largest and most modern cities in the colonies.

In spite of being more than 160 kilometres from the Atlantic Ocean, Philadelphia was a busy sea-
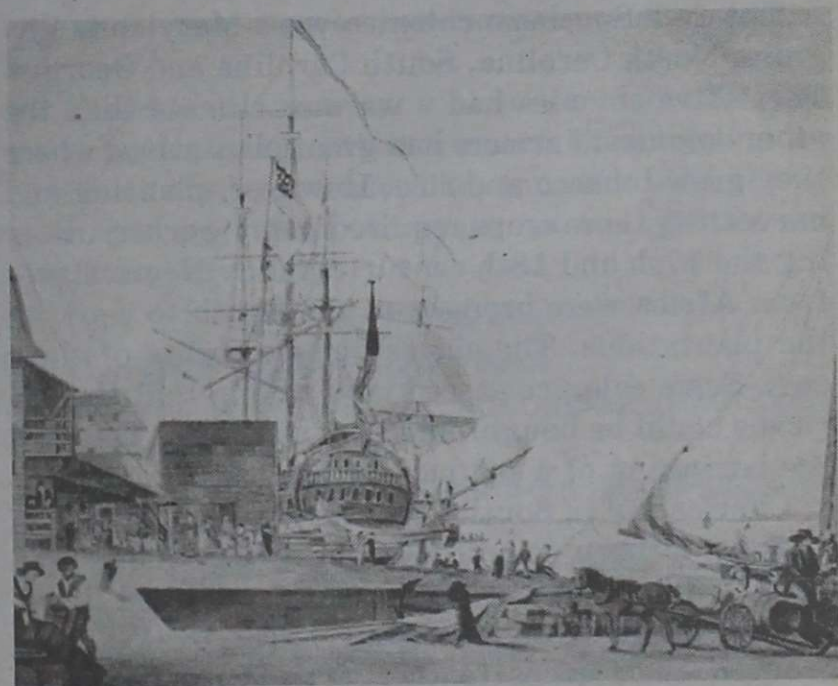
A view of Philadelphia's seaport in the early 1700's

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[1] Philadelphia [ˌfɪləˈdelfjə] Филадельфия

port. Ships sailed from the ocean up the broad Delaware River. The city's streets were full of traffic.

QUESTIONS.

1. Name the Middle colonies.
2. Why did William Penn want to organize a colony in America? What religious group did he belong to?
3. How did William Penn get the land for his colony?
4. Why did Pennsylvania attract settlers?
5. How did William Penn treat the native Indian population?
6. How do you think Philadelphia's location on the Delaware River helped the city to grow?

Part 3. The Southern Colonies.

The five Southern colonies were Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia. These five colonies had a warmer climate than the other colonies. Farmers had great plantations where they grew tobacco and rice. However, planting and harvesting these crops required many workers. During the 17th and 18th centuries many Negro slaves from Africa were brought to the South to work on the plantations. The slaves had no rights of their own. Some colonies passed laws saying that the Africans could be bought and sold as slaves. This was the beginning of a sad part of American history.

Charleston[1] in South Carolina was the major city of the Southern colonies. In the 1700's more than 10,000 whites and 12,000 black slaves lived there. Charleston had an excellent harbour. Planters brought their crops to the port. There the crops

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[1] Charleston ['tʃɑːlstən] Чарлстон
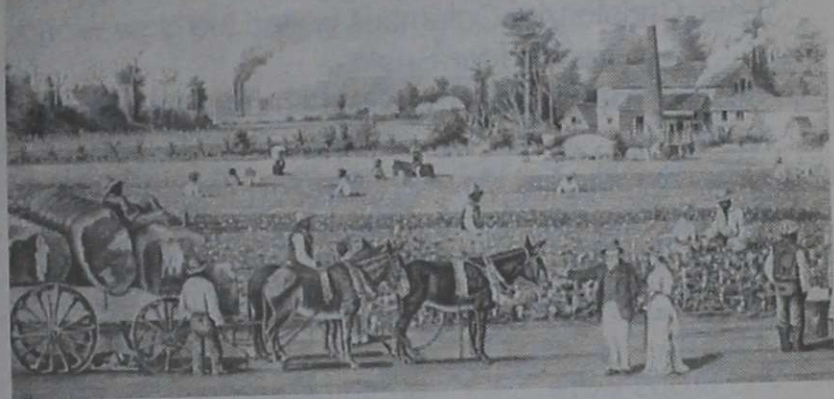
A plantation in the South

were loaded on ships and sent to Great Britain, the West Indies and to other colonies. Merchants grew rich from the busy trade. They built beautiful houses in the city. Many of these colonial houses are still standing today.

QUESTIONS.

1. Name the five Southern colonies.
2. What were the climatic conditions like in the Southern colonies?
3. What did the people in the Southern colonies do for their living?
4. What was the beginning of a sad part of American history?
5. What was the major city of the Southern colonies?

UNIT REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

fur, toleration, loaded, goodness, forever, mission, survive, claimed, plantations, bartered.

1. When Christopher Columbus visited the New World, he _____ the land for Spain.
2. Anyone who drank from the fountain remained young _____ .
3. Many farmers in New England _____ instead of using money when they needed goods.
4. Father Serra built his first _____ in San Diego.
5. The _____ trade was the main business of New France.
6. The crops were _____ on ships and sent to Great Britain and the West Indies.
7. In the South farmers had great _____ where they grew tobacco and rice.
8. William Penn believed in religious _____ .
9. Quakers believed in the _____ of all people.
10. Squanto taught the Pilgrims how to _____ in the wilderness.

II. Write detailed answers to the following questions:

1. How did the Dutch lose control of their colony in North America?
2. What was the Virginia Company? How was it formed?
3. What were the first three permanent English settlements in the New World?
4. How was farming in the Southern colonies different from farming in other colonies?

III. Who were these people? What did they do? Write in short about each of them.

Ponce de León   Roger Williams
Junipero Serra   William Penn
Squanto

UNIT THREE
A NATION IS ESTABLISHED

The first 13 English colonies started in America were developing their economy. By 1750 they were rich enough and did not have to struggle to survive. Merchants were selling goods to other colonies and trading with other nations. The colonists felt stronger. They wanted to have more control over their future.

On July 4, 1776 the 13 colonies declared themselves independent.

CHAPTER 5
TROUBLE IN THE COLONIES

Part 1. Trouble with France

The years from the 1750's until the mid-1770's were uneasy times in the colonies. First the colonists fought the French and American Indians to gain land. Then they argued with the British King about their rights and freedom.

In the 1700's Great Britain and France were the two most powerful nations in Europe. They fought with each other to control world trade and to control the New World. Between 1689 and 1763 the two nations fought four wars in Europe and in North America. The last and most important war in America is known as the French and Indian War (1754–1763). The war resulted in a complete victory of Great Britain. The Treaty of Paris, signed in 1763, made Great Britain the most powerful nation in North America. The British gained control of Cana-

da and all of the lands east of the Mississippi River.

1. What were the causes of the French and Indian War?
2. What did Great Britain gain as a result of the war?

Part 2. Trouble with Britain

The Sugar Act. In 1764 Britain's Parliament passed a law taxing the colonies. It was called the Sugar Act.

The Sugar Act put a tax on sugar, wine and other products that were shipped to the colonies from countries other than Great Britain. When ships landed in the colonies with these products, a tax had to be paid by the people who ordered the goods.

The colonists refused to pay the tax: they did not want to pay taxes passed by the British Parliament. They wanted to decide themselves whether a tax was necessary.

However, the British leaders were serious about the Sugar Act. They sent tax collectors from Great Britain to collect the money. These men searched all the ships that came into colonial harbours. If they found hidden goods that were supposed to be taxed, they could take the ship away from its owner.

To avoid paying the tax, many ship-owners became smugglers — people who loaded and unloaded their ships in secret.

The Stamp Act. In 1765 Parliament passed a new tax law — the Stamp Act. The Stamp Act put a tax on all printed paper goods that colonists bought. Colonists had to pay a tax when buying books, newspapers and playing cards. A person who finished

college had to pay a tax on the diploma. Lawyers had to pay a tax on the wills, agreements and other documents. To show that the tax had been paid, a stamp seller put a stamp on the paper.

The colonists hated the Stamp Act. In Boston crowds broke the offices of the stamp sellers. They poured hot tar on the sellers and then covered them with feathers. This painful punishment was called tarring and feathering.

Why did the colonists fight so strongly against the tax? The main reason was that the tax had been passed without their agreement. The colonists knew about taxes and paid them at home. They elected representatives who decided how much tax money to collect. The colonists were ready to pay these taxes, because their representatives used the tax money to improve the life of the colony. The tax money was used to pay for things which the colonists needed, such as roads. But the Stamp Act and other British taxes had been passed by the British Parliament. The colonists had no representatives in the British Parliament. The British tax laws were passed by people that the colonists did not elect, and the tax money was used for the British soldiers whom the colonists did not want.

The Boston Tea Party. Three ships loaded with tea came into the port of Boston. Before unloading the ships it was necessary to pay the tax. Colonists refused to unload the ships. The British governor of Boston said that the ships would stay in the harbour until the colonists agreed to pay the tax on the tea.

On the night of December 16, 1773, some colonists, dressed as American Indians, climbed aboard the ships. They opened hundreds of boxes of tea
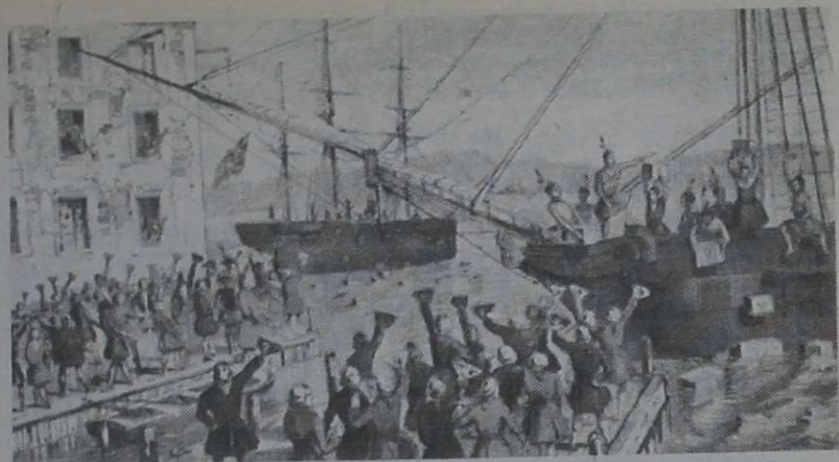
The Boston Tea Party

and threw them into the water. If there was no tea, they said angrily, there would be nothing to tax. This event became known as the Boston Tea Party.

Britain's King George and Parliament were furious. British warships were sent to Boston Harbour to block any ships sailing into or out of Boston. The British said that they would block the harbour until the tea was paid for. This British blockade ruined Boston's trade. But still the colonists refused to pay for the tea which they had thrown overboard.

Meeting for action. In September 1774 the colonies sent representatives to the First Continental Congress, which met in Philadelphia. The Congress decided to take action on the blockade of Boston.

The members of the Congress wrote to King George asking him to reopen Boston Harbour. They also told him that the colonists would decide themselves what their taxes should be and what the tax money should be used for. Finally they said that they would boycott British goods until they got what they wanted.

King George never answered the letter. Instead of it, he sent more warships to the colonies.

QUESTIONS.

1. What was the Sugar Act?
2. What measures did the British leaders take to collect the taxes? What did the tax collectors do? What did the ship owners do to avoid paying the taxes?
3. What goods did the Stamp Act put taxes on?
4. How did the colonists struggle against the Stamp Act?
5. Explain why the colonists felt that Great Britain had no right to tax them.
6. What is the Boston Tea Party?
7. Why do you think the British were so angry when they heard about the Boston Tea Party?
8. What letter did the First Continental Congress send to King George of England? What was King George's reaction?

CHAPTER 6
THE WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE

Part 1. Preparing for War.

In Massachusetts people were especially upset by the blockade of Boston Harbour. Farmers in the area began organizing to practice shooting and marching. These men were called minutemen, because they could get ready to fight at a minute's notice.

On the cold Wednesday morning of April 19, 1775, the tension which existed between the colonists and the British led to shooting. British soldiers met a

82

Lexington. The first battle of the War for Independence

group of armed colonists at Lexington[1]. A shot was fired. That shot was the start of the War for Independence[2], in which a brave group of colonists fought mighty Great Britain.

In the spring of 1775 the Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia. They met to organize an army and navy to defend and support colonial rights.

In June 1775 the Congress appointed **George Washington**[3] commander-in-chief of the colonial army. Washington left Philadelphia to take command of the army near Boston.

By the following year more and more people had come to believe that the colonies should be indepen-

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[1] Lexington [ˈleksɪŋtən] Лексингтон (город)
[2] the War for Independence [ˌɪndəˈpendəns] Война за независимость
[3] George Washington [ˈdʒɔːdʒ ˈwɒʃɪŋtən] Джордж Вашингтон

The Continental Congress

dent. Colonial soldiers had died fighting for colonial rights. British leaders had shown no respect for the colonists' rights.

In the spring of 1776 the Continental Congress decided to take action. **Thomas Jefferson**[1], a young Virginian, was asked to write a declaration explaining why the colonies should be free.

In the declaration Jefferson described his ideas about human rights. Jefferson said that all people had the right to life and liberty. No government could take these rights away. If the rulers tried to do so, the people had the right to choose a new government. Jefferson blamed the King for ignoring

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[1] Thomas Jefferson [ˈtɔməsˈdʒefəsn] Томас Джефферсон

colonial laws, ruining trade and making people pay high taxes.

On July 4, 1776, the Congress adopted Jefferson's **Declaration of Independence**[1]. The colonies stated that they were no longer a part of Great Britain. A new nation was born.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who were the minutemen?
2. How did the War for Independence start?
3. What important actions did the Second Continental Congress take? Who was appointed commander-in-chief of the colonial army?
4. Who is the author of the Declaration of Independence? What principles were stated in the Declaration?
5. What important event took place on July 4, 1776?

Part 2. Defending the Nation.

The war lasted six years. It was a difficult war for both sides. The British were fighting far from their homeland. Supplies had to be sent from across the ocean. Although the Americans lacked supplies and military training, they were fighting on the land which they knew well. And they were fighting to protect their newly declared independence. The Revolutionary War was fought in the farmyards, fields and forests of America. Thousands of men and women helped in the fight for independence.

Women help. Thousands of women followed their husbands and sons to army camps to help them. They marched, cooked and even fought side by side

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[1] the Declaration of Independence [ðə,deklə'reıʃn əv,ındə'pendəns] Декларация о независимости

85

Mary Hays

with men. One of such women was **Mary Hays**[1].

Mary Hays's husband, John, was a gunner in charge of firing a cannon. While he fought, she helped to take care of the wounded and cooked. Sometimes, in the heat of a battle, she brought cool pitchers of water to the soldiers. The soldiers called her Mary Pitcher.

During the battle of Monmouth[2] in New Jersey John Hays was wounded. Mary Hays took her husband's place at the cannon and fought bravely.

Unlike Mary Hays, many women stayed at home. They ran family farms and businesses. While their husbands and sons were away, these women took over men's jobs and did their own work, too. In addition, some women collected money for the needs of the war.

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[1] Mary Hays [ˈmɛərɪ ˈheɪz] Мэри Хейз
[2] Monmouth [ˈmɔnmɔθ] Монмут

The battle of Bunker Hill

Blacks help. Major John Pitcairn[1] was a popular British officer. He had led British troops in many battles. He was planning to lead his soldiers into battle at Bunker Hill[2]. But a bullet stopped him.

The bullet was Peter Salem's. **Peter Salem[3]**, a black man, had already fought at Lexington. Then he became one of 21 blacks who joined with whites to fight at Bunker Hill. Peter Salem and two other blacks, Cuff Whitemore[4] and Salem Poor[5], were honoured for bravery in that battle.

During the Revolution some blacks formed their own military units. One Rhode Island unit was made up of 125 blacks. These soldiers fought in the battle of Rhode Island, where their unit did not give up any ground to the British. Later, one leader called

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[1] John Pitcairn [ˈdʒɔn pɪtˈkɛən] Джон Питкерн
[2] Bunker Hill [ˈbʌŋkəˈhɪl] Банкер Хилл
[3] Peter Salem [ˈpiːtəˈsæləm] Питер Салем
[4] Cuff Whitemore [ˈkʌfˈwaɪtmɔː] Кафф Уайтмор
[5] Salem Poor [ˈʃæləmˈpuə] Салем Пур

the battle of Rhode Island "the best fought action of the war."

Help from overseas. Many people in Europe admired the colonies' fight for freedom. Some Europeans even came to America to help in the fighting.

The Marquis de Lafayette[1] was a 20-year-old French nobleman and military officer. Lafayette hired soldiers and a ship and sailed to America. When he arrived, he offered his services to Congress. Congress made Lafayette a major general, and George Washington asked him to serve on his staff[2]. The young officer and Washington soon became close friends.

Lafayette served bravely in the war. At one battle he was wounded. In the final battle at Yorktown[3] he helped to defeat the British.

The Marquis de Lafayette

Baron Friedrich von Steuben[4] was a German officer who came to help the Americans. Von Steuben was good at training soldiers. In winter at Valley Forge[5] he helped to train American soldiers to be better fighters.

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[1] The Marquis de Lafayette [ðəˈmɑːkwɪs dəˌlɑːfaɪˈet] маркиз де Лафайет

[2] to serve on his staff служить в его штабе

[3] Yorktown [ˈɔːktaun] Йорктаун

[4] Friedrich von Steuben [ˈfriːdrɪk fənˈʃtɔɪbən] Фридрих фон Штейбен

[5] Valley Forge [ˈvælɪˈfɔːdʒ] Вэлли Фордж

The War ends. On October 19, 1781, the war was over with the victory of the Americans.

In 1783 the British and Americans met in Paris and signed a treaty. In the Treaty of Paris Great Britain agreed to recognize the independence of the United States. The Americans had won their revolution.

QUESTIONS.

1. How long did the War for Independence last?
2. How can fighting a war on one's own territory be both helpful and harmful?
3. How did women help in the Revolution?
4. Name the battle in which black soldiers played an important part.
5. Who was the Marquis de Lafayette? What did he do to help the Americans?
6. How did Baron von Steuben help the Americans?

CHAPTER 7
A NATION IS BORN

Part 1. Forming a Government.

On the bright morning of November 25, 1783, the last British soldiers were leaving the harbour of New York. An American flag was being raised. The war was over, but there was much to do. Thirteen states had made up a new nation. They needed a new government.

Confederation. In the summer of 1776 Thomas Jefferson was writing the Declaration of Independence. At the same time, other members of the Second Continental Congress were planning the new

nation's government. The 13 states joined together into a confederation.

It was decided to set up an organization which would work out the laws of the country. This organization was called Congress. Each state would send representatives to Congress. These representatives would choose a leader. Congress and its leader would make up the nation's government.

Congress worked out a system of adding new states to the original thirteen states. It was decided that when the population of any area grew to 60,000, the area could become a state. For example: in later years five new states were formed from the Northwest Territory: Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin. (The Northwest Territory was the region west of Pennsylvania and north of the Ohio River.)

Convention. Many members of Congress realized that a clear and exact system of governing the country had to be worked out. They decided to call a nation-wide meeting, or convention. Each state was asked to send representatives to this convention.

The delegates of the Convention decided that Congress would have two parts, or houses, as the parts were called. One house was called the House of Representatives. The other house was called the Senate. Each state would have two members in the Senate. The membership in the House of Representatives would be based on the size of population.

Three branches of government. The delegates wanted to set up a government that would be effective, but at the same time not too powerful. To do this, they created a government of three branches. Each branch would have its own powers. In addi-

A meeting of the Convention

tion, each branch of government could limit the power of the other two. With the power of government so divided, no single branch would become too powerful.

Congress would be the lawmaking, or **legislative**, branch. Its members, in both the House of Representatives and the Senate, would make the laws. Congress could also declare war and form armies.

The President would be the **executive** branch. The President would sign, or refuse to sign, the laws that Congress made. When a law was signed, the President would make sure that it was carried out. The President would also appoint other people to help him in carrying out the laws. Another important power of the President was to be commander-in-chief of the armed forces of the United States.

The third branch of government would be the law-examining, or **judicial**, branch. Judges would make sure that the laws passed by Congress and signed by the President were in agreement with the Constitution. The most important body of the judicial branch was the Supreme Court[1].

The Constitution. In 1790 the Constitution (the basic law of the country) was adopted by Congress. In 1791 ten amendments[2] were added to the Constitution. These ten amendments are known as **The Bill of Rights**[3]. The Bill of Rights declares that the national government will protect the basic rights and freedoms of every American citizen.

QUESTIONS.

1. The thirteen colonies had won their independence. What did they need in the first place now?
2. What organization was set up in order to work out the laws of the newly-formed country?
3. What system did Congress work out for adding new states to the original thirteen states?
4. Name the five new states that were formed from the Northwest Territory.
5. What are the two houses of Congress called?
6. What kind of government did the delegates want to set up?
7. Name the three branches of the US government. What does Congress do? What does the President do? What does the Supreme Court do?
8. What important document was adopted by Congress in 1790?
9. What is The Bill of Rights?

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[1] the Supreme Court [ðə sjupˈriːmˈkɔːt] Верховный суд
[2] amendments [əˈmendmənts] поправки, добавления
[3] The Bill of Rights [ðəˈbɪl əvˈraɪts] Билль о правах

Part 2. The New Nation.

The first President. On April 30, 1789, **George Washington** promised to "preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States." With this promise, Washington was placed in office, or "inaugurated" as the first President of the United States.

President Washington worked long and hard to make the right decisions for the new nation. To help him make these decisions, he wanted advice from experienced people. The helpers, or advisers, formed a group that became known as the Cabinet. Each member of the President's Cabinet was head, or secretary, of certain areas of the government.

The first political parties. Washington appointed a New York lawyer, Alexander Hamilton[1], to head the Department of Treasury[2]. Thomas Jefferson was placed in charge of the nation's affairs with other countries. Jefferson became the first secretary of state[3].

From the beginning, Hamilton and Jefferson argued about what was best for the United States. Hamilton wanted to see the country as a nation of great cities and large industries. Jefferson wanted the nation to remain a country of small communities and farms. Hamilton supported laws that would make the national government stronger. Jefferson insisted that more power should be left to individual states.

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[1] Alexander Hamilton [ˌælɪgˈzɑːndəˈhæmɪltən] Александр Гамильтон

[2] the Department of Treasury [ðə dɪˈpɑːtmənt əvˈtreʒərɪ] министерство финансов

[3] the secretary of state государственный секретарь (министр иностранных дел)

Jefferson and Hamilton consulting with Washington

Each man had supporters among the people. In time, those who followed Hamilton called themselves Federalists. Those who followed Jefferson were called Democratic-Republicans. The split between the two groups grew. Finally the Federalists and the Democratic-Republicans became the first two political parties in the United States.

The capital city. During the 1790's work started on the construction of a new capital city for the

United States. The place was chosen along the banks of the Potomac River[1]. This land was called the District of Columbia[2]. The new city was named Washington, in honour of the first President.

QUESTIONS.

1. What promise did George Washington give when he was being inaugurated as the first President of the United States? When did this event take place?
2. What is the President's Cabinet? Name two famous Americans who served in Washington's Cabinet.
3. Who were the Federalists and the Democratic-Republicans? What was the difference between them?
4. What is the District of Columbia?

Part 3. The War of 1812.

After winning independence, the United States became an important shipping nation. American trading ships sailed to China, Africa and Europe. Foreign trade created jobs for many American shipbuilders, sailors, business people and shopkeepers.

While Great Britain and France fought, the United States remained neutral. American ships continued trading with both countries. But Great Britain did not want France to get supplies from the United States. So Great Britain attacked American ships sailing to France. The French also tried to prevent other nations from trading with Great Britain. The French navy attacked American ships that were on their way to British ports.

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[1] the Potomac River [ðə pə'toumæk'rivə] река Потомак
[2] the District of Columbia [ðə'dıstrıkt əv kə'lʌmbıə] округ Колумбия

Between 1804 and 1807 the United States lost more than 700 merchant ships because of British attacks. About 200 American ships were lost to the French. In addition, thousands of sailors were kidnapped from American ships by the British. Great Britain said that these sailors had deserted the British navy. These sailors were forced to serve in the British navy. Many of the sailors were American citizens. This practice angered Americans. Many people began saying that war should be declared on Great Britain.

The American settlers in Northwest Territory also wanted war with Great Britain. They feared the British who possessed lands in Canada.

American leaders tried to find peaceful solutions. But none of them worked. In 1812 President James Madison[1] asked Congress to declare war against Great Britain. Congress supported him, and the United States went to war.

In the Northwest Territory the war went badly for the United States. The British captured Detroit. They were ready to cross into the United States from Canada and the Northwest. The only hope for the United States was its small navy. Captain Oliver Perry[2] was sent to the Great Lakes. His orders were to keep the British forces out of the United States.

Perry's sailors defeated the British fleet on Lake Erie. The Northwest Territory remained American.

After their defeat in the Northwest, the British attacked from the south. Landing in Maryland, 4,500

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[1] James Madison ['dʒeɪmz'mædɪsn] Джеймс Мэдисон
[2] Oliver Perry ['ɔlɪvə'perɪ] Оливер Перри

British soldiers marched on Washington, D.C. Their goal was to burn the capital.

The British made a surprise attack on Washington. Alone in the President's home, First Lady Dolly Madison[1], heard the cannons. The Capitol Building was burning. The Madisons' house would be next.

Dolly Madison only had time to rescue her husband's papers and a portrait of George Washington before making her escape. When the British arrived, they removed all the furniture from the Madisons' house and set fire to it.

The President's house was not badly damaged. When the war was over, it was repaired and repainted white to cover the burned places. It has remained the White House ever since.

Francis Scott Key

After burning Washington, the British army marched to Baltimore[2]. Meanwhile, British ships shelled Baltimore harbour. **Francis Scott Key**[3] was a young American lawyer. He was on board one of the British ships. All night Key watched the British ships attacking the harbour. Later he wrote a poem **"The Star Spangled**

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[1] Dolly Madison ['dɔlɪ'mædɪsn] Долли Мэдисон
[2] Baltimore ['bɔːltɪmɔː] Балтимор
[3] Francis Scott Key ['frænsɪs'skɔt'kiː] Фрэнсис Скотт Ки

Banner[1]", in which he described the battle. Key's poem was later set to music and became the national anthem of the United States.

By 1814 both Great Britain and the United States were ready for peace. The war had no clear winner. But the United States had shown that it could defend itself on land and sea. Foreign nations realized that the young United States was a strong country.

QUESTIONS.

1. What were the causes of the War of 1812?
2. How did Captain Oliver Perry stop the British advance in the north-west of the country?
3. How did the British burn Washington?
4. How was the national anthem of the United States born?
5. What did the War of 1812 demonstrate about the United States?

UNIT REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

representatives, passed, political, independence, smuggler, prevent, Cabinet, declared, honour, treaty.

1. British Parliament _____ a law taxing the colonies.
2. The colonists elected _____ who decided how much tax money to collect.
3. President Washington formed a _____ , or a group of advisers, to help him govern the new nation.
4. France and Great Britain signed a _____ to end the French and Indian War.
5. Someone who brought sugar into the country se-

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[1] The Star Spangled Banner [ðə'stɑ:'spæŋgld'bænə] знамя, усеянное звездами

98

cretly to avoid paying a tax was a _____ .

6. After winning _____ , the United States became an important shipping nation.

7. The French tried to _____ other nations from trading with Great Britain.

8. In 1812 Congress _____ war against Great Britain.

9. The capital of the United States was named Washington, in _____ of the first President.

10. The Federalists and the Democratic-Republicans became the first _____ parties in the United States.

II. Write detailed answers to the following questions:

1. What were the causes of the French and Indian War?

2. How did the American colonies respond when Great Britain tried to tax them?

3. How did women help in the Revolution?

4. What two houses does Congress consist of? What principle is membership in each house based on?

5. How is power divided between Congress, the President and the Supreme Court?

III. Who were these people? What did they do? Write in short about each of them.

George Washington   Peter Salem

Thomas Jefferson   The Marquis de Lafayette

Mary Hays   Francis Scott Key

UNIT FOUR
SETTLING THE WEST

Many of the early Americans were adventurous people. They crossed mountains and made homes in the wilderness. In 1790 the United States was a small country of 13 states on the Atlantic coast. By 1850 the nation had grown until it stretched all the way to the Pacific Ocean.

As the nation expanded, Americans kept trying to make their life better. Many new inventions changed the American way of work and life.

CHAPTER 8
THE PIONEERS

Part 1. Settling the Frontier

In the middle of the 18th century much of the land west of the Appalachian Mountains was a rich wilderness. It was a hunting ground for the American Indians. Bear, buffalo, deer and wild turkey were plentiful. Many colonists wanted to claim some of this land for themselves.

Daniel Boone[1]. The first settlers in new areas, people who opened the way west for others, were called **pioneers**. One of the pioneers was Daniel Boone.

Daniel Boone grew up in Pennsylvania. Later his family moved to North Carolina on the frontier[2]. A

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[1] Daniel Boone ['dænjəl'buːn] Дэниел Бун

[2] frontier ['frʌntɪə] территория вдоль границы земли, обжитой колонистами, дальше которой земля была полностью в руках индейцев

100

frontier is the very edge of a settled area that borders on an unsettled area.

As a young man, Boone heard stories about the Kentucky wilderness beyond the Appalachians. In 1769 Boone and a few friends decided to explore Kentucky.

They spent many months on their way. They followed mountain paths and finally came to an opening between the mountains called Cumberland Gap[1].

When Boone finally saw Kentucky for the first time, he thought it looked like a paradise. Much of the land was covered with trees. Buffalo, bears and deer ran through the fields.

Daniel Boone spent more than two years in Kentucky, exploring the beautiful land and hunting. He returned to the East with tales of the beauty of the land he had seen.

Daniel Boone on the Wilderness Road

In 1775 Richard Henderson[2], a businessman, hired Boone to build a road through the Cumberland Gap to Kentucky. With a group of strong men armed with axes and guns, Boone went west again.

The road which Boone and his men built was called the **Wilderness Road**.

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[1] Cumberland Gap [ˈkʌmbələnd ˈgæp] Камберлэндское ущелье

[2] Richard Henderson [ˈrɪtʃəd ˈhendəsn] Ричард Гендерсон

The way west. The Wilderness Road was steep and narrow. The trip to Kentucky was difficult. People loaded their goods on farm animals and walked alongside the animals as they made their way up and down the steep mountain road.

But walking was not the only way of getting over the mountains. Thousands of pioneers travelled by land to Pittsburgh[1]. There they bought or built boats, loaded their belongings and sailed down the Ohio River to the Ohio Territory. Travelling by boat was easier and quicker than travelling by land. And settlers could bring more belongings with them on a boat than they could carry over the Wilderness Road.

But river travel also had its problems. In spring the rivers flooded. Dangerous rapids and waterfalls could break a boat. Besides, bandits, pirates and American Indians often attacked and sank the boats and stole the pioneers' goods.

Flatboats and keelboats. The pioneers used many different kinds of boats. The most popular was the flatboat. It was built of wood and it had a large deck with a small cabin at one end. The pioneer family stayed in the small cabin. The farm animals and most of the family belongings were kept on the deck. The flat bottom of the boat made it possible to travel in shallow parts of the river.

Flatboats had one disadvantage. They could travel in only one direction — downstream. When pioneer families reached their destination, they usually took their boats apart[2] and used the timber to build houses.

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[1] Pittsburgh [ˈpɪtsbɔːg] Питсбург
[2] took their boats apart разбирали свои лодки на части
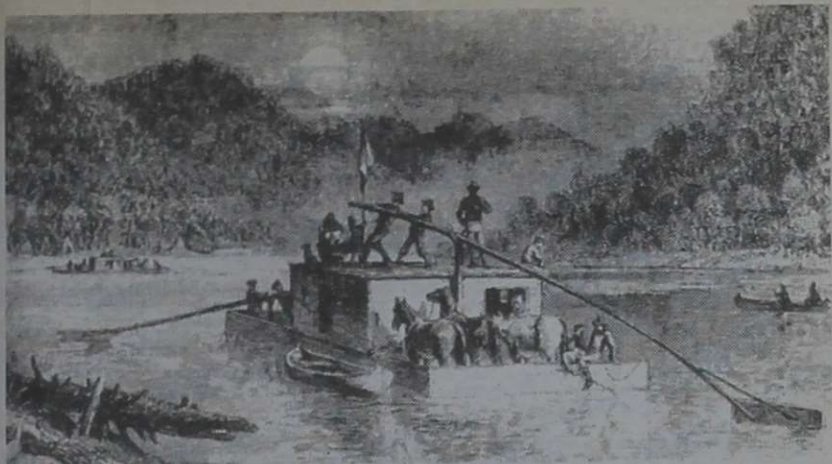
A flatboat on the Ohio River

Keelboats were smaller than flatboats, but they could travel both downstream and upstream.

By the 1790's many boats sailed along the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers carrying pioneers and their belongings. From Pittsburgh the boats followed the Ohio River west to where it joined the Mississippi River. On the Mississippi boats could sail south as far as New Orleans.

New states. In 1791 Vermont became the fourteenth state in the United States. Kentucky became the fifteenth state in 1792. A few years later, in 1796, Tennessee became a state. The frontier was quickly becoming settled.

QUESTIONS.

1. What was the land like to the west of the Appalachian Mountains in the middle of the 18th century? Who lived there? What animals did they hunt?
2. What is a frontier?
3. Who was Daniel Boone? Why did he want to go beyond the Appalachians?
4. What impression did Kentucky produce on Daniel

Boone?

5. Describe the Wilderness Road. Explain why wagons could not travel on it.

6. How did many pioneers travel to the Ohio Territory?

7. What were some dangers of river travel?

8. What are flatboats? How did pioneers travel on them?

9. What was the main disadvantage of flatboats? In what way were keelboats better?

10. Name three new states which were formed at the end of the 18th century.

Part 2. Pioneer Life.

Pioneer life was hard for everyone: men, women and children. Families left their friends, neighbours and often many of their belongings when they moved
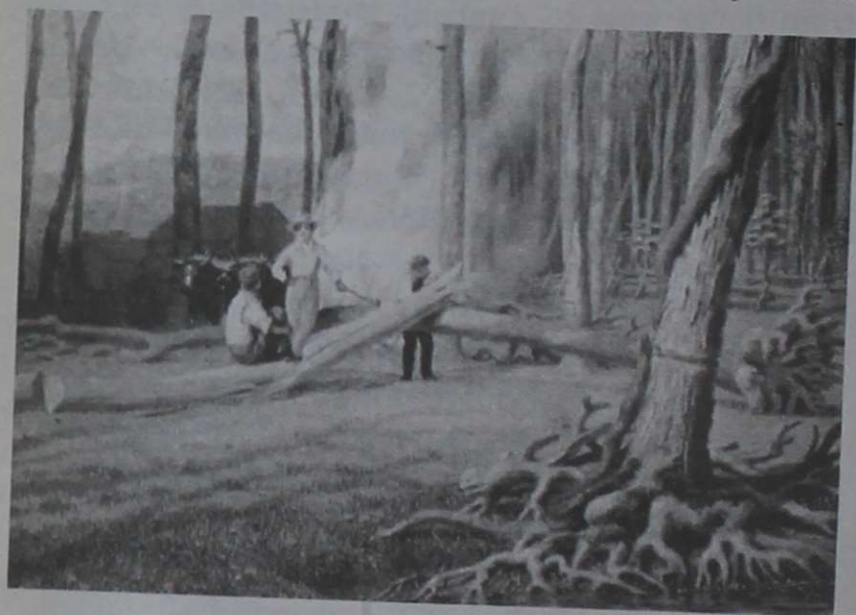
Pioneers clearing the place for planting
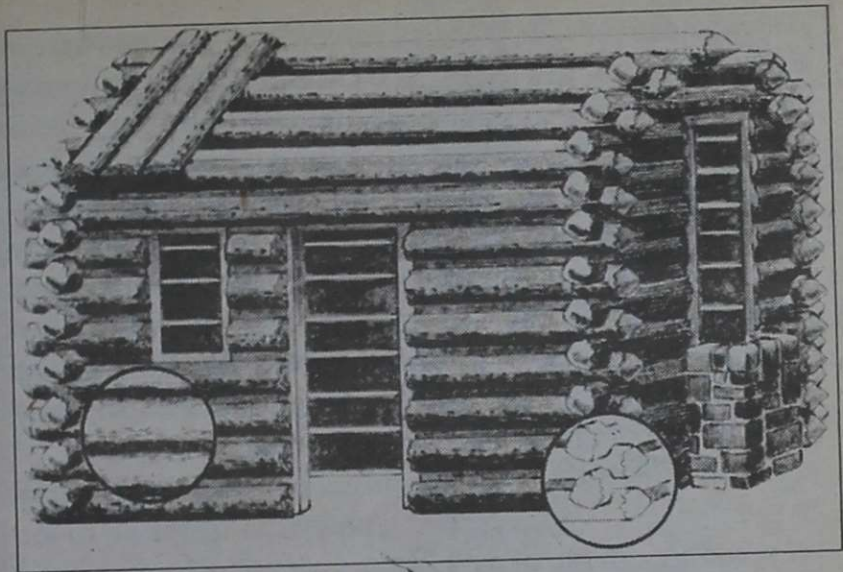
A log cabin

west. But they all brought two things with them: their courage and their dreams of a better life.

When pioneers found a place to settle down, they faced a great problem. The land was covered with forests and thick brush. The pioneers had to clear the place for building a house and planting crops.

The pioneers always helped each other. When a new family came to a place, the neighbours came and helped them build a house, which was usually a small log cabin. Everyone took part in building. The women prepared lots of food. The men chopped down trees and rolled them to the place where the cabin would stand. Then they cleared the trees of branches.

Four logs were put together to form a base, or foundation. The rest of the logs were placed on top of each other to form the walls. Women and children put mud between the cracks in the logs to keep out wind, rain and snow.

Planting corn

When the work was finished, everyone sat down to the big feast which the women had cooked. Usually someone took out a fiddle to play. Even after working all day, the pioneers still had enough energy for singing and dancing.

Though pioneers helped each other as often as possible, most of the time pioneer life was hard and lonely. Families often lived far apart from one another. In the wilderness there were no shops. Pioneers had to make their own clothes and grow their own food. When they needed furniture, tools, soap or candles, they had to make them, too.

Getting enough food was not usually a problem for the pioneers. The woods were full of animals, and the rivers were full of fish.

Each member of a pioneer family, except very little children, had to work hard. The work was divided up. The men and older boys cut down trees and chopped wood. They did almost all the hunting, fishing and trapping of animals.

Spinning wool

The women and older girls did the housework, nursed the sick, spun wool for cloth, made clothes and took care of the children. There were few schools on the frontier, and many children studied at home.

Even little children did work: they ground corn, pulled weeds or gathered pine needles. The pine needles were used for mattresses.

Everyone helped to plant crops in spring and harvest them in autumn. The men worked in the large fields, while the women and children took care of the vegetable garden near the house. The women also took care of chickens and milked the cows.

QUESTIONS.

1. What were the difficulties of pioneer life?
2. What was the first and most important task which a frontier family faced?
3. How did pioneers help each other?
4. Name the duties of each member of a frontier family.

Part 3. Expanding the Nation.

For the pioneers the Mississippi River was a great water highway. The river was given its name by the Indians, and the name means "Great Water". The Mississippi flows south for more than 5,200 kilometres from its source in Minnesota to its mouth near New Órleans, on the Gulf of Mexico.

Flatboats and keelboats travelled along the river. River ports, such as New Orleans, Baton Rouge[1] and St. Louis[2], grew as river travel increased. From

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[1] Baton Rouge ['bætn'ru:z] Батон Руж
[2] St. Louis [snt'lu:ı] Сент Луис

these ports pioneers moved westward to settle the new land of Louisiana.

Louisiana. In 1805 France owned the important port of New Orleans and a vast territory called Louisiana along the Mississippi River and west of it. It worried President Thomas Jefferson that a European country had its lands so close to the United States. The French controlled New Orleans and they could close the Mississippi River to American ships at any time. Goods from the western territories would not be able to reach the East. Travelling and settling the place would be difficult, too, if the Mississippi River were closed to American water traffic.

Jefferson believed that it was very important for the United States to gain control of New Orleans. So in 1803 he sent James Monroe[1] to France to buy the port city of New Orleans.

The leader of France at that time was Napoleon Bonaparte[2]. Napoleon was waging a war in Europe.

The Louisiana Purchase

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[1] James Monroe [ˈdʒeɪmz mənˈrou] Джемс Монро
[2] Napoleon Bonaparte [nəˈpouljən ˈbounəpɑːt] Наполеон Бонапарт

He needed money to pay for the war. So Napoleon decided to sell the entire Louisiana Territory.

Napoleon wanted to make the sale quickly. When Monroe arrived in France, he found that the French wanted to sell all of Louisiana! Monroe quickly agreed to the offer.

For about 15 million dollars the United States received nearly 2,150,000 square kilometres of land. Bounded by the Mississippi on the east and the Rocky Mountains on the west, the area was almost the size of the original 13 colonies.

When Jefferson heard that the Louisiana Territory was bought, he was delighted. Now there was enough place for the United States to grow. But little was known about this land. What was out there beyond the Mississippi?

Lewis[1] and Clark[2]. President Jefferson sent two army captains, Lewis and Clark, to Louisiana. On
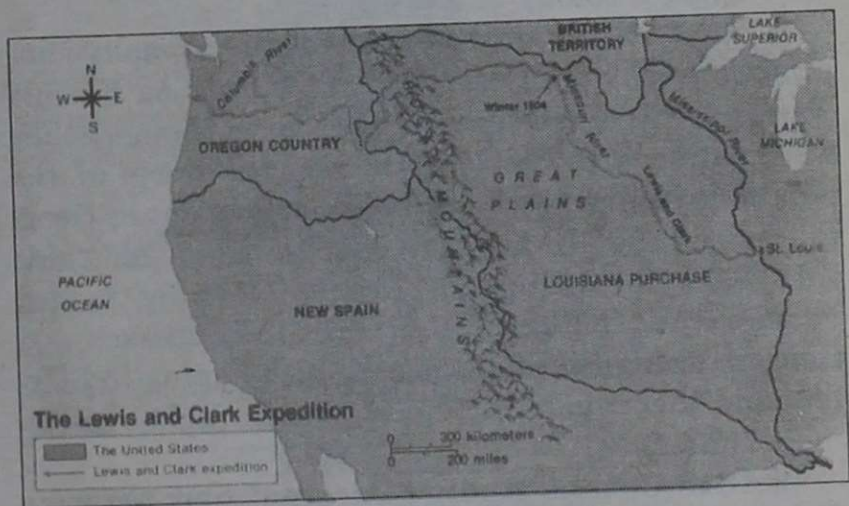
The Lewis and Clark expedition

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[1] Lewis ['lu:ɪs] Льюис
[2] Clark [klɑ:k] Кларк

May 14, 1804, Lewis and Clark began their expedition. Starting from St. Louis, the men travelled up the Missouri River. They crossed the Great Plains, passing areas where herds of buffalo grazed. After that they crossed the Rocky Mountains and continued moving west. On November 7, 1805, Lewis and Clark came to the Pacific Ocean.

Lewis and Clark returned to St. Louis on September 23, 1806. They had been gone so long, that people thought they were dead. In their report to President Jefferson in Washington they described a rich, beautiful land of broad plains, high mountains and mighty rivers.

Lewis and Clark showed that it was possible to travel west as far as the Pacific Ocean by land. As a result, pioneers began moving westward to the Pacific coast.

Florida. Americans also wanted to settle Florida, which was a colony of Spain.

In the 1800's Florida was the home of many runaway slaves from Georgia plantations. As Florida was under Spanish control, the slaves thought they were safe there. Florida was also the home of the Seminole Indians[1], who had been driven out of Georgia by settlers. In anger, these Indians made raids into Georgia, killing people and burning farms. Farmers and plantation owners in Tennessee and Georgia wanted to stop slaves from escaping to Florida, and they wanted to put an end to raids by Seminole Indians.

In 1818 General Andrew Jackson[2] took an army into Florida to fight the Seminoles. Jackson cap-

[1] the Seminole Indians [ðə ˈseminoulˈindiɔnz] индейцы семинолы
[2] Andrew Jackson [ˈændruː ˈdʒæksn] Эндрю Джексон

tured Spanish forts and brought all of eastern Florida under the control of the United States. Spain realized that it could not defend its territory. So in 1819 Spain sold all of Florida to the United States for 5 million dollars.

The Trail of Tears. Soon many Americans moved to Florida. They settled on the land where the Indians had lived for generations. In Tennessee, Georgia and North Carolina people settled on Indian land, too. As a result, there was trouble between the settlers and the Indians, because the Indians fought to defend their homes.

The Cherokee Indians[1] of Georgia were a settled people. Cherokee land owners had built large plantations. A Cherokee called Sequoya[2] had invented

Sequoya

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[1] the Cherokee Indians [ðə‚tʃerə´ki:´ɪndɪənz] индейцы чероки
[2] Sequoya [sɪk´vɔɪə] Секвойя

The Trail of Tears

an alphabet for the Cherokee language. The Cherokees had their own schools and a newspaper. They had their own government and a constitution.

In 1830 Congress passed a law, by which the United States took away the Cherokee land and the land of all other American Indians living east of the Mississippi River. The law required that the eastern Indians should move west of the Mississippi and live on the lands of the western Indians.

The Cherokee Indians resisted. Finally, American soldiers forced them off their land. In the cold winter of 1858–1839 the Indians had to march more than 1,600 kilometres to their new home in the Oklahoma Territory. More than one quarter of the Cherokee froze or starved to death on the way. For the Cherokee, this tragic trip became known as the Trail of Tears.

QUESTIONS.

1. What was the importance of the Mississippi River for the pioneers? How far did they travel down it? Name three important ports on the Mississippi.
2. Why did President Jefferson want to buy New Orleans?

3. Why did Napoleon sell the Americans the whole of the Louisiana territory?
4. What did the United States gain as a result of buying the Louisiana Territory?
5. Why did President Jefferson send Lewis and Clark to Louisiana? When did their expedition begin?
6. What was the route of the Lewis and Clark expedition? When did they reach the Pacific coast? How long did it take them to get from St. Louis to the Pacific Ocean?
7. How did Lewis and Clark describe to President Jefferson the land they had seen?
8. What did the Lewis and Clark expedition show? What was the result of it?
9. Why did the Americans want to settle Florida?
10. Why did Spain sell Florida to the United States?
11. What was the life style of the Cherokee Indians of Georgia? What facts prove the high level of their culture?
12. What law did Congress pass in 1830? What did the law require of the Indians?
13. Why was the Cherokee march to Oklahoma called the Trail of Tears?

CHAPTER 9
TO THE PACIFIC

Part 1. Mexico.

The mountains, plains and deserts of the American Southwest were controlled by Spain for almost 300 years. But very few Spaniards lived in this vast land. American Indians had been living there for

10,000 years, but their settlements were far apart.

In 1820 Americans started going to the Southwest. Some of the Americans went to trade. Others went to settle.

Santa Fe[1]. Santa Fe was an important town in the Spanish territory. In 1821 Mexico won its independence from Spain, and Santa Fe became a Mexican city. The Mexicans allowed Americans to trade in Santa Fe.

William Becknell[2] was the first American trader in Santa Fe. He came there with a wagon train full of goods. In return for the goods that Becknell brought, people in Santa Fe gave him furs and silver from the nearby mines.

Soon other wagon trains went to Santa Fe. Many of the Americans who went there were frontier people who had never seen a real city. They were amazed at the beauty of Santa Fe. There they found elegant Spanish houses and many friendly people who were cultured and educated.

Texas. In the early 1800's Texas was a vast area with very little population. When Mexico won its independence from Spain, the new Mexican government invited Americans to come and settle in Texas, on condition that they would become Mexican citizens and obey Mexican laws.

Americans settled in different areas of Texas. By the 1830's there were more than 20,000 Americans in Texas. The newcomers far outnumbered the Mexicans who lived there. The ever-growing American population brought a new culture, new religions and a new language with them.

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[1] Santa Fe [ˈsæntəˈfeɪ] Санта Фе
[2] William Becknell [ˈwɪljəmˈbeknəl] Уильям Бекнел

Many of the newcomers did not want to obey Mexican laws. Mexican laws were strict, detailed and hard to change. In addition, many Americans were slave-owners. Mexico did not allow slavery. Soon there was trouble between the Texans and the Mexican government.

In 1835 the trouble turned into war. Texans in the city of San Antonio[1] forced Mexican soldiers out of the town. General Santa Anna[2], the leader of Mexico, decided to teach the Texans a lesson. With an army of more than 4000 men, he marched north from Mexico City.

Texan leaders understood that they had to fight the Mexicans for their freedom. They wrote a constitution and formed a government. They quickly organized an army and chose **Sam Houston**[3] to lead it. On March 2, 1836, Texas declared its independence from Mexico.

Texas was now an independent country. Sam Houston was elected the first president of the new republic of Texas. Texans called their land the **Lone Star Republic**[4] because their flag had only one star.

Since most Texans were originally from the United States, many wanted Texas to become part of the United States. Finally, in 1845, Texas joined the United States.

War with Mexico. There was a disagreement between the United States and Mexico over the territory in the Southwest and in California. These lands

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[1] San Antonio [ˈsæn ænˈtouniou] Сан Антонио
[2] Santa Anna [ˈsɑːntəˈɑːnə] Санта Анна
[3] Sam Houston [ˈsæmˈhjustən] Сэм Хьюстон
[4] Lone Star Republic Республика одной звезды

were owned by Mexico. The United States tried to buy the lands, but Mexico refused to sell them.

In 1846 President Polk[1] asked Congress to declare war on Mexico. The war lasted until 1848. The Mexicans fought bravely, but in the end the United States won. In 1848 the United States and Mexico signed a treaty ending the war. Mexico sold the Southwest to the United States for 15 million dollars.

QUESTIONS.

1. When did Americans start going to the Southwest? Why did they go there?
2. What kind of town was Santa Fe? What did the Mexicans allow Americans to do in Santa Fe?
3. Who was the fist American trader in Santa Fe? What did he get in exchange for the goods he had brought?
4. How did Santa Fe impress the first Americans who came there?
5. Why did the Mexican government invite Americans to come and settle in Texas? On what condition were Americans invited?
6. What did the ever-growing American population bring to Texas?
7. What were the contradictions of the new American population of Texas and the Mexican government?
8. How did Texas become an independent country? When was its independence proclaimed?
9. Who was elected the president of the Republic of Texas? Why did the Texans call their land the Lone Star Republic?
10. How did Texas become part of the United States?

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[1] Polk [pouk] Полк

11. Why did the United States start a war with Mexico in 1846?
12. What was the result of the 1846–1848 War between Mexico and the United States?

Part 2. Oregon and Utah.

The Oregon Trail. In the late 1830's many businesses were not doing well in the United States. Many people lost their jobs. Some of these people decided to go to Oregon to make a new start.

When Lewis and Clark travelled to the Pacific coast, they went far beyond the boundary of the Louisiana Territory. At that time the Pacific Northwest was known to Americans as the Oregon Territory. Today the states of Washington, Oregon and Idaho occupy this area. Farther to the south lies Utah. In the early 1800's few people had explored this land.

Beginning in 1842, **wagon trains** of settlers travelled from the town of Independence[1] on the bank of the Missouri River to Oregon. The route which they followed was called the Oregon Trail. The trail was more than 3,200 kilometres long. It went through prairies, deserts and mountains.

The trip west took six months. It was a difficult trip, and the pioneers needed courage, determination and the ability to cooperate with each other.

Families travelling to Oregon gathered at the town of Independence in spring. There they waited for others who wanted to go west. Independence was a busy town where merchants sold supplies to the pioneers.

On the prairie outside the town the pioneers waited

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[1] Independence [ˌɪndə'pendəns] Индепенденс
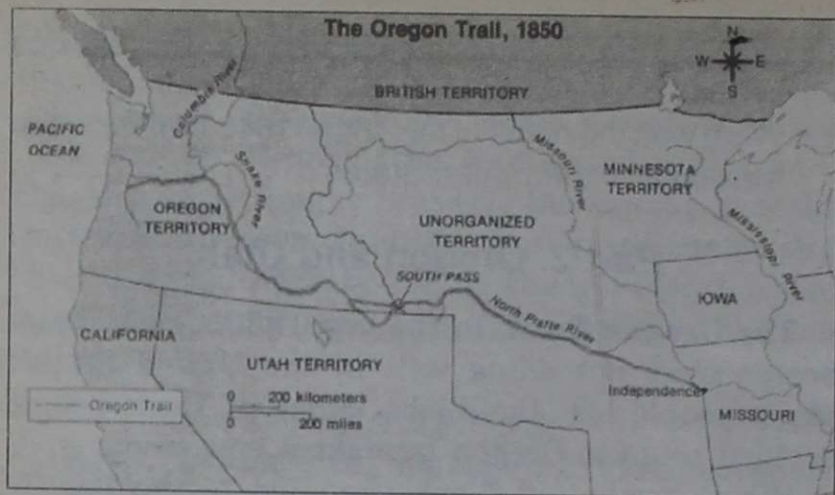
The Oregon Trail

in their wagons and tents. When enough families gathered, they formed a wagon train. The pioneers hired a scout who knew the way. They also elected one person to be the leader of the wagon train. Then they set off.

Every day wagons started moving early in the morning. They stopped only at noon and in the evening. They travelled seven days a week. Travelling this way, a wagon train could cover over 24 to 32 kilometres a day. At night the pioneers put their wagons in a circle for protection: American Indians, who did not want settlers to cross their lands, often attacked the wagon trains.

But in spite of all difficulties and dangers,

A wagon train

more and more wagon trains went along the Oregon Trail. Each year more and more pioneers came and settled in the Far West.

Utah. Utah was settled in 1847 by Mormons[1]. The Mormons were a religious group that was organized in New York. Later they moved to Ohio and then to Illinois. In each place where they lived, the Mormons were treated with hostility by people, who disliked some of the Mormon beliefs.

The Mormon leader, Brigham Young[2], decided that it would be better for the Mormons to go to the west, far away from other Americans. In 1847 Young and a group of Mormons travelled on the Oregon Trail. After going through South Pass[3], they left the Trail and turned to the south-west. Near the valley of the Great Salt Lake[4] Brigham Young stopped, looked around and said: "This is the place."

Brihgam Young

In the years that followed the Mormons turned their settlement into Salt Lake City. In the first year more than 12,000 people went to the Mormon settlement.

The land outside the city was desert. But the Mormons built irrigation ditches and brought fresh water to the land. They grew crops and made every-

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[1] Mormons ['mɔ:mənz] мормоны
[2] Brigham Young ['brɪgəm'jʌŋ] Бригэм Янг
[3] South Pass ['sauθ'pɑ:θ] Южный перевал
[4] the Great Salt Lake [ðə'greɪt'sɔ:lt'leɪk] Большое Соленое озеро

thing they needed with their own hands. They were glad that they had found a place where they could support themselves and practice their religion freely.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why did many people move to the Far West in the late 1830's?
2. What was the Oregon Trail? Where did it start? How long did the trip to Oregon take?
3. How was a wagon train formed?
4. What were some of the dangers faced by pioneers on the Oregon Trail?
5. When was Utah settled? By whom? Who were the Mormons?
6. Who was Brigham Young? In what year did he lead the Mormons on the Oregon Trail?
7. Where did the Mormons leave the Oregon Trail? Where did they turn? Where did they stop?
8. Why was it important for the Mormons to be able to produce all they needed to live in Utah?

Part 3. California.

Group after group of Americans travelled over the mountains to California. By 1846 a few thousand Americans lived there.

The gold rush. A workman, James Marshall[1] by name, was working in the foothills of the Sierra Nevada Mountains. Suddenly he saw something shining on the bottom of a shallow river. It was gold.

Suddenly people in California got "gold fever". In 1848 San Francisco was a town of 800 people. When people heard about the discovery of gold, half

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[1] James Marshall [ˈdʒeɪmz ˈmɑːʃəl] Джемс Маршалл

the population of San Francisco left their homes and went to look for gold.

In the rush for gold, sailors deserted their ships when they arrived in San Francisco. Soon there were empty ships lying at anchor in San Francisco Bay[1]. There are stories about ships where the only thing left on board was the captain's cat!

The gold fever in California

Gold fever soon spread to the East. People left their jobs and homes and started for California. The journey to California took five months by ship. Ships had to go all the way around the tip of South America and then up the Pacific coast to California.

Others tried a short cut[2]. They got off ships in the Central American land of Panama[3] and walked through the jungle to the Pacific Ocean. Many fell ill and died.

Most people came by wagon train. Thousands of wagons moved west across American Indian lands in the spring of 1849. The gold rush brought more than 80,000 people to California. These people were called **forty-niners**, and they all dreamed of making their fortune. They came from all over. Some came

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[1] San Francisco Bay [ˌsænfrənˈsɪskouˈbeɪ] бухта Сан Франциско

[2] tried a short cut пытались добраться коротким путем

[3] Panama [ˌpænəˈmɑː] Панама

from South America and Mexico. More than 25,000 came from China.

Life in California. Miners had a hard life with few comforts. They lived in huts and tents. There was not much law and order in the mining towns. To protect themselves from thieves, most miners slept with their guns beside them.

Some people became rich by selling goods to the miners. One person who made his fortune was a German businessman named Levi Strauss[1]. Strauss bought strong denim canvas[2] and used it to make sturdy overalls[3]. He called them Levis[4]. Today, more than a century later, these blue denim pants are worn all over the world.

The gold rush helped to change California from a frontier area into a state. In 1850 California became the thirty-first state.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why did a lot of people begin coming to California?
2. How did people get to California from the East? How long did the journey take?
3. Who were the forty-niners? Where did they come from?
4. What was life like in the early mining towns?
5. Who was Levi Strauss? How did he make his name famous?

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[1] Levi Strauss ['li:vaɪ'straus] Ливай (Леви) Штраус
[2] strong denim canvas ['strɔŋ'denɪm'kænvəs] грубый хлопчатобумажный холст
[3] overalls ['ouvərɔːlz] рабочие брюки, комбинезоны
[4] Levis ['li:vaɪz] ливайсы

CHAPTER 10
NEW WAYS IN THE NEW NATION

Part 1. Democracy Grows

The United States was a growing nation in the first half of the 19th century. It seemed that all the people were moving. Many moved to the West. Newcomers came from Europe and Asia to settle the land.

The spirit of democracy grew with the growing of the country. In a democracy all adult citizens have the right to vote in elections.

In colonial times and during the first years of the nation, only white men who owned property were allowed to vote. All women, blacks, American Indians and poor white men could not vote.

The opening of the frontier for settlement brought a new spirit to the United States. On the frontier people's abilities mattered more than how much money they had or how much property they owned. Each new state that came into the Union after 1800 gave the right to vote to all white men, rich and poor. Gradually the older states in the East changed their laws and also gave all white men the right to vote. By the 1850's all the eastern states had done this. However, women, blacks and American Indians still could not vote.

The Age of the Common Man. In 1828 Americans chose **Andrew Jackson**[1] of Tennessee to be the seventh President of the United States. Jackson was the first President who came from the West. Until

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[1] Andrew Jackson [ˈændruː ˈdʒæksn] Эндрю Джексон

then all United States Presidents had come from either Virginia or Massachusetts.

Jackson was born in a log cabin and grew up on the North Carolina frontier. He became a famous soldier.

After his election, Jackson invited everyone who had voted for him to come to Washington D. C. for his inauguration. These people were common men, people from the frontier, who were good, clever and just, but did not have nice manners. At the inauguration these rough frontiersmen stood on the furniture of the White House to get a better view of their hero. People in Washington were shocked by the frontiersmen's manners, as well as by their clothes.

To these people from the frontier Jackson's election was very important. Like them, he had lived on the western frontier. Like them, he judged people by their abilities, not by their money. By becoming President, Jackson proved that a common man could play an important part in governing the country. For these reasons the period of Jackson's presidency was called the Age of the Common Man.

Rights for women. American women had almost no rights at the time of Jackson's presidency. No woman could vote. In most states married women could not sell the property which they owned or keep the wages which they earned. And it was not considered good for a married woman to have a job.

Elizabeth Stanton[1] and **Lucretia Mott**[2] were two women who dedicated their lives to working for

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[1] Elizabeth Stanton [ɪˈlɪzəbəθ ˈstæntn] Элизабет Стэнтон
[2] Lucretia Mott [luːˈkriːʃjəˈmɔt] Лукреция Мотт

women's rights. For years they made speeches and wrote articles to attract supporters. Finally they organized a conference to discuss women's rights. On July 19, 1848, more than 300 people met in Seneca Falls[1], New York. Most of the people who came were women, but 40 men were also present.

Elizabeth Stanton

They adopted a list of women's rights. These rights included the right to vote, to own property and to go to school — all rights that men enjoyed.

Slowly women gained more and more rights. In some states married women won the right to own property. More women began working

Lucretia Mott

as teachers. A teacher from Massachusetts named **Mary Lyon**[2] opened Mount Holyoke College[3] in 1837. It was the first college for women. Lyon believed that women should have the same opportunities to

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[1] Seneca Falls [ˈsenɪkəˈfɔːlz] Сенека Фолс
[2] Mary Lyon [ˈmɛərɪˈlaɪən] Мэри Лайон
[3] Mount Holyoke College [ˈmauntˈhoulɪokˈkɔlɪdʒ] Маунт-Холиокский колледж

Mary Lyon

learn that men had. Gradually other colleges for women were opened. Some men's colleges began accepting women students. Some women began to do jobs that only men had done before. In 1849 Elizabeth Blackwell[1] became the first woman who graduated from medical school.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who had the right to vote in colonial times and during the first years of the nation? Who was deprived of this right?
2. What was the new spirit brought to the United States by the opening of the frontier for settlement?
3. Who was elected President in 1828? What made this President different from all the Presidents who had occupied this post before him?
4. Why was the period of Jackson's presidency called the Age of the Common Man?
5. What rights were denied to women in the early 1800's?
6. Why were Elizabeth Stanton and Lucretia Mott important? What did they do?
7. What are the names of Mary Lyon and Elizabeth Blackwell noted for?
8. What jobs are women doing today that used to be done only by men?

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[1] Elizabeth Blackwell [ɪ'lɪzəbəθ'blækwəl] Элизабет Блекуэлл

Part 2. New Transportation.

The United States was a large country, and travelling about it was difficult and took a lot of time. It took days for eastern farmers to get to city markets. It took weeks to cross the Appalachians. A trip to the Rocky Mountains could take six months or more. The country needed better transportation and communication.

Robert Fulton[1]. An American artist and inventor, Robert Fulton, visited Great Britain and learned about a new invention called the steam engine. Fulton thought of putting a steam engine on a boat.

In 1807 Fulton built a steamboat. He called it *the Clermont*[2]. On August 17, 1807, *the Clermont* started from New York up the Hudson River toward the town of Albany[3], 240 kilometres away. About 30 hours later *the Clermont* arrived in Albany. Fulton's steamboat was a success. Soon steamboats travelled on many rivers and lakes in the United States.
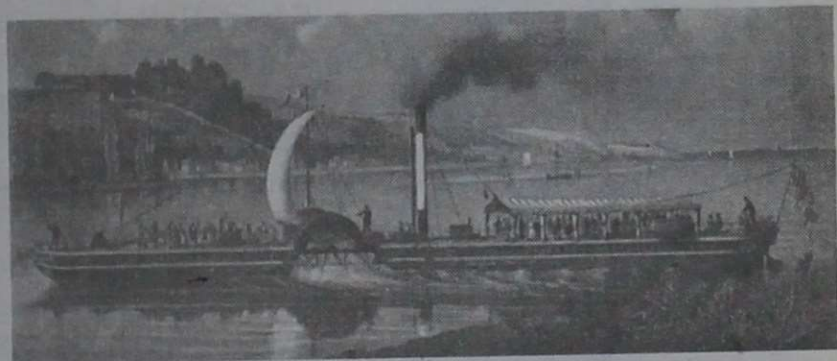
The Clermont

[1] Robert Fulton ['rɔbət'fultən] Роберт Фултон
[2] *the Clermont* [ðə'klɛəmənt] Клермонт
[3] Albany ['ɔːlbənɪ] Олбэни
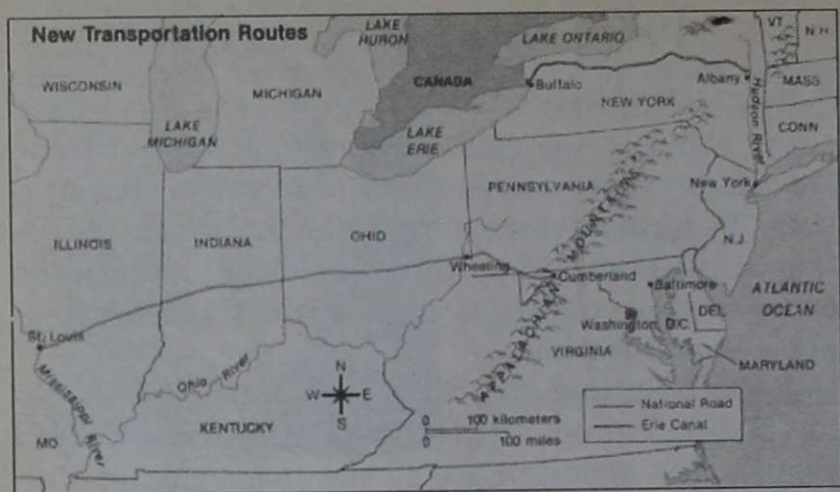
New transportation routes

The National Road. The National Road was an important improvement in transportation. It made travelling between the East and the West easier. The road went from Cumberland[1] in the state of Maryland to Wheeling[2], in what later became West Virginia. Later the road wan lengthened to St. Louis on the Mississippi River. Before the road was built, it took several weeks to get from Baltimore to Wheeling. By using the National Road, travellers could make the same trip in a few days.

Most of the roads built at that time were unpaved. When it rained, they became rivers of mud. In summer the horses raised clouds of dust.

Canals. The construction of canals also improved transportation. In 1817 people began constructing a canal connecting Albany on the Hudson River to Buffalo[3] on Lake Erie. The 580-kilometre Erie Canal was completed in 1825. Boats were pulled by

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[1] Cumberland ['kʌmbələnd] Камберлэнд
[2] Wheeling ['wiːlɪŋ] Уилинг
[3] Buffalo ['bʌfəlou] Буффало

mules walking on a path alongside the canal. Even though the boats went only 3–4 kilometres an hour, canal transportation was still faster and cheaper than carrying goods over the mountains.

The Erie Canal was a great success. The canal opened up trade between New York and the West. It was now possible to go from the Atlantic coast to the Great Lakes area by water. Buffalo became a centre of western trade. New York City became the transportation centre of the country.

Railroads. There were some railroads in the country, but they were not yet the most popular way of transporting people and goods. The first train engines were frightening. Noisy and smoky, they terrified horses and scared cows so much that they stopped giving milk.

These iron horses, as they were called, travelled at the unheard-of speed of 25 to 32 kilometres an hour! They moved people and goods much faster than steamboats or canalboats. But the first trains of the 1830's were not very comfortable. Passengers travelled in open carriages, and the engine sparks and soot fell on them.

Communication was also improved during the first half of the 19th cen-
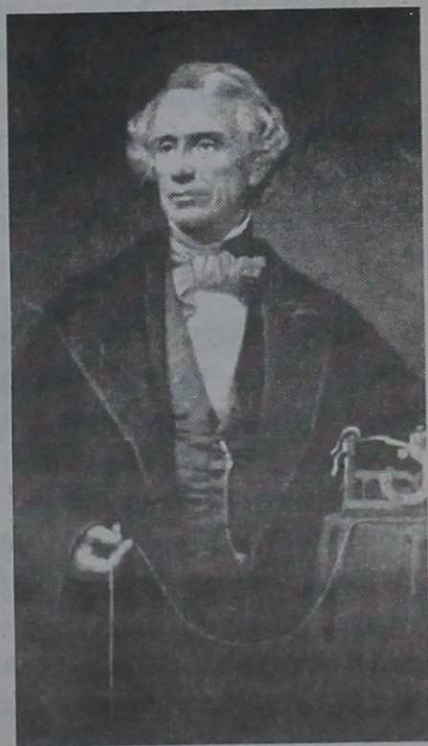
Samuel Morse

tury. A man named **Samuel Morse**[1] introduced telegraph. He invented a code, in which each letter of the alphabet is a series of dots and dashes.

QUESTIONS.

1. What were the transportation problems in the United States at the beginning of the 19th century?
2. Who used steam to improve American transportation? How did he use it?
3. Why was the National Road important? What points did it connect?
4. Why did people prefer to travel long distances by boat rather than by road?
5. When was the Erie Canal constructed? What points did it connect? Why was the Erie Canal so important?
6. What were the first railways like? Why were they not very popular?
7. Who invented telegraph? What was the purpose of the telegraph?

Part 3. The Nation's Sections.

In the early 19th century different sections of the country were growing and changing in different ways. Each section had a different style of life. In the North people began moving to the cities and working in new industries. In the South people grew cotton on vast plantations, using slave labour. In the West most people were busy farming and settling the frontier.

The North, the South and the West were developing in different ways. It was becoming more dif-

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[1] Samuel Morze ['sæmjuəl'mɔːs] Сэмюэль Морзе

ficult for Congress to make laws that pleased all Americans at the same time. The interests of the three sections were not always the same.

QUESTIONS.

1. How did each section of the country develop in the early 19th century?
2. Why was it becoming more difficult for Congress to make laws?

UNIT REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

frontier, section, trade, expedition, unpaved, invention, democracy, dedicated, steep, wilderness.

1. For Daniel Boone, the land over the Appalachian Mountains was the new _____ .
2. Lewis and Clark's _____ proved that Americans could travel to the West by land.
3. In the middle of the 18th century much of the land west of the Appalachian Mountains was a rich _____
   .
4. A _____ is a country in which all adult citizens may vote in elections to choose their leaders.
5. The Wilderness Road was _____ and narrow.
6. Each _____ of the country had a different style of life.
7. The Erie Canal opened up _____ between New York and the West.
8. Most of the roads built at that time were _____ .
9. Fulton learned about a new _____ called the steam engine.
10. Elizabeth Stanton and Lucretia Mott _____ their lives to working for women's rights.

II. Write detailed answers to the following questions:

1. Who were Lewis and Clark? What did they do?
2. Why did California become settled so quickly?
3. What changes in transportation made it easier for people to travel in the United States?

III. Who were these people? What did they do? Write in short about each of them.

Daniel Boone

Robert Fulton

Levi Strauss

Sequoya

Sam Houston

Elizabeth Stanton and Lucretia Mott

Brigham Young

Lewis and Clark

Samuel Morse

Mary Lyon

UNIT FIVE
THE NATION IS DIVIDED

In the middle of the 19th century the country's future seemed bright, except for one large problem.

Southerners wanted slavery to be allowed in the new western lands. Northerners were against allowing slavery there. Many people hoped that a peaceful solution could be found to the differences between the North and the South. But in the end, the differences led to war.

These were sad years when the people of the United States faced each other on the battlefield.

CHAPTER 11
SLAVERY DIVIDES THE NATION

Part 1. The Slave System

The democracy that was spreading in the first half of the 1800's was not shared by black Americans. Most blacks were slaves. Under the system of slavery, people were bought and sold as if they were objects, not human beings.

By the early 1800's slavery had been outlawed[1] in most Northern states. In the South, however, where vast cotton plantations were very important to the economy, the slave system was still strong.

Africa and the slave trade. Most of the blacks brought to the United States came from West Africa. Europeans first travelled to Africa at the time

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[1] had been outlawed ['autlɔːd] было объявлено вне закона

Slave auction

of Columbus. By the early 1600's some Europeans made business by bringing Africans to the New World and selling them as slaves.

The voyage from Africa to the New World was terrible for the captured Africans. They were chained together and put into ships. Many died during the ocean crossing. About 10 million Africans were brought to the New World as slaves.

When the slaves arrived in the United States, they were sold at public auctions. Very often families were divided up to be sold to different owners. Little children were sometimes taken from their mothers.

Slaves belonged to their owners. They had no rights under the law. According to the laws, slaves could not meet together in public. They could not travel without permission. It was also illegal to teach a slave how to read or write. Slaves who disobeyed their owners could be beaten.

In 1808 Congress outlawed the slave trade with Africa. But the system of slavery continued for nearly sixty years after this.

Slave life. On small farms slaves and slave own-

Slave labour on the plantations

ers often worked together in the fields. But on large plantations most slaves seldom saw their owners. Most of the slaves were field slaves. They worked from early morning till late at night, and sometimes at night, too. They were watched by a boss who was called an overseer. A small group of slaves, called house slaves, looked after the owner's house and family. They prepared meals, cleaned the house and took care of the owner's children.

QUESTIONS.

1. What was the position of black Americans in the first half of the 19th century? Why didn't the southern states want to abolish slavery?
2. How did black slaves appear in America?
3. Describe what it was like to be a slave on a large plantation in the South.
4. Why do you think it was illegal to teach slaves to read and write?

Part 2. Fighting Slavery.

By 1830 all the Northern states had outlawed slavery. In the South, however, the rich planters needed much slave labour on their huge plantations, so the Southern states remained slave states.

The Abolitionists. More and more people in America were beginning to understand that slavery was shameful, that there should be no place for slavery in a democratic society. There appeared people who demanded to abolish slavery. These people were called abolitionists. They held meetings and made speeches. They wrote articles about the evils of slavery. Some of these people helped slaves to escape from the South.

Harriet Beecher Stowe

Harriet Beecher Stowe[1]. With time, the abolitionist movement grew stronger. It gained many supporters in 1851, after a New England woman named Harriet Beecher Stowe wrote **"Uncle Tom's Cabin**[2]**"**, a story about slavery. In the story, an old slave named Uncle Tom is killed by a cruel overseer

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[1] Harriet Beecher Stowe [ˈhærɪətˈbiːtʃəˈstou] Гарриет Бичер Стоу

[2] "Uncle Tom's Cabin" [ˈʌŋklˈtɔmzˈkæbɪn] "Хижина дяди Тома"

named Simon Legree[1]. All over the country people discussed "Uncle Tom's Cabin". The book convinced many people that slavery was an evil that had to end. Years later, when war broke out between the North and the South, President Abraham Lincoln[2] called Harriet Beecher Stowe "the little woman who started this great war".

The Underground Railroad. There was a secret route to help slaves to escape from the South to freedom in the North and Canada. This secret route was called the "Underground Railroad". Despite its name, it did not use trains and did not follow an underground route.

Blacks and whites worked on the Underground Railroad. The escape route went beyond the borders

The Underground Railroad

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[1] Simon Legree [ˈsaɪmən ləˈgriː] Саймон Легри
[2] Abraham Lincoln [ˈeɪbrəhæm ˈlɪŋkən] Авраам Линкольн

of the United States into Canada. People who knew the way guided slaves along a footpath. They travelled at night to avoid being seen. In the daytime the slaves were hidden in the homes of supporters. These homes were called "stations", and the people who led the slaves out of the South were called "conductors".

The most famous conductor on the Underground Railroad was an escaped slave, a woman whose name was **Harriet Tubman**[1]. She was born on a Maryland plantation in about 1821.

Harriet Tubman escaped in 1849. For 15 years she worked as a conductor and led over 300 slaves to freedom. She risked her life many times travelling back into the South to rescue other slaves. Slave owners offered a reward of 40,000 dollars for her capture, dead or alive. But no one could catch her.

Harriet Tubman

Slave revolts. Sometimes blacks fought back violently against slavery. The most famous revolt was led by a slave preacher named Nat Turner[2]. On August 22, 1831, Turner and his followers began attacking whites. Turner and the other slaves

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[1] Harriet Tubman [ˈhærɪəтˈtʌbmən] Гарриет Табмэн
[2] Nat Turner [ˈnætˈtɔːnə] Нэт Тернер

138

were soon captured and put to death. Many innocent slaves were also killed or sent away to work on distant farms because slave owners were afraid that more revolts would take place. By the end of the rebellion a few days later, more than 150 people, black and white, had died.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who were the abolitionists?
2. How did "Uncle Tom's Cabin" help the abolitionist movement to gain more supporters? What did President Lincoln call Harriet Beecher Stowe?
3. What was the Underground Railroad?
4. Who was Harriet Tubman? Why is her name remembered?
5. Who was the most famous slave revolt led by? When did it take place?

CHAPTER 12
THE CIVIL WAR

Part 1. The Road to War.

The election of 1860. The election of 1860 showed clearly that the United States was a divided country.

Abraham Lincoln was the candidate of the Republican Party. He was a very popular man. He was a lawyer by education and had attracted the attention of Americans by his bright speeches against slavery. He believed that slavery was wrong. The Northern states were on the side of Lincoln. They wanted him to be elected President. The Southern states were against him. Lincoln won the national election and became President.
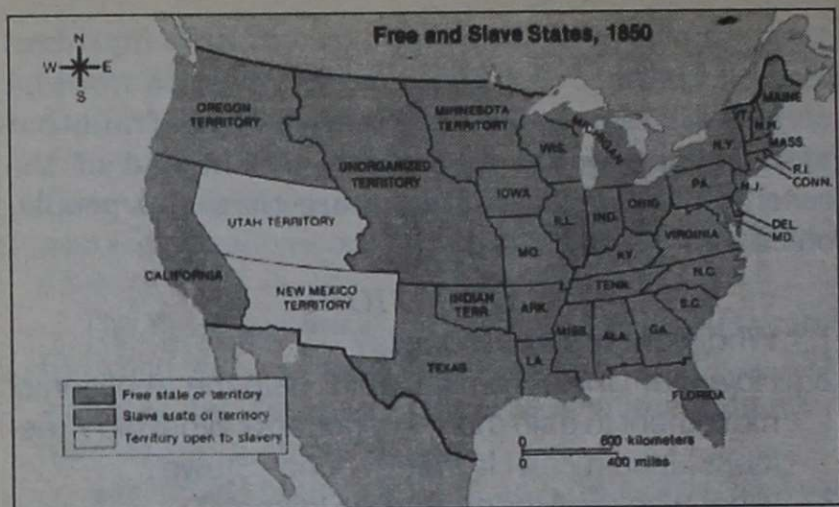
Free and slave states

The result of Lincoln's becoming President was the splitting of the nation into two parts.

South Carolina was the first to act. On December 20, 1860, South Carolina voted to withdraw, or secede, from the United States. By February 1, 1861, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas had also voted to secede.

Confederate States of America[1]. The seceding states decided to form their own nation. On February 4, 1861, the Southern states formed the Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis[2] became President.

At his inauguration in March 1861, however, Lincoln did not agree to the division of the United States. He said that it was his constitutional duty as President to keep the nation united.

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[1] The Confederate States of America [ðə kən'fedərit'steits əv ə'merikə] Конфедерация штатов Америки

[2] Jefferson Davis ['dʒefəsn'deivis] Джефферсон Дэвис
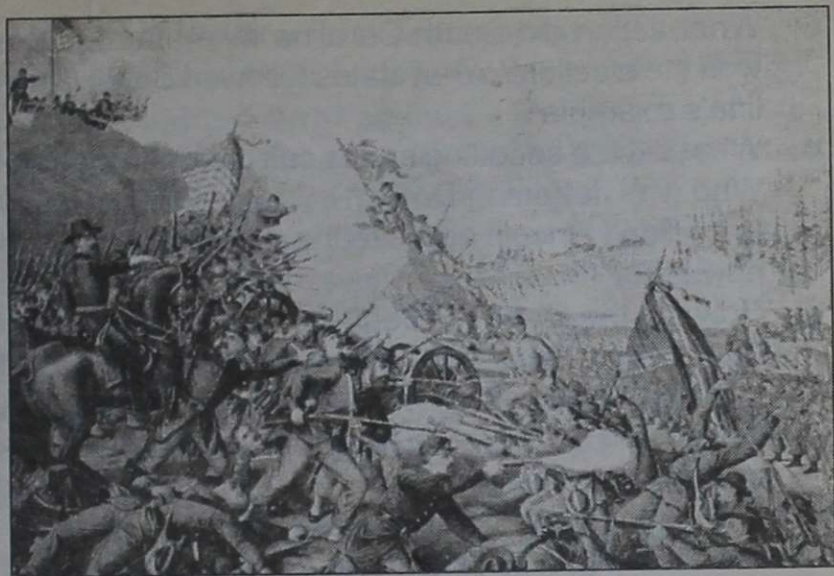
Fort Sumter. The begining of the Civil War

Lincoln did not want a war. But soon he saw that there was no choice. The Confederacy[1] occupied several federal forts in the Southern states. Fort Sumter[2] in the harbour of Charleston, South Carolina, was still held by Union (Northern) troops. But on April 12, 1861, Confederate troops opened fire on Fort Sumter. The Union troops had to surrender the fort. It was the beginning of a civil war — a war between people of the same nation.

Between April and June, Arkansas, Tennessee, North Carolina and Virginia joined the Confederacy. Now it consisted of eleven Confederate states.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who was Abraham Lincoln?
2. What did the presidential election of 1860 show?

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[1] The Confederacy [ðə kən'fedərəsı] Конфедерация
[2] Fort Sumter ['fɔːt'sʌmtə] Форт Самтер

3. What action did South Carolina take after Lincoln won the election? What states followed South Carolina's example?
4. What did the seceding states call their new nation? Who was Jefferson Davis?
5. Why didn't Lincoln agree to the division of the United States?
6. How did the Civil War begin?
7. Who would have been more likely to approve of the South's seceding from the Union: a Northern cotton mill owner or a Northern abolitionist? Explain your answer.

Part 2. The War Years.

North against South. Both sides had certain advantages that they thought would help them to win the war. The North had more soldiers, more supplies and better transportation. The South had better generals and was fighting on home ground.

Robert E. Lee

Robert E. Lee[1], probably the greatest soldier of the Civil War, commanded the Southern armies. Lee was from Virginia. He had spent most of his life in the army. At the beginning of the Civil War President Lincoln asked Lee

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[1] Robert E. Lee ['rɔbət'i:'li:] Роберт Ли

142

to command the Union troops. Lee loved the United States and he did not believe in slavery. But he felt that he could not fight against his neighbours from Virginia. So he resigned from the United States Army and led the Confederate troops.

Other advantages also helped to give the South early victories. White southerners were fighting to preserve their way of life. For them the Civil War was a second war for independence. They believed that they had a right to secede from the Union, just as the colonists had a right to break away from Great Britain.

Another advantage, at least at the beginning, was that the war was fought in the South. Since they were fighting on home ground, the Southern soldiers knew the land better that the northern troops. Also, southerners did not have to ship supplies for long distances, as did the North.

But soon the North's advantages began to have an effect. Goods and troops could be moved more quickly along many railroads which the North had. There were nearly 23 million people in the North against about 9 million people in the South. So the North had more people to fight. Northern factories could supply uniforms, guns, bullets and other important things for the army. The South had few factories. And as the war continued, the South had more and more trouble supplying its army.

Life at home. Many people took part in the war besides soldiers. Thousands of people who were not in the army worked to supply uniforms, guns, bullets, bandages and food. In both the North and the South, groups of women formed women's aid societies. These groups made uniforms, flags and ban-

dages. They sent food to the soldiers. They collected money to buy other supplies.

Many women carried out the difficult work of nursing. The most famous of these women was **Clara Barton**[1]. She collected supplies and organized nursing services for the sick and wounded. She used her own home to store the supplies. Then she delivered them by mule directly to the soldiers on the battlefield. After the war Clara Barton founded the American Red Cross[2].

Clara Barton

Gettysburg[3]. The battle of Gettysburg was the decisive battle of the Civil War.

In 1863 Confederate leaders thought that Union forces would surrender if the South won a battle in the North. They knew that Lincoln could not find a general who could defeat Robert E. Lee. The South believed that it was its chance for victory.

In June 1863 Lee marched into Pennsylvania. The Union army met Lee's forces at Gettysburg on July 1. For two days the armies battled. Then, on July 3,

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[1] Clara Barton ['klɛərə'bɑːtn] Клара Бартон
[2] the American Red Cross Американский Красный крест
[3] Gettysburg ['getɪzbɔːg] Геттисберг

The battle at Gettysburg

Lee sent a large unit under General George Pickett[1] to attack the main Union position. It was on a hill called Cemetery Ridge[2].

The Confederates bravely fought their way to the top of the ridge. But the Union forces held their ground. After a few minutes the Confederates were forced to retreat.

Pickett's attack was the turning point of the war. It was the beginning of the end for the southerners.

On November 19, 1863, President Lincoln went to Gettysburg to dedicate a cemetery[3] for the fallen soldiers. He made a short speech. The simple words of his Gettysburg Address[4], as the speech was called,

[1] George Pickett ['dʒɔ:dʒ 'pɪkɪt] Джордж Пикетт
[2] Cemetery Ridge ['semɪtrɪ ˌrɪdʒ] Кладбищенский холм
[3] to dedicate a cemetery принять участие в церемонии освящения кладбища
[4] Gettysburg Address ['getɪzbə:g ə'dres] Геттисбергское обращение

145

Lincoln's Gettysburg Address

Ulysses S. Grant

are still remembered. Lincoln said that "this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom" and that "government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth".

The South is defeated. In 1864 Lincoln finally found a general who could lead the Union armies to victory. It was Ulysses S. Grant[1]. Grant had won an important battle at Vicksburg[2], Mississippi, in 1863. With that victory, the entire Mississippi Valley came under Union control.

During one year Grant and Lee fought series of battles. Neither side[3] won a great victory, but Grant had an advantage, because Lee did not have enough troops and supplies.

In the summer of

[1] Ulysses S. Grant [juː'lɪsiːz'es'grɑːnt] Улисс Грант
[2] Vicksburg ['vɪksbɔːg] Виксберг
[3] Neither side Ни одна из сторон

146

Lee's surrender to Grant at Appomattox

1864 a Union general, **William T. Sherman**[1], captured Atlanta[2], Georgia. In November 1864 Sherman began a march through Georgia, from Atlanta to Savannah[3] on the eastern coast. As Sherman's troops marched, they destroyed plantations, towns and farms. Sherman wanted to destroy anything that could help the South. For years afterwards, southerners spoke bitterly about Sherman's march to the sea. In January 1865 Sherman began a march through South and North Carolina. He destroyed farms and towns in those states as well.

Meanwhile, in Virginia, on April 5, 1865, Grant

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[1] William T. Sherman ['wɪljəm 'tiː 'ʃɔːmən] Уильям Шерман
[2] Atlanta [ət'læntə] Атланта
[3] Savannah [sə'vænə] Саванна

captured Richmond[1]. By April 7 the Confederate forces that had tried to retreat farther south were surrounded. At last, on April 9, Lee surrendered in a farmhouse near **Appomattox**[2]. With Lee's surrender, the war was over.

The final shot. On the evening of April 14, 1865, President Lincoln and his wife went to see a play at Ford's Theatre in Washington, D.C. During the play, John Wilkes Booth[3], an actor and a southerner, shot the President. Lincoln died the next morning.

QUESTIONS.

1. What advantages did the South have in the war? What were the North's advantages?

The assassination of President Lincoln

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[1] Richmond ['ritʃmənd] Ричмонд
[2] Appomattox [ˌæpəˈmætəks] Апоматокс
[3] John Wilkes Booth ['dʒɔnˈwɪlksˈbuːð] Джон Уилкс Бутс

2. Who was Robert E. Lee? Why did he reject President Lincoln's request to command the Union troops?
3. How did women help in the war?
4. Who was Clara Barton? How did she help the army? What organization did Clara Barton found after the war?
5. Why was the battle of Gettysburg important? Who won it?
6. What did President Lincoln say in his Gettysburg Address?
7. Who commanded the Union troops in the last period of the Civil War?
8. Why did southerners speak bitterly about Sherman's march? Why did he do it?
9. When and how was President Lincoln assassinated?

CHAPTER 15
RECONSTRUCTION

Part 1. The South after War.

President Lincoln had planned for a period of reconstruction after the war. He had thought it necessary to choose new leaders for the South and to restore good relations between the North and the South. Lincoln had hoped that the Reconstruction would go quickly. But after Lincoln's death Americans quarrelled over how to carry out the Reconstruction.

Much of the South vas in ruins. The fields that had been planted in cotton were overgrown with weeds. The economy was destroyed.

More than 250,000 southerners had died in the fighting. Many people were homeless. Freed slaves had no place to live and no way to make a living. Confederate soldiers were allowed to go home. But often their homes had been destroyed. Returning soldiers found few jobs in the ruined economy.

QUESTIONS.

1. What did President Lincoln think it necessary to do after the war?
2. Why didn't the Reconstruction go quickly?
3. What were conditions in the South like after the Civil War ended?

Part 2. A New Way of Life.

Sharecropping. Southern landowners, who had lost their slaves, found a new way of making money from their land. The landowners allowed farmers to live and work on their plantations. The landowners

Sharecropping

The Freedmen's Bureau school

also gave the farmers seeds, work animals and farm tools. In exchange, the farmers gave the landowners a large share of the crops grown on the land. This system was called sharecropping: a system of farming in which farmers rented land from landowners and paid their rent with a share of the crops which they grew.

During the growing season sharecroppers bought food and supplies on credit. Then after harvesting, they paid their bills using their share of the crops. Very often their share of the crops was not enough to pay all their debts. So from one year to the next, sharecroppers were almost always in debt. Sometimes they could not buy enough food and clothing for their families.

Many of the newly freed blacks became share-croppers. For them the Civil War had brought freedom from slavery, but their life was still filled with days of hard work and hunger.

The Freedmen's Bureau. In 1865 Congress set up an organization called the Freedmen's Bureau to help the freed slaves. The Bureau provided food, schooling and hospital care to blacks in the South. By 1870 there were several hundred thousand blacks in school. The Freedmen's Bureau also supported colleges for blacks.

The Ku Klux Klan[1]. The Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution gave black men the right to vote.

The Ku Klux Klan

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[1] The Ku Klux Klan [ðɔˈkjuːklʌksˈklæn] Ку Клукс Клан

However, there were many people who did not like it. Some white southerners were totally against the Reconstruction. They formed a secret organization called the Ku Klux Klan. The Klan believed that black people should not be given the same rights as white people. Klan members rode around in white ghostlike costumes with hoods which hid their faces. They frightened blacks and sometimes harmed them. Their aim was not to let blacks use their rights as citizens.

QUESTIONS.

1. What was sharecropping? How did it work?
2. What did the Freedmen's Bureau do to help blacks?
3. What was the Ku Klux Klan?

Part 3. The New South.

The Reconstruction lasted from 1865 till 1877. During the Reconstruction years the South began to change and soon people talked about a "new" South. But the problem of bad relations between blacks and whites remained for years.

Jim Crow[1] **Laws.** In the years after the Reconstruction ended the governments in many southern states passed laws against blacks. These laws were passed to keep blacks from taking part in southern society life. Some white people in the South had used the name "Jim Crow" as a nickname for black people. These new laws were called Jim Crow Laws. The purpose of the Jim Crow Laws was to separate blacks from whites. This separation of people on the basis of race is called segregation.

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[1] Jim Crow ['dʒım'krou] Джим Кроу

Under the Jim Crow Laws blacks had to ride in separate railway carriages, go to different schools and even drink at separate water fountains.

New black leaders. Life under the Jim Crow Laws was very hard for southern blacks. During this time two black leaders, each with different ideas, spoke out on the problem of segregation.

Booker T. Washington[1] was a teacher and a writer who had been born a slave. In 1881 he started a school for blacks in Alabama. At his school students studied farming, shoemaking or carpentry. Washington thought that the students could use these skills to earn a living. Washington believed that if blacks educated themselves and learned skills, whites would finally regard them as equals. He believed that in this way segregation would gradually end.

W. Du Bois[2], a black author and editor, had very different views on how to end segregation. Du Bois thought that segregation laws must be changed immediately. In 1909 Du Bois took part in starting the National Association for the Advancement of Coloured People[3], called NAACP for short. The NAACP still exists. With the help of the NAACP some Jim Crow laws were declared illegal.

QUESTIONS.

1. How was the new South different from the South before the Civil War? What problems remained?
2. What is segregation? What were the Jim Crow

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[1] Booker T. Washington [ˈbukəˈtiːˈwɔʃɪŋtən] Букер Вашингтон
[2] W. Du Bois [ˈdʌblju: djuˈbɔɪz] У. Дю Бойс
[3] National Association for the Advancement of Coloured People Национальная ассоциация содействия прогрессу цветного населения

Laws? Why were they called so?

3. What were the ideas of Booker T. Washington and W. Du Bois on how to end segregation?

UNIT REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

secede, surrendered, sharecropping, segregation, abolitionist, destroyed, amendment, restore, overseer, provided.

1. A person who wanted to put an end to slavery was called an _____ .

2. Field slaves were watched by a boss called an _____ .

3. After the election of Abraham Lincoln in 1860, Southern states voted to _____ from the United States.

4. The separation of people on the basis of race is called _____ .

5. _____ was a system of farming that developed in the South after the Civil War.

6. The Freedmen's Bureau _____ schooling and hospital care to blacks.

7. The Fifteenth _____ to the Constitution gave the blacks the right to vote.

8. After the war it was necessary to _____ good relations between the North and the South.

9. Sherman's troops _____ towns, farms and plantations in the South.

10. On April 9, 1865, General Lee _____ , and the war was over.

II. Write detailed answers to the following questions.

1. What was the Underground Railroad? How did it work?

155

2. Why did Southern states secede from the United States?

3. What advantages did the South have during the Civil War? What were the advantages of the North?

III. Who were these people? What did they do? Write in short about each of them.

Harriet Beecher Stowe   Abraham Lincoln

Ulysses Grant   Harriet Tubman

Robert Lee   William Sherman

Nat Turner   Clara Barton

UNIT SIX
GROWTH AND CHANGE

On July 4, 1876, the United States was 100 years old. All over the United States people celebrated.

From the eastern hills to the western mines the workers were a part of the celebration. Their work in industries was helping to build the growing nation.

Western farmers and cowboys felt proud of their country, too. Their hard work was helping to feed the growing nation.

Millions of newcomers — immigrants — also marked the great day. They had come to this land of opportunity and hoped for a good and happy life.

CHAPTER 14
CHANGES ON THE FRONTIER

Part 1. Settling the West

For many years the Plains Indians had called the grasslands of the West their home. They lived in this vast region powerful and free.

After the Civil War many people from the East moved to the frontier to settle on the lands of the Plains Indians. They changed the West and the way the Indians lived.

The Louisiana Territory became part of the United States in 1805. But for a very long time few people from the East settled there. To them the plains seemed a difficult and dangerous place to live in.

157

American Indians and buffalo herds wandered across the land. There were few trees for building houses, barns and fences. The summers were very hot and the winters very cold.

The Homestead Act. In 1862 Congress decided to give away[1] some land in the plains. Congress passed a law called the Homestead Act.

Under the Homestead Act, any citizen 21 years or older could become the owner of 64 hectares of government land by living on it and farming it for five years.

Many people liked the idea and went west to settle on this free land. These people were called homesteaders. Thousands of them came to Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado and Dakota. They were former soldiers, former slaves and immigrants to the United States. They all wanted to get land of their own.
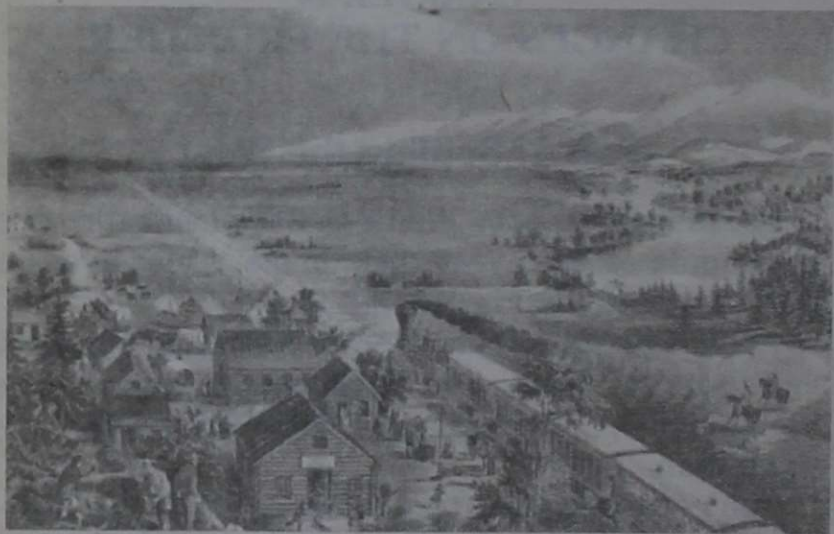
The transcontinental railroad

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[1] to give away отдать

Fast travel and good land. In the 1860's many railroads were built in the United States. The railroads reached farther and farther west. In 1862 Congress commissioned[1] two railway companies to build a transcontinental railroad, which would connect the Atlantic and the Pacific coasts. The transcontinental railroad was completed in 1869.

The government had given the railway companies millions of hectares of land along the railway tracks. Now the companies decided to sell this land to settlers.

Railroad land was near markets and transportation, so it was better than homestead land. Railroad advertisements convinced many Americans to move to the west.

Agents from the railway companies went to Europe to find people who would like to buy the land. Many people from Scandinavia, Germany and Great

Newcomers going to their new homes in the West

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[1] commissioned [kə´mɪʃnd] поручил

Britain bought the cheap railroad land. They settled in Minnesota, Wisconsin and Dakota. By 1880, 70 percent of the people living in these areas were immigrants to the United States or the children of immigrants.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why did few people from the East settle in Louisiana Territory in the first half of the 19th century?
2. When did Congress pass the Homestead Act?
3. What were the terms of the Homestead Act?
4. Who were the homesteaders? Where did they come from?
5. Why do you think people were ready to leave the places where they used to live and become homesteaders?
6. When was the transcontinental railroad completed?
7. In what way did the railroads help to settle the West?
8. What made railroad land better than homestead land?
9. Did only Americans buy railroad land?

Part 2. Ranching and Mining.

The land of the West was used not only for farms. The wide open plains provided plenty of grass for large herds of cattle. And with every new discovery of gold and silver, more people rushed west, hoping to make their fortunes from this new rich land.

Cattle breeding. Many people went to Texas and bred cattle there. Their small one-floor houses with flat roofs were called ranches, and they themselves — ranchers. There was a lot of land grown with good long grass, where cattle grazed. Cowboys — men

with stetson hats[1] on their heads and long lassos in their hands rode around on horseback, looking after the cattle.

Life was hard for these cowboys. They lived out in the open for months at a time. They slept on the ground and ate poor food, working in rain and in sunshine.

One of the cowboys' most difficult jobs was the **cattle drive** — getting the cattle to market. To get the cattle to market in Chicago[2], they had to drive from Texas to

A cowboy

Crossing a stream during a cattle drive

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[1] stetson hats ковбойские широкополые шляпы
[2] Chicago [ʃɪˈkɑːgou] Чикаго

6

Abilene[1] in Kansas. From there the cattle was taken by train to Chicago. In order to reach the railroad in Abilene, cowboys drove the cattle north. They could usually expect some kind of trouble during these long cattle drives. Often cattle thieves tried to steal the cattle. Sometimes the cattle got frightened and ran wildly for kilometres. Also, cattle could easily drown while crossing rivers.

Silver dollars. Other people went to the West to look for gold, silver and copper. In 1849 the gold rush began in California. In 1859 a silver rush started in Nevada. Further discoveries of gold, silver and copper continued to attract people to the West until the end of the 19th century.

Nevada, Colorado and Montana were rich in silver. With a little luck, a miner could find 25 dollarworth of silver in a river each day. With a lot of luck, a miner could become a millionaire.

It was easy to find silver in the streams. Miners scooped up gravel from the bottom of the stream and picked out the pieces of silver. More silver lay far below the ground. Deep mines had to be dug in order to get it. Large mills were built to process[2] the silver. The silver mines and mills provided jobs for western workers. Later, when the silver became more difficult to find, copper was discovered. This mineral became as important as silver. Copper was used to make electric wire.

Western miners built many cities and towns. Some of them, such as Denver[3], Colorado and Boise[4],

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[1] Abilene ['æbɪliːn] Эбилин
[2] to process ['prouses] обрабатывать
[3] Denver ['denvə] Денвер
[4] Boise [bɔɪz] Бойс

became important industrial and population cen-
tres.

1. Was the land of the West used only for farms? What
   else was it used for?
2. Who were the cowboys? What kind of life did they
   have?
3. What were the cattle drives? What were the diffi-
   culties the cowboys faced during the cattle drives?
4. What areas in the West were rich in silver? How
   did people get silver?
5. What was copper used for?
6. What cities built by western miners became impor-
   tant industrial centres?

Part 3. Changes in the Life of Indians.

In the first half of the 19th century the United
States government decided that the Mississippi River
would be a dividing line. The land west of the river
would be Indian Territory.

No settlers could live there. This land was the
homeland of hundreds of thousands of American
Indians. The Plains Indians lived there. So did tribes
from the southern and eastern United States. These
tribes had been forced to move west when settlers
took their land.

The American Indians thought that the western
lands would be theirs forever. The United States
government made this promise to them in 1830.
But by and by, white settlers started to arrive.

At first miners and traders simply passed across
the Indian lands on their way to California. But by
1860, homesteaders and ranchers were settling on

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Shooting buffalo for sport

the plains. Railroad builders arrived, too, and they began killing the Indians' most important resource the buffalo.

In 1860 there were about 300,000 American Indians on the Great Plains. Some 175,000 white Americans were living there, too. But more white people were coming from the East and from California. Caught in the middle, the Indians tried to defend their land.

The companies that built railroads across the plains opened the way west. The railroads carried people and supplies to farms and ranches. They brought mining equipment and weapons to the West. They carried western grain and cattle to the East.

The end of the Plains Indians' way of life started with the killing of the buffalo. Railroad builders shot buffalo for food. After the railroads were built, the hunting continued. Railroad workers feared that

a running herd of buffalo might overturn a train. They hired hunters to kill the buffalo.

At the same time, buffalo shooting became a sport. Large groups of rich easterners came to the Great Plains to hunt the buffalo.

In the 1860's there had been about 12 million buffalo on the plains. By 1877, about one thousand were left. The Plains Indians depended on the buffalo for food, clothing and shelter. Without the buffalo, the Indian's way of life would end.

Most American Indians decided to fight in order to defend their lands and their way of life. Many Indian tribes had modern guns, well-trained horses and many fighters.

The United States government sent thousands of soldiers to the West. These soldiers, trained to fight on horseback, were called cavalry. They built forts and patrolled American Indian territory.

The American Indians fought bravely. They won many battles. But they could do little to stop the over-spreading flow of soldiers and settlers. In the end, the Indians were forced to live on lands, called reservations, which were given them by the government.

By 1880, almost all the American Indians in the United States were living in reservations. The Indians' traditional way of life came to an end.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why did the Indians think that the lands west of the Mississippi would be theirs forever?
2. What changed the life of the Indians?
3. Why did the buffalo disappear from the Great Plains?
4. Why did the Indians decide to fight? What was the United States' response to it?

5. What are reservations?
6. Explain how the railroads both helped and harmed people living on the Great Plains.

CHAPTER 15
INDUSTRIAL GROWTH

Part 1. The Railroad Boom. Steel and Oil.

During the second half of the 19th century the United States entered the industrial age. Mines, mills, factories and railroads were expanding and improving. By 1893 there were almost 320,000 kilometres of railroad track in the United States. That is enough to circle the world eight times!

The age of steel. As a building material, steel is better than iron. But for many centuries the process of getting steel out of iron ore was slow, and only small amounts of steel could be produced.

In the 1850's two men, working separately, worked out a way to speed up the steel-making process. They were an American, William Kelly[1], and an Englishman, Henry Bessemer[2].

The new process became known as the Kelly-Bessemer method. Now it was necessary to find a person who understood the importance of the new process and, using the Kelly-Bessemer method, could develop a huge steel-producing industry.

Andrew Carnegie[3]. In his youth Andrew Carnegie, a telegraph messenger, earned two and a half

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[1] William Kelly ['wiljəm 'keli] Уильям Келли

[2] Henry Bessemer ['henri 'besimə] Генри Бессемер

[3] Andrew Carnegie ['ændru: kɑ:'neigi] Эндрю Карнеги
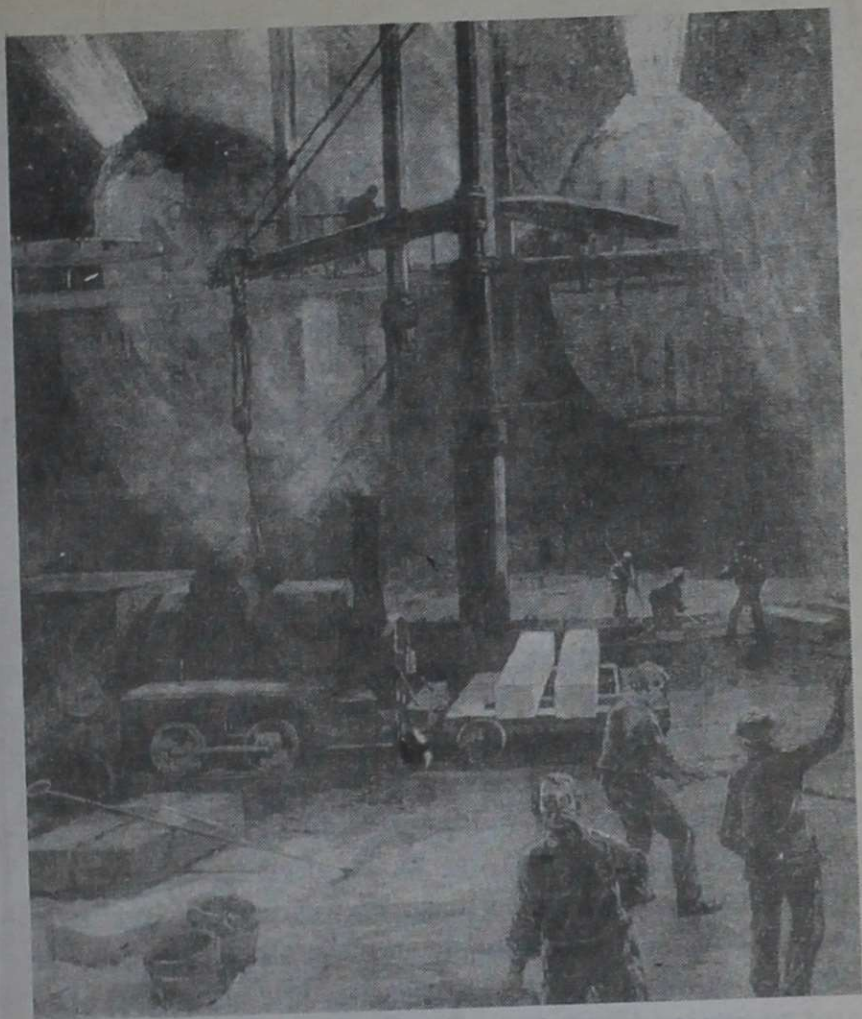
Carnegie's Iron and Steel Works

dollars a week. By the time he retired, his fortune was worth 250 million dollars. Carnegie organized the steel industry in the United States.

At the age of 18 Carnegie went to work for the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. Carnegie learned that iron was a poor construction material for the railroad. Iron rails often cracked and had to be replaced. Iron bridges weakened under a train's weight.

Carnegie knew that steel would be a stronger building material. He began thinking how to increase steel production.

Carnegie saved some money and bought part of a small iron company. Gradually he became the owner of several companies. After he learned about the Kelly-Bessemer method of making steel, he built a huge steel mill which began producing steel using the Kelly-Bessemer method. By 1900 Carnegie's steel mill was producing 3 million tons of steel a year.

In 1901 Carnegie retired and spent much of his time and money on projects to help others. Carnegie especially loved libraries. He opened more than 2,800 of them in the United States and around the world. He also started the now famous **Carnegie Hall** in New York.

The oil business. In 1859 oil deposits were discovered in Pennsylvania. Oil is an important source of energy. But in order to get fuel, crude oil[1] should be refined. The man who made big business of refining crude oil was John D. Rockefeller[2].

Rockefeller began by opening a refinery[3] in Cleveland[4], Ohio. His business went well, and soon he bought many small refineries in the Cleveland area and organized a company called Standard Oil.

Rockefeller's Standard Oil used railroads to carry oil products to all parts of the country. Rockefeller carried so much oil by rail, that he could demand cheaper shipping rates[5] from the railway companies. Small-

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[1] crude oil ['kruːdˈɔil] неочищенная нефть
[2] John D. Rockefeller ['dʒɔnˈrɔkifelə] Джон Рокфеллер
[3] refinery [riˈfainəri] нефтеочистительный завод
[4] Cleveland ['kliːvlənd] Кливлэнд
[5] cheaper shipping rates более дешевая оплата перевозок

168

er refineries had to pay the full rates. Because their transportation costs were higher, small refineries could not sell oil as cheaply as Rockefeller could. As a result, many small oil companies failed, and Rockefeller bought them. Now many different companies were united in Standard Oil. A group of companies united together is called a trust. In 1882 this Standard Oil Trust produced about 90 percent of the country's oil.

Following Rockefeller's example, other business people also tried to gain control in their industries. Trusts began to appear one after another. Soon there were trusts controlling the production of sugar, tobacco, cattle, salt, leather, and even bicycles.

QUESTIONS.

1. What age did the United States enter during the second half of the 19th century?' Explain.
2. Why did the railroads prefer to use steel rather than iron for rails?
3. Who worked out a way to speed up the steel-making process? What is this method called?
4. How did Andrew Carnegie make his fortune? How did he use his fortune to help others?
5. Who was the man that made big business of refining crude oil? How did he do it?
6. How did Standard Oil use the railroads to establish a monopoly?
7. Who followed Rockefeller's example? What other trusts appeared in the country?

Part 2. The Age of Invention.

The period following the Civil War was a period of important inventions, which made the life of

Americans better.

Inventions on the farm. The farmers on the plains had big problems. One of the problems was their wooden ploughs, which often got broken. A blacksmith named John Deere[1] solved the farmers' problem: he made a steel plough, which worked faster and better.

In 1847 Cyrus McCormic[2] solved another problem: he opened a factory in Chicago, which made reapers. Within a few years McCormic sold thousands of his machines.

Other people invented other new machines for agriculture. Soon there were machines for all kinds of agricultural work. Americans became the most productive farmers in the world.

Bell's telephone. In 1876 **Alexander Graham Bell**[3] invented the telephone. It was a very important invention. By 1900 there were about one million telephones in the United States. The use of the telephone improved communications in business and family life. Business people could talk to buyers and sellers who worked far from them. People could speak with relatives and friends who lived in far away places. Thanks to the telephone, news could travel faster. People could tell others about important events as soon as they happened. Bell's invention changed the life of people in the whole world.

Henry Ford's automobiles. Cars appeared before the 20th century. In 1904 there were 178 companies in America which made cars. But cars were
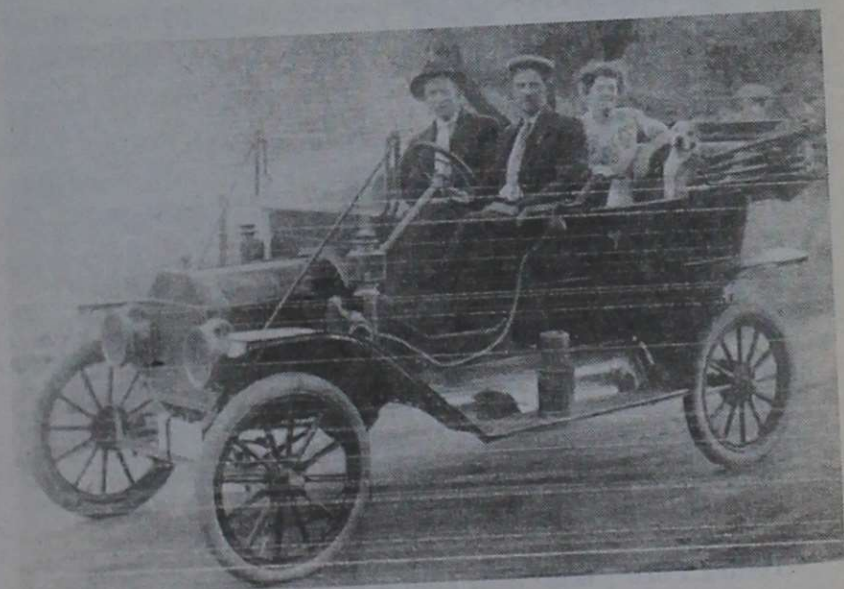
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[1] John Deere [´dʒɔn´dɪə] Джон Дир

[2] Cyrus McCormic [´saɪərəs mə´kɔːmɪk] Сайрус МакКормик

[3] Alexander Graham Bell [ˌælɪg´zɑːndə´grɛəm´bel] Александр Грэм Белл

170

Alexander G. Bell with his telephone

Ford's Model T car

expensive. They were made for the rich. Henry Ford[1] wanted to make a cheap car. To keep prices low, he looked for ways to build cars quickly. Ford decided to build cars using an assembly line[2]. Workers stood in a line along a moving belt. Cars were assembled on the belt. The belt moved the cars from one worker to the next. Each worker put a different piece of the car into place. At the end of the assembly line a finished car rolled off the belt. By 1915 Ford's factory in Detroit could make a car from start to finish in just 93 minutes.

As time went by, the assembly line reduced costs. The early Ford car, called the Model T, cost 950 dollars in 1909. In 1917 it cost only 345 dollars. In that year Ford sold 730,000 cars.

The Wrights in flight. At about the same time

The Wright brothers flying their plane

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[1] Henry Ford ['henrɪ 'fɔ:d] Генри Форд
[2] an assembly line [ən ə'semblɪ ˌlaɪn] конвейер

that Ford was building his first cars in Detroit, Wilbur and Orville Wright[1] were building an airplane in Dayton[3], Ohio. They tried it out on a windy beach in North Carolina on December 17, 1903. The brothers made four successful flights that day. The longest flight lasted almost a minute and covered about 260 metres.

The Wrights kept working to improve their airplanes. Their planes took them higher and farther. In 1909 they began selling them.

At first airplane flights did not change people's daily lives. Later, in 1914, a plane was used to carry passengers from one part of Florida to another. Four years later, the post office began offering air-mail service from New York to Washington, D.C. The age of air transportation had begun.

Changes at work and at home. Inventions changed office and factory life. At one time, all business letters and reports had to be written by hand. People spent hours
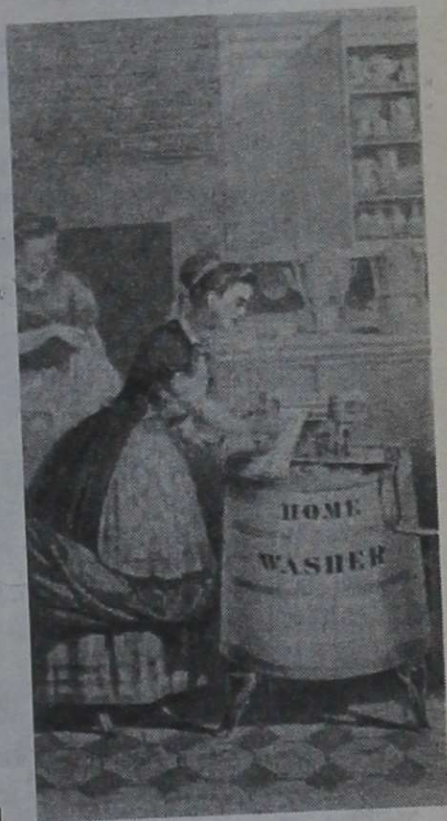
The early washing machine

[1] Wilbur and Orville Wright ['wɪlbə ənd 'ɔːvɪl 'raɪt] Уилбер и Орвил Райт
[2] Dayton ['deɪtən] Дейтон

copying words and numbers. Then, in 1867, C. L. Sholes[1], a Wisconsin printer, invented a typewriting machine. Within 15 years almost every office had at least one typewriter. In the early 1900's another new invention was tried out in some factories. Air conditioners were used to make the air cooler and cleaner.

Another invention was an electric lift in 1889, which led to the construction of tall buildings, called skyscrapers.

Inventions were beginning to make changes in people's home life, too. The electric vacuum cleaner, invented in 1907, helped people to do their house work faster and more effectively.

QUESTIONS.

1. In what way did John Deere's invention make farms more productive?
2. What problem did Cyrus McCormic solve?
3. Why did Americans become the most productive farmers in the world?
4. What did Alexander Graham Bell invent? How did Bell's invention change the life of people in the whole world?
5. What did Henry Ford want to do? How did he change production methods in his factory? What effects did it have?
6. What did the Wright brothers invent?
7. Choose three inventions described in this part and explain how they saved time for the people who used them.

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[1] C. L. Sholes ['si:'el'ʃoulz] С. Л. Шоулс

CHAPTER 16
CITIES, PEOPLE AND INDUSTRY

Part 1. American Cities Grow.

As industry grew in the United States, so did the cities. Many factories were built in or near cities. Cities provided factory owners with local markets for their goods and with transportation to distant markets. Cities attracted immigrants to the United

Immigrants sailing to America

States, providing factory owners with the workers they needed. Young Americans who had been born on farms or in small towns also came to cities to find new kinds of work to do and new, exciting places to live.

By 1900 there were 38 cities in the United States that had more than 100,000 people. The United States was becoming an urban country — a country where the majority of population lives in cities.

Many cities grew quickly. There was no time to prepare for their growth. Immigrants needed places to live. Builders put up tenements — crowded apartment houses.

These early tenements were poorly built. Many rooms had no windows. Many buildings had no pipes

Living in a tenement

Poor living conditions

to supply fresh water. There was no sewerage in the houses. And when winter came, people suffered from cold, because the tenements had no heating system.

Most of the people who lived in the tenements were newcomers. They were poor and had nowhere else to live. A crowded area in a city with poor housing is called a slum. As cities grew, so did the slums.

Diseases spread quickly in the slums, partly because they were overcrowded, and partly because

drinking water was often unclean. Epidemics were common. The officials in some cities understood that slums were dangerous. Some cities passed laws to build water lines to carry water to all parts of the city.

Another problem of crowded cities was fires. Fires spread quickly in the crowded slums. In 1871 a huge fire destroyed most of Chicago. The next year Boston had a big fire. To prevent fires, some cities and states forbade the construction of wooden buildings.

As the cities grew, more and more people crowded the streets. Many immigrants sold goods from wagons or carts right in the streets. Others sold goods from stands and tables which they put on the pavements. As distances grew, it took people more and more time to get from place to place. Some cities had streetcars (trams) which were pulled by horses, but they were very slow.

At the end of the 19th century electric trams appeared in some cities. Now people could travel more quickly.

QUESTIONS.

1. What groups of people were moving to the cities in the early 1900's?
2. What is an urban country? What facts show that by 1900 the United States was becoming an urban country?
3. What buildings were called tenements? What were the living conditions in the tenements?
4. What are slums? What were the two problems of the slums that worried people?
5. What types of transportation did people in cities use?

An electric tram

6. Do cities still have problems with poor housing and frequent fires? Name some other problems which people are trying to solve in today's cities.

Part 2. Workers and Factories.

Poor working conditions. The working conditions in factories were poor. The workers earned very little. Some did not earn enough to feed their families. Many factories were unhealthy and unsafe. Workers did not wear masks to protect their lungs from dangerous gases. Workers handled chemicals without wearing gloves to protect their hands. Some workers were injured or even killed by machinery.

Children working at a factory

Those who were injured received no help or money from their employers. In many of these dangerous workplaces a large number of the workers were children. In 1890 more than one million girls and boys under the age of 16 were working. They spent 12-hour days in mines and factories.

Labour unions. Gradually workers in the United States realized that they would have to group together to improve their working conditions. The groups which they formed to fight for their rights were called labour unions.

In 1886 several different unions decided to work together. These unions formed **the American Federation of Labour**[1], or the AFL. By 1900 the AFL had about half a million members.

The unions in the AFL fought for better pay, shorter hours of work and safer workplaces. Union leaders spoke to factory owners, demanding better wages and shorter working hours for workers. By

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[1] the American Federation of Labour [ðiə'merıkən ˌfedə'reıʃn əv 'leıbə] Американская федерация труда

1918 the unions had become a strong political force in the United States.

QUESTIONS.

1. What were the working conditions in factories?
2. What are labour unions? What working conditions did they want to change in the late 1800's?

Part 3. Nation of Immigrants.

Between 1865 and 1915 about 26 million immigrants came to the United States. They came from different lands and for different reasons. But all the immigrants had one thing in common. They all saw the United States as a land of hope and opportunity.

Immigration before 1890. Until the 1890's most immigrants came from northern and western Europe. They came from Ireland[1], Germany, Scotland[2], England, Norway[3] and Sweden[4]. In Europe most of them had been farmers who worked on somebody else's land. The hope of owning large farms drew most of these immigrants to the United States. After 1862 the Homestead Act offered free land in the western United States to those who promised to settle there. Thousands of immigrants used the opportunity which the Homestead Act gave them.

Immigration after 1890. As the years passed, immigrants started coming from southern and eastern Europe. The new immigrants came from Italy, Greece[5], Poland[6] and Russia.

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[1] Ireland ['aɪələnd] Ирландия
[2] Scotland ['skɔtlənd] Шотландия
[3] Norway ['nɔ:weɪ] Норвегия
[4] Sweden ['swi:dən] Швеция
[5] Greece [gri:s] Греция
[6] Poland ['poulənd] Польша

Many of these immigrants came to escape poverty. Other immigrants came to escape unfair laws.

Almost 40 percent of the people who came from Russia and Poland were Jews[1]. Jews had long been the victims of unfair laws in eastern Europe. They were forced to live in separate areas and were not allowed to hold certain jobs. To escape these conditions, they settled in the United States.

By the time these newer immigrants arrived in the United States, much of the good farmland had been claimed. So these immigrants settled in or near cities. They worked in factories, mines and mills.

Immigrants from Asia. Many immigrants came to look for gold. News of California gold rush of 1849 spread around the world. Some Chinese[2] came to the United States when they heard that gold had been discovered. By 1852 about 25,000 Chinese had reached California. By 1880 the number of Chinese immigrants had risen to 100,000.

Most of the first Chinese immigrants were young men. They thought of the United States as a place to make money quickly. Some returned to China with their gold. But many others stayed and opened their own businesses. Thousands worked on the transcontinental railroad. By 1884 half of California's agricultural workers were Chinese.

Hawaii was a stepping stone to the United States for many Japanese[3]. Japanese workers began arriving in Hawaii in 1885. They were invited there by American sugar and pineapple planters.

Beginning in the 1890's many Japanese began

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[1] Jews [dʒuːz] евреи
[2] Chinese [tʃaiˈniːz] китайцы
[3] Japanese [ˌdʒæpəˈniːz] японцы

182

moving to the United States. By 1910 more than 70,000 Japanese had moved on to California. Like the Chinese, the Japanese often worked in agriculture. Many of the Japanese immigrants bought or rented land in California. Thanks to hard work and scientific methods, Japanese farmers turned the land into rich farms.

Problems of immigrants. When they got to the United States, immigrants faced many problems. One of their most immediate problems was language. Most immigrants came from countries where English was not spoken. When they arrived in the United States, they did not understand the street signs or newspapers, they did not understand what people said to them. It was difficult to find a job. To solve this problem, many immigrants took special classes to learn English.

The immigrants who settled in the cities had yet another problem. Most of them had lived on farms in their native lands. Suddenly they found themselves in crowded cities. Their way of life changed completely. It was difficult for them to get used to it.

The immigrants worked hard. They hoped that finally they would improve their lives. Some gave up and returned to their native countries. But many stayed to start new lives for themselves and their children.

Immigration slows down. By 1900 many Americans began talking about limiting immigration. They said that there was not enough place or work for so many newcomers. In 1921 Congress passed a law which said that only 350,000 immigrants could enter the United States each year.

Immigrant contribution. As immigrants settled in the United States, they began to learn to
183

live as Americans. Most of them learned English and adopted many "American" customs. At the same time they did not give up some of their native traditions. Little by little some of these traditions and customs became part of American culture, too.

QUESTIONS.

1. How many immigrants came to the United States between 1865 and 1915? Where did they come from? What thing did all the immigrants have in common?
2. What countries did most immigrants come from before 1890? What did they hope for?
3. What countries did immigrants come from after 1890? Why did they leave their native countries?
4. How did most of the eastern European /and Asian/ immigrants earn their living?
5. Why did the first Chinese immigrants come to the United States?
6. Name one important problem which most immigrants faced.
7. Why was immigration limited in the 20th century?
8. What is the immigrant contribution in American culture?
9. Do immigrants still come to the United States? Can you give examples?

Part 4. Progressive Movement

In 1900 some Americans were very rich. Many were very poor. A lot of Americans were somewhere in the middle, in a middle class.

At that time members of this middle class began to talk about the problems of government and busi-

ness in the United States. Many people wanted to change, or reform, society for the better. Their efforts to improve life in the country were called the Progressive Movement.

In 1900 business leaders did not take care of their workers' health and safety. They refused to spend money to make their factories safe. Factory owners also refused to check the quality of the goods which they produced.

Government leaders did not think that the government must be responsible for people's well-being. Besides, there was corruption in the government. Many government workers took bribes from business leaders.

In a way, the United States in 1900 was like a lake. On the surface things looked bright and clear. The nation's problems were below the surface, like the mud on the bottom of a lake.

A group of writers in the United States began writing about the problems of American society. They wanted Americans to know the truth. Using facts and figures, they pointed out the problems. Their stories appeared in popular magazines. Millions of people read them. One writer wrote a series of magazine articles exposing the unfair business practices of Rockefeller's Standard Oil Company. Another writer wrote about government corruption in some cities. These articles shocked middle-class Americans and made them very angry.

The movement for reform began to make progress in 1901. President Theodore Roosevelt[1] became the leading speaker and worker for reform.

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[1] Theodore Roosevelt ['θɪədɔːˈrouzəvelt] Теодор Рузвельт

Roosevelt broke up some of the big business trusts. He also established government control over railroad companies. For the first time, government was taking an interest in people's problems.

In 1906 President Roosevelt supported a reform which was called the Pure Food and Drug Act[1]. This reform established government inspection of factories processing food and medicines[2]. Thanks to this act, fewer useless medicines and unclean foodstuffs reached the public.

Other reformers tried to help poor people, especially those who lived in city slums. Thanks to the efforts of the reformers, many states passed laws that limited child labour. Other laws set standards to make factories safer places to work. Laws also set minimum pay and maximum hours for women workers.

In 1912 Americans elected another reformer to the White House. President **Woodrow Wilson**[3] continued the fight against the trusts begun by Theodore Roosevelt. Wilson also helped to establish the eight-hour working day in some industries.

QUESTIONS.

1. What were the social problems of America in 1900?
2. What was called the Progressive Movement?
3. What was the contribution of some writers in the Progressive Movement? What impression did their articles produce on many Americans?

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[1] the Pure [pjuə] Food and Drug Act Акт о чистых продуктах и лекарствах

[2] processing food and medicines производящие продукты питания и лекарства

[3] Woodrow Wilson ['wudrou'wɪlsn] Вудроу Уилсон (Вильсон)

4. Describe the reforms that President Theodore Roosevelt worked for.

UNIT REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

drive, established, tenements, Homestead, standards, unfair, reservations, bribes, exposing, transcontinental.

1. Many immigrants lived in poorly built _____ .
2. Under the _____ Act, any citizen 21 years or older could become the owner of 64 hectares of land.
3. One of the cowboys' most difficult jobs was the cattle _____ .
4. The Indians were forced to live in _____ which were given them by the government.
5. On the _____ railroad one could travel from New York to California.
6. President Theodore Roosevelt _____ government control over railroad companies.
7. Laws set _____ to make factories safer places to work.
8. Popular magazines published articles _____ the unfair business practices of Rockefeller's Standard Oil Company.
9. Many government workers took _____ from business leaders.
10. Many immigrants came to the United States trying to escape _____ laws in their native countries.

II. Write detailed answers to the following questions:

1. How did the Homestead Act help to settle the West?
2. What inventions changed American home life?

3. What problems did immigrants face when they arrived in the United States?
4. What was the Progressive Movement?

III. Who were these people? What did they do? Write in short about each of them.

William Kelly and Henry Bessemer

Henry Ford   Andrew Carnegie

Wilbur and Orville Wright

John Rockefeller   Theodore Roosevelt

Alexander Graham Bell

UNIT SEVEN
GAINING POWER IN THE WORLD

In the period between 1800 and 1900 the United States changed from a small farming nation to a big industrial country. During these years the United States was not very involved in the affairs of other countries. Towards the end of the 19th century, however, this situation was changing.

Between 1900 and 1945 the United States faced many problems at home and overseas. The country went through a period of economic growth. Then it suffered through hard times. The nation took part in two world wars. By 1945 the United States had become the strongest and richest country in the world.

CHAPTER 17
THE UNITED STATES IN WORLD AFFAIRS

Part 1. The Changing Role of the United States

As the United States grew, its interests in the affairs of other nations increased. By the end of the 19th century the country needed markets in other countries to sell all the goods which it produced. It needed raw materials from other countries to use in its factories. Because of its new interests in foreign countries, the United States was drawn[1] into world affairs.

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[1] was drawn [drɔːn] были втянуты

Business leaders thought that the United States should play a more active part in the affairs of European countries. Many Americans also thought that their country should help to spread democracy to other nations. They wanted other peoples to become free and to be able to choose their own governments.

A century of growth. In 1800 the United States was a small country of 16 states and less than 6 million people. Most people lived on farms or in small villages. By 1900 the Unites States stretched more than 4,500 kilometres from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean. About 76 million people lived in its 45 states. Almost half of these people lived in cities. Many worked in factories and offices. The United States had become an industrial nation.

In 1800 it took months to travel by ship across the Atlantic Ocean to Europe. By 1900 steamships made the crossing in a week. Telegraph messages sent by underwater cable could reach Europe on the same day when they were sent.

The Spanish-American War. Cuba was a Spanish colony that was fighting for its independence. Many Americans sympathized with the Cuban patriots. Besides, some Americans had invested 100 million dollars in the Cuban sugar industry. They wanted to support Cuba in order to protect their investments.

President William McKinley[1] wanted to avoid war. He sent *the battleship Maine*[2] to the Cuban capital Havana[3] to protect Americans and their property.

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[1] William McKinley [ˈwɪljəm məˈkɪnlɪ] Уильям Мак Кинли

[2] *the battleship Maine* [meɪn] линейный корабль Мейн

[3] Havana [həˈvænə] Гавана
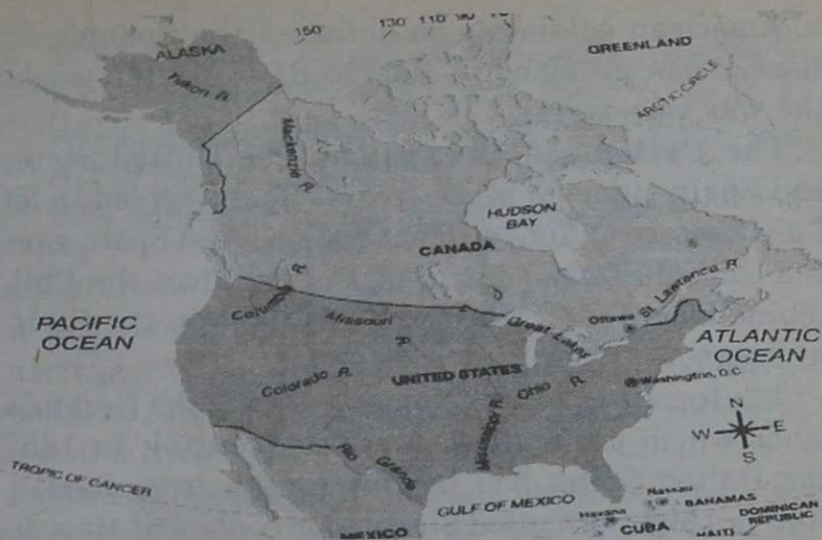
The explosion on *the Maine*

The Spanish rulers of Cuba welcomed the Americans. But on the night of February 15, 1898, *the Maine* suddenly exploded. Some 260 American sailors were killed.

Americans were furious. The Spanish denied that they were responsible for blowing up *the Maine*. Even today no one knows what caused the explosion. But newspapers in the United States blamed the Spanish. Most Americans believed what they read in the newspapers. In April 1898 Spain and the United States went to war.

The Spanish-American War was fought in other Spanish colonies, too. In the Philippine Islands[1] Commodore George Dewey[2] of the United States won a great naval victory at Manila Bay[3].

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[1] the Philippine Islands [ðə ˈfɪlɪpiːn ˈaɪləndz] Филиппинские острова

[2] George Dewey [ˈdʒɔːdʒ ˈdjuːɪ] Джордж Дьюи

[3] Manila Bay [məˈnɪlə ˈbeɪ] Манильский залив

American soldiers also defeated the Spanish on the Caribbean island of Puerto Rico[1]. In ten weeks the war was over.

The United States expands. The United States and Spain signed a peace treaty. Spain agreed to let Cuba become an independent nation. And Spain gave the United States control of Puerto Rico, the Philippine Islands and the island of Guam[3] in the Pacific Ocean.

The former Spanish colonies were not the first new lands which came under American control. In 1867 the United States had bought Alaska from Russia. And in 1898 the United States took control of Hawaii.

Now the United States held territory in both the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. Now it was more important than ever for warships to be able to get from one ocean to the other quickly. President Theodore Roosevelt decided that the United States should build a canal across Panama, the narrowest area of land between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. Panama agreed to let the United States build a canal. In 1903 Roosevelt gave the order to start work. In 1914 the first ship passed through the Panama Canal.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why was the United States' interest in the affairs of other countries increasingly growing as the country grew?
2. What changes took place in the United States between 1800 and 1900?

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[1] the Caribbean island [ðə ͵kærɪˈbɪənˈsiː] of Puerto Rico [ˈpwɔːtouˈriːkou] остров Пуэрто Рико в Карибском море

[3] Guam [gwɑːm] Гуам

3. What were the causes of the Spanish-American War of 1898? How did the war start?
4. What territories did the United States gain as a result of the Spanish-American War?
5. Why was the Panama Canal important?

Part 2. World War I.

In the summer of 1914 the First World War broke out in Europe. The war expanded to Europe's colonies in Africa and Asia.

The first shots. Europe had been at peace for many years, but it was not an easy peace. Nations quarrelled with each other over colonies and trade. For several years the countries of Europe had been divided into two alliances. An alliance is a group of nations that agree to help each other, especially in times of trouble. The first of the European alliances united Great Britain, France, Russia and some other small countries. This alliance was called the **Allies**. The second alliance was called **the Central Powers**, and the main and most powerful countries in it were Germany and Austria-Hungary[1]. These two alliances opposed each other.

By 1914 both sides were heavily armed. A war could begin any day. One of the main trouble spots was Serbia[2], a small country in south-eastern Europe. In June 1914 Archduke Francis Ferdinand[3] of Austria-Hungary was shot and killed while visiting Serbia. The Serbs asked Russia for help and got it.

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[1] Austria-Hungary [ˈɔstrɪəˈhʌŋɡərɪ] Австро-Венгрия
[2] Serbia [ˈsɔːbjə] Сербия
[3] Archduke Francis Ferdinand [ˈɑːtʃˈdjuːk ˈfrænsɪs ˈfɔːdɪnənd] эрцгерцог Франц Фердинанд

Because of the alliance system, almost all of Europe was at war within a week.

The United States goes to war. President Woodrow Wilson said that the United States should not get involved in the war. Wilson hoped that the United States would be able to stay neutral.

However, it was difficult for the United States to remain neutral, because the war was fought on the seas as well as on land. In May 1915 a German submarine sank the British liner *Lusitania*[1] near the coast of Ireland. The liner was carrying passengers and arms from the United States to Great Britain. More than 1,000 people were killed, including 128 Americans.

Many Americans were angry with Germany and talked of war. President Wilson warned the Germans that the United States would go to war if the Germans continued to sink passenger ships. The Germans promised to stop.

The sinking of *the Lusitania*

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[1] *the Lusitania* [ðə ˌluːsɪˈteɪnjə] Лузитания

But in 1917 the Germans broke their promise to President Wilson. The Germans wanted to stop American ships from bringing goods to Britain. So German submarines sank some American ships. Wilson considered it an open act of war against the American people. In April 1917 Congress declared war on the Central Powers.

The United States moved into action[1]. First an army had to be organized and trained. Congress passed a law that required all men between the ages of 18 and 45 to register for the army[2]. By November 1917 almost 3 million Americans were in the armed forces.

Over 2 million American soldiers were sent to Europe, mainly to France. The Americans were welcomed by the Allies who had lost many soldiers in three years of war.

In July 1918 the Allies stopped a major German advance into France. The Allies were helped by American troops led by General John J. Pershing[3]. It was the turning point of the war. The German army began retreating.

The peace that failed. Austria-Hungary finally surrendered on November 3, 1918. On November 11 Germany surrendered. The war was over.

After the war President Wilson went to France to take part in writing the peace treaty. Wilson hoped to make a peace that would prevent war forever. His idea was "a peace without victory". This meant that no country would be a winner and no

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[1] moved into action вступили в войну
[2] to register for the army встать на военный учет
[3] John J. Pershing [ˈdʒɔnˈdʒeɪˈpɔːʃɪŋ] Джон Першинг

country would be a loser. Wilson believed that "only a peace between equals" could last.

Wilson's peace plan was called the Fourteen Points. The fourteenth point was the main part of his plan. It called for the establishment of an organization called the League of Nations[1]. Wilson wanted all countries to be members of the League. He hoped that member countries would bring their complaints to the League and settle them without going to war.

The other Allies did not agree with Wilson's idea of peace without victory. They wanted to see Germany's army destroyed. They wanted Germany to pay for the damages of the war. In the end there was a compromise. Wilson agreed that Germany should pay for the damages of the war. The Allies agreed to accept his plan for the League of Nations.

Many Americans did not like Wilson's plan for the League of Nations. They said that the United States should not interfere in the affairs of other countries. They wanted the United States to be neutral. The Senate rejected President Wilson's plan. The League of Nations was established without the United States. When war broke out again in Europe in 1939, the League of Nations was unable to stop it.

QUESTIONS.

1. What were the two opposing alliances in Europe at the beginning of the 20th century?
2. Explain how the system of alliances caused World War I.
3. Why was it difficult for the United States to stay neutral?

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[1] the League of Nations [ðə'liːg əv 'neɪʃnz] Лига наций

4. When did the United States enter World War I?
5. Describe Wilson's plan for peace. Why wasn't it accepted?
6. Why did President Wilson suggest organizing the League of Nations?
7. Why didn't the United States join the League of Nations?

CHAPTER 18
THE 1920'S AND THE GREAT DEPRESSION

Part 1. After World War I.

Changes for women. Throughout the 1800's there had been slow progress in women's rights. By 1860 a New York law permitted married women to buy and sell property and spend the wages they earned.

After the Civil War women hoped that they would be given equal rights with men. But they were disappointed. The Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution gave the vote to black men but not to women. In 1868 **Elizabeth Stanton** and **Susan Anthony**[1] started a movement to get a suffrage (right to vote) for women. The women who joined this movement were called suffragists.

The suffragists worked hard for many years to bring attention to their cause. They held meetings and marches. They protested in front of the White House. Their protests brought national attention to the cause of women's suffrage.

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[1] Susan Anthony ['suːznˈæntənɪ] Сьюзен Энтони

World War I changed people's thinking about women's suffrage. Many men saw the contributions made by women during the war. Others realized that in a war fought for democracy, democracy should begin at home. President Wilson finally supported the Nineteenth Amendment to the Constitution which gave women the right to vote. In 1920 women all over the country voted for the first time in a presidential election.

A group of suffragists celebrating the ratification of the Nineteenth Amendment which gave women the right to vote

Changes for blacks. Black soldiers returned from Europe with high hopes. They had fought bravely in the war and won many honours. They hoped that they would have equal rights with the white population.

Instead, when they returned home, they found that conditions had not improved. Many blacks who had moved to northern cities found that they were treated no better than they had been in the south. Almost everywhere they went, blacks faced discrimination.

In the summer of 1919 riots broke out in many American cities. White crowds attacked blacks, and blacks fought back. After a riot in Chicago more than 30 people were dead and hundreds wounded. There were riots in Washington, too.

The situation was made worse by the Ku Klux Klan. The former Ku Klux Klan had died out after Reconstruction. A new Klan was organized in 1915. It attracted people who did not like black Americans, Catholics[1], Jews and foreigners. In the mid-1920's the Klan had between 4 and 5 million members.

A return to normalcy. In 1920 Warren G. Harding was the Republican candidate for President. Harding said that he would help the nation "to return to normalcy[2]". By normalcy Harding meant that Americans would live as they had lived before the war. Many Americans did not want to take part in the affairs of other nations. They wanted to forget about problems and responsibilities. Many people liked Harding's promise of a return to normalcy. Warren G. Harding was elected president of the United States in 1920.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why were the leaders of the women's rights movement disappointed after the Civil War?
2. When did the suffragist movement start? Who started it?
3. How did World War I change people's thinking about women's suffrage? When did American women first vote in the presidential election?
4. How did World War I raise the hopes of blacks? What did they hope for? Why were they disappointed?
5. Explain what President Warren Harding meant by his promise of a "return to normalcy".

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[1] Catholics ['kæθəliks] католики
[2] to return to normalcy ['nɔːməlsı] вернуться к обычной жизни

Part 2. The Roaring Twenties.

The decade of 1920-1930, called the Roaring Twenties[1], got its name because of the great excitement caused by good changes in the life of many Americans, and "roaring" good times. Some people called it the time of the wonderful nonsense. Years later, the 1920's were remembered most of all as the time when many Americans had fun.

A nation on wheels. The automobile first became popular in the United States during the 1920's. The car had been invented nearly 30 years earlier. But the first cars were expensive. Then, in 1908, Henry Ford produced a practical car called the Model T. Other people called Ford's car the Tin Lizzie. It shook, rattled and sputtered, but it worked.

The Roaring Twenties

[1] the Roaring Twenties [ðə'rɔːrɪŋ'twentɪz] ревущие двадцатые

Some people said that the Tin Lizzie looked like a black box on wheels. Yet people bought the cars. Between 1908 and 1927 more than 15 million Model T's were sold.

Henry Ford's great achievement was making a car that many people could afford. In 1908 the Model T cost more than 800 dollars. In those days that was not cheap. But Ford used the assembly line to cut costs[1]. He put an assembly line in his factory in 1913. By 1916 the price of a Model T was below 400 dollars. It was the cheapest car on the road. By 1925 one Model T came off the assembly line every 10 seconds. The price was only 260 dollars.

Henry Ford had a lot of new ideas. In 1914 he announced that he would pay all his workers at least five dollars a day. Until then some of his workers earned one dollar and some earned 2.50 dollars a day. If workers had more money, said Ford, they would spend that money on cars and other goods, and then business would grow and it would be good for everybody.

The automobile changed the way of life of many Americans. Now people did not have to live close to

Ford's Motor Company assembly line

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[1] to cut costs чтобы снизить затраты

the places where they worked. Those people who lived in the country could drive into town to visit friends or to do shopping. And people who lived in cities could go away for an afternoon in the country.

Good times. The 1920's were considered a great time to be alive. People went out, had fun and did not worry about the future. They invented new ways to dress, new words to use and new ways to have fun.

Many women cut their hair and wore their skirts short. Young men began to wear racoon coats[1] and straw hats. People loved a new dance known as the Charleston, where they kicked their legs and waved their arms wildly.

A new invention that appeared in the 1920's was radio. It was very popular. Radio stations were set up all over the country. They broadcast concerts by jazz bands and symphony orchestras. They also broadcast comedies and mystery shows. Listening to the radio became a favourite family entertainment.

Dancing the Charleston

Another entertainment was the cinema. Films in the 1920's had no sound. Usually a piano was played along with the film. The actors' words were printed on the screen. People enjoyed watching such film

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[1] racoon coats [rəˈkuːnˈkouts] енотовые шубы

Charlie Chaplin

stars as Charlie Chaplin[1], Rudolph Valentino[2] and Gloria Swanson[3]. By the end of the 1920's the first

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[1] Charlie Chaplin [ˈtʃɑːlɪ ˈtʃæplɪn] Чарли Чаплин

[2] Rudolph Valentino [ˈruːdɔlf ˌvælənˈtiːnou] Рудольф Валентино

[3] Gloria Swanson [ˈglɔːrɪə ˈswɔnsn] Глория Свонсон

sound films, or «talkies» as they were called, were made. They were a great hit.

An age of heroes. The 1920's was a time for heroes, especially in sports. The whole country knew the names of champions in baseball, football, tennis and other sport games. Gertrude Ederle[1] became the first woman who swam from Great Britain to France across the English Channel.

One of the greatest heroes of the time was an aeroplane pilot named **Charles A. Lindbergh**[2]. In 1927 Lindbergh flew his small plane from New York to Paris. He was the first person in history to fly across the Atlantic Ocean alone.

Getting rich. During the 1920's many people made money by buying shares, or stocks[3], in different companies. The place where shares, or stocks, are bought and sold, is called the stock market[4]. The price of a company's stock depends on business conditions. If many buyers want to buy stock in a company, the price of the stock will rise. If many stock owners want to sell their stock, the price will go down. In the 1920's stock prices

Charles Lindbergh

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[1] Gertrude Ederle ['gɔ:tru:d eɪ'dɛɔl] Гертруда Эдерль

[2] Charles A. Lindbergh ['tʃɑ:lz'eɪ'lɪndbɔ:g] Чарлз А. Линдберг

[3] shares [ʃɛɔz], or stocks акции

[4] the stock market фондовая биржа

seemed to go in only one direction: up. There were stories of shoeshine boys and office workers who made fortunes in the stock market in one day.

People were making more money than ever before. Companies used advertising to encourage people to buy their products. Advertising became important to business during the 1920's.

Another way of encouraging people to buy more goods was called installment buying[1]. When people bought a thing on the installment plan, they had to pay only a small part of the total price for the thing. Each month they paid another small sum, called an installment. People paid installments until they had paid the whole price of the thing they had bought.

People were earning a lot of money, and the system of installment buying seemed a good idea. But some experts warned that too many Americans owed too much money. If people suddenly lost their jobs, they would not be able to pay their debts. Then business would suffer. But few people listened to these warnings. Business was expanding. People kept buying on the installment plan.

Shops were offering a wide range of new products for Americans to spend their money on. New appliances, such as washing machines, refrigerators and vacuum cleaners, made housework much easier.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why was the decade of 1920–1930 called the Roaring Twenties?
2. Why were Henry Ford's cars so popular?

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[1] installment buying [in'stɔːlmənt'baiiŋ] покупка в рассрочку

3. What invention did Henry Ford use to cut the cost of his cars?
4. Why did Henry Ford increase the wages of his workers?
5. How did the automobile change the way of life of many Americans?
6. What were some of the new ways to dress and to have fun that people invented in the 1920's?
7. What is Charles A. Lindbergh famous for?
8. What is a stock market? Explain how people made money at a stock market.
9. How did businesses encourage people to buy more goods?
10. What did some experts warn people about?

Part 3. Depression Years.

The fun-filled, trouble-free days of the 1920's came to a sudden end. In the 1930's the United States and the world faced one of the worst times in history.

The depression. Not everyone was getting rich during the Roaring Twenties. Those years were difficult ones for farmers. New farming methods had improved harvest. But the huge harvests meant lower prices because people did not need, and could not use, all the food that was for sale. Many farmers lost money on their crops. In addition, many Americans spent more money than they really had. They had bought many things, including stocks, on the installment plan.

In October 1929 the big trouble began. Stock market prices had been at a record high level. Thousands of stocks were for sale at a high price. Be-

cause the prices were so high, there were no buyers for them. So the prices fell. Then people began to worry. Low prices meant trouble for those who had paid high prices for their stocks. They were afraid that they would lose their money. Now everybody wanted to sell before prices went even lower. But there were no buyers.

Tuesday, October 29, 1929, was called Black Tuesday. Stock prices dropped more and more, and billions of dollars were lost on that one day. Many people had put all their money in stocks, which now nobody wanted to buy. Some people lost all their money in one day. The stock market had crashed.

The stock market crash was terrible for business. People had less money to spend on goods. This meant that businesses were selling less. So there was no demand to make new goods. Therefore, factories were

Unemployed lining up for food rations

closed down. This meant that people lost their jobs. As unemployment spread, there were even fewer people who could buy goods. So even more factories were closed down, and more workers lost their jobs.

The United States was in a depression — a time when the economy does not grow and many people are out of work. By 1932 one-quarter of all the workers in the country could not find jobs. Many people had to work part-time. Others lined up for free plates of soup or tramped[1] about the country, looking for a job.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt

The New Deal. In 1932 Franklin Delano Roosevelt[2] was elected President. Roosevelt had promised the American people a "new deal"[3]. Roosevelt said that under the New Deal government would be responsible for helping people during the hard times. Right after he was elected, Roosevelt began working on the problems of the depression.

Roosevelt brought new people into the government: college profes-

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[1] lined up for free plates of soup or tramped [træmpt] стояли в очередях за бесплатной тарелкой супа или скитались

[2] Franklin Delano Roosevelt [ˈfræŋklɪn ˈdelənou ˈrouzəvelt] Франклин Делано Рузвельт

[3] the New Deal новый курс

208

sors, business people, economists and labour experts — the best minds which he could find. Soon newspapers were calling Roosevelt's people the Brain Trust[1].

Roosevelt told his Brain Trust that quick action was needed. If one plan did not work, the government should try something else. The important thing was to try something.

As soon as Roosevelt was inaugurated, the Brain Trust was ready. In the first 100 days of Roosevelt's term of office, many new laws were passed. The New Deal laws had two goals. The first was to give some relief for the suffering which the depression had brought to the people. The second was to help farmers and businesses.

The New Deal helped people by giving them work. The government organized building new roads, schools, hospitals, bridges, tunnels and dams. Under the New Deal, some young men were sent to camps in rural areas. There they worked at preserving the nation's land, forests and water. The government paid actors and musicians to put on shows. It paid artists and writers to paint and write. The government also set up a system of payments to help people who were too old to work and people who were out of work.

The New Deal helped business people and farmers. The government asked businesses to set low prices for goods and not to produce more goods than could be sold. The government paid farmers to plant less: as a result of it, food prices could rise. The government also helped farmers to keep their lands

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[1] the Brain Trust Мозговой трест

by lending them money. In the Tennessee River Valley the government constructed dams, which gave the farmers protection from floods, richer soil for farming and cheap electricity.

The New Deal helped millions of Americans. It gave people hope when they needed it. And it changed the way Americans thought of their government. For the first time, the government took responsibility for helping people in need.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why were the 1920's difficult years for farmers?
2. How did trouble begin in October 1929?
3. What happened on "Black Tuesday", October 29, 1929?
4. What effect did the stock market crash of 1929 have on business?
5. Describe the situation in the country during the depression years.
6. Who was elected President in 1932? What did the new President promise the Americans?
7. What people were called Roosevelt's Brain Trust? What instructions did the President give his Brain Trust?
8. What were the two goals of the New Deal?
9. How did the programmes of the New Deal help people?

CHAPTER 19
WORLD WAR II

Part 1. The War in Europe.

There was bad news from Europe and Asia in the late 1930's. The governments of Germany, Italy and Japan[1] were trying to gain control of other lands. Their actions brought the threat of another war.

After World War I Adolph Hitler[2] founded the Nazi[3] Party in Germany. Together with his followers, he began to spread his beliefs. Hitler called the German people a superior race, which must rule the world.

Soon Hitler made himself dictator of Germany and began preparing for war. The Nazis oppressed anyone whose race, religion or politics they did not like. They built huge concentration camps. Jews, Catholics, Poles[4] and others whom Hitler considered enemies were sent to these camps. In the concentration camps people who were strong enough were forced to work as slaves. Those who were too weak to work, children and old people were killed soon after they arrived at the camps.

Germany was not the only country in Europe ruled by a dictator. Benito Mussolini[5], who had come to power in Italy, was making plans to revive the glory of the Roman Empire[6].

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[1] Japan [dʒəˈpæn] Япония
[2] Adolph Hitler [ˈædɔlfˈhɪtlə] Адольф Гитлер
[3] Nazi [ˈnɑːtsɪ] нацистский
[4] Poles [poulz] поляки
[5] Benito Mussolini [beˈniːtouˌmusəˈliːnɪ] Бенито Муссолини
[6] the Roman Empire [ðəˈroumənˈempaɪə] Римская империя

In Asia, a military group came to power in Japan. They also believed in the "glory" of ruling over other nations. They wanted to take control of other countries in Asia and islands in the Pacific Ocean.

In the 1930's Germany, Italy and Japan formed an alliance called **the Axis**[1]. Great Britain and France led the alliance of European countries called **the Allies**. The Allies opposed the Axis.

Japan was the first nation to use military might. In 1931 the Japanese army invaded a part of China called Manchuria[2]. In 1935 Italy invaded parts of Africa. Germany seized Austria and part of Czechoslovakia[3].

On September 1, 1939, the German army invaded Poland. The Polish government asked Great Britain and France for help. On September 3, 1939, Great Britain and France declared war on Germany. That was the beginning of World War II.

The Poles fought bravely, but the German army conquered the country in less than three weeks. The Germans used a new tactics called a blitzkrieg[4] (lightning war). The attack was so swift that Poland's allies, Great Britain and France, had no time to come and help Poland.

In the spring of 1940 Germany turned its attention to western Europe. The Germans invaded Denmark[5], Norway, The Netherlands, Belgium[6] and

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[1] the Axis [ði'æksis] Ось

[2] Manchuria [mæn'tʃuəriə] Манчжурия

[3] Czechoslovakia ['tʃekouslou'vækiə] Чехословакия

[4] blitzkrieg ['blitskri:g] «блицкриг» (нем.: молниеносная война)

[5] Denmark ['denmɑːk] Дания

[6] Belgium ['beldʒəm] Бельгия

Luxembourg[1]. The French army was thought to be very strong. But, with the help of Italy, Germany defeated the French in a few weeks.

By June 1940 Great Britain stood alone against the Nazis. German planes made bombing raids against British cities, railways and factories. All night long, the bombs dropped. The pilots of the British air force tried to fight off the German planes.

Hitler's plan was to break the spirit of the British and destroy Great Britain's ability to defend itself. Then the Germans would cross the English Channel from France. They would invade and take control of Great Britain. But the British Royal Air Force[2] shot down many German planes, and Germany was not able to fulfil its plan of invading the country. The battle of Britain was the Allies' first victory.

Several months later German armies marched east toward the Soviet Union. In June 1941 Germany invaded the Soviet Union. But the Germans were not able to conquer the huge Soviet nation. The Soviet Union joined forces with the Allies. In November 1942 the Soviet troops stopped the German advance and began pushing the German army back towards Germany.

QUESTIONS.

1. What political changes took place in Germany, Italy and Japan in the period between the two world wars?
2. What countries joined the Axis? What countries joined the Allies?

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[1] Luxembourg ['lʌksəmbɔːg] Люксембург
[2] the British Royal Air Force [ðə 'brɪtɪʃ 'rɔɪəl 'ɛə ˌfɔːs] Британские королевские военно-воздушные силы

3. How did Hitler plan to conquer Great Britain? Why did his plan fail?
4. How does the geographical position of Great Britain make it easier to defend it than Poland or France?

Part 2. Americans at War.

Americans get ready for war. Americans read about what was happening in Europe and Asia in their newspapers. At first many Americans thought that the United States should not get involved in the struggles of other countries. President Roosevelt was also against the United States getting involved. But as Hitler grew bolder, Roosevelt realized that sooner or later the United States would have to fight.

In 1940 President Roosevelt and Congress decided to get the country ready. The army began drafting soldiers[1]. The navy was strengthened. More planes were built. Roosevelt met Winston Churchill[2], the Prime Minister of Great Britain. The United States agreed to help Britain by sending arms, ships and supplies. The United States did not fight, but it was giving more and more support to the Allies.

Pearl Harbour[3]. The warships of the United States Pacific Fleet were the pride of the United States Navy. They stood at Pearl Harbour in Hawaii. On Sunday morning, December 7, 1941, Japanese planes suddenly appeared in the sky over Hawaii. Hun-

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[1] began drafting soldiers ['drɑːftɪŋ 'souldʒəz] начала призывать солдат

[2] Winston Churchill ['wɪnstn 'tʃɔːtʃɪl] Уинстон Черчилль

[3] Pearl Harbour ['pəːl 'hɑːbə] Перл Харбор
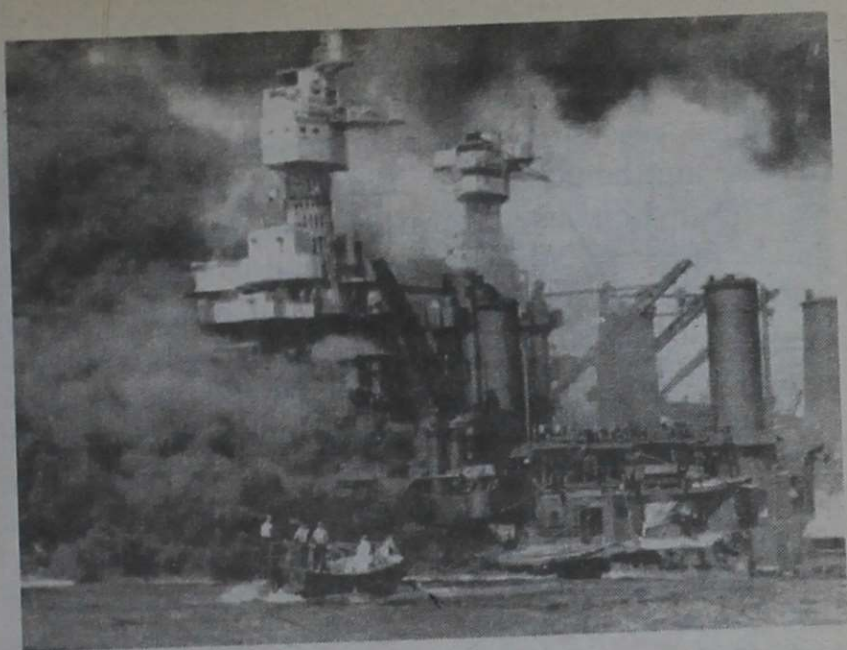
The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour

dreds of bombs fell on the ships. In a few hours many American ships were damaged or sunk. More than 2,000 people were killed.

The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour shocked Americans. President Roosevelt and Congress acted quickly. On December 8, 1941, the United States declared war on Japan. A few days later the United States entered the war against Germany and Italy.

The United States fights back. The Japanese thought that their attack would weaken the United States for a long time. But they did not count on how quickly the United States would be able to rebuild its fleet.

In June 1942 the Japanese and the American navies fought a huge battle near Midway Island[1] in

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[1] Midway Island [ˈmɪdweɪ ˈaɪlənd] Остров Мидуэй

the Pacific. For the first time, naval battles were fought in the air as well as on the sea. Aircraft carriers[1] acted like floating airports for fighter planes[2] and bombers[3]. At Midway American planes sank four Japanese aircraft carriers.

The battle of Midway put an end to the threat of a Japanese attack on the mainland of the United States. But Japan was far from being beaten. Japan had invaded and held many Pacific islands.

At the beginning of the war Japan had invaded the Philippine Islands and defeated a large American force of more than 75,000 soldiers. The American commander, General Douglas MacArthur[4], was ordered by President Roosevelt to flee to Australia[5]. There he organized the Allied land forces. The task of these land forces was to push the Japanese, island by island, back to Japan. There were many fierce battles. The Japanese were very strong. It took the United States three years to push them back to Japan.

The sad mistake. After the attack at Pearl Harbour, some people were afraid that the Japanese would invade the United States. Thousands of Japanese Americans lived on the west coast, mostly in California. There was no reason to suspect that Japanese Americans would not be loyal to the United States during the war. But many people suspected them. So the government made the Japanese Americans leave their homes and businesses and go to camps which were far from the coast.

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[1] Aircraft carriers [ˈɛəkrɑːft ˈkærɪəz] авианосцы
[2] fighter planes [ˈfaɪtə ˌpleɪnz] истребители
[3] bombers [ˈbɔməz] бомбардировщики
[4] Douglas MacArthur [ˈdʌɡləs məkˈɑːθə] Дуглас Мак Артур
[5] Australia [ɔsˈtreɪljə] Австралия

In spite of this unjust treatment, the leaders of Japanese Americans appealed to the government for a chance to show their loyalty[1]. Army units of Japanese Americans were formed. One of these units, the 442nd Regimental Combat Team[2], became one of the most famous units in the United States Army. They fought in Italy and won many honours and medals.

Members of the 442nd Regimental Combat Team in France during World War II

After the war Americans understood that Japanese Americans had been treated unfairly. It was indeed the United States' sad mistake.

The invasion of France. By 1942 Germany and Italy controlled most of the European continent. In 1943 the Allies invaded Italy. The Italian government surrendered within two months, but the German army in Italy continued to fight. The Allies were slowly driving the Germans back.

Meanwhile the Allies were planning a huge invasion of France. The American general Dwight D. Eisenhower[3] was made commander of all the Allied

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[1] appealed to the government for a chance to show their loyalty ['lɔɪəltɪ] обратились к правительству с просьбой дать им шанс показать свою преданность

[2] the 442nd Regimental Combat Team [ðə ˈfɔːˈhʌndrɪd ənd ˈfɔːtɪ ˈsekənd redʒɪˈmentlˈkɔmbætˈtiːm] тактическая группа 442-го полка

[3] Dwight D. Eisenhower [ˈdwaɪtˈaɪzənˌhauə] Дуайт Эйзенхауэр

armies. A large army and thousands of ships and boats were gathered in southern Great Britain.

D Day. The day of the invasion, June 5, 1944, went down into history as D Day. On the night of June 5, 1944, the Allied Army boarded ships in Great Britain. A giant fleet of 600 warships and 4,000 smaller boats carried 176,000 Allied soldiers towards France. The soldiers were from the United States, Great Britain, Canada, France, Poland and many other nations. In the sky, 11,000 Allied planes bombed the German positions in France. Early in the morning of June 6, the Allies landed on the French beaches. By nightfall, the Allied army was in France.

QUESTIONS.

1. How did the United States prepare for war?
2. When did the Japanese make an attack on Pearl Harbour?
3. Why was the battle of Midway Island important?
4. What happened to Japanese Americans during the war? Why do historians call the action of the United States government a sad mistake?
5. How was the invasion of France by the Allied forces carried out on D Day?

Part 3. The Last Act.

The invasion of France by Allied forces was the beginning of the end for Germany. Four months later, France and Belgium were freed. Then the battle for Germany began. In May 1945 Germany surrendered. But Japan continued to fight.

Death of a president. Americans received a shock in April 1945. President Roosevelt died. He was 63

years old. Roosevelt had not been in very good health. Still, in November 1944, he had been elected to a fourth term as President. Roosevelt served as President longer than anyone else in United States history.

Harry Truman's difficult problem. When Roosevelt died, Vice-President Harry S. Truman[1] became President. He was soon faced with a very difficult problem. American scientists had worked out[2] a new weapon, the atomic bomb, or **A-bomb**. Scientists were amazed by the power of a single A-bomb. One A-bomb had the force of thousands of tons of explosives.

Japan did not want to surrender. There was a plan to invade Japan. But invading Japan meant sending at least a million American soldiers to death. Some

An atomic bomb explosion

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[1] Harry S. Truman [ˈhærɪˈesˈtruːmən] Гарри Трумэн
[2] had worked out разработали

advisers urged[1] President Truman to drop an A-bomb on a Japanese city. They were sure that when an A-bomb was dropped, the Japanese would surrender.

Some scientists were against using the A-bomb. They said that the bomb's power was not yet fully known. It was not only the bomb's explosion that killed. The bomb also gave off a deadly radiation. The radiation lasted in the air for a very long time and caused serious illness and death.

Truman decided to use the A-bomb. On August 6, 1945, an American bomber dropped an atomic bomb on the city of Hiroshima[2]. Most of the city was destroyed. At least 75,000 people were killed instantly. Many thousands of others died soon after. In a few days the United States dropped another bomb on Nagasaki[3]. Finally, on August 14, 1945, the Japanese surrendered. World War II was over.

Rebuilding Europe. The war had ended, but the suffering continued. During the years of the war Hitler had built many concentration camps. The Nazis had planned to kill all the people of the world whom they considered enemies. By the end of the war, they had killed about 6 million Jews and millions of others. Tens of thousands of concentration camp prisoners were freed when Germany was defeated. There were also hundreds of thousands of other people who were left homeless and in need of help.

After the war, much of Europe's farmland and industry was in ruins. It was necessary to rebuild Europe. General George Marshall[4], President Tru-

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[1] urged [əːdʒd] побуждали
[2] Hiroshima [ˌhirɔˈʃimə] Хиросима
[3] Nagasaki [ˌnægɔˈsaːkɪ] Нагасаки
[4] George Marshall [ˈdʒɔːdʒ ˈmaːʃəl] Джордж Маршалл

man's secretary of state[1], worked out a plan for rebuilding Europe. Congress approved the Marshall plan. The United States gave 5 billion dollars to European countries. The money wag used to rebuild factories and farms. In 10 years most of Europe was growing strong again.

The United Nations[2]. In 1945 the Allies decided to set up an organization called the United Nations, which would work for world peace. The idea for the United Nations, or the UN, was like Woodrow Wilson's League of Nations. The Allies thought that the UN would be stronger than the League of Nations. First, all the countries agreed to join it. Second, the UN had the right and power to enforce its decisions with troops[3]. It was decided that member countries would supply soldiers to be part of the UN's peace-keeping forces.

The United Nations has not accomplished all its goals. But it has prevented war in some trouble spots. It also has helped sick and poor people all over the world.

QUESTIONS.

1. What was Harry Truman's difficult problem?
2. Why didn't President Truman like the plan of invading Japan?
3. Which two Japanese cities were A-bombs dropped on? When did it happen?
4. How did the Marshall Plan help to rebuild Europe?

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[1] secretary of state государственный секретарь (министр иностранных дел)

[2] The United Nations [ðə juˈnaɪtɪdˈneɪʃnz] Объединенные нации

[3] to enforce its decisions with troops навязывать свои решения силой (при помощи войск)

5. When was the United Nations Organization set up? Why did the founders of the UN think that their organization would be stronger than the League of Nations?

6. At the end of World War II the United States joined the UN. In what way did this show that the United Stages had changed since the end of World War I? Why was this change important?

UNIT REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

alliances, blitzkrieg, responsibility, depression, assembly, invaded, suffrage, advertising, loyalty, stocks.

1. In 1869 women began a movement to gain _____ .

2. In World War II the Germans used a new type of battle attack called a _____ .

3. During the _____ many people were out of work.

4. In the 1920's many Americans bought _____ in different companies.

5. Before World War II the countries of Europe were divided into two _____ .

6. Japanese Americans wanted to show their _____ to the United States.

7. In June 1941 Germany _____ the Soviet Union.

8. The government took _____ for helping people in need.

9. Companies used _____ to encourage people to buy their products.

10. To make his cars cheaper, Ford put an _____ line in his factory.

II. Write detailed answers to the following questions:

1. What were the causes of the Spanish-American War?
2. What were the two causes of the depression?
3. Explain two goals of the New Deal.
4. How did the United States get involved in World War II?
5. What is the role of the United Nations in world affairs? What does it do?

III. Who were these people? What did they do? Write in short about each of them.

Woodrow Wilson   Dwight Eisenhower
Elizabeth Stanton and Susan Anthony
Harry Truman   Charles Lindbergh
George Marshall   Franklin D. Roosevelt

UNIT EIGHT
THE UNITED STATES TODAY

After World War II the United States has been changing rapidly. Superhighways have changed the way the country looks. Television and computers have changed home life and business. Scientists have conquered many diseases and made space travel a reality.

But in the last decades of the 20th century Americans have faced other problems. For many years peace was threatened by the Soviet Union's desire to control more and more land and people. At home, blacks, women and other groups of population have been demanding better treatment.

People have grown concerned[1] about dirty air and water.

CHAPTER 20
THE UNITED STATES AFTER WORLD WAR II

Part 1. The Search for Peace

When the war was over, people shouted with joy. Americans welcomed their soldiers who were coming from all over the globe. People hoped that the world would be at peace. Instead, the United States was soon facing a new rival — its wartime ally — the Soviet Union.

During World War II the Soviet Union and the United States fought side by side. After the war the

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[1] concerned [kən'sə:nd] озабочены

two countries found themselves on opposite sides in a new conflict. Americans believed that the Soviet way of life and Soviet efforts to control other countries robbed people of their freedom. They saw the Soviet Union as a threat to peace.

Soviet leaders tried to spread communism to other countries. The United States government opposed the spread of communism outside the Soviet Union. Thus the two wartime allies became rivals.

The cold war. The struggle between the United States and communist countries after World War II was called the Cold War. The war was "cold" because it was fought mainly without guns or bombs. The "weapons" in the Cold War were words, ideas, and economic and military aid.

The Cold War began when World War II ended. Soviet soldiers who had fought in Eastern Europe continued to occupy countries in that area. Within a few years, there were communist governments in Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia. These new governments took their orders from the Soviet Union.

After the war the Soviets also occupied part of Germany. The United States, Great Britain, France and the Soviet Union, each governed a part of Germany. The first three countries wanted to create a new, democratic Germany. The Soviet Union wanted the new Germany to be communist. So Germany remained divided. West Germany became a democratic nation. East Germany became communist.

Like Germany, the city of Berlin[1] was also divided. The former German capital city lay 176 kilometres inside East Germany. East Berlin was commu-

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[1] Berlin [bɔːˈlɪn] Берлин

nist. West Berlin was like an island of democracy inside communist territory.

The situation in Berlin was very tense[1]. Many East Germans escaped from their communist government into West Berlin. This angered the East Germans and the Soviets. In 1961 the East Germans built the **Berlin Wall**. This concrete and wire wall stretched all along the West Berlin-East Berlin border and was guarded by soldiers. The wall made it very difficult for East Germans to leave their country.

The war in Korea[2]. World War II produced a divided Germany in Europe. In Asia, Korea was also divided at the end of the war. Soviet troops occupied the northern part of Korea. American troops were in the South. A communist government was set up in North Korea. South Korea had an anticommunist government. In 1950 the Cold War in Korea became "hot". Soviet-trained North Koreans invaded the South. In a few weeks they occupied most of South Korea.

The United Nations sent troops to help South Korea to fight back. The war lasted more than three years. Soldiers from the United States and from 15 other nations joined the South Koreans. The Chinese joined the North Koreans. In the end, the UN forces succeeded. They forced the North Koreans and Chinese back across the border that had been established before the Korean War began.

Trouble in Cuba and Vietnam[3]. Americans were worried about the world-wide growth of communism. In 1959 **Fidel Castro**[4] came to power in Cuba. Cuba

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[1] tense напряженный
[2] Korea [kəˈrɪə] Корея
[3] Vietnam [ˈvjetˈnæm] Вьетнам
[4] Fidel Castro [fɪˈdelˈkæstrou] Фидель Кастро

became a communist country. Castro's government was receiving help from the Soviet Union. The small island of Cuba lies only 145 kilometres from Florida. Many Americans thought that the Soviets could easily attack the United States from Cuba in case of war.

In 1962 the United States learned that the Soviets were planning to install missiles[1] in Cuba. Soviet ships were delivering missile-building equipment to Cuba. American leaders decided that the Soviets had to be stopped. American ships surrounded Cuba.

This blockade worked. The Soviet ships, which were moving to Cuba, turned back. The missiles in Cuba were removed. The crisis was over. But it made Americans feel that they must be on constant guard against the Soviet Union.

In the 1950's and 1960's the Cold War also became "hot" in Southeast Asia. Soldiers from communist North Vietnam attacked cities in non-communist South Vietnam. The South Vietnamese[2] asked the United States for help. In 1964 the United States Congress decided to send American soldiers to Vietnam. By 1968 about 500,000 American soldiers were in Vietnam. The Soviet Union and China gave supplies to the North Vietnamese. The fighting went on and thousands of Americans and Vietnamese died.

Death and destruction continued. It became clear that it was necessary to end the war. In 1973 all sides agreed to stop fighting. The United States withdrew its troops from Vietnam. But the fighting did not stop for a long time. By 1975 South Vietnam had surrendered to North Vietnam.

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[1] to install missiles ['mɪsaɪlz] установить ракеты
[2] Vietnamese [ˌvjetnə'miːz] вьетнамцы

The Vietnam Memorial in Washington D. C.

QUESTIONS

1. What were the contradictions between the United States and the Soviet Union after World War II?
2. What was the Cold War? Why did it begin?
3. What countries did the Soviet Union spread its influence over after World War II?
4. Why was Germany divided?
5. Why was the situation in Berlin very tense? When was the Berlin Wall built?
6. What was the situation in Korea? When did the Korean War begin?
7. Who came to help South Korea to fight off North Korean troops? How long did the Korean War last? How did it finish?
8. What happened in Cuba in 1959? Who came to power there?
9. Why were many Americans frightened when they

learned that the Soviet Union was going to install its missiles in Cuba? What measures did the American government take? Did the measures work?

10. How did the war in Vietnam start? How long did it last? What was the result of the war?

Part 2. Life after World War II.

The growth of people's well-being. During the 1950's almost all Americans were worried about the Cold War. But in everyday life it seemed that Americans were better off than ever. Business was quickly developing. There were plenty of goods to buy, and most Americans could afford to buy them. New industries, new products, new towns appeared during these years.

In the 1950's the United States enjoyed the greatest economic growth of its history. In a little over one decade the number of employed people jumped from 54 million to 70 million. By 1960 94 percent of Americans who wanted a job had one.

The reason for the growth of economy was clear. After the war Americans needed new houses, cars, furniture, appliances and clothing. Factory owners needed more workers to meet the demand[1]. That created more jobs. The new workers used their salaries to buy the goods which they needed.

New industries appeared. New words, such as "hi-fi[2]", "TV", "computer" and "transistor" became part of the American vocabulary.

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[1] to meet the demand удовлетворить спрос

[2] hi-fi ['haɪ'faɪ] звуковоспроизводящее устройство (проигрыватель, магнитофон и т. д.) с высокой точностью воспроизведения

The birth rate[1] in the United States also grew in the 1950's. Many parents believed that the world would be at peace. And they felt they could support their children in a growing economy.

The rise of the suburbs. To take care of their growing families, Americans needed houses. Builders quickly supplied them: large groups of similar little houses were built in little towns near big cities. These towns, which were called suburbs, grew rapidly.

Americans were glad to move to the suburbs. Many wanted to live in one-family houses with yards. People also liked the fact that suburbs were usually cleaner and quieter than most cities. Cars and new highways made travelling between cities and suburbs easy. Many people worked in the city and lived in the

View of a suburban housing area

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[1] birth rate рождаемость

suburbs. As time passed, new shops and businesses also moved to the suburbs. Many people who lived in suburbs started to shop and work closer to home.

Television. During the 1950's more and more people began to watch television. In 1948 there were only 17,000 television sets in the United States. By 1960 the number was up to 46 million. Ninety percent of American families had TV sets. And people were spending more and more time watching TV.

A family enjoying a TV programme

Television brought many interesting and entertaining shows into American living rooms. Americans could watch some of the world's best actors without leaving their homes. The evening news was like a living newspaper. Sports fans enjoyed broadcasts from all over the country. Such kinds of sport as football and basketball grew in popularity because of television. Many people also watched operas, concerts and plays.

Interstate highways. One of the great achievements of the 1950's was the construction of an interstate highway system: highways that go from one state to another. The new highways made travelling between states easier.

QUESTIONS.

1. Describe the life in America in the 1950's.
2. What was the main cause of the economic growth that started in the 1950's?
3. What were the two reasons why people moved to the suburbs?
4. In the post-war years television began to play an important role in the life of Americans. What do you think: how does television affect your life? Do you think the effect is good or bad? Why?

CHAPTER 21
ACCOMPLISHMENTS AND PROBLEMS

Part 1. Science and Progress.

The race to space. In October 1957 a strange object flew through the night sky. It was Sputnik I — the first satellite launched from the earth. This man-

President John F. Kennedy and his wife

made satellite orbited the earth and sent back information about outer space. Many Americans were worried when they heard about it. Sputnik I seemed to prove that the Soviet Union was ahead of the United States in the fields of science and technology.

Throughout the early 1960's the Soviet Union was first in space exploration. President **John Kennedy**[1] wanted the United States to catch up. In 1961 Kennedy set a task[2] for the country: to land a spaceship on the moon by 1970. This programme was called **Project Apollo**[3].

On July 20, 1969, *the Apollo 11* achieved the historic goal: The American spaceship landed on the moon. **Neil Armstrong**[4], commander of the ship, became the first person to walk on the moon's surface.

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[1] John Kennedy ['dʒɔn'kenɪdɪ] Джон Кеннеди
[2] set a task поставил задачу
[3] Project Apollo ['proudʒekt ə'pɔlou] проект «Аполлон»
[4] Neil Armstrong ['niːl'ɑːmstrɔŋ] Нил Армстронг
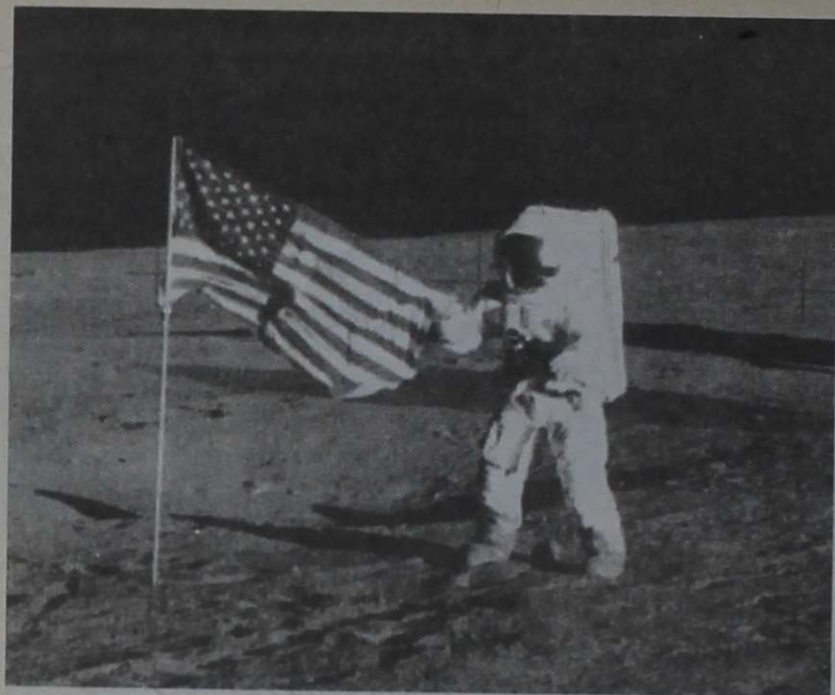
Neil Armstrong on the Moon

After exploring the moon, the United States sent up spaceships without crews that reached farther into space. In the 1970's United States spaceships sent back information from the planets Mars[1], Venus[2], Mercury[3], and Jupiter[4]. Later spaceships moved on to Saturn[5].

In 1975 the United States launched Skylab[6], an orbiting space station. Skylab was used for many important experiments. Telescopes on board the station were used for studying objects deep in space.

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[1] Mars [mɑːz] Марс
[2] Venus [ˈviːnəs] Венера
[3] Mercury [ˈməːkjurı] Меркурий
[4] Jupiter [ˈdʒuːpıtə] Юпитер
[5] Saturn [ˈsætən] Сатурн
[6] Skylab [ˈskaɪlæb] Скайлэб

The space shuttle *Columbia*[1] was launched by the United States in 1931. *The Columbia* was America's first reusable spaceship[2]. It could take off[3] like a rocket and land like an airplane. Each space shuttle could be used for more than 100 flights. The space shuttle was used to transport people and equipment into space and back.

The second space shuttle, *Challenger*[4], made its first flight in 1983. Sally K. Ride[5], a member of *the Challenger's* second crew, became the first American woman to travel in space. Lieutenant Colonel Guy Bluford[6] became the first black American to travel in space on *the Challenger's* third flight.

Speedy machines. In 1946 the first electronic computer was put to work in the United States. Thirty-five years later, over one million computers were in use in the United States. Today computers play an important role in science, business, industry, agriculture, education and everyday life.

Computers can perform thousands of calculations every second. They also store a lot of information in a tiny space. As a result, business can work better. Scientists can solve problems more quickly. Cities can run their transportation systems more safely. Police departments use computers to store millions of fingerprints. Computers can even be used to compose music, write poems and make drawings.

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[1] *the Columbia* [ðə kə'lʌmbjə] Колумбия

[2] reusable spaceship ['ri:' juzəbl'speisʃip] космический корабль многоразового использования

[3] take off взлетать

[4] *the Challenger* [ðə 't∫ælindʒə] Челленджер

[5] Sally K. Ride ['sæli'kei'raid] Сэлли К. Райд

[6] Lieutenant Colonel Guy Bluford [lef'tenənt'kə:nl'gai 'blu:fəd] подполковник Гай Блуфорд

In the late 1970's many Americans began to use computers at home. Computer games became a popular entertainment.

QUESTIONS.

1. What was Sputnik I? Why did it worry Americans?
2. During what period was the Soviet Union first in space exploration?
3. What task did President Kennedy set for America in the field of space exploration? Was the task fulfilled? Who was the first man to walk on the moon's surface?
4. What were America's further achievements in space exploration?
5. When was the first electronic computer put to work in the United States?
6. What are some of the ways computers can help people in business and science?
7. In what way do computers make your life different from the way you would have lived 60 years ago?

Part 2. Advances in Democracy and Current Problems.

During the 1960's the United States tried to solve different problems of society.

The struggle for civil rights. More than a million blacks served in the United States armed forces during World War II. They fought bravely for freedom around the world. Yet at home they were denied many freedoms. They were not allowed to live in certain places or go to certain schools. Many could not get jobs or even vote.

There still were some schools to which only white children were admitted. In buses blacks were allowed

236

Dr. Martin Luther King speaking at the Lincoln Memorial

to sit only on the back seats: the seats in the front of buses were for whites only.

Many Americans — black and white — protested against segregation. A very active part in the protest was played by **Dr. Martin Luther King**[1].

In August 1963 250,000 Americans marched in Washington, D. C. They demanded equal rights for black Americans. As a result, Congress passed **the Civil Rights Act**[2] of 1964 and other laws that guarantee equal rights to blacks. Also in 1964 Dr. Martin Luther King won the Nobel Peace Prize[3] for his civil rights work.

However, there were still many people in America who were against giving blacks equal rights. For most blacks conditions improved slowly. Many blacks continued to live in poor districts. Often they could not find jobs.

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[1] Dr. Martin Luther King [ˈdɔktəˈmɑːtɪnˈluːθəˈkɪŋ] доктор Мартин Лютер Кинг

[2] the Civil Rights Act Акт о гражданских правах

[3] Nobel Peace Prize Нобелевская премия за мир

The problems of blacks drew attention of more and more people. Working together, blacks and whites have been looking for solution during the recent years. Much progress has been made thanks to their efforts. For example, progress has been achieved in education. The number of black students attending college in 1975 was nearly four times as large as in 1965. By the early 1980's the percentage of black secondary school graduates going on to college was about the same as that of white graduates.

Other groups of population have also protested against discrimination in the United States. During the 1960's and 1970's many American Indians protested. They wanted to end the unfair treatment they received from other Americans and the United States government. They demanded an end to discrimination in housing, education and jobs. Some American Indians demanded from the government to return part of their land.

Spanish-speaking Americans have also been protesting against discrimination.

Spanish-speaking Americans came to the United States from Mexico, Puerto Rico and the countries of South and Central America. They have lived in the American Southwest for hundreds of years, working as ranchers and farmers. They have severe problems. Many of them live in poverty. Many Spanish-speaking workers are unskilled. Many of their children must leave school to help support their families.

The problem of immigration. The United States has usually welcomed refugees, that is people who leave their home countries because they are attacked for their political or religious beliefs.

Some refugees have escaped from communist-controlled countries. When the North Vietnamese took control of South Vietnam after the Vietnamese War, many people escaped from that country and came to the United States.

Other refugees have come to the United States to escape the communist government in Cuba. Soviet Jews have come to the United States in order to have religious freedom.

Some Americans do not like it. They say that the United States will become too crowded if it continues to welcome refugees. But other Americans say that the United States must keep to its old tradition and remain open to these homeless people. Americans are trying to find a solution to this difficult problem.

QUESTIONS.

1. What problems of society did the United States try to solve during the 1960's?
2. Who was Dr. Martin Luther King? What was the result of the march in Washington, D. C. in August 1963?
3. What sections of American population, besides the blacks, are fighting against discrimination?
4. Why do some Americans oppose immigration? What do other Americans say?

UNIT REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

withdrew, demand, install, denied, admitted, suburbs, highways, equal, refugees, entertainment.

1. The Soviet Union leaders were planning to _____ missiles in Cuba.

2. _____ are towns located close to cities.
3. In 1973 the United States _____ its troops from Vietnam.
4. People who escape from their home countries because they are discriminated against for their beliefs are _____ .
5. Factory owners needed more workers to meet the _____ of the population for new goods.
6. There were some schools in America which _____ only white pupils.
7. Cars and new _____ made travelling easier.
8. Computer games became a popular _____ .
9. Blacks and Indians were _____ many freedoms.
10. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 guaranteed _____ rights to blacks.

II. Write derailed answers to the following questions:

1. Why did the United States and the Soviet Union get involved in the Cold War?
2. Name three ways in which American life changed rapidly after World War II.
3. What are the problems in present-day American society?

PRESENT-DAY AMERICA

CHAPTER 1
AMERICAN PEOPLE

The population of the United States is the third largest in the world (after India and China). There are over 250 million people living in the United States today. Who are these people? The famous

Who are Americans?

American poet of the 19th century Walt Whitman[1] said that the United States "is not merely a nation, but a nation of nations". People from around the world have come to the United States and influenced its history and culture.

Part 1. The Native Americans.

The first people came to America from Asia. Very long ago, as scientists suppose[2], as early as 40 thousand years ago, they crossed the Bering Strait[3] from Siberia[4] to Alaska when the sea level dropped. These were the people whom Columbus later called "Indians" because he was sure that he had come to the East Indies.

Today there are about 1,5 million Indians in the United States, most of them live in the Western states — California, Oklahoma, Arizona and New Mexico. About one-third of the Native Americans live in reservations, the land that was given them by the government in the 19th century. The others live in cities. Poverty and unemployment are the major problems of the Indian population.

· QUESTIONS.

1. Where did the first people come to America from? When was it?
2. Why did Columbus call the Native Americans "Indians"?
3. Where do the American Indians live now?

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[1] Walt Whitman ['wɔ:lt 'wɪtmən] Уолт Уитмэн
[2] as scientists suppose как полагают ученые
[3] Bering Strait [ðə'berɪŋ 'streɪt] Берингов пролив
[4] Siberia [saɪ'bɪərɪə] Сибирь

242

Part 2. The British.

The British began settling in the eastern part of North America in the 1600's. By the time of the American Revolution (1776) the culture of the American colonists (their religion, language, government, etc.) was completely British. One could say that the British culture was the foundation of the new nation's culture.

QUESTION.

1. When did the first British settle in America?

Part 3. The New England Yankee.

Different people use the word "yankee" in different meanings. For a person from the south of the United States "yankee" means a Northerner. For a foreigner "yankee" means an American. But the exact meaning of the word "yankee" is a New Englander.

The peculiar character of the New England Yankee was shaped by the history and geography of the place. New England was settled in the 1600's by Puritans. The Puritans left England because they did not agree with some teachings of the Church of England. They wanted to "purify" the religion, they had very strict rules about church services[1] and also about the way people lived. There is a story about a sea captain who had come back from a three-year voyage and kissed his wife on their doorstep, outside their house. The puritans were indignant at such behaviour and publicly punished the captain.

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[1] church services церковная служба, отправление церковных обрядов

The yankees have a reputation for being honest but shrewd, realistic, practical, untalkative, thrifty and independent. There are many stories which illustrate the realistic and untalkative character of a yankee. One story tells about a tourist who asked a yankee whether he had lived in the same village all his life. "Not yet," answered the yankee. There is another story about a tourist who did not know his way in the state of Vermont and asked a yankee for directions. "I want to go to Bennington," he said. "I have no objections," was the answer. Yet another story tells about a yankee from Boston, whose name was Frederick Tudor[1]. This story illustrates the business shrewdness of the yankees. As we know, the climate in New England is cold, and in winter there is a lot of snow and ice. When Tudor was a young man, he heard somebody make a joke: "If ice were a crop, New England would be wealthy." Tudor remembered this joke, and many years later worked out a way how to break and store up ice and send it to the south. Tudor became a very rich man.

The yankees like to speak about the special role that New England has played in United States history. The American Revolution began in New England, because the yankees were among the strongest supporters of independence. In the 19th century it was New England yankees who led the fight against slavery in America.

QUESTIONS.

1. What does "yankee" mean?
2. Who were the Puritans?

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[1] Frederick Tudor ['frederik'tju:də] Фредерик Тюдор

3. What are the characteristic features of the Yankee character?
4. What special role did the New England yankees play in the United States history?

Part 4. African-Americans.

Between 1620 and 1820 very large groups of people came to the United States not as willing immigrants, but against their will. These people were from West Africa. They were brought to America to work as slaves on the plantations of the South. The total number of the black people brought to America within this period reaches eight million.

The Civil War in the 1860's ended slavery and established equal rights for black Americans. Yet the effects of 200 years of slavery are still felt in today's America. In spite of many changes, it is mostly black, not white, Americans who suffer from poverty. Today about 12 percent of America's population is black. Many of them live in the South and in the cities of the Northeast and Midwest.

QUESTIONS.
1. How did Africans appear in America?
2. When was slavery abolished?
3. What is the position of the black population in today's America?

Part 5. Immigrants from Northern and Western Europe.

In the 1820's many people in Europe, suffering from poverty, war and discrimination, began emigrating to the United States. They hoped for better

opportunities in the United States. During the first half-century, most immigrants came from the countries of north-western Europe — Germany, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Sweden and Norway.

During these years the United States was expanding into what is now the Midwest. The Midwest had a lot of land good for farming. That's why many new immigrants became farmers in the Midwest. Even today, German and Scandinavian influence is felt in Midwestern foods and festivals.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why did many immigrants come to the United States from the countries of Northern and Western Europe in the first half of the 19th century?
2. Why did many immigrants become farmers in the Midwest?

Part 6. Immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe.

Between the 1870's and the 1930's many immigrants came to the United States from the countries of southern and eastern Europe — Italy, Greece, Poland and Russia. The United States was now developing into a mainly industrial country. Much of the farmland in the Midwest had been settled, so the new wave of immigrants moved to cities and worked in factories.

QUESTIONS.

1. In what period did many immigrants come to the United States from the countries of southern and eastern Europe?

2. Where did many of these immigrants settle? How did they earn their living?

Part 7. Hispanic-Americans.

Hispanics are people whose ancestors were Spanish or Spanish-Americans. Some Hispanics had lived in the areas which were under Spanish control, and found themselves living in the United States when these areas became part of the United States (for example California and New Mexico). Many other Hispanics immigrated to the United States from many different countries, mostly from Mexico, Puerto Rico and Cuba.

QUESTIONS.
1. Who are Hispanic-Americans?
2. Did the Hispanic-Americans find themselves in the United States only through immigration?

Part 8. Asian-Americans.

In the 19th and 20th centuries many immigrants came to the United States from different Asian countries (China, Japan, the Philippines,

Descendants of different nations have come together and formed the nation of Americans

247

Korea, Vietnam, India and others). They have settled mostly in California, Hawaii, New York and Texas.

QUESTIONS.

1. What Asian countries did immigrants come to the United States from?
2. What parts of the United States did the Asian immigrants settle in?

CHAPTER REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

shrewd, spite, influenced, dropped, expanding, poverty, reservations, unemployment, opportunities, established.

1. The first people came to America from Siberia when the sea level _____ .
2. People from around the world have come to the United States and _____ its history and culture.
3. About one-third of the native Americans live in

   _____ .
4. _____ and _____ are major problems of the Indian population.
5. Yankees are known for being honest but _____ .
6. Immigrants hoped for better _____ in the United States.
7. The Civil War in the 1860's ended slavery and _____ equal rights for black Americans.
8. During the first half of the 19th century the United States was _____ into what is now the Midwest.
9. In _____ of many changes, many black Americans suffer from poverty.

II. Write detailed answers to the following questions:

1. Comment on Walt Whitman's words that the United States is "not merely a nation, but a nation of nations".

2. What are the peculiar features of a Yankee character? What facts influenced the Yankee character?

CHAPTRE 2
HOW THEY LIVE

Part 1. The Way of Life.

There have been many changes in the way of life of American families in the past 20 or 30 years.

Many young people don't hurry to get married, and when they do get married, they don't hurry to have children. Quite often a woman has her first child only when she is past thirty. Also, families don't have so many children as was traditional before. Today most families have only one or two children.

In a traditional family the husband worked and earned money, and the wife stayed at home with the children. This tradition is now changing. Many married women work, like their husbands. There are two reasons for this new tradition. One reason is that women also want to have careers, like men. The other reason is the necessity of earning a living: prices have risen, and as a result families cannot survive when only one member of the family works.

The divorce rate is very high in the United States. About half of married couples end in divorce. The result of this high divorce rate is that many American children see their fathers (or mothers) only occasionally.

Rather often divorced people get married again. So a new kind of family has appeared — a family in which the children have different fathers or mothers.

In the past it was traditional for three generations — grandparents, parents and children — to live together, now many elderly people prefer living separately from their grown-up children. Both elderly and young people find it convenient, though, living separately, the older and the younger generation usually maintain a friendly contact with each other.

QUESTIONS.

1. How many children does a typical American family have?
2. Why do many married women work? Give two reasons.
3. What is the effect of the high divorce rate in the United States?
4. What changes have taken place in the life of aged people?

Part 2. Education.

There are three levels in the educational system of the United States.

At the age of 7 children go to the elementary school, where they stay until the sixth grade. Then they pass to the so-called junior high school and stay there from the seventh up to the eighth or

ninth grade. Finally they go to the high school (from the ninth or tenth grade up to the twelfth grade).

Besides state-supported schools (called "public schools"), where education is free[1], there is a comparatively small number of private schools, which are often connected with religion.

QUESTION.

1. Which are the three levels in the United States educational system?

Part 3. Culture. Leisure. Entertainment.

The United States is a great centre of culture. Its largest cities (New York, Boston, Chicago, Washington, San Francisco, Los Angeles) have many concert halls, exhibition halls and theatres. Smaller cities also regularly hold concerts, exhibitions, lectures, theatrical performances, both professional and amateur. The United States has the world's greatest museums, theatres, concert halls and orchestras. A lot of people usually attend performances and exhibitions, in spite of the high prices of the tickets.

The most important sources of entertainment in America are television, movies and recorded music. Millions of Americans watch videotaped movies at home.

Many Americans complain of the low intellectual and cultural level of TV programmes. Some people also say that the emphasis on youth, sex and money teaches children the wrong values.

Americans enjoy sport. They engage in sports themselves and also watch their favourite sports

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[1] free (зд.) бесплатное

Playing baseball

teams at the stadiums and at home on TV. Among the most popular sports are baseball, football, basketball and hockey, as well as golf and tennis. Many boys and girls play in school sport teams.

Americans like to travel. Many families regularly go on weekend car trips, as well as on longer summer trips. Travelling by air is also very popular. During their holidays many people fly to other cities to visit friends and relatives. In winter many people like to spend their holidays in places with a warm climate, like Florida and the islands of the Caribbean.

QUESTIONS.

1. What facts confirm the statement that the United States is a great centre of culture?
2. Which are the most important sources of entertainment and information in the United States?
3. What do many people in America complain of?
4. Do many Americans enjoy sport? What can you say to prove that it is so?

252

5. Do Americans like to travel? What places do they go to?

Part 4. Holidays.

New Year. Many people don't sleep most of the New Year night on the 31st of December, seeing the New Year in. Some people go to parties at friends' houses or at night-clubs. Others just walk about in the streets making merry. It is a tradition for many people to make New Year resolutions (to eat less, to work more, to do sport regularly, etc.). Though few people keep their New Year resolutions.

Martin Luther King's Day. Martin Luther King was a famous fighter for civil rights. In the 1950's and 1960's he organized the civil rights movement — the struggle for equal rights for black Americans. In 1968 he was assassinated. Martin Luther King's Day is celebrated in January (he was born in this month).

Presidents' Day. Presidents' Day is celebrated in February. It is the day on which two great Americans are honoured: George Washington, the country's first President, and Abraham Lincoln, the President who headed the country during the Civil War and put an end to slavery. Both George Washington and Abraham Lincoln were born in February.

Memorial Day. On Memorial Day Americans honour the soldiers killed in war. There are always parades on this day. Memorial Day is celebrated on the last Monday in May, and that's why it marks the beginning of the summer season. Many people spend this day on the beach.

Independence Day. The Fourth of July, or Independence Day, is, of course, the most important

American holiday. In was on July 4, 1776, that the American colonies declared their independence from Britain. The Fourth of July is a traditional day for family picnics and, at night, fireworks.

Labour Day. On the first Monday in September, Americans celebrate Labour Day, which honours the American worker. While Memorial Day marks the beginning of summer, Labour Day marks the end of it. The school year starts the day after Labour Day.

Columbus Day. Columbus Day marks the coming of Columbus's ship to America in 1492. Many Italian-Americans and Hispanic-Americans are especially enthusiastic on Columbus Day. Columbus was an Italian working for Spain, so they feel that this great seaman is closer to their hearts than to the hearts of other Americans.

Halloween. Halloween, which is celebrated on October 31, is not an official holiday, but, doubtless, it is a very special day. Children enjoy it. They dress in fancy costumes as witches, ghosts, or other monsters, pirates, or characters from TV programmes, and so on. The windows of many houses are brightly decorated on Halloween. In the evening groups of children go from house to house; knock at the doors and say, "Trick or treat". (Which means "if you don't treat us to something tasty, we shall play a trick on you.") Of course, the people give them something nice.

Thanksgiving. In 1620 *the Mayflower*[1] brought a group of Pilgrims to America. The Pilgrims founded a settlement in Massachusetts. They arrived late in November, and it was too late to plant crops. It was very difficult for the Pilgrims to survive the

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[1] *the Mayflower* [ðə'meɪflauə] Мейфлауэр

"Trick or treat"

A tranksgiving dinner

first winter, but they were greatly helped by the Indians who lived nearby. The Indians showed the Pilgrims where to fish, and in spring helped them to plant crops. The next November, when the Pilgrims had gathered the crops, they invited the Indians to a great feast. It was the first Thanksgiving.

Thanksgiving is celebrated every year in November. Families make a big feast, which traditionally includes roast turkey, a sweet sauce made of cranberries, and pumpkin pie.

Christmas. On Christmas many families get together. There is a tradition to give presents on Christmas. People often start buying gifts right after Thanksgiving. On Christmas many families like to have a decorated Christmas tree in their houses. They also bake special Christmas cakes.

Children believe that their gifts come from Santa Claus[1], who lives in the North Pole, and on the night

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[1] Santa Claus [ˈsæntəˈklɔːs] Санта-Клаус

A Christmas morning

before Christmas he comes in a sledge pulled by reindeer. He goes down the chimneys of houses and leaves gifts for the children who have been good.

QUESTIONS.

1. How do Americans see the New Year in?
2. Why is Martin Luther King's Day marked in the United States?
3. What two great Americans are honoured on Presidents' Day?
4. Whom does Memorial Day honour?
5. Which is the most important American holiday? Why is it most important? When is it celebrated?
6. What holiday honours the American worker? When is it celebrated?
7. What is the traditional way of celebrating Halloween?
8. When is Thanksgiving celebrated? How did this holiday originate?
9. How is Christmas usually celebrated?

Part 5. The Cowboy.

People usually think of the cowboy as of a romantic and even rather fairy-tale creature. It is not so in reality. First of all, people think that all cowboys are white Americans. Actually, the first cowboys were Mexican. There were also black cowboys —

A cowboy

often ex-slaves who were given freedom by the Civil War. There were also Indian cowboys.

The cowboy's main job was very prosaic — and very difficult. It was to take care of cows and to get them to market. Cowboys worked for cattle-ranchers — owners of big herds of cattle. The cowboy's life was hard and often boring. The main — and most difficult — part of the cowboy's work was cattle drive[1].

In the mid-1860's Texas cattle-ranchers found that in other states, like Kansas, they could get ten times as much money for their cattle. This is how cattle drives began. On the drives, cowboys took the cattle from Texas up to Kansas.

On the trail, cowboys worked from sunrise till sunset. At night they took turns guarding[2] the cattle.

Today there are still cattle ranches and cowboys. The work of the cowboy is the same. Of course, modern machines have brought certain changes in the work.

Rodeos. Rodeos are competitions in which cowboys show their skills. In the old days, when cowboys got bored during cattle drives, they sometimes organized informal competitions. With time, this tradition grew, then towns began organizing more formal competitions for cowboys. Today the Professional Rodeo Cowboys Association[3] organizes about 700 rodeos a year. The events included in a rodeo

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[1] cattle drive перегон больших партий крупного рогатого скота к месту обработки

[2] took turns guarding [ˈgɑːdɪŋ] по очереди охраняли

[3] the Professional Rodeo Cowboys Association [ðə prəˈfeʃnəl rouˈdeɪouˈkaubɔɪz əˌsousɪˈeɪʃn] профессиональная ковбойская ассоциация родео

Rodeo. Bull riding

are calf roping[1], bull riding[2] and bulldogging[3]. Bull-
dogging was invented by a black cowboy called Bill
Pickett[4]. It was a way of stopping oxen that were
running wild. Pickett would ride alongside an ox,
then jump on its back, grab its horns, somersault
across it[5], and pull the ox to the ground.

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[1] calf [kɑːf] roping ловля молодых бычков арканом
[2] bull riding езда верхом на быках
[3] bulldogging особый способ ловли и усмирения
одичавших быков
[4] Bill Pickett [ˈbɪlˈpɪkɪt] Билл Пикетт
[5] somersault [ˈsʌməsɔːlt] across it делал кувырок через
голову

260

On some ranches in Texas and other western states, they can take you, as an entertainment, on a modern cattle drive. On the drive, you will live like a cowboy — sleeping on the ground and eating beans and beef. You will do the work that cowboys do. Of course they won't make you do any bulldogging!

QUESTIONS.

1. What was the cowboy's job?
2. What is a rodeo? What association organizes rodeos?
3. What events can you see if you go to a rodeo?
4. What is bulldogging?

CHAPTER REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

engage, intellectual, reindeer, survive, rodeos, generations, junior, entertainment, resolutions, values.

1. Families cannot _____ when only one member of the family works.
2. In the past it was traditional for three _____ to live together.
3. There are three levels in the US educational system — elementary school, _____ high school and high school.
4. The most popular sources of _____ are television, movies and recorded music.
5. Many people complain of the low _____ level of TV programmes.
6. The emphasis on youth, sex and money teaches children the wrong _____ .
7. Many Americans regularly _____ in sports.
8. It is a tradition for many people to make New Year _____ .

9. On the night before Christmas Santa Claus comes from the North Pole in a sledge pulled by _____ .
10. _____ are competitions in which cowboys show their skills.

II. Write a detailed answer to the following question:

Which are some of the most popular holidays in the United States?

CHAPTER 3
NEW YORK

Part 1. A Unique City.

New York attracts people from all over the world. If you look at the newspapers that people around you are reading, you will see that one person is reading a newspaper in Spanish, another in Arabic, still others in Chinese, French, Russian, Italian, and so on. New York was always a city of immigrants. It still is.

New York, one of the largest and most exciting cities in the world, is situated at the mouth of the Hudson River, where it empties into the Atlantic Ocean, and consists of five parts, called boroughs[1]: Manhattan, Brooklyn, Queens, Bronx and Staten Island. But it is of course its central part, the borough of **Manhattan**, that most people think of when they think of New York.

Manhattan is an island 13 miles long and 2 miles wide. It is the centre of American finance, advertis-

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[1] boroughs [ˈbʌrəz] городки, населенные пункты; в Нью-Йорке — районы, составные части города
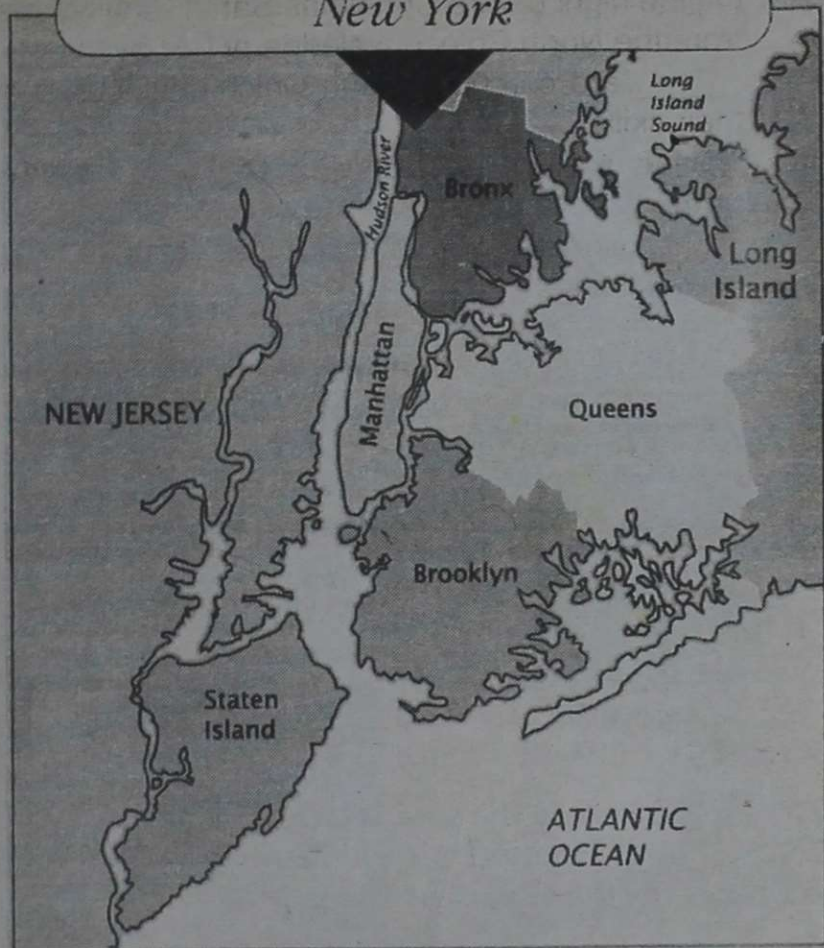
New York

ing, art, theatre, publishing, fashion — and everything else.

Manhattan is divided into **the East Side** and **the West Side**. The dividing line is **Fifth Avenue**. All the streets that cross Fifth Avenue are also divided into two parts, that is they have, for example, West 5th Street and East 5th Street, West 11th Street and East 11th Street, and so on. The part of, say,
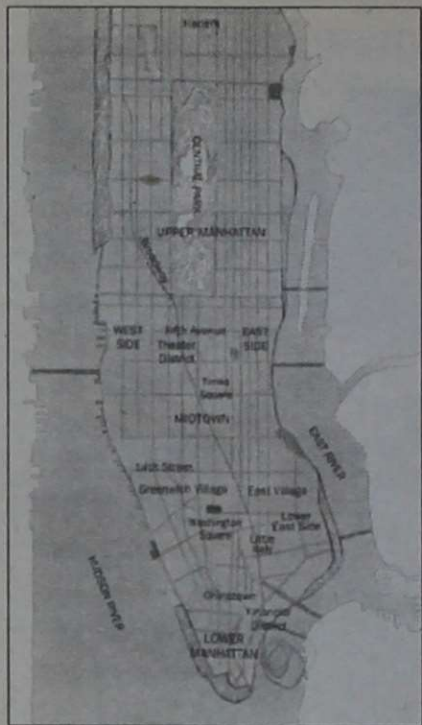
Manhattan

26th Street that goes west of Fifth Avenue is called West 26th Street, the part going east of Fifth Avenue — East 26th Street.

Manhattan is also divided into **Lower (Downtown) Manhattan, Midtown,** and **Upper (Uptown) Manhattan.** The numbers of the streets begin in Lower (Downtown) Manhattan and get higher as you go north. Lower (Downtown) Manhattan is the southern part of the island, nearest the Atlantic Ocean, up to 14th Street. Midtown is the area between 14th Street and Central Park. Upper (Uptown) Manhattan is the remaining, northern part of the island.

QUESTIONS.

1. What fact shows that people of many nationalities live in New York?
2. Which five boroughs does New York consist of?
3. What is Manhattan? What role does it play in the life of the United States?
4. What is the dividing line between the East Side and the West Side?
5. Which three parts is Manhattan divided into in the south-north direction?

Part 2. Lower (Downtown) Manhattan.

The Wall Street Area. The first Europeans to settle in Manhattan were the Dutch. To protect them-

The financial district of New York

The Stock Exchange

selves from possible attacks, they built a strong wooden wall. This wall, which is now destroyed, gave its name to a street in Lower Manhattan, and the street, in its turn, became a synonym of American capitalism. Of course, this street is Wall Street.

It is easy to see why Wall Street is a synonym of capitalism. Both **the New York Stock Exchange**[1] and **the American Stock Exchange** are located in the Wall Street area, as well as many banks and offices of many large corporations. The twin towers of **the World Trade Centre**, which rise up to 1,350 feet above the city, are also here. There is an observation deck on the 107th floor of one of the towers, from which you get a good view of New York.

The Lower East Side. Originally, the Lower East Side was an elegant district. When New York was the capital of the United States, President George Washington lived in the Lower East Side.

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[1] Stock Exchange [ˈstɔk ɪksˈtʃeɪnd] фондовая биржа
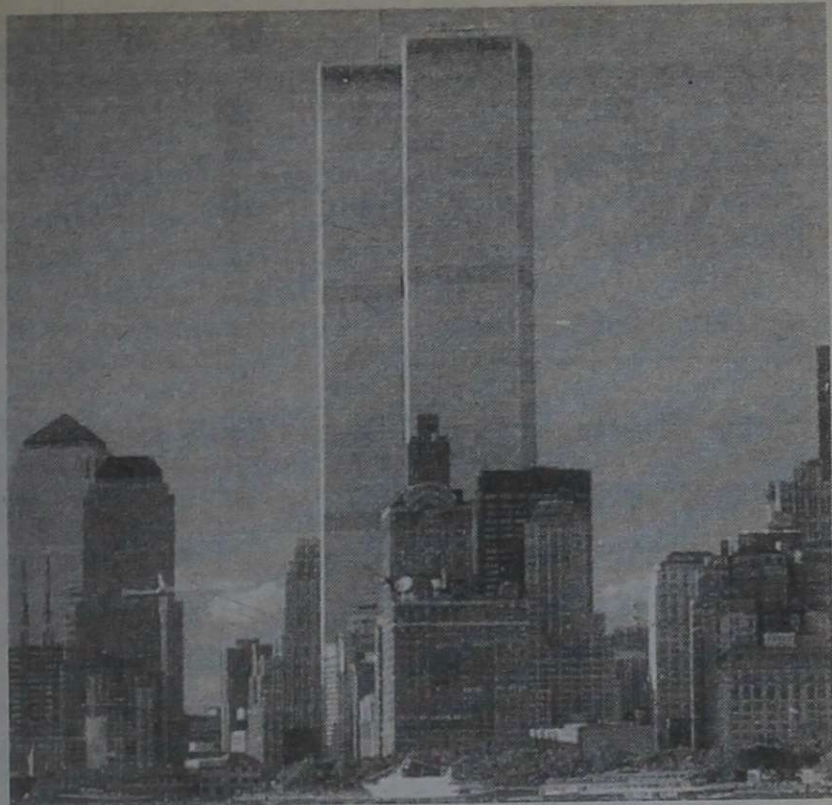
The World Trade Centre

By the mid-1800's the Lower East Side had greatly changed. It had become an area in which immigrants settled. First there were many Irish[1], then came many Jews[2] from Eastern Europe. In recent years many Jews have moved to other places, and a new immigrant group has settled here — Puerto Ricans and other Hispanics.

Little Italy. Near the Lower East Side there is another area that also attracted immigrants. It is Little Italy, which is famous for its food.

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[1] Irish [ˈaɪərɪʃ] ирландцы
[2] Jews [dʒuːz] евреи

Italians settled Little Italy at the same time that Jews settled the Lower East Side. Like the Jews, many Italians have now moved to other places. Little Italy has become smaller. But the Italian restaurants and cafes remain popular with tourists and Italians alike.

Chinatown. Close to Little Italy yet another immigrant area is situated — Chinatown. Today Chi-

Chinatown

natown is the only immigrant community in Manhattan that is still growing. Chinatown has seven newspapers of its own. Its 200 restaurants serve traditional Chinese food.

The Lower West Side. Greenwich Village[1], an area situated in Lower West Side, is mostly a resi-

A tree-lined street in Greenwich Village

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[1] Greenwich ['grenɪʃ] Village Гринвич Виллидж

dential area. Its elegant-looking houses in narrow tree-lined streets look very picturesque and charming. In the early 1900's this charm attracted bohemians[1] — writers and artists. The rents were cheap, and for many years Greenwich Village was a place for people with different and creative ideas. It had an active nightlife with plenty of bars, restaurants and clubs. The artists, writers and political radicals spent hours and hours in the cafes.

Today rents in Greenwich Village are far from cheap, and not many artists can afford them. Greenwich Village is visited by many tourists, and some New Yorkers complain that Greenwich Village is no longer "authentic[2]". But in fact, the Village has preserved many of its authentic elements: in Washington Square, its centre, you can see street performers[3], jazz bands, police, drug dealers[4], joggers[5], and roller skaters[6].

QUESTIONS.

1. Who were the first Europeans to settle in Manhattan?
2. Why is Wall Street called Wall Street?
3. Why is Wall Street a synonym of American capitalism?
4. What kind of district is the Lower East Side?
5. What is Little Italy? Where is it?

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[1] bohemians [bou´hi:mɪənz] «богема»: люди, обычно представители художественной интеллигенции — актеры, музыканты, художники, литераторы, ведущие беспечный, беспорядочный образ жизни

[2] authentic [ɔ:´θentɪk] подлинный, достоверный, настоящий

[3] street performers уличные актеры

[4] drug dealers торговцы наркотиками

[5] joggers [´dʒɔgɔz] бегуны (те, кто бегает разминочным бегом, «трусцой»)

[6] roller skaters катающиеся на роликовых досках

Washington Square

6. Which is the only immigrant community in Manhattan that is still growing?
7. Where is Greenwich Village? How do the streets in Greenwich Village look?
8. What kind of people did the charm of Greenwich Village attract in the early 1900's?
9. What authentic elements has Greenwich Village preserved to our days? What scenes can one observe in Washington Square?

Part 3. Midtown.

Many of New York offices and jobs are concentrated in Midtown, as well as many of its famous skyscrapers.

The first skyscraper in New York was built in 1902. It was twenty storeys high.

The first building boom[1] for skyscrapers came in the late 1920's. These skyscrapers were built in art

The Chrysler Building

[1] building boom строительный бум (оживленное строительство)

deco style[1] and were abundantly and richly decorated. The most beautiful and famous of the art deco skyscrapers of that time are **the Chrysler Building**[2] and **the Empire State Building**[3], the third tallest

The Empire State Building

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[1] art deco style [´ɑːt´dekou‚staɪl] стиль «ар деко» — направление в архитектуре и прикладном искусстве, получившее распространение в Европе и Америке в 20–30 годы XX века

[2] the Chrysler [´kraɪzlə] Building Крайслер Билдинг

[3] the Empire [´empaɪə] State Building Эмпайр Стейт Билдинг

building in the world. A visitor can go to the top of the Empire State Building and admire the view of Manhattan. The Empire State Building has become a symbol of New York.

Rockefeller Centre[1], which was built in the 1930's, is the world's largest privately owned business and entertainment centre. Today it consists of

The United Nations building

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nineteen buildings, which include offices, shops, and various places of entertainment.

In the 1950's there was a second building boom, which introduced a new style — buildings of steel and glass. The United Nations Secretariat[1] building was the first steel-and-glass skyscraper. The new style became very popular, and today there are a lot of steel-and-glass skyscrapers in Manhattan.

Times Square. Times Square got its name from the New York Times, the most popular newspaper

Times Square

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[1] The United Nations Secretariat [ðə juːˈnaɪtɪd ˈneɪʃnz ˌsekrɪˈtɛərɪət] секретариат Организации Объединенных Наций

in America, which has its main office there. The New York Times is regarded as one of the best newspapers in the country. New York's other main newspapers are the New York Daily News, the New York Post and the New York Newsday.

The Theatre District. It begins at Times Square and occupies an area in or near Broadway[1] between the 40's and 50's Streets. Most Broadway theatres are located in this area. Broadway has long been the centre of theatre life in the United States. Many plays which are first staged in other cities hope to finally come to Broadway.

QUESTIONS.

1. When was the first skyscraper built in New York? How many storeys high was it?
2. When did the first building boom for skyscrapers come? What style were the first skyscrapers built in? Name two most famous skyscrapers of that period.
3. What is Rockefeller Centre? How many buildings does it include?
4. When did the new style in skyscraper building come? What world-famous building is an example of this style?
5. Explain the name "Times Square".
6. Which are New York's main newspapers, besides the New York Times?
7. What area has long been the centre of theatre life in the United States?

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[1] Broadway ['brɔːdweɪ] Бродвей

Part 4. Upper (Uptown) Manhattan.

Central Park. Practically the whole of the Manhattan area is a sea of concrete. Luckily for New Yorkers, there is one exception: Central Park.

This huge park in the middle of the city was designed in the 1850's by the landscape architect Frederick Law Olmsted[1]. Olmsted wanted to build a large beautiful park where a lot of New York residents, "rich and poor, young, and old", could rest and enjoy nature.

You can take a ride through Central Park in a little carriage pulled by a horse, or rent a bicycle. There are many attractions in the park: a zoo, a skating-rink, an old-fashioned carousel, a lake with boats, and an outdoor theatre.

The eastern side. After Central Park was opened in 1876, some wealthy New Yorkers soon built mansions along Fifth Avenue on Central Park's eastern

Central park

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[1] Frederick Law Olmsted ['fredrɪk'lɔ:'ɔmsted] Фредерик Ло Олмстэд

The Metropolitan Museum of Art

side. The family of Vanderbilts[1] had as many as eleven mansions on Fifth Avenue along Central Park.

Now many of these mansions hold art collections. There are so many museums in this part of Fifth Avenue, that it is called "Museum Mile". One of the museums is **the Metropolitan Museum of Art**, with huge collections of art from all over the world. It is one of the most important museums in the United States.

The western side. The street on the western side of Central Park has large and unusual-looking apartment buildings. When the first of these buildings was being built, people were surprised. They were sure that people who had much money would not want to live in an apartment house, especially so far from the centre of the city (and people with little money could not afford living there because the apartments were very large and rich, so the rent was very high). Indeed, people said, the place was so far from the centre, that it was the same as build-

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[1] Vanderbilt [ˈvændəbɪlt] Вандербильт
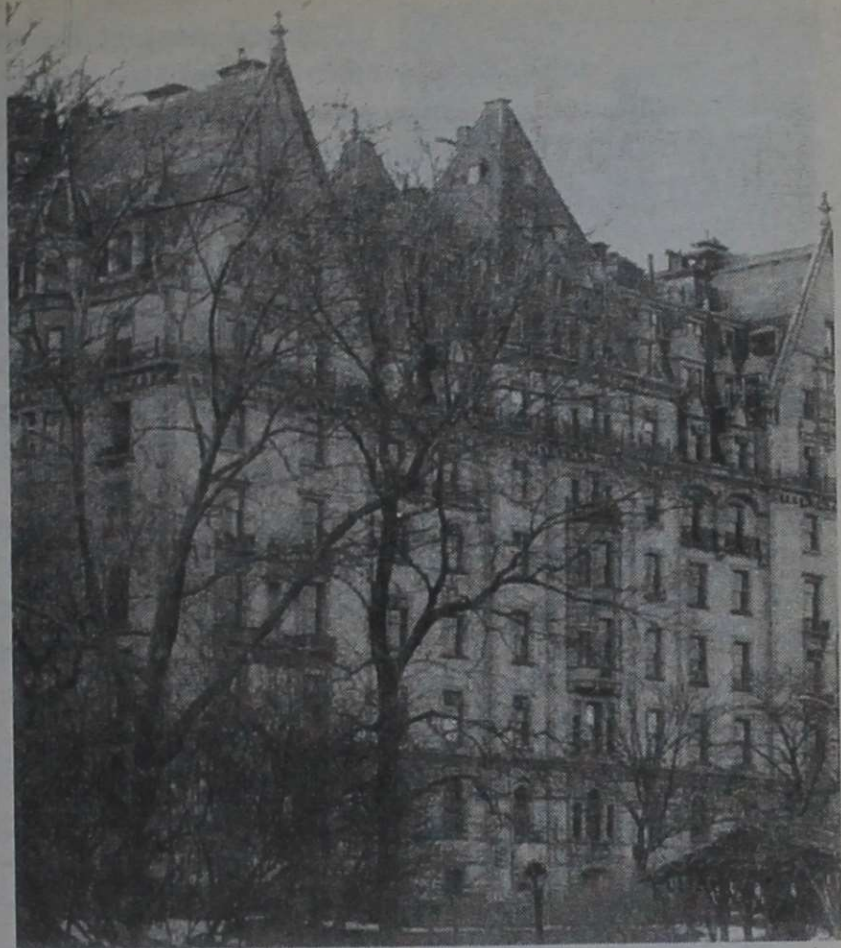
The Dakota building

ing these apartment houses in the Dakotas[1]. The
builder liked the comparison, and called his build-
ing the Dakota. Surprisingly, when the building was
finished, very soon every apartment was occupied.
The apartments were very good, and the place with

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[1] the Dakotas [ðə dəˈkoutəz] «Дакоты»: ссылка на то, что
штаты Северная Дакота и Южная Дакота расположены
очень далеко от Нью-Йорка

the view on Central Park attracted people. Some very famous people have lived in the Dakota, among them the conductor and composer **Leonard Bernstein**[1] and one of the famous Beatles musicians **John Lennon**[2], who was killed right outside the building on December 8, 1980.

Harlem. Housing construction began in Harlem after 1900. But at first very few people needed new apartments in Manhattan, and the new buildings remained empty. Then a black man gave an idea to the building owners: why not rent the apartments to the black families who wanted to move from the old, half-ruined apartments in which they lived in downtown Manhattan? The idea worked, and in this way Harlem became an area mostly inhabited by black population.

Soon many people began saying that in Harlem blacks had better opportunities for housing and education. Many blacks moved to Harlem, not only

Duke Ellington

from downtown Manhattan, but also from the south of the United States and even from the islands of the Caribbean.

The 1920's were the time of Harlem's flourishing. Famous jazz musicians regularly performed in Harlem, **Duke Ellington**[3] among them.

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[1] Leonard Bernstein [ˈlenəd ˈbɔːnstaɪn] Леонард Бернстайн
[2] John Lennon [ˈdʒɔn ˈlenən] Джон Леннон
[3] Duke Ellington [ˈdjuːk ˈelɪŋtən] Дюк Эллингтон

The well-known author **Langston Hughes**[1] wrote about his experience as a black.

Langston Hughes

The depression of the 1930's hit Harlem hard. With a bad economy and continued discrimination, many blacks were unable to earn a living. The area became poorer, and many middle-class blacks left. Harlem has never really recovered economically. Yet it has kept its special atmosphere and remains a centre of black culture.
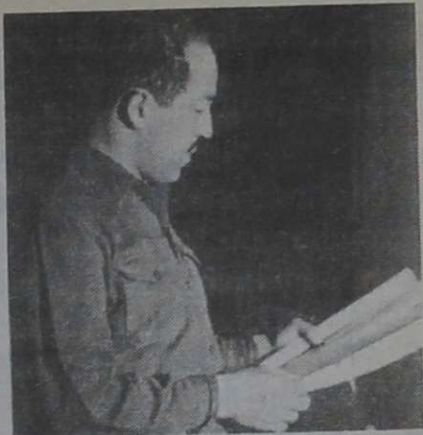
QUESTIONS.

1. When was Central Park opened? What architect designed it?
2. What can you do in Central Park? What attractions has it got?
3. What is Museum Mile? Where is it? Which is the most important museum in the United States?
4. Where are the Dakota buildings? Why are they called so? What are they famous for?
5. Where is Harlem? How did it happen that Harlem became an area of mostly black population?
6. What famous names are associated with Harlem?

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[1] Langston Hughes [ˈlæŋstən ˈhjuːz] Лэнгстон Хьюз

CHAPTER REVIEW

1. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

inhabited, conductor, designed, office, mansions, residential, boom, art deco, concentrated, symbol.

1. Greenwich Village is mostly a _____ area.
2. Many of New York offices and jobs are _____ in Midtown.
3. The first building _____ for skyscrapers came in the late 1920's.
4. The Empire State Building has become a _____ of New York.
5. The first skyscrapers were built in _____ style.
6. Times Square got its name from the New York Times which has its main _____ there.
7. Central Park was _____ in the 1850's by the landscape architect Frederick Law Olmsted.
8. Wealthy New Yorkers built _____ along Fifth Avenue on Central Park's eastern side.
9. The Dakota has had many famous residents, including the _____ and composer Leonard Bernstein.
10. Harlem became an area mostly _____ by black population.

II. Write detailed answers to the following questions:

1. What is Downtown Manhattan? Which districts of it do you know?
2. What skyscrapers in Manhattan do you know? What do you know about Rockefeller Centre?
3. What are the streets on the western and eastern sides of Central Park noted for?

CHAPTER 4
OTHER AMERICAN CITIES

Part 1. Washington, the Nation's Capital.

A visitor to Washington D.C. is impressed by the straight tree-lined avenues of the capital city and grand houses in neo-classical style.

Washington D. C. is situated on **the Potomac[1] River**. The author of the design for the capital city was the French engineer **Pierre Charles L'Enfant[2]**. His design is based on Versailles[3], a palace near Paris[4]. The capital city is criss-crossed by broad avenues, which meet in spacious squares and circles.

The central place of the city is **the Mall[9]**, a large open space, a kind of park, stretching from the build-
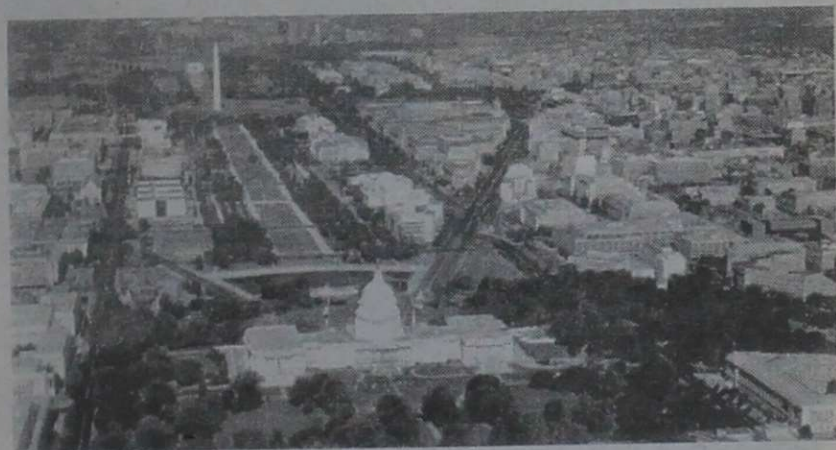
Washington D. C.

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[1] Potomac [pə'toumæk] Потомак
[2] Pierre Charles L'Enfant ['pjer 'ʃɑːl lɑːŋ'fɑːŋ] Пьер Шарль Л'Анфан
[3] Versailles [vɛə'saɪ] Версаль
[4] Paris ['pærɪs] Париж
[5] the Mall [ðə 'mɔːl] Молл

283

ing of **the Capitol**[1] to **Lincoln Memorial**, with **Washington Memorial** in the middle. The Mall is often used by people for public meetings, picnics, games, concerts, etc.

On both sides of the Mall are the numerous buildings of **the Smithsonian Institution**[2] — a group of museums, scientific buildings and collections. James Smithson[3] was an English scientist of the 19th century, who left his entire fortune to the United States, asking to use it in order to found "an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge". The Smithsonian Institution was founded in 1846, and it includes now thirteen museums.

Capitol Hill

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[1] the Capitol [ðə ˈkæpɪtl] Капитолий
[2] the Smithsonian Institution [ðə smɪθ ˈsounjən ˌɪnstɪ ˈtjuːʃn] Смитсоновский институт
[3] James Smithson [ˈdʒeɪmz ˈsmɪθsn] Джемс Смитсон

There is only one business in Washington, and this business is government. The executive departments are located in Washington. Most of the people who live in Washington work for the federal government.

When you are in Washington, you can visit the **White House**. You won't see the President at work, because the offices and the living quarters of the White House are closed to the public. But you can visit Capitol Hill, and there you will be able to see the work of the other two branches of government: **the Senate, the House of Representatives** and **the Supreme Court** have public galleries.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the first impression of a visitor to Washington?
2. Who designed the plan of Washington? What was the design based on?
3. What is the central part of the capital city?
4. What memorials are situated in or near the Mall?
5. What is the Smithsonian Institution? How and when was it founded?

Part 2. Chicago.

Chicago is the centre of the Midwest and a typical American city.

It is situated on **Lake Michigan**. Waterways (and later railroad lines) have made Chicago a natural link between the products of the Midwest and the markets of the East. For a long time now Chicago has been an important centre of meatpacking and grain storage. There are also many factories in Chicago which produce farm equipment. Chicago has

Sunset over Chicago and Lake Michigan

played a great role in the growth of the Midwest and of the United States. The population of Chicago has also grown rapidly. In 1850 its population was 50 thousand people. Now it is one of the most populated cities in the United States.

In 1871 there was a great fire, which destroyed nearly the whole of Chicago. The city needed rebuilding. The skyscraper — a typical feature of America — appeared in the course of this rebuilding.

In the 1880's and 1890's Chicago attracted engineers and architects from America and Europe. These men are now known as the Chicago school. In later years, the traditions which they began have been developed by others who worked in Chicago and other places.

Like New York, Chicago is a city of skyscrapers. Chicago's tallest buildings are the John Hancock[1] Tower (or "Big John", as they call it), the Standard Oil Building ("Big Stan") and the Sears Tower[2], which is the tallest building in the world.

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[1] John Hancock [ˈdʒɔnˈhæŋkɔk] Джон Хэнкок
[2] the Sears Tower [ðə ˈsɪɔzˈtauə] Сирс тауэр

Although Chicago is situated far away from any ocean, it is famous for its beaches. Most of the area along Lake Michigan is taken up by beaches and parks.

QUESTIONS.

1. Where is Chicago situated?
2. In what way did Chicago play a great role in the growth of the Midwest and the whole of the United States in the 19th century?
3. When did the Great Chicago Fire occur? What positive role did it play in the development of the city?
4. What is the Chicago school of architects?
5. Which are the tallest buildings in Chicago?
6. What is Chicago famous for in spite of its being situated far from any ocean? Where are the beaches?

Part 3. New Orleans.

New Orleans is not a typical American city. It is a city, the main business of which is pleasure.

New Orleans was founded by the French in 1718. It became part of the United States only in 1803. So, for nearly a hundred years, it was more like a city of the French Caribbean than of North America. By taking many elements of different cultures, it has created its own unique culture.

The city began with what is now the French Quarter. The beautiful houses of the French Quarter, which the rich planters of the South built for their pleasure and comfort, have spacious courtyards and cosy patios, richly decorated interiors with high ceilings and large windows.

New Orleans.
The French Quarter

A street musician

New Orleans is the place where jazz and the blues[1] really began. There are still many jazz clubs in New Orleans, for example the club in Bourbon Street[2] in the French Quarter. If you visit New Orleans in spring, you can go to **the New Orleans Jazz Festival**. There you will hear everything from fiddlers to large jazz bands, from street musicians to "big names" in music. At lunch time a visitor can taste local traditional dishes: alligator soup and crawfish pie.

The city's most famous festival is **Mardi Gras**[3] (Fat Tuesday). It is held the week before Lent[4] (the

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[1] the blues [ðə blu:z] блюзы (лирические песни американских негров, обычно выражающие тоску по утраченному счастью)

[2] Bourbon Street [ˈbuəbən ˌstri:t] Бурбон стрит

[3] Mardi Gras [ˈmɑ:dɪ ˈgrɑ:] Марди Гра (вторник на масленой неделе)

[4] Lent Великий пост

period of fasting before Easter[1]). During the Mardi Gras Festival many parades are organized, and even spectators dress in fancy costumes[2]. In recent years they also hold a traditional costume contest during Mardi Gras.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is unusual about New Orleans as an American city?
2. How does the history of New Orleans explain its being different from typical American cities?
3. What is the French Quarter? What is characteristic of the district's architecture?
4. What is New Orleans famous for in the way of music?
5. What is the New Orleans Jazz Festival?
6. Name two traditional New Orleans dishes.
7. Which is New Orleans' most famous festival? How is it held?

Part 4. San Francisco.

Until the 1840's San Francisco was a settlement of 200 people. It grew and became important thanks to the Gold Rush[3]. Forty-niners[4], who came to California by ship, passed San Francisco on their way. Many of them returned to San Francisco and stayed there. In a few years the population of the city was 50 thousand.

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[1] Easter ['i:stə] Пасха

[2] fancy costumes ['fænsı 'kɔstjumz] маскарадные костюмы

[3] the Gold Rush Золотая лихорадка

[4] Forty-niners «сорокдевятники» — так называли людей, в огромном количестве прибывших в 1849 году со всех концов страны и всего мира в Калифорнию на поиски золота

The Great Earthquake of 1906

In 1906 San Francisco was hit by a destructive earthquake. Eye-witnesses described buildings dancing and falling to pieces, whole streets moving like ocean waves. The earthquake was followed by fires that could not be stopped because the water supply of the city was destroyed. Only on the fifth day it started raining, and the rains put out the fires. Three-fourths of the city had burned down.

San Francisco is an unusual and very picturesque city. It is surrounded by water on three sides. It stands on forty hills. The city is also famous for its cable cars, which climb up and down the hills, and for its fine houses along steep and narrow streets.

San Francisco has a reputation of an intellectual, liberal and slightly crazy city — a city where you come across new and different ideas.

In the 1950's San Francisco's North Beach was a centre for "beat poets"[1]. In the mid-1960's one of

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[1] beat poets «битники» — анархически-бунтарское движение молодежи, возникшее после Второй мировой войны и выражавшееся в протесте против общепринятых стандартов и образа жизни

A cable car

the districts of San Francisco gave rise to hippies[1].

In the late 1960's America was swept by college protests[2]. These protests also began in the San Francisco area — at **Berkeley**[3], the University of California, which has always been known for academic excellence.

The symbol of San Francisco is **the Golden Gate**[4] **Bridge**, which opened in 1937 — a beautiful sus-

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[1] hippies «хиппи» — молодежное движение 60-х годов, аналогичное предыдущему, выражавшее свой протест длинными волосами, экстравагантной одеждой и манерой поведения

[2] America was swept by college protests По Америке прокатилась волна студенческих протестов

[3] Berkeley [ˈbɔːklɪ] Беркли

[4] the Golden Gate Золотые ворота

The Golden Gate Bridge

pension bridge[1] over the Golden Gate, a strait connecting San Francisco Bay[2] to the Pacific Oceans.

QUESTIONS.

1. How did San Francisco grow?
2. What disaster hit San Francisco in 1906?
3. What are the peculiarities of San Francisco's geographical position?
4. What means of public transportation is San Francisco famous for?
5. What reputation does San Francisco have?
6. What is Berkeley? What is it known for?
7. What structure has been the symbol of San Francisco since 1937?

Part 5. Los Angeles.

In the first place, Los Angeles is known as the centre of movie industry. Many film stars live in or near Los Angeles.

_____

[1] a suspension [səs'penʃn] bridge подвесной мост
[2] San Francisco Bay Бухта Сан-Франциско

Los Angeles is a rich and glamorous place. The **Beverly Hills**[3] area is famous for its beautiful mansions and high-priced shops.

Los Angeles is a rapidly-growing city. Its suburbs are not really suburbs: they have developed
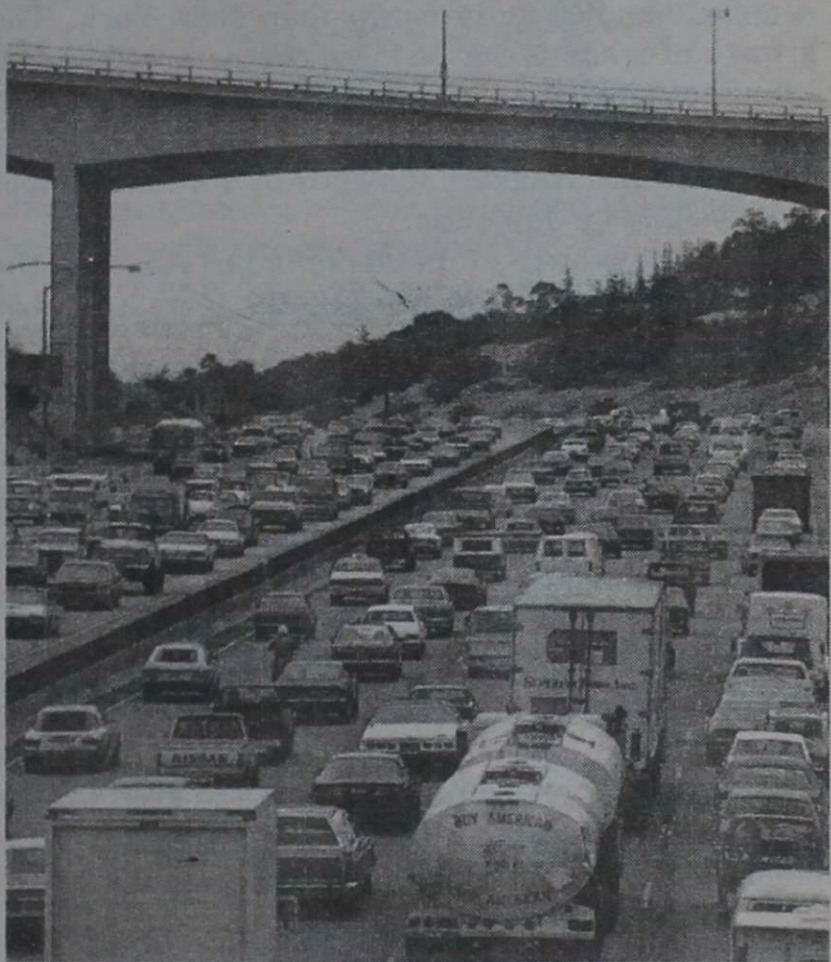
Rush-hour in Los Angeles

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[3] Beverly Hills ['bevəlɪ,hɪlz] Беверли Хиллз (богатый район Лос Анжелеса

many businesses of their own. Los Angeles keeps spreading out into farmland and even desert.

Los Angeles's growth is supported by its diverse economy. The city is not only a centre of entertainment and tourism. It is also a big centre of manufacturing, finance, oil and trade. The port of Los Angeles handles more cargo than New York. The growth of trade is due to close contacts with Asian countries. Asian companies have invested a lot of money in Los Angeles; as a result, three-fourths of downtown Los Angeles is owned by foreign companies, mostly by Japanese.

With the growth of distances in Los Angeles, the importance of the car has greatly increased. Los Angeles's highways are busiest in North America. There are days, when the "rush hour" lasts not an hour, but the whole day.

Los Angeles faces some other serious problems. The traffic is so heavy, that the city has the dirtiest air in the United States: very often people cannot see the sun though the sky is cloudless — the sun is completely hidden by smog.

The other problems of the city are crime and violence. Police say that there are at least 500 gangs in Los Angeles. Experts insist that these problems must be solved if Los Angeles wants to keep to[1] the Southern Californian lifestyle for which it is famous.

QUESTIONS.

1. What do you think of in the first place when you think of Los Angeles?

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[1] to keep to придерживаться

2. How is Los Angeles growing? What is the peculiarity of its suburbs?
3. What is Los Angeles's growth supported by?
4. What serious problems does Los Angeles face in connection with the rapid growth of its economy, territory and population?

CHAPTER REVIEW

I. Fill in the blanks with the correct words from the list:

smog, link, forty-niners, criss-crossed, earthquake, markets, spacious, unique, mansions, beaches.

1. The capital city Washington D.C. is _____ by broad avenues which meet in _____ squares and circles.
2. New Orleans has taken elements of many cultures and created its own _____ culture.
3. Waterways made Chicago a natural _____ between the products of the Midwest and the _____ of the East.
4. Though miles from any ocean, Chicago is famous for its _____ .
5. _____ who came to California by ship passed through San Francisco.
6. In 1906 San Francisco was hit by a destructive _____ .
7. The Beverly Hills area is famous for its _____ and high-priced shops.
8. Very often the sunshine in Los Angeles is hidden by _____ .

II. Write a detailed answer to the following question:

Who was James Smithson? What is Smithsonian Institution? Where is it located?

FAMOUS AMERICANS

Ætatis suæ 21. Aº 1616.

POCAHONTAS
(1595?–1617)

In 1607, a group of white people came and set-
tled in what is now the state of Virginia. This land
belonged to an Indian tribe. Their leader became
known to Europeans as Chief Powhatan[1].

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[1] Powhatan [pouǝ'tæn] Похатан

Chief Powhatan had a young daughter named Pocahontas[1]. Her name means "the playful one". She was trusting and curious about the white people. She often visited them, and soon the settlers knew her well and liked her. She learned a few words of English, and Chief Powhatan and his people hoped that she would be able to help keep peace with the whites. Pocahontas carried messages between the settlers and the Indians.

As more and more whites came to the settlement of the Europeans, the Indians were getting angry: the whites were gradually taking away the Indians' land. In anger, the Indians captured Captain John Smith, the leader of the white settlement. According to a story that was told later, 12-year-old Pocahontas saved Captain Smith's life by begging her father not to kill him. After this event, the English trusted her even more.

When she was about 17, Pocahontas fell in love with an Englishman named John Rolfe[2]. She became a Christian and married Rolfe in 1614. Their marriage marked the beginning of a period of peace between the colonists and the Indians.

Later Pocahontas and Rolfe had a son. They visited England, where Pocahontas met the King and Queen. Unfortunately, just before the family was to return to the colonies, Pocahontas fell ill with smallpox. She died in 1617.

In spite of her short life, Pocahontas is remembered as a symbol of friendship between the whites and the American Indians.

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[1] Pocahontas [ˌpɔkəˈhɔntəs] Покахонтас
[2] John Rolfe [ˈdʒɔnˈrɔlf] Джон Ролф
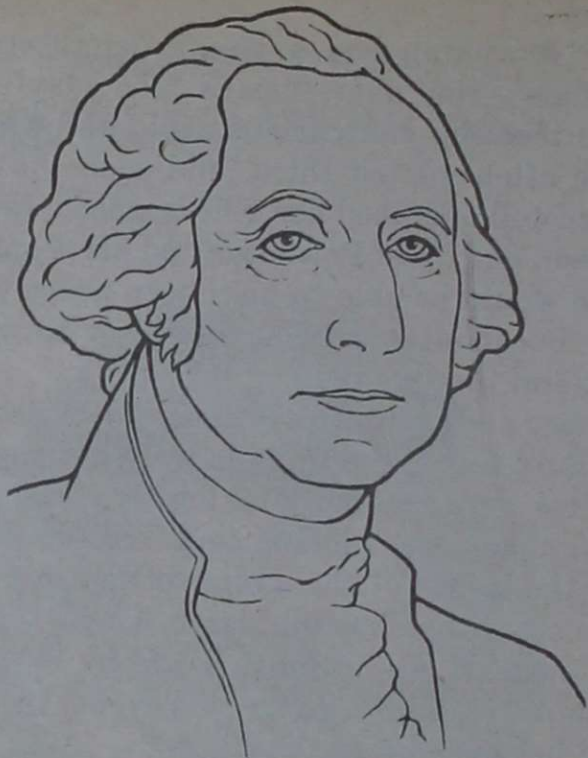
GEORGE WASHINGTON
(1732–1799)

George Washington was born in the family of a Virginian planter. When he was 20 years old, he was appointed major of Virginia militia[5], and three years later he was made colonel[2] and commander of all Virginia's forces. He took part in the French and Indian War in 1754–1763 and distinguished himself by capturing Fort Duquesne[3].

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[1] Virginia militia [vəˈdʒɪnɪə mɪˈlɪʃə] Вирджинская милиция (вооруженные силы, формировавшиеся не из профессиональных военных, а из гражданского населения)

[2] colonel [ˈkɜːnl] полковник

[3] Duquesne [djuˈkeɪn] Дьюкейн

After 1770 getting independence from Britain became the major problem in the American colonies. In 1774 George Washington was chosen one of Virginia's delegates to the First, and in 1775 to the Second Continental Congress. When the War for Independence began, Washington was appointed commander-in-chief of all the colonial forces.

Washington clearly understood the difficulty of fighting a powerful enemy with a badly equipped and poorly trained army. The colonists were not accustomed to taking orders, and Washington faced great difficulties in his efforts to establish strict discipline.

Part of Washington's greatness lay in the fact that commanding this new kind of army, he appreciated its qualities and realized its needs. He insisted that it was necessary to impress upon the mind of every soldier the importance of the cause they were fighting for.

Washington's fidelity to the Revolution inspired others, and by 1781 he had managed to build up a strong army, which won a victory in the war.

On April 6, 1789, George Washington was unanimously elected President of the United States of America and served two terms (1789–1797).

George Washington died in 1799. In honour of the first President, the newly-built capital of the country was named Washington.
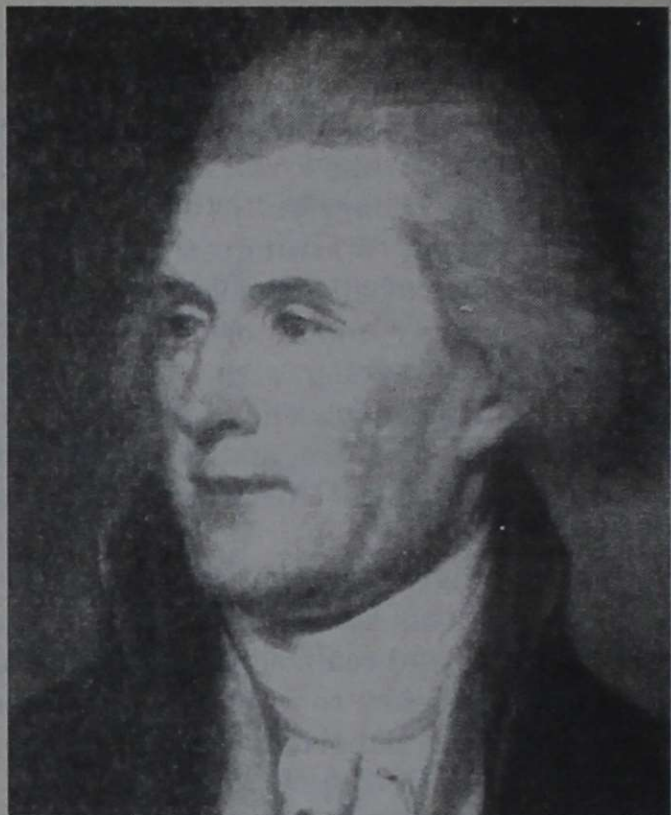
THOMAS JEFFERSON
(1743–1826)

Thomas Jefferson was an outstanding American revolutionary democrat, the author of the immortal "Declaration of Independence"[1].

He was born in the family of a Virginian planter, and received a very good education at the College of William and Mary[2], a prominent institution of higher

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[1] the Declaration of Independence [ðə ˌdeklɔˈreɪʃn ɔv ˌɪndɔˈpendɔns] Декларация о независимости

[2] the College of William and Mary [ðə ˈkɔlɪdʒ ɔv ˈwɪljɔm ɔndˈmɛɔrɪ] Колледж Уильяма и Мэри

learning in the American colonies. Before he was 30 years old, he had studied half a dozen languages, law, mathematics, philosophy and science. A self-taught architect, he designed some of the most beautiful houses in the world. He created the American system of money. Jefferson had the reputation of one of the best-educated people of that time.

In 1775 Jefferson was sent as a delegate to the Second Continental Congress, where he wrote the Declaration of Independence. The Declaration was adopted on July 4, 1776.

In 1783 Jefferson was sent on a diplomatic mission[1] to France, and in 1786 he took part in concluding a peace treaty with Britain. In 1789 President Washington appointed him Secretary of State[2]. In 1796 Jefferson was elected vice-president, and in 1801 — President of the United States of America. He became the third President and served two terms, until 1809.

Jefferson's greatest achievement as President was in expanding the area of the United States westward. Believing that the future of the United States lay in the West, Jefferson sent his diplomats to Paris with an offer to buy the Louisiana Territory lying to the west of the Mississippi River which belonged to France. Napoleon, who needed a lot of money for waging his wars, agreed to sell Louisiana for 15 million dollars. The Louisiana Purchase[3] dou-

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[1] was sent on a diplomatic [ˌdɪpləˈmætɪk] mission [mɪʃn] был послан с дипломатической миссией

[2] Secretary of State государственный секретарь (министр иностранных дел)

[3] The Louisiana Purchase [ðə luˌiːzɪˈænəˈpɔːtʃəs] Приобретение Луизианы

bled the size of the United States and extended its boundaries beyond the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains. It was also Jefferson's idea to send the Lewis and Clark expedition[1] to the Pacific.

In 1809, when his second term was over, Jefferson retired to his estate, but to his last days he kept in touch with public affairs through a large correspondence. He died on July 4, 1826, on the 50th anniversary of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence.

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[1] the Lewis ['luːɪs] and Clark [klɑːk] expedition Экспедиция Льюиса и Кларка

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
(1706–1790)

In the 1700's Philadelphia, like New York and Boston, was one of the three largest and most modern cities in the colonies. One of the leading citizens of Philadelphia was Benjamin Franklin[1].

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[1] Benjamin Franklin ['bendʒəmɪn'fræŋklɪn] Бенджамин Франклин

Franklin was a man of amazing energy and curiosity. There are few people in American history who have accomplished as much as he. Benjamin Franklin was an author, a scientist, an inventor, and a public figure.

Born in Boston, he later moved to Philadelphia. There he opened a printing house and published a newspaper called the Pennsylvania Gazette, which was read throughout the colonies. He also published an almanac, that is a book which comes out every year and gives a list of the days of the year, together with information about the times of sunrise and sunset, changes in the moon, weather, etc. Franklin always included a few of his own short sayings in the almanac. Here are two of them:

A penny saved is a penny earned.
Little strokes fell great oaks.

He worked hard and was very successful. The first fire department[1] in the colonies was started by Franklin in Philadelphia.

Franklin built the first library and the first hospital. He also built a school, which later became the University of Pennsylvania.

Franklin is the inventor of the lightning-rod. In June 1752, he risked his life and the life of his son William, who helped him in his experiment. They made a kite of silk on a wooden frame with a string of metal wire. Standing in the open doorway of their house, they flew their kite during a thunderstorm. Sparks jumping off the end of the string proved

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[1] fire department пожарная служба

that lightning is an electric discharge. Benjamin Franklin's lightning-rod is now used all over the world.

Franklin invented some scientific terms, which are still used (battery, semiconductor, etc.).

By the end of the 1750's Benjamin Franklin was rich and famous. Being an active public figure, he gave much of his time, attention and money to helping people. He lived a long life, and all his life he served the people and helped in forming a new nation — the United States of America.

FENIMORE COOPER
(1789–1851)

Fenimore Cooper[1] is the first well-known American novelist. Readers everywhere in the world connect his name with his books about the Indians, though he wrote other novels, some of them historical and some about travelling.

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[1] Fenimore Cooper [ˈfenɪmɔːˈkuːpə] Фенимор Купер

The son of a rich landowner, Fenimore Cooper was brought up on the family estate, Cooperstown, in New Jersey[1]. When he was only 13 years old, he entered Yale University[2]. In his third year he failed in his examinations and had to leave the university.

At the age of 17 he went to sea and spent six years as a sailor and later as an officer. He loved the sea and was ready to spend all his life at sea. He left the ship only when he got married.

For several years he lived on his estate, and it was there that he started writing novels. His novel "The Spy"[3] was written during that period. It is a historical novel about the days of the War for Independence.

In 1826 Fenimore Cooper went to Europe. He wanted to give his children a good European education. While his children were studying, he and his wife travelled a lot and visited many countries. He wrote many books about his travels.

When Fenimore Cooper returned to the United States, he began writing his famous Leather-Stocking novels[4]: "The Pioneers"[5] (1823), "The Last of the Mohicans"[6] (1826), "The Pathfinder"[7] (1840) and some others. These novels are his best works; they are all about American Indians, whom the writer describes with much warmth and understanding.

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[1] New Jersey [ˈnjuːˈdʒɜːzɪ] Нью Джерси
[2] Yale University [ˈjeɪl ˌjunɪˈvɜːsɪtɪ] Йельский университет
[3] "The Spy [ðəˈspaɪ]" "Шпион"
[4] the Leather-Stocking novels романы о Кожаном чулке
[5] "The Pioneers" "Пионеры"
[6] "The Last of the Mohicans [ˈmoʊɪkənz]" "Последний из могикан"
[7] "The Pathfinder [ˈpɑːθˌfaɪndə]" "Следопыт"
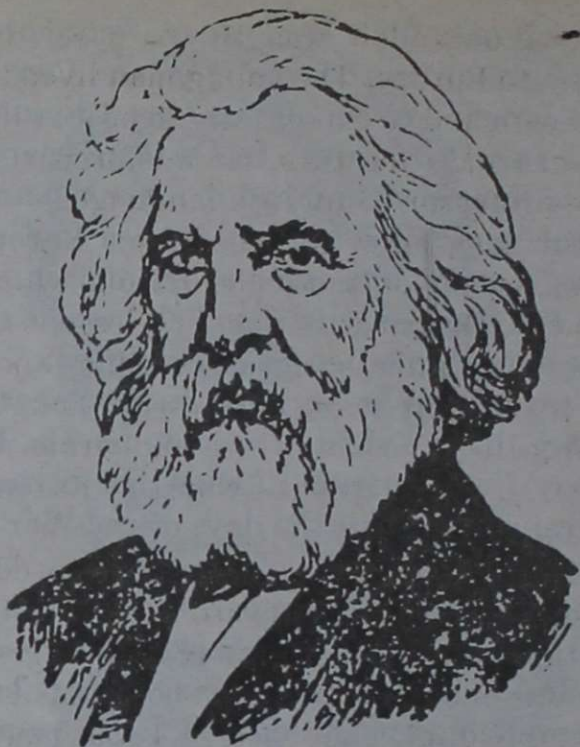
HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW
(1807–1882)

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow[1] is an outstanding American poet and humanist of the 19th century. He was born in Portland in the family of a rich lawyer. The poet's ancestors had come to America in 1620 on *the Mayflower* and built the first village in New England. His grandfather took part in the War for Independence. His uncle, a sailor, was killed on a war-ship. The family traditions helped the poet to understand the history of his country.

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[1] Henry Wadsworth Longfellow [´henrı´wɔdzwɔːθ´lɔŋ‚felou] Генри Уодсуорт Лонгфелло

When Longfellow was 19 years old, his father sent him to Europe. The young man lived in France, Italy, Spain and Germany, where he studied foreign languages and literature. He was preparing to be a college professor of foreign languages.

When Longfellow returned from Europe, he became a teacher at the college from which he had graduated. He tried to make his lessons in foreign languages as interesting as possible, and the students liked their young professor. Longfellow delivered lectures on literature and wrote poems and articles. He translated the works of European poets into English.

In 1836 Longfellow was invited to deliver lectures on literature at Harvard[1], the oldest university of the United States. In 1838 his first book of poems was published. The next book of poems, "Voices of the Night", published in 1839, made him famous.

The poet was greatly interested in old American legends and Indian folklore. His best work is a long poem called "The Song of Hiawatha"[2] (1855), which is based on old Indian legends. Readers and critics liked the poem, and it was translated into many languages. Now, a century and a half after its appearance, it is still popular.

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[1] Harvard [ˈhɑːvəd] Гарвард
[2] "The Song of Hiawatha [ðɔˈsɔŋ əv ˌhaɪəˈwɔθə]" "Песнь о Гайавате"
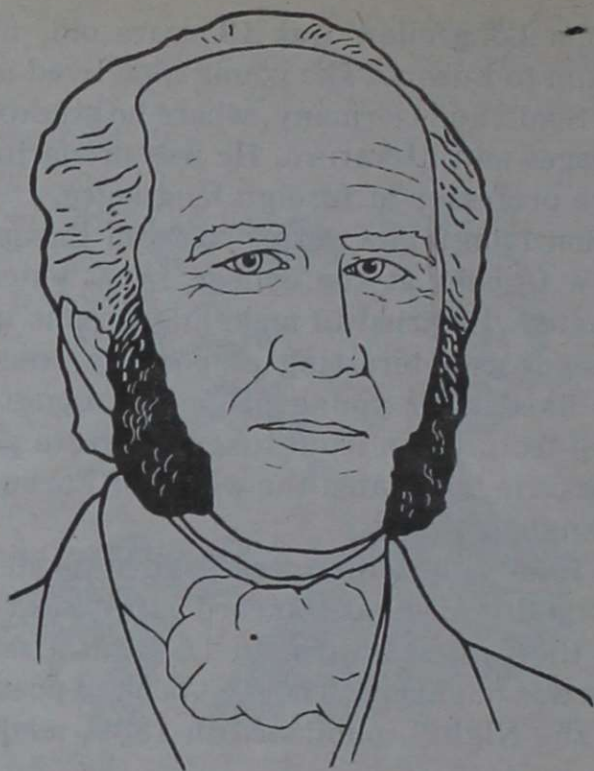
SAMUEL HOUSTON
(1793–1863)

Samuel Houston[1] was a man of many talents and experiences. He was a frontiersman, a trader, a teacher, a friend of the American Indians, a Congressman, a senator, a governor of two states, a general and president of a country!

Sam Houston was born in Virginia. As a teenager, he moved to the Tennessee frontier with his family.

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[1] Samuel Houston [ˈsæmjuəlˈhjuːstən] Сэмьюэль Хьюстон

At the age of 15 Houston left home and lived with Indians for three years. Houston fought for the Indians' rights all his life.

When he returned to Tennessee, Houston became a teacher in a country school. During the war of 1812, he joined the army and fought bravely. After the war he became a lawyer and a political figure. He served in Tennessee Congress and later became governor of Tennessee in 1827.

In 1829 he resigned and went to Texas, where he was drawn into the Texans' fight for independence of Mexico. He formed and led the Texas army.

In 1836 Houston commanded the Texans in their war against the Mexicans. The Texans defeated the Mexican army and gained their independence. Houston became the first president of the Republic of Texas. In 1845, when Texas joined the United States and became a state, he was one of its first senators.

Today Houston is remembered as one of the heroes of Texas. The city of Houston, Texas, is named after this founder of the Lone Star Republic, as the Republic of Texas was called.

SOJOURNER TRUTH
(1797–1883)

"I can't read a book, but I can read people," said Sojourner Truth[1] one day. When she said that she could "read" people, she meant that she understood how others felt. Truth used this ability to convince people that slavery was wrong and that women should have more rights.

The woman who became known as Sojourner Truth, was born a slave in New York in the late 1700's. Her mother named her Isabelle and taught her to believe in God, to obey her owner and to be truthful.

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[1] Sojourner Truth [sɔ´dʒɔːnə´truːθ] Соджэрнер Трут

New York State outlawed slavery in 1827 and Isabelle became a free woman. But other states still allowed slavery. Isabelle decided to help the people who were still slaves.

In 1843, Isabelle changed her name to Sojourner Truth. She believed that she had heard a command from God to go out into the world and preach. "Sojourner" means "traveller". So her name meant that she was a traveller who preached the truth.

Although she never went to school, Sojourner Truth was a powerful speaker. While preaching, she often sang to her audience. People who heard her said that her singing would silence the noisiest crowd.

Sojourner Truth travelled throughout the eastern and Midwestern states. Everywhere she went, she spoke and sang songs for the freedom of black people and the rights of women.

Sojourner Truth feared no opponent. Once an angry man said to her: "I don't care any more for you than I do for the bite of a flea"[1]. She replied: "Perhaps not. But... I'll keep you scratching[2]!"

Sojourner Truth died in 1883. Today, over a century after her death, this self-taught former slave is remembered as a woman who lived up to her name[3]. She was a proud but gentle fighter for the truth.

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[1] I don't care any more for you than I do for the bite of a flea [fli:] мне до вас не больше дела, чем до укуса блохи

[2] I'll keep you scratching я заставлю вас чесаться

[3] lived up to her name оправдала свое имя

HARRIET BEECHER STOWE
(1811–1896)

Harriet Beecher Stowe[1] was born in the state of Connecticut in the north of the United States in the family of a poor clergyman. The Beechers were a large and hard-working family.

At that time the family lived in a small town on the Ohio River. The town was situated not far from the part of the South where the life of the slaves was especially hard. Runaway slaves often crossed the Ohio River on their way to Canada. Harriet heard stories of slave markets, of broken Negro families, of the cruelties of masters.

In 1836 she married Calvin Stowe[2], a professor of theology. They were not rich, and Harriet had

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[1] Harriet Beecher Stowe [ˈhærɪət ˈbiːtʃə ˈstou] Гарриет Бичер-Стоу

[2] Calvin Stowe [ˈkælvɪn ˈstou] Кальвин Стоу

much work to do in the house, as well as looking after her children. She had four sons and three daughters. When she had time, she attended a literary club and tried to write short stories.

Harriet's father organized an anti-slavery society. Harriet was an active member of the society. She knew the conditions of life on the plantations and wrote articles for the newspaper published by the society. The articles described facts of the cruel treatment of Negroes by slave-owners.

In 1852 Harriet Beecher Stowe published the novel "Uncle Tom's Cabin"[1]. The book had a great influence on the anti-slavery movement. All over the country people discussed the novel. The book convinced many people that slavery was an evil that had to end.

Some American critics attacked the book, saying that the facts described in the novel were not true. Then Harriet Beecher Stowe published another book, "Key to 'Uncle Tom's Cabin'"[2] (1853). It was a collection of the documents used in her novel.

During the Civil War between the North and the South, Harriet Beecher Stowe wrote leaflets to the soldiers of the North. She was proud of her son, who was a soldier in the army of the North. In 1862 Abraham Lincoln, President of the USA, received her at the White House and said: "So, you are the little woman that provoked the great war".

When Harriet Beecher Stowe died, many flowers were laid on her grave, with these words: "From Uncle Tom's children".

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[1] "Uncle Tom's Cabin" "Хижина дяди Тома"
[2] "Key [ki:] to 'Uncle Tom's Cabin'" "Ключ к 'Хижине дяди Тома'"
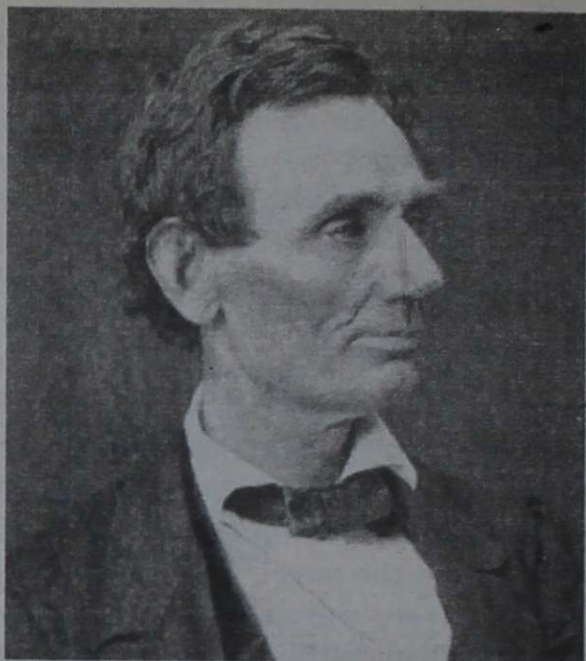
ABRAHAM LINCOLN
(1809–1865)

Abraham Lincoln[1] was born in a log cabin on a small farm in Kentucky, in the family of a wandering labourer. The family was constantly on the move, and so Abraham did not get any regular education. But the boy loved to read books, and usually, after finishing the day's chores, he read late into the night by candlelight.

When Lincoln was a young man, he moved with his family to Illinois[2], where he spent six years, working in a shop, acting as a local postmaster,

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[1] Abraham Lincoln [ˈeɪbrəhæmˈlɪŋkən] Авраам Линкольн
[2] Illinois [ˌɪlɪˈnɔɪ] Иллинойс

doing other jobs, and all the while studying grammar, law, reading newspapers, thus laying the foundation for his future success.

In 1836 Lincoln began practising law[1]. In 1837 he moved to Springfield, which by that time had become the capital of the state. In 1846 he was elected to the United States Congress.

With time, Lincoln's name became associated with abolitionist movement. Lincoln was a quiet, gentle person. In arguing with others about slavery, he never became angry with those who disagreed with him. He simply said that slavery was wrong. "If slavery is not wrong, nothing is wrong," he used to say.

On November 6, 1860, Abraham Lincoln was elected sixteenth President of the United States. Now the country was clearly split into two opposing camps: the free-from-slavery Northern states and the slave-owning Southern states. This fact led to the movement of secession[2] of Southern states and the Civil War, one of the saddest periods in the history of the United States.

When the war began, the greatness of Lincoln's mind and heart were unexcelled. As long as he lived and ruled the people of the North, there could be no turning back. A true champion of freedom, he wrote: "As I would not be a slave, so I would not be a master[3]. This expresses my idea of democracy." Lin-

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[1] began practising law [ɔ:] начал заниматься юридической деятельностью

[2] secessiòn [sə'seʃn] выход (из состава Соединенных Штатов)

[3] As I would not be a slave, so I would not be a master Как я не согласился бы быть рабом, так же я не согласился бы быть и хозяином

coln's determination soon began to be widely felt and appreciated by common people. The belief that he could be trusted spread quickly. "Honest Abe"[1] was his nickname.

In 1864, Abraham Lincoln was unanimously re-elected President.

But this great man had ruthless enemies. On April 14, 1865, during a theatrical performance in Washington, Lincoln was mortally wounded by a southern conspirator. Early the next morning he died.

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[1] Honest Abe ['ɔnist'eib] Честный Эб
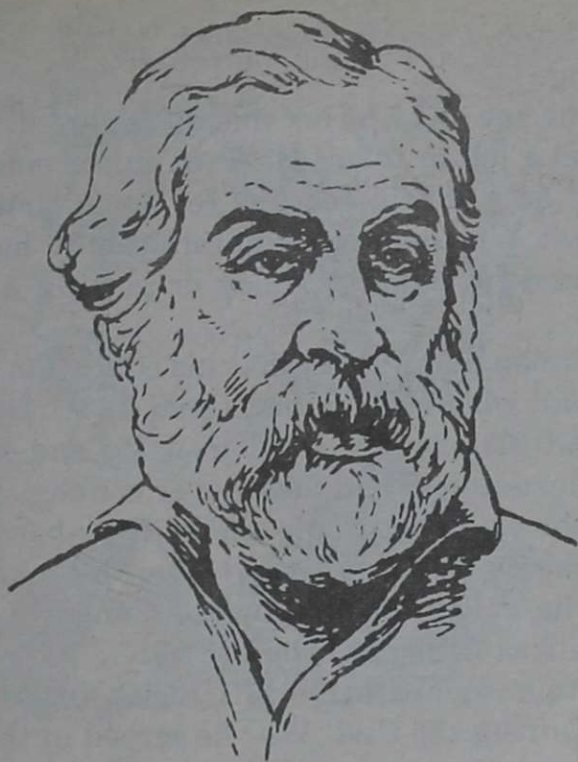
WALT WHITMAN
(819–1892)

The poet Walt Whitman[1] was born in a small country place on Long Island, not far from New York City. His father was a poor farmer and a carpenter. All his life Walt Whitman was proud of being "one of the people", as he said.

When Whitman was 11 years old, he had to leave school and start working to help his family. He became an office-boy at a lawyer's office. Later he

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[1] Walt Whitman [ˈwɔːltˈwɪtmən] Уолт Уитмэн

worked for a small newspaper, where he learned printing.

At the age of 17 he became unemployed. He could not find a job in town. He went to the country and worked as a school teacher for some time. People said that Whitman was unpractical, as he was not interested in making money or getting a place in society.

Whitman understood that his education was very poor, and whenever he had time, he studied literature and history. He tried to write and wrote poems, short stories and newspaper articles. He wrote about the common people and of their hard life. He loved the common people whose life he knew very well. His collection of poems, named "Leaves of Grass", was first published in 1855.

Whitman sympathized with the abolitionist movement. During the Civil War he served in the Northern army and continued writing poems. At the beginning of the Civil War he was a romantic, but the war made him a realist.

Whitman knew America and Americans better than any poet before him. He wrote with understanding about the farmer in the field, the teacher in the classroom, the clerk in the office, the publisher at his desk, and the carpenter in his workshop.

Walt Whitman occupies a special place in American literature. He seldom used rhymes in his poems and his poems are written in everyday language: they are more like prose than poetry. But he showed America as no one ever had done it before him.
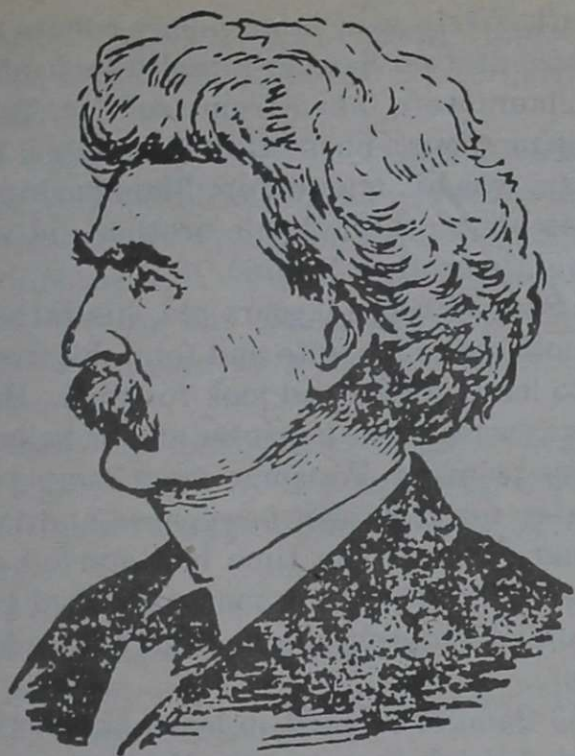
MARK TWAIN
(1835–1910)

Samuel Langhorne Clemens[1], known to the world as Mark Twain[2], was the son of a small-town lawyer in the State of Missouri[3]. When the boy was 5 years old, he was sent to school. Little Samuel did not like school, but he had many friends and was their leader. In summer, when school was over, the boys spent many happy hours on the Missouri River.

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[1] Samuel Langhorne Clemens [ˈsæmjuəlˈlæŋhɔːnˈklemənz] Сэмюэль Лэнгхорн Клеменс

[2] Mark Twain [ˈmɑːkˈtweɪn] Марк Твен

[3] Missouri [mɪˈzuərɪ] Миссури

As Mark Twain said later, many events in "The Adventures of Tom Sawyer"[1] really took place and the characters were taken from real life. Tom Sawyer was very often a portrait of the writer; Huckleberry Finn[2] was his friend Tom Blankenship[3]; Aunt Polly[4] was his mother; Tom's brother Sid was like Mark Twain's brother Henry[5].

When Samuel was 11 years old, his father died, leaving nothing to his wife and four children. Samuel had to leave school and look for work. His elder brother was working as a printer and he helped Samuel to learn printing. For some years Samuel worked as a printer for the town newspaper and later for his brother, who at the time had started a small newspaper. The two young men published it themselves. Samuel wrote short humorous stories for their newspaper.

In 1853 Samuel decided to leave home. He went first to St. Louis[6], then to New York, then to Philadelphia, where he worked as a printer. At the age of 20 he found a job on a boat travelling up and down the Mississippi. On that boat he learned the work of a pilot[7]. The pilot had to know the river very well when he took a ship along it. Depths on the river were marked by signs called "mark one", "mark two", etc. "Mark Twain" was the way sailors

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[1] "The Adventures of Tom Sawyer" "Приключения Тома Сойера"

[2] Huckleberry Finn ['hʌklbərɪ'fɪn] Гекльберри Финн

[3] Tom Blankenship ['tɔm'blæŋkənʃɪp] Том Блэнкеншип

[4] Aunt Polly ['ɑːnt'pɔlɪ] тетя Полли

[5] Henry ['henrɪ] Генри

[6] St. Louis [snt'luːɪ] Сент Луис

[7] a pilot [ə'paɪlət] лоцман

pronounced "mark two". Young Samuel Clemens liked this word combination and later used it as his pen-name.

Like many other Americans at that time, Samuel Clemens went to California and worked on gold-mines for a year. There he began writing humorous stories, which he sent to newspapers under the name of Mark Twain. The publishers liked his stories, and he was invited to work as a journalist for a newspaper.

The many professions that he had tried gave Mark Twain a knowledge of life and people and helped him to find his true profession — the profession of a writer.

In 1870 he got married, and a new and happy life began for him. He had one son and three daughters whom he loved very much and was the happiest man when they were with him.

In 1876 Mark Twain published "The Adventures of Tom Sawyer" and in 1884 "The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn". These are the novels that are now known to children and grown-ups all over the world. The writer showed boys and girls in the novels with such sympathy and understanding, that readers always see themselves in these characters. Ernest Hemingway[1], who appreciated Mark Twain, once wrote these words: "All modern American literature comes from one book by Mark Twain called Huckleberry Finn."

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[1] Ernest Hemingway [´ɔːnɪst´hemɪŋweɪ] Эрнест Хемингуэй

0.HENRY
(1862–1910)

The real name of the writer was William Sydney Porter[1]. He was born in the State of North Carolina in the family of a doctor. He was brought up by his aunt, because his mother had died when he was a little boy. After finishing school at the age of 15, he worked as a clerk in his uncle's chemist's shop for five years. Then he went to Texas, because he wanted to see new places. In Texas he saw cowboys, prairies and mustangs, but he could not find a job. He tried working on farms, some time later he found the job of a clerk at an office, at last he got a job at a small bank. During this period he studied lan-

[1] William Sydney Porter [ˈwɪljəmˈsɪdnɪˈpɔːtə] Уильям Сидни Портер

guages and became interested in literature.

Soon he got married, and when a daughter was born, he was a happy husband and father. But his happiness did not last long.

One day a thousand dollars was stolen from the bank where he worked. He was afraid of being suspected of theft. He left the town and went to Central America, where he stayed for some time. But when he heard that his wife was very ill, he returned home and was put into prison for three years.

While he was in prison, his wife died. His little daughter was taken by relatives, who told her that her father had gone very far away and would not return soon. Porter always thought about his daughter. He felt very unhappy at the thought that she would not receive a Christmas present from her father. To get some money for a present, he decided to write a story and send it to one of the magazines. He signed the story "O.Henry"[1], the first name that came into his head. His story was published in 1899. He got money for it, and his daughter received a Christmas present.

In 1901 O.Henry was released from prison. He settled in New York and continued writing short stones for different magazines. Very soon he became one of the most popular short-story writers in America.

During the short period of his literary activity, O.Henry wrote 273 short stories and one novel, "Cabbages and Kings". In his stories he described amusing incidents of everyday life in large cities, on farms, and on the roads of America. His stories won great popularity and have been translated into many languages, most of them have unexpected endings, and the reader is always taken by surprise.

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[1] O.Henry ['ou'henrɪ] О.Генри

THOMAS ALVA EDISON
(1847–1931)

Thomas Alva Edison[1] was an American hero in his own time. Edison was a self-made man. He taught himself most of what he knew. And his inventions made life easier for people everywhere.

As a boy, he was full of curiosity. He never stopped asking questions about how different things were made or how they worked. For every question,

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[1] Thomas Alva Edison [ˈtɔməsˈælvəˈedɪsn] Томас Альва Эдисон

he made experiments to find the answer. By the time he was 12, he was an expert in chemistry and physics.

Thomas Edison may have been the world's greatest inventor. He was granted more than one thousand patents. His inventions and improvements on other people's inventions made possible many of the things which we take for granted[1] in modern life.

Edison invented an electric bulb for home and office use. The electric bulb was much easier to use and gave much more light than gas lights or kerosene lamps.

Edison improved early models of the telegraph, telephone and film camera and projector. His most unusual invention, however, was the phonograph. The first words which Edison recorded to be played back on his machine were "Mary had a little lamb" — the beginning of a popular nursery rhyme which every English and American child knows by heart. The people who heard the phonograph for the first time in 1877 were amazed. They could not believe that a machine could "speak".

Edison was interested in many subjects. Throughout his life he studied literature, medicine and music, as well as science.

Once somebody asked Edison how it felt to be a genius. He answered: "Genius is one percent inspiration and ninety-nine percent perspiration".

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[1] we take for granted мы принимаем как должное
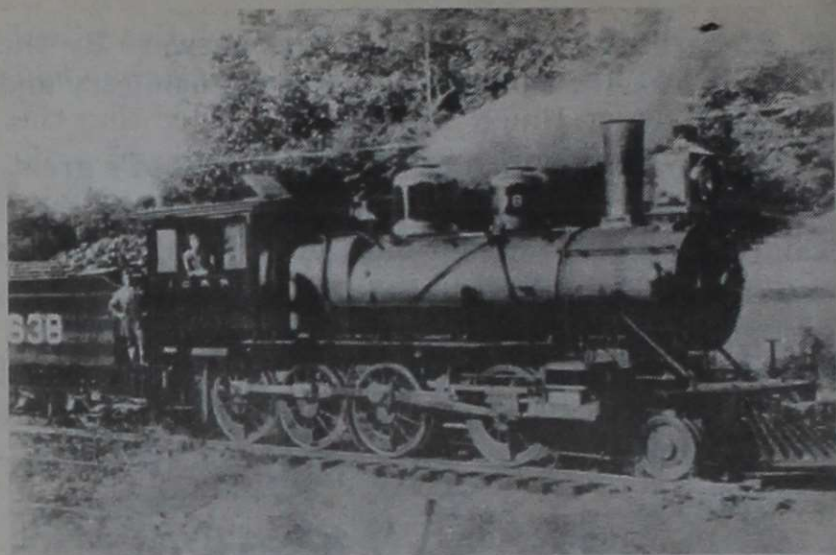
CASEY JONES
(1863–1900)

Casey Jones[1] was an American railway engine-driver, who died doing his duty.

He was the engine-driver of the train called *Cannon-ball*, which ran between Tennessee and Mississippi. Casey was skilful and brave, and he always brought his train to the place of destination on time. He was also skilful with the locomotive whistle. He had a special way of blowing the whistle: beginning very low, then rising to a shriek, and finally gradually dying away. His whistle always woke people at night as the train passed by their houses. "There goes Casey", they would say.

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[1] Casey Jones [ˈkeɪsɪ ˈdʒounz] Кейси Джонс

On the night of April 29, 1900, when Casey had just finished his work and brought *the Cannon-ball* into the town on time, as usual, he learned that the engine-driver of another locomotive was ill and could not make his journey according to the time-table. Casey offered to work instead of his friend. He started the big locomotive and left the station at 11 p.m., which was already one hour and thirty-five minutes late.

Casey wanted to make up for the lost time[1] so he worked very hard at the engine and moved very fast.

By four o'clock in the morning he had made up for most of the time. Suddenly, as he came round a curve, he saw a goods train standing on the rails in front of him.

"Jump off, Sim!" he cried to his fireman.

The fireman jumped off the locomotive. He lived to tell the story of Casey Jones's heroic deed.

Casey's body was found with one hand still on the whistle and the other on the brake.

There is a monument to Casey Jones in his home town in Kentucky. In 1950 the United States government put out[2] a three-cent postage stamp in honour of American railway engine-drivers. This stamp has the portrait of Casey Jones.

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[1] to make up for the lost time наверстать потерянное время
[2] put out выпустило
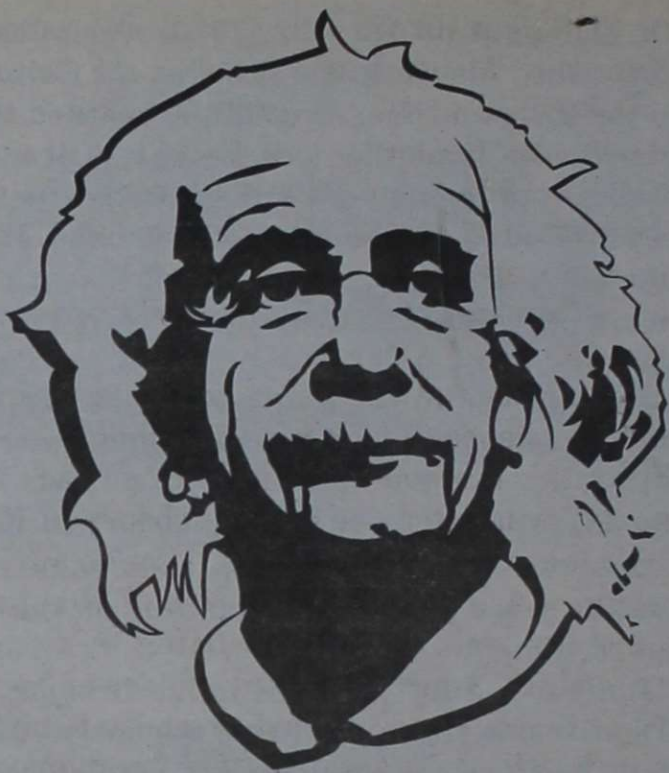
ALBERT EINSTEIN
(1879–1955)

Albert Einstein[1] was born in a middle-class Jew-ish family in Germany. When he was 15, his family had to leave Germany and emigrate to Switzerland[2] because of money difficulties.

In Switzerland Einstein continued his scientific education at the Polytechnic Academy in Zurich[3]. After graduation he got a job in a patent office. He used his spare time for intensive study of philoso-phy, science and mathematics.

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[1] Albert Einstein [´ælbət´aınstaın] Альберт Эйнштейн
[2] Switzerland [´swıtsələnd] Швейцария
[3] Zurich [´zjuərık] Цюрих

In 1914 he returned to Germany and worked as a professor of Berlin[1] University.

In 1933, as a sign of protest against fascism, Einstein left Germany and moved to the United States. In 1934 the nazi government of Germany deprived him of his German citizenship and confiscated his property.

Albert Einstein found his new motherland in the United States of America.

Albert Einstein was a rare scientist who became a hero of science during his life-time.

Einstein's discoveries in physics go back to 1905 when he formulated the Special Theory of Relativity[2]. The basic principle of relativity is: any motion is relative. A familiar illustration of this principle is a moving train. A person sitting in a train carriage with darkened windows will have no idea of speed or direction, or perhaps even that the train is moving at all. On a greater scale, the movement of the earth cannot be detected if there are no heavenly bodies for comparison. Nowhere on the earth or in the universe is there anything absolutely at rest: motion is the natural state of all things, and each body's movement is relative to the movement of another body.

Einstein's second hypothesis was that the velocity of light is independent of the motion of its source. The speed of light — 300,000 km per second — is always the same anywhere in the universe, regardless of place, time or direction. For instance, in a moving train light travels at exactly the same speed

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[1] Berlin [bəːˈlin] Берлин
[2] the Special Theory of Relativity [ðəˈspeʃlˈθiəri əvˌreləˈtiviti] Специальная теория относительности

as it does outside the train. No force can make it go faster or slower.

In the General Theory of Relativity[1], published in 1915, Einstein studied the force that guides the movements of the stars, comets, meteors and galaxies. He proved that the space around a planet or another celestial body is a gravitational field, similar to the magnetic field around a magnet.

Such bodies as the sun or stars are surrounded by enormous gravitational fields.

Einstein's Photoelectric Law[2] explaining the photoelectric effect, paved the way for the coming of television. For this discovery Einstein was awarded the Nobel Prize in physics in 1922.

In his later years, Einstein worked on the Unified Field Theory[3], attempting to demonstrate the harmony and uniformity of nature. According to his views, physical laws for the minute[4] atom should be equally applicable to immense celestial bodies.

Einstein's contributions to science have been innumerable. But primarily, his fame rests[5] upon the Theory of Relativity.

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[1] the General Theory of Relativity Общая теория относительности

[2] Photoelectric Law [ˈfoutəɪˈlektrɪkˈlɔː] фотоэлектрический закон

[3] the Unified Field Theory [ðə ˈjuːnɪfaɪdˈfiːldˈθɪərɪ] единая теория поля

[4] minute [maɪnˈjuːt] крохотный

[5] primarily [ˈpraɪmərɪlɪ], his fame rests прежде всего, его слава зиждется
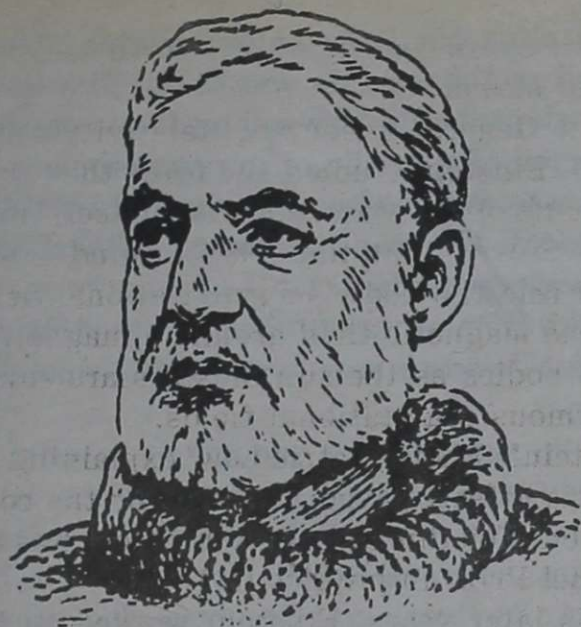
ERNEST HEMINGWAY
(1899–1961)

Ernest Hemingway was one of the greatest American writers of his time.

He was born in Illinois, in the family of a doctor. His father was fond of hunting and fishing, and in his school days the future writer became an excellent sportsman. At school he was a successful pupil. He wrote poetry and prose for the school literary magazine and edited the school newspaper.

In 1917, when the United States entered World War I, Hemingway joined the army and was given the job of driving American Red Cross ambulances

on the Italian front. Two months later he was badly wounded in the leg. He was taken to a hospital in Milan, where he underwent twelve operations. After a period of time, he returned to the army. Hemingway was awarded a silver medal by the Italian government. His war experience influenced his life and literary activities.

In 1920 Hemingway returned to the United States and began to work as a foreign correspondent of a newspaper.

Now he was earning enough to support himself by his pen, and he began writing stories. His dream was to become a novelist. To get the material for his stories, he travelled all over the world. He visited Spain, Switzerland, Germany and other countries. His masterpiece, the novel "A Farewell to Arms"[1], which is a protest against war, was published in 1929 and made him famous.

When the Civil War in Spain began in 1936, Hemingway went to Spain. He took part in the war as an anti-fascist correspondent. In Spain Hemingway met many progressive people — fighters of the international brigades.

After the end of the Civil War in Spain Hemingway wrote one of his best novels — "For Whom the Bell Tolls"[2], devoted to the Americans who died in the fight for Spain.

During World War II Hemingway was a war correspondent. He took part in air raids over Germany and fought against the fascists together with French partisans.

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[1] "A Farewell to Arms" "Прощай, оружие"
[2] "For Whom the Bell Tolls" "По ком звонит колокол"

Hemingway spent the last years of his life in Cuba, visiting the United States and Spain from time to time. His last work, "The Old Man and the Sea"[1], (1952), a story about an old fisherman who was fighting a big fish and the sea for many hours and won a victory over them, is a story glorifying the strength and courage of man. In 1954 Hemingway was awarded the Nobel Prize for literature, and "The Old Man and the Sea" was mentioned as one of his best works.

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[1] "The Old Man and the Sea" "Старик и море"

MARTIN LUTHER KING
(1929–1968)

The relationship between the black and white races has been one of the most central problems in American life for at least a hundred years. Many discrimination rules and laws have been abolished, but some of them remained until recent times. In some states there was a law, according to which blacks riding in buses were allowed to occupy seats only in the back part of a bus. The front seats were for whites. In 1955, a black woman Rosa Parks[1], riding

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[1] Rosa Parks [ˈrouzə ˈpɑːks] Роза Паркс

on a bus in Montgomery[1], the capital of the State of Alabama, occupied a seat in the front part of the bus and refused to get up. She was arrested.

In protest, the blacks of the city refused to ride city buses, as a result of which the bus company lost 70 percent of their income.

The bus boycott was led by Dr. Martin Luther King[2], a 26-year old black pastor.

Martin Luther King was born in Atlanta, Georgia[3], in the family of a black pastor. He received his education at Boston University, where he earned a doctor's degree in theology in 1955. King was appointed pastor of a Baptist church in Montgomery, which was a stronghold of racism. Its 42,000 blacks (one-third of the city's population) lived in the conditions of strict segregation in all aspects of daily life.

King believed in non-violent, or peaceful, protest, when blacks were denied their rights. The blacks of the city followed Dr. King's advice. They held "sit-ins" at segregated restaurants: they sat at the restaurant tables or counters and demanded the same service as white customers. They would remain sitting for hours, until they were served.

Many blacks who took part in the «sit-ins» were arrested. Newspapers and television programmes showed pictures of black protestors being beaten by the police. These shocking scenes upset both blacks and whites. Many more people joined the movement for civil rights.

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[1] Montgomery [mənt´gʌmərɪ] Монтгомери

[2] Martin Luther King [´mɑːtɪn´luːθə´kɪŋ] Мартин Лютер Кинг

[3] Atlanta [ət´læntə], Georgia [´dʒɔːdʒjə] Атланта, Джорджия

In 1963 Martin Luther King organized a march in Washington D. C., in which 250,000 Americans took part. King made a speech there, which he finished with his famous words: "I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the colour of their skin".

Dr. Martin Luther King was assassinated by a white man in 1968. The whole nation was shocked and deeply mourned his death.

Martin Luther King was a simple and modest man in his private life, but he recognized his political significance and his mission. He said: "History has thrust me into this position. It would be both immoral and a sign of ingratitude if I did not face my moral responsibility to do what I can in this struggle."

ELEANOR ROOSEVELT
(1884–1962)

All over the world, Eleanor Roosevelt[1] was known as a dedicated worker for human rights. As a public figure and as a speaker and writer, she worked for social causes all her life.

Anna Eleanor Roosevelt was born in 1884. Her parents died when she was young and she was brought up by her grandmother.

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[1] Eleanor Roosevelt [´elɪnə´rouzəvelt] Элинор Рузвельт

As a young girl, she became interested in helping people. She worked in an organization which helped immigrants.

When she was 21, she married Franklin D. Roosevelt, who later became President of the United States.

Eleanor Roosevelt always supported the career of her husband. When in 1921 Franklin Roosevelt was paralyzed by polio, Eleanor Roosevelt helped to keep him interested in politics by attending meetings and telling him what she heard and saw. By the time her husband became governor of New York in 1928, Eleanor Roosevelt had become a public figure herself.

She was known as a leader in the field of rights for working women and in the field of education.

During the twelve years of her husband's presidency (1933–1945) Eleanor Roosevelt travelled widely, finding out for the President how people lived and what they needed. She wrote books and articles about her life in the White House.

After her husband's death, Eleanor Roosevelt worked for international human rights. Until her death in 1962, she continued to work for the causes she believed in. Her tireless fight for human rights won the respect of people around the world.
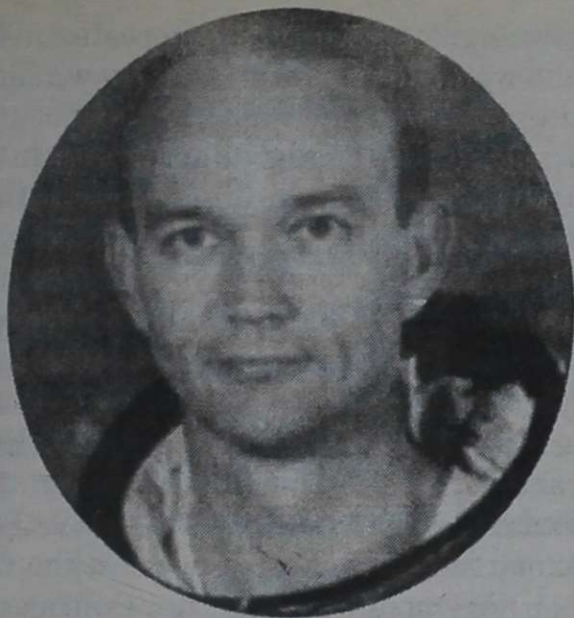
MICHAEL COLLINS
(1930–)

Throughout his life, Michael Collins[1] has held many different jobs. But he is best known for the job he did in 1969. Collins was a pilot for *Apollo 11*[2]. That was the first space mission to land people on the moon.

Michael Collins's best subject at school was mathematics. After school he studied at West Point Military Academy[3] and graduated in 1952.

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[1] Michael Collins [ˈmaɪklˈkɔlɪnʒ] Майкл Коллинз
[2] *Apollo 11* [əˈpɔlou] Аполлон-11
[3] West Point Military Academy [ˈwestˈpɔɪntˈmɪlɪtərɪ əˈkædəmɪ] Вест-Пойнтская Военная академия

In 1960 Collins became a test pilot. When he learned about the nation's space programme, he applied to be an astronaut. He was chosen to be a pilot for the *Gemini* programme[1], which sent two astronauts at a time into orbit around the earth. In July 1966, Collins and astronaut John Young orbited the earth for three days in *Gemini 10*.

When the crew of the moon mission, *Apollo 11*, was chosen, Collins was included. He was to be the pilot of *the Columbia*, the spaceship that would remain in space above the moon surface. Neil Armstrong[2] and Edwin Aldrin[3] would land on the moon.

Apollo 11 took off on July 16, 1969. Four days later, Armstrong and Aldrin became the first men to land on the moon. Meanwhile, Collins stayed in the main spaceship and orbited the moon 30 times.

After the *Apollo 11* mission, Collins left the space programme to spend more time with his family. In 1971 he became director of the National Air and Space Museum[4] of the Smithsonian Institution[5] in Washington.

Through his many jobs, Michael Collins has always shown his courage and his love of adventure.

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[1] the *Gemini* programme [ðə ˈdʒemɪnɪ ˈprougrəm] программа «Джемини»

[2] Neil Armstrong [ˈniːl ˈɑːmstrɔŋ] Нил Армстронг

[3] Edwin Aldrin [ˈedwɪn ˈɔːldrɪn] Эдвин Олдрин

[4] the National Air and Space Museum [ðə ˈnæʃnəl ˈɛər ənd ˈspeɪs mjuˈzɪəm] Национальный музей воздухоплавания и космонавтики

[5] Smithsonian Institution [ðə smɪθˈsounjən ˌɪnstɪˈtjuːʃn] Смитсоновский институт

REGIONS, STATES
AND STATE CAPITALS

Region	State	Since what time	State capital
NEW ENGLAND	Maine [meɪn]	1820	Augusta [ɔːˈgʌstə]
	New Hampshire [ˈnjuːˈhæmpʃɪə]	1788	Concord [ˈkɔŋkɔːd]
	Vermont [vəːˈmɔnt]	1791	Montpelier [mɔntˈpiːljə]
	Massachusetts [ˌmæsəˈtʃuːsets]	1733	Boston [ˈbɔstən]
	Rhode Island [ˈroudˈaɪlənd]	1790	Providence [ˈprɔvɪdəns]
	Connecticut [kəˈnektɪkət]	1788	Hartford [ˈhɑːtfəd]
MID-ATLANTIC REGION	New York [ˈnjuːˈjɔːk]	1788	Albany [ˈɔːlbənɪ]
	New Jersey [ˈnjuːˈdʒəːzɪ]	1787	Trenton [ˈtrentən]
	Pennsylvania [pensɪlˈveɪnjə]	1787	Harrisburg [ˈhærɪsbəːg]
	Delaware [ˈdeləwɛə]	1787	Dover [ˈdouvə]
	Maryland [ˈmɛərɪlænd]	1788	Annapolis [əˈnæpəlɪs]
	West Virginia [ˈwest vəˈdʒɪnɪə]	1863	Charleston [ˈtʃɑːlstən]

Regions, states and state capitals, continued

Region	State	Since what time	State capital
THE SOUTH	Kentucky [ken'tʌkı]	1792	Frankfort ['fræŋkfət]
	Virginia [və'dʒınıə]	1788	Richmond ['rıtʃmənd]
	North Carolina ['nɔː θ̩kærə'laınə]	1789	Raleigh ['rɔːlı]
	South Carolina ['sauθ̩kærə'laınə]	1788	Columbia [kə'lʌmbjə]
	Tennessee [ˌtenə'siː]	1796	Nashville ['næʃvıl]
	Arkansas ['aːkənsɔ]	1836	Little Rock ['lıtl'rɔk]
	Louisiana [luˌiːzı'ænə]	1812	Baton Rouge ['bætn'ruːʒ]
	Mississippi [ˌmısı'sıpı]	1817	Jackson ['dʒæksən]
	Alabama [ælə'bæmə]	1819	Montgomery [mənt'gʌmərı]
	Georgia ['dʒɔːdʒə]	1788	Atlanta [ət'læntə]
	Florida ['flɔrıdə]	1845	Tallahassee ['tælə'hæsiː]
THE MIDWEST	Minnesota [ˌmınə'soutə]	1858	St. Paul [snt'pɔːl]
	Wisconsin [wıs'kɔnsın]	1848	Madison ['mædısn]
	Michigan ['mıʃıgən]	1837	Lancing ['laːnsıŋ]
	Ohio [ou'haıou]	1803	Columbus [kə'lʌmbəs]
	Indiana [ˌındı'ænə]	1816	Indianapolis ['ındıə'næpəlıs]
	Illinois [ˌılı'nɔı]	1818	Springfield ['sprıŋfiːld]

Regions, states and state capitals, continued

Region	State	Since what time	State capital
THE MIDWEST	Missouri [mɪˈzuərɪ]	1821	Jefferson City [ˈdʒɛfəsnˌsɪtɪ]
	Iowa [ˈaɪouə]	1846	Des Moines [dɪˈmɔɪn]
	Kansas [ˈkænzɔs]	1861	Topeka [touˈpiːkə]
	Nebraska [nɪˈbræskə]	1867	Lincoln [ˈlɪŋkən]
	North Dakota [ˈnɔːθ dəˈkoutə]	1889	Bismarck [ˈbɪzmaːk]
	South Dakota [ˈsauθ dəˈkoutə]	1889	Pierre [pɪə]
THE SOUTH-WEST	Oklahoma [ouklɔˈhoumə]	1907	Oklahoma City [ouklɔˈhouməˌsɪtɪ]
	Texas [ˈtɛksɔs]	1845	Austin [ˈɔstɪn]
	New Mexico [ˈnjuːˈmɛksɪkou]	1912	Santa Fe [ˌsæntəˈfɛɪ]
	Arizona [ˌærɪˈzounə]	1912	Phoenix [ˈfiːnɪks]
	Nevada [nɛˈvaːdə]	1864	Carson City [ˈkaːsnˌsɪtɪ]
THE ROCKY MOUNTAIN REGION	Montana [mɔnˈtænə]	1889	Helena [ˈhɛlɪnə]
	Idaho [ˈaɪdəhou]	1890	Boise [ˈbɔɪsiː]
	Wyoming [waɪˈoumɪŋ]	1890	Cheyenne [ʃaɪˈæn]
	Utah [ˈjuːtaː]	1896	Salt Lake City [ˈsɔːltˈlɛɪkˌsɪtɪ]
	Colorado [ˌkɔlɔˈraːdou]	1876	Denver [ˈdɛnvə]

Regions, states and state capitals, continued

Region	State	Since what time	State capital
THE PACIFIC NORTHWEST AND ALASKA	Washington ['wɔʃɪŋtən]	1889	Olympia [ou'lɪmpjə]
	Oregon ['ɔrɪgən]	1859	Salem ['scɪlcm]
	Alaska [ə'læskə]	1959	Juneau ['dʒuːnou]
CALIFORNIA AND HAWAII	California [ˌkælɪ'fɔːnjə]	1850	Sacramento [ˌsækrə'mentou]
	Hawaii [hɑː'waɪiː]	1959	Honolulu [ˌhɔnə'luːluː]

THE UNITED STATES PRESIDENTS

1. George Washington [ˈdʒɔːdʒ ˈwɔʃɪŋtən]
   (1789–1797)
2. John Adams [ˈdʒɒn ˈædəmz]
   (1797–1801)
3. Thomas Jefferson [ˈtɒməs ˈdʒefəsn]
   (1801–1809)
4. James Madison [ˈdʒeimz ˈmædisn]
   (1809–1817)
5. James Monroe [ˈdʒeimz mɒnˈrou]
   (1817–1825)
6. John Q. Adams [ˈdʒɒn ˈkjuː ˈædəmz]
   (1825–1829)
7. Andrew Jackson [ˈændruː ˈdʒæksn]
   (1829–1837)
8. Martin Van Buren [ˈmɑːtin væn ˈbjuərən]
   (1837–1841)
9. William H. Harrison [ˈwiljəm ˈeitʃ ˈhærisn]
   (1841)
10. John Tyler [ˈdʒɒn ˈtailə]
    (1841–1945)
11. James K. Polk [ˈdʒeimz ˈkei ˈpouk]
    (1845–1849)
12. Zachary Taylor [ˈzækəri ˈteilə]
    (1849–1850)
13. Millard Fillmore [ˈmiləd ˈfilmɔː]
    (1850–1853)
14. Franklin Pierce [ˈfræŋklin ˈpiəs]
    (1853–1857)
15. James Buchanan [ˈdʒeimz bjuˈkænən]
    (1857–1861)

16. Abraham Lincoln ['eibrəhæm 'liŋkən] —
   (1861–1865)
17. Andrew Johnson ['ændru: 'dʒɔnsn]
   (1865–1869)
18. Ulysses S. Grant [ju'lisi:z 'es 'grɑ:nt]
   (1869–1877)
19. Rutherford B. Hayes ['rʌðəfəd 'bi: 'heiz]
   (1877–1881)
20. James A. Garfield ['dʒeimz 'ei 'gɑ:fi:ld]
   (1881)
21. Chester A. Arthur ['tʃestə 'ei 'ɑ:θə]
   (1881–1885)
22. Grover Cleveland ['grouvə 'kli:vlənd]
   (1885–1889)
23. Benjamin Harrison ['bendʒəmin 'hærisn]
   (1889–1893)
24. Grover Cleveland ['grouvə 'kli:vlənd]
   (1893–1897)
25. William McKinley ['wiljəm mə'kinli]
   (1897–1901)
26. Theodore Roosevelt ['θiədɔ: 'rouzəvelt]
   (1801–1909)
27. William H. Taft ['wiljəm 'eitʃ 'tæft]
   (1909–1913)
28. Woodrow Wilson ['wudrou 'wilsn]
   (1913–1921)
29. Warren G. Harding ['wɔrin 'dʒi: 'hɑ:diŋ]
   (1921–1923)
30. Calvin Coolidge [kælvin ku:lidʒ]
   (1923–1929)
31. Herbert C. Hoover [hə:bət si: 'hu:və]
   (1929–1933)
32. Franklin D. Roosevelt ['fræŋklin 'di: 'rouzəvelt]
   (1933–1945)

33. Harry S. Truman [ˈhæri ˈes ˈtruːmən]
                    (1945–1953)
34. Dwight D. Eisenhower [ˈdwait ˈdiː ˈaizən‚hauə]
                    (1953–1961)
35. John F. Kennedy [ˈdʒɔn ˈef ˈkenidi]
                    (1961–1963)
36. Lyndon B. Johnson [ˈlindən ˈbiː ˈdʒɔnsn]
                    (1963–1969)
37. Richard M. Nixon [ˈritʃəd ˈem ˈniksn]
                    (1969–1974)
38. Gerald R. Ford [ˈdʒerəld ˈɑː ˈfɔːd]
                    (1974–1977)
39. James E. Carter [ˈdʒeimz ˈiː ˈkɑːtə]
                    (1977–1981)
40. Ronald W. Reagan [ˈrɔnld ˈdʌbljuː ˈreigən]
                    (1981–1989)
41. George H. Bush [ˈdʒɔːdʒ ˈeitʃ ˈbuʃ]
                    (1989–1993)
42. Bill Clinton [ˈbil ˈklintən]
                    (1993–)

LIST OF PROPER NAMES

Aldrin [ˈɔːldrɪn], Edvin [ˈedwɪn] Олдрин, Эдвин

Armstrong [ˈɑːmstrɔŋ], Neil [niːl] Армстронг, Нил

Beecher Stowe [ˈbiːtʃə ˈstou], Harriet [ˈhærɪət] Бичер-Стоу, Гарриет

Bell [bel], Alexander [ˌælɪgˈzɑːndə] Graham [grɛəm] Белл, Александр Грэм

Bernstein [ˈbəːnstaɪn], Leonard [ˈlenəd] Бернстайн, Леонард

Bessemer [ˈbesɪmə], Henry [ˈhenrɪ] Бессемер, Генри

Blackwell [ˈblækwəl], Elizabeth [ɪˈlɪzəbəθ] Блекуэлл, Элизабет

Boone [buːn], Daniel [ˈdænjəl] Бун, Дэниел

Booth [buːð], John [dʒɔn] Wilkes [wɪlks] Бутс, Джон Уилкс

Cabot [ˈkæbət], John [dʒɔn] Кабот, Джон

Carnegie [kɑːˈneɪgɪ], Andrew [ˈændruː] Карнеги, Эндрю

Cartier [kɑːˈtjeɪ], Jacques [ʒæk] Картье, Жак

Casey Jones [ˈkeɪsɪ ˈdʒounz] Кейси Джонс

Castro [ˈkæstrou], Fidel [fɪˈdel] Кастро, Фидель

Champlain [ʃæmˈpleɪn], Samuel de [ˈsæmjuəl də] Шамплейн, Сэмюэль де

Chaplin [ˈtʃæplɪn], Charlie [ˈtʃɑːlɪ] Чаплин, Чарли

Churchill [ˈtʃəːtʃɪl], Winston [wɪnstn] Черчилль, Уинстон

Clark [klɑːk], William [ˈwɪljəm] Кларк, Уильям

Collins [ˈkɔlɪnz], Michael [maɪkl] Коллинз, Майкл

Columbus [kəˈlʌmbəs], Christopher [ˈkrɪstəfə] Колумб, Христофор

Cooper [ˈkuːpə], Fenimore [ˈfenɪmɔː] Купер, Фенимор

Cortés [ˈkɔːtez], Hernando [həːˈnændou] Кортес, Эрнандо

Davis ['deivis], Jefferson ['dʒefəsn] Дэвис, Джефферсон

Edison ['edisn], Thomas ['tɔməs] Alva ['ælvə] Эдисон, Томас Альва

Einstein ['ainstain], Albert ['ælbət] Эйнштейн, Альберт

Eisenhower ['aizən,hauə], Dwight [dwait] Эйзенхауэр, Дуайт

Ellington ['eliŋtən], Duke [dju:k] Эллингтон, Дюк

Ford [fɔ:d], Henry ['henri] Форд, Генри

Franklin ['fræŋklin], Benjamin ['bendʒəmin] Франклин, Бенджамин

Fulton ['fultən], Robert ['rɔbət] Фултон, Роберт

Gama ['gɑ:mə], Vasco da ['væskou də] Гама, Васко да

Grant [grɑ:nt], Ulysses [ju'lisi:z] Грант, Улисс

Hamilton ['hæmiltən], Alexander [,ælig'zɑ:ndə] Гамильтон, Александр

Hemingway ['hemiŋwei], Ernest ['ə:nist] Хемингуэй, Эрнест

Hitler ['hitlə], Adolph ['ædɔlf] Гитлер, Адольф

Houston ['hju:stən], Sam [sæm] Хьюстон, Сэм

Hudson ['hʌdsən], Henry ['henri] Гудзон, Генри

Hughes [hju:z], Langston ['læŋstən] Хьюз, Лэнгстон

Jackson [dʒæksn], Andrew ['ændru:] Джексон, Эндрю

Jefferson ['dʒefəsn], Thomas ['tɔməs] Джеферсон, Томас

Kelly ['keli], William ['wiljəm] Келли, Уильям

Kennedy ['kenidi], John [dʒɔn] Кеннеди, Джон

Key [ki:], Francis ['frænsis] Scott [skɔt] Ки, Фрэнсис Скотт

King [kiŋ], Martin ['mɑ:tin] Luther ['lu:θə] Кинг, Мартин Лютер

Lafayette [,lɑ:fai'et], de [də] Лафайет, де

La Salle [lə'sæl], Robert [rɔ'bɛə] Ла Саль, Робер

Lee [li:], Robert ['rɔbət] Ли, Роберт

Leif Ericsson ['li:f 'eriksn] Лейф Эрикссон

L'Enfant [la:ŋˊfa:ŋ] Pierre [pjer] Chàrles [ʃa:l] Л'Анфан, Пьер Шарль

Lennon [ˊlenən], John [ˊdʒɔn] Леннон, Джон

Lewis [ˊlu:ıs], Meriwether [ˊmerı‚weðə] Льюис, Мериуэдер

Lincoln [ˊlıŋkən], Abraham [ˊeıbrəhæm] Линкольн Авраам

Lindbergh [ˊlındbə:g], Charles [tʃa:lz] Линдберг, Чарлз

Longfellow [ˊlɔŋ‚felou], Henry [henrı] Wadsworth [wɔdzwə:θ] Лонгфелло. Генри Уодсуорт

Lyon [laıən], Mary [mɛərı] Лайон, Мэри

MacArthur [məkˊa:θə], Douglas [ˊdʌgləs] Мак Артур, Дуглас

Madison [ˊmædısn], Dolly [ˊdɔlı] Мэдисон Долли

Madison [ˊmædısn], James [dʒeımz] Мэдисон, Джемс

Magellan [məˊgelən], Ferdinand [ˊfə:dınənd] Магеллан, Фердинанд

Mark Twain [ˊma:k ˊtweın] Марк Твэн

Marshall [ˊma:ʃəl], George [dʒɔ:dʒ] Маршалл, Джордж

Montezuma [‚mɔntıˊzu:mə] Монтезума

Morse [mɔ:s], Samuel [ˊsæmjuəl] Морзе, Сэмюэль

Mott [mɔt], Lucretia [lu:ˊkri:ʃə] Мотт, Лукреция

Mussolini [‚musəˊli:nı], Benito [beˊni:tou] Муссолини, Бенито

Napoleon [nəˊpouljən] Наполеон

O.Henry [ˊouˊhenrı] О. Генри

Olmsted [ˊɔmsted], Frederick [ˊfredrık] Law [lɔ:] Олмстэд, Фредерик Ло

Penn [pen], William [ˊwıljəm] Пенн, Уильям

Pocahontas [‚pɔkəˊhɔntəs] Покахонтас

Polo [ˊpoulou], Marco [ˊma:kou] Поло, Марко

Rockefeller [ˊrɔkıfelə], John [dʒɔn] Рокфеллер, Джон

Roosevelt [ˊrouzəvelt], Eleanor [ˊelınə] Рузвельт, Элинор

352

Roosevelt [′rouzəvelt], Franklin [′fræŋklɪn] Delano [′delənou] Рузвельт, Франклин Делано

Roosevelt [′rouzəvelt], Theodore [′θɪədɔː] Рузвельт, Теодор

Santa Anna [′saːntɑ: ′ɑːnɑ:] Санта Анна

Sequoya [sɪk′vɔɪə] Секвойя

Serra [′serɑ:], Junipero [hjuː′niːpərou] Серра, Униперо

Sherman [′ʃəːmən], William [′wɪljəm] Шерман, Уильям

Smithson [′smɪθsn], James [dʒeimz] Смитсон, Джемс

Squanto [′skwɔntou] Сквонто

Stanton [stæntn], Elizabeth [ɪ′lɪzəbəθ] Стэнтон, Элизабет

Strauss [straus], Levi [′liːvaɪ] Штраус, Ливай

Tubman [′tʌbmən], Harriet [′hærɪət] Табмэн, Гарриет

Truman [′truːmən], Harry [′hærɪ] Трумэн, Гарри

Truth [truːθ], Sojourner [′sɔdʒəːnə] Соджэрнер

Turner [′təːnə], Nat [næt] Тернер, Нэт

Washington [′wɔʃɪŋtən], George [dʒɔːdʒ] Вашингтон, Джордж

Whitman [′wɪtmən], Walt [wɔːlt] Уитмэн, Уолт

Wilson [wɪlsn], Woodrow [′wudrou] Уилсон (Вильсон), Вудроу

Wright [raɪt], Orville [′ɔːvɪl] and Wilbur [′wɪlbə] Райт, Орвилл и Уилбер

Young [jʌŋ], Brigham [′brɪgəm] Янг, Бригэм

LIST OF GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES

Abilene [ˈæbɪliːn] Эбилин

Africa [ˈæfrɪkə] Африка

Alabama [ˌæləˈbæmə] Алабама

Alaska [əˈlæskə] Аляска

Albany [ˈɔːlbənɪ] Олбэни

Aleutian Range [əˈluːʃɪən ˈreɪndʒ] Алеутский хребет

America [əˈmerɪkə] Америка

Appalachian Mountains [ˌæpəˈleɪtʃɪən ˈmauntɪnz] Аппалачские горы

Appomattox [ˌæpəˈmætəks] Апоматокс

Arisona [ˌærɪˈzounə] Аризона

Arkansas [ˈɑːkənsɔ] Арканзас

Asia [ˈeɪʃə] Азия

Atlanta [ətˈlæntə] Атланта

Atlantic Lowland [ətˈlæntɪk ˈloulənd] Приатлантическая низменность

Atlantic Ocean [ətˈlæntɪk ˈouʃn] Атлантический океан

Australia [ɔsˈtreɪljə] Австралия

Austria-Hungary [ˈɔstrɪəˈhʌŋgərɪ] Австро-Венгрия

Baltimore [ˈbɔːltɪmɔː] Балтимор

Baton Rouge [ˈbætnˈruːʒ] Батон Руж

Belgium [ˈbeldʒəm] Бельгия

Bering Sea [ˈberɪŋˈsiː] Берингово море

Bering Strait [ˈberɪŋˈstreɪt] Берингов пролив

Berlin [bəˈlɪn] Берлин

Beverly Hills [ˈbevəlɪˈhɪlz] Беверли Хиллз

Birmingham [ˈbəːmɪŋəm] Бермингэм

Boston [ˈbɔstən] Бостон

Broadway [ˈbrɔːdweɪ] Бродвей

Brooks Range [ˈbruksˈreɪndʒ] Хребет Брукса

Buffalo [ˈbʌfəlou] Буффало

Californian Valley [ˌkælɪfɔːnjənˈvælɪ] Калифорний-

ская долина

Canada ['kænədə] Канада

Cape of Good Hope ['keɪp əv 'gud 'houp] мыс Доброй
    Надежды

Caribbean Sea [ˌkærɪbi:ən 'si:] Карибское море

Carolina [ˌkærə 'laɪnə] Каролина

Cascade Mountains [kæs 'keɪd 'mauntɪnz] Каскадные
    горы

Charles River ['tʃɑ:lz 'rɪvə] Река Чарльз

Charleston ['tʃɑ:lstən] Чарльстон

Chicago [ʃɪ 'kɑ:gou] Чикаго

China ['tʃaɪnə] Китай

Chukchi Sea ['tʃuktʃi: 'si:] Чукотское море

Cleveland ['kli:vlənd] Кливлэнд

Coastal Ranges ['koustl 'reɪndʒɪz] Береговые хребты

Colorado [ˌkɔlə 'rɑ:dou] Колорадо

Columbia [kə 'lʌmbɪə] Колумбия

Connecticut [kə 'nektɪkət] Коннектикут

Cordilleras [ˌkɔ:dɪ 'ljɛərəz] Кордильеры

Cuba ['kju:bə] Куба

Cumberland ['kʌmbələnd] Камберлэнд

Czechoslovakia ['tʃekouslou 'vækɪə] Чехословакия

Dakota [də 'koutə] Дакота

Death Valley ['deθ 'vælɪ] Долина смерти

Delaware ['deləwɛə] Делавэр

Denmark ['denmɑ:k] Дания

Detroit [də 'trɔɪt] Детройт

East Indies ['i:st 'ɪndɪz] Ост-Индия

Erie ['ɪərɪ] Эри

Europe ['juərəp] Европа

Florida ['flɔrɪdə] Флорида

France [frɑ:ns] Франция

Georgia ['dʒɔ:dʒjə] Джорджия

Gettysburg ['getɪzbə:g] Геттисберг

12*

Golden Gate [ˈgouldnˈgeit] Золотые ворота
Great Basin [ˈgreitˈbeisn] Большой бассейн
Great Lakes [ˈgreitˈleiks] Великие озера
Great Plains [ˈgreitˈpleinz] Великие равнины
Great Salt Lake [ˈgreitˈsɔːltˈleik] Большое Соленое озеро
Greece [griːs] Греция
Greenland [ˈgriːnlənd] Гренландия
Guam [gwɑːm] Гуам
Gulf of Mexico [ˈgʌlfəvˈmeksikou] Мексиканский залив
Havana [həˈvænə] Гавана
Hawaii [həˈwaiiː] Гавайи
Hiroshima [ˌhirɔˈʃiːmə] Хиросима
Hispaniola [ˌhispənˈjoulə] Эспаньола
Hudson [ˈhʌdsən] Гудзон
Huron [ˈhjuərən] Гурон
Iceland [ˈaislənd] Исландия
Illinois [ˌiliˈnɔi] Иллинойс
India [ˈindiə] Индия
Indiana [ˌindiˈænə] Индиана
Indonesia [ˌindouˈniːzjə] Индонезия
Iowa [ˈaiouə] Айова
Ireland [ˈaiələnd] Ирландия
Italy [ˈitəli] Италия
Jamestown [ˈdʒeimztaun] Джемстаун
Kansas [ˈkænzəs] Канзас
Kentucky [kenˈtʌki] Кентукки
Korea [kəˈriə] Корея
Lexington [ˈleksiŋtən] Лексингтон
Louisiana [luˌiːziˈænə] Луизиана
Luxembourg [ˈlʌksəmbəːg] Люксембург
Maine [mein] Мэн
Manchuria [mænˈtʃuəriə] Манчжурия
Manhattan [mænˈhætn] Манхаттан
Manila Bay [məˈniləˈbei] Манильский залив
356

Maryland [ˈmɛərɪlænd] Мэрилэнд

Massachusetts [ˌmæsəˈtʃuːsets] Массачусетс

Mediterranean Sea [ˌmedɪtəˈreɪnjənˈsiː] Средиземное море

Mexican Lowland [ˈmeksɪkənˈloulənd] Мексиканская низменность

Mexico [ˈmeksɪkou] Мексика

Michigan [ˈmɪʃɪgən] Мичиган

Minnesota [ˌmɪnəˈsoutə] Миннесота

Mississippi [ˌmɪsɪˈsɪpɪ] Миссисипи

Missouri [mɪˈzuərɪ] Миссури

Montgomery [məntˈgʌmərɪ] Монтгомери

Montreal [ˌmɔntrɪˈɔːl] Монреаль

Mount McKinley [ˈmaunt məˈkɪnlɪ] Гора Мак Кинли

Nagasaki [ˌnægəˈsɑːkɪ] Нагасаки

Nebraska [nɪˈbræskə] Небраска

Netherlands [ˈneðələndz] Нидерланды

Nevada [neˈvɑːdə] Невада

New Amsterdam [ˈnjuːˈæmstəˈdæm] Нью Амстердам

Newfoundland [ˈnjuːfəndlənd] Ньюфаундлэнд

New Hampshire [ˈnjuːˈhæmpʃɪə] Нью Гэмпшир

New Jersey [ˈnjuːˈdʒəːzɪ] Нью Джерси

New Orleans [ˈnjuːˈɔːlɪənz] Нью Орлеан

New York [ˈnjuːˈjɔːk] Нью Йорк

Niagara Falls [naɪˈægərəˈfɔːlz] Ниагарский водопад

Northwest Passage [ˈnɔːθˈwestˈpæsɪdʒ] Северо-запад-ный проход

Norway [ˈnɔːweɪ] Норвегия

Ohio [ouˈhaɪou] Огайо

Oklahoma [ˌoukləˈhoumə] Оклахома

Ontario [ɔnˈtɛərɪou] Онтарио

Pacific Ocean [pəˈsɪfɪkˈouʃn] Тихий океан

Panama [ˌpænəˈmɑː] Панама

Paris [ˈpærɪs] Париж

Pearl Harbour [ˈpəːlˈhɑːbə] Перл-Харбор

Pennsylvania [pensɪlˈveɪnjə] Пенсильвания

Philadelphia [ˌfɪləˈdelfjə] Филадельфия

Philippine Islands [ˈfɪlɪpiːnˈaɪləndz] Филиппинские острова

Pittsburgh [ˈpɪtsbəːg] Питтсбург

Plymouth [ˈplɪməθ] Плимут

Poland [ˈpoulənd] Польша

Portugal [ˈpɔːtjugəl] Португалия

Potomac [pəˈtoumæk] Потомак

Puerto Rico [ˈpwəːtouˈriːkou] Пуэрто Рико

Quebec [kwɪˈbek] Квебек

Rhode Island [ˈroudˈaɪlənd] Род-Айлэнд

Richmond [ˈrɪtʃmənd] Ричмонд

Rocky Mountains [ˈrɔkɪˈmauntɪnz] Скалистые горы

Roman Empire [ˈroumənˈempaɪə] Римская империя

San Antonio [ˈsæn ənˈtouniou] Сан Антонио

San Diego [ˈsæn dɪˈeɪgou] Сан Диего

San Francisco [ˌsænfrənˈsɪskou] Сан Франциско

San Francisco Bay [ˌsænfrənˈsɪskouˈbeɪ] Бухта Сан Франциско

Santa Fe [ˌsæntəˈfeɪ] Санта Фе

Savannah [səˈvænə] Саванна

Scandinavia [ˌskændɪˈneɪvjə] Скандинавия

Scotland [ˈskɔtlənd] Шотландия

Serbia [ˈsəːbjə] Сербия

Siberia [saɪˈbɪərɪə] Сибирь

Sierra Nevada [sɪˈerə neˈvɑːdə] Сьерра Невада

Spain [speɪn] Испания

Spice Islands [ˈspaɪsˈaɪləndz] Пряные острова (Молуккские острова)

St. Lawrence River [sntˈlɔrənsˈrɪvə] Река Святого Лаврентия

St. Louis [sntˈluːɪ] Сент Луис

Superior [sjuˈpɪərɪə] Верхнее (озеро)
Sweden [ˈswiːdən] Швеция
Switzerland [ˈswɪtsələnd] Швейцария
Tennessee [ˌtenəˈsiː] Теннесси
Tenochtitlan [teɪˌnɔktɪˈtlæn] Теночтитлан
Texas [ˈteksəs] Техас
United States [juˈnaɪtɪdˈsteɪts] Соединенные Штаты
Vermont [vəːˈmont] Вермонт
Versailles [vɛəˈsaɪ] Версаль
Vietnam [ˈvjetˈnæm] Вьетнам
Vinland [ˈvɪnlənd] Винлэнд
Virginia [vəˈdʒɪnɪə] Вирджиния
Washington [ˈwɔʃɪŋtən] Вашингтон
West Indies [ˈwestˈɪndɪz] Вест-Индия
Wisconsin [wɪsˈkɔnsɪn] Висконсин
Yukon Tableland [ˈjukɔnˈteɪbllænd] Юконское плоско-
    горье
Zurich [ˈzjuərɪk] Цюрих

ENGLISH-RUSSIAN VOCABULARY

A

ability [ə´bılıtı] n способность
able [eıbl] a способный, в состоянии
aboard [ə´bɔ:d] adv на борту, на борт
abolish [ə´bɔlıʃ] v отменить
abolitionist [͵æbə´lıʃənıst] n аболиционист, сторонник
  отмены рабства
above [ə´bʌv] prep над
above all [ə´bʌv´ɔ:l] сверх всего, прежде всего
absolutely [͵æbsə´lu:tlı] adv абсолютно
abundant [ə´bʌndənt] a изобильный
abundantly [ə´bʌndəntlı] adv в изобилии
academic excellence [͵ækə´demık´eksələns] отличная
  академическая успеваемость
accept [ək´sept] v принимать
accomplish [ə´kɔmplıʃ] v выполнять
accomplishment [ə´kɔmplıʃmənt] n выполнение
according to [ə´kɔ:dıŋ tə] по, в соответствии с
accurately [´ækjurətlı] v точно
accustomed [ə´kʌstəmd] a привычный
achieve [ə´tʃi:v] v достигать
achievement [ə´tʃi:vmənt] n достижение
acorn [´eıkɔ:n] n желудь
across [ə´krɔs] prep через
act [ækt] v действовать, играть на сцене
act [ækt] n акт
action [ækʃn] n действие
active [´æktıv] a активный
activity [æk´tıvıtı] n деятельность
actor [´æktə] n актер
actually [´æktjuəlı] adv в сущности, собственно говоря
add [æd] v добавлять
addition [ə´dıʃn] n добавление
administer [əd´mınıstə] (laws [lɔ:z]) осуществлять

administration [əd͵mɪnɪs'treɪʃn] n управление
admiral ['ædmɪrəl] n адмирал
admire [əd'maɪə] v любоваться, восхищаться
admit [əd'mɪt] v допускать, признавать
adopt [ə'dɔpt] v принимать
adoption [ə'dɔpʃn] n принятие
adult ['ædʌlt] a взрослый
advance [əd'vɑ:ns] v продвигаться, наступать
advantage [əd'vɑ:ntɪdʒ] n преимущество
adventure [əd'ventʃə] n приключение
adventurer [əd'ventʃərə] n искатель приключений
adventurous [əd'ventʃərəs] a любящий приключения,
   безрассудно смелый
advertisement [əd'və:tɪsmənt] n реклама
advertising [͵ædvə'taɪzɪŋ] n рекламирование
advice [əd'vaɪs] n совет
adviser [əd'vaɪzə] n советник
affair [ə'fɛə] n дело
affect [ə'fekt] v воздействовать
afford [ə'fɔ:d] v позволить себе
afraid [ə'freɪd]: be afraid бояться
after ['ɑ:ftə] prep после
afterwards ['ɑ:ftəwədz] adv впоследствии, потом
against [ə'genst] prep против
age [eɪdʒ] n век, возраст
aged ['eɪdʒɪd] a пожилой, преклонного возраста
agency ['eɪdʒənsɪ] n агентство
agent ['eɪdʒənt] n агент
agree [ə'gri:] v соглашаться, договариваться
agreement [ə'gri:mənt] n соглашение, согласие
agricultural [͵ægrɪ'kʌltʃərəl] a сельскохозяйственный
agriculture [͵ægrɪ'kʌltʃə] n сельское хозяйство
ahead [ə'hed] adv вперед, впереди
aid [eɪd] n помощь
aim [eɪm] n цель
air [ɛə] n воздух
air conditioner ['ɛə kən'dɪʃənə] n кондиционер

air force ['ɛə͵fɔ:s] n военно-воздушные силы
airmail ['ɛəmeɪl] n авиапочта
airplane ['ɛəpleɪn] n самолет
airport ['ɛəpɔ:t] n аэропорт
air raid ['ɛə͵reɪd] n воздушный налет
alike [ə'laɪk] adv похожий
alive [ə'laɪv] a жив, живой
alliance [ə'laɪəns] n союз
alligator [͵ælɪ'geɪtə] n аллигатор
allow [ə'lau] v разрешать
ally ['ælaɪ] n союзник
almost ['ɔ:lmoust] adv почти
alone [ə'loun] a один
along [ə'lɔŋ] prep вдоль, по
alongside [ə'lɔŋsaɪd] adv рядом с
alphabet ['ælfəbɪt] n алфавит
alpine meadows ['ælpaɪn'medouz] альпийские луга
alteration [͵ɔ:ltə'reɪʃn] n изменение, чередование
although [ɔ:l'ðou] adv хотя
amateur ['æmətə] a любительский
amaze [ə'meɪz] v изумлять
amazed [ə'meɪzd] a изумлен
amazing [ə'meɪzɪŋ] a изумительный
ambulance ['æmbjuləns] n карета (машина) скорой
    помощи
amend [ə'mend] v вносить поправки (в законопроект
    и т. д.)
amendment [ə'mendmənt] n поправка, добавление
among [ə'mʌŋ] prep среди
amount [ə'maunt] n количество, объем
amusing [ə'mju:zɪŋ] a забавный
ancestor ['ænsɪstə] n предок
anchor ['æŋkə] n якорь
anger ['æŋgə] n гнев
angrily ['æŋgrɪlɪ] adv гневно, сердито
angry ['æŋgrɪ] a сердитый
animal ['ænɪməl] n животное

362

anniversary [ˌænɪˈvəːsərɪ] n годовщина

announce [əˈnauns] v объявлять

answer [ˈɑːnsə] n ответ

answer [ˈɑːnsə] v отвечать

anthem [ˈænθəm] n гимн

anti-slavery movement [ˈæntɪ ˈsleɪvərɪ ˈmuːvmənt] движение против рабства

anti-slavery society [ˈæntɪ ˈsleɪvərɪ səˈsaɪətɪ] общество борьбы против рабства

apart [əˈpɑːt] adv отдельно, врозь

apartment [əˈpɑːtmənt] n квартира, апартамент

apartment building [əˈpɑːtməntˈbɪldɪŋ] многоквартирный дом

apartment house [əˈpɑːtməntˈhaus] многоквартирный дом

appear [əˈpɪə] v появляться

appearance [əˈpɪərəns] n появление, внешность

appliance [əˈplaɪəns] n приспособление

applicable [əˈplɪkəbl] a применимый, пригодный, подходящий

apply [əˈplaɪ] v применять, обращаться с просьбой

appoint [əˈpɔɪnt] v назначать

appointment [əˈpɔɪntmənt] назначение

appreciate [əˈpriːʃɪeɪt] v ценить

approach [əˈproutʃ] v приближаться

approve [əˈpruːv] v одобрять

Arabic [əˈræbɪk] a арабский

architect [ˈɑːkɪtekt] n архитектор

architecture [ˌɑːkɪˈtektʃə] n архитектура

arctic [ˈɑːktɪk] a арктический

area [ˈɛərɪə] n область, территория

argue [ˈɑːɡju] v спорить

arithmetic [əˈrɪθmətɪk] n арифметика

arm [ɑːm] n рука

arm [ɑːm] v вооружаться

armadillo [ˌɑːməˈdɪlou] n броненосец (животное)

armed [ɑːmd] a вооруженный

armed forces [ˈɑːmdˈfɔːsɪz] вооруженные силы

arms [ɑːmz] n оружие

army [ˈɑːmɪ] n армия

army unit [ˈɑːmɪˈjuːnɪt] воинская часть (подразделение)

around [əˈraund] prep вокруг

arrest [əˈrest] n арест

arrest [əˈrest] v арестовать

arrive [əˈraɪv] v прибыть

art [ɑːt] n искусство

article [ˈɑːtɪkl] n статья

artist [ˈɑːtɪst] n художник

as [əz] conj так, так как, когда, по мере того как
    as well as [əzˈwel əz] так же как и

ash [æʃ] n ясень, рябина

ashore [əˈʃɔː] adv на берегу, на берег

ask [ɑːsk] v спрашивать, просить

aspect [ˈæspekt] n аспект

assassinate [əˈsæsɪneɪt] v совершать убийство по политическим мотивам

assemble [əˈsembl] v собирать(ся)

assembly line [əˈsemblɪˌlaɪn] конвейер

association [əˈsousɪˈeɪʃn] n общество, ассоциация

astronaut [ˈæstrənɔːt] n астронавт

ate [et] см. eat

atmosphere [ˌætməsˈfɪə] n атмосфера

atom [ˈætəm] n атом

atomic bomb [əˈtɔmɪkˈbɔm] атомная бомба

attack [əˈtæk] n атака, нападение

attack [əˈtæk] v атаковать, нападать

attempt [əˈtemt] n попытка

attempt [əˈtemt] v пытаться

attend [əˈtend] v посещать

attention [əˈtenʃn] n внимание

attract [əˈtrækt] v привлекать

attractions [əˈtrækʃnz] n аттракционы

auction [ˈɔːkʃn] n аукцион

audience ['ɔ:dɪəns] n аудитория, слушатели, зрители (в театре)
aunt [ɑ:nt] n тетя
author ['ɔ:θə] n автор
automobile ['ɔ:təmoubi:l] n автомобиль
autumn ['ɔ:təm] n осень
avenue ['ævənju:] n авеню, проспект
avoid [ə'vɔɪd] v избегать
award [ə'wɔ:d] v награждать
award [ə'wɔ:d] n награда
axe [æks] n топор
axis ['æksɪs] n ось

B

back [bæk] n спина, задняя часть
back [bæk] adv обратно
badger ['bædʒə] n барсук
badly ['bædlɪ] adv плохо
bake [beɪk] v печь
bandage ['bændɪdʒ] n повязка, бинт
bandit ['bandɪt] n бандит
bank [bæŋk] n банк, берег реки
banker ['bæŋkə] n банкир
bar [bɑ:] n бар
barn [bɑ:n] n сарай
barrel ['bærəl] n бочка
barrelmaker ['bærəl,meɪkə] n бочар, мастер по изготовлению бочек
barter ['bɑ:tə] n бартер, обменная торговля
barter ['bɑ:tə] v торговать путем обмена
base [beɪs] n база
baseball ['beɪsbɔ:l] n бейзбол
based on ['beɪzd'ɔn] основан на
basic ['beɪsɪk] a основной
basis ['beɪsɪs] n базис, основание
bat [bæt] n летучая мышь
battery ['bætərɪ] n батарея, батарейка
battle [bætl] n битва

beach [bi:tʃ] n пляж
beans [bi:nz] n бобы
bear [bɛə] n медведь
bearded [ˈbɪədɪd] a бородатый
beat [bi:t] (beat, beaten) v бить
beaten [bi:tn] a разбит
beaten [bi:tn] см. beat
beautiful [ˈbju:tɪful] a красивый
beauty [ˈbju:tɪ] n красота
beaver [ˈbi:və] n бобр
became [bɪˈkeɪm] см. become
because of [bɪˈkɔːz əv] из-за
become [bɪˈkʌm] (became, become) v становиться
beef [bi:f] n говядина
beg [beg] v просить, умолять
began [bɪˈgæn] см. begin
begin [bɪˈgɪn] (began, begun) v начинать(ся)
beginning [bɪˈgɪnɪŋ] n начало
begun [bɪˈgʌn] см. begin
behaviour [bɪˈheɪvɪə] n поведение
belief [bɪˈli:f] n вера, верование, убеждение
believe [bɪˈli:v] v верить, полагать
belong [bɪˈlɔŋ] v принадлежать
belongings [bɪˈlɔŋɪŋz] n принадлежности, вещи
below [bɪˈlou] prep ниже, под
belt [belt] n пояс, ремень
beside [bɪˈsaɪd] prep рядом с
besides [bɪˈsaɪdz] adv кроме, кроме того
better [ˈbetə] a лучше
better [ˈbetə] v улучшать
between [bɪˈtwi:n] prep между
beyond [bɪˈjɔnd] prep за, за пределами
Bible [baɪbl] Библия
bicycle [ˈbaɪsɪkl] n велосипед
bill [bɪl] n проект закона
bird [bə:d] n птица
birth [bə:θ] n рождение

bitterly ['bɪtəlɪ] adv горько

black [blæk] a черный

blacksmith ['blæksmɪθ] n кузнец

blame [bleɪm] v обвинять

blast [blɑ:st] n порыв

blew [blu:] см. blow

block [blɔk] n блок, квартал, преграда

block [blɔk] v преграждать

blockade [blɔ'keɪd] n блокада

blow [blou] n удар

blow [blou] (blew, blown) v дуть

blow a whistle ['blou ə'wɪsl] свистеть в свисток

blow up ['blou'ʌp] взорвать(ся)

blown [bloun] см. blow

blue [blu:] a синий

board [bɔ:d] v садиться (на поезд, в самолет и т. д.)

board [bɔ:d]: on board на борту, на борт

board a ship ['bɔ:d ə'ʃɪp] садиться на корабль

boat [bout] n лодка, корабль

body ['bɔdɪ] n тело, организация (группа людей)

bold [bould] a смелый

bomb [bɔm] n бомба

bomb [bɔm] v бомбить

bomber ['bɔmə] n бомбардировщик

bombing raids ['bɔmɪŋ'reɪdz] воздушные налеты

book [buk] n книга

boom [bu:m] n бум (быстрый подъем деловой активности)

border ['bɔdə] n граница

border ['bɔdə] v граничить

bored [bɔ:d]: get bored испытывать скуку («надоело»)

boring ['bɔ:rɪŋ] a утомительный, внушающий скуку

born [bɔ:n]: be born родиться

boss [bɔs] n босс, хозяин

both [bouθ] pron оба

bottom ['bɔtəm] n дно, подножие

bought [bɔ:t] см. buy

bound [baund] v ограничивать

bound [baund] a связан

bound for ['baund fɔ:] направляющийся в

boundary ['baundərɪ] n граница, разграничительная линия

box [bɔks] n ящик, коробка

boy [bɔɪ] n мальчик

boycott ['bɔɪkɔt] n бойкот

boycott ['bɔɪkɔt] v бойкотировать

brake [breɪk] n тормоз

branch [brɑːntʃ] n ветка, ветвь, ответвление

brave [breɪv] a храбрый

bravely ['breɪvlɪ] adv храбро

bravery ['breɪvərɪ] n храбрость

break [breɪk] (broke, broken) v ломать, разбивать

    break away ['breɪk ə'weɪ] оторваться, отделиться, выйти из состава

    break out ['breɪk'aut] разразиться

bred [bred] см. breed

breed [briːd] (bred, bred) v: breed cattle разводить крупный рогатый скот

bribe [braɪb] n взятка

bridge [brɪdʒ] n мост

bright [braɪt] a яркий

brightly ['braɪtlɪ] adv ярко

bring [brɪŋ] (brought, brought) v приносить, привозить, приводить

    bring up [brɪŋ'ʌp] воспитывать

broad [brɔːd] a широкий

broadcast ['brɔːdkɑːst] (broadcast, broadcast) v транслировать

broad-leaf ['brɔːdliːf] a широколиственный

broke [brouk] см. break

broken ['broukən] см. break

broken ['broukən] a разбитый

brotherly ['brʌðəlɪ] a братский

brought [brɔːt] см. bring

brown bear ['braun'bɛə] n бурый медведь
brush [brʌʃ] n щетка, кисть, заросли кустарника
brushwood ['brʌʃwud] n кустарник
buffalo ['bʌfəlou] n буйвол, бизон
build [bɪld] (built, built) v строить
builder ['bɪldə] n строитель
built [bɪlt] см. build
bulb [bʌlb] n электрическая лампочка
bullet ['bulɪt] n пуля
burn [bə:n] v гореть, жечь
bury ['berɪ] v закапывать
business ['bɪznɪs] n дело, бизнес
businessman ['bɪznɪsmən] n бизнесмен
busy ['bɪzɪ] a занят (о человеке), оживленный (о месте)
buy [baɪ] (bought, bought) v покупать
buyer [baɪə] n покупатель

<center>C</center>

cabin ['kæbɪn] n кабина, хижина
cabinet ['kæbɪnət] n кабинет (министров)
cable [keɪbl] n кабель
cable car ['keɪbl͵ka:] n трамвай (в Сан-Франциско)
cafe ['kæfeɪ] n кафе
calculations [͵kælkjuˈleɪʃnz] n расчеты, подсчеты
call [kɔ:l] v звать, называть
      call for ['kɔ:l'fɔ:] призывать к
came [keɪm] см. come
camera ['kæmərə] n фотоаппарат
camp [kæmp] n лагерь
canal [kəˈnæl] n канал
candidate ['kændɪdɪt] n кандидат
candle [kændl] n свеча
candlelight ['kændllaɪt] n свет свечи
candlemaker ['kændl͵meɪkə] n мастер по изготовлению
   свечей
cannon ['kænən] n пушка
cannon-ball ['kænən͵bɔ:l] n пушечное ядро
canoe [kəˈnu:] n каноэ

canyon [ˈkænjən] n каньон

capital [ˈkæpɪtəl] n столица

captain [ˈkæptən] n капитан

capture [ˈkæptʃə] v захватить

capture [ˈkæptʃə] n захват

captured [ˈkæptʃəd] a захваченный

car [kɑ:] n машина

care [kɛə]: take care of заботиться о

career [kəˈrɪə] n карьера

cargo [ˈkɑ:gou] n груз

carousel [ˌkærəˈsel] n карусель

carpenter [ˈkɑ:pɪntə] n плотник

carpentry [ˈkɑ:pɪntrɪ] n плотницкое дело

carriage [ˈkærɪdʒ] n экипаж, вагон поезда

cart [kɑ:t] n телега

carry [ˈkærɪ] v носить, возить
        carry out [ˈkærɪˈaut] выполнять

case [keɪs] n случай

catch [kætʃ] (caught, caught) v ловить, поймать
        catch up [ˈkætʃˈʌp] догнать

Catholic [ˈkæθəlɪk] a католический

cattle [kætl] n крупный рогатый скот

cattle-breeding [ˈkætlˌbri:dɪŋ] n разведение крупного
   рогатого скота

cattle drive [ˈkætlˌdraɪv] n в США: перегон больших
   партий крупного рогатого скота к месту
   обработки

cattle-farming [ˈkætlˌfɑ:mɪŋ] n разведение крупного
   рогатого скота

caught [kɔ:t] см. catch

cause [kɔ:z] n причина, дело

cause [kɔ:z] v вызывать, причинять

cavalry [ˈkævəlrɪ] n кавалерия

ceiling [ˈsi:lɪŋ] n потолок

celebrate [ˈselɪbreɪt] v праздновать

celebration [ˌselɪˈbreɪʃn] n празднование

celestial body [sɪˈlestɪəlˈbɔdɪ] n небесное тело

cemetery ['semɪtrɪ] n кладбище
central ['sentrəl] a центральный
centre ['sentə] n центр
century ['sentʃərɪ] n столетие
certain [sə:tn] a определенный, некий
chain [tʃeɪn] n цепь
chain [tʃeɪn] v заковать в цепи
champion ['tʃæmpɪən] n поборник, чемпион
chance [tʃɑ:ns] n шанс, удобный случай
change [tʃeɪndʒ] v менять(ся)
change [tʃeɪndʒ] n перемена, изменение
channel [tʃænl] n канал, пролив
character ['kærəktə] n характер, герой литературного
   произведения
characteristic [,kærəktə'rɪstɪk] a характерный
characterize ['kærəktəraɪz] v характеризовать
charge [tʃɑ:dʒ]: in charge ответственный
charm [tʃɑ:m] n очарование
charming ['tʃɑ:mɪŋ] a очаровательный
cheap [tʃi:p] a дешевый
cheaply ['tʃi:plɪ] adv дешево
check [tʃek] v проверять
check [tʃek] n проверка
chemical industry ['kemɪkəl 'ɪndəstrɪ] химическая про-
   мышленность
chemicals ['kemɪkəlz] n химикалии, химические
   препараты
chemistry ['kemɪstrɪ] n химия
chemist's shop ['kemɪsts 'ʃɔp] аптека
chicken ['tʃɪkɪn] n цыпленок, курица
childhood ['tʃaɪldhud] n детство
children ['tʃɪldrən] n дети
chimney ['tʃɪmnɪ] n труба
chipmunk ['tʃɪpmʌŋk] n бурундук
choice [tʃɔɪs] n выбор
choose [tʃu:z] (chose, chosen) v выбирать

chop [tʃɔp] v:

    chop down trees срубать деревья

    chop wood колоть дрова

chores [tʃɔ:z] n повседневные домашние дела

chose [tʃouz] см. choose

chosen [´tʃouzən] см. choose

Christian [´krɪstjən] a христианский

Christian [´krɪstjən] n христианин

Christianity [,krɪstɪ´ænɪtɪ] n христианство

Christmas [´krɪsməs] n Рождество

church [tʃə:tʃ] n церковь

cinema [´sɪnəmə] n кино

circle [sə:kl] n круг, круглая площадь

circle [sə:kl] v двигаться по кругу

citizen [´sɪtɪzən] n гражданин

citizenship [´sɪtɪzənʃɪp] n гражданство

civil rights [´sɪvɪl´raɪts] гражданские права

civil war [´sɪvɪl´wɔ:] гражданская война

claim [kleɪm] v претендовать, заявлять права на что-л

class [klɑ:s] n класс

clean [kli:n] a чистый (не грязный)

clean [kli:n] v чистить (делать чистым)

clear [klɪə] a чистый (ясный)

clear [klɪə] v очищать (от чего-нибудь, освобождать)

clearly [´klɪəlɪ] adv ясно

clergyman [´klə:dʒɪmən] n священник

clever [´klevə] a умный

climate [´klaɪmɪt] n климат

climatic [klaɪ´mætɪk] a климатический

climb [klaɪm] v взбираться

close to [´klous tə] рядом с

close [klouz] v закрывать

cloth [klɔθ] n материя, ткань

clothes [klouðz] n одежда

clothing [´klouðɪŋ] n одежда

cloud [klaud] n облако

cloudless [´klaudlɪs] a безоблачный

coal [koul] n уголь

coal-mine ['koulmaın] n угольная шахта

coast [koust] n берег

coastline ['koustlaın] n береговая линия

code [koud] n код, шифр

cold [kould] a холодный

college ['kɔlıdʒ] n колледж

collect [kə'lekt] v собирать, коллекционировать

collection [kə'lekʃn] n собрание, коллекция

colonial [kə'lɔnıəl] a колониальный

colonist ['kɔlənıst] n колонист

colonization [,kɔlənaı'zeıʃn] n колонизация

colony ['kɔlənı] n колония

colour ['kʌlə] n цвет

come [kʌm] (came, come) v приходить, приезжать

comedy ['kɔmədı] n комедия

comet ['kɔmıt] n комета

comfort ['kʌmfət] n комфорт, удобство

comfortable ['kʌmfətəbl] a удобный, комфортабельный

command [kə'mɑ:nd] v командовать

command [kə'mɑ:nd] n команда, командование

commander [kə'mɑ:ndə] n командир

commander-in-chief [kə'mɑ:ndər ın'tʃi:f] главнокомандующий

comment ['kɔment] v комментировать

commodore ['kɔmədɔ:] n коммодор (морской командный чин в Англии и Америке)

common ['kɔmən] a общий

common: in common общий

common man ['kɔmən'mæn] простой человек

common people ['kɔmən'pi:pl] простые люди

communication [kə,mjunı'keıʃn] n связь

community [kə'mju:nıtı] n община

company ['kʌmpənı] n компания

comparable ['kɔmpərəbl] a сравнимый

comparatively [kəm'pærətıvlı] adv сравнительно

compare [kəm'pɛə] v сравнивать

comparison [kəmˈpærɪsn] n сравнение
competition [ˌkɔmpəˈtiʃn] n соревнование
complain [kəmˈpleɪn] v жаловаться
complaint [kəmˈpleɪnt] n жалоба
complete [kəmˈpliːt] a полный
completely [kəmˈpliːtlɪ] adv полностью
complicated [ˌkɔmplɪˈkeɪtɪd] a сложный, трудный для
  понимания
compose [kəmˈpouz] v сочинять, составлять
composed [kəmˈpouzd] a состоящий
composer [kəmˈpouzə] n композитор
composition [ˌkɔmpəˈzɪʃn] n сочинение, состав
compromise [ˈkɔmprəmaɪz] n компромисс
concentrated [ˈkɔnsəntreɪtɪd] a сконцентрированный
concentration camp [ˌkɔnsənˈtreɪʃnˈkæmp] концентра-
  ционный лагерь
concern [kənˈsəːn] v: concern with заниматься чем-
  либо
concert [ˈkɔnsət] n концерт
concert hall [ˈkɔnsətˌhɔːl] концертный зал
conclude [kənˈkluːd] v заключать, делать заключение
concrete [ˈkɔnkriːt] n бетон
condition [kənˈdɪʃn] n условие
conduct [kənˈdʌkt] v проводить
conductor [kənˈdʌktə] n кондуктор, проводник, дирижер
confederation [kənˌfedəˈreɪʃn] n конфедерация
conference [ˈkɔnfərəns] n конференция
confirm [kənˈfəːm] v подтверждать
confiscate [ˈkɔnfɪskeɪt] v конфисковать
conflict [ˈkɔnflɪkt] n конфликт
congress [ˈkɔŋgres] n конгресс
congressman [ˈkɔŋgresmən] n конгрессмен
coniferous [kouˈnɪfərəs] a хвойный
connect [kəˈnekt] v соединять
conquer [ˈkɔŋkə] v покорять, завоевывать
conqueror [ˈkɔŋkərə] n завоеватель
conquistador [kənˈkwɪstədɔː] n конквистадор, завоеватель

conservative [kən'sə:vətiv] a консервативный
consider [kən'sidə] v считать, рассматривать
considerable [kən'sidərəbl] a значительный
consist [kən'sist] v состоять
conspirator [kən'spirətə] n конспиратор
constant ['kɔnstənt] a постоянный
constantly ['kɔnstəntli] adv постоянно
constitution [,kɔnsti'tju:ʃn] n конституция
constitutional [,kɔnti'tju:ʃnəl] a конституционный
construct [kəns'trʌkt] v строить, конструировать
construction [kəns'trʌkʃn] n конструкция, строитель-
  ство, постройка
contact ['kɔntækt] n контакт, связь
contact ['kɔntækt] v контактировать, связываться
contain [kən'tein] v содержать
contest ['kɔntest] n состязание
continent ['kɔntinənt] n континент
continental [,kɔnti'nentəl] a континентальный
continue [kən'tinju] v продолжать(ся)
contradiction [,kɔntrə'dikʃn] n противоречие
contribution [,kɔntri'bju:ʃn] n вклад
control [kən'troul] n контроль
control [kən'troul] v контролировать
convenient [kən'vi:njənt] a удобный
convince [kən'vins] v убеждать
cook [kuk] v готовить (пищу)
cook [kuk] n повар, кухарка
cool [ku:l] a прохладный
cooperate [kou'ɔpəreit] v сотрудничать
copper ['kɔpə] n медь
copy ['kɔpi] v копировать, переписывать
copy ['kɔpi] n копия, экземпляр
corn [kɔ:n] n зерно
corporation [,kɔ:pə'reiʃn] n корпорация
correct [kə'rekt] a правильный
correspondence [,kɔri'spɔndəns] n корреспонденция,
  переписка

correspondent [ˌkɔrɪˈspɔndənt] n корреспондент
corruption [kəˈrʌpʃn] n коррупция, разложение
cost [kɔst] (cost, cost) v стоить
costs [kɔsts] n затраты
costume [ˈkɔstjum] n костюм
cosy [ˈkouzɪ] a удобный, уютный
cotton [kɔtn] n хлопок
cotton mill [ˈkɔtnmɪl] хлопкопрядильная фабрика
count [kaunt] v считать
counter [ˈkauntə] n прилавок, стойка (в баре)
country [ˈkʌntrɪ] n страна
country school [ˈkʌntrɪˌskuːl] сельская школа
country-side [ˈkʌntrɪsaɪd] загородная местность
county [ˈkauntɪ] n графство (административная
    единица в Англии и США)
couple [kʌpl] n пара
courage [ˈkʌrɪdʒ] n храбрость
course [kɔːs] n курс
court [kɔːt] n суд
courtyard [ˈkɔːtjɑːd] n двор
cover [ˈkʌvə] v покрывать
cover [ˈkʌvə] n покрывало, одеяло, покров
covered [ˈkʌvəd] a покрытый
cow [kau] n корова
cowboy [ˈkaubɔɪ] n ковбой
coyote [ˈkɔɪout] n койот
crack [kræk] v треснуть
cranberries [ˈkrænbərɪz] n клюква
crash [kræʃ] v разбить, сломать с шумом и треском,
    разбиться вдребезги
crash [kræʃ] n грохот, треск, крах
crawfish [ˈkrɔːfɪʃ] n рак
crazy [ˈkreɪzɪ] a сумасшедший
create [krɪˈeɪt] v создавать
creative [krɪˈeɪtɪv] a созидательный, творческий
creature [ˈkriːtʃə] n создание
credit [ˈkredɪt]: buy on credit покупать в кредит

crew [kru:] n команда (корабля, самолета и т. д.)
crime [kraɪm] n преступление
crisis [ˈkraɪsɪs] n кризис
crisscrossed [ˈkrɪskrɔst] a пересеченный
crops [krɔps] n посевы, зерновые культуры
cross [krɔs] v пересекать
crowd [kraud] n толпа
crowded [ˈkraudɪd] a переполненный
cruel [kruəl] a жестокий
cruelty [ˈkruəltɪ] n жестокость
cultural [ˈkʌltʃərəl] a культурный
culturally [ˈkʌltʃərəlɪ] adv в культурном отношении
culture [ˈkʌltʃə] n культура
cultured [ˈkʌltʃəd] a культурный
cure [kjuə] v вылечивать
curious [ˈkjuərɪəs] a любознательный, диковинный
curiosity [ˌkjuərɪˈɔsɪtɪ] n любознательность
curve [kə:v] n изгиб, извилина
custom [ˈkʌstəm] n обычай, привычка
customer [ˈkʌstəmə] n покупатель, клиент
cut [kʌt] (cut, cut) v резать
      cut down [ˈkʌtˈdaun] срубить

D

daily [ˈdeɪlɪ] a ежедневный, повседневный
dam [dæm] n плотина
damage [ˈdæmɪdʒ] v испортить, повредить
damages of the war [ˈdæmɪdʒɪz əv ðəˈwɔ:] ущерб, нанесенный войной
dance [dɑ:ns] v танцевать
dance [dɑ:ns] n танец
danger [ˈdeɪndʒə] n опасность
dangerous [ˈdeɪndʒərəs] a опасный
darkened [ˈdɑ:kənd] a затемненный
dash [dæʃ] n черта, тире
daughter [ˈdɔ:tə] n дочь
day [deɪ] n день
dead [ded] a мертвый

deadly ['dedlɪ] a мертвенный, смертельный

death [deθ] n смерть

debt [det] n долг

decade [di'keɪd] n десятилетие

decide [dɪ'saɪd] v решить

decision [dɪ'sɪʒn] n решение

decisive [dɪ'saɪsɪv] a решительный

deck [dek] n палуба

declaration [,deklə'reɪʃn] n заявление, декларация

declare [dɪ'klɛə] v заявить

    declare war [dɪ'klɛə'wɔ:] объявить войну

decorate ['dekəreɪt] v украшать

decorated ['dekəreɪtɪd] a украшенный

dedicate ['dedɪkeɪt] v посвящать, освящать (церковь и т. д.)

dedicated ['dedɪkeɪtɪd] a преданный

deep [di:p] a глубокий

deeply ['di:plɪ] adv глубоко

deer [dɪə] n олень

defeat [dɪ'fi:t] v победить, разбить

defeat [dɪ'fi:t] n поражение

defend [dɪ'fend] v защищать

degree [dɪ'gri:] n степень

delegate ['delɪgɪt] n делегат

delighted [dɪ'laɪtɪd] a в восторге

deliver [də'lɪvə] v доставлять

    deliver lectures [də'lɪvə'lektʃəz] читать лекции

demand [dɪ'ma:nd] v требовать

democracy [dɪ'mɔkrəsɪ] n демократия

democratic [,demə'krætɪk] a демократический

demonstrate ['demənstreɪt] v демонстрировать

densely populated ['denslɪ,pɔpju'leɪtɪd] густо населенный

deny [dɪ'naɪ] v отрицать

    deny rights [dɪ'naɪ'raɪts] лишать прав, отказывать в правах

department [dɪ'pa:tmənt] n отдел, отделение

depend [dɪ'pend] v зависеть

depending on [dɪ'pendɪŋ ən] в зависимости от

deposits [dɪ'pɔzɪts] n залежи

depression [di'preʃn] n депрессия (спад деловой активности); котловина, низина, впадина

deprive [dɪ'praɪv] a лишать

depth [depθ] n глубина

descendant [dɪ'sendənt] n потомок

describe [dɪs'kraɪb] v описывать

desert ['dezət] n пустыня

desert [dɪ'zə:t] v покидать, дезертировать

design [dɪ'zaɪn] v проектировать

design [dɪ'zaɪn] n проект, дизайн

desire [dɪ'zaɪə] n желание

desk [desk] n парта, письменный стол, конторка

despite [dɪ'spaɪt] prep несмотря на

destination [,destɪ'neɪʃn] n место назначения

destroy [dɪs'trɔɪ] v разрушать

destruction [dɪs'trʌkʃn] n разрушение

destructive [dɪs'trʌktɪv] a разрушительный

detailed ['di:teɪld] a детальный, подробный

detect [dɪ'tekt] v обнаруживать

determination [dɪ,tə:mɪ'neɪʃn] n решимость

develop [dɪ'veləp] v развивать, производить

development [dɪ'veləpmənt] n развитие, разработка

devote [dɪ'vout] v посвящать

dictator [dɪk'teɪtə] n диктатор

die [daɪ] v умирать

differ ['dɪfə] v отличаться

difference ['dɪfrəns] n разница

different ['dɪfrənt] a различный, отличающийся, не такой

differently ['dɪfrəntlɪ] adv различно, по разному

difficult ['dɪfɪkəlt] a трудный

difficulty ['dɪfɪkəltɪ] n трудность

diffusion [dɪ'fju:ʒn] n распространение

dig [dɪg] (dug, dug) v копать

diploma [dɪpʹloumə] n диплом
direction [dɪʹrekʃn] n направление
directly [dɪʹrektlɪ] adv прямо
director [dɪʹrektə] n директор
dirty [ʹdə:tɪ] a грязный
disadvantage [ˌdɪsədʹvɑ:ntɪdʒ] n недостаток, неблаго-
    приятное положение
disagree [dɪsəʹgri:] v не соглашаться
disagreement [dɪsəʹgri:mənt] n разногласие, недоразу-
    мение
diappear [dɪsəʹpɪə] v исчезать
disappointed [dɪsəʹpɔɪntɪd] a разочарованный
disaster [dɪʹzɑ:stə] n бедствие, несчастье
discipline [ʹdɪsɪplɪn] n дисциплина
discover [dɪsʹkʌvə] v открыть, сделать открытие
discovery [dɪsʹkʌvərɪ] n открытие
discrimination [dɪsˌkrɪmɪʹneɪʃn] n дискриминация
discuss [dɪsʹkʌs] v обсуждать
disease [dɪʹzi:z] n болезнь
dish [dɪʃ] n блюдо
dislike [dɪsʹlaɪk] v не нравиться
disobey [ˌdɪsəʹbeɪ] v не слушаться
display [dɪsʹpleɪ]: on display на обозрение
distance [ʹdɪstəns] n расстояние
distant [ʹdɪstənt] a отдаленный
distinct [dɪsʹtɪŋkt] a отчетливый
distinguish [dɪsʹtɪŋgwɪʃ] v: distinguish oneself отличиться
distribute [dɪsʹtrɪbjut] v распределять
district [ʹdɪstrɪkt] n район
distrust [dɪsʹtrʌst] v не доверять
ditch [dɪtʃ] n канава, ров
diverse [daɪʹvə:s] a разнообразный
diversity [daɪʹvə:sɪtɪ] n разнообразие
divide [dɪʹvaɪd] v разделять
divided [dɪʹvaɪdɪd] a разделен
dividing line [dɪʹvaɪdɪŋ ʹlaɪn] разделительная линия
division [dɪʹvɪʒn] n разделение

divorce [dɪ´vɔ:s] n развод

divorce rate [dɪ´vɔ:s´reɪt] количество разводов

do sport [´du: ´spɔ:t] заниматься спортом

doctor [´dɔktə] n доктор

document [´dɔkjumənt] n документ

doorstep [´dɔ:step] n порог

doorway [´dɔ:weɪ] n дверь, дверной проем

dot [dɔt] n точка

double [dʌbl] v удваивать

doubtless [´dautlɪs] a несомненный

downstream [´daun,stri:m] adv вниз по течению

dozen [dʌzn] n дюжина

drank [dræŋk] см. drink

draw [drɔ:] (drew, drawn) v тянуть, чертить, рисовать, притягивать

draw attention [´drɔ: ə´tenʃn] привлекать внимание

drawing [´drɔ:ɪŋ] n чертеж, рисунок

drawn [drɔ:n] см. draw

dream [dri:m] v мечтать

dream [dri:m] n мечта

dress [dres] v одеваться

drew [dru:] см. draw

drink [drɪŋk] (drank, drunk) v пить

drive [draɪv] (drove, driven) v гнать, вести машину

driven [drɪvn] см. drive

drop [drɔp] v ронять, бросать, падать

drove [drouv] см. drive

drown [draun] v тонуть

drunk [drʌŋk] см. drink

dry [draɪ] a сухой

dry [draɪ] v сушить

due to [´dju:tə] обусловлен

dug [dʌg] см. dig

duke [dju:k] n герцог

during [´djuərɪŋ] prep во время, в течение

dust [dʌst] n пыль

duty [´dju:tɪ] n долг, обязанность

E

early [ˈəːlɪ] a ранний adv рано
earn [əːn] v зарабатывать
     earn a living [ˈəːn əˈlɪvɪŋ] зарабатывать на жизнь
earth [əːθ] n земля
earthquake [ˈəːθkweɪk] n землетрясение
easily [ˈiːzɪlɪ] adv легко
east [iːst] n восток
eastern [ˈiːstən] a восточный
easterner [ˈiːstənə] n житель востока
easy [ˈiːzɪ] a легкий
eat [iːt] (ate, eaten) v есть
eaten [iːtn] см. eat
economically [ˌɪkəˈnɔmɪkəlɪ] adv экономически
economist [ɪˈkɔnəmɪst] n экономист
economy [ɪˈkɔnəmɪ] n экономика
edge [edʒ] n край
edit [ˈedɪt] v редактировать
editor [ˈedɪtə] n редактор
educate [ˈedjukeɪt] v обучать, давать образование
educated [ˈedjukeɪtɪd] a образованный
education [ˌedjuˈkeɪʃn] n образование
educational [ˌedjuˈkeɪʃnəl] a образовательный
effect [ɪˈfekt] n эффект, воздействие
effective [ɪˈfektɪv] a эффективный
effectively [ɪˈfektɪvlɪ] adv эффективно
efficient [ɪˈfɪʃənt] a эффективный
effort [ˈefət] n попытка, усилие
egg [eg] n яйцо
either [ˈaɪðə] ... or [ɔː] или... или...
elderly [ˈeldəlɪ] a пожилой
elect [ɪˈlekt] v выбирать, избирать
elections [ɪˈlekʃnz] n выборы
electric [ɪˈlektrɪk] a электрический
electric discharge [ɪˈlektrɪk dɪsˈtʃɑːdʒ] электрический разряд
electric lift [ɪˈlektrɪk ˈlɪft] электрический лифт

electric power [ɪˈlektrɪkˈpauə] электроэнергия
electric wire [ɪˈlektrɪkˈwaɪə] электрический провод
electricity [ˌɪlekˈtrɪsɪtɪ] n электричество
electronic [ˌɪlekˈtrɔnɪk] a электронный
elegant [ˈelɪgənt] a элегантный
element [ˈelɪmənt] n элемент
elementary school [ˌelɪˈmentərɪˈskuːl] начальная школа
emigrate [ˈemɪgreɪt] v эмигрировать
emphasis [ˈemfəsɪs] n ударение, особое внимание
employed people [ɪmˈplɔɪdˈpiːpl] люди имеющие работу
employer [ɪmˈplɔɪə] n наниматель, работодатель
empty [ˈemptɪ] a пустой
empty [ˈemptɪ] v впадать (о реке)
encourage [ɪnˈkʌrɪdʒ] v ободрять, поощрять
end [end] n конец
enemy [ˈenɪmɪ] n враг
energy [ˈenədʒɪ] n энергия
enforce [ɪnˈfɔːs] v проводить в жизнь
engage [ɪnˈgeɪdʒ]: engage in заниматься чем-либо
engaged [ɪnˈgeɪdʒd]: be engaged in быть занятым чем-
    либо
engine [ˈendʒɪn] n машина, двигатель
engine-driver [ˈendʒɪnˌdraɪvə] n машинист (локомо-
    тива)
engineer [ˌendʒɪˈnɪə] n инженер
enjoy [ɪnˈdʒɔɪ] v наслаждаться, получать удоволь-
    ствие от
        enjoy climate [ɪnˈdʒɔɪˈklaɪmɪt] иметь климат
        enjoy rights [ɪnˈdʒɔɪˈraɪts] пользоваться правами
enormous [ɪˈnɔːməs] a огромный
enough [ɪˈnʌf] adv достаточно
enter [ˈentə] v входить, поступать (в учебное
    заведение)
entertaining [ˌentəˈteɪnɪŋ] a развлекательный
entertainment [ˌentəˈteɪnmənt] n развлечение
enthusiastic [ɪnˌθjuːzɪˈæstɪk] a полный энтузиазма
entire [ɪnˈtaɪə] a весь, полный

epidemic [,epɪˈdemɪk] n эпидемия

epidemic [,epɪˈdemɪk] a эпидемический

equal [ˈiːkwəl] a равный

equally [iːˈkwɔlɪtɪ] adv равенство

equip [ɪˈkwɪp] v оборудовать

equipment [ɪˈkwɪpmənt] n оборудование

erosional [ɪˈrouʒənəl] a эрозионный

escape [ɪsˈkeɪp] v бежать, спасаться

escape [ɪsˈkeɪp] n побег

escaped slave [ɪsˈkeɪptˈsleɪv] сбежавший раб

especially [ɪˈspeʃəlɪ] adv особенно

establish [ɪsˈtæblɪʃ] v устанавливать

establishment [ɪsˈtæblɪʃmənt] n установление, учреждение

estate [ɪsˈteɪt] n поместье

European [juərəˈpɪən] a европейский

even [ˈiːvən] adv даже

event [ɪˈvent] n событие (в спорте: номер в состязании)

evergreen [,evəˈgriːn] a вечнозеленый

ever-growing [,evəˈgrouɪŋ] a всевозрастающий

everspreading [,evəˈspredɪŋ] a постоянно распространяющийся

everywhere [ˈevrɪwɛə] adv везде

evil [ˈiːvəl] n зло

exact [ɪgˈzækt] a точный

exactly [ɪgˈzæktlɪ] adv точно

examination [ɪg,zæmɪˈneɪʃn] n экзамен

example [ɪgˈzɑːmpl] n пример

excellent [ˈeksələnt] a отличный

except [ɪkˈsept] prep кроме

exception [ɪkˈsepʃn] n исключение

exchange [ɪksˈtʃeɪndʒ] n обмен, биржа

exchange [ɪksˈtʃeɪndʒ] v обменивать

exchange: in exchange for [ɪn iksˈtʃeɪndʒ fɔː] взамен

excitement [ɪkˈsaɪtmənt] n возбужденное состояние

exciting [ɪkˈsaɪtɪŋ] a захватывающий

executive [ɪɡˈzekjutɪv] a исполнительный
exhibition [ˌeksɪˈbɪʃn] n выставка
exist [ɪɡˈzɪst] v существовать
expand [ɪksˈpænd] v расширяться
expect [ɪksˈpekt] v ожидать, рассчитывать
expedition [ˌekspɪˈdɪʃn] n экспедиция
expensive [ɪksˈpensɪv] a дорогой
experience [ɪksˈpɪərɪəns] n опыт
experienced [ɪksˈpɪərɪənst] a опытный
experiment [ɪksˈperɪmənt] n эксперимент
expert [ˈekspəːt] n эксперт
explain [ɪksˈpleɪn] v объяснять
explode [ɪksˈploud] v взрывать(ся)
exploration [ˌekspləˈreɪʃn] n исследование
explore [ɪksˈplɔː] v исследовать
explorer [ɪksˈplɔːrə] n исследователь
explosion [ɪksˈplouʒn] n взрыв
explosive [ɪksˈplouzɪv] n взрывчатое вещество
export [ˈekspɔːt] n экспорт
expose [ɪksˈpouz] v вскрывать, разоблачать
express [ɪksˈpres] v выражать
ex-slave [ˈeksˈsleɪv] n бывший раб
extend [ɪksˈtend] v простираться
extreme [ɪksˈtriːm] a крайний
eye-witness [ˈaɪˌwɪtnɪs] n очевидец

F

face [feɪs] n лицо
face [feɪs] v встречать
fact [fækt]: in fact в сущности
factory [ˈfæktərɪ] n завод, фабрика
fail [feɪl] v провалиться, потерпеть неудачу
fairy-tale [ˈfɛərɪˌteɪl] n сказка
faith [feɪθ] n вера
fall [fɔːl] (fell, fallen) v падать
 fall ill [ˈfɔːlˈɪl] заболеть
 fall in love with [ˈfɔːl ɪnˈlʌv wɪð] влюбиться в
fallen [ˈfɔːlən] см. fall

fallen ['fɔ:lən] pp павший
familiar [fə'mıljə] a знакомый
family ['fæmılı] n семья
famous ['feıməs] a знаменитый
fan [fæn] n болельщик
fancy costume ['fænsı'kɔstjum] маскарадный костюм
far [fɑ:] adv далеко
farm [fɑ:m] n ферма
farm [fɑ:m] v заниматься сельским хозяйством
farmer ['fɑ:mə] n фермер
farmhouse ['fɑ:mhaus] n фермерский (сельский) дом
farming ['fɑ:mıŋ] n занятие сельским хозяйством
farmland ['fɑ:mlænd] n земля, принадлежащая фермеру
farmyard ['fɑ:mjɑ:d] n ферма (двор с хозяйственными постройками)
farther ['fɑ:ðə] a дальше
fascism ['fæʃızm] n фашизм
fashion ['fæʃən] n мода
fast [fɑ:st] a быстрый adv быстро
fast [fɑ:st] v поститься, соблюдать пост
favourite ['feıvərıt] a любимый
fear [fıə] n страх
fear [fıə] v бояться
feast [fi:st] n пир
feathers ['feðəz] n перья
feature ['fi:tʃə] n черта, признак, особенность
fed [fed] см. feed
federal ['fedərəl] a федеральный
federalism ['fedərəlızm] n федерализм
federalist ['fedərəlıst] a федералистский, придерживающийся идей федерализма
feed [fi:d] (fed, fed) v кормить
feel [fi:l] (felt, felt) v чувствовать
feet [fi:t] см. foot
fell [fel] см. fall
fell [fel] v валить

felt [felt] см. feel
fence [fens] n забор
festival ['festivəl] n фестиваль, праздник
fiddle [fild] n скрипка
fiddler ['fildə] n скрипач
fidelity [fi'deliti] n верность, преданность
field [fi:ld] n поле
fierce [fiəs] a свирепый, яростный
fight [fait] (fought, fought) v драться, бороться
fight back ['fait'bæk] отбивать(ся), наносить ответный
    удар
        fight off ['fait'ɔf] отбивать
fighter ['faitə] n борец
figure ['figə] n фигура, цифра
fill [fil] v наполнять, заполнять
film [film] n фильм, пленка
film camera ['film'kæmirə] кинокамера
film star ['film'sta:] кинозвезда
final ['fainəl] a окончательный
finally ['fainəli] adv окончательно, в конце
finance [fai'næns] n финансы
financial [fai'nænʃəl] a финансовый
find [faind] (found, found) v находить
        find oneself ['faind wʌn'self] оказаться
        find out ['faind'aut] выяснить
fine [fain] a красивый
fingerprints ['fiŋgəprints] n отпечатки пальцев
finish ['finiʃ] v окончить
fiord [fjɔ:d] n фиорд
fir [fə:] n ель
fire [faiə] n огонь, пожар
fireman ['faiəmən] n кочегар
fireworks ['faiəwə:ks] n фейерверк
fish [fiʃ] n рыба
fish [fiʃ] v ловить рыбу
fisherman ['fiʃəmən] n рыбак
flag [flæg] n флаг

flamingo [fləˈmɪŋgou] n фламинго
flat [flæt] a плоский
fled [fled] см. flee
flee [fliː] (fled, fled) v бежать (из тюрьмы и т. д.)
fleet [fliːt] n флот
flew [fluː] см. fly
flexible [ˈfleksɪbl] a гибкий
flight [flaɪt] n полет
floating [ˈfloutɪŋ] a плавучий
flood [flʌd] n потоп, наводнение
flood [flʌd] v затоплять
floor [flɔː] n пол, этаж
flour [flauə] n мука
flourishing [ˈflʌrɪʃɪŋ] n процветание
flow [flou] v течь
flow [flou] n поток
flower [flauə] n цветок
flown [floun] см. fly
fluctuation [ˌflʌktjuˈeɪʃn] n колебание
fly [flaɪ] (flew, flown) v летать
folklore [ˈfouklɔː] n фольклор
follow [ˈfɔlou] v следовать за, преследовать
follower [ˈfɔlouə] n последователь
following [ˈfɔlouɪŋ] a следующий
food [fuːd] n пища
foodstuffs [ˈfuːdstʌfs] n пищевые продукты
fool [fuːl] v одурачить
foot [fuːt] (мн. ч. feet) n нога, фут
football [ˈfuːtbɔːl] n футбол
foothills [ˈfuːthɪlz] n предгорья
footpath [ˈfuːtpɑːθ] n тропинка
forbade [fəˈbeɪd] см. forbid
forbid [fəˈbɪd] (forbade, forbidden) v запретить
forbidden [fəˈbɪdn] см. forbid
force [fɔːs] n сила
force [fɔːs] v заставить силой
foreign [ˈfɔrɪn] a иностранный

foreigner ['fɔrɪnə] n иностранец

forest ['fɔrɪst] n лес

forever [fər'evə] adv навсегда

forget [fə'get] (forgot, forgotten) v забывать

forgot [fə'gɔt] см. forget

forgotten [fə'gɔtn] см. forget

form [fɔ:m] v формировать, придавать форму

formal ['fɔ:məl] a формальный, официальный

former ['fɔ:mə] a бывший

formulate ['fɔ:mjuleɪt] v формулировать

fort [fɔ:t] n форт

fortune ['fɔ:tʃən]: make a fortune разбогатеть, сделать состояние

fought [fɔ:t] см. fight

found [faund] v основывать

found [faund] см. find

foundation [faun'deɪʃn] n основание

founder ['faundə] n основатель

fountain ['fauntɪn] n фонтан

frame [freɪm] n рама

free [fri:] a свободный, бесплатный

free [fri:] v освобождать

freed [fri:d] pp освобожденный

freedom ['fri:dəm] n свобода

freely ['fri:lɪ] adv свободно

freeze [fri:z] (froze, frozen) v замерзать

frequent ['fri:kwənt] a частый

fresh water ['freʃ'wɔ:tə] пресная вода

friend [frend] n друг

friendly ['frendlɪ] a дружный, дружественный

friendship ['frendʃɪp] n дружба

frighten [fraɪtn] v пугать

frightening ['fraɪtnɪŋ] a пугающий, устрашающий

fringe [frɪndʒ] v окаймлять

frontier ['frʌntɪə] n пограничная полоса; в США: территории вдоль границы продвижения переселенцев, освоенные земли на границе территории,

принадлежащей индейцам

frontiersman ['frʌntɪəzmən] n житель этой приграничной полосы

froze [frouz] см. freeze

frozen [frouzn] см. freeze

fruit [fru:t] n фрукты

fuel [fjuəl] n топливо, горючее

fulfil [ful'fil] v выполнять

full [ful] a полный

fully ['fulɪ] adv полностью

fun [fʌn] n забавы, развлечение

function [fʌŋkʃn] n функция

function [fʌŋkʃn] v функционировать

fun-filled ['fʌn-fɪld] a наполненный развлечениями

fur [fə:] n мех

furious ['fjuərɪəs] a яростный

furniture ['fə:nɪtʃə] n мебель

further ['fə:ðə] a дальнейший

future ['fju:tʃə] n будущее

G

gain [geɪn] n выигрыш, выручка, прибыль

galaxy ['gæləksɪ] n галактика

gallery ['gælərɪ] n галерея

game [geɪm] n игра

gang [gæŋ] n банда

garrison ['gærɪsn] n гарнизон

gas [gæs] n газ

gas light ['gæs,laɪt] газовый свет (свет газовых светильников)

gateway ['geɪtweɪ] n ворота, калитка

gather ['gæðə] v собирать

gave [geɪv] см. give

gem [dʒem] n драгоценный камень

general ['dʒenərəl] n генерал

general ['dʒenərəl] a всеобщий, генеральный

general ['dʒenərəl]: in general вообще

generation [,dʒenə'reɪʃn] n поколение

genius ['dʒi:njəs] n гений

gentle [dʒentl] a ласковый, мягкий, пологий (о склоне)

geographical [dʒɪə'græfɪkəl] a географический

geographically [dʒɪə'græfɪkəlɪ] adv географически

geography [dʒɪ'ɔgrəfɪ] n география

get [get] (got, got) v доставать, получать, попадать, добираться

    get married ['get'mærɪd] жениться, выходить замуж

    get off ['get'ɔf] выходить (из транспорта)

ghost [goust] n призрак

ghostlike ['goustlaɪk] a похожий на призрак

giant [dʒaɪənt] a гигантский

gift [gɪft] n дар

girl [gə:l] n девочка, девушка

give [gɪv] (gave, given) давать

    give off ['gɪv'ɔf] издавать, испускать, выделять

    give up ['gɪv'ʌp] бросить, оставить (мысль о чем-либо)

given [gɪvn] см. give

glacier ['glæsjə] n ледник

glad [glæd] a рад

glamorous ['glæmərəs] a очаровательный, пленительный

glass [glɑ:s] n стекло, стакан

glorify ['glɔ:rɪfaɪ] v прославлять

glory ['glɔ:rɪ] n слава

gloves [glʌvz] n перчатки

glutton [glʌnt] n росомаха

go on ['gou'ɔn] v продолжать

goal [goul] n цель

goat [gout] n козел

god [gɔd] n бог

gold [gould] n золото

gold fever ['gould'fi:və] золотая лихорадка

gold rush ['gould'rʌʃ] золотая лихорадка

golf [gɔlf] n гольф

good [gud] a хороший

goodness ['gudnɪs] n хорошие качества

goods [gudz] n товары

goods train ['gudz͵treɪn] товарный поезд

gopher ['goufə] n суслик

got [gɔt] см. get

govern ['gʌvən] v управлять

government ['gʌvənmənt] n правительство

governor ['gʌvənə] n губернатор

grab [græb] v схватить

grade [greɪd] n класс

gradually ['grædjuəlɪ] adv постепенно

graduate ['grædjueɪt] v оканчивать учебное заведение

graduate ['grædjuɪt] a оканчивающий учебное заведение

graduation [͵grædju'eɪʃn] n окончание учебного заведения

grain [greɪn] n зерно

grain crops ['greɪn'krɔps] зерновые культуры

grammar ['græmə] n грамматика

grand [grænd] a величественный

grant [grɑːnt] v давать, даровать

grapes [greɪps] n виноград

grass [grɑːs] n трава

grassland ['grɑːslænd] n территория, покрытая лугами и пастбищами

grave [greɪv] n могила

gravel ['grævəl] n гравий

gravitational field [grævɪ'teɪʃnəl'fiːld] гравитационное поле

graze [greɪz] v пастись

great [greɪt] a великий, огромный

greatly ['greɪtlɪ] adv в большой степени

greatness ['greɪtnɪs] n величие

Greek [griːk] a греческий

greet [griːt] v приветствовать

grew [gruː] см. grow

grind corn ['graɪnd'kɔ:n] молоть зерно
grizzly bear ['grɪzlɪˌbɛə] медведь гризли
ground [graund] n земля
group [gru:p] n группа
group [gru:p] v группировать
grow [grou] (grew, grown) v расти, выращивать
grown [groun] см. grow
grown-up ['groun'ʌp] a взрослый
growth [grouθ] n рост
guarantee [ˌgærən'ti:] v гарантировать
guard [gɑ:d] n охрана, проводник в поезде
guard [gɑ:d] v охранять
guard [gɑ:d]: be on guard быть начеку
guest [gest] n гость
guide [gaɪd] n гид, проводник
guide [gaɪd] v вести, проводить
gun [gʌn] n ружье, пушка
gunner ['gʌnə] n артиллерист

H

hair [hɛə] n волосы
half [hɑ:f] n половина
half-ruined ['hɑ:f'ru:ɪnd] a полуразрушенный
hall [hɔ:l] n зал
hand [hænd] n рука
handle [hændl] v обращаться, управлять, обрабатывать
happen ['hæpən] v случаться
happiness ['hæpɪnɪs] n счастье
happy ['hæpɪ] a счастливый
harbour ['hɑ:bə] n гавань
hard [hɑ:d] a твердый, жесткий, трудный
hardware ['hɑ:dwɛə] n скобяные изделия
harm [hɑ:m] v вредить, причинять боль, причинять повреждения
harmful ['hɑ:mful] a вредный
harmony ['hɑ:mənɪ] n гармония
harvest ['hɑ:vɪst] n жатва

harvest ['hɑ:vɪst] v собирать урожай

harvesting ['hɑ:vɪstɪŋ] n сбор урожая

hat [hæt] n шляпа

hate [heɪt] v ненавидеть

head [hed] n голова, глава

head [hed] v возглавлять

headquarters ['hedkwɔ:təz] n штаб

health [helθ] n здоровье

hear [hɪə] (heard, heard) v слышать

heard [hə:d] см. hear

heart [hɑ:t] n сердце

heart [hɑ:t]: by heart наизусть

heat [hi:t] n жара

heat [hi:t] v нагревать, топить (печь)

heat of a battle ['hi:t əv ə'bætl] пыл сражения

heating system ['hi:tɪŋ'sɪstəm] отопительная система

heavenly body ['hevnlɪ'bɔdɪ] небесное тело

heavily ['hevɪlɪ] adv тяжело

heavy ['hevɪ] a тяжелый

hectare ['hektɑ:] n гектар

height [haɪt] n высота

held [held] см. hold

help [help] n помощь

help [help] v помогать

helper ['helpə] n помощник

helpful ['helpful] a готовый помочь

hemisphere ['hemɪsfɪə] n полушарие

herd [hə:d] n стадо

hero ['hɪərou] n герой

heroic deed [hɪ'rouɪk'di:d] героический подвиг

hid [hɪd] см. hide

hidden [hɪdn] см. hide

hidden [hɪdn] a скрытый

hide [haɪd] (hid, hidden) прятать

high [haɪ] a высокий

high school ['haɪ'sku:l] средняя школа в США

highly ['haɪlɪ] adv в высокой степени

high-priced [ˈhaɪˈpraɪst] a дорогой
highway [ˈhaɪweɪ] n шоссе
hill [hɪl] n холм
hilly [ˈhɪlɪ] a холмистый
hire [haɪə] v нанимать
historian [hɪsˈtɔːrɪən] n историк
historic [hɪsˈtɔrɪk] a исторический
historically [hɪsˈtɔrɪkəlɪ] v исторически
history [ˈhɪstərɪ] n история
hit [hɪt] (hit, hit) v ударить, попасть (во что-либо)
hit [hɪt]: be a hit иметь успех
hockey [ˈhɔkɪ] n хоккей
hold [hould] (held, held) v держать, проводить
hole [houl] n дыра, яма
home [houm] n дом, домашний очаг
home [houm] adv домой
homeland [ˈhoumlænd] n родина
homeless [ˈhoumlɪs] a бездомный
honest [ˈɔnɪst] a честный
honour [ˈɔnə]: in honour в честь
honoured [ˈɔnəd] a почетный
hood [huːd] n капюшон
hope [houp] n надежда
hope [houp] v надеяться
horns [hɔːnz] n рога
horse [hɔːs] n лошадь
horseback [ˈhɔːsbæk]: on horseback верхом
hospitable [ˈhɔspɪtəbl] a гостеприимный
hospital [ˈhɔspɪtəl] n больница
hospital care [ˈhɔspɪtəlˈkɛə] больничное лечение
hostility [hɔsˈtɪlɪtɪ] n враждебность
hot [hɔt] a горячий, жаркий
hour [auə] n час
house [haus] n дом
housework [ˈhauswəːk] n работа по дому
housing construction [ˈhauzɪŋ kənsˈtrʌkʃn] жилищное
  строительство

however [hau´evə] int как бы то ни было

huge [hju:dʒ] a огромный

human being [´hju:mən´bi:ıŋ] человек

human rights [´hju:mən´raıts] права человека

humanist [´hju:mənıst] n гуманист

humid [´hju:mıd] a влажный

humming-bird [´hʌmıŋbə:d] n колибри

humorous [´hju:mərəs] a юмористический

hunger [´hʌŋgə] n голод

hunt [hʌnt] v охоъиться

hunter [´hʌntə] n охотник

hurry [´hʌrı] v спешить

husband [´hʌzbənd] n муж

hut [hʌt] n хижина

hypothesis [haı´pɔθısıs] n гипотеза

I

ice [aıs] n лед

idea [aı´dıə] n идея, мысль

ignore [ıg´nɔ:] v игнорировать

illegal [ı´li:gəl] a нелегальный

illness [´ılnıs] n болезнь

illustrate [´ıləs´treıt] v иллюстрировать

illustration [,ıləs´treıʃn] n иллюстрация

imagine [ı´mædʒın] v воображать

immediate [ı´mi:dıət] a немедленный, ближайший,
  первостепенный

immediately [ı´mi:dıətlı] adv немедленно

immense [ı´mens] a огромный

immigrant [´ımıgrənt] n иммигрант

immigration [,ımı´greıʃn] n иммиграция

immoral [ı´mɔrəl] аморальный

immortal [ı´mɔrtl] a бессмертный

impeach [ım´pi:tʃ] a president отрешить президента
  от должности

importance [ım´pɔ:təns] n важность

important [ım´pɔ:tənt] a важный

impress [ım´pres] v производить впечатление

impression [ım'preʃn] n впечатление

improve [ım'pru:v] v улучшать, совершенствовать

improvement [ım'pru:vmənt] n улучшение, совершенствование

inaugurate [ı'nɔ:gjureıt] v торжественно вводить в должность президента

inauguration [ı,nɔ:gju'reıʃn] n инаугурация, торжественное введение в должность президента

incident ['ınsıdənt] n случай

include [ın'klu:d] v включать

income ['ınkəm] n доход

increase [ın'kri:s] v увеличивать(ся)

indeed [ın'di:d] int действительно, в самом деле

indented [ın'dentıd] a изрезан

independence [,ındə'pendəns] n независимость

independent [,ındə'pendənt] a независимый

Indian ['ındıən] n индеец

indignant [ın'dıgnənt] a негодующий, разгневанный

indirect [,ındı'rekt] a косвенный, непрямой

individual [,ındı'vıdjuəl] a индивидуальный

industrial [ın'dʌstrıəl] a промышленный, индустриальный

industry ['ındəstrı] n промышленность

influence ['ınfluəns] n влияние

influence ['ınfluəns] v влиять

informal [ın'fɔ:məl] a неформальный, неофициальный

information [,ınfə'meıʃn] n информация

ingratitude [ın'grætıtjud] n неблагодарность

inhabit [ın'hæbıt] v населять

inhabitant [ın'hæbıtənt] n житель

injure ['ındʒə] v наносить вред, боль

inland waters ['ınlənd'wɔ:təz] внутренние воды

innocent ['ınəsnt] a невинный, невиновный

innovation ['ınou'veıʃn] n нововведение

innumerable [ı'nju:mərəbl] a бесчисленный

insist [ın'sıst] v настаивать

inspection [ıns'pekʃn] n проверка

inspiration [ˌɪnspɪˈreɪʃn] n вдохновение
inspire [ɪnsˈpaɪə] v вдохновлять
install [ɪnˈstɔːl] v устанавливать, встраивать
instance [ˈɪnstəns]: for instance например
instantly [ˈɪnstəntlɪ] adv немедленно
instead of [ɪnˈsted əv] вместо
institution of higher learning [ˌɪnstɪˈtjuːʃn əv ˈhaɪəˈləːnɪŋ] высшее учебное заведение
instruction [ɪnsˈtrʌkʃn] n инструкция, указание, обучение
intellectual [ˌɪntɪˈlektjuəl] a интеллектуальный
intensive [ɪnˈtensɪv] a интенсивный
interfere [ˌɪntəˈfɪə] v вмешиваться
interior [ɪnˈtɪərɪə] n интерьер, внутренность
intermountain [ˌɪntəˈmauntɪn] a межгорный
international [ˌɪntəˈnæʃənəl] a международный
international brigade [ˌɪntəˈnæʃənəl brɪˈɡeɪd] интернациональная бригада (войсковое соединение, сформированное из иностранных граждан, прибывшее в Испанию на помощь патриотам, борющимся против фашизма в 30-е годы)
interpret [ɪnˈtəːprɪt] v интерпретировать, объяснять
introduce [ɪntrəˈdjuːs] v вводить
invade [ɪnˈveɪd] v вторгаться
invasion [ɪnˈveɪʒn] n вторжение
invent [ɪnˈvent] v изобретать
invention [ɪnˈvenʃn] n изобретение
inventor [ɪnˈventə] n изобретатель
invest [ɪnˈvest] v инвестировать, помещать деньги во что-либо
investment [ɪnˈvestmənt] n капиталовложение, инвестиция
invite [ɪnˈvaɪt] v приглашать
involve [ɪnˈvoulv] v вовлекать
iron [aɪən] n железо
irrigation [ɪrɪˈɡeɪʃn] n орошение
island [ˈaɪlənd] n остров

J

jaguar [ˈdʒægjuə] n ягуар

jazz band [ˈdʒæzˈbænd] джаз оркестр

job [dʒɔb] n работа

join [dʒɔɪn] v присоединяться, вступать

joke [dʒouk] n шутка

journalist [ˈdʒəːnəlɪst] n журналист

journey [ˈdʒəːnɪ] n путешествие

judge [dʒʌdʒ] n судья

judge [dʒʌdʒ] v судить

joy [dʒɔɪ] n радость

judicial [dʒuˈdɪʃəl] a судебный

jump [dʒʌmp] v прыгать

    jump off [ˈdʒʌmpˈɔf] спрыгивать

jungle [dʒʌŋgl] n джунгли

junior [ˈdʒuːnɪə] a младший

junior high school [ˈdʒuːnɪəˈhaɪˈskuːl] младшее отделение средней школы в США

just [dʒʌst] adv только-что, как-раз

just [dʒʌst] a справедливый

justice [ˈdʒʌstɪs] n справедливость, судья

K

keep [kiːp] (kept, kept) v держать; хранить

    keep doing something [ˈkiːpˈduːɪŋ ˌsʌmθɪŋ] продолжать делать что-либо

    keep out [ˈkiːpˈaut] держать(ся) подальше

keeping [ˈkiːpɪŋ]: in keeping with в соответствии с

kept [kept] см. keep

kerosene [ˈkerəsiːn] n керосин

kick [kɪk]: kick one's legs дрыгать ногами

kidnap [kɪdˈnæp] v похищать

kill [kɪl] v убивать

kind [kaɪnd] n вид, род

king [kɪŋ] n король

kiss [kɪs] v целовать

kite [kaɪt] n воздушный змей

knew [njuː] см. know

knock [nɔk] v стучать
know [nou] (knew, known) v знать
known [noun] см. know
known [noun] a известный
knowledge [ˈnɔlidʒ] n знание

L

labour [ˈleibə] n труд
labour unions [ˈleibəˈjuːniənz] профессиональные союзы
labourer [ˈleibərə] n трудящийся, труженик
lack [læk] v недоставать, нехватать
laid [leid] см. lay
lain [lein] см. lie
lake [leik] n озеро
land [lænd] v приставать к берегу
land forces [ˈlænd ˌfɔːsis] сухопутные войска
landowner [ˈlændounə] n землевладелец
landscape [ˈlændskeip] n ландшафт, пейзаж
lasso [ˈlæsou] n лассо
last [lɑːst] v продолжаться
last [lɑːst] a последний
last [lɑːst]: at last наконец
late [leit] a поздний
later [ˈleitə] adv позже
Latin [ˈlætin] n латинский язык
latitude [ˈlætitjuːd] n географическая широта
large [lɑːdʒ] a большой
launch [lɔːntʃ] v запускать (ракету и т. д.) спускать (корабль и т. д.)
laurel [ˈlɔːrəl] n лавр
law [lɔː] n закон, право
law-examining [ˈlɔː igˈzæminiŋ] проверяющий законы
lawmaking [ˈlɔː ˌmeikiŋ] a создающий законы
lawyer [ˈlɔːjə] n юрист
lay [lei] (laid, laid) v класть
lay [lei] см. lie
lead [liːd] (led, led) v вести, руководить

leader ['li:də] n руководитель, вождь
leaflet ['li:flɪt] n листовка
learn [lə:n] v учить, узнавать
least [li:st]: at least по крайней мере
leather ['leðə] n кожа
leave [li:v] (left, left) v оставлять, покидать, уезжать из
lecture ['lektʃə] n лекция
led [led] см. lead
left [left] см. leave
legend ['ledʒənd] n легенда
legislative ['ledʒɪslətɪv] a законодательный
leisure ['leʒə] n досуг
lend [lend] (lent, lent) v давать взаймы
length [leŋθ] n длина
lengthen ['leŋθən] v удлинять
lent [lent] см. lend
less [les] adv меньше
lesson [lesn] n урок
let [let] (let, let) v позволять
letter ['letə] n письмо, буква
level ['levəl] n уровень
liberal ['lɪbərəl] a либеральный
liberty ['lɪbətɪ] n свобода
library ['laɪbrərɪ] n библиотека
lie [laɪ] (lay, lain) v лежать
life [laɪf] n жизнь
light [laɪt] n свет
lightning ['laɪtnɪŋ] n молния
lightning-rod ['laɪtnɪŋ,rɔd] n громоотвод
like [laɪk] v любить, нравиться
like [laɪk] conj как
likely ['laɪklɪ] adv похоже
lime [laɪm] n липа
limit ['lɪmɪt] v лимитировать, ограничивать
line [laɪn] n линия
liner ['laɪnə] n лайнер

list [lıst] n список
listen [lısn] v слушать
literature ['lıtrətʃə] n литература
live [lıv] v жить
living quarters ['lıvıŋ'kwɔ:təz] жилая часть здания
load [loud] v грузить
local ['loukəl] a местный
located [lou'keıtıd] pp расположен
location [lou'keıʃn] n расположение
locomotive [,loukə'moutıv] n локомотив
log [lɔg] n бревно
lonely ['lounlı] a одинокий
long [lɔŋ] a длинный adv долго
longitude ['lɔndʒıtjud] n географическая долгота
look [luk] v смотреть, выглядеть
     look after ['luk'a:ftə] v присматривать
     look for ['luk'fɔ:] искать
lose [lu:z] (lost, lost) v терять
loser ['lu:zə] n проигравший
lost [lɔst] см. lose
love [lʌv] n любовь
love [lʌv] v любить
low [lou] a низкий, тихий
lower [louə] a нижний
lowland ['loulənd] n низменность
loyal [lɔıəl] a верный, преданный
luck [lʌk] n удача
luckily ['lʌkılı] adv к счастью
lungs [lʌŋz] n легкие
lynx [lıŋks] n рысь

M

machine [mə'ʃi:n] n машина
machinery [mə'ʃi:nərı] n машины
made [meid] см. make
magazine [,mægə'zi:n] n журнал
magnet ['mægnıt] n магнит
magnetic field [mæg'netık'fi:ld] магнитное поле

402

magnolia [mæg'nouljə] n магнолия

main [meɪn] a главный

mainland ['meɪnlənd] n континент

mainly ['meɪnlɪ] adv главным образом

maintain [meɪn'teɪn] v поддерживать, сохранять, содержать

major ['meɪdʒə] a главный

major ['meɪdʒə] n майор

major general ['meɪdʒə'dʒenərəl] n генерал-майор

majority [mə'dʒɔrɪtɪ] n большинство

make [meɪk] (made, made) v делать, заставлять

make a fortune ['meɪk ə'fɔ:tʃən] разбогатеть, сделать состояние

make merry ['meɪk'merɪ] веселиться

make sure ['meɪk'ʃuə] убедиться

make up ['meɪk'ʌp] составить

man [mæn] n мужчина, человек

manage ['mænɪdʒ] v удаваться, управлять

manners ['mænəz] n хорошие манеры

mansion [mænʃn] n особняк

manufactured goods [,mænju'fæktʃəd'gudz] промышленные товары

manufacturing [,mænju'fæktʃərɪŋ] n производство

map [mæp] n карта

maple [meɪpl] n клен

maple syrop ['meɪpl'sɪrəp] кленовый сироп

mapmaker ['mæp,meɪkə] n картограф

march [mɑ:tʃ] n марш, поход

march [mɑ:tʃ] v маршировать, шагать, идти маршем

marine [mə'ri:n] a морской

mark [mɑ:k] v отмечать

market ['mɑ:kɪt] n рынок

marriage ['mærɪdʒ] n брак, супружеская жизнь

married ['mærɪd] a женат, замужем

marry ['mærɪ] v жениться, выходить замуж

marsh [mɑ:ʃ] n болото

marten ['mɑ:tən] n куница

mask [mɑːsk] n маска
master ['mɑːstə] n мастер, хозяин
masterpiece ['mɑːstəpiːs] n шедевр
material [mə'tɪərɪəl] n материал
mathematics [ˌmæθə'mætɪks] n математика
matter ['mætə] v иметь значение
mattress ['mætrɪs] n матрас
meal [miːl] n еда, принятие пищи
mean [miːn] (meant, meant) v значить, иметь в виду,
     подразумевать
mean [miːn] a низкий, подлый; средний
meaning ['miːnɪŋ] n значение
means [miːnz] n средства
meant [ment] см. mean
meanwhile ['miːnwaɪl] adv между тем, тем временем
measures ['meʒəz] n меры
     take measures ['teɪk'meʒəz] v принимать меры
meatpacking ['miːtˌpækɪŋ] n упаковка мяса
medal ['medəl] n медаль
medical school ['medɪkəl'skuːl] медицинское училище
medicine ['medsɪn] n медицина, лекарство
meet [miːt] (met, met) v встречать
meeting ['miːtɪŋ] n встреча, митинг
melt [melt] v таять
member ['membə] n член
membership ['membəʃɪp] n членство
memorial [mɪ'mɔːrɪəl] a памятный
mention [menʃn] v упоминать
merchant ['məːtʃənt] n купец
merely ['mɪəlɪ] adv просто
meridian [mə'rɪdɪən] n меридиан
merry ['merɪ] a веселый
message ['mesɪdʒ] n послание
messenger ['mesɪndʒə] n посланец
met [met] см. meet
metal ['metəl] n металл

metallurgical engineering [ˌmetəˈləːdʒɪkəlˌendʒɪˈnɪərɪŋ] металлургия

meteor [ˈmiːtɪə] n метеор

method [ˈmeθəd] n метод

middle [midl] n середина

midwestern [ˈmɪdwestən] a средне-западный (находящийся на Среднем Западе США)

might [maɪt] n мощь

mighty [ˈmaɪtɪ] a мощный

mile [maɪl] n миля

military [ˈmɪlɪtərɪ] a военный

military training [ˈmɪlɪtərɪ ˈtreɪnɪŋ] военная подготовка

military unit [ˈmɪlɪtərɪ ˈjuːnɪt] воинская часть (подразделение)

milk [mɪlk] n молоко

milk [mɪlk] v доить

mill [mɪl] n мельница, завод

millionaire [ˈmɪljənɛə] n миллионер

mind [maɪnd] n ум

mine [maɪn] n шахта, рудник, копь

mine [maɪn] v производить горные работы, добывать (руду и т. д.)

miner [ˈmaɪnə] n шахтер

minerals [ˈmɪnərəlz] n минералы, полезные ископаемые

mining [ˈmaɪnɪŋ] n горнодобывающее дело

missile [ˈmɪsaɪl] n реактивный снаряд, ракета

mission [mɪʃn] n миссия

mistake [mɪsˈteɪk] n ошибка

model [mɔdl] n модель, образец

moderate [ˈmɔdərɪt] a умеренный

modern [ˈmɔđən] a современный

modest [ˈmɔdɪst] a скромный

mole [moul] n крот

money [ˈmʌnɪ] n деньги

monopoly [məˈnɔpəlɪ] n монополия

monsoon [mɔnˈsuːn] n муссон

monster [ˈmɔnstə] n чудовище

monument ['mɔnjumənt] n памятник, монумент
moon [mu:n] n луна
moraine [mɔ'reɪn] a моренный
morning ['mɔ:nɪŋ] n утро
mortally ['mɔ:təlɪ] adv смертельно
mostly ['moustlɪ] adv большей частью
motherland ['mʌðəlænd] n родина
motion [mouʃn] n движение
motor-car industry ['moutə‚kɑ:r'ɪndəstrɪ] автомобильная
    промышленность
mountain ['mauntɪn] n гора
mountainous ['mauntɪnəs] a горный
mourn [mɔ:n] v оплакивать
mouth [mauθ] n рот, устье (реки)
move [mu:v] v двигаться
movement ['mu:vmənt] n движение
movie ['mu:vɪ] n кинофильм
movie industry ['mu:vɪ'ɪndəstrɪ] кинематографическая
    промышленность
mud [mʌd] n грязь, масса из влажной земли
mule [mju:l] n мул
music ['mju:zɪk] n музыка
musician [mju'zɪʃn] n музыкант
mustang ['mʌstæŋ] n мустанг
mystery ['mɪstərɪ] n тайна

N

name [neɪm] n имя
name for ['neɪm fɔ:] назвать в честь
named [neɪmd] pp названный
narrow ['nærou] a узкий
nation [neɪʃn] n нация
national ['næʃnəl] a национальный
nationality [‚næʃə'nælɪtɪ] n национальность
nationwide ['neɪʃŋwaɪd] a всенародный
native ['neɪtɪv] n туземец, коренной житель
natural ['nætʃərəl] a естественный, природный

natural resources ['næt∫ərəl rı'sɔ:sız] полезные иско-
паемые

nature ['neıt∫ə] n природа

naval ['neıvəl] a военно-морской

navigation [,nævı'geı∫n] n навигация, мореплавание

navigator [,nævı'geıtə] n навигатор, мореплаватель

navy ['neıvı] n военно-морской флот

near [nıə] prep близко, около

nearby ['nıəbaı] adv поблизости a близлежащий

nearly ['nıəlı] adv почти

necessary ['nesısərı] a необходимый

necessity [nı'sesıtı] n необходимость

need [ni:d] v нуждаться

need [ni:d] n нужда

needle [ni:dl] n иголка

Negro ['ni:grou] n негр

neighbour ['neıbə] n сосед

neo-classical style [,ni:ou'klæsıkəl'staıl] неоклассиче-
ский стиль

nervous ['nə:vəs] a нервный

neutral ['nju:trəl] a нейтральный

never ['nevə] adv никогда

new [nju:] a новый

newcomer ['nju:,kʌmə] n вновь прибывший, новичок

news [nju:z] n новость

newspaper ['nju:speıpə] n газета

next [nekst] a следующий

next to ['nekst tə] рядом с

nice [naıs] a симпатичный

nickname ['nıkneım] n прозвище

nightclub ['naıt,klʌb] n ночной клуб

nightfall ['naıtfɔ:l]: by nightfall к ночи

nightlife ['naıtlaıf] n ночная жизнь

Nobel Prize ['noubel'praız] Нобелевская премия

nobleman ['noublmən] n дворянин

noisy ['nɔızı] a шумный

nonsense ['nɔnsəns] n чепуха

non-violent ['nɔn'vaɪələnt] a ненасильственный
north ['nɔ:θ] n север
northern ['nɔ:ðən] a северный
northerner ['nɔ:ðənə] n северянин, житель северных районов
North Pole ['nɔ:θ'poul] северный полюс
northwestern ['nɔ:θ'westən] a северо-западный
noted ['noutɪd]: be noted for быть известным чем-нибудь
notice ['noutɪs] n предупреждение
novel ['nɔvəl] n роман
novelist ['nɔvəlɪst] n романист, автор романов
nowhere ['nouwɛə] adv нигде, никуда
number ['nʌmbə] n число, номер
numerous ['nju:mərəs] a многочисленный
nurse [nə:s] v нянчить, ухаживать
nursery rhyme ['nə:sərɪ'raɪm] детский стишок
nut [nʌt] n орех

O

oak [ouk] n дуб
obey [ə'beɪ] v слушаться
object ['ɔbdʒɪkt] n объект, предмет
objection [əb'dʒekʃn] n возражение
obliged [əb'laɪdʒd] a обязан
observe [əb'zə:v] v наблюдать, соблюдать
observation deck [,ɔbzə'veɪʃn'dek] наблюдательная площадка
occupy ['ɔkjupaɪ] v занимать
occur [ə'kə:] v случаться
occasionally [ə'keɪʒənəlɪ] adv случайно, время от времени
ocean [ouʃn] n океан
offer ['ɔfə] v предлагать
offer ['ɔfə] n предложение
office ['ɔfɪs] n контора, офис
officer ['ɔfɪsə] n офицер
official [ə'fɪʃəl] a официальный

official [əˈfiʃəl] n официальное лицо
often [ɔːfn] adv часто
oil [ɔil] n нефть
oil-fields [ˈɔilˌfiːldʒ] месторождения нефти, нефтяной
   промысел
old [ould] a старый
old-fashioned [ˈouldˈfæʃnd] a старомодный
only [ˈounlɪ] a единственный
open [oupn] a открытый
open [oupn] v открыть
open fire [ˈoupnˈfaiə] открыть огонь
opera [ˈɔprə] n опера
operation [ˌɔpəˈreiʃn] n операция
opossum [əˈpɔsəm] n опоссум
opponent [əˈpounənt] n оппонент, противник
opportunity [ˌɔpəˈtjunitɪ] n удобный случай
oppose [əˈpouz] v противостоять
opposite [ˈɔpəzit] a противоположный, находящийся
   напротив
oppress [əˈpres] v угнетать, притеснять
orbit [ˈɔːbit] n орбита
orbit [ˈɔːbit] v облетать по орбите
orbiting space station [ˈɔːbitiŋˈspeisˈsteiʃn] орбитальная
   космическая станция
orchestra [ˈɔːkistrə] n оркестр
order [ˈɔːdə] v приказывать, заказывать
order [ˈɔːdə] n приказ, заказ, порядок
order [ˈɔːdə]: in order для того, чтобы
ore [ɔː] n руда
organization [ˌɔːgənaiˈzeiʃn] n организация
organize [ˈɔːgənaiz] v организовать
original [əˈridʒinəl] a оригинальный, первоначальный
originally [əˈridʒinəlɪ] adv первоначально
originate [əˈridʒineit] v происходить
outdoor [ˈautdɔː] a наружный
outer space [ˈautəˈspeis] космос
outlaw [ˈautlɔː] v объявить вне закона

outlet ['autlet] n выход

outnumber [aut'nʌmbə] v превосходить по численности

outside ['autsaɪd] adv вне, снаружи

outstanding [aut'stændɪŋ] a выдающийся

over ['ouvə] prep над

over ['ouvə]: be over оканчиваться

overboard [ouvə'bɔ:d] adv за борт, за бортом

overcrowded [ouvə'kraudɪd] a переполненный

overgrown [ouvə'groun] a переросший

overrule [ouvə'ru:l] v преодолевать

overseas [ouvə'si:z] adv за морями

oversee [ouvə'si:] v надзирать, осуществлять надзор

overseer [ouvə'sɪə] n надзиратель, надсмотрщик

overturn [ouvə'tə:n] v перевернуть(ся)

owe [ou] v быть должным, обязанным, быть в долгу

own [oun] a собственный

own [oun] v владеть

owner ['ounə] n владелец

ox [ɔks] n бык

P

paid [peɪd] см. pay

painful ['peɪnful] a болезненный

paint [peɪnt] v красить, писать (картины)

palace ['pælɪs] n дворец

pamphlet ['pæmflɪt] n памфлет

pants [pænts] n штаны

paper ['peɪpə] n бумага

parade [pə'reɪd] n парад

paradise ['pærədaɪz] n рай

paralyzed ['pærəlaɪzd] pp парализован

parents ['pɛərənts] n родители

parliament ['pɑ:ləmənt] n парламент

part [pɑ:t] n часть

partisan [,pɑ:tɪ'zæn] n партизан

partly ['pɑ:tlɪ] adv частично

part-time ['pɑ:t'taɪm]: work part-time работать неполный рабочий день

party ['pɑ:tɪ] n партия, вечеринка

pass [pɑ:s] v проходить (мимо), переходить
    pass laws ['pɑ:s'lɔ:z] принимать законы

passage ['pæsɪdʒ] n проход

passenger ['pæsɪndʒə] n пассажир

past [pɑ:st] prep после

pastor ['pɑ:stə] n пастор

pasture ['pɑ:stʃə] n пастбище

patent ['peɪtənt] n патент

patent office ['peɪtənt'ɔfɪs] патентное бюро

path [pɑ:θ] n тропа

patio ['pætɪou] n внутренний дворик

patriot ['peɪtrɪət] n патриот

patrol [pə'troul] v патрулировать

pave [peɪv]: pave the way проложить путь

pavement ['peɪvmənt] n тротуар

pay [peɪ] (paid, paid) v платить

payment ['peɪmənt] n плата

peace [pi:s] n мир

peaceful ['pi:sful] a мирный

peace-keeping forces ['pi:s'ki:pɪŋ'fɔ:sɪz] миротворческие силы

peak [pi:k] n пик, вершина

peccary ['pekərɪ] n пекари, дикая свинья в Америке

peculiar [pə'kju:lɪə] a особенный

peculiarity [pə,kjulɪ'ærɪtɪ] n особенность

pelican ['pelɪkən] n пеликан

pen-name ['pen,neɪm] n псевдоним писателя

people [pi:pl] n люди

percent [pə'sent] n процент

percentage [pə'sentɪdʒ] n процентное содержание

perform [pə'fɔ:m] v производить, представлять, ставить спектакль

performance [pə'fɔ:məns] n представление, спектакль, выступление

period ['pɪərɪəd] n период
perish ['perɪʃ] v погибнуть
permanent ['pə:mənənt] a постоянный
permission [pə'mɪʃn] n разрешение
permit [pə'mɪt] v разрешать
person ['pə:sn] n личность, человек
perspiration [ˌpə:spə'reɪʃn] n пот, потение
philosophy [fɪ'lɔsəfɪ] n философия
phonograph ['founəgrɑ:f] n фонограф
photoelectric effect [ˌfoutouɪ'lektrɪk ɪ'fekt] фотоэлектрический эффект
physical laws ['fɪzɪkəl'lɔ:z] физические законы
physics ['fɪzɪks] n физика
pick out ['pɪk'aut] v выбрать
pickled meat ['pɪkld'mi:t] соленое мясо, солонина
picnic ['pɪknɪk] n пикник
picturesque [ˌpɪktʃə'resk] a живописный
pie [paɪ] n пирог
piece [pi:s] n кусок
pilot ['paɪlət] n пилот, лоцман
pine [paɪn] n сосна
pineapple ['paɪnæpl] n ананас
pioneer [ˌpaɪə'nɪə] n пионер
pipe [paɪp] n труба, трубка
pirate ['paɪərɪt] n пират
pitcher ['pɪtʃə] n кувшин
place [pleɪs] n место
plain [pleɪn] n равнина
plan [plæn] n план
plan [plæn] v планировать
plane [pleɪn] n самолет
planet ['plænɪt] n планета
plane-tree ['pleɪntri:] n платан
plant [plɑ:nt] n растение
plant [plɑ:nt] v сажать (растения)
plantation [plæn'teɪʃn] n плантация
planter ['plɑ:ntə] n плантатор

plate [pleıt] n тарелка
plateau ['plætou] n плато
play [pleı] n пьеса
playful ['pleıful] a игривый, любящий играть
playing cards ['pleııŋ'ka:ds] игральные карты
please [pli:z] v доставлять удовольствие
pleased [pli:zd] a довольный
pleasure ['pleʒə] n удовольствие
plentiful ['plentıful] a изобильный
plenty ['plentı] n изобилие, очень много
plough [plau] n плуг
plough [plau] v пахать
poem ['pouım] n поэма, стихи
poetry ['pouıtrı] n поэзия
point [pɔınt] n точка, пункт
point [pɔınt] v указывать
       point out ['pɔınt'aut] указывать, подчеркивать
pole-cat ['poulkæt] n хорек
police [pə'li:s] n полиция
polio ['poulıou] n полиомиелит
political [pə'lıtıkəl] a политический
politics ['pɔlıtıks] n политика, политические взгляды
poor [puə] a бедный
poorly ['puəlı] adv бедно
popular ['pɔpjulə] a популярный
popularity [,pɔpju'lærıtı] n популярность
populated ['pɔpjuleıtıd] pp населенный
population [,pɔpju'leıʃn] n население
port [pɔ:t] n порт
portrait ['pɔ:trıt] n портрет
position [pə'zıʃn] n позиция, положение
positive ['pɔzıtıv] a положительный
possess [pə'zes] v владеть
possible ['pɔsıbl] a возможный
post [poust] n пост, почта
postage stamp ['poustıdʒ'stæmp] почтовая марка
postmaster ['poust,ma:stə] n почтмейстер

post-war ['poust'wɔ:] a послевоенный

poultry ['poultrı] n домашняя птица

pour [pɔ:] v лить

poverty ['pɔvətı] n нищета

power [pauə] n власть, сила

powerful ['pauəful] a властный, сильный

practical ['præktıkəl] a практический

practically ['præktıkəlı] adv практически

practice ['præktıs] v практиковать

prairie ['prɛərı] n прерия

preach [pri:tʃ] v проповедовать

preacher ['pri:tʃə] n проповедник

prefer [prı'fə:] v предпочитать

prepare [prı'pɛə] v готовить(ся)

present [preznt]: be present присутствовать

present [preznt] n подарок

present-day ['preznt'deı] a нынешний, относящийся к настоящему времени

preserve [prı'zə:v] v сохранять

presidency ['prezıdənsı] n президентство

president ['prezıdənt] n президент

presidential election [prezı'denʃəl ı'lekʃn] выборы президента

prevailing [prı'veılıŋ] a преимущественный, преобладающий

prevent [prı'vent] v мешать, не допустить

price [praıs] n цена

pride [praıd] n гордость

priest [pri:st] n священник

principle ['prınsıpl] n принцип

primarily ['praımərılı] adv в первую очередь

print [prınt] v печатать

printed paper goods ['prıntıd'peıpə'gudz] печатная продукция

printer ['prıntə] n печатник

printing ['prıntıŋ] n печатное дело

printing-house ['prıntıŋ,haus] n типография

414

prison [prizn] n тюрьма

prisoner [′prizənə] n пленник, заключенный в тюрьму

    take prisoner [′teik ′prizənə] взять в плен

private [′praivit] a частный

privately-owned [′praivitli ′ound] a находящиеся в частном владении

probably [′prɔbəbli] adv вероятно

problem [′prɔbləm] n проблема, задача

process [′prouses] n процесс

proclaim [prə′kleim] v провозглашать

produce [prə′dju:s] v производить, выпускать

product [′prɔdəkt] n продукт

productive [prə′dʌktiv] a продуктивный

professional [prə′feiʃnəl] a профессиональный

professor [prə′fesə] n профессор

programme [′prougrəm] n программа

progress [′prougres] n прогресс

progressive [prəg′resiv] a прогрессивный

project [′prɔdʒikt] n проект

projector [prə′dʒektə]: film projector кинопроектор

prominent [′prɔminənt] a выдающийся

promise [′prɔmis] n обещание

promise [′prɔmis] v обещать

pronounce [prə′nauns] v произносить

proper [′prɔpə] a правильный, надлежащий

property [′prɔpəti] n собственность

prosaic [prou′zeiik] a прозаический

prose [prouz] n проза

protect [prə′tekt] v охранять, защищать

protection [prə′tekʃn] n запита, покровительство

protest [prə′test] v протестовать

protest [prou′test] n протест

protestor [prə′testə] n протестующий

proud [praud] a гордый

provide [prə′vaid] v обеспечивать

prove [pru:v] v доказывать

provoke [prə′vouk] v провоцировать

public ['pʌblɪk] n публика, люди
public ['pʌblɪk] a публичный
public figure ['pʌblɪk 'fɪgə] общественный деятель
publicly ['pʌblɪklɪ] adv публично
publish ['pʌblɪʃ] v публиковать, издавать
publisher ['pʌblɪʃə] n издатель
publishing ['pʌblɪʃɪŋ] n издательское дело
pull [pul] v тянуть, тащить
    pull weeds ['pul 'wi:dz] выпалывать сорняки
pumpkin ['pʌmpkɪn] n тыква
punish ['pʌnɪʃ] v наказывать
punishment ['pʌnɪʃmənt] n наказание
purify ['pjuərɪfaɪ] v очищать
purpose ['pə:pəs] n цель
push [puʃ] v толкать
put [put] (put, put) v класть, ставить
    put out a fire ['put 'aut ə 'faɪə] погасить огонь (пожар)
    put to death ['put tə 'deθ] казнить

Q

quality ['kwɔlɪtɪ] n качество
quarrel ['kwɔrəl] v ссориться
quarter ['kwɔ:tə] n четверть
queen [kwi:n] n королева
quick [kwɪk] a быстрый
quickly ['kwɪklɪ] adv быстро
quite [kwaɪt] adv совсем

R

race [reɪs] n раса; гонка, состязания в беге
radiation [,reɪdɪ'eɪʃn] n радиация
radical ['rædɪkəl] n радикал
raft [rɑ:ft] n плот
raid [reɪd] n налет, нападение
railroad ['reɪlroud] n железная дорога
railroad track ['reɪlroud 'træk] железнодорожный путь
railway ['reɪlweɪ] n железная дорога
rails [reɪlz] n рельсы

rain [reɪn] n дождь
rainfall [ˈreɪnfɔ:l] n осадки
rainy [ˈreɪnɪ] a дождливый
raise [reɪz] v поднимать
ran [ræn] см. run
ranch [rɑ:ntʃ] n ранчо
rancher [ˈrɑ:ntʃə] n фермер-скотовод
ranching [ˈrɑ:ntʃɪŋ] n занятие скотоводством
range [reɪndʒ] n диапазон
rapidly [ˈræpɪdlɪ] adv быстро
rapidly-growing [ˈræpɪdlɪ ˈgrouɪŋ] a быстрорастущий
rapids [ˈræpɪdz] n пороги, водопад
rare [rɛə] a редкий
rather [ˈrɑ:ðə] adv довольно, довольно-таки
rather than [ˈrɑ:ðə ðæn] скорее, чем; охотнее, чем
rattle [rætl] v греметь
rattle-snake [ˈrætlsneɪk] n гремучая змея
raw materials [ˈrɔ: məˈtɪərɪəlz] n сырье
reach [ri:tʃ] v достигать
reaction [riˈækʃn] n реакция
reader [ˈri:də] n читатель
ready [ˈredɪ] a готов
real [rɪəl] a реальный, настоящий
realist [ˈrɪəlɪst] n реалист
realistic [rɪəˈlɪstɪk] a реалистичный, реалистический
reality [rɪˈælɪtɪ] n реальность
realize [ˈrɪəlaɪz] v понимать
really [ˈrɪəlɪ] adv действительно, в самом деле
reaper [ˈri:pə] n жнейка
reappear [ri:əˈpɪə] v вновь появиться
reason [ˈri:zən] n причина, разум
rebel [rəˈbel] v восставать
rebellion [rəˈbeljən] n восстание
rebuild [ˈri:ˈbɪld] (rebuilt, rebuilt) v восстанавливать,
    вновь построить
rebuilt [ˈri:ˈbilt] см. rebuild
receive [rɪˈsi:v] v получать, принимать

recent ['ri:sənt] a недавний

recognize ['rekəgnaiz] v узнать, признать

reconstruction ['ri:kəns'trʌkʃn] n реконструкция, перестройка

record ['rekɔ:d] n рекорд

recorded music [ri'kɔ:did'mju:zik] музыка, записанная на магнитофон

recover [ri'kʌvə] v поправляться

reduce [ri'dju:s] v уменьшать

red-wood ['red,wud] n красное дерево

re-elect ['ri:i'lekt] v выбрать вновь, переизбрать

reform [ri'fɔ:m] n реформа

reformer [ri'fɔ:mə] n реформатор

refrigerator [ri,fridʒə'reitə] n холодильник

refugee [,refju'dʒi:] n беженец

refuse [ri'fju:z] v отказываться

regard [ri'gɑ:d] v рассматривать, считать

regardless of [ri'gɑ:dlis əv] независимо от

region ['ri:dʒən] n область, регион

regular ['regjulə] a регулярный, правильный

regularly ['regjuləli] adv регулярно

reindeer ['reindiə] n северный олень

reject [ri'dʒekt] v отвергать

relations [ri'leiʃnz] n отношения, родственники

relative ['relətiv] a относительный

relative ['relətiv] n родственник

relatively ['relətivli] adv относительно

relativity [,relə'tiviti] n относительность

release [ri'li:s] v освобождать

relief [ri'li:f] n рельеф; облегчение

religion [ri'lidʒən] n религия

religious [ri'lidʒʃəs] a религиозный

remain [ri'mein] v оставаться

remember [ri'membə] v помнить, вспоминать

remove [ri'mu:v] v убирать, удалять

rename [ri:'neim] v переименовывать

rent [rent] v брать в аренду, напрокат, снимать

rent [rent] n арендная плата, квартирная плата
reopen ['ri:'oupn] v вновь открыть
repaint ['ri:'peint] v перекрасить
repair [ri'pεə] v чинить
replace [ri'pleis] v перемещать, заменять
reply [ri'plai] v отвечать
reply [ri'plai] n ответ
report [ri'pɔ:t] n доклад, отчет
represent [,repri'zent] v представлять
representative [,repri'zentətiv] n представитель
reptile ['reptail] n рептилия, пресмыкающееся
republic [ri'pʌblik] n республика
republican [ri'pʌblikən] a республиканский
reputation [,repju'teiʃn] n репутация
request [ri'kwest] n просьба
require [ri'kwaiə] v требовать
rescue ['reskju] v спасать
rescue ['reskju] n спасение
reservation [,rezə'veiʃn] n резервация
resident ['rezidənt] n житель
residential area [rezi'denʃəl'εəriə] жилые кварталы
resign [ri'zain] v уйти в отставку
resist [ri'zist] v сопротивляться
resolution [,rezə'lu:ʃn] n решение, резолюция
resources [ri'sɔ:siz] n ресурсы
respect [ris'pekt] n уважение
respect [ris'pekt] v уважать
respond [ris'pɔnd] v отвечать
response [ris'pɔns] n ответ, отклик
responsibility [ris,pɔnsi'biliti] n ответственность
responsible [ris'pɔnsibl] a ответственный
rest [rest] n остаток
restaurant ['restrɔn] n ресторан
restore [ris'tɔ:] v восстанавливать
result [ri'zʌlt] n результат
result [ri'zʌlt] v иметь результатом
retire [ri'taiə] v уйти в отставку

retreat [rɪ'tri:t] v отступить

retreat [rɪ'tri:t] n отступление

return [rɪ'tə:n] v возвращаться

return [rɪ'tə:n]: in return взамен

revive [rɪ'vaɪv] v оживлять, возвращать к жизни

revolt [rɪ'voult] n восстание

revolutionary [ˌrevə'lu:ʃnərɪ] a революционный

reward [rɪ'wɔ:d] n награда

rhyme [raɪm] n рифма, стих

rice [raɪs] n рис

rich [rɪtʃ] a богатый

riches ['rɪtʃɪz] n богатства

richly ['rɪtʃlɪ] adv богато

ridden [rɪdn] см. ride

ride [raɪd] (rode, ridden) v ехать, ехать верхом

ride [raɪd]: take a ride прокатиться

ridge [rɪdʒ] n хребет

right [raɪt] n право

right [raɪt] a правый, правильный

riot [raɪət] n бунт

rise [raɪz] (rose, risen) v подниматься

rise [raɪz] n подъем

risen [rɪzn] см. rise

risk [rɪsk] n риск

rival ['raɪvəl] n соперник

river ['rɪvə] n река

road [roud] n дорога

roar [rɔ:] v реветь

roast [roust] v жарить

rob [rɔb] v грабить

rocket ['rɔkɪt] n ракета

rocky ['rɔkɪ] a скалистый

rode [roud] см. ride

rodent ['roudənt] n грызун

rodeo [rou'deɪou] родео: состязание ковбоев

role [roul] n роль

roll [roul] v катить(ся)

romantic [rə'mæntɪk] n романтик

romantic [rə'mæntɪk] a романтический

roof [ru:f] n крыша

rose [rouz] см. rise

rough [rʌf] a грубый, неотесанный (о человеке),
  бурный (о море)

round [raund] a круглый

route [ru:t] n маршрут

row [rou] n ряд

ruin ['ru:ɪn] v разрушать

ruins ['ru:ɪnz] n развалины

rule [ru:l] v управлять

rule [ru:l] n правило, правление

ruler ['ru:lə] n правитель

rum [rʌm] n ром

rumours ['ru:məz] n слухи

run [rʌn] (ran, run) v бежать
      run (smth) управлять чем-либо
      run wild ['rʌn'waɪld] одичать

runaway ['rʌnə'weɪ] a беглый

rural ['ru:rəl] a сельский

rush [rʌʃ] v нестись, стремительно бежать

rush-hour ['rʌʃ'auə] n час пик

ruthless ['ru:θlɪs] a безжалостный

S

sad [sæd] a печальный

safe [seɪf] a безопасный, в безопасности

safety ['seɪftɪ] n безопасность

saga ['sɑ:gə] n сага

said [sed] см. say

sail [seɪl] v плавать

sailor ['seɪlə] n моряк

salary ['sælərɪ] n зарплата

sale [seɪl] n продажа

salt [sɔ:lt] n соль

same [seɪm] a такой же, тот же самый

sand [sænd] n песок

sang [sæŋ] см. sing

sank [sæŋk] см. sink

satellite ['sætəlaɪt] n спутник

sauce [sɔ:s] n соус

save [seɪv] v спасать

     save money ['seɪv 'mʌnɪ] копить деньги

     save time ['seɪv 'taɪm] экономить время

saw [sɔ:] см. see

say [seɪ] (said, said) v говорить, сказать

saying ['seɪɪŋ] n поговорка

scale [skeɪl] n масштаб, размер, охват

scare [skɛə] v пугать

scene [si:n] n сцена

school [sku:l] n школа

schooling ['sku:lɪŋ] n школьное образование

science ['saɪəns] n наука

scientific [,saɪən'tɪfɪk] a научный

scientist [,saɪəntɪst] n ученый

sclerophyllous [sklɪərə'fɪləs] a жестколистный

scoop [sku:p] v вычерпывать, выкапывать

scout [skaut] n разведчик

screen [skri:n] n экран

sculpture ['skʌlptʃə] n скульптура

sea [si:] n море

seaport ['si:pɔ:t] n морской порт

search [sə:tʃ] n поиски

search [sə:tʃ] v искать, обыскивать

season [si:zn] n сезон, время года

seat [si:t] n сиденье, местопребывание

secede [sɪ'si:d] v выйти (из состава партии, государства и т. д.)

secondary school ['sekəndərɪ 'sku:l] средняя школа

secret ['si:krɪt] n секрет

secretary ['sekrətrɪ] n секретарь

secretly ['si:krɪtlɪ] adv тайно

section [sekʃn] n секция

see [si:] (saw, seen) v видеть

     see the New Year in ['si: ðə 'nju: 'jɪər 'ɪn] встречать

Новый год

see to [ˈsi: tə] позаботиться, принять меры

seeds [si:dz] n семена

seem [si:m] v казаться

seen [si:n] см. see

segregation [ˌsegrɪˈgeɪʃn] n сегрегация

seize [si:z] v схватить

seldom [ˈseldəm] adv редко

self-government [ˈselfˈgʌvənmənt] n самоуправление

self-made man [ˈselfˈmeɪdˈmæn] человек, добившийся
    успеха своими собственными силами

self-taught architect архитектор-самоучка

sell [sel] (sold, sold) v продавать

seller [ˈselə] n продавец

semi-conductor [ˈsemɪkənˈdʌktə] n полупроводник

semidesert [ˈsemɪˈdezət] n полупустыня

senate [ˈsenɪt] n сенат

senator [ˈsenətə] n сенатор

send [send] (sent, sent) v посылать

sent [sent] см. send

separate [ˈsepəreɪt] v отделять

separate [ˈsepərɪt] a отдельный

separately [ˈsepərɪtlɪ] adv отдельно

sequoia [sɪˈkwɔɪə] n секвойя

series [ˈsɪərɪz] n серия

serious [ˈsɪərɪəs] a серьезный

sermon [ˈsə:mən] n проповедь

serve [sə:v] v служить, обслуживать

service [ˈsə:vɪs] n служба, обслуживание

set [set] (set, set) v установить, поставить, задать
    set fire to [ˈsetˈfaɪə tə] поджечь
    set off [ˈsetˈɔf] отправиться
    set out [ˈsetˈaut] отправиться
    set sail [ˈsetˈseɪl] отправиться, отплыть
    set standards [ˈsetˈstændədz] установить стандарты
    set to music [ˈset təˈmju:zɪk] положить на музыку
    set up [ˈsetˈʌp] основать, учредить

settle [setl] v осесть, поселиться, заселить

settled area ['setld'ɛərɪə] заселенная местность
settled people ['setld'pi:pl] оседлый народ
settlement ['setlmənt] n поселение, поселок, заселение
settler ['setlə] n поселенец
several ['sevərəl] pron несколько
severe [sɪ'vɪə] a свирепый, суровый
severe problems [sɪ'vɪə'prɔbləmz] очень серьезные проблемы
sew [sou] (sewed, sewn) v шить
sewarage ['sjuərɪdʒ] n удаление сточных вод, нечистот
sewn [soun] см. sew
sex [seks] n пол, секс
shake [ʃeɪk] (shook, shaken) v дрожать, трясти(сь)
shaken [ʃeɪkn] см. shake
shallow ['ʃælou] a мелкий
shameful ['ʃeɪmful] a постыдный, позорный
shape [ʃeɪp] v придавать форму
share [ʃɛə] v делиться
share [ʃɛə] n доля
sheep [ʃi:p] n овца
shell [ʃel] v обстреливать из орудий
shelter ['ʃeltə] n кров, укрытие
shine [ʃaɪn] (shone, shone) v светить
shining ['ʃaɪnɪŋ] a блестящий
ship [ʃɪp] n корабль
ship [ʃɪp] v переправлять грузы морем (ам.: и другими способами)
shipbuilder ['ʃɪp,bɪldə] n кораблестроитель
shipbuilding ['ʃɪp,bɪldɪŋ] n кораблестроение
shipload ['ʃɪploud] n полный корабль (чего-либо)
shock [ʃɔk] n удар, шок, потрясение
shock [ʃɔk] v нанести удар, потрясти
shocked [ʃɔkt] a шокирован, потрясен
shocking ['ʃɔkɪŋ] a потрясающий, скандальный
shoemaker ['ʃu:,meɪkə] n сапожник
shoemaking ['ʃu:,meɪkɪŋ] n сапожное мастерство
shoes [ʃu:z] n ботинки, туфли
shoeshine boy ['ʃu:ʃaɪn,bɔɪ] чистильщик обуви

shone [ʃɒn] см. shine
shook [ʃuk] см. shake
shoot [ʃu:t] (shot, shot) v стрелять
      shoot down [ˈʃu:tˈdaun] застрелить, сбить
shop [ʃɒp] n магазин
shopkeeper [ˈʃɒpˌki:pə] n продавец, содержатель мага-
  зина
shopping [ˈʃɒpɪŋ] n покупки
shore [ʃɔ:] n берег
short [ʃɔ:t] a короткий
shot [ʃɒt] см. shoot
shot [ʃɒt] n выстрел
shout [ʃaut] v кричать
show [ʃou] (showed, shown) v показывать
show [ʃou] n спектакль, представление
shown [ʃoun] см. show
shrewd [ʃru:d] a практичный, находчивый
shrewdness [ˈʃru:dnɪs] n практичность, находчивость
shriek [ʃri:k] n пронзительный крик
shrubs [ʃrʌbz] n кустарники
sick [sɪk] a больной
side [saɪd] n сторона, бок
side by side [ˈsaɪd baɪ ˈsaɪd] бок-о-бок
sign [saɪn] v подписать
sign [saɪn] n знак, признак
significance [sɪgˈnɪfɪkəns] n значение
sight [saɪt] n вид, зрелище, зрение
silence [ˈsaɪləns] n тишина, молчание
silence [ˈsaɪləns] v заставить замолчать
silk [sɪlk] n шелк
silver [ˈsɪlvə] n серебро
silver-fir [ˈsɪlvəˌfə:] n пихта
simple [sɪmpl] a простой
simply [ˈsɪmplɪ] adv просто
similar [ˈsɪmɪlə] a подобный, похожий
since [sɪns] conj с тех пор как, поскольку
sing [sɪŋ] (sang, sung) v петь
single [sɪŋgl] a единственный

sink [sɪŋk] (sank, sunk) v погружаться, идти ко дну, тонуть, топить

sit down [ˈsɪtˈdaun] (sat down, sat down) v сесть

situated [ˈsɪtjueɪtɪd] a расположен

situation [ˌsɪtjuˈeɪʃn] n расположение, ситуация

size [saɪz] n размер

skating-rink [ˈskeɪtɪŋˌrɪŋk] n каток

skilful [ˈskɪlful] a искусный

skill [skɪl] n умение, навык

skin [skɪn] n кожа, шкура

skirt [skə:t] n юбка

sky [skaɪ] n небо

skyscraper [ˈskaɪˌskreɪpə] n небоскреб

slave [sleɪv] n раб

slave-owner [ˈsleɪvˈounə] n рабовладелец

slavery [ˈsleɪvərɪ] n рабство

sledge [sledʒ] n сани

sleep [sli:p] (slept, slept) v спать

slept [slept] см. sleep

slightly [ˈslaɪtlɪ] adv слегка

slope [sloup] n склон

slow [slou] a медленный

slow down [ˈslouˈdaun] v замедлить ход

slowly [ˈsloulɪ] adv медленно

slums [slʌmz] n трущобы

small [smɔ:l] a маленький

smallpox [ˈsmɔ:lpɔks] n оспа

smog [smɔg] n смог

smoky [ˈsmoukɪ] a дымный

smuggler [ˈsmʌglə] n контрабандист

snow [snou] n снег

soap [soup] n мыло

so-called [ˈsouˈkɔ:ld] a так называемый

social [ˈsouʃəl] a социальный, общественный

society [səˈsaɪətɪ] n общество

soil [sɔɪl] n почва

sold [sould] см. sell

soldier [ˈsouldʒə] n солдат

solution [sə'lu:ʃn] n решение

solve [sɔlv] v решать

sometimes ['sʌmtaɪmz] adv иногда

somewhere ['sʌmwɛə] adv где-то, где-нибудь, куда-то, куда-нибудь

song [sɔŋ] n песня

soon [su:n] adv вскоре

sooner or later ['su:nər ɔː'leɪtə] рано или поздно

soot [su:t] n сажа

sound [saund] n звук

soup [su:p] n суп

source [sɔ:s] n источник, исток (реки)

south [sauθ] n юг

southern ['sʌðən] a южный

southerner ['sʌðənə] n южанин

sow [sou] (sowed, sown) v сеять

sown [soun] см. sow

space [speɪs] n пространство, космос

space exploration ['speɪs,eksplə'reɪʃn] исследование космоса

spaceship ['speɪsʃɪp] n космический корабль

space shuttle ['speɪs'ʃʌtl] шаттл (космический корабль многоразового использования)

space travel ['speɪs'trævəl] космический полет

spacious ['speɪʃəs] a вместительный, просторный

Spaniard ['spænjəd] n испанец

sparcely populated ['spɑ:sli,pɔpju'leɪtɪd] малонаселенный

spare [spɛə] a свободный

spark [spɑ:k] n искра

speaker ['spi:kə] n оратор

spear [spɪə] n копье

special ['speʃəl] a специальный

spectator [spek'teɪtə] n зритель

speech [spi:tʃ] n речь

speed [spi:d] n скорость

speed [spi:d] v ускорять

spend [spend] (spent, spent) v проводить (время), тратить (деньги)

spent [spent] см. spend

spice [spaɪs] n пряность

spin [spɪn] (spun, spun) v вращать(ся); прясть

spirit [´spɪrɪt] n дух

spite [spaɪt]: in spite of несмотря на

split [splɪt] (split, split) v расщеплять, раскалывать

splitting [´splɪtɪŋ] n расщепление, раскол

sport [spɔ:t] n спорт

spot [spɔt] n пятно, место

spread [spred] (spread, spread) v распространять(ся)

spring [sprɪŋ] n весна

spun [spʌn] см. spin

sputter [´spʌtə] v фыркать, чихать (о моторе)

square [skwɛə] a квадратный

square [skwɛə] n площадь

stadium [´steɪdɪəm] n стадион

stamp [stæmp] n марка, печать

stamp seller [´stæmp ´selə] продавец марок

star [stɑ:] n звезда

start [stɑ:t] n старт, начало

start [stɑ:t] v стартовать, начинать, отправляться

starve [stɑ:v] v голодать, умирать от голода

state [steɪt] n состояние, положение, штат (в США)

state [steɪt] v устанавливать, заявлять, делать заявление

statement [´steɪtmənt] n заявление

state-supported school [´steɪt sə´pɔ:tɪd ´sku:lz] школы, находящиеся на государственном обеспечении

station [steɪʃn] n станция

stay [steɪ] v оставаться, пребывать

steal [sti:l] (stole, stolen) v воровать

steam [sti:m] n пар

steamboat [´sti:m͵bout] n пароход

steam engine [´sti:m´endʒɪn] паровая машина

steamship [´sti:m͵ʃɪp] n пароход

steel [sti:l] n сталь

428

steep [sti:p] a крутой
step [step] v шагнуть, ступить
steppe [step] n степь
stepping stone ['stepɪŋ,stoun] ступенька на пути к более высокому положению
still [stɪl] adv все еще
stole [stoul] см. steal
stolen [stoulən] см. steal
stop [stɔp] v останавливаться, прекращать
storage ['stɔ:rɪdʒ] n склад, хранилище, хранение
store [stɔ:] v запасать
storey ['stɔ:rɪ] n этаж
storm [stɔ:m] n буря
story ['stɔ:rɪ] n рассказ
stove [stouv] n печь
straight [streɪt] a прямой
strait [streɪt] n пролив
strange [streɪndʒ] a странный
straw [strɔ:] n солома
stream [stri:m] n поток, ручей
street signs ['stri:t'saɪnz] дорожные знаки
strength [strenθ] n сила
strengthen ['strenθən] v усиливать
stretch [stretʃ] v простираться
strict [strɪkt] a строгий
string [strɪŋ] n тесемка, струна
strip [strɪp] n полоска
stroke [strouk] n удар
strong [strɔŋ] a сильный
stronghold ['strɔŋhould] n укрепленный пункт, укрепление
strongly ['strɔŋlɪ] adv сильно
structure ['strʌktʃə] n структура
struggle [strʌgl] n борьба
student ['stju:dənt] n студент
study ['stʌdɪ] v изучать, учиться
sturdy ['stə:dɪ] a крепкий, твердый
style [staɪl] n стиль

subarctic ['sʌb'ɑ:ktɪk] a субарктический
subdivide ['sʌbdɪ'vaɪd] v подразделять
subject ['sʌbdʒɪkt] n предмет, тема
submarine ['sʌbməri:n] n подводная лодка
subtropical ['sʌb'trɔpɪkəl] a субтропический
suburbs ['sʌbə:bz] n пригороды
succeed [sək'si:d] v преуспеть, добиться успеха
success [sək'ses] n успех
successful [sək'sesful] a успешный
such [sʌtʃ] a такой
sudden [sʌdn] a внезапный
suddenly ['sʌdnlɪ] adv внезапно
suffer ['sʌfə] v страдать
suffering ['sʌfərɪŋ] n страдание
suffrage ['sʌfrɪdʒ] n избирательное право
suffragists ['sʌfrədʒɪsts] n суфражистки (женщины,
    боровшиеся в США за предоставление женщинам
    избирательного права)
sugar ['ʃugə] n сахар
sum [sʌm] n сумма
summer ['sʌmə] n лето
sun [sʌn] n солнце
sung [sʌŋ] см. sing
sunk [sʌŋk] см. sink
sunrise ['sʌnraɪz] n восход солнца
sunset ['sʌnset] n закат солнца
sunshine ['sʌnʃaɪn] n солнечный свет
superhighways [ˌsjupə'haɪweɪz] n «супершоссе» —
    система первоклассных шоссейных дорог,
    соединивших все штаты
superior [sju'pɪərɪə] a высший, превосходящий
supplies [sə'plaɪz] n припасы, ресурсы
supply [sə'plaɪ] v снабжать
support [sə'pɔ:t] v поддерживать
supporter [sə'pɔ:tə] n оказывающий поддержку
suppose [sə'pouz] v предполагать, полагать
supreme [sju'pri:m] a верховный
supreme court [sju'pri:m'kɔ:t] верховный суд
430

sure [ʃuə]: be sure быть уверенным
surface [ˈsəfɪs] n поверхность
surprised [səˈpraɪzd] a удивлен
surprisingly [səˈpraɪzɪŋlɪ] adv на удивление, к
    удивлению
surrender [səˈrendə] v сдаться
surrender [səˈrendə] n сдача
surround [səˈraund] v окружать
surrounding [səˈraundɪŋ] n окружение
survive [səˈvaɪv] v выживать
suspect [səsˈpekt] v подозревать
swam [swæm] см. swim
swampy [ˈswɔmpɪ] a болотистый
sweet [swiːt] a сладкий
swift [swɪft] a быстрый
swim [swɪm] (swam, swum) v плавать
swum [swʌm] см. swim
symbol [ˈsɪmbəl] n символ
sympathize with [ˈsɪmpəθaɪz wɪð] v сочувствовать
sympathy [ˈsɪmpəθɪ] n симпатия, сочувствие
symphony orchestra [ˈsɪmfənɪˈɔːkɪstrə] симфонический
    оркестр
synonym [ˈsɪnənɪm] n синоним
system [ˈsɪstəm] n система

T

tableland [ˈteɪbllænd] n плоскогорье
tactics [ˈtæktɪks] n тактика
take [teɪk] (took, taken) v брать
    take care of [ˈteɪkˈkɛər əv] заботиться о
    take part in [ˈteɪkˈpɑːt ɪn] принимать участие в
    take action [ˈteɪkˈækʃn] начать активные
    действия
    take away [ˈteɪk əˈweɪ] убрать
    take off [ˈteɪkˈɔf] снять (одежду), взлететь (о
    самолете)
    take orders [ˈteɪkˈɔːdəz] выполнять приказы
taken [ˈteɪkən] см. take
tale [teɪl] n рассказ, сказка

talent ['tælənt] n талант
talk [tɔ:k] v разговаривать, болтать
talk [tɔ:k] n разговор, беседа
tall [tɔ:l] a высокий
tar [tɑ:] n смола
task [tɑ:sk] n задача, задание
taste [teɪst] v пробовать
taste [teɪst] n вкус
taught [tɔ:t] см. teach
tax [tæks] n налог
tax [tæks] v облагать налогом
tax collector ['tæks kə'lektə] сборщик налога
tea [ti:] n чай
teach [ti:tʃ] (taught, taught) v учить
    teach a lesson ['ti:tʃ ə'lesn] проучить
teacher ['ti:tʃə] n учитель
teachings ['ti:tʃɪŋz] n учение
team [ti:m] n команда
tears [tɪəz] n слезы
technology [tek'nɔlədʒɪ] n техника, технология
teenager ['ti:n,eɪdʒə] n подросток, «тинейджер»
telegraph ['telɪgrɑ:f] n телеграф
telephone ['telɪfoun] n телефон
telescope ['telɪskoup] n телескоп
television set [,telɪ'vɪʒn'set] телевизор
tell [tel] (told, told) v говорить, рассказывать
    tell on [tel ɔn] сказаться на
temperate ['tempərɪt] a умеренный
temperature ['temprɪtʃə] n температура
tend [tend] v стремиться, иметь тенденцию
tenements ['tenəmənts] n квартиры, сдаваемые внаем
  (обычно в бедных кварталах)
tennis ['tenɪs] n теннис
tension [tenʃn] n напряжение, напряженность
tent [tent] n палатка
term [tə:m] n период, срок; термин
term of office ['tə:m əv'ɔfɪs] срок пребывания в должности

terms [tə:mz] n условия
terrible ['terɪbl] a ужасный
terribly ['terɪblɪ] adv ужасно
terrify ['terɪfaɪ] v приводить в ужас
test [test] v испытывать, проверять
test [test] n испытание, проверка
textile industry ['tekstaɪl 'ɪndəstrɪ] текстильная
   промышленность
than [ðæn] conj чем
thanks to ['θæŋks tə] благодаря чему-либо
theatrical [θɪ'ætrɪkəl] a театральный
theft [θeft] n кража
theology [θɪ'ɔlədʒɪ] n теология, богословие
theoretical [θɪə'retɪkəl] a теоретический
therefore ['ðɛəfɔ:] conj поэтому
thick [θɪk] a толстый, густой
thief [θi:f] n вор
thing [θɪŋ] n вещь
think [θɪŋk] (thought, thought) v думать
though [ðou] conj хотя
thought [θɔ:t] см. think
threat [θret] n угроза
threaten [θretn] v угрожать
threw [θru:] см. throw
thrifty ['θrɪftɪ] a бережливый
through [θru:] prep через, сквозь
throughout [θru:'aut] prep по всему (пространству,
   времени и т. д.)
throw [θrou] (threw, thrown) v бросать
thrown [θroun] см. throw
thrust [θrʌst] v толкать, тыкать, совать
thunderstorm ['θʌndəstɔ:m] n гроза
thus [ðʌs] adv так, таким образом
ticket ['tɪkɪt] n билет
timber ['tɪmbə] n лес (лесоматериал)
time [taɪm] n время
time-table ['taɪm,teɪbl] n расписание
tin [tɪn] n олово, жесть; консервная банка

tiny ['taɪnɪ] a крохотный

tip [tɪp] n кончик

tireless ['taɪəlɪs] a неутомимый

tobacco [tə'bækou] n табак

toleration [,tɔlɪ'reɪʃn] n терпимость

told [tould] см. tell

ton [tʌn] n тонна

too [tu:] adv тоже, слишком

took [tuk] см. take

tool [tu:l] n инструмент, орудие труда

top [tɔp] n вершина, верхушка

total ['toutəl] a весь, полный, целый

totally ['toutəlɪ] adv полностью

touch [tʌtʃ]: keep in touch with поддерживать связь с

tourist ['tuərɪst] n турист

toward [tə'wɔ:d] prep по направлению к

tower [tauə] n башня

tracks [træks]: railway tracks железнодорожные пути

trade [treɪd] n торговля, ремесло

trade [treɪd] v торговать

trader [treɪdə] n торговец

tradition [trə'dɪʃn] n традиция

traditional [trə'dɪʃnəl] a традиционный

traditionally [trə'dɪʃnəlɪ] adv традиционно, по
  традиции

traffic ['træfɪk] n дорожное движение

trail [treɪl] n тропа, путь

train [treɪn] v тренировать, обучать

train [treɪn] n поезд

train carriage ['treɪn'kærɪdʒ] вагон поезда

train engine ['treɪn'endʒɪn] локомотив

trained [treɪnd] a тренированный, обученный

tram [træm] n трамвай

transcontinental ['trænz,kɔntɪ'nentl] a трансконтинен-
  тальный

translate [træns'leɪt] n переводить

transport ['trænspɔ:t] v перевозить

transportation [,trænspɔ:'teiʃn] n перевозки, транспортировка

trap [træp] v ставить капканы, ловить с помощью капканов

travel ['trævəl] v путешествовать

traveller ['trævələ] n путешественник

treat [tri:t] v обращаться с, лечить

treatment ['tri:tmənt] n обращение, лечение

treaty ['tri:tɪ] n договор

tree [tri:] n дерево

tree-lined streets ['tri:‚laɪnd'stri:ts] улицы, усаженные деревьями

tribe [traɪb] n племя

tributary ['trɪbjutərɪ] n приток (реки)

trick [trɪk] n трюк, шутка

trip [trɪp] n поездка

troops [tru:ps] n войска

tropical ['trɔpɪkəl] a тропический

trouble [trʌbl] n беда, беспорядки, неприятности, беспокойство

trouble-free ['trʌbl'fri:] свободный от забот

trouble spots ['trʌbl'spɔts] горячие точки

true [tru:] a правдивый, верный

trust [trʌst] v доверять

trust [trʌst] n доверие; трест

trusting ['trʌstɪŋ] a доверчивый

truth [tru:θ] n правда

truthful ['tru:θful] a правдивый

try [traɪ] v пытаться

tulip-tree ['tju:lɪp‚tri:] n тюльпанное дерево

tunnel [tʌnl] n туннель

turkey ['tə:kɪ] n индейка

turn [tə:n] v поворачивать

   turn into ['tə:n intə] превратиться в

turning point ['tə:nɪŋ'pɔint] поворотный пункт

turtle [tə:tl] n черепаха

twin [twɪn] n близнец

typewriter ['taɪpraɪtə] n пишущая машинка

typewriting machine ['taɪpraɪtɪŋ məˈʃiːn] пишущая машинка

typical ['tɪpɪkəl] a типичный

U

unable [ʌnˈeɪbl] a не в состоянии

unanimously [juˈnænɪməslɪ] adv единогласно

unclean [ˌʌnˈkliːn] a нечистый

unconstitutional [ˈʌnˌkɔnstɪˈtjuːʃnəl] a неконституционный

undergo [ˌʌndəˈgou] (underwent, undergone) v подвергнуться

undergone [ˌʌndəˈgɔn] см. undergo

underground [ˌʌndəˈgraund] a подземный

understand [ˌʌndəˈstænd] (understood, understood) v понимать

understood [ˌʌndəˈstud] см. understand

underwater [ˌʌndəˈwɔːtə] a подводный

underwent [ˌʌndəˈwent] см. undergo

uneasy [ˌʌnˈiːzɪ] a не по себе, в неловком положении

unemployed ['ʌnɪmˈplɔɪd] a безработный

unemployment ['ʌnɪmˈplɔɪmənt] n безработица

unexcelled ['ʌnɪkˈseld] a непревзойденный

unexpected ['ʌnɪksˈpektɪd] a неожиданный

unexplored [ˌʌnɪksˈplɔːd] a неисследованный

unfair [ˌʌnˈfɛə] a несправедливый

unfortunately [ˌʌnˈfɔːtʃənətlɪ] adv к несчастью

unhappy [ˌʌnˈhæpɪ] a несчастный

unhealthy [ˌʌnˈhelθɪ] a нездоровый

unheard-of [ˌʌnˈhəːd əv] a неслыханный

uniform ['juːnɪfɔːm] a единообразный, однородный

uniform ['juːnɪfɔːm] n форма (одежды)

uniformity [ˌjuːnɪˈfɔːmɪtɪ] n единообразность, однородность

unique [juːˈniːk] a уникальный

unit ['juːnɪt]: military unit воинская часть (подразделение)

unite [juˈnaɪt] v объединять

united [juˈnaɪtɪd] a объединенный

universe ['ju:nivə:s] n вселенная
university [,juni'və:siti] n университет
unjust [,ʌn'dʒʌst] a несправедливый
unknown [,ʌn'noun] a неизвестный
unlike [,ʌn'laik] adv непохоже; не так, как
unload [,ʌn'loud] v разгружать
unpaved [,ʌn'peivd] a немощеный
unpractical [,ʌn'præktikəl] a непрактичный
unprotected [,ʌnprə'tektid] a незащищенный
unsafe [,ʌn'seif] a небезопасный
unsafely [,ʌn'seifli] adv небезопасно
unsettled area [,ʌn'setld'ɛəriə] незаселенная местность
unskilled [,ʌn'skild] a неквалифицированный
unsuitable [,ʌn'sju:təbl] a неподходящий
untalkative [,ʌn'tɔ:kətiv] a неразговорчивый
until [ʌn'til] prep пока; до тех пор, пока
unusual [ʌn'ju:ʒuəl] a необычный
upper ['ʌpə] a верхний
upset [ʌp'set] (upset, upset) v перевернуть, опроки-
    нуть, расстроить
upset [ʌp'set] a расстроен
upstream ['ʌpstri:m] adv вверх по течению
urban ['ə:bən] a городской
urge [ə:dʒ] v побуждать, уговаривать
use [ju:z] v использовать, пользоваться
use [ju:s] n польза
used [ju:st]: get used to привыкнуть к
useless ['ju:slis] a бесполезный
usually ['ju:ʒuəli] adv обычно

V

vacuum cleaner ['vækjuəm'kli:nə] n пылесос
valley ['væli] n долина
value ['vælju] v ценить
value ['vælju] n ценность
variety [və'raiəti] n разнообразие
various ['vɛəriəs] a разнообразный
vary ['vɛəri] варьироваться
vast [va:st] a огромный

vegetable garden [′vedʒətəbl′gɑːdn] огород
vegetables [′vedʒətəblz] n овощи
vegetation [ˌvedʒə′teɪʃn] n растительность
velocity [vɪ′lɔsɪtɪ] n скорость
veto [′viːtou] v налагать вето
vice-president [′vaɪs′prezɪdənt] n вице-президент
victim [′vɪktɪm] n жертва
victory [′vɪktərɪ] n победа
videotaped movie [′vɪdɪouˌteɪpt′muːvɪ] видеофильм
view [vjuː] n вид
Viking [′vaɪkɪŋ] n викинг
village [′vɪlɪdʒ] n деревня
violence [′vaɪələns] n насилие
violently [′vaɪələntlɪ] adv сильно, яростно, отчаянно
visit [′vɪzɪt] n визит, посещение
visit [′vɪzɪt] v нанести визит, посетить
vocabulary [və′kæbjulərɪ] n словарь
volcanic [vɔl′kænɪk] a вулканический
vote [vout] v голосовать
vote [vout] n голос (при голосовании)
voyage [′vɔɪɪdʒ] n морское путешествие

W

wage a war [′weɪdʒ ə′wɔː] вести войну
wages [′weɪdʒɪz] n зарплата
wagon [′wægən] n фургон
wagon train [′wægən′treɪn] вереница фургонов (американских колонистов)
wait [weɪt] v ждать
wake [weik] (woke, woken) v просыпаться, будить
walk [wɔːk] v идти, ходить пешком
wall [wɔːl] n стена
wander [′wɔndə] v бродить
wandering [′wɔndərɪŋ] a бродячий
want [wɔnt] v хотеть
war [wɔː] n война
warm [wɔːm] a теплый
warmth [wɔːmθ] n тепло
warn [wɔːn] v предупреждать
438

warning ['wɔ:nɪŋ] n предупреждение
warship ['wɔ:ʃɪp] n военный корабль
wash [wɔʃ] v мыть(ся), омывать
watch [wɔtʃ] v следить, наблюдать
water ['wɔtə] n вода
waterfall ['wɔ:təfɔ:l] n водопад
waterways ['wɔ:təweɪz] n водные пути
wave [weɪv] n волна
wave [weɪv] v размахивать
way [weɪ] n путь, способ
way of life ['weɪ əv'laɪf] образ жизни
weak [wi:k] a слабый
weaken ['wi:kən] v ослаблять
wealthy ['welθɪ] a богатый, зажиточный
weapons ['wepənz] n оружие
wear [wɛə] (wore, worn) v носить (одежду)
weather ['weðə] n погода
weeds [wi:dz] n сорняки
week [wi:k] n неделя
weekend ['wi:k,end] n конец недели
weight [weɪt] n вес
welcome ['welkəm] v приветствовать
well [wel] adv хорошо
well [wel] n колодец
well-being ['wel'bi:ɪŋ] n благосостояние
well-trained ['wel'treɪnd] a хорошо обученный
west [west] n запад
western ['westən] a западный
westward ['westwəd] adv на запад
wheat [wi:t] n. пшеница
wheel [wi:l] n колесо
whenever [wen'evə] adv где бы ни, куда бы ни
whether ['weðə] conj ли
whistle [wɪsl] v свистеть
whistle [wɪsl] n свисток
white [waɪt] a белый
white-skinned ['waɪt'skɪnd] a белокожий
whole [houl] a весь, целый

wide [waɪd] a широкий

widely ['waɪdlɪ] adv широко

wide-spread ['waɪd'spred] a широко распространенный

wife [waɪf] n жена

wild [waɪld] a дикий

wilderness ['wɪldənɪs] n дикая необжитая местность с девственной природой

wildly ['waɪldlɪ] adv дико

will [wɪl] n воля, завещание

willing ['wɪlɪŋ] a желающий, готовый

win [wɪn] (won, won) v победить, одержать победу, выиграть

    win a victory ['wɪn ə 'vɪktərɪ] одержать победу

    win independence ['wɪn ɪndə'pendəns] завоевать независимость

wind [wɪnd] n ветер

window ['wɪndou] n окно

windy ['wɪndɪ] a ветреный

wine [waɪn] n вино

winner ['wɪnə] n победитель, выигравший

winter ['wɪntə] n зима

wire [waɪə] n проволока, провод

wish [wɪʃ] n желание

wish [wɪʃ] v желать

witch [wɪtʃ] n ведьма

withdraw [wɪð'drɔ:] (withdrew, withdrawn) v вывести, удалить

withdrawn [wɪð'drɔ:n] см. withdraw

withdrew [wɪð'dru:] см. withdraw

within [wɪðɪn] prep внутри

without [wɪð'aut] prep без

woke [wouk] см. wake

woken [woukn] см. wake

woman ['wumən] n женщина

won [wʌn] см. win

wonderful ['wʌndəful] a чудесный

wood [wud] n лес, дерево (материал), дрова

440

wooden [wudn] a деревянный
word [wə:d] n слово
word combination ['wə:d,kɔmbɪ'neɪʃn] словосочетание
wore [wɔ:] см. wear
work [wə:k] n работа
work [wə:k] v работать
    work hard ['wə:k'ha:d] упорно трудиться, напряженно работать
    work out ['wə:k'aut] разработать
workman ['wə:kmən] n рабочий, работник
workplace ['wə:kpleɪs] n рабочее место
workshop ['wə:kʃɔp] n цех
world [wə:ld] n мир
world-famous ['wə:ld'feɪməs] a всемирно известный
world-wide ['wə:ldwaɪd] a всемирный
worn [wɔ:n] см. wear
worry ['wʌrɪ] v беспокоиться, волноваться
worse [wə:s] a хуже
worship ['wə:ʃɪp] v поклоняться, отправлять богослужение
worth [wə:θ]: be worth стоить чего-либо
wound [wu:nd] n рана
wound [wu:nd] v ранить
wounded ['wu:ndɪd] a раненый
write [raɪt] (wrote, written) v писать
writer ['raɪtə] n писатель
written [rɪtn] см. write
wrong [rɔŋ] a неправильный, не тот
wrote [rout] см. write

Y

yard [ja:d] n двор
yet [jet] adv еще
young [jʌŋ] a молодой
youth [ju:θ] n юность

Z

zone [zoun] n зона
zoo [zu:] n зоопарк

Table of contents

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