

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ФІНАНСІВ УКРАЇНИ
ДЕРЖАВНИЙ ПОДАТКОВИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ

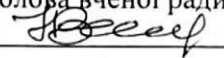
Факультет соціально-гуманітарних технологій та менеджменту

Кафедра мовної підготовки та соціальних комунікацій

Затверджено

Вченою радою факультету соціально-
гуманітарних технологій та менеджменту
протокол від «15» 02 2022_ № 4

Голова вченої ради Факультету

 Н.І. Зикун

Конспект лекцій

з навчальної дисципліни

«Лінгвокраїнознавство країн основної іноземної мови»

для підготовки здобувачів вищої освіти першого (бакалаврського) рівня

(денної та заочної) форми навчання

галузь знань 03 «Гуманітарні науки»

спеціальність 035 «Філологія»

ОПП «Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно)»

статус дисципліни: обов'язкова

Ірпінь – 2022

Конспект лекцій складено на основі робочої програми навчальної дисципліни «Лінгвокраїнознавство країн основної іноземної мови», затвердженої Науково-методичною радою Університету від 20.01.2022, протокол №2

Укладач:



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Розглянуто і схвалено кафедрою мовної підготовки та соціальних комунікацій протокол від «18» 01 2022 № 5

Завідувач кафедри



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ЛЕКЦІЙНИЙ КУРС

МОДУЛЬ I

Змістовий модуль 1. HISTORY, CULTURE AND SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

ЛЕКЦІЯ 1. INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS.

Мета: ознайомити студентів з основними поняттями лінгвокраїнознавства та проблемами, пов'язаними з розвитком сучасної англійської мови.

Основні поняття теми: Сучасна англійська мова. Англomовний світ та основні регіони розповсюдження англійської мови. Типологія сучасних форм існування англійської мови. Статус англійської мови в різних країнах світу. Роль та значення англійської мови у світі. Національні варіанти англійської мови та їх кодифікація.

План лекції:

1. Basic concepts of linguistics.
2. Interaction of language and culture.
3. The place of English among the languages of the world.
4. The natural role of the English language in the formation of international vocabulary of international communication.

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. Human language, understood as a systematic use of speech sounds, signs, and written symbols for communication among people, is a very complicated system, which can be analysed on different levels and from various points of view. Modern linguists often adopt different perspectives on language depending on the goals of their research. It is common to distinguish between language as an individual act of speaking or writing in a particular context at a given moment or in a certain social context, and language as the abstract linguistic system underlying the linguistic behaviour of a whole community of speakers. In addition, a number of separate, though often closely interrelated, branches of linguistics can be distinguished.

General or theoretical linguistics tries to determine universal principles for studying languages and to describe the general features of language.

Contrastive linguistics concentrates upon the differences between languages. Its findings are often applied in the context of language teaching.

Comparative linguistics studies different languages looking for similar characteristics. These languages may have common historical origin though the main emphasis of the analysis is usually placed on the structural correspondences between languages under investigation.

Historical linguistics analyses the development of language in time, registering the changes that have taken place in it.

Applied linguistics is concerned with the application of linguistic theories and their findings in solving various language problem, mostly in the teaching of foreign languages, studying language disorders, in translation, lexicography, and stylistics.

Sociolinguistics studies the relationship between language and society, taking into consideration standard and non-standard forms of language, regional and social varieties with reference to such concepts as ethnicity, social status, sex, age, etc.

Psycholinguistics is a branch of linguistics which studies the relationship between linguistic behaviour and the mental processes. It is interested in how mental processes influence the production and perception of speech.

Computational linguistics uses computer techniques and applies them in automatic translation and speech analysis using corpora for large-scale statistical investigation and computational processing of spoken and written texts.

Developmental linguistics is concerned with the study of the acquisition of language by children, describing the stages and patterns of development and explaining the typical features and variations.

Anthropological linguistics studies language variation and usage in relation to culture. Emphasis is often placed on the analysis of the so-called non-Western languages. The above-mentioned branches do not exhaust all the approaches to

language that can be distinguished in modern linguistics, which is a vigorously developing science.

Among the disciplines studying the interaction of language and culture are sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, linguistic and cultural studies, cultural linguistics. Cultural linguistics is a philological discipline that describes the correspondence of language and culture in their synchronous interaction. The term "cultural linguistics" clearly indicates the interrelation between two fields - linguistics and cultural studies. It is also a branch of cognitive linguistics and cultural studies, studying the expression of the people's culture that has been captured and entrenched in the language. While cognitive linguistics aims at answering the question of how in general the human mind is organized, how a person explores the world and what information about the world becomes knowledge, cultural linguistics focuses primarily on a human being in his culture and his language. Cultural linguistics studies and describes the means and methods of interaction of language and culture; it is aimed at the study of how the forms of existence of culture of various ethnic groups are reflected and fixed in language. How does a person see the world? – That is the principal question to be answered by cultural linguistics, which studies language as a cultural phenomenon. This is a certain vision of the world through the prism of the national language while the language is the exponent of a particular mentality (Maslova, 2001). The main object of cultural linguistics is the relationship and interaction of culture and language in the course of its functioning and the study of the interpretation of this interaction, as a single system integrity. The most important task of cultural linguistics and its characteristic feature is the systematic representation of the culture of the people in their language, in their dialectical interaction and development.

Cultural linguistics is closely related to the other cognitive area – ethnolinguistics. The fundamental difference in these two areas, scientists see in the object of study. In the center of ethnolinguistics are only those elements of the lexical system of language, which correlated with certain material or cultural and

historical complexes. It should be noted that ethnolinguistics is much “older” than cultural linguistics and is rooted in Western science to von Humboldt, E. Sapir, B. Whorf, and in Russian science – to the research of A.A. Shakhmatov, A.A. Potebnya and others. Cultural linguistics and ethnolinguistics unite on the basis of common objectives: to study the interaction of two different codes – language and culture. Ethnolinguistics, as well as cultural linguistics, is a complex science, but ethnolinguistics studies the interaction of linguistic, ethno-cultural and ethno-psychological factors in the functioning and development of the language. Widely developed in the American linguistic environment in connection with the study of native peoples of America, in the center of attention of ethnolinguistics there are such issues as the study of genetic relationship of the peoples, language contact, multilingualism and the problems of reconstruction of the spiritual and material culture on the basis of linguistic data. Russian theory of ethnolinguistics belongs to N. I. Tolstoy and his followers; in the development of methodological apparatus they were guided by the possibilities of both disciplines – ethnology and linguistics. For example, the method of retrospection, which involves sequential tracing of the origins of the basic elements of archaeological cultures is related by N.I. Tolstoy to glottogonic research in linguistics. According to Tolstoy (1989), the language and the “ethnic unit” attributed to it often play a crucial role in the archaeological ethno-genetic constructs. Sociolinguistics is also an adjacent to the cultural studies area of research that studies the principles and results of interaction between society and language: how language influences society and how society affects language. If we consider culture as a mandatory component of society, then it should be acknowledged that the interaction of language and culture indirectly comes within the competence of sociolinguistics, but compared to cultural linguistics, the cultural phenomenon is somewhat upstaged here.

Issues of language and culture interaction are also within the interest of such branch as linguistic and cultural studies. In our opinion, this is the section of methods of foreign language teaching, which focuses on the joint studying of

national culture of the people speaking the target language. Thus, the area of linguistic and cultural studies is closely connected to language teaching.

In the twenty-first century, the entire world has become narrow, accessible, sharable and familiar for all the people living on this earth as English is used as a common language even though there are some variations in habits, cultures, traditions, regions and idiosyncratic aspects. As English has got the common qualities, it has been accepted as the global language among the speakers of thousands of different languages. Since science and technology is progressing, there are tremendous changes taking place in the lives of the human beings everywhere in the world. As a result, the whole world has become a global village and the people have to maintain good relationship with the others. Moreover, business, trade and commerce have become international and most of the business organizations have their offices in most of the countries. In order to maintain international relationship in science, technology, business, education, travel, tourism and so on, English serves the purpose as a common language and a global language. It is the language mostly used not only by the scientists, business organizations and the internet but also in higher education, and tourism sectors.

As English plays a dominant role in almost all the fields in the present globalized world, there is a need to discuss its role as a global language. The present paper highlights the importance of English as a global language as most of the world's communications is done in English. It also reveals how English is being widely used in scientific research, business and education. This paper also throws a light on how travel and tourism and entertainment fields are benefitted by adopting English as their principal language of communication. This paper also highlights the importance of English in education and employment. Finally, some useful suggestions are also given in order to extend the use of English into several other fields. Introduction

With the ever-growing levels of interconnectivity and globalization around the world, the significance of immediate and appropriate modes of communication has been increasing very rapidly in this modern world. It is an undeniable fact that

there is a need for a common language to communicate with the present growing commerce and trade between companies from all over the world. With the development of informatization as well as globalization, it is evident that most people all over the world are communicating with the people of other regions in only one internationally recognized language, that is, English.

English is the language that is almost used between an agent and an international company. English, being the first world language, is said to be the first global lingua franca and it is the most widely used language in the world in international trade, diplomacy, mass entertainment, international telecommunications and scientific publications as well as publishing newspapers and other books.

English is a West Germanic language first spoken in early medieval England which eventually became the leading language of international discourse in today's world. It is named after the Angles, one of the ancient Germanic peoples that migrated to the area of Great Britain that later took their name, England. Both names derive from Anglia, a peninsula on the Baltic Sea. English is most closely related to Frisian and Low Saxon, while its vocabulary has been significantly influenced by other Germanic languages, particularly Old Norse (a North Germanic language), as well as Latin and French.

English has developed over the course of more than 1,400 years. The earliest forms of English, a group of West Germanic (Ingvaemonic) dialects brought to Great Britain by Anglo-Saxon settlers in the 5th century, are collectively called Old English. Middle English began in the late 11th century with the Norman conquest of England; this was a period in which English was influenced by Old French, in particular through its Old Norman dialect. Early Modern English began in the late 15th century with the introduction of the printing press to London, the printing of the King James Bible and the start of the Great Vowel Shift.

Modern English has been spreading around the world since the 17th century by the worldwide influence of the British Empire and the United States. Through all types of printed and electronic media of these countries, English has become

the leading language of international discourse and the *lingua franca* in many regions and professional contexts such as science, navigation and law. Modern English grammar is the result of a gradual change from a typical Indo-European dependent marking pattern, with a rich inflectional morphology and relatively free word order, to a mostly analytic pattern with little inflection, a fairly fixed subject–verb–object word order and a complex syntax. Modern English relies more on auxiliary verbs and word order for the expression of complex tenses, aspect and mood, as well as passive constructions, interrogatives and some negation.

English is the largest language by number of speakers, and the third most-spoken native language in the world, after Standard Chinese and Spanish. It is the most widely learned second language and is either the official language or one of the official languages in almost 60 sovereign states. There are more people who have learned it as a second language than there are native speakers. As of 2005, it was estimated that there were over 2 billion speakers of English. English is the majority native language in the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Ireland, and it is widely spoken in some areas of the Caribbean, Africa and South Asia. It is a co-official language of the United Nations, the European Union and many other world and regional international organisations. It is the most widely spoken Germanic language, accounting for at least 70% of speakers of this Indo-European branch. English speakers are called "Anglophones". Variability among the accents and dialects of English used in different countries and regions - in terms of phonetics and phonology, and sometimes also vocabulary, idioms, grammar, and spelling - does not typically prevent understanding by speakers of other dialects, although mutual unintelligibility can occur at extreme ends of the dialect continuum.

Перелік питань для самоконтролю

1. Basic concepts of linguistics.
2. Interaction of language and culture.

3. The place of English among the languages of the world.
4. The natural role of the English language in the formation of international vocabulary of international communication.

Рекомендована література по темі:

1. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англomовні країни : підручник / Гапонів О. Б., Возна М. О. — Вид. 2-ге. — Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2018. — 352 с.
2. Башманівський О. Л., Вигівський В. Л., Моркотун С. Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство. — Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. І. Франка, 2018. - с. 98
3. Борисенко Н.Д., Кодубовська О.О. Лінгвокраїнознавство: англomовні країни : Навчальний посібник (англійською мовою). — Житомир, 2019. — 154 с.
4. Дейвіс Н. Європа. Історія. К.: Основи, 2018. 1464 с.
5. Лебедева І.М. Країнознавство Великої Британії: Навчально-методичні матеріали / І.М.Лебедева. – К.: Видавничий центр КНЛУ, 2018. – 128 с.
6. Шонь О.Б. Практикум з історії Англії. Навчально-методичний посібник. Тернопіль: Видво ТНПУ, 2019. 40 с.

ЛЕКЦІЯ 2. GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND

Мета: ознайомити студентів з походженням назви островів, з географічним положенням Великобританії, регіональним поділом Великобританії, особливостями і варіантами мови.

План лекції:

1. Origins of the term British Isles
2. The British Isles are a group of islands.
3. The islands that constitute the British Isles.

The term British Isles is in widespread use, and is defined as "Great Britain and Ireland and adjacent islands". However the term carries additional meanings; political, economic, cultural and geopolitical, reflecting historical divisions and the fact that the British Isles in general coincided with the geographic area of the former United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (1801—1922). The use of the term British Isles has on occasion been interpreted as implying a continued political association with Britain, an implication which causes the term to be both

unacceptable and controversial to many people in Ireland, a sovereign state that became independent from the United Kingdom some eighty years ago.

Problems over terminology are summed up by the columnist Marcel Berlins, writing in *The Guardian* in 2006. He gives his opinion that "although purely a geographical definition, it is frequently mixed up with the political entities Great Britain, or the United Kingdom. Even when used geographically, its exact scope is widely misunderstood". He also acknowledges that some people view the term as representing Britain's colonial past, when it ruled the whole of Ireland.

The prefix "Brit-" is derived from the Latin *Britto* of classical times. This was itself one of several variations on the α Βρεττανιαί, the *Brittanic Isles*, peopled by the Πρεττανοί, *Priteni* or *Pretani*. These names were used by Greek and Roman geographers and were derived from a Celtic language term which is likely to have reached them from the Gauls.

Throughout Book 4 of his *Geography*, Strabo is consistent in spelling the island Britain (transliterated) as *Prettanikee*; he uses the terms *Prettans* or *Brettans* loosely to refer to the islands as a group. On some interpretations he also included Iceland (called *Thule*) in the group.

Pliny the Elder writing around AD 70 uses a Latin version of the same terminology in section 4.102 of his *Naturalis Historia*. He writes of Great Britain: *Albion ipsi nomen fuit, cum Britanniae vocarentur omnes de quibus mox paulo dicemus.* ("Albion was its own name, when all [the islands] were called the *Britannias*; we will speak of them in a moment."). In the following section, 4.103, Pliny describes the places he considers to make up the *Britannias*, including Great Britain, Ireland, Iceland, some of the *Friesan Islands*, possibly *Cornwall*, which was sometimes mistakenly supposed to be a separate island, and other places which are uncertain but may include the mainland of *Denmark*, the *Faroes*, and parts of the coast of *Norway*.

Ptolemy includes Ireland, which he calls *Hibernia*, as being part of the island group he calls *Britannia*. He titles Book II, Chapter 1 of his *Geography* as *Hibernia, Island of Britannia*. Since classical times, a meaning of "British" is to refer to the ancient Britons, and was used in this way by the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (specifically excluding the English, Scots, Picts and Latin readers),

through Early Modern times to the present day Peter Heylyn, who was to coin the term British Isles in English, used British in this way to refer to the ancient Britons, stating that Britt meant paint.

The classical name for all the islands associated with Great Britain and Ireland was used by continental mapmakers in Latin or French from the 16th century onwards, such as Gerardus Mercator (1512). Ortelius makes clear his understanding that England, Scotland and Ireland were politically separate in 1570 by the full title of his map: "Angliae, Scotiae et Hiberniae, sive Britannicar. insularum descriptio" which translates as "England, Scotland and Ireland, that I describe [to be] the British islands".

The first use in English of "British Isles" was by Peter Heylin (or Heylyn) in his *Microcosmus: a little description of the great world* in 1621, a collection of his lectures on historical geography. He used this term for both Great Britain and Ireland (as well as the other islands) by reasoning that all the pre-Roman inhabitants of the islands would have been ancient Britons owing to the close proximity of the islands to each other, that "ancient writers call this Iland a Brttish Iland", and a quote from Tacitus that the habits and disposition of the people in Ireland were not much unlike the "Brittaines". The use of the term as a historical term (along with others) continues to have a wide use within the United Kingdom to describe the whole of the British Isles in a geographical sense.

The British Isles are a group of islands off the northwest coast of continental Europe consisting of Great Britain, Ireland, and a number of smaller surrounding islands and islets. The term "British Isles" can be confusing (see *British Isles (terminology)*) and is objectionable to some people in Ireland. See the *Terminology* section below for details of the controversy.

There are two sovereign states located on the islands: the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland. The group also includes the Isle of Man, a United Kingdom crown dependency. Both states, but not the Isle of Man, are members of the European Union. Between 1801 and 1922, Great Britain and Ireland together formed the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. In 1922, Ireland left the jurisdiction of the United Kingdom, except for six counties in the north east of the island, which became known as Northern

Ireland.

The islands encompass an area south to north from Pednathise Head to Out Stack, Shetland in the United Kingdom, and west to east from Tearaght Island in the Republic of Ireland to Lowestoft Ness in the United Kingdom, containing more than 6,000 islands, amounting to a total land area of 121,674 square miles (315,134 km²). The British Isles are largely low lying and fertile, though with significant mountainous areas in Ireland, Scotland, Wales, and the north of England. The regional geology is complex, formed by the drifting together of separate regions and shaped by glaciation.

The islands were named after the Priteni, an ancient name for the Irish and British pre-Roman inhabitants; however, on its own, the dominant modern meaning of the adjective "British" is "of Great Britain or of the United Kingdom or its people", so the term "British Isles" can be mistakenly interpreted to imply that the Republic of Ireland is part of the United Kingdom. The Irish government's policy is that the term is not used by the government and is without any official status, as stated by Minister for Foreign Affairs Dermot Ahern in 2005; the media in the Republic of Ireland also rarely use it. Irish people taking this view object to any use of the term, and avoid referring to the group of islands as a whole.

The island-group is made up of more than 6,000 islands, the two biggest being Great Britain and Ireland. Great Britain, to the east, covers 83,698 square miles (216,777 km²), over half of the total landmass of the group; Ireland, to the west, covers 32,589 square miles (84,406 km²). The other larger islands are situated to the north and west of the group, in the Hebrides and Shetland Islands.

The islands that constitute the British Isles include:

Great Britain

Northern Isles (including Orkney, Shetland and Fair Isle)

Hebrides (including the Inner Hebrides, Outer Hebrides and Small Isles)

Islands of the lower Firth of Clyde (including the Isle of Arran and Bute)

Anglesey (in Welsh Ynys Môn)

Farne Islands

Isles of Scilly

Isle of Wight

Portsmouth Islands (including Portsea Island and Hayling Island)

Islands of Furness

Isle of Portland

List of islands of England

List of islands of Scotland

List of islands of Wales

Ireland

Ulster: Arranmore, Tory Island

Northern Ireland: Rathlin Island

Connacht: Achill Island, Clew Bay islands, Inishturk, Inishbofin, Inishark, Aran Islands

Munster: Blasket Islands, Valentia Island, Cape Clear, Sherkin Island, Great Island

Leinster: Lambay Island, Ireland's Eye

See also: List of islands of Ireland

Isle of Man / See also: List of islands of Isle of Man

The Channel Islands are sometimes stated as being in the British Isles, though geographically they are not part of the island group, being close to the coast of France.

The islands are at relatively low altitudes, with central Ireland and southern Great Britain particularly low lying. The Scottish Highlands in the northern part of Great Britain are mountainous, with Ben Nevis being the highest point in the British Isles at 1,344 metres (4,409 ft). Other mountainous areas include Wales and parts of the island of Ireland, but only seven peaks in these areas reach above 1,000 metres (3,281 ft). Lakes on the islands are generally not large, although Lough Neagh in Northern Ireland is an exception, covering 147 square miles (381 km²); the largest freshwater body in Great Britain is Loch Lomond at 27.5 square miles (71.1 km²). Neither are rivers particularly long, the rivers Severn at 219 miles (354 km) and Shannon at 240 miles (386 km) being the longest.

The British Isles have a temperate marine climate, the North Atlantic Drift ("Gulf Stream") which flows from the Gulf of Mexico brings with it significant moisture and raises temperatures 11 degrees Celsius (20° F) above the global average for the islands' latitudes. Winters are thus warm and wet, with summers

mild and also wet. Most Atlantic depressions pass to the north of the islands, combined with the general westerly circulation and interactions with the landmass, this imposes an east-west variation in climate.

Перелік питань для самоконтролю:

1. What islands do the British Isles consist of?
2. Where is the United Kingdom situated?
3. How many parts does the Island of Great Britain consist of and what are they called?
4. What ocean and seas are the British Isles washed by?
5. Are there any high mountains in Great Britain?
6. What country does Northern Ireland border on?
7. What mineral resources is Great Britain rich in?
8. What sea do most of the rivers flow into?
9. What is the population of Great Britain?
10. What is the climate like in Great Britain?
11. What kind of state is Great Britain?
12. What city is the capital of the U. K.?

Рекомендована література по темі:

1. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англomовні країни : підручник / Гапонів О. Б., Возна М. О. — Вид. 2-ге. — Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2018. — 352 с.
2. Башманівський О. Л., Вигівський В. Л., Моркотун С. Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство. — Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. І. Франка, 2018. - с. 98
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4. Дейвіс Н. Європа. Історія. К.: Основи, 2018. 1464 с.
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6. Шонь О.Б. Практикум з історії Англії. Навчально-методичний посібник. Тернопіль: Видво ТНПУ, 2019. 40 с.

ЛЕКЦІЯ 3. HISTORY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND FROM ANCIENT TIMES TO THE PRESENT.

Мета: ознайомити студентів з історією Сполученого Королівства Великобританії та Ірландії від найдавніших часів до наших днів. Ознайомити студентів з основними історичними фактами, які вплинули на розвиток і становлення англійської мови.

План лекції:

1. The British Isles has a long history.
2. Prehistory
3. Pretani, Romans and Anglo-Saxons.
4. National formation
5. Norman immigration
6. Protestant reformation and civil wars
7. The return of the Stuarts
8. Kingdom of Great Britain and social revolutions
9. The 20th century

The British Isles has a long and complex shared history. While this tends to be presented in terms of national narratives, many events transcended modern political boundaries. In particular these borders have little relevance to early times and in that context can be misleading, though useful as an indication of location to the modern reader. Also, cultural shifts which historians have previously interpreted as evidence of invaders eliminating or displacing the previous populations are now, in the light of genetic evidence, perceived by a number of archaeologists and historians as being to a considerable extent changes in the culture of the existing population brought by groups of immigrants or invaders who at times became a new ruling élite.

Prehistory. At a time when the islands were still joined to continental Europe, *Homo erectus* brought Palaeolithic tool use to the south east of the modern British Isles some 750,000 years ago followed (about 500,000 years ago) by the more advanced tool use of *Homo heidelbergensis* found at Boxgrove. It appears that the glaciation of ice ages successively cleared all human life from the area, though human occupation occurred during warmer interglacial periods. Modern

humans appear with the Aurignacian culture about 30,000 years ago, famously with the "Red Lady of Paviland" in modern Wales. The last ice age ended around 10,000 years ago, and Mesolithic hunter-gatherers spread to all parts of the islands by around 8,000 years ago, at a time when rising sea levels now cut off the islands from the continent. The immigrants came principally from the ice age refuge in what is now the Basque Country, with a smaller immigration from refuges in the modern Ukraine and Moldavia. Three quarters of the ancestors of people of the British Isles may have arrived in this wave of immigration.

Around 6,500 years ago farming practices spread to the area with the Neolithic Revolution and the western seaways quickly brought megalithic culture throughout the islands. The earliest stone house still standing in northern Europe is at Knap of Howar, in Orkney which also features such monuments as Maes Howe ranking alongside the Callanish stone circle on the Isle of Lewis, Newgrange in Ireland, and Stonehenge in southern England along with thousands of lesser monuments across the isles, often showing affinities with megalithic monuments in France and Spain. Further cultural shifts in the bronze age were followed with the building of numerous hill forts in the iron age, and increased trade with continental Europe.

Pretani, Romans and Anglo-Saxons. The oldest surviving historical records of the islands preserve fragments of the travels of the ancient Greek Pytheas around 320 BC and describe Great Britain and Ireland as the islands of Prettanike with their peoples the Priteni or Pretani, a name which may have been used in Gaul. A later variation on this term as the Cruithne would come to refer to certain groups. Ireland was referred to as Ierne (the sacred island as the Greeks interpreted it) "inhabited by the race of Hiberni", and Great Britain as insula Albionum, "island of the Albions". These terms without the collective name appear in the 4th century writings of Avienus which preserve fragments of the Massaliote Periplus of the 6th century BC. Later scholars associated these tribal societies with the Celts the Ancient Greeks reported in what is now south-west Germany, and subgrouped their Celtic languages in the British Isles into the Brythonic languages spoken in most of Great Britain, and Goidelic in Ireland and the west of modern Scotland. They perceived these languages as arriving in a series of invasions, but

modern evidence suggests that these peoples may have migrated from Anatolia around 7000 B.C. through southern and then western Europe. Genetic evidence indicates that there was not a later large-scale replacement of these early inhabitants and that the Celtic influence was largely cultural. In the Scottish highlands northwards the people the Romans called Caledonians or Picts spoke a language which is now unknown. It is also possible that southern England was settled by Belgic tribes.

During the first century the Roman conquest of Britain established Roman Britain which became a province of the Roman Empire named Britannia, eventually extending on the island of Great Britain to Hadrian's Wall with tribes forming friendly buffer states further north to around the Firth of Clyde and the Firth of Forth, and military expeditions beyond that into Caledonia. The interaction of the Romans with Ireland appears to have largely been limited to some trade. From the 4th century raids on Roman Britain increased and language links have led to speculation that many Britons migrated across the English Channel at this time to found Brittany, but it has been contended that Armorica was already Brittonic speaking due to trade and religious links, and the Romans subsequently called it Britannia.

The departure of the Romans around 410 left numerous kingdoms across the British Isles. Settlement in Sub-Roman Britain by peoples traditionally called the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes created Anglo-Saxon kingdoms ("the Heptarchy") over much of what is now England and south-east Scotland. To the north, the Irish Dál Riata, also known by the name Scotti expanded their influence to western Scotland.

National formation. The Vikings arrived in Britain and Ireland in the 790's with raids on Lindisfarne, Iona, and the west of Ireland. They provided another wave of immigration, settling in Orkney and Shetland and then Western Isles, Caithness, Sutherland, Isle of Man, Galloway, in various places around Ireland, Northumbria, East Anglia and Mercia. Wessex prevented the further expansion of the Vikings, and achieved a united kingdom of England in 927, which was then ruled by both English and Viking kings until 1066. Further north, in 900 A.D. Donald II was the first king of Alba rather than king of the Picts. His successors

amalgamated all the kingdoms north of England into the kingdom of Alba and fixed its southern border on the Tweed in 1018. Wales was divided into a number of British kingdoms, apart from one short period of unification, and also suffered from viking raids in the tenth century. Ireland was divided among around eighty to a hundred petty kingdoms grouped under larger regional kingdoms and then a weak High King. The Vikings founded Dublin in 852 and established several other coastal strongholds around Ireland. The Viking kingdom of Dublin went on to dominate much of Ireland, but their power was broken by Brian Boru in 1014 who effectively united Ireland, but only until his death.

Norman immigration. The next wave of immigration were Viking descendants, the Normans. The Norman Conquest of 1066 brought England under their rule and then extended their influence and power to the rest of the British Isles. The Normans were centralisers and expansionists. Their lands (and those of their successors, the Plantagenets) within the British Isles were part of more extensive land holdings in France and elsewhere, and held within a feudal framework. They controlled Wales by the end of the 11th century, only to partially lose it again several times owing to revolts until 1283 when Edward I successfully enforced Plantagenet supremacy. In 1072 the Normans forced the Scottish king Malcolm III to submit to their feudal overlordship, something they would regularly assert during the mediaeval period. The Normans did not supplant the Scottish political structure, but had great influence over it, eventually supplying the kings of the Scots from 1150, and then asserting independence of the Scottish Crown from that of England. The Scottish Crown gradually gained control of Norse areas, annexing the kingdoms of Mann and of the Isles in 1266, and Orkney and Shetland from Norway in 1472. The Normans were initially invited to Ireland, here they asserted overlordship, resulting in 1184 with the Pope authorising the feudal Lordship of Ireland. This fell under the English crown with the accession of John. Formal taxation and government during the middle ages was generally restricted to an arc around Dublin called the Pale.

During the Middle Ages, the Normans slowly intermarried with the previous populations and adopted their language and customs. In England, the anglicisation of the Norman and Plantagenet elite was driven by the slow erosion of their lands

elsewhere, but it was 1362 before the Langue d'oïl, Anglo-Norman gave way to Middle English to become the language of the law courts.

Protestant reformation and civil wars. The feudal system decayed and by the end of the sixteenth century was replaced by a system of centralised states. The English throne had come under the Welsh Tudors, who centralised government in England, Ireland, and Wales. In 1603 James VI of Scotland brought England and Scotland into personal union and promoted the existence of a modern British identity.

These changes happened at the same time as the Protestant reformation where the Roman Catholic church had been replaced by national churches to which all people were expected to adhere to. Failure to do so resulted in prosecution for recusancy and heavy fines, and recusants laid themselves open to accusations of treason and loss of land. By 1600 there was a wide range of religious belief within the islands from Presbyterian Calvinists (who were the majority in much of Scotland) and Independents to episcopal Calvinists (in the Church of Ireland and parts of Scotland) to Protestant Episcopalians that retained formal liturgy (especially the Church of England) to Roman Catholicism (which retained a large majority in Ireland).

James, and his son, Charles I, favoured political and religious centralisation and uniformity throughout the British Isles. They favoured episcopal, Arminian churches with a formal liturgy, which antagonised many Protestants. In addition, James, although he followed a policy of relative religious toleration, worsened the position of Irish Catholics by expanding the policy of plantation in Ireland, most notably in the Plantation of Ulster where forfeited lands from Catholics were settled by Scottish and English Protestants and by barring Catholics from serving in public office. Charles tried to force central, personal government. He attempted to bypass institutions he could not control and impose a uniform non-Calvinistic settlement throughout the islands.

The result was the Bishops Wars#First Bishops War in Scotland in 1639, when the Scottish Presbyterians rebelled against Charles' religious policies. The crisis rapidly spread to Ireland, in the form of the Irish Rebellion of 1641 and then to England, where Parliament refused to raise an army for Charles to fight in

Scotland or Ireland, fearing that it would next be used against them. The English Civil War broke out in 1642. Collectively, these conflicts are known as the Wars of the Three Kingdoms, a shifting series of conflicts and alliances within Britain and Ireland. The King's supporters were known as the Royalists and had forces in England, Scotland (mostly episcopalian and Catholic highlanders), and Ireland. The English Parliamentary forces (mostly presbyterian and independents) fought against them, but were defeated in England by 1645. The Scottish presbyterians (the Covenanters) were allied to the English Parliament, while the Irish Catholic Confederates were loosely allied with the Royalists.

By 1649 Parliamentary forces ruled England and executed Charles and the Covenanters had secured Scotland. An alliance between the Catholic Confederates and the Royalists in Ireland resulted in the parliamentary conquest of Ireland, followed by a brutal guerrilla campaign which officially ended in 1653. Charles II repudiated the Irish alliance in 1650 in order to enter one with the Covenanters instead and invaded England. He was defeated in 1651 and the result was that the entire British Isles were brought under the English parliamentary army. There was religious toleration of Protestant denominations (though no episcopalian church), but Catholics were strongly repressed. In Ireland they were disenfranchised and dispossessed with Catholic land ownership dropping from 60% to 8% and their land was confiscated to pay off the Parliament's debts. Some of the land was given to another wave of Protestant immigrants, especially former soldiers, but these were not sufficient to replace the existing Irish, so Ireland became a land largely owned by Protestant landlords with Catholic tenants.

The return of the Stuarts. The restoration of Charles II in 1660 reversed many of the Commonwealth measures: the three kingdoms were separated again, the episcopalian Churches of England and Ireland re-established, a Presbyterian Church of Scotland established, and Protestant nonconformism repressed. A small proportion of the confiscated lands in Ireland were restored, bringing Catholic ownership up to 20%. In 1685 brought Charles' brother, James II, a Catholic, to the throne. James suspended the laws discriminating against those not adhering to the national churches; but, he attempted personal rule with a large standing army and heavy-handedly attempted to replace Anglicans with Catholics. This alienated the

English establishment who invited the Dutch William, Prince of Orange to depose James in favour of his daughter, Mary. On William's landing, James fled first to France and then to Ireland where the government remained loyal to him. Here he was defeated, and the position of the Protestant Ascendancy cemented with the imposition of Penal Laws there that effectively denied nearly all Catholics (75% of the population) any sort of power or substantial property.

James and his descendants attempted to recover the throne several times over the next sixty years, but failed to gain sufficient active support and were consistently defeated.

Kingdom of Great Britain and social revolutions. The 1707 Act of Union united England and Scotland in the Kingdom of Great Britain. The next century saw the start of great social changes. Enclosure had been taking place over a long period in England, but the agricultural revolution accelerated the process by which land was privatised, commercialised, and intensively exploited, and caused it to spread throughout the British Isles. This resulted in the displacement of large numbers of people from the land and widespread hardship. In addition, the industrial revolution saw the displacement of cottage industries by large-scale factories and the rapid growth of industrial towns and cities. The British Empire grew substantially, stoking the growth in industrial production, bringing in wealth, giving rise to large-scale emigration, and making London the largest city in Europe.

Social unrest and repressive government accompanied these upheavals. The ideals of the French Revolution were widely supported and led to a full-scale rebellion in Ireland. A result of the rebellion was the start of the end of Ascendancy hegemony in Ireland and its political unification with Great Britain in 1801. Unrest throughout the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland continued well into the 19th century, but was increasingly legitimised and able to find an outlet in Parliament from the Great Reform Act of 1832 onwards. The role of religion in determining political markedly decreased from the Catholic Relief Act in 1829 onwards. The social upheavals continued with widespread migration from the countryside to towns and cities and abroad. Ireland suffered a great famine from 1845 until 1849 which resulted in its population dropping by a third

through death and migration. This included large-scale movements to Great Britain, especially to the north west of England and western Scotland. Emigration from the whole of the British Isles overseas continued, especially to the English-speaking parts of the British Empire, the United States, and other countries such as Argentina.

The 20th century. Prosperity increased through the 19th and into the 20th century, and politics became increasingly popular and democratic. The Irish War of Independence and subsequent Irish Civil War led to the 1922 formation of the Irish Free State, which was a dominion until becoming a republic in 1949. Six Irish counties remained part of the United Kingdom as Northern Ireland, initially with devolved government. Since then there have been extensive periods of unrest. Both the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland joined the European Economic Community (now the European Union) in 1973. Currently there are devolved governments in Wales and Scotland, though in Northern Ireland the devolved assembly is currently suspended.

Further waves of migration from Ireland to Great Britain took place during times of economic difficulty in the thirties, forties, and fifties, though since then it has grown more prosperous and its Gross Domestic Product per capita now exceeds that of the United Kingdom. The end of the British Empire in the latter half of the 20th century saw the end of large-scale emigration; instead, there was immigration to Britain, especially from the West Indies and the Indian sub-continent, and recently to both Britain and Ireland from eastern Europe.

Перелік питань для самоконтролю:

1. The history of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland from ancient times to nowadays.
2. The most important events in the history of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.
3. Outstanding historical people who played important role in forming of British nation.
4. What tribes influenced the British civilization most of all?
5. What happened in 43 A.D.?
6. Whose invasion played an important role in the history of Britain?

7. What led to the Industrial Revolution?
8. What were the 13 North American colonies replaced by?

Рекомендована література по темі:

1. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англomовні країни : підручник / Гапонів О. Б., Возна М. О. — Вид. 2-ге. — Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2018. — 352 с.
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4. Дейвіс Н. Європа. Історія. К.: Основи, 2018. 1464 с.
5. Лебедева І.М. Країнознавство Великої Британії: Навчально-методичні матеріали / І.М.Лебедева. – К.: Видавничий центр КНЛУ, 2018. – 128 с.
6. Шонь О.Б. Практикум з історії Англії. Навчально-методичний посібник. Тернопіль: Видво ТНПУ, 2019. 40 с.

ЛЕКЦІЯ 4. POLITICS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND.

Мета: ознайомити студентів з політико-економічною географією Сполученого Королівства та основними загальними характеристиками політики цієї держави.

План лекції:

1. The United Kingdom is a unitary state.
2. The UK political system is a two party system.
3. The constitution of the United Kingdom.
4. The United Kingdom Government.
5. UK Parliament. House of Commons. House of Lords.

The United Kingdom is a unitary state with devolution that is governed within the framework of a parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarchy in which the monarch, currently Queen Elizabeth II, is the head of state while the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, currently Boris Johnson, is THE

head of government. Executive power is exercised by the British government, on behalf of and by the consent of the monarch, and the devolved governments of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Legislative power is vested in the two chambers of the Parliament of the United Kingdom, the House of Commons and the House of Lords, as well as in the Scottish and Welsh parliaments and the Northern Ireland Assembly. The judiciary is independent of the executive and the legislature. The highest court is the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom.

The UK political system is a two party system. Since the 1920s, the two dominant parties have been the Conservative Party and the Labour Party. Before the Labour Party rose in British politics, the Liberal Party was the other major political party, along with the Conservatives. While coalition and minority governments have been an occasional feature of parliamentary politics, the first-past-the-post electoral system used for general elections tends to maintain the dominance of these two parties, though each has in the past century relied upon a third party, such as the Liberal Democrats, to deliver a working majority in Parliament. A Conservative–Liberal Democrat coalition government held office from 2010 until 2015, the first coalition since 1945. The coalition ended following parliamentary elections on 7 May 2015, in which the Conservative Party won an outright majority of 330 seats in the House of Commons, while their coalition partners lost all but eight seats.

With the partition of Ireland, Northern Ireland received home rule in 1920, though civil unrest meant direct rule was restored in 1972. Support for nationalist parties in Scotland and Wales led to proposals for devolution in the 1970s, though only in the 1990s did devolution happen. Today, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland each possess a legislature and executive, with devolution in Northern Ireland being conditional on participation in certain all-Ireland institutions. The UK government remains responsible for non-devolved matters and, in the case of Northern Ireland, co-operates with the government of the Republic of Ireland.

It is a matter of dispute as to whether increased autonomy and devolution of executive and legislative powers has contributed to the increase in support for independence. The principal Scottish pro-independence party, the Scottish National Party, became a minority government in 2007 and then went on to win an

overall majority of MSPs at the 2011 Scottish parliament elections and forms the Scottish Government administration. A 2014 referendum on independence led to a rejection of the proposal but with 44.7% voting for it. In Northern Ireland, there are also Irish nationalist parties. The largest, Sinn Féin, not only advocates Irish reunification, but its members also abstain from taking their elected seats in the Westminster parliament, as this would entail taking a pledge of allegiance to the British monarch.

The constitution of the United Kingdom is uncodified, being made up of constitutional conventions, statutes and other elements such as EU law. This system of government, known as the Westminster system, has been adopted by other countries, especially those that were formerly parts of the British Empire.

The United Kingdom is also responsible for several dependencies, which fall into two categories: the Crown dependencies, in the immediate vicinity of the UK, and British Overseas Territories, which originated as colonies of the British Empire.

The United Kingdom Government. The monarch appoints a Prime Minister as the head of Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, guided by the strict convention that the Prime Minister should be the member of the House of Commons most likely to be able to form a Government with the support of that House. In practice, this means that the leader of the political party with an absolute majority of seats in the House of Commons is chosen to be the Prime Minister. If no party has an absolute majority, the leader of the largest party is given the first opportunity to form a coalition. The Prime Minister then selects the other Ministers which make up the Government and act as political heads of the various Government Departments. About twenty of the most senior government ministers make up the Cabinet and approximately 100 ministers in total comprise the government. In accordance with constitutional convention, all ministers within the government are either Members of Parliament or peers in the House of Lords.

As in some other parliamentary systems of government (especially those based upon the Westminster System), the executive (called "the government") is drawn from and is answerable to Parliament - a successful vote of no confidence will force the government either to resign or to seek a parliamentary dissolution and a general election. In practice, members of parliament of all major parties are strictly controlled by whips who try to ensure they vote according to party policy. If the government has a large majority, then they are very unlikely to lose enough votes to be unable to pass legislation.

The Prime Minister and the Cabinet. The Prime Minister, currently Boris Johnson, is the most senior minister in the Cabinet. They are responsible for chairing Cabinet meetings, selecting Cabinet ministers (and all other positions in Her Majesty's government), and formulating government policy. The Prime Minister being the de facto leader of the UK, he or she exercises executive functions that are nominally vested in the sovereign (by way of the Royal Prerogatives). Historically, the British monarch was the sole source of executive powers in the government. However, following the lead of the Hanoverian monarchs, an arrangement of a "Prime Minister" chairing and leading the Cabinet began to emerge. Over time, this arrangement became the effective executive branch of government, as it assumed the day-to-day functioning of the British government away from the sovereign.

Theoretically, the Prime Minister is *primus inter pares* (i.e., Latin for "first among equals") among their Cabinet colleagues. While the Prime Minister is the senior Cabinet Minister, they are theoretically bound to make executive decisions in a collective fashion with the other Cabinet ministers. The Cabinet, along with the PM, consists of Secretaries of State from the various government departments, the Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain, the Lord Privy Seal, the Lord President of the Council, the President of the Board of Trade, the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster and Ministers without portfolio. Cabinet meetings are typically held weekly, while Parliament is in session.

UK Parliament. House of Commons. The Countries of the United Kingdom are divided into parliamentary constituencies of broadly equal population by the four Boundary Commissions. Each constituency elects a Member of Parliament (MP) to the House of Commons at general elections and, if required, at by-elections. As of 2010 there are 650 constituencies (there were 646 before that year's general election). At the 2017 general election, of the 650 MPs, all but one - Lady Sylvia Hermon - were elected as representatives of a political party. However, as of 2019, there are currently 11 independent MPs, who have either chosen to leave their political party or have had the whip withdrawn.

In modern times, all Prime Ministers and Leaders of the Opposition have been drawn from the Commons, not the Lords. Alec Douglas-Home resigned from his peerages days after becoming Prime Minister in 1963, and the last Prime Minister before him from the Lords left in 1902 (the Marquess of Salisbury).

One party usually has a majority in Parliament, because of the use of the First Past the Post electoral system, which has been conducive in creating the current two party system. The monarch normally asks a person commissioned to form a government simply whether it can survive in the House of Commons, something which majority governments are expected to be able to do. In exceptional circumstances the monarch asks someone to 'form a government' with a parliamentary minority[8] which in the event of no party having a majority requires the formation of a coalition government or 'confidence and supply' arrangement. This option is only ever taken at a time of national emergency, such as war-time. It was given in 1916 to Bonar Law, and when he declined, to David Lloyd George and in 1940 to Winston Churchill. A government is not formed by a vote of the House of Commons, it is a commission from the monarch. The House of Commons gets its first chance to indicate confidence in the new government when it votes on the Speech from the Throne (the legislative programme proposed by the new government).

House of Lords. The House of Lords was previously a largely hereditary aristocratic chamber, although including life peers, and Lords Spiritual. It is currently midway through extensive reforms, the most recent of these being enacted in the House of Lords Act 1999. The house consists of two very different types of member, the Lords Temporal and Lords Spiritual. Lords Temporal include appointed members (life peers with no hereditary right for their descendants to sit in the house) and ninety-two remaining hereditary peers, elected from among, and by, the holders of titles which previously gave a seat in the House of Lords. The Lords Spiritual represent the established Church of England and number twenty-six: the Five Ancient Sees (Canterbury, York, London, Winchester and Durham), and the 21 next-most senior bishops.

The House of Lords currently acts to review legislation initiated by the House of Commons, with the power to propose amendments, and can exercise a suspensive veto. This allows it to delay legislation if it does not approve it for twelve months. However, the use of vetoes is limited by convention and by the operation of the Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949: the Lords may not veto the "money bills" or major manifesto promises (see Salisbury convention). Persistent use of the veto can also be overturned by the Commons, under a provision of the Parliament Act 1911. Often governments will accept changes in legislation in order to avoid both the time delay, and the negative publicity of being seen to clash with the Lords. However the Lords still retain a full veto in acts which would extend the life of Parliament beyond the 5-year term limit introduced by the Parliament Act 1911.

The Constitutional Reform Act 2005 outlined plans for a Supreme Court of the United Kingdom to replace the role of the Law Lords.

The House of Lords was replaced as the final court of appeal on civil cases within the United Kingdom on 1 October 2009, by the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom.

Перелік питань для самоконтролю:

1. The United Kingdom is a unitary state.
2. The UK political system is a two party system.
3. The constitution of the United Kingdom.
4. The United Kingdom Government
5. UK Parliament.
6. House of Commons.
7. House of Lords.

Рекомендована література по темі:

1. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англomовні країни : підручник / Гапонів О. Б., Возна М. О. — Вид. 2-ге. — Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2018. — 352 с.
2. Башманівський О. Л., Вигівський В. Л., Моркотун С. Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство. — Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. І. Франка, 2018. - с. 98
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ЛЕКЦІЯ 5. THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN THE UK.

Мета: ознайомити студентів із системою освіти у Сполученому Королівстві Великобританії та Ірландії.

План лекції:

1. Early Years Education.
2. The primary education.
3. Secondary education.
4. Further education.
5. Higher education.

Across the UK there are five stages of education: early years, primary, secondary, Further Education (FE) and Higher Education (HE). Education is compulsory for all children between the ages of 5 (4 in Northern Ireland) and 16. FE is not compulsory and covers non-advanced education which can be taken at further (including tertiary) education colleges and HE institutions (HEIs). The fifth stage, HE, is study beyond GCE A levels and their equivalent which, for most full-time students, takes place in universities and other HEIs and colleges.

Early Years Education. In England since September 2010, all three and four year olds are entitled to 15 hours of free nursery education for 38 weeks of the year. Early Years education takes place in a variety of settings including state nursery schools, nursery classes and reception classes within primary schools, as well as settings outside the state sector such as voluntary pre-schools, privately run nurseries or childminders. In recent years there has been a major expansion of Early Years education and childcare. The Education Act 2002 extended the National Curriculum for England to include the Foundation Stage which was first introduced in September 2000, and covered children's education from the age of 3

to the end of the reception year, when children are aged 5. The Early Years Foundation Stage (EYFS) came into force in September 2008, and is a single regulatory and quality framework for the provision of learning, development and care for children in all registered early years settings between birth and the academic year in which they turn 5. The EYFS Profile (EYFSP) is the statutory assessment of each child's development and learning achievements at the end of the academic year in which they turn 5.

In Wales, children are entitled to a free part-time place the term following a child's third birthday until they enter statutory education. These places can be in a maintained school or a non-maintained setting such as a voluntary playgroup, private nursery or childminder which is approved to provide education. The Foundation Phase is a holistic developmental curriculum for 3 to 7-year-olds based on the needs of the individual child to meet their stage of development. Statutory rollout of the Foundation Phase framework started in September 2008 and the process was completed in the 2011/12 school year.

In Scotland, education typically starts with pre-school. Local authorities have a duty to secure a part-time funded place for every child starting from the beginning of the school term after the child's third birthday. Pre-school education can be provided by local authority centres, or private and voluntary providers under a partnership arrangement. In Scotland, early years education is called ante-pre-school education for those who start receiving their pre-school education in the academic year after their 3rd birthday until the end of that academic year (note: depending on when the child turned 3 years of age, some children may only receive part of an academic year's worth of ante-pre-school education (e.g. 1 term), whereas other children may receive an entire academic year of pre-school education). All children are entitled to receive a full academic year's worth of pre-school education in the academic year before they are eligible to, and expected to, start primary school.

The commitment in the Northern Ireland Executive's Programme for Government is to 'ensure that at least one year of pre-school education is available to every family that wants it.' Funded pre-school places are available in statutory nursery schools and units and in those voluntary and private settings participating

in the Pre-School Education Expansion Programme (PSEEP). Places in the voluntary/private sector are part-time whilst, in the statutory nursery sector, both full-time and part-time places are available.

Pre-school education is designed for children in the year immediately before they enter Primary 1. Taking into account the starting age for compulsory education in Northern Ireland this means children are aged between 3 years 2 months and 4 years 2 months in the September in which they enter their final pre-school year. The Programme incorporates a number of features designed to promote high quality pre-school education provision in all settings including a curriculum which is common to all those involved in pre-school education

The primary stage covers three age ranges: nursery (under 5), infant (5 to 7 or 8) (Key Stage 1) and junior (up to 11 or 12) (Key Stage 2) but in Scotland and Northern Ireland there is generally no distinction between infant and junior schools. In Wales, although the types of school are the same, the Foundation Phase has brought together what was previously known as the Early Years (from 3 to 5-year-olds) and Key Stage 1 (from 5 to 7-year-olds) of the National Curriculum to create one phase of education for children aged between three and seven. In England, primary schools generally cater for 4-11 year olds. Some primary schools may have a nursery or a children's centre attached to cater for younger children. Most public sector primary schools take both boys and girls in mixed classes. It is usual to transfer straight to secondary school at age 11 (in England, Wales and Northern Ireland) or 12 (in Scotland), but in England some children make the transition via middle schools catering for various age ranges between 8 and 14. Depending on their individual age ranges middle schools are classified as either primary or secondary. The major goals of primary education are achieving basic literacy and numeracy amongst all pupils, as well as establishing foundations in science, mathematics and other subjects. Children in England and Northern Ireland are assessed at the end of Key Stage 1 and Key Stage 2. In Wales, all learners in their final year of Foundation Phase and Key Stage 2 must be assessed through teacher assessments.

In England, public provision of **secondary education** in an area may consist of a combination of different types of school, the pattern reflecting historical

circumstance and the policy adopted by the local authority. Comprehensive schools largely admit pupils without reference to ability or aptitude and cater for all the children in a neighbourhood, but in some areas they co-exist with other types of schools, for example grammar schools. Academies, operating in England, are publicly funded independent schools. Academies benefit from greater freedoms to

help innovate and raise standards. These include freedom from local authority control, the ability to set their own pay and conditions for staff, freedom around the delivery of the curriculum and the ability to change the lengths of terms and school days. The Academies Programme was first introduced in March 2000 with the objective of replacing poorly performing schools. Academies were established and driven by external sponsors, to achieve a transformation in education performance. The Academies Programme was expanded through legislation in the Academies Act 2010. This enables all maintained primary, secondary and special schools to apply to become an Academy. The early focus is on schools rated outstanding by Ofsted and the first of these new academies opened in September 2010. These schools do not have a sponsor but instead are expected to work with underperforming schools to help raise standards.

In Wales, secondary schools take pupils at 11 years old until statutory school age and beyond. 3 Education authority secondary schools in Scotland are comprehensive in character and offer six years of secondary education; however, in remote areas there are several two-year and four-year secondary schools. In Northern Ireland, post-primary education consists of 5 compulsory years and two further years if students wish to remain in school to pursue post GCSE / Level 2 courses to Level 3. Ministerial policy is that transfer should be on the basis of nonacademic criteria, however legally post primary schools can still admit pupils based on academic performance. At the end of this stage of education, pupils are normally entered for a range of external examinations. Most frequently, these are GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and Standard Grades in Scotland, although a range of other qualifications are available. In Scotland pupils study for the National Qualifications (NQ) Standard grade (a two-year course leading to examinations at the end of the fourth year of secondary schooling) and NQ Higher grade, which requires at least a further year of secondary schooling. From 1999/00 additional new NQ were introduced in Scotland to allow greater flexibility and choice in the Scottish examination system. NQ include Intermediate 1 & 2 designed primarily

for candidates in the fifth and sixth year of secondary schooling, however these are used in some schools as an alternative to Standard Grades.

Further education may be used in a general sense to cover all non-advanced courses taken after the period of compulsory education. It is post-compulsory education (in addition to that received at secondary school), that is distinct from the education offered in universities (higher education). It may be at any level from basic skills training to higher vocational education such as City and Guilds or Foundation Degree. A distinction is usually made between FE and higher education (HE). HE is education at a higher level than secondary school. This is usually provided in distinct institutions such as universities. FE in the United Kingdom therefore includes education for people over 16, usually excluding universities. It is primarily taught in FE colleges, work-based learning, and adult and community learning institutions. This includes post-16 courses similar to those taught at schools and sub-degree courses similar to those taught at higher education (HE) colleges (which also teach degree-level courses) and at some universities. Colleges in England that are regarded as part of the FE sector include General FE (GFE) and tertiary colleges, Sixth form colleges, Specialist colleges (mainly colleges of agriculture and horticulture and colleges of drama and dance) and Adult education institutes. In addition, FE courses may be offered in the school sector, both in sixth form (16-19) schools, or, more commonly, sixth forms within secondary schools. In England, further education is often seen as forming one part of a wider learning and skills sector, alongside workplace education, prison education, and other types of non-school, non-university education and training. Since June 2009, the sector is overseen by the new Department for Business, Innovation and Skills, although some parts (such as education and training for 14-19 year olds) fall within the remit of the Department for Education.

Higher education is defined as courses that are of a standard that is higher than GCE A level, the Higher Grade of the SCE/National Qualification, GNVQ/NVQ level 3 or the Edexcel (formerly BTEC) or SQA National Certificate/Diploma. There are three main levels of HE course:

Postgraduate courses leading to higher degrees, diplomas and certificates (including Doctorate, Masters (research and taught), Postgraduate diplomas and certificates as well as postgraduate certificates of education (PGCE) and professional qualifications) which usually require a first degree as entry qualification.

Undergraduate courses which include first degrees (honours and ordinary), first degrees with qualified teacher status, enhanced first degrees, first degrees obtained concurrently with a diploma, and intercalated first degrees (where first degree students, usually in medicine, dentistry or veterinary medicine, interrupt their studies to complete a one-year course of advanced studies in a related topic).

Other undergraduate courses which include all other higher education courses, for example SVQ or NVQ: Level 5, Diploma (HNC/D level for diploma and degree holders), HND (or equivalent), HNC (or equivalent) and SVQ or NVQ: Level 4 and Diplomas in HE. As a result of the Further and Higher Education Act 1992, former polytechnics and some other HEIs were designated as universities in 1992/93. Students normally attend HE courses at HEIs, but some attend at FE colleges.

Перелік питань для самоконтролю:

1. The system of education in Great Britain.
2. Secondary education in Great Britain.
3. Colleges and Universities in UK.
4. What subjects do they study at school?
5. How long does secondary education last?
6. What subjects are called “core” subjects?
7. What's the difference between modern and grammar schools?
8. What are private schools?
9. Would you like to study in Britain? Why?
10. Compare British and Ukrainian education.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

ЛЕКЦІЯ 6. GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA. REGIONAL VARIATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

REGIONS: NEW ENGLAND, MIDDLE ATLANTIC REGION, SOUTH, WEST, MIDWEST, SOUTH WEST. THEIR BASIC CHARACTERISTICS AND FEATURES.

Мета: ознайомити студентів з політико-економічною географією Сполучених Штатів та основними загальними характеристиками цієї держави, із регіональним варіюванням Сполучених Штатів. Регіони: New England, Middle Atlantic Region, South, West, Midwest, South West. Їхні базові характеристики та особливості та історією формування та становлення регіонів. Видатні особистості та важливі події у історії формування країни.

План лекції:

1. Geographical location of the United States of America.
2. Regional variation of the United States.
3. History of formation of regions.
4. Outstanding personalities and important events in the history of the country's formation.

Located in North America, the United States of America, is a federal republic made up of 50 states. 48 of these states make up the landmass between Mexico and Canada, while Alaska is separated from the US by Canada and Hawaii is located in the mid-Pacific. The US mainland covers 2,959,064 square miles (7,663,941 km²) and is home to the third-largest population in the world. From the Atlantic to the Pacific, the 50 states of mainland America can be grouped into 11 regions including New England, Mid-Atlantic, the South, Florida, the Midwest, Texas, Great Plains, Rocky Mountains, Southwest, California and the Pacific Northwest.

The region of **New England** is comprised of the states of Connecticut, Massachusetts, Maine, Rhode Island, New Hampshire and Vermont and is steeped in American history, home to rugged mountains, winter snowfall, fantastic seafood, gables churches and some of the country's oldest towns. The **Mid-Atlantic** is comprised of the states of Pennsylvania, Delaware, New York, New Jersey and Maryland as well as the federal district of Washington, D.C. and is renowned for its rolling mountains, historic sites, enclaves of American history, seaside resorts, valleys and Pine Barrens as well as a cosmopolitan range of cities.

The South is home to the states of Arkansas, Alabama, Kentucky, Georgia, Mississippi, Louisiana, North and South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia and Tennessee and is known for its hospitality, blues, rock 'n' roll, jazz, country music, downhome cooking, religion, swamps, plantations and mountains. The state of **Florida** is a region unto itself and is known for its sandy beaches, Everglades, retirement communities and the tropical Caribbean-style city of Miami. In the **Midwest**, the states of Iowa, Illinois, Michigan, Indiana, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Missouri and Ohio are famous for their charming towns, farmland, forests and of course the Great Lakes.

The state of **Texas** is also a region unto itself and is known for its cattle-ranching as well as mountain and desert terrain, southeastern swamplands and Spanish and Mexican influences. The **Great Plains** region features the states of North and South Dakota, Kansas, Nebraska and Oklahoma which offer stunning vast landscapes that begin with forests that give way to prairies, High Plains and expansive shortgrass prairies that hark back to the early frontier days. The **Rocky Mountains** region home to Colorado, Montana, Idaho and Wyoming is known for its snow-capped rugged mountains and as a great place to hike, raft and snow ski.

The Southwest features the states of Nevada, Arizona, New Mexico and Utah and us home to amazing natural attractions including Death Valley, the Grand Canyon and Red Rock Canyon and is influenced by Mexican and Spanish culture. **California** too is a region in itself and offers everything from famous cities to deserts, snowy mountains, rainforests and beautiful beaches and is also

influenced by Spanish and Mexican culture. Finally, the **Pacific Northwest** is home to Oregon and Washington and is an excellent mix of cosmopolitan cities and outdoor pursuits featuring picturesque coastlines, deserts, volcanoes, mountains and even rainforests.

The eastern United States has a varied topography. A broad, flat coastal plain lines the Atlantic and Gulf shores from the Texas-Mexico border to New York City, and includes the Florida peninsula. This broad coastal plain and barrier islands make up the widest and longest beaches in the United States, much of it composed of soft, white sands. The Florida Keys are a string of coral islands that reach the southernmost city on the United States mainland (Key West). Areas further inland feature rolling hills, mountains, and a diverse collection of temperate and subtropical moist and wet forests. Parts of interior Florida and South Carolina are also home to sand-hill communities. The Appalachian Mountains form a line of low mountains separating the eastern seaboard from the Great Lakes and the Mississippi Basin. New England features rocky seacoasts and rugged mountains with peaks up to 6200 feet and valleys dotted with rivers and streams. Offshore Islands dot the Atlantic and Gulf coasts.

The five Great Lakes are located in the north-central portion of the country, four of them forming part of the border with Canada, only Lake Michigan situated entirely within United States. The southeast United States, generally stretching from the Ohio River on south, includes a variety of warm temperate and subtropical moist and wet forests, as well as warm temperate and subtropical dry forests nearer the Great Plains in the west of the region. West of the Appalachians lies the lush Mississippi River basin and two large eastern tributaries, the Ohio River and the Tennessee River. The Ohio and Tennessee Valleys and the Midwest consist largely of rolling hills, interior highlands and small mountains, jungly marsh and swampland near the Ohio River, and productive farmland, stretching south to the Gulf Coast. The Midwest also has a vast amount of cave systems.

The Great Plains lie west of the Mississippi River and east of the Rocky Mountains. A large portion of the country's agricultural products are grown in the

Great Plains. Before their general conversion to farmland, the Great Plains were noted for their extensive grasslands, from tallgrass prairie in the eastern plains to shortgrass steppe in the western High Plains. Elevation rises gradually from less than a few hundred feet near the Mississippi River to more than a mile high in the High Plains. The generally low relief of the plains is broken in several places, most notably in the Ozark and Ouachita Mountains, which form the U.S. Interior Highlands, the only major mountainous region between the Rocky Mountains and the Appalachian Mountains.

The Great Plains come to an abrupt end at the Rocky Mountains. The Rocky Mountains form a large portion of the Western U.S., entering from Canada and stretching nearly to Mexico. The Rocky Mountain region is the highest region of the United States by average elevation. The Rocky Mountains generally contain fairly mild slopes and wider peaks compared to some of the other great mountain ranges, with a few exceptions (such as the Teton Mountains in Wyoming and the Sawatch Range in Colorado). The highest peaks of the Rockies are found in Colorado, the tallest peak being Mount Elbert at 14,440 ft (4,400 m). In addition, instead of being one generally continuous and solid mountain range, it is broken up into a number of smaller, intermittent mountain ranges, forming a large series of basins and valleys.

West of the Rocky Mountains lies the Intermontane Plateaus (also known as the Intermountain West), a large, arid desert lying between the Rockies and the Cascades and Sierra Nevada ranges. The large southern portion, known as the Great Basin, consists of salt flats, drainage basins, and many small north–south mountain ranges. The Southwest is predominantly a low-lying desert region. A portion known as the Colorado Plateau, centered around the Four Corners region, is considered to have some of the most spectacular scenery in the world. It is accentuated in such national parks as Grand Canyon, Arches, Mesa Verde and Bryce Canyon, among others. Other smaller Intermontane areas include the Columbia Plateau covering eastern Washington, western Idaho and northeast Oregon and the Snake River Plain in Southern Idaho.

The Grand Canyon from Moran Point. The Grand Canyon is among the most famous locations in the country.

Alaska contains some of the most dramatic scenery in the country. Tall, prominent mountain ranges rise up sharply from broad, flat tundra plains. On the islands off the south and southwest coast are many volcanoes. Hawaii, far to the south of Alaska in the Pacific Ocean, is a chain of tropical, volcanic islands, popular as a tourist destination for many from East Asia and the mainland United States.

The territories of Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands encompass a number of tropical isles in the northeastern Caribbean Sea. In the Pacific Ocean the territories of Guam and the Northern Mariana Islands occupy the limestone and volcanic isles of the Mariana archipelago, and American Samoa (the only populated US territory in the southern hemisphere) encompasses volcanic peaks and coral atolls in the eastern part of the Samoan Islands chain.

Перелік питань для самоконтролю:

1. Regional difference of the USA.
2. History of regions in the USA.
3. Climate in different regions of the United States.
4. The main historical events in American regions: New England, Middle Atlantic Region, South, West, Midwest, South West.
5. Outstanding historical people who influenced on the development of the USA.
6. What the most important historical events do you know about Northern regions?
7. What the most important historical events do you know about Southern regions?

Рекомендована література по темі:

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ЛЕКЦІЯ 7. THE POLITICAL SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES. THE ECONOMY OF THE UNITED STATES

Мета: ознайомити студентів із політичним устроєм США, основними засадами зовнішньої та внутрішньої політики, з основними галузями економіки, станом економічного розвитку.

План лекції:

1. The United States is a federal constitutional republic.
2. The executive branch and Legislative power.
3. State government.
4. Local government.
5. Political parties and elections.
6. The economy of the United States.

The United States is a federal constitutional republic, in which the president (the head of state and head of government), Congress, and judiciary share powers reserved to the national government, and the federal government shares sovereignty with the state governments.

The executive branch is headed by the president and is independent of the legislature. Legislative power is vested in the two chambers of Congress: the Senate and the House of Representatives. The judicial branch (or judiciary), composed of the Supreme Court and lower federal courts, exercises judicial power.

The judiciary's function is to interpret the United States Constitution and federal laws and regulations. This includes resolving disputes between the executive and legislative branches. The federal government's layout is explained in the Constitution. Two political parties, the Democratic Party and the Republican Party, have dominated American politics since the American Civil War, although other parties have also existed.

There are major differences between the political system of the United States and that of most other developed capitalist countries. These include increased

power of the upper house of the legislature, a wider scope of power held by the Supreme Court, the separation of powers between the legislature and the executive, and the dominance of only two main parties. The United States is one of the world's developed democracies where third parties have the least political influence.

The federal entity created by the U.S. Constitution is the dominant feature of the American governmental system. However, most residents are also subject to a state government, and also subject to various units of local government. The latter can include counties, municipalities, and special districts.

State governments have the power to make laws on all subjects that are not granted to the federal government or denied to the states in the U.S. Constitution. These include education, family law, contract law, and most crimes. Unlike the federal government, which only has those powers granted to it in the Constitution, a state government has inherent powers allowing it to act unless limited by a provision of the state or national constitution.

Like the federal government, state governments have three branches: executive, legislative, and judicial. The chief executive of a state is its popularly elected governor, who typically holds office for a four-year term (although in some states the term is two years). Except for Nebraska, which has unicameral legislature, all states have a bicameral legislature, with the upper house usually called the Senate and the lower house called the House of Representatives, the Assembly or something similar. In most states, senators serve four-year terms, and members of the lower house serve two-year terms.

The constitutions of the various states differ in some details but generally follow a pattern similar to that of the federal Constitution, including a statement of the rights of the people and a plan for organizing the government. However, state constitutions are generally more detailed.

Local government. There are 89,500 local governments, including 3,033 counties, 19,492 municipalities, 16,500 townships, 13,000 school districts, and 37,000 other special districts. Local governments directly serve the needs of the people, providing everything from police and fire protection to sanitary codes, health regulations, education, public transportation, and housing. Typically local

elections are nonpartisan - local activists suspend their party affiliations when campaigning and governing.

About 28% of the people live in cities of 100,000 or more population. City governments are chartered by states, and their charters detail the objectives and powers of the municipal government. For most big cities, cooperation with both state and federal organizations is essential to meeting the needs of their residents. Types of city governments vary widely across the nation. However, almost all have a central council, elected by the voters, and an executive officer, assisted by various department heads, to manage the city's affairs. Cities in the West and South usually have nonpartisan local politics.

There are three general types of city government: the mayor-council, the commission, and the council-manager. These are the pure forms; many cities have developed a combination of two or three of them.

The United States Constitution has never formally addressed the issue of political parties, primarily because the Founding Fathers did not originally intend for American politics to be partisan. In Federalist Papers No. 9 and No. 10, Alexander Hamilton and James Madison, respectively, wrote specifically about the dangers of domestic political factions. In addition, the first president of the United States, George Washington, was not a member of any political party at the time of his election or throughout his tenure as president, and remains to this day the only independent to have held the office. Furthermore, he hoped that political parties would not be formed, fearing conflict and stagnation. Nevertheless, the beginnings of the American two-party system emerged from his immediate circle of advisers, including Hamilton and Madison.

In elections, candidates are nominated by a political party or seek public office as an independent. Each state has significant discretion in deciding how candidates are nominated, and thus eligible to appear on the election ballot. Typically, major party candidates are formally chosen in a party primary or convention, whereas minor party and Independents are required to complete a petitioning process.

The economy of the United States is that of a highly developed country with a mixed economy. It is the world's largest economy by nominal GDP and net

wealth and the second-largest by purchasing power parity (PPP). It has the world's fifth-highest per capita GDP (nominal) and the seventh-highest per capita GDP (PPP) in 2020. The United States has the most technologically powerful economy in the world and its firms are at or near the forefront in technological advances, especially in computers, pharmaceuticals, and medical, aerospace, and military equipment. The U.S. dollar is the currency most used in international transactions and is the world's foremost reserve currency, backed by its economy, its military, the petrodollar system and its linked eurodollar and large U.S. treasuries market. Several countries use it as their official currency and in others it is the de facto currency. The largest U.S. trading partners are China, Canada, Mexico, Japan, Germany, South Korea, United Kingdom, France, India, and Taiwan. The U.S. is the world's largest importer and the second-largest exporter. It has free trade agreements with several nations, including NAFTA, Australia, South Korea, Israel, and few others that are in effect or under negotiation.

The nation's economy is fueled by abundant natural resources, a well-developed infrastructure, and high productivity. It has the seventh-highest total-estimated value of natural resources, valued at Int\$45 trillion in 2015. Americans have the highest average household and employee income among OECD member states, and in 2010, they had the fourth-highest median household income, down from second-highest in 2007. By 1890 the United States had overtaken the British Empire as the world's most productive economy. It is the world's largest producer of petroleum and natural gas. In 2016, it was the world's largest trading nation as well as its second-largest manufacturer, representing a fifth of the global manufacturing output. The U.S. not only has the largest internal market for goods, but also dominates the trade in services. U.S. total trade amounted to \$4.2 trillion in 2018. Of the world's 500 largest companies, 121 are headquartered in the U.S. The U.S. has the world's highest number of billionaires with total wealth of \$3.0 trillion. US commercial banks had \$20 trillion in assets as of August 2020. US Global assets under management had more than \$30 trillion in assets.

The New York Stock Exchange and Nasdaq are the world's largest stock exchanges by market capitalization and trade volume. Foreign investments made in the U.S. total almost \$4.0 trillion, while American investments in foreign countries

total over \$5.6 trillion. The U.S. economy is ranked first in international ranking on venture capital and Global Research and Development funding. Consumer spending comprised 68% of the U.S. economy in 2018, while its labor share of income was 43% in 2017. The U.S. has the world's largest consumer market. The nation's labor market has attracted immigrants from all over the world and its net migration rate is among the highest in the world. The U.S. is one of the top-performing economies in studies such as the Ease of Doing Business Index, the Global Competitiveness Report, and others.

The U.S. economy experienced a serious economic downturn during the Great Recession, defined as lasting from December 2007 to June 2009. However, real GDP regained its pre-crisis (late 2007) peak by 2011, household net worth by Q2 2012, non-farm payroll jobs by May 2014, and the unemployment rate by September 2015. Each of these variables continued into post-recession record territory following those dates, with the U.S. recovery becoming the second-longest on record by April 2018. In the first two quarters of 2020, the U.S. economy entered recession due to the COVID-19 pandemic. This coronavirus recession has been widely described as the most severe global economic downturn since the Great Depression, and "far worse" than the Great Recession. Income inequality ranked 41st highest among 156 countries in 2017, and the highest compared to other Western nations.

Перелік питань для самоконтролю:

1. The United States of America is a federal republic consisting of 50 states. Each state has its own government («state government»). In some ways the United States is like 50 small countries. Do you agree with that?
2. What kind of power is given by federal system?
3. Where is the federal power situated?
4. What do you know about the legislative power?
5. The legislative power is vested in Congress, which consists of two houses: the Senate and the House of Representatives. Do you agree with that?
6. What is the main document of the USA?
7. When was the Constitution of the USA signed?
8. How many Amendments have been added to the Constitution since 1787?

9. What does the Constitution proclaim?
10. What powers is the federal government given?
11. Where is the federal government located? .
12. Where is the legislative power vested?
13. How many members are there in the House of Representatives?
14. Who is the head of the executive power in the USA?
15. How often do the President's elections take place?
16. Who deals with foreign affairs in the USA?
17. What does the Bill of Rights guarantee?
18. What natural resources is the United States rich in?
19. What can you say about the iron ore mined in the USA?
20. Where is the iron ore mined in the USA?
21. What are the main branches of America's heavy industry?
22. What are the branches of light industry?
23. What is a great deal of attention devoted to in American industry?

Рекомендована література по темі:

1. Лінгвокраїнознавство. Англomовні країни : підручник / Гапонів О. Б., Возна М. О. — Вид. 2-ге. — Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2018. — 352 с.
2. Башманівський О. Л., Вигівський В. Л., Моркотун С. Б. Лінгвокраїнознавство. — Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. І. Франка, 2018. - с. 98
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ЛЕКЦІЯ 8. SCIENCE AND EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

Мета: ознайомити студентів із системою освіти у Сполучених Штатах Америки.

План лекції:

1. The Educational Structure
2. Primary and secondary school
3. Grading system
4. Academic year
5. The US higher education system: levels of study
6. Characteristics of the US higher education system
7. Types of US higher education

The American education system offers a rich field of choices for international students. There is such an array of schools, programs and locations that the choices may overwhelm students, even those from the U.S. As you begin your school search, it's important to familiarize yourself with the American education system. Understanding the system will help you narrow your choices and develop your education plan.

Primary and secondary school. Prior to higher education, American students attend primary and secondary school for a combined total of 12 years. These years are referred to as the first through twelfth grades.

Around age six, U.S. children begin primary school, which is most commonly called "elementary school." They attend five or six years and then go onto secondary school.

Secondary school consists of two programs: the first is "middle school" or "junior high school" and the second program is "high school." A diploma or certificate is awarded upon graduation from high school. After graduating high school (12th grade), U.S. students may go on to college or university. College or university study is known as "higher education."

Grading system. Just like American students, you will have to submit your academic transcripts as part of your application for admission to university or college. Academic transcripts are official copies of your academic work. In the U.S. this includes your "grades" and "grade point average" (GPA), which are measurements of your academic achievement. Courses are commonly graded using percentages, which are converted into letter grades.

The grading system and GPA in the U.S. can be confusing, especially for international students. The interpretation of grades has a lot of variation. For example, two students who attended different schools both submit their transcripts to the same university. They both have 3.5 GPAs, but one student attended an average high school, while the other attended a prestigious school that was academically challenging. The university might interpret their GPAs differently because the two schools have dramatically different standards.

Therefore, there are some crucial things to keep in mind:

- ~ You should find out the U.S. equivalent of the last level of education you completed in your home country.
- ~ Pay close attention to the admission requirements of each university and college, as well as individual degree programs, which may have different requirements than the university.
- ~ Regularly meet with an educational advisor or guidance counselor to make sure you are meeting the requirements.

Your educational advisor or guidance counselor will be able to advise you on whether or not you must spend an extra year or two preparing for U.S. university admission. If an international student entered a U.S. university or college prior to being eligible to attend university in their own country, some countries' governments and employers may not recognize the students' U.S. education.

Academic year. The school calendar usually begins in August or September and continues through May or June. The majority of new students begin in autumn, so it is a good idea for international students to also begin their U.S. university studies at this time. There is a lot of excitement at the beginning of the school year and students form many great friendships during this time, as they are all adjusting to a new phase of academic life. Additionally, many courses are designed for students to take them in sequence, starting in autumn and continuing through the year.

The academic year at many schools is composed of two terms called "semesters." (Some schools use a three-term calendar known as the "trimester" system.) Still, others further divide the year into the quarter system of four terms, including an optional summer session. Basically, if you exclude the summer session, the academic year is either comprised of two semesters or three quarter terms.

The US higher education system: levels of study

First Level: Undergraduate

A student who is attending a college or university and has not earned a bachelor's

degree, is studying at the undergraduate level. It typically takes about four years to earn a bachelor's degree. You can either begin your studies in pursuit of a bachelor's degree at a community college or a four-year university or college.

Your first two years of study you will generally be required to take a wide variety of classes in different subjects, commonly known as prerequisite courses: literature, science, the social sciences, the arts, history, and so forth. This is so you achieve a general knowledge, a foundation, of a variety of subjects prior to focusing on a specific field of study.

Many students choose to study at a community college in order to complete the first two years of prerequisite courses. They will earn an Associate of Arts (AA) transfer degree and then transfer to a four-year university or college.

A "major" is the specific field of study in which your degree is focused. For example, if someone's major is journalism, they will earn a Bachelor of Arts in Journalism. You will be required to take a certain number of courses in this field in order to meet the degree requirements of your major. You must choose your major at the beginning of your third year of school.

A very unique characteristic of the American higher education system is that you can change your major multiple times if you choose. It is extremely common for American students to switch majors at some point in their undergraduate studies. Often, students discover a different field that they excel in or enjoy. The American education system is very flexible. Keep in mind though that switching majors may result in more courses, which means more time and money.

Second Level: Graduate in Pursuit of a Master's Degree

Presently, a college or university graduate with a bachelor's degree may want to seriously think about graduate study in order to enter certain professions or advance their career. This degree is usually mandatory for higher-level positions in library science, engineering, behavioral health and education.

Furthermore, international students from some countries are only permitted to study abroad at a graduate level. You should inquire about the credentials needed to get a job in your country before you apply to a postgraduate university in the

USA.

A graduate program is usually a division of a university or college. To gain admission, you will need to take the GRE (graduate record examination). Certain master's programs require specific tests, such as the LSAT for law school, the GRE or GMAT for business school, and the MCAT for medical school.

Graduate programs in pursuit of a master's degree typically take one to two years to complete. For example, the MBA (master of business administration) is an extremely popular degree program that takes about two years. Other master's programs, such as journalism, only take one year.

The majority of a master's program is spent in classroom study and a graduate student must prepare a long research paper called a "master's thesis" or complete a "master's project."

Third Level: Graduate in Pursuit of a Doctorate Degree

Many graduate schools consider the attainment of a master's degree the first step towards earning a PhD (doctorate). But at other schools, students may prepare directly for a doctorate without also earning a master's degree. It may take three years or more to earn a PhD degree. For international students, it may take as long as five or six years.

For the first two years of the program most doctoral candidates enroll in classes and seminars. At least another year is spent conducting firsthand research and writing a thesis or dissertation. This paper must contain views, designs, or research that have not been previously published.

A doctoral dissertation is a discussion and summary of the current scholarship on a given topic. Most U.S. universities awarding doctorates also require their candidates to have a reading knowledge of two foreign languages, to spend a required length of time "in residence," to pass a qualifying examination that officially admits candidates to the PhD program, and to pass an oral examination on the same topic as the dissertation.

Characteristics of the US higher education system

Classroom Environment

Classes range from large lectures with several hundred students to smaller classes and seminars (discussion classes) with only a few students. The American university classroom atmosphere is very dynamic. You will be expected to share your opinion, argue your point, participate in class discussions and give presentations. International students find this one of the most surprising aspects of the American education system.

Each week professors usually assign textbook and other readings. You will be expected to keep up-to-date with the required readings and homework so you can participate in class discussions and understand the lectures. Certain degree programs also require students to spend time in the laboratory.

Professors issue grades for each student enrolled in the course. Grades are usually based upon:

- Each professor will have a unique set of **class participation** requirements, but students are expected to participate in class discussions, especially in seminar classes. This is often a very important factor in determining a student's grade.
- A **midterm** examination is usually given during class time.
- One or more **research or term papers**, or laboratory reports must be submitted for evaluation.
- **Possible short exams or quizzes** are given. Sometimes professors will give an unannounced "pop quiz." This doesn't count heavily toward the grade, but is intended to inspire students to keep up with their assignments and attendance.
- A **final examination** will be held after the final class meeting.

Credits

Each course is worth a certain number of credits or credit hours. This number is roughly the same as the number of hours a student spends in class for that course each week. A course is typically worth three to five credits.

A full-time program at most schools is 12 or 15 credit hours (four or five courses per term) and a certain number of credits must be fulfilled in order to graduate. International students are expected to enroll in a full-time program during each term.

Transfers

If a student enrolls at a new university before finishing a degree, generally most credits earned at the first school can be used to complete a degree at the new university. This means a student can transfer to another university and still graduate within a reasonable time.

Types of US higher education

1. STATE COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY

A state school is supported and run by a state or local government. Each of the 50 U.S. states operates at least one state university and possibly several state colleges. Many of these public universities schools have the name of the state, or the actual word “State” in their names: for example, Washington State University and the University of Michigan.

2. PRIVATE COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY

These schools are privately run as opposed to being run by a branch of the government. Tuition will usually be higher than state schools. Often, private U.S. universities and colleges are smaller in size than state schools.

Religiously affiliated universities and colleges are private schools. Nearly all these schools welcome students of all religions and beliefs. Yet, there are a percentage of schools that prefer to admit students who hold similar religious beliefs as those in which the school was founded.

3. COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Community colleges are two-year colleges that award an associate’s degrees (transferable), as well as certifications. There are many types of associate degrees, but the most important distinguishing factor is whether or not the degree is transferable. Usually, there will be two primary degree tracks: one for academic transfer and the other prepares students to enter the workforce straightaway. University transfer degrees are generally associate of arts or associate of science. Not likely to be transferrable are the associate of applied science degrees and certificates of completion.

Community college graduates most commonly transfer to four-year colleges or

universities to complete their degree. Because they can transfer the credits they earned while attending community college, they can complete their bachelor's degree program in two or more additional years. Many also offer ESL or intensive English language programs, which will prepare students for university-level courses.

If you do not plan to earn a higher degree than the associate's, you should find out if an associate's degree will qualify you for a job in your home country.

4. INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

An institute of technology is a school that provides at least four years of study in science and technology. Some have graduate programs, while others offer short-term courses.

Перелік питань для самоконтролю:

1. Education in the United States of America is compulsory for children from the age of 6 till 16 (or 18). Do you agree with that?

2. A school year starts at the end of August or at the beginning of September and ends in late June or early July, doesn't it?

3. Do you agree that the whole school year is divided into three terms/trimesters or four quarters?

4. The American education system consists of 3 basic components: elementary, secondary and higher education. Do you agree with that?

5. What subjects are included into the Programme of the Elementary school?

6. At what age do American students start and finish their compulsory education?

7. How are the school years called in the United States?

8. The length of the school year varies among the states, doesn't it?

9. What are the basic components of American education?

10. Do all children have to attend a nursery school?

11. When does elementary education start?

12. What is the main aim of elementary education?

13. The secondary school curriculum doesn't imply a number of basic subjects,

does it?

14. What are elective subjects?

15. Who is a guidance counsellor?

Рекомендована література по темі:

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3. Борисенко Н.Д., Кодубовська О.О. Лінгвокраїнознавство: англomовні країни : Навчальний посібник (англійською мовою). — Житомир, 2019. — 154 с.
4. Дейвіс Н. Європа. Історія. К.: Основи, 2018. 1464 с.
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6. Шонь О.Б. Практикум з історії Англії. Навчально-методичний посібник. Тернопіль: Видво ТНПУ, 2019. 40 с.

Лекція 9. ART AND CULTURE IN THE USA. OUTSTANDING PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Мета: основними напрямками розвитку науки, мистецтва та культури, видатними діячами мистецтва Сполучених Штатів Америки.

План лекції:

1. Language
2. Art in the USA.
3. Architecture in the United States.
4. Culture in the United States.
5. National holidays
6. Outstanding people of the United States of America.

The culture of the United States of America is primarily of Western origin, but is influenced by a multicultural ethos that includes African, Native American, Asian, Pacific Island, and Latin American people and their cultures. It also has its own distinct social and cultural characteristics, such as dialect, music, arts, social habits, cuisine, and folklore. The United States is ethnically and racially diverse as

a result of large-scale migration throughout its history.

Although the United States has no official language at the federal level, 28 states have passed legislation making English the official language, and it is considered to be the de facto national language. According to the 2000 U.S. Census, more than 97% of Americans can speak English well, and for 81% it is the only language spoken at home. More than 300 languages besides English have native speakers in the United States - some are spoken by indigenous peoples (about 150 living languages) and others imported by immigrants.

Spanish has official status in the commonwealth of Puerto Rico, where it is the primary language spoken, and the state of New Mexico; various smaller Spanish enclaves exist around the country as well. According to the 2000 census, there are nearly 30 million native speakers of Spanish in the United States. Bilingual speakers may use both English and Spanish reasonably well but code-switch according to their dialog partner or context, a phenomenon known as Spanglish.

Indigenous languages of the United States include the Native American languages, which are spoken on the country's numerous Indian reservations and at cultural events such as pow wows; Hawaiian, which has official status in the state of Hawaii; Chamorro, which has official status in the commonwealths of Guam and the Northern Mariana Islands; Carolinian, which has official status in the commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands; and Samoan, which has official status in the commonwealth of American Samoa. American Sign Language, used mainly by the deaf, is also native to the country.

The national dialect is known as American English, which itself consists of numerous regional dialects, but has some shared unifying features that distinguish it from other national varieties of English. There are four large dialect regions in the United States - the North, the Midland, the South, and the West - and several smaller dialects such as those of New York City, Philadelphia, and Boston. A standard dialect called "General American" (analogous in some respects to the received pronunciation elsewhere in the English-speaking world), lacking the distinctive noticeable features of any particular region, is believed by some to exist as well; it is sometimes regionally associated with the Midwest.

Art. In the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, American artists

primarily painted landscapes and portraits in a realistic style or that which looked to Europe for answers on technique: for example, John Singleton Copley was born in Boston, but most of his portraiture for which he is famous follow the trends of British painters like Thomas Gainsborough and the transitional period between Rococo and Neoclassicism. The later eighteenth century was a time when the United States was just an infant as a nation and was far away from the phenomenon where artists would receive training as craftsmen by apprenticeship and later seeking a fortune as a professional, ideally getting a patron: Many artists benefited from the patronage of Grand Tourists eager to procure mementos of their travels. There were no temples of Rome or grand nobility to be found in the Thirteen Colonies. Later developments of the 19th century brought America one of its earliest native home grown movements, like the Hudson River School and portrait artists with a unique American flavor like Winslow Homer.

A parallel development taking shape in rural America was the American craft movement, which began as a reaction to the Industrial Revolution. As the nation grew wealthier, it had patrons able to buy the works of European painters and attract foreign talent willing to teach methods and techniques from Europe to willing students as well as artists themselves; photography became a very popular medium for both journalism and in time as a medium in its own right with America having a great deal of open spaces of natural beauty and growing cities in the East teeming with new arrivals and new buildings. Museums in Chicago, New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Washington, D.C. began to have a booming business in acquisitions, competing for works as diverse as the then more recent work of the Impressionists to pieces from Ancient Egypt, all of which captured the public imaginations and further influenced fashion and architecture. Developments in modern art in Europe came to America from exhibitions in New York City such as the Armory Show in 1913. After World War II, New York emerged as a center of the art world. Painting in the United States today covers a vast range of styles. American painting includes works by Jackson Pollock, John Singer Sargent, Georgia O'Keeffe, and Norman Rockwell, among many others.

Architecture in the United States is regionally diverse and has been shaped by many external forces. U.S. architecture can therefore be said to be eclectic,

something unsurprising in such a multicultural society. In the absence of a single large-scale architectural influence from indigenous peoples such as those in Mexico or Peru, generations of designers have incorporated influences from around the world. Currently, the overriding theme of American Architecture is modernity, as manifest in the skyscrapers of the 20th century, with domestic and residential architecture greatly varying according to local tastes and climate.

Theater of the United States is based in the Western tradition and did not take on a unique dramatic identity until the emergence of Eugene O'Neill in the early twentieth century, now considered by many to be the father of American drama. O'Neill is a four-time winner of the Pulitzer Prize for drama and the only American playwright to win the Nobel Prize for literature. After O'Neill, American drama came of age and flourished with the likes of Arthur Miller, Tennessee Williams, Lillian Hellman, William Inge, and Clifford Odets during the first half of the twentieth century. After this fertile period, American theater broke new ground, artistically, with the absurdist forms of Edward Albee in the 1960s.

Social commentary has also been a preoccupation of American theater, often addressing issues not discussed in the mainstream. Writers such as Lorraine Hansbury, August Wilson, David Mamet and Tony Kushner have all won Pulitzer Prizes for their polemical plays on American society. The United States is also the home and largest exporter of modern musical theater, producing such musical talents as Rodgers and Hammerstein, Lerner and Loewe, Cole Porter, Irving Berlin, Leonard Bernstein, George and Ira Gershwin, Kander and Ebb, and Stephen Sondheim. Broadway is one of the largest theater communities in the world and is the epicenter of American commercial theater.

American music styles and influences (such as rock and roll, jazz, rock, techno, soul, country, hip-hop, blues) and music based on them can be heard all over the world. Music in the U.S. is diverse. It includes African-American influence in the 20th century. The first half of this century is famous for jazz, introduced by African-Americans. According to music journalist Robert Christgau, "pop music is more African than any other facet of American culture."

The top three best-selling musicians from the United States are Elvis Presley, Michael Jackson and Madonna.

Broadcasting. Thomas Edison and his early phonograph. Edison was credited for inventing many devices, including the lightbulb

Television is a major mass media of the United States. Household ownership of television sets in the country is 96.7%, and the majority of households have more than one set. The peak ownership percentage of households with at least one television set occurred during the 1996–97 season, with 98.4% ownership. As a whole, the television networks of the United States are the largest and most syndicated in the world.

As of August 2013, approximately 114,200,000 American households own at least one television set.

Due to a recent surge in the number and popularity of critically acclaimed television series, many critics have said that American television is currently enjoying a golden age.

The United States observes **holidays** derived from events in American history, Christian traditions, and national patriarchs. Thanksgiving is the principal traditionally American holiday. It evolved from the English Pilgrim's custom of giving thanks for one's welfare. Thanksgiving is generally celebrated as a family reunion with a large afternoon feast. Christmas Day, celebrating the birth of Jesus Christ, is widely celebrated and a federal holiday, though a fair amount of its current cultural importance is due to secular reasons. European colonization has led to some other Christian holidays such as Easter and St. Patrick's Day to be observed, though with varying degrees of religious fidelity.

Independence Day (also known as the Fourth of July) celebrates the anniversary of the country's Declaration of Independence from Great Britain. It is generally observed by parades throughout the day and the shooting of fireworks at night.

Halloween is thought to have evolved from the ancient Celtic/Gaelic festival of Samhain, which was introduced in the American colonies by Irish settlers. It has become a holiday that is celebrated by children and teens who traditionally dress up in costumes and go door to door trick-or-treating for candy. It also brings about an emphasis on eerie and frightening urban legends and movies.

Additionally, Mardi Gras, which evolved from the Catholic tradition of

Carnival, is observed in New Orleans, St. Louis, Mobile, Alabama, and numerous other towns.

Перелік питань для самоконтролю:

1. Television is a major mass media of the United States. Household ownership of television sets in the country is 96.7%, and the majority of households have more than one set. Do you agree with that?
2. Do you know that due to a recent surge in the number and popularity of critically acclaimed television series, many critics have said that American television is currently enjoying a golden age.
3. Architecture in the United States is regionally diverse and has been shaped by many external forces, not only English. U.S. architecture can therefore be said to be eclectic, something unsurprising in such a multicultural society. Do you know about that?
4. How art was developed in the United states?
5. What do you know about the most famous poets in the USA?What are the basic components of American education?
6. How was cultural life developed during 4 centuries in the United States of America?
7. What do you know about architecture in the USA?
8. Whom of the most famous American actors do you know?
9. Whom of the most outstanding American art people do you know?

Рекомендована література по темі:

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3. Борисенко Н.Д., Кодубовська О.О. Лінгвокраїнознавство: англomовні країни : Навчальний посібник (англійською мовою). — Житомир, 2019. — 154 с.
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Лекція 10. CANADA. THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA. NEW ZEALAND. ENGLISH IN ALASKA, TASMANIA AND HAWAII.

Мета: ознайомити студентів з політико-економічною географією Канади та основними загальними характеристиками цієї держави; ознайомити студентів з політико-економічною географією Австралії і Нової Зеландії та основними загальними характеристиками цих держав.

План лекції:

1. Geographical location of Canada.
2. Political System of Canada.
3. The Commonwealth of Australia. Australian English.
4. New Zealand.
5. English in Alaska, Tasmania and Hawaii.
6. Regional dialects of English.

Canada occupies most of the northern part of North America. The country is bounded by the North Atlantic Ocean on the east, the North Pacific Ocean on the west, and the Arctic Ocean on the north.

It borders Alaska (USA) in the west, and twelve US states of the continental part of the United States in the south. Its border with its southern neighbor runs mainly along the 45th parallel (north). It is the world's longest international border between two countries (8,891 km (5,525 mi)).

Canada shares maritime borders with Greenland (an autonomous territory of Denmark) and Saint Pierre and Miquelon, a small island territory that belongs to France.

The country occupies an area of 9,984,670 km², making it the largest country in the Western Hemisphere. Compared, it is slightly larger than the US, or 18 times the size of France.

Canada has 13 sub-national divisions, ten provinces, and three territories. Each province has its system of local government. The region of what is today Canada was a long time part of colonial North America. The area became a self-governing

colony in the mid 19th century while retaining ties to the British crown. On 1 July 1867, the British North America Act (today known as the Constitution Act, 1867) created Canada with its initial four provinces of Ontario, Québec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia.

Canada is divided into multiple geographical regions, and its landscape offers a wide range of natural sceneries. The Canadian Shield, the largest geographical area, encompasses half the country and centers on Hudson Bay. Canada's southeastern region is dominated by lowlands, bordered by the Great Lakes: Lake

Michigan, Lake Superior, Lake Erie, and Lake Ontario.

Canada has a population of 38 million people (in 2020), which is only about 10% of the number of inhabitants of the neighboring USA. The national capital is Ottawa, the largest city is Toronto. Spoken languages are English and French.

Background. Canada is a land of vast distances and rich natural resources; it became a self-governing dominion in 1867 while retaining ties to the British crown. In 1982, Canada entirely broke from its colonial past; it transferred the country's highest law, the British North America Act (which was renamed the Constitution Act, 1867), from the British Parliament's authority to Canada's federal and provincial legislatures.

Economically and technologically, Canada has developed in parallel with the US. The country faces the political challenges of meeting public demands for quality improvements in health care, education, social services, and economic competitiveness and responding to the particular concerns of predominantly francophone Quebec. Canada also aims to develop its diverse energy resources while maintaining its commitment to the environment.

Political System. Canada's political system is a federal parliamentary representative democracy with a formal constitutional monarchy. Chief of State is the British monarch (Queen Elizabeth II) represented by the Governor-General, who is appointed by the monarch. Theoretically, the executive power lies with the monarch, but in practice, the monarch and his representative are apolitical and predominantly perform ceremonial functions. Head of Government is the Canadian Prime Minister (Justin Trudeau). The Parliament of Canada consists of three parts, the sovereign, represented by the Governor-General of Canada, the Senate (Upper House), and the House of Commons.

Australia, officially the Commonwealth of Australia, is a sovereign country comprising the mainland of the Australian continent, the island of Tasmania, and numerous smaller islands. It is the largest country in Oceania and the world's sixth-largest country by total area. The population of 26 million is highly urbanised and heavily concentrated on the eastern seaboard. Australia's capital is Canberra, and

its largest city is Sydney. The country's other major metropolitan areas are Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth, and Adelaide.

Indigenous Australians inhabited the continent for about 65,000 years prior to the first arrival of Dutch explorers in the early 17th century, who named it New Holland. In 1770, Australia's eastern half was claimed by Great Britain and initially settled through penal transportation to the colony of New South Wales from 26 January 1788, a date which became Australia's national day. The population grew steadily in subsequent decades, and by the time of an 1850s gold rush, most of the continent had been explored by European settlers and an additional five self-governing crown colonies established. On 1 January 1901, the six colonies federated, forming the Commonwealth of Australia. Australia has since maintained a stable liberal democratic political system that functions as a federal parliamentary constitutional monarchy, comprising six states and ten territories.

Australia is the oldest, flattest, and driest inhabited continent, with the least fertile soils. It has a landmass of 7,617,930 square kilometres (2,941,300 sq mi). A megadiverse country, its size gives it a wide variety of landscapes, with deserts in the centre, tropical rainforests in the north-east, and mountain ranges in the south-east. Australia generates its income from various sources, including mining-related exports, telecommunications, banking, manufacturing, and international education.

Australia is a developed country, with the world's fourteenth-largest economy and tenth-highest per capita income. It is considered a regional power and has the world's thirteenth-highest military expenditure. Immigrants, most particularly those arriving after World War II, account for up to 30% of the population, the highest proportion in any country with a population over 10 million. The country ranks highly in measures of health, education, economic freedom, and civil liberties.

Australia is a member of the United Nations, G20, Commonwealth of Nations, ANZUS, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), World Trade Organization, Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation, Pacific Islands Forum, and the ASEAN Plus Six.

Australian English (AuE, AuEng) is the set of varieties of the English language native to Australia. Although English has no official status in the Constitution, Australian English is the country's national and de facto official language as it is the first language of the majority of the population.

Australian English began to diverge from British English after the First Settlers, who set up the Colony of New South Wales, arrived in 1788. By 1820, their speech was recognised as being different from British English. Australian English arose from the intermingling of early settlers, who were from a great variety of mutually intelligible dialectal regions of Great Britain and Ireland, and quickly developed into a distinct variety of English which differs considerably from most other varieties of English in vocabulary, accent, pronunciation, register, grammar and spelling.

New Zealand is an island country in the southwestern Pacific Ocean. It consists of two main landmasses - the North Island and the South Island (Te Waipounamu) - and around 600 smaller islands, covering a total area of 268,021 square kilometres (103,500 sq mi). New Zealand is about 2,000 kilometres (1,200 mi) east of Australia across the Tasman Sea and 1,000 kilometres (600 mi) south of the islands of New Caledonia, Fiji, and Tonga. The country's varied topography and sharp mountain peaks, including the Southern Alps, owe much to tectonic uplift and volcanic eruptions. New Zealand's capital city is Wellington, and its most populous city is Auckland.

Owing to their remoteness, the islands of New Zealand were the last large habitable lands to be settled by humans. Between about 1280 and 1350, Polynesians began to settle in the islands and then developed a distinctive Māori culture. In 1642, the Dutch explorer, Abel Tasman, became the first European to sight New Zealand. In 1840, representatives of the United Kingdom and Māori chiefs signed the Treaty of Waitangi, which declared British sovereignty over the islands. In 1841, New Zealand became a colony within the British Empire, and in 1907 it became a dominion; it gained full statutory independence in 1947, and the British monarch remained the head of state. Today, the majority of New Zealand's

population of 5 million is of European descent; the indigenous Māori are the largest minority, followed by Asians and Pacific Islanders. Reflecting this, New Zealand's culture is mainly derived from Māori and early British settlers, with recent broadening arising from increased immigration. The official languages are English, Māori, and New Zealand Sign Language, with English being very dominant.

A developed country, New Zealand ranks highly in international comparisons, particularly in education, protection of civil liberties, government transparency, and economic freedom. It underwent major economic changes during the 1980s, which transformed it from a protectionist to a liberalised free-trade economy. The service sector dominates the national economy, followed by the industrial sector, and agriculture; international tourism is a significant source of revenue. Nationally, legislative authority is vested in an elected, unicameral Parliament, while executive political power is exercised by the Cabinet, led by the prime minister, currently Jacinda Ardern. Queen Elizabeth II is the country's monarch and is represented by a governor-general, currently Dame Patsy Reddy. In addition, New Zealand is organised into 11 regional councils and 67 territorial authorities for local government purposes. The Realm of New Zealand also includes Tokelau (a dependent territory); the Cook Islands and Niue (self-governing states in free association with New Zealand); and the Ross Dependency, which is New Zealand's territorial claim in Antarctica.

New Zealand is a member of the United Nations, Commonwealth of Nations, ANZUS, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, ASEAN Plus Six, Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation, the Pacific Community and the Pacific Islands Forum.

Dialects can be defined as "sub-forms of languages which are, in general, mutually comprehensible." English speakers from different countries and regions use a variety of different accents (systems of pronunciation) as well as various localised words and grammatical constructions; many different dialects can be identified based on these factors. Dialects can be classified at broader or narrower

levels: within a broad national or regional dialect, various more localised sub-dialects can be identified, and so on. The combination of differences in pronunciation and use of local words may make some English dialects almost unintelligible to speakers from other regions without any prior exposure.

The major native dialects of English are often divided by linguists into three general categories: the British Isles dialects, those of North America, and those of Australasia. Dialects can be associated not only with place but also with particular social groups. Within a given English-speaking country, there is a form of the language considered to be Standard English: the Standard Englishes of different countries differ and can themselves be considered dialects. Standard English is often associated with the more educated layers of society as well as more formal registers.

British and American English are the reference norms for English as spoken, written, and taught in the rest of the world, excluding countries in which English is spoken natively such as Australia, Canada, Ireland, and New Zealand. In many former British Empire countries in which English is not spoken natively, British English forms are closely followed, alongside numerous American English usages that have become widespread throughout the English-speaking world. Conversely, in many countries historically influenced by the United States in which English is not spoken natively, American English forms are closely followed. Many of these countries, while retaining strong British English or American English influences, have developed their own unique dialects, which include Indian English and Philippine English.

Chief among other native English dialects are Canadian English and Australian English, which rank third and fourth in the number of native speakers. For the most part, Canadian English, while featuring numerous British forms, alongside indigenous Canadianisms, shares vocabulary, phonology and syntax with American English, which leads many to recognise North American English as an organic grouping of dialects. Australian English, likewise, shares many American and British English usages, alongside plentiful features unique to Australia and

retains a significantly higher degree of distinctiveness from both larger varieties than does Canadian English. South African English, New Zealand English and Irish English are also distinctive and rank fifth, sixth, and seventh in the number of native speakers.

Перелік питань для самоконтролю

1. Geographical location of Canada.
2. Political System of Canada.
3. The Commonwealth of Australia. Australian English.
4. New Zealand.
5. English in Alaska, Tasmania and Hawaii.
6. Regional dialects of English.

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Теми доповідей-презентацій:

1. The evolution of royal power in Great Britain.
2. The English kings and queens: any family features?
3. Monarchy and democracy: are they mutually exclusive?
4. Legislative and executive powers: conflicts and cooperation.
5. The Cabinet or the Civil Service: who is the boss?
6. The Government of the UK and local authorities:
7. disperse of power or democratic centralism?
8. Only law can give us freedom. Do you agree with it?

9. The statute law and the common law: why should they exist side by side?
10. The system of English courts of law: why is it so complicated?
11. Does British judicial system guarantee democracy on the British Isles?
12. National parks and forest parks of Great Britain.
13. Rural England: problems and perspectives.
14. Who owns land in Great Britain?
15. The main tendencies in the development of English town architecture.
16. Sir, if you are tired of London, you are tired of life.
17. Historical sites of England.
18. Merry Green England.
19. British industries and British people: the history of the industrial disputes.
20. British local crafts: history, problems and perspectives.
21. Historical monuments of Early Britain.
22. Original ceremonies and customs of Great Britain.
23. Famous British castles and country houses.
24. British society today.
25. The Separation of Powers in the U.S. Constitution.
26. Election of the President in the U.S.
27. Elections for Congress in the U.S.
28. Higher Education in the U.S.
29. Religion in the U.S.: Protestants, Catholics, Mormons and others.
30. Private life in the U.S.: Home, Outside the Home, Sports, Holidays.
31. Radio, Television and Press in the U.S.
32. Hollywood.
33. Bilingual traditions in Canada.

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