

НОВОСИБИРСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ АГРАРНЫЙ
УНИВЕРСИТЕТ

Английский язык в профессиональной сфере
Методические указания для практических и самостоятельной
работы студентов
Направление подготовки:100100.62 - Сервис

НОВОСИБИРСК

2014

УДК 372.016.811.111

ББК 81.432.1-9

Т 367

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Английский язык в профессиональной сфере: методические указания для практических и самостоятельных работ студентов по дисциплине английский язык в профессиональной сфере.

Направление подготовки: 100100.62 - Сервис - Новосибирск: Изд.- во

Методические указания содержат материалы по методике самостоятельного изучения студентами учебной дисциплины и подготовке к проверке знаний. Практическая часть пособия – контрольно-тренировочные упражнения и текстовая база - нацелены на реализацию компетентностной модели дисциплины «Иностранный язык в профессиональной сфере».

Данное пособие включает полный комплекс разъяснений и указаний, позволяющих студенту наилучшим образом организовать процесс изучения иностранного языка.

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Методические рекомендации предназначены для студентов неязыковых факультетов I-II курсов очного и заочного отделений. Их цель – помочь студентам организовать эффективную самостоятельную работу по овладению английским языком в процессе его изучения в вузе в соответствии: 1) с требованиями государственного образовательного стандарта высшего профессионального образования; 2) с компетентностной моделью по дисциплине Иностранный язык, изучаемой в рамках цикла ГСЭ на факультетах НГАУ.

Методические рекомендации включают в себя:

1. Требования к уровню освоения содержания изучаемой дисциплины; выписку из содержания и программы изучения английского языка, соответствующие компетентностной модели дисциплины Иностранный язык для всех направлений бакалавриата НГАУ; виды учебной работы; требования к зачетам и экзаменам;

2. Алгоритм работы с различными видами речевой деятельности; практические рекомендации по организации самостоятельной работы по различным аспектам языка; базу электронных носителей.

3. Распределение теоретического грамматического материала по семестрам. Примеры контрольно-тренировочных упражнений по темам каждого семестра.

4. Текстовую базу по тематике всех направлений бакалавриата НГАУ.

5. В приложениях представлены: каталог интернет-ресурсов; тесты для самоконтроля знаний; таблица неправильных глаголов; дополнительные контрольные работы по грамматическим темам семестров.

ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

Владение иностранным языком способствует формированию всесторонне развитой, социально активной личности, открывает доступ к культурным и научным ценностям других народов, обеспечивает установление с ними деловых и культурных связей.

Обучение иностранным языкам в вузе преследует комплексную реализацию практической, воспитательной, образовательной и развивающей целей, при этом воспитательная, образовательная и развивающая цели достигаются в процессе практического владения иностранным языком.

Учебный процесс по иностранным языкам в вузе предусматривает проведение корректировочного курса, обеспечивающего повторение грамматического, фонетического, лексического минимума, изучавшегося в средней школе, обучение речевому этикету, а также основного курса, по окончании которого студент должен уметь:

- а) читать литературу общепедагогического содержания, актуальные материалы из газет и журналов и литературу по изучаемой специальности;
- б) участвовать в устном речевом общении на изучаемом языке в пределах, тематики, определенной настоящим стандартом.

Требования к практическому владению учащимися каждым видом речевой деятельности являются едиными по всем иностранным языкам.

Учебная программа строится в соответствии с дидактическими принципами:

последовательности, систематичности, взаимосвязи с профилирующими дисциплинами, наглядности.

1. СОДЕРЖАНИЕ УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

1.1 Выписка из государственного образовательного стандарта высшего профессионального образования

Федеральный компонент

Иностранный язык

1. *Фонетика*. Специфика артикуляции звуков, интонации, акцентуации и ритма нейтральной речи в изучаемом языке; основные особенности полного стиля произношения, характерные для сферы профессиональной коммуникации; чтение транскрипции.
2. *Лексика*. Лексический минимум в объеме 4000 учебных лексических единиц общего и терминологического характера. Понятие дифференциации лексики по сферам применения (бытовая, терминологическая, общенаучная, официальная и другая). Понятие о свободных и устойчивых словосочетаниях, фразеологических единицах. Понятие об основных способах словообразования.
3. *Грамматика*. Грамматические навыки, обеспечивающие коммуникацию общего характера без искажения смысла при письменном и устном общении; основные грамматические явления, характерные для профессиональной речи.
4. *Говорение*. Диалогическая и монологическая речь с использованием наиболее употребительных и относительно простых лексико-грамматических средств в основных коммуникативных ситуациях неофициального и официального общения. Культура и традиции стран изучаемого языка, правила речевого этикета. Основы публичной речи (устное сообщение, доклад).
5. *Аудирование*. Понимание диалогической и монологической речи в сфере бытовой и профессиональной коммуникации.
6. *Чтение*. Виды текстов: несложные прагматические тексты, тексты по широкому и узкому профилю специальности. Понятие об обиходно-литературном, официально-деловом, научном стилях, стиле художественной литературы. Основные особенности научного стиля.
7. *Письмо*. Виды речевых произведений: аннотация, реферат, тезисы, сообщения, частное письмо, деловое письмо, биография.

1.2. Объём дисциплины и виды учебной работы

Курс обучения английскому языку делится на 2 этапа (базовый, профильный) Продолжительность каждого этапа зависит от учебного плана факультета. Изучение каждой темы завершается проверочной письменной или устной работой. Каждый семестр завершается обобщающей семестровой контрольной работой.

В связи с тем, что обучение английскому языку ведется по семестрам, распределение семестрового учебного материала по этапам ведется в зависимости от учебного плана факультета.

Тематический план определяется профилем факультета и представлен в

рабочих планах факультета по английскому языку. Список обязательной и дополнительной литературы для аудиторного и внеаудиторного чтения включается в рабочий план изучения языка на факультете

1.3. Программа по английскому языку

Данная программа рассчитана на продолжение изучения школьного курса английского языка.

Обучение английскому языку ведется по этапам:

1 этап - *Корректировочный курс* (1 семестр): повторение фонетики, базовой грамматики, обучение технике чтения.

2 этап (2 семестр): овладение умениями и навыками чтения со словарем и без словаря текстов общепедагогической направленности, общекультурных текстов, текстов по страноведению и по специальности; устный и письменный перевод; обучение речевому этикету и высказываниям в объеме языкового материала, предусмотренного программой.

3 этап – (3, 4 семестр): совершенствование навыков пользования изучаемым языком. В этих целях чтение иноязычной литературы подчинено одной задаче - извлечению новой информации, которую студенты могут использовать в своей учебной или научной работе, например, в научных статьях, подготовке научных докладов и сообщений и т.п.

Предполагается овладение лексическим минимумом в объеме 4000 учебных лексических единиц общего и терминологического характера, грамматическими навыками, обеспечивающими коммуникацию общего характера без искажения смысла при письменном и устном общении; изучение основных грамматических явлений, характерных для профессиональной работы.

При обучении иностранному языку можно добиваться интенсификации учебного процесса путем широкого применения технических средств: аудио и видеотехники, грамматических, лексических таблиц, карт, схем и т.д.

1.3.1. Распределение учебного материала по аспектам

а) фонетика

1-й семестр

Специфика артикуляции звуков, интонации, акцентуации и ритма нейтральной речи в английском языке; основные особенности полного стиля произношения, характерные для сферы профессиональной коммуникации; чтение транскрипции.

б) грамматика

1-й семестр. *Простое распространенное предложение.* Утвердительное, отрицательное, вопросительное предложение (с вопросительным словом и без него), повелительное предложение (форма вежливого обращения);

Существительное. Формальные признаки существительного (род, число, падеж). Строевые признаки существительного (признаки грамматических отношений, сочетаемость существительных).

Прилагательное. Формальные признаки прилагательного. Строевые признаки прилагательного. Степени сравнения.

Местоимение. Формальные признаки местоимения (род, падеж, число). Строевые признаки: особенности значения некоторых местоимений в связи с их функцией в предложении. *Артикль.* Определенный, неопределенный, нулевой.

Наречие. Формальные признаки наречия. Классификация наречия по значению и употреблению. Степени сравнения наречия. Место в предложении.

Числительное. Количественные, порядковые, дробные числительные.

Конструкция There is / are.

Личные формы глагола: the Present, Past, Future Indefinite Tense. Active Voice.

2 –й семестр. *Предлог.* Простые сложные предлоги. Функции в предложении.

Глагол. Модальные глаголы и их заменители.

Личные формы глагола: The Present, Past, Future Indefinite Tense. Passive Voice.

The Present, Past, Future Continuous Tense. The Present, Past, Future Perfect Tense, Active and Passive Voice. The Present, Past, Future Perfect Continuous Tense. Способы перевода страдательного залога на русский язык.

Словообразование.

суффиксы: - er -or, - ion, - tion, - ness, -ess, - less, - ful, - able, - ly, - ish, -ity, -ment, -hood, - dom, -ship, -ance, -age, - y, -ie и др.

- префиксы: un-, dis-, ex-, co-, re- и др.

Сложные слова и слова, соотнесенные по конверсии. Понятия о свободных и устойчивых словосочетаниях, фразеологических единицах. Понятия об основных способах словообразования.

3-й семестр. *Глагол.* Неличные формы глагола. Инфинитив. Инфинитивные конструкции. Герундий. Герундиальные конструкции. Причастие. Причастные обороты.

4-й семестр. Синтаксис. Сложные предложения с придаточными дополнительными; определительными, обстоятельственными. Условные придаточные предложения. Прямая и косвенная речь.

в) лексический минимум

1-й семестр - 300 единиц усваиваются активно. О себе. О семье. О своём окружении. Учеба. Университет. Межкультурное взаимопонимание. Правила речевого этикета.

2-й семестр - 300 единиц усваиваются активно. Будущая профессия. Страны изучаемого языка. Россия. Правила речевого этикета.

3-й семестр - 300 единиц усваиваются активно. Сравнительная характеристика систем образования стран изучаемого языка и России.

4-й семестр - 100 единиц усваиваются активно. Персоналии в данной специальности.

Примечание: названия текстов указываются в рабочих планах по факультетам. Перечень обязательной и дополнительной литературы так же указывается в

рабочих планах по факультетам.

1.3.2. Распределение материала по видам речевой деятельности

а) аудирование

1-й семестр. Понимание основного содержания несложных звучащих текстов монологического и диалогического характера в рамках изучаемых тем.

2-й семестр. Понимание диалогической и монологической речи в сфере бытовой коммуникации.

3-й семестр. Выборочное понимание необходимой информации в объявлениях и информационной рекламе.

4-й семестр. Понимание диалогической и монологической речи в сфере профессиональной коммуникации.

б) чтение

1-й семестр. Просмотровое, ознакомительное без словаря. Чтение со словарем. Домашнее чтение: художественные тексты средней сложности.

2-й семестр. Чтение специальной литературы учебного характера.

3-й семестр. Оригинальная литература по специальности

4-й семестр. Виды текстов, тексты по широкому и узкому профилю специальности.

в) письмо

1-й семестр. Написание частного письма, биографии.

2-й семестр. Написание реферата, сообщения по теме.

3-й семестр. Написание тезисов.

4-й семестр. Написание аннотации.

г) говорение

1-й семестр. Диалогическая и монологическая речь с использованием наиболее употребительных и относительно простых лексико-грамматических средств в основных коммуникативных ситуациях неофициального общения. Культура и традиции стран изучаемого языка, правила речевого этикета.

2-й семестр. Диалогическая и монологическая речь с использованием наиболее употребительных грамматических средств в основных коммуникативных ситуациях официального общения. Основы публичной речи (доклад).

3-й семестр. Понятие о дифференциации лексики по сферам применения (бытовая, терминологическая, общенаучная, официальная и др.).

Понятие об обиходно-литературном, официально-деловом, научном стилях, стиле художественной литературы. Основные особенности научного стиля. Официальное общение, основы публичной речи (устное сообщение, доклад)

4-й семестр. Понятие о дифференциации лексики по сферам применения (бытовая, терминологическая, общенаучная, официальная и др.).

Понятие об обиходно-литературном, официально-деловом, научном стилях, стиле художественной литературы. Основные особенности научного стиля. Официальное общение, основы публичной речи (устное сообщение, доклад)

1.4. Требования к зачетам и экзаменам.

Зачеты выставляются по результатам текущего контроля в течение семестра. К экзамену допускаются студенты, имеющие зачеты, выполнившие письменно контрольные работы, сдавшие учебный материал по внеаудиторному чтению за соответствующие семестры.

На экзамене проверяется умение:

- 1) Читать со словарем текст по специальности. Форма проверки понимания - письменный перевод (800 - 1000 знаков за 30 минут).
- 2) Читать без словаря педагогический текст или текст общекультурного содержания, включающий изученный грамматический материал, 4 % незнакомых слов на 1000-1200 знаков за 20 минут. Форма проверки понимания - передача содержания прочитанного на английском языке.
- 3) Устное сообщение по изученным разговорным темам.

1.5. Требования к уровню освоения содержания дисциплины

Студент должен уметь:

В области устной речи:

Вести беседу различного типа на темы повседневной жизни, учёбы, будущей специальности, и т.д.: беседу-расспрос, беседу-обмен мнениями, уметь дать объяснение, высказать одобрение, неодобрение, осуждение, согласие, несогласие.

От студента требуются умения начать и закончить беседу, поддержать разговор. Монологические высказывания должны быть целенаправленными, логичными, лексически и структурно разнообразными, содержать клише и отражать личное отношение к обсуждаемой проблеме.

В области чтения:

а) студент должен уметь читать про себя (без словаря) несложные тексты из общественно-политической, научно-популярной и художественной литературы, построенные на программном языковом материале.

б) студент должен уметь читать (со словарём) с целью извлечения полной информации несложные тексты из общественно-политической, научно-популярной и художественной литературы, построенные на программном языковом материале.

в) студент должен уметь читать (со словарём) с целью извлечения полной информации сложные научные тексты по специальности.

В области аудирования:

студент должен уметь понимать иноязычную речь (высказывания, сюжетные рассказы), предъявленную в нормальном темпе до 3 мин. Допускается 3-4% незнакомых слов, о значении которых можно догадаться по контексту, ситуации, словообразованию.

В области письма:

студент должен уметь написать биографию, частное, деловое письмо, реферат, аннотацию, тезисы.

2. МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЕ РЕКОМЕНДАЦИИ ПО ОРГАНИЗАЦИИ САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ.

2.1. Рекомендации по организации работы с аудиотекстом.

Вся работа с аудиотекстом состоит из трёх этапов: предтекстового, текстового, послетекстового.

Основное содержание предтекстового этапа – снятие языковых трудностей.

1. Прослушайте текст.
2. Проанализируйте значение отдельных слов и фраз.
3. Переведите наиболее трудные предложения.
4. Выполните тренировочные упражнения на базе текста.

Текстовый этап включает прослушивание всего текста и поочерёдно отдельных абзацев, смысловых блоков.

В процессе многократного прослушивания текста выполните следующие упражнения:

1. Подберите к абзацу заглавия.
2. Перефразируйте отдельные предложения.
3. Ответьте на вопросы.
4. Найдите с опорой на русский эквивалент иноязычные фрагменты текста.
5. Прослушайте текст повторно.
6. Проанализируйте употребление языковых средств.

Послетекстовый этап включает следующие виды работы:

1. Составьте план пересказа.
2. Перескажите текст.
3. Составьте рассказ по аналогии.
4. Составьте ситуации к тексту.

2.2. Рекомендации по организации работы с грамматическим материалом.

1. Проработайте теоретический материал по теме в учебном пособии.
2. Выделите главные признаки изучаемого грамматического явления. Запишите их в тетрадь. Запомните!
3. Ответьте на контрольные вопросы по теме.
4. Выполните тренировочные упражнения на закрепление изученной темы, придерживаясь последовательности:
 - образование грамматического явления;

- употребление грамматического явления;
- перевод с английского на русский и с русского на английский;
- определение грамматического явления в тексте;
- проверка усвоения грамматического материала по тесту.

5. Выучите 3 основные формы неправильных глаголов.

Перевод заданий к упражнениям по грамматике

Make sentences from the words in brackets. – Составьте предложения из слов, данных в скобках.

Write positive or negative sentences. – Напишите повествовательные и отрицательные предложения.

Write the following sentences in the negative and in the interrogative. – Запишите следующие предложения в отрицательной и вопросительной формах.

Ask (write) questions to the following statements. – Задайте (напишите) вопросы к следующим предложениям.

Answer the following questions according to the model. – Ответьте на вопросы в соответствии с моделью.

Translate into English (into Russian). – Переведите на английский (русский) язык. Use “...” construction in the necessary tense form. – Используйте «...» конструкцию в соответствующей видовойременной форме.

Extend the sentences according to the pattern. – Расширьте предложение по образцу.

Put the verb in brackets into the correct form. – Поставьте глагол, данный в скобках, в правильную форму.

Open the brackets using the correct tense. – Раскройте скобки, используя правильную видовойременную форму.

Complete the sentences with “...” – Закончите предложение используя «...».

Say whether the underlined words are correct. Correct those which are wrong. – Определите, правильны ли подчеркнутые слова. Исправьте, где необходимо.

Insert the “...” where it is necessary. – Вставьте «...», где необходимо.

Express the following sentences in (e.g. Passive Voice). – Выразите следующие предложения в (пр. в страдательном залоге).

Give the plural (singular) of the following nouns. – Определите множественное (единственное) число существительных.

Supply the missing (appropriate) words. – Вставьте пропущенные (подходящие по смыслу) слова.

Choose the correct form of the “...” in brackets. – Выберите правильную форму «...» из скобок.

Give Russian equivalents to the sentences (phrases). – Дайте русский эквивалент следующим предложениям (фразам).

Analyse the use of “...” in the sentences below. – Проанализируйте, использование «...» в следующих предложениях.

State the form and function of the “...” in the sentence – Определите, форму и функцию

«...» в предложении.

Fill in the blanks with “...” where it is necessary. – Заполните пропуски словами «...», где это необходимо.

Paraphrase the following sentences using “...” – Перефразируйте предложения, используя «...».

2.3. Рекомендации по организации работы с лексическим материалом

1. Следует учитывать, что опора на словообразовательный признак и знание словообразовательных элементов служат:

- для расширения словарного запаса;
- для определения части речи по морфологическому признаку;
- для определения рода имени существительного;
- для определения значения слова;
- для умения самим образовывать новые слова;
- для развития языковой догадки.

2. Важную роль в овладении иностранным языком имеет развитие *языковой догадки*, которая помогает понять значение слова, пользуясь следующими приемами:

- определение значения слова из контекста;
- сходство слов со словами родного языка;
- знание значения корня или однокоренных слов;
- знание значения словообразовательных элементов;
- разложение сложных существительных на составные компоненты;
- привлечение своих знаний из различных областей.

3. Особое внимание следует обращать на интернациональную лексику. Знание этой лексики не только способствует развитию языковой догадки, увеличивает словарный запас, но и расширяет кругозор, повышает общую культуру.

4. Полезно запоминать не отдельные слова, а словосочетания, выражения или целые фразы. Это позволит Вам быстрее подбирать нужные слова, строить предложения, использовать их в новом контексте.

5. Расширению словарного запаса может помочь запоминание новых слов по карточкам, что позволит учить слова в свободное время. На одной стороне карточки пишется слово или словосочетание на иностранном языке, на обратной стороне – перевод. С карточками следует работать до тех пор, пока Вы не сможете быстро воспроизводить изучаемую лексику как с одной стороны карточки (английский вариант), так и с другой (русский вариант). Целесообразно составить тематическую или поурочную картотеку изучаемой лексики. Время от времени желательно проверять знание слов, выученных по карточкам.

2.4. Рекомендации по организации работы со словарями

Типы словарей

Из всех типов словарей наиболее необходимым для изучающих иностранный язык является

д в у з ы ч н ы й переводной словарь – англо-русский и русско-английский. Наиболее полные, точные и полезные словари – те, которые выдержали уже не один десяток изданий: Англо-русский словарь под ред. В. К. Мюллера и Русско-английский словарь под ред. А. И. Смирницкого. Именно на их базе создан электронный словарь LINGVO (основной). Еще в 70-е годы прошлого века вышло первое издание двухтомного Большого англо-русского словаря под ред. И. Р. Гальперина. Затем вышел большой словарь под ред. Ю. Д. Апресяна (они имеются в продаже на компакт-дисках). Эти большие словари могут пригодиться, если нет под рукой одного или нескольких специализированных словарей, и большой словарь как бы заключает несколько в одном. Современные словари часто имеют «коммерческие» названия: «большой», «новый», «полный», «современный» и т. д. На самом деле эти словари, как правило, уступают названным выше и по объему, и по полноте, и по точности перевода. Большой словарь должен включать не менее 80 000 слов. Студентам неязыковых специальностей может быть достаточно словаря меньшего объёма, но не менее 40 000 слов. Мы рекомендуем пользоваться последними переизданиями старых словарей.

Второй тип словарей – это отраслевые словари, например медицинский, экономический, юридический и т. п. Их электронные аналоги имеются в пакете программ LINGVO и в электронном переводчике PROMT. Существуют специализированные издания, например, словари сокращений, слэнга, новых слов и т. п. Словари синонимов по-другому называются тезаурусами. Существуют как бумажные, так и электронные тезаурусы, например, Collins. Самый доступный электронный тезаурус (русский и английский) встроен в текстовый редактор WORD. Выделив слово и нажав кнопку, можно выбрать синоним и вставить его в текст.

Третий тип – толковые «англо-английские» словари. Можно выделить два основных подтипа: учебные и энциклопедические. К первым относится, например: Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, ко второму типу - Collins English Dictionary (см. приложение 2). В первом словаре даны основные энциклопедические сведения, во втором (учебном) определения проще, меньше значений и больше примеров.

Следует учитывать, что словари с пометкой *for advanced learners* предназначены именно для продвинутого этапа. Они оптимальны для студентов, изучающих английский как специальность. Начинаящим лучше выбрать словари для начального уровня. Издательства Oxford University Press, Cambridge University Press, Macmillan, Longman, Collins описывают прежде всего британский вариант английского языка, Webster – самое известное издательство американских словарей. В некоторых словарях (Macmillan, Longman Dictionary of the English Language and Culture) даются основные лингвострановедческие сведения. Изданы и специальные лингвострановедческие словари. Мы рекомендуем словари Г. Д. Томахина. Для студентов они удобны тем, что основная информация дается на русском языке. Самый полный фразеологический словарь английского языка составлен А. В. Куниным.

Словари отличаются между собой тем, сколько значений они выделяют у одного слова, рассматривают ли они одинаковые слова как омонимы или как разные значения одного слова. Нужно внимательно прочитать всю словарную статью и определить, какое значение слова подходит по контексту. Например, русское слово «образование» имеет несколько значений. Фразу «начальное образование» следует переводить *primary education*, «образование слов» –

word building, «образование нового отдела» – *formation of new division*. Одна из главных ошибок при переводе – буквализм. «Детективный роман» – не *detective novel*, а *mystery novel*. Существует немало слов, которые называют «ложными друзьями переводчика». Например, troops – не «группы», а «войска», corpse – не «корпус», а «труп».

2.5. Рекомендации по организации работы с электронными ресурсами

Все современные словари имеют электронные варианты. Они существуют как в off-line версиях на компакт-дисках, так и в режиме on line. On-line версии, как правило, менее полные, в них нет некоторых опций (например, расширенного поиска и других). Тем не менее, и они могут быть подспорьем, особенно если доступ в сеть бесплатный. Вот некоторые адреса:

Сайт электронного словаря LINGVO: <http://www.lingvo.ru/lingvo/index.asp>

Сайт электронного переводчика PROMT: <http://www.translate.ru/rus/>

Следует учитывать, что электронный перевод всегда требует более или менее значительного редактирования. Иногда редактирование занимает больше времени, чем обычный перевод. Электронный переводчик удобен, если текст крупный по объему, и набирать перевод вручную слишком долго.

Сайт Британской энциклопедии: <http://britannica.com/>

Сайт лингвострановедческого словаря «Американа»: <http://www.americana.ru>

Сайт, содержащий много полезных ссылок, в том числе на словари Oxford, Cambridge, Webster's, Macmillan, Encarta, Collins, Longman, самый известный английский тезаурус Роже (Roget's), ссылки для учителей, студентов, тесты on-line и т. п.: <http://www.polyglosso.com/links.htm>

Сайт, содержащий ссылки на Библиотеку Конгресса США, другие библиотеки, энциклопедии, словари (перечисленные выше и многие другие): <http://www.cas.okstate.edu/jb/faculty/ketterer/diction.htm>

Сайт, в котором одним нажатием кнопки можно получить статьи сразу из нескольких десятков словарей и сравнить их: <http://www.onelook.com/>

Многоязычные словари:

<http://www.ets.ru/udict-r.htm>

<http://www.ets.ru/abbrdict-r.htm>

<http://www.yourdictionary.com/>

<http://wordreference.com/>

Электронные библиотеки:

Самая крупная в Интернете бесплатная многоязычная библиотека художественной литературы. Содержит тексты на английском, немецком, французском и многих других языках. Пополняется ежедневно: <http://www.gutenberg.org/>

Полезный справочный сайт, включает также многотомную Библиотеку классической литературы на английском языке, словари, энциклопедии:

<http://www.bartleby.com/reference/>

Русскоязычные электронные библиотеки:

Библиотека Максима Мошкова – крупнейшая русскоязычная электронная библиотека. Есть раздел «учим английский язык»: <http://lib.ru>

Библиотека «Альдебаран». Вторая по посещаемости русскоязычная электронная библиотека. Дополняет некоторые разделы библиотеки Мошкова. Большой раздел художественной литературы. Серьезная научная литература практически не представлена. Пополняется ежедневно. www.lib.aldebaran.ru

Библиотека Вадима Ершова: <http://publ.lib.ru>

Большой раздел научно-технической литературы.

Другие библиотеки:

<http://fictionbook.ru>

<http://bookz.ru>

<http://www.gumer.info/> Научная, философская, религиозная и другая гуманитарная литература.

Вузовские и школьные учебники по английскому языку и другим гуманитарным дисциплинам:

<http://enative.narod.ru/theory/manuals.htm>

<http://artefact.lib.ru/languages/english/>

<http://sch-yuri.narod.ru/> (пароль архива: sch-yuribyru)

<http://www.durov.com/content/books.html>

Для получения оптимального результата в запросе должно быть несколько ключевых слов, хотя бы одно из них должно встречаться сравнительно редко, или они должны образовать сравнительно редкое сочетание. Метасистемы, в отличие от обычных, как правило, не выдают повторяющихся ссылок.

Каталог интернет-ресурсов для организации самостоятельной работы и формирования знаний, умений и навыков, предусмотренных компетентностной моделью дисциплины даётся в **Приложении 1**.

2.6. Рекомендации по организации работы с текстами для чтения

Чтобы научиться понимать и переводить иноязычный текст, необходимо, в первую очередь, научиться выделять и понимать содержание на уровне: *текста, абзаца и предложения*, а также дифференцировать основную и второстепенную информацию.

Основные признаки текста: 1) *связность*; 2) *тематичность* (все предложения объединены какой-либо одной темой); 3) *цельность* (использование средств связи между предложениями).

Тема текста. Текст представляет собой сложное суждение, в котором есть текстовый субъект (о чем говорится в тексте?) и текстовый предикат (что говорится в тексте?).

Текстовым **субъектом** является тема текста, которая находит словесное выражение чаще всего в заголовке или в самом начале текста.

Текстовый **предикат** представляет собой группу суждений, раскрывающих тему текста, т.е. сам текст.

Главное содержание текста. Понять содержание текста – значит уяснить его тему и

идею.

Тема текста – это предмет данного описания, т.е. предмет, явление, событие, о которых идет речь в тексте.

Идея текста – это главная мысль о данном предмете, авторское отношение к описываемому предмету. Идея текста – это вывод, к которому должен прийти читающий после ознакомления с содержанием текста.

Тема часто сообщается в заголовке или в первом предложении текста. Понять идею можно лишь после прочтения всего текста. Иногда она не имеет словесного выражения, тогда читающий должен сам сделать определенные выводы.

Основное содержание текста. Для этой цели выделяются элементы, в которых заключена основная смысловая информация текста. Они называются “ключевыми фрагментами” (слово, словосочетание, предложение, группа предложений). Каждый абзац имеет ключевое предложение – “абзацную фразу”, если их объединить, то можно получить основное содержание текста.

Ключевое предложение может находиться: а) в верхней части абзаца (*дедуктивная* структура – изложение мысли от общего к частному); б) в нижней части абзаца (*индуктивная* структура – изложение мысли от частного к общему); в) в верхней и в нижней части (*рамочная* логическая структура).

Другие предложения текста представляют собой способ логического развития мысли в абзаце.

Формы передачи информации. Существуют следующие формы передачи информации: *сообщение, описание, повествование и рассуждение*. Так ядро самого простого типа информации – сообщения – составляют ответы на следующие вопросы: кто, что, когда, где, как, почему.

В текстах психолого-педагогического профиля преобладает тип информации о ситуации или положении дел, а также комбинированный тип информации (сообщение, передача высказывания, информация о событии или факте, о ситуации или положении дел, рассуждение).

Основные виды текстов для чтения

1) учебный; 2) художественный (story – рассказ, play – пьеса, novel – роман). 3) научный и научно-популярный (research work- научный труд, theses – диссертация; monograph - монография; reference–статья из справочной литературы; article – журнальная статья; notes – сообщение).

Чтение с полным пониманием прочитанного

Цель – полностью понять содержание текста, выделить главную информацию, передать содержание, оценить его, сравнить с уже известным ранее.

Алгоритм

1. Перед чтением спрогнозируйте по заголовку содержание текста.

2. Читайте текст с полным пониманием, т.е. старайтесь, как можно точнее понять содержание и смысл читаемого. При этом догадаться о значении слов вам помогут:

- понятное содержание может подсказать значение незнакомого слова;
- сходство слов со словами родного языка;
- значение однокоренных слов;
- разложение сложных существительных на составные компоненты;
- использование словаря.

3. Проверьте, насколько Вы хорошо поняли содержание и смысл текста. Для этого необходимо:

- ответить на вопросы к тексту, позволяющие выделить детали;
- самостоятельно поставить вопросы к тексту;
- составить развернутый план прочитанного.

4. Для подготовки *пересказа* текста необходимо:

- найти в тексте и выписать основные ключевые слова и выражения;
- составить последовательность фактов и событий;
- изложить содержание текста с опорой на ключевые слова и выражения.

5. Для *характеристики* какого-либо объекта текста необходимо:

- определить объект характеристики;
- выписать слова и выражения, относящиеся к определяемому объекту;
- описать объект;
- высказать свое мнение о нем.

6. Для подготовки *высказывания* по проблеме текста следует:

- определить исходный тезис;
- определить основной материал для аргументирования;
- выписать ключевые слова и словосочетания;
- аргументировать тезис;
- привести примеры.

7. Для *обсуждения проблемы* текста следует:

- выделить предмет обсуждения;
- выделить информацию о предмете;
- выписать ключевые слова и словосочетания;
- выразить свое отношение к предмету;
- аргументировать свою точку зрения.

8. Для *реферирования* текста необходимо:

- зафиксировать основные опорные пункты;
- распределить информацию по степени важности.

9. Для *аннотирования* текста следует:

- зафиксировать тему и главную мысль;

- выразить свое отношение.

Чтение с пониманием основного содержания

Цель – получить общую информацию о содержании текста, выделить главную мысль, высказать свое отношение к прочитанному.

Алгоритм

1. Перед чтением спрогнозируйте по заголовку содержание текста.
2. Читайте текст с пониманием основного содержания, то есть:
 - сконцентрируйтесь на основных фактах текста, опуская второстепенную информацию;
 - старайтесь охватить взглядом все предложение или его часть;
 - старайтесь догадаться о значении незнакомых слов или обратитесь к словарю;
 - во время чтения подчеркивайте или выписывайте словосочетания и предложения, несущие основную информацию.
3. Проверьте, поняли ли Вы основные факты текста, определите его основную мысль. Для этого необходимо:
 - выбрать заголовок из предлагаемых вариантов или сформулировать самому;
 - разделить текст на смысловые отрезки;
 - ответить на вопросы, выделяющие основную информацию.
4. Для подготовки высказывания следует:
 - сформулировать главную мысль текста;
 - сказать, что Вы узнали нового;
 - кратко изложить основные идеи текста;
 - высказаться по проблеме текста.

Для анализа текста на английском языке рекомендуется использовать следующие клише:

The extract under consideration tells a story of – в данном отрывке говорится...

The article tells about – в статье говорится...

This is the surface of the story. –

The story represents the conflict between – в рассказе представлен конфликт между ...

The basic theme of the story is... – основная тема рассказа....

The problem raised by the author is... – проблема, поднятая автором....

The main problem may be formulated in the following way: – главную проблему можно сформулировать как...

In the story the writer dwells upon (raises, touches upon) the problem of – в рассказе писатель затрагивает проблему...

The idea is revealed in the final passage (in the episode where, in concluding sentence) – идея раскрывается в последнем эпизоде...

The main idea conveyed by the author is... – главная идея автора...

The general mood of the text is – основное настроение текста...

The extract may be divided into (split into, falls into) 3 logically complete parts – отрывок можно разделить на три логически законченные части.

They can be entitled as – их можно озаглавить...

The narration is done in the 1st (the 3rd) person – повествование ведётся от третьего лица.

2.7. Рекомендации для написания рефератов, аннотаций, писем.

Реферирование текста

Реферат, составленный по одному источнику, называется *монографическим*. Структура реферата строго установлена. Он состоит из двух частей: *заголовочной* и *собственно реферативной*.

В заголовочной части отражается название первоисточника, фамилия автора и библиографические данные (место издания, издательство, год издания).

Текст собственно реферативной части строится на основе выделенных при чтении ключевых слов и ключевых фрагментов, большинство из которых могут быть терминами в данной специальной области.

Реферат, составленный по нескольким работам на одну тему, называется *обзорным*.

Для оформления реферата на английском языке рекомендуется использовать следующие клише:

The Paper is called = The title of the Paper is... – название реферата...

The theme of the Paper is ... – тема реферата ...

It is spoken about ... – говорится о ...

It is said in brief that... – кратко говорится о ...

Reader's attention is drawn to... – внимание читателей привлекает...

The text gives an information about ... – текст дает информацию о ...

The following facts are stressed in the article... – в статье подчеркиваются следующие факты...

The content of the text includes ... – содержание текста охватывает...

The text is devoted to the problem ... – текст посвящен проблеме...

The articles are taken from ... – статьи взяты из ...

In the article it is analyzed ... – в статье анализируется ...

The author characterises ... – автор характеризует ...

The author emphasises ... – автор подчеркивает, что ...

The author suggests ... – автор предлагает ...

The author considers that ... – автор считает, что ...

The main (sufficient) part of the research work contains... – главная часть исследования содержит ...

The text contains statistics about... – текст содержит статистику о...

In the introductory part the author touches upon... – во вступительной части автор автор касается...

At first it is depicted that... – во-первых изображается ...

Secondly it is revealed that... – во-вторых обнаруживается, что...

First of all it is stressed that... – в начале ударение делается на...

The author underlines that ... – автор подчеркивает, что...

In concluding paragraphs it is pointed out... – в заключительных параграфах указывается на...

Summing up the information... – суммируя информацию...

Алгоритм составления реферата

1. Оформите заголовочную часть: запишите название первоисточника, фамилию и инициалы автора (авторов) и библиографические данные.
2. Пронумеруйте абзацы текста.
3. Просмотрите текст и определите его главную тему.
4. Внимательно читая текст по абзацам, определите тему и подтемы каждого абзаца и запишите их вместе с номером абзаца в виде ключевых слов и выражений.
5. Таким образом, Вы составите логический план текста.
6. Обдумайте последовательность расположения пунктов плана.
7. Выберите из каждого абзаца ключевые фрагменты (отдельные слова или словосочетания), которые характеризуют выделенные Вами темы и подтемы, запишите их. Так выявляются смысловые ряды.
8. На материале смысловых рядов составьте текст реферата, используя связующие специфические выражения и языковые клише.
9. Прочитайте составленный текст реферата и отредактируйте его.
10. Укажите свою фамилию и инициалы, факультет, курс, номер группы и дату.

Клише для обсуждения реферата

Высказывание

a) To my mind the Paper is ... – по моему мнению реферат...

From my point of view... – с моей точки зрения...

It seems to me that... – мне кажется, что...

I would like to express my own opinion on the problem... – хотелось бы высказать свое мнение по проблеме...

I would like to clarify... – Я хотел бы кое-что прояснить.

I would like to tell something else... – Я хотел бы сказать следующее.

I would like to add ... – Я хотел бы добавить ...

An example of this would be... – Примером этого будет...

For example... – Например...

The point is that... – Смысл в том, что....

Осуждение

b) I disagree with the position of the author. – Я не согласен с позицией автора.

I do not share the author's point of view. – Я не разделяю точку зрения автора.

I have just the opposite idea. – У меня противоположенное мнение.

I can't agree with the author's opinion. – Я не могу разделить мнение автора.

Согласие

c) I do share the author's opinion that... – я разделяю мнение автора в том, что ...

I agree with your point of view that ... – я согласен с Вашей точкой зрения, что...

You are definitely right that ... – несомненно, Вы правы, что ...

I find this Paper interesting/important. – Я нахожу данный реферат интересным/важным.

There is no doubt that... – Нет сомнений в том, что...

It goes without saying... – Без сомнений, ...

Сомнение

d) I am not quite sure that... – я не вполне уверен, в том что ...

It seems to me doubtless because... – это кажется мне сомнительным, потому что ...

I agree to the point but... – Я согласен с этим, но...

I suppose you are right but ... – Предполагаю, что Вы правы, но...

I would like to mention that... – Хотелось бы упомянуть, что...

Требование, просьба

e) I would like to ask a question... – Я хотел бы задать вопрос ...

Could you tell me more about... – Не могли бы Вы рассказать еще... о...

Do you know anything else about... – Знаете ли Вы еще что-нибудь о...

Can you confirm the fact? – Вы можете подтвердить...?

I would like to ask you to tell your opinion about – Я хотел бы Вас попросить высказать свое мнение о

Аннотирование текста

Аннотация – короткая справка о печатном произведении, излагающая содержание в виде перечня его основных вопросов. Аннотация дает представление только о характере оригинала (книга, статья и т.д.), о его строении (перечень вопросов), о его назначении (на кого оригинал рассчитан), а также об объеме оригинала (количество страниц). Аннотации пишутся как на языке оригинала, так и на родном языке. При составлении аннотации используются языковые клише. Объем аннотации составляет 0,5 страницы.

Структура аннотации стабильна. Она состоит из заголовочной части (название оригинала, фамилия автора, издательство, место и дата издания и др.). Написание собственно аннотации начинается с чтения текста и нумерации абзацев, определяется ведущая тема текста, темы и подтемы каждого абзаца, составление логического плана текста в виде перечня тем и подтем текста.

Клише, используемые при составлении аннотации:

а) клише, начинающие аннотацию и вводящие в главную тему:

The article (text) is called...

The title of the article (text) is...

The article (text) is published in...

The article is printed in...

The article consists of...

The article is devoted to...

The text touches upon the problem...

In the introductory part the author points out...

в) клише, оформляющие основную мысль произведения:

The author raises the problem of...

The main part of the text informs about...

The article contains statistics about...

с) клише, оформляющие выводы автора оригинала:

In the concluding paragraphs it is pointed out...

Summing up the information it is important to say that...

Generalizing the information it is necessary to say that...

В конце аннотации указывается фамилия, инициалы составителя, факультет, курс, группа, дата составления. Образец:

Annotation

The article is called „English for specific purposes in Russia: a historical perspective“. The article is published in Journal „ESP Russia“ in January, 1996. Volume 1. It is written by Tamara Nazarova, Professor of Moscow State University. The article is devoted to historical development of an approach of language teaching which is directed by specific and apparent reasons for learning. The author raises two problems for identification. The 1st is: What is the meaning of the word ESP? And the 2nd: How to use it? In the concluding paragraphs it is pointed out that ESP methodology has been consistently applied to intellectual communication at large. Summing up the information it is important to say that as it is shown, terminologies of usage differ in various sciences, but the category of reproduction allows the learner to acquire proficiency in the use of neutral “prefabricated units”.

I СЕМЕСТР

ГРАММАТИЧЕСКИЙ МАТЕРИАЛ

1. Имя существительное: образование множественного числа имен существительных; выражение падежных отношений в английском языке.
2. Имя прилагательное и наречие: степени сравнения имен прилагательных и наречий.
3. Местоимение: основные разряды местоимений (личные, притяжательные, вопросительные)

и указательные местоимения).

4.оборот *there + to be*.

5.Спряжение глаголов *to be, to have* в *Present, Past, Future Indefinite*.

6.Простое распространенное предложение; прямой порядок слов повествовательного предложения в утвердительной и отрицательной форме; обратный порядок слов вопросительного предложения. Типы вопросительных предложений.

ИМЯ СУЩЕСТВИТЕЛЬНОЕ (THE NOUN)

Имена существительные могут обозначать названия предметов (*a cottage, a lamp*), живых существ (*a girl, a boy*), веществ (*iron, milk*), явлений (*spring, movement*), признаков (*beauty, coldness*), действий и состояний (*rest, cooperation, honesty*).

Основными признаками существительного являются артикль и предлог: *a door, the door, on the table, over the table*.

В английском языке существительные имеют грамматические категории числа и падежа, но не имеют категории рода. Существительные, обозначающие лиц мужского пола, заменяются местоимением *he* (он), женского пола - местоимением *she* (она). Названия животных, птиц, а также все неодушевленные предметы обозначаются местоимением *it* (он, она, оно).

В английском языке род имен существительных за редким исключением (*tiger - tigress, poet - poetess*) узнается только в контексте. Иногда к существительному добавляется слово, указывающее на пол: *a girl-friend, she-cat*.

КАТЕГОРИЯ ЧИСЛА ИМЕН СУЩЕСТВИТЕЛЬНЫХ

Большинство исчисляемых существительных в английском языке имеют два числа: единственное и множественное.

Множественное число большинства существительных образуется путем добавления к форме единственного числа окончания *-s* или *-es* (после *s, ss, x, ch, o*): *day - days, hero - heroes*. Окончание *-s(-es)* произносится как *[z]* после гласных и звонких согласных (*door [do:z], walls [wo:lz]*), как *[s]* после глухих согласных (*shops [ʃɒps], states [steɪts]*) и как *[ɪz]* после шипящих и свистящих (*speeches [spi:tʃɪz], boxes [bɒksɪz]*).

Имена существительные, оканчивающиеся на *-y* с предшествующей согласной, принимают окончание *-es*, причем *-y* меняется на *-i*: *city - cities, factory - factories*. Если буква *-y* стоит после гласной, то множественное число образуется по общему правилу путем прибавления *-s*: *toy - toys, key - keys*.

Имена существительные, оканчивающиеся в единственном числе на *-f*, образуют множественное число путем изменения *f* на *v* и прибавления окончания *-es*: *leaf - leaves, wolf - wolves, wife - wives*.

Однако некоторые существительные, оканчивающиеся на *-f* и *-fe*, образуют множественное число только путем прибавления окончания *-s*: *chief - chiefs, roof - roofs, safe - safes, belief - beliefs*.

Некоторые имена существительные образуют множественное число путем изменения корневых гласных:

man - men; woman - women; child - children; tooth - teeth; foot - feet; goose - geese; mouse - mice

Неисчисляемые существительные обычно употребляются только в единственном числе: *iron* - железо, *sugar* - сахар, *love* - любовь, *hair* - волосы, *money* - деньги, *advice* - совет, *information* - информация, *progress* - успех, *knowledge* - знания, *news* - новость, *peace* - мир, *fruit* - фрукты, *series* - серия, серии.

The news is sad. Новости печальные. *I will give you some good advice*. Я дам вам несколько хороших советов.

Названия парных предметов употребляются только во множественном числе: *glasses/spectacles* - очки, *trousers* - брюки, *scissors* - ножницы, *shorts* - шорты.

These trousers are too long – Эти брюки слишком длинные.

Where are my spectacles? – Где мои очки?

Существительные *goods* – товары, *contents* – содержание, *clothes* – одежда, *riches* – богатство, *wages* – заработная плата употребляются только во множественном числе.

Собирательные существительные *people* – люди, *police* – полиция, *cattle* – скот всегда употребляются с глаголом только во множественном числе.

The police know about the stolen money. Полиция знает об украденных деньгах.

КАТЕГОРИЯ ПАДЕЖА ИМЕН СУЩЕСТВИТЕЛЬНЫХ

Существительные в английском языке имеют только два падежа: общий (*The Common case*) и притяжательный (*The Possessive case*). Существительное в общем падеже не имеет специальных окончаний. Существительное в притяжательном падеже является определением к другому существительному и отвечает на вопрос *whose?* чей?, означая принадлежность предмета. В форме притяжательного падежа употребляются в основном существительные одушевленные, а также существительные, обозначающие

1. время и расстояние: *a month's holiday, a mile's distance*;
2. страны, города, суда, а также существительные - *country, city, world, model, ship, town, nature, the moon, the sea*;
3. вес, стоимость, место: *ten roubles' worth, a kilo's weight, at the baker's*;
4. собирательные существительные: *army, party, company, government, family* и др.: *government's decisions, party's money*.

Существительное в притяжательном падеже является описательным словом к другому существительному и отвечает на вопрос чей?, обозначая, таким образом, принадлежность одного предмета другому. В форме притяжательного падежа используются в основном существительные, обозначающие одушевленные предметы:

That is my brother's car. Это машина моего брата.

Существуют два способа образования формы притяжательного падежа:

1. Относится к существительным в **единственном числе**; прибавляется *s* после апострофа в конце слова: *father's car* => папина машина; *my mother's room* => мамина комната; *a woman's dress* => платье (какой-то) женщины; *a week's rest* => недельный отдых
2. Относится к существительным во **множественном числе** с *-s* в конце; ставится только апостроф после всего слова; на произношение никак не влияет:
girls' room => комната девочек; *my friends' car* => машина моих друзей; *ten days' rest* => десятидневный отдых

Примечание: если существительное образует множественное число не прибавлением *-s* в конце слова, а меняет всю форму, то притяжательный падеж строится способом 1: *woman – women's dresses* => платья женщин; *man – men's cars* => автомобили мужчин; *child – children's bedroom* => спальня детей

ИМЯ ПРИЛАГАТЕЛЬНОЕ

СТЕПЕНИ СРАВНЕНИЯ ПРИЛАГАТЕЛЬНЫХ И НАРЕЧИЙ

В английском языке, так же, как и в русском, прилагательные и наречия имеют три степени сравнения: положительную / сравнительную / превосходную.

В английском языке существуют два способа построения степеней сравнения.

1. Для коротких (состоящих из одного слога) слов:

Положительная	Сравнительная	Превосходная степень
<i>Small</i> маленький	<i>Smaller</i> меньший	<i>(the) smallest</i> самый маленький /наименьший
<i>Large</i>	<i>Larger</i>	<i>(the) largest</i>

большой	больший	самый большой /наибольший
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Примечания: с превосходной степенью часто используется определенный артикль.

1. При построении степеней сравнения **в написании:**

- конечная согласная с предшествующей краткой гласной удваивается: *big* => *bigger* => *(the) biggest*;
- если перед конечной -у стоит согласная буква, то -у переходит в -i: *easy* => *easier* => *(the) easiest*; *early* => *earlier* => *(the) earliest*;
- при прибавлении *-er* или *-est* конечная *-e* опускается (см. выше *large*) на произношение особенности написания не влияют.

2. Для длинных (состоящих из двух или более слогов) слов:

Не имеет смысла еще больше удлинять слово, поэтому в английском языке добавляется другое короткое слово впереди: *beautiful* => красивый *more beautiful* => более красивый *(the) most beautiful* => самый красивый; *easily* => легко *more easily* => легче *(the) most easily* => легче всего.

Для передачи значения менее и меньше всего / наименее используются соответственно слова *less* и *least*: *less beautiful* => менее красивый *(the) least beautiful* => наименее красивый.

Формы степеней сравнения некоторых прилагательных и наречий в английском языке образуются **не по правилу:**

Положительная степень	Сравнительная степень	Превосходная степень
<i>good</i> хороший	<i>Better</i>	<i>(the) best</i>
<i>well</i> хорошо	лучше	самый лучший/ лучше всего
<i>bad</i> плохой	<i>Worse</i>	<i>(the) worst</i>
<i>badly</i> плохо	хуже	самый плохой/ хуже всего
<i>many</i> много	<i>More</i>	<i>(the) most</i>
<i>much</i> много	больше / более	больше всего/ наиболее
<i>little</i> ало	<i>Less</i> менее / меньше	<i>(the) least</i> меньше всего/ наименее
<i>far</i> далекий	<i>farther / further</i> более далекий / дальше	<i>(the) farthest</i> самый далекий <i>(the) furthest</i> дальше всего
<i>far</i> далеко		
<i>old</i> старый	<i>Elder</i> старше	<i>(the) eldest</i> самый старший

Примечание: слово *little* может быть как прилагательным, так и наречием; в данном случае оно используется только как наречие мало; если нужно построить степени сравнения от прилагательного маленький, пользуемся словом *small* (см. выше); формы *elder* / *eldest* используются чаще, когда говорящий ведет речь о членах своей семьи: *My father is elder than my mother.* => Мой отец старше матери. *This is my eldest son.* => Это мой старший сын; в большинстве других случаев степени сравнения образуются по способу 1: *old* => *older* => *(the) oldest*.

Определенный артикль сохраняется перед формой превосходной степени даже, если нет существительного: *He is the best.* => Он самый лучший.

Для обозначения сравнительной степени используется слово *than* => чем; при этом, чтобы избежать повторения одного и того же существительного, часто ставится слово *one* в качестве заменителя этого существительного или притяжательное местоимение в абсолютной форме:

My car is bigger than their one / theirs. Мой автомобиль больше, чем их.

These cigars are stronger than those ones. Эти сигары крепче, чем те. При сравнении одинакового качества используется сочетание *as ... as* => такой (же) ... как (и) / так

(же) ... как (и): *She is as beautiful as my mother*. Она такая же красивая, как моя мама.
При сравнении качества в отрицательной форме чаще используется сочетание *not so ... as* => не такой ... как: *I am not so beautiful as her / she is*. Я не такая красивая, как она.

МЕСТОИМЕНИЕ

Местоимения не называют никаких предметов или их признаков, а только указывают на предметы, признаки и т.д. в соответствии с тем, о чем идет речь.

В английском языке местоимения делятся на: личные, притяжательные, указательные, неопределенные, взаимные, вопросительно-относительные, возвратные и эмфатические (усилительные).

ЛИЧНЫЕ МЕСТОИМЕНИЯ (THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS)

Личные местоимения употребляются в предложениях в качестве подлежащего, дополнения, именной части сказуемого, т.е. в тех же функциях, что и имена существительные. Личные местоимения имеют два падежа: именительный и объектный.

Именительный падеж: *I* (я), *you* (ты), *he* (он), *she* (она), *it* (он, она, оно), *we* (мы), *you* (вы), *they* (они).

Личное местоимение 1-го лица *I* (я) всегда пишется с прописной буквы. Личное местоимение 2-го лица *you* (ты, вы) употребляется в единственном и во множественном числе в одной и той же форме, без изменений и переводится в зависимости от контекста. Местоимение 3-го лица единственного числа *he* (он) обозначает лицо мужского пола, *she* (она) - лицо женского пола, *it* - обозначает неодушевленный предмет и соответствует русским «он, она, оно», а также употребляется по отношению к животным, когда не указывается их пол.

Объектный падеж: *me* (меня, мне), *you* (тебя, тебе), *him* (его, ему), *her* (ее, ей), *it* (его, ему, ее, ей), *us* (нас, нам), *you* (вас, вам), *them* (их, им).

ПРИТЯЖАТЕЛЬНЫЕ МЕСТОИМЕНИЯ (THE POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS)

Притяжательные местоимения выражают принадлежность и отвечают на вопрос чей? (*whose?*). Каждому личному местоимению соответствуют две формы притяжательных местоимений:

I - my (mine); you - your (yours); he - his (his); she - her (hers); it - its (its); we - our (ours); you - your (yours); they - their (theirs).

В первой форме (*my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their*) притяжательные местоимения употребляются перед существительными и выполняют функцию определения. Если перед существительным есть другие определения, то притяжательное местоимение ставится перед этими определениями: *My dear young brother*.

Если перед существительным употребляется притяжательное местоимение, то в этом случае артикль отсутствует.

Притяжательные местоимения во второй форме (*mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*) употребляются вместо существительных, поэтому за ними не следуют существительные.

Притяжательные местоимения во второй форме употребляются в функциях:

1. Подлежащего: *My room is large, yours is larger*. Моя комната большая, твоя – больше.
2. Именной части составного сказуемого: *This room is mine*. Эта комната моя.
3. Дополнения: *Don't take her bag, take mine*. Не бери ее сумку, возьми мою.

УКАЗАТЕЛЬНЫЕ МЕСТОИМЕНИЯ (THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS)

Указывают на:

1. то, что ближе к говорящему по месту и времени *this* => этот / эта / это: *this table* => этот стол; *this Sunday* => в это воскресенье; *these* => эти: *these windows* => эти окна; *these days* => на днях / в эти дни;

2. то, что дальше от говорящего по *day* => в то воскресенье *those* => те: *those windows* => те окна; *those days* => в те дни

Указательные местоимения могут быть в предложении подлежащим:

This is your table. That is my table. Those are our tables.

Местоимения *that / these / those* используются иногда для замены предшествующего существительного, чтобы избежать повтора в предложении или в ситуации; обычно в этом случае за местоимением следуют слова в родительном падеже, поэтому перед ними ставится предлог *of*:

The climate here is like that of France. Климат здесь такой же, как во Франции.

My father's cigars are very strong. Those of your father are half as strong. Сигары моего отца (те сигары, что курит мой отец) очень крепкие. У твоего отца сигары вдвое слабей.

ГЛАГОЛ (THE VERB). ОБЩИЕ СВЕДЕНИЯ

По своему значению и функции в предложении глаголы разделяются на:

1. самостоятельные – *write, speak, go*;
2. вспомогательные, служащие для образования временных форм глагола – *to be, to have, to do, shall, should, will, would*;
3. глаголы – связки, служащие для образования составного именного сказуемого – *to be, to become, to get, to grow, to turn*;
4. модальные глаголы, выражающие отношение говорящего к действию и состоянию – *must, can, may, should*.

Наиболее распространенными глаголами английского языка являются глаголы *to be* и *to have*. Они употребляются как смысловые глаголы в значении «быть, находиться» и «иметь»; как вспомогательные, служащие для образования видо-временных форм глаголов; и как модальные, выражающие планируемое действие в будущем (*to be to*) и необходимость совершения действия в силу определенных обстоятельств (*to have to*).

ГЛАГОЛ СВЯЗКА *TO BE* – БЫТЬ

В английском языке глагол-связка *to be* является служебным, и в сочетании с именной частью (существительным, наречием, прилагательным или числительным) образует составное именное сказуемое. При этом он практически утрачивает свое собственное лексическое значение (быть, являться). В зависимости от лица и числа подлежащего глагол-связка *to be* может иметь следующие формы:

Лицо	Число	
	Единственное	Множественное
1	<i>I am</i>	<i>We are</i>
2	<i>You are</i>	<i>You are</i>
3	<i>He is</i> <i>She is</i> <i>It is</i>	<i>They are</i>

I am a student. – Я студент. *He is young.* – Он молод. *They are four.* – Их четверо.

Вопрос

-Yes, I am. No, I am not. Am I able to remember these facts?

Is he (she) able to remember these facts? —Yes, he (she, it) is. No, he (she, it) is not.

Are you (we, they) able to remember these facts? — Yes, you (we, they) are.

Отрицание

I am not able to remember these facts.

He (she, it) is not able to remember these facts.

You (we, they) are not able to remember these facts.

Глаголы *to have, have go* – иметь, располагать чем-либо (имеется в виду обладание предметами)

Этот глагол имеет **две формы** для согласования с подлежащим – *have, has*.

She has a nice character. — У нее хороший характер.

You have a good memory. — У вас хорошая память.

I (you, they, we) have a good ability at math. — Я (ты, они, мы) имею хорошие способности к математике.

He (she, it) has a good ability at math. — Он (она) имеет хорошие способности к математике.

Вопросительная и отрицательная формы глагола — *to have* образуются со вспомогательным глаголом *do, does*.

Вопрос

Do you (I, they, we) have a good ability at math? — Yes, I (they, we) have. No, I (they, we) have not.

Does he (she, it) have a good ability at math? — Yes, he (she, it) does. No, he (she, it) does not.

Have you got three books? — Yes, I have. No, I have not.

Отрицание

I (you, they, we) do not have a good ability at math.

He (she, it) does not have a good ability at math.

Предложения с оборотом **there + to be**

Формы, которые может принимать оборот в предложении (слово *there* никак не изменяется; *to be* ставится в разных временных формах):

<i>There</i>	<i>(to) be</i>	<i>Infinitive</i>
	<i>is</i>	
	<i>are</i>	
	<i>was</i>	<i>Indefinite</i>
	<i>were</i>	
	<i>will be</i>	
	<i>have been</i>	
	<i>has been</i>	<i>Perfect</i>
	<i>had been</i>	
	<i>will have been</i>	

Во всех случаях глагол *to be* (а также некоторые другие глаголы, использующиеся в обороте — см. ниже) является смысловым и согласует свою форму с подлежащим.

Ситуации, в которых используются предложения с оборотом *there+to be*, делятся **на две группы**:

1. Когда в предложении говорится, что какой-то предмет находится в каком-либо пространстве, и при этом подчеркивается именно предмет, а не пространство:

В комнате много мальчиков и девочек, (именно их, а не кого-то) – ставим оборот => *There are many boys and girls in the room.*

2. Когда в каком-либо промежутке времени происходит действие, которое можно представить как наличие в этом промежутке времени какого-либо предмета:

There was a call for you. Вам сегодня звонили. = Для вас сегодня был телефонный звонок.

Примечания:

There в обороте считается **вводной частицей**, не имеющей собственного значения, и поэтому никогда не переводится; если в русском предложении пространство обозначено словом **там**, ставим *there* (но уже имеющее перевод) еще раз в конце предложения:

Там много разных комнат. => *There are many different rooms there.*

В вопросительных предложениях с использованием оборота глагол *to be* ставится на первое место, а подлежащее – после *there*:

Are there tables in the room? => В комнате есть столы?

При построении кратких ответов на вопросы с оборотом слово *there* ставится вместо

подлежащего:

Are there tables in the room? – Yes, there are.

В отрицательных предложениях с оборотом используются слова *no* или *not any*:

There are no tables in the room. = There are not any tables in the room. В комнате нет ни одного стола / никаких столов.

ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЕ (THE SENTENCE)

ПОВЕСТВОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЕ (DECLARATIVE SENTENCES)

В английских повествовательных утвердительных предложениях существует твердый порядок слов. Обычно на первом месте стоит подлежащее, на втором – сказуемое, за ним следует дополнение, затем обстоятельство. Обстоятельства места и времени могут также стоять в начале предложения, перед подлежащим.

Определение чаще всего занимает место перед определяемым словом.

Если повествовательное предложение является отрицательным, то отрицательная частица *not* ставится непосредственно после глагола в личной форме: *I have not seen this film. They do not know her. He will not come to me. I shall not go there. He is not a student. She has not many friends. You must not miss lectures. We are not waiting for you.*

В английском предложении, в отличие от русского языка, может быть только одно отрицательное слово. Это может быть частица *not*, местоимение *no one, nobody, nothing, no*, наречие *never, nowhere* и т.п. После отрицания *no* артикль не употребляется. Например:

I do not know anything about it Я ничего не зная об этом. *I know nothing about it.*

Nobody knows about it. Никто не знает об этом.

ТИПЫ ВОПРОСИТЕЛЬНЫХ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЙ

В английском языке различают 4 типа вопросов:

1. общие;
2. специальные;
3. альтернативные;
4. разделительные.

Все вопросительные предложения отличаются по своему построению от повествовательных предложений, т.е. у них несколько изменен порядок слов, или присутствуют какие-то дополнительные детали. Все возможные образования вопросительных форм мы обозначим схемами, которые следует запомнить и использовать в зависимости от ситуации.

1. Общие вопросы

Схема вопроса:

1	2	3	4	5
Вспомогательный глагол	Подлежащее (вместе с описательным словом/словами)	Смысловой глагол?
			(как повествовательными предложениями)	

— *Do you like her? — Yes, I sometimes do.* => — Она тебе нравится? — Да, иногда.

— *Will he call us tonight? — Yes, he probably will.* => Он позвонит нам сегодня вечером? — Да, возможно, позвонит.

— *Does your father meet you after lessons? — No, he never does.* => — Отец встречается тебя после уроков? — Нет, никогда.

Комментарии к схеме вопроса: на первое место в предложении ставится только самый первый вспомогательный или модальный глагол:

Do you like my room? => Тебе нравится моя комната?

Can your father help me? => Твой отец может помочь мне?

2. Специальные вопросы

Начинаются вопросительным словом, указывающим, к какому конкретно члену предложения относится вопрос. Эту группу вопросов условно можно разделить еще на две:

1. вопросы к подлежащему или к его определению (описательному слову/словам);
2. вопросы к любым другим словам в предложении.

При построении вопросов **первой группы** в предложении сохраняется прямой порядок слов утвердительного предложения, т.е. на первое место в вопросе ставятся вопросительные слова, заменяющие подлежащее или его определения; далее идут сказуемое и все остальные слова.

В вопросах к подлежащему используются только два вопросительных слова:

who? => кто?

what? => что?

Схема:

1	2	3	4
Who What	сказуемое ?

Кто помогает тебе делать эту работу? *Who helps you to do this work?*

Сказуемое в этом случае ставится только в форме единственного числа (как в русском языке):

Кто любит играть? — Дети. *Who likes to play? — Children.*

В вопросе к определению подлежащего используются вопросительные слова:

whose? => чей?

what? => какой?

which? => который?

how much / how many? => сколько?

Схема:

1	2	3	4	5
вопросительное слово	подлежащее	сказуемое?

Чьи дети приходили? *Whose children came?*

Вопросы к любым другим словам в предложении.

Для построения вопросов **второй группы** к любым другим словам предложения, кроме подлежащего и определения к нему, используются следующие вопросительные слова:

what? => что? / какой?

who? => кто?

whom? => кого? / кому? (это слово постепенно выходит из употребления в данном случае, и в разговорной речи в его значении часто используется *who?*)

whose? => чей?

which? => который? / какой?

when? => когда?

where? => где? / куда?

why? => почему? / зачем?

how? => как? / каким образом?

how many? => сколько? (исчисляемого)

how much? => сколько? (неисчисляемого)

how long? => сколько? (о времени)

Схема:

1	2	3	4	5
вопросительное слово	вспомогательный глагол	подлежащее	смысловый глагол	Обстоятельство времени/места

Из схемы видно, что специальный вопрос по своему построению отличается от общего тем, что перед вспомогательным глаголом ставится вопросительное слово; подлежащее ставится вместе со всеми описательными словами:

When will your very beautiful sister come? => Когда приедет твоя красавица-сестричка?

На место смыслового глагола ставятся все оставшиеся после первого вспомогательного глаголы формулы:

Примеры специальных вопросов:

1. Чем вы занимаетесь? / Кем работаете? *What do you do?*
2. Чем ты занимаешься (сейчас)? *What are you doing?*
3. Почему ты не смог помочь нам? *Why couldn't you help us?*
4. Где вы живете? *Where do you live?*
5. Сколько вам лет? *How old are you?* (стандартное описание ситуации; используется глагол *to be*)
6. Сколько лет вашему сыну? *How old is your son?*
7. Сколько лет было вашему отцу? *How old was your father?*
8. С кем ты пойдешь в кино (завтра)? *Who will you go to the cinema with (tomorrow)? With whom will you go to the cinema (tomorrow)?*
9. Кто вы (по специальности)? *What are you?*
10. Кто вы (как вас зовут)? *Who are you?*
11. Сколько у тебя денег? *How much money have you got? How much money have you? How much money do you have?*

3. Альтернативные вопросы

Предполагают выбор одного из двух лиц / предметов / действий / качеств / признаков.

Могут быть заданы к любому члену предложения. **Выбор, обозначаемый словом *or* (или) может вводиться как в общие, так и в специальные вопросы, при этом схемы обоих типов вопросительных предложений остаются без изменений:**

— *Do you smoke or not?* — *I do. / I do not.* Вы курите или нет? — Курю. / Не курю.

— *Are you sleeping or reading?* — *I'm reading. / I'm not sleeping. / Neither.* — Ты спишь или читаешь? — Я читаю. / Я не сплю. / Ни то, ни другое.

— *Is she a student or a worker?* — *Neither.* — Она учится или работает? — Ни то, ни другое.

When will you come: tomorrow or the day after tomorrow? Когда ты придешь: завтра или послезавтра?

Если альтернативный вопрос относится к подлежащему, то подлежащих в предложении становится два, и оба ставятся с вспомогательным глаголом:

Do you or does your brother smoke these cigars? Вы или ваш брат курите эти сигары? Можно: *Who smokes these cigars: you or your brother?* на такой вопрос дается краткий ответ:— *My brother does. / I do. / Neither (of us does).*

Если альтернативный вопрос относится к определению подлежащего, то порядок слов соответствует схеме, а выбор обозначается в конце вопроса:

Чьи дети сделали это: наши или их? *Whose children did it: ours or theirs?*

Какие книги интереснее: эти или те? *Which books are more interesting: these ones or those ones?*

4. Разделительные вопросы

Соответствуют русским вопросительным предложениям, заканчивающимся словами не так ли? / не правда ли?, и имеют схожие формы построения, состоящие из двух частей: повествовательное предложение + не так ли?

Разделительные вопросы можно условно разбить на две группы:

1. Первая часть – утвердительное предложение;
2. Первая часть – отрицательное предложение.

В первой части утвердительное предложение.

Схема предложения первой группы:

1	2	3
Утвердительное	Вспомогательный /	местоимение,

предложение,	модальный глагол + <i>not</i>	заменяющее подлежащее
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You are a student, aren't you? / (реже: are you not?) Ты студент, не так ли?

She will come tomorrow, won't she? / will she not? Она придет завтра, не так ли?

They were sleeping, weren't they? / were they not? Они спали, не так ли?

I am a beautiful girl, aren't I? / am I not? Я красивая девушка, не правда ли?

I am a good boy, am I not? / aren't I? Я хороший парень, не так ли?

Your friend can help us, cannot/can't he? Твой друг может помочь нам, не так ли?

You have come alone, haven't you? Ты пришел один, не так ли?

Схема предложения второй группы:

1	2	3
Отрицательное предложение,	вспомогательный / модальный глагол	местоимение, заменяющее подлежащее

There is not any / no water in the bottle, is there? В бутылке нет воды, не так ли?

They won't be able to help us, will they? Они не смогут помочь нам, не так ли?

My friends didn't have to do it, did they? Мои друзья не обязаны были делать это, не так ли?

You are not sleeping, are you? Ты не спишь, не так ли?

КОНТРОЛЬНАЯ РАБОТА 1 СЕМЕСТРА

1. Прочитайте текст и письменно ответьте по-английски на вопросы, следующие за текстом.
2. Выпишите из текста существительные в единственном числе и поставьте их во множественном числе.
3. Выпишите из текста предложные конструкции с предлогом *of* и переведите их на русский язык. Замените существительные с предлогом *of* существительными в притяжательном падеже.
4. Выпишите из текста прилагательные и наречия, переведите их на русский язык и образуйте степени сравнения.
5. Найдите в тексте и переведите на русский язык предложения, в которых употреблены местоимения. Укажите, к какой группе они относятся (личные, притяжательные, указательные, вопросительные, относительные).
6. Переведите письменно текст контрольной работы № 1 на русский язык. При переводе пользуйтесь англо-русским словарем.
7. Выполните контрольно-тренировочные упражнения.

GREAT BRITAIN

The British Isles lying off the north-western coast of the continent of Europe are composed of two large islands, Great Britain and Ireland, and a number of small islands. The official title of the country is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The United Kingdom includes England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. England, the southern and central part of the island, forms the main part of the entire country. Wales lies on the mountainous peninsula in the west. Politically Wales is a part of England and has no independent government. Scotland is in the northern part of the island. Its original inhabitants are of Celtic origin. In the past Scotland was an independent kingdom and up to the present time maintains certain autonomy. Northern Ireland is a part of the United Kingdom as an autonomous region with its own Parliament. Great Britain is surrounded by water. It has an insular climate. The summers are cooler and the winters are warmer than in central Europe. The warm Gulf Stream washes the coasts of the British Isles and gives the

country a mild climate. The climate on the continent is not so mild as that of England. The best season is spring. In the lovely month of May the weather is the finest. The insular climate is also moister than the continental climate. It rains very often in England. In London, for instance, it rains more than a hundred and eighty days in the year, and in winter the brown London fog comes very often. The London fog as thick as peasoup is an extraordinary thing.

Questions:

What parts does Great Britain consist of?

What are the main islands of Great Britain?

Which season is the best in England?

Does it often rain in England?

Notes

insular — островной

the Gulf Stream — Гольфстрим

"as thick as peasoup" — «густой, как гороховый суп»

КОНТРОЛЬНО-ТРЕНИРОВОЧНЫЕ УПРАЖНЕНИЯ

1. **Напишите следующие существительные во множественном числе. Укажите, в каких случаях суффикс множественного числа произносится как [s], [z], [iz]. Образец:**

map — maps[s] atom — atoms[z] cage — cages [iz].

student, party, chair, ring, glass, face, leaf, fat, time, way, university, language, wing, salt, energy, design, book, problem, dictionary, class, change, subject, speech, rule.

2. **Замените существительные с предлогом of существительными в притяжательном падеже:**

a meeting of students, the flat of my mother-in-law, the rays of the sun, a distance of two miles, the joys of life, the house of his parents, the theatres of Moscow, the children of my sister Mary, the rights of the women, the name of my friend.

3. **Переведите следующие словосочетания на английский язык, употребляя притяжательный падеж:**

письмо моего друга, рассказы этого писателя, библиотека института, дочь моей младшей сестры, младшая дочь моей сестры, стены этого старого дома, старые стены этого дома.

4. **Образуйте степени сравнения следующих прилагательных и наречий с помощью суффиксов -er, -est:**

short, cold, wide, early, big, near, late, fast, small, old, nice, young, large, kind, long, quick, easy.

5. **Заполните пропуски притяжательными местоимениями, соответствующими личным местоимениям, данным в скобках:**

(He) . . . composition is very interesting.

(We) . . . son goes to school.

(You) . . . sister is young.

(They) . . . knowledge of the subject is very poor.

(He) . . . name is John.

(I)... family lives in Kiev.

(She) . . . friends often visit her.

6. Употребите нужную форму личных местоимений:

I often see (they, them) in the bus.

She lives near (we, us).

(We, us) always walk to school together.

He teaches (we, us) English.

She sits near (I, me) during the lesson.

I always speak to (he, him) in English.

What is the matter with (he, him) today?

He explains the lesson to (we, us) each morning.

There are some letters here for you and (I, me).

I know (she, her) and her sister very well.

7. Употребите нужную форму притяжательных местоимений:

Would you like to see some of (her, hers) poems?

(Their, theirs) knowledge of the subject is not much superior to (our, ours)..

You take care of (your, yours) things and I'll take care of (my, mine).

All (our, ours) clothes were dirty, and (my, mine) especially so.

(Their, theirs) boat was faster than (our, ours).

I'm afraid they will take (your, yours) words against (her, hers).

(Their, theirs) home is pretty but (our, ours) is prettier.

8. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной формах:

1. They are in Europe now.; 2. She is a clever girl. 3. It is cold today.

4. He is in his office 5. They are members of the country club. 6. Both sisters are tall. 7. John is angry with you. 8. She is a good tennis player. 9. The stamps are in my desk. 10. She is a good teacher. 11. I am her cousin.

9. Заполните пропуски глаголом to have, употребляя соответствующую форму настоящего, прошедшего времени. Напишите предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопрос) и отрицательной формах:

1. She . . . one sister and two brothers. 2. We ... a large library at school. 3..They ... a new car. 4. She . . . green eyes. 5. Helen ... a headache. 6. The secretary . . . a new typewriter» 7. Mr. Smith's office . . . three large windows. 8.We . . . many friends in Moscow. 9. Both brothers ... red hair. 10. Harry's dog . . . a long tail. 11. He and I ... many things in common.

10. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопрос) и отрицательной формах:

1. We were pleased to receive your letter. The door of the office was open.

3. The wind last night was very strong. 4. He and his brother were sick two days ago..

5. There were few passengers in the compartment.

6. There was a very interesting lecture last Monday.

7. There were two examinations last spring. 8. There was a large picture in her room.

11. Заполните пропуски глаголом **to be**, употребляя соответствующую форму будущего времени. Напишите предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопрос) и отрицательной формах:

She . . . our new teacher.
These exercises ... very difficult for you.
They . . . glad to see their old friends.
There . . . many examinations next term.
There ... a new club in our town next year.
We . . . very tired after the long walk.
I ... happy to be here again.
We . . . interested in his progress.

12. Преобразуйте следующие предложения в вопросительные и отрицательные:

1. There are two reference books on the shelf. 2. There is a lot of discussion about language learning now. 3. There is a set of grammar exercises in this text book. 4. There are some courses for beginners at the University. 5. There are some booklets here. 6. There is some sense in what he proposes.

13. Переведите следующие предложения на английский язык:

1. На столе (лежат) книги и тетради. 2. В этой книге несколько интересных рассказов. 3. Есть люди, которые знают более 10 иностранных языков. 4. В учебном году два семестра. 5. В аудитории нет студентов. 6. В его работе несколько ошибок. 7. В этой книге есть иллюстрации?

14. Раскройте скобки, используя необходимую по смыслу форму глаголов **to be** и **to have**:

1. My friend (to be) at home now. 2. We (to have) English classes twice a week. 3. Wealth (to be) nothing, happiness (to be) all. 4. She (to be) an economist. 5. A good teacher (to have) some of the gifts of a good actor. 6. Nothing (to be) so rare as complete honesty. 7. A triangle (to have) three sides and three angles. 8. Education (to be) not just learning facts. 9. Everything children study at school (to have) some practical use in their daily life. 10. School (to be) an institution for educating children. 11. This book (to be) interesting. 12. John (to have got) a problem.

15. Вставьте подходящие по смыслу глаголы **to be** или **to have** в нужной форме:

Mr. Brown's father (to be) an old man. His hair (to be) grey but he (to be) still in good health. His house (to be) in the same street as Mr. Brown's. When he (to be) a young man he (to have) a house in London. He (to be) a doctor at a large hospital in London, and his wife (to be) a typist at a factory. Now they (to be) both on pension. Last year they (to be) in France and (to have) a very pleasant holiday.

II СЕМЕСТР

ГРАММАТИЧЕСКИЙ МАТЕРИАЛ

1. Времена группы *Indefinite (Simple)* в действительном залоге. Образование отрицательной формы, общего вопроса и специальных вопросов.
2. Времена группы *Continuous* в действительном залоге. Образование отрицательной формы,

общего вопроса и специальных вопросов.

3. Правила употребления грамматических времен в придаточных предложениях времени и условия.

4. Количественные местоимения «много, мало». Правила употребления.

НАСТОЯЩЕЕ НЕОПРЕДЕЛЕННОЕ ВРЕМЯ – THE PRESENT INDEFINITE (SIMPLE) TENSE

Употребляется для выражения действия, которое происходит регулярно, постоянно, часто повторяется.

Утвердительная форма глагола совпадает (для всех лиц, кроме 3-го лица единственного числа) с формой инфинитива (без частицы *to*). В 3-м лице единственного числа глаголы принимают окончание *-s* или *-es* (для глаголов, оканчивающихся на *-ss, -sh, -eh, -x, -o: to teach – he teaches*).

Вопросительная форма образуется при помощи вспомогательного глагола *do* (в 3-м лице единственного числа *does*), который ставится перед подлежащим. Смысловый глагол стоит в форме инфинитива без частицы *to: Do you study English? Does he speak Russian?*

Отрицательная форма образуется при помощи вспомогательного глагола *do* (*does* для 3-го лица единственного числа) и отрицательной частицы *not*, которые ставятся после подлежащего:

They do not study English. Они не учат английский.

She does not speak Russian. Она не говорит по-русски.

В разговорной речи, как правило, употребляются сокращенные формы: *do not = don't, does not = doesn't*.

При постановке вопросов к подлежащему (или к группе подлежащего) вспомогательный глагол *do* (*does*) не употребляется, и в предложении сохраняется порядок слов утвердительного предложения:

My brother lives in Moscow.

Who lives in Moscow?

Whose brother lives in Moscow?

В кратких ответах на вопросы, не содержащих глаголы *to be* или *to have*, после подлежащего употребляется вспомогательный глагол *do: Who lives in Moscow? – My brother does.*

При постановке вопросов к членам предложения (кроме подлежащего) в предложениях, не содержащих глаголы *to be* или *to have*, употребляется вспомогательный глагол *do* (*does* для 3-го лица единственного числа), который ставится сразу после вопросительного слова перед подлежащим. Смысловый глагол стоит в форме инфинитива без *to*.

<i>I study English at the Institute</i>				
Вопросительное слово	Вспомогательный глагол	Подлежащее	Смысловый глагол	Обстоятельство
<i>Where</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>study?</i>	
<i>What</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>study</i>	<i>at the Institute?</i>
<i>What language</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>study</i>	<i>at the Institute?</i>

ПРОШЕДШЕЕ НЕОПРЕДЕЛЕННОЕ ВРЕМЯ – THE PAST INDEFINITE (SIMPLE) TENSE

Употребляется для выражения действия, которое произошло в истекшем отрезке времени.

Это время употребляется в повествовании для выражения обычных, повторяющихся действий в прошлом, а также для изложения последовательных событий.

Все глаголы в английском языке по форме образования *Past Indefinite* делятся на две группы: **правильные** (или стандартные) глаголы и **неправильные**, (нестандартные) глаголы.

Правильные глаголы образуют *Past Indefinite* при помощи суффикса *-ed*, который прибавляется к основе глагола (правила чтения окончания *-ed*).

Правила орфографии

<i>to live – lived to agree – agreed</i>	Немая буква <i>-e</i> в основе глагола отпадает.
<i>to hurry – hurried to study studied ho: to stay – stayed to play – played</i>	<i>y > i + -ed</i> у глаголов, основа которых оканчивается на <i>-y</i> с предшествующей согласной с предшествующей гласной.
<i>to stop – stopped to plan – planned</i>	Удваивается конечная согласная, если ей предшествует краткая гласная.

Неправильные глаголы имеют особую форму *Past Indefinite*, которую необходимо выучить (Спряжение глаголов *to be* и *to have* в *Past Indefinite*)

Вопросительная и отрицательная формы глаголов в *Past Indefinite* образуются при помощи вспомогательного глагола *to do – did* в *Past Indefinite* для всех лиц. Смысловый глагол стоит в форме инфинитива без *to*. В отрицательной форме отрицание *not* стоит после вспомогательного глагола *did*: *Last week I worked at my report* Я работал над своим докладом на прошлой неделе.

Did you work at your report last week?

I did not work at my report last week. (I didn't)

БУДУЩЕЕ НЕОПРЕДЕЛЕННОЕ ВРЕМЯ – THE FUTURE INDEFINITE (SIMPLE) TENSE

Служит для выражения действия, которое произойдет в будущем, т. е. после момента речи. Оно образуется при помощи вспомогательных глаголов *shall* (для 1-го лица единственного и множественного числа), *will* (для всех остальных лиц) и инфинитива смыслового глагола без частицы *to*:

I shall go to the theatre tomorrow. Завтра я пойду в театр.

They will come to see you next week. Они навесвят вас на следующей неделе.

В вопросительной форме вспомогательные глаголы *shall* и *will* стоят перед подлежащим:

Shall I help you?

Will they come to see us?

В отрицательной форме отрицание *not* стоит после вспомогательных глаголов *shall, will*:

I shall not go to the theatre tomorrow.

They will not come to see us.

В английском языке в придаточных предложениях условия и времени, относящихся к будущему времени, употребляются формы настоящего времени (Present Indefinite).

Придаточные предложения времени и условия вводятся союзами:

if – если

unless – если не

when – когда

while – в то время как

as soon as – как только

I shall go to the cinema if I finish my work.

We shall go home when the meeting is over.

after – после того как

before – до того как

till – до тех пор пока

until – пока не

I will go to the cinema if I finish my work. Я пойду в кино, если закончу свою работу.

When the meeting is over I shall go home. Когда собрание закончится, мы пойдем домой.

PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

Употребляется для выражения длительного действия, происходящего в данный момент, в момент речи.

В вопросительной форме вспомогательный глагол *to be* ставится перед подлежащим; **в отрицательной форме** после глагола *to be* ставится отрицание *not*: *Is he reading a book? – Yes, he is. (No, he is not.) He is not reading a book.*

Примечание: глаголы, обозначающие чувства и восприятия - *to love* (любить), *to hate* (ненавидеть), *to like* (нравиться), *to know* (знать), *to understand* (понимать) и т. д., не употребляются во временах *Continuous*.

Причастие I, или причастие настоящего времени, образуется прибавлением окончания *-ing* к основе глагола: *to go – going to study – studying*

Примечания:

1. если глагол оканчивается на немое *-e*, то оно отбрасывается: *to write – writing; to live – living;*

2. конечная согласная глагола удваивается, чтобы сохранить краткое произношение гласной: *to sit – sitting; to run – running;*

3. если основа глагола оканчивается на *-ie*, то *ie* меняется на *y* перед окончанием *-ing*: *to lie – lying; to tie – tying.*

ПРОШЕДШЕЕ ПРОДОЛЖЕННОЕ ВРЕМЯ – THE PAST CONTINUOUS (PROGRESSIVE) TENSE

Употребляется для выражения длительного действия, совершившегося в определенный момент или период времени в прошлом. Оно образуется с помощью вспомогательного глагола *to be* (в *Past Indefinite*) и причастия I смыслового глагола:

I was going home at 5 o'clock yesterday. Вчера в 5 часов я шел домой,

They were having dinner at 5 o'clock yesterday. Вчера в 5 часов они обедали.

В вопросительной форме вспомогательный глагол *to be* ставится перед подлежащим; **в отрицательной форме** после глагола *to be* ставится отрицание *not*: *Was he reading a book? – Yes, he was. (No, he was not) He was not reading a book.*

БУДУЩЕЕ ПРОДОЛЖЕННОЕ ВРЕМЯ – THE FUTURE CONTINUOUS (PROGRESSIVE) TENSE

Употребляется для выражения длительного действия, которое будет совершаться в будущем, после момента речи. Оно образуется с помощью глагола *to be* в *Future Indefinite* и причастия I смыслового глагола. *I shall be working at my report at this time tomorrow.* Завтра в это время я буду работать над докладом.

Условия употребления этого времени совпадают с условиями употребления *Past Continuous Tense*.

В вопросительной форме вспомогательный глагол *will* ставится перед подлежащим; **в отрицательной форме** после глагола *will* ставится отрицание *not*: *Will he be reading a book? – Yes, he will. (No, he will not) He will not be reading a book.*

**КОЛИЧЕСТВЕННЫЕ МЕСТОИМЕНИЯ
«МНОГО - МАЛО». ПРАВИЛА УПОТРЕБЛЕНИЯ.**

Местоимения *much* и *many* употребляются, как правило, в вопросительных и отрицательных предложениях, а так же если они определяют подлежащее или же имеют перед собой определение, выраженное такими словами, как *very* очень, *so* так, *too* слишком и др.

Наряду с местоимениями *much* и *many* в значении много употребляются сочетания:

much = *a lot of, lots of, a good deal of, a great deal of, a great quantity of, a large quantity of, plenty of.*

many = *a lot of, lots of, a great number of, a large number of, a great many, a good many, plenty of.*

Местоимения **few** и **little** в сочетании с неопределенным артиклем приобретают значения: **a few** несколько, **a little** немного, несколько.

I have a few friends here. У меня здесь есть несколько друзей.

I have a little bread and milk. У меня есть немного хлеба и молока.

Ср.: *I have few friends.* У меня мало друзей.

I have little bread and milk. У меня мало хлеба и молока.

Неопределенные местоимения *many, few* употребляются с исчисляемыми существительными и отвечают на вопрос *how many?* сколько?

I have few English books. – У меня мало английских книг.

Неопределенные местоимения *much, little* употребляются с неисчисляемыми существительными и отвечают на вопрос *how much?*:

I have much good paper. У меня много хорошей бумаги.

С исчисляемыми существительными	Значение	С неисчисляемыми существительными
<i>many few</i>	много мало	<i>much little</i>
<i>many (few) books</i>		<i>much (little) milk</i>
<i>A lot of = much, many</i>		

КОНТРОЛЬНО- ТРЕНИРОВОЧНЫЕ УПРАЖНЕНИЯ

1. **Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной формах:**

He knows French perfectly.

I understand everything he says.

She makes mistakes in spelling.

They enjoy their English lessons.

They live in Kiev.

We use our books in class.

'The plane leaves at ten o'clock.

She always comes to class late.

I always take the same bus to work.

2. **Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной форме:**

They sat in the first row.(In which row)

The performance lasted two hours. (How long)

He went to Leningrad to see some friends. (Why)

She put the mail on my desk. (Where)
He walked to school with Mary. (Whom with)
They spoke to us in French. (In what language)
He arrived home very late. (When)

3. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной форме:

They will return in October.
These exercises will be easy for you.
He will be able to meet us later.
Our drama society will present a new play this year.
The lesson will be over at twelve o'clock.
There will be three new students in the class.
She will leave a message on the table for him.
They will write to us on Wednesday.
We shall take the children to the park.

4. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной форме:

He is looking for the book which he lost.
All the birds are flying south.
The sky is getting very dark.
They are laughing at what you said.
They are travelling in Europe at present.
Helen is taking dancing lessons at the country club.
Mr.) Evans is writing a series of articles on the economic situation.
Ann is doing well in her studies at present.

5. Раскройте скобки. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной форме:

It (rain) when I left home.
When you telephoned, I (have) dinner.
The baby (sleep) soundly when I went to wake him.
She (talk) with Mr. Smith when I saw her in the hail.
The accident happened while they (travel) in the South.
When I got up this morning, the sun (shine) brightly.
At seven o'clock, when you telephoned, I (read) the newspaper.
Mary (play) the piano when I arrived.
Helen fell just as she (get) off the bus.
The wind (blow) hard when I came to work this morning.

6. Раскройте скобки. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной форме:

At ten o'clock tomorrow morning she (have) her music lesson.
I (wait) on the corner for you at the usual time tomorrow morning.
It "probably (rain) when you get back.
If you come before six, I (work) in my garden.

At this time tomorrow afternoon I (take) my final English examination.
If we go there now, they (have) dinner. But if we go later, they (watch) television.
At this time next year he (study) at the university.

7. **Употребите глаголы, данные в скобках, в нужной временной форме. Переведите предложения на русский язык:**

1. If the weather (be) nice next Sunday, we shall go to the seashore.
2. If the telephone (ring) while I am out, please, answer it. 3. When you (see) the light turn red, be sure to stop your car. 4. Don't leave until I (call) you. 5. If the river (rise) much higher, there will be a flood. 6. When the weather (get) warmer, we can go swimming. 7. If it (rain) next Sunday, I may have to cancel my trip. 8. I plan to wait here until the mail (arrive). 9. If you not (arrive) in time, you will not get a seat.

8. **Заполните пропуски местоимениями much, many, little, few. Переведите предложения на русский язык:**

1. Very . . . people know about it. 2. He is a man of ... words. 3. ... was said but . . . done. 4. Say . . . and do 5. ... heard about the book but . . . read it. 6. There isn't . . . harm in it. 7. He has very . . . knowledge of the matter. 8. ... is spoken about it, but . . . believe it. 9. We have . . . friends in Leningrad. 10. There were very . . . mistakes in his spelling.

III СЕМЕСТР ГРАММАТИЧЕСКИЙ МАТЕРИАЛ

МОДАЛЬНЫЕ ГЛАГОЛЫ (MODAL VERBS)

Модальными глаголами являются глаголы *can, may, must, ought (to), need, should, have (to)*. Модальные глаголы обозначают не действие, а способность, допустимость, возможность, вероятность, необходимость совершения действия. В сравнении со смысловыми глаголами модальные глаголы имеют ряд особенностей:

Модальные глаголы не употребляются без смыслового глагола. Смысловой глагол после модальных глаголов стоит в инфинитиве без частицы *to*. Модальные глаголы в сочетании со смысловыми образуют сложное глагольное сказуемое:

I can look out of the window and see, can't I?

Я могу выглянуть в окно и посмотреть, не так ли?

Модальные глаголы не изменяются по лицам и числам, т. е. в третьем лице единственного числа не имеют окончания *-s (-es)*:

I can remember drinking tea...

Я могу вспомнить, как мы пили чай...

All this must be changed.

Все это нужно изменить, (букв.: Все это должно быть изменено).

Модальные глаголы не имеют форм инфинитива, причастия, герундия. Они также не имеют форм будущего времени. Глаголы *can, may* имеют форму прошедшего времени (*could, might*), а глагол *must* формы прошедшего времени не имеет.

ЗНАЧЕНИЕ МОДАЛЬНЫХ ГЛАГОЛОВ

1. Модальный глагол **can** выражает возможность или способность совершить действие. На русский язык обычно переводится словами **могу, умею**. В прошедшем неопределенном времени он имеет форму **could**. Не имеет формы будущего неопределенного времени:

It is generally acknowledged that nuclear war can lead only to the suicide of the human race.

Общепризнанно, что ядерная война может привести только к самоуничтожению человечества. Глагол *can* употребляется также для выражения реальной или предполагаемой возможности:

This work could be done at once.

Эту работу можно было сделать сразу.

2. Модальный глагол **may** выражает разрешение или возможность совершить действие. На русский язык обычно переводится словами **могу, можно**. В прошедшем неопределенном времени он имеет форму **might**. Формы будущего неопределенного времени не имеет:

He that comes first to the hill may sit where he will.

Кто первым приходит на холм, может сесть там, где хочет. (Кто первым палку взял, тот и капрал.)

Глагол *may* употребляется также для выражения предположения (с оттенком сомнения):

He may not know about it.

Он может и не знать об этом. (Возможно, он не знает об этом.)

3. Модальный глагол **must** выражает обязанность, необходимость совершения действия в силу определенных обстоятельств, а также приказание или совет. На русский язык обычно переводится словами **должен, нужно, обязан**. Он имеет только форму настоящего неопределенного времени, т. е. форм прошедшего неопределенного и будущего неопределенного времени не имеет.

Whatever his political opinions he must help us.

Какими бы ни были его политические взгляды, он должен нам помочь.

Глагол *must* употребляется также для выражения предположения (с оттенком вероятности):

Ten minutes must have passed before we again heard the lookout's warning.

Должно быть, прошло минут десять, прежде чем мы снова услышали предупреждение наблюдателя.

4. Модальный глагол **ought** выражает моральную необходимость совершения действия. На русский язык обычно переводится словами **должен, должен бы, следует, следовало бы**. Имеет только форму настоящего неопределенного времени *ought*, т. е. форм прошедшего и будущего неопределенного времени не имеет. После модального глагола *ought* смысловой глагол в неопределенной форме употребляется с частицей *to*:

I suppose I ought to confiscate it, but I hate to treat an officer in that way.

Я полагаю, мне следовало бы конфисковать это, но я терпеть не могу так обращаться с офицером.

5. Модальный глагол **need** выражает необходимость совершения действия. На русский язык обычно переводится словами **нужно, надо**.

Он имеет только форму настоящего неопределенного времени *need*, т. е. форм прошедшего и будущего неопределенного времени не имеет:

We need talk of this no more.

Нам больше не нужно об этом говорить.

6. В качестве модального глагола употребляется также глагол *should*. Глагол **should** выражает совет, субъективную необходимость совершения действия. На русский язык обычно переводится словами **должен, следует**. Имеет только одну форму **should**:

The instructions should be written in clear language. Инструкции нужно писать (должны писать) ясным языком.

7. Глагол **to have to** в качестве модального имеет значение необходимости, вызванной обстоятельствами. На русский язык переводится словами **должен, приходится, вынужден**.

We have to get up very early on Sundays.

По воскресеньям нам приходится вставать очень рано.

8. Роль модального глагола выполняет также и глагол **to be (to)**, который употребляется для выражения необходимости совершить действие по предварительной договоренности, намеченному плану или приказу:

You are to be back by three o'clock.

Вы должны вернуться к трем часам.

ВОПРОСИТЕЛЬНЫЕ И ОТРИЦАТЕЛЬНЫЕ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯ С МОДАЛЬНЫМИ ГЛАГОЛАМИ

Вопросительную и отрицательную формы модальные глаголы образуют без помощи других вспомогательных глаголов:

May I ask, sir, by what right it has been taken from me?

Могу ли я спросить, сэр, по какому праву его взяли у меня?

You should not be nervous about it.

Вы не должны (Вам не нужно) нервничать из-за этого.

В отличие от других модальных глаголов вопросительная и отрицательная формы модального глагола **need** могут образовываться также и при помощи вспомогательного глагола *to do* в соответствующей форме, причем смысловой глагол в этом случае употребляется с частицей *to*:

Need we answer this letter?

Do we need to answer this letter?

Нам нужно ответить на это письмо?

You need not answer this letter. You do not need to answer this letter. На это письмо вам не нужно отвечать.

Глагол **to have (to)** в качестве модального отличается от других модальных глаголов тем, что он может употребляться во всех необходимых временных формах, имеет неличные формы и образует вопросительные и отрицательные предложения в настоящем и будущем времени при помощи вспомогательных глаголов *do, did*.

Do I have to explain it to him? Должен ли я объяснить ему это?

She doesn't have to worry about it. Ей не нужно беспокоиться об этом.

Вопросительная и отрицательная формы глагола to be (to) образуются как и соответствующие формы глагола *to be*:

Are you to stay here till she comes?

Вы должны оставаться здесь, пока она не придет?

You are not to stay here till she comes.

Вам не нужно оставаться здесь, пока она не придет.

ЭКВИВАЛЕНТЫ МОДАЛЬНЫХ ГЛАГОЛОВ

Вместо модальных глаголов *can, may, must* могут употребляться их **эквиваленты**.

1. **Эквивалентом модального глагола can** является сочетание **to be able (to)**, которое может употребляться вместо глагола *can* в настоящем, прошедшем и будущем времени:

He can play tennis.

He is able to play tennis.

Он умеет (может) играть в теннис.

I could translate this text.

I was able to translate this text.

Я мог перевести этот текст.

He will be able to play tennis. Он сможет играть в теннис. *I shall be able to translate this text.* Я смогу перевести этот текст.

2. **Эквивалентом модального глагола may** является сочетание **to be allowed (to)**, которое может употребляться вместо глагола *may* в настоящем, прошедшем и будущем времени:

You may smoke here.

You are allowed to smoke here.

Вы можете курить здесь.

You were allowed to use these books.

Вы могли (вам разрешили) пользоваться этими книгами.

You will be allowed to smoke here.

Вы сможете (вам разрешат) курить здесь.

We shall be allowed to use these books.

Мы сможем (нам разрешат) пользоваться этими книгами.

3. Эквивалентом модального глагола **must** является сочетание **to be obliged (to)**, которое может употребляться вместо глагола **must** в прошедшем и будущем времени; в настоящем времени это сочетание употребляется редко:

We were obliged to do these exercises.

Мы должны были выполнить эти упражнения.

We shall be obliged to do these exercises.

Мы должны будем выполнить эти упражнения.

You must do it at once.

You are obliged to do it at once.

Вы должны сделать это немедленно.

Вопросительная и отрицательная формы сочетаний *to be able (to)*, *to be allowed (to)*, *to be obliged (to)* образуются как и соответствующие формы глагола *to be*:

Is he able to do this? Он может это сделать?

Is she allowed to walk? Ей разрешили ходить?

Are we obliged to be there at seven? Мы обязаны быть там в семь?

He is not able to do this. Он не может сделать этого.

She is not allowed to walk. Ей не разрешили ходить.

We are not obliged to be there at seven. Мы не обязаны быть там в семь.

НЕОПРЕДЕЛЕННЫЕ МЕСТОИМЕНИЯ (INDEFINITE PRONOUNS)

Местоимения *some, any, every, no* являются **простыми**, а местоимения *somebody, anybody, something, anything, someone, anyone, everybody, everything, everyone, nobody, no one, nothing* - **сложными**.

1. Местоимения *some, any* обычно **служат определением к существительному**. Существительные, определяемые этими местоимениями, всегда употребляются без артикля.

Местоимение **some** обычно употребляется **в утвердительных предложениях**. Если местоимение *some* является определением к исчисляемому существительному, оно переводится словами **несколько, некоторые**:

Some of my friends can speak English.

Некоторые из моих друзей умеют говорить по-английски.

Если местоимение **some** является определением к **неисчисляемому существительному** то оно переводится словами **немного, некоторое количество или совсем не переводится**:

Bring me some water, please!

Пожалуйста, принесите мне (немного) воды!

When I have some free time I read English books in the original.

Когда у меня бывает свободное время, я читаю английские книги в оригинале.

Местоимение **some** может также иметь значение **приблизительно, около**:

Some fifty students were present at this lecture.

На этой лекции присутствовало около пятидесяти студентов.

2. Местоимение **any** обычно употребляется в **вопросительных и отрицательных предложениях**.

Если местоимение **any** является определением к исчисляемому существительному – оно переводится словами **какой-либо, какой-нибудь**:

Have you got any written exercises today?

У вас сегодня есть какие-нибудь письменные упражнения?

Если местоимение **any** является определением к неисчисляемому существительному оно переводится словами **сколько-нибудь, какое-нибудь количество или не переводится совсем**.

Is there any tea in that glass? В том стакане есть чай?

В утвердительных предложениях перед исчисляемыми существительными **any** означает **любой, всякий**:

You can get any book you like in our library.

В нашей библиотеке вы можете взять любую книгу, какую захотите.

В отрицательных предложениях any имеет значение **никакой**:

Today we do not have any lessons but mathematics. Сегодня у нас нет никаких занятий кроме математики.

3. Сложные местоимения, образованные от местоимений *some, any*, могут употребляться соответственно в **утвердительных, вопросительных и отрицательных предложениях**:

It was followed by a hush as though something important had been said at last.

За этим последовала тишина, как будто, наконец, было сказано что-то важное.

I didn't mean anything. Я ничего не имел в виду.

4. Местоимение **every** может употребляться **только с исчисляемыми существительными в единственном числе**. Оно означает **всякий, любой**:

It is necessary to protect the future of our planet in every possible way.

Любыми возможными способами необходимо защитить будущее нашей планеты.

5. Сложные местоимения **everybody** – каждый, любой, все; **everyone** каждый и **everything** – все сочетаются с глаголом в единственном числе:

Everybody was informed of the changes in the agenda of the meeting. Каждому сообщили об изменениях в повестке дня собрания.

6. Местоимения **no, none, no one, nobody, nothing** служат для **выражения отрицания**. Если в предложении имеется такое отрицательное местоимение, то **глагол ставится в утвердительной форме**:

But nothing happened. Но ничего не случилось.

Местоимение **nobody** – никто заменяет одушевленные существительные, **обозначающие людей**, а местоимение **nothing** – ничто – неодушевленные существительные:

But with nobody to give him orders he had nothing to do.

Но так как некому было отдавать ему приказы, ему нечего было делать.

СОБЕРШЕННЫЕ ВРЕМЕНА (PERFECT TENSES)

НАСТОЯЩЕЕ СОБЕРШЕННОЕ ВРЕМЯ (THE PRESENT PERFECT TENSE)

Настоящее совершенное время указывает на связь действия в прошлом с настоящим временем, а также выражает действие, которое закончилось к настоящему времени. Глаголы в настоящем совершенном времени обычно **переводятся на русский язык глаголами в прошедшем времени совершенного вида**.

Утвердительная форма настоящего совершенного времени образуется при помощи вспомогательного глагола *to have* в настоящем неопределенном времени (*has, have*) и причастия прошедшего времени (*Participle II*) смыслового глагола.

He has already translated this article. Он уже перевел эту статью.

They have done all the exercises. Они сделали все упражнения.

Для образования **вопросительной формы** вспомогательный глагол *to have* ставится перед подлежащим, а причастие прошедшего времени - после подлежащего:

Has he already translated this article? Он уже перевел эту статью?

Have they done all the exercises? Они сделали все упражнения?

Для образования **отрицательной формы** после вспомогательного глагола *to have* ставится отрицательная частица *not*:

He has not translated this article. Он не перевел эту статью.

They have not done all the exercises. Они не сделали всех упражнений.

В разговорной речи употребляется сокращенная утвердительная форма и сокращенная отрицательная форма (см. гл. *to have*):

He's already translated this article. Он уже перевел эту статью.

They've done all the exercises. Они сделали все упражнения.

He hasn't translated this article. Он не перевел эту статью.

They haven't done all the exercises. Они не сделали все упражнения.

Настоящее совершенное время употребляется:

1. Для выражения законченного действия, время совершения которого не указано совсем:

The course of peace has won millions of friends and supporters. Движение за мир завоевало миллионы друзей и сторонников.

2. Для выражения законченного действия, время совершения которого обозначено такими наречиями или обстоятельственными словами, как *never* никогда, *ever* когда-либо, *often* часто, *just* только что, *already* уже, *yet* еще, *not yet* еще не и др.:

I have never seen this launcher in action.

Я никогда не видел эту пусковую установку в действии.

3. Для выражения законченного действия, время совершения которого выражено наречиями или обстоятельственными словами, обозначающими еще не закончившийся период времени: *today* сегодня, *this week* на этой неделе, *this month* в этом месяце и др.:

She has passed her last exam today. Сегодня она сдала последний экзамен.

4. Для обозначения действия, время совершения которого выражено наречиями или обстоятельственными словами, указывающими на целый период, на начало или конец периода, в течение которого происходило действие: *for centuries* веками, *for five days* в течении пяти дней, *till seven* до семи, *since* с тех пор как, *since ten* с десяти часов и т.д.:

Since the establishment of this university some 25,000 specialists have graduated from it. Со времени основания этого университета его окончило около 25000 специалистов.

ПРОШЕДШЕЕ СОВЕРШЕННОЕ ВРЕМЯ (THE PAST PERFECT TENSE)

Утвердительная форма прошедшего совершенного времени образуется при помощи вспомогательного глагола *to have* в прошедшем неопределенном времени *had* и причастия? прошедшего времени (*Participle II*) смыслового глагола:

He had written a letter when I came in. Когда я вошел, он (уже) написал письмо.

They had come back by two o'clock yesterday. Вчера к двум часам они (уже) возвратились.

Для образования вопросительной формы вспомогательный глагол *to have* ставится перед подлежащим, а причастие прошедшего времени смыслового глагола - после подлежащего:

Had he written a letter when I came in? Он (уже) написал письмо, когда я вошел?

Had they come back by two o'clock yesterday? Вчера они (уже) возвратились к двум часам?

Для образования отрицательной формы после вспомогательного глагола *to have* ставится отрицательная частица *not*:

He had not written a letter when I came in. Он не написал письмо, когда я вошел.

They had not come back by two o'clock yesterday. Они не возвратились к двум часам вчера.

В разговорной речи употребляется сокращенная отрицательная форма:

They hadn't come back by two o'clock yesterday. Они не возвратились к двум часам вчера.

Прошедшее совершенное время употребляется:

1. Для выражения действия, закончившегося до указанного момента времени в прошлом, который может быть выражен точной датой, часом и т.д.:

We had finished our work by five o'clock.

Мы (уже) закончили свою работу к пяти часам.

2. Для выражения действия, предшествовавшего другому действию в прошлом:

He had written three letters and was just starting on the fourth, when the door was suddenly flung open and Elsie Clayton rushed into the room.

Он написал три письма и только принялся за четвертое, когда дверь вдруг широко распахнулась, и Элси Клейтон стремительно вошла в комнату.

БУДУЩЕЕ СОВЕРШЕННОЕ ВРЕМЯ (THE FUTURE PERFECT TENSE)

Утвердительная форма будущего совершенного времени образуется при помощи вспомогательного глагола *to have* в будущем неопределенном времени (*shall have, will have*) и причастия прошедшего времени (*Participle II*) смыслового глагола:

We shall have discussed this article by the end of the week. Мы обсудим эту статью к концу недели.

They will have passed all their exams before they go to camp. Они сдадут все экзамены до того, как поедут в лагерь.

Для образования вопросительной формы вспомогательный глагол *shall* или *will* ставится перед подлежащим, *a have* и причастие прошедшего времени – после подлежащего:

Shall we have discussed this article by the end of this week? Мы обсудим эту статью к концу недели?

Will they have passed all their exams before they go to camp? Они сдадут все экзамены до того, как поедут в лагерь?

Для образования отрицательной формы после вспомогательного глагола *shall* или *will* ставится отрицательная частица *not*:

We shall not have discussed this article by the end of the week. Мы не обсудим эту статью к концу недели.

They will not have passed all their exams before they go to camp. Они не сдадут все экзамены до того, как поедут в лагерь

КОНТРОЛЬНАЯ РАБОТА 3 СЕМЕСТРА

1. Прочитайте и письменно переведите текст.
2. Письменно ответьте по-английски на вопросы, следующие за текстом.
3. Найдите в тексте предложения, в которых употреблены модальные глаголы и их эквиваленты.
4. Найдите в тексте предложения, в которых употреблены неопределенные местоимения *some, any, no, every* и их производные.
5. Поставьте глагол-сказуемое одного предложения из текста во все временные формы группы Perfect, произведя все необходимые смысловые изменения.

Образец:

He has just translated the text.

He had translated the text before the bell rang.

He will have translated the text by tomorrow.

6. Выполните письменно контрольно-тренировочные упражнения, следующие за текстом.

COLLEGE LIFE IN ENGLAND

The University of Oxford is a collection of colleges. Some of these colleges were founded hundreds of years ago. The University is only an administrative centre which arranges lectures for all the students of the colleges, holds examinations and gives degrees.

Every college has students of all kinds; it has its medical students, its engineers, its art students, etc.

The Tutorial system is one of the ways in which Oxford and Cambridge differ from all other English universities. Every student has a tutor who plans his work. Each week some students come to see him and he discusses with them the work which they have done. This system has some advantages, but has often operated against progressive thinking in British universities because many tutors are reactionary and they try to have a great social and political influence on their students.

Other English universities called «modern» or «provincial» are located in large centres of industry. There are no tutorial systems there. These universities rely on lectures.

Very few children of the working people can be found among the students of all the British universities because the cost of studies is too high. According to official reports only 3 per cent of the whole number of students at the universities are sons and daughters of the working people.

The academic year in England is divided into three terms. Terminal examinations are held at the end of the autumn, spring and the summer terms. Final examinations are taken at the end of the course of studies. If a student fails in an examination he may be allowed to take the exam again. Only two re-examinations are usually allowed. For a break of discipline a student can be fined a sum of money, for a serious offence he may be expelled from the university.

British universities usually keep to the customs of the past. At Oxford University all the students wear long black gowns and students' caps. Undergraduates try to get old gowns so that people would think that they have been at Oxford for years. Without his or her gown no student is allowed to call on a tutor, to have dinner in the college dining-room or attend a lecture — where the gowns are rolled up and used as cushions.

Questions

1. In what way do Oxford and Cambridge differ from all other English universities?
2. What are advantages and disadvantages of the Tutorial system?
3. What kinds of English universities are called «modern»?
4. Can many children of the working people be found among the students at English universities?
5. How many terms is the academic year in England divided into?
6. How are the students of Oxford usually dressed?

КОНТРОЛЬНО-ТРЕНИРОВОЧНЫЕ УПРАЖНЕНИЯ

1. **Переведите следующие предложения на русский язык, обращая внимание на значение глаголов to have (to) и to be (to):**

1. It looks like raining. You have to take your raincoat.
2. Remember that we are to be at this place not later than eight.
3. He will have to stay there for a month.
4. We are to leave on Monday.
5. The children had to stay indoors because it was raining.
6. Nobody met me when I came, because I was to arrive by the ten o'clock train, but I couldn't get a ticket for it.
7. We had to touch upon this question at the scientific conference.
8. You will have to work hard to finish the work in time.

2. Заполните пропуски модальными глаголами или их эквивалентами:

1. She . . . play chess well. 2.... I take your pen? 3.... I ask you a question? 4. You ... not talk at the lesson. 5. He ... not speak English last year. 6. My sister ... not play piano two years ago, but now she 7. You . . . get this novel in our library. 8. I ... go to the library today to prepare for my report at the conference. 9. ... you do me a favour?

**3. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной и отрицательной формах:
Образец:**

He can play chess well. Can he play chess well? He can't play chess well.

1. We must tell her this news. 2. He may smoke here. 3. She can speak English perfectly. 4. The students must translate the text at home. 5. We can go to the theatre tonight. 6. We shall be able to help them. 7. They had to wait for a long time. 8. His friend couldn't get this book. 9. You were allowed to take this book home. 10. May I go home now? 11. They were allowed to come at four.

3. Употребите глаголы, данные в скобках, в форме Present Perfect. Сформулируйте предложения в утвердительной и отрицательной формах. Задайте к предложениям общий и специальный вопросы:

1. I (speak) to him about it several times.
2. We (learn) many new words in this course.
3. He (make) that same mistake several times.
4. I (hear) that story before.
5. I am afraid that I (lose) my car keys.
6. She (see) this film three times.
7. I (tell) John what you said.
8. She (return) my book at last.
9. She says that she (lose) her new pocket-book.

5. Употребите глаголы, данные в скобках, в форме Past Perfect. Сформулируйте предложения в утвердительной и отрицательной формах. Задайте к предложениям общий и специальный вопросы:

1. I was sure that I (see) the man before.
2. I asked him why he (leave) the party so early.
3. It was clear that he (give) us the wrong address.
4. The teacher corrected the exercises which I (prepare).
5. He knew that he (make) a serious mistake.
6. She said she (look) everywhere for the book.
7. I felt that I (meet) the man somewhere before.
8. He wanted to know what (happen) to his briefcase.

7. Употребите глаголы, данные в скобках, в форме Future Perfect. Сформулируйте предложения в утвердительной и отрицательной формах. Задайте к предложениям общий и специальный вопросы:

1. I am sure they (complete) the new road by June.
2. He says that before he leaves he (see) every show in town.
3. By the time you arrive, I (finish) reading your book.
4. I (be) in this country two years on next January.
5. A year from now he (take) his medical examinations and (begin) to practise.
6. If you don't make a note of that appointment, you (forget) it by next week.
7. **Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной и отрицательной формах:**

1. There are some extra chairs in the next room.
2. He made some mistakes in spelling.
3. They have some pretty dresses in that store.
4. The teacher taught us some important rules of grammar.
5. We learned some new words in class yesterday.
6. There are some flowers in the yellow vase.
7. The doctor gave her some pills to take.
8. I bought some stamps at the post-office.
9. He told us about some of his experiences.

8. Заполните пропуски местоимениями some или any. Переведите предложения на русский язык:

1. You will need . . . warm clothes there.
2. I don't have . . . money with me.
3. Please, give me . . . more coffee. — I'm sorry, but there isn't. . . more coffee.
4. I'm sorry, but I didn't have . . . time to prepare my lessons last night.
5. I didn't have . . . stamps, so I went to the post-office to buy
6. Please, put. . . water in that vase, the flowers are dying.
7. There are ... famous museums in that city but we didn't have time to visit....
8. The doctor gave me . . . medicine for my cough.
9. There aren't. . . students in the room at the moment.

10. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной и отрицательной формах:

Образец: He told us something about his trip.

Did he tell us anything about his trip? He didn't tell us anything about his trip.

1. There is someone at the door.
2. You left something on the hall table.
3. He will bring someone with him.
4. There is somebody in the next room.
5. He has something important to say to you.
6. There is something wrong with this telephone.
7. She gave us something to eat.
8. He spoke to somebody about it.

IV СЕМЕСТР ГРАММАТИЧЕСКИЙ МАТЕРИАЛ

1. Времена группы Indefinite в страдательном залоге
2. Времена группы Continuous в страдательном залоге
3. Времена группы Perfect в страдательном залоге
4. Правила преобразования предложений из действительного залога в страдательный

5. Общие принципы вопросительных и отрицательных предложений в страдательном залоге
6. Правила согласования времен.
7. Косвенная речь.

«СТРАДАТЕЛЬНЫЙ» ЗАЛОГ (THE PASSIVE VOICE)

Глагол в страдательном залоге выражает действие, которое испытывает лицо (или предмет), являющееся подлежащим, со стороны другого лица (или предмета):

The year of 1986 was declared the International Year of Peace. 1986 год был объявлен Международным Годом Мира.

Образование форм страдательного залога. формула образования: to be + Participle II

Формы страдательного залога в английском языке образуются при помощи вспомогательного глагола to be в соответствующей форме действительного залога и причастия прошедшего времени (Participle II) смыслового глагола. Глагол to be является спрягаемой частью сказуемого и указывает на время, лицо, число:

These exercises are done. Эти упражнения выполнены.

В страдательном залоге употребляются следующие времена: все времена группы Indefinite, Present Continuous, Past Continuous, все времена группы Perfect. Future Continuous и времена группы Perfect Continuous в страдательном залоге не употребляются.

Для образования вопросительной формы вспомогательный глагол to be ставится перед подлежащим, а остальная часть временной формы - после подлежащего:

Are these exercises done? Эти упражнения выполнены?

Для образования отрицательной формы после вспомогательного глагола to be ставится отрицательная частица

These exercises are not done. Эти упражнения не выполнены

Способы перевода глаголов

1. Глаголы в формах **Indefinite Passive** могут переводиться на русский язык:
 - a. глаголами в страдательном залоге: An. International movement of scientists for peace and disarmament was founded in 1955. Международное движение ученых за мир и жение было основано в 1955 году;
 - b. глаголами в действительном залоге (часто глаголами с окончанием -ся, сь): The First Goodwill Games were held in Moscow, Tallinn and Yurmala from 4 to 20 July 1986. The Pugwash conferences are convened once or twice a year. Игры Доброй Воли проводились в Москве, Таллинне и Юрмале с 4 по 20 июля 1986 года. Пагуошские конференции созываются один или два раза в год;
 - c. неопределенно-личными предложениями: Planes are allowed to take off and land at Heathrow from six in the morning till eleven at night. Взлет и посадка самолетов в аэропорту Хитроу разрешается с шеста утра до 11 ночи.
2. Глаголы в формах **Continuous Passive** переводятся на русский язык
 - a. формами глагола несовершенного вида с окончанием -ся (-сь): In most industrial cities atmosphere, soil and water are being constantly polluted with substances harmful to all living things. Атмосфера, почва и вода в большинстве промышленных городов постоянно загрязняется веществами, опасными для всего живого;
 - b. неопределенно-личными предложениями: The Russian language is being taught in many countries. Русский язык преподается во многих странах.
3. Глаголы в формах **Perfect Passive** переводятся, как правило, формами глаголов

совершенного вида (действительного, страдательного залогов), неопределенно-личными предложениями:

Anti-smog measures such as mandatory pollution control devices on cars and factories have been introduced in Los Angeles. (Morning Star, May, 2, 1990)

Такие меры борьбы со смогом, как установка на автомобилях и промышленных предприятиях устройств обязательного контроля за загрязнением (воздуха) а) были введены; (б) введены; в) ввели) в Лос-Анджелесе.

Страдательный залог в английском языке употребляется, в основном, в следующих случаях:

1. если интерес представляет не действующее лицо (или предмет), а само действие: The plan was successfully. План был успешно выполнен.
2. в неопределенно-личных оборотах типа: меня попросили, ей ответили, за ним послали и т. п. (особенно с глаголами, выражающими просьбу, обещание, разрешение): We were given a list of books for home reading Нам дали список книг для домашнего чтения.
3. после модальных глаголов: They could be relied upon. На них можно было положиться.

Если указывается, кем или чем выполняется действие, то действующее лицо выражается существительным в общем падеже или местоимением в объектном падеже с предлогом by, а предмет или орудие, с помощью которого производится действие, выражается существительным или местоимением с предлогом with: He was alighted by an elderly little man with full white hair and an expression- of great kindness. (Eveik Waugh). Его посещал пожилой человек с совершенно белыми волосами и выражением огромной доброты. The letter was written with a pencil Письмо (было) написано карандашом.

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

В английском языке употребление времени глагола - сказуемого в придаточном предложении зависит от времени глагола-сказуемого в главном предложении. Это называется правилом согласования времен.

Правило согласования времен заключается в следующем:

если в **главном** предложении глагол-сказуемое стоит в одной из форм **настоящего или будущего** времени, то глагол-сказуемое в придаточном предложении может стоять в **любой временной форме, которая требуется по смыслу:**

He says that he was busy yesterday Он говорит, что был занят вчера.

He says that he will be busy tomorrow Он говорит, что будет занят завтра.

He says that he is busy. Он говорит, что занят.

Если в **главном** предложении глагол-сказуемое стоит в одной из форм **прошедшего** времени, то в придаточном предложении глагол-сказуемое нужно употреблять также в **одной из форм прошедшего**, а именно:

1. если действие придаточного предложения происходит одновременно с действием, главного предложения, то в придаточном предложении употребляется глагол в одной из форм прошедшего неопределенного или прошедшего продолженного времени: *He told me that he studied here.* Он сказал мне, что учится здесь. *She said she was preparing for a report.* Она сказала, что готовится к докладу;
2. если действие придаточного предложения предшествует действию главного предложения, то в придаточном предложении употребляется глагол в одной из форм прошедшего совершенного времени: *The rector said that the Moscow Higher Women's Courses had been reorganised into the Second Moscow State University.* Ректор сказал, что Московские высшие женские курсы были преобразованы во Второй московский государственный университет;

3. если действие придаточного предложения относится к будущему времени, а в главном действии относится к прошедшему, то глагол-сказуемое должен стоять в *Future-in-the-Past*

Форма **Future-in-the-Past** образуется от соответствующих форм *Future Tenses*, но вместо вспомогательного глагола *shall* употребляется *should*, а вместо вспомогательного глагола *will* - *would*:

I thought I should know the way this time, but I was wrong. (EL.Denham) Я думал, что на этот раз я узнаю дорогу, но я ошибся.

В следующих случаях **правило согласования времен не соблюдается**, т. е. независимо от временной формы глагола-сказуемого в главном предложении в придаточном предложении глагол-сказуемое употребляется в любой временной форме, которая требуется по смыслу:

1. если в состав сказуемого в придаточном предложении входит один из следующих модальных глаголов: *must, ought, should*: *I knew that he must come to the Academy by 3 o'clock.* Я знал, что он должен прийти в академию к 3 часам;
2. если в придаточном предложении сообщается об общеизвестном факте или неопровержимой истине: *The teacher told the pupils that Novosibirsk stands on the both banks of the river Ob.* Учитель рассказал ученикам, что Новосибирск расположен на обоих берегах реки Обь;
3. в придаточных определительных предложениях и в предложениях, вводимых союзными словами *as* как, в качестве, *than* чем: *It was not so cold yester day as it is today.* Вчера не было так холодно, как сегодня;
4. если действие придаточного предложения предшествует действию главного предложения, и время действия придаточного предложения указано точно: *I knew that she left Moscow in 1945.* Я знала, что она уехала из Москвы в 1945 году. Но: *I knew that she had left Moscow some years ago.* Я знала, что она уехала из Москвы несколько лет назад.

КОСВЕННАЯ РЕЧЬ (REPORTED SPEECH)

При переводе прямой речи в косвенную **необходимо соблюдать**: 1. правила согласования времен, 2. соответственно изменять личные и притяжательные местоимения, 3. а также слова:

this на *that* *tomorrow* на *the next day*

these – *those* *yesterday* – *the day before*

now – *then* *ago* – *before*

to-day – *that day* *here* – *there*

Прямая речь . Косвенная речь

Peter said, «I shall translate

Peter said he would translate

this article tomorrow». *that article the next day.*

При переводе **прямого вопроса в косвенный** он становится **дополнительным придаточным предложением**, которое вводится союзами *if/whether* (ли), если это общий вопрос или союзными словами *who, which, whose, when, why, how many* и др., если это специальный вопрос. **Порядок слов в косвенном вопросе прямой.**

She asked me, «Do you still remember me?» *She asked me if (whether) I still remembered her.*

He asked me, «When did you enter the History Faculty?» *He asked me when I had entered the History Faculty.*

Глагол в повелительном наклонении (в побудительных предложениях) заменяется в косвенной речи инфинитивом. Если в прямой речи выражалось приказание, глагол *say* заменяется глаголом *tell*; если в прямой речи выражалась просьба, глагол *say* заменяется глаголом *ask*.

*She said, «Will you help me?» She asked me to help her.
He said, «Go there immediately». He told me to go there immediately.*

КОНТРОЛЬНО-ТРЕНИРОВОЧНЫЕ УПРАЖНЕНИЯ

1. Замените в следующих предложениях действительный залог страдательным, обращая внимание на времена группы Indefinite:

1. They did not adopt the resolution yesterday.
2. The teacher will examine the students next week.
3. They will translate this book into English next year.
4. Meteorologists collect weather reports from all parts of the country.
5. He wrote that book last year.
6. She reads English books every day.

2. Замените в следующих предложениях действительный залог страдательным, обращая внимание на времена группы Continuous:

1. They were discussing this problem when we came in
2. The students are writing a dictation now
3. She was reading a letter when I entered the room
4. They will be working with this text when you return
5. At seven o'clock, when you telephoned, I was reading the newspaper
6. The students are taking examinations in the next room

3. Замените в следующих предложениях действительный залог страдательным, обращая внимание на времена группы Perfect:

1. Soviet scientists have made many wonderful discoveries.
2. They will have published this book by the end of the year.
3. He has done very little work recently.
4. By Saturday he had found all the necessary material.
5. She had finished her work by this time yesterday.
6. The students had translated the text before the bell rang.

4. Переведите следующие предложения на русский язык, обращая внимание на форму глагола придаточных предложений:

1. He said that he had read this book twice.
2. We thought that the results of your work would be better.
3. The boy said that he was only eight years old.
4. I knew that he would refuse to help me.
5. He was sure that I should come in time.
6. She thought that the letter had been written by her friend.
7. They said that it had been raining from five till seven.
8. She said that she could not give me this book because she had promised to give it to her sister.

5. Употребите глагол-сказуемое главного предложения в Past Indefinite и сделайте соответствующие изменения в придаточном предложении. Переведите предложения на русский язык:

1. She says that she can read English books in the original.
2. He is sure that he will pass his examinations.

3. We know that our friends went to the South a week ago.
4. I think that he is having his music lesson now.
5. We know that both he and his sister like sport.
6. Do you know that they arrived in Moscow yesterday?
7. I don't think that she has come home.
8. I'm certain that nobody will think him a stranger.

6. **Преобразуйте следующие предложения из прямой речи в косвенную. Переведите предложения на русский язык:**

1. Mary said, «The train will probably arrive in time.»
2. He said, «I have to finish this report by five o'clock.»
3. The doctor said, «Mr. Smith will improve quickly.»
4. Ann said to me, «I am leaving in the morning.»
5. The teacher said, «Everyone has to write a composition.»
6. John said, «I saw this film last week.»
7. Ann said, «I have finished studying my lesson.»
8. The man said; «The telephone is out of order.»

7. **Употребите глаголы, данные, в скобках, в нужной форме времени и залога, соблюдая правило согласования времен. Переведите предложения на русский язык:**

1. She said that she (to know) English very well.
2. We knew that they (to come) to visit us next Sunday.
3. John said that he (to go) away on Wednesday.
4. People were sure that soon a spaceship (to fly) to other planets.
5. We were informed that many scientists (to work) at the problem of radioactivity.
6. They thought the flight (to be) successful.
7. He said that the telegram (to come) that day

АГРОНОМИЧЕСКИЙ ФАКУЛЬТЕТ

I СЕМЕСТР

VEGETATION AND WILDLIFE

The humid and mild climate of Great Britain is good for plants and flowers. Some of them have become symbols in the UK. Probably you know that the poppy is the symbol of peace, the red rose is the national emblem of England, the thistle is the national emblem of Scotland and the Edinburgh International Festival. The daffodils and the leek are the emblems of Wales, the shamrock (a kind of clover) is the emblem of Ireland.

The UK was originally a land of vast forests, mainly oak and beech in the Lowlands and pine and birch in the Highlands, with great stretches of marshland and smaller areas of moors. In the course of time, much forest land was cleared and almost all the Lowlands outside the industrial areas were put under cultivation. Today only about 6 per cent of the total land area remains wooded. Extensive forests remain in eastern and northern Scotland and in southeastern and western England. Oak, elm, ash, and beech are the commonest trees in England, while Scotland has much pine and birch. The Highlands with their thin soil are largely moorland with heather and grasses. In the cultivated areas that make up most of Britain there are many wild flowers, flowering plants and grasses.

The fauna, or animal life of the UK is much like that of northwestern Europe. Many larger mammals such as bear, wolf have been hunted to extinction, others are now protected by law. About 50 land mammals are still found in the UK. There are many foxes. Otters are common along rivers and streams, and seals live along much of the coast. Hedgehogs, hares, rabbits, rats and mice are numerous. Deer live in some of the forests in the Highlands of Scotland and England. There are several small lizards, two or three kinds of snakes and several kinds of frogs and toads.

Some 230 kinds of birds live in the UK, and another 200 are regular visitors, many are songbirds. The most numerous are blackbirds, sparrows and starlings. Robin Redbreast is the national bird of the UK. The number of ducks, geese and other water fowl has diminished during recent years. Partridges, pheasants and other large and rare birds are protected by law. Gulls, geese and other sea birds nest near the coast.

There are many threats to wildlife and ecological balance around the coast. The biggest threat to the coastline is pollution. More than 3,500 million tons of industrial waste is pumped into the North Sea every year. "We cannot continue to use our seas as a dustbin and expect our coastline to survive", says Greenpeace. Many other ecological problems may be caused by privatization of the coast. The quality of rivers has also declined. Many of them are "biologically dead", i. e. unable to support fish and wildlife.

SOIL

Soil plays a vital and important role in the life of the world and mankind. It is in fact a highly organized physical, chemical and biological complex all of us are dependent on. As the supporter of vegetable life, soil plays the most fundamental of roles in providing food for all animals and men.

Soils develop under the influences of climate, vegetation, slope and drainage, time, the nature of the parent material, and the culture. Climate influences plants, animals and soil directly. Plants influence the soil, the animals and the climate near the ground. Animals play a considerable role in soil development, the type of soil often influences the animals which are present in it, while the animals also influence the vegetation which is growing in the soil. Finally climate, through weathering, influences the rocks, which in time become part of the soil through the processes of soil formation.

All soils do not have the same utility, but man uses different soils in different ways. "Good" land for the production of food-stuffs must lie well and have good depth, for yields are dependent upon the ability of the soil to take up and use fertilizers and water. Man has done much to adapt crops to

the soil and to provide various kinds of fertilizers for plant growth and development. Soils that are not good for the production of food-stuffs may be valuable in other ways. For example, podzols in high elevations are poor for crops but they comprise excellent forest soils.

Each soil series requires skilful handling if it is to produce to its maximum potential; but no two series make the same demands. From season to season conditions of temperature and moisture change, so the farmer must change the management to produce better drainage, improve tilth, prevent erosion, and test the soil to identify the proper kind and the correct proportion of fertilizer needed. Only by careful study of the soil, resulting in an understanding of the complexity of its nature and uses, will man be able to provide food for all the people who will inhabit the earth. The soil cannot reproduce itself. Therefore, man should improve it through good management and treatment so that future generations can farm more efficiently than their fathers and grandfathers have done. Man can improve the soil now in use and even discover how more kinds of soils can be utilized more productively.

So, the results obtained in soil science can be applied to practical problems in agriculture, horticulture, forestry, engineering, and in planning the future use of land.

FLORA

In the 1800s when the first Europeans arrived, about 70% of New Zealand was covered in native forest. Much of it was soon cleared for timber (as in the large kauri forests) or to make way for farming.

Despite there not being as much native forest around as there was before the arrival of Europeans, NZ still has some magnificent areas of native forest and bush. About 10% to 15% of the total land area of the country is native flora, much of it in protected parks and reserves.

The variety of vegetation types in NZ is enormous. Heading south from the giant kauri forests of Northland there are the luxuriant lowland kohekohe forests of the Bay of Plenty; the rainforests dominated by rimu, various beeches, tawa, matai and rata, and a great variety of tree ferns; the podocarp and hardwood forests of the lower parts of the North Island with its kahikatea, tawa, rimu, rata, and kohekohe; the summer-flowering alpine and subalpine herb fields; and the windswept scrub of the smaller islands.

In the South Island the vegetation changes dramatically as you climb into the mountains. The lowland supplejacks give way to rimu, miro, and then tree ferns at about 800 metres. Above 1000 metres the totara, wineberry, fuschias, rata and kaikomako are gradually left behind, to be replaced by subalpine scrub. At about 1200 metres the scrub gives way to the tussock grasses and alpine herb fields, and

at the extreme heights only some hardy lichens hang on to the exposed rock.

Like the Australian species, most of the 72 NZ orchids are not large or brilliantly coloured; one exception is the beautiful *Earina autumnalis*, which has perfumed cream flowers.

Various introduced species have been planted in large tracts for the timber industry. The most obvious imports are the massive plantations of radiata or Monterey pine and Douglas fir (Oregon).

The Maori language has bestowed marvellous names on some of the native plants of NZ, names that are almost unpronounceable to Europeans-tawhairauriki, kowhaingu-tukaka, to name a handful. Some of the English names are nearly as colourful, and it's interesting to speculate about their derivations – gum digger's soap, wild Irishman, seven-finger, bog pine, flower of Hades and Dieffenbach's Spaniard.

FERNS

One of the prominent features of the NZ bush is the proliferation of tree ferns which are intertwined into the undergrowth. There are over 80 species of fern and five species of soft fern. Perhaps the most interesting are the mauku (hen & chickens fern; *Asplenium bulbiferum*) and the raurenga (Kidney fern; *Trichomanes reniforme*), and the rarest would be the para (horseshoe or king fern; *Marrattia salicina*). A common sight on NZ hillsides is the bracken fern (*Pteridium aquilinum*), growing

to three metres or more.

The mamaku (black tree fern; *Cyathea medullaris*) is the largest of the NZ ferns and grows to a height of 20 metres, with the fronds extending up to seven metres. It grows throughout the country, common in damp forest gullies.

The ponga (silvertree fern; *Cyathea dealbata*) is the national symbol which adorns the jumpers of many of NZ's sports representatives. It grows up to 10 metres in height and the fronds, which extend up to four metres, are white on the underside and dull green on the upper side.

The piupiu (crown fern; *Blechnum discolor*) is found throughout the country and is very noticeable because its bright green fronds, up to 1.5 metres in length, often form a significant part of the ground cover. When the frond is turned over it reveals a silvery-grey side. Interestingly, it is the colour of the two types of fronds of *Blechnum* species, one brown and one green, which denotes whether they are fertile or sterile. The brown fronds look as though they are dead or dying, but they produce the reproductive spores. Other ferns produce spores seen as brown spots on the underside of green fronds.

II CEMECTP

WHAT IS GENETIC ENGINEERING?

Genetic engineering (GE), genetic modification (GM) or genetic manipulations – all the three forms mean the same thing, the reshuffling of genes usually from one species to another. Existing examples include: from fish to tomato or from human to pig.

Today we find it mixed in our food – genetically engineered soybeans and maize, sugar beet, wheat, potato, strawberries and so on. But if you want to understand genetic engineering, it is best to start with some basic biology.

A cell is the smallest living unit, the basic structural and functional unit of all living matter (a plant, an animal or a fungus). Some organisms such as amoebae, bacteria, some algae and fungi are single-celled. Humans are quite different and are made up of approximately 3 million cells. Cells are stacked together to make up tissues, organs or structures (brain, liver, bones, skin, leaves, fruit, etc.) In an organism, cells depend on each other to perform various functions and tasks.

Proteins are the basic building materials for a cell giving cells the capacity to function properly.

Chromosomes means "coloured bodies". They look like bundled up knots and loops of a long thin thread. They are the storage place for all genetic (or hereditary) information. This information is written along the thin thread, called DNA. "DNA" is an abbreviation for deoxyribonucleic acid, a specific for acidic material found in the nucleus. The genetic information is written in the form of a code. When a cell multiplies it will also copy all the DNA and pass it on to the daughter cell.

The totality of the genetic information of an organism is called genome. Cells of humans, for example, possess two sets of 23 different chromosomes, one set from the mother and the other from the father. The DNA of each human cell corresponds to 2 meters of DNA if it is stretched out. The length of DNA contained in the human body is approximately 60,000,000,000 kilometres. This is equivalent to the distance to the Moon and back 8,000 times!

The information contained on the chromosomes in the DNA is written and coded in such a way that it can be understood by almost all living species on earth. Thus it is called the universal code of life.

The information for how any cell is structured or how it functions is all encoded in single and distinct genes. A gene is a certain segment (length) of DNA with specific protein.

Genetic engineering is used to take genes and segments of DNA from one species and put them into another species. Using a set of techniques, GE makes it possible to break through the species barrier and to shuffle information between completely unrelated species; for example, to splice an insect-killing toxin gene from bacteria into maize, cotton or rape seed, or genes from humans into pigs.

WORDS AND PHRASES

gene [dʒi:n] n, c – ген

genetic adj – генетический, генный
modify v – видоизменять
modification n, c – видоизменение
alga n (algae pl) – водоросль
stacked together – соединены
tissue n, c – (биол.) ткань
organic tissue – органическая ткань
shuffle v – перемешивать
soybeans – соевые бобы
maize – кукуруза
sugar beet – сахарная свекла
cell n, c – клетка
single-celled adj – одноклеточный
to perform functions – выполнять функции
capacity n, e – способность, возможность
living matter – живая материя
amoeba – амеба
the storage place – хранилище
thread n, c – нить
abbreviation n, c – сокращение
acid n, c/и – кислота
acidic adj – кислый
nucleus n (nuclei pl) – ядро

THE DYING PLANET

David Attenburg is a naturalist. He has been traveling around the world for over seven years and produced a lot of television documentaries named "Life of Earth" and "The Living Planet". But his next series might be named "The End of Life on the Dying Planet". David is very worried about our world. He is depressed by what human beings are doing to our world.

In the Himalayas, for example, people cut down forests simply because they need firewood to keep warm. This leaves fertile Himalayan hills naked, unprotected from the heavy rains. The trees were umbrellas, but now the rain washes out the good soil, which ends up as mud in the channels of the river Ganges. So cutting down trees in Nepal drowns people in Bangladesh.

In Africa the gathering of wood is making the desert grow. The Amazon jungle is being destroyed at the rate of 29,000 square miles in a year. That's an area the size of the whole of Scotland disappearing every year.

Trees are a vital part of the water cycle, and of course they give us the oxygen that we breathe. And cutting down the rain forests kills the plants that grow under the trees as well, plants which help us fight disease. 40 per cent of our drugs, our medicines, are derived from plants and most of those come from the tropical rain forests.

Those plants also help fight the diseases that threaten our food. The funguses and moulds that attack wheat, for example, are continually growing stronger. But they only evolve to match specific varieties of wheat. So plant breeders beat the funguses by changing the varieties with the help of new genes that come from wild plants. That happens with all our food plants: rice, potatoes, wheat, barley, etc. And if we lose those wild strains, the field could be devastated and mankind would starve.

David Attenborough says that it's not just a distant problem. It is happening now. The floods in India and Pakistan, the starvation in parts of Africa – these are direct consequences of man's activities.

WORDS AND PHRASES

cut down forests – вырубать леса

firewood – дрова
fertile – плодородный
evolve – развиваться
plant breeders – селекционеры
naked – обнаженный, голый
beat – (зд.) победить
strain– (биол.) штамм
soil – почва
mud– грязь
drown – топить
fungus – грибок
mould – плесень
devastate – опустошать
direct consequences of man's activities – прямые последствия человеческой деятельности

THE BLACKBERRY

One of the best-known members of the Rubus genus, the blackberry actually belongs to the famous rose family, which also includes some of our other major fruits – apples, pears, plums and peaches.

As fruit, blackberries are high in food energy and protein, besides containing good quantities of calcium, iron and vitamin A. I use mine for just about everything when they are in season and freeze a lot for winter use. Blackberry wines, jellies and cobbles are something to dream about.

No matter where you live or which kind you prefer to grow, remember that blackberries have a shallow root system and need good drainage, plus adequate and fairly constant moisture.

They do exceptionally well in mild climates, but are not limited to them if varieties are chosen with care. Hardy erect and trailing varieties, including several thornless introductions, take northern winters in stride.

Preparing the soil should be as thorough as for a garden. Plow to a depth of nine inches as soon as the soil is workable. If the area to be planted is large, a good disking and harrowing is advisable before setting out plants. Also mix compost or other organic matter into the berry beds to encourage greater fruit production.

When setting out plants, be careful not to let stock dry out. If I cannot plant as soon as it arrives, I protect the roots from drying by heeling-in. To do this, dig a trench deep enough to contain the roots. Spread plants along the trench, roots down, and cover with moist soil. If plants are dry when I receive them, I soak the roots in water for several hours before either planting or heeling them in.

When ready to set the plants in the field, I dip the roots in a thin mud made with clay and water, or keep them in polyethylene bags. The coating helps protect roots from rapid drying while plants are being set. Before setting out, I cut the tops back so they are about six inches long. I find this six-inch top useful as a "handle" when planting, and it also shows their location.

FERTILE SOIL

It is common knowledge that the original existence of soil was due to the very slow process of wind and water, heat and cold, weathering and pressure breaking solid rock into small pieces. After this the plant life developed, died down to add small quantities of weak acids. These acids act on the hard cracked rocks, dissolving out parts of them. Some of these dissolved substances such as lime and soda drained through the soil to be lost eventually in the sea, which, of course, is why the sea is salt.

A soil chemist will tell you that soil is comprised of different sized particles; the coarse ones are called sand, the finer ones silt and the smallest of all clay. It depends on the proportions in which these are found whether a certain soil is suitable for one crop or another.

HANDLING STARTED SEEDLINGS

From the time vegetables and flowers emerge from their potting soil in March until they are safely in

the garden many weeks later, they need the most delicate and careful attention. Poor handling of started seedlings can set them back so far they are not worth planting, and that means wasted time, work and money. Proper handling gets them off to a vigorous start, and that means harvests that are early and big.

Light

Did you know that seedlings need more intense light than mature plants? The results of insufficient light become painfully obvious, usually within a week. The stem of the seedling will grow tall but weak, with large spaces between the leaves, and it will lean in the direction of available light. Ideally, seedling plants should receive 14 to 16 hours of direct sun or bright light each day, either from the sun (at a window or in a greenhouse) or from fluorescent lights - or a combination of the two.

If you have started plants early while days are still short, you can shift them from the morning windowsill to a lighting arrangement for the evening hours. Some sort of greenhouse, sun-pit or solar room is less energy - expensive than a bank of electric lights, but often a bit trickier for the average gardener to arrange. We still use fluorescent lights, but we're reading all the information we can get about solar greenhouses.

Oversupplying a plant with light is self-defeating, though. While plant species vary in the amount of light they require, most plants need at least five hours of darkness in each 24 hours, during which they convert stored carbohydrates into a form their tissues can absorb.

When raising seedlings under lights, we keep the foliage of well-started seedlings no more than three or four inches away from the tubes. If your light fixtures are not adjustable, you can use egg cartons, piles of magazines or other household flotsam to elevate the flats to the correct height.

Nourishment

Young seedlings, still growing on the food stored in the seed, need no extra nourishment until their true leaves emerge. But once the seedling has been transplanted and is growing well with its second set of true leaves, it must have either good, rich soil or periodic feeding. The soil mix we favor is made according to Thalassa Caruso's recipe: Equal parts of: (1) leaf mold, good garden soil or purchased potting soil, (2) shredded sphagnum or peat moss, and (3) perlite (expanded volcanic rock) or sharp sand.

Generally, we give our future vegetable plants a feeding of diluted fish emulsion (follow label directions) the week after transplanting and every two weeks thereafter until we set them out in the garden. The fish emulsion is easy to use, and it is a natural source of vital elements and trace minerals.

It is important to avoid fertilizing the plants too early or too often. If your plants' leaves look green and sturdy and are not few and far between, you've hit the right schedule. Heavier feeders like lettuce and cabbage require more frequent feeding than peppers or onions. Plants that receive fertilizer need plenty of light in order to make good use of the extra growth stimulation.

III CEMECTP

TOMATO

Tomato may refer to both the plant (*Solanum lycopersicum*) and the edible, typically red, fruit which it produces. Originating in South America, the tomato was spread around the world following the Spanish colonization of the Americas, and its many varieties are now widely grown, often in greenhouses in cooler climates.

The tomato fruit is consumed in diverse ways, including raw, as an ingredient in many dishes and sauces, and in drinks. Botanically tomato is a fruit, but in everyday life it is considered a vegetable for culinary purposes. The fruit is rich in lycopene, which may have beneficial health effects. When absorbed from the stomach, lycopene is transported in the blood by various lipoproteins and accumulates in the liver, adrenal glands, and testes. As preliminary research has shown a correlation between consumption of tomatoes and cancer risk, lycopene has been considered a potential agent

for prevention of some types of cancers.

The tomato belongs to the nightshade family. The plants typically grow to 1–3 metres in height and have a weak stem that often sprawls over the ground and vines over other plants. It is a perennial in its native habitat, although often grown outdoors in temperate climates as an annual. Early and cool-summer tomato varieties bear fruits even where nights are cool, which usually discourages fruit set. There are also varieties high in beta carotenes and vitamin A, and tomatoes which can be kept for months in storage. Tomatoes grow well with seven hours of sunlight a day. A fertilizer with an NPK ratio of 5-10-10 is often sold as a tomato fertilizer or vegetable fertilizer, although manure and compost are also used.

There are around 7,500 tomato varieties grown for various purposes. Heirloom (varietal) tomatoes are becoming increasingly popular, particularly among home gardeners and organic producers, since they tend to produce more interesting and flavorful crops at the cost of disease resistance and productivity.

Hybrid plants remain common, since they tend to be heavier producers, and sometimes combine unusual characteristics of heirloom tomatoes with the endurance of conventional commercial tomatoes.

Tomato varieties are roughly divided into several categories, based mostly on shape and size.

"Slicing" or "globe" tomatoes are the usual tomatoes for industry use and fresh market, used for a wide variety of processing and fresh eating.

Beefsteak tomatoes are large tomatoes often used for sandwiches. Their kidney-bean shape, thinner skin, and shorter shelf life make commercial use impractical.

Oxheart tomatoes can range in size up to beefsteaks, and are shaped like large strawberries.

Plum tomatoes, or paste tomatoes (including pear tomatoes), are bred with a higher solids content for use in tomato sauce and paste, and are usually oblong.

Pear tomatoes are obviously pear-shaped, and are based upon the San Marzano types for a richer gourmet paste.

Cherry tomatoes are small and round, often sweet tomatoes generally eaten whole in salads.

Grape tomatoes, a more recent introduction, are smaller and oblong, a variation on plum tomatoes, and used in salads.

Campari tomatoes are also sweet and noted for their juiciness, low acidity, and lack of mealiness. They are bigger than cherry tomatoes, but smaller than plum tomatoes.

POTATO STORAGE

Storage facilities need to be carefully designed to keep the potatoes alive and slow the natural process of decomposition, which involves the breakdown of starch. It is crucial that the storage area is dark, well ventilated and for long-term storage maintained at temperatures near 4 °C. For short-term storage before cooking, temperatures of about 7 °C to 10 °C are preferred.

On the other hand, temperatures below 4 °C convert a starch in potatoes into sugar, which alters their taste and cooking qualities and leads to higher acrylamide levels in the cooked product, especially in deep-fried dishes — the discovery of acrylamides in starchy foods in 2002 has led to many international health concerns as they are believed to be possible carcinogens and their occurrence in cooked foods are currently under study as possible influences in potential health problems.

Under optimum conditions possible in commercial warehouses, potatoes can be stored for up to ten to twelve months. When stored in homes, the shelf life is usually only a few weeks. If potatoes develop green areas or start to sprout, these areas should be cut before using.

Commercial storage of potatoes involves several phases: drying of surface moisture; a wound healing phase at 85% to 95% relative humidity and temperatures below 25 °C; a staged cooling phase; a holding phase; and a reconditioning phase, during which the tubers are slowly warmed. Mechanical ventilation is used at various points during the process to prevent condensation and accumulation of carbon dioxide.

When stored at home, mature potatoes are optimally kept at room temperature, where they last 1 to 2

weeks in a paper bag, in a dry, cool, dark, well ventilated location. If mature potatoes are refrigerated, dark spots can occur and conversion of starch into sugar can give rise to an unpleasant sweet flavour when cooked. Only new potatoes can be refrigerated, and should be kept so, where they have a shelf life of 1 week. If kept in a too warm temperature, both mature and new potatoes will sprout and shrivel. Exposure to light causes them to turn green. Also, it is interesting to know that potatoes absorb odors produced by pears.

POWDERY MILDEW

Powdery mildew is a fungal disease that affects a wide range of plants. Powdery mildew diseases are caused by many different species of fungi in the order Erysiphales. It is one of the easier diseases to diagnose, as its symptoms are quite distinctive. Infected plants display white powdery spots on the leaves and stems. Normally the lower leaves are the most affected, but the mildew can appear on any above-ground part of the plant. As the disease progresses, the spots get larger and denser due to large numbers of asexual spores are formed, and the mildew may spread up and down the length of the plant.

Symptoms of powdery mildew of cucumbers

Powdery mildew of cucumbers first appears as pale yellow spots on stems, petioles of the leaves and leaves. These spots are enlarging as the white, fluffy mycelium is growing over plant surfaces and producing spores, which give the lesions a powdery appearance. Affected leaves become dull, chlorotic, and may show some degree of wilting in the afternoon heat; eventually they become brown and papery.

Comments

The pathogens generally overwinter on weeds and their spores can be carried long distances by air currents. Water on the plant surface or high humidity (50 to 90%) favor the infection, and vigorous plant growth and moderate temperatures favor the development of the disease.

Management of the disease

Producers are advised to grow resistant cucumber varieties, follow good sanitation practices and growing technology guidelines as well as control weeds. In case disease symptoms first occur, it is recommended to apply a treatment and repeat it, if symptoms reappear.

IV CEMECTP

TYPES OF TOMATOES

Tomatoes are commonly classified as determinate or indeterminate. Determinate, or bush, types bear a full crop all at once and top off at a specific height; they are often good choices for container growing. Determinate types are preferred by commercial growers who wish to harvest a whole field at one time, or home growers interested in canning. Indeterminate varieties develop into vines that never top off and continue producing until killed by frost. They are preferred by home growers and local-market farmers who want ripe fruit throughout the season. As an intermediate form, there are plants sometimes known as vigorous determinate or semi-determinate; these top off like determinates, but produce a second crop after the initial crop. The majority of heirloom tomatoes are indeterminate, although some determinate heirlooms exist.

Most modern tomato cultivars are smooth surfaced, but some older tomato cultivars and most modern beefsteaks often show pronounced ribbing, a feature that may have been common to virtually all pre-Columbian cultivars. While virtually all commercial tomato varieties are red, some cultivars – especially heirlooms — produce fruit in other colors, including green, yellow, orange, pink, black, brown, ivory, white, and purple. Such fruit are not widely available in grocery stores, nor are their seedlings available in typical nurseries, but they can be bought as seed. Less common variations include fruit with stripes (Green Zebra), fuzzy skin on the fruit (Fuzzy Peach, Red Boar), multiple colors (Hillbilly, Burracker's Favorite, Lucky Cross), etc.

There is also a considerable gap between commercial and home-gardener cultivars; home cultivars

are often bred for flavor to the exclusion of all other qualities, while commercial cultivars are bred for such factors as consistent size and shape, disease and pest resistance, suitability for mechanized picking and shipping, and ability to be picked before fully ripening.

KEEPING THE SEEDS

To keep seeds is to prevent germination and at the same time to preserve the life of the seeds. Seeds should be thoroughly ripe and dry before they are stored. Those of pulpy fruits are removed and cleaned. If the seed-vessels are dry and hard, seeds may be left in them till sowing time, but usually they are removed.

Hard seeds, as of trees and nuts, may be buried, that is, mixed with earth exposed to frost or to moisture for a considerable time. Most seeds, however, are stored dry in paper bags or boxes in a cool dry room. The receptacles should be tight to keep out weevils; if there are any signs of bug work, a little bisulfide of carbon may be poured in the receptacle, and the vapor of it will destroy animal life. This material is inflammable, and it should be kept away from flames. If seeds at storing time are moist and the weather is damp, they may be lightly kiln-dried before put away for winter.

INFLUENCE OF LIGHT ON GERMINATION

The influence that light exerts on germination is not definitely understood for all horticultural seeds. It is known, however, that seeds will often germinate in full sunlight, if the proper conditions of moisture and temperature can be maintained. Seeds sown on a moist surface and covered with a grass present an interesting study. They may have difficulty in getting a foothold, and they present peculiar reactions to light.

It is well known, on the other hand, that some seeds will not germinate, or will at least appear unevenly, if subjected to sunlight. At least some of the delphiniums, papavers and Adonises germinate very imperfectly, if at all, in direct light. It is always advisable to keep germinating seeds in shade or partial darkness. Of course, the soil itself is sufficient protection if the seeds are covered.

NEMATODES

Nematodes are small parasitic roundworms about one – sixty-fourth to one-eighth inch long. They live in the soil and usually move into the plant through the roots. Underground parts are more apt to be infected, but the infection of stems, leaves, and flower parts is fairly common. The nematodes that attack alfalfa live mainly in the plant tissue and suck juices from the cells. Alfalfa may be attacked by the root- knot nematode, the dagger nematode, or the stem nematode. Nematode damage in alfalfa has been a serious problem in Nevada, Utah and California.

Plants infected with the root – knot nematode develop galls or knot like growths on the roots. Severe infections cause the roots to become thickened, rough, and club like. Considerable rotting may occur, especially late in the season. The formation of nodules by nitrogen-fixing bacteria on alfalfa and other legume roots should not be confused with the galls and knot like growths caused by nematodes. Plants infected with stem nematodes may have swollen stem and buds, shortened internodes, and deformed leaves or other plant parts.

VERTICILLIUM WILT

Verticillium wilt is a relatively new disease of alfalfa in the United States. It is considered to be a serious disease in Europe where it has been known since 1918. It was first discovered in the United States in the Pacific Northwest in 1976 and was positively identified in Wisconsin in 1980. The disease is caused by a fungus that invades the vascular system of the plants and reduces the flow of water and mineral nutrients to the leaves. Early symptoms are temporary wilting of upper leaves on warm days and a yellow or pinkish- orange discoloration on some leaflets. Chlorotic, V-shaped lesions extend from the leaflet tip down the midrib. The leaflets soon become yellow, bleached, desiccated, and twisted. They are early detached from the stem, which often remains erect and green long after all the leaves have died. A key characteristic of verticillium wilt is that not all plants in a

stand are affected, and within an infected plant only one to a few of the shoots shows the symptoms during the early stages. Later, as diseased plants and shoots become more prevalent, the more seriously affected plants also are stunted.

FERTILIZING, WEEDING AND COMBATING PESTS

Fertilizer can be distributed during the winter or shortly before seeding time. Commercial fertilizers are commonly distributed, along with seeds, by drills and planters. Manure is distributed most efficiently by a manure spreader.

After crops have begun to grow, a cultivator is used to destroy weeds and loosen and aerate the soil. A flame weeder, which produces a hot-air blast, can be used to destroy weeds growing around crops, such as cotton, that have stems of tough bark. The weeds are vulnerable to the hot air, but the tough stems protect the crops from damage. Chemical herbicides applied in the form of a spray or as granules are used extensively for weed control.

Insecticides for pest control are applied to soil and crops in the form of granules, dust, or liquid sprays. A variety of mechanical spraying and dusting equipment is used to spread chemicals on crops and fields; the machinery may be self-powered, or drawn and powered by a tractor. Aircrafts are sometimes used to dust or spray pesticides in areas where large crops of vegetables and grain are grown.

Chemical pesticides are used in nearly all farming operations. However, increasing concern over the harmful effects which pesticides may have on the environment has led to the use of alternative forms of pest control. For example, farmers use crop rotation. Certain pests are controlled by introducing an organism that kills them. Some crops are being genetically engineered to be more resistant to pests.

IMPLEMENTS FOR HARVESTING CROPS

Most cereal crops are harvested by using a combine. It removes the fruiting heads, beats off the grain kernels, and cleans the grain. The cleaned grain is accumulated in a grain tank.

Wheat and other cereal crops are harvested by a combine which picks the ears from the stalks and husks them. The ears are then transferred to a sheller, which removes the kernels from the ear.

Hay harvesting usually requires several steps. First, the hay is cut close to the ground with a mower. After drying in the sun, most hay is baled. A machine called, a field chopper cuts down green hay for use as animal feed. The hay is stored in a silo.

Specialized machinery is also used to harvest large root crops such as potatoes and sugar beet and to harvest fruits and vegetables. Some mechanical fruit-pickers that are used to harvest tree fruits, such as plums, cherries, and apricots, shake the fruit tree, causing the fruit to fall on to a raised catching frame that surrounds the tree. Nut crops can also be harvested in this manner.

Биолого – технологический факультет

I СЕМЕСТР

POULTRY FARMING AND OTHER BRANCHES OF ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Poultry-farming constitutes a distinct branch of animal husbandry and there are many farms specially going in for the breeding of domestic fowl. Hens, geese, ducks and turkeys are bred here. The modern method of hatching chicks is not so much letting the hen brood on the eggs, but mostly to use incubators, which proves far more efficient. Feeding hoppers have also become regular poultry-farm practice, finding much the same application as in stock-sheds, piggeries, etc.

Poultry is partly bred for meat, down and feathers, but, above all, for eggs.

Eggs represent a cheap source of high quality protein for human consumption. The modern poultry industry producing eggs includes the use of specially bred birds, highly specialised feeds together with new housing and management techniques.

Efficient chicken production is one of the cheapest and most economical means of producing highly nutritious tender lean meat. Over the past decade improvements in performance and efficiency have been substantial.

The stock available to the chicken industry is selected particularly for high growth rate and survival capacity. They are further characterized by their attractive carcass conformation and a high meat-bone ratio.

For efficient control and economy in operation everything is fully integrated so that the activities of chicken breeding units, hatcheries, chicken (meat) producing units and processing stations are maintained in effective balance.

In addition, the feeding stuff requirement of an industry with a defined volume of output can be accurately planned on a long term basis.

To-day well-managed egg farms consistently achieve very high outputs.

A modern poultry farm comprises the following sections:

1) breeding units where the chicks are bred; 2) hatcheries where day-old pullets are obtained; 3) broiler production and rearing units, or 4) egg-laying units for laying hens; 5) stations for the disposal of breeders at the end of the laying cycle. Attached to the whole installation, there must also be a feeding stuff compounding mill for preparing the feed which, besides grain, proteins and vitamins, may also contain poultry offals.

The correct implementation of a proper technique enables layers to be kept all the year round, thus ensuring an even supply of eggs at all times. Also by keeping the birds in an environment conducive to the efficient utilization of the layer food, the bird is allowed more nearly to reach its genetic potential.

Some other branches of animal husbandry are: reindeer- breeding, rabbit-breeding, camel-breeding and, of course, horse-breeding at studs, though the use of horses and other types of draft cattle is being to a certain extent discontinued, tractors doing most of the work on the fields.

Not quite of secondary importance is apiculture, since, besides yielding honey and wax, it also contributes to pollination.

FISHING

Britain is one of Europe's most important fishing nations. The fishing industry provides about 70 per cent of British fish supplies, and is an important source of employment and income in a number of ports (Hull, Grimsby, Milford Haven, Aberdeen, etc.). Cod accounted for 32 per cent of the total value of fish landed, while haddock (20 per cent), mackerel (10 per cent) and plaice (7 per cent) were the other most important sources of earnings to the industry.

Some 73 per cent of the British catch is taken by the 7,100 vessels of the inshore fleet employing a variety of catching methods. The deep-sea fleet, comprising 245 larger vessels, has been reduced in number as fishing opportunities and the

profitability of operations in distant waters have declined.

Since 1977 Britain's fishery limits have extended to 200 miles. Member states of the European Community have the right to fish up to Britain's 12-mile limit (some community countries may also fish in certain areas of Britain's 6-to 12-mile zone). With the extension of fishery limits to 200 miles, new arrangements became necessary to control Community fishing in the greatly extended area. Britain has a particularly strong interest in such control, since a sizeable proportion of the total catch within the 200-mile limits of member states is taken in British waters, while the loss of fishing opportunities in distant waters (such as Iceland) has reduced the British industry's total catch more than that of other Community states. As a result, Britain is looking for adequate access arrangements and a fair share of the quotas proposed for the fish stocks around its coasts and in other countries' waters.

MAMMALS

A mammal is an endothermic, "warm-blooded", animal whose body is "heated from inside" and stays much the same temperature, no matter how hot or cold the surroundings.

When a mammal's body breaks down food and oxygen in order to build new tissue and to supply energy, heat is produced. Hair, which grows out of the mammal's skin, and fat, which lies under it, help insulate the mammal's body against heat loss.

If the mammal becomes too hot, it cools itself by sleeking down its hair, sweating, panting or moving to a cool place. If the mammal becomes too cold, goosebumps pull its hair erect, it shivers to make extra body heat, and moves to a warmer place.

Monotremes have a normal body temperature of 30°C Marsupials average 35°C, while human body temperature is normally 37°C.

Desert mammals often have big ears and rangy bodies. The large skin area loses heat fast.

Mammals which live in cold places have compact bodies and thick fur. Insulating fat beneath their skins can be used by the body as a food source in very cold weather.

Some animals, like small bats and echidnas, survive cold by going into a short-term resting state called torpor, or a longer "sleep" called hibernation.

SYSTEM OF MATING

The principle of mating the animals is to evolve outstanding and improved types of animals which can render better service to man. The art of mating the animals implies the proper application of principles of heredity for the animal improvement. System of mating can be classified into inbreeding and outbreeding, depending on genetic relationship of the individuals or on phenotypic resemblance of the individuals in order to obtain better type of animals in the next generation.

Inbreeding is a mating system in which individuals mated are more closely related than the average of their breed or population concerned. It means the mating of males and females which are related. Animals seemed to be related only when they have one or more ancestors in common in the first 4 to 6 generations of their pedigree. The intensity of inbreeding depends upon the degree of relationship. Close inbreeding denotes mating of closely related individuals like Dam to Son or Sire to Daughter or Full Brother to Full Sister.

Effects of inbreeding: By this system of inbreeding, the percentage of gene pairs are increasingly made homozygous and the percentage of gene pairs are decreasingly made heterozygous in the population.

Inbreeding is utilized as a tool in livestock breeding to form distinct lines or families within a breed and also it is widely utilized to develop inbred lines that can be used for crossing purposes to exploit hybrid vigor. Yet another use of inbreeding is to uncover deleterious genes in animals used as sires. The usual practice is to mate the sire to 25 or 35 of its own daughter and if none of the resulting progenies exhibit recessive deleterious traits the sire is enrolled for use in the breeding programs.

SHEEP

After cattle-rearing sheep-breeding ranks perhaps first among the various pursuits of pastoral

farming. Sheep are ruminants and while they are fond of concentrated feeds they must also have such feeds as grass and hay. They like leguminous plants too.

The male sheep is known as the ram. The female sheep is called a ewe, and the little sheep are known as lambs.

Sheep are mainly bred for their meat (mutton) and for the wool they yield. There are accordingly two main types of sheep-breeding: for wool and for mutton. There is also a medium breed: the wool-mutton breed. But after all sheep are of course most valued for their wool. The annual clip (that is the quantity of wool sheared) of wool is a major factor in the economy of many countries. The best sheep are fine-fleece. Every effort is made in the USSR to breed new and better strains: fine-fleece, semi-fine fleece and long staple. This is carried out mainly by cross-breeding. Sheep also yield milk out of which a special kind of cheese is made and mutton which contains a high percent of fats and proteins. Flocks graze not only on well established pasturages, but also even on semi-desert or dry grazing land.

What is remarkable about the next branch of animal husbandry – hog-breeding – is that it quickly yields returns. The production cycle of hogs (or swine) is much shorter than that of cattle or sheep. Another significant feature of hog-breeding is (just as dairy farming) that it gives a vast range of food stuffs derived from pork. Among them are: bacon, lard, ham, sausage, tinned (canned) pork. At the same time hog skins are sent to tanneries while hog-bristles find a vast sphere of application, down to the manufacture of toothbrushes. Even the offals of swine are used, for instance, in sausage-making.

Hogs are omnivorous. However, unlike other domestic animals the pig has a small stomach and requires its food in concentrated form. Pigs grow more rapidly than any other class of farm animals in relation to their weight. The daily ration of a pig should be composed of feeds with a definite proportion of carbohydrates, proteins, vitamins and minerals.

The male pig is called a hog and the female pig a sow, the small piglets are often called just pigs. The fattening of pigs should, within reasonable limits, be begun from an early stage. As soon as the litter of newly-farrowed pigs is weaned (from the sow), they should be properly fed on a balanced ration.

II CEMENTP

MILKING CYCLE OF COWS

Milk is a source of nutrients and immunological protection for the young cow. The gestation period for the female cow is 9 months. Shortly before calving, milk is secreted into the udder in preparation for the new born. At parturition, fluid from the mammary gland known as colostrum is secreted. This yellowish coloured, salty liquid has very high serum protein content and provides antibodies to help protect the newborn until its own immune system is established. Within 72 hours, the composition of colostrum returns to that of fresh milk, allowing to be used in the food supply.

The period of lactation, or milk production, then continues for an average of 305 days, producing as much as 9000 or more kg of milk. This is quite a large amount considering the calf only needs about 1000 kg for growth.

Within the lactation, the highest yield is 2-3 months post-parturition, yielding 40-50 L/day. Within the milking lifetime, a cow reaches a peak in production about her third lactation, but can be kept in production for 5-6 lactations if the yield is still good.

About 1-2 months after calving, the cow begins to come into heat again. She is usually inseminated about 3 months after calving so as to come into a yearly calving cycle. Heifers are normally first inseminated at 15 months so she's 2 when the first calf is born. About 60 days before the next calving, the cow is dried off. There is no milking during this stage for two reasons: milk has tapered off because of maternal needs of the fetus; udder needs time to prepare for the next milking cycle.

BREEDS OF POULTRY

Breeds had become grouped according to area of origin — American, Asiatic, British, French, and Italian — and they were divided into varieties characterized by a particular color or color pattern or comb type.

The interest in poultry was almost exclusively in achieving perfection of show specimens. Little attention was paid to productivity in eggs or meat.

The breeds which currently dominate world production of eggs and meat were developed during this period. Leghorns arrived in the United States between 1828 and 1831 and many importations followed. They were imported to England at a later date but had become popular by 1876. They represented the indigenous stock of Tuscany and took their name from the port city of Leghorn (Livorno). Coloring was not uniform at first, but fanciers soon had isolated a large number of varieties. Only the Single Comb White Leghorn remains in commercial use as the exclusive layer of white-shelled eggs. Brown - shelled eggs currently are derived from crosses involving several minor breeds, all of which were developed after 1850 as a dual purpose (eggs and meat) stock. Banded Plymouth Rock, Rhode Island Red and New Hampshire were all developed in the United States.

Present-day broilers are based heavily on a cross of Cornish with White Plymouth Rock. The Cornish was developed in England from Asiatic fighting stock; the white variety is unrelated to the original Dark Cornish, White Plymouth Rocks were derived as sports of the original breed in the United States ,

A ROMANOV RAM

Romanov is a breed of domestic sheep originating from the Upper Volga region in Russia. These domestic sheep got the name Romanov from the town of the same name. These sheep first got noticed in the 18th century. Soon after that they were imported into Germany and then into France. In the year of 1980, 14 ewes and 4 rams were brought by the Canadian government and were quarantined for 5 years. After the testing, some of the Romanov breeds were brought into the United States. So, nowadays the distribution of this unique breed is worldwide. This breed is raised primarily for meat.

These sheep are adapted to the cold inland climate and local feeding. Romanovs are one of the Northern European short-tailed sheep breeds. They are pure black when they are born, but as they grow older the color quickly changes to gray. The average weight of a male Romanov is 55-80 kilograms and the average weight of a female is 40-50 kilograms.

By 3-4 months old, Romanovs are sexually mature and will start breeding any month of the year. The ewe can produce quads, quintuplets, and even sometimes sextuplets. Romanov ewes tend to lamb in litters, unlike other sheep who give single or twin births. British and North American breeds of domesticated sheep are genetically different because the Romanov breed is a 'pure gene', not a 'cross'. But, they are often crossed with more popular breeds.

Romanov wool is very strong. The wool is double coated with mean diameter of wool fibers of 20.9 micrometers and 71.9 micrometers of outer-coat hair (lamb wool). Mean greasy fleece weight is around 4.5 kilograms. The wool, which is a mixture of gray wool and black guard hair, is usually used for rugs, mats, and wall hangings.

POLECAT-MINK HYBRID

A Polecat-Mink Hybrid, also known as khonorik by fanciers, is a hybrid between a European polecat and a European mink. Such hybridization is very rare in the wild, and typically only occurs where European mink are declining. The two species likely began hybridizing during the early 20th century, when northern Europe underwent a warm climatic period which coincided with an expansion of the range of the polecat into the mink's habitat.

Polecat-mink hybrids have a poorly defined facial mask; have yellow fur on the ears, grey-yellow underfur and long, dark brown guard hairs. They are fairly large, with males attaining the peak sizes known for European polecats (weighing 1,120-1,746 g and measuring 41-47 cm in length) and

females being much larger than female European minks (weighing 742 g and measuring 37 cm in length). The majority of polecat-mink hybrids have skulls bearing greater similarities to those of polecats than to minks. Hybrids can swim well like minks and burrow for food like polecats. They are very difficult to tame and breed, as males are sterile, though females are fertile. The first captive polecat-mink hybrid was created in 1978 by Soviet zoologist Dr. Dmitry Ternovsky of Novosibirsk. Originally bred for their fur (which was more valuable than that of either parent species), the breeding of these hybrids declined as European mink populations decreased. Studies on the behavioral ecology of free ranging polecat-mink hybrids in the upper reaches of the Lovat River indicate that hybrids will stray from aquatic habitats more readily than pure minks, and will tolerate both parent species entering their territories. During the summer period, the diet of wild polecat-mink hybrids is more similar to that of the mink than to the polecat, as they feed predominantly on frogs. During the winter, their diet overlaps more with that of the polecat, and they will eat a larger proportion of rodents than in the summer, although they still rely heavily on frogs and rarely scavenge for food from ungulate carcasses as the polecat does.

VITAMINS IN POULTRY NUTRITION

Vitamins play a very important part in poultry nutrition. The discovery of vitamins has been of practical importance to poultry keepers, as it is now possible to rear chicks at any time of the year regardless of climatic conditions and to keep laying hens in strict confinement without apparent loss of health and vitality. This has led to a complete reorganization of the poultry industry, based on the earlier hatching of chicks and the year around confinement of laying hens.

Vitamins of vitamin-forming substances are complex, organic compounds consisting of various combinations and proportions of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen and nitrogen, and possibly other elements. They are necessary for health, maintenance, growth, egg production and hatchability. A dozen or more vitamins are recognized for poultry.

Vitamin A is essential in poultry rations, not only for growth, production, reproduction and efficient feed utilization, but also for optimum vision and for maintaining the integrity of the mucous membrane. Vitamin A is found only in animal tissue, where it is stored largely in the liver.

Vitamin D is required by poultry for the proper metabolism of calcium and phosphorus in the formation of the normal bony skeleton, hard beaks, claws and strong egg shells. A deficiency of vitamin D, therefore, results in rickets. One of the primary actions of vitamin D appears to be concerned with increasing the absorption of calcium.

Vitamin E deficiency produces encephalomalacia, exudative diathesis and muscular dystrophy in chicks. It is also required for normal embryonic development in chickens, turkeys and ducks. Prolonged vitamin E deficiency produces testicular degeneration and lack of fertility in male chickens.

Vitamin K is required for the synthesis with the body of prothrombin, which is an important of the blood-clotting mechanism.

III CEMECTP

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Animal husbandry or pastoral farming is no less important than field husbandry. It comprises cattle-breeding; sheep-rearing and hog-growing, to say nothing of some minor branches, as poultry-breeding, rabbit-breeding, apiculture, etc.

Cattle can be roughly subdivided into draft cattle which has almost everywhere been replaced by various types of agricultural machinery; dairy cattle which provides dairy products (milk, butter, cream, cheese, etc.), beef cattle and dual purpose cattle.

The measure of merit of cattle is dependent upon the breed. The herds cannot be improved without the use of sires from pedigree stock.

Cattle-breeding on a scientific scale is not only aimed at improving the breed, but also at increasing the head of cattle; in stock-raising areas the herds are usually very big and the more heifers and calves are to be seen on the grazing lands, or in the corrals, the better the cattle-rearing farm is run.

One of the principal problems cattle-breeding faces is that of fodder or feeds. To choose the necessary feeds, rich enough in protein and other nutrient substances is not an easy thing.

As is well known, hay stands out as the main provender, but special crops are also grown for feeding cattle. They are mainly mangle, various leguminous plants, such as alfalfa, cow-peas, etc. Clover takes a vital part, while oilcake left over after the extraction of oil from linseed, cotton-seed and other varieties of oil-bearing seeds ranks particularly high in protein content. Most farms — both those going in for diversified (mixed) farming and those that specialize in stock-breeding — have ensilage towers where silo or ensilage is obtained through fermentation and stored. Ensilage is recognized to be an excellent feed by most cattle-breeders.

As a general rule, dairy products are processed on the farm. In the creamery milk is skimmed and churned into butter, while some part is turned into cream or sour cream. The production of cheese and canned milk is mostly effected at cheese factories and condenseries. After the bulk of the fat is removed from the milk, whey remains. It is still useful as a feed for domestic animals and also can be used for making curds.

Beef cattle is mostly sent to the slaughter-houses on hoof. Big meatpacking plants after the slaughter of cattle are engaged in curing, smoking, corning and especially canning the meat. Mechanization is implemented on a large scale in cattle-breeding. Particular significance belongs to it in feeding and milking. Automatic bunks (gravity belt, rationing feeder, etc.) are gradually being introduced.

EGG HANDLING IN THE HATCHERY.

To prevent sweating of hatching eggs while they are being trayed for incubation, the combination traying and holding area should be maintained at a temperature of 65 to 75 degrees F, while the humidity should be at 75%.

Since a substantial number of eggs can be cracked and broken, especially when the Tray-dex-type machine is used, Turk offered the following recommendations:

1. Handle trays carefully with one hand underneath the tray for support. Do not twist or bind the trays in any way when placing in the rack, setting and lowering.
2. Move racks at all times with tender loving care.
3. Move racks from cooler area to setters.
4. Use care in moving racks into setters so as not to bump or jar. With Chickmaster and other type machine that set trays in racks, use care in setting that trays are not bumped or dropped. Be sure that air hoses are connected, and that turning controls are on after eggs have been set.
5. Lower eggs with care where this is necessary in some type incubators.
6. Always check machine regularly for operation problems, such as temperature, moisture, turning and, in general, the balance of the machine.
7. Transfer eggs with care but with speed. We find that it is generally better to transfer eggs at 18 1/2 to 19 days, just when the first pip egg begins to appear. Hatchers should be clean and operating at the proper temperature and moisture during and after transfer. Be sure power is on and that fans are operating. Some hatcheries use a transfer cradle to an advantage in lowering egg breakage. They are also beneficial where one man has to do the transferring.
8. Check hatchers hourly for operation.
9. Do not allow chicks to stay in the machines after dry, because they will dehydrate. Do not pull chicks green. Adjust settings as needed. Always consider age of flock, age of eggs, season of year, setting and distance eggs are hauled.

EGGS that are inedible for humans under the federal egg products inspection act can be combined with whey, a cheese manufacturing byproduct that is often wasted, for feeding veal calves.

The egg-whey mix resulted in just as satisfactory gains as a commercial milk replacer when fed to veal calves.

Eggs were combined with whey, obtained from cottage cheese processing, at a ratio of one to four. Selenium, to correct a white muscle problem in earlier experiments, and an antioxidant were added. The mixture was pasteurized at 195 degrees F. for 30 minutes with constant agitation. The purpose of the high temperature was to destroy the enzyme avidin, which inhibits biotin.

The mixture was cooled and kept under refrigeration. When it was fed, it was warmed to body temperature and emulsifiable fat was added at 0, 11/2 and 3% levels. Vitamins and antibiotics were also added. A commercial veal milk replacer was reconstituted to contain approximately 10.5% solids, the same as the egg-whey mix.

All calves were started on their respective rations at a rate of 4% of their body weight fed twice daily. The rate of feeding was increased about every four days until they were receiving 71/2% of their weight twice daily.

Those calves on the egg-whey mix with 11/2% fat gained as well as those on the commercial milk replacer and better than those on the egg-whey mix with either no fat or 3% fat.

AQUACULTURE

Aquaculture, also known as aquafarming, is the farming of aquatic organisms such as fish, crustaceans, molluscs and aquatic plants. Aquaculture involves cultivating freshwater and saltwater populations under controlled conditions. Mariculture refers to aquaculture practiced in marine environments.

Particular kinds of aquaculture include fish farming, shrimp farming, oyster farming, algaculture (such as seaweed farming), and the cultivation of ornamental fish. Particular methods include aquaponics, which integrates fish farming and plant farming.

Fish farming

The farming of fish is the most common form of aquaculture. It involves raising fish commercially in tanks, ponds, or ocean enclosures, usually for food. A facility, which releases juvenile fish into the wild for recreational fishing or supplementing a species' natural numbers, is generally referred to as a fish hatchery. Fish species raised by fish farms include salmon, big eye tuna, carp, tilapia, catfish and cod.

Shrimp farm

Commercial shrimp farming began in the 1970s. About 75% of farmed shrimp is produced in Asia, in particular in China and Thailand. The other 25% is produced mainly in Latin America, where Brazil is the largest producer. Thailand is the largest exporter.

Shrimp farming has changed from its traditional, small-scale form in Southeast Asia in 1970s into a global industry which due to applied high technologies can produce more than 1,800,000 tonnes of shrimps and ship them worldwide. All farmed shrimp are of the family Penaeidae. And just two species of shrimp, the Pacific white shrimp and the giant tiger prawn, account for about 80% of all farmed shrimp. By reason of increasing ecological problems, repeated disease outbreaks, which result in decimation of shrimp populations across entire regions, in 1999 governments, industry representatives, and environmental organizations initiated a program aimed at developing and promoting more sustainable farming practices.

Oyster farming

Oyster farm or oyster bed is a place, especially on the sea bed, where oysters breed and grow naturally or are cultivated for food or pearls. The most popular edible marine mollusk of the genus *Haliotis* for farming is abalone which has an ear-shaped shell that is perforated with a row of respiratory holes. The shells are used for ornament or decoration. Abalone farming began in the late 1950s and early 1960s in Japan and China. Since the mid-1990s, this industry has become increasingly successful. Over-fishing and poaching have reduced wild populations of abalones. So, now abalone farming is the main supplier for abalone meat.

Algae

Microalgae are also referred to as phytoplankton, microphytes, or planktonic algae and constitute the majority of cultivated algae. Macroalgae, which are commonly known as seaweed, also have many

commercial and industrial uses, but due to their size and specific requirements, they are not easily cultivated on a large scale and are most often taken in the wild.

CALCIUM & PHOSPHORUS

Calcium

99 per cent of the calcium in the organism is in the skeleton and the teeth. It is deposited in certain areas of the bone as tricalcium phosphate crystals and gives the skeleton its rigidity; this calcium is not a permanent deposit, for bone is constantly being dissolved and redeposited. Several hundred milligrams of calcium are lost each day in the feces and urine. This amount must then be replaced through the diet. A calcium deficiency due to lack of dietary calcium is very rare. Calcium deficiency usually arises due to lack of adequate vitamin D, or to excessive amounts of other minerals that prevent calcium absorption. During pregnancy and lactation the demands for calcium rise immensely. If the calcium supply of the mother is not adequate for the maintenance of her normal needs, plus those of the growing fetus, calcium still will be supplied in sufficient amounts to the fetus at the expense of the stored calcium in the skeleton of the mother. The diseases resulting from insufficient calcium for the development and maintenance of bone are rickets and osteomalacia.

Inorganic and Organic Phosphate

Inorganic phosphate is the major cation of the intracellular fluids, and this ion is of enormous importance in the formation of the energy-rich phosphate bonds. Also phosphate is able to combine reversibly with a multitude of enzyme systems and so operates in the majority of metabolic reactions within the cell. Inorganic phosphate is present in the extracellular fluids as well both in the plasma and in the interstitial fluid. This inorganic phosphate exists in the form of phosphate ions. These phosphate ions are closely involved in the maintenance of the acid-base stability of the blood.

Organic phosphate is present in the blood in the form of phospholipid and the phosphate from this compound can be liberated for bone formation.

The absorption of phosphorus from the intestine is dependent on the proper absorption of calcium, which in turn is dependent on the vitamin D concentration. This means that a deficiency of vitamin D will indirectly affect phosphorus and phosphate absorption. Excess phosphorus is excreted mainly through the kidneys. Milk and bone meal are particularly rich in phosphorus, but phosphorus is also widely distributed in both vegetable and animal foods.

FEEDING PULLETS.

FEEDING growing pullets and laying hens during a protein shortage and high ingredient prices has special challenges. The poultryman desires an economical ration, but a formula should not be cheapened to the detriment of productivity.

A question often asked is, «How far can I lower protein and other high-priced ingredients to lower feed costs?»

Although lowering protein is a consideration, there are some basics that should be reviewed before drastic changes are made in a ration merely to lower costs.

First, a bird eats basically to satisfy energy requirements. Therefore, high energy feed results in lower feed consumption, and a low energy (high fiber) feed results in increased feed consumption. For a bird to obtain an adequate amount of nutrients (protein, vitamins, minerals), the correct amounts must be contained in the quantity of feed consumed. Thus, a dense feed (one that has high energy) must contain a higher percentage of basic nutrients to adjust for lower consumption.

Recognize her protein needs!

The second consideration is the actual protein needs of the bird. There are three uses for protein: (1) Body maintenance to repair and replace body tissue; (2) body growth, since as a pullet adds more body weight, it adds fleshing; (3) numbers and size of eggs.

A young layer (between 20 and 30 weeks of age) is still growing and increasing her egg numbers and egg size. Thus, her needs for nutrients are more critical than a mature hen in lower production and not gaining weight. Feed formulation should be adjusted based on the age and job the flock is doing.

It must be emphasized that whenever the total nutrient intake is below that of actual need, something will suffer. Even small deficiency is harmful

A small deficiency to show up may be a reduction in body weight while the next to suffer may be egg size. Finally, if nutrient intake is significantly below the plateau of requirements, egg numbers will be reduced.

The most serious period for nutrient deficiencies is during the critical period of 20 to 40 weeks of age. Any subnormal intake will greatly affect peaking as well as the normal increase in egg size and body weight. Recommendations:

1. Feed a quality ration and avoid known sources of inferior ingredients.
2. Maintain accurate feed consumption records by individual flocks on a weekly basis.
3. Provide proper nutrient intake needed for each flock by adjusting the protein based on consumption. Whether a flock can go below 3.3 pounds per 100 birds per day (15 grams) must be based on individual flock situations and whether the feed has an adequate balance of all nutrients, especially amino acids. Trial rations could be fed with sufficient checks to pick up possible body weight, egg weight, body condition, or production changes.
4. Although culling has not been practiced in recent years, the lower feed consumption may pay the labor of pulling out the nonlaying birds if they can be sold conveniently and at a satisfactory price.
5. Although some research indicates that limit feeding saves feed, it demands extremely close attention and management know-how. Feeder space is a key factor. An over-crowded cage will not have as uniform consumption per bird as one with more optimum conditions (especially feeder space). Limit feeding should be approached with caution.
6. Controlling feed wastage is still a great challenge to management, but wastage must be kept to a minimum, especially during high feed prices.

IV CEMECTP

HINTS FOR POULTRY BREEDERS

Breeding is the most important part of poultry farming, for by good breeding not only the farm, but the whole industry benefits. The wastage in poultry meat and eggs, not only from poor stock but by bad management, is enormous, many people taking it for granted that losses of 40 percent to 50 percent from birth to maturity are normal, and that egg production may be expected to cease altogether in March, April and May. By careful handling and selective breeding, however, this can be overcome.

Strict Culling. The first essential is perfect health and the feeding of a balanced ration. No egg that is less than 2 oz., and is not of sound shell and perfectly shaped, should go into the incubator. No chick that is under-weight, or deformed in any way, should go into the brooder house.

No pullet that does not reach the required body weight before coming into lay, or that does not lay before six months of age, or that does not lay a 2 oz. egg within 30 days of starting, or has any physical defect of any kind, should ever be allowed to become a breeder. No pullet under a year old should be used for breeding.

No cockerel that does not come up to standard at any time before maturity should be allowed to head a breeding pen, for all his faults may be reproduced by hundreds in only one season.

Breeding Points. Here are some points that can be bred into your stock: (1) Longevity, in life and laying; (2) early maturity; (3) good feathering; (4) body size; (5) winter egg production; (6) good fertility; (7) disease resistance. All must be assisted by good farm management.

Here are things that can be bred out: poor health, unproductiveness, small eggs, poor shells, broodiness, blindness, any deformity or colour defect and loss of body weight.

It may take many years to build up a good, sound flock and the introduction of new blood to the stock is one of the greatest problems, and must be done gradually, when it has been proved suitable to individual requirements; for quite different stock is required for egg production and for table

poultry, unless you have an all purpose-breed. By special pen matings, it is possible to keep direct blood lines clear for many years.

Trap-nesting. Trap-nesting, full pedigreeing and single pen matings require an immense amount of time and book work, but are very effective in culling out many birds that do not come up to standard. The birds are handled daily when being let out of their trap nests, and the eggs weighed and recorded for the whole year; only the bird that passes all the tests, laying over 200 eggs and keeping her body weight and breed characteristics, goes through to the special breeding pen.

A great deal can be done by monthly handling and culling if all the birds are number ringed, and records are kept as to which birds are in lay, or are broody, moulting, going light, etc. Any bird that does not lay in the winter months does not go into the special cockerel breeding pen. This method helps to keep the farm free of all "passengers", as they can be immediately culled if out of lay for any lengthy period.

A properly run breeding farm is a specialist's job and is a paying proposition, but it needs constant observation and hard labour. It requires much more capital and knowledge than either table poultry or commercial egg farming.

GOATS: THEIR PRODUCTIVITY AND POTENTIAL

Goats are multi-purpose animals, producing meat, milk, hair and skins. Meat production is especially important in most countries in south-east Asia, and also in Ghana, Nigeria, the Caribbean, Venezuela and Mexico. Often there is a preference for goat meat and the demand far exceeds the supply. As a result, the price of goat meat is often higher than that of other meats. Goat meat can readily be substituted for mutton as fresh meat. In the south-western United States, on the other hand, it is important in sausage manufacture because of its superiority over mutton in terms of firmness and dryness. In Texas, over 90% of goat meat processed is used for sausage manufacture.

Milk is also important and is used fresh or in the making of yoghurt, butter various types of cheese. In Greece, about 61% of the milk produced from goat used to make cheese, 28% is drunk fresh, and 11% is used to make yoghurt and butter. In Iraq, as much as 58% of the total milk production is contributed by goats. In Mexico goat's milk is used to produce various kinds of candy.

Common goat hair comes mainly from tropical Asia and the Middle East, but it is also important in Africa and Argentina. On the other hand, mohair from Angora goats and cashmere (pashmina) are speciality fibres of high price per unit weight. Turkey and the United States produce together about 85% of the world's commercial mohair. Fineness is the most important characteristic of good mohair, and mohair from kids is the most costly. Cashmere fibres reach the world markets mainly through China and India. Goat hair is used in the manufacture of felts, velours, cords, carpets and brushes, and is also used for making fishing lures and ropes.

Goat skins are a very useful by-product and form a significant export trade from India, Pakistan and from several African countries, notably Morocco, Somalia, Uganda and Nigeria. Skins and hides earn over one million rupees per annum for India. The skin from the Maradi or Red Sokoto goat in Niger is the most valuable of all goat skins.

The rearing of goats provides a small but nevertheless significant supply of animal protein of high biological value in the form of meat and milk plus essential minerals and fat-soluble vitamins. Goats provide a ready source of meat and milk for poor people in rural areas. This is especially important for pregnant and nursing mothers and for children.

Maximum productivity from goats is dependent on exploiting as fully as possible the important identifiable production characteristics. The tropics as a whole is an important reservoir of well adapted and varied goat breeds. Partly through lack of controlled breeding and selection, and partly due to their short generation interval, goats have evolved as a wide variety of genotypes suited to different physical and nutritional environments. Today, a number of nondescript types or breeds exist which are inadequately described and assessed in terms of their productive potential.

It is estimated that there are about 300 breeds and types of goats, the majority in the tropics.

With efficient management these tropical breeds, together with those evolved in temperate regions,

could make a greater contribution in the future. Extending their value will require an evaluation of comparative performance, both of the pure breeds and of the crossbreds, under specific environmental conditions. A reduction in the number of breeds in general use is desirable to allow for the more extensive use of chosen improved breeds. On the other hand, the breeds not used in selection should be maintained to act as a reservoir of genetic variation.

Controlled management of goats implies correct husbandry practices such as provision of fencing and appropriate grazing management to prevent overgrazing and to control numbers.

REEF BUILDERS

Corals belong to the same class of polyps as the sea anemone. A coral attaches itself to a rock or sand. There is a mouth at the top of the polyp which has special tubes to suck in water, plankton and small fish. Some green plants live inside the coral and help to get oxygen.

The warm seawater is full of calcium needed by a polyp for growing its cup. The soft-bodied polyp sits in this hard cup which it builds around itself from calcium. The cup or the skeleton needs much calcium and sunlight. Only in the waters near the equator there is enough calcium for the reef-builders.

Reef-building corals live in groups or colonies. Their bright-coloured tubes are always turned toward the sunlight. When the tiny polyps die, their skeletons remain. Other corals attach themselves to hard shells and later on also die.

A mass of dead coral rises about three feet high in 1,000 years. As thousands of years pass, the mass of coral sinks, or sometimes the water level rises. The skeletons of some corals may pile up and appear above the water. Wind and waves make them not so high and sharp. Blocks of corals are broken off and crushed by storms. Some time later the islands of atolls get into a sandy beach.

SHARKS

There are about 300 species of sharks, from the 60cm Pygmy shark to the enormous White shark. They are found in all the seas of the world, but are most common in warm waters.

Tiger shark. Weighing about 1,000 kilos and about 5 metres long, this is an extremely aggressive shark. It has a square narrow head, rounded teeth, and a striped body. It lives in tropical seas and likes shallow water. It is therefore very dangerous for swimmers.

Whale shark. The largest shark - and the largest of all fish - the whale shark grows up to 15 metres long and weighs up to 20 tonnes. It is grey with light yellowish marks on its body. Despite large size it is harmless to people, and feeds on small organisms.

White shark. This is the most powerful and most aggressive of all sharks. It can grow up to 6 meters and weigh 3 tonnes. It has big, triangular teeth, a dark grey back and a dirty white underside. It prefers the open sea, living in tropical or temperate waters, but may come inshore at times.

Hammerhead shark. Easily recognizable by its flattened, T-shaped head, the hammerhead grows to 5 metres in length and can weigh up to 400 kilos. It prefers tropical waters, has an aggressive character and can be dangerous.

PROTEINS AND MINERALS

Nutritionally, proteins are important for growth, reproduction, lactation and optimum health. Protein is the main component of the soft tissues of the body; it is the structural constituent of the cells making up these parts and is vitally important in many biochemical substances, such as hormones, enzymes, immune bodies and blood. Proteins are also of considerable importance in the resistance to the recovery from various diseases. In a deficiency, for example, the capacity to fabricate antibody protein is low; the production of leukocytes and lymphocytes is decreased, and the bone marrow and lymphoid tissues depleted.

Hormones are proteins that regulate body organs and their functions, enzymes digest food for further use in the body, immune bodies are their principal bacterial and viral defenders of the body; hemoglobin carries the oxygen to the cells so that they have energy; leukocytes and lymphocytes kill

and digest bacteria and other foreign substances in the blood.

Minerals are inorganic elements. Organic compounds, which contain carbon (such as carbohydrates, fat, protein and vitamins), will burn. Minerals become a part of skeletal structure, but also play essential role in digestion and in metabolism inside body cells. Calcium, phosphorus, magnesium, fluorine, and certain other mineral elements are integral part of the bone structure and of teeth. Approximately 99 percent of the calcium and 80 percent of the phosphorus present in the animal body are contained in the skeleton. When the need arises, calcium and other minerals can be mobilized from the skeleton and used for other body functions. Examples are the removal of calcium for milk production after a heifer or cow calves.

ВЕТЕРИНАРНЫЙ ФАКУЛЬТЕТ

I СЕМЕСТР

THE DIVERSITY OF ORGANISMS

Scientists recognize thousands of different types of living things. Organisms have lived on earth for more than three billion years. Variation and selection operating during these past years may account for the evolution of great variety of existing species

The diversity of organisms is one of the most striking features of the biotic world. It can be expressed in a number of different ways: diversity by morphological difference (or difference in external form), by anatomical differences (or differences in internal structure), diversity extending on the microscopic level to differences of tissue structure and beyond that to cytological differences on the cellular level. Or diversity may be expressed physiologically in the way in which organs operate, or biochemically in the chemical mechanisms operating within the organism. Diversity also extends to means of reproduction. Perhaps, most extreme of all is the diversity in size of individuals of various species the California redwood is about 10,000,000,060 times larger than the virus particle. Between these extremes may be found plants and animals of different intermediate size and weight.

All life must have originated from a very few, perhaps even one self-duplicating nucleic acid molecule in the primeval seas. Then the reasons for this vast diversity of living forms constitute one of the major problems of biology, namely the evolution of life forms. Many biologists tried to organize their knowledge of living things in some logical and coherent way. In early biological writings we find little direct reference to any scheme of classification as such.

The best biological writing of classical times was that of Aristotle. His work was remarkable for its time. Despite many incorrect statements it contained an enormous body of facts, many of them are based on direct observation and experiment uncommon in Greek science.

The medieval period made little progress in the classification of animals. However, medieval naturalists made good progress in Botany. Many late medieval books on plants are as scientifically objective as any made in the twentieth century.

A proper system of naming was well stated by the great Swedish biologist Carl von Linne, better known under the latinized form of his name, Carlous Linnaeus, who established the system of naming and classification from which our modern system is descended.

It is an enormous task to classify and describe scientifically the millions of species of plants and animals. Usually the scientists concerned with classification give every organism two Latin names not to confuse the organisms. The first is the name of the genus, and the second is the name of the species.

The name of the genus is written with a capital letter, and that of the species, with a small one. Por instance, the domestic cat has the scientific name - Felis catus. That is the species «catus» of the genus «Felis». The lion, the tiger and the jaguar are all species of the genus Felis. The lion is called Felis leo, the tiger - Felis tigris. As an example from the plant world, the orange, the lemon, the grapefruit and the tangerine are all different species of the genus Citrus.

When distinguishing species the scientists look for the following characters and distinctions:

- (a) A visible resemblance between members of the group.
- (b) A geographical area of distribution that would lead to think that the group had a common ancestor.
- (c) That the group can interbreed and produce offspring sufficiently like themselves to be considered of the same species

ALEXANDER FLEMING

Alexander Fleming came from a Scottish family of farmers. He was born in August, 1881, the youngest of eight children. He began to go to school when he was five. His lessons came easily to him, he had a good memory and was very intelligent.

It was quite by chance that he came into contact with the man who was to affect his whole life. It was a famous bacteriologist. Fleming became interested in antibacterial medicaments.

After the army service, during which he was able to make studies of the problem of infection Fleming returned to laboratory work.

One day Fleming's assistant brought him a plate on which a colony of bacteria was growing. It was some mould (плесень).

Fleming looked at the plate again and saw that the microbes all round the mould were gone. He was a real researcher. For over fifteen years he was solving that problem. He understood the importance of what had happened and began to study it. He put some of the mould on other plates and grew more colonies of it. Then he discovered that this new product killed microbes. He named it Penicillin. Fleming was finding out more and more about penicillin. He found that the mould began to produce penicillin on the fifth day.

Fleming's dream was to find a new method for producing penicillin. At last his dream came true. A new product was tried on different bacteria. The researchers tried it on animals and had good results. Penicillin had not yet been used on man. Then one day in 1942 Fleming made his own first experiment. His friend was very ill. After several injections his life was saved.

Later on during World War II this medicine saved a great many lives. It was a great triumph. In 1945 he was given the Nobel Prize for Medicine.

He died on the 11th of March 1955 in London and was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral.

CHARLES DARWIN'S EVOLUTIONARY THEORY

Charles Darwin occupies in biology a position comparable to that of Newton in physics. His name is associated with the idea of organic evolution. He was the first to show in a convincing way that evolutionary theory was the only hypothesis of the origin of species fully consistent with the biological evidence.

The great English naturalist and thinker, Charles Darwin, was born on February 12, 1809. Darwin's father was a successful country physician. His grandfather, Erasmus Darwin, was a philosopher of some reputation. His mother was the daughter of a famous pottery designer.

Darwin's school and university career was completely undistinguished. He studied medicine at the University of Edinburgh and general arts at Cambridge, but the only subject for which he had any real passion was natural history. He spent much time out in the field, hunting or collecting insects and plants and observing living things.

In spring 1831 he took his degree at Oxford and was offered the position of a naturalist on board the ship «Beagle». In December 1831 he set off on an expedition to South America and adjoining islands. Darwin came back to England on October 2, 1836, almost five years from the day of departure. On his return Darwin published his «Journal of Researches», a day by day account of his trip and the observations he made. In 1859 Darwin published his famous book «The Origin of Species» which was followed by «The Descent of Man» in 1871.

The genius of Darwin lay in not only accumulating evidence that objectively established the fact of evolution, but in deducing in the observed facts of nature a mechanism of evolutionary change from species less adapted to species more adapted to a particular environment. Darwin referred to this evolutionary mechanism as natural selection. Although many details of its operation were discovered after Darwin's death, it remains the basis of modern concepts of evolution.

In Darwin's days nothing was known of the laws of heredity. Darwin was aware that amongst plants and animals there was variation, and this variation was in part inheritable. The inheritance of some new variation could therefore lead in almost any direction. Darwin discovered that the direction of evolution is towards the better adaptation of the organism to the available environment. According to Darwin, man's success in «adapting» certain plants and animals for his own purposes was based on deliberate selection of certain variations.

Darwin's theory of evolution and natural selection has been regarded for a long time as a great scientific discovery.

II семестр

ANIMAL HEALTH

If you own one or more animals, you are concerned with their health and welfare. Your personal commitment and knowledge of the basics — good housing, nutrition, sanitation and preventive medicine — are the most important first steps.

Housing is important to provide animals protection from the elements¹ and predators. Basic nutrition needs remain the same for all animals — energy foods, protein, vitamins, minerals and lots of clean fresh water. Clean cages, barns, aquariums and other animal facilities are important for preventing the entry of disease. Grooming is a good preventive tool — to keep animals clean and free of external parasites. Preventive medicine is the final link in the circle of good animal health and includes vaccinations and internal and external parasite control.

Animal health means more than taking the necessary care, and calling the veterinarian when an animal is ill or injured. There are three important areas of responsibility. First, your responsibility, as owner or caretaker. Second, the responsibility of the veterinarian. And finally, the Government has a distinct and important role in assuring the health of animals.

You, as the owner or caretaker, have the most immediate responsibility. There's an old saying, "The eye of the master fattens the calf," which is to say that you are the one who best can provide the feed, water, shelter, sanitation and health care for your animal.

But at some point, you need to call in the expert — your veterinarian. The veterinary practitioner is the animal health professional. This expert is able to diagnose and treat diseases that threaten your animals. Veterinarians are not there just to help when things go wrong. They can help make sure that things don't go wrong.

They also have another responsibility: reporting certain disease to the Government, either because they are of public health significance, or because they are regulated under Government animal health programmes. The Government is to prevent, control and eradicate several types of diseases. These include animal disease that can be transmitted to man, such as rabies, brucellosis (undulant fever), psittacosis (parrot fever), and tuberculosis. And finally, there are potentially catastrophic foreign diseases that could wreck our domestic livestock and poultry industries.

HEALTH AND THE HORSE

Horses are tough creatures, but like any animal they can fall ill or be injured. A healthy pony or horse is alert, bright eyed and takes a keen interest in all that goes on around it. Ribs and hip bones should not be prominent, and the quarters should be well-rounded. The base of the ears should be warm to the touch.

Signs of illness vary, but there are some general symptoms which can give warning of trouble to come. A field-kept pony which stays for a long time in one place, a horse which goes off its food, a willing horse which suddenly becomes "nappy" — all these signs are indications that something is wrong. Other symptoms include: discharge from the eyes or nostrils; stumbling for no apparent reason; restlessness; dullness of eye or general lack of interest; sweating; kicking or biting at the flank; lameness; diarrhea; apparent difficulty in breathing; coughing.

It is essential, therefore, to have a reliable vet, and to call him without hesitation. Nevertheless, all horse owners should have a practical knowledge of first aid, and a first aid kit is an essential part of any stable. A typical basic kit should contain: gamgee tissue, roll of cotton wool, antiseptic, methylated spirit, glycerin, Stockholm tar, petroleum jelly, sponge, worm paste, round-ended surgical scissors, thermometer, assorted bandages, sulphonamide powder and specific for colic.

Lameness is the commonest form of disability in the horse. Treating most forms of it is usually best left to an expert.

Wounds and injuries are another common problem. First bring the bleeding under control applying a

pressure bandage. Clip the hair from the skin around the wound and clean it thoroughly. Then coat with an anti-biotic powder and dress.

Like humans, horses can easily catch skin diseases, particularly in unhygienic conditions. Skin diseases include lice, ringworm, sweet itch, mud fever, pustular dermatitis, and nettle rash.

Teeth and stomach can both give the horse problems. Both demand serious attention.

ANIMAL MAGIC

A kind of treatment designed to stimulate people who are withdrawn or uncommunicative has recently been given a new name: pet therapy. It has given difficult children, lonely old people and even anti-social prisoners a completely new outlook on life.

Even though pet therapy is only now being widely used, it is not a new idea. In the 18th century an English doctor William Tuke filled the grounds of a hospital for mentally disturbed people with chickens, rabbits and goats. Tuke's idea was that patients could learn self-control by caring for creatures weaker than themselves.

Later on, in New York, horses, cows, cats and dogs were recruited to heal soldiers who had been wounded during World War II. These animals comforted the traumatised and helped them to avoid becoming obsessed with their injuries.

During the 1970's, scientific interest was rekindled by a study that had originally set out to examine the connection between social conditions and heart disease. Quite by chance, researchers discovered that the survival rate of people who owned a pet was significantly greater than those who didn't. At last, they came to the conclusion that people with pets really were living longer.

It was discovered that stroking a cat or dog lowers a human being's blood pressure and reduces anxiety. Just having an animal around you can lower your heart rate. Cats and dogs aren't the only pets that can help you to relax either. A dental school in America has discovered that gazing at fish in a tank helps patients relax before undergoing dental treatment.

But what aspect of the animal-human relationship is the cause of such benefits? One recent study revealed that there were significantly fewer minor illnesses such as colds, backaches and stomach problems among adults after they had acquired a pet. "There is no real explanation, however, for why animals can change people in various ways."

FEEDING STUFFS. BUILDINGS FOR LIVESTOCK

Compounded feeds are a blend of components. Supplies of fats, proteins and carbohydrates are in composts or compounded feeds, as a general rule, mixed in the necessary proportions.

A better understanding of the role of what might be called the "minor nutrients" or feed elements used in insignificant quantities is also an outstanding development, notably in the case of young ruminants, pigs and the various categories of poultry.

Feeds for domestic animals must not only contain the necessary ingredients but must also be diversified; they must likewise be well prepared mechanically, so that the nutritive material should be well assimilated. Feeds should have good palatability and digestibility. That is the reason why a modern farm of necessity includes a special department for "cooking" feed stuffs. Feeds may be rough or coarse (hay, straw), succulent or juicy (ensilage, mangle, potatoes) and concentrated. Very frequently feeds are mixed. This is why the equipment of the fodder department is most diversified. Thus, for crushing coarse or concentrated feeds universal crushers or ensilage cutters are used.

Succulent feeds are prepared in a more complex way. Potatoes and mangle are first of all washed in a root-tuber-washer and next cut into slices. The washed and cut potatoes or other semi-prepared feeds are next boiled in a steam-heated silage-maker. The steamed root and tuber-crops are then fed into a masher, whence they come out as ready prepared fodder. Cattle, as a rule, drink much water. Here again mechanization renders great help through the provision of automatic drinking bowls. The animal has only to lower its head, a pedal is worked and water is released into the bowl through a spring.

Farm-buildings for livestock comprise cowstalls, sheep-houses, hoghouses and poultry houses,

hatcheries and chicken breeding units along with rabbit hutches. To begin with buildings for stock-rearing. In warm countries cowstalls are replaced by loose-housing sites with separate feeding area and resting area. The pens here are movable. The milk-house or dairy adjoins the grounds as does the feed-processing division.

But perhaps more frequently stall barns are effective practice. A stall barn is a building for housing cows, bulls, heifers and calves. The barn is divided into a division with cowstalls, a feed alley for supplying fodder, mangers with automatic drains to let away the wash water from the mangers, a milking parlour, then straw chutes which run down for providing litter, a special calfpenn and a feed room connected with the silo.

A hoghouse or piggery also has a number of sections: fattening, farrowing, feed-processing, etc.

The pig, because of its lack of external covering, is very poorly adapted to withstand extremes of climate. It is thus absolutely vital to provide housing which eliminates the effects of the vagaries of climate and to define environment with considerable precision.

Materials used in the construction of piggeries must be such as to permit of the application of sanitation procedures. They must also possess good insulation properties.

Building layout must permit the individual feeding of sows during gestation. Suckling sows will naturally be housed individually and the farrowing section must be provided with a farrowing crate to prevent overlaying of new born piglets by the dam, and a creep section which can be fitted with feeding and supplementary heating arrangements for the sucklers.

As agriculture has moved towards more intensive production the function of farm-buildings for housing livestock has changed from the provision of temporary shelter to permanent housing wherein the climate can be controlled, or the air conditioned. This will enable animals to thrive and fulfil their purpose with maximum efficiency and the health of stock maintained at a high level.

There is a definite connection between environment and health. Adverse conditions or a sudden violent change of environment may predispose to disease.

As a rule, the new born animal is poorly equipped to withstand any great changes in environmental conditions, being ill-adapted to intense cold, dampness and draught. Gradually however, they develop body mechanisms which will enable them to withstand an increasingly wide range of environmental conditions.

III семестр

WOUNDS AND TRAUMATA

Wounds of the skin and underlying tissues are common problems in both large and small animal practice, are frequently infected, and must therefore heal by granulation. This process is often impaired by movement, irritation, infection, necrosis, poor circulation and even the inflammatory process itself. The latter, with its traditional cardinal signs, reflects the mobilization of the body's defences necessary for ultimate resolution. The associated pain, swelling, and interference with function may, however, have adverse effects.

The therapeutic regimen, in addition to specific surgical procedures, should manipulate such target-areas as etiologic factors, including those secondary to the initial insult, the mediators of inflammation, the non-specific inflammatory process, and reparative process. Such a regimen can well necessitate a 'therapeutic cocktail'. During the last several years work has been conducted on various antiinflammatory (steroidal and non-steroidal) drugs, dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO) and antihistamines. This pharmacological polyglot, along with the complexity of inflammation has created a need to clarify a confusing interaction and to justify the logic of utilizing such drugs either alone or in combination.

MASTITIS

We think that the cow of the future will be taller than in the past. The taller cow will have an udder higher off the ground and less chance to injury. To produce higher yields year after year, our cows

must have the high dairy capacity and strength.

In order to maintain maximum levels of production, it is necessary to supplement a dairy cow with large quantities of grain and concentrates. Though some cows have lived 17 years or more, the average cow is culled or dies between five and six years of age. Each year, 20% of the animals more than two years old are culled or lost from the milking herd because of low production, infertility, mastitis and so on.

Mastitis is an inflammation of the udder, caused either by infection or udder stress on the delicate mammary tissues, or a combination of both. In most areas, it is common to practice to conduct routine tests for mastitis. Udders or individual quarters of the udder infected with bacteria are treated with certain antibiotics that are effective in eliminating the bacteria.

It is becoming evident that the most important factors controlling mastitis are proper milking equipment and good milking practices. Most cows are now milked by machine. To avoid abnormal stress on the mammary tissues, it is important to operate milking machines in accordance with the recommendation of the manufacturer and to keep equipment in proper operating condition.

TUBERCULOSIS

Tuberculosis, MTB, or TB (short for tubercle bacillus) is a common and in many cases lethal infectious disease caused by various strains of mycobacteria, usually *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*.

This is a chronic contagious disease of man and animals. Of the latter cattle, hogs, and poultry are the commonly affected ones. Man, poultry, and the remaining groups of commonly affected animals are each most easily infected by their own specific bacillus of tuberculosis (*Mycobacterium tuberculosis*). Thus the human, avian, and mammalian strains are recognized. There is, however, inter communicability of the germ so that man may also contract the cattle infection; swine the cattle, human and avian infection. Infection takes place by the consumption of tuberculosis germ contaminated liquid and solid food, and by breathing germ laden air. Thus calves may get the disease by drinking milk from tuberculosis cows.

Tuberculosis can be carried by mammals; domesticated species, such as cats and dogs, are generally free of tuberculosis, but wild animals may be carriers. For instance, it was found that cattle herd bovine TB infection at one of the farms in New Zealand was caused by Australian brush-tailed possums which had come into contact with domestic livestock at farm-bush borders. Another example is that in Ireland and the United Kingdom, badgers have been identified as one vector species for the transmission of bovine tuberculosis.

The symptoms of tuberculosis in animals vary greatly, depending upon the infected organ or organs. If the disease is in the lungs there may be a cough; in the intestines; chronic diarrhea; in the brain, nervous symptoms; in the udder swellings; in the joints, and testicles, enlargement; and if the disease is of very long standing there is usually evidence of unthrifty animals. An autopsy shows that evidence of TB presence in infected animals is in most instances found in the lymphatic glands.

A very important point is that infected animals may show no outward signs of the disease, many of them seem to be perfectly healthy. A diagnosis of tuberculosis in infected animals may be established by the inoculation method, and by a reaction to a tuberculin test.

Vaccination against tuberculosis of man and animals has been tried, and it appears to be in a measure successful in man; but in animals this has not been practical or reliable.

TEN ORGAN SYSTEMS IN ANIMALS

Ten organ systems are commonly recognized in animals.

The digestive system is composed of such organs as the esophagus, stomach, small intestine, large intestine, pancreas, and liver. All of these organs function together, primarily through the action of digestive enzymes, to break down food particles into molecules that are small enough to be absorbed into the blood stream.

The circulatory system is composed of the heart, the blood vessels, blood, the lymphatic vessels, and lymph. This system transports materials from one part of the body to another. The circulatory system

also transports hormones and has a role in the regulation of body temperature and in protecting the body against disease.

The respiratory system is composed of the lungs and the related air passages (the nasal cavity, the pharynx, the trachea, and the bronchial tubes). The function of this system is twofold: 1) to supply all of the cells within the body with the oxygen they need to carry on respiration, and 2) to remove the carbon dioxide and some of the water that is a waste product of respiration. In some animals, other organs of respiration have evolved. For example, fish possess gills, insects have a series of tubules through which air flows, and a number of organisms, particularly the more primitive ones, carry on an oxygen-carbon dioxide exchange through the body surface.

The excretory system provides the body with a means of ridding itself of metabolic waste materials. The primary excretory organs are the kidneys, lungs, skin, and liver.

The skeletal system is composed of varying amounts of bone and cartilage, depending upon the group of animals in question. The skeletal system provides a supporting framework for the body, a system of joints, and places of attachment for skeletal muscles. In the vertebrates, this system also serves to protect such organs as the brain, the spinal cord, and the organs contained within the rib cage. The marrow tissue within the cavities of long bones and ribs is the source of red blood cells and certain kinds of white blood cells.

The muscular system involves all of the muscle tissues within the body. The contraction of these tissues, whether voluntary or involuntary, is a response to a nerve impulse.

The nervous system is composed of the brain, the spinal cord, all the peripheral nerves, and the sensory parts of those organs concerned with receiving stimuli from the external or internal environment. Not only does the nervous system receive the stimuli and conduct the nerve impulses that cause an organism to respond, but it also integrates and coordinates the various body parts in accordance with the information received in the form of stimuli. In higher animals, this system permits the processes which we term intelligence - thought, reasoning, and memory.

The reproductive system has as its sole function the perpetuation of the species through the production of new organisms. The organs involved include the gonads (the testes and ovaries) with their various associated ducts and glands. The asexual methods of reproduction characteristic of primitive forms do not involve reproductive organs.

The endocrine system consists of the ductless glands, the glands which produce chemical regulators called hormones. Hormones are highly specific in their effects. The thyroid, pituitary, and adrenal glands are examples of organs which compose this system.

The integumentary system is composed of the skin and the specialized structures, such as hair, scales, feathers and nails, which develop from it. Although the primary purpose of this system is protection, such functions as respiration, excretion, the reception of stimuli, and the production of secretions are also sometimes carried out by the integument.

INFECTION

The term infection may be defined as the entrance, growth and multiplication of organisms in the body, resulting in the development of a disease process.

Incubation Period

The incubation period of a disease may be defined as the interval of time between the entrance of a disease organism into a host and the first appearance of symptoms.

Endemic, Epidemic, Pandemic Diseases

An endemic disease may be defined as one that occurs constantly among the population of a community. An epidemic disease is one in which a large number of cases develop in a community within a short time. A pandemic disease is an epidemic disease of wide distribution. The widespread occurrence of a disease may be at first epidemic and then become pandemic, spreading over the entire world.

Pathogenicity

A pathogenic organism is one capable of producing a disease. Thousands of bacterial species have

been isolated but only a few of these are capable of producing disease in man. Some are pathogenic for man but not for animals. Conversely, some species produce disease in animals but fail to do so in man.

Virulence

Virulence may be defined as the degree of invasiveness of a pathogenic organism. Different strains of the same species may great variability in their invasive powers. As a rule, a pathogenic organism decreases in virulence when transferred from its natural environmental to artificial culture media.

Number of Organisms

The number of organisms plays a very important part in determining whether or not an infection will occur. A small number of virulent pathogenic organisms may be easily attacked and destroyed, whereas a large number may not be completely eliminated by the defense mechanisms of the host.

Path of Infection

Bacteria gain entrance to the body in various ways. Some enter through the broken skin (occasionally through the unbroken skin), some by way of the respiratory passages, others by way of alimentary tract. After bacteria invade the tissues, they may attack the host in a variety of ways. The organism may produce a local inflammation or may localize in the liver, bone marrow, spleen, lymph glands, etc., giving rise to secondary abscesses or secondary foci of infection, also known as metastatic infections. Sometimes organisms invade the blood stream producing bacteriemia or septicemia (blood poisoning).

IV CEMECTP

GENETICS AND HEREDITY

Modern genetics began to develop very rapidly in the second decade of the 20th century though the foundation of it was laid by Gregor Mendel between 1857 and 1865. Since that time geneticists in all parts of the world have cooperated in establishing the chromosome theory of heredity.

Usually the chromosomes of a given species are individually distinguishable, and exactly the same set appears at mitosis in all cells of the individual and of the species.

The chromosome number varies in different organisms from 2 to 200 or more, but usually it is below 50 (man has 46). Not only the number of chromosomes but also the size and shape of each chromosome remain constant.

Each chromosome carries a specific group of hereditary determinants - the genes. These carry coded instructions by means of which each cell is enabled to fulfil the destinies of its own particular lineage. Chromosomes contain DNA, RNA and protein, and these constitute the genetic material of the cell.

There are two chromosomes concerned in sex determination and they are not completely homologous. The male carries two chromosomes for sex called X and Y. The female carries two X chromosomes.

The factor that determines whether the offspring shall be male or female is the presence of a Y or an X chromosome in the male gamete.

Some knowledge of the substances concerned in transmission of hereditary factors has been gained in the last 40 years. We know that a gene is very small. Experiments have shown that there are about 10 000 genes carried on the chromosomes of *Drosophila*, commonly called the fruit fly. The search for human genes has only begun. The estimated number of genes in human DNA is 100 000. Each gene is found in the nucleus of every one of the human body's 100 trillion cells with the exception of red blood cells, which have no nuclei. And each gene is responsible for the manufacture of a particular protein that contributes to either the structure or the functioning of the body. Fewer than 2000 genes have been assigned to approximate location on chromosomes.

Armed with the ability to cut, splice and transplant genetic material, scientists set to work deciphering the estimated 100000 genes tucked into the nucleus of virtually every human cell. Collectively, genes comprise the complete set of chemical instructions for making a human body.

Each gene codes for the production of a single polypeptide (a protein component). Thousands of proteins give the human body function and form.

If the gene is defective, protein synthesis will be faulty and a deformity or genetic disease will result. More than 4000 inherited disorders are due to single-gene defects. Many more are thought to be influenced by multiple genes or by a combination of genes and environment. Locating a specific disease-associated gene on one of 46 chromosomes - the genetic material inherited in equal parts from each parent - gives researchers the basis for a diagnostic test. With gene in hand, it may also be possible to identify the protein for which it codes, – a giant step toward understanding the disease and developing treatment for it.

GENE

Gene. A gene is a unit of heredity in a living organism. It normally resides on a stretch of DNA that codes for a type of protein or for an RNA chain that has a function in the organism. All living things depend on genes, as they specify all proteins and functional RNA chains. Genes hold the information to build and maintain an organism's cells and pass genetic traits to offspring, although some organelles (e.g. mitochondria) are self-replicating and are not coded for by the organism's DNA. All organisms have many genes corresponding to many different biological traits, some of which are immediately visible, such as eye color or number of limbs, and some of which are not, such as blood type or increased risk for specific diseases, or the thousands of basic biochemical processes that comprise life.

A modern working definition of a gene is "a locatable region of genomic sequence, corresponding to a unit of inheritance, which is associated with regulatory regions, transcribed regions, and or other functional sequence regions". Colloquial usage of the term gene (e.g. "good genes", "hair color gene") may actually refer to an allele: a gene is the basic instruction, a sequence of nucleic acid (DNA or, in the case of certain viruses RNA), while an allele is one variant of that gene. In most cases, all people would have a gene for the trait in question, but certain people will have a specific allele of that gene, which results in the trait variant. In the simplest case, the phenotypic variation observed may be caused by a single letter of the genetic code - a single nucleotide polymorphism.

Chromosomes. The total complement of genes in an organism or cell is known as its genome, which may be stored on one or more chromosomes; the region of the chromosome at which a particular gene is located is called its locus. A chromosome consists of a single, very long DNA helix on which thousands of genes are encoded. Prokaryotes-bacteria and archaea-typically store their genomes on a single large, circular chromosome, sometimes supplemented by additional small circles of DNA called plasmids, which usually encode only a few genes and are easily transferable between individuals. For example, the genes for antibiotic resistance are usually encoded on bacterial plasmids and can be passed between individual cells, even those of different species, via horizontal gene transfer. Although some simple eukaryotes also possess plasmids with small numbers of genes, the majority of eukaryotic genes are stored on multiple linear chromosomes, which are packed within the nucleus in complex with storage proteins called histones. The manner in which DNA is stored on the histone, as well as chemical modifications of the histone itself, are regulatory mechanisms governing whether a particular region of DNA is accessible for gene expression. The ends of eukaryotic chromosomes are capped by long stretches of repetitive sequences called telomeres, which do not code for any gene product but are present to prevent degradation of coding and regulatory regions during DNA replication. The length of the telomeres tends to decrease each time the genome is replicated in preparation for cell division; the loss of telomeres has been proposed as an explanation for cellular senescence, or the loss of the ability to divide, and by extension for the aging process in organisms.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE CELL /PART I/

What we commonly think of as cells consist at least of a mass of protoplasm surrounded by a membrane and containing a nucleus, But a cell, whatever its morphological peculiarities may be, is

an integrated and continuously changing system.

In plants and animals there are many different kinds of cells with many specialized functions. The amoeba and the bacterium are among the smallest unicellular organisms. The largest single cells are the egg cells of birds. In man, a multicellular organism, there are thousands of millions of cells, and many of these are renewing themselves all the time.

The form of each cell depends on performing a particular function. Nerve cells, for example, are elongate and branched, a form that enables the cells to conduct impulses from one part of the body to another. Regardless of their shape all cells tend to become rounded into droplike spheres, as protoplasm is, essentially, a liquid system.

The nucleus of a cell, separated by a delicate nuclear membrane from the cytoplasm, is derived from a mother cell by mitosis or by meiosis. The size of the nucleus ranges from a small fraction to almost the whole cell volume. The nucleus contains most of the DNA together with other materials. The nucleus is essential to the cell for it to continue living, without it the cytoplasm soon dies.

The cytoplasm is not just a simple fluid, it is highly heterogeneous; in it are situated various structures, called organelles, such as ribosomes and mitochondria. Most, probably all, protein synthesis is believed to take place in ribosomes. The mitochondria contain phosphates and numerous enzymes which vary in different tissues; their function is cellular respiration and the release of chemical energy. In plants, of course, there are the plastids, carriers of the chlorophyll by which the energy of sunlight is made to synthesize organic compounds from carbon dioxide.

One must know that when a researcher begins to study cells he may use various techniques and methods. One of them is staining. The living cell nuclear and cytoplasmic parts are known to be transparent and colourless. When a cell is stained, the nucleus becomes plainly visible. It takes a deeper colour than the cytoplasm, thus enabling the researcher to examine the cell under the light microscope. Electron microscopes have now replaced all others as the means for discovering and studying the details of cellular structure. The electron microscope has sufficient resolution to show the protein and other molecules.

THE GENERAL CHEMISTRY OF THE CELL / PART 2 /

All the substances present in protoplasm are known to fall into two great classes: inorganic and organic substances. The most important inorganic compound in protoplasm is water. The movement of substances in or out of cells is dependent on their being dissolved in water. Water protects against extremes of temperature. Its ability to conduct heat well is useful in equalizing temperatures throughout a living body.

Organic compounds occur only in living bodies or in their products or remains. The element carbon (C) is present in all organic compounds. Organic compounds are somewhat unique since the atoms of carbon can occur as chains or join to form rings. The organic compounds are known to be divided into three main classes -the carbohydrates, the lipids and the proteins. Proteins are all-important structural components in every cell amounting to 15% in protoplasm. A protein is built of sequences of amino acids linked together by means of peptide bonds to form a chain. Each amino acid is composed of the carboxyl group (-COOH) and the amino acid group (-NH₂), attached to the carbon atom next to the carboxyl group. The general formula is R.CH(NH₂)COOH where R is a variable grouping of atoms.

Every organism maintains a supply of amino acids in a definite proportion of the 20 common and 2 rare amino acids, peculiar to each species of organism. The particular properties of the protein depend upon the order in which the 20 amino acids are arranged' and repeated in the chain. One of the simplest of the proteins is insulin. Its molecule contains 51 amino acids representing 15 different kinds.

Finally, there are the instructional or information-carrying molecules in cells, nucleic acids. These are composed of five main nitrogen-containing purine and pyrimidine bases, ADENINE (A), GUANINE (G), CYTOSINE (C), THYMINE (T) and URACIL (U), combined with phosphoric acid and ribose or the related deoxyribose. They make up the giant molecules¹ of DNA

(deoxyribonucleic acid) and RNA (ribonucleic acid) which are responsible for arranging the amino acids in proper sequences in the proteins.

Whereas the units of a protein are amino acids, the units of a nucleic acid are nucleotides. On the basis of results of X-ray crystallography on DNA, James Watson and Francis Crick proposed in 1953 their now-famous model, which shows DNA as composed of two strands. Usually two strands are coiled round each other in the form of a double spiral, with the strands connected to each other through a pair of bases. The bases can only be paired in two ways. Adenine pairs with thymine or uracil, and cytosine pairs with guanine.

DNA is found only in the chromosomes of plants and animals and the corresponding structures in bacteria and viruses. RNA is found in the nuclei, the ribosomes and the cytoplasm of all cells of all organisms. A single strand of RNA produced from a length of DNA (a cistron) by the enzyme transcriptase is called messenger RNA (mRNA). A molecule of mRNA contains the genetic code to be translated into a particular polypeptide molecule. The sequence of amino acids in a protein is determined by the sequence of the nucleotides in a molecule of messenger RNA.

Enormous advances have been made in the last twenty years in giving precise chemical knowledge on these matters. We expect the researchers to make new discoveries in the structure and chemistry of the cell.

WHAT SHAPES A CREATURE'S LIFE COURSE AND BEHAVIOR?

More than 130 years ago, Charles Darwin laid out his elegant and then shocking theory that it was natural selection, the survival of individuals most suited to the environment, that molded species over evolutionary time. But until very recently, Darwin's ideas remained unproved. Now, for the first time, studies in the wild are rigorously demonstrating the particulars of how evolution works.

Last month, David Reznick, an evolutionary ecologist at the University of California at Riverside, published the results of an 11-year experiment involving guppies living in the Aripo River of Trinidad. The experiment proved that predators are among the principal forces driving the evolution of species, just as predicted by a mathematical model that modern biologists had formulated to refine Darwin's theme.

According to the model, animals that are preyed on as adults will evolve to produce as many babies as they can, as early in life as possible. «If your chances of dying young are good, then having babies yearly is important», says Reznick. However, the earlier a species reproduces, the sooner it burns out, so to speak, and the shorter its life span. Conversely, whose juveniles bear the brunt of predatory attacks tend to have their young later in life, in effect choosing to bear hardier offspring over a longer adult life.

The experiment that Reznick devised, along with his colleagues, was delightfully uncomplicated. The researchers tested the mathematical model simply moving 200 guppies from the base of a 20-foot waterfall in the Aripo River, where predatory fish eat only adult guppies, to the top of the waterfall. There, the single predator is a killfish, a species that devours only young guppies.

After 60 generations, the experimental guppies had evolved in their new environment just as the model predicted. The fish now reach sexual maturity nine days later when they first give birth. What's more, they have fewer offspring in their first brood, apparently saving themselves for future breeding opportunities.

Reznick's is only one of several recent studies verifying Darwin's grand theory in nature. In others, for instance, parasites are proving to be an even more potent agent of evolutionary change than predators. Marlene Zuk, a colleague of Reznick's at Riverside, recently completed a study demonstrating that parasites affect how female jungle fowl, the wild ancestors of, barnyard chickens, choose their mates. She found that rematode parasite, which lives in the gut, renders the eye and comb of the male fowl dull and consequently unattractive to females. The females prefer instead cocks bright of eye and comb, who will bestow their offspring with genes that will make them resistant to parasites.

Darwin's theory is finally being put to the test, as it is coming through with flying colors.

Факультет государственного и муниципального управления

I СЕМЕСТР

SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy; the official head of state is the monarch (at present Elizabeth II), whose powers are limited by the constitution. The United Kingdom constitution is not embodied in a single document, but is the result of a long process of growth. The constitution is a set of rules, many of which are customs or 'conventions' (unwritten rules) that have come to be accepted through the fact of being observed though they have no defined authority. Acts of Parliament (also called 'laws' or 'statutes') have defined some aspects of the constitutional system. The system is flexible and can be altered by Act of Parliament, or by general agreement to create, change or abolish a convention.

The organs of government are clearly distinguishable although their functions often overlap. Parliament is the supreme legislative body and is the supreme authority in the United Kingdom.

The executive consists of:

- a) the Government — Cabinet and other ministers who are responsible for introducing and directing national policy;
- b) government departments, which are responsible for national administration;
- c) local authorities, which administer and manage many local services;
- d) public corporations responsible for the operation of particular nationalized industries or, for example, of a social or cultural service, subject to ministerial control in varying degrees.

GOVERNMENT

Her Majesty's Government is the body of ministers responsible for the administration of national affairs.

The Prime Minister

The Prime Minister is appointed by the Queen, and all other ministers are appointed by the Queen on the recommendation of the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister is normally the leader of the party which secured a majority in the House of Commons as the result of a general election. The Prime Minister is also, by tradition, First Lord of the Treasury and Minister for Civil Service. The head of the government became known as the Prime Minister during the eighteenth century. Although Sir Robert Walpole is generally recognized as the first Prime Minister, Sir Robert Peel (1834 — 35 and 1841 — 46) was probably the first minister to find himself in a position closely resembling that of a modern Prime Minister.

The Prime Minister's unique position of authority derives from majority support in Parliament and from the power to choose ministers and to obtain their resignation or dismissal individually. By modern convention, the Prime Minister always sits in the House of Commons. He is assisted by other ministers, all of whom are collectively responsible for the Government's administration.

The word 'minister' is used in a general sense, yet today all ministers who are chiefs of departments carry the title 'Secretary of State'. There were fifteen in 1978, but the head of the department of Agriculture was the only one with the title 'minister'. Some chiefs of departments still have out-moded titles, such as 'Chancellor of the Exchequer' who is in charge of the Department of finance and 'Lord Chancellor', the head of the Justice Department.

MONARCHY

The full royal title of the Queen is: Her Most Excellent Majesty Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her Other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith.

The Queen is only a formal ruler: she reigns but does not rule. In actual fact everything that she does

is done on the advice of her ministers, who are responsible for the royal acts. Thus, most of the functions of the Queen are purely of a symbolic nature. In law, she is head of the executive, head of the judiciary, the commander-in-chief of all armed forces of the Crown and the 'supreme governor' of the established Church of England. The United Kingdom is governed by Her Majesty's Government in the name of the Queen. However, it would be wrong to underestimate the role of the monarchy in Britain.

There are still important acts of government which require the participation of the Queen. These include summoning, proroguing (discontinuing until the next session without dissolution) and dissolving Parliament; giving royal consent to Bills, passed by both Houses of Parliament; appointing every important office holder, including government ministers, judges, officers of the armed forces, diplomats and bishops; conferring peerages, knighthoods and other honours; and remitting all or part of the penalty imposed on a person convicted of a crime. An important function is appointing the Prime Minister and by convention the Queen invites the leader of the political party which commands a majority in the House of Commons to form a government.

Today acts involving the use of 'royal prerogative' powers are now performed by government ministers who are responsible to Parliament and can be questioned about a particular policy. Parliament has the power to restrict or abolish a prerogative right.

The Queen retains an important attribute of power—information. She sees all Cabinet papers, reads dispatches and correspondence, and the Prime Minister keeps her well informed about political events and Cabinet secrets. In the words of Walter Bagehot, the monarch has 'the right to be consulted, the right to encourage, and the right to warn'.

The social influence of the palace is great. The royal family is the principal aristocratic house in Britain, closely connected with other members of the hereditary aristocracy, and with vast areas of land in England and Scotland, as well as valuable city property in London, including Regent's Park, parts of Pall Mall, Piccadilly, Holborn and Kensington.

The Queen's residence in London is Buckingham Palace; her other homes are Windsor, Sandringham and Balmoral Castle in Scotland.

CABINET AND CIVIL SERVICE

The Cabinet

The Cabinet is the executive organ of government. It is a body of senior ministers, most of which are heads of departments. Each new Prime Minister may make changes in the size of his Cabinet and may create new ministries and make other changes. There are usually about twenty-five members of the Cabinet. It is the most important body in the British system of government since it is the Cabinet which formulates the policy of the government. The Cabinet and its committees work in great secrecy and no person is allowed to see Cabinet papers until they have become of historical interest.

The Cabinet is constitutionally responsible to Parliament and can be forced to resign by an adverse vote on a major issue. However, in practice the Cabinet dominates Parliament. As the Liberal statesman Lloyd George said: 'Parliament has no control over the Executive: it is pure fiction.' The Cabinet frequently takes major decisions of policy without giving Parliament the opportunity to express its views until afterwards. The Government supporters are instructed to vote in favour of the Cabinet decision, if they refuse they risk losing their party's support at the next election.

Inside a big Cabinet there nearly always develops an 'inner cabinet' — the small group of ministers who are consulted by the Prime Minister beforehand and who prepare and guide important decisions. The Cabinet was originally a small body of royal advisers, a committee of the Privy Council. The name 'Cabinet' was given because they met in the monarch's private study or 'cabinet'. British government is often referred to as 'Cabinet government'.

The Cabinet meets at No 10 Downing Street, the official residence of the Prime Minister, when in London. This solid-looking, unimposing house was bequeathed to the state over 200 years ago by the eighteenth century statesman, Sir Robert Walpole. One of the rooms in the Prime Minister's house is the Cabinet room — a long white room at the back of No 10 overlooking the garden. Here at a long

curved table, the shape of an aeroplane wing, designed so that the Prime Minister can see everyone, the Executive of the British Government meets. Usually the Cabinet meets once a week, but sometimes more often.

The Civil Service

When we speak of 'the Government' we tend to think of the ministers, who are politicians. But we must not forget that each department has a large staff of professional civil servants who do most of the work of running the department on the minister's behalf. Civil servants are forbidden to give support to any political party, though they may vote.

The Civil Service falls into various classes, all administered by the Treasury, the more important being:

Administrative: Predominantly university graduates, who advise the Ministers of Department; is known as high civil servants. Most of the permanent secretaries and deputy secretaries in the departments are Oxford or Cambridge graduates. The permanent secretary is in close touch with the Minister.

Executive: Working in conjunction with the administrative class in day to day conduct of government business.

Specialist: Architects, medical experts, lawyers, surveyors, etc. They may only give expert advice, but are not able to become administrators.

The government governs and parliament legislates, and in order to do the work involved in carrying out government measures a huge apparatus of administrators exist — the civil service. This body is said to be 'impartial' and sub-ordinate to the government. Marxists do not speak of the civil service but of the state apparatus. What is involved is not simply the administration of a 'classless' policy, but government of people which is divided into hostile classes with opposed class interests and in which one class — the capitalist class — is the dominant, ruling class.

II CEMECTP

POLITICAL PARTIES

Until about 1920, two main political parties dominated the British political scene — the Conservative Party and the Liberal Party. In 1900 a workers' party was founded — the Labour Party — which replaced the Liberals, as the second main political party. The Conservative and Liberal Parties were the successors to the Tories³ and Whigs⁴ of the 18th and early nineteenth centuries.

The Conservative Party

The Conservatives are still often called by their old name of "Tories", but after 1832 the word "Conservative" was adopted to describe the successors of the Tory Party, which represented the interests of the landed aristocracy. In 1867 the Party was re-united and founded the first bourgeois party organization, the "National Union of Conservative and Constitutional Associations" (re-named in 1912 "National Union of Conservative and Unionist Associations").

The Conservative Party is the party traditionally supported by the rich and privileged; the party represents the interests of the ruling capitalist class and) day is often referred to as the party of company directors. The Conservatives are opposed to any fundamental changes in society. They are against nationalization of the means of production and uphold private enterprise and freedom from state control.

The policies adopted by the Conservative government are leading to mass unemployment and inflation. Cuts in public spending are already taking their toll in the form of hospital closures, cutbacks in the health service, substantial increases in the cost of school meals and reductions in transport services. They support everything that aims at preserving the privileged position of the upper classes. For this reason they are against the abolition of private schools and are opposed to the introduction of a complete system of secondary comprehensive schools. These policies are being enforced for and by a group of people whose lives are remote and isolated from the majority of working people but whose influence is decisive.

The deepening crisis of world capitalism has hit Britain hard and in this crisis the ruling class sees the attack on the wages of the workers and the cutting of public expenditure as the only solution. Profits reach record levels while the wages of British workers go down. This policy has led to widespread unrest amongst wide sections of the.

THE LABOUR PARTY

The Independent Labour Party (ILP) was founded in 1893 with working classes support in Lancashire, Yorkshire and Clyde (Glasgow), as well as among militant miners. The ILP won wide support for the idea of working class MPs, especially at the time of enormous increase in legal attacks on the rights of trade unions. In 1900 a joint congress of representatives of the Trades Union Congress, Independent Labour Party (ILP) and various socialist groups set up the Labour Representative Committee (LRC), from which the present-day Labour Party was founded in 1906.

The Labour Party is a reformist Socialist party, which favours gradual social reforms and partial nationalization of the basic means of production. Even today it is evident that the Labour Party was not formed as a clear-cut political Socialist party, but as an instrument of legal protection of trade union rights. It explains its non-consistent policy on the key issues throughout its history and even when in power. This is the reason why the Labour Party has suffered considerably from internal struggles of various groups, defending different attitudes from the right wing to the radical left.

Labour governments have tested out in practical mass experience the outcome of the policies of reformism. Each has collapsed in turn in face of the problems of capitalism and the class struggle.

The history of the Labour Party has unveiled from its very beginnings the deepening contradictions between the working class basis, represented by five-sixths of its membership through trade union affiliations, as well as the role of militant socialist workers in the local organizations, and on the other hand, the influential right-wing leadership, the upholders of capitalist policy.

In the past few years the Labour Party has undergone a change; there is a notable shifting to the left and a more radical approach. Local constituencies have become more involved in the everyday tasks of the Labour Party and are determined in their struggle for the implementation of socialist policies.

The Party is headed by the leader of the Parliamentary Labour Party, who is also chairman of the National Executive, the governing body within the party, which is elected at an annual conference made up of two main groups of delegates, those of the constituency parties (i.e. the local Labour Party branches throughout the country) and affiliated trade unions. The conference lays down the broad lines of party policy, but Labour MPs are not bound by these decisions. Labour MPs, in fact, decide by their own majority vote on the line which they will follow in parliamentary affairs. British people.

THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT

The two Houses of Parliament, the Lords and the Commons share the same building, the Palace of Westminster, on the left bank of the river Thames. The Palace of Westminster was the principal residence of the kings of England from the middle of the eleventh century to 1512. Now little remains of the original buildings except Westminster Hall.

Although the Lords were from the first accommodated in the Palace, the Commons had no permanent meeting place of their own until 1547, when all private chapels were abolished. The most splendid, the Royal Chapel of St Stephen within the Palace was handed over to the Commons, who assembled there until 1834, when the Palace was burnt down and the present Houses of Parliament were built. The fire destroyed the whole of the Palace of Westminster, except for Westminster Hall and the crypt of St Stephen's Chapel. The present Houses of Parliament (except for the Commons Chamber which was rebuilt after its destruction by air attack in 1941) are the work of the architect Charles Barry, who retained the old church-like design.

On approaching the Houses of Parliament the visitor is immediately struck by the great four-faced clock tower named after Sir Benjamin Hall, Commissioner of Works, when it was erected. Big Ben, 329 feet high, with minute hands 14 feet long and a bell weighting 13 1/2 tons, came into operation

in 1859. A light at the top of the clock tower, where the famous Big Ben strikes is kept on for as long as the House is sitting. The eastern facade of the Houses of Parliament facing the river is severely ecclesiastical, with twin towers at each end and rich embellishments. On the western facade, under Big Ben is New Palace Yard, where Members park their cars and the stone-mounting block reminds us of by-gone days.

The New Palace of Westminster (as it is called) contains 1,200 rooms, 2 miles of passages, 100 staircases, 13 quadrangles, 130 statues, 26 policemen and 34 doorkeepers; 251 people, including 55 cleaners are responsible for maintenance. Three-quarters of a million tourists a year pass through the building, but most of the palace is closed to the public. Inside the public entrance is the beautiful old Westminster Hall, now only a vast corridor, and beyond the Member's cloakroom, where the reconstruction after the Second World War restored the sword-tapes, side by side with the umbrella stands. The Central Lobby (the Parliamentary term for a passage or a hall) is where the Members meet their constituents. On the walls of the lobby we can follow a pictorial history, by famous artists of The Building of Britain.

From the Central Lobby, corridors lead to the House of Lords on the right and to the House of Commons on the left.

THE HOUSE OF LORDS

The House of Lords is a heterogeneous body consisting of The Lords Spiritual, i.e. the archbishops and bishops of the Church of England. There are two archbishops (the Archbishops of Canterbury and York) and twenty-four senior bishops.

The Lords Temporal, who are subdivided into: Hereditary peers, constituting the largest class — about 800 members. There are five ranks in the peerage: Dukes, Marquesses, Earls, Viscounts and Barons. All peers, whatever their rank, have the same rights in the House of Lords.

The Nine Law Lords, i.e. distinguished judges created peers for life ("life peers") to assist the House of Lords in the performance of its judicial duties as the highest court of the land.

Life peers and peeresses. The Life Peerage Act of 1958 allows a non-hereditary peerage to be granted to any man and woman, and not only to judges. This Act makes it possible to add many members to the House of Lords who will not be succeeded there by their sons.

At the beginning of 1981, there were 1,168 members of the House of Lords. However, most of these peers take little interest in the work of Parliament, and attendance in the House is on the whole very poor.

The main work of the House of Lords consists in considering the details of bills in committee and in making amendments. Some important bills proposed by the Government are not fully completed on leaving the Commons. About once a week the House holds a debate on some current issue, which is of little outside interest. In addition to its parliamentary duties, the House has important legal functions. It is the final court of appeal for civil cases in the whole of the United Kingdom, and for criminal cases in England, Wales and Northern Ireland.

THE COMMONS CHAMBER

When the new House of Commons was rebuilt after the Second World War, care was taken to preserve the essential features of its old design. The chamber like that of the Lords, is rectangular in shape. The Speaker's Chair stands at the north end, and in front of it is the Table of the House, at which the Clerk of the House sits. The benches for members (upholstered in green leather) run the length of the chamber on both sides, facing each other across a broad gangway known as the "floor of the House". The benches to the right of the Speaker are used by the Government and its supporters; those to his left are occupied by the Opposition and members of any other parties. The front bench on the Government side, known as the Treasury Bench, seats the Prime Minister and other ministers, while the front bench facing it seats the leaders of the Opposition. The whole arrangement of the House suggests concretely the two-party system.

Each chamber has galleries, parts of which are kept for the use of "strangers" (i.e. the public).

Opposite the public gallery is the Hansard and press gallery. Hansard is the stenographic record (Official Report) of the proceedings of the House. It records all words spoken in debate as well as voting of members.

A daily edition of Hansard is available, as well as a weekly edition at Her Majesty's Stationery Office, a shop where all official publications are on sale.

The nineteenth century poet, William Morris described the Chamber as, "On the one side a kind of watch committee, sitting to see that the interests of the upper classes took no hurt and on the other a sort of blind people into supposing that they had some share in the management of their own affairs".

Seating accommodation falls far short of providing a seat for all members, even though the Chamber was rebuilt in 1945. The total membership of the House is 635, but there are seats only for 370. Members do not have specially reserved seats and the Commons was purposely made too small in order to keep its club-like atmosphere. The newly-built chamber, although re-built on the lines of the old one has been considerably modernized, with up-to-date lighting, ventilation and heating. The dominant colour scheme is pale green and grey-brown.

III CEMECTP

THE FUNCTIONS OF PARLIAMENT

Parliament's main functions are law-making, authorising taxation and public expenditure and examining government policy, especially proposals for expenditure. It discusses what the Government has done, is doing and intends to do, points to Government errors and attempts to change and modify its policies.

The British Parliament is often referred to as "the Legislative" — the body which makes laws. New laws can only come into force when they have passed through Parliament. A proposal for a new law is known as a "bill". Most bills are introduced by the Government. There are about fifty bills passed each year. Every bill brought in by the Government has been approved first by the Cabinet.

Once the Government has decided to introduce a bill, it is the responsibility of one minister. The preparation of the text often takes many months, with long consultations with civil servants in the minister's department. Bills may be introduced in either House, though the most important bills are submitted to the House of Commons first. Bills dealing with money are an exception and are always introduced in the Commons by a member of the Government, usually the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

According to custom each bill must have three "readings" in the Commons. The "first reading" is, in fact, an announcement that the bill is appearing. The printed text of the bill is then published and circulated. The "second reading" is the main debate on the general principles and objectives of the bill; at the end of the debate a vote is taken. This is an occasion when members of the two main parties vote in blocks. They do as the Whips⁷ instruct them and there are few deviations. Proposals for amendments are made during this stage.

After passing the second reading the bill must go to a committee for detailed examination, in the course of which there may be proposals for amendment. The committee stage of a bill affecting the Constitution is taken in a Committee of the whole House, in the Commons Chamber, but most bills are sent to small "standing" committees. The minister in charge of a bill will always be a member of the committee. It is usual to speak of the committee amending a bill, but in fact it is really the minister who decides which amendments are to be accepted. Today, the committees are completely dominated by party discipline and the minister can always rely on his party's full support.

After the committee has finished with the bill, the next stage is called "the Report Stage". The House now summarizes the committee stage. The "third reading" is a final review and discussion of the amendments.

Next the bill must go through the same stages in the House of Lords. If the House of Lords should reject a bill passed by the Commons, the bill can go no further for a few months, but if during the

following session of Parliament the Commons pass it again, in substantially the same form as before, it must go to the Queen for her signature. The royal assent has not been refused since 1707. Besides legislation, another important function of Parliament is controlling the Government in power and scrutinizing its policies. A Member of Parliament may challenge or disagree with the policy of the Government on two occasions. Firstly, during a debate on a particular bill, when he may object to its general principles and objectives, or during the committee stage he may put forward amendments. Question time also offers a number of opportunities for discussing and criticizing Government policy. Apart from the bills proposed by the government which have been discussed, there are also private Members bills, i.e. MP's who do not hold positions in the Government. Every MP has the right to introduce a Bill, but normally only six days (always Fridays) in each session of Parliament are allowed for the second reading debates on bills put forward by members other than ministers. Usually about 15 to 20 private Members' bills are discussed each year, but not many of them become law.

PARLIAMENTARY ELECTORAL SYSTEM

For electoral purposes the United Kingdom is divided into 635 constituencies and each constituency elects one member of the House of Commons. A candidate is elected if he has a majority of votes over the next candidate and the votes cast for the other candidates are not taken into account. The size of the constituencies vary, the average being about 60,000 electors. Elections are by secret ballot. Although there is "no limit to the number of political parties, in Britain most people vote either Conservative or Labour.

On Election Day each elector must go to his particular voting station, which is open from early morning to late at night to cast his vote. On entering the polling station, an official hands him his ballot paper, and his name is recorded as having voted. On the ballot paper the names of all candidates are printed without any indication of their party allegiance. The elector takes his paper to one of the compartments or "booths", where he puts a cross against the name of the candidate for whom he wishes to vote. He then folds the paper and drops it through the slot of the ballot box. Electors who for some reason cannot attend the polling station may vote by proxy⁶.

In recent years the national election campaign, fought between the party leaders has become more and more important and less importance is attached to the local campaign. One of the best known of the local activities still in existence is "canvassing", that is, supporters of a candidate go from door to door, arguing and persuading the residents to cast their votes for the candidate they represent. Expenditure by individual candidates and their agents is limited by law, but long-term expenditure is unlimited.

The maximum legal life for a Parliament is five years. General Elections are held either when the limit for the duration of Parliament has been reached, or when the Queen, on the advice of the Prime Minister dissolves Parliament. The Prime Minister is bound to do this if his Ministry is defeated on an important issue by the vote of the House of Commons.

When it has been decided to hold a General Election, the old Parliament is dissolved and 20 clear days must elapse before the new Parliament meets. A notice, or writ, has to be sent to each constituency, where the Returning Officer makes provisions for the holding of the election. In addition, to a General Election, elections for one seat can be held in a constituency at any time should its "sitting" member resign, die, or for other reasons a vacancy should occur. This is known as a by-election.

Any British subject can be nominated as a candidate for any seat. The candidate must deposit J 150, which is forfeited if his or her votes do not exceed 12.5 per cent of those validly cast.

TRADITIONS IN THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT

The formalities connected with the British Parliament are many and these relics of bygone days have been deliberately upheld to overawe and cast a shroud of mist over the members and the public. Aneurin Sevan⁸, MP has expressed it in this way:

"The atmosphere of Parliament, its physical arrangements, its procedure, its semi-ecclesiastical ritual are all profoundly intimidating." In this peculiar feudal atmosphere it is only the most courageous of MP's who really do express the true feelings and grievances of their constituents.

Let us consider a few of the Parliamentary customs:

PARLIAMENTARY DAY BEGINS: At this time the voice of a police officer rings through the lobbies: "Hats off strangers"! A small procession then makes its way past bare-headed policemen and visitors to the Commons Chamber — the Speaker's Messenger, the Sergeant-at-Arms, the Speaker, the train of his black gown borne by a train-bearer, and lastly, the Speaker's Chaplain and Secretary. At the cry of: "Speaker in chair", echoing through the lobbies the members sit and the business of the day begins.

STATE OPENING OF PARLIAMENT: This ceremony takes place in the House of Lords, with a few of the leading members of the House of Commons standing close together at the end of the chamber opposite to the Throne, technically 'outside' the House of Lords itself. Amid great ceremony the Queen takes her place on the throne and reads out the Queen's Speech, a document prepared by the Government, in which it lays down its programme for the coming Session. From the ancient coach in which the Monarch arrives to the glittering robes and precious jewelled crown, the whole ceremony with its pageantry and glamour diverts attention from the main issues involved.

VOTING: Voting in the House of Commons is known as a Division. Every debate in the House must relate to a definite proposal, or as it is called motion. A member moves (proposes) a motion, the House debates it. At the end of every debate the Speaker puts the question whether or not to accept the motion that has been debated. If there is disagreement, warning bells ring throughout the building and cries of "Division" are heard. Members vote by passing through the corridors, called lobbies, being counted as they do so. The Aye (Yes) lobby runs down one side of the outside wall of the chamber, the No lobby down the other. Here the members are counted by fellow MP's, known as tellers (one for and one against the motion in each lobby), and the names ticked off by clerks for publication in the official report. There is a limit of six minutes for the Division, and when the votes have been counted the tellers come up to the table in the House, with the tellers for the majority on the right, and the Speaker announces the result.

The ringing of bells summons Members from all over the Palace of Westminster, many of which may not have been present at the debate and are perhaps quite ignorant of the question raised.

The Whips (Party Managers) of the parties stand outside the doors and tell the MPs how to vote. Members vote almost automatically with their Parties.

In matters of procedure of their Chamber, the Lords use different forms from those in the Commons. In their divisions, "Ayes" and "Noes" become Contents and Not Contents.

THE SPEAKER

The Chairman of the House of Commons is called a Speaker. He is not a Minister and has no voice in the deliberations of Ministers. The throning and selection of a Speaker for the House of Commons is another tradition. The first duty of the House of Commons is to elect one of its members to be the Speaker. He may belong to any party, but on election becomes non-party. He is elected by common consent of all parties and is dragged from the floor of the House forcibly by two MPs. He feigns a great show of resistance. This ceremony dates back to the period before the "Bourgeois Revolution", when the Speaker, as spokesman of the Commons, had the unpleasant task of presenting its demands to the King. His position was precarious and he was often thrown into the Tower for it, or lost his head.

In spite of his title the Speaker speaks very little. However, the tradition of "catching the Speaker's eye" before the MP can speak, gives the Speaker considerable power in limiting criticism through his choice of a 'correct' MP.

The coach in which he drives to the House on ceremonial occasions has neither brakes nor springs and is so heavy that it can only be pulled by two cart horses.

The Speaker's badge of office is the Mace, a decorated version of the iron club once carried to

protect the King's person. This lies on the table in the Chamber when the House of Commons is officially in session. When the election of the Speaker is in progress, the Mace (made in 1649, the year of Charles I's execution) lies under the table. The Serjeant-at-Arms (in older times a member of the King's bodyguard), attends the Speaker and acts as bearer of the Mace. He is attired in black cloth, with knee breeches, lace bands and ruffles and a silk cocked hat with a rosette, and a sword.

The Speaker wears a horsehair wig, black silk robe, knee breeches and buckled shoes. When he rises to his feet, any member who is standing must immediately resume his seat.

DRAWN — SWORDS: There is a space between the two sides of the House, with rows of benches on either side. In the House of Commons this space is approximately the width of two drawn swords. Formerly, the MP's when very excited, sometimes drew swords and a fight began. A rule was therefore imposed prohibiting members from crossing the space. Should an MP so much as put his foot forward he is immediately "called to order" by the Speaker and shouts of other MP's and he is obliged to apologize to the House.

BLACK ROD: The passage between the House of Commons and the House of Lords is witness to an example of feudal pageantry when the Commons and people had to have impressed upon them their subservient position in relation to the hereditary aristocracy. The King's Messenger, a servant of the Lords, under the archaic title of Black Rod, and bearing an ornamented wand of office, makes his solemn way down the long corridor in order, after much bowing, to summon the Lower House to the august presence of the Upper. The Lords then graciously give their approval to the Speaker whom the Commons have chosen to preside over them and the elected are sent back along the corridor.

TITLES: Members do not refer to each other by their names but as the Honourable Member, to Ministers, as the Right Honourable Gentleman, to the Queen's Counsel-lawyers appointed as advisers to the Crown, as the Honourable and Learned.

IV CEMECTP

DEVELOPMENT OF PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT

Parliament is held in the Palace of Westminster, on the banks of the river Thames. It was to this place that the Saxon kings summoned the Witan, or council of wise men, a body similar to the feudal Great Council. The king was more and more compelled to bargain in order to secure his demands, and it was an important occasion when the barons forced King John to set his seal to Magna Carta (the Great Charter), at Runnymede, near Windsor. June 10, 1215. For a long time the centralized power of the state represented by the king had been growing, whilst that of the barons gradually weakened. Magna Carta set out in detail the ways in which John had gone beyond his feudal rights as an overlord, and to demand an end of his unlawful practices. The king was forbidden to impose new taxes without the consent of the barons. Most important was the setting up of a permanent committee of twenty-four barons to see that John kept his promises. In fact, in an indirect way, this led to the development of Parliament as an instrument through which first the nobles, and afterwards the bourgeoisie defended their interests. Magna Carta was reaffirmed by every king from Henry III (1216—1272) to Henry VI (1422—1461).

When Henry III broke this agreement in 1258, the barons refused to grant him money. Civil war broke out in 1264. The king was defeated by Simon de Montfort, leader of the lesser barons and London merchants, at the Battle of Lewes. In 1265 de Montfort summoned to his Parliament representatives of the burgesses⁹ of the chartered towns as well-as two knights from each shire. By the end of the thirteenth century the right of Parliament to share in taxation decisions was generally accepted. This meant the end of one-man rule by the king and the development of a more collective form of government by the ruling class through their representatives in Parliament. During this period the division into two Houses of Parliament took place, meeting separately, a division which has continued over the centuries. In England during the thirteenth century the development of Parliament revealed the political activity of the citizens of the towns and consequently some limitation of royal power. With the decline -of feudalism, the position of the Commons was

strengthened as a non-feudal element.

In the fifteenth century Members of Parliament (MPs) achieved greater freedom to speak openly in the House of Commons. It would, however, be a mistake to overestimate the power of Parliament. A. L. Morton writes: "The whole period was one of transition, of a delicate balance of class forces, and Parliament became at the same time, a reflection and a battleground of these forces."

Following the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588, the bourgeoisie became conscious of its own strength and began to show its independence in Parliament. By the middle of the seventeenth century the bourgeoisie had great economic power and members of the House of Commons were often richer and more powerful than members of the House of Lords, the institution of the aristocracy.

When Charles I (1625—1649) attempted to impose taxes without the approval of Parliament, he had acted against Magna Carta and the Puritans were in the forefront of the struggle against this tyranny. The contradictions became so sharp that they resulted in open revolt of Parliament, against the king, in civil war and revolution. Parliament played a decisive role in the Bourgeois Revolution (1640—1649). "The Commons in the Long Parliament (1640) had a conscious purpose, new in English history" (A. L. Morton). Parliament was determined to make the Crown subordinate.

GOVERNMENT ON A LOCAL BASIS

The division of Britain into counties did not suddenly take the shape we know nowadays, but developed gradually over the centuries. A number of them were already in existence thirteen centuries ago. The word "county" comes from the Norman French "comte", the term applied by the Norman conquerors to the existing "shires". Many counties today, as Derbyshire, Yorkshire, Staffordshire and Nottinghamshire still have "shire" as part of their name. County administration continued after 1066 to be the responsibility of the Sheriff, but his powers were later taken over by Justices of the Peace (JPs)¹, and these by the Act of 1888, were superseded by elected councils.

Over the centuries nearly all large and medium-sized towns were given their own charters of corporation. Some were given the status of "borough"² others that of "city". The title of "city" is a mark of some special distinction bestowed on the town. In the 1880s large towns (with more than 50,000 inhabitants) were given independent status for local government as "county boroughs", and until 1974, a borough council was a separate entity, the only authority for its area and quite separate from the geographical county in which it was situated. Outside the big towns the county councils were responsible for large scale services, other services were performed by the lesser authorities. They were of three types: non-county boroughs (sometimes called municipal boroughs) that is, towns which had been granted the status of "borough" or city in the past, but were not given independent status; secondly, urban districts, which were small towns which had never been granted charters of incorporation, and lastly, the rural districts, whose councils held only minor functions.

Over the years the towns spread and the suburbs reached beyond the planned administrative units. Many rural districts included large built-up areas. The greatest problem was presented by the large industrial conurbations, i.e. an extensive urban area resulting from the expansion of several cities or towns so that they merge but retain their separate identities.

In 1974 the map of Britain was redrawn. New counties have been created — Avon, Cumbria, the Western Isles (Scotland), there are altogether nine in all, made up of areas taken from the old counties, but many of the old names are still to be seen on the map. In some cases the boundaries have been changed, and counties with sparse populations have sometimes been joined together. Avon in the south-west of England is a new county which includes the City of Bath, as well as parts of Somerset and Gloucestershire. The City of Bristol with a population of 425,000 persons is now a district of the county of Avon.

Local Administration

The administration of public affairs in each locality by an elected body has been part of the administrative system of the United Kingdom for centuries, but its present shape dates from the late nineteenth century, when the system was incorporated in statute law. Parliament controls local authorities and they can exercise only those powers which Parliament confers on them. The

Department of the Environment is responsible for the general direction of the organization of local authorities, other ministries being responsible for specific services. More than two million people are employed by local authorities, the central government employing only one-third as many.

TYPES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The new system of local government for England was introduced in 1974 on the basis of the Local Government Act of 1972. The main pattern in England and Wales (outside the Greater London area) is a division of the country into 53 large county authorities, within which there are 369 smaller district authorities. Both types of authority have their own locally elected councils and have separate functions to perform. The county councils are responsible for major services, as town and country planning, education, fire services and police administration. District councils are in charge of the more local services, as housing, especially the building and renting of council houses³, as well as public health and refuse collection. The county council is the most important unit of local government and all counties have a similar two-tier organization.

However, in six of the English counties, known as the "metropolitan counties", the organization is similar to London. The "metropolitan counties" were created for the six important northern and midland conurbations — Manchester, Sheffield, Leeds and Birmingham, Liverpool and Newcastle upon Tyne. Their district councils have populations of between 162,600 and one million inhabitants and are responsible for most of the local services, including education. The Metropolitan County Councils have functions covering wide areas, particularly large scale planning and transport, requiring heavy expenditure.

Some of the districts are identical or nearly so with former county boroughs and the district bearing the name of that town, which may be granted "borough" status (e.g. Stockport Borough) or city status (e.g. Manchester City). Today the City of Manchester is one of the districts within the county of Greater Manchester.

LONDON

The basis of local government has remained almost unchanged since the 1880s, and the great increase in population and local authority activities has led to confusion and loss of efficiency, especially in the London area.

Most of the growth is taking place outside central London, where, in all except a few boroughs, population has been falling since 1931. A glimpse of the problem can be seen in the fact that the City of London, the square mile at the centre, has about 5,000 residents, but a daytime population of 500,000. The East End has lost more than half its population. However, huge dormitory⁴ towns have grown up on the outskirts of London to accommodate the great masses of London workers.

In 1888 a county of London had been formed from parts of Kent, Surrey and Middlesex. By 1921 the County of London had 4½ million inhabitants, but the suburbs had already spilled over into the surrounding counties. There were large movements of population to London and the South-East, and many old inhabitants moved further and further out from the centre. By the 1960s more people were living outside the County of London, in the great built up urban ring, than in the County itself.

Planning became very difficult as a result of the splintering of authority outside the LLC area, especially where overall planning was required for the whole area, as in the case of roads. Yet, in spite of vast social changes, the essential framework of local government remained unchanged until the year 1965.

The present structure of local government is based on the London Government Act of 1965.

The Greater London administrative area is about 1,580sq km (610sq miles) with a population of some 7 million. The new county of Greater London includes parts of the old counties of Kent, Surrey, Hertfordshire and Essex and the whole of the old county of Middlesex (which is no longer an administrative area). The Greater London Council (GLC) replaced the former London County Council (LCC) which had been responsible for an area comprising only the City and 12 London boroughs.

The Greater London Council exercises all the functions which require unity of action throughout the whole of the area, as, for instance, planning. The population was much too large for a completely unified administration so that Greater London is divided into 32 boroughs with about 250,000 people each. They are the primary units of local government, and deal with all matters which can be better dealt with on a local basis.

Education in the inner London boroughs (roughly the former County of London and the City of London) is, however, the responsibility of a special committee of the Council, the Inner London Education Authority; in the rest of Greater London, the boroughs are the education authorities. Apart from certain functions such as education all the other local government functions in the City of London are exercised by the Corporation.

The ancient City of London has remained as a separate unit of local government and retains its own Corporation. The City is a centre of commerce, banking and finance; by day its streets are busy with people going to their offices, but in the evenings and at weekends it is deserted, apart from the sightseers, anxious not to miss such places of historic interest as St Paul's Cathedral and the Tower. The Lord Mayor of London is the chief administrator of this area.

The newly adopted administrative measures may not solve London's problems for a long period. The population of the whole county has declined from 8 million to 7.2 million between 1965 and 1976; the inner area (the old County of London) has now a population of below 3 million. The urban area continues to spread at a rapid pace well beyond the boundaries of the new country.

ИНЖЕНЕРНЫЙ ИНСТИТУТ

I СЕМЕСТР

ENGINES

All motor vehicles have an engine. There are two types of engines. There are petrol engines and there are diesel engines. There are two engines in the diagram.

There is a two-stroke petrol engine on the left. There is a four-stroke diesel engine on the right. There are spark plugs in all petrol engines. Diesel engines do not have spark plugs. They have fuel injectors.

There are always valves in 4-stroke diesel engines. There are no valves in 2-stroke petrol engines. A 2-stroke petrol engine never has valves.

There is no oil sump in a 2-stroke engine. There is oil in the fuel. The 4-stroke engines have an oil sump. There is no oil in the fuel.

There are some basic types of fuel for motor vehicles. There is diesel fuel, there is petrol and there is fuel mixture.

Most motorcycles have two-stroke petrol engines. But there are a few motorcycles with four-stroke petrol engines. There are no motorcycles with diesel engines.

A lot of buses have diesel engines but only a few cars have such engines. There are also a few cars with two-stroke engines but most cars have four-stroke petrol engines.

Most lorries have diesel engines. There are not many lorries with four-stroke petrol engines but there are no lorries with two-stroke engines.

A lot of engines are at the front of the car. A few engines are at the back and very few are in the middle.

AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY

Agricultural machines are used to till the soil and to plant, cultivate, and harvest crops. Since ancient times, when cultures first began cultivating plants, people have used tools to help them grow and harvest crops. They used pointed tools to dig and keep soil loosened, and sharp, knife-like objects to harvest ripened crops. Modifications of these early implements led to the development of small hand tools that are still used in gardening, such as the spade, hoe, rake and trowel, and larger implements, such as ploughs and larger rakes that are drawn by humans, animals, or simple machines.

Modern machinery is used extensively in Western Europe, Australia, the United States, the Russian Federation and Canada.

Modern large agricultural implements, adapted to large-scale farming methods, are usually powered by diesel- or petrol-fuelled internal-combustion engines. The most important implement of modern agriculture is the tractor. It provides locomotion for many other implements and can furnish power, via its power shaft, for the operation of machines drawn behind the tractor. The power shafts of tractors can also be set up to drive belts that operate equipment such as feed grinders, pumps, and electric-power generators. Small implements, such as portable irrigators, may be powered by individual motors.

IMPLEMENTS FOR HARVESTING CROPS

Most cereal crops are harvested by using a combine - a machine that removes the fruiting heads, beats off the grain kernels, and cleans the grain as the combine moves through the fields. The cleaned grain is accumulated in an attached grain tank.

Wheat and other cereal crops are harvested by a combine which, as it moves along the rows, picks the ears from the stalks and husks them. The ears are then transferred either to a sheller, which removes the kernels from the ear, or to a vehicle trailing behind the machine.

Hay harvesting usually requires several steps. First, the hay is cut close to the ground with a mower.

After drying in the sun, most hay is baled. In baling, the pick-up baler lifts the hay to a conveyor that carries it to a baling chamber, which compresses the hay into bales weighing up to 57 kg or more and ties each bale with heavy twine or wire. A machine called, a field chopper cuts down green hay or field-cured hay for use as animal feed. After being cut down, the hay is stored in a silo and allowed to ferment; this type of animal feed is nutritious and resistant to spoilage.

Specialized machinery is also used to harvest large root crops such as potatoes and sugar beet and to harvest fruits and vegetables. Some mechanical fruit-pickers that are used to harvest tree fruits, such as plums, cherries, and apricots, shake the fruit tree, causing the fruit to fall on to a raised catching frame that surrounds the tree. Nut crops can also be harvested in this manner.

Use of agricultural machinery substantially reduces the amount of human labour needed for growing crops. The average amount of labour required per hectare to produce and harvest corn, hay, and cereal crops has fallen to less than a quarter of what was required only a few decades ago.

INVENTORS AND THEIR INVENTIONS

Samuel Colt was an American. He lived in the 19th century. In 1836 he designed and patented a pistol. It was a pistol with a revolving barrel that could fire six bullets one after another. It was the first pistol of its kind. Later there came many other pistols with six bullets.

Rudolf Diesel was a German engineer. He was born in 1858 and died in 1913. In 1897 he invented a new internal combustion engine. This engine is known as a diesel and it began a transport revolution in cars, lorries, trains and ships. The main advantage of diesels is that they run on rather cheap fuel.

Samuel Finley Morse was born in 1791. He died in 1872. He was a portrait painter. Then he became an inventor. For twelve years he tried to perfect the telegraph and he was a success. Later he invented the telegraphic dot-and-dash alphabet. Now it is known as Morse code. Morse code was not only one in America of that time. There were some others. But now we use Morse code all over the world.

Charles Makintosh lived from 1766 to 1843. He lived in Scotland and was a chemist by profession. He worked in a textile industry. In 1823 he developed a rubber solution. This rubber solution was used for raincoat production. Raincoats with this rubber solution didn't allow water to penetrate. These raincoats were called makintoshes. Now people all over the world use them in spring and in autumn.

Charles Rolls was born in 1881 in Great Britain. He died in 1910. He was an aristocrat and businessman. He was especially interested in cars. Once he met another enthusiast of cars Henry Royce. Henry Royce was a famous car engineer. They decided to design the most comfortable and reliable car. At the beginning of the 20th century it seemed to be a fantasy. But they worked hard and at last in 1907 they created the world-famous Rolls-Royce car. It was so comfortable and reliable that one of the models of Rolls-Royce cars «Silver Ghost» hadn't changed greatly for 20 years since 1907.

Gottlieb Daimler and Charles Benz were two inventors. They lived in Germany. They were both interested in car production. At the end of the 19th century each of them designed a car. At the same time they organized two independent firms to produce them.

All the cars produced by the firm of Daimler were called «Mercedes». Mercedes was a daughter's name of one of the stockholders of the firm. This man saved the firm of Daimler from the financial crisis at the beginning of the 20th century.

EDISON

Edison is known as one of the greatest inventors of his time. He invented so much that it is difficult to say which of his achievements is the greatest. He was an experimenter and a practical man more than a theoretician.

Edison did not have any education. He went to school only for three months. Then he left it because the teacher considered him a dull boy. His mother became his teacher. The boy loved books and his mother said that he had a wonderful memory. When he first visited a public library and saw a lot of

shelves with books he decided that he would read all the books and then he would know everything in the world. He measured the shelf and decided to read a foot of books every week.

In 1868 Edison built his first patented invention - an electromagnetic device.

It is told that he planned to ask three thousand dollars for his invention, though he secretly decided he would sell it for two thousand if necessary. He was invited to a meeting of businessmen who were interested in buying his invention, but when he was asked to name the price he was very nervous and quite unable to speak.

«It is no use asking us a big price» said one of the businessmen, «we have already decided how much we will pay. Forty thousand dollars is our limit».

With this money Edison established a workshop and began his career as a professional inventor at the age of twenty-two.

All his inventions were the result of hard work. He sometimes made thousands of experiments. According to his words the idea that a genius works only by inspiration was absurd. «Genius is 2 per cent inspiration and 98 per cent perspiration» he often said.

II СЕМЕСТР

HISTORY OF ROBOTICS

The concept of robots dates back to ancient times, when some myths told of mechanical beings brought to life. Such automata also appeared in the clockwork figures of medieval churches, and in the 18th century some clockmakers gained fame for the clever mechanical figures that they constructed. Today the term automaton is usually applied to these handcrafted, mechanical (rather than electromechanical) devices that imitate the motions of living creatures. Some of the « robots used in advertising and entertainment are actually automata, even with the addition of remote radio control.

The term robot itself is derived from the Czech word *robota*, meaning «compulsory labour». It was first used by the Czech novelist and playwright Karel Chapek, to describe a mechanical device that looks like a human but, lacking human sensibility, can perform only automatic, mechanical operations. Robots as they are known today do not only imitate human or other living forms. True robots did not become possible, however, until the invention of the computer in the 1940s and the miniaturization of computer parts. One of the first true robots was an experimental model designed by researchers at the Stanford Research Institute in the late 1960s. It was capable of arranging blocks into stacks through the use of a television camera as a visual sensor, processing this information in a small computer.

Computers today are equipped with microprocessors that can handle the data being fed to them by various sensors of the surrounding environment. Making use of the principle of feedback, robots can change their operations to some degree in response to changes in that environment. The commercial use of robots is spreading, with the increasing automation of factories, and they have become essential to many laboratory procedures. Japan is the most advanced nation exploring robot technology. Nowadays robots continue to expand their applications. The home-made robots (горничная) available today may be one sign of the future.

HISTORY AND FUTURE OF THE INTERNET

The Internet technology was created by Vinton Cerf in early 1973 as part of a project headed by Robert Kahn and conducted by the Advanced Research Projects Agency, part of the United States Department of Defence. Later Cerf made many efforts to build and standardize the Internet. In 1984 the technology and the network were turned over to the private sector and to government scientific agencies for further development. The growth has continued exponentially. Service-provider companies that make «gateways» to the Internet available to home and business users enter the market in ever-increasing numbers. By early 1995, access was available in 180 countries and more than 30 million users used the Internet. The Internet and its technology continue to have a profound

effect in promoting the exchange of information, making possible rapid transactions among businesses, and supporting global collaboration among individuals and organisations. More than 100 million computers are connected via the global Internet in 2000, and even more are attached to enterprise internets. The development of the World Wide Web leads to the rapid introduction of new business tools and activities that may lead to annual business transactions on the Internet worth hundreds of billions of dollars.

AGRICULTURAL MACHINES

Speaking of farm machines, the tractor must necessarily - be mentioned in the first place. To-day one cannot imagine practically any agricultural work done without a tractor.

This steel horse is always ready for the job, day and night in any weather. With ease and grace it cuts through hard soil, sand and snow, bog land and marshes. Having a mighty pulling power, a tractor can pass through any difficult ground.

No other vehicle is better adapted to haul and work all kinds of agricultural machinery and implements than a tractor. It is a machine usually powered with a gasoline or Diesel engine and is used to draw and work agricultural implements for ploughing, sowing, harvesting, mowing and a large variety of other jobs. A tractor is also, used to cut roads, dig ditches and pits, uproot stumps, cut the bush, etc. The tractor can be wheel or caterpillar type. The former is more powerful. Versatile and economical as it is, the tractor finds in fact no end of useful applications in farming, not to speak of lumbering where skidding tractors are the best means of bringing cut timber from out of the forests. Tractors can be used both for stationary and field work. Many agricultural machines are tractor-propelled, that is to say there is a power take off (PTO) to the tractor-hauled implement; or else, the farming devices are tractor-borne. On virgin and long-fallow lands heavy tractors with breaker ploughs are essential.

Land reclamation on bog lands, calling for drainage, requires heavy-type tractors to which bog-and-brush ploughs are attached. Of course, as other machines, the tractor is being constantly improved. One of the most recent types is the 53 PTO all purpose, four plough and four cultivator type with a 3-cylinder diesel engine, which is highly adapted to everyday jobs on every farm.

Bulldozers are built to move earth, broken stone and other discrete materials over short distances, to level out patches of land, fill trenches, pits and ditches.

A bulldozer can be mounted either on a wheeled tractor or on a crawler tractor. The mouldboards of bulldozers are lifted and lowered by power jacks. The installation of the bulldozers does not involve any structural changes in the tractors which, after removal of the mounted equipment, may revert to their original use.

The mouldboard of a bulldozer is controlled through a system of cables by a single-drum winch installed on the tractor.

These machines are simple in operation and servicing, and possess high efficiency and labour-saving characteristics.

The universal frame of these bulldozers allows the position of the with other replaceable attachments such as grubbers, brush breakers and snow removers.

We shall now consider the most comprehensive versatile machine: the combine. It has been very properly named «the Ship of the Fields». This is indeed one of the agricultural machines that has most vastly improved large-scale wheat farming especially in the Soviet Union. It is otherwise called the harvester combine or the header.

The combine is an agricultural machine — usually operated by one man — which cuts the corn, then threshes out the grain and winnows it. The cleaned grain is gathered in the bin of the combine and then taken away by lorries. The straw is returned to the field and made into bunches.

In front of the combine there is a table, which cuts down the stalks brought up to it by the reel, which then again feeds them onto the central part of the table while the transporter catches them up and sends them off to the threshing unit. In the thresher the grain is threshed out of the stalks and next through the deck (mounted under the threshing cylinder) falls upon the bolter and thence passes to

the screen.

The straw, in its turn is fed on to the strawwalker. Here it is shaken to remove the left-over grain while the straw itself is gathered on a strawtacker. As to the grain, it is now freed from impurities by a current of air coming from the fan. Then it falls through the riddle and through the grain auger runs to the flight elevator, which finally conveys it to the bunker or bin. After the grain is discharged from the bin it passes over to the pocket separator which classes the grain for different purposes: as seedstock, milling material, grist, etc. Thence it goes to the bin and finally to the elevator.

The combined harvester is mostly mounted on wheels provided with pneumatic tyres but it may also have caterpillar tread.

TRAFFIC PROBLEMS

Car ownership has increased rapidly in the last decade and there is increasing congestion on the roads which no amount of new road and motorway building can adequately solve. The problems of transport in the city centres are increasingly serious.

There are not only problems of keeping the traffic flowing and avoiding «bottlenecks», but the added problem of parking, while space for new roads and parking places is not easy to find in built-up city centres. Parking in the central areas has to be controlled by parking meters, usually for a maximum of two hours. When a motorist parks his car he has to put a coin in the meter, which then begins to record the time. If he stays too long he can be fined. Vehicles illegally parked may be towed away by the police to compounds. There are special Traffic Wardens, whose job it is to walk round the streets checking that no-one has broken the parking regulations.

It is quite obvious that private cars are going to have to be excluded from central areas, especially during rush hours.

Modernization has not kept pace with the amazing recent increases in the amount of traffic. The ever-increasing volume of traffic in towns presents tremendous problems. Traffic schemes are being operated in many city and town centres to minimize congestion and improve road safety. These may include one-way systems, streets reserved for pedestrians and parking controls. Many towns have shopping precincts, some of them enclosed, which are planned especially for pedestrians and from which motor vehicles are

A motor vehicle is a complex engineering construction. It is composed of several thousand parts. The smaller parts are joined together and form larger components, or units. One of the main components of any vehicle is, of course, the engine.

In addition to the engine itself, there are four separate mechanisms, which are used to feed the engine. These mechanisms are the fuel system, the lubrication system, the electrical system and the cooling system.

The fuel system is a separate mechanism that is used for feeding the engine. The fuel system consists of a tank, a fuel line or a pipe, a pump and a carburettor. The engine produces power when air and fuel are mixed and burnt.

So let's have a look at the fuel system operation. The fuel is stored in a fuel tank. The fuel tank is connected to a fuel pipe. The fuel pipe carries the fuel to the fuel pump. This pump can be either electric or mechanic in operation. Electric pumps are generally situated near the fuel tank whereas a mechanical pump is generally located beside the engine. It is driven by the camshaft. The fuel pump is connected to the carburettor. In the carburettor the fuel is mixed with air. It is important to have the right ratio of air to fuel. For example, the optimum ratio of air to petrol in the fuel mixture is 15 parts of air to 1 part of petrol. The fuel and the air are compressed by the piston in the carburettor and they are drawn into the engine. In the engine the fuel and air are burnt and they produce power.

III CEMECTP

CARS: PASSION OR PROBLEM?

For some people, the car is a convenient form of transportation. But for others, the car is an exciting hobby. Some people spent their lives collecting valuable cars. Others drive them in races, including the Mille Miglia in Italy, the Carrera Panamericana in Mexico, and the world-famous Indianapolis 500. For many people, cars are more than transportation: They are a source of passion and pleasure. Yet cars can also be a source of many problems.

In 1903, Henry Ford began selling the Model T car for \$825. His company, Ford Motors, was the first to produce cars in large numbers. This made the car available to large numbers of people and helped them to travel long distances quickly and easily. The car has brought people much closer to places of work, study, and entertainment.

Most Americans buy a new car every five or six years. This means that one American may own a dozen cars in a lifetime. In fact, there are more cars than people in the United States. In New York City, 2.5 million cars move in and out of the city each day. In this traffic, the average speed is sometimes 8.1 miles per hour. This speed could easily be reached by riding a horse instead of driving a car. But New Yorkers continue to drive, just as people in California, where freeways are often very crowded.

Some environmentalists believe that forms of public transportation such as buses and trains have not fully developed in the United States. They try to teach others that public transportation saves fuel and helps to protect the environment. Many people are unhappy with car traffic and pollution, as well as with the use of beautiful land for building new roads.

Environmentalists dream of turning parking lots into parks and replacing cars with bicycles, but most people around the world believe that the car is a necessary part of life in today's world.

Still, there is an important question that must be answered: what kind of fuel will we use when gasoline is no longer available? Some environmentalists believe that by the year 2021, there will no longer be oil for gasoline makers to use. To solve this problem, car companies in Korea, Japan, Europe and the United States are trying to develop an electrical car that will not require gasoline at all.

The electric car is not a new idea. It had success with American women in the early 1900s. Women liked electric cars because they were quiet and did not pollute the air. Electric cars were also easier to start than gasoline-powered ones. The electric car was not used again until the 1970s, when there were serious problems with the availability of oil. Car companies began to plan for a future without gasoline. The General Motors Company had plans to develop an electric car by 1980; however, oil became available again, and this car was never produced.

Today there is a new interest in the electric car, which is partly related to a passion for speed and new technology. In 1977, engineer Paul MacCready designed a human-powered airplane that successfully completed a three-mile flight. A similar airplane crossed the English Channel in 1979, followed by a solar-powered airplane. In 1987 a solar-powered car won a 2,000-mile race in Australia. As a result of this success, the General Motors Company began new work on the development of the electric car. The Toyota Company recently decided to spend \$800 million a year on the development of new car technology. Many engineers believe that the electric car will lead to other forms of technology being used for transportation. «

Cars may change, but their importance will not. Cars are important to nearly everyone, including engineers, businesspeople, environmentalists, and even poets.

Poet Curt Brown believes that cars are part of our passion for new places and new experiences. According to Brown, this «very, very comfortable flying chair» will continue to bring us travel and adventure, no matter how it changes in the future.

MECHANIZED AGRICULTURE

Mechanized agriculture is the process of using agricultural machinery to mechanize the work of agriculture, massively increasing farm output and farm worker productivity. In modern times, powered machinery has replaced many jobs formerly carried out by men or animals such as oxen, horses and mules. The history of agriculture contains many examples of tool use, but only in recent time has the high rate of machine use been at such a level. The first pervasive mechanization of agriculture came with the introduction of the plough, usually powered by animals. It was invented in ancient Mesopotamia.

Current mechanized agriculture includes the use of airplanes, helicopters, trucks and tractors, among other well-known vehicles. Modern farms even sometimes use computers in conjunction with satellite imagery and GPS guidance to increase yields. The need for mechanization is a result of the global population increase which must be fed. Long-term forecasts indicate that within a few decades world's population will have increased from 6 to 9 or 10 billion people. Food production will then at least need to keep pace with this increase. So, the most up-to-date mechanized agriculture along with high technologies can increase food production. Mechanized agriculture has some virtues and shortcomings. On the one hand, it improves the production efficiency by reducing cost per unit of product, encourages large scale production and improves the quality of farm produce. But, on the other hand, it displaces unskilled farm labor, causes environmental pollution, deforestation and erosion.

FARM TRACTORS

Most commonly, the term «a tractor» is used to describe a farm vehicle that provides the power and traction to mechanize agricultural tasks, especially (and originally) tillage but nowadays a great variety of tasks. Agricultural implements may be towed behind or mounted on the tractor, and the tractor may also provide a source of power if the implement is mechanized. The word «tractor» was taken from Latin, being the derived noun of «trahere» which means «to pull». The first recorded use of the word in the meaning of «an engine or vehicle for pulling wagons or ploughs» occurred in 1901. Nowadays in Britain, Ireland, Australia, India, Spain, Argentina, Slovenia, Serbia, Croatia, and Germany the word «tractor» usually means «farm tractor». In Canada and the USA the word may also refer to a short motor vehicle with a powerful engine and a driver's cab, used to pull a trailer, as in an articulated lorry.

The classic farm tractor is a simple open vehicle, with two very large driving wheels on an axle below and slightly behind a single seat, and the engine in front of the driver, with two steerable wheels below the engine compartment. This basic design has remained unchanged for a number of years, but enclosed cabs are fitted on almost all modern models, for reasons of operator safety and comfort. In some localities with heavy or wet soils the «Caterpillar» or «crawler» type of tracked tractor became popular in the 1930s, due to superior traction and floatation. These were usually maneuvered through the use of turning brake pedals and separate track clutches operated by levers rather than a steering wheel. A variety of specialty farm tractors have been developed for particular uses. These include:

- «**row crop**» tractors with adjustable tread width to allow the tractor to pass down rows of corn, tomatoes or other crops without crushing the plants;
- «**wheat land**» or «**standard**» tractors with non-adjustable fixed wheels and a lower center of gravity for plowing and other heavy field work for broadcast crops;
- «**high crop**» tractors with adjustable tread and increased ground clearance, often used in the cultivation of cotton and other high-growing row crop plant operations;
- «**utility tractors**», typically smaller tractors with a low center of gravity and short turning radius, used for general purposes around the farmstead. Many utility tractors are used for non-farm grading, landscape maintenance and excavation purposes, particularly with loaders, backhoes, pallet forks and similar devices.

MINI TRACTORS

Garden Tractors (also called Mini Tractors) are small, light and simple tractors designed for use in domestic gardens. Garden Tractors are usually designed primarily for cutting grass, being fitted with horizontal rotary cutting decks. Visually, the distinction between a garden tractor and a ride-on lawnmower is often hard to make — generally Garden Tractors are more sturdily built, with stronger frames, axles and transmissions rated for ground-engaging applications. Garden Tractors are generally capable of mounting other implements such as harrows, cultivators, sweepers, rollers and dozer-blades. Mini Tractors generally have a vertical-crankshaft engine with a belt-drive to a transaxle-type transmission (usually of 4- or 5-speeds, although some may also have two-speed reduction gearboxes or a hydrostatic drive). However, Wheel Horse (now part of Toro) garden tractors have horizontal-crankshaft engines with belt-drive, whilst Allen «Gutbrod» tractors had an automotive-type clutch and gearbox. The engines are generally a 1- or 2-cylinder petrol (gasoline) engine, although diesel engine models are also available, especially in Europe.

Today in the USA, the term «a lawn tractor» is often used to refer to a front-engine tractor layout machines designed primarily for cutting grass and light towing; and heavier duty tractors of the same overall size, often shaft driven, are called garden tractors. The primary differences between a lawn tractor and a garden tractor are the transmission torque handling capability, frame durability, the rear wheels (garden tractors almost always have multiple mounting bolts, while most lawn tractors have a single bolt or clip on the hub), and the ability to attach ground engaging equipment such as plows or disk-harrows. Craftsman, MTD, Snapper, and other major mowing equipment manufacturers use these terms.

As well as dedicated manufacturers, many makers of agricultural tractors have made (or continue to make) ranges of garden tractors, such as Case, Massey-Ferguson, International Harvester and John Deere.

IV CEMECTP

TRANSPORT

Modern transport has speeded up people's lives, broadened their activities and affected them in every way. Britain is a vast network of railway tracks, highways, navigable rivers and canals and is connected with the Continent and the rest of the world by airways and ships. Trains carry passengers and freight from all over the country. Ships cross the seas carrying supplies and passengers. Airplanes flying mail and passengers roar overhead at supersonic speed and everywhere people dash about in automobiles. Modern transport has become an integral part of everyday life.

ROAD TRANSPORT

Cars and taxis account for 81 per cent of motor vehicle traffic. Other vehicles include road goods vehicles, motor-cycles, scooters and mopeds, and public road passenger vehicles (buses, coaches and trolley buses).

Some improvements have been made in the network of trunk roads (long distance main roads joining large towns and cities) to adjust to the tremendous traffic growth. Complex road systems, including «flyovers» (road bridges, sometimes several miles long, over the town) have been built at great expense. The construction of by-passes (roads for fast traffic to pass by, not through a town) are given priority, e.g. south of London.

The engineers of these modern roads have designed splendid new bridges across river estuaries, e.g. the Tamar Bridge (1961), the Medway (1963), the Forth (1964), the Severn (1966), and the Humber (1981).

ROADS

Generally major roads are well maintained and there are no tolls (a small payment especially for the right to cross a bridge or use a road) except at a limited number of bridges and tunnels. Roads are

classified M (motorway), A (main roads), B (minor roads). Motorways are modern through routes, marked on maps and sign-posts by the letter «M» followed by a route number, e.g. M1, M6. Main or primary roads are marked by the letter «A», e.g. Sutton Coalfield A38. Directions to places reached by minor roads are indicated by the letter «B» plus route number, e.g. Hemel Hempstead B486.

A motorway network has been constructed in England since the 1950s and at present comprises four long-distance arterial routes linking London and the midland cities, the north and north west and the south west, and over 30 shorter motorways, mainly near London and Manchester. At the present time priority is being given to the London orbital route. The M6 and the M1 (London to Leeds) have greatly improved road communications between London, the Midlands and northern England. This motorway consists of two broad roads running side by side (a «dual carriageway»), each one containing «lanes» for three streams of traffic travelling in the same direction. Britain's longest motorway is the 370 km (230 miles) M6, from the M1 at Catthorpe in Leicestershire to Carlisle. Other major motorways include the M4 from London to south Wales, the M5 from Birmingham to Exeter and the M62 from Merseyside linking west and east coasts of northern England.

Speed Limits. Maximum speed in built up areas with street lamp-posts is 48 km per hour (30 miles per hour). Outside built-up areas and on motorways, speed limits vary according to speed signs, usual maximum speed is 112 km per hour (70 miles per hour) on motorways, and 96 km per hour (60 miles per hour) on single lane roads.

Signs. Warning signs are triangles with a red border, with the nature of the warning in black. Signs giving orders are circular with a red border, with the nature of the order in black. Information signs are mostly rectangular: blue on or near motorways, green and white on other roads.

Horns. Horns must not be used on a restricted road between 23.30—07.00 or at any time when the vehicle is stationary.

Safety Belts and Helmets. The compulsory wearing of seat belts by drivers and front seat passengers became law in 1983. It is compulsory for motorcycle and moped riders (and pillion passengers) to wear safety helmets.

Driving Offences. Exceeding the speed limit, reckless or dangerous driving and driving without due care and attention are among serious offences involving heavy fines and/or imprisonment. These offences usually involve endorsement of licence or disqualification from driving.

DISC PLOUGHS

There are various ways of making the initial cut. To lessen the amount of soil that can bank up by fences, some operators prefer to do the initial round with the rearmost disc cutting full depth and the depth of the others tapering off to zero at the front furrow wheel. This means that with the plough level the furrow wheels are raised until the discs just touch the ground, and the landwheel is then raised to a height equal to the desired depth. This method saves adjusting the front furrow wheel on the second round, but it is difficult to control the depth of the rearmost disc, and of course the depth varies across the gang of discs. Another way is to raise all the wheels to a height above ground equal to the desired depth, remove the last two or three discs, set the width to, say 60 per cent of the full width and plough. This method gives even depth because all the wheels run on the unploughed land, but requires adjustment of the front and rear furrow wheels for subsequent rounds.

After the initial furrows have been cut and the wheel heights set correctly, the plough can be set for normal operation.

Some features and characteristics of a plough are fixed by the designer; others are adjustable and must be decided by the operator. For example, the operator can change the width of cut, the depth, wheel toe-in or drift angles, the lateral position and the height of the drawbar, the amount of ballast and the speed.

He cannot change the tilt angle of the discs (except by such extreme measures as blocking the stump-jump mechanism) or their angle of attack at any particular furrow width; these all have a large influence on the operating characteristics of a plough, but are fixed by the designer.

So the operator must decide settings for: Width and depth of cut. In general, when ploughing on light

soils, the plough can be set fully open, and on heavy or clayey soils it should be set initially at about two-thirds of full width. When properly adjusted, the resulting depth will depend on the width and the weight of the plough; this is dealt with in detail below.

Wheel angles. All the wheels can be set to toe-in towards the ploughed land at a small angle of say, five degrees initially.

Drawbar location. The drawbar should be parallel to the furrow, pointing initially at the centre of the gang of discs; its final position laterally will be found to be within 10 inch. either side of this centre, depending on the make of plough. The centre of the gang is taken relative to the cutting edge of the discs; for an 18-disc plough, for example, if the drawbar is pointed at the bearing-cap of the ninth disc, it will be on a line approximately midway between the ninth and tenth discs. The drawbar height should be low to keep sufficient weight on the rear wheel; the reasons are given later.

SPECIALIZED FARM MACHINES

No end of other specialized harvesters are in existence, each of them specially designed for the purpose intended. Thus, we find cotton harvesters, pea harvesters, tomato harvesters, and even cherry and orange harvesters.

For harvesting root and tuber crops there exist various diggers, such as potato diggers, carrot diggers, onion diggers, even up to special sweet-potato diggers. But perhaps the best labour-saving devices are tuber and root harvesting combines among which the potato harvester stands out with particular prominence. This machine is, as a rule, not self-propelled, but actuated by a PTO from a tractor. Its main components are the shares, a haulm remover or topper, a chain elevator, a clod breaker, a lifting drum covered with polyethylene wire and a sorting table. The shares simultaneously dig down two potato rows. The mass dug out passes to the chain elevator whereupon the clods are broken by the clod breaker and the tubers separated. At the same time the removed haulm is thrown aside on the field. The tubers, separated from the clods, now pass over to the lifting drum which feeds them onto the sorting table which separates the tubers from the remaining earth. Finally the clean potatoes are fed into a bin.

It is widely admitted that hay crimping is a fast, efficient, short cut to higher quality hay. It reduces, after mowing, the loss that results from long exposure in the field and handling the hay crop.

Crimping cuts down the risks of obtaining poor hay by shortening the time the crop is exposed to the weather and prevents the mechanical damage that so often goes with outdated haymaking methods. More and more research is being carried out in the world on modern methods of haymaking and time after time this research proves that crimping the crop immediately after mowing is the surest, safest and most desirable way of making higher quality hay. When grass is mown and no special measures are taken moisture is lost rapidly from the leaf and slowly from the stem. When the stem is fit to bale the leaf is so dry that it will shatter when it is touched. It stands to reason that to avoid this it is essential to equalise the drying rate of the stem and the leaf. The longer the crop is left out in the weather the greater is the loss of feed value.

This is the field where the crimper can help by equalising the drying rate of the stem and the leaf which eliminates the most undesirable features of conventional haymaking methods.

Cotton takes perhaps the leading place among all industrial crops. For the harvesting of cotton up to quite recent times manual methods alone were used. But today, with the advent of comprehensive mechanization, most, if not all, labour-consuming kinds of labour are being taken care of by labour-saving devices. Among them the cotton picker stands out with particular prominence.

The cotton picker is usually tractor-mounted. Sometimes its working mechanisms operate from a PTO. During one pass this machine gathers cotton from two rows of the cotton plant. It consists of two limb-lifters, two doffers with cotton-picking receptacles, two fans, air-ducts and a bin. The limb-lifters raise the laid plants, compress the bottom part of the stalk and feed it into the cotton-picking receptacle.

Here the limbs pass between two rotating drums which with their teeth extract the cotton out of the opened bolls and wind it upon their spindles. Then the drums draw the spindles from the bush and

feed it to the doffing brushes which, in rotating, remove the raw cotton.

A current of air passing from the fan through the air- duct now sends the removed cotton into a bin.

The cotton picker is manned by a single operator and it replaces the need to have twenty manual pickers.

Other -agricultural machines comprise stubble cleaners, ploughs of various description such as general purpose ploughs, breaker ploughs, garden ploughs, orchard ploughs, etc; sweeps; tine, zigzag and disc as well as weeding harrows, drills which may be all-crop or specialized such as grain, beet, bean, carrot, etc.; manure spreaders, etc.

Along with machinery specially intended for seeding, tillage, cultivation, fertilization, thinning and other kinds of field work extensive use is at present made-of various devices for protecting plants against pests, diseases and weeds. Widely used are rain-guns and sprayers — turbine mist blowers, aerosol foggers and fumigators.

All these machines have the common feature of raining a finely divided spray of various disinfectant chemicals over the plantations, forming a kind of fog, smoke or mist, which destroys the noxious elements, that would otherwise affect normal plant growth.

There also exist many machines for processing agricultural products. They comprise special machines for the preparation of dairy products, honey, wine, cider, vinegar, oils (vegetable and essential), sugar (cane, beet and maple) syrups and preserves. The production of dairy products such as milk, cream, butter, curds and the like is both mechanical and chemical. Of prime importance is the processing of cereals.

The processing is effected partly on the farm and partly at factories. Among the most important stationary machines are chaff-cutters which cut straw and hay into short lengths to facilitate mixing with other feeds. Next come mills (crushing, grinding). These machines provide a degree of grinding which is very coarse compared with flour. Crushers are used mainly for oats, maize and linseed (flaxseed). The material is fed from a hopper by gravity and the machines are generally power-driven. Grinders utilize small disks revolving at a high speed. Sometimes they are provided with a meal-sifter and then corn can be ground sufficiently fine for making whole-meal bread.

ЭКОНОМИЧЕСКИЙ ФАКУЛЬТЕТ

I СЕМЕСТР

ECONOMICS AND ECONOMY

Economics

Economics is a social science studying economy. Like the natural sciences and other social sciences, economics attempts to find laws or principles. Economics tries to find laws or principles by building models. The predictions of the models form the basis of economic theories. Then the predictions of the models are compared with the facts of the real world.

Economics as a science consists of two disciplines that are of microeconomics and macroeconomics. Microeconomics is the branch of economics that studies individual producers, consumers, or markets. Microeconomics also studies how government activities such as regulations and taxes affect individual markets. Besides microeconomics tries to understand what factors affect the prices, wages and earnings. Macroeconomics is the branch of economics that studies the economy as a whole. It tries to understand the picture as whole rather than small parts of it. In particular, it studies the overall values of output, of unemployment and of inflation.

The Economy

The words ‘the economy’ are words we hear or read almost every day. For example, we may be told that ‘the world economy is in the doldrums’, or ‘the European economy is making little progress out of recession’, or ‘the UK economy is beginning to recover’, or ‘the Scottish economy has held up relatively well during the recent recession’. But what is meant by the economy? The economy means a system for the management, use and control of the money, goods and other resources of a country, community or household.

MIXED ECONOMY

There are three types of management in economies. An economy may be the most totally planned, as it was in the Soviet Union. An economy may be almost totally unplanned, as it is in the USA. Or an economy may have a combination of planning and freedom of operation. Examples of the latter are Japan and South Korea.

In a planned economy the government decides what goods are to be produced and how they are to be marketed. Governments set all the priorities, and the producers are to follow the directions given to them.

In a partially planned economy such as Japan's, the government often encourages industry and helps with subsidies. Government also makes investments and regulates trade.

The United States is an example of an unplanned economy. But it has a lot of government intervention in economic activity. As the economy of the United States grew, and as government and its importance increased, the government policy at every level acquired greater importance for the economy.

But the economy of the United States may be called unplanned because the government does not regulate what will be produced and how it will be marketed. These decisions are left to the producers. Even the great amount of government regulation that has emerged since the Great Depression has not turned the United States into a planned economy.

The name of the American economic system is capitalism. Another name for it is the free market economy.

A DEMAND AND SUPPLY

Demand is the quantity of a good that buyers wish to buy at each price. Other things equal, at low prices the demanded quantity is higher.

Supply is the quantity of a good that sellers wish to sell at each price. Other things equal, when prices are high the supplied quantity is high as well.

The market is in equilibrium when the price regulates the quantity supplied by producers and the quantity demanded by consumers. When prices are not so high as the equilibrium price there is excess demand (shortage) raising the price. At prices above the equilibrium price there is excess supply (surplus) reducing the price.

There are some factors influencing demand for a good, such as the prices of other goods, consumer incomes and some others.

An increase in the price of a substitute good (or a decrease in the price of a complement good) will at the same time raise the demanded quantity.

As consumer income is increased demand for a normal good will also increase but demand for an inferior good will decrease. A normal good is a good for which demand increases when incomes rise.

An inferior good is a good for which demand falls when incomes rise.

As to supply, some factors are assumed as constant. Among them are technology, the input price, as well as degree of government regulation. An improvement in technology is as important for increasing the supplied quantity of a good as a reduction in input prices.

Government regulates demand and supply, imposing ceiling prices (maximum prices) and floor prices (minimum prices) and adding its own demand to the demand of the private sector.

WRITING BUSINESS LETTERS

Everyone writes business letters from time to time — to request information, to order a product, to complain about something, to apply for employment or to a training programme. Examples are: letters of application for jobs, scholarships, etc; letters asking for information about courses, services, etc; letters demanding money (which include complaints, a demand for a refund).

Before you sit down to write a business letter you should think carefully about your purpose. Decide in advance why you are writing your letter.

Most businesses receive hundreds of letters each day, so your letter should be, brief and to the point, it should be well organized and laid out very clearly. Important information should appear early in the letter and you should not digress from the main subject. Be concise and try to sound as natural as possible. Stilted, very formal, unnatural or flowery language very often gets in the way of clear communication.

The first paragraph of your letter should introduce your subject and mention any relevant previous correspondence or conversation. The rest of your letter should present your reader with the fact needed to understand what you are saying. Your conclusion should reinforce your message.

When typing your business letter or composing it on a computer, leave wide margins, at least an inch (=2.54 cm) all around. Type your letters single-spaced and use an acceptable format. One of the most common is the block format. The block format letter begins every line at the left-hand margin and separates paragraphs with a double space. If you use letterhead paper, supply only the date typing it two spaces below the letterhead.

The style of business letters is changing rapidly. Every year it gets simpler and less formal. Except for a few firms, business correspondents prefer simple English to express what they want to say as effectively as possible. Time is more precious than ever to a busy executive and he does not want to have to read a lot of unnecessary words. But the writer of a business letter must create a good impression, especially if he is writing a letter of application, so a few words to promote a feeling of exactness and goodwill are quite appropriate. However, compliments must not be exaggerated, as

they may produce the opposite effect, and the reader may feel that the writer is being insincere. In other words, the style of a business letter need not be very formal, but on the other hand it must not be too informal and chatty.

e.g.

Dear Mr. Foster,

Applying for the post of Marketing Manager

I noted with interest your advertisement in yesterday's Daily World.

You will see from the enclosed resume that I have four years experience in marketing. My duties are concerned with sales promotion. My responsibilities have included all types of administrative work, product development, arranging and attending sales conferences and presentations, working with clients and solving problems.

Although I have an excellent relationship with my present employers, Sunshine Communication, which I joined five years ago, I feel that my prospects with them are limited and there are no opportunities for promotion in Sunshine. I am convinced that there would be more scope for my talents and skills with a larger, more dynamic company.

If you consider that my qualifications and experience are suitable, I would be available for interview at any time.

Yours sincerely,

John Raser

II CEMECTP

ECONOMY OF THE U.S.A.

The United States of America is a highly developed industrialized country. Shipbuilding, electronics, automobile industry, aircraft industry, space research are highly developed in the States.

Each region of the United States has characteristics of its own due to the differences in climate, landscape and geographical position.

Great Lakes, Atlantic Coast, Pennsylvania, New Jersey are biggest industrial regions of the country. The United States has a lot of mineral deposits or resources such as coal, gold, silver, copper, lead and zinc. The south, especially Texas is rich in oil. The coalfields of Pennsylvania are rich in coal. There are plenty of coal mines.

Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska is the richest farming region of America and it is known as the Corn Belt. The land is fertile and well watered. They grow mostly corn and wheat there. Much livestock is also raised here.

There is a lot of fruit raising area. For example, California oranges, grapefruit, lemons, as well as other fruits, wines and vegetables are shipped all over the States and to other parts of the world.

*The most important crops grown in the States are also tobacco, soy-beans, peanuts, grapes and many others. There are a lot of large and modern cities, but a great proportion of the country consists of open land dotted with farmhouses and small towns. The usual average town, in any part of the United States, has its Main Street with the same types of stores selling the same products. Many American residential areas tend to have a similar look. As to big cities their centres or downtowns look very much alike. Downtown is the cluster of skyscrapers imitations of New York giants.

New York City is the first biggest city of the States. Its population is more than eight million people. It is a financial and advertising business centre. It is also a biggest seaport of the Hudson River. Industry of consumer goods is also developed here.

Chicago with a population of more than three and a half million is the second largest city in the U.S.A. It deals in wheat and other grains, cattle meat processing and manufacturing. Other big cities are Houston, an oil refining and NASA space research centre, New Orleans, a cotton industry centre,

Los Angeles with Hollywood, Philadelphia, a shipping commercial centre, Detroit, a world's leading motor car producer and many others.

FOREIGN TRADE OF THE U.K.

In the 19th century Britain dominated international trade, accounting for about one-third of world's exports. Early in the 20th century its position changed. The volume of world's exports increased but the percentage of British exports in world trade declined significantly.

But still foreign trade is vital to Britain's livelihood. With a large population, small land area, and few resources, the country must depend on foreign trade to supply the raw materials for English factories and to market for the sale of the thousands of types of manufactured goods produced by English industries. The United Kingdom's principal exports are vehicles, machinery, manufactured goods and textiles. Her main exports are foodstuffs and most of the raw materials for industry. Britain imports half the food it needs.

There is usually an unfavourable balance of trade, that is, imports exceed exports, but this is compensated for in part by the so-called invisible trade.

The earnings from invisible trade come in the way of shipping charges, interest payments from foreign investments, interest payments from British enterprises abroad, and tourist expenditure.

The earnings from foreign tourist trade make this one of Britain's important industries.

Britain has got very sound economic ties with various countries of the world, especially the Commonwealth countries. The Commonwealth, officially called The Commonwealth of Nations, has grown out of the old British Empire which came to an end with the Second world war. The Commonwealth countries are Canada, Australia, New Zealand and many other small countries and territories.

The United Kingdom has been a member of the European Free Trade Association (E.F.T.A.) since 1959, and a member of the European Economic Community (E.E.C.) since 1973.

TAXES IN THE U.K.

Individuals, partnerships and trusts pay income tax and capital gains tax. Companies pay corporation taxes. Income tax and capital gains tax are charged for a tax year, sometimes called fiscal year or year of assessment. The tax year runs from 6 April to the following 5 April. Corporation taxes are charged for a financial year which runs from 1 April to the following 31 March. Companies generally pay corporation taxes nine months after the end of the accounting period. Individuals usually pay taxes in two equal instalments on 1 January and 1 July. Usually taxpayers are given 30 days to pay from the date of issue of an assessment.

Tax assessments are normally based on returns issued by the Board of Inland Revenue, often called Inland Revenue or IR, for completion by the taxpayer.

If the company or person believes the assessment is incorrect an appeal may be lodged against it. Appeals are made to either the General Commissioners or the Special Commissioners. The commissioners are completely independent of the Inland Revenue.

Employees pay taxes in a different way. When an employee takes a new job he has to give his new employer his P.45. This is a document which shows the employee's tax coding and the amount of tax he has paid so far in the tax year.

If an employee has no P.45. he is put on an emergency coding. This means he has to pay tax at the single rate until his P.45. is found or until the tax office clarify his tax position. When the position is clarified the employee receives a refund of any tax overpaid.

Employees are taxed under P.A.Y.E. system which means Pay as You Earn. Every employee has the tax deducted weekly or monthly. The deductions are calculated by reference to the employee's tax coding. This information is supplied to the employer by the tax office.

INFLATION

Inflation is a steady rise in the average price and wage level. The rise in wages being high enough to raise costs of production, prices grow further resulting in a higher rate of inflation and, finally, in an inflationary spiral. Periods when inflation rates are very large are referred to as hyperinflation.

The causes of inflation are rather complicated, and there is a number of ' theories explaining them. Monetarists, such as Milton Friedman, say that inflation is caused by too rapid increase in money supply and the corresponding excess demand for goods.

Therefore, monetarists consider due government control of money supply to be able to restrict inflation rates. They also believe the high rate of unemployment to be likely to restrain claims for higher wages. People having jobs accept the wages they are being paid, the inflationary spiral being kept under control. This situation also accounts for rather slow increase in aggregate demand.

On the other hand, Keynesians, that is, economists following the theory of John M. Keynes, suppose inflation to be due to processes occurring in money circulation. They say that low inflation and unemployment rates can be ensured by adopting a tight incomes policy.

Incomes policies, though, monetarists argue, may temporarily speed up the transition to a lower inflation rate but they are unlikely to succeed in the long run.

The costs of inflation depend on whether it was anticipated and on the extent to which the economy's institutions allow complete inflation adjustment. The longer inflation continues, the more the economy learns to live with it. Indexation is a means to reduce the costs of some inflation effects. Indexed wages or loans mean that the amount to be paid or repaid will rise with the price level. Indexation has already been introduced in countries that had to live with inflation rates of 30 or 40 per cent for years. And the more any country adjusts its economy to cope with inflation, the closer it comes to hyperinflation. Indexation means that high rates of inflation are much more likely to continue and even to increase.

III CEMECTP

GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT

Gross Domestic Product or GDP is the amount of money a country makes from goods and services inside the country for a certain period of time, usually for a year. When GDP is calculated different sectors of economy are analysed.

In the United Kingdom the following sectors of economy are usually analysed: manufacturing, services (financial, professional and scientific services, leisure and tourism), energy (oil, natural gas, coal) and agriculture. In the United States the following sectors of economy are usually analysed when the GDP is defined: construction and manufacturing; trade and finance; transport, communication and services; agriculture; and mining.

Speaking, as an example, about one of the recent year's GDP figures, the following can be quoted:

In the U.K. the services sector accounted for roughly 60 per cent of Gross Domestic Product. Manufacturing sector accounted for a small percentage of gross domestic product Energy production sector accounted for about 8 per cent of GDP. Agriculture - only for 4 per cent of GDP. But the agricultural sector satisfies two-thirds of the country's needs. And only a small fraction of the total population, about 2 per cent, are engaged in agriculture.

In the U.S.A. the construction and manufacturing sector accounted for 40 per cent of GDP; trade and finance earned 25 per cent of GDP; transport, communication and services sector earned 20 per cent of GDP; agriculture and mining earned 5 per cent of GDP. By the way 10 per cent of the employed population of the United States is engaged in agriculture.

GOLD MARKETS

Unlike most other metals, gold appears in large quantities in fairly pure form in nature. This is why people became interested in this metal. The first discoveries were made in the first century BC when gold was washed from river sand in Egypt. Today gold is mostly extracted by mining. The most

important gold-producing countries in the world are South Africa, the former Soviet Union, the U.S.A., Australia. Other areas where gold is produced are to be found in Canada, Brazil, Columbia, Ghana, the Philippines and more recently in China. The world's gold markets differ from each other not only in their framework but also in their functions. An important distinction has to be drawn between primary and secondary markets. Primary markets are those that receive the newly mined gold, which they then distribute either directly or through secondary markets.

The main primary gold markets, which are often called whole-, salers, are Zurich and London. The secondary gold markets, which are retail dealers, are Frankfurt, Paris, New York, Los Angeles, Chicagd, Panama, Singapore, Hong Kong, Kuwait and others. Thanks to the cooperation between all these centres gold is traded by telephone 24 hours a day by bank dealers and brokers.

COUNTERFEITING

Counterfeiting of money is one of the oldest crimes in history. In the United States, for example, it was a serious problem in the past, when each bank issued its own currency. Therefore they adopted a national currency in 1863. But it did not solve the counterfeiting problem. The national currency, or the dollar, was soon counterfeited so widely, that it became necessary for the U.S. Government to take special measures. In 1865 the United States Secret Service was established to suppress counterfeiting. It curtailed counterfeiting to a certain extent but this crime still exists. The U.S. dollar is now the most counterfeited currency in the world.

Modern photographic and printing devices, colour copiers, laser scanners have made the production of counterfeit money relatively easy.

A lot of special security features are usually used in making banknotes of every country.

In making American dollars, for example, the following security features are used:

red and blue fibres, embedded in the paper

the intaglio printing of some features and many others.

Besides, not long ago, a few more new security features were added to U.S. dollars. These features are as follows:

invisible thread embedded in the paper

microprinting, and others.

These new features appeared first in banknotes of certain denominations only. Other denominations will be gradually made with the same security features.

COMPUTER MAKERS

Computer making industry is developing rapidly and new or improved and modified types of computers (hardware) as well as new programmes (software) come into wide usage. The end users make this industry move forward all the time. The competition is very strong on the world market. Here is a newspaper article speaking about the computer market in European countries which are on the way to United Europe with headquarters in Brussels:

European Computer Makers Seek Support from Brussels

At the conference which started in Venice yesterday leaders of Europe's ailing computer manufacturing companies called for action from Brussels. The companies wanted Brussels to ensure the survival of a significant European information technology industry. The chief executives of Groupc Bull de France, Olivetti of Italy and Siemens-Nixford of Germany complained they were at a disadvantage compared with their U.S. and Japanese competitors.

These U.S. and Japanese companies, they said, enjoyed the benefits of a strong home market and cooperation between the public sector and the computer industry. In these countries, they added, more than 90 per cent of public contracts went to domestic companies. In Europe European-owned companies had only a 30 per cent share of the market for public sector computer projects. The other 70 per cent of contracts went to foreign countries and foreign-owned companies of Europe. The European computer companies stressed that a more sympathetic relationship with the public

authorities should be built in Europe. Mr. Francis Lawrcntz. chairman of Groupe Bull, said he was not seeking protection or fortifications around Europe, but a coherent policy from Brussels leaving no doubt as to the importance of the industry. Among other measures, they asked for involvement at an early stage in the planning of Europe-wide information technology projects. It would give them a good chance of securing final contracts.

CODE OF CONDUCT

The most important rule for a businessman is to keep his word and to be honest. Besides, punctuality is very important for business and social appointments.

The businessman should observe various rules. There are rules for example for greeting people. The most common greetings are: Good morning, Good afternoon, Good evening. The less formal greetings are: Hello, Hi.

There are also various levels and types of saying Good-bye when parting. The most common ways are: Good-bye, Bye-bye, Bye now and Bye. If the people part after their first meeting they can add something like this:

It has been nice seeing you.

I hope to see you again soon.

There are different levels of introductions. For example:

May I introduce Mr. Cornwell (the most formal way).

I'd like you to meet Mr. Cornwell (the less formal way).

This is Mr. Cornwell (the least formal way).

If you are introducing a person or yourself you should say a few words about the person, for example:

Mr. Benton, I would like you to meet Mr. Cornwell. He is doing business in chemicals. He is Vice President of British Chemicals Ltd. His office is not far from yours in London.

When two persons are introduced they exchange the following:

- How do you do.

- How do you do.

They can also add a phrase like this:

I'm glad to meet you.

I'm pleased to meet you.

Nice to meet you.

When you are introduced listen carefully to each name and use it later in your conversation. This will help you to remember the name. If you forget a person's name or did not hear the name do not hesitate to say: I am sorry I didn't catch your name or I am sorry I have forgotten your name.

In many English speaking countries handshaking is a social courtesy whenever people meet or are introduced. When men meet or are introduced they generally shake hands. Women shake hands less frequently. Kissing is prevalent at parties when people meet.

Sometimes people are to introduce others to audience on some formal occasions. For example:

Ladies and gentlemen! It is a privilege for me to introduce Mr. Watts. Mr. Watts is a recognized authority in the management field. He is a member of the advisory committee for the labour and management program. Mr. Watts' topic tonight is: How to organize an effective business planning. Mr. Watts.

IV CEMECTP

PRICE ELASTICITY OF DEMAND AND SUPPLY

There is a relationship between demand and price. How much demand for a commodity is affected by a change in price is called elasticity of demand. If a small change of price results in a large change in demand, the demand is called elastic, if the demand changes only a little it is called inelastic. The price elasticity of demand coefficient is negative as demand usually falls with a rise in

price.

The price elasticity of supply shows the percentage change in quantity supplied resulting from a 1 percent change in price.

As an increase in quantity supplied is normally a result of a rise in price, the coefficient is usually positive. We have a "0" (zero) elasticity when a price change results in no quantity supplied change. This, is called a perfectly inelastic supply. Provided the elasticities vary between zero and one the supply is called inelastic. With coefficients greater than one the supply is called elastic. The percentage change in quantity is larger than the corresponding percentage change in price. Agricultural supply is mostly, inelastic because of the high proportion of such inputs as land, buildings, and machinery. The elasticities of agricultural commodities (potatoes, wheat, fruits, eggs, milk) vary greatly. Because of increasing specialization of production of farm animal products, in particular, elasticities for such commodities as pigs or broilers have decreased in recent years.

MARKET TRENDS

Market size, market structure and market shares are known not to remain the same. What happens today may be totally irrelevant to what is happening in one, two or three years' time. The usual method of deciding what is going to happen in the future is to look at what has happened in the past and project it forwards. This approach is supposed to be fraught with dangers. You have to adjust the numbers for changes which may occur or are forecasted to occur. On a general level anticipated changes in the economy can affect the buying model of individual markets. There may be forecasted changes in tax or other laws which will influence purchasing decisions. New information may emerge on

the effect of certain items (for example, health hazards). On a more specific level, in your particular target market there may be new products or better products emerging. There may be specific changes due to government or local authority policy. And so on. You should look closely at your market to guess what changes will occur which might affect the market trends. In any conversations with people already operating in the market remember to ask what likely changes they think are possible. You may be better able to take advantage of them as a new entrant with no constraints dominating your activity and methods of operating.

THEORY OF SUPPLY

The theory of supply is the theory of how much output firms choose to produce. The principal assumption of the supply theory is that the producer will maintain the level of output at which he maximizes his profit. Profit can be defined in terms of revenue and costs. Revenue is what the firm earns by selling goods or services in a given period such as a year. Costs are the expenses which are necessary for producing and selling goods or services during the period. Profit is the revenue from selling the output minus the costs of inputs used.

Costs should include opportunity costs of all resources used in production. Opportunity cost of a commodity is the amount an input can obtain in its best alternative use (best use elsewhere). In particular, costs include the owner's time and effort in running a business. Costs also include the opportunity cost of financial capital used in the firm.

Aiming to get higher profits, firms produce each output level as cheaply as possible. Firms choose the optimal output level to receive the highest profits. This decision can be described in terms of marginal cost and marginal revenue.

Marginal cost is the increase in total cost when one additional unit of output is produced.

Marginal revenue is the corresponding change in total revenue from selling one more unit of output.

As the individual firm has to be a price-taker, each firm's marginal revenue is the prevailing market price. Profits are the highest at the output level at which marginal cost is equal to marginal revenue, that is, to the market price of the output. If profits are negative at this output level, the firm should close down.

An increase in marginal cost reduces output. A rise in marginal revenue increases output. The

optimal quantity also depends on the output prices as well as on the input costs. Of course, the optimal supply quantity is affected by such noneconomic factors as technology, environment, etc. Making economic forecasts it is necessary to know the effect of a price change on the whole output rather than the supply of individual firms. Market supply is defined in terms of the alternative quantities of a commodity all firms in a particular market offer as price varies and as all other factors are assumed constant.

THEORY OF DEMAND

Consumer demand is the quantities of a particular good that an individual consumer wants and is able to buy as the price varies, if all other factors influencing demand are constant.

That is, consumer demand is the relationship between quantity demanded for the good and its price.

> The factors assumed constant are prices of other goods, income, and a number of economic factors, such as social, physiological, demographic characteristics of the consumer in question.

The theory of demand is based on the assumption that the consumer having budget constraint seeks to reach "the maximum possible level of utility, that is, to maximize utility, but he usually prefers to obtain more rather than less. The consumer has to solve the problem of choice. Provided he is to maintain a given level of utility, increases in the quantity of one good must be followed by reductions in the quantity of the other good. The consumer has to choose the specific goods within the limits imposed by his budget.

The concept of marginal utility is of great importance for solving the utility maximization problem. The marginal utility of a good is the additional utility obtained from consuming an additional unit of the good in question. The marginal utility from consuming a good decreases as more of that good is consumed. The income should be allocated among all possible choices so that the marginal utility per dollar of expenditure on each good is equal to the marginal utility per dollar of expenditure on every other good.

A price increase will result in a reduction in quantity demanded. This relationship between quantity demanded of a good and its price is called

the law of demand. As the marginal utility from each additional unit of the good consumed decreases, the consumer will want to buy more of this good only if its price is reduced.

Market demand is the quantities of a good that all consumers in a particular market want and are able to buy as price varies and as all other factors are assumed constant. A market demand depends not only on the factors affecting individual demands, but also on the number of consumers in the market. The law of demand also works with market demand.

The term "interview" means a conversation at an exhibition, a brief telephone call, a long face-to-face discussion in private. The main point is that you can gather a lot of information simply by talking to people. If you have prepared a questionnaire list to fill in, it will help you analyse the information.

On the whole, you will find that most customers are usually ready to cooperate, as it may mean that you will develop a product more suited to potential and actual customers' needs. If you are researching a consumer market, you should try to talk to the distributors and retailers as well as to the end-users. Most people are known to be glad when they are asked their "professional" opinion. Talking to the final consumers can be a bit of a problem because you may not know who these are. Perhaps a retailer will allow you to spend a day in the shop talking to customers? Asking people in the street outside the store is known to be another possibility. If your product is likely to be exhibited at trade fairs for the consumers to spend some time there asking about the market and the product. Use a brief questionnaire to ensure that you ask the same questions so that the information can be analysed. Interviewing competitors may be an odd idea, but there is no harm in it and it can help you understand what common problems are. If you come across any ex-employees of competitors, it is always worth a discussion, although you have to bear in mind that their view may not be entirely objective if they did not part on good terms with the business.

Before you start your business, you could carry out some discreet research into how the competitors organize their businesses by pretending to be a prospective customer. In this way you can gain some idea of prices, selling methods or even how your potential competitors quote. It may seem unfair, but it is an unrivalled source of information and you may be assured that once you start your business others will do it to you.

ЮРИДИЧЕСКИЙ ФАКУЛЬТЕТ

I СЕМЕСТР

ENGLISH JUDICIAL SYSTEM AND ORIGINS OF ENGLISH LAW

The English judicial system is the product of long historical development. The strong sense for tradition and its preservation in English society was responsible for the fact that some judicial forms and institutions have survived the centuries. For this reason English law is very complex. This chapter presents a brief factual survey of the law system in England. Every law system corresponds to the class character of the society it serves and the English system of law is no exception to this rule. Over the centuries English law has developed to protect, above all, the class interests of the ruling class. This fundamental feature of English law has not changed in any way even today.

There is no single body of law in the United Kingdom. There is, however, a similarity between the systems of England and Wales and of Northern Ireland. Scotland has its own distinctive legal system and law courts, but on many points there is fundamental identity with the rest of the United Kingdom as well. (The Scottish system of law will be dealt with under the chapter on Scotland.) A large volume of modern legislation applies throughout the United Kingdom.

Another common feature is the distinction made between criminal law (concerned with wrongs against the community as a whole) and civil law (concerned with the rights, duties and obligations of individuals towards one another).

Origins of English Law

The sources of law in the United Kingdom include:

1. Written law (i.e. statutes or Acts of Parliament). 2. 'Unwritten' or common law based on past decisions of judges (judicial precedent). Common law, the ancient law of the land deduced from custom and interpreted in court cases by the judges has never been defined or codified, but performs the basis of law except when superseded by legislation. It is also referred to as 'case-law' or 'judge-made law'.

Statutes comprise Acts of Parliament and subordinate legislation made under powers conferred by Parliament (e.g. Orders in Council, orders and regulations made by a minister with the authority of Parliament, by laws made by local government). Statute law is more modern than common law. Common law began to develop in the 12th century and law-making by Parliament in the 13th century. However, most statutes have been enacted only during the past century. Since Parliament is the supreme law-making body in the United Kingdom, Acts of Parliament take precedence over all other sources of law.

In the Middle Ages a supplementary system of law, known as Equity came into being to provide and enforce more effective protection for existing legal rights. People sent petitions to the King asking him to exercise his power of justice. The King's chief minister, the Lord Chancellor dealt with these grievances himself and the decisions depended upon what the Chancellor thought was 'equitable' or 'fair'. In the 15th century a special Court of Chancery was set up and a system of rules called 'rules of Equity' developed as distinguished from 'rules of Common Law'. The Common Law Courts and the Court of Chancery existed as independent courts until 1873, when Equity and Common Law jurisdictions were merged, though its former work is still, by rules of the court, chiefly discharged by Chancery division, and where there is uncertainty Equity takes precedence. English law consists of the rules of common law and Equity, embodied in precedents; changed or supplemented in part by

Acts of Parliament.

MAGISTRATES' COURTS

Magistrates' courts deal with about 98% of criminal cases in England and Wales, and conduct preliminary investigations into more serious offences. Every district has a magistrates' court. The Crown courts, situated in a number of towns and cities, take all criminal work above the level of magistrates' courts and trials are held before a jury.

Magistrates' courts hear and determine charges against people accused of 'summary offences' that is those that can be legally disposed of by magistrates sitting without a jury. Magistrates or Justices of the Peace as they are also called (JPs for short) are advised on points of law and procedure by a clerk to the justices or an assistant who is legally qualified and is also in charge of the court's administrative arrangements. Most magistrates have little training in law, though they are obliged to attend some appropriate courses. They receive no payment for their work.

Magistrates can only try people for minor offences and cannot usually give prison sentences totaling more than six months. If after hearing all the evidence, they decide that the crime is a serious one, they must send the accused for trial to a higher court — the Crown Court.

In inner London and some other large urban areas where work is heavy and continuous, there are also professional 'stipendiary' magistrates who are full-time, salaried and legally qualified. There are only about forty stipendiary magistrates in England, and a few in Wales.

In most places, however, the magistrates are Justices of the Peace, who have been appointed by the Lord Chancellor on the advice of special advisory committees, of which there is one for each county. They are usually people who hold prominent positions in their locality, and many of them are drawn from the upper classes. Some steps have been taken recently to choose the new justices from wider social backgrounds.

Magistrates' courts are sometimes called 'courts of summary jurisdiction' or 'petty sessions' or 'police courts'. When a court sits it must have at least two justices on it, and not more than seven. The justices take turns at attending court sessions.

The office of magistrate dates back to the year 1360, when they were designed to be a kind of policeman, whose duty it was to search out and arrest offenders, as well as to give evidence against them at their trials. In the course of time they acquired such a wide range of duties that by the middle of the nineteenth century they were almost entirely responsible for the government of counties. However, towards the end of the nineteenth century the establishment of other administrative authorities, in particular County Councils in 1888 relieved the county magistrates of their governmental responsibilities, leaving them judicial functions.

TYPES OF LEGAL PROFESSIONS

Solicitors

There are about 50 000 solicitors. They are found in every town, where they deal with all day-to-day work of preparing legal documents for buying and selling houses, making wills, etc. Solicitors also work on court cases for their clients, prepare cases for barristers to present in the higher courts, and may represent their clients in a magistrates' court.

Barristers

There are about 5 000 barristers who defend or prosecute in the higher courts. Although solicitors and barristers work together on cases, barristers specialize in representing clients in court. The training and career structures for the two types of lawyers are separate. In court barristers wear wigs and gowns in keeping with the extreme formality of the proceedings. The highest level of barristers has the title QC (Queen's Counsel).

Judges

There are a few hundred judges, trained as barristers, who preside in more serious cases.

Jury

A jury consists of twelve people ("jurors") who are ordinary people chosen at random from the

Electoral Register (the list of people who can vote in elections). The jury listens whether the defendant is guilty or innocent. If the person is found guilty the punishment is passed by the judge. Jury is rarely used in civil cases.

Magistrates

There are about 30 000 magistrates (Justices of the Peace or JPs) who judge cases in the lower courts. They are usually unpaid and have no formal legal qualification, but they are respectable people.

Coroners

Coroners have medical or legal training (or both), they deal with violent: or unnatural death.

THE INNOCENT AND THE GUILTY

Imagine that you have been arrested for something like shoplifting or dangerous driving or for getting drunk and causing 'a disturbance of the peace'. You are in a Magistrates' court now.

You, 'the accused', are in a kind of a large open box. It is on a raised platform in the centre of the court. It is called 'the dock' and you are in the dock. There are three Magistrates 'on the bench' in front of you. Below them there is one more man called 'Clerk of the Court', unlike the Magistrates, he is trained in the law, paid for his work. During the case he can give advice to the Magistrates on legal points.

The case begins. The policeman who arrested you gives evidence. He tells the court why and when he arrested you. Your solicitor asks him questions, or cross-examines him. Other witnesses appear. You do not have to speak in your defense — 'everyone is innocent unless proved guilty'. You do not have to prove that you are innocent. The police have to prove that you are guilty.

Then the Magistrates go out of court or discuss your case here in low voices. Then the Clerk of the Court asks you to stand. One of the Magistrates tells you if they have found you guilty or innocent. He can sentence you to no more than six months for one offence or to a fine.

II CEMECTP

WRITING BUSINESS LETTERS

Everyone writes business letters from time to time — to request information, to order a product, to complain about something, to apply for employment or to a training programme. Examples are: letters of application for jobs, scholarships, etc; letters asking for information about courses, services, etc; letters demanding money (which include complaints, a demand for a refund).

Before you sit down to write a business letter you should think carefully about your purpose. Decide in advance why you are writing your letter.

Most businesses receive hundreds of letters each day, so your letter should be, brief and to the point, it should be well organized and laid out very clearly. Important information should appear early in the letter and you should not digress from the main subject. Be concise and try to sound as natural as possible. Stilted, very formal, unnatural or flowery language very often gets in the way of clear communication.

The first paragraph of your letter should introduce your subject and mention any relevant previous correspondence or conversation. The rest of your letter should present your reader with the fact needed to understand what you are saying. Your conclusion should reinforce your message.

When typing your business letter or composing it on a computer, leave wide margins, at least an inch (=2.54 cm) all around. Type your letters single-spaced and use an acceptable format. One of the most common is the block format. The block format letter begins every line at the left-hand margin and separates paragraphs with a double space. If you use letterhead paper, supply only the date typing it two spaces below the letterhead.

The style of business letters is changing rapidly. Every year it gets simpler and less formal. Except for a few firms, business correspondents prefer simple English to express what they want to say as effectively as possible. Time is more precious than ever to a busy executive and he does not want to

have to read a lot of unnecessary words. But the writer of a business letter must create a good impression, especially if he is writing a letter of application, so a few words to promote a feeling of exactness and goodwill are quite appropriate. However, compliments must not be exaggerated, as they may produce the opposite effect, and the reader may feel that the writer is being insincere. In other words, the style of a business letter need not be very formal, but on the other hand it must not be too informal and chatty.

e.g.

Dear Mr. Foster,

Applying for the post of Marketing Manager

I noted with interest your advertisement in yesterday's Daily World.

You will see from the enclosed resume that I have four years experience in marketing. My duties are concerned with sales promotion. My responsibilities have included all types of administrative work, product development, arranging and attending sales conferences and presentations, working with clients and solving problems.

Although I have an excellent relationship with my present employers, Sunshine Communication, which I joined five years ago, I feel that my prospects with them are limited and there are no opportunities for promotion in Sunshine. I am convinced that there would be more scope for my talents and skills with a larger, more dynamic company.

If you consider that my qualifications and experience are suitable, I would be available for interview at any time.

Yours sincerely,

John Raser

BRITISH POLICE

The British police officer — sometimes called the 'bobby' after Sir Robert Peel, the founder of police force, is well-known to everyone in Britain.

The police in Britain are organized very differently from many other countries. Most countries have a national police force which is controlled by the central Government. Britain has no national police force, although police policy is governed by the central Government's Home Office. Instead, there is a separate police authority — a committee of local county councilors and magistrates.

The forces cooperate with each other, but it is unusual for members of one force to operate in another's area, unless they are asked to give assistance. A chief Constable (the most senior police officer of a force) may ask for the assistance of London's police force, based at New Scotland Yard.

In most countries the police carry guns. The British police generally do not carry firearms, except in Northern Ireland. Only a few policemen are armed, those who guard politicians, who patrol airports.

Like in the army there are a number of ranks: the highest is the Chief Constable, the Assistant Chief Constable comes next, and then there is Chief Superintendent, Chief Inspector, Inspector, Sergeant and Constable.

The duties of traffic wardens are to make sure that drivers obey the parking regulations. They have no other powers — it is the police who are responsible for controlling offences like speeding, careless driving and drunken driving.

Each police force has its own Criminal Investigation Department (CID). Members of CIDs are detectives and they do not wear uniforms.

The duties of the police are varied, ranging from assisting at accidents to safeguarding public order and dealing with lost property. One of their main functions is, of course, apprehending criminals and would-be criminals.

CROWN COURTS

The Crown court is responsible for trials of the more serious cases. When a criminal case is not dealt with finally in a magistrates' court it goes for trial in a Crown court. About a hundred towns have crown courts which are presided over by a judge. The most serious offences are dealt with by High Court judges from London. Other offences of not quite such a serious nature are dealt with by circuit (travelling) judges. In London, however, prisoners accused of serious offences are tried at the Old Bailey, the Central Criminal Court. All contested trials in the court take place before a jury of twelve. The duty of the judge is first of all to see that the trial is conducted properly, secondly, to give advice to the jury before asking for its verdict, and finally, if the jury finds the accused "guilty" to decide on the penalty. The Crown court may impose a fine of any amount on a convicted offender and, within the maximum penalty determined by Parliament. The judge is helped in deciding on the penalty by two JPs who have been sitting beside him throughout the proceedings.

Coroners' Courts

Coroners' courts investigate violent and unnatural deaths or sudden deaths where the cause is unknown. Cases may be brought before the local coroner (a senior lawyer or doctor) by doctors, the police or members of the public, and it is the coroner's duty to hold an inquiry into how, when and where the deceased died. In the case of sudden death where the cause is unknown, the coroner need not hold an inquest in court, but may order a post-mortem examination to determine the cause of death. Where there is reason to believe that the deceased died a violent or unnatural death the coroner must hold an inquest.

Coroners were originally appointed in each county by the king in the twelfth century to keep a careful watch on the sheriffs, especially in respect of royal revenues.

Civil Courts

The main courts of civil jurisdiction in England and Wales are the county courts, which are the courts for the lesser cases, and the High Court, where more important cases are tried. Most appeals go to the Court of Appeal. If the appeal is refused there can be a final appeal to the House of Lords, but this rarely happens.

There are about 300 county courts in England and Wales. The county court is descended from the shire court of Anglo-Saxon times. The jurisdiction of these courts covers actions founded upon contract and tort (injury, harmful act for which a civil action can be brought), mortgage cases; and actions for the recovery of land. Other matters dealt with by the county courts include hire purchase, the Rent Acts, landlord and tenant and adoption cases.

TREATMENT OF OFFENDERS

Juvenile Courts. The aim of these courts is not to punish but to correct and give helpful advice. Young offenders may be sent to special "approved" schools. These are educational institutions, housed in open buildings. Some come under the local education authorities, and all have to be approved by the Home Office. The character of the schools, and the type of technical education given in each, varies, but the atmosphere is very different from that found in the old reform schools and industrial schools, which were replaced by the approved schools in 1933 by Act of Parliament.

Attendance Centres. Offenders, both male and female, may be ordered to spend a total of up to 24 hours of their spare time on Saturdays at an attendance centre (up to three hours on any one occasion). The centres provide physical training and instruction in handicrafts or other practical subjects for those found guilty of offences for which older people could be sent to prison.

Detention Centres: These centres provide a means of treatment for young offenders (males only) aged 17—21 for whom a long period of training away from home does not seem necessary or justified by the offence. Training comprises a normal working week of 40 hours. The normal period of detention is three to six months. After discharge, offenders are supervised for up to a year. Boys aged 14 to 16 may be sent to a junior detention centre, where the regime is similar to that in senior

detention centres.

Borstal Institutions: Young offenders aged 15—20 years may be sent to Borstal institutions for a training period ranging from six months to two years followed by supervision-care. Emphasis is placed on vocational training in skilled trades. Courts order Borstal training only when they have already tried fines, probation or detention centre training, perhaps all three.

Crimes of violence and theft have increased greatly in recent years, and many crimes are committed by young people. The prisons, many of them over a hundred years old, are overcrowded and conditions far from satisfactory. There have been serious disturbances and riots in some prisons over the past years.

The Police and Traffic

There is no special traffic police in Britain. The British police complain that they have to spend far too much time controlling the traffic and dealing with traffic offences.

Traffic wardens were first introduced in 1960. In 1975 there were about 6,000 in England and Wales. They deal with minor traffic offences, like parking in the wrong place, or driving without lights; they report car owners who do not have a licence and supervise school children crossing roads.

COURSE OF PROCEDURE

In a Crown court the accused person when brought into the "dock" is asked by the Clerk if he is guilty or not guilty. If he replies not guilty, then he must be tried to establish this fact. If he pleads guilty the court is at liberty to sentence him without trial, but in practice he is usually advised by the judge to substitute a plea of not guilty so that the circumstances may be properly investigated. When the jury has been sworn in, it takes its place in the "jury-box" and the trial begins.

The case is explained to the jury by the leading counsel for the prosecution. The prosecution builds up its case by presenting witnesses, who go into the witness-box where they are questioned by the prosecuting barrister (or "counsel"), so that a story of the supposed crime can be built up. Each witness may be cross-examined by the other side on the evidence which he has given. When the examination of the Crown witnesses is concluded, the defence may call witnesses, including the accused himself, in an attempt to show that he is innocent; these witnesses may be cross-examined by the other side.

When this is completed, the judge sums up the evidence for the benefit of the jury and instructs them on points of law involved, presenting them with the problem they have to decide. The twelve members of the jury retire to a room where they are locked in and left alone until they agree on a verdict. Until 1966 in England and Wales all members of the jury had to be in agreement. Now, at least ten of the twelve jury members must agree before a verdict can be given. Normally the jury does agree, though sometimes only after many hours. If the jury finds the accused guilty, then the judge "pronounces sentence". On the other hand, if the accused is proved to be innocent, then he is acquitted. A police witness gives evidence about the previous convictions (if any) of the prisoner, and also about his character.

If a person is found guilty of a small offence and has no previous conviction, he may receive no punishment at all. On the other hand, he may be placed on probation for a certain period, that is, he will be left at liberty, but under the supervision of a probation officer, who is a trained social worker. Punishments may be in the form of fines or imprisonment.

III CEMECTP

OUTFLOW OF CAPITAL

During the period of Russia's transition from a centrally planned economy to a market economy, the opportunities to launder money appear to be limitless. Despite what is written in the media and debated in international fora, Russian law enforcement statistics do not support the thesis that criminally derived proceeds from abroad are entering Russia and subsequently laundered. This also holds true for foreign proceeds from drug or arms trafficking, and the sale of nuclear materials.

Russian officials admit that mechanisms to detect and measure money laundering are lacking or could be improved, but the general consensus is that foreign funds are not laundered in Russia. The country does, however, remain vulnerable to money laundering, given the current legal and economic conditions.

What is happening is a massive outflow of capital from Russia. These proceeds range from criminally-derived funds from commonplace offenses to the misappropriation of state assets through embezzlement, theft, and corruption. This money is legalized in Russia and eventually sent abroad, primarily to Western countries for laundering and safekeeping.

Funds leaving Russia to be legalized abroad consist of a combination of assets from the proceeds of predicate offenses stipulated by criminal codes and proceeds that are illegally transferred out of Russia, commonly referred to as «gray money». Examples of this include corporate, private, and official funds sent to foreign accounts to evade hard currency restrictions, taxation, inflation, or detection.

These types of illegal proceeds include more than those generated by organized crime. Instances of embezzlement by individuals in positions allowing access to either private or public funds also occur; these proceeds are likewise sent abroad. The proceeds ultimately return to Russia in the form of cash, goods, services, and equipment. Those remaining in Russia are used for operational expenses in furtherance of the criminal enterprise.

Russian officials estimate that during the years 1992 and 1993, assets valued at four trillion roubles were stolen from the state. At the nominal exchange rate of \$1.00 = R200.00 during this period, the equivalent losses incurred in U.S. dollars were \$20 billion. According to Russian government estimates, approximately \$100 billion of funds attributed to Russian sources lie outside the country in foreign banks. Approximately \$30—40 billion of this sum is capital from tax and customs evasion.

METHODS AND MEANS

Common methods used to launder assets are false invoicing schemes, keeping of double books, and contract fraud. A common scenario is a wire transfer of funds in Western currency to a front company abroad for a commercial transaction. A fraudulent purchase contract provided by the front company is presented as proof of the commercial need for wiring the funds. After the funds are wired, the legitimized funds are free to be transferred or converted to cash; this method is also used to embezzle state funds.

Another method used to launder funds involves instances in which suppliers never receive payment for products that are purportedly ordered by the state. Schemes to defraud the state of strategic materials — such as oil, gas, metal, gold, diamonds, and timber — regularly occur in which the resources are shipped abroad with deliberately undervalued invoices and sold at world markets — the profits of which are embezzled by the perpetrators.

In Russia, organized crime is defined as activity of criminal formations of different levels of organization. These criminal formations are groups, gangs, and organizations. At present, there are approximately 6,000 organized crime groups operating in Russia, whose significant numbers constitute criminal organizations. Seven criminal organizations operate in Moscow and ten in Sankt-Peterburg. In 1995, 25 criminal organizations were known to have international ties; 19 among them — in the former Soviet republics. There is no concrete proof of foreign organized crime groups operating in Russia. Organized crime is countered by the main Organized Crime Control Department of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Russia and its local offices in the various regions of the country. ,

The connection between the shipments of massive amounts of bulk US currency to Russia and organized crime is speculative. One purely economic explanation for this currency flow is to satisfy the demand for US dollars by average Russian citizens. As a hedge against inflation, Russians convert their earnings in roubles to dollars, which are reconverted to roubles for routine purchases as needed. Given the size of the Russian economy, the US dollar would be the logical choice because of its relative stability, and the amount of US currency in circulation worldwide. This does not preclude

the use of some of this currency by organized crime, but media reports overstate the magnitude. The theft of nuclear material is recognized as an extremely dangerous undertaking in Russia. It requires specialized professionals to handle radioactive materials, and it is well known that numerous intelligence organizations — both foreign and domestic — monitor the theft of and trade in nuclear materials.

Arms trafficking in Russia is problematic for several reasons. Border controls have not kept pace with the arms trade, there are profits to be made, and weapons are used in the commission of other crimes. Arms trafficking is considered a serious and major concern by Russian law enforcement officials.

APPLYING FOR A STUDENT VISA

To enter the United States you must have your passport identifying you as a citizen of Russia and the correct U.S. non-immigrant visa.

A visa is not a guarantee that you will be permitted to enter the United States. Actual permission to enter the country is granted, only at the point of entry. The Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) official who examines your passport at the point of entry actually issues the permission for you to enter the country. The INS official also determines how long you will be permitted to stay.

The visa is stamped into your passport by a consular officer of the U.S. embassy or consulate in Russia. The type of visa you hold is also indicated. An F-1 visa is for students who have been accepted for full-time study in academic or language programs; a J-1 visa is for exchange visitors, who may also be students.

When your visa expires, you must apply for a new non-immigrant visa to re-enter the United States. It is impossible to obtain a U.S. visa while you are in the United States. To apply for a visa, you must go to a U.S. consulate or embassy in a country other than the United States.

When a U.S. educational institution accepts a foreign student for full-time academic study, it sends to the student Form 1-20 A-B ("Certificate of Eligibility") as proof of acceptance. If you are admitted to the United States in F-1 status, pages 3-4 of the Form 1-20 A-B will be returned to you as the Form 1-20 ID Copy (also known as student copy) by a U.S. immigration officer at your port of entry. You should retain this document at all times. You should not surrender it, even when you temporarily leave the country.

On the airplane, you will be given the Form 1-94 ("Arrival Departure Record") to complete. When you leave the airplane, the U.S. immigration officer will review your documents, indicating on the Form 1-94 the length of time you will be permitted to stay in the United States, and the name of the educational institution that you will attend. The U.S. immigration officer will then attach the 1-94 to your passport.

The Form 1-94 contains an H-digit number which is used by the INS to monitor your entry and departure from the United States. This is the same number as the one entered on the Form 1-20 ID (the student copy portion of the Form 1-20 A-B). No one else will ever receive this ID number, which is also called an "Admission Number". The INS will create a computer record file for you, using this number. The INS will then record all immigration actions (extensions of stay, school transfers, etc.) in this file during your stay in the United States. Your university or college will also use this number as part of their record-keeping requirements.

BANKS AND LAW

The Bank of Russia has responsibility for bank oversight and regulation of the 1,253 banks that currently operate in the Russian Federation. Non-bank financial institutions (NBFIs) are regulated by a number of agencies along with the Bank of Russia. This oversight and regulation is expressed in large part through the granting and revocation of bank licenses. In addition, the Bank of Russia has and exercises the right to apply the following sanctions to credit institutions: (1) to impose a fine, (2) to appoint temporary administration, (3) to ban certain types of licensed operations, and (4) to require the substitution of officials and the reorganization of the credit institution. The Bank of

Russia also grants licenses to non-bank financial institutions for the movement of capital. There are 1,046 commercial banks authorized by the Bank of Russia to perform foreign currency transactions. The current minimum capitalization requirement for operating credit institutions must reach the level of 5 million ECU before January 1, 1999, and for those established since April 1, 1996, a minimum standard of 2 million ECU has been set, which must reach the level of 5 million ECU before July, 1998.

No specific bank secrecy laws exist relating to the confidentiality of the relationship between a bank and its customers and their transactions or the reporting of unlawful activities to law enforcement authorities; however, there is a general article on bank confidentiality as part of the law on banking activities. The only exception to the disclosure of this type of information is through the serving of a court order as part of a criminal investigation. In the event of freezing or confiscation of an account, bank account information is given to the case arbiter and tax authorities. There are no limitations as to the types of account information the bank may give to criminal investigators. This is left up to the discretion of the individual bank. The Bank of Russia does not have supervisory authority over offshore banks operating outside Russia that do business with Russians. Examples of this would be banks registered in Northern Cyprus and the Baltic nations that advertise in Russian newspapers. The Bank of Russia monitors these banks and provides information to law enforcement agencies in the event of questionable activities.

There is no legal division of banks into types, such as commercial, savings, etc. The following financial institutions operate in Russia: banks, currency exchanges, securities companies, stock brokers, insurance companies, credit card companies, casinos, real estate companies, and travel agencies.

IV CEMECTP

MONEY LAUNDERING TRENDS IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

The money launderer changes the illicit proceeds from one form to another, often in rapid succession. The trend is towards acquiring tangible assets (such as cars, boats, aircraft, luxury items, real estate, and precious metal-s) with the bulk cash originating directly from criminal activity. Often, but not necessarily linked with offshore centres, the mechanism of shell or front companies has been detected. These are entities that generally exist only on paper. These legal entities are usually conducted specifically in order to carry out a wide range of criminal businesses such as financial fraud, especially in the United Kingdom, and fraud against the European Union, especially in the Netherlands, Belgium and Italy. They do not participate in actual commerce and are run by straw men, as often found in Italy. Their purpose is quite exclusively criminal and they often face a «law enforcement risk» from investigations about the real nature of their existence. This is the reason why they are closed down almost as soon as they are formed and often the accountancy books are physically eliminated in order to conceal any trace that could help future or further investigations.

Money launderers are ever more oriented towards the use of non-bank financial institutions which are still not completely or properly regulated in some European Union member states. As they do not always come under the same obligation as the financial sector, because they are not allowed to undertake banking activities to earn interest, they are used especially at the placement stage for entering the cash into the financial market. There is evidence, especially in the Netherlands, Italy and Belgium, of criminal groups moving from major commercial banks to those called second line banks and often operating accounts in the name of offshore companies.

The use of more sophisticated money laundering methods has also gone beyond wire transfers to include a seemingly endless variety of licit and illicit financial instruments.

The possibility for criminal organisations to launder their proceeds through banking financial institutions exists without the knowledge of the illicit source by the financial or commercial operator or because of a more or less explicit complicity, if not even through a corrupted or criminally

controlled institution. Individually or in concert, employees of financial or business institutions are in fact facilitating money laundering operations by willingly accepting large cash deposits, by failing to report transactions which exceed the threshold required by the law or by filing false reporting documents. This situation occurs for example in mature financial systems which are particularly exposed to organised crime, as Italy certainly is.

There is, however, emerging concern about new banking practices within the European Union, such as direct access banking (favoured customers are given the bank's software and allowed to process transactions directly through their accounts) or suspense accounts (of banks with other banks). Pass-through banking by itself is posing a myriad of problems for regulators, by creating accounts within accounts, even banks within banks. These new bank services limit the utility of identification systems. Representative offices — an office representing a foreign bank that does not have a branch in a specific country, constitute another privileged target used by money launderers. Normal financial regulations do not always apply to them because a representative office is not an official banking institution, while the office accepts deposits and transfers the funds into its own account without disclosing the identities of the owners of the deposits.

FIRMS WANT PLAYERS, NOT SPECTATORS

If a degree ever did mean a job for Life, these days are long gone. Recruiters of graduates look for much more than academic success. They want to see a very broad range of skills in their successful applicants. While a good academic record will get your foot in the door as an applicant, selectors are seeking much more than that before they clinch the deal. Interviewers want to hear hard evidence of the competencies you need to do the job. This can be found in all aspects of your life. Recruiters will search through your employment experiences, holidays, leisure pursuits, sports, or activities in the students' union to discover if you have them.

High on their list is commercial awareness. If you have worked in a pub, a shop or some other commercial organization, can you show that you ever saw it as needing to be profitable? Do you have any ideas about how the situation you were in could be improved?

Employers want to hire people who have a 'can do' approach; those who get involved rather than those who stand on the sidelines and watch the world go by. Don't get carried away with your visits to art galleries, the cinema or football matches. Instead concentrate on things you did which achieved something, changed things for the better.

While education may be an individual matter, employment is a team effort. Recruiters are keen to know what you have achieved in a group, on a committee, a sports team or simply with your flat-mates. If you can show that you took the lead, so much the better. Show, if you can, that you are a tactful communicator who can also be persuasive. Tell them about any situation in which you had to speak to an audience or persuade your Mends into a new activity.

In the current climate most students can only make ends meet if they take part-time or vacation employment. It may be a chore, but you may find yourself in situations where customer care was important, where dealing with difficult clients was a problem you overcame. You may have thought how the business could be improved or worked in a team to achieve a particular goal. Tell interviewers what you did on that score. They will be impressed.

Recruiters are not only interested in your o lualifications when you graduate they also want to know what you have achieved, where you were employed and the things you made happen. People who have a 'can do' approach to life, who get involved instead of being a spectator, are extremely attractive to employers. That's just what they want you to do when you join them.

CORRUPTION AND REMEDIES AGAINST IT

During a research recently carried out by TRANSCRIME on corruption in the 15 European Union countries, six main patterns of corruption and different patterns of criminal responses to corruption were outlined:

systematic corruption (Italy, France, Spain and Belgium);

emerging systematic corruption (Germany and Greece);
sporadic corruption (Ireland, Austria and Portugal);
casual corruption (the Netherlands, Finland, Denmark and Sweden);
English corruption (United Kingdom);
managing others' corruption (Luxembourg).

With reference to legal responses the main criteria used for this analysis were:

the definition of the crime of corruption;
the distinction between passive and active corruption;
the definition of passive and active subjects involved in the
crime of corruption; and
sanctions.

The results show that there is less homogeneity with respect to the definition of the crime of corruption. The differences in definition are related to the fact that corruption takes on different forms in the various European countries, depending on each cultural and social context. It is important to study the cultural background of the various countries in order to discover the constant elements of corruption and thus to adopt the most effective preventive measures. For instance, when referring to «corruption prone environment») in Italy, we are talking about a phenomenon that is deeply rooted in the cultural tradition of Italian society, in the sense that corrupt activities are practiced and accepted by normal citizens. The penal codes of the United Kingdom and Germany envisage various levels of corruption crimes (misdemeanors or felonies), according to the position held by the actor. Another distinction is related to the nature of the corruption act, in that it may be linked with, or contrary, to the functional role of the actor. In the case of the passive receipt of a bribe by a public official in order to speed up a service for which he/she is competent, the penalty of a fine is envisaged. On the other hand, a public official who authorizes the issuance of a license although this is not under his/her competence is committing an offence. In Austria (Article 304, paragraph 1), Denmark (Article 144), Finland (Article 40), Germany (paragraph 332), the Netherlands (Article 363) passive corruption involving abuse of the public function is punished with a higher penalty than in the case of corruption that does not involve the abuse of a public function.

CORRUPTION

The corrupted person who reports the payment of a bribe to the legal authorities before being investigated is not punishable according to Article 236 of the Greek penal code. This is also the case in Germany which, in addition, allows for the acceptance of benefits that have been authorized beforehand. In Sweden, when sums amounting to less than 500 SK are involved, the act is not considered a corruption crime. According to British legislation, a passive actor who is in good faith and unaware of the illicit nature of the payment is not punishable for corruption. In Romania, the party that has been forced to pay the bribe has the right to be reimbursed the amount paid. A large number of states punish attempted corruption as well as accomplished corruption. Consequently, not only the concession or acceptance of benefit of a predominantly economic nature are punishable as a major offence, but also the mere promise to give or receive. The same penalties are applied for attempted corruption that are envisaged for committed corruption.

On the contrary, Germany envisages milder sanctions for attempted active or passive corruption. According to the laws of numerous states, the benefits resulting from corruption need not necessarily be of an economic nature, but can also be of an abstract nature, such as improved career prospects, speeding up of paper work, etc. The important thing is that the beneficiary, the corrupted person or his/her family can improve their position with respect to the previously held one. The states that have adopted the wider definition of the concept of «advantage» are Germany, Greece, the UK and the Netherlands, while there are of course countries like

Austria, Denmark, Finland, etc. that prefer a more material definition.

Only Denmark and Sweden have laws that expressly prohibit corruption in the private sector. This is positive and should be imitated by the other states in order to encourage a greater sense of morality.

Каталог интернет-ресурсов (свободный доступ)

Фонетика	<p>http://real-english.ru/crash/lesson2.htm – классификация звуков, сведения о фонетической системе, аналог в русском языке, варианты написания, звучание</p> <p>http://usefulenglish.ru/phonetics/ – теория фонетики и произношения на английском с переводом на русский язык: гласные и согласные звуки, ударение, интонация; ресурсы для произношения, ресурсы для прослушивания</p>
Лексика	<p>http://www.homeenglish.ru/Word.htm – техника запоминания слов, тесты на знание слов, их правописание, идиомы и фразовые глаголы</p> <p>http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/ - поиск употребления слова в контексте</p> <p>http://quotes.dictionary.com - цитаты</p> <p>http://flashcards.dictionary.com/ - работа со значением слова</p> <p>http://englishhobby.ru/educational_materials_on_topics - лексика по темам (elementary)</p> <p>http://www.englishclub.com/vocabulary - списки наиболее употребительных слов по частям речи</p> <p>http://www.myvocabulary.com – тематические задания и тесты по уровням beginner / intermediate / advanced, направленные на расширение словарного запаса</p> <p>http://www.vocabulary.com –</p> <p>http://funeasyenglish.com/american-english-idioms.htm#Idiom_Introduction_Video – списки идиом на буквы алфавита с дефинициями и примерами употребления; учебные фильмы о некоторых идиомах.</p> <p>http://esldiscussions.com/ – представлено в вопросах более 500 тем для обсуждения</p>
Грамматика	<p>http://englishhobby.ru/grammar/verb_tenses/use_of_tenses - употребление времен в английском языке</p> <p>http://www.classes.ru/grammar/02.cambridge-english-grammar/</p> <p>http://www.homeenglish.ru/Grammar.htm</p> <p>http://www.englishtenseswithcartoons.com</p> <p>http://www.edufind.com/english/writing/easily_confused_words.cfm – правописание и значение слов, близких по звучанию</p> <p>http://abc-english-grammar.com/1/vid.htm - видео уроки</p>
Словари	<p>http://slovari.yandex.ru – АБВУЯ Lingvo переводчик для тех, кто переводит и изучает языки (произношение, грамматические пометы, достаточно полная семантическая структура, синонимы, антонимы, наиболее употребительные выражения, идиомы)</p> <p>http://www.macmillandictionary.com – толковый словарь английского языка (произношение, значение, формы слова, синонимы, американский вариант)</p> <p>http://www.merriam-webster.com/ - толковый словарь английского языка</p> <p>http://www.wordsmyth.net – толковый словарь английского языка в трех уровнях, произношение, словосочетания, грамматический комментарий, употребление в тексте, синонимический ряд</p>

	<p>http://dictionary.reference.com/ -</p> <p>http://www.yourdictionary.com/ - словари, библиотека статей по различным аспектам языка и языковым средствам, возможность найти слово в контексте.</p> <p>http://www.homeenglish.ru/Translators.htm – ссылки на различные английские словари и переводчики</p>
Аудирование, видео	<p>http://www.ted.com/talks/tags – видео, большое количество тем, интерактивный транскрипт</p> <p>http://www.videojug.com/ – краткие видеофильмы (от 2 мин.) с текстовым представлением, большое количество тем</p> <p>http://www.youtube.com/user/JenniferESL - видеоуроки для разного уровня обучающихся (фонетика, грамматика, лексика) (хороший английский язык)</p> <p>http://mrtranslate.ru/view/english-12.html - видеоуроки</p> <p>http://englishhobby.ru/list_audio_exercises</p> <p>http://www.learner.org/resources/series71.html?pop=yes&pid=942# - учебный фильм (story-film) в нескольких эпизодах с обсуждением каждого эпизода</p> <p>http://wn.com/conversation - фильмы-диалоги</p> <p>http://wn.com/British_National_Corpus - фильмы British National corpus: грамматика, лексика, культура и др. с титрами.</p> <p>http://video.answers.com/ - фильмы до 5 минут по 20 тематическим группам</p>
Топики	<p>http://www.study.ru/support/topics/ - каталог топиков: страноведение, СМИ, литература, обо мне, культура и искусство, образование, спорт и др.</p> <p>http://www.study.ru/support/topics/geography/uk/index.php - о Великобритании</p>
Тесты	<p>http://englishhobby.ru/tests/placement_test - грамматический тест на определение уровня знания грамматики английского языка</p> <p>http://www.usingenglish.com/quizzes/ – лексико-грамматические тесты, тесты на правописание для уровней beginner и intermediate.</p> <p>http://www.native-english.ru/exercises – интерактивные online тесты на знание грамматики и лексики английского языка. Вариативность тестов</p> <p>http://www.study.ru/test/ – тесты на определения уровня, лексико-грамматические тесты</p> <p>http://esl.about.com/library/quiz/bl_intermediatereview.htm</p>
Специальный язык:	
Юриспруденция	<p>http://abc-english-grammar.com/1/yuristi.htm - книги по теме «английский для юристов»</p>
Культурология	<p>http://www.cnr.berkeley.edu/ucce50/ag-labor/7article/articles.htm - статьи Калифорнийского университета</p> <p>http://video.answers.com/science/science-2 - фильм об Эйнштейне</p> <p>http://video.search.yahoo.com/search/video?p=cultural+diversity – о разнообразии культур</p>

Тестовые задания для самоконтроля**Test №1**

1. Read the text and choose correct statements.

I've just come back from a fortnight at Vista Beach. What a terrible holiday! The weather was awful, the town was boring, the hotel was dreadful and I spent all my money. It rained almost every day and there was a strong wind which blew from the sea, so that even when it didn't rain it was impossible to sit on the beach. There wasn't much to do in the town - not many interesting places to visit. So I stayed in the hotel most days and read a lot of books and watched a lot of rain. In the evenings I went out to bars and discos. But I didn't talk to many people, because I didn't feel well. The hotel looked beautiful in the travel brochure but when I got there I found it was small and dirty. Most of the meals were badly cooked and the waiters were slow and rather rude. I had a tiny room with one small window and a beautiful view of the local fish market. What a smell! And what a noise! I'm back in England now and I need a holiday.

Statements:

1. It was a terrible holiday.
2. It rained almost every day.
3. I sat on a beach every day.
4. There was a lot of to do in the town.
5. I went out to bars and discos.
6. I didn't talk to many people.

2. Insert the correct preposition.

a) in б) on в) between г) under

7. The table is ... the armchair and the sofa.
8. The parrot is ... cage.
9. The flowers are ... the vase.
10. The cat is ... the sofa.

3. Choose the correct form of the verb.

11. It... cold yesterday.

- a) is
- б) was
- в) will be

12. ... you be at the party tomorrow?

- a) were
- б) did
- в) will

13. Jane ... a party last Monday.

- a) had
- б) will have
- в) was

14. When you came, I ... at the piano.

- a) have been playing
- б) was playing
- в) will play

15. Harry never ... to work by bus.

- a) go
- б) goes
- в) do goes

4. Find the correct answer.

16. The water in the river is ... than in the lake.

- a) warm
- б) wamer
- в) more worm

17. This book is ... than that one.

- a) the cheapest
- б) cheaper
- в) more cheap

5. Choose the appropriate modal verb.

18. ... I go for a walk, mother?

- a) mast
- б) can
- в) may

19. One... cross the street for red light!

- a) mast not
- б) should not
- в) need not

20. There will be an exam tomorrow and I ... to prepare for it.

- a) mast
- б) have to
- в) ought

6. Insert the correct pronoun.

21. Ann is the girl ... works with me.

- a) which
- б) what
- в) who

22. ... is that man in green suit? I don't know...

- a) what, him
- б) who, him
- в) who, his

23. I thought... there was a man.

- a) that
- б) who
- в) what

Test №2

1. Read the text and choose correct statements.

My friend Pete is twelve. He lives not far from my house in a new building with seventeen floors. We usually play together in the garden. Pete likes to play football. He plays it very well. I don't play football well, so Pete sometimes teaches me how to do it. There are two football teams in our garden - one lives in my house and the other lives in Pete's house. But Pete and I play in the same team because we are very good friends. Our team usually wins games, but the other team can be the winner, too. It is interesting to play with them because there are a lot of good players there.

Statements:

- 1. We usually play football in the garden.
- 2. Pete lives in a new house.
- 3. There are three teams in the garden.
- 4. Pete can play football.
- 5. I can't play football.
- 6. The other team is good.
- 7. The other team sometimes wins games.
- 8. I teach Pete to play football.
- 9. The teams live in different houses.
- 10. Pete and I play in different teams.

2. Match the words with a part of speech.

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| 11. my | a) Noun |
| 12. daughter | б) Pronoun |
| 13. younger | в) Verb |
| 14. have | г) Adjective |

3. Match the words with a type of a syllable.

- | | |
|-----------|----------------|
| 15. score | а) 1 тип слога |
| 16. here | б) 2 тип слога |
| 17. type | в) 3 тип слога |
| 18. corn | г) 4 тип слога |
| 19. must | |
| 20. tune | |
| 21. pure | |
| 22. bird | |

4. Define the consequence of the sentence.

23. Вопросительное предложение (общий вопрос)

- а) подлежащее
- б) дополнение
- в) сказуемое
- г) обстоятельство
- д) вспомогательный глагол

24.

- а) they
- б) in
- в) Moscow
- г) do
- д) live

5. Choose the correct form of the verb.

25. My grandmother ... a teacher

- а) am
- б) is
- в) are

26. You ... nine years old.

- а) am
- б) have
- в) are
- г) is

27. Ann ... two brothers.

- а) is
- б) have
- в) has

28. Harry never ... to work by bus.

- а) go
- б) goes
- в) does

6. Choose the correct word.

29. There are 5 ... in the room

- а) boxes
- б) box
- в) boxes

30. Peter has 2 ...

- а) childs
- б) children
- в) childrens

7. Find the appropriate answer.

31. Do you speak English?

- a) Yes, I am
- б) Yes, I do
- в) Yes, I have

32. Are you a student?

- a) Yes, I am
- б) Yes, I do
- в) Yes, I have

33. Does she like chocolate?

- a) No, she don't
- б) No, she doesn't
- в) No, she does

Test №3.

1. Read the text and choose correct statements.

Christopher Columbus was born in the seaport town of Genoa in Italy in 1451. When he was only ten years old, Columbus went to a famous school near Genoa and studied arithmetics and geography. He was only 14 years old when he first sailed to the East. Then he made many voyages before he was able to buy three small ships and sail across the Atlantic Ocean. His life on the sea, talks with sailors and the results of science made him sure that the earth is round. He wanted to reach India by a westward voyage and at the same time prove that the earth was round. He also wanted to discover a new and shorter way to the East. Columbus set sail on the 3rd of August, 1492. He was on the Ocean for ten weeks. After many hardships he and his sailors saw land. The land was America.

Columbus continued his explorations but he always thought that the islands he had discovered were the West Indies and he died never knowing that he had discovered a new Continent.

Statements:

1. Columbus was born in London.
2. Columbus went to school when he was ten.
3. He studied arithmetics and physics.
4. He first sailed to the East when he was twenty.
5. Columbus sailed across the Atlantic- Ocean.
6. He wanted to reach India and to prove that the earth is round.
7. Columbus wanted to discover a new Way to the West.
8. He was on the ocean for ten months.
9. Columbus and his sailors discovered America.
10. Columbus died never knowing that he had discovered a new continent.

2. Match the words with: a part of speech.

11. their a) Verb

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------|
| 12. interesting | б) Noun |
| 13. production | в) Pronoun |
| 14. produce | г) Article |
| 15. the | д) Adjective - synonyms |
| 16. famous | а) prepare |
| 17. speak | б) well-known |
| 18. cook | в) pretty |
| 19. beautiful | г) talk |
| 20. small | д) little - antonyms |
| 21. bad | а) foolish |
| 22. clever | б) interesting |
| 23. black | в) slow |
| 24. dull | г) white |
| 25. quick | д) good |

3. Choose the correct verb form:

26. Look! The train ... just... .
- а) is leaving
 - б) have left
 - в) will leave
27. I ... him for 10 years already/.
- а) had known
 - б) know
 - в) have been knowing
28. Do you like orange juice?
- а) Yes, I do
 - б) Yes, I did
 - в) No, I am not
29. Did you hear the bell?
- а) No, I didn't
 - б) Yes, I hear
 - в) No, I don't
30. Where are the children now?
They ... in the garden.
- а) played
 - б) play
 - в) are playing
31. When I came home yesterday, the telephone.....
- а) rings
 - б) was ringing
 - в) rang

4. Choose the correct article:

- a) a b) the
- б) an г)...

32. "What is your mother?" "She is ... doctor".

33. She... woman who wrote this book.

34. Sally doesn't like ... chocolate is.

35. We have ... breakfast every day.

5. Insert the correct Preposition:

36. My birthday is ... Monday.

a) on

б) in

в) ...

37. The lesson will begin ... 2 o'clock

a) in

б) at

в) on

38. My friend is going ... Moscow

a) at

б) in

в) to

6. Choose the word which is unsuitable:

39.

a) hot

б) flower

в) cold

г) cool

д) warm

40.

a) butter

б) bread

в) book

г) lemon

д) potato

Test №4

1. Read the text and choose correct statements.

Thanksgiving day is a legal holiday in the United States. It is celebrated on the fourth Thursday in November. This is a family holiday when all the members get together and have a meal. Most people go to church in the morning, and then come to the Thanksgiving dinner at which roasted turkey is usually served.

This holiday is a harvest festival which is thought to be one of the oldest and most popular ones in the world. The first celebration in the United States was held in 1621 when the settlers gathered their first harvest. First people came to New England in December 1621 on a ship called "The Mayflower". The winter was very cold so half of them died during the first months of 1621 of

hunger and diseases. The settlers weren't good farmers, so they couldn't grow anything by themselves. The Indians whose land it was gave them some seeds which they planted, and the first harvest was very good.

Later Thanksgiving days were celebrated all over the country among the settlers but the dates were different. During the first year of the Civil war in October 1863 President Lincoln proclaimed this holiday to be a national one. And even later, in 1951, the United States Congress fixed this celebration on the fourth Thursday of November.

Statements:

1. Thanksgiving is now celebrated
 - a) on December 21;
 - б) on the fourth Thursday in November;
 - в) after a very cold winter;
 - г) after a very good harvest.
2. The first celebration was held
 - a) after the first harvest
 - б) after the Civil war;
 - в) in 1951
 - г) in 1863
3. The settlers took seeds from the Indians because...
 - a) they didn't want to grow anything by themselves;
 - б) they had no possibility to grow anything by themselves;
 - в) they didn't want to offend the Indians whose land it was;
 - г) they didn't want to come back to England to get some seeds.
4. Half of the people arrived on "The Mayflower" died because
 - a) they didn't like new surroundings;
 - б) they couldn't live with Indians;
 - в) the harvest was not good enough;
 - г) the winter was severe.

Choose the correct verb form:

5. In Novosibirsk buildings... very rapidly.
 - a) is being built
 - б) are built
 - в) are building
6. The sky is cloudy. It ... rain.
 - a) may be
 - б) can be
 - в) must be
7. Tomorrow morning Helen ... at 7 o'clock.
 - a) wakes up
 - б) wake up
 - в) will wake up

8. Five hundred years ago they ... tea.

- a) drink no
- б) drank not
- в) did not drink

9. I... tennis when I was 15.

- a) play
- б) played
- в) plays

10. Ann ... a new dress a few days ago.

- a) bought
- б) buy
- в) has bought

11. ... you be at school tomorrow?

- a) do
- б) are
- в) will

12. Tom is their ... son

- a) older
- б) elder
- в) oldest

13. If I... the letter tomorrow, I'll phone you.

- a) receive
- б) shall receive
- в) received

14. She said she ... to see us.

- a) will come
- б) would come
- в) comes

Match the following words with:

15. A part of speech.

- | | |
|-------------|--------------|
| 1. educated | a) Noun |
| 2. highly | б) Pronoun |
| 3. customer | в) Verb |
| 4. himself | г) Adverb |
| 5. to sign | д) Adjective |

16. Synonyms.

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| 1. use | a) clever |
| 2. fast | б) strange |
| 3. intelligent | в) apply |
| 4. unusual | г) good-looking |
| 5. beautiful | д) quick |

17. Translation.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. She may come. | а) Она должна прийти. |
| 2. She could not come. | б) Ей пришлось прийти. |
| 3. She must come. | в) Она сможет прийти. |
| 4. She had to come. | г) Ей можно прийти. |
| 5. She will be able to come. | д) Ей можно не приходить. |
| 6. She need not come. | е) Ей не следует приходить. |

Match the English sentence with translation.

18. She is reading an interesting book.

1. Она прочитала интересную книгу.
2. Она читает интересную книгу.
3. Она прочитает интересную книгу.

19. My friends have already come.

1. Мои друзья уже идут
2. Мои друзья уже пришли.
3. Мои друзья уже подходят.

20. The first pyramids were built by Aztecs.

1. Ацтеки построили первые пирамиды.
2. Первые пирамиды построили Ацтеки.
3. Первые пирамиды были построены Ацтеками.

Ключи к тестовым заданиям

Test №1

1. 1,2,5,6.
2. 7-в, 8-а, 9-б, 10-г.
3. 11-б
12-в
13-а
14-б
15-б
4. 16-б
17-б
18-в
19-а
20-б
5. 21-в
22-б
23-а

Test №2

1. 1,2,4,6,7,9.
2. 11-б
12-а
13-г
14-в
15-г
16-г
17-а
18-в
19-б
20-а
21-г
22-в
3. 23. д, а, в, б, г.
24. г, а, д, б, в.
4. 25-б
26-г
27-в
28-б
5. 29-в
30-б
6. 31-б
32-а
33-б

Test №3

1. 2, 5, 6, 9, 10.
2. 11-в
12-г
13-б
14-а
15-д
16-б
17-г
18-а
19-в
20-д
21-д
22-а
23-г
24-б
25-в
3. 26-б
27-а
28-а
29-а
30-в
31-б

4. 32-а
33-в
34-г
35-г
5. 36-а
37-б
38-в
39-б
40-в
41-г

Test №4

1. 1-б
2-а
3-б
4-г
2. 5-б
6-в
7-в
8-в
9-б
10-а
11-в
3. 12-б
13-а
14-б
4. 15. 1-д
2-г
3-а
4-б
5-в
16. 1-в
2-д
3-а
4-б
5-г
17. 1-г
2-д
3-а
4-б
5-в
6-е
5. 18-б
19-б
20-в

Контрольные работы**Контрольная работа №1**

I. В каких из следующих слов звук, передаваемый буквосочетаниями, отличается от остальных? (Нужное слово подчеркнуть)

- 1) head, dead, threat, breath, break, instead;
- 2) call, tall, ball, calm, hall, all, talk, walk;
- 3) finished, worked, hoped, kissed, stopped, demanded.

II. Поставьте вопрос к подчеркнутому слову.

- 1) He has just left.
- 2) This pair of trousers costs seven dollars.

III. Выберите правильную форму глагола:

- 1) This money (is, are, have been) enough to buy this book.
- 2) Nick (was examining, was being examined) for a whole hour.
- 3) We asked if he (wants, wanted, will want) to join us.
- 4) We expected the guests (come, to come, coming) at 5.
- 5) They (didn't arrive, hadn't arrived, haven't arrived) yet.
- 6) Ann (has written? writes, has been writing) letters all day.
- 7) Everyone has to answer for his action (hasn't he, has he, does he, doesn't he)?
- 8) Don't go out. It (rain, rains, had rained, is raining) hard.

IV. Выберите правильный вариант:

- 1) I'm afraid I have (few, little) money left.
- 2) He is interested (with, of, in) collecting stamps.
- 3) That's (a, the, -) good suggestion.
- 4) The businessmen arrived (in, to, at, for) the airport at 8.30.
- 5) Would you like (other, another, others, the others) sweet?

V. Соотнесите глагол и существительное:

- 1) sign; 2) make; 3) become; 4) get; 5) post; 6) diagnose;
- a) model; b) illness; c) job; d) appointment; e) contract; f) letter.

VI. Укажите, какой из глаголов выражает сказанное в предложении:

- 1) I'm sorry. Can I put a word in? (explain, interrupt, add)
- 2) I'm sorry. I didn't mean to hurt you. (explain, offer, apologize)

VII. Какой из праздников соблюдается в России?

- 1) Bank Holiday 2) Boxing Day 3) Pancake Day 4) Halloween 5) St. Valentine's Day 6) Easter 7) Thanksgiving Day 8) Mother's Day 9) Columbus Day.

VIII. Какой частью речи являются подчеркнутые слова?

- 1) He will head our delegation at the Congress, (существительное, прилагательное, глагол)
- 2) Much time has passed since that time, (предлог, союз, наречие).

IX. Отметьте правильный вариант перевода:

1) We are used to taking coffee every morning. (Мы раньше пили кофе каждое утро. Мы пьем кофе каждое утро. Мы привыкли пить кофе каждое утро).

2) The flowers are in the vase. (Цветы в вазе. В вазе цветы).

3) I saw her working in the garden. (Я видела, что она работала в саду. Я видела ее работающей в саду. Я видела, как она работала в саду).

X. Раскройте скобки. Поставьте глаголы в правильную форму. Переведите текст.

Androclus

In ancient Rome there lived a poor slave who (call) Androclus. He had a very bad master and one day Androclus (run) away. For many days he (hide) in the forest without any food. He (be going) (die) as he (not eat) anything for a long time. He (find) a cave, (lie) on the ground and (fall) asleep. But soon he (wake up) by a loud noise. To his horror Androclus (see) a big lion (come) into the cave. The next moment Androclus (understand) that something (happen) to the lion's foot. He (can) hardly (move). The slave (raise) the lion's paw and (see) a big thorn in it. He (pull) it out and the lion G^{ump} with joy. They (become) good friends and lived in the cave for a long time.

But one day Androclus (catch). There was a law in Rome that every slave who (run) from his master (have to) fight with a hungry lion. So, Androclus (bring) to the arena where a lot of people (sit). Soon a hungry lion (let in). Androclus (give) a cry, but it was not a cry of fear, but of joy as he (recognize) his old friend, whom he (meet) in the cave. The lion jumped at Androclus and (begin) (lick) his face and hands. All the people (be surprised) and (want) the slave (explain) it. And after he (do) it they all (cry): «(Give) them freedom and (let) them (live) together again.

So, the two friends (get) their freedom and (live) happily together for many years to come.

Контрольная работа №2

I. В каких из следующих слов звук, передаваемый буквосочетаниями, отличается от остальных? (Нужное слово подчеркнуть)

- 1) glow, slow, show, snow, fellow, down, grow, thrown;
- 2) cool, room, roof, zoo, troops, flood, too, soon, moon.

II. Поставьте вопрос к подчеркнутому слову.

- 1) Babies have five meals a day.
- 2) They were at the disco last night.

III. Выберите правильную форму глагола:

- 1) The news (is, are, have been) so shocking.
- 2) I'll (be seeing, being seen) you tomorrow.
- 3) I thought that you (will warn, had been warned, have been warned).
- 4) What makes you (think, to think, thinking) so?
- 5) The earth (goes, was going, will go, has gone) round the sun.
- 6) The car is going now. Tom (has repaired, repairs, has been repairing) it.
- 7) He (own, owned, has been owning, has owned) the farm since 1987.
- 8) The sun (sets, is setting, has set, sets) early.

IV. Выберите правильный вариант:

- 1) This time there are (less, fewer) mistakes in your dictation.
- 2) (It, there) is pleasant to work in the park.
- 3) They went (to, on, by) talking.
- 4) There wasn't (some people, any people, anybody, no people) in the garden.
- 5) She thinks he's (a smart, a smarter, the smartest) man in the world.

V. Составьте пары антонимов:

- 1) intelligent; 2) exciting; 3) costly; 4) complete; 5) beautiful;
- 6) interested; 7) excellent; a) cheap; b) unfinished; c) poor; d) indifferent; e) stupid;
- f) plain; g) boring.

VI. Какое слово нужно использовать при переводе на английский язык вместо подчеркнутого?

- 1) Он еще не принял никакого решения, (to make, to take, to accept)
- 2) Его приняли очень тепло, (to receive, to admit, to accept)

VII. Расставьте в хронологическом порядке следующие события:

- 1) The battle at Hastings was the beginning of the Norman invasion in Britain.
- 2) Julius Caesar's ambition was to conquer Britain.
- 3) Napoleon suffered a defeat in his war against Russia.
- 4) The five Decembrists were executed.
- 5) The capital of Russia was moved to Moscow.
- 6) Russia was converted into Christianity.

VIII. Какой частью речи являются подчеркнутые слова?

- 1) Where shall we place the sofa? (существительное, прилагательное, глагол)
- 2) We went to school together and I've never met her since (предлог, союз, наречие)

IX. Отметьте правильный вариант перевода:

1) I thought it was warmer outside. (Я думала, что на улице теплее. Я думала, что на улице было теплее).

2) The more we learn the more we know. (Мы много учим, много знаем. Мы больше изучаем, чем знаем. Чем больше мы учим, тем больше мы знаем.)

3) If I meet her today I shall give her your book. (Если я встречу ее сегодня, я отдам ей твою книгу. Если бы я встретила ее сегодня, я бы отдала ей твою книгу.)

X. Раскройте скобки. Поставьте глаголы в правильную форму. Переведите текст.

A Philosopher

Once a philosopher traveled down a river in a small boat. While he (cross) the river he (ask) the boatman: «You ever (hear) about philosophy?» «No» - (say) the boatman. «I never (hear) about it. What (be) it?» «I (be) sorry for you, indeed,» replied the learned man, «You (lose) a quarter of your life as it's a very interesting science!» Several minutes later the Philosopher asked the boatman another question: «You (hear) about Astronomy, when you (be) at school?» «No, I (leave) school many years ago and I (forget) all about it,» - was the answer. To this the philosopher answered that he (be) really sorry for the man, and he (think) that the boatman (lose) a second quarter of his life. Some minutes passed and the passenger again (wonder) if the man ever (hear) about Algebra. And the man (have to) admit that he never (know) about it. «In that case you certainly (lose) a third quarter of your life!» - said the scientist.

At that very moment the boat (strike) on a big stone. The boat .man jumped and (cry): «You ever (learn) (swim)?» «No,» - was the answer. The boatman explained sadly to the philosopher that he (be) sure that he (lose) his whole life as the boat (sink).

Контрольная работа №3

I. В каких из следующих слов звук, передаваемый буквосочетаниями, отличается от остальных? (Нужное слово подчеркнуть)

- 1) cost, coat, country, city, cry, cart, can, clock, could;
- 2) calf, calm, half, talk, walk, folk, hold, palm.

II. Поставьте вопрос к подчеркнутому слову.

1. My mother runs the house perfectly.
2. We like English tea.

III. Выберите правильную форму глагола:

- 1) The clock (is, have, has) stopped.
- 2) A nice piece of music (is playing, is being played).
- 3) She said it (is raining, was raining, will be raining) hard.
- 4) I heard him (talk, to talk, talking) to somebody loudly.
- 5) I (ate, eat, have eaten, will eat) a lot of sweets when I was a child.
- 6) Tom's hands are dirty. He (has repaired, repairs, has been repairing) his car.
- 7) A typist is someone who (types, type, is typing, are typing) letters.
- 8) If the child (are, has, does, is) no better we shall have to take him to hospital.

IV. Выберите правильный вариант:

- 1) I have (a few, a little) interesting books.
- 2) The flowers are (so, such) beautiful!
- 3) She is fond (in, with, of) pop music.
- 4) (all, all pupils, all the pupils, everyone) in my class knows him.
- 5) (a, the, an, -) Mississippi is one of the longest rivers in the world.

V. Образуйте словосочетания из левого и правого столбцов:

- | | |
|------------|------------------|
| 1) make | a) care |
| 2) take | b) an exercise |
| 3) do | c) a mistake |
| 4) make up | d) one's mind |
| 5) have | e) one's promise |
| 6) keep | f) a look |

VI. Укажите, какой из глаголов выражает сказанное в предложении:

- 1) Alan, meet Jim. (greet, welcome, introduce)
- 2) No, thanks, (accept, refuse, give up)

VII. Какое из утверждений является верным?

- 1) The Queen is the leader of the ruling party.
- 2) Great Britain is a monarchy.
- 3) The Queen of Britain is elected every four years.
- 4) The English Parliament consists of two Houses.
- 5) Prime Minister is the head of the Parliament.

VIII. Какой частью речи являются подчеркнутые слова?

- 1) The new room was light and spacious. (существительное, прилагательное, глагол)
- 2) I can't tell you where she is since I haven't seen her for a long time. (предлог, союз, наречие)

IX. Отметьте правильный вариант перевода:

1. I want you to invite him to the concert. (Я хочу пригласить его на концерт. Я хочу, чтобы ты пригласила его на концерт.)
2. What are you doing tonight? (Что ты хочешь делать сегодня вечером? Что ты делала сегодня вечером?)
3. We look forward to seeing this film. (Мы смотрели этот фильм. Мы посмотрели этот фильм. Мы с нетерпением ждем, когда посмотрим этот фильм).

X. Раскройте скобки. Поставьте глаголы в правильную форму. Переведите текст.

A Powerful King

Once there (rule) a powerful king over the island of Samos. He was rich and prosperous, and at last his prosperity (rise) to such a height that e begin to be afraid that the gods (can) (be) jealous of his happiness. So, some messengers (send) to consult an oracle in another country. They (tell) (bring) the answer as soon as they (get) it. When they (reach) the oracle they (receive) the answer: «(Tell) the King that if he (want) to escape the anger of the Gods, he (must) (throw) into the sea that which he (hold) to be the dearest of all his possessions. The messengers returned and the King (tell) what the oracle (say). The King therefore (take) a boat and (go) out to sea, and (throw) away a ring which he (value) greatly because it (give) to him by his dead wife. That night he (think) over what he (do) that day and wondered if the gods (keep) him safe from harm. When he (wake) up in the morning he (sit) down to breakfast. Imagine his surprise when he (open) a fish that (prepare) for him and (see) the ring he (throw) away the day before! A fisherman (catch) the fish that morning and (bring) it to the palace, not knowing what (be) inside it. The king then (understand) that the gods (refuse) his sacrifice. He soon (begin) to lose his power and (die) in great misery. This story is a warning to us not to flatter ourselves that our happiness (be) enduring, unless we (depend) more upon ourselves than upon what we (have).

Список неправильных глаголов

	Infinitive	Past Indefinite	Past Participle	Translation
1	be	was, were	been	быть
2	Bear	Bore	born	рождать
3	Beat	Beat	beaten	бить
4	become	became	become	становиться
5	begin	began	begun	начинать, -ся
6	begird	begirt	begirt	опоясывать
7	bite	bit	bit(ten)	кусать
8	Blow	Blew	blown	дуть
9	break	broke	broken	ломать
10	bring	brought	brought	приносить
12	build	Built	built	строить
13	burn	burnt	burnt	гореть, жечь
14	buy	bought	bought	покупать
15	catch	caught	caught	ловить, схватывать
16	choose	chose	chosen	выбирать
17	come	came	come	приходить
18	cost	cost	cost	стоять
19	cut	Cut	cut	резать
20	dig	dug	dug	копать
21	do	Did	done	делать
22	draw	Drew	drawn	тащить; рисовать
23	drink	drank	drunk	пить
24	drive	drove	driven	гнать; везти; ехать
25	eat	Ate	eaten	кушать
26	fall	Fell	fallen	падать
27	Fight	fought	fought	бороться, сражаться
28	find	found	found	находить
29	fly	Flew	flown	летать
30	forget	forgot	forgotten	забывать
31	forgive	forgave	forgiven	прощать
32	freeze	froze	frozen	замерзать,
33	get	Got	Got	получать

34	give	Gave	given	давать
35	go	went	gone	идти, ехать
36	grow	Grew	grown	расти, выращивать
37	have	had	had	иметь
38	hear	heard	heard	слышать
39	hide	Hid	hidden	прятать
40	hold	Held	held	держать
41	hurt	hurt	hurt	повредить, ушибать; обидеть
42	keep	kept	kept	держать, хранить
43	know	knew	known	знать
44	lay	laid	laid	класть
45	leave	Left	Left	оставлять, уезжать
46	lie	Lay	lain	лежать
47	lose	lost	lost	терять
48	make	made	made	делать; заставлять
49	mean	meant	meant	значить; подразумевать
50	meet	met	met	встречать
51	pay	paid	paid	платить
52	put	Put	Put	класть
53	read	read	read	читать
54	ride	rode	ridden	ездить верхом
55	ring	rang	rung	звонить;
56	run	Ran	Run	бежать
67	say	said	said	говорить, сказать
58	see	Saw	seen	видеть
59	sell	sold	sold	продавать
60	send	sent	sent	посылать
61	shine	shone	shone	сиять, светить
62	shoot	shot	shot	стрелять
63	show	showed	shown	показывать
64	shut	shut	shut	закрывать
65	sing	sang	sung	петь
66	sit	Sat	Sat	сидеть
67	sleep	slept	slept	спать
68	speak	spoke	spoken	говорить
69	spend	spent	spent	тратить

70	stand	stood	stood	стоять
71	steal	stole	stolen	красть
72	swim	swam	swum	плавать
73	take	took	taken	брать
74	teach	taught	taught	обучать, учить
75	tell	told	told	рассказывать
76	think	thought	thought	думать
77	throw	threw	thrown	бросать
78	understand	understood	understood	понимать
79	win	won	won	выигрывать
80	write	wrote	written	писать

Глаголы с предлогами

1	to agree to / with to agree	соглашаться с чем-то
2	to agree on / upon	прийти к соглашению
3	to arrive at an agreement	прийти к соглашению
4	to arrive at a compromise	прийти к компромиссу
5	to arrive at a conclusion	прийти к заключению
6	to arrive at a decision	прийти к решению
7	to call for/ on	зайти за
8	to count on	рассчитывать на кого-либо
9	to deal with	иметь дело с
10	to hear of	слышать о
11	to insist on / upon	настаивать на
12	to interfere with	вмешиваться в, мешать
13	to laugh at	смеяться над
14	to look after	ухаживать за
15	to look at	смотреть на
16	to put up with	примириться с
17	to refer to	ссылаться на
18	to rely on / upon	полагаться на
19	to send for	посылать за
20	to speak about / of, to	говорить о/с
21	to talk about	говорить о
22	to think of	думать о
23	to write about	писать о
24	to find fault with	придираться к
25	to make fun of	насмехаться над
26	to pay attention to	обращать внимание на
27	to take care of	заботиться о
28	to account for	объяснять
29	to comment on	комментировать
30	to listen to	слушать
31	to look for	искать
32	to operate on	оперировать
33	to provide for	снабжать

34	to lose sight of	потерять из виду
35	to make a fool of	дурачить
36	to make use of	использовать
37	to put an end to	положить конец
38	to take (no) notice of	(не) замечать

КОНТРОЛЬНО- ТРЕНИРОВОЧНЫЕ УПРАЖНЕНИЯ

1. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной формах:

He knows French perfectly.
I understand everything he says.
She makes mistakes in spelling.
They enjoy their English lessons.
They live in Kiev.
We use our books in class.
'The plane leaves at ten o'clock.
She always comes to class late.
I always take the same bus to work.

2. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной форме:

They sat in the first row. (In which row)
The performance lasted two hours. (How long)
He went to Leningrad to see some friends. (Why)
She put the mail on my desk. (Where)
He walked to school with Mary. (Whom with)
They spoke to us in French. (In what language)
He arrived home very late. (When)

3. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной форме:

They will return in October.
These exercises will be easy for you.
He will be able to meet us later.
Our drama society will present a new play this year.
The lesson will be over at twelve o'clock.
There will be three new students in the class.
She will leave a message on the table for him.
They will write to us on Wednesday.
We shall take the children to the park.

4. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной форме:

He is looking for the book which he lost.
All the birds are flying south.
The sky is getting very dark.
They are laughing at what you said.
They are travelling in Europe at present.
Helen is taking dancing lessons at the country club.
Mr.) Evans is writing a series of articles on the economic situation.
Ann is doing well in her studies at present.

5. Раскройте скобки. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной

(общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной форме:

1. It (rain) .
2. I (have) dinner.
3. The baby (sleep) soundly
4. She (talk) with Mr. Smith
5. They (travel) in the South
6. The sun (shine) brightly.
7. I (read) the newspaper.
8. Mary (play) the piano
9. She (get) off the bus.
10. The wind (blow) hard

6. Раскройте скобки. Напишите следующие предложения в вопросительной (общий и специальный вопросы) и отрицательной форме:

At ten o'clock tomorrow morning she (have) her music lesson.

I (wait) on the corner for you at the usual time tomorrow morning.

It "probably (rain)

, I (work) in my garden.

At this time tomorrow afternoon I (take) my final English examination.

If we go there now, they (have) dinner. But if we go later, they (watch) television.

At this time next year he (study) at the university.

7. Употребите глаголы, данные в скобках, в нужной временной форме. Переведите предложения на русский язык:

1. If the weather (be) nice next Sunday, we shall go to the seashore.

2. If the telephone (ring) while I am out, please, answer it. 3. When you (see) the light turn red, be sure to stop your car. 4. Don't leave until I (call) you. 5. If the river (rise) much higher, there will be a flood. 6. When the weather (get) warmer, we can go swimming. 7. If it (rain) next Sunday, I may have to cancel my trip. 8. I plan to wait here until the mail (arrive). 9. If you not (arrive) in time, you will not get a seat.

8. Заполните пропуски местоимениями much, many, little, few. Переведите предложения на русский язык:

1. Very . . . people know about it. 2. He is a man of ... words. 3. ... was said but . . . done. 4. Say . . . and do 5. ... heard about the book but . . . read it. 6. There isn't . . . harm in it. 7. He has very . . . knowledge of the matter. 8. ... is spoken about it, but . . . believe it. 9. We have . . . friends in Leningrad. 10. There were very . . . mistakes in his spelling.

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ООО Печатный центр «Копир»
Тираж 50 экз. Подписано к печати 03.09.2012
Форма 60x84 объем 9,75 уч-изд.л. Изд. № 452

Новосибирский государственный аграрный университет
630039, г. Новосибирск, ул. Добролюбова, 160