

МІНІСТЕРСТВО НАУКИ І ОСВІТИ УКРАЇНИ

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ЛІНГВОКРАЇНОЗНАВСТВО
Конспект лекцій

LINGO AREA STUDIES
Lectures

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Пропонований стислий конспект лекцій з лінгвокраїнознавства знайомить студентів з історією розвитку англійської мови, надає інформацію про культуру, економіку, географію та історію англомовних країн.

Для студентів старших курсів спеціальності “Прикладна лінгвістика”, які навчаються на факультетах з поглибленим вивченням іноземних мов у вищих навчальних закладах.

Lectures on **LINGO AREA STUDIES** inform students about the history of the English Language, the history of the English-speaking countries and their culture, geography and economy.

For senior students of the enhanced English learning departments, Applied Linguistics as their major.

Р е ц е н з е н т и: канд. філол. наук, доц. В.О. Дмитренко,
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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Посібник являє собою конспект лекцій з лінгвокраїнознавства і призначений для студентів, які поглиблено вивчають англійську мову.

У пропонованому курсі лекцій зібрано англомовні тексти, що містять матеріал, пов'язаний з географічними, політичними, культурними й історичними аспектами життя англомовних країн, а також з лінгвістичними процесами, які мали місце при формуванні англійської мови на різних етапах історичного розвитку.

Поряд з короткими екскурсами вказаної тематики особлива увага приділяється вивченню етимології запозичень з латинської, грецької, німецької й французької мов, які вже давно стали невід'ємною частиною лексики англійської мови.

Метою цього курсу лекцій є вивчення мовного середовища, процесів, що впливають на формування мови та зумовлюють зміни в ній, а також аналіз варіативних складових англійської мови у різних англомовних країнах і в різних сферах її вжитку.

LECTURE 1: INTRODUCTION

1. The idea of the course and study objectives
2. The World of English
3. The English language. Stages of historical development
4. German for English
5. French for English
6. Effects on the language
7. The English language and trade development
8. A Portrait of Great Britain: geographical location, political structure, cultural and historical overview, national symbols

1. The idea of the course and study objectives

The course presented (lingo area studies) has certain area and object of study and research as any of academic courses. In our work we shall study through the language environment, its formation, historical and cultural processes that influenced the English language and caused changes in it in different historical periods, and furthered its spread all over the world. This course is not only about the language; it's also about the people because people are the only instrument of influence and change, and thus development.

2. The World of English

Although English is not the language with the largest number of native or "first" language speakers, it has become a lingua franca*. A lingua franca can be defined as a language widely adopted for communication between two speakers

* Consult **VOCABULARY NOTES**

whose native languages are different from each other and is used by one or both speakers as a “second” language. Many people living in European Union, frequently operate in English as well as their own languages, and the economic and cultural influence of the United States has led to increased English use in many areas of the globe.

Like Latin in the Europe of the Middle Ages, English seems to be one of the main languages of international communication, and even people who are not speakers of English often know words such as *bank, chocolate, computer, hamburger, hospital, hot dog, hotel, piano, radio, restaurant, taxi, telephone, television, university, walkman*. Many of these words have been borrowed by English from other languages, and speakers of Romance* languages are likely to have number of words in common with English. But there are many “false friends” too, where similar sounding words actually mean something quite different, for example, Italian *eventualmente* (= in case) contrasts with English *eventually* (= in the end).

Whatever the spread of English across the globe and whatever its overlap* with other languages, there’s been intriguing debate over the years as to how many people speak English as either “first” or “second” language. Estimates* of speakers number are somewhat variable. For example, Braj Kachru* (1985) suggested that between 320-380 million people spoke English as a first language, and anywhere 250-350 million as a second language. On the other hand, David Crystal* (1995 and 1997) takes 75 territories where English “holds a special place” (territories that include not only Britain, the USA, Australia, Canada, etc. but also places such as Hong Kong, India, Malaysia, Nigeria) and calculates around 377 million first language speakers of English and only 98 million speakers of English as a second language.

In 1983, however, Kachru made a prediction which, if correct, means that there are now more second language than first language speakers. He wrote: *One might hazard* a linguistic guess here. If the spread of English continues at the current rate*, by the year 2000 its non-native speakers will outnumber* its native speakers.*

David Gradoll, writing some 14 years later, thought it would take until at least 2007 before this position was reached.

It is not necessarily the case that English will remain dominant among world languages. However, there's no doubt that it is and will remain a vital linguistic tool for many business people, academics, tourists and citizens of the world who wish to communicate easily across nationalities for many years to come.

There is a number of interlocking* reasons for the popularity of English as a lingua franca. Many of these are historical, but they also include economic and cultural factors which have influenced and sustained* the spread of the language:

- **A colonial history:** when the Pilgrim Fathers landed on the Massachusetts coast in 1620 after their eventful journey from Plymouth, England, they brought with them not just a set of religious beliefs, nor only a pioneering spirit and a desire for colonization, BUT also their LANGUAGE. Although many years later the Americans broke away from their colonial masters, the language of English remained and it is still the predominant language of the world's greatest economic and political power.

It was the same in Australia, too. When Commander Phillip planted the British flag in Sydney Cove on January, 26, 1788, it was not just the bunch of British convicts* who disembarked*, but also a LANGUAGE.

In other parts of the British Empire, English rapidly became a unifying / dominating means of control. For example, it became a lingua franca in India, where a plethora* of indigenous* languages made the use of any of them as a whole country system problematic. The imposition* of English as the only language of administration helped maintain the colonizer's power.

Thus, in the same way as Spanish was imposed on much of the new world by the conquistadors from Castile, or Brazil and parts of Africa took on the language of their Portuguese conquerors, English travelled around many parts of the world, until, many years from the colonial reality that introduced it, and long after that colonial power has faded away, it is widely used as a main or at least an

institutional language in countries as far apart as Jamaica and Pakistan, Uganda and New Zealand.

- **Economics:** a major factor in the spread of English has been the spread of commerce throughout the world, and in particular, the emergence of the United States as a world economic power. Of course other economic blocks are hugely powerful too, but the spread of international commerce has taken English along with it. This is the 20th-century phenomenon of “globalization” described by the journalist John Pilger as ”... a term which journalists and politicians have made fashionable and which is often used in a positive sense to denote a “global village” of “ free trade”, hi-tech marvels and all kinds of possibilities that transcend* class, historical experience and ideology.”

Thus one of the first sights many travellers see arriving in countries such as Czech Republic or Brazil is a yellow twin-arched sign of a McDonald’s fast food restaurant. Whether we take a benign* view of such multinational economic activity or, like Pilger and others, view it as a threat to the identities of individual countries and local control, English is the language that frequently rides on its back.

- **Travel:** much travel and tourism is carried on around the world in English. Of course this is not always the case, as the multilingualism of many tourism workers in many countries demonstrates, but a visit to most airports on the globe will show signs not only in the language of the country, but also in English, just as many airline announcements are glossed* in English too, whatever is the language of the country the airport is situated in.

So far, English is also the preferred language of air traffic control in many countries and is used widely in sea travel communication.

- **Information exchange:** a great deal of academic discourse* around the world takes place in English. It is often a lingua franca of conferences, for example, and many journal articles in fields as diverse as astrophysics and zoology.

The first years of the Internet as a major channel for information exchange have also seen a marked predominance of English. This probably has something to

do with the Internet's roots in the USA and the predominance of its use there in the early days of World Wide Web.

● **Popular culture:** in the western world, at least, English is a dominating language in popular culture. Pop music in English saturates* the planet's airwaves. Thus many people who are not English speakers can sing words from their favorite English songs. Many people who are regular cinemagoers (or TV viewers) frequently hear English in subtitled films coming out of the USA. However, we have to remind ourselves that many countries do their best to fight against the cultural domination of the American movie.

3. The English Language. Stages of historical development

English belongs to the Teutonic or Germanic branch of the Indo-European family of languages. Three periods are usually recognized in its history:

1. Old English – from the time of the invasion of the Germanic tribes of the Angles, Saxons and Jutes in the 5-6th centuries, until the 9th century, after the Norman Conquest in 1066;
2. Middle English – from the middle of the 11th to the middle of the 15th centuries;
3. New English – from the middle of the 15th century to the present day. Besides, the last period is often subdivided into Early New English (1450-1700) and Modern English.

When the Anglo-Saxons* came to Britain*, they found the island inhabited by a people weaker in a military sense but more civilized than themselves because the Celts for some centuries had shared the civilization of the Roman Empire whose governors had ruled the country. So, Early English speech can be called a mixture of Celtic, Latin and German.

Other changes into the language were brought by two national disasters – the Danish and Norman Conquest. The Danes, who came first to rob Britain and then to settle there brought with them a distant relative of the Anglo-Saxon language which could even be understood without great difficulty. The Normans*, however, interrupted the tradition of this language by destroying its literature and

culture, and reducing it to the speech of uneducated peasants. English was no longer spoken by the nobility or taught at schools. French became the official language for centuries.

During the Middle and Modern English periods the English vocabulary has increased enormously as a result of borrowing from foreign languages. The revival of learning during the Renaissance gave a new impulse for borrowing new words from Latin. This period in the language development is called “the peaceful invasion”.

Britain’s growing position as a world power and the rapid development of America resulted in the introduction into English of words from languages in every part of the globe.

Today we do not speak the language that was used by Chaucer or Shakespeare. We even don’t converse like Dickens or Jane Austin, because the language is like a living organism – it is born, it lives and changes, and it may die if nobody speaks it any longer.

4. German for English

The Romans protected their province of Britain against the barbarian tribes until they left which was at the beginning of the 5th century. In the middle of the 5th century the Anglo-Saxons, Germanic tribes, invaded Britain. The Anglo-Saxon conquest is regarded as the beginning of the medieval history in Britain. The Anglo-Saxons were the ancestors of the English. As a result of the conquest they formed the majority of the population in Britain.

By the end of the 6th century and the beginning of the 7th century several kingdoms were formed on the territory of Britain conquered by the Germanic tribes. This territory later on became English proper. The Juts set up in the South-East and founded the kingdom of Kent. In the Southern and the South-Eastern parts of the country the Saxons formed a number of kingdoms – Sussex (the land of the South Saxons), Wessex (the land of the West Saxons). Farther north were the settlements of the Angles who had conquered the greater part of the country. In the North they founded Northumbria, which has left its name in the present county

Northumberland; Mercia was formed in the Middle and the East Anglia – in the East of England (north of the East Saxon Kingdom). These kingdoms were hostile to one another and they fought constantly (for supreme power in the country).

The new conquerors brought about changes altogether different from those that had followed the conquest of the country by the Romans. The new settlers disliked towns preferring to live in small villages. In the course of the conquest they destroyed Roman towns and villas. All the beautiful buildings and baths and roads were so neglected that they soon fell in ruins. Sometimes the roads were broken up, the stones being used for building material. Thus the art of road making was lost for many hundreds of years to come.

The Jutes, the Saxons and the Angles were closely akin in speech and customs, and they gradually merged into one people. The name "Jute" soon died out and the conquerors are gradually referred to as the Anglo-Saxons.

As a result of the conquest the Anglo-Saxons made up the majority of the population in Britain and their customs, religion and language became predominant. They called the Celts "*welsh*"* which means "*foreigners*" as they could not understand the Celtic language which was quite different from theirs. But gradually the Celts, who were in the minority merged with the conquerors, adopted their customs and learnt to speak their languages. Only the Celts who remained independent in the West, Scotland and Ireland spoke their native tongue.

At first the Anglo-Saxons spoke various dialects but gradually the dialect of the Angles of Mercia became predominant. In the course of time all the people of Britain were referred to as the English after the Angles and the new name of England was given to the whole country. The Anglo-Saxon language, or English, has been the principle language of the country since then although it has undergone great changes.

The Anglo-Saxons were arable-farmers mainly. This occupation gave many words to English, which still exist in the language, such as "*arable land*", "*fallow*", "*crop rotation*", "*pedlar*", "*cultivate*", "*sow*", "*grow crops*", "*harvest*" and others.

The conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity began at the end of the 6th century (597) and was completed, in the main, in the second half of the seventh

century. Before this they had been pagans, that is, they believed in many gods. They worshipped the sun and the moon, the sea, springs and trees. One of their gods was Tu, or Tuesco – the god of Darkness. Another was Woden – the great god of War. The red-bearded Thor was the god of Thunder. Freya was the goddess of Peace and Plenty. The Anglo-Saxons named the days of the week after their gods. Thus Sunday meant the day of the Sun, Monday – the Moon's day, Tuesday – the day of the god Tuesco, Wednesday was Woden's day, Thursday was Thor's day and Friday – Freya's day, Saturday was named after Saturn, a Roman god.

But paganism was not the religion to serve the interest of the rich. Christianity that talked the poor people into being obedient was the one. In 597 the Roman Pope sent about forty monks to Britain to convert the Anglo-Saxons. The Roman monks brought many books to Britain. Most of them were religious books and they were all written in Latin and Greek. So these two languages became heard again in Britain. Such English words of Greek origin as "*arithmetics*", "*mathematics*", "*theatre*", "*geography*" etc. or words of Latin origin, such as "*school*", "*paper*", "*candle*" etc. reflect the influence of a new wave of the Roman civilization.

5. French for English

Five different peoples invaded England. First came the Celts (in the 6th century B.C.); then the Romans (in the 1st century A.D.); they were followed by the Anglo Saxons (in the 5th century); after them came the Danes (at the end of the 8th century); in the 11th century England was invaded by the Normans. This was the fifth and the last invasion of England.

In the 9th century while the Danes were plundering England, another branch of Northmen who were related to the Danes was doing the same along the Northern coast of France. They came to be called the Normans, a variation of the word "Northmen". The Danes settled down in the conquered part of England known as the Danelaw. Likewise, the Normans settled down on the land conquered from the French king, a territory which is still called Normandy after these Normans.

Many changes came about into the life of the Normans and the Danes after the 9th century. By the 11th century the Danes had finally mixed with the Anglo-Saxons among whom they lived. Thus they gradually retained their Germanic language and many of their customs that were very much like those of the Anglo-Saxons. But the Normans who had settled down in France were now quite different from their Germanic forefathers. They lived among the French people, who were a different people with different manners, customs and a language. They had learnt to speak the French language, and, in many ways, they had become like the French themselves. They adopted their manners and customs, and their way of life. The establishment of the feudal system in France had been completed by the 11th century and the Norman barons had come into possession of large tracts of land and a great number of serfs. The Normans lived under the rule of their own duke. By the 11th century the dukes of Normandy had become very powerful. Though they acknowledged the king of France as their overlord they were actually as strong as the king himself, whose domain was smaller than the Duchy of Normandy. Like other French dukes and counts they made themselves practically independent. They coined their own money, made their own laws, held their own courts, built their own castles. They could wage wars against other dukes and even against the king himself. As a well-armed and well-trained cavalry, the Norman knights were the best in Europe. They were formidable fighters and would wage wars in order to seize new lands and serfs.

These descendants of the Northmen who had settled in the northern France in the 9th century became the new conquerors of England.

In 1066 William, the Duke of Normandy, began to gather an army to invade Britain. The pretext for the invasion was William's claims to the English throne. He was related to the king who died in 1066. William of Normandy claimed that England belonged to him. So, he began preparations for a war to fight for the Crown. William landed in the south of England and the battle between the Normans and the Anglo-Saxons took place on the 14th of October at a little village in the neighborhood of the town, now called Hastings.

The Norman victory at Hastings was only the beginning of the conquest. It took several years for William and his barons to subdue the whole of England.

The Norman Conquest brought about very important changes in the life of the Anglo-Saxons. After the conquest the royal power in England strengthened greatly. The conquerors turned into serfs many Anglo-Saxons peasants who had been free before. They brought with them their language, laws and customs. Under their rule the English language changed greatly.

6. Effects on the language

The Norman aristocracy spoke a Norman dialect of French, a language of Latin origin, while the Anglo-Saxons spoke English, a language of Germanic origin. Thus there were two different languages spoken in the country at the same time. Norman-French became the official language of the state. It was the language of the ruling class spoken at court; it was the language of the lawyers and all the official documents were written in French. The learnt clergy whom the Normans brought into the country used Latin for the most part. The rich Anglo-Saxons found it convenient to learn to speak the language of the rulers. Out the peasants and townspeople spoke English. The Normans looked upon English as a kind of a peasant dialect, and continued to speak their own language. They despised anyone unable to speak their language.

But the Normans could not subdue the popular language, which was spoken by the majority of the population, those who cultivated the land and produced goods. The conquerors who settled down on English estates had to communicate with the natives of the country and they gradually learnt to speak their language. In a few generations the descendants of the Normans who had come with William the Conqueror learnt to speak the mother tongue of the common people of England. In time English became the language of the educated class and the official language of the state.

This was a gradual process, however, and many years passed before the Normans forgot their old tongue. At the time when the two languages were spoken side by side the Anglo-Saxons learnt many French words and expressions which

gradually came into the English language. They borrowed many French words equivalents of which did not exist in their own language. For example, the wife of an English earl is called "*countess*", a French word, because there was no Anglo-Saxon word meaning "*the wife of an earl*". Many synonyms appeared in the English language, because very often both French and English words for the same thing were used side by side.

Words of Germanic origin make up the basic vocabulary of Modern English. The Anglo-Saxons spoke the simple countrymen's language and in Modern English simple everyday words are mostly Anglo-Saxons, like "*eat*", "*land*", "*house*", etc. But as there were no English words to describe the more complicated feudal relations many words were adopted from the French language. Thus the vocabulary of the English language was enlarged due to such Norman-French words dealing with feudal relations as "*manor*", "*noble*", "*baron*", "*serve*", "*command*", "*obey*"; or words relating to administration and law, such as "*charter*", "*council*", "*accuse*", "*court*", "*crime*"; or such military terms as "*arms*", "*troops*", "*guard*", "*navy*", "*battle*", "*victory*" and other words characterizing the way of life and customs of the Norman aristocracy.

As a result of the Conquest, the English language changed greatly under the influence of the French language. The two languages gradually formed one rich English language which in the 14th century was being used both in speech and in writing.

7. The English language and trade development

Economic aspect being rather important for the state development finds its reflection in any language and English in particular.

In the 13th-14th centuries the inhabitants of the bigger towns had to rely more on the neighboring country-side for their foodstuffs and raw materials for their crafts. Trade between the town and the country-side began to develop. In the Middle Ages, when shops were few and only the shopkeeper himself could make a sell-out, markets were practically the only place where merchants could come from distant pans and sell their goods, and where people from afar could gather to buy

them. Far more important and exciting than the weekly markets were the fairs. They were held once a year and usually lasted a week, or even two or three weeks. The fairs could also be held only with the king's permission and it was not every town that had one. In the 12th century 26 English towns possessed charters, in the 13th century the number of such town grew to 105. Some of the fairs were very famous, not only in the British Isles but in foreign countries as well, and merchants from overseas came here to trade. Among the best known were the fairs in London, Boston and Winchester. At these fairs one could meet many foreigners: merchants from Flanders, with Cine cloth; merchants from the Baltic ports with furs, wax, iron and copper; merchants selling wines from Spain and France, silk and velvet from Italy; and most exciting of all, perhaps, were the merchants who brought good spices from the East (pepper, clove, nutmeg and ginger), pearls, and even monkeys and parrots.

Some fairs were specialized. There were horses fairs, cheese fairs, clothes fairs, wool fairs and others. And at every fair there were all sorts of amusements: puppets, clowns, jugglers, acrobats and performing animals were always a great attraction.

Here and there between the rows and merchants' shops there were money-changers. The buyers and sellers at the fair could not get along without their service. In England only royal money was coined, but the king, feudal lords and the rich towns of foreign countries issued coins of different weights and the money-changers determined the real value of the coins and exchanged one currency for another. A certain sum of money had to be paid for those transactions. Gradually the money-changers managed to accumulate great sums of money and began lending it. Sums of money borrowed from a money-lender had to be returned with interest within a definite time limit. The interest was usually very high. The debtor had to pay back one-and-a-half times or twice as much as he had borrowed. The money was lent for use and so the money-changers became known as "*usurers*". The latter one turned into "*banks*" in the course of times. Their name was determined by their usual dislocation on the banks of the Thames, the river: foreign merchants usually travelled by water.

The growing trade led to the establishment of contacts between different parts of the country and to the development of commercial contacts between England and foreign lands. People travelled between England and the Continent more often than before. A good deal of trade was carried on between England and the rest of Europe in the 14th century.

Of all trades the most important to England was the wool trade.

In the 12th century England began to export wool on a large scale. Many strains of sheep were bred in England and it exported forty-five varieties of raw wool to other countries.

The king was always interested in this trade, for the taxes on wool were an important source of the royal revenue. Foreign merchants had to pay a tax on every sack of wool they bought.

Important sea miles ran across the North Sea and the Baltic. England carried on a brisk trade with the Baltic and Scandinavian countries.

Hull, Boston, Dover, Newcastle, Southampton, Ipswich had already become important trade centers in the 12th century.

Closer contact with the continent of Europe made more articles available for exchanges or "bargain". The list of imports was considerably increased: from France – wine, salt, building stones, and a greater quality and variety of fine cloths and spices from the East. Besides wool, England exported tin, lead, cattle. At first the bulk of the export trade was in the hands of Italian merchants. With the growth of trade at the end of the 13th century more than half the trade belonged to the English merchants.

The close link between England and countries of the continent meant more coming and going across the Channel people, exchanging not only goods but ideas as well. Through commercial contacts the English could learn more about the economic and cultural achievements of other nations.

Because of trade development the English vocabulary growth went on. The evidence of the fact is represented below: "*buyer*", "*seller*", "*merchant*", "*market*", "*product*", "*production*", "*price*", "*money*", "*but with money*", "*usurer*", "*bank*", "*transaction*", "*bargain*", "*export*", "*import*", "*tax*", etc.

Nowadays Great Britain is still an active member of the International commerce system. On January 1, 1973, Britain entered the Common Market. "The Market-ers" had been loud in their claims about the great benefits that the entry would bring. Joining the Common Market has meant accepting all the rules, directions and regulations issued by the Brussels Commission. As a result, the right of the British Government to determine its own policies on such important matters as tariffs, agriculture, trade, taxes has been superseded by the Common Market regulations.

7. A Portrait of Great Britain: geographical location, political structure, cultural and historical overview, national symbols

Britain comprises Great Britain (England, Scotland and Wales) and Northern Ireland, and is one of the member states of the European Community. Its full name is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland*.

Physical features

Britain constitutes the greater part of the British Isles. The largest of the islands is Great Britain. The next large one comprises the Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic. Western Scotland is fringed by the large archipelago known as the Hebrides and to the north east of the Scottish mainland are Orkney and Shetland. All these have administrative ties with the mainland but the Isle of Man, in the Irish Sea, and the Channel Islands, between Great Britain and France, are largely self-governing and are not parts of the United Kingdom.

The area is 228, 400 sq. km. The climate is generally mild and temperate. March to June are the driest months, September to January are the wettest. The temperature is rarely above 32 C° or below – 10 C°.

Historical outline

The word "Britain" derives from Greek and Latin names probably stemming* from a Celtic original. In the pre-historic time scale the Celts were relatively late arrivals in the British Isles and followed cultures which had produced such notable

monuments as the stone circles of Avebury and Stonehenge. But only with them does Britain emerge into recorded history. The term “Celtic” is often used rather generally to distinguish the early inhabitants of the British Isles from the later Anglo-Saxon invaders.

Britain’s character has been shaped by its geographical position as an island. Never successfully invaded since 1066, its people have developed their own distinctive traditions. The Roman invasion of 43 A.D. lasted 350 years but the Roman culture and language were quickly overlain with those of the northern European settlers who followed. Ties with Europe were loosened further in the 16th century when the Catholic church was replaced by a less dogmatic established church.

Although today a member of the European Union, Britain continues to delight in its non-conformity, even in superficial ways, such as driving on the left-hand side of the road instead of the right. The British heritage* is seen in its ancient castles, cathedrals and stately* homes with their gardens.

For a small island, Great Britain encompasses* a surprising variety in its regions, whose inhabitants maintain distinct identities. Scotland and Wales are separate countries from England with their own legislative assemblies*. They have different customs, traditions and, in case of Scotland, different legal and educational systems. The Welsh and Scots Gaelic languages survive and are sustained by their own radio and television networks. In northern and West Country areas, English itself is spoken in a wide variety of dialects and accents, and these areas maintain their own regional arts, crafts, architecture and food.

The landscape is varied, too, from the craggy* mountains of Wales, Scotland and the north, through the flat expanses* of the Midlands and the eastern England to the soft, rolling hills of the south and west. The long, broad beaches of East Anglia contrast with the picturesque rocky inlets* along much of the west coast. Despite the spread of towns and cities of the last two centuries, rural* Britain still flourishes. Nearly three quarters of Britain’s land is used for agriculture. The main commercial crops are wheat, barley*, sugar beet*, potato, though what catches the eye in early summer are the fields of bright yellow rape* and slate-blue flax*. The

countryside is dotted with farms and charming villages, with picturesque cottages and gardens – a British passion. A typical village is built around an ancient church and a small friendly pub. Here visitors will be welcomed cordially, though with caution: the British tend to be reserved*.

In the 19th and the early 20th centuries trade with the extensive British Empire, fuelled by abundant coal supplies, spurred* manufacturing and created wealth. Thousands of people moved from the countryside to towns and cities near mines, mills and factories. By 1900 Britain was the world's strongest industrial nation. Now many of these old industrial centers have declined*, and today manufacturing employs only 22 per cent of the labour force, while 66 per cent work in the growing service sector. These service industries are located mainly in the southeast, close to London, where modern office buildings bear witness* to comparative prosperity*.

Society and Politics

British cities are melting-pots for people not just from different parts of Britain but also from overseas. Irish immigration has long ensured* a flow of labour into the country, and since the 1950s hundreds of thousands have come from former colonies in Africa, Asia and the Caribbean, many of which are now members of the Commonwealth. Nearly 5 per cent of Britain's 58 million inhabitants are from non-white ethnic groups – and about half of these were born in Britain. The result is a multi-cultural society that can boast* a wide range of music, art, food and religions. However, prejudice does exist and in some inner city* areas where poorer members of different communities live, racial tensions* can occasionally arise, though it is absolutely against the law. Britain's state structure still bewilders* many visitors as it is based on a mixture of heredity* and wealth. Even though many of great inherited fortunes no longer exist, some old landed families* still live on their large estates, and many now open them to the public. Class divisions are further entrenched* by the educational system. While more than 90 per cent of children are educated free by the state, richer parents often opt for*

private schooling, and the products of these private schools are disproportionately represented in higher echelons of government and business.

The monarchy's position highlights the dilemma of a people seeking to preserve its most potent* symbol of national unity in an age that is suspicious of inherited privilege. Without real power, though still head of the Church of England, the Queen and her family are subject to* increasing public scrutiny*. Following a spate* of personal scandals, some citizens advocate the abolition of the monarchy.

Democracy has deep foundations in Britain: there was even the Parliament of sorts* in London in the 13th century. Yet with the exception of the 17th century Civil War, the power has passed gradually from the Crown to the people's elected representatives. A series of Reform Acts between 1832 and 1884 gave the vote to all male citizens, though women were not enfranchised on an equal basis until 1928. Margaret Thatcher – Britain's first woman Prime Minister – held office for 12 years from 1979. During the 20th century the Labour (left wing) and the Conservative (right wing) parties have, during their period in office, favoured a mix of public and private ownership for industry and ample* funding for the state health and welfare* systems.

The position of Ireland has been an intractable* political issue since 17th century. Part of the United Kingdom for 800 years, but divided in 1921, it has seen a conflict between Catholics and Protestants for many years. The Good Friday Peace Agreement of 1998 was a huge step forward, but the path to lasting peace is a rocky one.

Culture and the Arts

Britain has a famous theatrical tradition stretching back to the 16th century and William Shakespeare. His plays have been performed on stage almost continuously since he wrote them and the works of 17th and 18th century writers are also frequently revived. The 20th century British playwrights, such as Tom Stoppard, Alan Ayckbourn and David Hare draw on this long tradition with their vivid language and by using comedy to illustrate serious themes. British actors

such as Vanessa Redgrave, Ian McKellen and Anthony Hopkins have international reputations.

While London is the focal* point of British theatre, fine drama is to be seen in many other parts of the country. The Edinburgh Festival and its Fringe* are the high point of the British cultural calendar with theatre and music to suit all tastes. Other music festivals are held across the country, chiefly in summer, while there are annual festivals of literature at Hay-on-Wye and Cheltenham. Poetry has had an enthusiastic following since Chaucer wrote the *Canterbury Tales* in the 14th century: poems from all areas can even be read on the London Underground, where they are interspersed* with the ads in the carriages and on the station platforms.

In the visual arts, Britain has a strong tradition in portraiture, caricature, landscape and water-color. In modern times David Hockney and Francis Bacon, and sculptors Henry Moore and Barbara Hepworth, have enjoyed world wide recognition. Architects including Christopher Wren, John Nash and Robert Adam all created styles that define British cities, and nowadays Terry Farrell and Richard Rogers carry the standard for Post-Modernism. Britain becomes famous for its innovative fashion designers, many of whom now show their spring and autumn collections in Paris.

The British are avid* newspaper readers. There are 11 national newspapers published from London on weekdays, and newspapers such as *The Times* are read the world over because of their reputation for strong international reporting. Most popular, however, are the tabloids packed with gossip, crime and sport, which account some 80 per cent of the total.

The British film industry which flourishes briefly in the mid 20th century with a string* of light comedies has been squeezed* by Hollywood, but British television is famous for the high quality of its serious news, current affairs and nature programmes as well as its drama. BBC – British Broadcasting Corporation controls five national radio networks and two TV channels, and is widely admired.

The British are great sport fans. Soccer, rugby, cricket and golf are popular both to watch and to take part in. An instantly recognizable English image is that

of the cricket match on a village green. Nationwide, fishing is the most popular sporting pastime*, and the British make good use of their national parks as enthusiastic ramblers and walkers.

British food used to be derided* for the lack of imagination. The cuisine relied on a limited range of quality ingredients, plainly prepared. But recent influences from abroad introduce wide variety of options what to choose – more ingredients and adventurous techniques. Traditional plain food can still be found but being supplemented by tastier modern dishes. In this, as in other aspects, the British are doing what they have done for centuries: accommodating their own traditions to influences from other cultures, while leaving the essential elements of their national lifestyle and character intact*.

The national symbols of Great Britain

The Union Jack

The flag of Britain, commonly known as the Union Jack (which derives from the use of the Union flag on the jack-staff of naval vessels), represents the emblems of three countries under one Sovereign. The emblems that appear on the Union Flag are the crosses of three patron saints:

- the red cross of St. George, for England, on the white ground;
- the white diagonal cross of St. Andrew, for Scotland, on the blue ground;
- the red diagonal cross of St. Patrick, for Ireland, on the white ground.

The final version of the union flag appeared in 1801, following the union of Great Britain with Ireland, with the inclusion of the cross of St. Patrick. The cross remains on the flag, although now only Northern Ireland is the part of the United Kingdom.

Wales is not represented in the Union flag because when the first version of the flag appeared, Wales was already united with England. The national flag of Wales, a red dragon on a field of white and green, dates from the 15th century and is widely used throughout the Principality*.

The Royal Crest

The Royal Crest – a lion bearing the Royal crown – is used to denote articles of personal property belonging to the Queen, or goods bearing the Royal Warrant. The lion, “the king of beasts”, has been used as a symbol of national strength and of the British monarchy for many centuries.

The British National Anthem

The British National anthem originated in a patriotic song first performed in 1745. There is no authorized version – the words used are the matter of tradition. On official occasions it is usual to sing the 1st verse only, the words of which are as follows:

God save our gracious Queen!
Long live our noble Queen!
God save the Queen!
Send her victorious,
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign over us,
God save the Queen!

LECTURE 2: THE FOUR LANDS

1. England: historical outline, general data and political structure
2. Wales: historical outline, general data and political structure
3. Scotland: historical outline, general data and political structure
4. Ireland: historical outline, general data and political structure
5. Channel Islands and Isle of Man

1. England: historical outline, general data and political structure

Historical outline

Roman rule lasted for over 300 years from 43 A.D. The final Roman withdrawal in 408 followed a period of increasing disorder, during which the

island began to be raided by Angles, Saxons and Jutes from northern Europe. It is from the Angles that the name “England” derives. In the next two centuries the raids turned into settlements. A number of small kingdoms were established, although the Britons maintained an independent existence in the areas now known as Wales and Cornwall. Some of these kingdoms grew more powerful, claiming* overlordship* over the whole country. Further raids and settlements occurred, this time by the Vikings from Scandinavia, although in the 10th century the Wessex dynasty defeated the invading Danes and established a wide-ranging authority in England.

The last successful invasion of England took place in 1066, when Duke William of Normandy defeated the English at the Battle of Hastings.

The Normans and others from France came to settle. French became the language of the nobility for the next three centuries and the legal and, to some extent, social structure was influenced by the French.

General data

England is predominantly a lowland country, although there are upland regions in the north-Cumbrian mountains and Yorkshire moorlands* in the southwest in Cornwall, Devon and Somerset.

The greatest concentrations of population are in London and the southeast, the West Yorkshire and northwest industrial cities, the Midlands conurbation* around Birmingham, the northeast conurbations on the rivers Tyne and Tees, and along the Channel coast.

The Church of England, which was separated from the Roman Catholic Church at the time of Reformation, is the Established Church; the Sovereign must always be a member of the Church and appoints its two archbishops and 42 other diocesan* bishops.

The English language is descended from the German tongue spoken by the Anglo-Saxons in the 5th and 6th centuries. This was subsequently* influenced by Latin and Norse* vocabulary. The language was transformed with the settlement by the Normans from France.

Political structure

System of Government

Britain is a parliamentary democracy with a constitutional monarch – Queen Elizabeth II – as head of the State. Today the Queen is not only that, but also an important symbol of national unity. The royal title in Britain is: “Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms* and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith”.

The British constitution, unlike those of most other countries, is not set out in a single document. Instead it is made up of a combination of laws and conventions. Conventions are rules and practices which are not legally enforceable*, but which are regarded as vital to the working of government.

The Bill of Rights of 1689 was the first step towards the constitutional monarchy because it prevented the monarch from making laws or raising the army without Parliament’s approval. Since 1689 the power of Parliament has grown steadily while the power of the monarch has weakened.

Men and women over 18 have right to vote. They have right to elect an MP for their electoral area. In reality Britain has a two-party system of government, since most people vote either Labour or Conservative.

The party that wins most seats in the general election forms the government, and its leader becomes the Prime Minister, the head of the government.

All important bills are presented to the House of Commons*. It is the lower chamber of the Parliament, all 659 members of which are elected by people. The bills then are explained and debated. If they receive the majority vote they go to the House of Lords*. This is the upper chamber consisting of 92 hereditary* or life-time peers*, clergy* or supreme judges. After that bill goes to the monarch to be signed. Although the bill must be approved by all three bodies, the House of Lords has only limited powers, and the monarch has not refused to sign a bill for 200 years already. So, the House of Commons is the main law-making body while the Cabinet of Ministers and the government are the main executive bodies.

In England local government is administered through two-tier* system of counties* subdivided into districts. There are 32 single-tier borough* authorities in London and six metropolitan counties in other parts of England.

The English legal system comprises, on the one hand, a historic body of conventions known as “common law” and “equity”* and on the other hand, parliamentary and European Community legislation. In the formulation of common law since the Norman Conquest, great reliance was placed on precedent. Equity law derives from the practice of petitioning the King’s Chancellor in cases not covered by common law.

2. Wales: historical outline, general data and political structure

Historical outline

Wales had remained a Celtic stronghold, although often within the English sphere of influence. However, with the death of prince Llywelyn in the battle in 1282 , Edward I launched a successful campaign to bring Wales under English rule. Continued strong Welsh national feeling was indicated by the uprising led by Owain Glyndwr at the beginning of the 15th century. The Acts of Union of 1536 and 1542 united England and Wales administratively, politically and legally.

General data

Wales is a country of hills and mountains, the highest of which are in Snowdonia in the northwest; the tallest peak is Snowdon 1,085 m. 2/3 of the population live in the southern valleys and in the lower-lying coastal areas. The chief urban centers are Cardiff (capital), Swansea, Newport and Wrexham. Wales is a principality; Prince Charles, the heir* to the throne, was invested* by the Queen with the title of Prince of Wales at Caernarfon Castle in 1969.

Latest figures suggest that 1/5 of the population speaks Welsh, a language of Celtic origin. Welsh speakers are concentrated in the rural north and west. The Welsh name of the country is Cymru*. Welsh has equal validity with English in law courts, bilingual education in schools is encouraged, and there has been an extended use of Welsh for official purposes and in broadcasting.

There is no established church, the Anglican church having been disestablished in 1920 after decades of pressure from the Methodist and Baptist churches. Methodism in particular spread rapidly in Wales in the 18th century, assuming the nature of a popular movement among Welsh speakers and finding strong support later in industrial communities.

Government

The country returns 38 Members of Parliament and there are special arrangements for the discussion of Welsh affairs. For the last 70 years the industrial communities have tended to support the Labour party in elections, ensuring* a Labour majority of seats.

The Secretary of State for Wales, who is a member of the Cabinet, has wide-ranging responsibilities relating to the economy, education, welfare services. The headquarters of the administration is the Welsh Office in Cardiff, which also has an office in London. Local government is exercised through a system of elected authorities similar to that in England, and the legal system is identical to the English one.

3. Scotland: historical outline, general data and political structure

Historical outline

Scotland was inhabited mainly by the Picts. In the 6th century, the Scots from Ireland (or Scotia) settled in what is now Argyll. Lothian was populated by the English, while Welsh Britons moved north to Strathclyde. During the 9th century, the various parts of Scotland united in defence against the Vikings. The powerful monarchy that now existed in England threatened Scottish independence throughout the Middle Ages.

The eventual unification of England and Scotland showed that religious differences were now more important than national antagonisms. In England Elizabeth I was succeeded in 1603 by James VI of Scotland (James I of England). Even so, England and Scotland remained separate during the 17th century, apart from an enforced* period of unification under Oliver Cromwell (1650-58). In

1707 both countries, realizing the benefits of closer political and economical union, agreed on* a single parliament for Great Britain. Scotland retained its own system of law and church settlement. The Union became strained* during the reigns of Protestant Hanoverians George I and George II, when two Jacobite uprisings attempted to restore the Catholic Stuarts.

General data

Just over half of Scotland consists of sparsely populated* highlands and islands in the north. $\frac{3}{4}$ of the population and most of the industrial towns are in the central lowlands. Scotland contains large areas of unspoilt and wild landscape, with internationally significant concentrations of plants and animals. It contains the majority of Britain's highest mountains – nearly 300 peaks over 900 m. The highest are the Grampians in the central highlands with Ben Nevis (1,343 m.), the tallest peak. The southern uplands, which contain the number of hill ranges, border on England. The chief cities are Edinburgh, the capital, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Dundee.

The established Church of Scotland is a Protestant Church which is Presbyterian in form; it is governed by a hierarchy of church courts each of which includes lay* people.

The Scotch are not homogenous people, the main division is between traditionally Gaelic-speaking Highlanders, and Lowlanders who spoke Scots, a form of Middle English which now extinct. Today, though Gaelic survives (chiefly in the Western Isles), most people speak regional dialects of richly accented English. Many Scottish surnames derive from Gaelic: prefix “mac” means “son of”.

Government

There are special arrangements for the conduct of Scottish affairs within the British system of government and separate Acts of Parliament are passed for Scotland where appropriate.

Scottish administration is the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Scotland, a member of the Cabinet working through the Scottish Office, which has its headquarters in Edinburgh and an office in London.

Local government generally operates on a two-tier basis broadly similar to that in England and Wales. The principles and procedures of the Scottish legal system differ in many respects from those of England and Wales; these differences stem*, in part, from the adoption of elements of other European legal systems, based on Roman law, during the 16th century.

4. Ireland: historical outline, general data and political structure

Historical outline

A number of kingdoms had emerged in Ireland before the Christian era. Ireland, however did not escape the incursions* of the Vikings, who dominated the country during the 10th century.

In 1169 Henry II of England launched an invasion of Ireland. He had been granted its overlordship by the English Pope Adrian IV, who was anxious to bring the Irish Church into the full obedience to Rome. Although large areas came under the control of Anglo-Norman magnates, little direct authority was exercised* from England during the Middle Ages.

The Tudor monarchs showed a much greater tendency to intervene in Ireland. During the reign of Elizabeth I, a series of campaigns was waged* against Irish insurgents*. The main focus of resistance was the northern province of Ulster*. With the collapse of this resistance in 1607, Ulster became an area for settlement by immigrants from Scotland and England.

The English Civil Wars (1642-52) led to further uprisings in Ireland, which were crushed by Cromwell. There was more fighting after the deposition of James II in 1688.

During most of the 18th century there was an uneasy peace; towards its end various efforts were made by British governments to achieve stability. In 1782 the Irish Parliament (dating from medieval times) was given legislative independence; the only constitutional tie with Great Britain was the Crown. Parliament

represented, however, only the privileged Anglo-Irish minority, and Catholics were excluded.

An abortive rebellion took place in 1798 and in 1801 Ireland was unified with Great Britain.

The “Irish question” continued as one of the major problems of British politics during the 19th century. In 1886 the Liberal Government introduced a Home Rule Bill which would have given an Irish Parliament authority over most internal matters while reserving to Britain control over external affairs. This led to a split in the Liberal Party and the failure of the Bill. In 1914 the Home Rule Bill was enacted* by the Government of Ireland Act. Its implementation* was prevented by the thread of armed resistance on the part of the Protestant majority in Ulster and by the outbreak of the World War I.

Although a nationalist uprising in Dublin in 1916 was suppressed, a guerrilla* force known as the Irish Republican Army (IRA) began operations against the British administration at the end of the World War I. The Government of Ireland Act, 1920, provided for the establishment of two Home Rule parliaments, one in Dublin and the other – in Belfast. The Act was implemented in 1921 in Northern Ireland, when 6 of the 9 counties of Ulster received their own Parliament and remained represented in the British Parliament. In the South the IRA continued to fight for independence from the British administration. After a truce* in June, the Anglo-Irish Treaty of December 1921 established the Irish Free State, which became a republic in 1949 and is now known as the Republic of Eire.

General data

Northern Ireland is at its nearest point only 21 km from Scotland. It has a 488 km border in the south and west with the Irish Republic. At its center Lough Neagh, Britain’s largest freshwater lake (381 sq km), lies. Many principal towns lie in the valleys leading from the Lough, including the capital Belfast, which stands at the mouth of the river Lagan. The Mourne Mountains, rising sharply in the southeast, include Slieve Donard, Northern Ireland’s highest peak (852m).

Just under 2/3s of population are descendants of Scots or English settlers who crossed to northeastern Ireland mainly in the 17th century; most are Protestants, British by culture and tradition and committed to maintaining the constitutional link with the British Crown. The remainders, just over a third, are Roman Catholic, Irish by culture and history, and favour Union with the Irish Republic.

The misty green landscape of the “Emerald Isle”* is the setting for much folklore – Ireland is host to mythological characters such as giants and fairies*. The most famous of these are leprechauns* – cheeky* little men who hide away with a pot of gold. Ireland also has a strong tradition of folk music and dancing which is really beautiful. This kind of performance attracts many visitors there.

Ireland has a great impact on English-language literature, having produced several Noble Prize-winning writers, including Samuel Beckett, George Bernard Shaw and poet Seamus (pronounced “Shaymus”) Heaney. Oscar Wilde and James Joyce hail from* the Emerald Isle. Well known for its music, Ireland is home for such bands as U2, Cranberries and others.

Government

Northern Ireland continues to be governed by direct rule under legislation passed in 1974. This allows the Parliament in London to approve all laws for Northern Ireland and to place its government departments under the direction and control of the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland, who is a Cabinet minister.

The Government is committed to the protection of the human rights in Northern Ireland. Legislation, passed in 1973, outlaws discrimination by public bodies, including the Government, on the grounds of religious belief or political opinion.

5. Channel Island and Isle of Man

The Channel Islands and Isle of Man are not parts of the United Kingdom. The Channel Islands were part of the Duchy* of Normandy in the 10th and 11th centuries. The Isle of Man, under the nominal sovereignty of Norway until 1266, eventually came under the direct administration of the Crown in 1765.

Today the territories have their own legislative assemblies and systems of law. The British Government is responsible for their defence, their international relations and, ultimately, their good government.

LECTURE 3: THE USA

1. Geographical position and climate
2. Political system
3. The National Symbols
4. American English

1. Geographical position of the USA

The United States of America is the 4th largest country in the world after Russia, China and Canada. It occupies the southern part of North America and stretches from the Pacific to the Atlantic Ocean. It also includes Alaska in the north and the Hawaii in the Pacific. The total area is about 9, 5 million sq km. Alaska is the largest state and is 400 times the size of Rhode Island which is the smallest one. A coast-to-coast trip by plane takes 5, 5 hours; by train – 3 days; by car – 5-6 days.

The USA borders on Canada in the north and on Mexico in the south. It has a seaborder with Russia. It is washed by the Gulf of Mexico, the Arctic, the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans.

The USA is made up of 50 states and D.C., where Washington is situated. The population is about 250 million people.

It is to the East Cost that the first settlers from Europe came to America. They were attracted by the fertile lands of the Atlantic coast in the southeast and inland beyond the eastern Appalachian Mountains. This part of the country gets enough rainfall for crops, has valuable forests and most of the country's riches in iron and coal deposits. As America expanded westward, so did its farmers, cultivating the grasslands of the Great Plains and finally the fertile valleys of the Pacific Coast. Today American farmers plant spring wheat on the cold western plains, raise corn,

wheat and fine beef cattle in the Midwest, and rice in the damp* heat of Louisiana. Florida and California are famous for their vegetable and fruit production; and the cool rainy northwest states are famous for apples, berries and vegetables.

The land varies from heavy forests to barren* deserts, from high-peaked mountains (the highest peak is McKinley in Alaska) to deep canyons (Death Valley in California is 1,064 m below the sea level).

The highest mountains in the USA are the Cordilleras that run the length of the west coast and include the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada.

America's largest rivers are the Mississippi with its tributary the Missouri, the Rio Grande, the Ohio and the Columbia. The broad Mississippi River system runs almost 6 thousand km from Canada into the Gulf of Mexico and it's the world's 3rd largest river after the Nile and the Amazon.

The USA is famous for its 5 Great Lakes*: Lake Erie, Lake Ontario, Lake Huron, Lake Superior and Lake Michigan. The first four are on the border with Canada and are the largest and the deepest in the USA. There are also smaller lakes in other states. For example, Minnesota is known as the state of 10,000 lakes.

The USA is rich in mineral resources; their wealth provides the solid base for American industry. It has major deposits of oil and gas in Texas and Alaska, coal in Virginia and Ohio, gold in Alaska and California, silver in Nevada, non-ferrous metals in Arkansas and Colorado.

The largest cities of the USA are New York, Los Angeles, Las Vegas, San Francisco, Dallas, Chicago and others.

Climate

The territory of the USA is so large that it lies in different climatic zones. The greater portion of the country is situated between 30 and 49 degrees Northern Latitude* and its climate is moderate continental. The climate of Alaska is arctic, and that of the coast of the Gulf of Mexico is subtropical. Hot winds blowing from the Gulf of Mexico often bring typhoons. Along the western coast the climate is warm, because the land there is protected from cold winds by the Rocky Mountains and is open to the influence of the warm winds of the Pacific Ocean.

The southwest region is very hot and dry, the soil is arid*, the rains are rare and the droughts* are frequent. In contrast to this, there is much rainfall in the northern section of the Pacific coast line and along the coasts of the Atlantic Ocean. The central plains have moderate rainfall and wide-range temperatures between summer and winter.

2. Political system

The USA is a democracy. Now let's see what Americans mean by saying that: Abraham Lincoln, one of the best-loved and the most respected American presidents, said that the United States had a government "of the people, by the people and for the people". No one has formulated a better way of describing the principles of the American political system as Americans understand it. The Constitution, laws and traditions of the United States give people the right to determine who will be the leader of the country and nation, who will make the laws, and what the laws will be. The Constitution guarantees individual freedom to all.

The Constitution sets the basic form of government: it has three branches – legislative, executive branch and judiciary. The Congress*, the legislative branch of the federal government, is made up of the Senate* and the House of Representatives. There are 435 seats in the House of Representatives and 100 in the Senate. Congress makes all laws, and each house of Congress has the power to support or reject* a bill offered by the other. When they both pass a bill on which they agree, it is sent to the President for his signature. Only after that a bill becomes a law.

The members of the House of Representatives are elected for 2 years, and 1/3rd of the Senators is elected every 2 years for 6 year term of office. Each state, regardless of the population, has 2 Senators, while the House of Representatives has more members from more populated states. The executive branch is headed by the president.

The President of the USA is elected every 4 years with no more than 2 full terms allowed. He is a chief executive of the United States, commander-in-chief of

the armed forces. At present the USA is headed by the 43rd president, George Bush, Jr. He is the leader of the Republican party.

The Vice President, elected from the same political party as the President, acts as chairman of the Senate, and in the event of the death or disability of the President, assumes the presidency for the balance of his term.

The elective process in the USA is unique. Americans vote for slates of presidential electors equal to the number of Senators and Representatives each state has in Congress. The candidate of the highest number of votes in each state wins all the electoral votes of the state. The presidential candidate needs 270 votes to be elected. Any natural born American who is 35 or older may be elected to the presidential office.

The judiciary is represented by the Supreme Court, 11 Federal Courts of Appeals and Federal District Courts, at least 1 in each state. Federal judges are appointed by the President with the approval of the Senate; to minimize political influences, their appointments are made for life. Federal courts decide cases involving federal law, conflicts between states or between citizens of different states. An American who feels he has been convicted under unjust law may appeal his case to the Supreme Court, which may rule that the law is unconstitutional.

For more than 200 years, the Constitution has been amended 26 times. The first ten Amendments – the Bill of Rights – guarantee individual liberties: freedom of speech, religion, assembly, the right to a fair trial, the security of one's home.

3. The National Symbols

The Flag

The Flag of the USA has several popular names: the “Stars and Stripes”, “Old Glory” and the “Star-Spangled Banner”. The latter is also the name of the National Anthem of the USA.

In the early 18th century America was a land of many flags because there were many colonies. There were, for example, the ship of New Hampshire, the tree of Massachusetts and the anchor of Rhode Island.

When in 1776 the 13 former British colonies in North America declared their independence and a new country was born, George Washington, who at that time was Commander-in-chief, decided that the new country and its army needed a new flag. He offered a patriotic woman named Betty Ross to make it. She used 3 colours: red for courage, white for liberty and blue for justice. She sewed 13 red and white stripes and 13 stars which stood for the number of states (the former colonies) in a circle on a blue square. George Washington is said to explain colours in this way:

“We take the stars and the blue union from heaven, the red – from our mother country, separating it by white stripes, thus showing we have separated from her, and the white stripes shall go down representing liberty.”

On June 14, 1777, the Congress of the United States confirmed this flag as the National Flag. Later when new states joined the USA more stars were added to the flag. Today it has 50 stars; the last one was added when the Hawaii joined the US in 1959.

On the 4th of July, the Independence Day, the Stars and Stripes can be seen everywhere.

The National Emblem

The Great Seal of the USA is the official seal (special circle-shaped design) printed on important documents and used to prove that a document is from the US government. It has 2 sides. On one side there is a picture of a white-headed bald eagle, the national bird of the USA that has an olive branch – a symbol of peace – in one claw and 13 arrows, according to the number of the original 13 states, in the other. Above the eagle’s head there is a motto in Latin: “E Pluribus Unum”, that means “Many United”. On the other side there is a picture of a Pyramid with an eye above. Both designs are printed on the back of one-dollar bill.

The National Anthem

The words of the National Anthem of the USA “The Star-Spangled Banner” were taken from a poem by Francis Scott Key which was written about a battle

between Britain and the USA in 1812. The anthem is usually sung at the beginning of large public events and especially at professional sports events such as baseball games. People are expected to stand up, put their right hand over the heart in order to show respect and support to their country.

4. American English

American English – English spoken in the U.S., differs from English spoken elsewhere in the world not so much in particulars as in the total configuration. That is, the dialects of what is termed Standard American English share enough characteristics so that the language as a whole can be distinguished from Received Standard (British) English or, for example, Australian English.

The differences in pronunciation and cadence between spoken American English and other varieties of the language are easily discernible. In the written form, however, despite minor differences in vocabulary, spelling and syntax, and apart from context, it is often difficult to determine whether a work was written in English, the U.S., or any other part of the English-speaking world.

The American lexicographer Noah Webster* was among the first to recognize the growing divergence of American and British usages. His *American Dictionary of the English Language* (1828) marked this difference with its inclusion of many new American words, changes in pronunciation, and a series of spelling reforms that he devised (-er instead of British -re, -or to replace -our, check instead of cheque). Webster went so far as to predict that the American language would one day become a distinct language. Some later commentators, notably H.L. Mencken, compiler of the *American Language* (3 vol., 1936-48), have also argued that it is a separate language, but most authorities today agree that it is a dialect of British English.

Patterns of American English

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries the study of American English was concerned mainly with identifying Americanisms in the vocabulary: words borrowed from Indian languages (*mugwump*, *caucus*); words retained after having

been given up in Great Britain (*bug*, to mean insects in general rather than *bedbug* specifically, as in Great Britain); or words that developed a new significance in the New World (*corn*, to designate what the British call *maize*, rather than *grain* in general). Large numbers of American terms (*elevator*, *truck*, *hood* (of an automobile), *windshield*, *garbage collector*, *drugstore*) were shown to differ from their British counterparts (respectively: *lift*, *lorry*, *bonnet*, *windscreen*, *dustman*, *chemist's*). Such lexical differences between Standard American and British English still exist; but as a result of modern communications, speakers of English everywhere have no trouble in understanding one another. More recently, linguistic researchers have turned their attention to the study of variation patterns in American English and to the social and historical sources of these patterns.

Regional Dialects

Regionally oriented research before 1940 distinguished three main regional dialects of Standard American English*, each of which has several subdialects. The Northern (or New England) dialect is spoken in New England and New York State; one of its subdialects – in the “New Yorkese” of New York City. The Midland (or General American) dialect is heard along the coast from New Jersey to Delaware, with variants spoken in an area bounded by the Upper Ohio Valley, West Virginia, eastern Kentucky, and eastern Tennessee. The Southern dialect, with its varieties, is spoken from Delaware to South Carolina. From their respective focal points these dialects, according to this theory, have spread and mingled across the rest of the country.

Social/Cultural Dialects

Social/cultural dialects vary both in the vocabulary and grammar of Standard American English and are not always intelligible to speakers of the standard language. The most distinctive variety of American English, in terms of vocabulary and grammar, is the social/cultural dialect known as Gullah, actually a contact language, or Creole, spoken by blacks in the Georgia-South Carolina low country, but also as far away as southeast Texas. Gullah*, combining 17th-and

18th-century Black English* and several West African languages, has given to American English such words as *goober* (peanut), *gumbo* (okra), and *voodoo*. It is the dialect used in the novel *Porgy* (1925) by the American writer Du-Bose Heyward. “Me beena shum” (I was seeing him/her/it) is barely intelligible to a speaker of Standard American English, and almost all Gullah speakers shift to standard usage when conversing with outsiders.

Pennsylvania Dutch*, another distinguishable dialect, is actually English heavily influenced by literal translations from the original German language of settlers in Pennsylvania. In this dialect such a construction as “He may come back bothsides, ain` t?” (He might come back on either side, mightn` t he?) is possible. Most Pennsylvania Dutch speakers also readily adapt themselves to standard usage.

Black English

Until the 19th century, most blacks throughout the country spoke Creole similar to Gullah and West Indian English. Change in the direction of Standard American English vocabulary and syntax, particularly in the 20th century, has been rapid but never complete; the Black English of the inner cities characteristically retains such locutions as “He busy” (He is busy) as opposed to “He be busy” (He is busy indefinitely) and “She been said that” to express action markedly in the past (she has said that). In the 1960s Black English became a topic of linguistic controversy in educational circles because of its supposed deficiencies and ultimately was the subject of legislative action under the Bilingual Education Act (1968). Nevertheless, Black English has made its own rich contributions to American English vocabulary, especially through jazz – from the word *jazz* itself, to such terms as *nitty-gritty*, *uptight* and *O.K.* The last, now thought to be of African origin, is also the Americanism most widely diffused throughout the world.

Development of American English

English commentators in the 18th century noted the “astounding uniformity” of the language spoken in the American colonies, except the language spoken by the

slaves. (Subvarieties of English, however, were spoken by American Indians and other non-British groups). The reason for this uniformity is that the first colonists came not as regional but as social groups, from all parts of England, so that dialect leveling was the dominant force.

Grammatical Formality

Against this background of uniformity deviations from Standard American English have frequently met with disapproval from those who promulgate “correct” English. Grammatical formality is the most notable feature of Standard American English, and particular stigma is attached to the use of nonstandard verb forms. Rigidity in grammar and syntax in written Standard American English is greater than in British English in part because large numbers of immigrants acquired English as a second language according to formal rules. Also, social mobility in the U.S. has produced certain anxieties and confusion about “correct” usage as an indication of status. What is considered Standard American English is today spoken for business and professional purposes by people in all parts of the country, many of who speak very differently in private. In writing, however, many feel constrained to use formal, Latinate locution even when addressing close friends.

Regional Variations

In earlier times, the dialect of New England, with its British form of pronunciation (*ah* for *a* in *path*, *dance*; loss of the *r* sound in *barn*, *park*), was considered prestigious, but such pronunciations failed to inspire nationwide emulation. Indeed, no single regional characteristic has ever been able to dominate the language. (One of the reasons why some linguists define Black English as a language rather than a dialect is that its vocabulary, pronunciation, and syntax are similar in all parts of the country, rural and urban).

Today, the concept of the so-called Network Standard, promoted by radio and television, provokes some argument from dialectologists, who champion diversity and richness of speech; but regional variations have by no means been obliterated.

The Midland (or General American) distinct *r* sound persists (*car*), and even educated speakers in the South do not differentiate *pen* from *pin*.

Growth of the American Vocabulary

The uniformity of the English spoken by the British colonists to about 1780 was soon disrupted by non-English influences. First, many American Indian words were taken over directly to describe indigenous flora and fauna (*sassafras*, *raccoon*), food (*hominy*), ceremonies (*powwow*), and, of course, geographic names (*Massachusetts*, *Susquehanna*). Phrasal compounds, translated or adapted from the Indian, were also added to English: *warpath*, *peace pipe*, *to bury the hatchet*, *fire water*. Other borrowings came in time from the Dutch (*boss*, *poppycock*, *spook*), German (*liverwurst*, *noodle*, *cole slaw*, *semester*), French (*levee*, *chowder*, *prairie*), Spanish (*hoosegow*, *mesa*, *ranch[o]*, *tortilla*), or Finnish (*sauna*).

Other modifications in vocabulary came about presumably because of lack of education or because of confusion on the part of explorers and settlers who applied incorrect names to things encountered in the New World – for example, *partridge*, used indiscriminately for quail, grouse, or other game birds, and *buffalo*, applied to the American bison.

American English vocabulary has been and continues to be enriched with jargon (q.v.), terms coming from certain trades and professions. The social sciences, law, and the academic disciplines in particular are accused of contributing *gobbledygook* (an Americanism referring to verbal *obfuscation*). Slang (q.v.), argot, and even certain euphemisms have also been a constant source of language enrichment, although some terms die out before they are ever admitted to the standard vocabulary. In the 19th century prudishness influenced the language; *legs* were called "*limbs*," and *pregnant* – "*in the family way*". Similarly, in the 20th century, the Americans, in their reluctance to confront reality, have coined such euphemisms as "*senior citizen*" or "*golden ager*" for old people and "*nursing home*" for old folks' home and poorhouse.

As might be expected in a nation originating from 13 maritime colonies, a great admixture of nautical expressions has been in the language since early times:

freight (used as a verb), *slush fund*, *shove off*, *hail from*. Baseball took over *skipper* (to mean manager), *on deck*, and *in the hole* (originally *hold*) from the nautical vocabulary and contributed many of its own colorful idiomatic expressions to the general language (for example: *get to first base*).

Influence on British English

Spread by motion pictures, books, and television, Americanisms – especially American slang – have in large numbers found their way to Great Britain, more and more blurring the distinctions between the two forms of the English language. Although non-standard phrases, such as "*met up with*" or "*try out*" (in the sense of test), may still encounter objections from purists, the very force of their objections shows how influential such words have been on everyday British English speech.

LECTURE 4: AUSTRALIA, CANADA, NEW ZEALAND

1. Australia
2. Canada
3. New Zealand

1. Australia

General data

Official name – Commonwealth of Australia

Status – Independent federative state within the British Commonwealth headed by the Queen of Great Britain

Area – 7.7 mln sq. km

Polulation – 15.5 mln

Capital – Canberra (252,000 people)

Language – English

Geography

Australia, the island continent between the Indian and Pacific Oceans, lies south-east of Asia. It's the only state in the world occupying the territory of a whole continent, though it is the smallest continent. The Australians like to mention the fact that the territory of their country is 33 times larger than that of Great Britain.

The Commonwealth of Australia includes the continent itself, the island of Tasmania and a number of small islands situated round the coast of the continent. Australia is situated in the southern hemisphere. It is summer in December, January and February, and winter – in June, July and August.

Australia is the most droughty continent on the Earth. About one half of its territory is occupied by deserts or semi-deserts. Large resources of coal, iron ore, bauxite, uranium and other minerals were discovered in these deserted parts during last two decades.

Australia is a highly developed industrial-agrarian country.

Population

The population is mainly of British origin. Aborigines number about 150,000. From 1787 to 1867 Australia was a place where criminals were transported from Britain. But after World War II more than 2 mln immigrants came from Greece and Italy. Now many immigrants come from China and Japan. The character of the population has changed.

Large Cities

Canberra: Australia's capital is a young and not large city: it was founded in the 20th century and now has a population of about 250,000. When six British colonies in Australia united in a single state in 1901, the capital for the young country had to be chosen, and it was Canberra. In 1913 the first stones were laid on the place of the future capital. But only in 1927 the Federal Parliament moved from Melbourne to Canberra. One of the places of interest in the capital is the

Captain Cook Fountain. Some other sights are the unusual building of the Australian Academy of Sciences and the Australian National University.

Sydney is Australia's largest and oldest city, with the population of more than 3 mln. It was here that British settlers landed on January 26, 1788. About one thousand of British soldiers, sailors and convicts were brought from Britain. They named their settlement after the British Home Secretary, Sydney. January 26 is celebrated as a national holiday, Australia Day.

Sydney has Port Jackson (deep-water harbor), Australia's only underground, the Zoo, the oldest botanical garden, the highest sky-scraper.

The main places of interest are the famous bridge over the Bay of Port Jackson, the Opera House, one of the architectural marvels. There are three universities in Sydney.

Melbourne is Australia's second largest city (2.5 mln). It was the capital of the country and now center of Australian Big Business. It's one of the country's largest ports. The city was named so after Lord Melbourne, the Prime Minister of Britain at that time.

Melbourne is famous for its picture gallery, the gigantic stadium, one of the largest in the world, and the house of Captain Cook, the well-known British navigator.

There are three Universities in the city.

2. Canada

General Data

Status – independent federative state within the British Commonwealth headed by the Queen of the UK

Territory – 10 provinces; 2 territories

Population – 27 mln

Capital – Ottawa

Language – English, French

Official Day – July, 1

Geography

The greater part of Canada lies between the same parallels as the CIS. The extreme southern point of Canada has the same latitude as Georgia. Canada is rich in forest, minerals, rivers, potential and fertile lands. Canada is one of the highly developed countries in the world.

10 provinces with local governments are: Nova Scotia, Newfoundland (on the Atlantic ocean coast), Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, British Columbia and others.

2 territories are: Yukon and the North-West territories.

Large Cities

Ottawa, the capital of Canada, is situated on the Ottawa River. The population of it is about 700,000. In the past Ottawa was an Indian trading centre. In 1857 Queen Victoria chose Ottawa as the capital city of Dominion of Canada.

Now Ottawa includes the French city of Hull where almost all the industrial enterprises are situated. Ottawa is a city of bridges and parks.

Canada's largest cities are Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver.

Vancouver is a garden city. It has more greenery than any other Canadian city. Vancouver is a large sea port on the American Pacific coast.

Toronto is a port on Lake Ontario, one of the Great Lakes. The population of Toronto is 3.5 mln. It is the leading industrial centre of the country.

Montreal stands on the St. Lawrence River. Ocean-going ships can go up the river more than 2000 km. It's a huge port.

History of Canada

Before the 15th century Canada was populated by different Indian tribes. They spoke different languages and were often at war with one another. In the North there were tribes of Eskimos.

Modern Canada originated as a country of immigrants. The first Europeans appeared there between the 15th and 16th centuries. The Englishman John Cabot discovered the Island of Newfoundland in 1497. Then many settlements of

Spanish, Portuguese, English and French fishermen began to appear on the Canadian west.

In 1554-1555 the French navigator Jacques Carter was the first to explore the St. Lawrence River. French colonies appeared there.

The early period of Canadian history passed in the struggle between France and England. In 1763 after the Seven Year's War Canada fell into the hands of Britain. But there were two parts of Canada: Upper Canada – English-speaking and Lower Canada – French-speaking.

In 1867 a federation was formed out of the 4 provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Ontario and Quebec. It was given the name of a federal self-governing Dominion. The Dominion of Canada attained its present-day form in 1949.

Political System of Canada

Canada is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations. Elizabeth II of Great Britain reigns as queen of Canada, but Canada is an independent, self-governing country.

As a federation, Canada is made up of ten provinces. Each province has its own government and its own parliament. The territories are controlled by the central government.

The Parliament has two houses: the Senate and the House of Commons. The Senate has less power than the House of Commons.

Queen Elizabeth II of Great Britain is the official head of the state but the Governor general acts as her representative.

The Prime minister of Canada is the head of the government. He is the Leader of the majority party in the House of Commons.

The two leading political parties are the Progressive Conservative Party and the Liberal Party.

During more than 100 years Canada had no constitution of its own. Only in 1982 the Federal Parliament adopted the first national Constitution; however, the new Constitution states that the supreme power in the country belongs to the British Crown.

System of Education in Canada

The school system of the English-speaking provinces of Canada is like the one in the USA. In the French-speaking Canada it has European influence. There is no federal department of education. Education in Canada is general and compulsory for children from 6 to 16 years old. There is no common pattern of elementary-secondary education in provinces and territories of Canada. In all provinces there are public and private schools, kindergartens and nursery schools.

3. New Zealand

General Data

Status – parliamentary democracy

Area – 269,057 sq. km

Population – 3.5 mln

Capital – Wellington (135.400 people)

Language – English

Historical Outline

New Zealand's colorful history commences from the time when the Rangitata Land mass separates from the ancient super continent of Gondwana some 80 million years ago, evolving over time to become modern New Zealand.

As the Polynesians discover and settle New Zealand, thought to be sometime between 950 and 1130 A.D., the Maori people are settling, possibly around the same time, the Chatham Islands, or Rekohu, a small group of islands off the coast of New Zealand.

In 1642 the first of the European explorers, Abel Janszoon Tasman from Holland, sails into New Zealand waters. The first encounter between the Māori and the Europeans is violent, leading to bloodshed. After partly charting the coastline, Tasman leaves New Zealand without having had the occasion to set foot ashore.

One hundred years pass by before the next Europeans arrive. In 1769 James Cook, the British explorer, and Jean François Marie de Surville, the commander of

a French trading ship, arrive coincidentally in New Zealand at the same time. Neither ship ever sights the other.

From the late 1790's on, whalers, traders and missionaries arrive establishing settlements along the coast. The inter-tribal Musket Wars commence.

New Zealand today is an independent nation within the British Commonwealth. The British Monarch, although constitutional head of state, plays no active role in the running of New Zealand's government.

Geography

The Dominion of New Zealand is a land of great beauty with snow-capped mountains, deep river gorges and fjords. There are fertile plains and valleys, narrow lakes, broad lava plains, boiling pools, spouting geysers, active volcanoes. New Zealand comprises two large islands and several smaller ones. They are North Island, South Island, Steward Island and small ones. The total area is about five-sixths that of the British Isles.

Both North and South Islands are mountainous. In South Island and the Southern Alps they have 16 peaks which rise about 10,000 feet. Mount Cook is the highest – more than 12000 feet. Mount Tasman rises to 11.5 thousand feet. Snow lies on the peaks throughout the year and there are glaciers.

In North Island the mountains are lower (6,000 feet). The centre of the island is volcanic, there is Lake Taupo there.

Population

New Zealand is one nation and two peoples. European settlers make up 86%, the Maori constitute approximately 9%. Immigration to New Zealand is not significant. A recent census revealed that 85% of the population were New Zealand by birth.

Christianity is the main religion.

About 74% of the population live on the North Island, which is often described as a town, when only 25% live on the South Island, which is considered the country.

The Maori population is increasing at a more rapid rate than that of non-Maoris.

Economy and Large Cities

Dairying, fruit-growing and production of wool are main industries in South Island. Christchurch is the largest city here. Dunedin is a fishing and business center.

Cattle-breeding, sheep-breeding, dairying (production of butter and cheese) are highly developed. Auckland is the main trading center. Wellington is the capital. It's the center of trade. Wool, meat, butter, cheese, skins comprise 80% of the total export.

Language

The official language is English. The Maori language, which has similarities to other Pacific island languages, is widely used by Maori and is an important factor in the Maori culture. Maori speak also English, although if you visit a marae it is useful to know the Maori language as only Maori is spoken there. Many places in New Zealand have also Maori names.

The English spoken in New Zealand is in a way unique. The elision of vowels is the most distinctive feature of the pronunciation. The New Zealand treatment of “*fish and chips*” is an endless source of delight for Australians when pronounced “*fush and chups*”. People who inhabit the North Island often attach ‘*eh*’ to the end of the sentence. In the far south a rolled ‘*r*’ is practiced widely – a holdover from that region’s Scottish heritage it is especially noticeable in Southland.

There are some words in common usage which are peculiar to the New Zealand variant of English. For example:

bro is literally *a brother*, usually meaning mate, as “*just off to see the bros*”;

cuzzies – *cousins*, relatives in general;

Godzone is New Zealand (God’s own);

the phrase “*Is it what!*” means strong affirmation or agreement “*Yes, isn’t it!*”;

pushchair is a baby stroller;

scrap – a fight, not uncommon at the pub;

varsity is a university or uni;

wopwops / “*in the wopwops*” is out in the middle of nowhere, remote.

Although the Maori language was never dead – it has always been used in Maori ceremonial events – in recent years there has been a revival of interest in the language, an important part of the renaissance of Maoritanga. Many Maori people who have heard the language on maraes all their lives but had not spoken it in day-to-day living are now studying Maori and speaking it with fluency. Maori is now taught in schools throughout New Zealand, some TV programs and news reports are broadcasted in Maori, many of the English places names are being renamed in Maori, and even government departments have been rechristened with Maori names. The Inland Revenue Department is also known as TE TARI TAAKE (the last word is actually “*take*”, meaning *levy*, but the department has chosen to stress the long ‘*a*’ by spelling it ‘*aa*’).

In many places, Maori people have got together to provide instruction in the Maori language and culture for young children, so they will grow up speaking Maori in addition to English, and be familiar with Maori traditions. It is a matter of some pride to have fluency in the language and on some marae only Maori is allowed to be spoken, to encourage everyone to speak it and to emphasize the distinct Maori character of the marae.

VOCABULARY NOTES

Braj Kachru – a famous lexicographer and linguist, a specialist on the English language;

David Crystal – a famous linguist, specialist on the English language;

Anglo-Saxons – Angles, Saxons and Jutes: Germanic tribes that invaded Britain in the 5th century;

Britain – this name derives from Greek and Latin names, probably stemming from Celtic origin;

Normans – Northmen that conquered a territory in France that is still called Normandy after them;

“Welsh” – the Anglo-Saxons called the Celts this name, which meant “foreigner”;

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland – full (official) name of the country;

Principality – another name for Wales;

MP – a Member of Parliament;

The House of Commons – the lower chamber of the Parliament, has 659 seats; all MPs are elected by people;

The House of Lords – the upper chamber of the British Parliament, has 92 seats; consists of 92 hereditary or lifetime peers;

Cymru – initial name of Wales;

Dorchester, Lancaster, etc. – geographical names ending in -chester, -caster, -cester are of Latin origin;

“Emerald Isle” – people call Ireland with this name because of its misty green landscape;

Great Lakes – Lake Erie, Lake Ontario, Lake Huron, Lake Superior and Lake Michigan – the first four are on border with Canada and are the largest and the deepest in the USA;

The Congress – the legislative branch of the US government;

The Senate – the upper chamber of the Congress; has 100 seats;

The House of Representatives – the lower chamber of the Congress; has 435 seats;

Noah Webster – a famous American lexicographer who first recognized the growing difference of American and British usages; wrote *American Dictionary of the English language* in 1828;

Regional dialects of American English – the Northern, the Midland, the Southern;

Gullah – a social dialect of American English, spoken mainly by black people in Georgia and South Carolina;

Pennsylvania Dutch – social dialect in the USA, formed mainly by German (Dutch) settlers in Pennsylvania;

Black English – a social dialect in the USA spoken by black people, a mixture of Gullah and West Indian English.

lingua franca – змішана мова

Romance – романський

overlap – частковий збіг

estimate – оцінка

to hazard – наважитися на

rate – темп

to outnumber – мати перевагу за чисельністю

interlocking – взаємозалежний

to sustain – підтверджувати

cove – невелика бухта

convict – засуджений

to disembark – сходити на берег

plethora – плеяда

indigenous – місцевий

imposition – нав'язування

to transcend – виходити за межі

benign – м'який, добрий

to gloss – повідомляти, оголошувати

discourse – мова

to saturate – насичувати

to stem – походити від

heritage – спадщина

stately – величний, гордовитий

to encompass – містити

legislative assembly – законодавчі збори

craggy – стрімкий

expanse – широкий простір

inlet – бухта

rural – сільський
barley – ячмінь
sugar beet – цукровий буряк
rape – польова капуста
flax – льон
reserved – стримана (людина)
abundant – численний
to spur – спонукати
to decline – приходити в занепад
to bear witness – свідчити
prosperity – процвітання
ensure – забезпечувати
boast – хвастатися, пишатися
inner city – центр міста
racial tension – расовий конфлікт/протиріччя
to bewilder – дивувати(ся)
heredity – спадковість
landed family – сім'я, яка володіє землею
to entrench – закріплювати
to opt for – вибирати
potent – могутній
subject to – належний до, який підлягає чому-небудь
scrutiny – пильний, допитливий погляд
spate – потік
Parliament of sorts – парламент, який складається з представників різних класів
ample – достатній
welfare – добробут
intractable – важкий для рішення
focal – центральний
Fringe – фестиваль експериментального мистецтва

to intersperse – перемежуватися
avid – жадібний
string – ряд
to squeeze – тут: тримати в тисках
pastime – розвага
deride – висміювати
intact – незайманий
jack-staff – шток, флагшток
claim – заявляти про свої права, вимагати
overlordship – панування
moorland – місцевість, яка поросла вереском
conurbation – велике місто з пригородами, передмістям
diocesan – єпархіальний
diocese – єпархія
subsequently – згодом
Norse – скандинавський
realm – королівство
enforceable – здійснений, що володіє правовою санкцією
clergy – духовенство
peer – лорд, пер
tier – рівень
county – графство, округ
borough – містечко
equity – справедливість, неупередженість, об'єктивність
heir – спадкоємець
to invest – наділяти повноваженнями
Cymru – Уельс
Cymric – валлійський
to ensure – забезпечити, гарантувати
enforced – вимушений
to agree on – погодитися

strained – натягнутий
sparsely populated – малонаселений
stem from – виходити з
incursion – вторгнення
to exercise – використовувати силу, виконувати право
to wage war – вести війну
insurgent – повстанець
Ulster – Північна Ірландія
to enact – впроваджувати (про закон)
implementation – реалізація
guerrilla – партизан
truce – перемир'я
to rub off on smb. – впливати
tenant – орендар
apparently – безсумнівно
to hail from – бути родом з
fairy – фея
leprechaun – гном
cheeky – нахабний
duchy – герцогство
damp – вологий
barren – неродючий
tributary – приток
latitude – широта
arid – посушливий
drought – посуха
to reject – відхиляти

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