

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ЖИТОМИРСЬКИЙ ДЕРЖАВНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ІМЕНІ ІВАНА ФРАНКА

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Сучасна Європа: історія

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У навчальному практикумі „Modern Europe: History (Сучасна Європа: історія)” містяться 6 розділів (Units) навчального матеріалу для роботи на практичних заняттях спецкурсу „Проблеми сучасної Європи”, який включено до навчального плану IV курсу історичного факультету. Кожний розділ включає текст, словник-мінімум та вправи різного типу для засвоєння матеріалу. Друга частина практикуму, розрахована в основному для самостійної роботи, містить найсучасніший історичний матеріал про всі європейські країни та завдання для самоконтролю. Третя частина включає тексти для додаткового читання.

Для студентів історичних факультетів (IV, V курсів та магістрантів); для денної та заочної форми навчання.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Метою практикуму є забезпечити необхідний навчальний та додатковий інформаційний матеріал для роботи над спецкурсом „Проблеми сучасної Європи” (IV курс історичного факультету). Практикум може бути використаний для денної та заочної форми навчання. Завданням авторів практикуму є така організація матеріалу, яка надає можливість найбільш ефективного та глибокого засвоєння знань. З огляду на виконання цього завдання у даному практикумі пропонуються такі розділи:

1. Навчальний матеріал з 6 частин, кожна з яких містить основний тематичний текст, лексичний мінімум за темою та набір лексико-граматичних та комунікативно орієнтованих вправ для засвоєння та закріплення необхідної загальної лексики та термінології.

2. Інформативний довідковий розділ „Europe Today” („Європа сьогодні”), в якому подані загальні відомості та історичні нариси про всі європейські країни; джерела інформації автентичні, датовані 2006 роком. Розділ орієнтований на самостійну роботу студентів. У цьому розділі пропонуються також завдання для самоконтролю.

3. Розділ для додаткового читання, який містить тексти про найважливіші історичні події Європи після кінця ХХ поч. ХХІ ст. року. Тексти автентичні з незначною адаптацією, в них використано лексику та термінологію, опрацьовану під час роботи над Розділом I.

Практикум може бути використаний студентами IV курсів історичного факультету, як основний навчальний посібник. Довідковий розділ може бути цікавим для студентів III курсу та магістрантів історичного факультету.

PART I

UNIT 1

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

In the second half of the eleventh century England was conquered by a Norman Duke, William by name, one of the most powerful feudal lords of France. Under the pretext of having rightful claims to the English throne, William landed on the southern shores of England in September 1066. The well-armed Norman knights met the Anglo-Saxon troops gathered by Harold, their king, at Hastings on October 14, 1066. The battle raged with varying fortune all day but finally the Anglo-Saxons gave way. King Harold was killed and the Normans won the battle. Some time later London was forced to open its gates to the conquerors.

William became King of England and was called William the Conqueror. He named himself the „lawful heir” of the English king and promised to grant the old rights and customs to the Anglo-Saxon nobility by Norman nobles and knights who became the ruling group. The confiscation of lands and their distribution among the Norman nobility completed the establishment of the feudal system in England.

Land grant in reward for military service was a characteristic feature of feudalism. In France and Germany these land grants led to the weakening of royal authority, since the great landowners could use their military forces against the king. In England this danger also existed but in a smaller degree. William granted large estates to his followers but he was careful to scatter them in manors over the country in a way which made it difficult for the great landowners to concentrate their knights for rebellion against the king.

William made the most of the financial system he had inherited. In addition to customary dues, such as revenues from justice and income from royal lands, his predecessors had been able to levy a geld, or tax, assessed on the value of land and originally intended to provide funds to buy off Danish invaders. The Confes-

sor had abandoned this tax but the Conqueror collected it at least four times. Profits from the ample royal estates must have been significant, along with those from royal mints and towns.

The Norman kings ruled with the help of a governing body called Curia Regis (the King's Court). It made laws, imposed and levied taxes and tried disputes but the king was always present and his word was decisive. In just the same way each baron ruled his vassals, each knightly holder of a manor – his villains.

At Christmas 1085 William had „deep speech” with his council and as a result ordered a general survey of the land to be made. Historians have debated the purpose of this „Domesday” survey, some seeing it as primarily a tax assessment, others emphasizing its importance as a basis of assignment of feudal rights and duties. Its form owed the much to Anglo-Saxon precedent, but within each county section it was organized on a feudal basis. It was probably a multipurpose document with the main emphasis on resources for taxation. It was incomplete, for the far north of England, London and Winchester were not included, while the returns for Essex, Norfolk and Suffolk were not condensed into the same form as was used for the rest of the country. Domesday is a unique record and offers rich materials for research.

William the Conqueror is presented in contemporary chronicles as a ruthless tyrant who rigorously put down rebellion and devastated vast areas, especially in his pacification of the north in 1069-70. Generally speaking, the native population was treated very cruelly by the conquerors. Even the Anglo-Saxon nobles felt oppressed.

But William was, however, an able administrator. Perhaps one of his greatest contributions to England's future was the linking up of England with continental affairs. If the country had been conquered again by the Danes, as seemed possible, it might have remained in a backwater of European development. So, England was linked, economically and culturally, to France and continental Europe. The aristocracy spoke French while Latin was the language of the church and the administration.

Vocabulary notes:

to conquer – завойовувати;
to pacify – заспокоювати, примиряти;
rebellion – повстання, заколот;
to impose taxes on – встановлювати податки на щось;
to levy taxes – стягувати податки;
to buy off – відкупитися;
to abandon – скасувати;
heir – нащадок;
estate (manor) – помістя, маєток;
to devastate – руйнувати, спустошувати.

Practical Exercises:

1. Read the following statements and decide whether they are *true* or *false*:

1. In the second half of the eleventh century England was conquered by a German Duke, William by name.

2. William landed on the southern shores of England in September 1066.

3. The Anglo-Saxons gave way in the battle at Hastings on October 14, 1066.

4. William became King of England and was called William the Confessor.

5. The Norman kings ruled with the help of a governing body called Curia Regis (the King's Court).

6. The Domesday survey was adopted after Christmas 1085.

7. William the Conqueror is presented in contemporary chronicles as a kind and just king.

8. If the country had been conquered again by the Danes, it might have remained in a backwater of European development.

9. England was linked, economically and culturally, to Italy.

10. The aristocracy spoke French while Latin was the language of the church and the administration.

2. Answer the following questions:

1. When was England conquered by a Norman Duke, William by name?
2. Who won the battle at Hastings on October 14, 1066?
3. What completed the establishment of the feudal system in England?
4. William granted large estates to his followers, didn't he?
5. Which tax did the Confessor abandon but the Conqueror collected at least four times?
6. What was the role of Curia Regis?
7. When did William the Conqueror order a general survey of the land to be made?
8. How is William the Conqueror presented in contemporary chronicles?
9. Did the Anglo-Saxons or French nobles feel oppressed by William the Conqueror's pacifications?
10. What was the greatest contribution of William the Conqueror to England's history?

3. Complete the sentences:

1. The well-armed Norman knights met
2. William named himself . . .
3. Profits from the ample royal estates must have been
4. In just the same way each baron ruled
5. Domesday is a unique record and offers
6. But William was, however,
7. . . . to open its gates to the conquerors.
8. . . . since the great landowners could use their military forces against the king.
9. . . . he had inherited.
10. . . . its importance as a basis of assignment of feudal rights and duties.
11. . . . while the returns for Essex, Norfolk and Suffolk were not condensed into the same form as was used for the rest of the country.

12. it might have remained in a backwater of European development.

4. Fill in the missing words from the box below:

was killed, completed, ruled, taxation, was conquered, is presented, military, was treated

1. In the second half of the eleventh century England ... by a Norman Duke, William by name, one of the most powerful feudal lords of France.

2. King Harold and the Normans won the battle.

3. The confiscation of lands and their distribution among the Norman nobility ... the establishment of the feudal system in England.

4. Land grant in reward for ... service was a characteristic feature of feudalism.

5. The Norman kings ... with the help of a governing body called Curia Regis(the King's Court).

6. William the Conqueror ... in contemporary chronicles as a ruthless tyrant who rigorously put down rebellion and devastated vast areas, especially in his pacification of the north in 1069-70.

7. It was probably a multipurpose document with the main emphasis on resources for

8. The native population ... very cruelly by the conquerors.

5. Compose a chronological table according to the facts and dates given:

1066	
	Battle at Hastings
	Curia Regis adoption
1069-1070	
1085	

6. Points for discussion in microgroups:

1. William the Conqueror as a king.
2. The taxation policy of William the Conqueror.
3. Curia Regis as a governing body.
4. The Domesday survey.
5. William the Conqueror and Europe of the 11th century.

7. Sum up the facts about William the Conqueror, using your own knowledge of history and the information of the text.

UNIT 2

THE WARS OF THE ROSES

Henry VI, who had become king as a baby, grew up to be simple-minded and book-loving. He hated the warlike nobles, and was an unsuitable king for such a violent society. But he was a civilized and gentle man. He founded two places of learning that still exist: Eton College not far from London, and King's College in Cambridge. He could happily have spent his life in such places of learning. But Henry's simple-mindedness gave way to periods of mental illness.

England had lost a war and was ruled by a mentally ill king who was bad at choosing advisers. It was perhaps natural that the nobles began to ask questions about who should be ruling the country. They remembered that Henry's grandfather Henry of Lancaster had taken the throne when Richard II was deposed.

There were not more than sixty noble families controlling England at this time. Most of them were related to each other through marriage. Some of the nobles were extremely powerful. Many of them continued to keep their own private armies after returning from the war in France, and used them to frighten local people into obeying them. Some of these armies were large. For example, by 1450 the Duke of Buckingham had 2,000 men in his private army.

The discontented nobility were divided between those who remained loyal to Henry VI, the "Lancastrians", and those who supported the Duke of York, the "Yorkists". The Duke of York was the heir of the Earl of March, who had lost the competition for the throne when Richard II was deposed in 1399. In 1460 the Duke of York claimed the throne for himself. After his death in battle, his son Edward took up the struggle and won the throne in 1461.

Edward IV put Henry into the Tower of London, but nine years later a new Lancastrian army rescued Henry and chased Edward out of the country. Like the Lancastrians, Edward was able to raise another army. Edward had the advantage of his popularity with the merchants of London and the southeast of England. This was because the Yorkists had strongly encouraged profitable trade, particularly with Burgundy. Edward returned to England in 1471 and defeated the Lancastrians. At last Edward IV was safe on the throne. Henry VI died in the Tower of London soon after, almost certainly murdered.

The war between York and Lancaster would probably have stopped then if Edward's son had been old enough to rule, and if Edward's brother, Richard of Gloucester, had not been so ambitious. But when Edward IV died in 1483, his own two sons, the twelve-year-old Edward V and his younger brother, were put in the Tower by Richard of Gloucester. Richard took the Crown and became King Richard III. A month later the two princes were murdered. William Shakespeare's play 'Richard III', written a century later, accuses Richard of murder and almost everyone believed it. Richard III had a better reason than most to wish his two nephews dead, but his guilt has never been proved.

Richard III was not popular. Lancastrians and Yorkists both disliked him. In 1485 a challenger with a very distant claim to royal blood through John of Gaunt landed in England with Breton soldiers to claim the throne. Many discontented lords, both Lancastrians and Yorkists, joined him. His name was Henry Tudor, Duke of Richmond, and he was half Welsh. He met Richard III at Bosworth. Half of Richard's army changed sides, and the battle

quickly ended in his defeat and death. Henry Tudor was crowned king immediately, on the battlefield.

The war had finally ended, though this could not have been clear at the time. Much later, in the nineteenth century, the novelist Walter Scott named these wars the "Wars of the Roses", because York's symbol was a white rose, and Lancaster's a red one.

The Wars of the Roses nearly destroyed the English idea of kingship for ever. After 1460 there had been little respect for anything except the power to take the Crown. Tudor historians made much of these wars and made it seem as if much of England had been destroyed. This was not true. Fighting took place for only a total of fifteen months out of the whole twenty-five year period. Only the nobles and their armies were involved.

It is true, however, that the wars were a disaster for the nobility. For the first time there had been no purpose in taking prisoners, because no one was interested in payment of ransom. Everyone was interested in destroying the opposing nobility. Those captured in battle were usually killed immediately. By the time of the battle of Bosworth in 1485, the old nobility had nearly destroyed itself. Almost half the lords of the sixty noble families had died in the wars. It was this fact which made it possible for the Tudors to build a new nation state.

Vocabulary notes:

an adviser – радник

to obey – підкорятися

to claim the throne – претендувати на трон

to rescue – врятувати, (*тут* – звільнити)

to chase smb. out – виганяти,

to accuse smb. of smth – звинувачувати когось у чомусь,

to involve – втягувати,

a disaster – *тут* катастрофа,

a ransom – *тут* викуп.

Practical Exercises:

1. Read the following statements and decide whether they are *true* or *false*:

1) Henry VI was civilized and gentle, book-loving but a simple-minded person.

2) The Lancastrians supported Henry VI and the Yorkists supported Edward IV.

3) Later on Lancastrian army rescued Edward and chased Henry out of the country.

4) Henry VI had the advantage of his popularity with the merchants of London and the southeast of England because the Lancastrians had strongly encouraged profitable trade, particularly with Burgundy.

5) The war between York and Lancaster would probably have stopped then if Edward's son had been old enough to rule, and if Edward's brother, Richard of Gloucester, had not been so ambitious.

6) Half Welsh Henry Tudor, Duke of Richmond, never claimed the throne.

7) As York's symbol was a white rose, and Lancaster's a red one, the novelist Walter Scott named these wars the "Wars of the Roses".

8) The Wars of the Roses destroyed England.

9) By the time of the battle of Bosworth in 1485, the old nobility had flourished.

10) The poor state of nobility made it possible for the Tudors to build a new nation state.

2. Answer the following questions:

1) What do you know about Henry VI as a king?

2) What was the disagreement between the Dukes of York and Lancaster?

3) Why was the war between them named The War of Roses?

4) How did the war undergo?

5) What actions did Edward IV do in the campaign?

- 6) Why hadn't the war stopped after the death of Henry VI?
- 7) What can you tell about Richard's III ruling?
- 8) How did the Tudor period in England begin?
- 9) What had the old nobility status been by the time of the battle of Bosworth in 1485?
- 10) What consequences did the War of Roses have?

3. Complete the sentences:

1. Henry VI as a person was
2. Eton College not far from London, and King's College in Cambridge were established by
3. Many of the nobles continued to keep their own private armies for ...
5. In 1460 the Duke of York claimed ...
6. Nine years later a new Lancastrian army ...
7. The war between York and Lancaster would probably have stopped if ...
8. Many discontented lords, both Lancastrians and Yorkists, joined Duke of Richmond, ...
9. The Wars of the Roses nearly destroyed the English idea of
10. Almost half the lords of the sixty noble families had died in the wars; that fact made it possible for the Tudors ...

4. Fill in the missing words from the box below:

to build, unsuitable, grew up, claimed, rescued,
symbol, discontented, controlling

1. Henry VI, who had become king as a baby, ... to be simple-minded and book-loving.
2. He hated the warlike nobles, and was an ... king for such a violent society.
3. There were not more than sixty noble families England at this time.

4. In 1460. the Duke of York the throne for himself.

5. Edward IV put Henry into the Tower of London, but nine years later a new Lancastrian army Henry and chased Edward out of the country.

6. Many lords, both Lancastrians and Yorkists, joined Henry Tudor, Duke of Richmond.

7. The novelist Walter Scott named these wars the "Wars of the Roses", because York's was a white rose, and Lancaster's a red one.

8. The fact that by the time of the battle of Bosworth in 1485 the old nobility had nearly destroyed itself, made possible for the Tudors ... a new nation state.

5. Compose a chronological table according to the dates given:

1399	Richard II was deposed and Henry of Lancaster took the throne
1460	
1461	
1471	
1483	
1485	

6. Comment on the consequences of The Wars of the Roses using your own knowledge of history and the information of the text.

UNIT 3

BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

Up to the end of 19th century the British Empire controlled the oceans and much of the land areas of the world. The overseas colonies brought great profits to the country. Its economy flourished.

But finally the colonies began to demand their freedom, and in the 20th century Great Britain had to change its traditional policy, formally by organizing British Commonwealth of Nations, „a free association of sovereign states” comprising Great Britain and a number of its former dependencies. The „weal” or „good” signed that the body was founded on law for the common (mutual) profit for its all members.

The process of British Commonwealth formation began in 1931. In 1946 the word „British” was dropped; the number of the members grew to 50 countries: their list begins with Canada (1931) and ends with Namibia (1990). Having granted independence in the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s, they were not dependent states any more but the ties that bounded them to Commonwealth still existed: for old dominions sentimental reasons were the strongest ones together with trade, investment and currency agreement; for the new members – population migrations, common educational, professional and judicial spheres.

Nevertheless by 1985 Britain had few of its old colonial possessions left, and those it still had were being claimed by other countries: Hong Kong by China, Falklands/Malvinas by Argentina, and Gibraltar by Spain. In 1982 Britain went to war to take back the Falklands after an Argentinian invasion. In spite of the great distance involved, British forces were able to carry out a rapid recapture of the islands. The operation was very popular in Britain, perhaps because it suggested that Britain was still a world power. The war itself had cost 900 million pounds but total cost of defending the island since 1982 had risen to 3 billion.

As long as Europe did not interfere with Britain’s trade, and as long as the balance of power in Europe was not seriously disturbed, Britain could neglect European affairs. Indeed, in 1957 Britain refused to join the six other European countries in the creation of the European Common Market. Britain was unwilling to surrender any sovereignty or control over its own affairs, and said it still felt responsibility towards its empire.

It quickly became clear that Britain's attitude, particularly in view of the rapid loss of empire, was mistaken. As its financial and economic difficulties increased, Britain could not afford to stay out of Europe. But it was too late: when Britain tried to join the European Community in 1963 and again in 1967, the French President General de Gaulle refused to allow it. Britain only became a member in 1973, after de Gaulle's retirement.

After becoming a member in 1973, Britain's attitude towards the European Community continued to be unenthusiastic. Although trade with Europe greatly increased, most British continued to feel that they had not had any economic benefit from Europe. This feeling was strengthened by the way in which Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher argued for a better financial deal for Britain in the Community's affairs. The way in which she fought won her some admiration in Britain, but also anger in many parts of Europe. She welcomed closer cooperation in the European Community but only if this did not mean any lessening of sovereignty. Many European countries saw this as a contradiction. Unless member states were willing to surrender some control over their own affairs, they argued, there could be little chance of achieving greater European unity. It is not surprising therefore that Britain's European partners wondered whether Britain was still unable "to take part seriously in any Pan-European system."

Vocabulary notes:

an overseas colony – заокеанська колонія;

to flourish – процвітати;

currency – валюта;

to surrender – поступатися; *тут* відмовлятися;

willing – охочий, схильний(до чогось);

sovereignty – суверенітет

Practical tasks:

1. Look at the table containing the list of the British Commonwealth members and tell everything you know about the history of their membership:

Date	Country
1931	Canada, Australia, New Zealand
1947	India, Pakistan
1948	Sri Lanka (formerly Ceylon)
1957	Ghana, Malaysia (formerly Malaya)
1960	Nigeria
1961	Cyprus, Sierra Leone, Tanzania
1962	Jamaica, Uganda, Trinidad & Tobago,
1963	Kenya
1964	Malawi, Malta, Zambia
1965	The Gambia, Singapore
1966	Guyana, Botswana, Lesotho, Barbados
1968	Mauritius, Nauru, Swaziland
1970	Tonga, Western Samoa
1972	Bangladesh
1973	The Bahamas
1974	Grenada
1975	Papua New Guinea
1976	Seychelles
1978	Solomon Islands, Tuvalu, Dominica
1979	Kiribati, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent & Grenadines
1980	Vanuatu, Zimbabwe
1981	Belize, Antigua & Barbuda
1982	Maldives
1983	Saint Kitts & Nevis
1984	Brunei
1990	Namibia

2. Read the text and answer the questions:

- 1) What profit did the overseas colonies bring to the British Empire?
- 2) When did the process of formation of the British Commonwealth begin?
- 3) Why did the former colonies keep to the old ties with Great Britain?
- 4) What was the other countries' attitude towards British former dependents?
- 5) Why did Great Britain refuse to join the European Common Market in 1957?
- 6) What were the reasons for other European countries not to allow Great Britain's membership later on?
- 7) When did the country become the member of the union?
- 8) What was the British attitude towards the European Community after becoming the member of it?
- 9) What role did the former Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher play in the British-European connections?
- 10) What do you think about the achieving greater European unity nowadays?

3. Read the statements and decide whether they are *true* or *false*:

1. Up to the end of 19th century the British Empire became rich and developed one.
2. British Commonwealth of Nations was the new way to keep the former colonies of the Empire in their dependence to it.
3. The process of British Commonwealth formation began in 1946.
4. The old and new members of the British Commonwealth have different reasons to join the formation.
5. In 1985 Britain went to war to take back the Falklands after the Argentina's invasion.
6. The war operation was not popular in Great Britain.
7. As long as the balance of power in Europe was not

seriously disturbed, Britain could neglect European affairs.

8. After becoming a member in 1973, Britain's attitude towards the European Community was enthusiastic.

4. Fill in the missing words from the box below:

dropped, recapture, particularly, lessening, possessions, unable, profits, unwilling

1. The overseas colonies brought great ... to the British Empire.

2. In 1946 the word „British” was

3. Nevertheless by 1985 Britain had few of its old colonial ... left, and those it still had were being claimed by other countries.

4. In spite of the great distance involved, British forces were able to carry out a rapid ... of the islands.

5. Britain was ... to surrender any sovereignty or control over its own affairs.

6. It quickly became clear that Britain's attitude, ... in view of the rapid loss of empire, was mistaken.

7. Margaret Thatcher welcomed closer cooperation in the European Community but only if this did not mean any ... of sovereignty.

8. Britain's European partners considered Britain to be ... "to take part seriously in any Pan-European system."

5. Points for discussion in microgroups:

1. Historical backgrounds of the British Commonwealth formation.

2. The process of formation of the British Commonwealth of Nations.

3. British Empire and the other countries of the world in their fight for the possessions.

4. Great Britain and the European countries after its membership in the European Community.

6. Sum up the facts about British Commonwealth, using your own knowledge of history and the information of the text.

UNIT 4

GERMANY. GENERAL HISTORICAL SURVEY

Germany lies in the heart of Europe – south of the Scandinavian countries, west of the Slavic ones, north and east of the Roman nations. It is a country that has varied greatly in size during the long existence of the German people. Germany borders on Poland, Czech Republic, Austria, Switzerland, France, Luxembourg, Belgium, the Netherlands and Denmark. It is washed by the North Sea and the Baltic Sea. The navigable rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Weser, Oder-Neisse, Danube and Main.

The official name of the country is the Federal Republic of Germany, its capital is **Berlin**. **Bonn** is the seat of the government. The official language is German; the native population is German(s). The total area of the country is 356,910 square kilometers. The main cities and towns are Cologne, Dresden, Frankfurt, Hamburg, Leipzig, Munich.

Germany can be divided into three principal regions – the northern lowlands, the central highlands, and the southern alpine region. A damp maritime climate prevails along the North Sea and Baltic coast, but farther inland and toward the south it becomes more typically continental.

Historically Germany had covered a long way from a dispersement of territory in its early periods to a united republic nowadays.

In southern Germany the dissolution of the Hohenstaufen duchy of Swabia gave territorial predominance to the Habsburgs, whose original possessions were Alsace, Breisgau, the Voralberg, and Tirol. The margraves of Baden were occupied by the forces of comparatively small nobles and cities of Swabia. Bavaria was

granted to the house of Wittelsbach in 1180.

In central Germany the dynasty of the Wettin, the margraves of Meissen thrust steadily eastward and received the electorate of Saxony in 1423; in the west they obtained Thuringia in 1263. The landgraves of Hesse, however, challenged the claims of the Wettins and the archbishops of Mainz. East and south of Hesse, the Rhine-Main region was a land of great ecclesiastic princes: the mentioned archbishops of Mainz, Trier and Cologne; the bishops of Speyer, Worms, Würzburg, and Bamberg; and the wealthy abbots of Fulda and Lorsch. The area contains four electorates and was therefore of crucial political importance.

In northern Germany the dukes of Brunswick dissipated their strength by frequent divisions of their territory among heirs. Farther east the powerful duchy of Saxons was split by partition between the Wittenberg and Lauenburg branches; the strength of the duchy was in the military and commercial qualities of its predominantly free population. But their expansion into the Slav lands beyond the Elbe diminished the involvement in the internal politics of the Reich.

In eastern Germany the duchy of Mecklenburg was drawn deeply into Scandinavian affairs and in 1363 provided Sweden with a new royal dynasty in the person of Albert of Mecklenburg. The electorate of Brandenburg was dominated by a disorderly and rapacious nobility, and later on it was granted to Frederick, the burgrave of Nürnberg. The kingdom of Bohemia remained the durable territorial core of the Luxembourg dominions, and its silver mines at Kuttenberg, under German supervision, vastly increased crown revenues. The Slav population resented increasingly the economic and cultural influence of the German minority, thus creating disturbing antagonisms to the monarchy.

The principalities of that time were often ragged in outline and territorially dispersed because of inheritance, grant, partition, and conquest. In this crucial struggle the great secular potentates impaired their own strength by persisting in the Germanic custom

of dividing their territory among their sons instead of transmitting it intact to the eldest. By 1378 the Bavarian lands of the Wittensbachs were shared between their three grandsons of Louis IV. In 1379 the wide possessions of the Habsburgs were partitioned by family agreement between Albert III and his younger brother Leopold.

The ecclesiastic princes, vowed to celibacy and elected by their cathedral chapters, could not hand on their lands to their descendants. Still, their policies and aspirations were not much different from those the secular princes, and most of them managed to install their relatives in rich canonries and prebends.

Vocabulary notes:

- dissolution – *тут* роз'єднання;
- duchy – герцогство, князівство;
- elector – курфюрст; an electorate – курфюрство;
- to dissipate – витратити, втрачати, марнувати;
- ecclesiastical – церковний, духовний;
- secular – мирський, світський;
- partition – розділення, поділ;
- internal – внутрішній;
- disorder – *тут* гультяйство, марнотратство;
- rapacious – жадібний, ненаситний;
- durable – тривалий;
- potentate – володар, повелитель;
- canonries, prebends – церковні причти (*причет* – територія, підпорядкована керівнику певної адміністративно-церковної одиниці);
- dispersement – роздроблення;
- to vow – давати обітницю;
- to hand on – передавати;
- descendant – нащадок; *тут* наступник.

Practical tasks:

1. Read the following statements and decide whether they are *true* or *false*:

1. German Republic is a country that has the constant size during the long existence of the German people.
2. The seat of the republican government is Berlin.
3. The margraves of Baden were occupied by the forces of comparatively small nobles and cities of Swabia.
4. The strength of the Brunswick duchy was in the military and commercial qualities of its predominantly free population.
5. The Bohemian Slav population resented the economic and cultural influence of the German minority, and created disturbing antagonisms to the monarchy.
6. Sweden received a new royal dynasty in the person of Albert of Mecklenburg, the German elector.
7. By 1378 the Bavarian lands were shared between their three grandsons of Albert III.
8. The ecclesiastic princes, vowed to celibacy and elected by their cathedral chapters, handed on their lands to their descendants.
9. Most of the ecclesiastic princes managed to install their relatives in rich canonries and prebends, thus preserving large landowner's status for the church.

2. Fill in the missing words from the box below:

potentates, dispersement, official, vowed, partitioned, borders on, install, principal, dissolution
--

1. Germany Poland, Czech Republic, Austria, Switzerland, France, Luxembourg, Belgium, The Netherlands and Denmark.
2. The _____ name of the country is The Federal Republic of Germany, its capital is Berlin.

3. Germany can be divided into three _____ regions – the northern lowlands, the central highlands, and the southern alpine region.

4. Historically Germany had covered a long way from a _____ of territory in its early periods to a united republic nowadays.

5. In southern Germany the _____ of the Hohenstaufen duchy of Swabia gave territorial predominance to the Habsburgs.

6. In 1379 the wide possessions of the Habsburgs were _____ by family agreement between Albert III and his younger brother Leopold.

7. The great secular _____ impaired their own strength by persisting in the Germanic custom of dividing their territory among their sons instead of transmitting it intact to the eldest.

8. The ecclesiastic princes, _____ to celibacy and elected by their cathedral chapters, could not hand on their lands to their descendants.

9. The policies and aspirations of ecclesiastic princes were not much different from those of the secular princes, and most of them managed to _____ their relatives in rich canonries and prebends.

3. Compose a chronological table according to the facts and dates given:

1180	Bavaria was granted to the Wittelsbachs
1263	
1363	
1379	
1423	

4. Put four types of questions to the given sentences.

Model: The official name of the country is the Federal Republic of Germany.

1. *Is the official name of the country the Federal Republic of Germany?*

2. *Is the official name of the country the Federal Republic of Germany or Republic of Germany?*

3. *The official name of the country is the Federal Republic of Germany, isn't it?*

4. *What is the official name of the country?*

5. *What is the Federal Republic of Germany?*

1. Germany borders on Poland, Czech Republic, Austria, Switzerland, France, Luxembourg, Belgium, The Netherlands and Denmark.

2. It is washed by the North Sea and the Baltic Sea.

3. Historically Germany had covered a long way from a dispersement of territory in its early periods to a united republic nowadays.

4. Bavaria was granted to the house of Wittelsbach in 1180.

5. Sum up the information about Germany and its history.

UNIT 5

FRANCE. GENERAL INFORMATION AND HISTORICAL SURVEY

They say that „everyone has two homes – one's own and France”. For centuries France has been a wellspring of inspiration in art, music, and literature; a fountainhead for many of the world great ideas. The language of the country is still a second world-popular one on the planet. In France, taste and elegance are in the air, and simply being there is an exhilarating experience. It is a dynamic country where much of Europe's intellectual and artistic pace are set. French people create valuable new traditions to add to the glorious old ones.

French Republic, the largest country in the Western Europe, has an area of approximately 546,490 square kilometres. It borders on Spain in the south, Italy and Switzerland in the east, and Germany, Luxembourg, and Belgium in the northeast. But about

half of France's total border is formed by coastline, with the Mediterranean on the southeast and the Atlantic and the English Channel (La Manche, or „the sleeve”, to the French) on the west and northwest.

The capital of France is Paris, one of the most beautiful and specific European cities with an ancient history. „The holiday which is always with you”, as famous American writer Ernest Hemingway used to name it, Paris has been attracting people magnetically since its very foundation, from the time it was called Lutecia.

In ancient times the history of the country was rather dramatic. By 51 B.C., Roman legions under Julius Caesar had conquered much of the land called Gaul – an area that included all of present day France as well as Belgium and Switzerland. Though Greek and Phoenician traders had settled on the Mediterranean coast centuries ago, Caesar's victory marked the beginning of more than five centuries of outside rule. Under the Romans, cities (including Lyons, Nimes, and Arles) were built, and a communication network – roads, bridges, and aqueducts – was set to serve them. Some of the bridges, such as the Pont du Gard in Lanquedoc, are still used today. In many parts of France modern highways lie above the ancient Roman roads. Roman civilization came with conquest, and in culture and language Gaul gradually became a Latin country.

In the third century A.D., Gaul experienced the first invasions across its eastern boundaries by wandering Germanic tribes. Over the next two centuries more and more of these invaders – notably Franks, Burgundians, and Visigoths – swept into Gaul. Rome no longer had the strength to push them back. Towards the end of the 5th century, the Franks decisively defeated the last remnants of Roman power and gained control of most of Gaul. By 500 A.D. a Frankish kingdom under King Clovis had accepted Christianity. The kings who followed Clovis had to fight off new invaders. In 732 the Franks defeated a Muslim army that had crossed the Pyrenees from Spain. By 800, when Charlemagne (Charles the Great) was crowned Holy Roman Emperor by the Pope, the Franks in-

cluded to their territory parts of present-day Austria, Germany, Italy and Croatia. Under Charlemagne the Holy Roman Empire grew even larger. Charlemagne set up schools, gave France a code of laws, and strengthened the emperor's authority. After his death, however, the central power declined, the kingdom was divided among Charlie's grandsons. The western part became Francia, the nucleus of today's France. In the second half of the 9th century disastrous raids by Vikings nearly destroyed the king's power there.

In 987 Hugh Capet was elected King of France by the nobles. Gradually, with the support of merchants and the growing middle class in the cities he strengthened the monarchy. By the 13th century the king of France had become the most powerful ruler in Europe. French agriculture flourished. Guilds in the towns and cities produced quality goods. Foreign trade increased. French universities attracted scholars from all over Europe. In every way France became a European centre of styles and ideas.

The later Middle Ages were signed with a serious conflict between the king of France, Philip IV, and the Church. In 1305 a Frenchman was elected Pope Clement V. He had the papal palace moved to Avignon, in southern France, and for the next 70 years the popes were almost puppets of the French Crown. Only in 1378 the papacy returned to Rome.

The second conflict was that of English claims to the French throne: since William, the Duke of Normandy, became king of England in 1066, English kings had held sizable lands in France and that's why claimed to be kings there as well. In 1337 Edward III of England invaded France, and the war known as The Hundred Years War began. The English troops won Crecy, Poitiers, and Agincourt, but they were unable to seize the French throne. In 1420's a young farm girl Jeanne d'Arc (Joan of Arc) appeared at the French court with „a God's commander to lead the French armies and to have the Dauphin – the rightful heir to the throne – to be crowned at Rheims". Her leadership turned the situation greatly. Although she was betrayed and burned at the stake later

on, her courage so inspired the French that they were finally able to chase the invaders out. In 1429 the Dauphin was crowned Charles VII, and by 1450 the French had recaptured most of their lands. When the war ended, the French Crown was far more stronger and the land of France more unified than before.

The religious clashing appeared in France in the 16th century, when the Reformation, based on the ideas of Martin Luther, began. Many nobles and even some members of the royal family became Huguenots (Protestants). France was divided into factions, and civil war broke out. In 1572, by royal order, thousands of Huguenots were killed in Paris and other French cities. Stability returned in 1598, when King Henry IV, who had been converted from Protestantism to Catholicism, issued the Edict of Nantes, which allowed the Huguenots some religious freedom.

Under Henry IV France regained its prosperity and began to acquire colonies in the New World. But in 1610 Henry was assassinated. His queen, Marie de Medicis, became regent for their young son, King Louis XIII. There appeared the dissent between the nobility, the conflict between Huguenots and Catholics; the royal power was weakened.

In 1614 Cardinal de Richelieu became Louis XIII's chief minister with nearly absolute control over all aspects in the country life. Step by step he turned France into the strongest state of Europe. Richelieu crushed all kinds of opposition inside France, levied high taxes, encouraged foreign trade and expanded the French Empire in North America, the Caribbean and elsewhere. In foreign policy Richelieu opposed the powerful Habsburg monarchies of Austria and Spain, and as a result France went into the Thirty Years War. Cardinal Richelieu managed to restore royal power and set the stage for the absolute monarchy of Louis XIV.

Louis XIV came to the throne as a child in 1643. For the first 18 years of his 72-year reign Richelieu's policies were continued by new chief minister, Cardinal Mazarini. When at last Louis XIV began to rule for himself, he was the strongest king in Europe. In 1685 he revoked the Edict of Nantes, and the Huguenots were to

suffer great indignities or even to be expelled if they refused to convert. He involved France in costly wars with Spain, the Netherlands and England but actually gained little for the country. He announced himself to be the God's representative on the earth responsible to no one. „L'etat c'est moi” („The state is me”) he used to say, reflecting the centralized power of „le roi soleil” („the sun king”).

In the early 18th century the next French monarch, Louis XV, succeeded a throne. Royal power seemed to be strong but below the surface there appeared troubles. France was defeated by England in the Seven Years War and lost much of its territories in North America. The inner dissatisfaction with social, political and economic conditions together with growth of an able, educated middle class, led to a crisis. Protests, riots and dissent grew into a revolution which swept the old regime. Crown, church and privilege were destroyed.

Vocabulary notes

inspiration – натхнення;
to push back – виганяти;
to flourish – процвітати;
to betray – зраджувати;
to expand – розширяти;
dissatisfaction – незадоволення.

Practical exercises

1. Answer the questions using the material of the text and your own knowledge of history:

1. What do you know about the early period of French history?
2. What can you say about France under the Romans?
3. Where did the English conflict lie in?
4. Why Joan of Arc is a French national heroine?
5. What do you know about the religious strife in France in the 16th century?

6. Can you characterize the policy of Cardinal Richelieu?
7. What were the signs of absolute monarchy under Louis XIV?
8. Why did the French Empire lose its position in the world under Louis XV?

2. Read the following statements and decide whether they are *true* or *false*:

1. France is a dynamic country where much of Europe's intellectual and artistic pace are set.
2. In ancient times the history of France was rather dramatic.
3. Roman civilization came with conquest, and in culture and language Gaul became a European country.
4. Towards the end of the 7th century the Franks defeated the last remnants of Roman power.
5. Under Charles the Great the Holy Roman Empire didn't grow larger.
6. By the 13th century the King of France had become the most powerful ruler in Europe.
7. In 1378 a Frenchman was elected Pope Clement V.
8. Under Henry IV France regained its prosperity and began to acquire colonies in Africa.
9. Cardinal de Richelieu managed to restore royal power and set the stage for the absolute monarchy of Louis XV.
10. England was defeated by France in the Seven Years War and lost much of its territories in North America.

3. Complete the sentences:

1. France borders on . . .
2. The capital of France is . . .
3. Under the Romans cities were built and . . .
4. In the third century A.D. Gaul experienced . . .
5. In 987 Hugh Capet was elected . . .
6. . . . a European centre of styles and ideas.
7. . . . between the king of France Philip IV and the Church.

8. . . . became Huguenots (Protestants).
9. . . . with nearly absolute control over all aspects in the country life.
10. . . . educated middle class, led to a crisis.

4. Fill in the missing words from the box below:

conquered, glorious, conquest, encouraged, accepted, recaptured, crushed, signed, acquire, levied
--

1. French people create valuable new traditions to add to the . . . old ones.
2. By 51 B.C. Roman legions under Julius Caesar had . . . much of the land called Gaul.
3. Roman civilization came with . . . and in culture and language Gaul gradually became a Latin Country.
4. By 500 A.D. a Frankish Kingdom under King Clovis had . . . Christianity.
5. The later Middle Ages were . . . with a serious conflict between The King of France and the Church.
6. By 1450 the French had . . . most of their lands.
7. Under Henry IV France regained its prosperity and began to . . . Colonies in the New World.
8. Richelieu . . . all kinds of opposition inside France, . . . high taxes, . . . foreign trade and expanded the French Empire in North America.

5. Points for discussion

1. The history of ancient times.
2. France in the Middle Ages.
3. The Hundred Years War.
4. Cardinal de Richelieu's policy.
5. France in the 18-th century.

6. Sum up the facts about France and its history.

UNIT 6

EUROPEAN UNION: THE HISTORY OF FOUNDATION

For centuries, Europe was the scene of frequent and bloody wars. In the period 1870-1945 France and Germany fought each other three times, with terrible loss of life. A number of European leaders became convinced that the only way to secure a lasting peace between their countries was to unite them economically and politically. That's why in 1950 the French Foreign Minister Robert Schumann proposed integrating the coal and steel industries of Western Europe. As a result in 1951 the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) was set up with six members: Belgium, West Germany, Luxembourg, France, Italy, and the Netherlands. The power to take decisions about the coal and steel industry in these countries was placed in the hands of an independent international body called „The High Authority”. Jean Monnet was its first President.

The European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) was such a success that within a few years the above mentioned six countries decided to go further and integrate other sectors of their economies. In 1957 they signed the Treaties of Rome, creating the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM) and the European Economic Community (EEC). The member states set about removing trade barriers between them and forming a "common market".

In 1967 the institutions of the three European communities were merged. From this point on, there was a single Commission and a single Council of Ministers as well as the European Parliament.

Originally, the members of the European Parliament were chosen by the national parliaments but in 1979 the first direct elections were held, allowing the citizens of the member states to vote for the candidate of their choice. Since then, direct elections have been held every five years.

The Treaty of Maastricht (1992) introduced new forms of co-

operation between the member state governments – for example on defense, and in the area of "justice and home affairs". By adding this intergovernmental cooperation to the existing "Community" system, the Maastricht Treaty created the European Union (EU).

Economic and political integration between the member states of the European Union means that these countries have to take common decisions on many matters. So they have developed their policies in a very wide range of fields – from agriculture to culture, from consumer affairs to competition, from the environment and energy to transport and trade.

In the early days the focus was on a common commercial policy for coal and steel and a common agricultural policy. Other policies were added as time went by, and as the need arose. Some key policy aims have changed in the light of changing circumstances. For example, the aim of the agricultural policy is no longer to produce as much food as cheaply as possible but to support farming methods that produce healthy, high quality food and protect the environment. The need for environmental protection is now taken into account across the whole range of EU policies. The European Union's relations with the rest of the world have also become important. The EU negotiates major trade and aid agreements with other countries and is developing a Common Foreign and Security Policy.

It took some time for the Member States to remove all the barriers to trade between them and to turn their "common market" into a genuine single market in which goods, services, people and capital could move around freely. The Single Market was formally completed at the end of 1992, though there is still work to be done in some areas – for example, to create a genuinely single market in financial services.

During the 1990s it became increasingly easy for people to move around in Europe, as passport and customs checks were abolished at most of the EU's internal borders. One consequence is greater mobility for EU citizens. Since 1987, for example, more

than a million young Europeans have taken study courses abroad, with support from the EU.

In 1992 the EU decided to go for economic and monetary union (EMU), involving the introduction of a single European currency managed by a European Central Bank. The single currency – the euro – became a reality on 1 January 2002, when euro notes and coins replaced national currencies in twelve of the 15 countries of the European Union (Belgium, Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal and Finland).

The EU has grown in size with successive waves of accessions. Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom joined in 1973 followed by Greece in 1981, Spain and Portugal in 1986 and Austria, Finland and Sweden in 1995. The European Union welcomed ten new countries in 2004: Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia. Bulgaria and Romania expect to follow in 2007; Croatia and Turkey are beginning membership negotiations in 2005. The insurance that the enlarged EU was still efficient needed a more streamlined system for taking decisions. That is why the Treaty of Nice lays down new rules governing the size of the EU institutions and the way they work. It came into force on 1 February 2003. It would be replaced, in 2006, by the new EU Constitution – if all EU countries approve this.

Vocabulary notes:

to convince – переконувати(ся);

to vote – обирати шляхом голосування;

joint – спільний, загальний;

to merge – об'єднувати;

consumer – споживчий, торговий;

circumstances – обставини;

range – ряд;

to negotiate – домовлятися, вести переговори;

to abolish – скасовувати;

consequences – наслідки;
currency – валюта, гроші в обігу;
accession – вступ, приєднання;
efficiently – продуктивно, ефективно.

Practical Exercises:

1. Read the following statements and decide whether they are *true* or *false*:

1. In the period 1870-1945 France and Germany fought each other three times, with terrible loss of life.

2. A number of European leaders decided that the only way to secure a lasting peace between their countries was to unite them financially.

3. In 1951 the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) was set up with six members: Belgium, West Germany, Luxembourg, France, Italy and Great Britain.

4. In 1957 the European Atomic Energy Community (EUR-ATOM) and the European Economic Community (EEC) were created.

5. Since 1967 there has been a single Commission a Single Council of Ministers and the European Parliament.

6. In 1967 the first direct elections to the European Parliament were held.

7. The Treaty of Maastricht (1992) created the European Union (EU).

8. Some key policy aims of EU have changed in the light of changing circumstances.

9. Since 1992 more than a million young Europeans have taken study courses abroad with support from the EU.

2. Read the text and answer the questions using your own knowledge of history and the information given:

1) What was the reason for the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) foundation?

- 2) What countries formed the ECSC in 1951?
- 3) When and why were the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM) and the European Economic Community (EEC) created?
- 4) When was the European Union formed?
What do you know about further merge of the Union?
- 5) What was the importance of the treaty of Maastricht?
- 6) What are the key policy aims?
- 7) What does „Common market” mean?
- 8) What was **euro**, the common currency, created for?
- 9) Which countries joined the EU after 1973?
- 10) What can you tell about your native country attitude towards the EU?

3. Complete the sentences:

1. For centuries, Europe was the scene . . .
2. That’s why in 1950 the French Foreign Minister Robert Schumann proposed . . .
3. The power to take decisions about coal and steel industry in these countries was placed in . . .
4. In 1957 they signed the Treaties of Rome . . .
5. The Treaty of Maastricht introduced new forms of cooperation . . .
6. . . . that these countries have to take common decisions on many matters.
7. . . . but to support farming methods that produce healthy, high quality food and protect the environment.
8. . . . as passport and customs checks were abolished at most the EU’s internal borders.
9. . . . involving the introduction of a Single European currency managed by the European Central Bank.

4. Compose a chronological table according to the facts and dates given.

1950	
	ECSC
1957	
	a single Commission a single Council of Ministers the European Parliament
1979	
	Creation of the EU
	the Single Market
2002	

5. Points for discussion in micro groups:

1. The history of foundation of the EU.
2. New forms of cooperation between the member State Governments.
3. Key policy aims of the EU.

6. Comment on the history of foundation of the EU.

PART II. EUROPE TODAY

Albania Republic of Albania

People:

Population: 3,563,112.

Pop. density: 321 per sq mi, 124 per sq km.

Urban: 23.3%.

Ethnic groups: Albanian 95%, Greek 3%.

Principal languages: Albanian (Tosk is the official dialect), Greek.

Chief religions: Muslim 70%, Albanian Orthodox 20%, Roman Catholic 10%.

Geography:

Total area: 11,100 sq mi, 28,748 sq km;

Land area: 10,578 sq mi, 27,398 sq km.

Location: SE Europe, on SE coast of Adriatic Sea.

Neighbours: Greece on S, Yugoslavia on N, Macedonia on E.

Topography: Apart from a narrow coastal plain, Albania consists of hills and mountains covered with scrub forest, cut by small E-W rivers.

Capital: Tirana, 367,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Alfred Moisiu; b Dec. 1, 1929; in office: July 24, 2002.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Sali Berisha; b Oct. 15, 1944; in office: Sept. 11, 2005. **Local divisions:** 12 counties divided into 36 districts.

Defense budget (2003): \$65 mil.

Active troops: 22,000.

Monetary unit: Lek (ALL) (Sept. 2005: 99.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Ancient Illyria was conquered by Romans, Slavs, and Turks (15th century); the latter Islamized the population. Independent

Albania was proclaimed in 1912, republic was formed in 1920. King Zog I ruled 1925-39, until Italy invaded.

Communist partisans took over in 1944, allied Albania with USSR, then broke with USSR in 1960 over de-Stalinization. Strong political alliance with China followed, leading to several billion dollars in aid, which was curtailed after 1974. China cut off aid in 1978 when Albania attacked its policies after the death of Chinese ruler Mao Zedong. Large-scale purges of officials occurred during the 1970s.

Enver Hoxha, the nation's ruler for 4 decades, died Apr. 11, 1985. Eventually the new regime introduced some liberalization, including measures in 1990 providing for freedom to travel abroad. Efforts were begun to improve ties with the outside world. Mar. 1991 elections left the former Communists in power, but a general strike and urban opposition led to the formation of a coalition cabinet including non-Communists.

Albania's former Communists were routed in elections Mar. 1992, amid economic collapse and social unrest. Sali Berisha was elected as the first non-Communist president since World War II. Berisha's party claimed a landslide victory in disputed parliamentary elections, May 26 and June 2, 1996. Public protests over the collapse of fraudulent investment schemes in Jan. 1997 led to armed rebellion and anarchy. The UN Security Council, Mar. 28, authorized a 7,000-member force to restore order. Socialists and their allies won parliamentary elections, June 29 and July 6, and international peacekeepers completed their pullout by Aug. 11.

During NATO's air war against Yugoslavia, Mar.-June 1999, Albania hosted some 465,000 Kosovar refugees. Victory by a coalition backing Berisha in parliamentary voting, July 3, 2005, ended 8 years of Socialist rule.

Скорочення:

Pop. – population;

S – South;

N – North;

E – East;
W – West;
SE – South-East;
SW – South-West;
NW – North-West;
NE – North-East;
Pres. – President;
Gov. – government;
Prime Min. – Prime Minister;

Andorra **Principality of Andorra**

People:

Population: 70,549.

Pop. density: 390 per sq mi, 151 per sq km.

Urban: 91.7%.

Ethnic groups: Spanish 43%, Andorran 33%, Portuguese 11%, French 7%.

Principal languages: Catalan (official), Castilian Spanish, French.

Chief religion: Predominantly Roman Catholic.

Geography:

Total area: 181 sq mi, 468 sq km;

Land area: 181 sq mi, 468 sq km.

Location: SW Europe, in Pyrenees Mts.

Neighbours: Spain on S, France on N.

Topography: High mountains and narrow valleys cover the country.

Capital: Andorra la Vella, 21,000.

Government:

Type: Parliamentary co-principality.

Heads of state: President of France & Bishop of Urgel (Spain), as co-princes.

Head of gov.: Albert Pintat Santolaria; b June 23, 1943; in office:

May 27, 2005. **Local divisions:** 7 parishes.

Defense budget: Responsibility of France and Spain.

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education: Compulsory: ages 6-16. Literacy: 100%.

Andorra was a co-principality, with joint sovereignty by France and the bishop of Urgel, from 1278 to 1993.

Tourism, especially skiing, is the economic mainstay. A free port, allowing for an active trading center, draws some 13 million tourists annually. Andorran voters chose to end a feudal system that had been in place for 715 years and adopt a parliamentary system of government Mar. 14, 1993.

Austria **Republic of Austria**

People:

Population: 8,184,691.

Pop. density: 253 per sq mi, 98 per sq km.

Urban: 65.8%.

Ethnic groups: German 88%.

Principal languages: German (official), Serbo-Croatian, Slovenian.

Chief religions: Roman Catholic 74%, Protestant 5%.

Geography:

Total area: 32,382 sq mi, 83,870 sq km;

Land area: 31,832 sq mi, 82,444 sq km.

Location: In S Central Europe.

Neighbours: Switzerland, Liechtenstein on W; Germany, Czech Rep. on N; Slovakia, Hungary on E; Slovenia, Italy on S.

Topography: Austria is primarily mountainous, with the Alps and foothills covering the western and southern provinces. The eastern provinces and Vienna are located in the Danube River Basin.

Capital: Vienna, 2,179,000.

Government:

Type: Federal republic.

Head of state: Pres. Heinz Fischer; b Oct. 9, 1938; in office: July 8, 2004.

Head of gov.: Chancellor Wolfgang Schussel; b June 7, 1945; in office: Feb. 4, 2000. **Local divisions:** 9 bundeslaender (states).

Defense budget (2004): \$2.7 bil.

Active troops: 35,000.

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-14.

Literacy: 98%.

Rome conquered Austrian lands from Celtic tribes around 15 BC. In 788 the territory was incorporated into Charlemagne's empire. By 1300, the House of Hapsburg had gained control; they added vast territories in all parts of Europe to their realm in the next few hundred years.

Austrian dominance of Germany was undermined in the 18th century and ended by Prussia by 1866. But the Congress of Vienna, 1815, confirmed Austrian control of a large empire in south-east Europe consisting of Germans, Hungarians, Slavs, Italians, and others. The dual Austro-Hungarian monarchy was established in 1867, giving autonomy to Hungary and almost 50 years of peace.

World War I, started after the June 28, 1914, assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the Hapsburg heir, by a Serbian nationalist, destroyed the empire. By 1918 Austria was reduced to a small republic, with the borders it has today.

Nazi Germany invaded Austria Mar. 13, 1938. The republic was reestablished in 1945, under Allied occupation. Full independence and neutrality were restored in 1955. Austria joined the European Union Jan. 1, 1995.

The rise of the right-wing, anti-immigrant Austrian Freedom Party challenged the dominance of the Austrian Social Democrat-

ic Party in the late 1990s. When Freedom Party members joined the cabinet, Feb. 4, 2000, the EU imposed political sanctions on Austria, Feb. 4-Sept. 12, 2000. Party support plummeted in elections Nov. 24, 2002. Pres. Thomas Klestil died July 6, 2004, 2 days before his term expired; he was succeeded by recently elected Heinz Fischer, a Social Democrat.

Belarus **Republic of Belarus**

People:

Population: 10,300,483.

Pop. density: 129 per sq mi, 50 per sq km.

Urban: 70.9%.

Ethnic groups: Belarusian 81%, Russian 11%.

Principal languages: Belarusian, Russian.

Chief religions: Eastern Orthodox 80%, other 20%.

Geography:

Total area: 80,155 sq mi, 207,600 sq km;

Land area: 80,155 sq mi, 207,600 sq km.

Location: E Europe.

Neighbours: Poland on W; Latvia, Lithuania on N; Russia on E; Ukraine on S.

Topography: Belarus is a landlocked country consisting mostly of hilly lowland with significant marsh areas in S.

Capital: Minsk, 1,705,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Aleksandr Lukashenko; b Aug. 30, 1954; in office: July 20, 1994.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Syarhey Sidorski; b Mar. 13, 1954; in office: Dec. 19, 2003 (acting from July 10, 2003).

Local divisions: 6 oblasts and 1 municipality.

Defense budget (2004): \$156 mil.

Active troops: 72,940.

Monetary unit: Ruble (BYR) (Sept. 2005: 2,136.17 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-16. **Literacy:** 99.6%.

The region was subject to Lithuanians and Poles in medieval times, and was a prize of war between Russia and Poland beginning in 1503. It became part of the USSR in 1922, although the western part of the region was controlled by Poland. Belarus was overrun by German armies in 1941; recovered by Soviet troops in 1944. Following World War II, Belarus increased in area through Soviet annexation of part of NE Poland. Belarus declared independence Aug. 25, 1991. It became an independent state when the Soviet Union disbanded Dec. 26, 1991.

A new constitution was adopted, Mar. 15, 1994, and a new president was chosen in elections concluding July 1. Russia and Belarus signed a pact Apr. 2, 1996, linking their political and economic systems. An authoritarian constitution enacted in Nov. gave Pres. Aleksandr Lukashenko vast new powers. Opponents charged harassment and fraud in the presidential election of Sept. 9, 2001, won by Lukashenko. In elections on Oct. 17, 2004, considered flawed by foreign observers, nearly all winning candidates were Lukashenko supporters, and a constitutional provision limiting the president to 2 terms was repealed.

Belgium
Kingdom of Belgium

People:

Population: 10,364,388.

Pop. density: 879 per sq mi, 340 per sq km.

Urban: 97.2%.

Ethnic groups: Fleming 58%, Walloon 31%.

Principal languages: Dutch, French, German (all official); Flem-

ish, Luxembourgish.

Chief religions: Roman Catholic 75%, Protestant, other 25%.

Geography:

Total area: 11,787 sq mi, 30,528 sq km;

Land area: 11,690 sq mi, 30,278 sq km.

Location: In W Europe, on North Sea.

Neighbours: France on W and S, Luxembourg on SE, Germany on E, Netherlands on N.

Topography: Mostly flat, the country is trisected by the Scheldt and Meuse, major commercial rivers, The land becomes hilly and forested in the SE (Ardennes) region.

Capital: Brussels, 998,000.

Government:

Type: Parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarch.

Head of state: King Albert II; b June 6, 1934; in office: Aug. 9, 1993.

Head of gov.: Premier Guy Verhofstadt; b Apr. 11, 1953; in office: July 12, 1999. **Local divisions:** 10 provinces and Brussels.

Defense budget (2004): \$3.3 bil.

Active troops: 40,800.

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-18. **Literacy:** 98%.

Belgium derives its name from the Belgae, the first recorded inhabitants, probably Celts. The land was conquered by Julius Caesar, and was ruled for 1800 years by conquerors, including Rome, the Franks, Burgundy, Spain, Austria, and France. After 1815, Belgium was made a part of the Netherlands, but it became an independent constitutional monarchy in 1830.

Belgian neutrality was violated by Germany in both world wars. King Leopold III surrendered to Germany, May 28, 1940. After the war, he was forced by political pressure to abdicate in favor of his son, King Baudouin. Baudouin was succeeded by his brother, Albert II, Aug. 9, 1993.

The Flemings of northern Belgium speak Dutch, while French is the language of the Walloons in the south. The language difference has been a perennial source of controversy and led to antagonism between the 2 groups. Parliament has passed measures aimed at transferring power from the central government to 3 regions – Wallonia, Flanders, and Brussels. Constitutional changes in 1993 made Belgium a federal state. Sabena, the national airline, went bankrupt Nov. 6, 2001.

Bosnia and Herzegovina

People:

Population: 4,430,494.

Pop. density: 224 per sq mi, 87 per sq km.

Urban: 44.3%.

Ethnic groups: Bosniak 48%, Serbian 37%, Croatian 14%.

Principal languages: Bosnian (official), Croatian, Serbian.

Chief religions: Muslim 40%, Orthodox 31%, Roman Catholic 15%, other 14%.

Geography:

Total area: 19,741 sq mi, 51,129 sq km;

Land area: 19,741 sq mi, 51,129 sq km.

Location: On Balkan Peninsula in SE Europe.

Neighbours: Yugoslavia on E and SE, Croatia on N and W.

Topography: Hilly with some mountains. About 36% of the land is forested.

Capital: Sarajevo, 579,000.

Government:

Type: Federal republic.

Heads of state: Collective presidency with rotating leadership.

Head of gov.: Chrm. of Council Ministers Adnan Terzic; b 1960; in office: Dec. 23, 2002.

Local divisions: Muslim-Croat Federation, divided into 10 cantons; Serbian-led region (Republika Srpska); internationally su-

pervised Brcko district.

Defense budget (2004): \$148 mil.

Active troops: 24,600 (16,400 Muslim-Croat; 8,200 Serbian).

Finance:

Monetary unit: Converted Marka (BAM) (Sept. 2005: 1.57 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Free, compulsory: ages 7-15.

Literacy: NA%.

Bosnia was ruled by Croatian kings c. AD 958, and by Hungary 1000-1200. It became organized c. 1200 and later took control of Herzegovina. The kingdom disintegrated from 1391, with the southern part becoming the independent duchy Herzegovina. It was conquered by Turks in 1463 and made a Turkish province. The area was placed under control of Austria-Hungary in 1878, and made part of the province of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which was formally annexed to Austria-Hungary 1908; Bosnia became a province of Yugoslavia in 1918. It was reunited with Herzegovina as a federated republic in the 1946 Yugoslavian constitution.

Bosnia and Herzegovina declared sovereignty Oct. 15, 1991. A referendum for independence was passed Feb. 29, 1992. Ethnic Serbs' opposition to the referendum spurred violent clashes and bombings. The U.S. and EU recognized the republic Apr. 7. Fierce three-way fighting continued between Bosnia's Serbs, Muslims, and Croats. Serb forces massacred thousands of Bosnian Muslims and engaged in „ethnic cleansing” (the expulsion of Muslims and other non-Serbs from areas under Bosnian Serb control). The capital, Sarajevo, was surrounded and besieged by Bosnian Serb forces. Muslims and Croats in Bosnia reached a cease fire Feb. 23, 1994, and signed an accord, Mar. 18, to create a Muslim-Croat confederation in Bosnia. However, by mid-1994, Bosnian Serbs controlled over 70% of the country.

As fighting continued in 1995, the balance of power began to shift toward the Muslim-Croat alliance. Massive NATO air strikes

at Bosnian Serb targets beginning Aug. 30 triggered a new round of peace talks, and the siege of Sarajevo was lifted Sept. 15. The new talks produced an agreement in principle to create autonomous regions within Bosnia, with the Serb region (Republika Srpska) constituting 49% of the country. A Croat-Muslim offensive in Sept. recaptured significant territory, leaving Bosnian Serbs in control of approximately half that percentage.

A peace agreement initialed in Dayton, Ohio, Nov. 21, 1995, was signed in Paris, Dec. 14, by leaders of Bosnia, Croatia, and Serbia. Some 60,000 NATO troops (about 20,000 from the U.S.) moved in to police the accord. Meanwhile, a UN tribunal began bringing charges against suspected war criminals. Elections were held Sept. 14, 1995, for a 3-person collective presidency, for seats in a federal parliament, and for regional offices. In Dec. a re-vamped NATO "stabilization force" (SFOR) of over 30,000 members (more than 8,000 from the U.S.) received an 18-month mandate, which was later extended.

In a landmark verdict Aug. 2, 2001, the UN tribunal found Radislav Krstic, a Bosnian Serb general, guilty in connection with the genocide of thousands of Muslims at Srebrenica in 1995. A European Union peacekeeping force (EUFOR), with 7,000 members, assumed responsibility from SFOR, Dec. 2, 2004.

Bulgaria

Republic of Bulgaria

People:

Population: 7,450,349.

Pop. density: 174 per sq mi, 67 per sq km.

Urban: 69.8%.

Ethnic groups: Bulgarian 84%, Turk 10%, Roma 5%.

Principal languages: Bulgarian (official), Turkish.

Chief religions: Bulgarian Orthodox 83%, Muslim 12%.

Geography:

Total area: 42,823 sq mi, 110,910 sq km;

Land area: 42,684 sq mi, 110,550 sq km.

Location: SE Europe, in E Balkan Peninsula on Black Sea.

Neighbours: Romania on N; Yugoslavia, Macedonia on W; Greece, Turkey on S.

Topography: The Stara Planina (Balkan) Mts. stretch E-W across the center of the country, with the Danubian plain on N, the Rhodope Mts. on SVV, and Thracian Plain on SE.

Capital: Sofia, 1,076,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Georgi Parvanov; b June 28, 1957; in office: Jan. 22, 2002. **Head of gov.:** Prime Min. Sergei Stanishev; b May 5, 1966; in office: Aug. 16, 2005. **Local divisions:** 28 provinces.

Defense budget (2003): \$527 mil.

Active troops: 51,000.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Lev (BGN) (Sept. 2005: 1.59 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-14.

Literacy: 98.6%.

Bulgaria was settled by Slavs in the 6th century. Turkic Bulgars arrived in the 7th century, merged with the Slavs, became Christians by the 9th century, and set up powerful empires in the 10th and 12th centuries. The Ottomans prevailed in 1396 and remained for 500 years.

An 1876 revolt led to an independent kingdom in 1908. Bulgaria expanded after the first Balkan War but lost its Aegean coastline in World War I, when it sided with Germany. Bulgaria joined the Axis in World War II but withdrew in 1944. Communists took power with Soviet aid; monarchy was abolished Sept. 8, 1946.

On Nov. 10, 1989, Communist Party leader and head of state

Todor Zhivkov, who had held power for 35 years, resigned. Zhivkov was imprisoned, Jan. 1990, and convicted, Sept. 1992, of corruption and abuse of power. In Jan. 1990, Parliament voted to revoke the constitutionally guaranteed dominant role of the Communist Party. A new constitution took effect July 13, 1991. An economic austerity Program was launched in May 1996. Former Prime Min. Andrei Lukanov, a longtime Communist leader, was assassinated Oct. 2 in Sofia. Petar Stoyanov won a presidential runoff election Nov. 3.

Bulgaria's deteriorating economy provoked nationwide strikes and demonstrations in Jan. 1997. The Union of Democratic Forces, an anti-Communist group, won national elections on Apr. 19, 1997. The UDF lost the elections of June 17, 2001, to a party headed by the former king, Simeon II. Socialist opposition leader Georgi Parvanov won a presidential runoff vote Nov. 18.

Bulgaria became a full member of NATO, Apr. 2, 2004, and was expected to enter the European Union by 2007. Following parliamentary elections, June 25, 2005, Socialist leader Sergei Stanishev formed a broad coalition government.

Croatia **Republic of Croatia**

People:

Population: 4,495,904.

Pop. density: 206 per sq mi, 80 per sq km.

Urban: 59.0%.

Ethnic groups: Croat 78%, Serb 12%, Bosniak 1%.

Principal languages: Croatian (official), Serbian.

Chief religions: Roman Catholic 88%, Orthodox 5%.

Geography:

Total area: 21,831 sq mi, 56,542 sq km;

Land area: 21,782 sq mi, 56,414 sq km.

Location: SE Europe, on the Balkan Peninsula.

Neighbours: Slovenia, Hungary on N; Bosnia and Herzegovina, Yugoslavia on E.

Topography: Flat plains in NE; highlands, low mtns. along Adriatic coast.

Capital: Zagreb, 688,000.

Government:

Type: Parliamentary democracy.

Head of state: Pres. Stipe Mesic; b Dec. 24, 1934; in office: Feb. 18, 2000.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Ivo Sanader; b June 8, 1953; in office: Dec. 23, 2003. **Local divisions:** 20 counties and Zagreb.

Defense budget (2004): \$599 mil.

Active troops: 20,800.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Kuna (HRK) (Sept. 2005: 5.94 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-15.

Literacy: 98.5%.

From the 7th century the area was inhabited by Croats, a south Slavic people. It was formed into a kingdom under Tomislav in 924, and joined with Hungary in 1102. The Croats became westernized and separated from Slavs under Austro-Hungarian influence. The Croats retained autonomy under the Hungarian crown. Slavonia was taken by Turks in the 16th century; the northern part was restored by the Treaty of Karlowitz in 1699. Croatia helped Austria put down the Hungarian revolution 1848-49 and as a result was set up with Slavonia as the separate Austrian crownland of Croatia and Slavonia, which was reunited to Hungary as part of Ausgleich in 1867. It united with other Yugoslav areas to proclaim the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes in 1918. At the reorganization of Yugoslavia in 1929, Croatia and Slavonia became Savska county, which in 1939 was united with Primorje county to form the county of Croatia. A nominally independent state between 1941 and 1945, it became a constituent

republic in the 1946 constitution.

On June 25, 1991, Croatia declared independence from Yugoslavia. Fighting began between ethnic Serbs and Croats, with the former gaining control of about 30% of Croatian territory. A cease-fire was declared in Jan. 1992, but new hostilities broke out in 1993. A cease-fire with Serb rebels forming a self-declared republic of Krajina was agreed to Mar. 30, 1994. Croatian government troops recaptured most of the Serb-held territory Aug. 1995. Pres. Franjo Tudjman signed a peace accord with leaders of Bosnia and Serbia in Paris, Dec. 14. Tudjman won reelection June 15, 1997; international monitors called the vote "free but not fair." The last Serb-held enclave, E Slavonia, returned to Croatian control Jan. 15, 1998.

Tudjman died Dec. 10, 1999. Stipe Mesic, a moderate, won a presidential runoff election Feb. 7, 2000, and was reelected Jan. 16, 2005. EU membership talks, scheduled to start Mar. 17, 2000, were postponed because of Croatia's failure to hand over a suspected war criminal, Gen. Ante Gotovina.

Cyprus **Republic of Cyprus**

People:

Population: 780,133.

Pop. density: 218 per sq mi, 84 per sq km.

Urban: 69.2%.

Ethnic groups: Greek 85%, Turkish 12%.

Principal languages: Greek, Turkish (both official), English.

Chief religions: Greek Orthodox 78%, Muslim 18%.

Geography:

Total area: 3,571 sq mi, 9,250 sq km;

Land area: 3,568 sq mi, 9,240 sq km.

Location: In eastern Mediterranean Sea, off Turkish coast.

Neighbours: Nearest are Turkey on N, Syria and Lebanon on E.

Topography: Two mountain ranges run E-W, separated by a wide, fertile plain.

Capital: Nicosia, 205,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state and gov.: Pres. Tassos Papadopoulos; b Jan. 7, 1934; in office: Feb. 28, 2003.

Local divisions: 6 districts.

Defense budget (2004): \$148 mil.

Active troops: 10,000.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Pound (CYP) (Sept. 2005: 0.46 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-14.

Literacy: 97.6%.

The Ottoman Empire held Cyprus, 1571-1878, until it yielded control over the island to Britain. Agitation for enosis (union) with Greece increased after World War II, with the Turkish minority opposed, and broke into violence in 1955-56. In 1959, Britain, Greece, Turkey, and Cypriot leaders approved a plan for an independent republic, with constitutional guarantees for the Turkish minority and permanent division of offices on an ethnic basis. Greek and Turkish Communal Chambers dealt with religion, education, and other matters.

Archbishop Makarios III, formerly the leader of the enosis movement, was elected president, and full independence became final Aug. 16, 1960. Further communal strife led the United Nations to send a peacekeeping force in 1964; its mandate has been repeatedly renewed.

The Cypriot National Guard, led by officers from the army of Greece, seized the government July 15, 1974. On July 20, Turkey invaded the island; Greece mobilized its forces but did not intervene. A cease-fire was arranged but collapsed. By Aug. 16, Turkish forces had occupied the NE 40% of the island, despite the

presence of UN peacekeeping forces.

Face-to-face talks between the Greek and Turkish Cypriot leaders resumed Dec. 4, 2001, for the 1st time in 4 years. Turkish Cyprus opened its border with Greek Cyprus Apr. 23, 2003, for the 1st time since partition. In separate referendums Apr. 24, 2004, 65% of Turkish Cypriot voters accepted a UN-sponsored reunification plan, but 76% of Greek Cypriots rejected it. Still divided, Cyprus became a full member of the EU on May 1.

Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus

A declaration of independence was announced by Turkish-Cypriot leader Rauf Denktash, Nov. 15, 1983. The state is not internationally recognized, although it does have trade relations with some countries. Area of TRNC: 1,295 sq mi.; pop. (2001 est.): 208,886, 99% Turkish. Capital: Lefkosa (Nicosia).

Czech Republic

People:

Population: 10,241,138.

Pop. density: 336 per sq mi, 130 per sq km.

Urban: 74.3%.

Ethnic groups: Czech 81%, Moravian 13%, Slovak 3%.

Principal languages: Czech (official), German, Polish, Romani.

Chief religions: Roman Catholic 27%, Unaffiliated 59%, Protestant 5%, Orthodox 3%.

Geography:

Total area: 30,450 sq mi, 78,866 sq km;

Land area: 29,836 sq mi, 77,276 sq km.

Location: In E central Europe.

Neighbours: Poland on N, Germany on N and W, Austria on S, Slovakia on E and SE.

Topography: Bohemia, in W, is a plateau surrounded by mountains; Moravia is hilly.

Capital: Prague, 1,170,000.

Government:

Type: Republic. Head of state: Vaclav Klaus; b June 19, 1941; in office: Mar. 7, 2003.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Jiri Paroubek; b Aug. 21, 1952; in office: Apr. 25, 2005. **Local divisions:** 13 regions and Prague.

Defense budget (2004): \$1.9 bil.

Active troops: 45,000.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Koruna (CZK) (Sept. 2005: 23.46 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-15.

Literacy: 99.9%

Bohemia and Moravia were part of the Great Moravian Empire in the 9th century and later became part of the Holy Roman Empire. Under the kings of Bohemia, Prague in the 14th century was the cultural center of Central Europe. Bohemia and Hungary became part of Austria-Hungary.

In 1914-18 Thomas G. Masaryk and Eduard Benes formed a provisional government with the support of Slovak leaders including Milan Stefanik. They proclaimed the Republic of Czechoslovakia Oct. 28, 1918.

Czechoslovakia

By 1938 Nazi Germany had worked up disaffection among German-speaking citizens in Sudetenland and demanded its cession. British Prime Min. Neville Chamberlain, with the acquiescence of France, signed with Hitler at Munich, Sept. 30, 1938, an agreement to the cession, with a guarantee of peace by Hitler and Mussolini. Germany occupied Sudetenland Oct. 1-2.

Hitler on Mar. 15, 1939, dissolved Czechoslovakia, made protectorates of Bohemia and Moravia, and supported the autonomy of Slovakia, proclaimed independent Mar. 14, 1939.

Soviet troops with some Czechoslovak contingents entered eastern Czechoslovakia in 1944 and reached Prague in May 1945-

Benes returned as president. In May 1946 elections, the Communist Party won 38% of the votes, and Benes accepted Klement Gottwald, a Communist, as prime minister.

In Feb. 1948, the Communists seized power in advance of scheduled elections. In May 1948 a new constitution was approved. Benes refused to sign it. On May 30 the voters were offered a one-slate ballot and the Communists won full control. Benes resigned June 7 and Gottwald became president. The country was renamed the Czechoslovak Socialist Republic. A harsh Stalinist period followed, with complete and violent suppression of all opposition.

In Jan. 1968 a liberalization movement spread through Czechoslovakia. Antonin Novotny, long the Stalinist ruler, was deposed as party leader and succeeded by Alexander Dubcek, a Slovak, who supported democratic reforms. On Mar. 22 Novotny resigned as president and was succeeded by Gen. Ludvik Svoboda. On Apr. 6, Prern. Joseph Lenart resigned and was succeeded by Oldrich Cernik, a reformer.

In July 1968 the USSR and 4 Warsaw Pact nations demanded an end to liberalization. On Aug. 20, the Soviet, Polish, East German, Hungarian, and Bulgarian armies invaded Czechoslovakia. Despite demonstrations and riots by students and workers, press censorship was imposed, liberal leaders were ousted from office and promises of loyalty to Soviet policies were made by some old-line Communist Party leaders.

On Apr. 17, 1969, Dubcek resigned as leader of the Communist Party and was succeeded by Gustav Husak. In Jan. 1970, Cernik was ousted. Censorship was tightened, and the Communist Party expelled a third of its members. In 1973, amnesty was offered to some of the 40,000 who fled the country after the 1968 invasion, but repressive policies continued.

More than 700 leading Czechoslovak intellectuals and former party leaders signed a human rights manifesto in 1977, called Charter 77, prompting a renewed crackdown by the regime.

The police crushed the largest antigovernment protests since 1968, when tens of thousands of demonstrators took to the streets of Prague, Nov. 17, 1989. As protesters demanded free elections, the Communist Party leadership resigned Nov. 24; millions went on strike Nov. 27.

On Dec. 10, 1989, the first cabinet in 41 years without a Communist majority took power; Vaclav Havel, playwright and human rights campaigner, was chosen president, Dec. 29. In Mar. 1990 the country was officially renamed the Czech and Slovak Federal Republic. Havel failed to win reelection July 3, 1992; his bid was blocked by a Slovak-led coalition.

Slovakia declared sovereignty, July 17. Czech and Slovak leaders agreed, July 23, on a basic plan for a peaceful division of Czechoslovakia into 2 independent states.

Czech Republic

Czechoslovakia split into 2 separate states – the Czech Republic and Slovakia – on Jan. 1, 1993. Havel was elected president of the Czech Republic on Jan. 26. Record floods in July 1997 caused more than \$1.7 billion in damage. The country became a full member of NATO on Mar. 12, 1999. Floods Aug. 2002 damaged cultural treasures in Prague.

Vaclav Klaus was chosen Feb. 28, 2003, to replace the retiring Havel. After Czech voters June 13-14, 2003, endorsed joining the EU, the nation became a full EU member May 1, 2004. When his Social Democratic Party fared poorly in EU elections June 11-12, Prime Min. Vladimir Spidla resigned; his successor, 34-year-old Stanislav Gross, was Europe's youngest head of government. A scandal surrounding his 1999 purchase of a luxury apartment in Prague forced Gross to resign Apr. 25, 2005. The Czech Republic in June 2005 was one of several EU members to postpone a referendum on approval of the EU constitution.

Denmark
Kingdom of Denmark

People:

Population: 5,432,335.

Pop. density: 326 per sq mi, 126 per sq km.

Urban: 85.3%.

Ethnic groups: Mainly Danish; German minority in S.

Principal languages: Danish (official), Faroese, Greenlandic (an Inuit dialect), German.

Chief religions: Evangelical Lutheran 95% (official), other Christian 3%, Muslim 2%.

Geography:

Total area: 16,639 sq mi, 43,094 sq km;

Land area: 16,368 sq mi, 42,394 sq km.

Location: In N Europe, separating the North and Baltic seas.

Neighbours: Germany on S, Norway on NW, Sweden on NE.

Topography: Denmark consists of the Jutland Peninsula and about 500 islands, 100 inhabited. The land is flat or gently rolling and is almost all in productive use.

Capital: Copenhagen, 1,066,000.

Government:

Type: Constitutional monarchy.

Head of state: Queen Margrethe II; b Apr. 16,1940; in office: Jan. 14,1972.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Anders Fogh Rasmussen; b Jan. 26, 1953; in office: Nov. 27, 2001. Local divisions: 14 counties, 2 kommunes.

Defense budget (2004): \$2.9 bil.

Active troops: 21,180.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Krone (DKK) (Sept. 2005: 5.97 = \$1 U.S.)

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-16.

Literacy: 100%.

The origin of Copenhagen dates back to ancient times, when the fishing and trading place named Havn (port) grew up on a cluster of islets, but Bishop Absalon (1128-1201) is regarded as the actual founder of the city.

Danes formed a large component of the Viking raiders in the early Middle Ages. The Danish kingdom was a major power until the 17th century, when it lost its land in southern Sweden. Norway was separated in 1815, and Schleswig-Holstein in 1864. Northern Schleswig was returned in 1920.

Voters ratified the Maastricht Treaty, the basic document of the European Union, in May 1993, after rejecting it in 1992. On Sept. 28, 2000, Danes voted not to join the euro currency zone.

The Faroe Islands in the North Atlantic, about 300 mi. NW of the Shetlands, and 850 mi. from Denmark proper, 18 inhabited, have an area of 540 sq. mi. and pop. (2004 est.) of 46,662. They are an administrative division of Denmark, self-governing in most matters. Torshavn is the capital. Fish is a primary export (571,255 metric tons in 2002).

Estonia **Republic of Estonia**

People:

Population: 1,332,893.

Pop. density: 76 per sq mi, 29 per sq km.

Urban: 69.4%.

Ethnic groups: Estonian 65%, Russian 28%.

Principal languages: Estonian (official), Russian, Ukrainian, Finnish.

Chief religions: Unaffiliated 34%, others 32%, Evangelical Lutheran 14%, Russian Orthodox 13%.

Geography:

Total area: 17,462 sq mi, 45,226 sq km;

Land area: 16,684 sq mi, 43,211 sq km.

Location: E Europe, bordering the Baltic Sea and Gulf of Finland.

Neighbours: Russia on E, Latvia on S.

Topography: Estonia is a marshy lowland with numerous lakes and swamps; about 40% forested. Elongated hills show evidence of former glaciation. More than 800 islands on Baltic coast.

Capital: Tallinn, 391,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Arnold Ruutei; b May 10, 1928; in office: Oct. 8, 2001

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Andrus Ansip; b Oct. 1, 1956; in office: Apr. 13, 2005. **Local divisions:** 15 counties. Defense budget (2004): \$203 mil.

Active troops: 4,980.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Kroon (EEK) (Sept. 2005:12.52 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-15.

Literacy: 99.8%.

Estonia was a province of imperial Russia before World War I, and was independent between World Wars I and II. It was conquered by the USSR in 1940 and incorporated as the Estonian SSR. Estonia declared itself an "occupied territory," and proclaimed itself a free nation Mar. 1990. During an abortive Soviet coup, Estonia declared immediate full independence, Aug. 20, 1991; the Soviet Union recognized its independence in Sept. 1991. The first free elections in over 50 years were held Sept. 20, 1992. The last occupying Russian troops were withdrawn by Aug. 31, 1994. Estonia became a full member of the EU and NATO in 2004.

Finland

Republic of Finland

People:

Population: 5,223,442.

Pop. density: 40 per sq mi, 15 per sq km.

Urban: 60.9%.

Ethnic groups: Finnish 93%, Swedish 6%.

Principal languages: Finnish, Swedish (both official); Russian, Sami.

Chief religion: Lutheran National Church 85%.

Geography:

Total area: 130,559 sq mi, 338,145 sq km;

Land area: 117,558 sq mi, -304,473 sq km.

Location: In northern Europe.

Neighbours: Norway on N, Sweden on W, Russia on E.

Topography: South and central Finland are generally flat areas with low hills and many lakes. The N has mountainous areas, 3,000-4,000 ft. above sea level.

Capital: Helsinki, 1,075,000.

Government:

Type: Constitutional republic.

Head of state: Pres. Tarja Halonen; b Dec. 24, 1943; in office: Mar. 1, 2000.

Head of gov.: Prim Min. Matti Vanhanen, b Nov. 4, 1955; in office: June 24, 2003.

Local divisions: 6 laanit (provinces).

Defense budget (2004): \$2.6 bil.

Active troops: 27,000.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-16.

Literacy: 100%

The early Finns probably migrated from the Ural area at about the beginning of the Christian era. Swedish settlers brought the country into Sweden, 1154 to 1809, when Finland became an autonomous grand duchy of the Russian Empire. Russian exactions created a strong national spirit; on Dec. 6, 1917, Finland declared its independence and in 1919 became a republic.

On Nov. 30, 1939, the Soviet Union invaded, and the Finns were forced to cede 16, 173 sq. mi. of territory. After World War II, further cessions were exacted. In 1948, Finland signed a treaty of mutual assistance with the USSR; Finland and Russia nullified this treaty with a new pact in Jan. 1992.

Following approval by Finnish voters in an advisory referendum Oct. 16, 1994, Finland joined the European Union effective Jan. 1, 1995.

Aland or Ahvenanmaa, constituting an autonomous province, is a group of small islands, 590 sq. mi., in the Gulf of Bothnia, 25 mi. from Sweden, 15 mi. from Finland. Mariehamn is the chief port.

France **French Republic**

People:

Population: 60,656,178.

Pop. density: 287 per sq mi, 111 per sq km.

Urban: 76.3%.

Ethnic groups: French, with Slavic, N African, Indochinese, Basque minorities.

Principal languages: French (official) Italian, Breton, Alsatian (German), Corsican, Gascon, Portuguese Provençal, Dutch, Flemish, Catalan, Basque, Romani.

Chief religions: Roman Catholic 83%-88%, Muslim 5%-10%.

Geography:

Total area: 211,209 sq mi, 547,030 sq km;

Land area: 210,669 sq mi, 545,630 sq km.

Location: In western Europe between Atlantic O. and Mediterranean Sea.

Neighbours: Spain on S; Italy, Switzerland, Germany on E; Luxembourg, Belgium on N.

Topography: A wide plain covers more than half of the country, in N and W, drained to W by Seine, Loire, Garonne rivers. The Massif Central is a mountainous plateau in center. In E are Alps (Mt. Blanc is tallest in W Europe, 15,771 ft.), the lower Jura range, and the forested Vosges. The Rhone flows from Lake Geneva to Mediterranean. Pyrenees are in SW, on border with Spain.

Capital: Paris 9,794,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Jacques Chirac; b Nov. 29,1932; in office: May 17,1995.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Dominique de Viliépin; b Nov. 14, 1953; in office: May 31,2005.

Local divisions: 22 administrative regions containing 96 departments.

Defense budget (2004): \$40 bil.

Active troops: 259,050.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-16.

Literacy: 99%.

Celtic Gaul was conquered by Julius Caesar 58-51 BC; Romans ruled for 500 years. Under Charlemagne, Frankish rule extended over much of Europe. After his death France emerged as one of the successor kingdoms.

The monarchy was overthrown by the French Revolution (1789-93) and succeeded by the First Republic; followed by the First Empire under Napoleon (1804-15), a monarchy (1814-48),

the Second Republic (1848-52), the Second Empire (1852-70), the Third Republic (1871-1946), the Fourth Republic (1946-58), and the Fifth Republic (1958 to present).

France suffered severe losses in manpower and wealth in the First World War, when it was invaded by Germany. By the Treaty of Versailles, France exacted return of Alsace and Lorraine, provinces seized by Germany in 1871. Germany invaded France again in May 1940, and signed an armistice with a government based in Vichy. After France was liberated by the Allies in Sept. 1944. Gen. Charles de Gaulle became head of the provisional government, serving until 1946.

De Gaulle again became premier in 1958, during a crisis over Algeria, and obtained voter approval for a new constitution, ushering in the Fifth Republic. He became president Jan. 1959. Using strong executive powers, he promoted French economic and technological advances in the context of the European Economic Community and guarded French foreign policy independence.

France had withdrawn from Indochina in 1954, and from Morocco and Tunisia in 1956. Most of its remaining African territories, including Algeria, were freed 1958-62. In 1966, France withdrew all its troops from the integrated military command of NATO, though 60,000 remained stationed in Germany.

In May 1968 rebellious students in Paris and other centers rioted, battled police, and were joined by workers who launched nationwide strikes. The government awarded pay increases to the strikers May 26. De Gaulle resigned from office in Apr. 1969, after losing a nationwide referendum on constitutional reform. Georges Pompidou, who was elected to succeed him, continued De Gaulle's emphasis on French independence from the U.S. and Soviet Union. After Pompidou's death, in 1974, Valéry Giscard d'Estaing was elected president; he continued the basically conservative policies of his predecessors.

On May 10, 1981, France elected François Mitterrand, a Socialist, president. Under Mitterrand the government nationalized 5 major industries and most private banks. After 1986, however,

when rightists won a narrow victory in the National Assembly, Mitterrand chose conservative Jacques Chirac as premier. A 2-year period of "cohabitation" ensued, and France began to pursue a privatization program in which many state-owned companies were sold. After Mitterrand was elected to a 2nd 7-year term in 1988, he appointed a Socialist as premier. The center-right won a large majority in 1993 legislative elections, ushering in "another period of "cohabitation" with a conservative premier.

In 1993, France set tighter rules for entry into the country and made it easier for the government to expel foreigners. In 1994, France sent troops to Rwanda in an effort to help protect civilians there from ongoing massacres. The international terrorist known as Carlos the Jackal (Lich Ramirez Sanchez) was arrested in Sudan in Aug. 1994 and extradited to France, where he had been sentenced in absentia to life imprisonment.

Former conservative Prime Min. Jacques Chirac won the presidency in a runoff May 7, 1995. A series of terrorist bombings and bombing attempts began in summer 1995; Islamic extremists, opposed to France's support of the Algerian government and its struggle with Islamic fundamentalists, were believed responsible. In Sept. 1995, France stirred widespread protests by resuming nuclear tests in the South Pacific, after a 3-year moratorium; the tests ended Jan. 1996.

Chirac cut government spending to help the French economy meet the budgetary goals set for the introduction of a common European currency. With unemployment at nearly 13%, legislative elections completed June 1, 1997, produced a decisive victory for the leftist parties. The result was a new period of "cohabitation," this time between a conservative president and a Socialist prime minister, Lionel Jospin. France contributed 7,000 troops to the NATO-led security force (KFOR) that entered Kosovo in June 1999.

French voters, disaffected by government scandals, shocked the political establishment in the 1st round of presidential voting Apr. 21, 2002, by giving far-right leader Jean-Marie Le Pen, lead-

er of the far-right National Front, a 2nd place finish with 16.9% of the vote; Chirac won only 19.9%, and Jospin was 3rd, with 16.2%. Chirac easily won the May 5 runoff, with 82%, and his center-right allies won parliamentary elections June 9 and 16.

In Mar, 2003, Parliament approved constitutional amendments strengthening regional governments. Parliament gave final approval Mar. 3, 2004, to a law barring the wearing of Islamic head scarves and other religious symbols in public schools. Despite threats from Islamic extremists who abducted 2 French journalists in Iraq, it went into effect Sept. 20.

Displeased with sluggish economic growth, high unemployment, and budget cuts in entitlement programs, voters boosted left-wing parties in elections for regional offices, Mar. 21 and 28, 2004, and for the European Parliament, June 13. Voters again snowed their discontent in a referendum May 29, 2005, by rejecting a proposed EU constitution strongly supported by the Chirac government. Prime Min. Jean-Pierre Raffarin resigned May 31 and was replaced by Dominique de Villepin.

The island of Corsica, in the Mediterranean W of Italy and N of Sardinia, is a territorial collectivity and region of France comprising 2 departments. It elects a total of 2 senators and 3 deputies to the French Parliament. Area: 3,369 sq. mi.; pop. (2001 census): 260,149. The capital is Ajaccio, birthplace of Napoleon I. Violence by Corsican separatist groups has hurt tourism, a leading industry on the island. Corsicans rejected, 51-49%, a limited autonomy plan in a referendum July 6, 2003.

Germany **Federal Republic of Germany**

People:

Population: 82,431,390.

Pop. density: 598 per sq mi, 231 per sq km.

Urban: 88.1%.

Ethnic groups: German 92%, Turkish 2%.

Principal languages: German (official), Turkish, Italian, Greek, English, Danish, Dutch, Slavic languages.

Chief religions: Protestant 34%, Roman Catholic 34%, Muslim 4%.

Geography:

Total area: 137,847 sq mi, 357,021 sq km;

Land area: 134,836 sq mi, 349,223 sq km.

Location: In central Europe.

Neighbours: Denmark on N; Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, France on W; Switzerland, Austria on S; Czech Rep., Poland on E.

Topography: Germany is flat in N, hilly in center and W, and mountainous in Bavaria in the S. Chief rivers are Elbe, Weser, Ems, Rhine, and Main, all flowing toward North Sea, and Danube, flowing toward Black Sea.

Capital: Berlin, 3,327,000.

Government:

Type: Federal republic. Head of state: Pres. Horst Kohler; b Feb. 22, 1943; in office: July 1, 2004.

Head of gov.: Chan. Gerhard Schroder; b Apr. 7, 1944; in office: Oct. 27, 1998.

Local divisions: 16 laender (states).

Defense budget (2004): \$29.7 bil.

Active troops: 284,500.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-18.

Literacy: 99%.

Germany is a central European nation originally composed of numerous states, with a common language and traditions that were united in one country in 1871; Germany was split into 2 countries from the end of World War II until 1990, when it was reunified.

History and government. Germanic tribes were defeated by

Julius Caesar, 55 and 53 BC, but Roman expansion N of the Rhine was stopped in AD 9. Charlemagne, ruler of the Franks, consolidated Saxon, Bavarian, Rhenish, Frankish, and other lands; after him the eastern part became the German Empire. The Thirty Years' War, 1618-1648, split Germany into small principalities and kingdoms. After Napoleon, Austria contended with Prussia for dominance, but lost the Seven Weeks' War to Prussia, 1866. Otto von Bismarck, Prussian chancellor, formed the North German Confederation, 1867.

In 1870 Bismarck maneuvered Napoleon III into declaring war. After the quick defeat of France, Bismarck formed the German Empire and on Jan. 18, 1871, in Versailles, proclaimed King Wilhelm I of Prussia German emperor (Deutscher kaiser).

The German Empire reached its peak before World War I in 1914, with 208,780 sq. mi., plus a colonial empire. After that war Germany ceded Alsace-Lorraine to France; West Prussia and Posen (Poznan) province to Poland; part of Schleswig to Denmark; lost all colonies and ports of Memel and Danzig.

Republic of Germany, 1919-1933, adopted the Weimar constitution; met reparation payments and elected Friedrich Ebert and Gen. Paul von Hindenburg presidents.

Third Reich, 1933-1945, Adolf Hitler led the National Socialist German Workers' (Nazi) party after World War I. In 1923 he attempted to unseat the Bavarian government and was imprisoned. Pres. von Hindenburg named Hitler chancellor Jan. 30, 1933; on Aug. 3, 1934, the day after Hindenburg's death, the cabinet joined the offices of president and chancellor and made Hitler fuhrer (leader). Hitler abolished freedom of speech and assembly, and began a long series of persecutions climaxed by the murder of millions of Jews and others.

He repudiated the Versailles treaty and reparations agreements, remilitarized the Rhineland (1936), and annexed Austria (Anschluss, 1938). At Munich he made an agreement with Neville Chamberlain, British prime minister, which permitted Germany to annex part of Czechoslovakia. He signed a nonaggression treaty

with the USSR, 1939 and declared war on Poland Sept. 1, 1939, precipitating World War II. With total defeat near, Hitler committed suicide in Berlin Apr. 1945. The victorious Allies voided all acts and annexations of Hitler's Reich.

Division of Germany. Germany was sectioned into 4 zones of occupation, administered by the Allied Powers (U.S., USSR, U.K., and France). The USSR took control of many E German states. The territory E of the so-called Oder-Neisse line was assigned to, and later annexed by, Poland. Northern East Prussia (now Kaliningrad) was annexed by the USSR. Greater Berlin, within but not part of the Soviet zone, was administered by the 4 occupying powers under the Allied Command. In 1948 the USSR withdrew, established its single command in East Berlin, and cut off supplies. The Western Allies utilized a gigantic airlift to bring food to West Berlin, 1948-49.

In 1949, 2 separate German states were established; in May the zones administered by the Western Allies became West Germany; in Oct. the Soviet sector became East Germany. West Berlin was considered an enclave of West Germany, although its status was disputed by the Soviet bloc.

East Germany. The German Democratic Republic (East Germany) was proclaimed in the Soviet sector of Berlin Oct. 7, 1949. It was declared fully sovereign in 1954, but Soviet troops remained on grounds of security and the 4-power Potsdam agreement.

Coincident with the entrance of West Germany into the European defense community in 1952, the East German government decreed a prohibited zone 3 miles deep along its 600-mile border with West Germany and cut Berlin's telephone system in two. Berlin was further divided by erection of a fortified wall in 1961, after over 3 million East Germans had fled to the West.

East Germany suffered severe economic problems at least until the mid-1960s. Then a "new economic system" was introduced, easing central planning controls and allowing factories to make profits provided they were reinvested in operations or redistribut-

ed to workers as bonuses. By the early 1970s, the economy of East Germany was highly industrialized, and the nation was credited with the highest standard of living among Warsaw Pact countries. But growth slowed in the late 1970s, because of shortages of natural resources and labor, and a huge debt to lenders in the West. Comparison with the lifestyle in the West caused many young people to emigrate.

The government firmly resisted following the USSR's policy of *glasnost*, but by Oct. 1989, was faced with nationwide demonstrations demanding reform. Pres. Erich Honecker, in office since 1976, was forced to resign, Oct. 18. On Nov. 4, the border with Czechoslovakia was opened and permission granted for refugees to travel to the West. On Nov. 9, the East German government announced its decision to open the border with the West, signaling the end of the "Berlin Wall," which was the supreme emblem of the cold war. On Aug. 23, 1990, the East German parliament agreed to formal unification with West Germany; this occurred Oct. 3.

West Germany. The Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) was proclaimed May 23, 1949, in Bonn, after a constitution had been drawn up by a consultative assembly formed by representatives of the 11 laender (states) in the French, British, and American zones. Later reorganized into 9 units, the laender numbered 10 with the addition of the Saar, 1957. Berlin also was granted land (state) status, but the 1945 occupation agreements placed restrictions on it.

The occupying powers, the U.S., Britain, and France, restored civil status, Sept. 21, 1949. The Western Allies ended the state of war with Germany in 1951 (the U.S. resumed diplomatic relations July 2), while the USSR did so in 1955. The powers lifted controls and the republic became fully independent May 5, 1955.

Dr. Konrad Adenauer, Christian Democrat, was made chancellor Sept. 15, 1949, reelected 1953, 1957, 1961. Willy Brandt, heading a coalition of Social Democrats and Free Democrats, became chancellor Oct. 21, 1969. Brandt resigned May 1974 be-

cause of a spy scandal.

In 1970 Brandt signed friendship treaties with the USSR and Poland. In 1971, the U.S., Britain, France, and the USSR signed an agreement on Western access to West Berlin. In 1972 East and West Germany signed their first formal treaty, implementing the agreement easing access to West Berlin. In 1973 a West Germany-Czechoslovakia pact normalized relations and nullified the 1938 "Munich Agreement."

West Germany experienced strong economic growth from the 1950s through the 1980s. The country led Europe in provisions for worker participation in the management of industry.

In 1989 the changes in the East German government and opening of the Berlin Wall sparked talk of reunification of the 2 Germanys. In 1990, under Chancellor Helmut Kohl's leadership, West Germany moved rapidly to reunite with East Germany.

A New Era. As Communism was being rejected in East Germany, talks began concerning German reunification. At a meeting in Ottawa, Feb. 1990, the foreign ministers of the World War II "Big Four" Allied nations and of East Germany and West Germany reached agreement on a format for high-level talks on German reunification.

In May 1990, NATO ministers adopted a package of proposals on reunification, including the inclusion of the united Germany as a full member of NATO and the barring of the new Germany from having its own nuclear, chemical, or biological weapons. In July, the USSR agreed to conditions that would allow Germany to become a member of NATO.

The 2 nations agreed to monetary unification under the West German mark beginning in July. The merger of the 2 Germanys took place Oct. 3, and the first all-German elections since 1932 were held Dec. 2. Eastern Germany received over \$1 trillion in public and private funds from western Germany between 1990 and 1995. In 1991, Berlin again became the capital of Germany; the legislature, most administrative offices, and most foreign embassies had shifted from Bonn to Berlin by late 1999.

Germany's highest court ruled, July 12, 1994, that German troops could participate in international military missions abroad, when approved by Parliament. Ceremonies were held marking the final withdrawal of Russian troops from Germany, Aug. 31. Ceremonies were held the following week marking the final withdrawal of American, British, and French troops from Berlin. General elections Oct. 16 left Chancellor Helmut Kohl's governing coalition with a slim parliamentary majority. On Oct. 31, 1996, after more than 14 years in office, Kohl surpassed Adenauer as Germany's longest-serving chancellor in the 20th century.

Unemployment hit a postwar high of 12.6% in Jan. 1998. The Kohl era ended with the defeat of the Christian Democrats in parliamentary elections Sept. 27; Gerhard Schroder, of the Social Democratic Party, became chancellor. Germany contributed 8,500 troops to the NATO-led security force (KFOR) that entered Kosovo in June 1999. Kohl resigned as honorary party chairman Jan. 18, 2000, amid allegations of illegal fund-raising. Kohl reached an agreement with prosecutors Feb. 8, 2001, in which he acknowledged committing a "breach of trust" and agreed to pay a fine, but did not plead guilty to any criminal charges.

Despite a stagnant economy, Schroder's coalition of Social Democrats and Greens retained a slim majority in the elections of Sept. 22, 2002; the chancellor was apparently aided by his government's response to devastating summer floods and by his criticism of U.S. policy toward Iraq. In early 2003, Germany worked with France and Russia to block the UN Security Council from endorsing the U.S.-led invasion of Iraq. However, polls showed Schroder's support sharply falling. Schroder's coalition did poorly in elections for the European Parliament, June 13. When his party lost its stronghold of North Rhine-Westphalia in regional voting, May 22, 2005, Schroder called for early elections for Sept. 18. The Christian Democrats, led by Angela Merkel, won a razor-thin plurality; the process of determining who would lead Germany's next governing coalition was expected to take some time.

As of mid-2005, about 2,000 German troops were serving in

Afghanistan as part of a NATO peacekeeping force.

Helgoland, an island of 130 acres in the North Sea, was taken from Denmark by a British Naval Force in 1807 and later ceded to Germany to become part of Schleswig-Holstein province in return for rights in East Africa. The heavily fortified island was surrendered to UK, May 23, 1945, demilitarized in 1947, and returned to West Germany, Mar. 1, 1952. It is a free port.

Greece **Hellenic Republic**

People:

Population: 10,668,354.

Pop. density: 209 per sq mi, 81 per sq km.

Urban: 60.8%.

Ethnic groups: Greek 98%.

Principal languages: Greek (official), English, French.

Chief religions: Greek Orthodox 98% (official), Muslim 1%.

Geography:

Total area: 50,942 sq mi, 131,940 sq km;

Land area: 50,502 sq mi, 130,800 sq km.

Location: Occupies southern end of Balkan Peninsula in SE Europe.

Neighbours: Albania, Macedonia, Bulgaria on N; Turkey on *E*.

Topography: About three-quarters of Greece is nonarable, with mountains in all areas. Pindus Mts. run through the country N to S. The heavily indented coastline is 9,385 mi. long. Of over 2,000 islands, only 169 are inhabited, among them Crete, Rhodes, Milos, Kerkira (Corfu), Chios, Lesbos, Samos, Euboea, Delos, Mykonos.

Capital: Athens, 3,215,000 (1999 city proper: 748,110).

Government:

Type: Parliamentary republic.

Head of state: Pres. Karolos Pappulias; b June 4, 1929; in office:

Mar. 10, 2005.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Konstantinos (Costas) Karamanlis; b Sept. 14, 1956; in office: Mar. 10, 2004.

Local divisions: 13 regions comprising 51 prefectures.

Defense budget (2004): \$3.7 bil.

Active troops: 170,800.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-14.

Literacy: 97.5%.

The achievements of ancient Greece in art, architecture, science, mathematics, philosophy, drama, literature, and democracy became legacies for succeeding ages. Greece reached the height of its glory and power, particularly in the Athenian city-state, in the 5th century BC. Greece fell under Roman rule in the 2d and 1st centuries BC. In the 4th century AD it became part of the Byzantine Empire and, after the fall of Constantinople to the Turks in 1453, part of the Ottoman Empire.

Greece won its war of independence from Turkey 1821-1829, and became a kingdom. A republic was established 1924; the monarchy was restored, 1935, and George II, King of the Hellenes, resumed the throne. In Oct. 1940, Greece rejected an ultimatum from Italy. Nazi support resulted in its defeat and occupation by Germans, Italians, and Bulgarians. By the end of 1944 the invaders withdrew. Communist resistance forces were defeated by Royalist and British troops. A plebiscite again restored the monarchy.

Communists waged guerrilla war 1947-49 against the government but were defeated with the aid of the U.S. A period of reconstruction and rapid development followed, mainly with conservative governments under Premier Constantine Karamanlis. The Center Union, led by George Papandreou, won elections in 1963 and 1964, but King Constantine, who acceded in 1964,

forced Papandreou to resign. A period of political maneuvers ended in the military takeover of April 21, 1967, by Col. George Papadopoulos. King Constantine tried to reverse the consolidation of the harsh dictatorship Dec. 13, 1967, but failed and fled to Italy. Papadopoulos was ousted Nov. 25, 1973.

Greek army officers serving in the National Guard of Cyprus staged a coup on the island July 15, 1974. Turkey invaded Cyprus a week later, precipitating the collapse of the Greek junta, which was implicated in the Cyprus coup. Democratic government returned (and in 1975 the monarchy was abolished).

The 1981 electoral victory of the Panhellenic Socialist Movement (Pasok) of Andreas Papandreou brought substantial changes in Greece's internal and external policies. A scandal centered on George Kostokas, a banker and publisher, led to the arrest or investigation of leading Socialists, implicated Papandreou, and contributed to the defeat of the Socialists at the polls in 1989. However, Papandreou, who was narrowly acquitted Jan. 1992 of corruption charges, led the Socialists to a comeback victory in general elections Oct. 10, 1993.

Tensions between Greece and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia eased when the 2 countries agreed to normalize relations Sept. 13, 1995. The ailing Papandreou was replaced as prime minister by Costas Simitis, Jan. 18, 1996. Simitis led the Socialists victory in the election of Sept. 22.

An earthquake that shook Athens Sept. 7, 1999, killed at least 143 people and left over 60,000 homeless. The Socialists retained Power by a narrow margin in the elections of Apr. 9, 2000. Police in 2002 cracked down on the November 17 terrorist movement, Banned for 23 killings since the mid-1970s.

The conservative New Democracy Party won parliamentary elections, Mar. 7, 2004, and Konstantinos (Costas) Karamanlis became prime minister. Athens hosted the Olympic Summer Games, Aug. 13-29. A Cypriot jetliner crashed near Athens, Aug. 14, 2005, killing all 121 people on board.

Hungary

Republic of Hungary

People:

Population: 10,006,835.

Pop. density: 279 per sq mi, 108 per sq km.

Urban: 65.1%.

Ethnic groups: Hungarian 90%, Roma 4%, German 3%, Serb 2%.

Principal languages: Hungarian (official), Romani, German. Slavic languages, Romanian.

Chief religions: Roman Catholic 52%, Calvinist 16%.

Geography:

Total area: 35,919 sq mi, 93,030 sq km;

Land area: 35,653 sq mi, 92,340 sq km.

Location: In E central Europe.

Neighbours: Slovakia, Ukraine on N; Austria on W; Slovenia, Yugoslavia, Croatia on S; Romania on E.

Topography: The Danube R. forms the Slovak border in the NW, then swings S to bisect the country. The eastern half of Hungary is mainly a great fertile plain, the Alfoid; the W and N are hilly.

Capital: Budapest, 1,708,000.

Government:

Type: Parliamentary democracy.

Head of state: Pres. Laszlo Solyom; b Jan. 3, 1942; in office: Aug. 5, 2005.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Ferenc Gyurcsany; b June 4, 1961; in office: Sept. 29, 2004.

Local divisions: 19 counties, 20 urban counties, 1 capital.

Defense budget (2002): \$1.08 bil.

Active troops: 33,400.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Forint (HUF) (Sept. 2005: 194.57 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-16.

Literacy: 99.4%.

Earliest settlers, chiefly Slav and Germanic, were overrun by Magyars from the E. Stephen I (997-1038) was made king by Pope Sylvester II in AD 1000. The country suffered repeated Turkish invasions in the 15th-17th centuries. After the defeats of the Turks, 1686-1697, Austria dominated, but Hungary obtained concessions until it regained internal independence in 1867, with the emperor of Austria as king of Hungary in a dual monarchy with a single diplomatic service. Defeated with the Central Powers in 1918, Hungary lost Transylvania to Romania, Croatia and Bacska to Yugoslavia, Slovakia and Carpatho-Ruthenia to Czechoslovakia, all of which had large Hungarian minorities. A republic under Michael Karolyi and a bolshevist revolt under Bela Kun were followed by a vote for a monarchy in 1920 with Admiral Nicholas Horthy as regent.

Hungary joined Germany in World War II, and was allowed to annex most of its lost territories. Russian troops captured the country, 1944-1945. By terms of an armistice with the Allied powers Hungary agreed to give up territory acquired by the 1938 dismemberment of Czechoslovakia and to return to its borders of 1937.

A republic was declared Feb. 1, 1946; Zoltan Tildy was elected president. In 1947 the Communists forced Tildy out. Premier Imre Nagy, who had been in office since mid-1953, was ousted for his moderate policy of favoring agriculture and consumer production, April 18, 1955.

In 1956, popular demands to oust Erno Gero, Communist Party secretary, and for formation of a government by Nagy, resulted in the latter's appointment Oct. 23; demonstrations against Communist rule developed into open revolt. On Nov. 4 Soviet forces launched a massive attack against Budapest with 200,000 troops, 2,500 tanks and armored cars.

About 200,000 persons fled the country. Thousands were arrested and executed, including Nagy in June 1958. In spring 1963 the regime freed many, captives from the 1956 revolt.

Hungarian troops participated in the 1968 Warsaw Pact inva-

sion of Czechoslovakia. Major economic reforms were launched early in 1968, switching from a central planning system to one based on market forces and profit.

In 1989 Parliament legalized freedom of assembly and association as Hungary shifted away from Communism. In Oct. the Communist Party was formally dissolved. The last Soviet troops left Hungary June 19, 1991. Hungary became a full member of NATO Mar. 12, 1999, and of the European Union May 1, 2004.

Iceland **Republic of Iceland**

People:

Population: 296,737.

Pop. density: 7 per sq mi, 3 per sq km.

Urban: 92.8%.

Ethnic groups: Icelandic 94%.

Principal languages: Icelandic (official)

Chief religion: Evangelical Lutheran 86% (official).

Geography:

Total area: 39,709 sq mi, 103,000 sq km;

Land area: 38,707 sq mi, 100,250 sq km.

Location: Isl. at N end of Atlantic O. Neighbors: Nearest is Greenland (Den.), to W.

Topography: Recent volcanic origin. Three-quarters of the surface is wasteland: glaciers, lakes, a lava desert. There are geysers and hot springs, and the climate is moderated by the Gulf Stream.

Capital: Reykjavik, 184,000.

Government:

Type: Constitutional republic.

Head of state: Pres. Olafur Ragnar Grfmsson; b May 14, ,1943; in office: Aug. 1, 1996.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Halldor Asgrimsson; b Sept. 8, 1947; in office: Sept. 15, 2004.

Local divisions: 23 counties, 14 independent towns.

Defense budget: Icelandic Defense Force provided by the U.S.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Krona (ISK) (Sept. 2005: 61.38 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-16.

Literacy: 99.9%.

Iceland was an independent republic from 930 to 1262, when it joined with Norway. Its language has maintained its purity for 1,000 years. Danish rule lasted from 1380-1918; the last ties with the Danish crown were severed in 1941. The Althing, or assembly, is the world's oldest surviving parliament.

Ireland

People:

Population: 4,015,676.

Pop. density: 148 per sq mi, 57 per sq km.

Urban: 59.9%.

Ethnic groups: Celtic; English minority.

Principal languages: English, Irish Gaelic (both official); Irish Gaelic spoken by small number in western areas.

Chief religions: Roman Catholic 88%, Anglican 3%.

Geography:

Total area: 27,135 sq mi, 70,280 sq km;

Land area: 26,599 sq mi, 68,890 sq km.

Location: In the Atlantic O. just W of Great Britain.

Neighbours: United Kingdom (Northern Ireland) on E.

Topography: Ireland consists of a central plateau surrounded by isolated groups of hills and mountains. The coastline is heavily indented by the Atlantic O.

Capital: Dublin, 1,015,000.

Government:

Type: Parliamentary republic.

Head of state: Pres. Mary McAleese; b June 27, 1951; in office: Nov. 11, 1997.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Bertie Ahern; b Sept. 12, 1951; in office: June 26, 1997. **Local divisions:** 26 counties.

Defense budget (2004): \$859 mil.

Active troops: 10,460.

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-15.

Literacy: 98%.

Celtic tribes invaded the islands about the 4th century BC; their Gaelic culture and literature flourished and spread to Scotland and elsewhere in the 5th century AD, the same century in which St Patrick converted the Irish to Christianity. Invasions by Norsemen began in the 8th century, ended with defeat of the Danes by the Irish King Brian Boru in 1014. English invasions started in the 12th century; for over 700 years the Anglo-Irish struggle continued with bitter rebellions and savage repressions.

The Easter Monday Rebellion in 1916 failed but was followed by guerrilla warfare and harsh reprisals by British troops called the "Black and Tans" The Dail Eireann (Irish parliament) reaffirmed independence in Jan. 1919. The British offered dominion status to Ulster (6 counties) and southern Ireland (26 counties) Dec. 1921. The constitution of the Irish Free State, a British dominion, was adopted Dec. 11, 1922. Northern Ireland remained part of the United Kingdom.

A new constitution adopted by plebiscite came into operation Dec. 29, 1937. It declared the name of the state Eire in the Irish language (Ireland in the English) and declared it a sovereign democratic state. On Dec. 21, 1948, an Irish law declared the country a republic rather than a dominion and withdrew it from the Commonwealth. The British Parliament recognized both actions, 1949, but reasserted its claim to incorporate the 6 northeastern counties

in the U.K.

Irish governments have favored peaceful unification of all Ireland and cooperated with Britain against terrorist group. After negotiators in Northern Ireland approved a peace settlement on Good Friday, April 10, 1998, voters in the Irish Republic endorsed the accord, on May 22; the agreement required the removal from the Irish constitution of territorial claims on the north. Irish voters rejected, June 7, 2001, then reversed themselves and approved, Oct. 19, 2002, a plan calling for EU expansion.

Ireland's first woman president, Mary Robinson, resigned Sept. 12, 1997, to become UN high commissioner for human rights. She was succeeded by Mary McAleese, a law professor from Northern Ireland and the first northerner to hold the office. Expansion of educational opportunities and foreign investment in high-tech industries have helped make Ireland one of Europe's most prosperous countries in recent years.

Italy **Italian Republic**

People:

Population: 58,103,033.

Pop. density: 500 per sq mi, 193 per sq km.

Urban: 91.6%.

Ethnic groups: Mostly Italian; small minorities of German, Slovene, Albanian.

Principal languages: Italian (official), German, French, Slovenian, Albanian.

Chief religion: Predominately Roman Catholic.

Geography: Total area: 116,306 sq mi, 301,230 sq km;

Land area: 113,522 sq mi, 294,020 sq km.

Location: In S Europe, jutting into Mediterranean Sea.

Neighbours: France on W, Switzerland and Austria on N, Slovenia on E.

Topography: Occupies a long boot-shaped peninsula, extending SE from the Alps into the Mediterranean, with the islands of Sicily and Sardinia offshore. The alluvial Po Valley drains most of N. The rest of the country is rugged and mountainous, except for intermittent coastal plains, like the Campania, S of Rome. Apennine Mts. run down through center of peninsula.

Capital: Rome, 2,665,000

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Carlo Azeglio Ciampi; b Dec. 9, 1920; in office: May 18, 1999.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Silvio Berlusconi; b Sept. 29, 1936; in office: June 11, 2001.

Local divisions: 20 regions divided into 103 provinces.

Defense budget (2004): \$17.5 bil

Active troops: 194,000.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-14.

Literacy: 98.6%.

Rome emerged as the major power in Italy after 500 BC, dominating the Etruscans to the N and Greeks to the S. Under the Empire, which lasted until the 5th century AD, Rome ruled most of Western Europe, the Balkans, the Middle East, and N Africa.

After the Germanic invasions, lasting several centuries, a high civilization arose in the city-states of the N, culminating in the Renaissance. But German, French, Spanish, and Austrian intervention prevented the unification of the country. In 1859 Lombardy came under the crown of King Victor Emmanuel II of Sardinia. By plebiscite in 1860, Parma, Modena, Romagna, and Tuscany joined, followed by Sicily and Naples, and by the Marches and Umbria. The first Italian Parliament declared Victor Emmanuel king of Italy Mar. 17, 1861. Mantua and Venetia were added

in 1866 as an outcome of the Austro-Prussian war. The Papal States were taken by Italian troops Sept. 20, 1870, on the withdrawal of the French garrison. The states were annexed to the kingdom by plebiscite. Italy recognized Vatican City as independent Feb. 11, 1929.

Fascism appeared in Italy Mar. 23, 1919, led by Benito Mussolini, who took over the government at the invitation of the king Oct. 28, 1922. Mussolini acquired dictatorial powers. He made war on Ethiopia and proclaimed Victor Emmanuel III emperor, defied the sanctions of the League of Nations, sent troops to fight for Franco against the Republic of Spain, and joined Germany in World War II.

After Fascism was overthrown in 1943, Italy declared war on Germany and Japan and contributed to the Allied victory. It surrendered conquered lands and lost its colonies. Mussolini was killed by partisans Apr. 28, 1945. Victor Emmanuel III abdicated May 9, 1946; his son Humbert II was king until June 10, when Italy became a republic after a referendum, June 2-3.

Since World War II, Italy has enjoyed growth in industrial output and living standards, in part a result of membership in the European Community (now European Union). Political stability has not kept pace with economic prosperity, and organized crime and corruption have been persistent problems.

Christian Democratic leader and former Prime Min. Aldo Moro was abducted and murdered in 1978 by Red Brigade terrorists. The wave of left-wing political violence, including other kidnappings and assassinations, continued into the 1980s.

In the early 1990s, scandals implicated some of Italy's most prominent politicians. In Mar. 1994 voting, under reformed election rules, right-wing parties won a majority, dislodging Italy's long-powerful Christian Democratic Party. After a series of short-lived governments, a coalition of center-left parties won the election of Apr. 21, 1996. Italy led a 7,000-member international peacekeeping force in Albania, Apr.-Aug. 1997, and contributed

2,000 troops to the NATO-led security force (KFOR) that entered Kosovo in June 1999.

Supporters of Silvio Berlusconi, a multibillionaire media magnate, won the parliamentary elections of May 13, 2001. In 2003, Berlusconi backed the U.S.-led war in Iraq, and Italian troops served in the coalition. On trial for bribing judges in the 1980s, he was helped when Parliament passed a bill in June immunizing top government leaders from prosecution while they held office. Over 4,100 elderly Italians died because of a severe summer heat wave.

Corruption charges against Berlusconi were dismissed Dec. 10, 2004. Public opposition to his Iraq policy intensified after U.S. troops at a Baghdad checkpoint fired on a car carrying a freed hostage, Mar. 4, 2005, wounding her and killing the Italian agent who was protecting her. Berlusconi weathered a cabinet crisis after his conservative coalition lost regional elections, Apr. 3-4. Turin has been chosen to host the Winter Olympics in 2006.

Sicily, 8,926 sq. mi., pop. (2001 est.) 4,866,200 is an island 180 by 120 mi., seat of a region that embraces the island of PanteHeria, 32 sq. mi., and the Lipari group, 44 sq. mi., including 2 active volcanoes: Vulcano, 1,637 ft., and Stromboli, 3,038 ft. From prehistoric times Sicily has been settled by various peoples; a Greek state had its capital at Syracuse. Rome took Sicily from Carthage 215 BC. Mt. Etna, an 11,053-ft. active volcano, is its tallest peak.

Sardinia, 9,301 sq. mi., pop. (2001 est.) 1,599,500, lies in the Mediterranean, 115 mi. W of Italy and 7¹/₂ mi. S of Corsica. It is 160 mi. long, 68 mi. wide, and mountainous, with mining of coal, zinc, lead, copper. In 1720 Sardinia was added to the possessions of the Dukes of Savoy in Piedmont and Savoy to form the Kingdom of Sardinia. Giuseppe Garibaldi is buried on the nearby isle of Caprera. Elba, 86 sq. mi., lies 6 mi. W of Tuscany. Napoleon I lived in exile on Elba 1814-1815.

Latvia Republic of Latvia

People:

Population: 2,290,237.

Pop. density: 92 per sq mi, 35 per sq km.

Urban: 66.2%.

Ethnic groups: Latvian 58%, Russian 30%, Belarusian 4%, Ukrainian 3%, Polish 2%, Lithuanian 1%.

Principal languages: Latvian (official), Russian, Belarusian, Ukrainian, Polish.

Chief religions: Lutheran, Roman Catholic, Russian Orthodox.

Geography:

Total area: 24,938 sq mi, 64,589 sq km;

Land area: 24,552 sq mi, 63,589 sq km.

Location: E Europe, on the Baltic Sea.

Neighbours: Estonia on N, Lithuania and Belarus on S, Russia on E.

Topography: Latvia is a lowland with numerous lakes, marshes and peat bogs. Principal river, W. Dvina (Daugava), rises in Russia. There are glacial hills in E.

Capital: Riga, 733,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Vaira Vike-Freiberga; b Dec. 1, 1937; in office: July 8, 1999.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Aigars Kalvitis; b June 27, 1966; in office: Dec. 2, 2004.

Local divisions: 26. counties, 7 municipalities.

Defense budget (2004): \$226 mil.

Active troops: 4,880.

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-15.

Literacy: 99.8%.

Prior to 1918, Latvia was occupied by the Russians and Germans. It was an independent republic, 1918-39. The Aug. 1939 Soviet-German agreement assigned Latvia to the Soviet sphere of influence. It was officially accepted as part of the USSR on Aug. 5, 1940. It was overrun by the German army in 1941, but retaken in 1945.

During an abortive Soviet coup, Latvia declared independence, Aug. 21, 1991. The Soviet Union recognized Latvia's independence in Sept. 1991. The last Russian troops in Latvia withdrew by Aug. 31, 1994. Responding to international pressure, Latvian voters on Oct. 3, 1993, eased citizenship laws that had discriminated against some 500,000 ethnic Russians. On June 17, 1999, the legislature elected Vaira Vike-Freiberga as Latvia's 1st woman president. Latvia joined the EU and NATO in 2004. Latvia ratified a proposed EU constitution, June 2, 2005.

Liechtenstein **Principality of Liechtenstein**

People:

Population: 33,717.

Pop. density: 544 per sq mi, 211 per sq km.

Urban: 21.6%.

Ethnic groups: Alemannic 86%; Italian, Turkish, and other 14%.

Principal languages: German (official), Alemannic dialect.

Chief religions: Roman Catholic 76%, Protestant 7%.

Geography:

Total area: 62 sq mi, 160 sq km:

Land area: 62 sq mi, 160 sq km.

Location: Central Europe, in the Alps.

Neighbours: Switzerland on W, Austria on E.

Topography: The Rhine Valley occupies one-third of the country, the Alps cover the rest.

Capital: Vaduz, 5,000.

Government:

Type: Hereditary constitutional monarchy.

Head of state: Prince Hans-Adam II; b Feb. 14, 1945; in office: Nov. 13, 1989.

Head of gov.: Otmar Hasler; b Sept. 28, 1953; in office: Apr. 5, 2001.

Local divisions: 11 communes.

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-16.

Literacy: 100%.

Liechtenstein became sovereign in 1806. Austria administered Liechtenstein's ports up to 1920; Switzerland has administered its postal services since 1921. Liechtenstein is united with Switzerland by a customs and monetary union. Taxes are low; many international corporations have headquarters there. Foreign workers comprise 2/3 of the labor force. On Aug. 15, 2004, Prince Hans-Adam II assigned day-to-day responsibilities for running the tiny country to his son, Crown Prince Alois.

Lithuania **Republic of Lithuania**

People:

Population: 3,596,617.

Pop. density: 143 per sq mi, 55 per sq km.

Urban: 66.7%

Ethnic groups: Lithuanian 81%, Russian 9%, Polish 7%, Belarusian 2%.

Principal languages: Lithuanian (official), Belarusian, Russian Polish.

Chief religion: Roman Catholic 79%, none 9.5%.

Geography:

Total area: 25,174 sq mi, 65,200 sq km.

Land area: 25,174 sq mi, 65,200 sq km.

Location: In E Europe, on SE coast of Baltic.

Neighbours: Latvia on N, Belarus on E, S, Poland and Russia on W.

Topography: Lithuania is a lowland with hills in W and S; fertile soil; many small lakes and rivers, with marshes especially in N and W.

Capital: Vilnius, 549,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Valdas Adamkus; b Nov. 3, 1926; in office: July 12, 2004.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Algirdas Brazauskas; b Sept. 22, 1932; in office: July 3, 2001.

Local divisions: 10 provinces.

Defense budget (2004): \$310 mil.

Active troops: 13,510.

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-15.

Literacy: 99.6%.

Lithuania was occupied by the German army, 1914-18. It was annexed by the Soviet Russian army, but the Soviets were overthrown, 1919. Lithuania was a democratic republic until 1926, when the regime was ousted by a coup. In 1939 the Soviet-German treaty assigned most of Lithuania to the Soviet sphere of influence. Lithuania was annexed by the USSR Aug. 3, 1940.

Lithuania formally declared its independence from the Soviet Union Mar. 11, 1990. During an abortive Soviet coup in Aug., the Western nations recognized Lithuania's independence, which was ratified by the Soviet Union in Sept. 1991.

The last Russian troops withdrew on Aug. 31, 1993. The conservative Homeland Union defeated the former Communists in parliamentary elections Oct.-Nov. 10, 1996. A Lithuanian-American, Valdas Adamkus, won the presidency in a runoff election Jan. 4, 1998. He lost to Rolandas Paksas in a runoff, Jan. 5, 2003. But after the legislature impeached and removed Paksas

from office, Apr. 6, 2004, Adamkus regained the presidency in a runoff vote June 27. Lithuania joined the EU and NATO in 2004.

Luxembourg **Grand Duchy of Luxembourg**

People:

Population: 468,571.

Pop. density: 470 per sq mi, 181 per sq km.

Urban: 91.9 %

Ethnic groups: Mixture of French and German.

Principal languages: Luxembourgish (national); German, French (official).

Chief religion: Roman Catholic 87%, 13% Protestant, Jewish, and Muslim.

Geography:

Total area: 998 sq mi, 2,586 sq km;

Land area: 998 sq mi, 2,586 sq km.

Location: In W Europe.

Neighbours: Belgium on W, France on S, Germany on E.

Topography: Heavy forests (Ardennes) cover N, S is a low, open plateau.

Capital: Luxembourg-Ville, 77,000.

Government:

Type: Constitutional monarchy.

Head of state: Grand Duke Henri; b Apr. 16, 1955; in office: Oct. 7, 2000.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Jean-Claude Juncker; b Dec. 9, 1954; in office: Jan. 19, 1995.

Local divisions: 3 districts.

Defense budget (2004): \$256 mil.

Active troops: 900.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-15.

Literacy: 100%.

Luxembourg, founded about 963, was ruled by Burgundy, Spain, Austria, and France from 1448 to 1815. It left the Germanic Confederation in 1866. Overrun by Germany in 2 world wars, Luxembourg ended its neutrality in 1948, when a customs union with Belgium and Netherlands was adopted.

Luxembourg was one of the 6 founding members (1951) of what became the European Union. Its voters ratified the EU constitution in July 2005.

Macedonia

Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

People:

Population: 2,045,262.

Pop. density: 209 per sq mi, 81 per sq km.

Urban: 59.5%.

Ethnic groups: Macedonian 67%, Albanian 23%, Turkish 4%, Roma 2%, Serb 2%.

Principal languages: Macedonian (official), Albanian, Turkish, Romani, Serbo-Croatian.

Chief religions: unspecified 51%, Macedonian Orthodox 32%, Muslim 17%.

Geography:

Total area: 9,781 sq mi, 25,333 sq km;

Land area: 9,597 sq mi, 24,856 sq km.

Location: In SE Europe.

Neighbours: Bulgaria on E, Greece on S, Albania on W, Serbia on N.

Topography: Macedonia is a landlocked, mostly mountainous country, with deep river valleys, 3 large lakes; country is bisected

by Vardar R.

Capital: Skopje, 447,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Branko Crvenkovski; b Oct. 12, 1962; in office: May 12, 2004.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Vlado Buckovski; b Dec. 2, 1962; in office: Dec. 17, 2004. **Local divisions:** 123 municipalities.

Defense budget (2004): \$149 mil.

Active troops: 10,890.

Finance:

Monetary unit: (MKD) Denar (Sept. 2005: 47.81 = 1 \$ U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-14. **Literacy:** NA%.

Macedonia, as part of a larger region also called Macedonia, was ruled by Muslim Turks from 1389 to 1912, when native Greeks, Bulgarians, and Slavs won independence. Serbia received the largest part of the territory, the rest going to Greece and Bulgaria. In 1913, the area was incorporated into Serbia, which in 1918 became part of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes (later Yugoslavia). In 1946, Macedonia became a constituent republic of Yugoslavia.

Macedonia declared its independence Sept. 8, 1991, and was admitted to the UN under a provisional name in 1993. A UN force, which included several hundred U.S. troops, was deployed there to deter the warring factions in Bosnia from carrying their dispute into other areas of the Balkans.

In Feb. 1994 both Russia and the U.S. recognized Macedonia. Greece, which objected to Macedonia's use of what it considered a Hellenic name and symbols, imposed a trade blockade on the landlocked nation; the 2 countries agreed to normalize relations Sept. 13, 1995. A car bombing, Oct. 3, seriously injured Pres. Kiro Gligorov. Macedonia and Yugoslavia signed a treaty normalizing

relations Apr. 8, 1996.

By the end of NATO's air war against Yugoslavia, Mar.-June 1999, Macedonia had a Kosovar refugee population of more than 250,000; over 90% had been repatriated by Sept. 1. Boris Trajkovski, candidate of the ruling center-right coalition, won a presidential runoff vote Nov. 14.

Ethnic Albanian guerrillas launched an offensive Mar. 2001 in NW Macedonia. An accord signed Aug. 13 paved the way for the introduction of a NATO peacekeeping force. A law broadening the rights of ethnic Albanians was enacted Jan. 24, 2002. A 320-member EU force replaced the NATO peacekeepers Mar. 31, 2003. After Trajkovski died in a plane crash Feb. 26, 2004, Prime Min. Branko Crvenkovski won a presidential runoff vote Apr. 28.

Malta **Republic of Malta**

People:

Population: 398,534.

Pop. density: 3,267 per sq mi, 1,261 per sq km.

Urban: 91.7%.

Ethnic group: Maltese, other Mediterranean.

Principal languages: Maltese (a Semitic dialect), English (both official).

Chief religion: Roman Catholic 98% (official).

Geography:

Total area: 122sq mi, 316sq km;

Land area: 122 sq mi, 316 sq km.

Location: In center of Mediterranean Sea.

Neighbours: Nearest is Italy on N.

Topography: Island of Malta is 95 sq. mi.; other islands in the group: Gozo, 26 sq. mi.; Cornino, 1 sq. mi. The coastline is heavily indented. Low hills cover the interior.

Capital: Valletta, 83,000.

Government:

Type: Parliamentary democracy.

Head of state: Pres. Edward (Eddie) Fenech-Adami; b Feb. 7, 1934; in office: Apr. 4, 2004.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Lawrence Gonzi; b July 1, 1953; in office: Mar. 23, 2004.

Local divisions: 3 regions comprising 67 local councils.

Defense budget (2004): \$102 mil.

Active troops: 2,140.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Lira (MTL) (Sept. 2005: 0.34 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 5-15.

Literacy: 92.8%.

Malta was ruled by Phoenicians, Romans, Arabs, Normans, the Knights of Malta, France, and Britain (since 1814). It became independent Sept. 21, 1964. Malta became a republic in 1974. The withdrawal of the last British sailors, Apr. 1, 1979, ended 179 years of British military presence on the island.

From 1971 to 1987 and again from 1996 to 1998, Malta was governed by the socialist Labour Party; the Nationalist Party, which pressed for Malta's entry into the EU, held office 1987-96 and won the elections of Sept. 5, 1998, and Apr. 12, 2003. Malta became a full member of the EU May 1, 2004.

Moldova **Republic of Moldova**

People:

Population: 4,445,421.

Pop. density: 342 per sq mi, 132 per sq km.

Urban: 46.0%.

Ethnic groups: Moldovan Romanian 65%, Ukrainian 14%, Rus-

sian 13%.

Principal languages: Moldovan (official), Russian, Gagauz (a Turkish dialect).

Chief religion: Eastern Orthodox 98%.

Geography:

Total area: 13,067 sq mi, 33,843 sq km;

Land area: 12,885 sq mi, 33,371 sq km.

Location: In E Europe.

Neighbours: Romania on W; Ukraine on N, E, and S.

Topography: The country is landlocked; mainly hilly plains, with steppelands in S near the Black Sea.

Capital: Chisinau, 662,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Vladimir Voronin; b May 25, 1941; in office: Apr. 7, 2001.

Head of gov.: Prime Mm. Vasile Tarlev; b Oct. 9, 1963; in office: Apr. 19, 2001. **Local divisions:** 9 counties, 1 municipality, 1 autonomous territory.

Defense budget (2004): \$8.9 mil.

Active troops: 6,809.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Leu (MDL) (Sept. 2005: 12.49 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-16.

Literacy: 99.1%.

In 1918, Romania annexed all of Bessarabia that Russia had acquired from Turkey in 1812 by the Treaty of Bucharest. In 1924, the Soviet Union established the Moldavian Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic on the eastern bank of the Dniester. It was merged with the Romanian-speaking districts of Bessarabia in 1940 to form the Moldavian SSR.

During World War II, Romania, allied with Germany, occupied the area. It was recaptured by the USSR in 1944. Moldova

declared independence Aug. 27, 1991. It became an independent state when the USSR disbanded Dec. 26, 1991.

Fighting erupted Mar. 1992 in the Dnestr (Dniester) region between Moldovan security forces and Slavic separatists – ethnic Russians and ethnic Ukrainians – who feared Moldova would merge with neighboring Romania. In a plebiscite on Mar. 6, 1994, voters in Moldova supported independence, without unification with Romania.

Defying the Moldovan government, voters in the breakaway Dnestr region held legislative elections and approved a separatist constitution Dec. 24, 1995. Petru Lucinschi, a former Communist, won a presidential runoff election Dec. 1, 1996. A peace accord with Dnestr separatists was signed in Moscow May 8, 1997. The Communists won the most seats in parliamentary elections Mar. 22, 1998, but a coalition of three center-right parties formed the government. The Communists gained legislative majorities in elections Feb. 25, 2001, and Mar. 6, 2005.

Monaco **Principality of Monaco**

People:

Population: 32,409.

Pop. density: 32,409 per sq mi, 16,205 per sq km.

Urban: 100.0%.

Ethnic groups: French 47%, Monegasque 16%, Italian 16%.

Principal languages: French (official), English, Italian, Monegasque.

Chief religion: Roman Catholic 90% (official).

Geography:

Total area: 1 sq ml, 2 sq km;

Land area: 1 sq ml, 2 sq km.

Location: On the NW Mediterranean coast.

Neighbours: France to W, N, E.

Topography: Monaco-Ville sits atop a high promontory, the rest of the principality rises from the port up the hillside.

Capital: Monaco-Ville, 34,000.

Government:

Type: Constitutional monarchy.

Head of state: Prince Albert II; b Mar. 14, 1958; in office: Apr. 6, 2005.

Head of gov.: Min. of State Jean-Paul Proust; b Mar. 3, 1940; in office: June 1, 2005.

Local divisions: 4 quarters.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-15 (16).

Literacy: 99%.

An independent principality for over 300 years, Monaco has belonged to the House of Grimaldi since 1297, except during the French Revolution. It was placed under the protectorate of Sardinia in 1815, and under France, 1861. The Prince of Monaco was an absolute ruler until the 1911 constitution. Monaco was admitted to the UN on May 28, 1993.

Monaco is noted for its mild climate, magnificent scenery, and elegant casinos. Prince Rainier III, who ruled Monaco, 1949-2005, and turned it into one of Europe's top tourist spots, died Apr. 6 and was succeeded by his son, Albert II.

Netherlands

Kingdom of the Netherlands

People:

Population: 16,407,491.

Pop. density: 1,023 per sq mi, 395 per sq km.

Urban: 65.8%.

Ethnic groups: Dutch 83%.

Principal languages: Dutch (official), Frisian, Flemish.

Chief religions: Roman Catholic 31%, Protestant 21%, Muslim 4%.

Geography:

Total area: 16,033 sq mi, 41,526 sq km;

Land area: 13,082 sq mi, 33,883 sq km.

Location: In NW Europe on North Sea.

Neighbours: Germany on E, Belgium on S.

Topography: The land is flat, an average alt. of 37 ft. above sea level, with much land below sea level reclaimed and protected by some 1,500 miles of dikes. Since 1920 the government has been draining the IJsselmeer, formerly the Zuider Zee.

Capital: Amsterdam (official), 1,145,000, The Hague (administrative), 705,000. Cities (urban aggr.): Rotterdam, 1,094,000.

Government:

Type: Parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarch.

Head of state: Queen Beatrix; b Jan. 31, 1938; in office: Apr. 30, 1980.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Jan Peter Balkenende; b May 7, 1956; in office: July 22, 2002.

Seat of govt: The Hague,

Local divisions: 12 provinces.

Defense budget (2004): \$7.6 bil.

Active troops: 53,130.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-18.

Literacy: 99%.

Julius Caesar conquered the region in 55 BC, when it was inhabited by Celtic and Germanic tribes. After the empire of Charlemagne fell apart, the Netherlands (Holland, Belgium, Flanders) split among counts, dukes, and bishops, passed to Burgundy and

thence to Spain. William the Silent, prince of Orange, led a confederation of the northern provinces, called Estates, in the Union of Utrecht, 1579; in 1581 they repudiated allegiance to Spain. The rise of the Dutch republic to naval, economic, and artistic eminence came in the 17th century.

The United Dutch Republic ended 1795 when the French formed the Batavian Republic. Napoleon made his brother Louis king of Holland, 1806; Louis abdicated 1810 when Napoleon annexed Holland. In 1813 the French were expelled. In 1815 the Congress of Vienna formed a kingdom of the Netherlands, including Belgium, under William I. In 1830, the Belgians seceded and formed a separate kingdom.

The constitution, promulgated 1814, and subsequently revised, provides for a hereditary constitutional monarchy.

The Netherlands maintained its neutrality in World War I, but was invaded and brutally occupied by Germany, 1940-45. In 1949, after several years of fighting, the Netherlands granted independence to Indonesia.

The murder May 6, 2002, of right-wing populist leader Pim Fortuyn, 9 days before legislative elections, marked the 1st political assassination in modern Dutch history. The killing of filmmaker Theo van Gogh, Nov. 2, 2004, by an Islamic extremist also shocked many Dutch. Concerns about immigration contributed to the defeat of a proposed EU constitution by 62% to 38% in a referendum, June 1, 2005.

Norway **Kingdom of Norway**

People:

Population: 4,593,041.

Pop. density: 37 per sq mi, 14 per sq km.

Urban: 78.6%.

Ethnic groups: Norwegian, Sami.

Principal languages: Norwegian (official), Sami, Finnish.

Chief religion: Evangelical Lutheran 86% (official).

Geography:

Total area: 125,182 sq mi, 324,220 sq km;

Land area: 118,865 sq mi, 307,860 sq km.

Location: W part of Scandinavian peninsula in NW Europe (extends farther north than any European land).

Neighbours: Sweden, Finland, Russia on E.

Topography: A highly indented coast is lined with tens of thousands of islands. Mountains and plateaus cover most of the country, which is only 25% forested.

Capital: Oslo, 795,000.

Cities (urban aggr.): Bergen (1996 est.), 223,773.

Government:

Type: Hereditary constitutional monarchy.

Head of state: King Harald V; b Feb. 21, 1937; in office: Jan. 17, 1991.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Kjell Magne Bondevik; b Sept. 3, 1947; in office: Oct. 19, 2001.

Local divisions: 19 provinces.

Defense budget (2004): \$4.2 bil.

Active troops: 26,600.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Kroner (NOK) (Sept. 2005: 6.27 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-16.

Literacy: 100%.

The first ruler of Norway was Harald the Fairhaired, who came to power in AD 872. Between 800 and 1000, Norway's Vikings raided and occupied widely dispersed parts of Europe.

The country was united with Denmark 1381 - 1814, and with Sweden, 1814-1905. In 1905, the country became independent with Prince Charles of Denmark as king.

Norway remained neutral during World War I. Germany at-

tacked Norway Apr. 9, 1940, and held it until liberation May 8, 1945. The country abandoned its neutrality after the war, and joined NATO. In a referendum Nov. 28, 1994, Norwegian voters rejected European Union membership.

Abundant hydroelectric resources provided the base for industrialization, giving Norway one of the highest living standards in the world. The country is a leading producer and exporter of crude oil, with extensive reserves in the North Sea. Norway's merchant marine is one of the world's largest.

A center-left bloc led by Jens Stoltenberg won parliamentary elections of Sept. 12, 2005, and Prime Min. Kjell Bondevik planned to resign Oct. 14 assuming a new coalition was formed by then.

Svalbard is a group of mountainous islands in the Arctic O., area 23,957.2 sq mi, pop. (2004 est.) 2,756. The largest, Spitsbergen (formerly called West Spitsbergen), 15,060 sq mi, seat of the governor, is about 370 mi. N of Norway. By a treaty signed in Paris, 1920, major European powers recognized the sovereignty of Norway, which incorporated it in 1925.

Jan Mayen, area 144 sq mi, is a volcanic island located about 565 mi WNW of Norway; it was annexed in 1929.

Poland

Republic of Poland

People:

Population: 38,557,984.

Pop. density: 319 per sq mi, 123 per sq km.

Urban: 61.9%.

Ethnic groups: Polish 98%, German 1%.

Principal languages: Polish (official), Ukrainian, German.

Chief religion: Roman Catholic 90%, unspecified 8%.

Geography:

Total area: 120,728 sq mi, 312,685 sq km;

Land area: 117,555 sq mi, 304,465 sq km.

Location: On the Baltic Sea in E central Europe.

Neighbours: Germany on W; Czech Rep., Slovakia on S; Lithuania, Belarus, Ukraine on E; Russia on N.

Topography: Mostly lowlands forming part of the Northern European Plain. The Carpathian Mts. along the S border rise to 8,200 ft.

Capital: Warsaw, 2,200,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Aleksander Kwasniewski; b Nov. 15, 1954; in office: Dec. 23, 1995.

Head of gov.: New government pending after Sept. 25, 2005 elections.

Local divisions: 16 provinces.

Defense budget (2004): \$4.4 bil.

Active troops: 141,500.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Zloty (PLN) (Sept. 2005: 3.19 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-15.

Literacy: 99.8%.

Slavic tribes in the area were converted to Latin Christianity in the 10th century. Poland was a great power from the 14th to the 17th centuries. In 3 partitions (1772, 1793, 1795) it was apportioned among Prussia, Russia, and Austria. Overrun by the Austro-German armies in World War I, it declared its independence on Nov. 11, 1918, and was recognized as independent by the Treaty of Versailles, June 28, 1919. Large territories to the east were taken in a war with Russia, 1921.

Germany and the USSR invaded Poland Sept. 1-27, 1939, and divided the country. During the war, some 6 million Polish citizens, half of them Jews, were killed by the Nazis. With Germany's defeat, a Polish government-in-exile in London was rec-

ognized by the U.S., but the USSR pressed the claims of a rival group. The election of 1947 was completely dominated by the Communists.

In compensation for 69,860 sq. mi. ceded to the USSR, in 1945 Poland received approx. 40,000 sq. mi. of German territory E of the Oder-Neisse line comprising Silesia, Pomerania, West Prussia, and part of East Prussia.

In 12 years of rule by Stalinists, large estates were abolished, industries nationalized, schools secularized, and Roman Catholic prelates jailed. Farm production fell off. Harsh working conditions caused a riot in Poznan, June 28-29, 1956. A new Politburo, committed to a more independent Polish Communism, was named Oct. 1956, with Wladyslaw Gomulka as first secretary of the party. Collectivization of farms was ended. Gomulka agreed to permit religious liberty and religious publications, provided the church kept out of politics.

In Dec. 1970 workers in port cities rioted because of price rises and new incentive wage rules. On Dec. 20 Gomulka resigned as party leader; he was succeeded by Edward Gierek. The rules were dropped and price rises revoked.

After 2 months of labor turmoil had crippled the country, the Polish government, Aug. 30, 1980, met the demands of striking workers at the Lenin Shipyard, Gdansk. Government concessions included the right to form independent trade unions and the right to strike. By 1981, 9.5 mil workers had joined the independent trade union (Solidarity). As Solidarity's demands grew bolder, the government, spurred by fear of Soviet intervention, imposed martial law Dec. 13. Lech Walensa and other Solidarity leaders were arrested.

On Apr. 5, 1989, an accord was reached between the government and opposition factions on political and economic reforms, including free elections. Candidates endorsed by Solidarity swept the parliamentary elections, June 4. Lech Walensa became president Dec. 22, 1990.

A radical economic program designed to transform the econ-

omy into a free-market system led to inflation and unemployment. In Sept. 1993, former Communists and other leftists won a majority in the lower house of Parliament. Walensa lost to a former Communist, Aleksander Kwasniewski, in a presidential runoff election, Nov. 19, 1995.

A new constitution was approved by referendum May 25, 1997. Flooding in July caused more than \$1 billion in property damage. Solidarity won parliamentary elections held Sept. 21. Poland became a full member of NATO on Mar. 12, 1999. Pres. Kwasniewski was reelected Oct. 8, 2000. The former Communists won a plurality in parliamentary voting Sept. 23, 2001. But on Sept. 25, 2005, the scandal-ridden former communists achieved only 11 % of the votes, leaving government to a center-right coalition.

Poland, a close U.S. ally, assumed command Sept. 3, 2003, of a 9,000-member multinational force in south-central Iraq. Poland entered the European Union May 1, 2004.

Portugal **Portuguese Republic**

People:

Population: 10,566,212.

Pop. density: 296 per sq mi, 114 per sq km.

Urban: 54.6%.

Ethnic groups: Mainly Portuguese.

Principal languages: Portuguese (official).

Chief religion: Roman Catholic 94%.

Geography:

Total area: 35,672 sq mi, 92,391 sq km;

Land area: 35,502 sq mi, 91,951 sq km.

Location: At SW extreme of Europe.

Neighbours: Spain on N, E.

Topography: Portugal N of Tajus R., which bisects the country

NE-SW, is mountainous, cool and rainy. To the S there are drier, rolling plains, and a warm climate.

Capital: Lisbon, 1,962,000.

Cities (urban egg.): Porto, 1,254,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Jorge Sampaio; b Sept. 18,1939; in office: Mar. 9,1996.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Jose Socrates Carvalho Pinto de Sousa; b Sept. 6, 1957; in office: Mar. 12, 2005.

Local divisions: 18 districts, 2 autonomous regions.

Defense budget (2004): \$2.1 bil.

Active troops: 44,900.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-14.

Literacy: 93.3%.

Portugal, an independent state since the 12th century, was a kingdom until a revolution in 1910 drove out King Manoel II and a republic was proclaimed. From 1932 a strong, repressive government was headed by Premier Antonio de Oliveira Salazar. Illness forced his retirement in Sept. 1968.

On Apr. 25, 1974, the government was seized by a military junta led by Gen. Antonio de Spinoia, who became president. The new government reached agreements providing independence for Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, Cape Verde Islands, Angola, and São Tomé and Príncipe. Banks, insurance companies, and other industries were nationalized.

Parliament approved, June 1, 1989, a program to denationalize industries. Portugal returned Macao to China on Dec. 20, 1999. With the economy lagging, opposition Socialists won a parliamentary majority in elections Feb. 20, 2005.

Azores Islands, in the Atlantic, 740 mi W of Portugal, have

an area of 868 sq mi and a pop. (1993 est.) of 238,000. A 1951 agreement gave the U.S. rights to use defense facilities in the Azores. The Madeira Islands, 350 mi off the NW coast of Africa, have an area of 306 sq mi and a pop. (1993 est.) of 437,312. Both groups were offered partial autonomy in 1976.

Romania

People:

Population: 22,329,977.

Pop. density: 244 per sq mi, 94 per sq km.

Urban: 54,5 %

Ethnic groups: Romanian 90%, Hungarian, Roma, and others 10%.

Principal languages: Romanian (official), Hungarian, gentian, Romani.

Chief religions: Romanian Orthodox 87%, Protestant 8%, Roman Catholic 5%.

Geography:

Total area: 91,699 sq mi, 237,500 sq km;

Land area: 88,935 sq mi, 230,340 sq km.

Location: SE Europe, on the Black Sea.

Neighbours: Moldova on E, Ukraine on N, Hungary and Serbia and Montenegro on W, Bulgaria on S.

Topography: The Carpathian Mts. encase the north-central Transylvanian plateau. There are wide plains S and E of the mountains, through which flow the lower reaches of the rivers of the Danube system.

Capital: Bucharest, 1,853,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Traian Basescu; b Nov. 4, 1951; in office: Dec. 20, 2004.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Calin Constantin Anton Popescu-

Tariceanu; b Jan. 14, 1952; in office: Dec. 29, 2004.

Local divisions: 41 counties and Bucharest.

Defense budget (2002): \$1.4 bil.

Active troops: 97,200.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Lei (RON) (Sept. 2005: 2.98 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-14.

Literacy: 98.4%.

Romania's earliest known people merged with invading Proto-Thracians, preceding by centuries the Dacians. The Dacian kingdom was occupied by Rome, AD 106-271; people and language were Romanized. The principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia, dominated by Turkey, were united in 1859, became Romania in 1861, and gained recognition as an independent kingdom, 1881.

After World War I, Romania acquired Bessarabia, Bukovina, Transylvania, and Banat. In 1940 it ceded Bessarabia and Northern Bukovina to the USSR, part of southern Dobrudja to Bulgaria, and northern Transylvania to Hungary. In 1941, Prem. Marshal Ion Antonescu led Romania in support of Germany against the USSR. In 1944 he was overthrown, and Romania joined the Allies. After occupation by Soviet troops, a People's Republic was proclaimed, Dec. 30, 1947.

On Aug. 22, 1965, a new constitution proclaimed Romania a Socialist Republic. Pres. Nicolae Ceausescu maintained an independent course in foreign affairs, but his domestic policies were repressive. All industry was state-owned, and state farms and co-operatives owned almost all arable land. Ceausescu's security forces fired on antigovernment demonstrators in Dec. 1989, killing hundreds, but when the army sided with the protesters, his regime fell. Ceausescu and his wife were captured and, following a trial in which they were found guilty of genocide, were executed Dec. 25, 1989.

Former Communists dominated the government in succeeding years. A new constitution providing for a multiparty system took effect Dec. 8, 1991. Many of Romania's state-owned companies were privatized in 1996. The former Communists lost in elections Nov. 3 and 17, 1996, but made a comeback in balloting Nov. 26 and Dec. 10, 2000. Opposition leader Traian Basescu, the mayor of Bucharest, won a presidential runoff vote, Dec. 12, 2004. Romania, a firm US ally, had about 860 troops in Iraq and 700 in Afghanistan in mid-2005.

Floods in Jul.-Aug. 2005 left more than 50 people dead.

Romania became a full NATO member in 2004 and is expected to enter the EU in 2007.

Russia **Russian Federation**

People:

Population: 143,420,309.

Pop. density: 22 persq mi, 8 persq km.

Urban: 73.3%.

Ethnic groups: Russian 82%, Tatar 4%, Ukrainian 3%, Chuvash 1%, Bashkir 1%, Belarusian 1%, Moldavian 1%.

Principal languages: Russian (official), many others.

Chief religions: Russian Orthodox, Muslim.

Geography:

Total area: 6,592,772 sq mi, 17,075,200 sq km;

Land area: 6,562,116 sq mi, 16,995,800 sq km., more than 76% of total area of the former USSR and the largest country in the world.

Location: Stretches from E Europe across N Asia to the Pacific O.

Neighbours: Finland, Norway, Estonia, Latvia, Belarus, Ukraine on W; Georgia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, China, Mongolia, North Korea on S; Kaliningrad exclave bordered by Poland on the S, Lithuania on the N and E.

Topography: Russia contains every type of climate except the distinctly tropical, and has a varied topography. The European portion is a low plain, grassy in S, wooded in N, with Ural Mts. on the E, and Caucasus Mts. on the S. Urals stretch N-S for 2,500 mi. The Asiatic portion is also a vast plain, with mountains on the S and in the E; tundra covers extreme N, with forest belt below; plains, marshes are in W, desert in SW.

Capital: Moscow, 10,469,000.

Government:

Type: Federal republic. Head of state: Vladimir Putin; b Oct. 7, 1952; in office: May 7, 2000.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Mikhail Fradkov; b Sep. 1, 1950; in office: Mar. 5, 2004.

Local divisions: 7 federal districts incl. 49 provinces, 21 autonomous republics, 6 territories, 1 autonomous region, 10 autonomous districts, 2 federal cities.

Defense budget (2004): \$14.2 bil.

Active troops: 1,212,700.

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-15.

Literacy: 99.6%.

History. Slavic tribes began migrating into Russia from the W in the 5th century AD. The first Russian state, founded by Scandinavian chieftains, was established in the 9th century, centering in Novgorod and Kiev. In the 13th century the Mongols overran the country. It recovered under the grand dukes and princes of Muscovy, or Moscow, and by 1480 freed itself from the Mongols. Ivan the Terrible was the first to be formally proclaimed Tsar (1547). Peter the Great (1682-1725) extended the domain and, in 1721, founded the Russian Empire.

Western ideas and the beginnings of modernization spread through the huge Russian empire in the 19th and early 20th centuries. But political evolution failed to keep pace.

Military reverses in the 1905 war with Japan and in World

War I led to the breakdown of the Tsarist regime. The 1917 Revolution began in March with a series of sporadic strikes for higher wages by factory workers. A provisional democratic government under Prince Georgi Lvov was established but was quickly followed in May by the second provisional government, led by Alexander Kerensky. The Kerensky government and the freely-elected Constituent Assembly were overthrown in a Communist coup led by Vladimir Ilyich Lenin Nov. 7.

Soviet Union

Lenin's death Jan. 21, 1924, resulted in an internal power struggle from which Joseph Stalin eventually emerged on top. Stalin secured his position at first by exiling opponents, but from the 1930s to 1953, he resorted to a series of "purge" trials, mass executions, and mass exiles to work camps. These measures resulted in millions of deaths, according to most estimates.

Germany and the Soviet Union signed a non-aggression pact Aug. 1939; Germany launched a massive invasion of the Soviet Union, June 1941. A notable heroic episode was the "900 days" siege of Leningrad (now St. Petersburg), lasting to Jan. 1944, and causing a million deaths; the city was never taken. Russian winter counterthrusts, 1941-42 and 1942-43, stopped the German advance. Turning point was the failure of German troops to take and hold Stalingrad (now Volgograd), Sept. 1942 to Feb. 1943. With British and U.S. Lend-Lease aid and sustaining great casualties, the Russians drove the German forces from eastern Europe and the Balkans in the next 2 years.

After Stalin died, Mar. 5, 1953, Nikita Khrushchev was elected first secretary of the Central Committee. In 1956 he condemned Stalin and "de-Stalinization" began.

Under Khrushchev the open antagonism of Poles and Hungarians toward domination by Moscow was brutally suppressed in 1956. He advocated peaceful co-existence with the capitalist countries, but continued arming the Soviet Union with nuclear weapons.

He aided the Cuban revolution under Fidel Castro but with-

drew Soviet missiles from Cuba during confrontation by U.S. Pres. Kennedy, Sept.-Oct. 1962. Khrushchev was suddenly deposed Oct. 1964, and replaced by Leonid I. Brezhnev.

In Aug. 1968 Russian, Polish, East German, Hungarian, and Bulgarian military forces invaded Czechoslovakia to put a curb on liberalization policies of the Czech government.

Massive Soviet military aid to North Vietnam in the late 1960s and early 1970s helped assure Communist victories throughout Indo-China. Soviet arms aid and advisers were sent to several African countries in the 1970s.

In Dec. 1979, Soviet forces entered Afghanistan to support that government against rebels. In Apr. 1988, the Soviets agreed to withdraw their troops, ending a futile 8-year war.

Mikhail Gorbachev was chosen, gen. secy, of the Communist Party, Mar. 1985. He held 4 summit meetings with U.S. Pres. Ronald Reagan. In 1987 he initiated a program of political and economic reforms, through openness (*glasnost*) and restructuring (*perestroika*). Gorbachev faced economic problems as well as ethnic and nationalist unrest in the republics. An apparent coup by Communist hardliners, Aug. 1991, was foiled with help from the pres. of the Russian Republic, Boris Yeltsin. On Aug. 24, Gorbachev resigned as leader of the Communist Party. Several republics declared their independence, including Russia, Ukraine, and Kazakhstan. On Aug. 29, the Soviet Parliament voted to suspend all activities of the Communist Party.

The Soviet Union officially broke up Dec. 26, 1991. The Soviet hammer and sickle flying over the Kremlin was lowered and replaced by the flag of Russia, ending the domination of the Communist Party over all areas of national life since 1917.

Russian Federation

Led by Pres. Yeltsin, Russia took steps toward privatization; immediate effects were inflation and a severe economic downturn. In June 1992, Yeltsin and U.S. Pres. George H.W. Bush agreed to massive arms reductions. A power struggle between Yeltsin and

the Congress of People's Deputies, which was dominated by conservatives and former Communists, reached a climax Oct. 3, 1993, when anti-Yeltsin forces attacked some facilities in Moscow and broke into the Parliament building. Yeltsin ordered the army to seize the building; about 140 people were killed in the fighting.

Yeltsin remained in power, and in a referendum Dec. 12, 1993, a new constitution was approved. In Dec. 1994 the Russian government sent troops into the breakaway republic of Chechnya. Grozny, the Chechen capital, fell in Feb. 1995 after heavy fighting, but Chechen rebels continued to resist.

Despite poor health, Yeltsin won a presidential runoff election over a Communist opponent, July 3, 1996. On Aug. 14, after rebels embarrassed the Russian military by retaking Grozny, Yeltsin gave his security chief, Alexander Lebed, broad powers to negotiate an end to the Chechnya war. Lebed and Chechen leaders signed a peace accord Aug. 31. On Oct. 17, Yeltsin dismissed Lebed for insubordination. Russian troops remaining in Chechnya were pulled out Jan. 1997. On May 27, Yeltsin signed a "founding act" increasing cooperation with NATO and paving the way for NATO to admit Eastern European nations.

Russia's economic crisis deepened in the late 1990s, heightening tensions between Yeltsin and parliament. Russia moved forcibly in Aug. 1999 to suppress Islamic rebels in Dagestan; the conflict soon spread to neighboring Chechnya, where Russia launched a full-scale assault. A series of 5 bombings in Moscow and Dagestan, which the Russian government attributed to Chechen rebels, killed over 300 people.

Yeltsin unexpectedly resigned Dec. 31, 1999, naming Prime Min. Vladimir Putin as his interim successor. Russian troops took control of Grozny in early Feb. 2000. Putin defeated 10 opponents in a presidential election Mar. 26. The Russian parliament ratified 2 nuclear weapons treaties, the START II arms-reduction accord Apr. 14 and the Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty Apr. 21. A reorganization plan announced May 17 sought to reassert Moscow's control over Russia's regional governments. The Russian nuclear subma-

rine Kursk sank in the Barents Sea Aug. 12, killing 118 sailors.

Russia and China signed a 20-year friendship and cooperation treaty July 16, 2001. Putin and U.S. Pres. George W. Bush signed May 24, 2002, an agreement calling for a 2/3 reduction in nuclear weapons stockpiles. However, Russia pulled out of the START II treaty Jun. 14 after the U.S. withdrew from the 1972 ABM Treaty June 13 to develop a missile defense program. Russia joined a new partnership agreement with NATO May 28.

As Russian forces continued their campaign against Islamic separatists in Chechnya, some 50 Chechen guerrillas seized more than 800 hostages in a Moscow theater, Oct. 23, 2002; 129 hostages and nearly all the guerrillas were killed Oct. 26 when Russian special forces used knockout gas in retaking the theater. Russia, which supported the U.S.-led war in Afghanistan in 2001, sided with France and Germany in blocking UN Security Council endorsement of the U.S.-led invasion of Iraq, Mar. 2003.

Putin's allies won legislative elections, Dec. 7, 2003, and the president was reelected Mar. 14, 2004, with 71% of the vote; international election monitors cited flaws on both occasions. Putin blamed Chechen terrorists for a blast on a Moscow subway car, Feb. 6 that killed at least 39 people. A bomb in Grozny, May 9 killed Chechnya's pro-Moscow president, Akhmad Kadyrov, and at least 6 others. Putin's choice for the Chechen presidency, Maj. Gen. Alu Alkhanov, was elected Aug. 29.

The Chechnya conflict unleashed a wave of terrorism elsewhere during Aug.-Sept. 2004. After taking off the night of Aug. 24 from Moscow's Domodedovo airport, 2 passenger planes exploded in midair, killing 90 people. A suicide bombing in a Moscow subway station Aug. 31 left 11 dead. Chechen rebels Sept. 1 seized control of a school in Beslan, N Ossetia, taking more than 1,100 hostages; Russian troops stormed the school Sept. 3; in the end more than 330 people died, about half of them children. Putin cited the terrorist threat Sept. 13 in proposing a government overhaul that would tighten his control over parliament and regional officeholders.

On Nov. 5, 2004, Russia ratified the Kyoto Protocol, which aims to curb greenhouse gas emissions and global warming. Russian forces killed Chechen rebel leader Asian Maskhadov, Mar. 8, 2005. Mikhail Khodorkovsky, an oil tycoon whose political agenda had rivaled Putin's, was convicted of fraud and tax evasion, May 31, and sentenced to 9 years in prison.

San Marino **Republic of San Marino**

People:

Population: 28,880.

Pop. density: 1,203 per sq mi, 473 per sq km.

Urban: 88.7%.

Ethnic groups: Sammarinese, Italian.

Principal language: Italian (official).

Chief religion: Predominantly Roman Catholic.

Geography:

Total area: 24 sq mi, 61 sq km;

Land area: 24 sq mi, 61 sq km.

Location: In N central Italy near Adriatic coast.

Neighbours: Completely surrounded by Italy.

Topography: The country lies on the slopes of Mt. Titano.

Capital: San Marino, 5,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Heads of state and gov.: Two co-regents appt. every 6 months.

Local divisions: 9 castelli.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-14.

Literacy: 96%.

San Marino claims to be the oldest state in Europe and to have been founded in the 4th century. A Communist-led coalition ruled 1947-57; a similar coalition ruled 1978-86. San Marino has had a treaty of friendship with Italy since 1862.

Serbia and Montenegro (formerly Yugoslavia)

People:

Population: 10,829,175.

Pop. density: 274 per sq mi, 106 per sq km.

Urban: 52.0%.

Ethnic groups: Serb. 63%, Albanian 17%, Montenegrin 5%, Hungarian 3%.

Principal languages: Serbian (official), Albanian.

Chief religions: Orthodox 65%, Muslim 19%, Roman Catholic 4%.

Geography:

Total area: 39,518 sq mi, 102,350sqkm;

Land area: 39,435 sq mi, 102,136 sq km.

Location: On the Balkan Peninsula in SE Europe.

Neighbours: Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina on W; Hungary on N; Romania, Bulgaria on E; Albania, on S.

Topography: Terrain varies widely, with fertile plains drained by the Danube and other rivers in N, limestone basins in E, ancient mountains and hills in SE, and very high coastline in Montenegro along SW.

Capital: Belgrade, 1,118,000.

Government:

Type: Federal republic.

Head of state and gov.: Pres. Svetozar Marovic; b Mar. 31, 1955; in office: Mar. 7, 2003.

Local divisions: 2 republics, 2 autonomous provinces.

Defense budget (2004): \$678 mil.

Active troops: 65,300.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Dinar (CSD) (Sept. 2005: 68.41 = \$1 U.S.)

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-14.

Literacy: 93%.

Serbia, which had since 1389 been a vassal principality of Turkey, was established as an independent kingdom by the Treaty of Berlin, 1878. Montenegro, independent since 1389, also obtained international recognition in 1878. After the Balkan wars, Serbia's boundaries were enlarged by the annexation of Old Serbia and Macedonia, 1913.

When the Austro-Hungarian empire collapsed after World War I, the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes was formed from the former provinces of Croatia, Dalmatia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Slovenia, Vojvodina, and the independent state of Montenegro. The name became Yugoslavia in 1929.

Nazi Germany invaded in 1941. Many Yugoslav partisan troops continued to operate. Among these were the Chetniks led by Draja Mikhailovich, who fought other partisans led by Josip Broz, known as Marshal Tito. Tito, backed by the USSR and Britain from 1943, was in control by the time the Germans had been driven from Yugoslavia in 1945. Mikhailovich was executed July 17, 1946, by the Tito regime.

A constituent assembly proclaimed Yugoslavia a republic Nov. 29, 1945. It became a federal republic Jan. 31, 1946, with Tito, a Communist, heading the government. Tito rejected Stalin's policy of dictating to all Communist nations, and he accepted economic and military aid from the West.

Pres. Tito died May 4, 1980. After his death, Yugoslavia was governed by a collective presidency, with a rotating succession. On Jan. 22, 1990, the Communist Party renounced its leading role in society.

Croatia and Slovenia formally declared independence June

25, 1991. In Croatia, fighting began between Croats and ethnic Serbs. Serbia sent arms and medical supplies to the Serb rebels in Croatia. Croatian forces clashed with Yugoslav army units and their Serb supporters.

The republics of Serbia and Montenegro proclaimed a new "Federal Republic of Yugoslavia" Apr. 17, 1992. Serbia, under Pres. Slobodan Milosevic, was the main arms supplier to ethnic Serb fighters in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The UN imposed sanctions May 30 on the newly reconstituted Yugoslavia as a means of ending the bloodshed in Bosnia.

A peace agreement initialed in Dayton, Ohio, Nov. 21, 1995, was signed in Paris, Dec. 14, by Milosevic and leaders of Bosnia and Croatia. In May 1996, a UN tribunal in the Netherlands began trying suspected war criminals from the former Yugoslavia. The UN lifted sanctions against Yugoslavia Oct. 1, 1996, after elections were held in Bosnia. Mass protests erupted when Milosevic refused to accept opposition, victories in local elections Nov. 17; non-Communist governments took office in Belgrade and other cities in Feb. 1997. Barred from running for a 3rd term as Serbian president, Milosevic had himself inaugurated as president of Yugoslavia en July 23, 1997.

Fearful that the Serbs were employing "ethnic cleansing" tactics, as they had in Bosnia, the U.S. and its NATO allies sought to pressure the Yugoslav government. When Milosevic refused to comply, NATO launched an air war against Yugoslavia, Mar.-June 1999; the Serbs retaliated by terrorizing the Kosovars and forcing hundreds of thousands to flee, mostly to Albania and Macedonia. A 50,000-member multinational force (KFOR) entered Kosovo in June, and most of the Kosovar refugees had returned by Sept. 1. In the worst fighting there since 1999, Albanians and Serbs clashed in Mar. 2004, killing about 30 people, and injuring 500+, incl. UN/ NATO troops. As of 2005, Kosovo was under UN administration (UNMIK), with a NATO-led security force of about 17,000.

Kosovo: A nominally autonomous province in southern Ser-

bia (4,203 sq. mi.), with a population of about 2,000,000, mostly Albanians. The capital is Pristina. Revoking provincial autonomy, Serbia began ruling Kosovo by force in 1989. Albanian secessionists proclaimed an independent Republic of Kosovo in July 1990. Guerrilla attacks by the Kosovo Liberation Army in 1997 brought a ferocious counteroffensive by Serbian authorities.

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Vojvodina: A nominally autonomous province in northern Serbia (8,304 sq. mi.), with a population of about 2,000,000, mostly Serbian. The capital is Novi Sad.

Slovakia **Slovak Republic**

People:

Population: 5,431,363.

Pop. density: 288 per sq mi, 111 per sq km.

Urban: 57.4%.

Ethnic groups: Slovak 86%, Hungarian 11%, Roma 2%.

Principal languages: Slovak (official), Hungarian.

Chief religions: Roman Catholic 69%, Protestant 11%.

Geography:

Total area: 18,859 sq mi, 48,845 sq km;

Land area: 18,842 sq mi, 48,800 sq km.

Location: In E central Europe.

Neighbours: Poland on N, Hungary on S, Austria and Czech Rep. on W, Ukraine on E.

Topography: Mountains (Carpathians) in N, fertile Danube plane in S.

Capital: Bratislava, 425,000.

Cities (urban aggr.): Kosice, 242,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Ivan Gasparovic; b Mar. 27,1941; in office: June 15, 2004.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Miku'as Dzurinda; b Feb. 4,1955; in office:-Oct. 30,1993.

Local divisions: 8 departments.

Defense budget (2004): \$717 mil.

Active troops: 20,195.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Koruna (SKK) (Sept. 2005: 30.86 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-15.

Literacy: NA.

Slovakia was originally settled by Illyrian, Celtic, and Germanic tribes and was incorporated into Great Moravia in the 9th century.

It became part of Hungary in the 11th century. Overrun by Czech Hussites in the 15th century, it was restored to Hungarian rule in 1526. The Slovaks disassociated themselves from Hungary after World War I and joined the Czechs of Bohemia to form the Republic of Czechoslovakia, Oct. 28, 1918.

Germany invaded Czechoslovakia, 1939, and declared Slovakia independent. Slovakia rejoined Czechoslovakia in 1945.

Czechoslovakia split into 2 separate states – the Czech Republic and Slovakia – on Jan. 1, 1993. A prolonged parliamentary

standoff left the country without a president for much of 1998.

Prime Min. Vladimir Meciar, a nationalist, suffered a setback in legislative elections Sept. 25-26, 1998, and was defeated in a presidential runoff vote by Rudolf Schuster, May 29, 1999. A center-right coalition governed Slovakia after parliamentary elections Sept. 20-21, 2002. Meciar lost another bid for the presidency to his former ally, Ivan Gasparovic, Apr. 17, 2004. Slovakia became a full member of the EU and NATO in 2004.

Slovenia **Republic of Slovenia**

People:

Population: 2,011,070.

Pop. density: 257 per sq mi, 99 per sq km.

Urban: 50.8%.

Ethnic groups: Slovene 88%, Croat 3%, Serb 2%, Bosniak 1%.

Principal languages: Slovenian (official), Serbo-Croatian.

Chief religion: Roman Catholic 58%, other, unspecified 23%.

Geography:

Total area: 7,827 sq mi, 20,273 sq km;

Land area: 7,780 sq mi, 20,151 sq km.

Location: In SE Europe.

Neighbours: Italy on W, Austria on N, Hungary on NE, Croatia on SE, S.

Topography: Mostly hilly; 42% of the land is forested.

Capital: Ljubljana 256,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Janez Drnovsek; b May 17, 1950; in office: Dec. 22, 2002.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Janez Jansa; b Sept. 17, 1958; in office: Nov. 9, 2004.

Local divisions: 183 municipalities, 11 urban municipalities.

Defense budget (2004): \$458 mil.

Active troops: 6,550.

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-13.

Literacy: 99.7%.

The Slovenes settled in their current territory during the period from the 6th to the 8th century. They fell under German domination as early as the 9th century. Modern Slovenian political history began after 1848 when the Slovenes, who were divided among several Austrian provinces, began their struggle for political and national unification. In 1918 a majority of Slovenes became part of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, later renamed Yugoslavia.

Slovenia declared independence June 25, 1991, and joined the UN May 22, 1992. The country attained full membership in the EU and NATO in 2004.

Spain

Kingdom of Spain

People:

Population: 40,341,462.

Pop. density: 207 per sq mi, 80 per sq km.

Urban: 76.5%.

Ethnic groups: Castilian, Catalan, Basque, Galician.

Principal languages: Castilian Spanish (official), Catalan, Galician, Basque.

Chief religion: Roman Catholic 94%.

Geography:

Total area: 194,897 sq mi, 504,782 sq km;

Land area: 192,874 sq mi, 499,542 sq km.

Location: In SW Europe.

Neighbours: Portugal on W, France on N.

Topography: The interior is a high, arid plateau broken by mountain ranges and river valleys. The NW is heavily watered, the S has lowlands and a Mediterranean climate.

Capital: Madrid, 5,103,000.

Government:

Type: Constitutional monarchy.

Head of state: King Juan Carlos I de Borbon y Borbon; b Jan. 5, 1938; in office: Nov. 22, 1975.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Jose Luis Rodriguez Zapatero; b Aug. 4, 1960; in office: Apr. 17, 2004.

Local divisions: 17 autonomous communities and two autonomous cities.

Defense budget (2004): \$8 bil.

Active troops: 150,700.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.)

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-16.

Literacy: 97.9%.

Initially settled by Iberians, Basques, and Celts, Spain was successively ruled (wholly or in part) by Carthage, Rome, and the Visigoths. Muslims invaded Iberia from North Africa in 711. Reconquest of the peninsula by Christians from the N laid the foundations of modern Spain. In 1469 the kingdoms of Aragon and Castile were united by the marriage of Ferdinand II and Isabella I. Moorish rule ended with the fall of the kingdom of Granada, 1492. Spain's large Jewish community was expelled the same year.

Spain obtained a colonial empire with the "discovery" of America by Columbus, 1492, the conquest of Mexico by Cortes, and Peru by Pizarro. It also controlled the Netherlands and parts of Italy and Germany. Spain lost its American colonies in the early 19th century. It lost Cuba, the Philippines, and Puerto Rico during the Spanish-American War, 1898.

Primo de Rivera became dictator in 1923. King Alfonso XIII revoked the dictatorship, 1930, but was forced to leave the country in 1931. A republic was proclaimed, which disestablished the church, curtailed its privileges, and secularized education. During 1936-39 a Popular Front composed of socialists, Communists, republicans, and anarchists governed Spain.

Army officers under Francisco Franco revolted against the government, 1936. In a destructive 3-year war, in which some one million died, Franco received massive help and troops from Italy and Germany, while the USSR, France, and Mexico supported the republic. The war ended Mar. 28, 1939. Franco was named caudillo, leader of the nation. Spain was officially neutral in World War II, but its cordial relations with fascist countries caused its exclusion from the UN until 1955.

In July 1969, Franco and the Cortes (Parliament) designated Prince Juan Carlos as the future king and chief of state. After Franco's death, Nov. 20, 1975, Juan Carlos was sworn in as king. In free elections June 1977, moderates and democratic socialists emerged as the largest parties.

In 1981 a coup attempt by right-wing military officers was thwarted by the king. The Socialist Workers' Party, under Felipe Gonzalez Marquez, won 4 consecutive general elections, from 1982 to 1993, but lost to a coalition of conservative and regional parties in the election of Mar. 3, 1996.

Catalonia and the Basque country were granted autonomy, Jan. 1980, following overwhelming approval in home-rule referendums. Basque extremists, however, have pushed for independence. Bombings carried out by the militant Basque separatist group ETA have killed about 800 people since 1968. A plan for "free association" with Spain passed the Basque legislature Dec. 30, 2004, but was rejected by the Spanish parliament Feb. 2, 2005.

The Popular Party of conservative Prime Min. Jose Maria Aznar won a majority in the parliamentary election of Mar. 12, 2000. Aznar, going against Spanish public opinion, openly supported the U.S.-led invasion of Iraq, Mar. 2003.

Four commuter trains were bombed in central Madrid, Mar. 11, 2004, killing 191 people. Aznar's govt initially blamed the attacks on ETA, but evidence pointed to Islamic extremists angered by Spain's role in Iraq. The opposition Socialist Workers Party won elections 3 days later, and Socialist leader Jose Luis Rodriguez Zapatero, who became prime min. Apr. 17, fulfilled a campaign pledge to remove the 1,300 Spanish troops stationed in Iraq. Spanish authorities arrested several suspects in the bombing, mainly from Morocco. In April, 4 other suspects, including the leader of the terrorist cell, blew themselves up in their Madrid apt. Same-sex marriage became legal in Spain, July 3, 2005.

The Balearic Islands in the W Mediterranean, 1,927 sq. ml., are a province of Spain; they include Majorca (Mallorca; capital Palma de Mallorca), Minorca, Cabrera, Ibiza, and Formentera. The Canary Islands, 2,807 sq. mi., in the Atlantic W of Morocco, form 2 provinces, and include the islands of Tenerife, Raima. Gomera, Hierro, Grand Canary, Fuerteventura, and Lanzarote; Las Palmas and Santa Cruz are thriving ports. Ceuta and Melilla, small Spanish enclaves on Morocco's Mediterranean coast, gained limited autonomy in Sept. 1994.

Spain has sought the return of Gibraltar, in British hands since 1704.

Sweden **Kingdom of Sweden**

People:

Population: 9,001,774.

Pop. density: 52 per sq mi, 20 per sq km.

Urban: 83.4%.

Ethnic groups: Swedish 89%, Finnish 2%; Sarni and others 9%.

Principal languages: Swedish (official), Sami, Finnish.

Chief religion: Lutheran 87%.

Geography:

Total area: 173,732 sq ml, 449,964 sq km;

Land area: 158,663 sq ml, 410,934 sq km.

Location: On Scandinavian Peninsula in N Europe.

Neighbours: Norway on W, Denmark on S (across Kattegat), Finland on E.

Topography: Mountains along NW border cover 25% of Sweden, flat or rolling terrain covers the central and southern areas, which include several large lakes.

Capital: Stockholm, 1,697,000.

Government:

Type: Constitutional monarchy.

Head of state: King Carl XVI Gustaf; b Apr. 30, 1946; in office: Sect. 19, 1973.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Goran Persson; b June 20, 1949; in office: Mar. 21, 1996.

Local divisions: 21 counties.

Defense budget (2004): \$5.9 bil.

Active troops: 27,600.

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-16.

Literacy: 99%.

The Swedes have lived in present-day Sweden for at least 5,000 years, longer than nearly any other European people. Gothic tribes from Sweden played a major role in the disintegration of the Roman Empire. Other Swedes helped create the first Russian state in the 9th century.

The Swedes were Christianized from the 11th century, and a strong centralized monarchy developed. A parliament, the Riksdag, was first called in 1435, the earliest parliament on the European continent, with all classes of society represented.

Swedish independence from rule by Danish kings (dating from 1397) was secured by Gustavus I in a revolt, 1521-23; he built up the government and military and established the Lutheran

Church. In the 17th century Sweden was a major European power, gaining most of the Baltic seacoast, but its international position subsequently declined. The Napoleonic wars, 1799-1815, in which Sweden acquired Norway (it became independent 1905), were the last in which Sweden participated. Armed neutrality was maintained in both world wars.

More than 4 decades of Social Democratic rule ended in the 1976 parliamentary elections; the party returned to power in the 1982 elections. After Prime Min. Olof Palme was shot to death in Stockholm, Feb. 28, 1986, Ingvar Carlsson took office. Carl Bildt, a non-Socialist, became prime minister Oct. 1991, with a mandate to restore Sweden's economic competitiveness. The Social Democrats returned to power following 1994 elections.

Swedish voters approved membership in the European Union Nov. 13, 1994, and Sweden entered the EU as of Jan. 1, 1995. Carlsson retired and was succeeded by Goran Persson in Mar. 1996. Persson and his Social Democrats led coalition governments after the elections of Sept. 20, 1998, and Sept. 15, 2002. Foreign Min. Anna Lindh died Sept. 11, 2003, after being stabbed in a Stockholm department store. Her killer, Mijailo Mijailovic, was sentenced to life in prison Mar. 2004; an appeals court later deemed him mentally ill and sent him to a psychiatric ward.

Swedish voters Sept. 14, 2003, rejected adoption of the euro currency. In June 2005, the government said it was postponing a parliamentary vote on the EU constitution.

Switzerland **Swiss Confederation**

People:

Population: 7,489,370.

Pop. density: 470 per sq mi, 181 per sq km.

Urban: 67.5%.

Ethnic groups: German 65%, French 18%, Italian 10%, Ro-

mansch 1%.

Principal languages: German, French, Italian (all official); Romansch (semi-official).

Chief religions: Roman Catholic 42%, Protestant 35%.

Geography:

Total area: 15,942 sq mi, 41,290 sq km;

Land area: 15,355 sq mi, 39,770 sq km.

Location: In the Alps Mts. in central Europe.

Neighbours: France on W, Italy on S, Austria on E, Germany on N.

Topography: The Alps cover 60% of the land area; the Jura, near France, 10%. Running between, from NE to SW, are midlands, 30%.

Capitals: Bern (administrative), 320,000; Lausanne (judicial).

Government:

Type: Federal republic.

Head of state and gov.: The president is elected by the Federal Assembly to a nonrenewable 1-year term.

Local divisions: 20 full cantons, 6 half cantons.

Defense budget (2004): \$3.8 bil.

Active troops: 4,400.

Education:

Compulsory: ages 7-15.

Literacy: 99%.

Switzerland, the former Roman province of Helvetia, traces its modern history to 1291, when 3 cantons created a defensive league. Other cantons were subsequently admitted to the Swiss Confederation, which obtained its independence from the Holy Roman Empire through the Peace of Westphalia (1648). The cantons were joined under a federal constitution in 1848, with large powers of local control retained by each.

Switzerland has maintained an armed neutrality since 1815, and has not been involved in a foreign war since 1515. It is the seat of many UN and other international agencies but did not be-

come a full member of the UN until Sept. 10, 2002.

Switzerland is a world banking center. Stung by charges that assets seized by the Nazis and deposited in Swiss banks in World War II had not been properly returned, the government announced, March 5, 1997, a \$4.7 billion fund to compensate victims of the Holocaust and other catastrophies. Swiss banks agreed Aug. 12, 1998, to pay \$1.25 billion in reparations. Abortion was decriminalized by a June 2, 2002 referendum. The rightist Swiss People's Party topped Oct. 2003 parliamentary, voting and entered a coalition government.

Ukraine

People:

Population: 46,996,765.

Pop. density: 202 per sq mi, 78 per sq km.

Urban: 67.2%.

Ethnic groups: Ukrainian 78%, Russian 17%.

Principal languages: Ukrainian (official), Russian, Romanian, Polish, Hungarian.

Chief religions: Ukrainian Orthodox (Kiev patriarchate and Russian patriarchate), Autocephalous Orthodox, Ukrainian Greek Catholic.

Geography:

Total area: 233,090 sq mi, 603,700 sq km;

Land area: 233,090 sq mi, 603,700 sq km.

Location: In E Europe.

Neighbours: Belarus on N; Russia on NE and E; Moldova and Romania on SW; Hungary, Slovakia, and Poland on W.

Topography: Part of the E European plain. Mountainous areas include the Carpathians in the SW and Crimean chain in the S. Arable black soil constitutes a large part of the country.

Capital: Kiev, 2,618,000.

Government:

Type: Republic.

Head of state: Pres. Viktor Andriyovych Yushchenko; b Feb. 23, 1954; in office: Jan. 23, 2005.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Viktor Yanukovych; b Jul. 9, 1950; in office: Aug. 4, 2006 (acting).

Local divisions: 24 oblasts, 2 municipalities, 1 autonomous republic.

Defense budget (2003): \$843 mil.

Active troops: 295,500.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Hryvnia (UAH) (Sept. 2005: 4.98 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 6-17.

Literacy: 99.7%.

Ukrainians' Slavic ancestors inhabited modern Ukrainian territory well before the first century AD. In the 9th century, the princes of Kiev established a strong state called Kievan Rus, which included much of present-day Ukraine. At the crossroads of European trade routes, Kievan Rus reached its zenith under Yaroslav the Wise (1019-1054). Internal conflicts led to the disintegration of the Ukrainian state by the 13th century. Mongol rule was supplanted by Poland and Lithuania in the 14th and 15th centuries. The N Black Sea coast and Crimea came under the control of the Turks in 1478. Ukrainian Cossacks, starting in the late 16th century, rebelled against the occupiers of Ukraine: Russia, Poland, and Turkey.

An independent Ukrainian National Republic was proclaimed on Jan. 22, 1918. But in 1921, Ukraine's neighbours occupied and divided Ukrainian territory. In 1922, Ukraine became a constituent republic of the USSR as the Ukrainian SSR. In 1932-33, the Soviet government engineered a famine in eastern Ukraine, resulting in the deaths of 6-7 million Ukrainians. During World War II the

Ukrainian nationalist underground fought both Nazi and Soviet forces. Over 5 million Ukrainians died in the war. With the reoccupation of Ukraine by Soviet troops in 1944 came a renewed wave of mass arrests, executions, and deportations.

The world's worst nuclear power plant disaster occurred in Chernobyl, Ukraine, in April 1986; many thousands were killed or disabled as a result of the radiation leak. The plant was finally shut down Dec. 15, 2000.

Ukrainian independence was restored in Dec. 1991 with the dissolution of the Soviet Union. In the post-Soviet period Ukraine was burdened with a deteriorating economy. Following a 1994 accord with Russia and the U.S., Ukraine's large nuclear arsenal was transferred to Russia for destruction. A new constitution legalizing private property and establishing Ukrainian as the sole official language was approved by parliament June 29, 1996. In May 1997, Russia and Ukraine resolved disputes over the Black Sea fleet and the future of Sevastopol and signed a long-delayed treaty of friendship.

President since 1994, Leonid Kuchma attempted to engineer the election in 2004 of his handpicked successor, Prime Min. Viktor Yanukovych, also favored by Russia. The main challenger, Viktor Yushchenko, a former prime min., was poisoned in Sept. with dioxin, but continued to campaign. Official results of a runoff vote Nov. 21 showed a win for Yanukovych. Yushchenko supporters, calling the election fraudulent, staged massive protests (the "orange revolution"), and the vote was annulled. An election rerun Dec. 26 gave the victory to Yushchenko. Inaugurated Jan. 23, 2005, he dismissed his cabinet Sept. 8, amid allegations of infighting and corruption among his top aides. Ukraine, with 1,650 troops in Iraq, said it would pull them out by October.

United Kingdom
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

People:

Population: 60,441,457.

Pop. density: 639 per sq mi, 247 per sq km.

Urban: 89.1%.

Ethnic groups: English 81.5%, Scottish 9.6%, Irish 2.4%, Welsh 1.9%, Ulster 1.9%, West Indian, Indo-Pakistani, and other 2.8%.

Principal languages: English (official), Welsh and Scottish Gaelic.

Chief religions: Christian 72%, Muslim 3%, many others.

Geography:

Total area: 94,526 sq mi, 244,820 sq km;

Land area: 93,278 sq mi, 241,590 sq km.

Location: Off the NW coast of Europe, across English Channel, Strait of Dover, and North Sea.

Neighbours: Ireland to W, France to SE.

Topography: England is mostly rolling land, rising to Uplands of southern Scotland; Lowlands are in center of Scotland, granite Highlands are in N. Coast is heavily indented, especially on W. British Isles have milder climate than N Europe due to the Gulf Stream and ample rainfall. Severn, 220 mi., and Thames, 215 mi., are longest rivers.

Capital: London, 7,619,000.

Government:

Type: Constitutional monarchy.

Head of state: Queen Elizabeth II; b Apr. 21, 1926; in office: Feb. 6, 1952.

Head of gov.: Prime Min. Tony Blair; b May 6, 1953; in office: May 2, 1997. Local divisions: 467 local authorities, including England: 387; Wales: 22; Scotland: 32; Northern Ireland: 26.

Defense budget (2004): \$49 bil.

Active troops: 207,630.

Finance:

Monetary unit: Pound (GBP) (Sept. 2005: 0.68 = \$1 U.S.).

Education:

Compulsory: ages 5-16.

Literacy: 99%.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland comprises England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland.

Queen and Royal Family. The ruling sovereign is Elizabeth II of the House of Windsor, b Apr. 21, 1926, and elder daughter of King George VI. She succeeded to the throne Feb. 6, 1952, and was crowned June 2, 1953. She was married Nov. 20, 1947, to Lt. Philip Mountbatten, b June 10, 1921, former Prince of Greece. He was created Duke of Edinburgh, and given the title H.R.H., Nov. 19, 1947; he was named Prince of the United Kingdom and Northern Ireland Feb. 22, 1957. Prince Charles Philip Arthur George, b Nov. 14, 1948, is the Prince of Wales and heir apparent. His 1st son, William Philip Arthur Louis, b June 21, 1982, is second in line to the throne.

Parliament is the legislative body for the UK, with certain powers over dependent units. It consists of 2 houses: The House of Commons has 646 members, elected by direct ballot and divided as follows: England 529; Wales 40; Scotland 59; Northern Ireland 18. Following a drastic reduction in the number of hereditary peerages, the House of Lords (July 2005) comprised 92 hereditary peers, 614 life peers, and 1 archbishop and 24 bishops of the Church of England, for a total of 731.

Resources and Industries. Great Britain's major occupations are manufacturing and trade. Metals and metal-using industries contribute more than 50% of exports. Of about 60 million acres of land in England, Wales, and Scotland, 46 million are farmed, of which 17 million are arable, the rest pastures.

Large oil and gas fields have been found in the North Sea. Commercial oil production began in 1975. There are large deposits of coal.

Britain imports all of its cotton, rubber, sulphur, about 80% of its wool, half of its food and iron ore, also certain amounts of pa-

per, tobacco, chemicals. Manufactured goods made from these basic materials have been exported since the industrial age began. Main exports are machinery, chemicals, textiles, clothing, autos and trucks, iron and steel, locomotives, ships, jet aircraft, farm machinery, drugs, radio, TV, radar and navigation equipment, scientific instruments, arms, whisky.

Religion and Education. The Church of England is Protestant Episcopal. The queen is its temporal head, with rights of appointments to archbishoprics, bishoprics, and other offices. There are 2 provinces, Canterbury and York, each headed by an archbishop. The most famous church is Westminster Abbey (1050-1760), site of coronations, tombs of Elizabeth I, Mary, Queen of Scots, kings, poets, and of the Unknown Warrior.

The most celebrated British universities are Oxford and Cambridge, each dating to the 13th century. There are about 70 other universities.

History. Britain was part of the continent of Europe until about 6,000 BC, but migration across the English Channel continued long afterward. Celts arrived 2,500 to 3,000 years ago. Their language survives in Welsh, and Gaelic enclaves.

England was added to the Roman Empire in AD 43. After the withdrawal of Roman legions in 410, waves of Jutes, Angles, and Saxons arrived from German lands. They contended with Danish raiders for control from the 8th through 11th centuries. The last successful invasion was by French speaking Normans in 1066, who united the country with their dominions in France.

Opposition by nobles to royal authority forced King John to agree to the Magna Carta in 1215, a guarantee of rights and the rule of law, in the ensuing decades, the foundations of the parliamentary system were laid.

English dynastic claims to large parts of France led to the Hundred Years War, 1338-1453, and the defeat of England. A long civil war, the War of the Roses, lasted 1455-85, and ended with the establishment of the powerful Tudor monarchy. A distinct English civilization flourished. The economy prospered over

long periods of domestic peace unmatched in continental Europe. Religious independence was secured when the Church of England was separated from the authority of the pope in 1534.

Under Queen Elizabeth I, England became a major naval power, leading to the founding of colonies in the new world and the expansion of trade with Europe and the Orient. Scotland was united with England when James VI of Scotland was crowned James I of England in 1603.

A struggle between Parliament and the Stuart kings led to a bloody civil war, 1642-49, and the establishment of a republic under the Puritan Oliver Cromwell. The monarchy was restored in 1660, but the "Glorious Revolution" of 1688 confirmed the sovereignty of Parliament: a Bill of Rights was granted 1689.

In the 18th century, parliamentary rule was strengthened. Technological and entrepreneurial innovations led to the Industrial Revolution. The 13 North American colonies were lost, but replaced by growing empires in Canada and India. Britain's role in the defeat of Napoleon, 1815, strengthened its position as the leading world power.

The extension of the franchise in 1832 and 1867, the formation of trade unions, and the development of universal public education were among the drastic social changes that accompanied the spread of industrialization and urbanization in the 19th century. Large parts of Africa and Asia were added to the empire during the reign of Queen Victoria, 1837-1901.

Though victorious in World War I, Britain suffered huge casualties and economic dislocation. Ireland became independent in 1921, and independence movements became active in India and other colonies. The country suffered major bombing damage in World War II, but held out against Germany single-handedly for a year after France fell in 1940.

Industrial growth continued in the postwar period, but Britain lost its leadership position to other powers. Labor governments passed socialist programs nationalizing some basic industries and expanding social security. Prime Min. Margaret Thatcher's Con-

servative government, however, tried to increase the role of private enterprise. In 1987, Thatcher became the first British leader in 160 years to be elected to a 3rd consecutive term as prime minister. Falling on unpopular times, she resigned as prime minister in Nov. 1990. Her successor, John Major, led Conservatives to an upset victory at the polls, Apr. 9, 1992.

The UK supported the UN resolutions against Iraq and sent military forces to the Persian Gulf War. The Channel Tunnel linking Britain to the Continent was inaugurated May 6, 1994. Britain's relations with the European Union, and France especially, were frayed in 1996 when the EU banned British beef because of the threat of "mad cow" disease.

On May 1, 1997, the Labour Party swept into power in a landslide victory, the largest of any party since 1935. Labour Party leader Tony Blair, 43, became Britain's youngest prime minister since 1812. Diana, Princess of Wales, died in a car crash in Paris, Aug. 31. Britain played a leading role in the NATO air war against Yugoslavia, Mar.-June 1999, and contributed 12,000 troops to the multinational security force in Kosovo (KFOR).

Blair led Labour to another landslide election victory June 7, 2001. After the Sept. 11 attack on the U.S., Britain took an important role in the U.S.-led war against terrorism. The U.K. participated in the bombing of Afghanistan that began Oct. 7. Overcoming dissent within his own cabinet, Blair committed British troops to the U.S.-led invasion of Iraq, Mar.-Apr. 2003. Forces from the U.K. (8,500 in mid-2005) remained to occupy S Iraq.

In elections May 5, 2005, Blair became the first Labour prime minister to win 3 consecutive terms, but continued controversy over Iraq reduced his parliamentary majority. Suicide bombings on 3 London underground trains and a bus, July 7, left 56 people dead and hundreds injured; police identified the bombers as 4 British Muslim men (3 of Pakistani origin). Another series of bombs on July 21 misfired, causing minimal damage to London transport. All 4 suspected would-be bombers were arrested. On Aug. 5 Blair unveiled a series of proposed measures to crack

down on extremism and terrorism.

Wales

The Principality of Wales in western Britain has an area of 8,019 sq. mi. and a population (2003 est.) of 2,938,200. Cardiff is the capital, pop. (2001 est.; city proper) 305,000.

Less than 20% of Wales residents speak English and Welsh; about 32,000 speak Welsh solely. A 1979 referendum rejected, 4-1, the creation of an elected Welsh assembly; a similar proposal passed by a thin margin on Sept. 18, 1997. Elections for the 60-seat assembly were held May 6, 1999, and May 1, 2003.

Early Anglo-Saxon invaders drove Celtic peoples into the mountains of Wales, terming them Waelise (Welsh, or foreign). There they developed a distinct nationality. Members of the ruling house of Gwynedd in the 13th century fought England but were crushed, 1283. Edward of Caernarvon, son of Edward I of England, was created Prince of Wales, 1301.

Scotland

Scotland, a kingdom now united with England and Wales in Great Britain, occupies the northern 37% of the main British island, and the Hebrides, Orkney, Shetland, and smaller islands. Length 275 mi., breadth approx. 150 mi., area 30,418 sq. mi., population (2003 est) 5,057,400.

The Lowlands, a belt of land approximately 60 mi. wide from the Firth of Clyde to the Firth of Forth, divide the farming region of the Southern Uplands from the granite Highlands of the North; they contain 75% of the population and most of the industry. The Highlands, famous for hunting and fishing, have been opened to industry by many hydroelectric power stations.

Edinburgh, pop. (2001 est., city proper) 449,000, is the capital. Glasgow, pop. (2001 est.; city proper) 579,000, is Britain's greatest industrial center. It is a shipbuilding complex on the Clyde and an ocean port. Aberdeen, pop. (1996 est.) 227,430, NE of Edinburgh, is a major port, center of granite industry, fish-processing, and North Sea oil exploration. Dundee, pop. (1996 est.) 150,250, NE of Edinburgh, is an industrial and fish-

processing center. About 90,000 persons speak Gaelic as well as English.

History. Scotland was called Caledonia by the Romans who battled early Celtic tribes and occupied southern areas from the 1st to the 4th centuries. Missionaries from Britain introduced Christianity in the 4th century; St. Columba, an Irish monk, converted most of Scotland in the 6th century.

The Kingdom of Scotland was founded in 1018. William Wallace and Robert Bruce both defeated English armies 1297 and 1314, respectively.

In 1603 James VI of Scotland, son of Mary, Queen of Scots, succeeded to the throne of England as James I, and effected the Union of the Crowns. In 1707 Scotland received representation in the British Parliament, resulting from the union of former separate Parliaments. Its executive in the British cabinet is the Secretary of State for Scotland. The growing Scottish National Party urges independence. A 1979 referendum on the creation of an elected Scottish assembly was defeated, but a proposal to create a regional legislature with limited taxing authority passed by a landslide Sept. 11, 1997. Elections for the 129-seat parliament were held May 6, 1999, and May 1, 2003.

Memorials of Robert Burns, Sir Walter Scott, John Knox, and Mary, Queen of Scots, draw many tourists, as do the beauties of the Trossachs, Loch Katrine, Loch Lomond, and abbey ruins.

Industries. Engineering products are the most important industry, with growing emphasis on office machinery, autos, electronics, and other consumer goods. Oil has been discovered offshore in the North Sea, stimulating on-shore support industries.

Scotland produces fine woolens, worsteds, tweeds, silks, fine linens, and jute. It is known for its special breeds of cattle and sheep. Fisheries have large hauls of herring, cod, whiting. Whisky is the biggest export.

The Hebrides are a group of c. 500 islands, 100 inhabited, off the W coast. The Inner Hebrides include Skye, Mull, and Iona, the last famous for the arrival of St. Columba, AD 563. The Outer

Hebrides include Lewis and Harris. Industries include sheep raising and weaving. The Orkney Islands, c. 90, are to the NE. The capital is Kirkwall, on Pomona Isl. Fish curing, sheep raising, and weaving are occupations. NE of the Orkneys are the 200 Shetland Islands, 24 inhabited, home of Shetland ponies. The Orkneys and Shetlands are centers for the North Sea oil industry.

Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland was constituted in 1920 from 6 of the 9 counties of Ulster, the NE corner of Ireland. Area 5,452 sq. mi., pop. (2003 est) 1,702,600. Capital and chief industrial center, Belfast, pop. (2001 est.; city proper) 277,000.

Industries. Shipbuilding, including large tankers, has long been an important industry, centered in Belfast, the largest port. Linen manufacture is also important, along with apparel, rope, and twine. Growing diversification has added engineering products, synthetic fibers, and electronics. There are large numbers of cattle, hogs, and sheep. Potatoes, poultry, and dairy foods are also produced.

Government. An act of the British Parliament, 1920, divided Northern from Southern Ireland, each with a parliament and government. When Ireland became a dominion, 1921, and later a republic, Northern Ireland chose to remain a part of the United Kingdom. It elects 18 members to the House of Commons.

During 1968-69, large demonstrations were conducted by Roman Catholics who charged they were discriminated against in voting rights, housing, and employment. The Catholics, a minority comprising about a third of the population, demanded abolition of property qualifications for voting in local elections. Violence and terrorism intensified, involving branches of the Irish Republican Army (outlawed in the Irish Republic), Protestant groups, police, and British troops.

A succession of Northern Ireland prime ministers pressed reform programs but failed to satisfy extremists on both sides. Between 1969 and 1994 more than 3,000 were killed in sectarian violence, many in England itself. Britain suspended the Northern

Ireland parliament Mar. 30, 1972, and imposed direct British rule. A coalition government was formed in 1973 when moderates won election to a new one-house Assembly. But a Protestant general strike overthrew the government in 1974 and direct rule was resumed.

The agony of Northern Ireland was dramatized in 1981 by the deaths of 10 Irish nationalist hunger strikers in Maze Prison near Belfast. In 1985 the Hillsborough agreement gave the Rep. of Ireland a voice in the governing of Northern Ireland; the accord was strongly opposed by Ulster loyalists. On Dec. 12, 1993, Britain and Ireland announced a declaration of principles to resolve the Northern Ireland conflict.

A settlement reached on Good Friday, April 10, 1998, provided for restoration of home rule and election of a 108-member assembly with safeguards for minority rights. Both Ireland and Great Britain agreed to give up their constitutional claims on Northern Ireland. The accord was approved May 22 by voters in Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic, and elections to the assembly were held June 25. IRA dissidents seeking to derail the agreement were responsible for a bomb at Omagh Aug. 15 that killed 29 people and injured over 330.

London transferred authority to a Northern Ireland power-sharing government Dec. 2, 1999. Delays in IRA disarmament led to several suspensions of self-government, most recently from Oct. 15, 2002. The IRA stated July 28, 2005, that it had renounced violence and ordered all units to disarm. In response, the British began reducing their military presence in the region. On Sept. 26, an international monitoring group reported that the IRA had apparently scrapped its entire arsenal.

Education and Religion. Northern Ireland is about 58% Protestant, 42% Roman Catholic. Education is compulsory between the ages of 5 and 16 years.

Vatican City (The Holy See)

People:

Population: 921.

Urban: 100%.

Ethnic groups: Italian, Swiss, other.

Principal languages: Latin (official), Italian, French, Monastic Sign Language, various others.

Chief religion: Roman Catholic.

Geography:

Area: (total): 108.7 acres.

Location: In Rome, Italy.

Neighbours: Completely surrounded by Italy.

Note: dignitaries, priests, nuns, guards, and 3,000 lay workers live outside the Vatican.

Finance:

Euro (EUR) (Sept. 2005: 0.80 = \$1 U.S.).

Budget (2002): \$260.4 mil.

Transport:

Railroad: Length: 1 ml.

The popes for many centuries, with brief interruptions, held temporal sovereignty over mid-Italy (the so-called Papal States), comprising an area of some 16,000 sq. mi., with a population in the 19th century of more than 3 million. This territory was incorporated in the new Kingdom of Italy (1861), the sovereignty of the pope being confined to the palaces of the Vatican and the Lateran in Rome and the villa of Castel Gandolfo, by an Italian law, May 13, 1871. This law also guaranteed to the pope and his successors a yearly indemnity of over \$620,000. The allowance, however, remained unclaimed.

A Treaty of Conciliation, a concordat, and a financial convention were signed Feb. 11, 1929, by Cardinal Gasparri and Premier Mussolini. The documents established the independent state of Vatican City and gave the Roman Catholic church special status in Italy. The treaty (Lateran Agreement) was made part of the Constitution of Italy (Article 7) in 1947. Italy and the Vatican signed an agreement in 1984 on revisions of the concordat; the accord eliminated Roman Catholicism as the state religion and ended required religious education in Italian schools.

Vatican City includes the Basilica of Saint Peter, the Vatican Palace and Museum covering over 13 acres, the Vatican gardens, and neighboring buildings between Viale Vaticano and the church. Thirteen buildings in Rome, outside the boundaries, enjoy extraterritorial rights; these buildings house congregations or officers necessary for the administration of the Holy See.

The legal system is based on the code of canon law, the apostolic constitutions, and laws especially promulgated for the Vatican City by the pope. The Secretariat of State represents the Holy See in its diplomatic relations. By the Treaty of Conciliation the pope is pledged to a perpetual neutrality unless his mediation is specifically requested. This, however, does not prevent the defense of the Church whenever it is persecuted.

The present sovereign of the State of Vatican City is the Supreme Pontiff Benedict XVI, born Joseph Ratzinger in Marktl am Inn, Germany, Apr. 16, 1927, elected Apr. 19, 2005.

The U.S. restored formal relations in 1984 after the U.S. Congress repealed an 1867 ban on diplomatic relations with the Vatican. The Vatican and Israel agreed to establish formal relations Dec. 30, 1993.

Check Yourself

1. Fill in the chart, using the information about the bigger European countries.

Country	Capital	Population	Location	Area	Type of Government	Important Historical Event
Italy	Rome				Republic	
	Sarajevo		On Balkan Peninsular in SE Europe	19,7 sq km		
Slovakia	Bratislava		In E Central Europe			
Denmark		5,4 mln	In N Europe			
		1,3 mln			Republic	Proclamation of a free country in March 1990
		8,2 mln		83,8 sq km		1918 severe territorial reduction after the empire was destroyed.
	Kyiv	46,9 mln				
			In Central Europe	357,0 sq km		Unification of the country in 1991
		60,4 mln	Off the NW coast of Europe across English Channel, Strait of Dover and North Sea		Monarchy	
	Paris		In western Europe near Atlantic Ocean			

Country	Capital	Population	Location	Area	Type of Government	Important Historical Event
	Skopje	2,0 mln	In SE Europe			
	Madrid			504,7 th sq km	Constitutional monarchy	
				312 th sq km	Republic	Membership in European Union – May 1, 2004
	Budapest		In E Central Europe		Parliamentary democracy	
			In NW Europe an North Sea	41,5 sq km	Parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarch	

2. Fill in the chart about the small European countries (with the population less than 1 mln. people).

Country	Capital	Population	Location	Area	Type of Government	Important Historical Event
Cyprus		780 th.			Republic	
	Vaduz				Hereditary constitutional monarchy	Sovereignty in 1806
Luxembourg		468 th.				Leaving the Germanic Confederation in 1866
		28,8 th	In N central Italy near Adriatic coast		Republic	
	Monaco-ville		On the NW Mediterranean coast			

3. Answer the following questions:

1. Which European country has the largest (smallest) area?
2. Which countries founded the European Union?
3. Which country joined the European Union the last?
4. In which countries are there more than one spoken languages? Which languages are these?
5. Which countries have more than one capital?
6. Which European capital is the biggest in population?
7. Which countries obtained independence after 1990?
8. Which countries used to be parts of other countries? When did they become independent?

PART III. ADDITIONAL READING

THE BIRTH OF MODERN EUROPE

The growing prosperity and spiritual unity of Europe was shattered at the beginning of the 16th century. In 1517 a German priest, Martin Luther, launched a protest movement against what he felt were abuses by the Roman Catholic Church. Neither the pope nor the Holy Roman emperor was able to contain the Protestant movement. Emperor Charles V, who also ruled as the king of Spain, was preoccupied protecting his own far-flung possessions. The Church itself was at first too entangled in local politics to concern itself with Luther's heresy. By the time the pope and the emperor were free to act, Luther's Protestant followers numbered in the thousands. The Counter Reformation launched by the papacy and supported by the Habsburg Holy Roman emperor reformed and reorganized the Church and succeeded in retaining most of its followers in southern and central Europe.

Yet national ambitions and religious beliefs continued to fan the flames of war. Throughout the closing years of the 16th century, civil wars raged in France, ending only when Henry of Navarre abandoned his Protestantism to become King Henry IV. However, he gave a wide degree of freedom to the Protestants in his kingdom. Spain's provinces in the Netherlands gained what amounted to independence in the early 17th century and divided along religious lines – a fact that is reflected today in the existence of predominantly Catholic Belgium and the largely Protestant Netherlands. The civil war that raged in England between 1642 and 1648 involved Protestant sects, but was caused by questions about Parliament's power as well. By 1689 the issue was resolved in favor of the Anglican Church and the supremacy of Parliament.

The most terrible religious wars of the 17th century were caused by the Habsburg emperors' efforts to suppress Protestantism in Bohemia (now part of the Czech Republic) and Germany, and ultimately involved Sweden, Denmark, and France. The Thir-

ty Years' War (1618-48), as it is known, resulted in the worst devastation Germany was to experience until World War II. The German states remained divided between the Roman Catholic and Protestant faiths. Politically, a union of the German states was delayed by the religious issues. The powerful, united monarchy of France became the leading European state.

By the middle of the 17th century, the religious quarrels were largely settled, and the interests awakened by the Renaissance could be pursued again. The work of such scientists and philosophers as Sir Isaac Newton, Rene Descartes, Baruch Spinoza, and John Locke seemed to show that humans and their universe were subject to natural laws that could be observed, measured, and predicted. If, indeed, the world was based on these orderly, clockwork principles, it meant that people and their institutions could be improved by using reason. History itself was seen as a staircase on which humankind was rising to higher levels.

Throughout the 18th century in Europe and America, educated people explored the philosophic, scientific, economic, political, and religious consequences of these theories. The result was an intellectual revolution. Humans, whom religion had portrayed as helpless victims of uncontrollable forces, were transformed into rational creatures capable of guiding and improving their own destinies. Such ideas fitted the views of the prosperous, self-made middle class perfectly, but threatened the very existence of organized religion and absolute monarchy. The political theorists of the 18th century first thought that the most appropriate form of government would be "enlightened despotism"; that is, government based on the rule of an intelligent monarch who could impose and enforce reforms. Such monarchs as Catherine II of Russia, Joseph II of Austria, and Friedrich (Frederick) II of Prussia seemed to embody the virtues of the enlightened despot. In France, with its absolute monarch, and in the American colonies, ruled by a distant king, the ideas of the Enlightenment were the seeds of revolution.

CONTEMPORARY EUROPE

In March 1985, the last of the old guard of Soviet Communist leaders died, and was replaced by a representative of the new generation, Mikhail Gorbachev. Intelligent and pragmatic, Gorbachev set out to accomplish the impossible, namely, to reform the Soviet system, but it was like trying to square the circle. His policy of *glasnost* turned out to be a Pandora's box, and his *perestroika* dismantled the old economic structures without replacing them with anything new. Only the "new thinking" in foreign affairs proved to be a success because it led to the end of the Cold War.

In 1989, old-line Communist leaders stepped down with astonishing speed and restraint in Poland, Hungary, East Germany, Bulgaria, and Czechoslovakia. Only in Romania did the regime make a last-ditch effort to retain power, but it failed, and Romanian dictator Nicolae Ceausescu was executed in late December 1989.

In October 1990, East and West Germany were unified, and in early 1991 the last outpost of European Communism, Albania, held its first-ever free elections. The other European Communist maverick, Yugoslavia, began a violent breakup into separate constituent republics.

In August 1991, a group of Soviet hard-liners tried to stem the separatist tendencies within the Soviet Union, but their coup failed, and Boris Yeltsin, the president of Russia, carried the day. Gorbachev resigned on December 25, 1991, as the last Soviet leader, and the red Soviet flag with hammer and sickle was lowered to signify the end of the empire.

The last decade of the century thus opened a new era for Europe. In January 1993, the European Union (EU) introduced its single market of goods, labor, and capital, and the following year it admitted four new members – Austria, Sweden, Finland, and Norway – pending popular referendums in each of these countries. Meanwhile, however, high unemployment in most of Western Europe and endless unsuccessful efforts to stop ethnic fighting in

Bosnia and Herzegovina cast gloom throughout the region, and a sense of purpose seemed to be lost.

In the first referendum about joining the EU, which took place in Austria in June 1994, two-thirds of the voters approved the union. This event reinvigorated the idea of European integration and also greatly encouraged such countries as the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovakia, and Hungary, because it increased their chances of admission to the EU.

The Future of Europe. Europe today is entering uncharted territory, with many uncertainties ahead. The end of Cold War divisions and the creation of a unified market have created a political environment unlike any the continent has previously experienced. If the nationalist conflict is finally resolved in Bosnia and Herzegovina, if no large-scale violence and chaos erupt in Russia, and if the newly emerging post-Communist democracies succeed at their social transformation and economic reforms and join their Western neighbors, the dream of a truly unified Europe may be closer at hand than ever.

AFTER THE EMPIRE – CHANGES AT HOME

The political energy that once went into the empire has been transferred since World War II to Britain's internal social problems and the creation of the "welfare state." The British system of national insurance protects the old, sick, handicapped, deprived, unfortunate, and unemployed from acute distress or destitution. Compulsory contributions paid by all who have an income are paid out to all who would be unable to stay alive in modest comfort without help. The National Health Service, which is only one part of the system, provides medical and hospital service for all. It is no longer free, as it was when it was introduced in 1948, except to children and the aged. The payments required are small.

Among the big industrial countries Britain is in the front line in wiping out slums, poverty, human misery, and economic inequality. The worst of London's once notorious East End slums have largely

disappeared – after being hard-hit by Hitler's bombs in World War II. The infamous Gorbals – the Glasgow slums – have come down.

This concentration on social progress at home has been accompanied by a remarkable flowering of the arts. Though Britain was always known for its theaters, museums, and great literature, before World War II no one thought of it as a wellspring of music, ballet, films, and fine food. It is now.

Economic and social historians will want to study the causes of this third flowering of the arts in Britain. The first came in the reign of Elizabeth I (1558-1603); the second with the restoration of the Stuart dynasty under Charles II in 1660. The third began in 1954, immediately after the lifting of most, though not all, of the controls and rationing left over from World War II. A great sense of freedom and relaxation was felt in Britain for the first time in over 20 years. The rise in the level of achievement in all art forms took place almost immediately, and it carried the British islanders in a few years from the grim austerity of World War II to the gaiety of what has been called a second Restoration. Small wonder that to many British islanders this aftermath of empire has been tastier than its glory and its power. There has been little looking back with regret.

The 1970's, however, were a bad decade, marked by open warfare in Northern Ireland, terrorist attacks in England, high inflation, and increasingly sharp industrial strife. The decade culminated in the "winter of discontent" of 1978-79, when a wave of strikes paralyzed the economy. Economic dissatisfaction led to the defeat of the Labour Party in 1979 and the election of the nation's first woman prime minister, Conservative leader Margaret Thatcher. Her government embarked on a sweeping reorganization of the economy, which included lower income taxes, "privatization" of a number of state-owned enterprises, and a promotion of "popular capitalism," that is, increased home ownership and a much greater number of stockholders. These changes brought about widespread unemployment, but, despite that, Margaret Thatcher won a landslide victory in 1983, mostly because of her

tough stand in the Falkland Islands War. In 1987 the "Iron Lady" prime minister won a third term, making her the longest-tenured British prime minister in the 20th century. Her popularity fell over tax policies in 1989-90, and in November 1990, she resigned. John Major was elected to succeed Thatcher; he narrowly won reelection to a new five-year term in April 1992.

After the Empire – Changes in World Status

An incidental victim of the shift from world power to social progress at home was British influence in Europe. At the end of World War II, the leadership of Europe was Great Britain's for the taking. It passed up the chance. The saddest blunder in postwar history was the British decision to step out of the negotiations for the European Common Market.

The reason was tardiness in grasping the implications of withdrawal from empire. The European Economic Community (EEC) – the Common Market – was established and started operating in 1958. Not until 1963 did the British make application for membership. Negotiations began, but France suddenly vetoed the British application. The British persisted, however, and in 1973 Great Britain entered the Common Market.

Today Britain is preparing for the closer integration of the European Community (EC), known as the European Union (EU) since November 1993. It approved a treaty of political and economic union negotiated in Maastricht, the Netherlands, in December 1991. With its age of empire past, Britain's future lies in this cooperation with its European neighbors. In 1994 the "Chunnel," a tunnel running under the English Channel, was completed, connecting Britain to France and the rest of the European continent for the first time since the Ice Age.

GERMANY'S REBIRTH – THE YEARS AFTER WORLD WAR II

Armies of the United States, Britain, France, and the Soviet Union occupied Germany during the final phase of the war. For

purposes of the occupation, Germany was divided into four zones: American, British, French, and Soviet. In the same fashion, Berlin was divided into four sectors.

At the Potsdam Conference in the summer of 1945, the United States, Britain, and the Soviet Union discussed denazification, demilitarization, and the reeducation of Germany. No peace treaty was drafted, but territorial adjustments were made. Part of East Prussia was given to the Soviet Union. Poland received all of Germany east of the Oder and Neisse rivers. A forced removal of Germans from Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary resulted in a movement of about 10 million people, most of whom went to the Western zones.

Road to Reunification

The closing page of the postwar chapter of German history began in May 1989, when Hungary dismantled the barbed wire on its border with Austria. During the summer, some East Germans vacationing in Hungary took advantage of this opening to cross into Austria and then West Germany. Hundreds grew into tens of thousands, and later Czechoslovakia became a second transit point for a rising flood of East German citizens eager to leave. Street protests and demonstrations in many East German cities added pressure until the Communist Party ousted Erich Honecker, who had led the country for 18 years. The new leadership removed travel restrictions to the West, effectively neutralizing the Berlin Wall, in the hope that some relaxation would satisfy the citizens and encourage them to stay. The protests only grew, however, and in November the entire cabinet resigned, to be followed by most of the Politburo. Honecker and other former leaders were arrested on corruption charges, and the government was forced to agree to hold multiparty elections.

The first free elections in East Germany were held in March 1990, resulting in an overwhelming mandate for reunification with West Germany. A coalition government was formed with a free parliament, and negotiations on the mechanism of reunification began almost immediately. The talks were held in consultation

with France, Britain, the United States, and the Soviet Union, since these four countries still technically exercised authority as the occupying powers of World War II.

By mid-1990 reunification had already become a fact in many administrative areas. In July 1990, the two Germanys adopted one currency – the West German *Deutsche mark*, giving the East Germans access to Western goods and markets. On October 3, 1990, the two Germanys merged into one state, and the first all-German elections since 1937 took place in early December.

DE GAULLE AND THE FIFTH REPUBLIC

In May, 1958, faced with a *colon* and Army uprising in Algeria, the National Assembly called General de Gaulle to power. His condition for accepting leadership again was the adoption of a new constitution, with strengthened powers for the executive branch, as well as economic and social reforms. France had grown tired of unstable politics and cabinet crises. The constitution was accepted by approximately 80 percent of French voters.

De Gaulle's Fifth Republic began in June, 1958. By 1962 the Algerian conflict was settled, and Algeria became independent. The new Constitution had also created the French Community – an association of France and its former colonies.

De Gaulle was president of the Fifth Republic for 11 years. During this period he attempted to reshape France so it would develop according to his aims. He believed that France should be strong internally and that it should be the leader of Europe as well. Because of this, in 1966 he withdrew France from NATO military affairs. And throughout his presidency, he blocked Britain's entry into the European Economic Community (EEC, or Common Market).

But eventually, in spite of a strong economy and stable government, dissatisfaction grew. In 1969 de Gaulle's proposals for further constitutional reform were rejected, and he resigned. He died in 1970. Later presidents governed France along conservative

lines until Francois Mitterrand, a Socialist, was elected in 1981. He nationalized some banks and industries, but was forced by conservative gains to moderate his policies. Mitterrand was reelected in 1988, and in 1991 made history by naming France's first woman prime minister, Edith Cresson. In 1993 elections, a huge defeat for the Socialists resulted in a dramatic shift toward the right for the French National Assembly.

POPE BENEDICT XVI

Pope John Paul II Dies; Cardinal Ratzinger Elected to Succeed Him – Pope John Paul II, supreme pontiff of the Roman Catholic Church for more than a quarter century, died April 2 in his apartment at the Vatican. Already afflicted with arthritis and Parkinson's disease, he suffered in his last weeks from a urinary tract infection and a bacterial infection that led to organ failure. Having chosen not to return to the hospital, he received last rites Mar. 31. The Vatican said Apr. 1 that he remained lucid, but he lapsed into unconsciousness the next day.

The pope's body was carried to St. Peter's Basilica to lie in state on Apr. 4, and during the next 3 days some 2 million people passed by his bier. In Rome and throughout the world, the public mourned the passing of a widely admired, though to some extent controversial, figure who had been called the pope's pope.

Some 200 world leaders attended services for the pope. The U.S. contingent, which included Pres. George W. Bush and former presidents George H.W. Bush and Bill Clinton, arrived in Rome Apr. 6. The pope's body was taken outside the basilica for the funeral mass Apr. 8, with 300,000 in attendance, including a large Polish delegation, in St. Peter's Square. Many chanted for the pope to be proclaimed a saint. Cardinal Joseph Ratzinger, head of the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith, gave the homily. John Paul II was then buried in the church's crypt.

Cardinal Joseph Ratzinger of Germany, already one of the most powerful leaders of the Roman Catholic Church, was elected

pope in voting by the Church's College of Cardinals in Rome on Apr. 19. Since 1981, he had headed the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith, which enforced doctrinal orthodoxy. He was also a close adviser to Pope John Paul II, and was seen as someone who would continue to implement the late pope's conservative policies. The new pope chose the name Benedict XVI; at 78, he was the oldest pope elected since 1730.

On Apr. 18, the cardinals had begun their conclave to choose the new pope. Voting was limited to the 115 cardinals who were present and under age 80. Meeting in the Sistine Chapel and pledged to secrecy, they reached a quick decision, giving Ratzinger the required two-thirds majority by the 4th ballot. The decision was signaled by the release of white smoke from a chimney above the stove in which the ballots were burned, and by a clanging of bells throughout Rome. Shortly thereafter, Benedict XVI appeared on a balcony above St. Peter's Square and greeted a huge crowd that had awaited the outcome.

In celebrating his first mass as pope Apr. 20, he said he would continue John Paul's policies. On Apr. 24 he was formally installed as the 265th pope.

POST-COLD WAR WORLD: 1990-99

Soviet Empire breakup. The world community witnessed the extraordinary disintegration of the Soviet Union into 15 independent states. The 1980s had already seen internal reforms and a decline of Communist power both within the Soviet Union and in Eastern Europe. The Soviet Breakup began in earnest with the declarations of independence adopted by the Baltic republics of Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia during an abortive coup against reformist leader Mikhail Gorbachev (Aug. 1991). The other republics soon took the same step. In Dec. 1991, Russia, Ukraine, and Belarus declared the Soviet Union dead; Gorbachev reigned, and the Soviet Parliament went out of existence. The Warsaw Pact and the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (Comecon)

were disbanded. Most of the former Soviet republics joined in a loose confederation called the Commonwealth of Independent States. Russia remained the predominant country after the breakup, but its people soon suffered severe economic hardship as the nation, under Pres. Yeltsin, moved to revamp the economy and adopt a free market system. In Oct. 1993, anti-Yeltsin forces occupied the Parliament building and were ousted by the army; about 140 people died in the fighting.

The Muslim republic of Chechnya declared independence from the rest of Russia, but this was met with an invasion by Russian troops (Dec. 1994). After almost 21 months of vicious fighting, a cease-fire took hold in 1996, and the Russians withdrew. In 1999 Russia forcibly suppressed Muslim insurgents in Dagestan and entered neighboring Chechnya, again fighting to gain control over separatist rebels there. Yeltsin resigned office Dec. 31, 1999, to be replaced by Vladimir Putin (elected in his own right, Mar. 2000).

Europe. Yugoslavia broke apart, and hostilities ensued among the republics along ethnic and religious lines. Croatia, Slovenia, and Macedonia declared independence (1991), followed by Bosnia-Herzegovina (1992). Serbia and Montenegro remained as the republic of Yugoslavia. Bitter fighting followed, especially in Bosnia, where Serbs reportedly engaged in "**ethnic cleansing**" of the Muslim population; a peace plan (Dayton accord), brokered by the United States, was signed by **Bosnia, Serbia, and Croatia** (Dec.. 1995), with **NATO** responsible for policing its implementation. In spring 1999, NATO conducted a bombing campaign aimed at stopping Yugoslavia from its campaign to drive out ethnic Albanians from the Kosovo region; a peace accord was reached in June under which **NATO** peacekeeping troops entered Kosovo.

The two Germanys were reunited after 45 years (Oct. 1990). The union was greeted with jubilation, but stresses became apparent when free market principles were applied to the aging East German industries, resulting in many plant closings and rising

unemployment. West German chancellor Helmut **Kohl**, a Christian Democrat, lost power after 16 years, in Sept. 1998 elections; Gerhard **Schroeder**, a Social Democrat, took over. Czechoslovakia broke apart peacefully (Jan. 1993), becoming the **Czech Republic and Slovakia**. In **Poland**, Lech **Walensa** was elected president (Dec. 1991) but was defeated in his bid for a 2nd term (Nov. 1995).

NATO approved the **Partnership for Peace** Program (Jan. 1994) coordinating the defense of **Eastern and Central European** countries; Russia joined the program later that year. NATO signed a pact with **Russia** (1997) providing for NATO expansion into the former Soviet-bloc countries; a similar treaty was set up with **Ukraine**. **The Czech Republic, Hungary, and Poland** became members in Jan. 1999; in that year NATO celebrated its 50th anniversary. Efforts toward European unity continued with adoption of a single market (Jan. 1993) and conversion of the European Community to the **European Union** as the Maestricht Treaty took effect (Nov. 1993). Agreement was reached for 11 EU members to participate in Economic and Monetary Union, adopting a common currency (**euro**) for some purposes in Jan. 1999.

An intraparty revolt forced Margaret **Thatcher** out as prime minister of **Great Britain**, to be succeeded by John **Major** (Nov. 1990); 7 years later, Major suffered an overwhelming defeat at the hands of the new Labour Party leader, Tony **Blair** (May 1997). The divorce of Prince **Charles** and Princess **Diana**, followed by the death of Diana in a car accident (Aug. 1997), made headlines around the world. Talks on **peace in Northern Ireland** that included participation of Sinn Fein, political arm of the IRA, led to a ground-breaking peace plan, approved in an all-Ireland vote (May 1998). In Dec. 1999, Northern Ireland was granted home rule under a power-sharing cabinet. In **Scotland** voters overwhelmingly approved establishment of a regional legislature (1997), and in **Wales** voters narrowly approved establishment of a local assembly (1997). In a historic innovation, the Church of England ordained 32 women as priests (Mar. 1994).

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