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МИНИСТЕРСТВО ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
Федеральное государственное бюджетное образовательное учреждение высшего образования
«ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ»
(ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ)

Кафедра иностранных языков

УТВЕРЖДЕН
на заседании кафедры
Протокол от « 24 » мая 2023 г., № 10

Зав. кафедрой  Сарычева Л.В.

**ФОНД
ОЦЕНОЧНЫХ СРЕДСТВ**

по дисциплине (модулю)
«Иностранный язык» (английский язык)

Направление подготовки:
44.03.05 Педагогическое образование (с двумя профилями подготовки)

Профиль:
Биология и химия

Мытищи
2023

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1. Перечень компетенций с указанием этапов их формирования в процессе освоения образовательной программы

Код и наименование компетенции	Этапы формирования
УК-4. Способен осуществлять деловую коммуникацию в устной и письменной формах на государственном языке Российской Федерации и иностранном (ых) языке (ах).	Работа на учебных занятиях Самостоятельная работа

2. Описание показателей и критериев оценивания компетенций на различных этапах их формирования, описание шкал оценивания

Оцениваемые компетенции	Уровень сформированности	Этапы формирования	Описание показателей	Критерии оценивания	Шкала оценивания
УК-4	Пороговый	Работа на учебных занятиях Самостоятельная работа	Знать: базовую лексику и выражения, а также лексику, связанную со специальностью Уметь: общаться в большинстве типичных ситуаций, которые могут быть при поездке в страну изучаемого языка; понимать	Выполнение лексико-грамматических упражнений Тестирование Проект (защита презентации)	Шкала оценивания лексико-грамматического упражнения, шкала оценивания делового письма, шкала оценивания устного

			тексты на повседневные и профессиональные темы, в которых используются достаточно употребительные слова и конструкции	Аннотация Деловое письмо Устный ответ	ответа, шкала оценивания проекта (защита презентации), шкала оценивания тестирования, шкала оценивания аннотации
УК-4	Продвинутый	Работа на учебных занятиях Самостоятельная работа	Знать: основные жанры устной и письменной речи, лексические и грамматические особенности, стилистические особенности, терминологический аппарат своей специальности, широкий спектр узкоспециальных выражений и конструкций Уметь: понимать развернутые доклады и лекции по знакомой теме; написать подробное сообщение на разные темы; анализировать и переводить статьи	Выполнение лексико-грамматических упражнений Тестирование Проект (защита презентации) Аннотация Деловое письмо Устный ответ	Шкала оценивания лексико-грамматического упражнения, шкала оценивания делового письма, шкала оценивания устного ответа, шкала оценивания проекта (презентации), шкала оценивания тестирования, шкала оценивания

			по специальности и инструкции, касающиеся профессиональной деятельности Владеть: профессионально-ориентированной межкультурной компетенцией		аннотации
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Шкала оценивания выполнения лексико-грамматических упражнений

	Критерии оценивания		
Семестр	работа выполнена частично, с большим количеством ошибок	работа выполнена в полном объеме, но с ошибками	работа выполнена в полном объеме, допускаются незначительные недочеты
1	5 баллов	10 баллов	15 баллов
2	5 баллов	10 баллов	15 баллов
3	5 баллов	10 баллов	15 баллов

Шкала оценивания тестирования

Семестр	41-60 % верных ответов	61-80 % верных ответов	81-100% верных ответов
1	8-11 баллов	12-15 баллов	16-20 баллов
2	5-8 баллов	9-11 баллов	12-15 баллов
3	2-4 балла	5-7 баллов	8-10 баллов

Шкала оценивания проекта (защита презентации)

Критерий оценки	Показатели	Баллы
План работы	План работы над проектом есть	2
	План работы отсутствует	0
Глубина раскрытия темы проекта	Тема раскрыта фрагментарно	2
	Тема раскрыта полностью	4
	Знания автора проекта превзошли рамки проекта	6
Разнообразие источников информации, целесообразность их использования	Большая часть информации не относится к теме Использован незначительный объём подходящей информации из ограниченного числа однотипных источников	2 4
	Представлена полная информация из разнообразных источников	6
Соответствие требованиям оформления письменной части и презентации	Отсутствует установленный правилами порядок, структура Внешний вид и речь автора не соответствуют правилам проведения презентации	2
	Предприняты попытки оформить работу в соответствии с установленными правилами Внешний вид и речь автора соответствуют правилам проведения презентации, но автор не владеет культурой общения, не уложился в регламент	4

	Чёткое и грамотное оформление Внешний вид и речь автора соответствуют правилам проведения презентации, автор владеет культурой общения, уложился в регламент, ему удалось вызвать большой интерес	6
	ИТОГО	20 баллов

Шкала оценивания устного ответа

Критерий оценки	Баллы
Коммуникативная задача не решена. Высказывание сводится к отдельным словам и словосочетаниям.	1
Коммуникативная задача не решена. В высказывании отсутствуют логика и связность. Используемые языковые и речевые средства не соответствуют ситуации / теме / проблеме. Объем высказывания значительно ниже программных требований. Речь очень медленная, со значительным количеством пауз. Допущено значительное количество ошибок, препятствующих коммуникации.	2
Коммуникативная задача решена частично. В высказывании отсутствуют логика и последовательность изложения. Оно носит незавершенный характер. Используемые языковые и речевые средства часто не соответствуют ситуации / теме / проблеме. Объем высказывания значительно ниже программных требований. Речь не беглая, со значительным количеством пауз. Компенсаторные умения не используются. Допущено значительное количество произносительных, лексических и грамматических ошибок, затрудняющих коммуникацию.	3
Коммуникативная задача решена частично. В высказывании значительно нарушена логика и последовательность изложения. Оно носит незавершенный характер, отсутствует вывод. Используемые языковые и речевые средства не всегда соответствуют ситуации / теме	4

/ проблеме. Объем высказывания ниже программных требований. Речь не беглая, со значительным количеством пауз. Компенсаторные умения не используются. Допущен ряд произносительных и лексических ошибок и значительное количество грамматических ошибок, затрудняющих коммуникацию.	
Коммуникативная задача решена не полностью. В высказывании значительно нарушены логика и последовательность изложения. Отсутствует вывод, не выражено свое отношение к обсуждаемой теме / проблеме. Используемые языковые и речевые средства не всегда соответствуют ситуации / теме / проблеме, они недостаточно разнообразны. Объем высказывания ниже программных требований. Речь недостаточно беглая. Компенсаторные умения не используются. Допущен ряд произносительных, лексических и грамматических ошибок, частично влияющих на процесс коммуникации.	5
Коммуникативная задача в основном решена. Высказывание носит завершенный характер, но имеются нарушения логики и последовательности изложения. Отсутствует вывод, не выражено свое отношение к обсуждаемой теме / проблеме. Используемые языковые и речевые средства не всегда соответствуют ситуации / теме / проблеме, они недостаточно разнообразны. Используемые связующие элементы не всегда адекватны решаемой задаче. Объем высказывания несколько ниже программных требований. Речь недостаточно беглая. Компенсаторные умения используются недостаточно. Допущен ряд произносительных, лексических и грамматических ошибок, частично влияющих на процесс коммуникации.	6
Коммуникативная задача решена относительно полно. Высказывание носит завершенный характер, но имеются незначительные нарушения логики и последовательности. Отсутствует вывод, есть затруднения в выражении своего отношения к обсуждаемой теме / проблеме. Используемые языковые и речевые средства в основном соответствуют ситуации / теме / проблеме, но их разнообразие ограничено. Используемые связующие элементы в основном адекватны решаемой задаче. Объем высказывания соответствует программным требованиям. Речь достаточно беглая. В случае затруднений используются компенсаторные умения. Допущены	7

отдельные произносительные, лексические и грамматические ошибки.	
Коммуникативная задача решена относительно полно. Высказывание носит завершённый характер, построено логично и связно. Есть затруднения в выражении своего отношения к обсуждаемой теме / проблеме. Используемые языковые и речевые средства соответствуют ситуации / теме / проблеме и варьируются в пределах изученного материала. Используемые связующие элементы в основном адекватны. Объем высказывания соответствует программным требованиям. Речь беглая. В случае затруднений используются компенсаторные умения. Допущены отдельные произносительные, лексические и грамматические ошибки, не препятствующие коммуникации.	8
Коммуникативная задача решена полностью. Высказывание построено логично и связно и имеет завершённый характер. Выражено свое отношение к обсуждаемой теме / проблеме. Используемые языковые и речевые средства соответствуют ситуации / теме / проблеме и варьируются в пределах изученного материала. Используются адекватные связующие элементы. Объем высказывания соответствует программным требованиям. Речь беглая. В случае необходимости используются компенсаторные умения. Допущены единичные произносительные и грамматические ошибки, не препятствующие коммуникации.	9
Коммуникативная задача решена полностью. Высказывание построено логично, связно и имеет завершённый характер. Выражено свое отношение к обсуждаемой теме / проблеме. Используемые языковые и речевые средства соответствуют ситуации / теме / проблеме и варьируются в пределах изученного материала. Используются адекватные связующие элементы. Объем высказывания соответствует программным требованиям. Речь беглая. Допущены единичные произносительные ошибки, не препятствующие коммуникации	10

Шкала оценивания аннотации

Критерий оценки	Баллы
Аннотация отражает полностью содержание текста. Структура четкая, отражает логическое деление текста. Использованы речевые клише. Грамматические и пунктуационные ошибки отсутствуют.	10 баллов
Аннотация не совсем точно передает содержание текста. Структура аннотации не достаточно верно передает логическое членение текста. Присутствуют незначительные грамматические и пунктуационные ошибки (2-4).	6 баллов
Аннотация частично передает содержание текста. Структура аннотации не соответствует логике построения текста. Речевые клише использованы неуместно, присутствуют грамматические и пунктуационные ошибки.	2 балла

Шкала оценивания делового письма

Критерий оценки	Баллы
Структура и оформление в соответствии с видом делового письма. Данный критерий означает, что письмо оформлено по правилам, есть четкая структура письма как в оформлении так и в самом письме.	2
Содержание. В данном критерии учитывается насколько полно, точно и правильно было написано письмо/документ на заданную тему. Оцениваются идеи и последовательность информации в раскрытии письма.	3
Лексика. Оценивается разнообразие лексических структур, используемых для составления документа/ написание письма	3
Грамматика. Оценивается разнообразие, сложность и точность грамматических конструкций.	2
Итого	10

3. Контрольные задания или иные материалы, необходимые для оценки знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности, характеризующих этапы формирования компетенций в процессе освоения образовательной программы

Текущий контроль

УК-4. Способен осуществлять деловую коммуникацию в устной и письменной формах на государственном языке Российской Федерации и иностранном (ых) языке (ах).

Знать: базовую лексику и выражения, а так же лексику, связанную со специальностью

Задания, необходимые для оценивания сформированности УК-4 на пороговом уровне

1 семестр

Лексико – грамматические упражнения

1. Заполните пропуск:

1. I wish I _____ draw good enough to help you with this draft!

a. can b. was able c. could d. could have

2. Выберите подходящий вопрос:

_____?

No, it's my cousin Jack's.

a: Are that your car? b: Is that Mary's car? c: Whose car is that?

d: That's your car, is not? e: Is that your car?

3. Заполните пропуск:

My father is _____ yours.

a: the best b: stronger than c: the better than d: as strong e: strong

4. Расположите слова в правильном порядке:

that up book pick green

a. that b. up c. book d. pick e. green

5. Расположите слова в правильном порядке:

sitting them you between are

a. sitting b. them c. you d. between e. are

6. Выберите подходящий ответ:

Who cooks at your house?

a: My mother cook at my house. b: Cooks my mother.

c: My father cooks at the home. d: I cook at my house.

Выберите подходящий ответ на следующий вопрос:

What have you eaten today?

a. I've eaten two eggs for breakfast.

b. I ate nothing yet today.

c. I had a cup of coffee when I got up.

d. I have eat breakfast.

e. I today have eaten only a sandwich.

7. Вставьте подходящий по смыслу союз:

Lola hates chocolate, she loves sugar.

a. But b. Or c. Although d. And e. So

8. Расположите слова в правильном порядке:

than louder actions speak words

a. than b. louder c. actions d. speak e. words

9. Заполните пропуск:

Isn't there anything better than this on TV?

I'm sorry, _____

- a. but these is the best.
- b. there is anything better than this.
- c. they isn't.
- d. this is the better show.
- e. there's nothing better.

10. Заполните пропуск:

Santa Barbara is in

- a. California, b. Florida, c. Arizona, d. Texas

Тестирование

Выберите правильный вариант

Could you pass the salt please?

- a)Help yourself. b)I don't know. c)Over there.d)Here you are.

2. Yesterday I went _____ bus to the National Museum.

- a)on b)by c)with d)in

3. Sue and Mike _____ to go camping.

- a) said b)talked c)wanted d)made

4. Who's calling, please?

- a) Speaking b)It's David Parker. C)Just a moment. D)I'll call you back.

5. They were _____ after the long journey, so they went to bed.

- a)hungry b)hot c)lazy d)tired

6. Can you tell me the _____ to the bus station?

- a) street b)direction c)way d)road

7. _____ you remember to buy some milk?

- a)Did b)Have c)Should d)Do

8. - Don't forget to put the rubbish out. - I've _____ done it!

- a) already b)still c)yet d)even

9. You don't need to bring _____ to eat.

- a) food b)some c)many d)anything

10. What about going to the cinema?

- a) It's Star Wars b) Twice a month c)Good idea! D)I think so.

11. - What would you like, Sue? - I'd like the same _____ Michael please.

a)had b)as c)that d)for

12. _____ people know the answer to that question.

a) A little b)Few c)Little d)Least

2 семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

“somebody”, “anybody” or “nobody”

1. It is so dark here! Can you see ... in front of us? 2. Do you know that ... has broken the door to the gym? 3. Do you know ... here? 4. She said she could recognize ... because of their painted faces. 5. Is there ... at home? – No, there is ... in. 6. I’m sure there is ... inside, just knock louder! 7. If ... comes, he will give you a call. 8. Are you waiting for ... ? 9. Don’t be silly! There is ... there. 10. Sally, there is ... downstairs who wants to speak to you.

Тестирование

Private schools in Great Britain The most famous schools in Britain are 1) boarding schools, such as Eton College (1440), Harrow School (1571), Rugby School and Winchester School (1382). These famous public schools founded during the Middle Ages are theoretically open to the public, but in reality are only attended by those who can afford the 2)..... . Many of Britain’s leaders have attended these public schools which cater to the wealthy and influential, but also offer 3)..... to gifted poor children. Local authorities and the central authority also provide assistance to families who are unable to pay the tuition fees. Only a small percentage of the population can 4) these old and highly prestigious schools. Various other schools are also public, including kindergartens, day schools and newer 5) schools. Only 7 percent of British students attend public schools.

1. a) personal b) public c) civil d) general
2. a) fees b) charge c) tax d) duty
3. a) grants b) loans c) scholarships d) donations
4. a) visit b) go c) follow d) attend
5. a) boarding b) residential c) hostel d) hotel

3 семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

1. break

a) final exams at university or college

2. campus	b) a lunch brought from home
3. canteen	c) not obligatory
4. comprehensive school	d) a private school for pupils aged 13 – 18
5. degree	e) a pause for rest between lessons
6. extracurricular	f) money given by an institution for a specific goal
7. finals	g) the site of a university or college
8. further education college	h) school providing all types of secondary education
9. optional	i) the place in a school where you can buy food
10. packed lunch	j) a place where you can study after the age of 16
11. public school	k) not part of the regular school timetable
12. grant	l) a university-level qualification

Тестирование

1. ... the rain! It's beating so hard against the window. a) hear c) heard b) listen to d) listen
2. ... breakfast on the train was awful. a) a c) the b) an d) –
3. This really is ... food I've ever eaten. a) worst c) bad b) the worst d) the bad
4. He could open the lock a) easy c) most easy b) easily d) easiest
5. The waiter had to change the plates several times, ... ? a) had he c) did he b) hadn't he d) didn't he
6. Didn't you see the show ... Sunday? a) at c) in b) on d) for
7. I would be happy if he didn't ... me like a child. a) treat c) pretend b) behave d) speak
8. He has been unemployed ... he left college. a) for c) since b) before d) during
9. I cannot make up my ... what to do next. a) idea c) decision b) mind d) opinion

10. ... are only seven stations on this metro-line. a) These c) There b) It d) This
11. ... there any news in your parents' letter? a) Are c) Have b) Were d) Is
12. Take your umbrella, it is a) windy c) foggy b) frosty d) raining
13. You had no choice, ... you? a) did c) hadn't b) had d) didn't
14. There aren't ... fruits at this time of the year. a) some c) no b) any d) none
15. Why haven't you ... your bed yourself? a) lied c) put b) made d) had

Уметь: общаться в большинстве типичных ситуаций, которые могут быть при поездке в страну изучаемого языка; понимать тексты на повседневные и профессиональные темы, в которых используются достаточно употребительные слова и конструкции

Примерная тематика проектной деятельности

1 семестр

1. Национальный флаг Великобритании Union Jack.
2. Национальная одежда Шотландцев.
3. Символика разных частей Великобритании.
4. Особенности английской кухни.
5. Британский национальный характер и особенности менталитета.
6. Английский юмор. Monty Python – творческий союз ветеранов британской комедии и сатиры
7. Озёрный край и поэты-романтики “Озёрной школы”.
8. Золотой век Елизаветы I.
9. Творчество Уильяма Шекспира. Театр Глобус.
10. Поэзия Роберта Бёрнса.
11. Театры Лондона.
12. Дворцы и резиденции Королевы Великобритании.
13. Британский парламент и роль монарха.

Задания, необходимые для оценивания сформированности УК-4 на продвинутом уровне

Знать: основные жанры устной и письменной речи, лексические и грамматические особенности, стилистические особенности, терминологический аппарат своей специальности, широкий спектр узкоспециальных выражений и конструкций

1 семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

Who or which?

1. A non-smoker is someone ... doesn't smoke. 2. This is the pullover ... I bought in London. 3. There is a man here ... wants to sell me a brush for ten pounds! 4. A bus driver is a person ... drives a bus. 5. This is the Eiffel Tower ... is in Paris. 6. Robert Shade is catching Flight BE 048, ... leaves at 14.20. 7. Lulu is the reporter ... wrote interesting articles about space travels. 8. Harry Smith, ... is 55, is unemployed) 9. She has already read the book ... I bought last Friday. 10. Here are the papers ... you haven't looked through yet. 11. He is the man ... will help you whenever you require help. 12. Have you written the story ... is to be completed? 13. I don't know ... is the most sensible project to follow. 14. I don't know the people ... have just arrived) 15. Look at the old man ... is standing near the window. Do you recognize him?

Тестирование

Mrs. Clinton was very fond of shopping. One day she 1___ a beautiful cotton dress in a shop. When her husband 2___ home in the evening, she 3___ 4___ him about the dress which she 5___ in the shop. "Darling," she 6___, "I want you 7___ it for me. You 8___ anything for me for so long!" "How much it 9___?" asked the husband) "It 10___ 20 pounds". Mr Clinton promised his wife that if he 11___ the money from a chief at the end of the week, he 12___ her the money for the dress. On Friday evening he 13___ some money on the table, and 14___ his wife, "Here 15___ the money! I 16___ my word, you can 17___ the dress!" But the next evening, when Mrs Clinton 18___ home after her shopping, her husband 19___ "20___ the dress?" "No," she 21___ a little and then explained, "You see, the dress 22___ still in the window of the shop. It 23___ there for a week already. If nobody 24___ it, then I 25___ it either".

1. a) sees c) saw b) see d) has seen
2. a) came c) come b) comes d) is coming
3. a) began c) begins b) begin d) is beginning
4. a) tell c) told b) tells d) to tell
5. a) had seen c) sees b) has seen d) see
6. a) say c) had said b) says d) said
7. a) to buy c) buys b) buy d) buying
8. a) hasn't bought c) don't buy b) haven't bought d) didn't buy
9. a) cost c) does it cost b) costs d) has it cost
10. a) costs c) cost b) is costing d) has cost

11. a) will get c) gets b) would get d) got
12. a) would give c) give b) will give d) gives
13. a) put c) is putting b) puts d) had put
14. a) tell c) tells b) is telling d) told
15. a) are c) am b) is d) were
16. a) have kept c) will keep b) has kept d) am keeping
17. a) to buy c) buy b) buying d) bought
18. a) returned c) has returned b) returns d) was returning
19. a) asks c) has asked b) is asking d) asked
20. a) have you bought c) do you buy b) had you bought d) are you buying
21. a) thinks c) thought b) think d) is thinking
22. a) be c) are b) is d) were 23. a) has been c) is b) have been d) was
24. a) want c) is wanting b) wants d) had wanted
25. a) don't want c) hasn't wanted b) doesn't want d) is wanting

2 семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

“a”, “the” or “– “ (with nouns denoting names of seasons)

1. The Russians like ... good hard winter with plenty of snow and frost.
2. Nature is so beautiful in ... winter.
3. In this country ... spring is always wet, ... summer is unbearably hot, ... autumn is wet and muddy, ... winter is perishingly cold and snowy.
4. Do you still remember ... spring when you first told me of your love?
5. Nothing can be more beautiful than motoring across the green fields in ... early spring.
6. It was ... late autumn.
7. ... autumn of 1993 was very warm and sunny.
8. ... spring makes people feel young.
9. I like ... summer best.
10. What do you usually do in ... autumn?

Тестирование

1. The crane ... the heavy box on board the ship. a) raised c) was rising b) rose d) had risen
2. They wondered ... he would say next. a) that c) what b) which d) whom
3. They don't know you, ... they? a) don't c) aren't b) are d) do
4. He was punished ... telling lies. a) at c) in spite of b) because d) for
5. Join us! We are sure to have ... lovely time. a) a c) the b) an d) –
6. This is the man ... caused all that trouble. a) who c) whom b) what d) which
7. I'm not sure how to behave in ... a situation. a) so c) like b) such d) as
8. When a kid I used ... lots of chocolate. a) eat c) eating b) to eat d) to eating
9. I don't know if ... is coming to lunch today. a) none c) everything b) anything d) someone
10. Is ... all? a) what c) that b) those d) these
11. Call ... the ambulance, it's urgent! a) on c) – b) off d) in

12. While in Spain we visited ... Prado Art Museum. a) a c) – B. an d) the
13. Who ... you all this nonsense? a) says c) told b) tell d) spoke
14. We made a short trip to ... Netherlands. a) the c) an b) a d) –
15. Are you ... cross with me? a) yet c) already b) still d) while
16. They wondered ... to do next. a) that c) whom b) what d) which
17. What was ... moment in your life? a) happy c) happier b) the happy d) the happiest
18. I can work ... the day-time but not at night. a) at c) in b) on d) into
19. He agreed to my suggestions a) willing c) ready b) willingly d) happy
20. You never had to take part in the war, ... you? a) didn't c) had b) did d) hadn't

3 семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

Complete the text with an appropriate word from the box.

court fault point net players server trick
rally shot margin score shuttlecock doubles

How the game works

Badminton is played on a (1)___ marked for both singles and (2)___ matches. The doubles court is 6.1 metres (20 feet) wide and 13.4 m (44 ft) long, and the singles court is a little smaller. The (3)___ is 1.55 m (5 ft 1 inch) high at the edges and 1.524 m (5 ft) high in the centre.

To begin a singles game, (4)___ stand in diagonally opposite *service courts* (see diagram at right) and the (5)___ then serves the (6)___ underhand from below the waist. If the receiver thinks the serve is a (7)_, meaning it will land outside the receiver's service court, he or she can leave it and win the point if it does go out. But if the receiver thinks the serve is good, he or she must return it before it bounces. If the return is good, a (8)___ begins. The rally continues until someone wins it by hitting a good (9)___ which their opponent cannot return, or until someone loses it by hitting a fault. Faults include hitting the shuttlecock into the net, hitting it outside the court, or hitting it twice with two separate shots before it goes over the net. Whoever wins the rally earns one (10)___, and serves to start the next point. Players can use a range of shots during a rally, including drop shots, drives, clears, smashes, kills, net shots and push shots. Top players learn to disguise their shots, and try to (11)___ the opponent into thinking they're about to hit one type of shot, but then hit a very different type of shot, hoping to win the point by surprising the opponent.

Play continues until one player wins the game by being the first to earn 21 points, with a (12)___ of at least 2 points. For example, if the (13)___ is 21 to 19, the game is over. But if the score is 21 to 20, the game continues. If the player with 21 points then wins a point, the score is 22 to 20 and the game is over. Matches are usually the best of three games. This means the first player to win two games wins the match.

Тестирование

Complete the text with an appropriate word from the box.

strength competitor skill race glory significance health
--

1. Apple is winning for a very simple reason – it is making terrific products that no other____can match.
2. Athletes use their____to achieve athletic objectives e.g. sprinting a 10.0 second 100 meters.
3. A vote of the top sports requiring____has the obvious sport of weightlifting ranked highest.
4. The competitors in a ____
5. try to complete a given task in the shortest amount of time.

6. Greece reached the height of its____and power in the 5th century B.C.
7. Ancient Egyptians regarded the heart as the center of intelligence and emotion, and believed the brain to have no____whatsoever.
8. We even have____insurance.

Уметь: понимать развернутые доклады и лекции по знакомой теме; написать подробное сообщение на разные темы; анализировать и переводить статьи по специальности и инструкции, касающиеся профессиональной деятельности

Read the text.

Non-living systems may show some of the characteristics of living things, but life is the combination of all these characteristics. Organization. All things are made of chemicals, but in living things the chemicals are packaged into highly organized structures. The basic structure of life is the cell. Cells themselves contain small organelles that carry out specific functions. A cell may exist on its own or in association with other cells to form tissues and organs. Because of their highly organized structure, living things are organisms. Reproduction. Reproduction is the ability to produce other individuals of the same species. It may be sexual or asexual. Reproduction involves the replication of DNA. This chemical contains genetic information which determines the characteristics of an organism, including how it will grow and develop. The continued existence of life depends on reproduction, and this is perhaps the most characteristic feature of living things. Reproduction allows both continuity and change. Over countless generations this has allowed species to become well suited to their environment, and life to evolve gradually to more complex forms. Growth and development. All organisms must grow and develop to reach the size and level of complexity required to complete their life cycle. Growth is a relatively permanent increase in size of an organism. It is brought about by taking in substances from the environment and incorporating them into the internal structure of the organism. Growth may be measured by increases in linear dimensions (length, height, etc.), but is best measured in terms of dry weight as this eliminates temporary changes due to intake of water which are not regarded as growth. Development involves a change in a shape and form of an organism as it matures. It is usually accompanied by an increase in complexity. Feeding. Living things are continually transforming one form of energy into another to stay alive. Although energy is not destroyed during these 6 transformations, heat is always formed. Heat is a form of energy which cannot be used to drive biological processes, so it is sometimes regarded as `wasted energy`. Living things have to renew their energy stores periodically from their environment, to continue transforming energy and to replace the `wasted energy`. They also have to obtain nutrients – chemicals that make up their bodies or help them carry out their biological processes. Living things

acquire energy and nutrients by feeding, either by eating other organisms, or by making their own food out of simple inorganic chemicals using energy from sunlight or from chemical reactions. **Respiration.** Living things need energy to stay alive and to do work. Although food contains energy, this is not in a directly usable form. It has to be broken down. The energy released during the breakdown is used to make ATP (adenosine triphosphate) in a process called respiration. ATP is an energy rich molecule and is the only fuel that can be used directly to drive metabolic reactions in living organisms. **Excretion.** The energy transformations that take place in an organism involve chemical reactions. Chemical reactions that occur in organisms are called metabolic reactions. Waste products are formed in these reactions, some of which are poisonous, so they must be disposed of in some way. The disposal of metabolic waste products is called excretion. **Responsiveness.** All living things are sensitive to certain changes in their environments (stimuli) and respond in ways that tend to improve their chances of survival. The degree of responsiveness depends on an organism's complexity: a bacterium may be limited to simple responses, such as moving towards favorable stimuli or away from harmful ones; people can make highly sophisticated responses to a wide variety of stimuli which they may perceive either directly or with the aid of technological devices. **Movement.** Responses usually involve some form of movement. Movement of whole organisms from one place to another is called locomotion. Plants and other organisms that are fixed in one place do not display locomotion, but they can move parts of their bodies. Movements of living things differ from those of non-living things by being active, energy-requiring processes arising from within cells. **Homeostasis.** All living things are, to some extent, able to control their internal conditions so that their cells have a constant chemical and physical environment in which they can function effectively. The regulation and maintenance of a relatively constant set of conditions within an organism is called homeostasis. Homeostasis is a feature of all living systems, from a single cell to a whole biosphere (the part of Earth containing life). **Evolution.** Living things are able to change into new forms of life. This evolution usually takes place gradually over successive generations in response to changes in the environment

Exercise. Decide if the following statements are true or false.

- 1.) The earliest people must have known about plants or they would have died.
- 2.) The microscope allowed biologists to treat illnesses.
- 3.) Darwin's theory was one of the most important in biology.
- 4.) The study of biology has not changed at all over the centuries.

Владеть: профессионально-ориентированной межкультурной компетенцией

Задания, необходимые для оценивания сформированности УК-4 на продвинутом уровне

Reading. Read the text.

Genetics The subdivision of biological science that deals with the inheritance of the individual is known as genetics. The primary observation on which this branch of knowledge is based is that individuals resemble their parents, and also their more remote ancestors, to a greater or lesser extent. 48 Modern genetic theory has grown out the chromosome theory of inheritance and its corollary, the theory of the gene. It holds that the information that determines a character of an individual is carried as a unit of inheritance, or gene, in deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA). DNA constitutes a portion of the chromosomes of all higher organisms and is present also in bacteria and most viruses. Genetic theory further holds that genes are arranged in a linear order along the DNA molecule. Each organism contains one complete set of genes, or a complete set of information in each cell. The DNA molecule has the capacity to produce exact copies of itself, a process known as replication. The information carried by the DNA molecule from one generation to the next is expressed by its influence on protein synthesis. This accounts for the constancy of the characteristics inherited by a group of individuals descended from the same ancestor. However, changes can occur in the molecule. These are mutations, and individuals provide the variations upon which change and evolution depend.

Задание. Write an abstract to the text in English.

Промежуточная аттестация

УК-4. Способен осуществлять деловую коммуникацию в устной и письменной формах на государственном языке Российской Федерации и иностранном (ых) языке (ах).

Задания, необходимые для оценивания сформированности УК-4

Примерный список тем для беседы на зачёте и экзамене

1 семестр

1. Иностранный (английский) язык в современном мире.
2. Человек и общество.
3. Семейные ценности в современном мире.
4. География и краткая история Великобритании и США.
5. Жизнь в городе.
6. Искусство в России и за рубежом.

2 семестр

1. Система образования в России, Великобритании и США.
2. Мир профессий и карьера.
3. Информационные технологии в жизни молодежи.
4. Проблемы экологии.
5. Спорт и здоровый образ жизни.
6. Путешествия и транспорт.

3 семестр

1. История развития биологии.
2. Генетика. ДНК.
3. Ботаника и зоология.
4. Химия.

1 семестр. Тексты социокультурной направленности

The Russian Federation

The Russian Federation is the largest country in the world. It occupies about one-seventh of the earth's surface. It covers the eastern part of Europe and the northern part of Asia; Its total area is about 17 million square kilometres. The country is washed by 12 seas of 3

oceans: the Pacific, the Arctic and the Atlantic. In the south Russia borders on China, Mongolia, Korea, Kazakhstan, Georgia and Azerbaijan. In the west it borders on Norway, Finland, the Baltic States, Belarus and Ukraine. It also has a sea-border with the USA.

There is hardly a country in the world where such a variety of scenery and vegetation can be found. There are steppes in the south, plains and forests in the midland, tundra and taiga in the north, highlands and deserts in the east. There are two great plains in Russia: the Great Russian Plain and the West Siberian Lowland. There are several mountain chains on the territory of the country: the Urals, the Caucasus, the Altai and others. The largest mountain chain, the Urals, separates Europe from Asia.

There are; over two million rivers in Russia. Europe's biggest river, the Volga, flows into the Caspian Sea. The main Siberian rivers — the Ob, the Yenisei and the Lena — flow from the south to the north. The Amur in the Far East flows into the Pacific Ocean.

Russia is rich in beautiful lakes. The world's deepest lake (1,600 metres) is Lake Baikal. It is much smaller than the Baltic Sea, but there is much more water in it than in the Baltic Sea. The water in the lake is so clear that if you look down you can see the stones on the bottom.

Russia has one-sixth of the world's forests. They are concentrated in the European north of the country, in Siberia and in the Far East.

On the vast territory of the country there are various types of climate, from arctic in the north, to subtropical in the south. In the middle of the country the climate is temperate and continental.

Russia is rich in oil, coal, iron ore, natural gas, copper, nickel and other mineral resources.

Russia is a parliamentary republic. The Head of State is the President. The legislative power is exercised by the Duma.

The capital of Russia is Moscow. It is its largest political, scientific, cultural and industrial centre. It is one of the oldest Russian cities.

Today there are a lot of opportunities for this country to become one of the leading countries in the world. It has great past and promising future.

Monarchy of the United Kingdom

The monarchy of the United Kingdom, commonly referred to as the British monarchy, is the constitutional form of government by which a hereditary sovereign reigns as the head of state United Kingdom, the Crown Dependencies (the Bailiwick of Guernsey, the Bailiwick of Jersey and the Isle of Man) and the British Overseas Territories. The current monarch is King Charles III, who ascended the throne on 8 September 2022, upon the death of his mother, Queen Elizabeth II.

The monarch and their immediate family undertake various official, ceremonial, diplomatic and representational duties. The monarchy is 'constitutional', meaning that, although formally the monarch still has authority over the government—which is known as "His/Her Majesty's Government"—this power may only be used according to laws enacted

in Parliament and within constraints of convention and precedent. The Crown also occupies a unique cultural role, serving as an unofficial brand ambassador for British interests and values abroad, increasing tourism at home, and promoting charities throughout civil society.

The British monarchy traces its origins from the petty kingdoms Anglo-Saxon England and early medieval Scotland, which consolidated into the kingdoms of England and Scotland by the 10th century. England was conquered by the Normans in 1066, after which Wales also gradually came under the control of Anglo-Normans. The process was completed in the 13th century when the Principality of Wales became a client state of the English kingdom. In the 16th century, English and Scottish monarchs played a central role in what became the religious English Reformation and Scottish Reformation, and the English king became King of Ireland.

The Balfour Declaration of 1926 recognised the evolution of the Dominions of the Empire into separate, self-governing countries within a Commonwealth of Nations. Also in this period, the monarchy in Ireland eventually became limited to Northern Ireland. In the years after the Second World War, the vast majority of British colonies and territories became independent, effectively bringing the Empire to an end. George VI and his successors, Elizabeth II and Charles III, adopted the title Head of the Commonwealth as a symbol of the free association of its independent member states. The United Kingdom and fourteen other independent sovereign states that share the same person as their monarch are called Commonwealth realms. Although the monarch is shared, each country is sovereign and independent of the others, and the monarch has a different, specific, and official national title and style for each realm. Although the term is rarely used today, the fifteen Commonwealth realms are in personal union.

Text 3. City Transport of New York

Visitors to America are immediately struck by the number of automobiles on the highways and in the city streets. Cars fill the roads and crowd the streets of the city.

For a city like New York, city transport is a big problem. Though there are a lot of private automobiles, many people still use public transport. New York's public transport includes the subway, an extensive bus and street car service and taxi cabs.

In rush hours it is better to take the subway. You walk a few blocks to the nearest subway and get downstairs. You buy some tokens at the change booth and get through the turnstile. Then you have to find the right platform. In New York subway system there are parallel tracks for local and express trains. The local train stops at every station, the express only at every fifth or sixth station. It is very convenient to take an express if you go very far to the other end of the city. New York subway system is a rather complicated one.

New York has an extensive bus service operating on a transit basis. When a passenger enters a bus or street car and deposits his fare in the fare box, he may request a transfer. The driver or operator will give him a slip of paper on which there will be printed the time and direction of the trip. With this transfer, the passenger may get on another bus or street car at a transfer point on his route and continue his ride without additional cost.

A taxi cab service is another means of transportation in the city. There are no taxi stands and you can stop a taxi by whistling, shouting or raising your hand. Taxi cabs keep running along the streets all the time. Tips are a vital part of drivers' earning.

Text 4. The Climate and Seasons in England

The warm current of the Gulf Stream brings a temperate climate to the British Isles. So the weather in England is mild in all seasons. The temperature seldom reaches extremes of heat or cold. It averages about 40 degrees Fahrenheit in January and 60 degrees in August. During the day the changes in temperature are not very great, that is why weather forecasts do not give the temperature of the air.

The best seasons in England are spring and summer. In summer the sun shines brightly but it is not hot. Green grass covers the fields and meadows. Here and there beautiful flowers are growing. It is pleasant to walk in the woods and forests, to breathe fresh air and listen to the songs of the birds. The days in summer are long and the nights are short so you have much time to enjoy the wonderful landscape.

Autumn is a rainy season and the weather is mostly dull. But there may be a spell of sunny weather in late September, which they call Indian summer, when the sky seems high, the sun shines and the earth is covered with fallen leaves. The most typical feature of the climate in England is the thick fog that they often have in autumn and in winter. It comes often and stays for weeks.

In winter the sky is pale, grey and has low clouds. The sun shines rarely, its rays are pale, it sets early and rises late. The winter air is frosty and the weather is windy. They have all sorts of weather in winter. Sometimes it rains and sometimes it snows heavily, and they also have fog and frost. But it rains more often than it snows. That is why English people do not wear heavy overcoats, but only warm raincoats.

Towards the end of the winter the snow begins to melt, the sky becomes blue, the first grass and flowers appear, the birds come back from the warm lands. Spring comes.

Text 5. How to Make Friends?

Let's be honest, there are times when you want to know how to make friends. Here are some steps and tips to help you overcome these obstacles. Spend more time around people. Don't be mean; you do not want to lose friends. If you want to make friends, you first need to put yourself out there somehow in order to meet people. If you're still in

school, sit somewhere with other people. It doesn't have to be the "popular" table, or a crowded one, but one with at least two other people. The popular kids won't matter when you're older, but a true friend will be there for you forever. Remember, friends seldom come knocking on your door while you sit at home playing computer games. Populairs aren't always going to be mean to you. They just need to know you a little better.

Join an organization or club with people who have common interests. You don't necessarily need to have a lot of common interests with people in order to make friends with them. In fact, some of the most rewarding friendships are between two people who don't have much in common at all, but if you like a specific topic, try searching for just a location. It's a great way to meet new local people! Social networking sites such as Facebook, Twitter and Google+ are great way to meet new people and learn more about the people you meet. When you are chatting just say are you on Facebook? or what is your name on Twitter? A church, Masjid (mosque) or other house of worship is a great place to start since you have at least a religious faith in common. Just remember to be safe on the internet, you don't know who is actually on the other end most of the time.

Join a sports team. A common misconception about this is that you have to be really good at playing a particular sport in order to make friends with others on the team, but not all teams are so competitive. As long as you enjoy the sport and support your teammates, joining a local team with a laid-back attitude could be a great way to make new friends. But a sports team isn't the only way. If you play instruments or sing, try joining a band or choir.

Talk to people. You can join a club, go to school, or go to church but you still won't make friends if you don't actually talk to people. By the same token, you don't have to be involved with an organization to be social, and any time you talk to someone, you have a chance at making a lasting friend.

Make eye contact and smile. If you have an unfriendly countenance, people are less likely to be receptive to your friendship. Try not squinting (get some glasses), looking bored, frowning or appearing blankly deadpan, folding your arms (this practically screams "don't talk to me") or hanging out in a corner; such habits may make you look troubled or disinterested.

Text 6. How to Find a Hobby?

Look at what interests you. Examine what takes up your spare time when you have it. Do you enjoy reading books? Maybe you want to try your hand at writing them.

Think about what you value most. What traits do you prize? Do you value wisdom or courage? Do you feel drawn to people who give back? Do you admire artistic expression? Let those traits guide you when choosing a hobby.

For instance, maybe you could volunteer at a library as a hobby because you value education, or maybe you could take up painting because you admire people who can express themselves with art.

If you don't have a great deal of patience, then maybe hand sewing isn't something you'd enjoy. However, if you love tinkering and building things, maybe you should consider a hobby like working on older cars or building furniture. Play to your strengths.

Think back to what you loved as a kid. Did you like to race bikes with your friends? Were you really into comic books? Did you love to paint or draw?

Think about what really got you excited as a kid and what you could spend hours doing.

Pick up where you left off. If you rode bikes, try getting a new (adult) bike and exploring your neighborhood. Look at adult versions of what you loved. That is, if you loved comic books, try attending a comic book convention (comicon) to find people with similar interests. Maybe you loved board games as a kid. Check out the wide variety of new board games on the market, which offer options in everything from role-playing to cooperative games.

Visit a craft store. Wander around a craft store to see what hobbies are available. You might find something you never thought about, such as building model airplanes or learning how to work with clay. Check out hobby websites. Certain websites are dedicated solely to exploring hobbies, and you can use them to figure out what you'd like to do with your time.

Be willing to try more than one hobby. The first one you try might not be the right fit. Don't be afraid to move on and try something else. You have a right to decide when you're not interested in something.

Say "yes." That is, don't be afraid to say "yes" to activities you normally bow out of. Maybe going to the art museum doesn't sound very exciting to you, but when your friend invites you to go, give it a try anyway. You might find a hobby you never expected to enjoy, such as painting or art restoration.

Text 7. Friendship

What is friendship? Some people will say that it is a feeling of mutual liking between two or more people, other will add that it is a state when one person understands and supports the other one.

To my mind friendship can be compared to a tree. Its seed should find good soil and under good conditions it will grow into a tree. As the years go by the tree stands firmer and firmer on the ground. And if it is strong enough, it will survive all the storms and winds. But to help it, we should take care of it and love it.

The most important feeling that exists between friends is trust. It never appears by itself, it's the result of a long friendship and this feeling is very valuable. Respect and tolerance are also very important; it means that you don't criticize your friend's way of living, but try to understand him, discuss problems with him and explain to him what you think is good and what is bad. A friend is a person who can help you in time, lend you any sum of money for a long period of time without any percent, whom you can wake up in the middle of the night just to say you feel worried or who is eager to do everything for you waiting nothing in return, who supports you in all your beginnings and who will never betray you.

Lucky are those people who have friends. I'm happy to have lots of friends, too. Some of them are very close, some are less. But all of them make my life interesting and enjoyable.

I appreciate friendship. It makes happiness grow brighter and grief less painful, because we have friends to share it with. When we doubt our ability to fulfill our aspiration or to reach our secret goal it is our best friend who gives us a spark of assurance. And we trust our friends and we are grateful to them. Friendship is a bridge between loneliness and fellowship, frustration and confidence, despair and hope, setbacks and success. That's why a true friend is a priceless gift. They are rich who have true friends, says a proverb and I agree.

Text 8. Future Life

Can you imagine what our lives will be like in the year 2050? Perhaps you will be flying off for a holiday on the moon, or maybe you will be taking your dog for a walk in the virtual reality.

We recently carried out a survey of 1,000 people from different countries to find out what they think life will be like in the future. The results clearly demonstrate both our hopes and fears. The survey suggests that friendship — one of the most important human relationships -will have changed dramatically.

People will make friends through the Internet. What is more, a large number of people will even come across their future husbands or wives in this way! Computers will have become absolutely essential by 2050. Even now, some people describe them as their best friend! Others, however, say that we will become much more isolated from each other because we will have little real human contact.

Education will have changed a lot too. As more and more children will be using computers in schools, certain abilities, such as mental arithmetic will not be necessary

since there will be computer programs. Even writing by hand will have become a thing of the past.

According to the survey, home life will be better. Most people believe that by 2050 robots will be doing the housework and we will be eating ready-made food. A lot of people think that we might only cook for fun in the future.

Space exploration will become increasingly popular. Fifty per cent of the people we talked to believe that man will regularly visit Mars. They also believe that travel on our own planet will probably change. Almost everyone thinks that there will be no cars in the city centers. Some even think that environmentally-friendly electric or solar-powered cars will have replaced the cars we use nowadays. Pollution is something that seems to worry many people. Some fear that it will continue to get worse, and that our planet will become impossible to live on. Others even foresee that one day we'll have to pay for clean air just like we do now for clean water.

On the other hand, people seem to be quite optimistic about the benefits of genetic engineering, as they think scientists will use it to cure diseases like cancer and AIDS. If scientists manage to find a cure for these, we'll have a much healthier society. Some people worry about the future, while others are full of hope and enthusiasm. No matter how dark or bright it may seem, it is up to us to look after our planet and try to make it a better place to live.

Text 9. Globalization

Globalization is a controversial issue for business and governments throughout the world. We recognize globalization mainly through its effects. It's a bit like electricity — we can not see it, but we certainly observe what it does. Globalization can be described as a process by which the people of the world are unified into a single society and function together. This process is a combination of economic, technological, sociocultural and political forces. It's a movement of people, goods, capital and ideas due to increased economic integration.

Globalization is a controversial issue mainly because different groups interpret it in different ways. For its opponents globalization is a threatening word. It prompts visions of large multinationals dominating the world in pursuit of ever-higher profits. Many pressure groups fear that globalization threatens the environment as well as national cultures — they predict that it will make the rich nations richer and the developing countries even poorer than they are. But its supporters have another point of view. They believe that increasing

and freer trade between nations will offer prosperity and economic growth for all countries and businesses.

So globalization is likely to be a hot potato for the twenty-first century. As far as the benefits are concerned there it's possible to name next statements:

1. An opportunity to get acquainted with cultures of different nations;
2. A variety of choice for consumers: when they can buy in their local stores and supermarkets not only home-produced goods but also foreign ones;
3. Transnational corporations create additional work places for local people, at the same it is convenient for these large corporations as well: they may locate the labour-intensive part of their production process in countries with a relative abundance of labour in order to minimize their costs;
4. Another point is risk-sharing. It's more reasonable to invest money not in one company but to create an international company with great amount of subsidiaries in various countries, so it won't have so serious consequences if one of them will not stand cut-throat competition;

The disadvantages of globalization are:

1. Pollution of the environment (and there one peculiarity should be admitted — developed countries try to locate their harmful for the environment factories and works not in their own countries but in developing countries);
2. Globalization destroys cultural identity, for example Europeans usually try to impose their customs and traditions on Asian people;
3. Multinational corporations prefer to use cheap labour-force of developing countries for instance in Asia. And at the same time they provide their workers with bad and sometimes even awful working conditions;
4. It's difficult for domestic producers to compete with multinational corporations especially if it's an infant industry;

The last but not least is that we don't actually know to what globalization can lead, we don't realize its consequences.

Text 10. Immigration

Immigration has existed during the whole history of mankind. At distant times tribes roamed in search for new pastures for their livestock, new places for hunting and fishery. Today migration still takes place in the world, people are forced to change their places of living due to different natural and man-made calamities. So migration is the process which takes place when an individual or a group leaves one country for another with the intention to settle down in that country permanently.

There are many reasons which make people leave their homes and move to other places. Economic reasons have always been among the main reasons for migration. Life in poverty and despair often forces people to search for a better life. The gap between the developed

countries and the third world countries increases year by year, as a result people have move to industrialized countries in order to have stable earnings, better employment opportunities and higher standards of living. Many people migrate because of natural catastrophes. It is possible to mention the situation in Japan when natural disasters have forced thousands of people leave their native country in search for security. Some people change their place of living in search for political freedom; it can be migration towards political liberty and political rights or an escape from the governmental persecution. It also makes sense to name ethnic and religious reasons. Ethnic conflicts in some countries and religious intolerance often force people to look for a refuge in other countries. Wars and a high rate of criminality also induce people to change the countries they live in.

However I do not want to say that only negative reasons make people migrate, positive reasons make up small percentage of annual migrations but nevertheless they exist. There are cases when people migrate to reunite their families, to marry and to build up new families or to start business.

Immigration has both positive and negative consequences for people. After immigration people receive more opportunities for education and self-realization at work, better life standards, security and confidence in their future, more social benefits, etc. But we shouldn't forget about the reverse of the coin. Immigration has its negative consequences as well. Pretty often immigration causes dissatisfaction of native citizens: it leads to racism, an increased antagonism and other social problems.

In general, it seems to me that migration is an endless process. People will change their places of living as long as there is an economic gap between developed and developing countries, as long as wars and ethnic conflicts exist, as long as people will suffer from famine and starvation, as long as religious persecution takes place in the world. I'm definitely sure that if the mankind wants to solve the problem of illegal immigration, it is necessary to solve the problems which cause migration. I'm definitely sure that as soon as we do it, the percentage of illegal immigration will decline by itself.

Text 11. Role of Women in the Society

In the 17th century rich women normally were taught at home by a tutor, they were taught subjects like Latin, French, Needlework and they were also taught how to look pretty and how to play the piano and other musical instruments. When they became older their parents decided who they were going to marry and the family of the woman should pay a dowry to the parents of the future husband. Rich women wouldn't normally get a job, they could just stay at home and look after the family and tell the servants what to do. Poor women did not go to school at all; they just looked after their home, children and prepared meals or worked in fields. They didn't get paid much and had to work hard.

In the 19th century rich women were educated at home and learned pretty much the same as in the 17th century. They were taught how to play the piano, speak French, entertain

guests and look attractive. After 1870 it was made compulsory for all women to have education. However, girls didn't learn the same subjects as boys. Girls learnt subjects like laundry, cookery, needlework and housewifery skills. Rich women did not work, but ran their home with the help of their servants, after 1870 some women could become teachers and others could work as secretaries or clerks. So, women could work but there was a condition. At that time any woman had to retire when she got married.

In the 20th century, when World War I started, women could leave their underpaid jobs and could get jobs at factories because all men had gone off to the war, so women worked in the factories, making armours for the war.

When the war was over, women had to go back to their old jobs and they didn't earn as much money as they were used to earn. Later a typewriting machine was invented and jobs as secretaries became available for women. Some women became teachers. Women were now allowed to vote and some women got involved in politics.

Women started to wear different clothes, they did not wear corsets any more, they wore short dresses, even trousers.

To my mind, the role of women has changed quite a lot. I think all changes that happened in the 20th century were good, because women became to be treated more equally and it launched the processes of emancipation.

Text 12. Crime in our society

Crime has been around us for many centuries. Every day when we open a newspaper or turn on TV almost all we read or hear is about criminals and their illegal actions. According to the law, people who commit a crime must be punished, imprisoned or even sentenced to a death penalty. Without punishment our life in the society would be less secure, although sometimes punishment isn't strict enough, to my mind.

Some kinds of crimes are as old as the human society (such as stealing, pick-pocketing, vandalism, assault or domestic violence, murder and manslaughter), others are a more recent phenomenon. Armed robbery of stores and banks, hacking into computers (so called

“cyber frauds”), corruption or forgery of money and documents, for instance, are some of them. The 20th century has also seen the appearance of organized crimes such as drug-trafficking, drug-smuggling and hijacking. Statistics show an alarming rise of violent crimes and crimes to do with the illegal sale of arms across the world. Unfortunately women and children often become the victims of crime. Sometimes criminals kidnap rich people or their kids and ask for a ransom to be paid for them.

Besides violent crimes, there are so called “white-collar crimes” in our modern society. These are frauds when a person isn’t physically threatened or hurt. Among them are tax evasion (when people are accused of not paying taxes on purpose), bribery, identity theft (when a criminal steals personal information of another person in order to use his credit cards or bank accounts, for example).

To crown it all, we must regret that today a great deal of crimes is committed by teenagers who want to become independent as soon as possible and to find a royal road to getting much money. Teenagers use drugs and drink alcohol, so they can’t control themselves. Moreover, modern TV programs and films containing much violence and sex often have huge and negative influence on teenagers.

In conclusion I should say that crime prevention in our society is an extremely difficult and complicated task because we should change our social and moral principles at large.

Text 13. Education in our life

Our modern world is full of technological advances and education is very important today. Human progress mainly depends on well-educated people. They say that those who have information rule the world.

When we are 7 years old we are sent to schools to get useful knowledge about our world, although that isn’t the main purpose of education. The most important thing, to my mind, is learning how to learn in order to use this ability in our future life. At school children also enjoy lots of cultural activities which reveal their personal talents. However some people think that the current system of education isn’t able to teach pupils how to become good thinkers and schools are only about passing exams.

Education is very important for me and it goes without saying that I’m planning to get a higher education after finishing school. I’m sure it will enable me to achieve better prospects in career growth. Nowadays you can’t find an interesting job with a decent salary

without a certain level of education because every company looks for well-qualified specialists. While studying at a university you get essential knowledge for your future profession. Moreover, university life is always exciting and eventful.

I believe it is impossible to overestimate the importance of education. It is one of the most valuable possessions and the most powerful weapons we can get in our life. It develops many sides of human personality and helps us to understand ourselves deeper. Education trains the mind to think, that's why educated people have the ability to change our world and contribute to the well-being of our society.

Text 14. Student life

Students are the future of every country. They are young citizens of our society, full of infinite energy and progressive ideas, fantastic plans and noble ambitions, hopes and dreams. Student life is the brightest period of our life. It is a mixture of studies and great fun. I know that my parents (ex-students) miss those old good days of their student life.

A student has certain duties to perform. It goes without saying that the primary student duty is studying hard and acquiring proper knowledge for the future career. He must attend all the classes at college, do all the work at the right time, be punctual and disciplined. It can help the student achieve his goals and become diligent and perseverant. If he doesn't neglect his studies he will receive rich dividends in his future work.

Examination time at the end of each semester is quite tough for students. They spend endless days and nights on studying and cramming. Although some of them use cheating, copying someone's essays or course works. And you are lucky if you are not caught by the teacher because he can punish you by a poor mark or even by excluding from the college.

Most of the student's time is devoted to reading and learning. It's unbelievable but some students manage to deal with part-time jobs because they need a lot of money to study at college or university. Tuition fees and books are very costly nowadays, and if you rent an apartment it's even more expensive. So students have busy schedules including studies, work and going out to socialize.

A good student never wastes his spare time uselessly. He should also go in for sports to stay in good health and mood. They say: "A sound mind lives in a sound body." Students love participating in both academic and extra-curricular activities at college: different

festivals, intellectual quizzes and summer camps. This social life broadens the mind, develops your talents and communication skills. And this is a wonderful time when you find real friends among your classmates at college.

Finally I'd like to say that it is absolutely great to be a student!

Text 15. Environmental Pollution

People have always polluted their surroundings. But until now pollution was not such a serious problem. People lived in uncrowded rural areas and did not have pollution — causing machines. With the development of crowded industrial cities which put huge amounts of pollutants into small areas, the problem has become more important.

Automobiles and other new inventions make pollution steadily worse. Since the late 1960's people have become alarmed with the danger of pollution.

Air, water, and soil are necessary for existence of all living things. But polluted air can cause illness, and even death. Polluted water kills fish and other marine life. On polluted soil, food can't be grown. In addition environmental pollution spoils the natural beauty of our planet.

Pollution is as complicated as serious problem. Automobiles are polluting the air but they provide transportation for the people. Factories pollute the air and the water but they provide jobs for people and produce necessary goods. Fertilizers and pesticides are important for growing crops but they can ruin soil.

Thus, people would have to stop using many useful things if they wanted to end pollution immediately. Most people do not want that of course. But pollution can be reduced gradually.

Scientists and engineers can find the ways to reduce pollution from automobiles and factories. Government can pass the laws that would make enterprises take measures for reducing of pollution. Individuals and groups of people can work together to persuade enterprises to stop polluting activities.

Text 16. My household chores/duties

I think nobody likes it when his house is in a mess. Doing household chores and keeping the house clean and cozy are necessary in every flat.

My parents work hard and they get rather tired after work. So it goes without saying that they don't have to manage all the housework and I have to help them. Everyone in our family has some household chores. But frankly speaking I must admit that my mother does the majority of the housework. Some things must be done every day, others need to be done once or twice a week (like watering the plants).

My daily chores are making my bed, washing up, tidying my room in the evening, cleaning my shoes and taking out the rubbish. This is my usual routine. I also pick up my little sister from the kindergarten. Fortunately I don't have to cook any food because my mum and granny do that and they really enjoy cooking. I just sometimes help them and serve the table. Once or twice a week my mother asks me to go shopping to the nearest food supermarket. I usually buy some bread, milk, fruits and vegetables.

Once a week, on Sundays my parents give the flat a big cleaning. There is a lot of work to do: dusting the furniture, ironing the clothes, mopping the floor, clearing out the bathroom and the kitchen. I am busy with vacuum-cleaning the carpets in our bedrooms and cleaning the mirrors.

I don't consider my household chores difficult and I can cope with them easily, but sometimes I feel a bit lazy or I may be too busy with my school homework.

Text 17. British Homes

There are 22 million homes in Britain — big homes and small homes, old cottages and new buildings, houses and flats. (Americans say «apartment» but British people say «flat»). Many British people love old houses and these are often more expensive than modern ones.

They also love gardening and you will see gardens everywhere you go: in towns, villages and out in the country. Some are very small with just one tree and a few flowers. Others are enormous with plenty of flowers and enough vegetables and fruit trees. Two third of the families in Britain own their houses.

Millions of these houses are the same with two or three bedrooms and a bathroom upstairs, dining-room and kitchen downstairs. To pay for their house, home owners borrow money from a «building society» and pay back a little every month.

There are a great many different kinds of homes in Britain, but there are not enough! It is often very difficult for young people to find a home when they want to start a family.

British homes are usually smaller than American homes. But like Americans old people, young families and unmarried people do not usually live together.

Text 18. St. Petersburg and its attractions

St. Petersburg is a Russian port city on the Baltic Sea. It was the imperial capital for 2 centuries, having been founded in 1703 by Peter the Great. The city remains Russia's cultural center, with its world-famous museums, palaces and theatres.

The Hermitage is one of the largest and oldest museums in the world. It was founded by Catherine the Great. The museum includes masterpieces by Leonardo da Vinci, Picasso, Renoir, Vincent van Gogh, Rembrandt and many others. Experts say it would take 11 years to examine about 3 million exhibits in the Hermitage.

Nevsky Prospect is the main street in St. Petersburg which was cut through thick woodland in 1718. Kazan Cathedral with its impressive colonnade is located just in the heart of the street. The prospect is lined with numerous cafés, restaurants and shops.

Church of the Savior on the Spilled Blood with its colorful domes and bright mosaics was constructed in the early 20th century on the spot of the 1881 assassination of Tsar Alexander II. Used by the Soviets to store potatoes during the Second World War 900-day siege of the city by Nazi forces, the church was finally reopened to the public in 1997.

Peter and Paul Fortress was one of the first buildings to be erected in St Petersburg in 1703, including the Baroque Peter and Paul Cathedral, which is the final resting place of almost all of Russia's pre-revolutionary leaders (Peter the Great, Catherine the Great, Nicholas II and others). Other sights include an impressive statue of Peter the Great named "The Bronze horseman", a working mint and the cells where revolutionaries were held.

Mariinsky Theatre was first opened in 1860. The theatre has long been one of the world's most prominent venues for ballet and opera. Its dance school trained such world-famous ballet dancers as Rudolf Nureyev and Vatslav Nijinsky.

While the State Hermitage displays fine art from all over the world, the Russian Museum contains home-grown masterpieces. Opened in 1898, the museum exhibits everything from priceless orthodox icons to paintings by such famous artists as Surikov, Vasnetsov,

Aivazovsky, Kandinsky. Among outstanding works are “The Last Day of Pompeii” by Karl Bryullov, and Ilya Repin’s “The Zaporozhye Cossacks Writing a Letter to the Turkish Sultan”.

The gold-domed 19th-century St Isaac’s Cathedral is one of St Petersburg’s most famous landmarks. It offers wonderful views of the city from its gilded viewing platform. Statues of the apostles stand guard at the top of St Isaac’s, while its massive doors are decorated with biblical scenes. Inside, the cathedral boasts a vast ceiling painting by Karl Bryullov as well as St Catherine’s Chapel.

Vasilevskiy Island — the largest island in St Petersburg which offers a bizarre selection of attractions including a pair of 15th-century sphinxes from Egypt on the river side and a museum of biological oddities “Kunstkamera” where you can see the skeleton and the heart of Peter the Great’s gigantic personal servant. The island is also home to the 19th-century Rostral Columns whose torches are lit on special occasions. It’s a great place to wander along the banks of the Neva river.

Text 19. Baikal

In the midst of a thinly populated wilderness there is the foremost natural wonder — Lake Baikal. It is the oldest lake in the world — its age is about 25-30 million years. Scientists estimated that more than 1500 life forms live in and around this lake. They can be found nowhere else on Earth. It occupies the territory of 12000 m² and 400 km long. About 30 uninhabited isles are scattered throughout the lake. It’s the largest reservoir of drinking water. It contains 1/6 of fresh water found on the planet and in spite of the vast pollution by the nearby industry the most of it still remains clean and clear.

Most of the coastline lies in an environmentally protected area. The most numerous of the indigenous people are Buryats. They have been living here for many centuries. A feeling of tranquility settles over the coastal villages during long summer afternoons. A vehicle driving along the village’s streets is a rare sight. A motorcycle with a sidecar is the most popular civil transport; and a passenger car still remains an object of curiosity for children.

The area’s largest city is Ulan-Ude which was first established by the Russians as an outpost for tsar’s tax collectors during Russia’s Eastward expansion in the XVI and XVII centuries. It lies in the border area between the Siberian forests and the grassy steppes. It’s an average Siberian town without much distinction, except for a strange fancy relict in the main square. The world’s biggest head of Vladimir Lenin has more than 25 feet tall and it is ironically said by rumor that it was inspired by the head of Buddha that was located in Ulan-Ude before the Soviet takeover. And now although most of Soviet monuments have been dismantled this one is going to stay because the locals became quite fond of it.

Text 20. Ireland

Ireland is an island on the west side of Europe. The capital of Ireland is Dublin. There are about 5 million people in the Republic of Ireland. It is a small country but a lot of people know about it. In many countries there are Irish priests and nuns.

People left Ireland to find work in those countries and they stayed there. All over the world there are people with Irish blood.

The country is in two parts. The larger part, the Republic of Ireland, is in the south. The smaller part of Ireland, Northern Ireland, is part of the United Kingdom and its big city is Belfast. Like a lot of other countries, Ireland had sad and difficult times, but it had good times too.

The Irish are kind and polite people, they welcome strangers. The Irish love to talk. Ireland is a beautiful country with fine lakes, tall mountains and attractive beaches. It has two great rivers. It is a very green country. It is green partly because it rains too much.

Ireland is a country of good butter, good beer and good horses. People come from all over the world to buy Irish horses, from Europe, from America, from Arab countries and from the Far East. Ireland also has its manufacturing industry.

Text 21. British Wedding

There are a number of traditions for weddings that have survived into the 21st century. It is still traditional for the bride and groom to have their own parties the night before getting married. The groom's party is called a 'Stag party', while the bride's is known as a 'Hen party'.

On the morning of the wedding, the groom should not see the bride. If he does, this is bad luck. The bride puts on her special wedding dress, which is usually white. She also needs to wear 'something old, something new, something borrowed and something blue'.

At the church, or registry office, the bride and groom exchange rings before walking together back down the aisle. When they get outside, the bride throws her bouquet in the air. Tradition says that whoever catches it will be the next person to get married.

But it's not only the bride who throws something. All the people at the wedding throw confetti and rice over the happy couple.

Finally, after the reception, the bride and groom drive off to have their honeymoon.

Text 22. Winston Churchill Biography

Sir Winston Churchill (30 November 1874 – 24 January 1965) was a British politician and author, best known as Prime Minister of the United Kingdom during the Second World War. Churchill was famous for his stubborn resistance to Hitler during the darkest hours of the Second World War. Winston was born at Blenheim Palace, Woodstock near Oxford to an aristocratic family – the Duke of Marlborough. He was brought up by servants and friends of the family. He rarely spoke to his father, and he spent most of his childhood at boarding school – Harrow. Churchill wasn't the best student, having a rebellious nature and was reportedly slow to learn; but Churchill excelled at sports and joined the officer cadet corps, which he enjoyed.

On leaving school, he went to Sandhurst to train as an officer. After gaining his commission, Churchill sought to gain as much active military experience as possible. He used his mother's connections to get postings to areas of conflict. The young Churchill received postings to Cuba and North West India. He also combined his military duties with working as a war correspondent – earning substantial money for his reports on the fighting. In 1899, he resigned from the military and pursued his career as a war correspondent. He was in South Africa for the Boer War, and he became a minor celebrity for his role in taking part in a scouting patrol, getting captured and later escaping. He might have gained the Victoria Cross for his efforts, though officially he was a civilian at the time. Churchill

returned to the UK in 1900 and successfully stood as a Conservative candidate for Oldham. After becoming an MP, Churchill began a lucrative speaking tour, where he could command a high price for his speeches.

After seeing relatively little action on the Western Front, he returned to London and sat on the opposition benches before joining Lloyd George's coalition government. In 1917, Churchill was made Minister of Munitions – a job requiring strong administrative skills to manage limited resources during the war. Churchill was considered an efficient and skilled minister. At the end of the First World War, Churchill was active in trying to support the Russian white army – who were trying to resist the Communist forces which had gained control over the Soviet Union.

In 1924 Churchill was appointed as Chancellor of the Exchequer by Conservative PM Stanley Baldwin. Under advice from many economists, Churchill made the decision to return Britain to the Gold Standard at a pre-war level. But, this proved to be damaging to the economy and led to a period of deflation, high unemployment and low growth. Churchill later admitted this was his greatest domestic mistake.

The low growth and declining living standards contributed to the General Strike of 1926 – Churchill eagerly sought to break the strikers and defeat the trades unions. During this period he expressed admiration for Mussolini for being a strong leader. In the 1930s, his political eccentricities consigned him to the backbenches, where he was a vocal critic of appeasement and urged the government to re-arm. Churchill was often a lone voice in speaking about the growing danger of Hitler's Germany. He also opposed Indian Independence and was a staunch supporter of the Empire.

After an unsuccessful start to the Second World War, the Commons chose Churchill to lead the UK in a national coalition. Churchill was instrumental in insisting Britain keep fighting. He opposed the minority voices in the cabinet seeking to make any deal with Hitler. Churchill proved an adept war leader. His speeches became famous and proved an important rallying cry for a country which stood alone through the difficult years of 1940 and 1941. These early years saw the Battle of Britain and the Blitz – a period where invasion by Germany seemed likely.

“we shall defend our Island, whatever the cost may be, we shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills; we shall never surrender” “Let us therefore brace ourselves to our duties, and so bear ourselves that, if the British Empire and its Commonwealth last for a thousand years, men will still say, ‘This was their finest hour.’” It was Churchill who helped popularise the phrase ‘Iron Curtain’ after he saw the growing gulf between the Communist East and Western Europe. “A shadow has fallen upon the scenes so lately lighted by the

Allied victory.... From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic an iron curtain has descended across the Continent.”

After winning the Second World War, Churchill was shocked to lose the 1945 general election to a resurgent Labour party. He was Leader of the Opposition from 1945-51. But, under the Conservatives, he returned to power in the 1950 election – accepting much of the post-war consensus and the end of the British Empire. Churchill served as PM from 1951-55 before retiring from politics. In his last speech in the Commons in 1955-03-01, he ended with the words: “The day may dawn when fair play, love for one’s fellow men, respect for justice and freedom, will enable tormented generations to march forth triumphant from the hideous epoch in which we have to dwell. Meanwhile, never flinch, never weary, never despair.”

Churchill was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1953 “for his mastery of historical and biographical description as well as for brilliant oratory in defending exalted human values.” Towards the end of his life, Churchill became an accomplished artist, though he found the years of retirement difficult and suffered periods of depression. Churchill died in his home at age 90, on the morning of Sunday 24 January 1965. His funeral was the largest state funeral in the world, up to that point in time.

Text 23. The world of professions. Choosing a career.

Choosing a career is one of the most important and tough decisions people will ever make in life. According to Confucius, “Find a job you love and you will never work a day in your life.” It is absolutely true. If you are passionate about your work, you have more chances to succeed.

Well, choosing a proper career is a conscious decision of a grown-up person, and it is essential to explore job options that match your interests, skills and knowledge. It is absolutely wrong to chase your parents’ dreams. If you are not interested to work in a field they want you to, always stand your ground. It is high time for you to decide for yourself what to do for living and to find your real calling. Moreover, when you make a choice, it is also important to get appropriate education that will give you all the necessary skills, knowledge and practical awareness.

Today there are a lot of job options to choose from out there. Anyway, the choice of professions depends on people’s individual abilities and talents. Some people have dreams of becoming a doctor and saving people’s lives, others like cooking and become master chefs. There are people, for instance, who like taking care of animals, and therefore become veterinary surgeons. Some people have a talent for painting and are not good at the other things. It is not difficult to guess that they become painters, designers or architects. All in all, today the most popular jobs are office clerks, policemen, teachers, waitresses, hairstylists, drivers and some others.

As far as I am concerned, I want to start my own business and open my own travel agency. I am too independent and enterprising to work for an employer. The idea of doing a nine-to-five job does not appeal me at all. One of the reasons I want to set up my own business or become self-employed is independence. To begin with, I can earn money working from home and spend more time with family and friends. Secondly, I can choose any work schedule that suits me best. Thirdly, if you are your own boss, you avoid the stressful daily commute and traffic jams. Furthermore, self-employed people tend to have an extended vacation. Finally, my success depends on me and my own decisions.

Some people think that getting a good salary is more important than having the job you really want. I am convinced that an enjoyable job equals a worthy salary. For instance, people can turn their hobby into a profitable business and earn decent money from home. Besides, people spend too much time at work and it is wrong to waste time on unpleasant things.

Text 24. Different types of modern Russian Art

The Oxford Dictionary by Hornby gives us the following definition of the notion “art”. “Art” is the creation or expression of what is beautiful, especially in visual form. Drawing, painting, sculpture, architecture, literature, music, ballet belong to the fine art”.

Really when something is extremely beautiful or has great cultural value, we say: “It’s art”. Art has always been occupation for the few, but has been admired by many. Art reflects feelings and emotions, brings delight and admiration, and makes life pure as it awakens our best hidden qualities. Speaking about art, we connect this notion with culture. According to the dictionary culture of a community or a nation includes all the arts, beliefs and social institutions characteristic of a community or a nation. We can speak about either material, or spiritual culture. Art is both. Russia is a country that can rightfully boast its artistic and cultural traditions; its art galleries attract huge crowds of tourists from all over the world. St. Petersburg is a precious stone in the crown of Russian cities. The Hermitage is famous all over the world for its valuable rare collections of canvases and other art objects covering a span of about seven hundreds years and comprising masterpieces of by Leonardo da Vinci, Titian, Raphael, Rembrandt, Rubens. The collections illustrate the art of Italy, Spain, Holland, Germany, France, Britain, Sweden. The West-European Department also includes a fine collection of European Sculpture. People come to admire the collections of tapestry, precious textiles, weapons, ivory, pottery, porcelain and furniture as well.

The Tretyakov Gallery in Moscow, the Russian Museum should be mentioned by all means. This picture gallery was founded by a Russian merchant and a connoisseur of art Pavel Tretyakov in the 19th century. He was especially fond of the works of Peredvizhniki – the artists who belonged to the Society of Travelling Art Exhibitions such as Kramskoy, Perov, Ghe and other great Russian painters. The Tretyakov Gallery reflects the whole history of Russian Art. It has a rich collection of early Russian painting including famous

icon. The world famous “The Trinity” by Andrey Rublev is exhibited in the gallery.

Speaking about art one should not forget about music, especially classic music. Outstanding Russian composers make all the world admire their music. One can find a man, who does not know Pyotr Ilyich Tchaikovsky, Michail Glinka, Nicholaj Rimsky-Korsakov – the prominent composers of 19th century, and Sergei Rachmaninov, Sergei Prokofiev and Dmitriy Shostakovich. It was Glinka who laid the foundation for modern Russian music, his music expressed the temperament of Russian people. His two best known operas “Ivan Susanin” and “Ruslan and Ludmila” were based on Russian folklore and historical legends.

The most famous ballets “Swan Lake”, “The Sleeping Beauty”, “The Nutcracker” and not less famous operas “The Queen of Spades”, “Eugenij Onegin” are still excellently staged and performed not only in Russian but in many greatest theatres in the world.

Russia is world famous for its literature. The “golden age” of Russian literature began in the 19th century when such outstanding masters of letters such as Pushkin, Lermontov, Gogol, Turgenev, Dostoyevsky created their immortal masterpieces. Alexander Pushkin, the father of Russian Literature was the author of more than 700 lyrical poems. He wrote also the volumes of dramatic works, short stories, made adaptations of Russian fairy-tales.

Russia is famous for its architecture. The real jewel of architecture is the Moscow Kremlin with its cathedrals, towers and red brick walls. Just outside the Kremlin walls stands St. Basil’s Cathedral, one of the world most astonishing buildings with 8 domes of different designs and colors. St. Petersburg has great number of real masterpieces of architecture of different styles and is definitely worth visiting and being admired. Russia is also rich in young talents, forming new Russian culture. They appeared on the basis of the old one, but their essence is new. We can hear new voices in music and poetry, see new canvases of modern artists, watch great actors. All of them will make their contribution into Russian Culture and Art.

Text 25. Foreign Languages in the Life of an Educated Person

Today it is quite evident that everyone should know at least one foreign language. Knowing one or more foreign languages makes it possible to get acquainted with different ways of thinking, to understand a new civilization. Learning a foreign language stimulates mental abilities and gives you a chance to appreciate a new literature, a different culture and to broaden your horizons. Besides, knowing foreign languages has a practical value. It makes it easier to choose a profession and provides job promotion. It helps to improve the quality of your work, because it reduces the time lost on obtaining the necessary information. At present many professions, such as a pilot, a doctor, an engineer, a cosmonaut and many others, require a working knowledge of at least one foreign language.

People all over the world speak almost 3,000 languages. Some languages are spoken by millions of people, others by only hundreds of them. The most wide-spread language in the world is Chinese. 350 million people speak English as their first language. About the same number use it as a second language. Russian is also one of the most prevalent, *expressive* and rich languages in the world. 240 million people speak Russian nowadays.

Among the great number of languages that exist on our planet today there are some which stand out. Scientists distinguish 13 great languages. These are the languages that are spoken by no less than 50 per cent of people on the Earth. They are Chinese, English, Russian, Spanish, Hindi and Urdu, Indonesian, Arabic, Portuguese, Japanese, German, French, Italian.

A person who knows these languages can speak to and understand almost 2 thousand million people and doesn't suffer from the language barrier. To state the significance of this or that language one must take into consideration not only its prevalence but the quantity of printed production. For instance, the largest number of books is published in Russian including technical literature. The greatest number of press production is published in English. As far as books are concerned, the largest number of them is translated from English, Russian, French and German accordingly.

Today there are a lot of people in Europe and Asia who know several languages. A person who knows several languages is called a polyglot. They are not few. The name of Henrich Schlimann, a famous German archaeologist who discovered Troy is known all over the world. It took him two years to learn the first two foreign languages. Later on it took him several weeks to master another foreign language.

Among polyglots there are champions. Thus, Cardinal Mezzophanti who lived in the middle of the last century knew 100 languages. Professor Heestermann from Germany knew 132 languages. The more languages man knows, the easier is the way he masters a new one. As polyglots say it is difficult to begin. But when you start learning a third language «everything is going on swimmingly». It is within everyone's power to know, read and speak a foreign language. But one should regard learning a foreign language as a very important task. The knowledge of other languages is very useful, especially if you have to work abroad or if you must read foreign literature in the original. If you know the

language of a foreign country, you can talk to it's people and understand what they are speaking about without anybody's help. The knowledge of foreign languages also helps young people of different countries to develop friendship.

As for me, I am learning English, because in the recent years it has become not only an international language, it is now a number one language in the world. Besides, English is becoming a lingua franca. It is used a great deal by businessmen from different countries, which don't have a common language, in order to do business. It is already a lingua franca at International conferences. Besides, every person who travels in Europe, Asia or Africa, even in South America gets around by using English. So English is becoming more and more the language for practical use.

English has become the world's most important language in politics, science, trade and cultural relations, aviation, international sport and pop music. It is nowadays second only to Chinese. It is the official language in 44 countries: the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the United States of America, Australia, New Zealand and others. It is used as one of the official languages in Canada, the Irish Republic. It is also spoken as a second language by many people in India, Pakistan and numerous countries in Africa, to say nothing of people all over the world who know English as a foreign language. From the British Isles English spread all over the world. 75 per cent of the world's mail is in English, 60 per cent of the world's radio stations broadcast in English and more than a half of the world's periodicals are printed in English.

It is known, different languages can come into fashion or go out of it. It is generally considered that the most fashionable language in the world nowadays is English. Spanish also becomes very popular. It is learnt nowadays more often than earlier. Oriental languages are also widespread today. Learning a foreign language has a practical value but the choice of a foreign language sometimes depends on a fashion, if under fashion we mean the demands of life and society. Thus, the knowledge of a foreign language today is a life necessity.

2 семестр. Тексты социокультурной направленности

Text 1 British Museum

The centre of the museum was redeveloped in 2001 to become the Great Court, surrounding the original Reading Room.

The British Museum is a museum dedicated to human history, art, and culture, located in the Bloomsbury area of London. Its permanent collection, numbering some 8 million works, is among the largest and most comprehensive in existence and originates from all continents, illustrating and documenting the story of human culture from its beginnings to the present.

The British Museum was established in 1753, largely based on the collections of the physician and scientist Sir Hans Sloane. The museum first opened to the public on 15 January 1759, in Montagu House in Bloomsbury, on the site of the current museum building. Its expansion over the following two and a half centuries was largely a result of an expanding British colonial footprint and has resulted in the creation of several branch institutions, the first being the British Museum (Natural History) in South Kensington in 1881. Some objects in the collection, most notably the Elgin Marbles from the Parthenon, are the objects of controversy and of calls for restitution to their countries of origin.

Until 1997, when the British Library (previously centred on the Round Reading Room) moved to a new site, the British Museum housed both a national museum of antiquities and a national library in the same building. The museum is a non-departmental public body sponsored by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport, and as with all other national museums in the United Kingdom it charges no admission fee, except for loan exhibitions. Neil MacGregor became director of the museum in August 2002, succeeding Robert G. W. Anderson. In April 2015, MacGregor announced that he would step-down as Director on 15 December. On 29 September 2015, the Board of Trustees confirmed Hartwig Fischer, who will assume his post in Spring 2016, as his successor.

Text 2. National Gallery

The National Gallery is an art museum in Trafalgar Square in the City of Westminster, in Central London. Founded in 1824, it houses a collection of over 2,300 paintings dating from the mid-13th century to 1900.[a] The Gallery is an exempt charity, and a non-departmental public body of the Department for Culture, Media and Sport. Its collection belongs to the public of the United Kingdom and entry to the main collection is free of charge. It is among the most visited art museums in the world, after the Musée du Louvre, the British Museum, and the Metropolitan Museum of Art.

Unlike comparable museums in continental Europe, the National Gallery was not formed by nationalising an existing royal or princely art collection. It came into being when the British government bought 38 paintings from the heirs of John Julius Angerstein, an insurance broker and patron of the arts, in 1824. After that initial purchase the Gallery was shaped mainly by its early directors, notably Sir Charles Lock Eastlake, and by private donations, which comprise two-thirds of the collection. The resulting collection is small in size, compared with many European national galleries, but encyclopaedic in scope; most major developments in Western painting "from Giotto to Cézanne" are represented with

important works. It used to be claimed that this was one of the few national galleries that had all its works on permanent exhibition, but this is no longer the case.

The present building, the third to house the National Gallery, was designed by William Wilkins from 1832 to 1838. Only the façade onto Trafalgar Square remains essentially unchanged from this time, as the building has been expanded piecemeal throughout its history. Wilkins's building was often criticised for the perceived weaknesses of its design and for its lack of space; the latter problem led to the establishment of the Tate Gallery for British art in 1897. The Sainsbury Wing, an extension to the west by Robert Venturi and Denise Scott Brown, is a notable example of Postmodernist architecture in Britain. The current Director of the National Gallery is Gabriele Finaldi.

Text 3 London Eye

The London Eye is a giant Ferris wheel on the South Bank of the River Thames in London. Also known as the Millennium Wheel, it has also been called by its owners the British Airways London Eye, then the Merlin Entertainments London Eye, then the EDF Energy London Eye. Since mid-January 2015, it has been known as the Coca-Cola London Eye, following an agreement signed in September 2014.

The structure is 443 feet (135 m) tall and the wheel has a diameter of 394 feet (120 m). When erected in 1999 it was the world's tallest Ferris wheel. Its height was surpassed by the 520 feet (158 m) tall Star of Nanchang in 2006, the 541 feet (165 m) tall Singapore Flyer in 2008, and the 550 feet (168 m) High Roller (Las Vegas) in 2014. Supported by an A-frame on one side only, unlike the taller Nanchang and Singapore wheels, the Eye is described by its operators as "the world's tallest cantilevered observation wheel".

It is Europe's tallest Ferris wheel, and offered the highest public viewing point in London until it was superseded by the 804 feet (245 m) observation deck on the 72nd floor of The Shard, which opened to the public on 1 February 2013. It is the most popular paid tourist attraction in the United Kingdom with over 3.75 million visitors annually, and has made many appearances in popular culture.

The London Eye adjoins the western end of Jubilee Gardens (previously the site of the former Dome of Discovery), on the South Bank of the River Thames between Westminster Bridge and Hungerford Bridge, in the London Borough of Lambeth.

A predecessor to the London Eye, the Great Wheel, was built for the Empire of India Exhibition at Earls Court and opened to the public on 17 July 1895. Modelled on the original Chicago Ferris Wheel, it was 94 metres (308 ft) tall and 82.3 metres (270 ft) in diameter. It stayed in service until 1906, by which time its 40 cars (each with a capacity of 40 persons) had carried over 2.5 million passengers. The Great Wheel was demolished in 1907 following its last use at the Imperial Austrian Exhibition.

Text 4 Tower of London

The Tower of London, officially Her Majesty's Royal Palace and Fortress of the Tower of London, is a historic castle located on the north bank of the River Thames in central London. It lies within the London Borough of Tower Hamlets, separated from the eastern edge of the square mile of the City of London by the open space known as Tower Hill. It was founded towards the end of 1066 as part of the Norman Conquest of England. The White Tower, which gives the entire castle its name, was built by William the Conqueror in 1078, and was a resented symbol of oppression, inflicted upon London by the new ruling elite. The castle was used as a prison from 1100 (Ranulf Flambard) until 1952 (Kray twins),[2] although that was not its primary purpose. A grand palace early in its history, it served as a royal residence. As a whole, the Tower is a complex of several buildings set within two concentric rings of defensive walls and a moat. There were several phases of expansion, mainly under Kings Richard the Lionheart, Henry III, and Edward I in the 12th and 13th centuries. The general layout established by the late 13th century remains despite later activity on the site.

The Tower of London has played a prominent role in English history. It was besieged several times and controlling it has been important to controlling the country. The Tower has served variously as an armoury, a treasury, a menagerie, the home of the Royal Mint, a public records office, and the home of the Crown Jewels of England. From the early 14th century until the reign of Charles II, a procession would be led from the Tower to Westminster Abbey on the coronation of a monarch. In the absence of the monarch, the Constable of the Tower is in charge of the castle. This was a powerful and trusted position in the medieval period. In the late 15th century the castle was the prison of the Princes in the Tower. Under the Tudors, the Tower became used less as a royal residence, and despite

attempts to refortify and repair the castle its defences lagged behind developments to deal with artillery.

The peak period of the castle's use as a prison was the 16th and 17th centuries, when many figures who had fallen into disgrace, such as Elizabeth I before she became queen, were held within its walls. This use has led to the phrase "sent to the Tower". Despite its enduring reputation as a place of torture and death, popularised by 16th-century religious propagandists and 19th-century writers, only seven people were executed within the Tower before the World Wars of the 20th century. Executions were more commonly held on the notorious Tower Hill to the north of the castle, with 112 occurring there over a 400-year period. In the latter half of the 19th century, institutions such as the Royal Mint moved out of the castle to other locations, leaving many buildings empty. Anthony Salvin and John Taylor took the opportunity to restore the Tower to what was felt to be its medieval appearance, clearing out many of the vacant post-medieval structures. In the First and Second World Wars, the Tower was again used as a prison, and witnessed the executions of 12 men for espionage. After the Second World War, damage caused during the Blitz was repaired and the castle reopened to the public. Today the Tower of London is one of the country's most popular tourist attractions. Under the ceremonial charge of the Constable of the Tower, it is cared for by the charity Historic Royal Palaces and is protected as a World Heritage Site.

Text 5 Madame Tussauds

By 1835 Marie had settled down in Baker Street, London, and opened a museum. This part of the exhibition included victims of the French Revolution and newly created figures of murderers and other criminals. The name is often credited to a contributor to Punch in 1845, but Marie appears to have originated it herself, using it in advertising as early as 1843.

Other famous people were added to the exhibition, including Lord Nelson, and Sir Walter Scott. Some of the sculptures done by Marie Tussaud herself still exist. The gallery originally contained some 400 different figures, but fire damage in 1925, coupled with German bombs in 1941, has rendered most of these older models defunct. The casts themselves have survived (allowing the historical waxworks to be remade), and these can

be seen in the museum's history exhibit. The oldest figure on display is that of Madame du Barry. Other faces from the time of Tussaud include Robespierre and George III. In 1842, she made a self portrait which is now on display at the entrance of her museum. She died in her sleep on 15 April 1850.

By 1883 the restricted space and rising cost of the Baker Street site prompted her grandson (Joseph Randall) to commission the building at its current location on Marylebone Road. The new exhibition galleries were opened on 14 July 1884 and were a great success.[9] However, the building costs, falling so soon after buying out his cousin Louisa's half share in the business in 1881, meant the business was under-funded. A limited company was formed in 1888 to attract fresh capital but had to be dissolved after disagreements between the family shareholders, and in February 1889 Tussaud's was sold to a group of businessmen led by Edwin Josiah Poyser.[10] Edward White, an artist dismissed by the new owners to save money, allegedly sent a parcel bomb to John Theodore Tussaud in June 1889 in revenge. The first sculpture of a young Winston Churchill was made in 1908, with a total of ten made since.

The first overseas branch of Madame Tussauds was opened in Amsterdam in 1970.

Text 6. Shakespeare Theatre Company

The Shakespeare Theatre Company is a regional theatre company located in Washington, D.C. The theatre company focuses primarily on plays from the Shakespeare canon, but its seasons include works by other classic playwrights such as Euripides, Ibsen, Wilde, Shaw, Schiller, Coward and Tennessee Williams. The company manages and performs in the Harman Center for the Arts, consisting of the Lansburgh Theatre and Sidney Harman Hall. In cooperation with George Washington University, they run the Academy for Classical Acting.

The company is a member of the League of Resident Theatres.

The Folger Shakespeare Library on Capitol Hill includes a replica of an Elizabethan theatre, originally used for lectures and tours. In 1970 this space was transformed into a functioning playhouse, and soon Folger Theatre Group (later The Folger Theatre) was organized to perform in the space.

After years of discussion, Amherst College, administering body of the Folger Shakespeare Library, in 1986 withdrew financial support for the company. To save the company, concerned citizens led by R. Robert Linowes reincorporated it as the non-profit

Shakespeare Theatre at the Folger, later hiring Michael Kahn as artistic director. The company continued to perform at the Folger for the next six years.

Changing its name to The Shakespeare Theatre, the troupe moved in 1992 to the Lansburgh Theatre, a newly built space in the original Lansburgh's Department Store building in the Penn Quarter. At the start of the 2005-6 season, it adopted the current name, Shakespeare Theatre Company. The company constructed another theatre, Sidney Harman Hall, which opened in 2007 in the lower part of an office building in the quarter, and the two theatres were joined to become the Harman Center for the Arts.

Meanwhile, after initially importing traveling shows from the Shenandoah Shakespeare Express the Folger Shakespeare Library developed a new Folger Theatre company to present plays in its Elizabethan replica.

Text 7 British Royal Family

At present the British royal family is headed by Queen Elizabeth. When the Queen was born on the 21st of April 1926, her grandfather, King George V, was on the throne and her uncle was his heir. The death of her grandfather and the abdication of her uncle brought her father to the throne as King George VI. As a child she studied constitutional history and law as well as art and music. In addition she learned to ride and acquired her enthusiasm for horses. As she grew older she began to take part in public life, making her first broadcast at the age of 14.

The marriage of the young Princess Elizabeth to Philip, Duke of Edinburgh took place in November 1947. She came to the throne after her father's death in 1952 and was crowned in Westminster Abbey in June 1953.

Among Queen Elizabeth's many duties are the regular visits she makes to foreign countries, and especially those of the Commonwealth, whose interests and welfare are very important to her.

The Queen's husband, Duke of Edinburgh, was born in 1926 and served in the Royal Navy. He takes a great deal of interest in industry, in the achievements of young people (he founded Duke of Edinburgh's Award Scheme in 1956) and in saving rare wild animals from extinction. The Queen's heir is Charles, Prince of Wales, who was born in 1948, married Lady Diana Spencer and has two children, Prince William and Prince Harry. The Prince of Wales is well-known as a keen promoter of British interests.

The Queen's other children are Princess Anne (born in 1950), Prince Andrew (born in 1960) and Prince Edward (born in 1964). Anne, Princess Royal, has acquired a reputation for being arrogant, but in recent years has become quite popular with the general public. The Queen is widely known for her interest in horses and horse-racing. She is now president of the Save the Children Fund, Chancellor of the University of London and carries out many public engagements.

Prince Andrew, Duke of York, served as a helicopter pilot in the Royal Navy. In 1986 he married Miss Sarah Ferguson (Fergie, for short) and has two daughters. Prince Edward is keen on the theatre. This interest began while he was at university. He quit the Royal Marines, and is now pursuing a career with a theatrical company.

The Queen Mother, the widow of the late King George VI, celebrated her one hundred birthday in 2000 and died in 2002.

Text 8 Agatha Christie

Agatha Christie is known all over the world as the Queen of Crime. She wrote 78 crime novels, 19 plays and 6 romantic novels under the name of Mary Westmacott. Her books have been translated into 103 foreign languages. She is the third best-selling author in the world (after Shakespeare and the Bible). Many of her novels and short stories have been filmed. The Mousetrap, her most famous play, is now the longest-running play in history.

Agatha Christie was born at Torquay, Devonshire. She was educated at home and took singing lessons in Paris. She began writing at the end of the First World War. Her, first novel, The Mysterious Affair at Styles, was published in 1920. That was the first appearance of Hercule Poirot, who became one of the most popular private detectives since Sherlock Holmes. This little Belgian with the egg-shaped head and the passion for order amazes everyone by his powerful intellect and is brilliant solutions to the most complicated crimes.

Agatha Christie became generally recognised in 1926, after the publishing of her novel The Murder of Roger Ackroyd. It's still considered her masterpiece. When Agatha Christie got tired of Hercule Poirot she invented Miss Marple, a deceptively mild old lady with her own method of investigation. Her last Poirot book, Curtain, appeared shortly before her death, and her last Miss Marple story, Sleeping Murder, and her autobiography were published after her death.

Agatha Christie's success with millions of readers lies in her ability to combine clever plots with excellent character drawing, and a keen sense of humour with great powers of observation. Her plots always mislead the reader and keep him in suspense. He cannot guess who the criminal is. Fortunately, evil is always conquered in her novels.

Agatha Christie's language is simple and good and it's pleasant to read her books in the original.

Text 9 Conan Doyle

Many years ago a young doctor began to write stories about a man who was a detective. Readers liked his stories because they were very interesting and the doctor decided to become a writer. The doctor was Conan Doyle and he wrote about Sherlock Holmes.

Conan Doyle wrote his first story about Sherlock Holmes in 1887. In this story the detective meets his friend Dr. Watson. Holmes and Watson lived at 221 B Baker Street in London.

Many discussions take place about where 221 B was. There is no house there now. But a large company has its office near the place. This company answers twenty or so letters which still come every week to Sherlock Holmes, 221 B Baker Street. Most come from the United States and many people ask if Mr. Holmes can help them with some problem.

The company answers saying that, "Mr. Sherlock Holmes is no longer working as a detective".

There is a pub in London called Sherlock Holmes. One of the rooms in the pub is Sherlock Holmes' room. It has many things the room in Conan Doyle's stories had - Holmes' hat, some letters written to Sherlock Holmes, chairs and tables like those described in the stories. Besides, there are some pictures of Holmes and Conan Doyle, of actors who played Holmes and Watson in films, on television and radio.

In 1961 lovers of Sherlock Holmes formed the Sherlock Holmes Society. They meet three or four times a year to talk about Sherlock Holmes. The members of the Society know the stories about Sherlock Holmes very well, and they discuss these stories at their meetings.

Text 10 Diana - the People's Princess

Diana Spencer was born on the first of July 1961 in Sandringham in England. She had two older sisters and a younger brother. In childhood she liked games, swimming, running and dancing. She wanted to become a dancer. Besides she loved children very much and at the age of sixteen she worked in schools for very young children.

Diana became princess, when Prince Charles, the Queen's son, asked her to be his wife and they got married. They seemed to be a happy couple at first. They had two sons. They travelled a lot they worked a lot, they visited many countries together. But Diana was not quite happy because they did different things and Charles didn't understand her.

Why was Diana the most famous, the most beautiful, the most photographed woman in the world? Why did she win the hearts of millions and millions of people in many countries? Why did so many people come to London to remember her when she died? Why did the car accident which took her life, become such a total shock to crowds of people? Why did people feel the need to be in London at the funeral? Why did the tears and love at the funeral move the world?

The answer is so simple. Matthew Wall, a student at St. Michael's College in Burlington said: She was such a lovely lady. She did so much for those people less fortunate than herself.

She was a kind woman. Hundreds of people talked about Diana's kindnesses. She liked ordinary people, though she was rich and had many rich friends. Wherever she was, she was always ready to lend a hand. She was devoted to the sick and the poor. She visited hospitals for people with AIDS and for lepers and wasn't afraid to touch them, talk to them, listen to them. She worked on children's charities, and had teamed up with Hillary Clinton in an effort to ban landmines. And it's not only money, that she wanted to give people. She wanted to give them a part of her soul to make them happy because she was unhappy herself. She wanted to give them love, because she needed love herself.

Diana was seen many times in floods of tears, because of the pressures of her loveless 15-year marriage. It is not a secret that Diana was hounded and humiliated to the point of

mental breakdown and was able to pull through only because she knew she had the love of the people to buoy her in her darkest hours.

She was, indeed, the People's Princess.

Text 11 Margaret Thatcher

Margaret Hilda Thatcher, Baroness Thatcher, LG, OM, PC, FRS (née Roberts; 13 October 1925 – 8 April 2013) was a British stateswoman and politician who was the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom from 1979 to 1990 and the Leader of the Conservative Party from 1975 to 1990. She was the longest-serving British Prime Minister of the 20th century and is currently the only woman to have held the office. A Soviet journalist dubbed her the "Iron Lady", a nickname that became associated with her uncompromising politics and leadership style. As Prime Minister, she implemented policies that have come to be known as Thatcherism.

Originally a research chemist before becoming a barrister, Thatcher was elected Member of Parliament (MP) for Finchley in 1959. Edward Heath appointed her Secretary of State for Education and Science in his 1970 government. In 1975, Thatcher defeated Heath in the Conservative Party leadership election to become Leader of the Opposition and became the first woman to lead a major political party in the United Kingdom. She became Prime Minister after winning the 1979 general election.

On moving into 10 Downing Street, Thatcher introduced a series of political and economic initiatives intended to reverse high unemployment and Britain's struggles in the wake of the Winter of Discontent and an ongoing recession. Her political philosophy and economic policies emphasised deregulation (particularly of the financial sector), flexible labour markets, the privatisation of state-owned companies, and reducing the power and influence of trade unions. Thatcher's popularity during her first years in office waned amid recession and high unemployment, until the 1982 Falklands War and the recovering economy brought a resurgence of support, resulting in her re-election in 1983.

Thatcher was re-elected for a third term in 1987. During this period her support for a Community Charge (referred to as the "poll tax") was widely unpopular, and her views on the European Community were not shared by others in her Cabinet. She resigned as Prime Minister and party leader in November 1990, after Michael Heseltine launched a challenge

to her leadership. After retiring from the Commons in 1992, she was given a life peerage as Baroness Thatcher, of Kesteven in the county of Lincolnshire, which entitled her to sit in the House of Lords. After a series of small strokes in 2002, she was advised to withdraw from public speaking. Despite this, she managed to deliver a eulogy to Ronald Reagan at his funeral in 2004. In 2013 she died of another stroke in London at the age of 87.

Text 12 A Brief History of Oxford city

Oxford was founded in the 9th century when Alfred the Great created a network of fortified towns called burhs across his kingdom. One of them was at Oxford. Oxford is first mentioned in 911 in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

According to legend, Oxford University was founded in 872 when Alfred the Great happened to meet some monks there and had a scholarly debate that lasted several days. In reality, it grew up in the 12th century when famous teachers began to lecture there and groups of students came to live and study in the town.

But Oxford was a fortress as well as a town. In the event of war with the Danes all the men from the area were to gather inside the burgh. However this strategy was not entirely successful. In 1009 the Danes burned Oxford. However Oxford was soon rebuilt. In 1013 the Danish king claimed the throne of England. He invaded England and went to Oxford. In 1018 a conference was held in Oxford to decide who would be the king of England.

By the time of the Norman Conquest, there were said to be about 1,000 houses in Oxford, which meant it probably had a population of around 5,000. By the standards of the time, it was a large and important town (even London only had about 18,000 inhabitants). Oxford was the 6th largest town in England. Oxford probably reached its zenith at that time. About 1072 the Normans built a castle at Oxford.

In the 12th and 13th centuries Oxford was a manufacturing town. It was noted for cloth and leather. But in the 14th and 15th centuries manufacturing declined. Oxford came to depend on the students. It became a town of brewers, butchers, bakers, tailors, shoemakers, coopers, carpenters and blacksmiths. In the later Middle Ages Oxford declined in importance.

In the 16th century Oxford declined further in terms of national importance, though it remained a fairly large town by the standards of the time. Oxford was economically dependent on the university. The students provided a large market for beer, food, clothes

and other goods. From 1819 Oxford had gas street lighting. In the late 19th century a marmalade making industry began in Oxford. There was also a publishing industry and an iron foundry.

Oxford gained its first cinema in 1910. The fate of Oxford was changed in 1913 when a man named Morris began making cars in the city. In 1919 a radiator making company was formed.

Text 13 A Brief History of Cambridge

Cambridge was founded in 875 when the Danes conquered Eastern England. They created a fortified town called a burgh, from which the word borough derives. Cambridge was surrounded by a ditch and an earth rampart with a wooden palisade on top. However in 1010 Cambridge was burned by the Danes. That was an easy task when all the buildings were of wood.

By the 10th century Cambridge was also the administrative centre for the area and so it was a town of some importance, although it would seem tiny to us. By 1086 Cambridge probably had a population of about 2,000. By the standards of the time it was a medium sized town.

Later in the Middle Ages the population of Cambridge probably rose to about 3,000. In 1068 William the Conqueror visited Cambridge and ordered that a castle be built there. At first it was of wood but in the 12th century, it was rebuilt in stone.

The town of Cambridge was severely damaged by a fire in 1174. Fire was a constant hazard when most buildings were of wood with thatched roofs. Another fire raged in Cambridge in 1385.

In the Middle Ages Cambridge had a weekly market and by the early 13th century it also had a fair. In those days fairs were like markets but they were held only once a year for a period of a few days- People came from all over Eastern England at a Cambridge fair. Cambridge prospered because it was located on the river Cam. In Cambridge there was a leather industry. By the 15th century there was also a wool industry.

In 1728 it was estimated that the population of Cambridge was more than 6,000, 1,600 of whom were inhabitants of the university. By the standards of that time Cambridge was a big town. The first newspaper in Cambridge appeared in 1744. The first bank in Cambridge was opened in 1780. The railway reached Cambridge in 1845. It stimulated the

growth of industry in Cambridge by connecting the town to a huge market in London. From the late 19th century a new industry of making scientific instruments grew up in Cambridge. Cambridge gained gas light in 1823.

From 1880 horse drawn trams ran in the streets of Cambridge. The first electricity was generated in Cambridge in 1893.

In the 20th century the university, while still important, did not dominate Cambridge. New industries of electronics grew up. Making surgical and scientific instruments was also important.

Text 14 English Meals

The English proverb says: every cook praises his own broth. One can not say English cookery is bad, but there is not a lot of variety in it in comparison with European cuisine. The English are very particular about their meals. The usual meals in England are breakfast, lunch, tea and dinner.

Breakfast time is between seven and nine a.m. A traditional English breakfast is a very big meal. It consists of juice, porridge, a rasher or two of bacon and eggs, toast, butter, jam or marmalade, tea or coffee. Marmalade is made from oranges and jam is made from other fruit. Many people like to begin with porridge with milk or cream and sugar, but no good Scotsman ever puts sugar on it, because Scotland is the home of porridge. For a change you can have sausages, tomatoes, mushrooms, cold ham or perhaps fish.

But nowadays in spite of the fact that the English strictly keep to their meals many people just have cereal with milk and sugar or toast with jam or honey.

The two substantial meals of the day are lunch and dinner. Lunch is usually taken at one o'clock. For many people lunch is a quick meal. Office workers usually go to a cafe at this time. They take fish, poultry or cold meat (beef, mutton, veal and ham), boiled or fried potatoes and all sorts of salad. They may have a mutton chop or steak and chips, followed by biscuits and a cup of coffee. Some people like a glass of light beer with lunch. Pubs also serve good, cheap food. School children can have a hot meal at school. Some of them just bring a snack from home.

Tea is very popular among the English; it may almost be called their national drink. Tea is welcome in the morning, in the afternoon and in the evening. The English like it strong and fresh made. The English put one tea-spoonful of tea for each person. Tea means two things. It is a drink and a meal. Some people have afternoon tea, so called «high tea» with

sandwiches, tomatoes and salad, a tin of apricots, pears or pineapples and cakes, and, of course a cup of tea. That is what they call good tea. It is a substantial meal.

Cream teas are also popular. Many visitors, who come to Britain, find English instant coffee disgusting. Dinner time is generally between six and eight p.m. The evening meal is the biggest and the main meal of the day. Very often the whole family eats together. They begin with soup, followed by fish, roast chicken, potatoes and vegetables, fruit and coffee.

On Sundays many families have a traditional lunch consisting of roast chicken, lamb or beef with salads, vegetables and gravy.

Text 15 Life of Youth in Britain

Young people from all walks of life are united according to their interests by the established youth organizations in Britain. These organizations develop because of the contribution of both full-time and part-time youth workers and a great number of volunteers.

Outdoor pursuits involve anything from pony trekking to rock-climbing or canoeing and help young people go out from the confines of their home or their environment. Such pursuits nourish a spirit of self-reliance and help realize the importance of team-work under a good leadership. All the major youth organizations hold outdoor pursuits either by organizing special residential courses or by sending their members to take part in established courses or seminars in other cities and countries.

Local authorities and a number of multipurpose youth organizations provide the place for such activities as canoeing, sailing, rock-climbing, map reading, orienteering and cooking for survival; all of them encourage initiative and self-discipline.

Among providers of outdoor places are the Sports Council, the Outward-Bound Trust, the Ocean Youth Club, the Sail Training Association, and the Nautical Training Corps.

The Outward-Bound Trust is the longest established and most experienced organization in Britain based on outdoor pursuits, personal development, and training. It has five centres in the English Lake District, Wales, and Scotland. It operates in 38 other countries of the world. It has centres in Belgium, France, Germany, and the Netherlands. This organization is based on two simple principles: firstly, that everyone is capable of achieving more than he might imagine, and, secondly, that too few people have a real appreciation of what can be achieved by team-work and mutual support.

Young people participate in 'expedition courses' lasting 8, 12, or 20 days and involving adventurous journeys by land or sea. There are also 'specialist courses' for young people aged 17 and over to become involved in work with such groups as the homeless, the elderly, and the disabled.

Text 16 National Emblems of the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom (abbreviated from "The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland") is the political name of the country which consists of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland (sometimes known as Ulster).

Great Britain is the name of the island which is made up of England, Scotland, Wales, whereas the British Isles is the geographical name of all the islands off the north-west coast of the European continent. In everyday speech "Britain" is used to mean the United Kingdom.

The flag of the United Kingdom, known as the Union Jack, is made up of three crosses. The upright red cross on a white background is the cross of the 1st George, the patron saint of England. The white diagonal cross on a blue background is the cross of St. Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland. The red diagonal cross on a white background is the cross of St. Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland. The Welsh flag, called the Welsh dragon, represents a red dragon on a white and green background. St. George's Day falls on 23 April and is regarded as England's national day. On this day some patriotic Englishmen wear a rose pinned to their jackets'. A red rose is the national emblem of England from the time of the Wars of the Roses (15th century).

St. Andrew's Day (the 30th of November) is regarded as Scotland's national day. On this day some Scotsmen wear a thistle in their buttonhole. As a national emblem of Scotland, thistle apparently first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defence. The Order of the Thistle is one of the highest orders of knighthood. It was founded in 1687, and is mainly given to Scottish noblemen (limited to 16 in number). St. Patrick's Day (the 17th of March)

is considered as a national day in Northern Ireland and an official bank holiday there. The national emblem of Ireland is shamrock. According to legend, it was the plant chosen by St. Patrick to illustrate the Christian doctrine of the Trinity to the Irish.

St. David's Day (the 1st of March) is the church festival of St. David, a 6th-century monk and bishop, the patron saint of Wales. The day is regarded as the national holiday of Wales, although it is not an official bank holiday. On this day, however, many Welshmen wear either a yellow daffodil or a leek pinned to their jackets, as both plants are traditionally regarded as national emblems of Wales.

In the Royal Arms three lions symbolize England, a lion rampant — Scotland, and a harp — Ireland. The whole is encircled and is supported by a lion and a unicorn.

Text 17 Historical Reference

In 383 the Roman legions began to leave Britain to fight in Gaul (France) against the Barbarian tribes who were invading the Roman Empire. By 407 there were not enough Roman soldiers to defend Britons from Picts and Scots, fierce tribes from the North.

The British chiefs asked Anglo-Saxon soldiers to come from Germany to help them.

Anglo-Saxons were strong and well trained, they defeated Picts and Scots, but when afterwards Britons asked to do it and stayed.

After about one hundred and fifty years of fighting Britons had either been forced to Wales or had become slaves.

Anglo-Saxons founded a lot of kingdoms: Kent, Essex, Wessex, Mercia, Northumbria.

In 789 more than three hundred years after the Anglo-Saxons had settled in Britain, the Vikings began to attack the British Isles. They came from Norway, Sweden and Denmark. The winters there were long and cold and soil was poor, so Britain was a rich prize for them. They made a big army. The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms couldn't resist the Vikings, and soon only the kingdom of Wessex remained free of them – the King of Wessex was Alfred the Great. King Alfred the Great was one of the first kings of England. He was a great and kind king. He did so much that was good for the people of England that people called him Alfred the Good.

In the time of Alfred the Great not many men or women could read or write. Alfred could read and write well. He wanted his people to have schools where they could learn to read and write. While he was king, many people went to school for the first time their lives.

Alfred was a brave man as well as a good one. While he was king, the Danes came in their boats to England and fought their way up the rivers. They wanted to live in England and make it their own country. Alfred and his people fought hard because they did not want to give up their country to the Danes.

King Alfred and the Vikings made a treaty. They agreed that the Vikings would live in an area called the Danelaw, where they could follow their traditions and obey their law. So the vikings settled in England and mixed with Anglo-Saxons. The process wasn't very painful as these two nations were very much alike and had similar languages. But more and more Vikings were coming from the continent and by 1020 King Sweyn of Denmark became the first Danish King of England.

Text 18 A View on Entertainment in Britain

BRIAN CARTER, a student, is not happy with entertainment in Britain. "British audiences can be interminably irritating with their frequently snobby, haughty and smug attitudes"

It is perhaps ironic that it should be possible to write about what is irritating and loathsome about entertainment in Britain; entertainment is supposed to be diverting and enjoyable but this is decidedly not always the case.

Take the cinema... To see a film you have either to go to one of the huge multiplexes that has sprung up on the outskirts of towns over the last couple of years or to stick to the high street movie theatres which have either remained unchanged and poorly maintained since Charlie Chaplin's heyday or are old dance halls or bingo palaces converted to cinemas sometime around 1952 when orange and brown were apparently considered the quickest route to tasteful interior decoration: they are all ugly and dilapidated with moth-eaten, creaky and cramped seats. A visit to the multiplex is a little more enjoyable, because at least these cinemas usually have hot dogs.

The British seem not to have grasped the concept of what is and what is not appropriate snack-food for the cinema. The whole point about popcorn is that it doesn't crinkle in a wrapper and it doesn't crunch in your mouth. In Britain, though, cinemas sell crisps and candy in plastic wrappings. Little is more frustrating than trying to concentrate on the screen when you are sitting next to Mr and Mrs Greedy with Junior Greedies stuffing their faces with crunchy food from crinkly wrappers, saliva drooling slowly down their chins.

The theatre is little better. Although Britain has a theatrical tradition that is richer and more varied than almost any country in the world (this is, after all, the nation that has produced Shakespeare, Laurence Olivier and a sector of London — the West End — packed with

more theatres and original productions than you could wish for), British audiences can be interminably irritating with their frequently snobby and smug attitudes. Worst of all are the regulars of the Royal Shakespeare Company who derive immense pleasure from spotting — or pretending to spot — the most intellectual of puns (plays on words) or witty quips. They then laugh ostentatiously in a theatrical manner to show the surrounding audience that they, and only they, have the intelligence to understand the true meaning of the play that they are watching. You can always spot these characters because they glance discreetly around themselves a few seconds after they have finished laughing to check that their neighbours have noticed them.

Text 19 Education in Great Britain: Higher Education

For seven hundred years Oxford and Cambridge universities dominated the British education. Scotland had four universities, all founded before A. D. 1600. Wales only acquired a university in the 20th century; it consisted of four university colleges located in different cities (Cardiff, Swansea, Bangor, and Aberystwith). The first English university after Oxford and Cambridge (sometimes referred to as Oxbridge) was Durham, in the North of England, founded in 1832. The University of London was founded a few years later in 1836.

During the nineteenth century institutions of higher education were founded in most of the biggest industrial towns, like Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield (sometimes called the Redbrick Universities). At first they did not have full university status but were known as university colleges; since 1945, however, all have become independent universities, and in recent years a number of other universities have been founded: Sussex, Essex, Warwick, and others.

In the middle 60s there was a further new development. Some of the local technical colleges maintained by local authorities had gained special prestige. By 1967 ten of these had been given charters as universities. Many of them are in the biggest cities where there were already established universities; so now we have the University of Aston (Birmingham), Salford (close to Manchester), Strathclyde (Glasgow), Herriot-Watt University (Edinburgh), Brunel University (London). When we add all these together we find that the number of universities in England increased within ten years from nineteen to thirty-six, and in Scotland from four to eight.

Oxford university is a federation of colleges, and it is impossible to understand its structure unless one first understands the nature and function of these colleges, which have no resemblance whatever with the institutions called "colleges" in America. Oxford has twenty-three ordinary colleges for men, five for women. All these are parallel institutions, and none of them is connected with any particular field of study. No matter what subject a student proposes to study he may study at any of the men's colleges.

Each college has a physical existence in the shape of a dining-hall, chapel, and residential rooms (enough to accommodate about half the student membership, the rest living in lodgings in the town). It is governed by its Fellows (commonly called "dons"), of whom there are usually about twenty or thirty. The dons are also responsible for teaching the students of the college through the tutorial system. The Fellows elect the Head of the college (whose title varies from college to college).

Text 20 Democracy in Great Britain

Great Britain is one of the biggest and highly developed countries in the world. Britain's democratic system of government is long established and well tried, and has provided a remarkable political stability. Britain's overseas relations including its membership in the European Economic Community and its links with Commonwealth countries, enable it to realize international cooperation.

Great Britain has diplomatic relations with 166 countries, bears the responsibility for 14 independent territories, provides assistance to over 120 developing countries and is a member of some international organizations. It is one of the five permanent members of the UNO Security Council. Great Britain is a member of the European Economic Community. The Community defines its aims as the harmonious development of economic activities. It has abolished internal tariffs, established common custom tariffs, and set a goal of the creation of an internal market in which free movement of goods, services, persons, and capital would be ensured in accordance with the Treaty of Rome.

By the middle of 2000 Britain had adopted more laws regulating the activity in the internal market than any other Community member. The Community now accounts for a fifth of world trade. Half Britain's trade is with its eleven Community partners.

Great Britain takes an active part in the work of the Commonwealth, which is a voluntary association of 50 independent states. The English Queen is recognized as Head of the Commonwealth.

Great Britain promotes sustainable economic and social progress in developing countries. Almost £65 million were spent on disaster relief, help for refugees and emergency humanitarian aid.

Britain's defence policy is based on its membership in NATO, which is committed to defend the territories of all its states-members.

Text 21 Unwritten Rules of Great Britain

Good and bad manners make up the social rules of a country. They are not always easy to learn because they are often not written down in books. For example, British women didn't go into pubs at the beginning of this century because it was not considered respectable behaviour for a woman. Now both women and men drink freely in pubs and women are fully integrated into public life. Visitors to Britain are often surprised by the strange behaviour of the inhabitants. One of the worst mistakes is to get on a bus without waiting your turn in the queue. The other people in the queue will probably complain loudly! Queuing is a national habit and it is considered polite or good manners to wait for your turn.

In some countries it is considered bad manners to eat in the street, whereas in Britain it is common to see people having a snack whilst walking down the road, especially at lunchtime. Britons may be surprised to see young children in restaurants in the evening because children are not usually taken out to restaurants late at night. And if they make a noise in public or in a restaurant it is considered very rude. In recent years children are playing a more active role and they are now accepted in many pubs and restaurants.

In recent years smoking has received a lot of bad publicity, and fewer British people now smoke. Many companies have banned smoking from their offices and canteens. Smoking is now banned on the London Underground, in cinemas and theaters and most buses. It's becoming less and less acceptable to smoke in a public place. It is considered rude or bad manners to smoke in someone's house without permission. Social rules are an important part of our culture as they passed down through history. The British have an expression for following these "unwritten rules": "When in Rome, do as the Romans do".

Text 22 Palace of Westminster

The Palace of Westminster is the meeting place of the House of Commons and the House of Lords, the two houses of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. Commonly known as the Houses of Parliament after its occupants, it is also known as the 'heart of British politics'. The Palace lies on the northern bank of the River Thames in the City of Westminster, in central London. Its name, which derives from the neighbouring Westminster Abbey, may refer to either of two structures: the Old Palace, a medieval building complex that was destroyed by fire in 1834, and its replacement, the New Palace that stands today. For ceremonial purposes, the palace retains its original style and status as a royal residence and is the property of the Crown.

The first royal palace was built on the site in the eleventh century, and Westminster was the primary residence of the Kings of England until a fire destroyed much of the complex in 1512. After that, it served as the home of the Parliament of England, which had been meeting there since the thirteenth century, and also as the seat of the Royal Courts of Justice, based in and around Westminster Hall. In 1834, an even greater fire ravaged the heavily rebuilt Houses of Parliament, and the only medieval structures of significance to survive were Westminster Hall, the Cloisters of St Stephen's, the Chapel of St Mary Undercroft, and the Jewel Tower.

The subsequent competition for the reconstruction of the Palace was won by the architect Charles Barry, whose design was for new buildings in the Gothic Revival style, specifically inspired by the English Perpendicular Gothic style of the 14th-16th centuries. The remains of the Old Palace (with the exception of the detached Jewel Tower) were incorporated into its much larger replacement, which contains over 1,100 rooms organised symmetrically around two series of courtyards. Part of the New Palace's area of 3.24 hectares (8 acres) was reclaimed from the Thames, which is the setting of its principal 266-metre (873 ft) façade, called the River Front. Barry was assisted by Augustus W. N. Pugin, a leading authority on Gothic architecture and style, who provided designs for the decorations and furnishings of the Palace. Construction started in 1840 and lasted for thirty years, suffering great delays and cost overruns, as well as the death of both leading architects; works for the interior decoration continued intermittently well into the twentieth century. Major conservation work has been carried out since, to reverse the effects of London's air pollution, and extensive repairs took place after the Second World War, including the reconstruction of the Commons Chamber following its bombing in 1941.

Text 23 Rail transport in Great Britain

The railway system in Great Britain is the oldest in the world: the world's first locomotive-hauled public railway opened in 1825. Most of the railway track is managed by Network Rail, which in 2015 had a network of 15,760 kilometres (9,790 mi) of standard-gauge lines, of which 5,272 kilometres (3,276 mi) were electrified. These lines range from single to quadruple track or more. In addition, some cities have separate rail-based mass transit systems (including the extensive and historic London Underground). There are also several private railways (some of them narrow-gauge), which are primarily short tourist lines. The British railway network is connected with that of continental Europe by an undersea rail link, the Channel Tunnel, opened in 1994.

The United Kingdom is a member of the International Union of Railways (UIC). The UIC Country Code for United Kingdom is 70. The UK has the 18th largest railway network in the world; despite many lines having closed in the 20th century it remains one of the densest rail networks. It is one of the busiest railways in Europe, with 20% more train services than France, 60% more than Italy, and more than Spain, Switzerland, The Netherlands, Portugal and Norway combined, as well as representing more than 20% of all passenger journeys in Europe.

In 2014, there were 1.65 billion journeys on the National Rail network, making the British network the fifth most used in the world (Great Britain ranks 23rd in world population). Unlike a number of other countries, rail travel in the United Kingdom has enjoyed a renaissance in recent years, with passenger numbers reaching their highest ever level (see usage figures below). This has coincided with the privatisation of British Rail, but the effect of this is disputed. The growth is partly attributed to a shift away from private motoring due to growing road congestion and increasing petrol prices, but also to the overall increase in travel due to affluence. However passenger journeys have grown much more quickly than in comparable countries such as France and Germany.

To cope with increasing passenger numbers, there is a large ongoing programme of upgrades to the network, including Thameslink, Crossrail, electrification of lines, in-cab signalling, new inter-city trains and a new high-speed line.

Text 24 Tea in Britain

Tea, that most quintessential of English drinks, is a relative latecomer to British shores. Although the custom of drinking tea dates back to the third millennium BC in China, it was not until the mid 17th century that the beverage first appeared in England.

The use of tea spread slowly from its Asian homeland, reaching Europe by way of Venice around 1560, although Portuguese trading ships may have made contact with the Chinese as early as 1515.

It was the Portuguese and Dutch traders who first imported tea to Europe, with regular shipments by 1610. England was a latecomer to the tea trade, as the East India Company did not capitalize on tea's popularity until the mid-18th century.

Coffee Houses

Curiously, it was the London coffee houses that were responsible for introducing tea to England. One of the first coffee house merchants to offer tea was Thomas Garway, who owned an establishment in Exchange Alley. He sold both liquid and dry tea to the public as early as 1657. Three years later he issued a broadsheet advertising tea at £6 and £10 per pound (ouch!), touting its virtues at "making the body active and lusty", and "preserving perfect health until extreme old age".

Tea gained popularity quickly in the coffee houses, and by 1700 over 500 coffee houses sold it. This distressed the tavern owners, as tea cut their sales of ale and gin, and it was bad news for the government, who depended upon a steady stream of revenue from taxes on liquor sales. By 1750 tea had become the favoured drink of Britain's lower classes.

Taxation on Tea

Charles II did his bit to counter the growth of tea, with several acts forbidding its sale in private houses. This measure was designed to counter sedition, but it was so unpopular that it was impossible to enforce. A 1676 act taxed tea and required coffee house operators to apply for a license.

This was just the start of government attempts to control, or at least, to profit from the popularity of tea in Britain. By the mid 18th century the duty on tea had reached an absurd 119%. This heavy taxation had the effect of creating a whole new industry - tea smuggling.

Text 25 So is English the International Language?

If an international language exists today, it is inarguably English. Not only is it the default language of international business, it has integrated itself into many languages through loanwords. Loanwords span from “Internet” to common phrases like “Ok”. There are more than 350 million people that claim English as their native language, and 430 million more people speak it as their second language. English speakers are found in every corner of the world, so it’s hard to ignore its status as an international language.

English is a West Germanic language that spans the globe, from the United States to New Zealand. It’s estimated that there are around 2 billion English speakers of varying nationalities spread throughout the world. There are many varieties of English as well, ranging from British to South African English, each with their own idiosyncrasies.

Just as English has loaned words out to other languages, other languages have loaned their words out to English as well. The English language gains words like “ballet” from French, “kindergarten” from German, “patio” from Spanish, “tsunami” from Japanese, and “moped” from Swedish. It can be assumed that, as English spreads throughout the world, it will continue to gain new vocabulary from other languages. Similarly, other languages will continue to gain new vocabulary from English.

How did English Become the International Language of the World?

So what accounts for the rise of English? The English language has a bit of a sordid past, originally spreading from the reign of the British Empire.

It has been thriving on what many call ‘cultural imperialism’ since then, with the rise of the communication age easing the spread of the language. As with many things, the number of speakers of a language depends heavily on the political power of its native speakers. If there’s anything the British Empire had some 300 years ago, it was political power. This has made English an official language in 50+ countries worldwide.

Since the British Empire, English has continued to expand through its native speakers, who span the globe from the United States to Australia. As English speakers grow in number, the number of people who want to learn an increasingly useful language will also grow.

3 семестр – тексты социокультурной направленности

Text 1 British Museum

The centre of the museum was redeveloped in 2001 to become the Great Court, surrounding the original Reading Room.

The British Museum is a museum dedicated to human history, art, and culture, located in the Bloomsbury area of London. Its permanent collection, numbering some 8 million works, is among the largest and most comprehensive in existence and originates from all continents, illustrating and documenting the story of human culture from its beginnings to the present.

The British Museum was established in 1753, largely based on the collections of the physician and scientist Sir Hans Sloane. The museum first opened to the public on 15 January 1759, in Montagu House in Bloomsbury, on the site of the current museum building. Its expansion over the following two and a half centuries was largely a result of an expanding British colonial footprint and has resulted in the creation of several branch institutions, the first being the British Museum (Natural History) in South Kensington in 1881. Some objects in the collection, most notably the Elgin Marbles from the Parthenon, are the objects of controversy and of calls for restitution to their countries of origin.

Until 1997, when the British Library (previously centred on the Round Reading Room) moved to a new site, the British Museum housed both a national museum of antiquities and a national library in the same building. The museum is a non-departmental public body sponsored by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport, and as with all other national museums in the United Kingdom it charges no admission fee, except for loan exhibitions. Neil MacGregor became director of the museum in August 2002, succeeding Robert G. W. Anderson. In April 2015, MacGregor announced that he would step-down as Director on 15 December. On 29 September 2015, the Board of Trustees confirmed Hartwig Fischer, who will assume his post in Spring 2016, as his successor.

Text 2. National Gallery

The National Gallery is an art museum in Trafalgar Square in the City of Westminster, in Central London. Founded in 1824, it houses a collection of over 2,300 paintings dating from the mid-13th century to 1900.[a] The Gallery is an exempt charity, and a non-departmental public body of the Department for Culture, Media and Sport. Its collection belongs to the public of the United Kingdom and entry to the main collection is free of charge. It is among the most visited art museums in the world, after the Musée du Louvre, the British Museum, and the Metropolitan Museum of Art.

Unlike comparable museums in continental Europe, the National Gallery was not formed by nationalising an existing royal or princely art collection. It came into being when the British government bought 38 paintings from the heirs of John Julius Angerstein, an insurance broker and patron of the arts, in 1824. After that initial purchase the Gallery was

shaped mainly by its early directors, notably Sir Charles Lock Eastlake, and by private donations, which comprise two-thirds of the collection. The resulting collection is small in size, compared with many European national galleries, but encyclopaedic in scope; most major developments in Western painting "from Giotto to Cézanne" are represented with important works. It used to be claimed that this was one of the few national galleries that had all its works on permanent exhibition, but this is no longer the case.

The present building, the third to house the National Gallery, was designed by William Wilkins from 1832 to 1838. Only the façade onto Trafalgar Square remains essentially unchanged from this time, as the building has been expanded piecemeal throughout its history. Wilkins's building was often criticised for the perceived weaknesses of its design and for its lack of space; the latter problem led to the establishment of the Tate Gallery for British art in 1897. The Sainsbury Wing, an extension to the west by Robert Venturi and Denise Scott Brown, is a notable example of Postmodernist architecture in Britain. The current Director of the National Gallery is Gabriele Finaldi.

Text 3 London Eye

The London Eye is a giant Ferris wheel on the South Bank of the River Thames in London. Also known as the Millennium Wheel, it has also been called by its owners the British Airways London Eye, then the Merlin Entertainments London Eye, then the EDF Energy London Eye. Since mid-January 2015, it has been known as the Coca-Cola London Eye, following an agreement signed in September 2014.

The structure is 443 feet (135 m) tall and the wheel has a diameter of 394 feet (120 m). When erected in 1999 it was the world's tallest Ferris wheel. Its height was surpassed by the 520 feet (158 m) tall Star of Nanchang in 2006, the 541 feet (165 m) tall Singapore Flyer in 2008, and the 550 feet (168 m) High Roller (Las Vegas) in 2014. Supported by an A-frame on one side only, unlike the taller Nanchang and Singapore wheels, the Eye is described by its operators as "the world's tallest cantilevered observation wheel".

It is Europe's tallest Ferris wheel, and offered the highest public viewing point in London until it was superseded by the 804 feet (245 m) observation deck on the 72nd floor of The Shard, which opened to the public on 1 February 2013. It is the most popular paid tourist attraction in the United Kingdom with over 3.75 million visitors annually, and has made many appearances in popular culture.

The London Eye adjoins the western end of Jubilee Gardens (previously the site of the former Dome of Discovery), on the South Bank of the River Thames between Westminster Bridge and Hungerford Bridge, in the London Borough of Lambeth.

A predecessor to the London Eye, the Great Wheel, was built for the Empire of India Exhibition at Earls Court and opened to the public on 17 July 1895. Modelled on the original Chicago Ferris Wheel, it was 94 metres (308 ft) tall and 82.3 metres (270 ft) in diameter. It stayed in service until 1906, by which time its 40 cars (each with a capacity of 40 persons) had carried over 2.5 million passengers. The Great Wheel was demolished in 1907 following its last use at the Imperial Austrian Exhibition.

Text 4 Tower of London

The Tower of London, officially Her Majesty's Royal Palace and Fortress of the Tower of London, is a historic castle located on the north bank of the River Thames in central London. It lies within the London Borough of Tower Hamlets, separated from the eastern edge of the square mile of the City of London by the open space known as Tower Hill. It was founded towards the end of 1066 as part of the Norman Conquest of England. The White Tower, which gives the entire castle its name, was built by William the Conqueror in 1078, and was a resented symbol of oppression, inflicted upon London by the new ruling elite. The castle was used as a prison from 1100 (Ranulf Flambard) until 1952 (Kray twins),[2] although that was not its primary purpose. A grand palace early in its history, it served as a royal residence. As a whole, the Tower is a complex of several buildings set within two concentric rings of defensive walls and a moat. There were several phases of expansion, mainly under Kings Richard the Lionheart, Henry III, and Edward I in the 12th and 13th centuries. The general layout established by the late 13th century remains despite later activity on the site.

The Tower of London has played a prominent role in English history. It was besieged several times and controlling it has been important to controlling the country. The Tower has served variously as an armoury, a treasury, a menagerie, the home of the Royal Mint, a public records office, and the home of the Crown Jewels of England. From the early 14th century until the reign of Charles II, a procession would be led from the Tower to Westminster Abbey on the coronation of a monarch. In the absence of the monarch, the

Constable of the Tower is in charge of the castle. This was a powerful and trusted position in the medieval period. In the late 15th century the castle was the prison of the Princes in the Tower. Under the Tudors, the Tower became used less as a royal residence, and despite attempts to refortify and repair the castle its defences lagged behind developments to deal with artillery.

The peak period of the castle's use as a prison was the 16th and 17th centuries, when many figures who had fallen into disgrace, such as Elizabeth I before she became queen, were held within its walls. This use has led to the phrase "sent to the Tower". Despite its enduring reputation as a place of torture and death, popularised by 16th-century religious propagandists and 19th-century writers, only seven people were executed within the Tower before the World Wars of the 20th century. Executions were more commonly held on the notorious Tower Hill to the north of the castle, with 112 occurring there over a 400-year period. In the latter half of the 19th century, institutions such as the Royal Mint moved out of the castle to other locations, leaving many buildings empty. Anthony Salvin and John Taylor took the opportunity to restore the Tower to what was felt to be its medieval appearance, clearing out many of the vacant post-medieval structures. In the First and Second World Wars, the Tower was again used as a prison, and witnessed the executions of 12 men for espionage. After the Second World War, damage caused during the Blitz was repaired and the castle reopened to the public. Today the Tower of London is one of the country's most popular tourist attractions. Under the ceremonial charge of the Constable of the Tower, it is cared for by the charity Historic Royal Palaces and is protected as a World Heritage Site.

Text 5 Madame Tussauds

By 1835 Marie had settled down in Baker Street, London, and opened a museum. This part of the exhibition included victims of the French Revolution and newly created figures of murderers and other criminals. The name is often credited to a contributor to Punch in 1845, but Marie appears to have originated it herself, using it in advertising as early as 1843.

Other famous people were added to the exhibition, including Lord Nelson, and Sir Walter Scott. Some of the sculptures done by Marie Tussaud herself still exist. The gallery originally contained some 400 different figures, but fire damage in 1925, coupled with German bombs in 1941, has rendered most of these older models defunct. The casts themselves have survived (allowing the historical waxworks to be remade), and these can

be seen in the museum's history exhibit. The oldest figure on display is that of Madame du Barry. Other faces from the time of Tussaud include Robespierre and George III. In 1842, she made a self portrait which is now on display at the entrance of her museum. She died in her sleep on 15 April 1850.

By 1883 the restricted space and rising cost of the Baker Street site prompted her grandson (Joseph Randall) to commission the building at its current location on Marylebone Road. The new exhibition galleries were opened on 14 July 1884 and were a great success.[9] However, the building costs, falling so soon after buying out his cousin Louisa's half share in the business in 1881, meant the business was under-funded. A limited company was formed in 1888 to attract fresh capital but had to be dissolved after disagreements between the family shareholders, and in February 1889 Tussaud's was sold to a group of businessmen led by Edwin Josiah Poyser.[10] Edward White, an artist dismissed by the new owners to save money, allegedly sent a parcel bomb to John Theodore Tussaud in June 1889 in revenge. The first sculpture of a young Winston Churchill was made in 1908, with a total of ten made since.

The first overseas branch of Madame Tussauds was opened in Amsterdam in 1970.

Text 6. Shakespeare Theatre Company

The Shakespeare Theatre Company is a regional theatre company located in Washington, D.C. The theatre company focuses primarily on plays from the Shakespeare canon, but its seasons include works by other classic playwrights such as Euripides, Ibsen, Wilde, Shaw, Schiller, Coward and Tennessee Williams. The company manages and performs in the Harman Center for the Arts, consisting of the Lansburgh Theatre and Sidney Harman Hall. In cooperation with George Washington University, they run the Academy for Classical Acting.

The company is a member of the League of Resident Theatres.

The Folger Shakespeare Library on Capitol Hill includes a replica of an Elizabethan theatre, originally used for lectures and tours. In 1970 this space was transformed into a functioning playhouse, and soon Folger Theatre Group (later The Folger Theatre) was organized to perform in the space.

After years of discussion, Amherst College, administering body of the Folger Shakespeare Library, in 1986 withdrew financial support for the company. To save the company, concerned citizens led by R. Robert Linowes reincorporated it as the non-profit Shakespeare Theatre at the Folger, later hiring Michael Kahn as artistic director. The company continued to perform at the Folger for the next six years.

Changing its name to The Shakespeare Theatre, the troupe moved in 1992 to the Lansburgh Theatre, a newly built space in the original Lansburgh's Department Store building in the Penn Quarter. At the start of the 2005-6 season, it adopted the current name, Shakespeare Theatre Company. The company constructed another theatre, Sidney Harman Hall, which opened in 2007 in the lower part of an office building in the quarter, and the two theatres were joined to become the Harman Center for the Arts.

Meanwhile, after initially importing traveling shows from the Shenandoah Shakespeare Express the Folger Shakespeare Library developed a new Folger Theatre company to present plays in its Elizabethan replica.

Text 7 British Royal Family

At present the British royal family is headed by Queen Elizabeth. When the Queen was born on the 21 st of April 1926, her grandfather, King George V, was on the throne and her uncle was his heir. The death of her grandfather and the abdication of her uncle brought her father to the throne as King George VI.

As a child she studied constitutional history and law as well as art and music. In addition she learned to ride and acquired her enthusiasm for horses. As she grew older she began to take part in public life, making her first broadcast at the age of 14.

The marriage of the young Princess Elizabeth to Philip, Duke of Edinburgh took place in November 1947. She came to the throne after her father's death in 1952 and was crowned in Westminster Abbey in June 1953.

Among Queen Elizabeth's many duties are the regular visits she makes to foreign countries, and especially those of the Commonwealth, whose interests and welfare are very important to her.

The Queen's husband, Duke of Edinburgh, was born in 1926 and served in the Royal Navy. He takes a great deal of interest in industry, in the achievements of young people (he founded Duke of Edinburgh's Award Scheme in 1956) and in saving raise wild animals from extinction.

The Queen's heir is Charles, Prince of Wales, who was bom in 1948, married Lady Diana Spencer and has two children, Prince William and Prince Harry. The Prince of Wales is well-known as a keen promoter of British interests.

The Queen's other children are Princess Anne (born in 1950), Prince Andrew (born in 1960) and Prince Edward (born in 1964). Anne, Princess Royal, has acquired a reputation for being arrogant, but in recent years has become quite popular with the general public.

The Queen is widely known for her interest in horses and horse-racing. She is now president of the Save the Children Fund, Chancellor of the University of London and carries out many public engagements.

Prince Andrew, Duke of York, served as a helicopter pilot in the Royal Navy. In 1986 he married Miss Sarah Ferguson (Fergie, for short) and has two daughters. Prince Edward is keen on the theatre. This interest began while he was at university. He quit the Royal Marines, and is now pursuing a career with a theatrical company.

The Queen Mother, the widow of the late King George VI, celebrated her one hundred birthday in 2000 and died in 2002.

Text 8 Agatha Christie

Agatha Christie is known all over the world as the Queen of Crime. She wrote 78 crime novels, 19 plays and 6 romantic novels under the name of Mary Westmacott. Her books have been translated into 103 foreign languages. She is the third best-selling author in the world (after Shakespeare and the Bible). Many of her novels and short stories have been filmed. The Mousetrap, her most famous play, is now the longest-running play in history.

Agatha Christie was born at Torquay, Devonshire. She was educated at home and took singing lessons in Paris. She began writing at the end of the First World War. Her, first

novel, *The Mysterious Affair at Styles*, was published in 1920. That was the first appearance of Hercule Poirot, who became one of the most popular private detectives since Sherlock Holmes. This little Belgian with the egg-shaped head and the passion for order amazes everyone by his powerful intellect and is brilliant solutions to the most complicated crimes.

Agatha Christie became generally recognised in 1926, after the publishing of her novel *The Murder of Roger Ackroyd*. It's still considered her masterpiece. When Agatha Christie got tired of Hercule Poirot she invented Miss Marple, a deceptively mild old lady with her own method of investigation. Her last Poirot book, *Curtain*, appeared shortly before her death, and her last Miss Marple story, *Sleeping Murder*, and her autobiography were published after her death.

Agatha Christie's success with millions of readers lies in her ability to combine clever plots with excellent character drawing, and a keen sense of humour with great powers of observation. Her plots always mislead the reader and keep him in suspense. He cannot guess who the criminal is. Fortunately, evil is always conquered in her novels.

Agatha Christie's language is simple and good and it's pleasant to read her books in the original.

Text 9 Conan Doyle

Many years ago a young doctor began to write stories about a man who was a detective. Readers liked his stories because they were very interesting and the doctor decided to become a writer. The doctor was Conan Doyle and he wrote about Sherlock Holmes.

Conan Doyle wrote his first story about Sherlock Holmes in 1887. In this story the detective meets his friend Dr. Watson. Holmes and Watson lived at 221 B Baker Street in London.

Many discussions take place about where 221 B was. There is no house there now. But a large company has its office near the place. This company answers twenty or so letters which still come every week to Sherlock Holmes, 221 B Baker Street. Most come from the United States and many people ask if Mr. Holmes can help them with some problem.

The company answers saying that, "Mr. Sherlock Holmes is no longer working as a detective".

There is a pub in London called Sherlock Holmes. One of the rooms in the pub is Sherlock Holmes' room. It has many things the room in Conan Doyle's stories had - Holmes' hat, some letters written to Sherlock Holmes, chairs and tables like those described in the stories. Besides, there are some pictures of Holmes and Conan Doyle, of actors who played Holmes and Watson in films, on television and radio.

In 1961 lovers of Sherlock Holmes formed the Sherlock Holmes Society. They meet three or four times a year to talk about Sherlock Holmes. The members of the Society know the stories about Sherlock Holmes very well, and they discuss these stories at their meetings.

Text 10 Diana - the People's Princess

Diana Spencer was born on the first of July 1961 in Sandringham in England. She had two older sisters and a younger brother. In childhood she liked games, swimming, running and dancing. She wanted to become a dancer. Besides she loved children very much and at the age of sixteen she worked in schools for very young children.

Diana became princess, when Prince Charles, the Queen's son, asked her to be his wife and they got married. They seemed to be a happy couple at first. They had two sons. They travelled a lot they worked a lot, they visited many countries together. But Diana was not quite happy because they did different things and Charles didn't understand her.

Why was Diana the most famous, the most beautiful, the most photographed woman in the world? Why did she win the hearts of millions and millions of people in many countries? Why did so many people come to London to remember her when she died? Why did the car accident which took her life, become such a total shock to crowds of people? Why did people feel the need to be in London at the funeral? Why did the tears and love at the funeral move the world?

The answer is so simple. Matthew Wall, a student at St. Michael's College in Burlington said: She was such a lovely lady. She did so much for those people less fortunate than herself.

She was a kind woman. Hundreds of people talked about Diana's kindnesses. She liked ordinary people, though she was rich and had many rich friends. Wherever she was, she was always ready to lend a hand. She was devoted to the sick and the poor. She visited hospitals for people with AIDS and for lepers and wasn't afraid to touch them, talk to them, listen to them. She worked on children's charities, and had teamed up with Hillary Clinton

in an effort to ban landmines. And it's not only money, that she wanted to give people. She wanted to give them a part of her soul to make them happy because she was unhappy herself. She wanted to give them love, because she needed love herself.

Diana was seen many times in floods of tears, because of the pressures of her loveless 15-year marriage. It is not a secret that Diana was hounded and humiliated to the point of mental breakdown and was able to pull through only because she knew she had the love of the people to buoy her in her darkest hours.

She was, indeed, the People's Princess.

Text 11 Margaret Thatcher

Margaret Hilda Thatcher, Baroness Thatcher, LG, OM, PC, FRS (née Roberts; 13 October 1925 – 8 April 2013) was a British stateswoman and politician who was the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom from 1979 to 1990 and the Leader of the Conservative Party from 1975 to 1990. She was the longest-serving British Prime Minister of the 20th century and is currently the only woman to have held the office. A Soviet journalist dubbed her the "Iron Lady", a nickname that became associated with her uncompromising politics and leadership style. As Prime Minister, she implemented policies that have come to be known as Thatcherism.

Originally a research chemist before becoming a barrister, Thatcher was elected Member of Parliament (MP) for Finchley in 1959. Edward Heath appointed her Secretary of State for Education and Science in his 1970 government. In 1975, Thatcher defeated Heath in the Conservative Party leadership election to become Leader of the Opposition and became the first woman to lead a major political party in the United Kingdom. She became Prime Minister after winning the 1979 general election.

On moving into 10 Downing Street, Thatcher introduced a series of political and economic initiatives intended to reverse high unemployment and Britain's struggles in the wake of the Winter of Discontent and an ongoing recession. Her political philosophy and economic policies emphasised deregulation (particularly of the financial sector), flexible labour markets, the privatisation of state-owned companies, and reducing the power and influence of trade unions. Thatcher's popularity during her first years in office waned amid recession

and high unemployment, until the 1982 Falklands War and the recovering economy brought a resurgence of support, resulting in her re-election in 1983.

Thatcher was re-elected for a third term in 1987. During this period her support for a Community Charge (referred to as the "poll tax") was widely unpopular, and her views on the European Community were not shared by others in her Cabinet. She resigned as Prime Minister and party leader in November 1990, after Michael Heseltine launched a challenge to her leadership. After retiring from the Commons in 1992, she was given a life peerage as Baroness Thatcher, of Kesteven in the county of Lincolnshire, which entitled her to sit in the House of Lords. After a series of small strokes in 2002, she was advised to withdraw from public speaking. Despite this, she managed to deliver a eulogy to Ronald Reagan at his funeral in 2004. In 2013 she died of another stroke in London at the age of 87.

Text 12 A Brief History of Oxford city

Oxford was founded in the 9th century when Alfred the Great created a network of fortified towns called burhs across his kingdom. One of them was at Oxford. Oxford is first mentioned in 911 in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

According to legend, Oxford University was founded in 872 when Alfred the Great happened to meet some monks there and had a scholarly debate that lasted several days. In reality, it grew up in the 12th century when famous teachers began to lecture there and groups of students came to live and study in the town.

But Oxford was a fortress as well as a town. In the event of war with the Danes all the men from the area were to gather inside the burgh. However this strategy was not entirely successful. In 1009 the Danes burned Oxford. However Oxford was soon rebuilt. In 1013 the Danish king claimed the throne of England. He invaded England and went to Oxford. In 1018 a conference was held in Oxford to decide who would be the king of England.

By the time of the Norman Conquest, there were said to be about 1,000 houses in Oxford, which meant it probably had a population of around 5,000. By the standards of the time, it was a large and important town (even London only had about 18,000 inhabitants). Oxford was the 6th largest town in England. Oxford probably reached its zenith at that time. About 1072 the Normans built a castle at Oxford.

In the 12th and 13th centuries Oxford was a manufacturing town. It was noted for cloth and leather. But in the 14th and 15th centuries manufacturing declined. Oxford came to

depend on the students. It became a town of brewers, butchers, bakers, tailors, shoemakers, coopers, carpenters and blacksmiths. In the later Middle Ages Oxford declined in importance.

In the 16th century Oxford declined further in terms of national importance, though it remained a fairly large town by the standards of the time. Oxford was economically dependent on the university. The students provided a large market for beer, food, clothes and other goods.

From 1819 Oxford had gas street lighting.

In the late 19th century a marmalade making industry began in Oxford. There was also a publishing industry and an iron foundry.

Oxford gained its first cinema in 1910.

The fate of Oxford was changed in 1913 when a man named Morris began making cars in the city. In 1919 a radiator making company was formed. By the 1930s

Text 13 A Brief History of Cambridge

Cambridge was founded in 875 when the Danes conquered Eastern England. They created a fortified town called a burgh, from which the word borough derives. Cambridge was surrounded by a ditch and an earth rampart with a wooden palisade on top. However in 1010 Cambridge was burned by the Danes. That was an easy task when all the buildings were of wood.

By the 10th century Cambridge was also the administrative centre for the area and so it was a town of some importance, although it would seem tiny to us. By 1086 Cambridge probably had a population of about 2,000. By the standards of the time it was a medium sized town.

Later in the Middle Ages the population of Cambridge probably rose to about 3,000. In 1068 William the Conqueror visited Cambridge and ordered that a castle be built there. At first it was of wood but in the 12th century, it was rebuilt in stone.

The town of Cambridge was severely damaged by a fire in 1174. Fire was a constant hazard when most buildings were of wood with thatched roofs. Another fire raged in Cambridge in 1385.

In the Middle Ages Cambridge had a weekly market and by the early 13th century it also had a fair. In those days fairs were like markets but they were held only once a year for a

period of a few days- People came from all over Eastern England at a Cambridge fair. Cambridge prospered because it was located on the river Cam.

In Cambridge there was a leather industry. By the 15th century there was also a wool industry.

In 1728 it was estimated that the population of Cambridge was more than 6,000,1,600 of whom were inhabitants of the university. By the standards of that time Cambridge was a big town. The first newspaper in Cambridge appeared in 1744. The first bank in Cambridge was opened in 1780.

The railway reached Cambridge in 1845. It stimulated the growth of industry in Cambridge by connecting the town to a huge market in London. From the late 19th century a new industry of making scientific instruments grew up in Cambridge. Cambridge gained gas light in 1823.

From 1880 horse drawn trams ran in the streets of Cambridge. The first electricity was generated in Cambridge in 1893.

In the 20th century the university, while still important, did not dominate Cambridge. New industries of electronics grew up. Making surgical and scientific instruments was also important.

Text 14 English Meals

The English proverb says: every cook praises his own broth. One can not say English cookery is bad, but there is not a lot of variety in it in comparison with European cuisine. The English are very particular about their meals. The usual meals in England are breakfast, lunch, tea and dinner.

Breakfast time is between seven and nine a.m. A traditional English breakfast is a very big meal. It consists of juice, porridge, a rasher or two of bacon and eggs, toast, butter, jam or marmalade, tea or coffee. Marmalade is made from oranges and jam is made from other fruit. Many people like to begin with porridge with milk or cream and sugar, but no good Scotsman ever puts sugar on it, because Scotland is the home of porridge. For a change you can have sausages, tomatoes, mushrooms, cold ham or perhaps fish.

But nowadays in spite of the fact that the English strictly keep to their meals many people just have cereal with milk and sugar or toast with jam or honey.

The two substantial meals of the day are lunch and dinner. Lunch is usually taken at one o'clock. For many people lunch is a quick meal. Office workers usually go to a cafe at this time. They take fish, poultry or cold meat (beef, mutton, veal and ham), boiled or fried potatoes and all sorts of salad. They may have a mutton chop or steak and chips, followed by biscuits and a cup of coffee. Some people like a glass of light beer with lunch. Pubs also serve good, cheap food. School children can have a hot meal at school. Some of them just bring a snack from home.

Tea is very popular among the English; it may almost be called their national drink. Tea is welcome in the morning, in the afternoon and in the evening. The English like it strong and fresh made. The English put one tea-spoonful of tea for each person. Tea means two things. It is a drink and a meal. Some people have afternoon tea, so called «high tea» with sandwiches, tomatoes and salad, a tin of apricots, pears or pineapples and cakes, and, of course a cup of tea. That is what they call good tea. It is a substantial meal.

Cream teas are also popular. Many visitors, who come to Britain, find English instant coffee disgusting. Dinner time is generally between six and eight p.m. The evening meal is the biggest and the main meal of the day. Very often the whole family eats together. They begin with soup, followed by fish, roast chicken, potatoes and vegetables, fruit and coffee.

On Sundays many families have a traditional lunch consisting of roast chicken, lamb or beef with salads, vegetables and gravy.

Text 15 Life of Youth in Britain

Young people from all walks of life are united according to their interests by the established youth organizations in Britain. These organizations develop because of the contribution of both full-time and part-time youth workers and a great number of volunteers.

Outdoor pursuits involve anything from pony trekking to rock-climbing or canoeing and help young people go out from the confines of their home or their environment. Such pursuits nourish a spirit of self-reliance and help realize the importance of team-work under a good leadership. All the major youth organizations hold outdoor pursuits either by organizing special residential courses or by sending their members to take part in established courses or seminars in other cities and countries.

Local authorities and a number of multipurpose youth organizations provide the place for such activities as canoeing, sailing, rock-climbing, map reading, orienteering and cooking for survival; all of them encourage initiative and self-discipline.

Among providers of outdoor places are the Sports Council, the Outward-Bound Trust, the Ocean Youth Club, the Sail Training Association, and the Nautical Training Corps.

The Outward-Bound Trust is the longest established and most experienced organization in Britain based on outdoor pursuits, personal development, and training. It has five centres in the English Lake District, Wales, and Scotland. It operates in 38 other countries of the world. It has centres in Belgium, France, Germany, and the Netherlands. This organization is based on two simple principles: firstly, that everyone is capable of achieving more than he might imagine, and, secondly, that too few people have a real appreciation of what can be achieved by team-work and mutual support.

Young people participate in 'expedition courses' lasting 8, 12, or 20 days and involving adventurous journeys by land or sea. There are also 'specialist courses' for young people aged 17 and over to become involved in work with such groups as the homeless, the elderly, and the disabled.

Text 16 National Emblems of the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom (abbreviated from "The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland") is the political name of the country which consists of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland (sometimes known as Ulster).

Great Britain is the name of the island which is made up of England, Scotland, Wales, whereas the British Isles is the geographical name of all the islands off the north-west coast of the European continent. In everyday speech "Britain" is used to mean the United Kingdom.

The flag of the United Kingdom, known as the Union Jack, is made up of three crosses. The upright red cross on a white background is the cross of the 1st George, the patron saint of England. The white diagonal cross on a blue background is the cross of St. Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland, The red diagonal cross on a white background is the cross of St. Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland.

The Welsh flag, called the Welsh dragon, represents a red dragon on a white and green background.

St. George's Day falls on 23 April and is regarded as England's national day. On this day some patriotic Englishmen wear a rose pinned to their jackets'. A red rose is the national emblem of England from the time of the Wars of the Roses (15th century).

St. Andrew's Day (the 30th of November) is regarded as Scotland's national day. On this day some Scotsmen wear a thistle in their buttonhole. As a national emblem of Scotland, thistle apparently first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defence. The Order of the Thistle is one of the highest orders of knighthood. It was founded in 1687, and is mainly given to Scottish noblemen (limited to 16 in number).

St. Patrick's Day (the 17th of March) is considered as a national day in Northern Ireland and an official bank holiday there. The national emblem of Ireland is shamrock. According to legend, it was the plant chosen by St. Patrick to illustrate the Christian doctrine of the Trinity to the Irish.

St. David's Day (the 1st of March) is the church festival of St. David, a 6th-century monk and bishop, the patron saint of Wales. The day is regarded as the national holiday of Wales, although it is not an official bank holiday.

On this day, however, many Welshmen wear either a yellow daffodil or a leek pinned to their jackets, as both plants are traditionally regarded as national emblems of Wales.

In the Royal Arms three lions symbolize England, a lion rampant — Scotland, and a harp — Ireland. The whole is encircled and is supported by a lion and a unicorn.

Text 17 Historical Reference

In 383 the Roman legions began to leave Britain to fight in Gaul (France) against the Barbarian tribes who were invading the Roman Empire. By 407 there were not enough Roman soldiers to defend Britons from Picts and Scots, fierce tribes from the North.

The British chiefs asked Anglo-Saxon soldiers to come from Germany to help them.

Anglo-Saxons were strong and well trained, they defeated Picts and Scots, but when afterwards Britons asked to do it and stayed.

After about one hundred and fifty years of fighting Britons had either been forced to Wales or had become slaves.

Anglo-Saxons founded a lot of kingdoms: Kent, Essex, Wessex, Mercia, Northumbria.

In 789 more than three hundred years after the Anglo-Saxons had settled in Britain, the Vikings began to attack the British Isles. They came from Norway, Sweden and Denmark. The winters there were long and cold and soil was poor, so Britain was a rich prize for

them. They made a big army. The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms couldn't resist the Vikings, and soon only the kingdom of Wessex remained free of them – the King of Wessex was Alfred the Great.

King Alfred the Great was one of the first kings of England. He was a great and kind king. He did so much that was good for the people of England that people called him Alfred the Good.

In the time of Alfred the Great not many men or women could read or write. Alfred could read and write well. He wanted his people to have schools where they could learn to read and write. While he was king, many people went to school for the first time their lives.

Alfred was a brave man as well as a good one. While he was king, the Danes came in their boats to England and fought their way up the rivers. They wanted to live in England and make it their own country. Alfred and his people fought hard because they did not want to give up their country to the Danes.

King Alfred and the Vikings made a treaty. They agreed that the Vikings would live in an area called the Danelaw, where they could follow their traditions and obey their law. So the vikings settled in England and mixed with Anglo-Saxons. The process wasn't very painful as these two nations were very much alike and had similar languages. But more and more Vikings were coming from the continent and by 1020 King Sweyn of Denmark became the first Danish King of England.

Text 18 A View on Entertainment in Britain

BRIAN CARTER, a student, is not happy with entertainment in Britain. "British audiences can be interminably irritating with their frequently snobby, haughty and smug attitudes"

It is perhaps ironic that it should be possible to write about what is irritating and loathsome about entertainment in Britain; entertainment is supposed to be diverting and enjoyable but this is decidedly not always the case.

Take the cinema... To see a film you have either to go to one of the huge multiplexes that has sprung up on the outskirts of towns over the last couple of years or to stick to the high street movie theatres which have either remained unchanged and poorly maintained since Charlie Chaplin's heyday or are old dance halls or bingo palaces converted to cinemas sometime around 1952 when orange and brown were apparently considered the quickest route to tasteful interior decoration: they are all ugly and dilapidated with moth-eaten,

creaky and cramped seats. A visit to the multiplex is a little more enjoyable, because at least these cinemas usually have hot dogs.

The British seem not to have grasped the concept of what is and what is not appropriate snack-food for the cinema. The whole point about popcorn is that it doesn't crinkle in a wrapper and it doesn't crunch in your mouth. In Britain, though, cinemas sell crisps and candy in plastic wrappings. Little is more frustrating than trying to concentrate on the screen when you are sitting next to Mr and Mrs Greedy with Junior Greedies stuffing their faces with crunchy food from crinkly wrappers, saliva drooling slowly down their chins.

The theatre is little better. Although Britain has a theatrical tradition that is richer and more varied than almost any country in the world (this is, after all, the nation that has produced Shakespeare, Laurence Olivier and a sector of London — the West End — packed with more theatres and original productions than you could wish for), British audiences can be interminably irritating with their frequently snobby and smug attitudes. Worst of all are the regulars of the Royal Shakespeare Company who derive immense pleasure from spotting — or pretending to spot — the most intellectual of puns (plays on words) or witty quips. They then laugh ostentatiously in a theatrical manner to show the surrounding audience that they, and only they, have the intelligence to understand the true meaning of the play that they are watching. You can always spot these characters because they glance discreetly around themselves a few seconds after they have finished laughing to check that their neighbours have noticed them.

Text 19 Education in Great Britain: Higher Education

For seven hundred years Oxford and Cambridge universities dominated the British education. Scotland had four universities, all founded before A. D. 1600. Wales only acquired a university in the 20th century; it consisted of four university colleges located in different cities (Cardiff, Swansea, Bangor, and Aberystwith). The first English university after Oxford and Cambridge (sometimes referred to as Oxbridge) was Durham, in the North of England, founded in 1832. The University of London was founded a few years later in 1836.

During the nineteenth century institutions of higher education were founded in most of the biggest industrial towns, like Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield (sometimes called the Redbrick Universities). At first they did not have full university status but were known as university colleges; since 1945, however, all have become independent universities, and in recent years a number of other universities have been founded: Sussex, Essex, Warwick, and others.

In the middle 60s there was a further new development. Some of the local technical colleges maintained by local authorities had gained special prestige. By 1967 ten of these had been given charters as universities. Many of them are in the biggest cities where there were already established universities; so now we have the University of Aston (Birmingham), Salford (close to Manchester), Strathclyde (Glasgow), Herriot-Watt University (Edinburgh), Brunel University (London).

When we add all these together we find that the number of universities in England increased within ten years from nineteen to thirty-six, and in Scotland from four to eight.

Oxford university is a federation of colleges, and it is impossible to understand its structure unless one first understands the nature and function of these colleges, which have no resemblance whatever with the institutions called "colleges" in America.

Oxford has twenty-three ordinary colleges for men, five for women. All these are parallel institutions, and none of them is connected with any particular field of study. No matter what subject a student proposes to study he may study at any of the men's colleges.

Each college has a physical existence in the shape of a dining-hall, chapel, and residential rooms (enough to accommodate about half the student membership, the rest living in lodgings in the town). It is governed by its Fellows (commonly called "dons"), of whom there are usually about twenty or thirty. The dons are also responsible for teaching the students of the college through the tutorial system. The Fellows elect the Head of the college (whose title varies from college to college).

Text 20. Democracy in Great Britain

Great Britain is one of the biggest and highly developed countries in the world. Britain's democratic system of government is long established and well tried, and has provided a remarkable political stability. Britain's overseas relations including its membership in the European Economic Community and its links with Commonwealth countries, enable it to realize international cooperation.

Great Britain has diplomatic relations with 166 countries, bears the responsibility for 14 independent territories, provides assistance to over 120 developing countries and is a member of some international organizations. It is one of the five permanent members of the UNO Security Council. Great Britain is a member of the European Economic

Community. The Community defines its aims as the harmonious development of economic activities. It has abolished internal tariffs, established common custom tariffs, and set a goal of the creation of an internal market in which free movement of goods, services, persons, and capital would be ensured in accordance with the Treaty of Rome.

By the middle of 2000 Britain had adopted more laws regulating the activity in the internal market than any other Community member. The Community now accounts for a fifth of world trade. Half Britain's trade is with its eleven Community partners.

Great Britain takes an active part in the work of the Commonwealth, which is a voluntary association of 50 independent states. The English Queen is recognized as Head of the Commonwealth.

Great Britain promotes sustainable economic and social progress in developing countries. Almost £65 million were spent on disaster relief, help for refugees and emergency humanitarian aid.

Britain's defence policy is based on its membership in NATO, which is committed to defend the territories of all its states-members.

Text 21. Unwritten Rules of Great Britain

Good and bad manners make up the social rules of a country. They are not always easy to learn because they are often not written down in books. For example, British women didn't go into pubs at the beginning of this century because it was not considered respectable behaviour for a woman. Now both women and men drink freely in pubs and women are fully integrated into public life. Visitors to Britain are often surprised by the strange behaviour of the inhabitants. One of the worst mistakes is to get on a bus without waiting

your turn in the queue. The other people in the queue will probably complain loudly! Queuing is a national habit and it is considered polite or good manners to wait for your turn.

In some countries it is considered bad manners to eat in the street, whereas in Britain it is common to see people having a snack whilst walking down the road, especially at lunchtime. Britons may be surprised to see young children in restaurants in the evening because children are not usually taken out to restaurants late at night. And if they make a noise in public or in a restaurant it is considered very rude. In recent years children are playing a more active role and they are now accepted in many pubs and restaurants.

In recent years smoking has received a lot of bad publicity, and fewer British people now smoke. Many companies have banned smoking from their offices and canteens. Smoking is now banned on the London Underground, in cinemas and theaters and most buses. It's becoming less and less acceptable to smoke in a public place. It is considered rude or bad manners to smoke in someone's house without permission. Social rules are an important part of our culture as they passed down through history. The British have an expression for following these "unwritten rules": "When in Rome, do as the Romans do".

Text 22. Palace of Westminster

The Palace of Westminster is the meeting place of the House of Commons and the House of Lords, the two houses of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. Commonly known as the Houses of Parliament after its occupants, it is also known as the 'heart of British

politics'. The Palace lies on the northern bank of the River Thames in the City of Westminster, in central London. Its name, which derives from the neighbouring Westminster Abbey, may refer to either of two structures: the Old Palace, a medieval building complex that was destroyed by fire in 1834, and its replacement, the New Palace that stands today. For ceremonial purposes, the palace retains its original style and status as a royal residence and is the property of the Crown.

The first royal palace was built on the site in the eleventh century, and Westminster was the primary residence of the Kings of England until a fire destroyed much of the complex in 1512. After that, it served as the home of the Parliament of England, which had been meeting there since the thirteenth century, and also as the seat of the Royal Courts of Justice, based in and around Westminster Hall. In 1834, an even greater fire ravaged the heavily rebuilt Houses of Parliament, and the only medieval structures of significance to survive were Westminster Hall, the Cloisters of St Stephen's, the Chapel of St Mary Undercroft, and the Jewel Tower.

The subsequent competition for the reconstruction of the Palace was won by the architect Charles Barry, whose design was for new buildings in the Gothic Revival style, specifically inspired by the English Perpendicular Gothic style of the 14th-16th centuries. The remains of the Old Palace (with the exception of the detached Jewel Tower) were incorporated into its much larger replacement, which contains over 1,100 rooms organised symmetrically around two series of courtyards. Part of the New Palace's area of 3.24 hectares (8 acres) was reclaimed from the Thames, which is the setting of its principal 266-metre (873 ft) façade, called the River Front. Barry was assisted by Augustus W. N. Pugin, a leading authority on Gothic architecture and style, who provided designs for the decorations and furnishings of the Palace. Construction started in 1840 and lasted for thirty years, suffering great delays and cost overruns, as well as the death of both leading architects; works for the interior decoration continued intermittently well into the twentieth century. Major conservation work has been carried out since, to reverse the effects of London's air pollution, and extensive repairs took place after the Second World War, including the reconstruction of the Commons Chamber following its bombing in 1941.

Text 23 Rail transport in Great Britain

The railway system in Great Britain is the oldest in the world: the world's first locomotive-hauled public railway opened in 1825. Most of the railway track is managed by Network Rail, which in 2015 had a network of 15,760 kilometres (9,790 mi) of standard-gauge lines, of which 5,272 kilometres (3,276 mi) were electrified. These lines range from single

to quadruple track or more. In addition, some cities have separate rail-based mass transit systems (including the extensive and historic London Underground). There are also several private railways (some of them narrow-gauge), which are primarily short tourist lines. The British railway network is connected with that of continental Europe by an undersea rail link, the Channel Tunnel, opened in 1994.

The United Kingdom is a member of the International Union of Railways (UIC). The UIC Country Code for United Kingdom is 70. The UK has the 18th largest railway network in the world; despite many lines having closed in the 20th century it remains one of the densest rail networks. It is one of the busiest railways in Europe, with 20% more train services than France, 60% more than Italy, and more than Spain, Switzerland, The Netherlands, Portugal and Norway combined, as well as representing more than 20% of all passenger journeys in Europe.

In 2014, there were 1.65 billion journeys on the National Rail network, making the British network the fifth most used in the world (Great Britain ranks 23rd in world population). Unlike a number of other countries, rail travel in the United Kingdom has enjoyed a renaissance in recent years, with passenger numbers reaching their highest ever level (see usage figures below). This has coincided with the privatisation of British Rail, but the effect of this is disputed. The growth is partly attributed to a shift away from private motoring due to growing road congestion and increasing petrol prices, but also to the overall increase in travel due to affluence. However passenger journeys have grown much more quickly than in comparable countries such as France and Germany.

To cope with increasing passenger numbers, there is a large ongoing programme of upgrades to the network, including Thameslink, Crossrail, electrification of lines, in-cab signalling, new inter-city trains and a new high-speed line.

Text 24. Tea in Britain

Tea, that most quintessential of English drinks, is a relative latecomer to British shores. Although the custom of drinking tea dates back to the third millennium BC in China, it was not until the mid 17th century that the beverage first appeared in England.

The use of tea spread slowly from its Asian homeland, reaching Europe by way of Venice around 1560, although Portuguese trading ships may have made contact with the Chinese as early as 1515.

It was the Portuguese and Dutch traders who first imported tea to Europe, with regular shipments by 1610. England was a latecomer to the tea trade, as the East India Company did not capitalize on tea's popularity until the mid-18th century.

Coffee Houses

Curiously, it was the London coffee houses that were responsible for introducing tea to England. One of the first coffee house merchants to offer tea was Thomas Garway, who owned an establishment in Exchange Alley. He sold both liquid and dry tea to the public as early as 1657. Three years later he issued a broadsheet advertising tea at £6 and £10 per pound (ouch!), touting its virtues at "making the body active and lusty", and "preserving perfect health until extreme old age".

Tea gained popularity quickly in the coffee houses, and by 1700 over 500 coffee houses sold it. This distressed the tavern owners, as tea cut their sales of ale and gin, and it was bad news for the government, who depended upon a steady stream of revenue from taxes on liquor sales. By 1750 tea had become the favoured drink of Britain's lower classes.

Taxation on Tea

Charles II did his bit to counter the growth of tea, with several acts forbidding its sale in private houses. This measure was designed to counter sedition, but it was so unpopular that it was impossible to enforce. A 1676 act taxed tea and required coffee house operators to apply for a license.

This was just the start of government attempts to control, or at least, to profit from the popularity of tea in Britain. By the mid 18th century the duty on tea had reached an absurd 119%. This heavy taxation had the effect of creating a whole new industry - tea smuggling.

Text 25 So is English the International Language?

If an international language exists today, it is inarguably English. Not only is it the default language of international business, it has integrated itself into many languages through loanwords. Loanwords span from “Internet” to common phrases like “Ok”. There are more than 350 million people that claim English as their native language, and 430 million more people speak it as their second language. English speakers are found in every corner of the world, so it’s hard to ignore its status as an international language.

English is a West Germanic language that spans the globe, from the United States to New Zealand. It’s estimated that there are around 2 billion English speakers of varying nationalities spread throughout the world. There are many varieties of English as well, ranging from British to South African English, each with their own idiosyncrasies.

Just as English has loaned words out to other languages, other languages have loaned their words out to English as well. The English language gains words like “ballet” from French, “kindergarten” from German, “patio” from Spanish, “tsunami” from Japanese, and “moped” from Swedish. It can be assumed that, as English spreads throughout the world, it will continue to gain new vocabulary from other languages. Similarly, other languages will continue to gain new vocabulary from English.

How did English Become the International Language of the World?

So what accounts for the rise of English? The English language has a bit of a sordid past, originally spreading from the reign of the British Empire.

It has been thriving on what many call ‘cultural imperialism’ since then, with the rise of the communication age easing the spread of the language. As with many things, the number of speakers of a language depends heavily on the political power of its native speakers. If there’s anything the British Empire had some 300 years ago, it was political power. This has made English an official language in 50+ countries worldwide.

Since the British Empire, English has continued to expand through its native speakers, who span the globe from the United States to Australia. As English speakers grow in number, the number of people who want to learn an increasingly useful language will also grow.

3 семестр – тексты социокультурной направленности

LANGUAGE LEARNING

Recent psycholinguistic studies on how people learn languages have been accompanied by emphasis among English language teachers on the learner as an individual. Preferred learning styles are increasingly respected and learner independence is encouraged. For some teachers, non-interference is the key to giving a successful lesson. For others, this is an abdication of the teacher's role and shows ignorance of what can be done to make learning more efficient. If there has been

a revolution in language teaching methodology, surely there are some things teachers can do to help learners.

In the past, many of Britain's top schools modelled the teaching of modern languages on the teaching of Latin. Oral fluency was therefore undervalued and accuracy in the written language became the main goal. Your French might be excellent on your school report, but you could still arrive in France and fail to understand a word.

A separate method known as audio-lingualism made its appearance in private language schools. This emphasized the primacy of the spoken word, yet lesson content was mainly structural and contained few of the features of spoken English used as a vehicle for communication. Surely teachers can at least provide learners with good models of target behaviour.

MALE AND FEMALES

In the British General Election in 1997, some of the most powerful men in the country lost their seats to professionally successful women. One hundred and nineteen women were elected to the House of Commons and five women secured Cabinet posts. By 1997, over a million of Britain's four million small businesses were run by women. Many of these women had left corporate life because of their difficulties in progressing in large organisations, especially in the world of finance, where men are generally favoured for the top managerial posts.

During the twentieth century, women in Britain have had to campaign vigorously for equal rights - the right to education, the right to vote and the right to work in posts traditionally reserved for men. It was largely through war-work that women proved their capabilities.

More recently, they have been outperforming men in public examinations. Women's rights campaigns have focused particularly on language and thought. Terms such as "chairman" have been changed to more neutral descriptions such as "chair" or less ambiguous alternatives such as "president". This is part of the recent concept known as "political correctness".

Some men are careful to avoid accusations of sexism and sexual harassment while others have reacted by campaigning for "men's rights".

MASS MEDIA

The media includes national and local newspapers, satellite, cable and terrestrial television, radio, magazines, journals, teletext and the Internet. Nearly all Britain's national newspapers are owned by UK conglomerates or by foreign-based multinational companies. Consequently, in order for a political party to get elected to government it is extremely helpful to have the support of business tycoons such as Rupert Murdoch, owner of Sky, which broadcasts on many channels, as well as many British national newspapers, including The Sun, the tabloid with a circulation of about 4 million readers.

In a true democracy, the media would provide accurate information and would protect the interests of all the people. However, many TV channels and local newspapers are largely dependent on advertising for their revenue. Although they are often provided free to viewers and readers, the controllers and editors have to please the advertisers whose products may sometimes exploit underpaid work-forces or do damage to carefully targeted consumers.

Viewers and readers are classified by both media providers and advertising agencies according to different social categories ranging from grades A and B for senior managers and professional people through to grades D and E for unskilled workers and casual labourers respectively.

4.RELIGION

A person with a faith or religion can be referred to as a believer. However, in secular societies where few people participate in religious worship, it is more common to meet atheists and agnostics. Atheists take the view that there is no God. Agnostics simply do not know whether or not God exists. Some may have read many theological texts in search of proof one way or the other, though the majority of agnostics probably give little time to questions of religion. This does not necessarily mean that they have no moral guidelines.

People who have social consciences often prefer to describe themselves as humanists. They may well share many of the same concerns as Christians, Muslims, Hindus, Buddhists or Jews. These may relate to war and peace, sexual morality or many other aspects of human relationships.

In Britain, the two largest denominations are Protestant and Catholic. Both of these groups belong to the Christian church, though the Protestants separated from the Catholic church in the sixteenth century and no longer recognise the pope as their head. Among the Protestants are Anglicans who are members of the Church of England. As you move up through the ranks of the clergy, you may start as a curate, helping the vicar or rector in charge of a parish.

There are several types of priest. A successful vicar will move from being a Reverend to a Canon by which time the congregation - the people who attend church - will probably be fairly large. The main administrator of a very large church or cathedral is called the dean, though the priest in charge of the diocese - a large area such as the city of London or Birmingham - is the bishop. The bishop is assisted by an archdeacon. The highest ranking bishop - in charge of all the churches in a particular area - is the archbishop. The reigning king or queen is the head of the Church of England.

RICH AND POOR

The common phrases used to describe the rich world include "the developed countries" and "the advanced industrial countries". To describe very poor countries, we usually refer to "The Third World". It can be more diplomatic to speak of "the developing countries", though this description is often applied to countries which are not so very poor.

Economists also refer to "the North South divide" to emphasize that countries in the northern hemisphere are generally richer than those in the southern hemisphere - namely Africa and Latin America.

People in the rich world have mixed attitudes towards giving aid to Third World countries. Some take the view that charity begins at home. It is true that there are many people in need in Britain. However, the people who are making the most generous donations to domestic charities are often the ones who are supporting emergency appeals for the victims of conflicts and disasters overseas. Church-based campaigns such as "Christian Aid" and secular ones such as "Children in Need" direct themselves to both national and international causes.

The obligation of the rich world towards the poor world is not based on history alone. As a former colonial power, Britain was once responsible for the slave trade and the exploitation of other countries' resources. But today, together with other rich

countries, we continue to dominate world markets, setting the terms of trade in our favour. We continue to sell arms to oppressive regimes, which accumulate debt and do little to alleviate hunger among their own populations.

SOCIETY

The meaning of "society" is susceptible to changes in place and time. In Britain, during the Second World War, there was a feeling of community because civilians helped one another out. When the war ended, the Welfare State was founded. People were provided with free eye-tests, glasses, medicines and dental check-ups. There was a sense of the strong helping the weak. By the end of the 1950s, many people were purchasing washing machines and televisions. Some were even buying their own houses. The consumer society was under way. Politicians told us that we'd never had it so good.

During the 1960s, in both Britain and America, the conventional view of society was challenged by a youth movement whose opinions were articulated through pop and folk music and student politics. Songs such as "Little Boxes" ridiculed the idealized picture of the two parent family whose children went through both summer school and university to become perfect products of society. The little boxes of many different colours, but which all looked just the same, were the suburban dwellings of the American middle class. Other songs such as "What did you learn in school, today?" questioned the image of the good citizen who never doubts the teacher's word, regards the police as friends, supports the death penalty and is eager to fight for his country. The attack on the uniformity of the family developed into a protest against the Vietnam war. By the early 1970s, criticism turned to the corruption inherent in the Nixon administration.

Today, people show greater tolerance towards different family structures such as single parent families and there is a wider acceptance of different races and sexual orientations. However, trust is in short supply, judging by the number of security alarms fitted to our houses and cars and the emergence of neighbourhood watch schemes as the social institutions of the 1990s.

TRADITIONS

In a world of technological change, we struggle to keep up with new developments, yet at the same time, many of us welcome the continuity and repetition provided by traditions. Some of our traditions are connected with places; others relate to the calendar and religious or pagan ceremonies.

There are a number of towns and cities in Britain which are associated with legendary people or creatures. Tourists visiting Nottingham can take a trip to Sherwood forest where they can revive the legend of Robin Hood. A journey to Loch Ness, near Inverness in Scotland, may result in a sighting of "Nessie" the famous monster. London is rich in traditions such as the changing of the guards at Buckingham Palace and Horse Guards Parade. The opening of parliament when members of the House of Commons are called to the House of Lords to attend the Queen's Speech is just one of many annual events.

Annual religious ceremonies provide us with holly, fir-trees and crackers at Christmas, and chocolate eggs at Easter. Other yearly events include Burns' Night in January to celebrate the birth of Scotland's great national poet, pancake day in February, April Fools' Day on 1st April and the crowning of the May Queen on 1st May.

Traditions are also observed during important moments of our lives such as weddings and funerals. In a traditional British church wedding, the bride wears a long white dress while the groom wears a black cloak and top hat. The bride's father escorts her to the front of the church and she is attended by bridesmaids when she leaves. The groom, accompanied by the "best man" brings a gold ring which is placed on the bride's finger after the couple have made serious promises. The groom is then allowed to kiss the bride.

8. WORK

People in Britain can look for jobs in the Situations Vacant column of national or local newspapers. National newspapers such as "The Guardian" focus on different areas of employment such as media, education, social work and information technology on different days. Job vacancies are also displayed at Job Centres and other Employment Agencies in towns and cities and on the Internet.

Before applying for a job, you should check that you meet the requirements. These are usually specified in terms of previous experience, qualifications and personality. To show that you are a suitable candidate for the post, it is usual to enclose a curriculum vitae with your letter of application. There are many computer programs that will help

you produce a well designed and professional-looking curriculum vitae, available both from computer software retailers and as freeware on the web.

If you make the right impression, you will be invited to an interview; otherwise you will probably receive a letter saying: "we regret to inform you that your application has been unsuccessful." The successful applicant will probably be given a contract of employment which will contain the job description and the terms and conditions. You show your acceptance of these by signing the contract.

On your first day of work, you may be invited to join a trade union. If so, you will probably be introduced to your shop steward, the trade union official who will represent you and your colleagues in negotiations with management. Sooner or later, you will meet your boss. The person who you report to, could also be called a line manager or director. In factories, workers often take their orders from a team-leader or foreman, who is an intermediary between the employer and the employees.

TRAVEL

Students often manage to travel long distances on very limited budgets. The secret is to find cheap travel, food and accommodation.

In the 1960s, British students did this through hitch-hiking and youth hostelling. It can still be done today, though drivers are much more reluctant to offer lifts to strangers.

Youth hostels are also more expensive as they tend to offer a greater level of comfort. Hostellers used to carry their own sheet sleeping bags and would expect to sleep in bunk beds, often within large single sex dormitories. A long walk to one of few outside toilets was not uncommon.

Today, other possibilities present themselves to people living near one of Britain's international airports. The cost of international rail travel has become prohibitive, but hopping around Europe on charter flights can be done very cheaply. The chief snag is finding reasonably priced accommodation when you arrive at your destination.

Cheap flights are advertised on Teletext, in most Sunday newspapers and on the web sites of budget airlines such as "Go", "Easy Jet" and "Ryan Air". Tickets can be purchased by credit card over the phone.

The very cheapest flights are to be found on the Internet where you can look for special offers, specify what kind of meal you want and even choose your exact seat, providing it has not already been booked. Payment is by credit card over a secure page and you will receive confirmation of your booking by e-mail.

Whether your reservations are made by phone or on the net, you will be given a booking reference number. If it is too late for your tickets to reach you by post, you can collect them at the airport on your day of departure by quoting your reference number.

Many British people own holiday apartments in Spain and let their properties to holiday-makers when they are not using them themselves. The apartments are usually well maintained and in beautiful locations. The owners advertise in Sunday newspapers, in journals such as "Dalton's Weekly" or "Exchange & Mart" or in exclusive magazines such as "The Lady".

CANADA - IT'S NOT the USA

Imagine yourself sitting in a café one day in your home town, when on the next table you hear some people speaking English with a strong North American accent. Being a friendly person, you lean over and say, "Hi! Are you American?"
"No," comes the immediate answer. "Canadian!"

Calling a English-speaking Canadian an American can be as bad as telling a Scotsman that he's English or a Swiss person he's German. In spite of a common language, there are differences in culture and national feeling. "No," many Canadians will tell you with insistence, "We're not Americans! We're Canadians"

In the same way as Quebecers are determined to keep their identity, Canadians from the other provinces are determined to keep Canada's identity. Although the Canadian

way of life is more and more like the American way of life, lots of details are different, and many Canadians, particularly Quebecers, are worried about the survival of their own differences.

Canadians use metres and kilometres and measure temperatures in Celsius; Americans use feet and miles, and measure temperature in Fahrenheit. The USA has states, Canada has provinces.

Yet about 80% of Canadians live within 150 km. of the U.S. border, and this has had a bad effect on the Canadian economy. Like most European countries, Canada has a national health service, and a good social security system; but good welfare services have to be paid for by high taxes, so the cost of living in Canada is high. Because of this, hundreds of thousands of Canadians often get in their cars and drive over to the USA to go shopping. This is one cause of economic problems in Canada. Over half of Canada's imports come from the United States, and Canada has a trade deficit with the USA.

But the American influence is not just a question of shopping. Lots of Canadians drive American cars, and cars are almost as important in Canada as they are in the USA. There is television too. While Quebecers tend to watch their own French-language TV stations, English-speaking Canadians have a choice between local English-speaking channels, national programmes from CBC, and dozens of American channels brought to them by cable or satellite. Unless they specifically want to watch local stations, they're just as likely to tune in to one of the big American channels as they are to a Canadian channel.

Perhaps it is not surprising if some Canadians are afraid that their country will soon be just like another part of the USA. If, one day, Quebec becomes independent, many Canadians fear that the rest of Canada could break up. Perhaps that's an exaggeration; many Canadians feel it is a real risk.

LONDON AND ITS PLACES OF INTEREST

The capital of Great Britain is full of popular and world-famous tourist attractions, both educational and entertaining. Most of them are located close to the river Thames, others are in different parts of London and in its suburbs. The city was founded about 2 000 years ago, so there are a lot of interesting historic and architectural sights.

Big Ben is the most famous iconic clock tower of the Houses of Parliament. Behind this long and beautiful building stands medieval Westminster Abbey where many historic weddings, coronations and burials took place. The Tower of London has rich history as a royal palace, a fortress, a prison and a place of execution. Not far from the Tower guests can see the magnificent architecture of St Paul's Cathedral, originally

designed by Sir Christopher Wren. In the middle of Trafalgar Square tourists stop to admire a 52-metre Nelson's column dedicated to Admiral Lord Nelson. Buckingham Palace has been the official residence of British monarchs since the reign of Queen Victoria.

London is famous for its wonderful museums and art galleries. In British Museum one can see ancient paintings, sculptures and even Egyptian mummies. London's National Gallery has the greatest collection of paintings of Van Gogh, Leonardo da Vinci, Renoir and many others. The Natural History Museum boasts its fabulous dinosaur exhibition. Tate Modern is a unique museum with the works of Picasso, Dali and other modern artists. The Science Museum is a technology thought-provoking museum with interactive galleries devoted to many fields of science: from space travel to psychology.

As for the entertaining, it is impossible to get bored in London. The best places for quiet relaxation are traditional English parks and gardens. The tourists' favourites are Kew Gardens, Hyde Park, St. James's Park, Green Park and Kensington Gardens. Right in the heart of the capital we can find London Zoo and London Aquarium. In Madame Tussauds Museum visitors will meet face to face with hundreds of celebrities: from Shakespeare to Lady Gaga because it's an amazing collection of wax figures. Warner Bros. Studio Tour is an unbelievable behind-the-scenes tour where we can enjoy the magic of the Harry Potter films. The London Eye is a giant wheel that carries its visitors in one of its capsules for breathtaking experience above the city and its attractions.

TELEVISION ADVERTISING

Everything we eat, wear or use is often dictated to us through commercial advertising. One of the most powerful forms of advertising is television. It provides an excellent chance for companies to promote and sell their products. It is an easy and effective way to let people from all over the world know about certain brands and attract their interest. To my mind television is able to sell different goods like no other mass medium can.

Some people find TV commercials rather annoying. Advertisers use the concept of repetition in order to promote goods, services, ideas and to awake the desire of purchasing. Besides, people usually get nervous when their favourite film or programme is constantly interrupted by endless ads.

To spend a day without television is almost impossible for a child or teenager living in the 21st century. A number of hours a modern child spends in front of TV is

enormous. Adults also depend greatly on TV news, weather reports, sports or entertaining programmes. Advertisers choose the particular time of the day and specific programmes to gain attention of their target audience. For instance, a cartoon show will break for commercials advertising toys, cereals or chocolate for children. Or a soap opera will target women with ads of make-up products or household cleaners. Luckily alcohol and tobacco advertising is banned on TV in our country.

Children and youth are easily influenced and sometimes naive, so I believe that television ads should send only positive and healthy messages. Sex, violence or racism should be banned during TV commercials. Many food companies advertise unhealthy snacks, sugary cereals or fast food. It affects children's food choices and increases rates of childhood obesity.

Television advertising plays an important role in our lives. It influences our views and preferences unconsciously. We often choose this or that chewing gum, for example, because of the colourful TV commercials which convince us, as potential buyers, of its best qualities. Moreover, by exploiting celebrities, fashion or sports icons advertising companies make a huge impact on their consumers and promote their products even more effectively.

OUR LIFE WITHOUT TELEVISION

Today there is at least one television set in every house. Watching television has become an essential part of our everyday life. We come home from school or work and turn on the TV. It's our usual and comfortable background while cooking dinner or cleaning up the house. We can also just relax on a couch with a remote control in our hands looking for some nice programme or a film.

It's rather difficult to say if television is good or bad for us. It offers a great variety of informational and entertaining channels able to satisfy any taste. We love watching TV news, reality shows, concerts, quiz-shows, sports events, movies or soap operas. Television educates us about everything. It is a convenient source of information about current affairs and the latest achievements around the world.

We can hardly imagine our life without television nowadays. Unfortunately modern teachers claim that reading has almost vanished from the life of the young generation due to television. People are too busy working, surfing the Internet and watching TV. Besides, doctors claim that childhood obesity is rapidly becoming a global problem because of spending passive hours in front of TV or computers. A lot of parents are worried by the impact of constant sex and violence on the screen.

So what would our life be like without this popular electronic device? I think we could spend more quality time together with our families and friends going to theatres, picture galleries, enjoying long walks in the parks and doing sports. We could socialize with each other and participate in each other's lives. Parents could devote their free time to their children, playing and reading books together. But I am afraid I can only dream of such a world.

INTERNET IN OUR LIFE

Just a century ago we didn't even know about computers and the Internet. But today we take them for granted and can't imagine our life without these inventions. I think that the Internet (or WorldWideWeb) is the greatest invention ever and it has made a significant impact on our lives.

Nowadays the Internet is affordable almost for anyone and it connects people all around the world. You can stay in touch with your friends, relatives and colleagues. Our modern life will stop without the net because it helps to make on-line business transactions, manage our bank accounts, pay our gas or electricity bills and send important e-mails, for example.

The Internet is the largest source of information. There are millions of Internet sites storing plenty of useful data about everything: science, history, psychology, sports, fashion, music, cooking and many other subjects. We can also download our favourite movies or songs, listen to radio channels or play games. Learning or practising foreign languages is possible with the Internet too.

The Internet saves our time and money. We can do on-line shopping choosing the desirable thing at the best price. And then we just click "Order the delivery". By the way, we can also sell various things in the net. We often don't need to go to the library: surfing the net can easily help us to find and open the book we need. Buying stamps and envelopes isn't required if you're going to send an e-mail. It takes just a few seconds to send an instant message by e-mail.

The Internet helps shy people or those with low-esteem to find each other on dating sites. On-line chatting through social networking websites is more comfortable for Internet users with the lack of social skills.

I am sure that the Internet has changed our life for the better. There is only one disadvantage about it: some people become rather addicted to it and spend all days long surfing the net, on-line dating or playing games. Over-using the net can be dangerous because new technology victims start neglecting their families, friends, work and real hobbies.

15. CHRISTMAS IN THE UK AND THE USA

Christmas is a favourite time of the year for many Christian people. It is celebrated by many cultures and religions. This is the holiday when families come together and celebrate the birth of Jesus, love, peace and kindness. Catholic Christmas is celebrated in Europe, Australia and America on the 25th of December. However all preparations for this day start long before the date.

Christmas is rich in traditions which make this holiday very special for everyone. One of the most favourite traditions among children is decorating their houses, gardens and Christmas trees with colourful garlands, mistletoe wreaths, ornaments, gingerbread men, dazzling stars and artificial snow. Evergreen trees are symbols of eternal life, and mistletoe traditionally symbolizes love. The next tradition is writing a letter to Santa Claus and waiting for him and his reindeer with a bag full of presents in a sleigh. Children hang up stockings near their beds or by the fire-place hoping that Santa Claus will come at night and fill them with sweets, fruits and nuts.

On Christmas Eve people send holiday cards and visit their friends in order to exchange presents and good wishes. In the centre of London, in Trafalgar Square British people gather around the huge Christmas tree. Many of them attend church services on Christmas Eve. Singing Christmas carols to commemorate Christ's birth is also one of the oldest Catholic traditions. In America the biggest Christmas tree is usually lit up in New York, at Rockefeller Centre.

A big festive dinner is the most delicious meal of a year. People enjoy traditional plum puddings, stuffed turkey, mashed potatoes and pumpkin pies.

The warmth and joy of Christmas makes people much better. A lot of people help the poor, they organize festive dinners for the homeless.

16. TRADITIONAL ENGLISH FOOD

Traditional English food has been greatly influenced by other national cuisines in recent years. Despite this fact, if you travel to Britain, you can still be served up traditional English dishes in a restaurant or at a hotel.

A typical English breakfast is usually quite big and substantial. It includes pork sausages, bacon and eggs, tomatoes, baked beans, mushrooms and a toast. Some people enjoy porridge, fruit and yogurt in the morning, followed by a toast and jam, or orange marmalade. A traditional breakfast drink is tea, which British people prefer having with cold milk. Another popular morning drink is orange juice.

For many Englishmen lunch is a fast meal. In big cities there are a lot of sandwich bars where office clerks can choose all sorts of sandwiches with meat, fish, chicken, ham, prawns, eggs, cheese, vegetables and lettuce. English pubs also serve good food for lunch, hot and cold. Quite a lot of workers go to famous "fish and chips shops" and buy their favourite deep fried cod or haddock with French fries.

A lot of Englishmen drink their 5 o'clock tea. It's a traditional light meal after work. People enjoy their favourite teas with cookies, cakes, freshly baked sweet buns, scones and other pastries.

British people eat their evening meal at about 7 o'clock, when all members of the family are at home together. As a rule, a typical dinner is meat and vegetables. It can be roast chicken or lamb with potatoes, or steamed vegetables with meat gravy. For dessert, English wives cook various puddings and serve them with ice-cream or jam.

On Sundays British families like to sit together at the table enjoying roast beef, lamb or chicken, served with Yorkshire pudding and dressed with English mustard, apple sauce, cranberry sauce or mint sauce.

English food is simple but very delicious. Today it continues to merge in national cuisines from all over the world.

17. INVENTIONS IN OUR LIFE

From space shuttles to eye-glasses, from air-conditioning to the Internet – inventions of the last centuries have completely transformed our lives and our world. The era of fascinating discoveries has changed the way we communicate, the way we spend our free time. The machine gun has made our world more dangerous, the parking meter – more expensive and refrigerators have changed our eating habits. We can't imagine our life without electricity and domestic electric appliances today such as microwave ovens, toasters, washing-machines, dish-washers, vacuum cleaners, irons and many others. Our world is also impossible without modern means of transport: cars, trains, ships or airplanes.

I am really amazed by the greatest medical inventions of penicillin, anaesthetic, contact lenses, X-rays and many others. Penicillin is the name of an antibiotic that is used to kill dangerous bacteria in our bodies. This medicine was discovered in 1928 by Alexander Fleming. Many people worldwide stopped dying when their wounds had got infected. Of course, it is impossible to count how many lives have been saved by penicillin, but some estimate that it is about 200 million. As for X-rays, they were discovered by Wilhelm Rontgen in 1895 by accident. X-ray machines produced images of different parts in the human body. And since then they have been widely used for analyzing problems with bones, teeth and organs. Today they are also used at airports for luggage inspection.

I must say that some inventions are quite strange and funny. Among them are food fans (for making your hot food cool enough to eat), heated toilet seats or devices that translate dog barking. As for weapons, cigarettes and fast food, I believe they are the worst mankind inventions. Modern inventions should make our life easier and better, but they must not cause health problems or destroy our planet.

18. TRAVELLING

The best way to break the monotony of our life and learn a lot about different places and cultures in the world is travelling. I think that our modern life is impossible without travelling. People get tired of their daily routine, they need to change the surroundings.

So they go to a travel agency, buy tickets to some nice place, pack their suitcases and set off on a journey.

Travelling has a great educational value because it is a chance to meet new people, visit museums and ancient sights, discover different ways of life, taste national cuisines and practice foreign languages. It makes us more appreciative of other cultures. The best way to study geography is to go to distant countries and cities.

We can travel by different means of transport: by plane, by ship, by train, by car and even on foot. It depends on our plans and preferences. Plane is the fastest but the most expensive means of transport. Travelling in a modern train can be very comfortable and enjoyable. We can admire picturesque landscapes from the window and communicate with our companions. When we travel by car we don't have to buy any tickets or book a hotel, we can stop wherever we want and stay there as long as we like. Travelling on foot (or hiking) is quite popular among young people. It's really exciting to walk in the countryside enjoying the beauty of hills and valleys, lakes and forests.

My parents spend their holidays travelling too. I was only 4 years old when they first took me to Turkey. That was an unforgettable holiday by the sea. We swam and sunbathed, went sailing and fishing. And we took plenty of beautiful pictures there.

Travelling is great! It can give you a great deal of pleasant emotions and memories. It's the time for relaxation and thinking. People often return home with a fresh outlook on life and a fantastic zeal to do something good. And they usually say: "East or West – home is best."

19. BRITISH TRADITIONS AND CUSTOMS

Every nation becomes special by means of its own traditions and customs. There is no other nation that clings to the past with the tenacity of the British. They are really proud of their traditions, they cherish them. When we think of Britain we often think of people drinking white tea, eating fish and chips, sitting by the fireplace or wearing bowler hats, but there is much more in Britain than just those things. Some British traditions are royal, such as the Changing of the Guard which takes place every day at Buckingham Palace. The Trooping of the Colour happens on the Queen's official birthday. It's a big colourful parade with hundreds of soldiers and brass bands.

British holidays (Christmas, Easter, Guy Fawkes Night, Remembrance Day) are especially rich in old traditions and customs. A traditional Christmas dinner consists of roast turkey and potatoes, cranberry sauce, sweet mince pies and Christmas pudding. On Christmas Eve children hang up their stockings around the fireplace for Father Christmas to fill with presents. At Easter chocolate eggs are given as presents symbolizing new life. Guy Fawkes Night is also known as Bonfire Night because English people burn stuffed figures on bonfires. On Remembrance Day red poppies are traditionally worn in memory of servicemen who lost their lives in wars. National

Morris Dancing can be seen throughout the month of May in most of English villages. Groups of men and women wear coloured costumes, carry white handkerchiefs and perform their lively folkdance.

One of Englishmen's traditions is their tender love for animals. Pets are members of English families and are protected by law. There are even special cemeteries for animals in Great Britain. Most English people love their gardens too. They enjoy gardening and decorating their houses with beautiful flowers and plants.

Sports play an essential part in the life of Britain and it is a popular leisure activity. Rugby, golf, cricket, polo and horse-racing are British national sports and they are played on village greens and in towns on Sundays.

Politeness and punctuality are typical features of all British people. They often say "Sorry", "Please" and "Thank you" with a smiling face and they always try to arrive on time.

The British are also traditional about their breakfast. They usually eat bacon and eggs, a toast with orange jam, a bowl of cereals or porridge in the morning.

There are over 60 thousand pubs in the United Kingdom. Pubs are an important part of British life too. People talk, eat, drink, meet their friends and relax there.

20. GLOBALIZATION: PROS & CONS

Globalization is a process of interaction between people, companies and government of different nations. It is driven by international trade and the development of information technology. We observe its results in all spheres of our life. It has great influence on our environment, culture, political and economic systems. Globalization can be described as movement of people, goods, investments, labour and ideas all over the world. Of course it's impossible to define whether globalization is good or bad. It has both pros and cons. Some people just hate globalization and find it threatening for national cultures. Others believe that free trade between countries offers prosperity and economic growth for all nations and businesses.

Today we know a lot of world-famous brands. Wherever we are, we are likely to have lunch at a fast-food restaurant McDonald's. We can find Coca Cola or Lipton tea at any store. And these products are offered almost in every country. Multinational companies create additional work places for local people. But there is a negative side here because it's hard for small domestic firms to compete with worldly recognized companies. That's why they often incur great losses.

Globalization gives me freedom in choosing a place for holidays, in purchasing goods made in a country I prefer most. We can easily get acquainted with other traditions, customs and national cuisines. Living in Russia, for example, we can try new dishes in Japanese, Italian or Georgian restaurants. But on the other hand, little by little we forget about our own culture and the youth starts losing old traditions. Globalization destroys cultural identity.

Another benefit of globalization is advances in information technology. Thanks to the Internet I can get almost any information I need. It helps me with my education and

with my studies at the university too. We can participate in international educational programs, communicate with pen-friends from other countries, apply for a piece of advice to any professional through the Internet.

Another advantage of the era of globalization is that I have an opportunity to get closer to my friends and distant relatives by sending messages and exchanging photos and videos. However the Internet completely transformed our communication and we meet each other in reality less and less nowadays.

21. FASHION AND MY ATTITUDE TO IT

Fashion has always had a huge influence on people around the world. The main reason why we try to follow the latest fashion trends is a desire to look stylish, attractive, popular and more confident. Generally people judge a new person by his appearance and his clothes and only then, by his inner qualities. There is a proverb: "Good clothes open all doors." That's why we do our best to make a favourable impression on others. We spend a lot of money to keep up with fashion and buy designer clothes.

Fashion often means style, glamour and success. It is also a big business. It's hard to resist the temptation to buy some brand-name clothing in our modern world. Every day we pass by colourful shop-windows, we see plenty of ads everywhere: on buses, billboards, TV and in magazines. Many teenagers pay too much attention to their friends' and classmates' appearance. Sadly, if some parents are not able to afford buying trendy clothes with fashion labels, their kids often become outsiders. So clothes usually separate people into social groups.

In my opinion every person can have his own style and look unique. He should choose clothes according to his taste, age, job, constitution and character. I am glad to say that I don't pay so much attention to fashion and I am not its victim. I don't care too much about what other people wear. The most important thing for me in the outlook is neatness, natural look and beauty. And it should certainly suit the occasion. I must admit that some fashionable clothes are quite ridiculous and impractical. There was a time, for instance, when young people wore baggy clothes, shoes on enormous platforms, red hair, black fingernails and bright make-up. To my mind, it was just a silly waste of money. Besides, if a person doesn't have a good taste he is not able to put things together and look attractive and stylish even in fashionable clothes.

22. EDUCATION IN THE USA

The system of education in the USA varies greatly from state to state. School education in so called state public schools is free. Parents are free to choose any public school for their children. Although there are a lot of private schools, mainly religious, and parents have to pay for them. A school year starts in September and ends in June. It is divided into three terms or four quarters.

American children start attending elementary schools at the age of 6. They continue their studies for eight years there (8 grades). Their basic subjects in the curriculum at this stage are English, Arithmetic, Natural Science, History, Geography, Foreign Language and some others. After that pupils may enter a Senior high school or if they go to a 5- or 6-year elementary school, they then attend a 3- or 4-year Junior high school, and then enter a Senior high school. Pupils graduate from high schools at the age of 18. The high schools (also known as secondary schools) are generally larger and accommodate teenagers from four or five elementary schools. During the school year the students study four or five selective subjects according to their professional interests. They must complete a certain number of courses to receive a high school diploma or a certificate of school graduation.

In order to develop social skills and encourage students' participation in extracurricular activities every high school has an orchestra, a music band, a choir, drama groups, football, basketball and baseball teams. School becomes the centre of social life for students.

At American colleges and universities young people get higher education. They study for 4 years and get a Bachelor's degree in arts or science. If a student wants to get a Master's degree he must study for two more years and do a research work. Students who want to advance their education even further in a specific field can pursue a Doctor degree. The most famous American universities are Harvard, Princeton, Stanford, Yale, Columbia Universities.

23. STONEHENGE

A circular group of massive, upright stones, the Stonehenge monument was once thought to have been a type of astronomical clock or calendar for predicting the seasons. The early belief that the monument was built as a temple for sky worship has never been definitively proved. Even more fanciful was an earlier notion that Stonehenge was connected with the Druids, a caste of Celtic priests.

Stonehenge was built between 3100 and 1550 BC about 8 miles (13 kilometers) north of Salisbury, England. Beginning in 1919, London's Society of Antiquaries carried out a series of excavations at the site that form the basis for most contemporary scientific understanding of Stonehenge's history and purpose.

According to evidence unearthed in the excavations, there were three main periods of building. The first period, beginning in about 3100 BC during the late Neolithic Age, included the digging of a circular ditch and a ring of 56 pits, now known as Aubrey Holes.

During the second period, probably about 2100 BC, huge pillars of rock were brought from southwestern Wales and erected in two concentric circles around the center of the site. The double circle was never completed and was dismantled during the following period. The monument was remodeled in the third period. A circle was erected of 30 upright stones weighing up to 50 tons each and capped by a ring of stone lintels. These enclosed a horseshoe-shaped formation of five pairs of stone uprights, each pair capped with a stone lintel. Subsequent changes involved adding, removing, and rearranging stones that had been used during the second period. This final phase of building probably ended before 1500 BC.

The 35-ton heel stone was possibly placed during the second period. Its placement was one of the most sophisticated accomplishments of that age and provides the best evidence that early people used astronomy. On Midsummer Day (June 24) a person standing in the center of the circle can see the sun rise directly above the heel stone.

Some scientists believe that early peoples were able to foretell eclipses of the sun and the moon by the positions of these celestial bodies in relation to the stone monument. The site may have served as an observatory where early rituals or religious ceremonies took place on specific days of the year. There are hundreds of similar structures throughout Britain.

24. STUDENT'S EXPERIENCE

I am a student. Yes, one of those shaggy, fashionable types who clog up Starbucks, drink far too often and are slowly figuring out that the more they learn, the less they know. I could list stereotypes like this all day long and my English readers would keep nodding away, but to a Russian reader, the concepts that we associate with student life may seem very alien indeed.

From September of last year till early December, I studied at the Philological Faculty of Petrozavodsk State University in the north-west of Russia. I sampled student life from a completely different angle and my observations provoked one of my more serious blog posts: The cat, the classroom and the caviar... In short, Russian student life reminded me of school so much so that my fellow English students and I began to refer to our course precisely in those terms.

Let me be more specific. Students are timetabled into classes run by their faculty. As such, they treat professors and academics as teachers, which completely alters the dynamic and power structure of the institution. At British universities, we are free to pick which lectures

we attend and while science and language degrees have compulsory classes, we seem more aware of the scope and size of our chosen subject. We are free to favour one academic's angle over another's and can even avoid a certain lecturer altogether if we feel they aren't teaching the subject properly or hold an opinion on it that we disagree with. In Russian universities, there seems to be less democracy. Timetabling backs up a sense of the impenetrability of the world of academia where an undergraduate voice is up against an even greater wall of opposition rigidly built out of scheduling and academic pomp.

The university environment seemed to be completely different too. We are used to sprawling campuses and colleges – places where we are given the freedom to amble about. We are often required to cross whole cities just to get to our next appointment. The British student's world is thus one of simulated reality, and our university is a looser institution that promotes personal growth and organisation by including in its education the need to orientate oneself and manage time. The Russian student often faces closed-off buildings structured like schools with rows and rows of classrooms, a lunch hall and a gym. They meet in groups in its corridors, wearing backpacks with packed lunches in them. They sometimes have compulsory sports lessons on the playing fields and or astro-turf.

Perhaps I am being unfair. I have only personally attended one Russian university and since arriving in Moscow my opinions garnered in rural Russia have changed a lot. My flatmate is a recent graduate of Moscow State University and he frequently recalls anecdotes of his university days, many of which chime with my own. He recalls the fun of quasi-independent living in halls of residence where oversleeping, hung-over students would miss lectures and classes. He recalls having to rush desperately across Moscow to his next class in another building. He remembers how infrequently he kept in touch with his parents back home in Kazakhstan. He mentions student club nights, protests and debates. Overall he seems far older, wiser and savvier than some of the students I met in Petrozavodsk, who still live with their parents and maintain the sixth-form mentality from the final two years of school. Then again, this is Moscow and as many people like to tell me: "It's just not *real* Russia."

25. WHY DO WE STUDY THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE?

In his preface to *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, David Crystal examines the question “Why study the English language?” and offers six good reasons for it. Here they are:

Because it's fascinating. It is remarkable how often the language turns up as a topic of interest in daily conversation – whether it is a question about accents and dialects, a comment about usage and standards, or simply curiosity about a word's origin and history.

Because it's important. The dominant role of English as a world language forces it upon our attention in a way that no language has ever done before. As English becomes the chief means of communication between nations, it is crucial to ensure that it is taught accurately and efficiently, and to study changes in its structure and use.

Because it's fun. One of the most popular leisure pursuits is to play with the English language – with its words, sounds, spellings, and structures. Crosswords, Scrabble®, media word shows, and many other quizzes and guessing games keep millions happily occupied every day, teasing their linguistic brain centres and sending them running to their dictionaries.

Because it's beautiful. Each language has its unique beauty and power, as seen to best effect in the works of its great orators and writers. We can see the 1,000-year-old history of English writing only through the glass of language, and anything we learn about English as a language can serve to increase our appreciation of its oratory and literature.

Because it's useful. Getting the language right is a major issue in almost every corner of society. No one wants to be accused of ambiguity and obscurity, or find themselves talking or writing at cross-purposes. The more we know about the language the more chance we shall have of success, whether we are advertisers, politicians, priests, journalists, doctors, lawyers – or just ordinary people at home, trying to understand and be understood.

Because it's there. English, more than any other language, has attracted the interest of professional linguists. It has been analysed in dozens of different ways, as part of the linguist's aim of devising a theory about the nature of language in general. The study of the English language, in this way, becomes a branch of linguistics – English linguistics.

3 семестр – тексты профессиональной направленности.

Text 1

Modern biology is an enormous subject that has many branches. Specialists in some branches include:

- molecular biologists and biochemists who work at the chemical level, with the aim of revealing how DNA, proteins, and other molecules are involved in biological processes;
- geneticists who study genes and their involvement in inheritance and development;
- cell biologists who study individual cells or groups of cells, often by culturing them outside organisms; they investigate how cells interact with each other and their environment;
- physiologists who find out how organ systems work in a healthy body;
- pathologists who study diseased and dysfunctional organs;
- ecologists who study interactions between organisms and their environment.

Some focus their attention on whole organisms; others study populations, individuals of the same species living together at one location.

There are also biologists who specialize in particular groups of organisms; for example, bacteriologists study bacteria, botanists study plants, and zoologists study animals.

Biologists are employed in many fields including conservation and wildlife management, industry, health care, horticulture, agriculture, zoos, museums, information science, and marine and freshwater biology. In addition, many biologists are employed as teachers, lecturers, or research workers.

Text 2

The scientific method:

The definition of biology states that it is a `scientific study`. This distinguishes biology from other ways of studying life. However, there is no single rigid scientific method that biologists use: there are numerous ways of studying life scientifically. Nevertheless, biological investigations usually include one or more of the following key elements:

- observing: making observations and taking measurements
- questioning: asking questions about observations and posing a problem
- hypothesizing: formulating a hypothesis, a statement that explains a problem and can be tested
- predicting: stating what would happen if the hypothesis were true
- testing: testing the hypothesis, usually by carrying out a controlled experiment aimed at producing data that will either support or contradict the hypothesis
- interpreting: interpreting the test results objectively and drawing conclusions that accept, modify, or reject the hypothesis.

A biologist may start an investigation by making observations or by using observations described by other biologists. Such observations may be obtained directly by the senses, such as listening to a bird song, or indirectly through instruments such as recording the song on a computer system. On the other hand, an investigation may start simply by a biologist having an idea that something happens in a particular way, and then the idea will be tested by making observations or carrying out experiments to see if it is valid. A hypothesis is suggested and then tested in all investigations. One essential aspect of a scientific experiment is that it can be repeated by other scientists working independently.

A typical hypothesis makes a clear link between an independent or manipulated variable and a dependent variable. Variables are conditions or factors (such as light, temperature, or time) that can vary or may be varied. In an experiment, the independent or manipulated variable is the one that is systematically changed; the dependent variable is the effect or outcome that is measured. For example, when investigating the activity of an enzyme at different temperatures, temperature is the independent variable that is manipulated by the

scientist; rate of reaction is the dependent variable that is measured at each temperature. Other variables called controlled variables are kept constant or controlled at set levels.

At the end of an experiment, the results must be interpreted as objectively as possible. Sometimes they are so clear that it is obvious whether they support or contradict the hypothesis. Often, however, results are variable and need statistical analysis before conclusions can be made. The conclusions may lead to the hypothesis being accepted, modified, or rejected. Even if results support hypothesis, it is accepted only tentatively because it can never be proved completely. However, it only needs a single contrary observation to refute a hypothesis (prove it wrong or incomplete). A hypothesis is therefore only the best available explanation at any time. This makes biology a highly dynamic subject and not merely a collection of facts.

Text 3

Cells were discovered in 1665 by the English scientist and inventor Robert Hooke. Hooke designed his own compound light microscope to observe structures too small to be seen with the naked eye. Among the first structures he examined was a thin piece of cork (the outer surface of bark from a tree). Hooke described the cork as being made of hundreds of little boxes, giving it the appearance of a honeycomb. He called these little boxes cells. It soon became clear that virtually all living things are made of cells, and that these cells have certain features in common. The cell theory The concept that cells are the basic units of life became embodied in a theory called the cell theory, which embraces the following main ideas:

- cells form the building blocks of living organisms
- cells arise only by the division of existing cells
- cells contain inherited information which controls their activities
- the cell is the functioning unit of life; metabolism (the chemical reactions of life) takes place in cells
- given suitable conditions, cells are capable of independent existence. A typical animal cell The structure of a typical animal cell: 24
- the cell has a cell surface membrane which encloses the cell contents
- the contents consist of a central ball-shaped nucleus surrounded by material called cytoplasm
- the nucleus contains a fibrous material called chromatin
- this condenses to form chromosomes during cell division

- chromatin contains DNA, the material which controls the various activities inside the cell
- scattered within the cytoplasm are mitochondria, small rod-like structures. They have been described as the “power-houses” of the cell because they supply energy.
- smaller dots within the cytoplasm are particles of stored food.

Many consist of glycogen, which is a food storage polysaccharide. A typical plant cell Like an animal cell, a typical plant cell has a cell surface membrane, cytoplasm, and a nucleus. However, plant cells differ from animal cells in several ways:

- most plant cells have a large sap-filled cavity called the vacuole. Sap is a watery fluid containing salts and sugars. The vacuole surrounded by a membrane called the tonoplast.
- the cytoplasm contains starch grains, the food storage products of plants
- many plant cells have chloroplasts in the cytoplasm. These contain the pigments used in photosynthesis. Chlorophyll, which is green, is the main pigment. Chloroplasts occur only in the parts of plants exposed to light – the green parts. They are absent from underground structures such as roots.

Text 4

A microscope is used to produce a magnified image of an object or specimen. Anton van Leeuwenhoek (1632-1723) was the first to invent a microscope powerful enough to explore the world of microbes. His discoveries stimulated an explosion of interest in the scientific use of microscopes. Since the 18th century many new types have been invented, of which the most commonly used today are the compound light microscope and the electron microscope. The compound light microscope The compound light microscope is also called a light microscope or optical microscope. The compound light microscope is also called a light microscope or optical microscope. The lenses refract (bend) the light to give a magnified image of the object. The image may be projected directly into the viewer's eye or into photographic film. A photograph taken through a light microscope is called a photomicrograph or light micrograph. Magnification and resolution The magnification of an instrument is the increase in the apparent size of the object. The total magnification of a compound microscope is worked out by multiplying the magnification of the objective lens by that of the ocular lens. 37 There is virtually no limit to the magnification produced by a light microscope; it depends on the power of the lenses used. However, above a certain magnification the image becomes blurred and it is impossible to distinguish structures lying close together. This limit of effective magnification is called the resolving power or resolution of the microscope. It is defined as the ability of a microscope to show two objects as separate. The resolving power of the light microscope is limited by the wavelength of light. Light microscopes can magnify objects up to about

1500 times without losing clarity. The electron microscope Electron microscopes use a beam of electrons instead of a beam of light. Electron beams have a much smaller wavelength than light rays, so electron microscopes have greater resolving powers and can produce much higher effective magnifications than light microscopes. There are two main types of electron microscopes: the transmission electron microscope (TEM), and the scanning electron microscope (SEM).

Text 5

The description of the double helical structure of DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid) by Watson and Crick in 1953 (see Fact of life) was a landmark in science history. Their discovery sparked off a new era in scientific research which has had, and will continue to have, far-reaching consequences. A polymer of nucleotides Each DNA strand is a polymer made up of nucleotide subunits. The nucleotides join together to form long unbranched polynucleotide chains. Each nucleotide consists of deoxyribose (a five-carbon or pentose sugar), an organic nitrogen-containing base (of which there are four different types), and phosphoric acid. The sugar and the organic base join together by a condensation reaction to form a nucleoside. (A condensation reaction results in the removal of a water molecule.) Another condensation reaction joins the nucleoside with phosphoric acid to form the nucleotide. This bond forms between carbon 5 of the sugar and the phosphate, and is called a phosphoester bond. The organic bases present in DNA are either purines (guanine, G and adenine, A) or pyrimidines (cytosine, C and thymine, T). Purines have a double ring structure; pyrimidines have a single ring structure. Two nucleotides can join together by a condensation reaction between the phosphate group of one nucleotide and the hydroxyl group on carbon 3 of the sugar of the other nucleotide. The bonds linking the nucleotides together are strong, covalent phosphodiester bonds. The process can be repeated so that a polynucleotide chain builds up. The chain has a sugar-phosphate backbone with the organic bases projecting outwards. Each chain has two distinct ends: a 3' ('three prime') end and a 5' ('five prime') end. At the 3' end, the carbon 3 of the deoxyribose is closest to the end; at the 5' end, the carbon 5 of the deoxyribose is closest to the end. The double helix DNA consists of two polynudeotide chains coiled around each other to form a double helix. The double helix is held together by hydrogen bonds between pairs of bases in the two chains. The pairings depend on the shapes of the bases (a purine can only bond with a pyrimidine) and on their ability to form hydrogen bonds: Adenine (a purine) pairs with thymine (a pyrimidine), forming two hydrogen bonds (A=T). Guanine (a purine) pairs with cytosine (a pyrimidine), forming three hydrogen bonds (G = C).

Text 6

A chromosome consists of hundreds or thousands of genes (a gene is the basic unit of inheritance), and specialised parts that are thought to be important to the chromosomes

stability and function. The deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) that makes up the genes is packaged with the aid of proteins to form a complex structure. Chromosomes also contain small amounts of ribonucleic acid (RNA). DNA is packaged in chromosomes. Each human chromosome contains one very long DNA molecule which unravelled would measure about 4.8 cm in length. The total length of DNA in the nucleus of a human cell has been estimated to be about 2.2 m. This poses a packaging problem: how does a chromosome measuring on average 6 μm long contain about 8000 times its length of DNA? The answer is that chromosomal DNA is intricately folded and is tightly bound to protein molecules called histones. Histones are small proteins that are rich in the amino acids lysine and/or arginine. The complex formed between DNA and histones is called chromatin. Chromatin takes up stain and is visible in non-dividing nuclei. Individual chromosomes can be seen under the light microscope only during cell division (mitosis or meiosis). Nucleosomes - the basic structural unit. Each DNA molecule is wound around histones arranged in groups of eight known as octamers. The DNA and octamers form bead-like structures known as nucleosomes. Positively charged groups on the side-chains of the histones form strong ionic bonds with negatively charged phosphate groups in the backbone of the DNA. In each nucleosome, a length of DNA containing about 150 base pairs is wrapped around the octamer. Another histone molecule attached to the outside of the nucleosome binds DNA to the octamer. The nucleosome is regarded as the basic unit of the structure. The linker region, the stretch of DNA between the nucleosomes, varies in length from 14 to over 100 base pairs. Nucleosomes fold to form solenoid fibres. More histones in the linker region help to fold the thread of DNA and nucleosomes (the nucleosome fibre) into a tightly coiled structure called a solenoid. The solenoids are thought to be further looped and coiled around non-histone proteins called scaffolding proteins. The precise details of this higher level of folding are not known. Each chromosome has a centromere which usually appears as a constriction when the chromosomes condense during mitosis and meiosis. The position of the centromere can be used to distinguish between different chromosomes. Centromeres do not contain any genes. However they do contain large segments of highly repetitive DNA, called alpha satellite DNA. This is thought to play a significant role in centromere function. The centromere contains the kinetochore. This is a densely staining structure that attaches the chromosome to the spindle apparatus during nuclear division. Centromeres control the distribution of chromosomes during cell division. Chromosomes that do not have centromeres cannot divide.

Text 7

Chromosome mutations and gene mutations. Alterations in the number or structure of chromosomes are called chromosome mutations. Chromosome mutations can happen during mitosis and meiosis when chromosomes are being condensed and pulled apart. Homologous chromosomes may fail to separate, resulting in non-disjunction. Chromosome

mutations also occur during interphase when DNA replicates, and during crossing over when sections of chromosomes are exchanged. Gene mutations are changes in the nucleotide base sequence in a cistron (the portion of DNA that makes up a single gene). A change of a single nucleotide base pair is called a point mutation. There are a number of types of point mutation, including: ▪ substitution - the replacement of one nucleotide with another containing a different base ▪ deletion - the loss of a nucleotide ▪ insertion or addition - addition of an extra nucleotide. 61 Sickle-cell anaemia is an example of an inherited condition that results from a substitution. Gene mutations may also result from duplication (repetition of a portion of a nucleotide sequence within a cistron) and inversion (reversal of the portion of the nucleotide sequence in the cistron). Most mutations, if expressed, are harmful. Note, however, that in diploid organisms such as ourselves, mutations usually result in recessive alleles. These are expressed only in the homozygous condition unless the mutation is on the X chromosome. Many mutations result in a change in the shape of a protein so that the protein cannot function properly (for example, the mutation that causes sickle-cell anaemia). Mutations that affect large sections of a gene, and chromosome mutations are often lethal. However, some mutations have no effect: a mutation may occur in a non-coding part of DNA; it may produce a different codon for the same amino acid; or the altered amino acid sequence may not affect the protein's shape or function. Occasionally, a mutation is beneficial, changing the phenotype so that an organism has a better chance of surviving and reproducing. Although beneficial mutations are very rare events, they are bound to happen sooner or later if there is a large number of individuals in a population. These mutations are of immense importance because they are the ultimate source of all variation: the raw material for the evolution of new species by natural selection.

Text 8

Down's syndrome is the most common single cause of learning disability in children of school age. Children with the syndrome typically have a round, flat face, and eyelids that appear to slant upwards. In addition to some learning disability, they also have an increased risk of infection (particularly respiratory and ear infections), and heart defects occur in about one-quarter of those with the syndrome. The syndrome is named after John Langdon Down, a nineteenth century doctor who first described the condition in 1866. In 1959, the French physician Lejeune used chromosome-staining techniques to show that Down's syndrome is caused by an extra chromosome 21. Having one extra chromosome is known as trisomy, hence Down's syndrome is also known as trisomy 21. The extra chromosome usually comes from the egg cell due to non-disjunction of chromosome 21. About 70% of the non-disjunctions occur during meiosis I, when homologous chromosomes fail to separate; 30% occur during meiosis II, when sister chromatids fail to separate. Whether it occurs during meiosis I or meiosis II, non-disjunction leads to trisomy.

In a few cases, the extra chromosome comes from the father. In about 3% of cases, Down's syndrome results from translocation of an extra chromosome 21. A region of the chromosome breaks off and rejoins with either the end of the other chromosome 21 or with another non-homologous chromosome (commonly chromosome 15). In these cases, a person may have the normal number of chromosomes, but one of the chromosomes will be abnormally long. Genetic screening: amniocentesis and chorionic villus sampling Because of the high risk of Down's syndrome among the babies of older mothers, in the UK mothers over the age of 35 years are usually offered free genetic screening by the National Health Service. Genetic screening refers to procedures used to examine an individual for the presence of a genetic disease or disorder. The most widely available genetic screening procedure for Down's syndrome is amniocentesis.

Text 9

Amniocentesis is usually carried out at 15-16 weeks of pregnancy. It involves passing a very fine needle into the uterus, observed with an ultrasound image, and withdrawing a sample of amniotic fluid containing fetal cells. The karyotype of the fetal cells is then analysed to test for Down's syndrome. The fetal cells can also be cultured in a suitable medium in a laboratory so that further tests, such as DNA analysis, can be carried out. 69 Amniocentesis is performed under local anaesthetic and most women do not find it too uncomfortable. However, there is a 0.5-1 per cent risk of spontaneous miscarriage after the procedure. Therefore, amniocentesis is usually recommended only for those at high risk of carrying a Down's baby. In the 1970s, chorionic villus sampling (CVS) was developed in China. In CVS, a sample of cells is taken from the chorionic villus (small finger-like processes which grow from the embryo into the mother's uterus). The sample is obtained either by inserting a needle through the abdomen, or inserting a catheter. The fetal cells in the sample can then be analysed in the same way as for amniocentesis. CVS can be carried out between week 8 and week 12 of pregnancy. If the test shows the fetus has Down's syndrome, a decision about abortion can be made earlier than with amniocentesis. Early abortions are usually less difficult, both physically and mentally, than later abortions. However, a higher risk of miscarriage is associated with CVS than with amniocentesis. Until recently, a mother's age was the only factor available to assess the risk for Down's syndrome. Now biochemical markers are being discovered for the condition. For example, women with a high risk of Down's syndrome pregnancies tend to have about twice as much chorionic gonadotrophin (a sex hormone produced in placenta cells) in their blood serum as women with normal pregnancies. Tests for these biochemical markers cannot show the presence of a Down's baby, but they can be used in conjunction with the mother's age to predict the probable risk of having a baby with Down's syndrome. If the risk is high, the mother can then decide whether to have an amniocentesis or CVS.

Text 10

Sensitivity: responding to stimuli

All living organisms must be able to detect changes in their environment and respond appropriately. Changes in the environment are called stimuli (singular: stimulus). A stimulus may be in either the external environment (outside the organism) or the internal environment (inside the organism). Sensitivity, the ability to respond appropriately to stimuli, is one of the characteristic features of life. Each organism has its own specific type of sensitivity that improves its chances of survival. A single-celled amoeba, for example, can move away from a harmful stimulus such as very bright light, and move towards a favourable stimulus such as food molecules, but it can only distinguish between a limited number of different stimuli. In an amoeba, the detection of the stimulus and the response to the stimulus must both take place in a single cell. However, in large multicellular animals such as mammals, stimuli are detected in sense organs, and organs that respond are called effectors. The sense organs and effectors may be in quite different parts of the body. In addition, responses usually involve the coordinated actions of many different parts of the body. To achieve this coordination, one part of the body must be able to pass information to another part. In mammals, there are two major systems that convey information: the nervous system and the endocrine (hormonal) system

Text 11

The nervous system

Nervous systems range from the simple nerve nets of jellyfish and sea anemones, which have no brain and relatively few interconnections, to the nervous system of humans, with brains of staggering complexity. The human brain contains many millions of cells, each of which may communicate with thousands of other nerve cells. Their interconnections form circuits which enable us to control our muscles, think, remember, and even study our own brains. All the various animal nervous systems are fast-acting communication systems containing nerve cells, neurones, which convey information in the form of nerve impulses (electrochemical changes). Neurones take various forms but each has a cell body, containing a nucleus, and nerve fibres, long extensions that transmit nerve impulses rapidly from one part of the body to another. Fibres carrying impulses away from the cell body are called axons; those carrying impulses towards the cell body are called dendrons. Apart from the main nerve fibre, there may be small dendrons (dendrites) extending from the cell body. In mammals, sensory neurones carry messages from peripheral sense organs to a central nervous system (CNS) consisting of the brain and spinal cord. The CNS acts as an integration centre and processes information from many sources. Motor neurones convey instructions from the CNS to effector organs (mainly muscles and glands). A mammalian motor neurone can convey information rapidly over considerable distances; for example, a

single nerve impulse may be transmitted from the spinal cord to the feet in a few milliseconds. These fast-conducting neurones are enclosed along most of their length by a thick insulating material called the myelin sheath. The myelin sheath is produced by special supporting cells called Schwann cells. The sheath is essentially a series of cell membranes, each produced by a Schwann cell and wrapped many times around the axon. Gaps between the membranes of each Schwann cell, called the nodes of Ranvier, are the key to the fast transmission of nerve impulses. Fast transmission enables mammals to respond almost instantaneously to stimuli. Nerve impulses can be directed along the nerve fibres to specific points in the body so that responses can be very localised.

Text 12

The mechanism of evolution.

Evolution is not a modern concept. Since ancient times, a number of philosophers and naturalists (including Confucius and Aristotle in Greece) have suggested that complex species evolve from simpler pre-existing ones by a process of continuous and gradual change. However, it was not until the 19th century that scientists came up with plausible mechanisms for evolution. The mechanism that is widely accepted among biologists today is called neo-Darwinism. It is modern theory based on the work of the nineteenth-century naturalist Charles Darwin.

Between 1831 and 1836, Darwin was the naturalist on board HMS Beagle, a research vessel engaged in mapping different parts of the world. After spending over three years surveying the coast of South America, the Beagle landed on the Galapagos Islands in the Pacific Ocean. Darwin compared the organisms on these islands with those on the South American mainland, and this led him to develop his theory of evolution. He came to the conclusion that, over successive generations, a new species comes into being by slow and gradual changes from a pre-existing one. He believed that these changes are brought about by a process which he called natural selection. Darwin's theory was based on three main observations: 1. Within a population are organisms with varying characteristics, and these variations are inherited (at least in part) by their offspring. 2. Organisms produce more offspring than are required to replace their parents. 3. On average, population numbers remain relatively constant and no population gets bigger indefinitely. From these observations, Darwin came to the conclusion that within a population many individuals do not survive, or fail to reproduce. There is a "struggle for existence". For example, members of the same population compete to obtain limited resources, and there is a struggle to avoid predation and disease, or to tolerate changes in environmental conditions such as temperature. In this struggle for existence those individuals that are best adapted to their environment will have a selective advantage: they will be more likely to survive and

produce offspring than less well-adapted organisms.

Text 13

Three types of natural selection

Natural selection is not always a mechanism for change. There are three different types: stabilising selection, directional selection, and disruptive selection. These are three different ways in which natural selection acts on the phenotypes in a population (the observable characteristics such as colour or height). Typically, the frequency in the population of each phenotype has a normal distribution, described by a bell-shaped curve. Stabilising selection happens in an unchanging environment. Extremes of the phenotype range are selected against, leading to a reduction in variation (more individuals tend to conform to the mean). Stabilising selection occurs in the natural selection of birth mass in humans. Directional selection favours one extreme of the phenotype range and results in a shift of the mean either to the right or to the left. This type of selection usually follows some kind of environmental change. The long neck of the giraffe is thought to have evolved in this way. Probably, when food was in short supply, only the tallest individuals could reach enough food to survive. They passed on their genes to the next generation. Disruptive selection selects against intermediate phenotypes and favours those at the extremes. This leads to a bimodal distribution (the distribution curve has two peaks or modes) and two overlapping groups of phenotypes. If the two groups become unable to interbreed, then each population may give rise to a new species. Disruptive selection may have contributed to the evolution of Darwin's finches. Because there were few other birds to compete, finches with short strong beaks had exclusive use of nuts as a food source, while those with long slender beaks had almost exclusive use of insects. Those finches with an average, unspecialised beak were more likely to have been in competition with other species of bird and would have reproduced less successfully.

Text 14

The cultivation of wheat

Ever since farming began in the Middle East about 10 000 years ago, humans have been breeding animals and plants selectively to produce specific desirable qualities. Wheat was probably among the first crop to be cultivated. By selective breeding over thousands of generations, wild wheat has been converted into the modern types which produce much higher yields. In selective breeding, particular individuals are chosen and allowed to breed, whereas others are prevented from breeding. This means that alleles that give characteristics favoured by humans are retained, while those that give undesirable characteristics are eliminated. Artificial selection is therefore similar to directional

selection, in that selection pressure brings about a gradual change in the genotype of a group of organisms. However, in artificial selection it is humans, not environmental factors, that act as the selection pressure, gradually bringing about changes in allele frequencies. We can only speculate as to how wheat cultivation began. Perhaps people who gathered wild seeds for food observed that seeds spilled accidentally sprouted new plants from which more seeds could be harvested. This might have encouraged them to save some seeds to sow for the following season's crop. Wild wheat sheds its grains as soon as they are ripe. This makes harvesting difficult. Therefore, grains were most likely to be gathered from plants that by chance retained their grains a little longer. By using this grain for the next crop, farmers would inadvertently have started the process of selective breeding. The next stage in the cultivation of wheat would have been the deliberate selection of varieties with desirable qualities. Early farmers appear to have selected grains from plants which gave the greatest yield, and produced grain which was easy to separate from its husk. Eventually, over many generations, the variety of cultivated wheat changed. This led to the ancestor of our modern wheat, in which the grains are held so firmly that they must be removed by a separate operation after harvest. Selective breeding of wheat continues today by a combination of inbreeding and outbreeding. Inbreeding involves breeding between closely related individuals which by chance, possess some desirable character. In wheat, desirable characters include: • high yield • short stem length (allowing the plant to devote more energy to the production of seeds, which have a much higher value than straw from stems) • pest resistance (for example, to fungal moulds and rusts) • high protein content of the grain

Text 15

The theory of evolution applies just as much to humans as to other organisms. All humans are in the same way related and, in the words of Darwin, are “descended with modification” from a common ancestor.

Although our social and technological developments have freed us from many of the effects of natural selection, our present-day physical and behavioural characteristics are rooted in the adaptations of our ancestors. So, by finding out more about our ancestors, we can learn more about ourselves. Adaptation of primates The classification of humans reflects our evolutionary relationships. About 150-170 million years ago, all mammals were small insectivores rather like the shrews of today. About 75 million years ago some of these insectivores adopted an arboreal (tree-dwelling) mode of life and evolved into lemur-like primates. The adaptations of these ancestral primates to their new tree-living mode of life are thought to have included a short nose, large eyes and prominent ears, long flexible fingers with nail-like claws, and teeth well adapted for eating insects. These features are found in tarsiers (lemur-like primates) living today in Indonesia. Many other

features that evolved in ancestral primates as adaptations to an arboreal life have been retained by modern primates. These features include: - A prehensile (grasping) limb: the hands (and often the feet) of primates have long and highly mobile digits so that they can grasp the branches of trees. The first digit can oppose the remaining four digits, giving primates a powerful grip. Primates have flattened nails that support pads of sensitive skin on the fingers or toes. - A mobile forearm: the clavicle (collar bone) and scapula (shoulder blade) are adapted to allow a wide range of movements. Mobile forearms are essential for moving from tree to tree, and for manipulating objects in the hand; for example, to transfer food to the mouth or to bring an object to the eyes for closer examination.

Text 16

What is photosynthesis?

A typical plant takes in carbon dioxide (from the air) and water (from the soil) and builds these up into sugars and other complex substances. Oxygen is released as a waste product. The energy in the chemical bonds of the raw materials carbon dioxide and water is less than the energy in the chemical bonds of the products. Therefore the reaction is endergonic and requires an external source of free energy. This energy is supplied by sunlight that falls on the plant. A green substance, chlorophyll, enables the plant to trap light energy and use it to make sugars. The process of using sunlight to build up complex substances from simpler ones is called photosynthesis. Photosynthesis is a complex process which takes place in a series of small steps. There are two main stages in photosynthesis: a light-dependent stage in which water is broken down into hydrogen and oxygen using light energy; and light-independent stage in which the hydrogen reacts with carbon dioxide to form a carbohydrate. Water is re-formed in this reaction. The light-dependent stage happens only in the light; the light-independent stage happens both when it is light and when it is dark. Covering glucose to other substances The glucose formed by photosynthesis is used as the raw material for other chemical reactions. It is the main substrate used in respiration. Some of the glucose is covered to other carbohydrates: cellulose to form cell walls; sucrose to be transported to other parts of the plant; and starch for storage. Some of the glucose is combined with minerals from the soil to make proteins and other complex organic substances. Although light is needed for making glucose, it is not needed for turning the glucose into these other substances. Photosynthesis: the basis of life Green life has been steadily pumping out oxygen as a waste product of photosynthesis for millions of years. Some of the oxygen is used as a raw material for respiration, but most of it has accumulated in the atmosphere. So the very existence of our oxygen-rich atmosphere depends on the photosynthesising activities of green life. Animals cannot make their own food. The only way they can obtain complex organic substances is by eating other organisms. These organisms ultimately depend on the ability of plants to harvest

energy from sunlight to make food from carbon dioxide and water. Life on Earth is almost entirely solar powered.

Text 17

The tissues of a leaf

In common with stems and roots, leaves are made up of three main types of tissue: epidermal tissue, vascular tissue, and ground tissue. Each tissue forms a continuous system throughout the plant. The epidermis covers and protects the leaves. It is the first line of defence against physical damage, infection, and being eaten. The upper epidermis consists of one or more layers of rectangular cells. In terrestrial plants, these epidermal cells secrete a waxy coating called the cuticle. The waxy cuticle is waterproof, minimising water loss from the surface of the leaf. It is often thicker on the upper surface, making this surface appear more shiny than the lower surface. The epidermis is perforated by microscopic pores called stomata. Stomata allow carbon dioxide and oxygen to gain easy access into the plant, but also allow water to escape. Each stomata is flanked by a pair of guard cells that regulate the size of the pore, closing it in times of water stress. Water is more likely to be lost from the upper surface of a leaf because it is more exposed to sunlight. The upper surface usually has fewer stomata than the lower surface; this minimises water loss. The vascular tissue consists of veins adapted to transport liquid substances around the plant, and it is made up of vascular bundles, groups of vessels running from the root up the stem and to the leaves. Xylem forms the upper part of a vascular bundle in the leaf, bringing water and mineral salts to the leaf. Phloem forms the lower part of a bundle, transporting sucrose and other products of photosynthesis away from the leaf. Ground tissue is all the tissue in a plant other than the epidermis, reproductive tissue, and vascular tissue. It makes the bulk of a leaf and consists mainly of parenchyma cells reinforced by collenchyma and sclerenchyma.

Text 18

Pasteur (1822-1895) began his scientific career as a chemist, but it is because of his applications of germ theory to the prevention of disease that he became known as ‘The Father of Microbiology’. Pasteur did not create germ theory, but he proved it to be correct. Once he had achieved this, he set about finding ways to prevent germs, the microorganisms present in the air, from infecting food and people. He completed his famous experiment proving that microorganisms were present in the air while working for a wine company. He was trying to discover why wine sometimes went bad as it was being made. Once he had found the cause – microorganisms – he began to develop the process which carries his name – pasteurization. It was perfectly possible to kill all the microorganisms in food by boiling it, a process known as sterilization, but this damaged the taste and the quality of the

food. Pasteur's process killed not all, but most, of the microorganisms, with the result that the food needed to be kept cool and eaten or drunk within a limited time. Most importantly, the quality of the food was not harmed by the process. Much of the food we eat today is pasteurized. His next achievement was to build on the discovery of the British scientist Edward Jenner. Many years earlier, Jenner had discovered a way of giving people resistance to the deadly disease smallpox, by injecting them with a similar disease that was found among cows. The process became known as vaccination. Pasteur applied germ theory to his work and looked at samples of blood taken from healthy and infected animals. He grew bacteria in his laboratory and used it to infect animals. By chance, some of these germs failed to grow well in his laboratory; these weak germs were then used to infect some chickens. Although the chickens suffered at first, they made a complete recovery and could not be infected again. In this way he discovered a way of increasing resistance to disease. Pasteur developed vaccines for many serious diseases including cholera and anthrax. At that time, these illnesses were certain death for anyone who caught them. Pasteur's discoveries revolutionized work on infectious diseases. Pasteur's vaccines were different from Jenner's in one important way. Jenner found a weak form of smallpox and transferred it to humans. Pasteur weakened the disease in a laboratory and immunized people with that weakened form. His success allowed a colleague to develop the first vaccine for rabies, which Pasteur used to save the life of a nine-year-old boy. By this act, Pasteur's position as a hero was assured. Thanks to the work of Pasteur, we now live longer, our food stays fresh longer and we are less likely to die of disease. Indeed, smallpox is no longer found anywhere in the world, due to a huge vaccination programme carried out in the 20th century. This could never have happened without the scientific achievements of The Father of Microbiology.

Text 19

Gregor Mendel was born on 20th July, 1822, and died on 6th January, 1884. He was a biologist and botanist whose scientific research showed that inheritance proceeds according to certain scientific laws. Mendel was a brilliant student and his family encouraged him to study, but they were very poor so Mendel entered a monastery in 1843. There he taught Mathematics, Physics and Greek to his school students. Eight years later, in 1851, the monastery sent him to the University of Vienna where he was able to continue his education. In 1853, he returned to the monastery and began teaching and researching again. Mendel's theories of heredity based on his work with pea plants are well known to students of Biology. But his findings were so different from the accepted views on heredity at the time that his work was ignored until long after his death. His paper, 'Experiments in Plant Hybridisation', in which he described how traits were inherited, has become one of the most influential publications in the history of science. Mendel was the first person to trace the characteristics of successive generations of an organism. In Mendel's day, a

number of hypotheses had been suggested to explain heredity. The most popular one was the so-called blending theory. According to this theory, inherited traits blended from generation to generation. For instance, a red rose crossed with a white rose would, over time, produce a pink rose. Another theory put forward by Charles Darwin was called pangenesis. This stated that there were hereditary particles in our bodies, and that these particles were affected by our actions. The altered particles could be inherited by the next generation. These theories were disproved by Mendel. The first thing he noticed when he began his experiments was that traits were inherited in certain numerical ratios. This observation led him to come up with the idea of the dominance of genes and he tested it in peas. For seven years he crossed thousands of plants to prove the Laws of Inheritance. From his experiments, Mendel developed the basic laws of heredity. Those laws are the following: that traits do not combine, but are passed whole from generation to generation (which disproved the blending theory and Darwin's theory); each member of the parental generation passes on only half of its hereditary information to each offspring (with certain traits dominant over others); and different offspring of the same parents receive different sets of hereditary information.

Text 20

Vladimir Ivanovich Vernadsky was a Russian scientist who was born on 12th March, 1863 in St. Petersburg. His most important contributions to science were the development of the ideas of the biosphere (from the Greek word bios meaning life) and the noosphere (from the Greek word noos meaning mind). He graduated from the Physics and Mathematics Department of St Petersburg University in 1885. From 1890 to 1911 he taught mineralogy and crystallography at the University of Moscow. In 1912 he was made a full member of the Russian Academy of Sciences where he was actively involved for 33 years, until his death in Moscow on 6th January, 1945. Through his work in mineralogy, Vernadsky became interested in the distribution of chemical elements in the Earth's crust, hydrosphere and atmosphere – the field known as geo chemistry. Vernadsky published many papers on the geochemistry of various elements, including the geochemistry of radioactive compounds. Vernadsky was one of the first scientists to suggest the possibility of using radioactive elements as sources of energy, and he organized a special commissions to look for uranium ores in Russia. In 1916, the first uranium deposits were discovered. But Vernadsky was aware of the danger of putting atomic energy into the hands of man. He said that scientists carried the huge responsibility of making sure their discoveries did not lead to destruction. However, Vernadsky is probably best known for his development of the idea of the biosphere of the Earth and his ideas on the evolution of the biosphere into the noosphere. The biosphere is the layer of the Earth in which all life exists. The term biosphere was coined in 1875 by the geologist, Eduard Suess, but it was Vladimir Vernadsky who recognized its ecological importance in 1929. He believed that all living

organisms together with their environments make up the biosphere. These environments include the air (the atmosphere), land (the geosphere), rocks (the lithosphere) and water (the hydrosphere). The exact thickness of the biosphere on Earth is difficult to calculate, but most scientists would agree that it is from about 5000 metres above sea level to around 9000 metres below sea level. Thus, there is a 14-kilometre zone within which life exists. Vernadsky defined the boundaries of the biosphere by showing that the biosphere includes all the hydrosphere, part of the troposphere – the lowest layer of the atmosphere where most weather changes take place – and the upper part of the Earth's crust down to a depth of two or three kilometers, in short, everywhere that life exists.

Text 21

DNA replication is a very complex process during which mistakes happen. Uncorrected mistakes may lead to harmful mutations. In the living cell, errors are kept to a very low frequency (about one in 10⁹) by a number of repair mechanisms. One such mechanism is mismatch repair. This is carried out by the enzyme DNA polymerase which 'proofreads' newly formed DNA against its template as soon as it is added to the strand. If it finds an incorrectly paired nucleotide, the polymerase reverses its direction of movement, removes the incorrect nucleotide, and replaces it before replication continues. The process is similar to correcting a typing error by going back a space, deleting the error, and typing in the correct letter before continuing.

A chemical that carries inherited information must be able to copy itself exactly. Complementary base pairing between adenine and thymine and between cytosine and guanine makes this possible. Watson and Crick's description of DNA suggested that, during replication, the hydrogen bonds connecting base pairs are disrupted allowing the two polynucleotide chains to unwind from one another. Each chain then acts as a template for the synthesis of a new complementary polynucleotide chain. It was suggested that the DNA molecule 'unzips' from one end and new nucleotides already present in the nucleus bind with their complementary bases in each exposed chain. This therefore forms two identical molecules of DNA from the single parent molecule.

Experimental evidence Arthur Kornberg and his colleagues were the first to successfully replicate DNA in a test tube. They used the following ingredients:

- intact DNA (to act as a template)
- a mixture containing all four nucleotides
- DNA polymerase (an enzyme which catalyses the synthesis of DNA)
- ATP (as a source of energy).

New DNA molecules were formed, which contained the same proportions of the four bases as the original parent DNA. This was a strong indication that DNA can copy itself by complementary base pairing.

Semiconservative replication

The idea that DNA unzips before replication is an attractively simple one. This mechanism is called semiconservative replication, because each new molecule of DNA (daughter DNA) contains one intact strand from the original DNA (parental DNA) and one newly

synthesised strand. However, semiconservative replication is not the only means by which DNA might replicate by complementary base pairing

Text 22

Pneumococci are bacteria that cause pneumonia. They occur in two strains: a disease-causing smooth strain (strain S), and a harmless rough strain (strain R). Strain S has a capsule on its cell surface; this capsule is absent from the harmless strain R (see Fact of life). Griffith found that mice injected with live strain S soon died, but those injected with live strain R survived. Mice injected with dead strain S bacteria (killed by heat) all survived. The results of this series of experiments were as expected. However, the results of Griffith's next series of experiments were thoroughly baffling: mice injected with a mixture of heat-killed strain S and live strain R died. Moreover, Griffith recovered live strain-S bacteria from the dead mice. After many careful experiments, Griffith concluded that hereditary material had passed from the dead bacteria to the live bacteria. This changed harmless strain R bacteria into virulent strain S pathogens. This process is called transformation. Avery's experiment: DNA was the transforming agent. In the 1940s, Oswald T. Avery, Colin MacLeod, and Maclyn McCarty showed that DNA was responsible for transformation. ♣ They used enzymes that hydrolysed polysaccharide, DNA, RNA, and protein on samples of the disease-causing strain-S pneumococci. ♣ Different samples had different parts of their cells destroyed by these enzymes. ♣ The researchers then exposed strain-R pneumococci to the treated samples of strain S. ♣ The transformation of strain R to strain S was blocked only when the DNA in the sample was destroyed. These results provided strong evidence that DNA carried genetic information for transformation. However, many scientists remained unconvinced.

Text 23

Prokaryotes and eukaryotes share the same 'language of life'. Comparisons of DNA sequences with the corresponding protein sequences reveal that (with a few exceptions) an identical genetic code is used in both prokaryotes and eukaryotes. This means that bacteria can be genetically engineered to make human proteins. The universal nature of the code suggests that all living things are descended from a single pool of primitive cells which first evolved this code. One of the most remarkable facts of life is that each cell in an organism contains all the information required to determine all the characteristics of that whole organism. This information is stored in DNA, and is known as the genetic code. Deciphering that code has been one of the major scientific breakthroughs of the twentieth century. It has given us an understanding of how genes function, and it has opened the way for most of the recent developments in genetic engineering and biotechnology.

Transcribing the genetic code from DNA to mRNA The genetic code is held in the order of bases along the DNA molecule. Sections of DNA called cistrons (commonly referred to as genes) contain the information needed to make a particular polypeptide. However, DNA does not carry out polypeptide synthesis directly. When the DNA in a cistron is activated, the information is transferred to a molecule of ribonucleic acid (RNA) called messenger RNA (mRNA), which acts as a template for the synthesis of the polypeptide. The central dogma of biology The relationship between DNA, mRNA, and polypeptides in a eukaryotic cell is often called the central dogma of biology. ♣ mRNA is made on a DNA template in the nucleus, in a process called 1 transcription. ♣ The mRNA then moves into the cytoplasm, where it combines with ribosomes to direct protein synthesis by a process called translation. ♣ When the information in a cistron is used to make a functional polypeptide chain by transcription and translation, gene expression is said to have taken place.

Text 24

LINNEAN SYSTEM OF CLASSIFICATION Carolus Linneus was born in Sweden in a small wooden house painted red with a roof of live turf. It was like many other houses in the village. But the house had a garden around it, so that Linneus used to say later that it was a good place for a naturalist to be born. All the boy's teachers at school thought him stupid. But one of his father's friends observed that Carl took an unusual interest in plants and that he could identify a great many. He suggested sending Carl to study natural history. His father could give him only about forty dollars for his education, but it was thought that he could work his way. So he set off for the University of Lund. After a year he transferred to the University of Uppsala, since Uppsala had a very fine course of botany. His professor there soon grew very fond of him and saw a great promise in his work. After Linneus had finished his studies at the University with his professor's encouragement he made application to the Royal Society of Sweden to send him on a scientific expedition to Lapland, The Royal Society agreed to the commission. So on May 12, 1732 Linneus set out on foot on the road leading north. He travelled mostly on foot over bad roads and through wild country for nearly a thousand miles. When he got back to Uppsala he gave a careful account of the things he had seen. The main thing among them was his new system of classification for plants and animals which he had worked out on his journey. Three years later this system was published under the title «Systema Naturae». This system has brought: order out of confusion. It was the system of nomenclature that has been used ever since. According to Linneus system, every plant and every animal was given a double Latin name. The first word whose initial letter was capitalized would indicate to what «genus» or general class it belonged, the second word indicates a particular species. The naming of plants and animals in this way was a fascinating task. Linneus announced that everything in nature should be classified. So science as orderly classified knowledge was

coming into its own. The first edition of «Systema Naturae» was published in 1735. It contained only twelve pages, but its influence was enormous. Linneus is therefore considered the founder of taxonomy – the study of the classification. All the known animal species were, grouped into six classes: mammals, birds, reptiles, fishes, insects and worms. The shortcomings were patched up easily enough later on. This form of binominal nomenclature has given the biologist an international language for life forms that has eliminated incalculable amounts of confusion. He even supplied the human species with an official name; one that it has retained ever since – homo sapiens.

Text 25

THE STUFF OF LIFE In their attempts to solve the mysteries of life, scientists have given much attention to the jellylike living material of the cell. This substance is called protoplasm. They have studied it under high-powered microscopes; broken it down into its basic chemicals; treated it with dyes and electric currents; and dissected it with microscopic needles. Yet no one has succeeded in making any protoplasm. It is one of the most complicated of all substances. We have learned many facts about it, but there are still many secrets to be discovered. Scientific research goes on, because protoplasm is the key to a real understanding of life. Under the microscope, protoplasm is an almost colourless substance. At times it is quite liquid, but it can easily change to a more solid jelly. All the living parts of the cell, including the cell membrane, the cytoplasm, and the nucleus are made of protoplasm. With a high-powered microscope we can see many small particles and bubbles floating in the jelly. These are often in rapid motion. The chemical nature of protoplasm is not exactly known. Unfortunately, when chemists begin to analyse it, it usually dies. This brings about changes in the material they are studying. We do know that protoplasm is usually more than 75 per cent water. There are also salts and food materials such as sugars, fats, and proteins. Four chemical elements make up 98 per cent of protoplasm. These are carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen. More than 15 other elements have been found. All of these are the common elements of which our earth is composed. There are no special elements that are found only 20 in protoplasm. But such rare elements as strontium (Sr), rubidium (Rb), tin (Sn), nickel (Ni), gold (Au) and mercury (Hg) may enter into the composition of protoplasm as well. Where the soil is especially rich in certain minerals, the plants growing there may incorporate them, and they may find their way into the tissues or hard parts of animals that feed upon the plants. In some parts of the world gold is particularly abundant in the soil, and the hoofs, horns and hair of the deer living on the vegetation in these regions show relatively large accumulations of it: Radioactive elements in some regions are accumulated in the mosses and in vegetation of the region. These plants are the food for many animals and analysis shows that these animals are also accumulating radioactive particles in their tissues. The food chain is extended to people living in these regions who feed upon these animals and

in turn incorporate the particles in their own tissues. As a result their bodies contain a relatively high account of radioactive particles as compared with the population in general. As a summary it should be noted that protoplasm is a very complicated mixture of many kinds of substances. These are in constant activity, carrying on the processes of life. When the activity stops, life comes to an end.

4. Методические материалы, определяющие процедуры оценивания знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности, характеризующих этапы формирования компетенций

Основными формами текущего контроля являются: выполнение лексико-грамматических упражнений, тестирование, проект (защита презентации), аннотация, деловое письмо, устный ответ, текст с социокультурной и профессионально-ориентированной направленностью.

Максимальное количество баллов, которое может набрать магистрант в течение семестра за текущий контроль, равняется 80/70 баллам.

Максимальная сумма баллов, которые бакалавр может получить на зачёте, равняется 20 баллам.

Максимальная сумма баллов, которые бакалавр может получить на экзамене, равняется 30 баллам

Зачет и экзамен проводится по результатам выполнения всех видов учебной работы, предусмотренных рабочей программой дисциплины, при этом учитываются результаты текущего контроля успеваемости в течение семестра.

Формой промежуточной аттестации является экзамен, который проходит в форме устного собеседования по вопросам.

Зачёт может проводиться по билетам. Вопросы охватывают все содержание программы учебной дисциплины. Зачёт состоит из двух вопросов.

За семестр студент может набрать максимально 100 баллов.

Содержание зачета (1 семестр 80 баллов текущий контроль, 20 баллов зачет)

1. Чтение и перевод фрагмента текста социокультурной направленности, понимание которого проверяется в форме беседы по содержанию. (10 баллов)
2. Беседа по одной из пройденных тем. (10 баллов)

2.Содержание зачета (II семестр (80 баллов — учебный процесс, 20 баллов — зачет)

1. Чтение и написание аннотации к тексту социокультурной направленности. (10 баллов)
2. Устное монологическое высказывание на одну из изученных тем. (10 баллов)

3.Содержание экзамена (III семестр (70 баллов — учебный процесс, 30 баллов — экзамен)

- 1) Чтение и беседа по тексту социокультурной направленности. (10 баллов)
- 2) Написание аннотации по тексту профессиональной направленности. (10 баллов)
- 3) Беседа по одной из пройденных тем. (10 баллов)

Шкала оценивания зачета

Баллы	Критерии оценивания
20	Студент демонстрирует отличное знание предмета (сформированность умений и навыков иноязычного общения в 4-х сферах коммуникации: повседневно-бытовой, учебно-образовательной, социокультурной и профессиональной): • произношение соответствует программным требованиям; адекватно использует ритмику и мелодику иноязычной речи для выражения своих коммуникативных намерений. • умеет работать с текстами разных типов, полно и точно передает содержание. Логично и последовательно выражает свои мысли. Речь отличается разнообразием языковых средств и точностью их употребления. • при составлении письменной аннотации к прочитанному тексту, передает содержание в точности, соблюдает смысловую связанность и целостность изложения. • способен вести беседу в соответствии с коммуникативной задачей. Умеет точно формулировать свои мысли и выражать свое мнение. Владеет умением спонтанно реагировать на изменения речевого поведения партнера. Владеет техникой ведения беседы: может дать информацию, расспросить, выразить свое видение проблемы, использует в речи сложные грамматические конструкции (в рамках программы) и демонстрирует большой словарный запас.

16	Студент демонстрирует хорошее знание предмета: • произношение в целом соответствует программным требованиям, но встречаются случаи отклонения от нормы. В основном умеет использовать ритмику, мелодику иноязычной речи, хотя иногда речь может быть недостаточно выразительной; • демонстрирует полное понимание текста, речевые высказывания состоят из простых предложений; • владеет навыками письменной речи. • способен вести беседу в соответствии с коммуникативной задачей, излагая не только факты, но и свое личное мнение. Владеет техникой ведения беседы, но не всегда может спонтанно отреагировать на речевое поведение партнера. Может допускать коммуникативно незначимые грамматические ошибки. Демонстрирует словарный запас в рамках программы.
10	Студент демонстрирует отдельные речевые навыки и умения: • делает ошибки в произношении и речевой интонации; • не совсем верно понимает содержание текста. Пересказ состоит из крайне простых предложений, при этом допускаются грамматические ошибки; • при составлении аннотации к тексту допускает грубые ошибки в понимании содержания и письменной речи. • может участвовать в беседе, используя упрощенные лексико-грамматические структуры для выражения своих мыслей. Реагирует на вопросы собеседника. Часто при ответах на вопросы использует заученный текст. Обладает ограниченным лексическим запасом.
6	Студент демонстрирует отсутствие сформированности умений и навыков иноязычного общения: • при частичном понимании текста не может передать его содержание. Отвечает лишь на простые вопросы, при этом допускает грамматические и синтаксические ошибки; не способен вести беседу. При ответах на вопросы использует заученные фрагменты тем. Не владеет достаточным количеством устойчивых фраз и выражений для ведения беседы. Не умеет адекватно реагировать на вопросы собеседника. Владеет минимальным запасом лексики, но не умеет его использовать

Итоговая шкала оценивания результатов освоения дисциплины

Итоговая оценка по дисциплине выставляется по приведенной ниже шкале. При выставлении итоговой оценки преподавателем учитывается работа обучающегося в течение освоения дисциплины, а также оценка по промежуточной аттестации

Баллы, полученные по текущему контролю и промежуточной аттестации	Оценка в традиционной системе
81-100	зачтено
61-80	зачтено
41-60	зачтено
0-40	не зачтено

Шкала оценивания экзамена

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41-60	удовлетворительно
0-40	не удовлетворительно