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

Кафедра иностранных языков

УТВЕРЖДЕН
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Зав. кафедрой Сарычева Л.В.

ФОНД
ОЦЕНОЧНЫХ СРЕДСТВ

по дисциплине (модулю)
Иностранный язык (английский язык)

Направление подготовки 38.03.01 Экономика

Профиль:

Экономика предприятий и организаций

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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).	1. Работа на учебных занятиях 2. 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	1. Работа на учебных занятиях 2. Самостоятельная работа	***Знать:*** базовую лексику и выражения, а так же лексику, связанную со специальностью ***Уметь:*** общаться в большинстве типичных ситуаций, которые могут быть при поездке в	Выполнение лексико-грамматических упражнений Тестирование Проект (защита презентаци	Шкала оценивания лексико-грамматического упражнения, шкала оценивания делового письма, шкала оценивани

			страну изучаемого языка; понимать тексты на повседневные и профессиональные темы, в которых используются достаточно употребительные слова и конструкции	и) Аннотация Деловое письмо Устный ответ	я устного ответа, шкала оценивания проекта (защита презентации), шкала оценивания тестирования, шкала оценивания аннотации
УК-4	Продвинутый	1. Работа на учебных занятиях 2. 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	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

			сообщение на разные темы; анализировать и переводить статьи по специальности и инструкции, касающиеся профессиональной деятельности ***Владеть***: профессионально-ориентированной межкультурной компетенцией		тестирования, шкала оценивания аннотации

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	Отсутствует установленный правилами порядок, структура Внешний вид и речь автора не соответствуют	***2***

письменной части и презентации	правилам проведения презентации	
	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	2

количество ошибок, препятствующих коммуникации.	
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 / 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.	4
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,	5

частично влияющих на процесс коммуникации.	
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 отдельные произносительные, лексические и грамматические ошибки.	7
Коммуникативная задача решена относительно полно. Высказывание носит завершенный характер, построено логично и связно. Есть затруднения в выражении своего отношения к обсуждаемой теме / проблеме. Используемые языковые и речевые средства соответствуют ситуации /	8

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.	
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Коммуникативная задача решена полностью. Высказывание построено логично, связно и имеет завершенный 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
1. **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**
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**
3. **Лексика.** Оценивается разнообразие лексических структур, используемых для составления документа/ написание письма	**3**
4. **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

Выберите правильный вариант ответа.

My sister and I are very different, __(1)__ we get on well together. She likes staying at home in the evening __(2)__ watching television with parents. __(3)__ I prefer going out with my friends. We like to go to clubs or the cinema. Sometimes we just go to a café. I have exams soon, __(4)__ I'm not going out very much these days. My sister is six years older than me, __(5)__ she works in a bank. She's trying to save some money __(6)__ she's going to get married this year. Her fiancé's name is Ferdinand. __(7)__, we all call him Freddy. People say I look like my sister __(8)__ we both have brown eyes __(9)__ dark hair. __(10)__, we are very different in character. She's very quiet, __(11)__ I'm a lot more sociable.

1. A) and	B) but	C) so	D) because
2. A) however	B) so	C) and	D) because
3. A) Because	B) And	C) So	D) But

4. A) so	B) however	C) but	D) and
5. A) however	B) so	C) because	D) and
6. A) and	B) so	C) because	D) but
7. A) However	B) So	C) But	D) And
8. A) so	B) because	C) and	D) however
9. A) but	B) so	C) however	D) and
10. A) But	B) So	C) However	D) And
11. A) however	B) but	C) and	D) so

Тестирование

1. "_____ her name Eliza?"

"No, _____ ."

A) What / it isn't B) Is / she isn't C) Is / it is not D) Is / it isn't

2. "Are you from Australia?"

"No, _____ ."

A) I'm not B) I amn't C) I are not D) I not

3. I'm _____ home.

A) in B) on C) at D) from

4. I live _____ an apartment _____ two American boys.

A) in / of B) at / with C) in / with D) of/with

5. "_____ _____ is a hamburger and chips?"

"Three pounds fifty."

A) How many B) How often C) How much D) How long

6. Rolls-Royce cars are _____ .

A) cheap B) blue C) expensive D) tall

7. This is those _____ toy.

A) kid’s B) kid C) kids’s D) kids’

8. They’re not his _____ mistakes.

A) friend’s B) friend C) friends D) friends’s

9. A: Where _____ your parents _____ ?

B: In the Ministry of Education.

A) do / do B) do / work C) are / work D) work / -

10. Why _____ you like _____ in the hotel?

A) do / working B) do / work C) does / working D) does / work

11. _____ there _____ chairs in the class?

A) Are / a B) Are / some C) Are / there D) Are / any

12. I like living here _____ it’s near the shops.

A) because B) so C) and D) but

2 семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

Dennis Heal __(1)__ a politician. He __(2)__ to Oxford University in 1975, and in 1982 he __(3)__ a Member of Parliament. He __(4)__ an MP since then. He __(5)__ Defense Minister from 1989- 95. He __(6)__ three books, including his autobiography “The Time of my Life”, and a spy story called “The Time to Run”. He is married to the artist Edna Heal, and they have two children. They __(7)__ in Oxford for 10 years, then they __(8)__ to London in 1995. They now __(9)__ in a house in Queen Square in central London.

1. A) was B) is C) is being D) has been
2. A) go B) has gone C) went D) goes
3. A) became B) become C) becomes D) has become
4. A) was B) is being C) is D) has been
5. A) was B) is C) has been D) were

6. A) has written B) wrote C) write D) writes

7. A) lives B) has lived C) lived D) live

8. A) move B) moved C) is moving D) has moved

9. A) lives B) have lived C) lived D) live

Тестирование

1. A: _____ was she born?

B: She _____ born in New Zealand.

A) Where / was B) Where / were C) When / were D) When / was

2. A: _____ of food _____ our cook cook?

B: Italian & French food.

A) What of / can B) Which / can C) What kind / can D) What / can

3. I work _____ 6 a.m. _____ 6 p.m.

A) from / to B) to / at C) at / at D) at / until

4. What's _____ television this evening?

A) at B) on C) in D) of

5. Would you like _____ milk?

A) a B) some C) any D) an

6. Prague is one of the _____ cities in Europe,

A) most beautiful B) more beautiful C) beautiful D) the most beautiful

7. Life in New York is very _____ .

A) excited B) exciting C) exciter D) excitedly

8. A : _____ is the weather like _____ ?

B : _____ is sunny & warm. But yesterday _____ cold.

A) What / today / it / was B) How / today / it / was

C) What / it / today / - D) How / it / today / was

9. Tom and Tim _____ for lunch tomorrow.

A) to come B) coming C) came D) are coming

10. A: What _____ she ____ now?

B: I don’t know.

A) does / do B) do / do C) is / doing D) is / do

11. New York is _____ Paris.

A) dirty B) dirtier than C) the dirtiest D) dirtier

12. At first we draw _____ then _____.

A) quickly / slowly B) quick / slowly

C) quickly / slow D) quick / slow

3 семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

1. save up	a) have enough money to buy sth
2. afford	b) a machine to take out the money
3. discount	c) a paper document you get at the cashpoint when you buy sth
4. pay back	d) a street where the most important shops and businesses in a town are located
5.currency exchange	e) put on a piece of clothing to see if it fits you or if you like it
6. fitting room	f) collect the money to be used later
7. receipt	g) a person selling food or other goods in the street
8. bargain	h) return the money you borrowed
9. high-street	i) reduce the price
10. ATM	j) sth on sale at a lower price
11. try on	k) an area in a shop to put on clothes to see if they fit before buying them
12. street vendor	l) an office where you can change one currency into another

Тестирование

1. Her hands are dirty. She'd ______ a bar of soap.

A) like B) likes C) to like D) liked

2. It's dark in here. Can you ______ the light ?

A) turning on B) turn on C) to turn on D) will turn on

3. Let him ______ two tubes of toothpaste.

A) to buy B) buying C) buy D) buys

4. He usually ______ coffee but today he ______ tea.

A) drank / is drinking B) drunk / drinks

C) drinks / is drinking D) drinks / was drinking

5. The plane ______ at 11.45.

A) leaves B) leave C) are leaving D) to leave

6. Fifty million years ago there ______ no people.

A) were B) was C) are D) weren't

7. A: ______?

B : Not yet.

A) Have you read today's paper ? B) Did you sleep well last night ?

C) Do you usually get up early? D) Are you early?

8. A: Who wrote "War and Peace"?

B: It ______ by Leo Tolstoy.

A) is written B) wrote C) writes D) was written

9. If she ______ him, she would marry him.

A) loved B) would love C) loves D) had loved

10. A: What started the fire?

B: Nobody knows ______.

A) who started the fire B) what started the fire

C) what starts the fire D) who’d started the fire

11. The lights went out ______.

A) when the eight o’clock news started

B) after I have finished my homework

C) as soon as you arrive home

D) before the Prime Minister enters the conference hall

12. We went out______ the bell rang.

A) so B) although C) after D) until

13. When I was a child I_____ drink a lot of milk.

A) should B) may C) used to D) need

14. I’m waiting ______ the Paris plane.

A) at B) after C) for D) before

15. I’m afraid of _____ mistakes.

A) to make B) made C) make D) making

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.

Примерная тематика проектной деятельности

3 семестр

1. What is the difference between economics and other social sciences?
2. What are the main areas of disagreement among contemporary economists?
3. What do macro and microeconomics consider?
4. What is known as a partial analysis?
5. What are the three components of business?
6. What is the connection between prosperity and liberal life?
7. What are the two fundamental distinctions of economic systems?
8. Can capitalism exist with rigid state planning?
9. What is labour?

10. What does the supply of labour depend on?
11. What is moonlighting?
12. How does the age of retirement affect the supply of labour?
13. What is unemployment rate?
14. Who is considered to be unemployed?
15. How do economists classify unemployment?
16. What are the determinants of demand and supply?
17. What is a scale of preferences?
18. What is the difference between ‘need’ and ‘want’?
19. What is utility?
20. What are the differences between marginal and total utility?

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

Match the word to its definition.

1) adaptable	a) the group of people who work for an organization
2) consumer	b) a piece of work given to someone, typically as part of their studies or job
3) agenda	c) the place where a public event or meeting happens

4) staff	d) able or willing to change in order to suit different conditions
5) trend	e) to make something stronger
6) workload	f) a person who buys goods or services for their own use
7) venue	g) to find an answer to a problem
8) reinforce	h) a list of matters to be discussed at a meeting
9) solve	i) the amount of work to be done, especially by a particular person or machine in a period of time
10) assignment	j) a general development or change in a situation or in the way that people are behaving

Тестирование

St. Paul's cathedral

1. Everybody coming to London for the first time ………. (want) to see St. Paul's cathedral.
2. This ……… (be) the third cathedral with his name which London ……………. (have).
3. The two others …………………. (burn) down, the first in 1086 and the second in 1666.
4. Christopher Wren ……… (be) an architect who ………. (build) already ………… many buildings.
5. Then, in 1675, he ………… (start) building his greatest work and ………………. (finish) it in 35 years when he ……………. (be) an old man.

6. From far away you ………………….. (can / see) the huge dome with a golden ball and cross on the top.

7. The inside of the cathedral …………. (be) very beautiful.

8. After looking around, you ………………… (can / climb) 263 steps to the Whispering Gallery, above the library, which ……………… (run) round the dome.

9. It ……………….. (call) this because if someone ………………… (whisper) close to the wall on one side, a person with an ear close to the wall on the other side …………….. (can / hear) what ………………… (say).

10. Then, if you ……………… (climb) another 118 steps, you …………….. (be able) to stand outside the dome and …………………. (look) over London.

11. Besides, you ………………….. (can / go) down underneath the cathedral, into the crypt.

12. There …………………… (bury) many great men, including Christopher Wren himself, Nelson and others.

2 семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

Match the word to its definition.

1) **headquarters**	a) to become twice as much or as many, or to make something twice as much or many
2) **stock**	b) the activity of making certain that someone or something attracts a lot of interest or attention from many people, or the attention received as a result of this activity
3) **innovative**	c) to give a particular job, duty, right, etc. to someone else so that they do it for you
4) **double**	d) the main offices of an organization such as the army,

	police or a business company
5) **exchange rate**	e) to develop gradually, or to cause something or someone to develop gradually
6) **delegate**	f) a result or effect of an action, situation, etc
7) **outcome**	g) simple for people to use
8) **evolve**	h) using new methods or ideas
9) **user-friendly**	i) the rate at which the money of one country can be changed for the money of another country
10) **publicity**	j) the total amount of goods or the amount of a particular type of goods available in a shop

Тестирование

Put the right verb forms in the gaps.

1. Matt phoned me while we ………………… dinner.

a) had b) were having c) have been having d) was having

2. 'Where are you going on your holiday?' – 'I ………………………… yet.'

a) haven't decided b) wasn't decided c) did decide d) hadn't decided

3. I …………….. anything since breakfast.

a) ate b) don't eat c) haven't eaten d) hadn't eaten

4. We couldn't afford to keep our car, so we ………… it.

a) sold b) didn't sell c) had sold d) hadn't sold

5. The film wasn't very good. I ……………………… it much.

a) enjoyed b) didn't enjoy c) wasn't enjoyed d) haven't enjoyed

6. Where have you been? I ………………….. for you for the last half hour.

a) looked b) have looked c) have been looking d) had been looking

7. How many faxes ………………………….. this morning?

a) had she received b) was she received c) has she received d) did she receive

8. How long ……………….. that camera.

a) are you having b) have you had c) have you been having d) have you

9. They …………….. their holidays in Switzerland last winter.

a) spend b) spent c) were spending d) had spent

10. Julia …………………… for a long time.

a) has lived b) lives c) has been living here d) had lived

11. Have you written down ………………. names?

a) everybody b) everybody's c) everybodys' d) everybodies'

12. They decided to go on a hike ……………….. the rain.

a) despite of b) despite in c) in spite d) in spite of

13. If you don't know the meaning of this word, …………………… in the dictionary.

a) chase it up b) search it out c) look it up d) find it out

14. Did you fix these shelves …………………………?

a) all on yourself b) all at yourself c) all with yourself d) all by yourself

15. You were rude ……………….. him for no reason.

a) at b) to c) with d) on

16. When I was a student I …………………. to discos every Friday night.

a) used to go b) was used to go c) use to went d) use to going

17. We …………………… the project by the end of the month.

a) shall finish b) are finishing c) will have finished d) will be finishing

18. I am here to say that we …………… next week. Everything is ready.

a) will leave b) are leaving c) will be leaving d) will have left

19. This time tomorrow our family …………………. on the beach of the Mediterranean sea.

a) will lie b) is lying c) will be lying d) will have lain

20. She didn't know that he …………………………… her.

a) betray b) would betray c) will betray d) was going to betray

3 семестр

Лексико – грамматическое упражнение

Match the word to its definition.

1) thoroughly	a) to stop doing or providing something
2) benchmark	b) a system for controlling or managing a country or company that is operated by a large number of officials who are employed to follow rules carefully
3) trade union	c) to put a plan or system into operation
4) discontinue	d) to take or move out or back, or to remove
5) debt	e) to measure the quality of something by comparing it with something else of an accepted standard
6) bureaucracy	f) when people are friendly and welcoming to guests and visitors
7) implement	g) an organization that represents the people who work in a particular industry, protects their rights, and discusses their pay and working conditions with employers
8) hospitality	h) a system of working in which people work a set number of hours within a fixed period of time, but can change the time they start or finish work

9) withdraw	i) something, especially money, which is owed to someone else, or the state of owing something
10) flexitime	j) in a detailed and careful way

Тестирование

Complete the sentences with the correct forms of the verbs in brackets.

1. The share price will rise as soon as we (announce) the merger.
2. If we opened an office in Tokyo, I (be) interested in working there.
3. I (apply) for several posts this year but I still (not/manage) to find what I'm looking for.
4. I'm thinking of doing a postgraduate degree – what you (think)? Is it a good idea?
5. If we didn't agree to their terms, what (happen)?
6. What would you do if you (lose) your job?
7. I only (work) there for a couple of months before I went on a business trip.
8. I'm sorry but you (speak) too quickly for me. Could you slow down a little?
9. Don't go into his office – he (introduce) an important report at the moment.
10. I (write) you after I've spoken to my boss.
11. I must hurry. Her plane (land) in 20 minutes.
12. The phone's ringing. – Do not bother, I (answer) it.
13. Many economists believe that interest rates (drop) again.
14. At the moment we (not / know) the profit figures.
15. We (exhibit) our new gadgets at the Inventors' Fair when a Japanese entrepreneur expressed interest in the new product.

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 and choose the correct heading from the list of headings below.

List of Headings

1) Robots working together
2) Looking ahead
3) The LGVs' main functions
4) Split location for newspaper production
5) Getting the newspaper to the printing centre
6) Controlling the robots
7) Beware of robots!

ROBOTS AT WORK

A

The newspaper production process has come a long way from the old days when the paper was written, edited, typeset and ultimately printed in one building with the journalists working on the upper floors and the printing presses going on the ground floor. These days the editor, subeditors and journalists who put the paper together are likely to find themselves in a totally different building or maybe even in a different city. This is the situation which now prevails in Sydney. The daily paper is compiled at the editorial headquarters, known as the prepress centre, in the heart of the city, but printed far away in the suburbs at the printing centre. Here human beings are in the minority as much of the work is done by automated machines controlled by computers.

B

Once the finished newspaper has been created for the next morning's edition, all the pages are transmitted electronically from the prepress centre to the printing centre. The system of transmission is an update on the sophisticated page facsimile system already in use on many other newspapers. An imagesetter at the printing centre delivers the pages as film. Each page takes less than a minute to produce, although for colour pages four versions, once each for black, cyan, magenta and yellow are sent. The pages are then processed into photographic negatives and the film is used to produce aluminium printing plates ready for the presses.

C

A procession of automated vehicles is busy at the new printing centre where the Sydney Morning Herald is printed each day. With lights flashing and warning horns honking, the robots (to give them their correct name, the LGVs or laser guided vehicles) look for all the world like enthusiastic machines from a science fiction movie, as they follow their own random paths around the plant busily getting on with their jobs. Automation of this kind is now standard in all modern newspaper plants. The robots can detect unauthorized personnel and alert security staff immediately if they find an “intruder”; not surprisingly, tall tales are already being told about the machines starting to take on personalities of their own.

D

The robots’ principal job, however, is to shift the newsprint (the printing paper) that arrives at the plant in huge reels and emerges at the other end some time later as newspapers. Once the size of the day’s paper and the publishing order are determined at head office, the information is punched into the computer and the LGVs are programmed to go about their work. The LGVs collect the appropriate size paper reels and take them where they have to go. When the press needs another reel its computer alerts the LGV system. The Sydney LGVs move busily around the press room fulfilling their two key functions to collect reels of newsprint either from the reel stripping stations, or from the racked supplies in the newsprint storage area. At the stripping station the tough wrapping that helps to protect a reel of paper from rough handling is removed. Any damaged paper is peeled off and the reel is then weighed.

E

Then one of the four paster robots moves in. Specifically designed for the job, it trims the paper neatly and prepares the reel for the press. If required the reel can be loaded directly onto the press; if not needed immediately, an LGV takes it to the storage area. When the press computer calls for a reel, an LGV takes it to the reel loading area of the presses. It lifts the reel into the loading position and places it in the correct spot with complete accuracy. As each reel is used up, the press drops the heavy cardboard core into a waste bin. When the bin is full, another LGV collects it and deposits the cores into a shredder for recycling.

F

The LGVs move at walking speed. Should anyone step in front of one or get too close, sensors stop the vehicle until the path is clear. The company has chosen a laserguide function system for the vehicles because, as the project development manager says "The beauty of it is that if you want to change the routes, you can work out a new route on your computer and lay it down for them to follow". When an LGV's batteries run low, it will take itself off line and go to the nearest battery maintenance point for replacement batteries. And all this is achieved with absolute minimum human input and a much reduced risk of injury to people working in the printing centres.

G

The question newspaper workers must now ask, however is, "how long will it be before the robots are writing the newspapers as well as running the printing centre, churning out the latest edition every morning?"

Владеть: профессионально-ориентированной межкультурной компетенцией

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

Read the text and match each part with its heading.

List of Headings

a) The probable effects of the new international trade agreement

b) The environmental impact of modern farming

c) The effects of government policy in rich countries

d) Governments and management of the environment

e) The effects of government policy in poor countries

f) Farming and food output

Section A

The role of governments in environmental management is difficult but inescapable. Sometimes, the state tries to manage the resources it owns, and does so badly. Often, however, governments act in an even more harmful way. They actually subsidise the exploitation and consumption of natural resources. A whole range of policies, from farm-price support to protection for coal-mining, do environmental damage and (often) make no economic sense. Scrapping them offers a two-fold bonus: a cleaner environment and a more efficient economy. Growth and environmentalism can actually go hand in hand, if politicians have the courage to confront the vested interest that subsidies create.

Section B

No activity affects more of the earth's surface than farming. It shapes a third of the planet's land area, not counting Antarctica, and the proportion is rising. World food output per head has risen by 4 per cent between the 1970s and 1980s mainly as a result of increases in yields from land already in cultivation, but also because more land has been brought under the plough. Higher yields have been achieved by increased irrigation, better crop breeding, and a doubling in the use of pesticides and chemical fertilisers in the 1970s and 1980s.

Section C

All these activities may have damaging environmental impacts. For example, land clearing for agriculture is the largest single cause of deforestation; chemical fertilisers and pesticides may contaminate water supplies; more intensive farming and the abandonment of fallow periods tend to exacerbate soil erosion; and the spread of monoculture and use of high-yielding varieties of crops have been accompanied by the disappearance of old varieties of food plants which might have provided some insurance against pests or diseases in future. Soil erosion threatens the productivity of land in both rich and poor countries. The United States, where the most careful measurements have been done, discovered in 1982 that about one-fifth of its farmland was losing topsoil at a rate likely to diminish the soil's productivity. The country subsequently embarked upon a program to convert 11 per cent of its cropped land to meadow or forest. Topsoil in India and China is vanishing much faster than in America.

Section D

Government policies have frequently compounded the environmental damage that farming can cause. In the rich countries, subsidies for growing crops and price supports for farm output drive up the price of land. The annual value of these subsidies is immense: about $250 billion, or more than all World Bank lending in the 1980s. To increase the output of crops per acre, a farmer's easiest option is to use more of the most readily available inputs: fertilisers and pesticides. Fertiliser use doubled in Denmark in the period 1960-1985 and increased in The Netherlands by 150 per cent. The quantity of pesticides applied has risen too: by 69 per cent in 1975-1984 in Denmark, for example, with a rise of 115 per cent in the frequency of application in the three years from 1981.

In the late 1980s and early 1990s some efforts were made to reduce farm subsidies. The most dramatic example was that of New Zealand, which scrapped most farm support in 1984. A study of the environmental effects, conducted in 1993, found that the end of fertiliser subsidies had been followed by a fall in fertiliser use (a fall compounded by the decline in world commodity prices, which cut farm incomes). The removal of subsidies also stopped land-clearing and over-stocking, which in the past had been the principal causes of erosion. Farms began to diversify. The one kind of subsidy whose removal appeared to have been bad for the environment was the subsidy to manage soil erosion.

In less enlightened countries, and in the European Union, the trend has been to reduce rather than eliminate subsidies, and to introduce new payments to encourage farmers to treat their land in environmentally friendlier ways, or to leave it fallow. It may sound strange but such payments need to be higher than the existing incentives for farmers to grow food crops. Farmers, however, dislike being paid to do nothing. In several countries they have become interested in the possibility of using fuel produced from crop residues either as a replacement for petrol (as ethanol) or as fuel for power stations (as biomass). Such fuels produce far less carbon dioxide than coal or oil, and absorb carbon dioxide as they grow. They are therefore less likely to contribute to the greenhouse effect. But they are rarely competitive with fossil fuels unless subsidised - and growing them does no less environmental harm than other crops.

Section E

In poor countries, governments aggravate other sorts of damage. Subsidies for pesticides and artificial fertilisers encourage farmers to use greater quantities than are needed to get the highest economic crop yield. A study by the International Rice Research Institute of pesticide use by farmers in South East Asia found that, with pest-resistant varieties of rice, even moderate applications of pesticide frequently cost farmers more than they saved. Such waste puts farmers on a chemical treadmill: bugs and weeds become resistant to poisons, so next year's poisons must be more lethal. One cost is to human health. Every year some 10,000 people die from pesticide poisoning, almost all of them in the developing countries, and another 400,000 become seriously ill. As for artificial fertilisers, their use world-wide increased by 40 per cent per unit of farmed land between the mid-1970s and late 1980s, mostly in the developing countries. Overuse of fertilisers may cause farmers to stop rotating crops or leaving their land fallow. That, in turn, may make soil erosion worse.

Section F

A result of the Uruguay Round of world trade negotiations is likely to be a reduction of 36 per cent in the average levels of farm subsidies paid by the rich countries in 1986-1990. Some of the world's food production will move from Western Europe to regions where subsidies are lower or non-existent, such as the former communist countries and parts of the developing world. Some environmentalists worry about this outcome. It will undoubtedly mean more pressure to convert natural habitat into farmland. But it will also have many desirable environmental effects. The intensity of farming in the rich world should decline, and the use of chemical inputs will diminish. Crops are more likely to be grown in the environments to which they are naturally suited. And more farmers in poor countries will have the money and the incentive to manage their land in ways that are sustainable in the long run. That is important. To feed an increasingly hungry world, farmers need every incentive to use their soil and water effectively and efficiently.

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. Введение в профессиональную коммуникацию.

2. История развития экономики – основные периоды, представители школ.

3. Закон спроса и предложения. Типы экономических систем.

4. Специальность «Экономика предприятий и организаций » за рубежом и в России: перспективы.

5. Рынок труда – проблемы безработицы и способы ее преодоления..

6. Деловая корреспонденция и электронная коммуникация.

7. Проектная деятельность в профессиональной сфере.

1 семестр

Тексты социокультурной направленности

(1)What is culture?

Without culture, and the relative freedom it implies, society, even when perfect, is but a jungle. This is why any authentic creation is a gift to the future. **- Albert Camus**

Culture is a learned pattern of behavior, and is a way in which a person lives his life. It is an integral part of every society, and creates a feeling of belonging and togetherness among the people of that society. Culture encompasses various aspects of communication, attitude, etiquette, beliefs, values, customs, norms, food, art, jewelry, clothing styles, etc. Every society has a different culture, which gives it an identity and uniqueness.

In spite of the vast cultural diversity, there are certain elements of culture that are universal. They are known as cultural universals, which comprise certain behavioral traits and patterns that are shared by all cultures around the world. For instance, classifying relations, having some form of art and music, use of jewelry, classifying people according to gender and age, etc., are common in all cultures of the world.

Culture is cumulative and dynamic. The culture of any particular group is constantly evolving and undergoing slow changes. Each generation brings along a new set of changes and developments in the culture of that society. Moreover, long-term exposure to different cultures leads to the exchange of certain cultural aspects.

Culture is learned from the people surrounding us, our parents, guardians, relatives, etc. The distinct set of beliefs, values, traditions and behavior is passed down through generations. It is a collective phenomenon, and cannot exist in isolation in a single individual. It is shared at various levels, namely national, regional, gender, generation, corporate, social class, etc., but is also rich in diversity. Residents of a nation share certain aspects, whereas different regions within the nation have their own unique blend of beliefs, values and styles, and so on.

Culture implies the overall way of life for a group of individuals. It is the glue that binds people together, and enables them to adapt, survive, and live together in harmony.

The knowledge necessary for survival, and adaptation to our natural and social environment, is acquired through culture. Culture is what imbibes into us the knowledge of good and bad, acceptable and non-acceptable, socializing, etc. Knowingly or unknowingly, it plays a major role in shaping our personality and behavior. Each individual has a distinct and unique personality. However, within a group, there exist certain regularities in behavior. This can be attributed to the culture in which they grow up. In addition, culture also influences our perception of reality and worldly concepts. Our interpretations of the actions and events around us are molded by our culture. It forms the basic foundation of our life and behavior.

(2) **Red-brick universities**

In the 19th Century, Britain was undergoing enormous changes as a result of the Industrial Revolution. In the large industrial cities, there was an urgent need for a workforce with technical and scientific skills to meet the demands of the new economy.

This led to the creation of specialised schools and private education institutes, often dedicated to fields such as medicine or engineering. For example, the Manchester Mechanics Institute was established in 1824, and Birmingham Medical School in 1825.

These institutions were incredibly successful, and became centres of knowledge and research during the Victorian era. Eventually, some were granted independent university status; for instance, Birmingham Medical School became the University of Birmingham.

Many of these new civic universities featured buildings built in the Gothic style with red bricks – a popular trend in the Victorian times. This led to institutions of this type being nick-named ‘red brick’ universities.

Red brick institutions were actually mocked at first by Britain’s existing universities. The university establishment, particularly ‘ancient’ universities such as Oxford and Glasgow, saw them as inferior. This led to the term ‘red brick’ being used in a derogatory way (in other words, as an insult).

However, this quickly changed. Today, England’s red brick universities are among the most highly ranked in the world. Out of the 6 original red brick universities (University of Birmingham, University of Bristol, University of Leeds, University of Liverpool, University of Manchester, University of Sheffield), 5 are in the global top 100 (QS World University Rankings 2020). Nearly all of the red brick universities are members of the prestigious Russell Group (which includes Cambridge, Oxford, Glasgow and Imperial), and many employers request graduates with a red brick degree.

(3) What is British Humour?

In popular culture, British humour is a somewhat general term applied to certain types of comedy and comedic acts from the United Kingdom. Many UK comedy TV shows typical of British humour have become popular all round the world, and, for good or bad, have been a strong avenue for the export and representation of British culture to an international audience, but like many things the "typical" British sense of humour doesn't really exist.

There are many different kinds of humour, and often culture and tradition plays a big part in how funny you may find something, or not. There are numerous British comedy films, in the past we produced the notable Ealing comedies like The Lavender Hill Mob and The Man in the White Suit, the 1950s work of the Boulting

Brothers; Private's Progress, Lucky Jim, and I'm All Right Jack, innumerable popular comedy series including the St Trinian's films, the "Doctor" series, and the long-running Carry On films. Some of the best known British film comedy stars were Will Hay, George Formby, Norman Wisdom, Peter Sellers and the Monty Python team. Other actors associated with British comedy films included Ian Carmichael, Terry-Thomas, Margaret Rutherford, Irene Handl and Leslie Phillips.

More recent successful films include the working class comedies, Brassed Off, The Full Monty, the more middle class Richard Curtis-scripted films Four Weddings and a Funeral, and Notting Hill and youth-oriented, pop-culture films like Shaun of the Dead and Hot Fuzz.

(4) Niagara Falls

Niagara Falls is one of the world’s leading tourist attractions. Millions of people around the world visit here each year. Summers at the Falls are especially busy, with traffic jams and parking problems. However, the Falls are beautiful in winter too.

Many have asked why people travel so far to see water falling over a cliff. The size and beauty of Niagara Falls help to make it special. While many falls are higher than Niagara, very few are as wide or have such a volume of water. It also helps that Niagara is relatively easy to travel to.

When the first Europeans came to Niagara, the Falls were surrounded by forest. The noise of the Falls could be heard miles away, before they were actually seen. The first visitors were filled with horror at the sight.

Later, fear ceased to be the main emotion inspired by the Falls. Later, visitors were impressed by the beauty and grandeur of the Falls, which overwhelmed them with wonder.

By the 1830s, people were able to come to the Falls by railway. As more and more people came, the tourist industry developed. Early tourism was not well regulated, and there were many complaints about cheats and swindles. Today, there are similar complaints about tourist junk and high prices.

The majority of tourists stay on the Canadian side. There are two falls, separated by an island. Since the Niagara River forms the boundary here between Canada and the United States, each country has one of the falls. The Canadian Horseshoe Falls is wider and more impressive than the American Rainbow Falls. About nine times more water goes over the Canadian Falls. Nonetheless, there is much to be seen on the American side. The island in the middle, Goat Island, is one of the best places to view the falls and rapids. It is on the American side.

Newly married couples began coming to Niagara Falls when it was still a secluded, peaceful and romantic spot. It is still popular with newly-weds as a relatively inexpensive and convenient place to spend their honeymoon.

Besides being beautiful, Niagara Falls is also very useful. Their falling water is the power behind several of the largest hydroelectric stations in the world. Much of the electric power used in this part of North America comes from Niagara Falls. In order to harness this power, half of the flow of water is channeled away from the falls during the night, and during the non-tourist season. Probably most visitors don’t notice the difference. Niagara has attracted many kinds of people over the years. Businessmen have come to profit from the tourists.

Daredevils have come to make a name for themselves. Some have gone over the falls in a barrel, while others have walked above the falls on a tightrope. Poets and artists have visited here to capture its beauty. Lovers have come to gaze on its romantic scenery. All of these, and many others, have helped to make Niagara Falls world famous.

(5) Ireland

Ireland is an island in the Atlantic Ocean just west of Britain. For much of its history, it has been an advantage to Ireland to be far from the mainland. The Romans or the other early Empires never conquered Ireland. It was the remoteness of Ireland that helped preserve much of Christian and classical culture. After the fall of the Roman Empire, wandering tribes destroyed much of what remained on the continent.

Finally, it was Ireland’s turn to be invaded. First, the Norsemen or Vikings attacked during the 800s and 900s. Then in the 1100s, the English invaded Ireland. Since that time, there has always been an English presence in Ireland. The conflict between the English and the Irish grew worse in the 1500s. Then the English became Protestant, and the Irish remained Catholic. In the 1600s, Oliver Cromwell tried to make Ireland Protestant by driving out the Catholics and bringing in Protestant settlers. In the centuries following, Irish Catholics had very few rights in their own country. The Catholic Irish were not allowed to vote until 1829.

Since Irish Catholics were not allowed to own land, they were poor tenant farmers. They paid rent to the English landlords. The main food crop in the 1840s was potatoes. When these became infected by blight, thousands of Irishmen starved. Many others were evicted from their dwellings because they couldn't pay the rent. Hundreds of thousands of Irish took ship for North America. The Catholic Irish preferred to go to the United States because Canada was under British influence. However, many Protestant Irish went to Canada.

The influence of the Irish on North American culture has been very great in many areas. Prominent Irish-Americans include Presidents John F. Kennedy and Ronald Reagan. Meanwhile, in Ireland itself, a strong independence movement developed. A rebellion against England in 1916 began a struggle that resulted in independence for most of Ireland. Some Protestant areas in Northern Ireland preferred to stay with England. Republican groups such as the Irish Republican Army wanted to "liberate" the north from British rule.

Nowadays, conflict between Protestants and Catholics is limited to these northern counties. Constant attempts are being made to bring the conflict there to an end. Meanwhile, the Irish Republic, or Eire, has become prosperous again. It can sell its agricultural products to the European Common Market. Irish beer and whisky are sold all over the world. Ireland is also becoming known for its high-tech industries. Because of this relative prosperity, the population is increasing again, after a century and a half of decline.

The Irish differ from other people because the vast majority of Irishmen live away from their homeland. However, this exodus from Ireland has helped to spread Irish music, culture and products around the world. On St. Patrick's Day (March 17th), nearly everyone becomes Irish for the day. Then there is a great party with Celtic music, Irish dancing, green beer and the wearing of the green.

(6) Formal and informal education

Education includes different kinds of learning experiences. Education is the ways in which people learn skills, gain knowledge and understanding about the world and about themselves. There are two types of education – formal and informal.

Informal education involves people in learning during their daily life. For example, children learn their language simply by hearing and by trying to speak themselves. In the same informal manner they learn to dress themselves, to eat with good manners, to ride a bike or to make a telephone call. Education is also informal when people get information or learn skills on their own initiative without a teacher. To do so they may visit a book shop, library or museum. They may watch a television show, look at a video tape, or listen to a radio programme. They do not have to pass tests or exams.

Formal education is the instruction given at different kinds of schools, colleges, universities. In most countries people enter a system of formal education during their early childhood. In this type of education, the people, who are in charge, decide what to teach. Then learners study those things with the teacher at the head. Teachers expect learners to come to school regularly and on time, to work at about the same speed as their classmates, and to pass tests and exams. Learners have to pass exams to show how well they have progressed in their learning. At the end of their learning leaners may earn a diploma, a certificate, or a degree as a mark of their success over the years.

The school systems of all modern nations provide both general and vocational education. Most countries also prefer special educational programs for gifted or for physically or mentally handicapped children. Adult education programmes are provided for people who wish to take up their education after leaving school. Most countries spend a large amount of time and money for formal education of their citizens.

(7) Online shopping

Online shopping allows consumers to shop in the convenience of their own home, and to save travelling time to retail stores and spend their time on other important tasks and hobbies. Researchers indicate convenience as the ‘primary objective’ of online shopping. This is relevant to 72% of online shoppers’ claim that they would rather surf online than go to retail stores to get information about a product. According to a study, 72% of online shoppers chose convenience over privacy. In addition to the ease of finding products online and time saved, consumers can shop without time limitations with 24 hour access as a beneficial characteristic of online shopping.

Online shopping benefits both the society as a whole and individuals. The society can save human resources when consumers help themselves by browsing freely online instead of asking for assistance from vendors. Consumers are also freed from the pressure to buy from the vendors and can spend more time to make wise purchase decisions.

Consumers desire a variety of products because they look for the right product that will fully satisfy them. There is an infinite variety of products available online and the internet allows consumers to browse through products that are made all around the world without geographical boundaries.

With the online tools that enable product comparison, consumers can compare product prices and features to make a better decision with less effort.

One of the numerous disadvantages of online shopping is that many shoppers enjoy shopping with others and it is often a good way to make social connections. When shopping independently online, that enjoyment is lost.

Privacy is the number one reason that non-online shoppers do not shop online. Almost 95% of Web users have declined to provide personal information to Web sites at one time or another when asked.

Because one needs money to buy a computer and to have internet connection, online shopping seems to be limited to people with a reasonable amount of income. Also since it is harder to learn to use computers at an older age, elderly people tend to shop at traditional retail stores. Another reason some people do not shop on line is that they are worried that the products will not be what they have expected by viewing online.

(8) Wonders of the World

Humans are generally good at noticing beautiful things. Humans are also generally good at building beautiful things. A Wonder of the World is a landmark or a natural phenomenon that is significant enough to be noticed by any person around the world. Many different lists of the Wonders of the World were made over the course of history, so let's have a look at some!

The first of such lists was made by a Greek historian Herodotus. Only three places were mentioned in it. Eventually the list was expanded up to seven Wonders. Probably everyone can name at least some of those monuments: the Great Pyramid of Giza; the Hanging Gardens of Babylon; the Lighthouse of

Alexandria; the Colossus of Rhodes; the Mausoleum at Halicarnassus; the Temple of Artemis; the Statue of Zeus at Olympia. The curious thing about these Wonders is that almost all of them represent the Greek culture. Another thing to note is that the ancient Greeks haven't actually used the term 'wonder', but instead it was a list 'of things to see', making such lists essentially just a travel guide. Almost all of these Wonders were destroyed one way or another, and today only the Great Pyramid of Giza, also known as the Pyramid of Cheops or the Pyramid of Khufu, still stands.

This wasn't the only list of supposed Wonders though. Later on, many attempts were made (with a little to no consensus) to either make a new list or add more Wonders to the existing one. The most remarkable candidates were Colosseum of Rome, Hagia Sophia of Istanbul, Taj Mahal and the Great Wall of China.

Another peculiar attempt was made in 1994. The American Society of Civil Engineers made a list of Seven Wonders of Modern World, focusing mainly on an engineering scope of selected projects. Among other projects, this list features Panama Canal, Channel Tunnel and CN Tower of Toronto, which was the tallest structure in the world up to 2007.

There is also a list of Natural Wonders of the World. It included the Great Barrier Reef, Mount Everest, the Grand Canyon of Arizona and, curiously enough, aurorae, making it the first list of its kind to include a phenomenon instead of a place.

But what about the world beyond Earth? Surely, it must have its wonders too! And indeed, in 1999, an attempt was made to list Seven Wonders of the Solar System. Amongst those were the rings of Saturn, the asteroid belt and the Great Red Spot of Jupiter.

Ultimately, the world is too big of a place to make an exhaustive list of all landmarks worth visiting. But those that didn't make into any prominent list are still protected and treasured by their neighbours. The organization that manages the lists of such landmarks and attends to any legal matters regarding them is called UNESCO.

(9) The Tower of London

In the year 1066, after his victory at the Battle of Hastings, William the Conqueror was seeking to strengthen his control over the subdued English territories. In the following 20 years in England nearly 40 castles were founded by him and his vassals. It was probably the largest castle-building operation in the whole history of medieval Europe.

One of the castles was to be founded inside London, already the largest English town in those times. The so-called Tower of London was built on remains of an ancient Roman fortification, and initially was built mainly from timber. Only a hundred years later it was reinforced with stone. The castle takes its name from the White Tower, which is the name of the main keep that still stands as of today. People from other towns referred to it as The Tower of London, and eventually it became a name widespread enough to stick.

Given its location and strategic importance, the castle soon became a residence for the richest and the most influential people across England. Over the years the castle has expanded greatly, because each of its owners was always seeking to add something distinct to its fortifications. One of the darker stories of that age is the tale of the Princes in the Tower, two young boys of royal blood who were declared illegitimate and then murdered by some unknown assailant. Remains of two boys were found inside the castle in a wooden box in 1674.

Starting in the 16th century, the castle started to see its use as a royal residence. It gained much notoriety in following years though, as it was also used as a prison and a place of execution for people who'd fall out of favour with their rulers.

In modern times The Tower of London became less ominous. At some point there was even a zoo inside. It started as a collection of royal pets that quickly outgrew its accommodation and was soon moved to the London Zoo located inside Regent's Park. It's still open nowadays and is a popular tourist landmark.

Since 1988 The Tower of London has been listed as a UNESCO World Heritage Site. In the 21st century it's mainly a tourist attraction. Usually you can visit the castle from Wednesday to Sunday, from 10 AM to 6 PM. The entrance fee for an adult is 25£. Visitors have free Wi-Fi access and can also buy some signature snacks in one of the cafes or kiosks inside.

(10) Global consequences of the climate change

The 20th century was very notable with its unparalleled[1] technological advancement of humanity. With each passing day the lasting impact that we leave on our planet becomes more and more apparent. The most obvious and harmful outcomes of heavy industrialization are global warming and climate change.

The first signs of global warming became obvious in the middle of the last century. Since the 1970s, the surface temperature of Earth has risen by 1 °C. Multiple data records show now that the warming happens at the rate of roughly 0.2 °C per one decade.

This is a very alarming development. The bulk of global warming is attributed to human activity. Assuming we don't do something about it, the consequences would be lasting, probably irreversible, and very harsh.

The first and most obvious effect is the heating of Earth's atmosphere. This means that there will be less cold days and more hot days overall. This in turn means that both plants and animals will need to adjust to it. Some of them might not survive such a change.

The secondary effect is the melting of continental ice, which makes sea levels rise far above their normal point. Extreme cases could lead to floods and destruction of continental coastlines.

Warmer weather also results in more water evaporating and the air becoming more humid. This can lead to even more rains, floods and some extreme weather patterns such as wildfires and tropical cyclones.

One of the most insidious and less obvious effects is the change of the oceans oxygen levels. Warmer water can hold less oxygen than the colder one, and so if the temperatures continue to rise, many underwater species risk total extinction.

While humanity definitely contributes much to climate change with irresponsible burning of fossil fuels, we still can battle it. Switching to renewable and clear energy sources, electrical cars, and improving the efficiency of our factories can curb the adverse effects we've inflicted on our planet over the last 100 years.

And if worse comes to worst, humanity can be very good at adapting to hostile environment. Adaptation strategies include reinforcing the coastlines or relocating deeper into the mainland; development of weather-resistant crops; development of contingency scenarios for local disaster management.

(11) Music in Great Britain

The British have not been regarded as a particularly musical people and, from the end of the 17th century until the 20th century, there were relatively few British composers of international renown.

Before the 16th century, musical life was centred on the church, especially the cathedrals and the royal chapels. The choral works of John Taverner, William Byrd and Thomas Tallis are still performed today, most notably by the choirs of King's College, Cambridge and Christ Church in Oxford. Secular music in the 16th century included the instrumental work of William Byrd and Orlando Gibbons and the madrigals of Gibbons and Thomas Morley.

Henry Purcell, famous for his opera Dido and Aeneaf (1689), has been described as the last great English composer before the 20th century. John Gay's The Beggar's Opera (1728), is still occasionally performed, and the comic operas of Gilbert and Sullivan are among the few 19th century British works that are still part of the repertoire.

The 20th century saw a renaissance in British music with the work of composers such as Delius, Hoist, Elgar, Vaughan Williams, Walton, Tippett, Maxwell Davies and Britten. Britten in particular came to be regarded as a specially "English" composer, partly through the English themes of several of his operas but also through the folk songs and church music that provided the inspiration for many of his other works.

There is now a flourishing musical life in Britain with more people going to concerts than ever before. The BBC plays an important part in the development of music both by commissioning new work and by supporting orchestras. The BBC Radio 3 programme, which is broadcast throughout the day and evening, is devoted mainly to music. Many British orchestras and musical groups have an international reputation. They include the London Philharmonic Orchestra (LPO), the London Symphony Orchestra (LSO), the BBC Symphony Orchestra, the Philharmonia, the Royal Liverpool Philharmonic, and others. Famous choirs include the Bach Choir and the Royal Choral Society. Music festivals held annually include those at Bath and Aldeburgh, and the Three Choirs Festival, held at Gloucester, Hereford and Worcester in turn. The popular series of Promenade Concerts held every summer in the Royal Albert Hall, London, are broadcast by the BBC.

At a more modest level, almost all schools and colleges have an orchestra, and many towns have a choral society. Music in the home is more likely to be listened to than played, but many homes have a piano.

(12) National Dress in Britain

Scottish National Dress

One of the most famous national costumes in the world is that worn in Scotland, the kilt, however some people say that the kilt is not as traditional as some would have it. Be that as it may it is certainly what people associate with Scotland, along with whisky and haggis that is. Some people consider it very bad luck to wear a kilt in a tartan that does not belong to your family.

Today traditional dress for men in Scotland is a kilt with shirt, waistcoat and tweed jacket, stockings with garter flashes, brogue shoes and a sporran. A bonnet is often worn displaying the clan crest. Traditionally ladies don't wear kilts, they do however wear dresses or pleated skirts in a tartan material. More often though they wear a light plaid or shawl of tartan material.

Welsh National Dress

Welsh National dress is relatively young and not as famous as Scottish National dress. Still they do have a National costume, but it's the way the ladies dress that is most well-known, in fact there isn't really a National costume for men although recently through the rise of nationalism in Wales a tartan has been created and tartan trousers or kilts are often worn.

For the ladies the typical Welsh costume consists of a hat, made of black felt, with a high crown and wide brim, which is worn over a lace cap. A red flannel shawl is worn over a crisp white blouse, and a full skirt made of wool with a black and white check pattern and a starched, white apron. Proper Welsh ladies always wore black woolen stockings and black shoes and carried a basket, made from willow withies.

(13) Two Great Artists: Leonardo and Michelangelo»

Many people admire the paintings and sculptures that artists create. Some very beautiful paintings and sculptures were created by two men who lived in the same country at the same time. These men were Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo. They both lived in Italy around the year 1500.

Leonardo da Vinci is most famous for his painting called the Mona Lisa. This is perhaps the best-known painting in the world. The Mona Lisa shows the head and shoulders of a dark-haired woman. When people look at this painting, they are often captivated by her smile and by her eyes, which have a look of mystery.

Another painting of Leonardo's is called The Last Supper. This painting shows a famous scene from the Christian religion. In this painting, Jesus Christ is seated at the middle of a long table, with his followers (the disciples) seated around him. Many of the paintings that were created at this time have a religious theme.

Leonardo was not only an artist; he was also interested in engineering. He actually worked for some time as an advisor to a military leader, helping him to develop new machines for use in war. Leonardo also made rough drawings of machines that are similar to those that were invented much later, such as submarines and helicopters. Obviously, Leonardo was an extremely creative man.

Michelangelo was about 23 years younger than Leonardo. In addition to being a painter, Michelangelo was also a sculptor, and many experts consider him the greatest sculptor of all time. One of his most famous sculptures is David, which is a statue of a young man who was a famous figure in the Bible. Another great sculpture of Michelangelo's is called the Pieta. The Pieta shows Mary, the mother of Jesus, holding the body of her son across her lap.

Michelangelo is also famous for painting the ceiling of a church known as the Sistine Chapel. The leader of the Roman Catholic Church, Pope Julius, asked Michelangelo to paint the ceiling of this new church. This project required many years of hard work, and the Pope complained that it took too long. However, when the work was finished, the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel was covered with beautiful paintings of many scenes from the Bible.

Fortunately, many of the works of Leonardo and of Michelangelo can still be seen today in the art galleries of Europe. During the past 500 years, the color of the paintings had faded somewhat, but in recent years, some work has been done to restore the paintings to their original appearance

(14) The Vikings

About a thousand years ago, people known as the Vikings were known and feared throughout Europe. The Vikings were the people of the northern part of Europe, called Scandinavia, which includes the modern countries of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. The Vikings made their living by farming and fishing. However, by about the year 700, they began making attacks, or raids, upon towns along the coasts of Europe in order to steal the wealth of those towns.

The Vikings made their attacks very quickly and without any warning. They were very cruel to the people of the towns they attacked, and they sometimes destroyed the towns by burning down the buildings. In some parts of Europe, the local kings would often fight against the Vikings. Sometimes, however, the kings would pay the Vikings in order to persuade them not to attack.

Although the Vikings were known as fierce warriors, they also built excellent ships. The wooden Viking ships, called longboats, were able to sail even in very bad weather. Many Viking longboats were about 20 metres long, but some were nearly 90 metres long. The Viking sailors used both sails and oars to move their ships.

The Vikings travelled across a large area. They made many of their attacks in Britain, France, and Germany, but sometimes sailed south, into the Mediterranean Sea. Other Vikings moved to the east, and then south along the rivers of Russia. Some even went as far as the area that is now the country of Turkey. In some places, the Vikings decided to stay. Many Vikings settled in England and in France, and eventually they mixed with the local people. Other Vikings settled in Russia and also mixed with the people there. The most famous travels of the Vikings were in the Atlantic Ocean. Vikings sailed westward to the island of Iceland where many of them stayed.

Today, the people of Iceland are descended from the Vikings. Some Vikings sailed farther west to the cold island of Greenland. Vikings lived in Greenland for several generations, but eventually they died out. Some Vikings had gone even further west and reached the Canadian island of Newfoundland. The Vikings only stayed for a few years, but they had reached North America about 500 years before Christopher Columbus!

Gradually, the Vikings became converted to the Christian religion. They also stopped raiding the towns of Europe, and instead of fighting, they began trading with their neighbors. Today, the Scandinavian countries are known as very peace-loving nations.

(15) The History of the English Language

Most people know that the English language is spoken by many millions of people around the world. However, few people are aware of the history of the English language. Today, English is one language, but in some ways it is a mixture of many different languages.

The English language is most closely related to a group of languages called the Germanic languages. This group also includes languages such as German and Dutch. About 1500 years ago, these languages were not yet distinct from each other. Some of the people of Germany and the Netherlands then moved to England.

Those people were called the Anglo-Saxons, and their language then evolved into English. Most of the basic words of the English language are derived from these very old Anglo-Saxon languages. For example, the words for the parts of the body, for numbers, and for animals are mostly Anglo-Saxon words.

Some new words were brought to England over 1000 years ago by people who came from the Scandinavian countries of northern Europe. Many words that begin with the letters “sk”, such as skin and skill, are Scandinavian words.

A major change happened in the English language after the year 1066. In that year, England was conquered by a king from the northern part of France. He and his followers spoke French, so French became an important language in England. During the next few hundred years, the English language absorbed a very large number of French words. In fact, today’s English dictionaries contain more words of French origin than of Anglo-Saxon origin. Part of the reason why the English language has so many words is that it often has two words for each idea-one word of Anglo-Saxon origin, and one word of French origin.

Many more words entered the English language a few hundred years ago, when science and technology became more widespread. Most scientific and technical words are derived from words of the ancient languages of Latin and Greek. Because there are so many of these scientific and technical words in the English language today, the influence of Latin and Greek has been quite large.

Other languages have also contributed many words to the English language. Some words have come from the Celtic languages, spoken in Ireland, Scotland, and Wales. Many words have been added to the English language by immigrants who came to North America from various countries of Europe. Also, many more words have been adopted from the Native languages of North America, Australia, and the Pacific, and from the languages of peoples in Africa and Asia. All of these words have made English a very interesting language!

(16) History of Buckingham Palace

George III bought Buckingham House in 1761 for his wife Queen Charlotte to use as a comfortable family home close to St James's Palace, where many court functions were held. Buckingham House became known as the Queen's House, and 14 of George III's 15 children were born there.

George IV, on his accession in 1820, decided to reconstruct the house into a pied-à-terre, using it for the same purpose as his father George III.

As work progressed, and as late as the end of 1826, The King had a change of heart. With the assistance of his architect, John Nash, he set about transforming the house into a palace. Parliament agreed to a budget of £150,000, but the King pressed for £450,000 as a more realistic figure. Nash retained the main block but doubled its size by adding a new suite of rooms on the garden side facing west. Faced with mellow Bath stone, the external style reflected the French neo-classical influence favoured by George IV.

The remodelled rooms are the State and semi-State Rooms, which remain virtually unchanged since Nash's time.

The north and south wings of Buckingham House were demolished and rebuilt on a larger scale with a triumphal arch - the Marble Arch - as the centrepiece of an enlarged courtyard, to commemorate the British victories at Trafalgar and Waterloo.

By 1829 the costs had escalated to nearly half a million pounds. Nash's extravagance cost him his job, and on the death of George IV in 1830, his younger brother William IV took on Edward Blore to finish the work. The King never moved into the Palace. Indeed, when the Houses of Parliament were destroyed by fire in 1834, the King offered the Palace as a new home for Parliament, but the offer was declined.

Queen Victoria was the first sovereign to take up residence in July 1837 and in June 1838 she was the first British sovereign to leave from Buckingham Palace for a Coronation. Her marriage to Prince Albert in 1840 soon showed up the Palace's shortcomings.

(17) What do we know about the British

Almost every nation has a reputation of some kind. The French are supposed to be amorous; the Germans dull, formal, efficient; the Americans boastful, energetic, gregarious and vulgar. The British have been known as superior, snobbish, aloof, hypocritical and unsociable. Though these characteristics have been noted by people from all over the world, the traditional opinion about British was based on the habits of those Britons, who could afford to travel: diplomats, merchants and those who were taught by public school their “stiff-upper-lip” philosophy. But the stereotype of the reserved Englishman is in many ways out of date.

An unusual geographical position of the country has produced a certain insular spirit among its inhabitants who tend, a little more than other people, to regard their own community as the centre of the world. The British look on foreigners in general with a slight contempt and think that nothing is as well done elsewhere as in their own country. That is why they are considered not a very hospitable nation.

Like any other nation or society; the British like to create an agreeable picture of themselves. They think that their important national values are tolerance, decency, moderation and consensus. The British pride themselves on fair play and a genius for compromise. As seen by outsiders, qualities of the typical British also include reserve and modesty, politeness and helpfulness and a gift for understatement.

But there is one quality of the British national character which remains indisputable. The British people are known to be profoundly conservative. They always prefer their glorious past with its reassurance to the uncertainty of the future. Their conservatism on a national scale may be illustrated by reference to the public attitude to the monarchy, an institution which is held in affection and reverence by nearly all British people, to the old traditions and ceremonies which are so carefully cherished.

The British are community-minded people. They have had a long tradition of democracy, not so much in the sense of creating formal institutions, but in the active sense of popular cooperation to uphold the will of the people. The British willingly participate in public affairs. There are plenty of charities officially registered with the government, and lots of voluntary organisations, including sports clubs, trade-unions, rambling clubs, protest groups and societies.

British people distrust generalizations. The British emphasize individuality because they hate the idea of appearing the same. Every regiment in the army, every school or university, many municipal corporations, clubs and other institutions tend to have their own uniform, traditions or their signs identifying them and making them different from others. The English seem to like defining themselves as members of small groups which they have, as individuals, helped to create. They tolerate eccentrics, difficult people and nonconformists in social behavior.

Privacy is important for them as well. “The Englishman’s home is his castle” is the saying known all over the world. The British people more strongly than other nations are attached to their country and to their homes. For them there is no place like home, there they feel most comfortable and their privacy is guaranteed.

(18) English Language Day

English Language Day is celebrated on 23 April. Read about where English came from, how it came to be spoken all over the world and how it is changing.

English Language Day was first celebrated in 2010, alongside Arabic Language Day, Chinese Language Day, French Language Day, Russian Language Day and Spanish Language Day. These are the six official languages of the United Nations, and each has a special day, designed to raise awareness of the history, culture and achievements of these languages.

This day was chosen because it is thought to be Shakespeare's birthday, and the anniversary of his death. As well as being the English language's most famous playwright, Shakespeare also had a huge impact on modern-day English. At the time he was writing, in the 16th and 17th centuries, the English language was going through a lot of changes and Shakespeare's creativity with language meant he contributed hundreds of new words and phrases that are still used today. For example, the words 'gossip', 'fashionable' and 'lonely' were all first used by Shakespeare. He also invented phrases like 'break the ice', 'all our yesterdays', 'faint-hearted' and 'love is blind'. Can you guess what they mean?

The story of the English language began in the fifth century when Germanic tribes invaded Celtic-speaking Britain and brought their languages with them. Later, Scandinavian Vikings invaded and settled with their languages too. In 1066 William I, from modern-day France, became king, and Norman-French became the language of the courts and official activity. People couldn’t understand each other at first, because the lower classes continued to use English while the upper classes spoke French, but gradually French began to influence English. An estimated 45 per cent of all English words have a French origin. By Shakespeare's time, Modern English had developed, printing had been invented and people had to start to agree on 'correct' spelling and vocabulary.

The spread of English all over the world has an ugly history but a rich and vibrant present. During the European colonial period, several European countries, including England, competed to expand their empires. They stole land, labour and resources from people across Africa, Asia, the Americas and Oceania. By the time former British colonies began to gain independence in the mid-20th century, English had become established in their institutions. Many brilliant writers from diverse places across Africa, the Caribbean and Asia had started writing in English, telling their stories of oppression. People from all over the world were using English to talk and write about justice, equality, freedom and identity from their own perspectives. The different varieties of English created through this history of migration and colonisation are known as World Englishes.

(19) Oxford University

Oxford is a beautiful town on the River Thames about fifty miles from London. Some people say it is more beautiful than any other city in England. Oxford University was founded in the 12th century as an aristocratic university and has remained so to the present day.

The University consists of 32 colleges – 27 colleges for men and 5 colleges for women. There are 16 faculties there. Each college is a completely autonomous body, governed by its own laws. A large college has about 500 students, a small one – about a hundred. Several colleges say they are the oldest, but no other college is as old as Merton, which began in 1264.

The term of studies lasts for 10 weeks. There are 3 terms in the Oxford academic year. Within the first week the freshman meets his tutor who tells the student about his plans, the lectures which he must take, about the requirements for the examination which he will take, about the course of reading for him. Attendance at lectures is not compulsory. Once every week each undergraduate goes to his tutor's room to read out an essay which he has written and discuss this essay with the tutor. At the beginning or end of each term the progress of the students is tested by the college examinations. They pay great attention to athletics at the University. The students are engaged in different kinds of sports, take part in competitions between Oxford and Cambridge Universities. This is how a student spends his day. His working hours are from 9 to 1. At 9 o'clock he sees his tutor or goes to the library, or attends lectures. From 2 to 5 he is engaged in sports and all kinds of exercise. From 5 to 7 he works in the library or laboratory. At 7 o'clock they have dinner-time. After dinner the students have club activities, debating societies, etc. By 10 o'clock the students must be in the college, as most of students live in the colleges, only some of them live in lodgings in the town. The doors of Oxford University are not open to all. The majority of the students are graduates of private schools, so Oxford University remains an aristocratic university to the present day.

(20) University education in Great Britain

There are more than 60 universities in Britain. But not all universities are equal. They differ from one another in history, tradition, academic organization. Not all British universities have a well-known reputation. Oxford and Cambridge, the oldest universities, are world-known for their academic excellence.

The University of London has the size and breadth to rank among the UK`s top universities. A university usually consists of colleges. The departments of the colleges are organized into faculties.

University teaching in the UK differs greatly at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels from that in many other countries. An undergraduate programme consists of a series of lectures, seminars, tutorials and laboratory classes which in total account for about 15 hours per week.

Following a particular programme students take series of lecture courses which may last one academic term or the whole year. Associated with each lecture course are seminars, tutorials, laboratory classes which illustrate the topics presented in the lectures.

Lectures are given to large groups of students (from 20 to 200). Seminars and tutorials are much smaller than lecture classes and in some departments can be on a one-to-one basis (one member of staff and one student).

Students prepare work in advance for seminars and tutorials. And this can take the form of a topic for discussion by writing essays or by solving problems.

Lectures, seminars and tutorials are all one hour in length, laboratory classes last two or three hours. Each student has a tutor whom he can consult on any matter whether academic or personal.

The academic year is split into three terms. Formal teaching takes place in the first two terms which last for twenty four weeks in total. The third term is reserved for classes and examinations and lasts for six weeks.

Universities teach in all major subject areas: arts, science, law, engineering, medicine, social sciences.

University staff are chosen for the best knowledge in their subject. The teaching encourages students to learn in the most effective way. University degree courses extend from three to four years. After three years of study at the University graduates will leave with the Degree of Bachelor of Arts or Science. They can continue to take their Master`s Degree and then the Doctor`s Degree.

(21) St Patrick – Bishop of the Irish

St Patrick is the Patron Saint of Ireland and is credited with having established Christianity in the country more than 1500 years ago.

His story is partly fact, partly legend and partly and merging of the two. In popular imagination, he is remembered for supposedly ridding the country of snakes. He is said to have explained the concept of the Holy Trinity by likening it to a shamrock, and in the process turning a small clover into a symbol for Ireland.

He is said to have debated with Celtic druids and talked with mythical Celtic figures in stories, which are highly entertaining if not reliable.

What is certain is that he orchestrated the seismic shift that saw Ireland abandon the pagan religions that had dominated the country for centuries, and adopt the Christian religion that would dominate it for centuries to come.

A well-known fact from his biography is that the Roman church in Britain appointed him Bishop of the Irish, and sent him to nurture and expand Ireland's growing Christian community.

Patrick says virtually nothing about his achievements in Ireland and his humility means it is difficult to establish when he arrived, what he did and where he visited.

However, most scholars believe he arrived back in Ireland in 432 and spent most of his time working in the north. He established the diocese of Armagh which was to be a major seat of Christianity for centuries to come.

He also preached tirelessly across the region and was particularly prominent in Templepatrick, Saul, Downpatrick, Lough Derg and Croagh Patrick – all of which became closely associated with him and in some cases took his name.

Christianity survived and thrived thanks to the work of St Patrick but the church structure he established did not. He had tried to set up a diocesan structure based on parishes. This worked well in Europe but not in Ireland because there were no towns on which to base it.

After St Patrick's death, the church took a different turn with monasteries being the main centres rather than parishes and dioceses. This became the norm in Ireland for several centuries.

St Patrick gave Christianity a firm foundation in Ireland that survives to this day. In the process he became national icon whose name is synonymous with Ireland. St Patrick’s Day is celebrated all across the world, and although those celebrations have little to do with religion, they still show how important a figure St Patrick is to Ireland.

(22) British Colonial Expansion in the 17th century

When James VI of Scotland became also James I of England his actual dominion did not include a single acre of soil outside the British Isles. Ninety-nine years later, when William III died, the whole of the North American seaboard between the French Acadia on the North and the Spanish Florida on the South was occupied by British colonists.

Still farther north, beyond the French Canada, England claimed possession of the Hudson Bay territory or Prince Rupert's Land. Also she was in possession of sundry islands, and the East India Company had established a footing on the Indian Peninsula. Her colonial system was in full play, and her Indian Empire was in the germ.

The conception of an Imperial England overseas, had been born in the brains of Humphrey Gilbert and Walter Raleigh while the Virgin Queen still sat on the throne of England and the world still counted Spain, which had annexed the Portuguese Empire, mistress of the seas. But Raleigh's attempts to found the colony which he called Virginia had failed woefully. The Elizabethans were still too eager in the pursuit of short cuts to wealth.

Those who were venturesome preferred preying upon Spanish galleons to settling down to a toilsome battle with nature in new lands which produced no gold nor silver nor precious stones. But, as in ancient days, the Dane, baulked of his robbing propensities, sought to satisfy his greed of gain by commerce, the Englishman, when he could no longer spoil the Spaniard, bethought himself of turning the New World to commercial account.

In 1606 a commercial company was formed, which procured a charter for the colonisation of Virginia; for, after a vague fashion, England had asserted a claim to the territories which lay north of the Spanish possessions. The company was granted what were practically sovereign rights over a vast and undefined region (subject to the English crown).

The company's settlement at Jamestown formed the nucleus of the colony of Virginia. Here there was no native empire to be subdued, such as the Spaniards had found in Mexico and Peru, or such as that which dominated India. The native tribes were elevated only a degree above barbarism; they knew no cities, were still half nomadic, and had no political organisation higher than that of the tribe. But such an experiment as this of the English had no precedent in the world's history.

(23) The culture shock of being an international student

For any student, moving away from home can be a bit scary. But I did not expect student life in Scotland to be all that different from my home of the Netherlands. After all, we get the same news and TV shows online. Many students find the northwest climate can affect them a lot. You may find the grayness and dampness, especially during the winter months, difficult to get used to. However, when I moved from Amsterdam to study at the University of Stirling, I began to realise that a few minor issues were catching me off balance. I was suffering a minor cultural shock.

In my first year, I quickly found out my English was not as good as I had assumed. Most of my roommates were born and raised in Scotland, and I constantly found myself having to ask people to repeat themselves. Their Scottish accents did not help and I was mispronouncing names and places all the time. I also got confused about minor cultural things. Much to my flatmates' amusement, it took me two Christmases to figure out that mince pies are not actually filled with minced beef.

The linguistic barrier meant that public transport was tricky at first. I found the lack of information about bus prices and how and where to get tickets really surprising. It turned a simple 15-minute journey into a daunting task.

Then I had to adjust to a new social life. I was surprised by the campus culture in the UK – in the Netherlands, most universities don't have one main campus where you can attend university, as well as live and exercise all in the same place. But here, you never have to leave campus if you don't want to. I had to adapt to everyone being so close to each other all the time.

Parties are different here too. In the Netherlands, the less effort you put into getting ready, the better. I'd normally slip on my trusty Converse shoes, along with some clothes I could get away with wearing to class tomorrow, and wear minimal make-up. But, in my experience, partying is more formal in the UK. Your make-up needs to be flawless and your hair needs to be immaculate. You'll preferably be wearing a dress and heels, too. I was constantly having to borrow clothes off my friends just to fit in. Parties finish early and everyone just wanders off, whereas in my country that would be the time I'd leave the house.

But it is not all early closing times and strange pastries. Social behaviours may also confuse, surprise or offend you. For example, you may find people appear cold, distant or always in a hurry. Cultures are built on deeply-embedded sets of values, norms, assumptions and beliefs. It can be surprising and sometimes distressing to find that people do not share some of your most deeply held ideas, as most of us take our core values and beliefs for granted and assume they are universally held.

However, I have found lots of pleasant surprises in the UK too – and so have many other international students I know. My friend Agnes was taken aback by how sociable people are. She says she was shocked when complete strangers started talking to her at the bus stop. I, personally, was surprised by how smartly male students in Stirling dress compared to my home country.

Culture shock can knock your confidence in the beginning. But you are not alone in taking time to adapt, and soon you start to come to grips with all experiences. Studies suggest that taking a gap year or studying abroad can positively influence your brain to make you more outgoing and open to new ideas. Looking back, most of the ones I experienced made good stories to tell my friends.

(24) The Woman suffrage movement

The woman suffrage movement actually began in 1848, when a women's rights convention was held in Seneca Falls, New York. The Seneca Falls meeting was not the first in support of women's rights, but suffragists later viewed it as the meeting that launched the suffrage movement. For the next 50 years, woman suffrage supporters worked to educate the public about the validity of woman suffrage. Under the leadership of Susan B. Anthony, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, and other women's rights pioneers, suffragists circulated petitions and lobbied Congress to pass a constitutional amendment to enfranchise women.

At the turn of the century, women reformers in the club movement and in the settlement house movement wanted to pass reform legislation. However, many politicians were unwilling to listen to a disenfranchised group. Thus, over time women began to realize that in order to achieve reform, they needed to win the right to vote. For these reasons, at the turn of the century, the woman suffrage movement became a mass movement.

In the 20th century leadership of the suffrage movement passed to two organizations. The first, the National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA), under the leadership of Carrie Chapman Catt, was a moderate organization. The NAWSA undertook campaigns to enfranchise women in individual states, and simultaneously lobbied President Wilson and Congress to pass a woman suffrage Constitutional Amendment. In the 1910s, NAWSA's membership numbered in the millions.

The second group, the National Woman's Party (NWP), under the leadership of Alice Paul, was a more militant organization. The NWP undertook radical actions, including picketing the White House, in order to convince Wilson and Congress to pass a woman suffrage amendment.

In 1920, due to the combined efforts of the NAWSA and the NWP, the 19th Amendment, enfranchising women, was finally ratified. This victory is considered the most significant achievement of women in the Progressive Era. It was the single largest extension of democratic voting rights in our nation's history, and it was achieved peacefully, through democratic processes.

(25) A History of Christmas in the British Isles

Although if you ask the average Briton what they associate with Christmas they may say snow, robins and Christmas gifts, the days leading up to 25 December have not always been this way.

Although Christmas takes its name from the birth of Christ, and is therefore thought of as a religious festival, many of its traditions stem from the mid-winter customs that were practised in pre-Christian Britain.

During the reign of Elizabeth I, food became a central aspect of Christmas celebrations. The banqueting course – also referred to as sweetmeat – was the finale to an elaborate meal in aristocratic households and used to display wealth. Sugar, which was increasingly being imported from the West and East Indies, was an expensive delicacy at the time, and it formed the main ingredient of these opulent dishes.

The domestic Christmas scene, and the many symbols associated with it, emerged during the reign of Victoria. In 1848 an illustration from Illustrated London News showed the royal family gathered around their tree. Other traditions that emerged during the period included:

Christmas crackers, which were invented by ingenious confectioner's apprentice Tom Smith

Christmas cards, which first appeared in the 1840s Father Christmas, who some believe originated from the Norse god Odin, but who is also a culmination of European figures such as St Nicholas and the Dutch Sinterklaas.

2 семестр

Тексты социо-культурной направленности

(1) 5 Reasons Why Online Learning is the Future of Education

There's no need to discount the skepticism surrounding education through the internet. It's hard to understand the notion of leaving behind the conventional classroom, especially if it's to face this vast space called The Internet.

However, that's not reason enough to shy away from this alternative, which has proven to be valid and useful for many students. According to the most recent survey from Babson Survey Research Group, over 30 percent of higher education students in the United States are taking at least one distance course. Online education is a sensible choice whether you're a teenager or an adult. As a student, this can be a useful learning method for sharpening your skills in a difficult subject, or learning a new skill.

There are five more reasons why a student should get involved in online education.

1. It's flexible.

Online education enables the teacher and the student to set their own learning pace, and there's the added flexibility of setting a schedule that fits everyone's agenda. As a result, using an online educational platform allows for a better balance of work and studies, so there's no need to give anything up.

2. It offers a wide selection of programs.

In a space as vast and wide as the internet, there are infinite skills and subjects to teach and learn. A growing number of universities and higher education schools are offering online versions of their programs for various levels and disciplines. From music composition to quantum physics, there are options for every type of student. Studying your program online is also a great option for getting an official certificate, diploma, or degree without physically setting foot on a university campus.

3. It's accessible.

Online education enables you to study or teach from anywhere in the world. This means there's no need to commute from one place to another, or follow a rigid schedule. On top of that, not only do you save time, but you also save money, which can be spent on other priorities.

4. It allows for a customized learning experience.

Online classes tend to be smaller than conventional class size. Most of the time, online learning platforms only allow one student at a time, and in almost all cases, this allows for greater interaction and more feedback between you and your tutor.

There’s often access to very diverse material such as videos, photos, and eBooks online as well, and tutors can also integrate other formats like forums or discussions to improve their lessons. And this extra content is available at any moment from anywhere, which will offer you a more dynamic and tailor-made education.

5. It’s more cost-effective than traditional education.

Unlike in-person education methods, online education tends to be more affordable. There’s also often a wide range of payment options that let you pay in installments or per class. This allows for better budget management. Many of you may also be subject to discounts or scholarships, so the price is rarely high. You can also save money from the commute and class materials, which are often available for free. In other words, the monetary investment is less, but the results can be better than other options.

(2) Travel Addiction is a Real Thing

Many people say they are addicted to travel, but the difference between being a travel fanatic and being a travel addict lies in what happens when you return home.

“It can be an addiction. Whether this is a medical condition depends primarily on how it affects your life,” explains Dr. Art Markman, a cognitive science specialist. “If the lows you experience after travel are so bad that you can’t really function in the rest of your life, then you want to get some help to deal with it. If you have to travel in ways that eat into the budget you need for life’s necessities, then that is a sign you should get some help.” On the other hand, he says, “if you don’t feel that your life is unmanageable, despite your real need to travel, then you are probably just at the extreme end of a continuum that includes lots of travelers.”

Sarah Bentley, a 28 year old former travel agent, explained that she feels the anxiety hit while she’s still traveling. “It almost impedes my trip because as my departure nears, my stomach forms knots and my mood completely shifts,” Bentley said. “I start to shut down before I get home, as a means to prepare myself I guess,” she adds, “which actually just makes the first week back even worse. By the time I’m leaving, the anxiety is so bad that I cry the entire flight back and am usually physically ill by the time I get home, with nothing to blame but my mental state. The next week involves a lot of anger and frustration.”

Many academic studies address compulsive travel as a “behavioral addiction.” There are three elements to a compulsive behavior that make it a behavioral addiction, according to a study on compulsive consumption: a drive or urge to engage in the particular behavior, denial of the harmful consequences of the behavior, and failure in attempts to modify the behavior.

Travel addicts feel an intense urge to travel. There are definitely times when taking a trip can be harmful in more ways than one (think terrorism, environmental effects, monetary restraints), but we still hop on a plane, mostly because we are in denial of the negative effects travel might have on our lives. The terms “dromomania,” “hypermobility,” and “binge-flying” have all been coined by researchers and authors to unofficially to describe an addiction to travel.

Why do travel addicts feel so depressed when they get home? I am extremely happy with my home life; I love my job, my friends, and my lifestyle. Plus, I travel every other month. So if I have no reason to dread coming home, why are those first few days after a trip so miserable for me? “It seems that after you finish traveling, you find it hard to engage any other goals,” Markman says. “You have planned a trip, and you have had a set of wonderful experiences, and now it’s over. The combination of being drained from the trip and having focused your life and preparations on this particular trip make it difficult to really engage any other significant goals. So, for at least a week after, you feel aimless,” he nailed it. “That is actually quite normal,” Markman says. “It is hard to switch gears immediately from a great experience to return to the routine of life. It takes some time to readjust to life after the big event you have planned for.”

According to Markman, the reason travel addicts are never satisfied is because, “Whenever you achieve a goal, there is an initial sense of satisfaction, but quickly your brain looks for something else to do.” Travel is a real “process goal,” Markman says. “There is not a particular outcome you are seeking, but rather a process you love, which in this case is travel planning,” he explains. The problem is that “you expect that the trip itself will have some set of outcomes that will create a sense of completion for you.”

If our daily lives make it impossible to travel whenever we want, we need to find ways to make our daily lives as exciting as our travel lives. Pretend you are traveling in your hometown, try an activity that you would normally try only when traveling, take some day trips, learn to cook exotic foods. There are many ways to make your daily life mirror your travel life so that you can get a little bit of that high that travel gives you without actually traveling.

(3) The Gherkin: 30 St Mary Axe

30 St. Mary Axe is a 40 story building in the St. Mary Axe area of London. It is recognised as one of the more distinctive skyscrapers in the financial district of London and it stands on the former site of the Baltic Exchange building. Its form is so unique, that it has been given the nickname "the Gherkin."

The building was designed by famed architect Norman Foster of the Foster and Partners architectural firm. The Foster and Partners firm has worked on such renowned buildings as the renovated Reichstag in Berlin, London City Hall, and Wembley Stadium. They are known for their innovative approach to design that stands out particularly well against the more conservative nature of most of London's buildings.

The Gherkin is essentially an elongated, curved, shaft with a rounded end that is reminiscent of a stretched egg. It is covered uniformly around the outside with glass panels and is rounded off at the corners. It has a lens-like dome at the top that serves as a type of observation deck.

The design of the Gherkin is heavily steeped in energy efficiency and there are a number of building features that enhance its efficiency. There were open shafts built in between each floor that act as ventilation for the building and they require no energy for use. The shafts pull warm air out of the building during the summer and use passive heat from the sun to bring heat into the building during the winter. These open shafts also allow available sunlight to penetrate deep into the building to cut down on light costs. It has been said that 30 St. Mary Axe uses only half of the energy that a similarly-sized tower would use.

The beginning of the Gherkin's birth starts in 1992 as an explosion rocked the financial district of London. The Provisional IRA detonated an explosive device near the Baltic Exchange and catastrophically injured the building. The building was torn down and city officials decided to put a larger tower in its place.

The Gherkin began as a much larger building that was dubbed the "Millennium Tower" but which failed to materialise. The original design of the building raised fears that it could negatively impact air traffic from Heathrow. There were also concerns that it may interfere with the sight-lines of St. Paul's Dome from certain parts of the city. Once the original design was shot down, Norman Foster created the scaled-down version that now sits at 30 St Mary Axe.

Construction began in 2001 and the Gherkin was finished in December of 2003. It didn't open for the public until almost half of a year later.

Today, the Gherkin is primarily an office building. It is the headquarters of many large companies including Swiss Re and some of the offices of Sky News. Some very popular television shows and radio shows are filmed here or near this building today.

(4) The struggle of the Roman Catholic church and Henry VIII

The English Reformation started in the reign of Henry VIII. The English Reformation was to have far reaching consequences in Tudor England. Henry VIII decided to rid himself of his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, after she had failed to produce a male heir to the throne. He had already decided who his next wife would be – Anne Boleyn. By 1527, Catherine was considered too old to have any more children.

However, a divorce was not a simple issue. In fact, it was a very complicated one. Henry VIII was a Roman Catholic and the head of this church was the pope based in Rome.

The Roman Catholic faith believed in marriage for life. It did not recognize, let alone support, divorce. Those who were widowed were free to re-marry; this was an entirely different issue. But husbands could not simply decide that their marriage was not working, divorce their wife and re-marry. The Roman Catholic Church simply did not allow it.

This put Henry VIII in a difficult position. If he went ahead and announced that as king of England he was allowing himself a divorce, the pope could excommunicate him. This meant that under Catholic Church law, your soul could never get to Heaven. To someone living at the time of Henry, this was a very real fear, and a threat which the Catholic Church used to keep people under its control.

Another approach Henry used was to make a special appeal to the pope so that he might get a special "Papal Dispensation". This meant that the pope would agree to Henry's request for a divorce purely because Henry was king of England but that it would not affect the way the Catholic Church banned divorce for others. The pope refused to grant Henry this and by 1533 his anger was such that he ordered the Archbishop of Canterbury to grant him a divorce so that he could marry Anne Boleyn.

The Archbishop granted Henry his divorce – against the wishes of the pope. But what else could the archbishop do if he wanted to remain on good terms with Henry?

This event effectively lead to England breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church based in Rome. Henry placed himself as head of the church and in that sense, in his eyes, his divorce was perfectly legal. In 1533, few were brave enough to tell him otherwise!

How did the people of England react to this? In fact, the vast bulk of the population were very angry at the way the Roman Catholic Church had used them as a source of money. To get married you had to pay; to get a child baptised (which you needed to be if you were to go to Heaven – so the Catholic Church preached) you had to pay; you even had to pay the Church to bury someone on their land (which you had to do as your soul could only go to Heaven if you were buried on Holy Ground). Therefore, the Catholic Church was very wealthy while many poor remained just that….poor. Their money was going to the Catholic Church. Therefore, there were no great protests throughout the land as many felt that Henry would ease up on taking money from them. Henry knew of the Catholic Church's unpopularity and, therefore, used this to his advantage.

Henry was made Supreme Head of the Church by an Act of Parliament in 1534. The country was still Catholic but the pope's power had been ended.

(5) England's Newest Tourist Attraction

Are you planning a visit to England? Are you thinking to yourself, “What shall we do in England? Are there any really special places that we must go to when we are there?” You are? Good, then this podcast is for you.

When you are in England, you could visit the Tower of London. But everyone visits the Tower of London. Or you could spend a day in Stratford-on-Avon, where Shakespeare was born. But everyone goes to Stratford. No, England’s newest tourist attraction is the M25 Motorway, which is the motorway that runs in a circle around London. It is 188 kilometers long; it is Britain’s busiest motorway, and one of the busiest roads in Europe. A bus company in Brighton now offers coach trips round the M25, and business is brisk. It seems that lots of people like nothing more than sitting in a coach on a motorway. So let us pay £15 for our ticket, and board the coach which will take us on this amazing adventure.

We head north from Brighton to the motorway, and then drive down the slip road. There are of course two possible ways that we can travel around the M25. We can turn left and travel clockwise, or we can turn right and travel anticlockwise. Today the driver decides to take us anticlockwise. As well as the driver, there is a guide on the coach who tells us about the interesting things we can see – things like “junctions” and “road signs”. The motorway today is busy, but not yet congested. We are a little bit disappointed by this. We hoped that we would find a traffic jam, because the M25 is famous for its traffic jams. Indeed, some people call the M25 the “largest car park in Britain”. Never mind, there is still a long way to go, and maybe we will find a traffic jam later.

Now the coach is taking us around the south-east edge of London. Soon we will come to the River Thames. Because we are travelling anticlockwise, we go under the river in a tunnel. Traffic going the other way crosses the river on a bridge. We have to pay a toll to use the river crossing. In the rush hour, there can be long delays at the toll booths, but today we only have to wait about 10 minutes.

And then, the highlight of our tour! Signs over the motorway tell us that there has been an “incident”. An “incident” means, simply, something which has happened. Generally, we use it to mean something unusual or unpleasant. “Incident” is the sort of word which the police use when they don’t want to tell us anything. So, what sort of incident could it be? An accident involving three lorries and twenty cars perhaps? Or a gunfight with a gang of armed criminals? Or a cow, which has escaped from its field and run onto the motorway? But when we reach the “incident”, there is nothing to see but a broken-down lorry and a police car.

Then we turn off the motorway, and soon we are back in Brighton. The passengers say thank you to our driver and our guide, and get off the coach to be greeted by their families and friends who are waiting for them. Our adventure by coach around the M25 has taken us only four hours, but we will carry the happy memories with us for the rest of our lives. If you have an equally wonderful tourist experience in your country, why not leave a comment on the website to tell us about it.

(6) William Wallace and the First War of Scottish Independence

A great strife engulfed the Kingdom of Scotland by the end of the 13th century. The benevolent and prosperous rulership of King Alexander III ended abruptly when he fell off the horse and broke his neck in an accident. He’s left no heir, and his distant relative, a child queen Margaret, who was to succeed him in usual circumstances, has also died of mysterious illness.

Thus began the period of Scottish history that later would earn a moniker of the Great Cause. More than 100 judges were appointed to oversee the contenders who were feuding for a vacant Scottish throne. One of the most promising claimants, John Balliol, has forged an alliance with a representative of English king Edward I, also known as Edward Longshanks. No man could foresee that this presumably clever idea would soon throw both nations into a 30-years long war.

King Edward I has already sought to extend his dominion over Scotland for quite a long time. Him supporting John Balliol was but an attempt to turn Scotland into a vassal state that would help him wage a war with France. Not very surprisingly, King Edward was outraged when John, who by that time had won in the Great Cause and was himself a king, allowed the leading men of his kingdom to make a quick alliance with France and abandon any allegiance to King Edward whatsoever. An inevitable English invasion was soon to follow.

As Scotland was losing one major battle after another, many Scottish nobles across the country were forced to swear fealty to Edward I. But for any such noble, an uprising would start elsewhere, and each such uprising would have its own leader to emerge. One of such leaders was a Scottish knight, sir William Wallace.

Wallace had risen to prominence first when he led an attack on an English garrison in a small town of Lanark. Together with his men he managed to kill a sheriff who'd enforce English law, and escape with a woman, who, as contemporary sources seem to imply, was his wife and who's helped him to stage an attack. This was a very daring strike against English authority and soon enough many rebels across the country have sought Wallace and rallied under his banners. William has even managed to gain the blessing of Scottish church, thus, by medieval standards, gaining some degree of relative legitimacy.

His most famous battle though was the one of the Stirling Bridge. Extremely outnumbered, under the leadership of Wallace the Scottish army has managed to hold and eventually route an elite cadre of English troops. The battle commenced on a small wooden bridge over the river Forth, which could let only three men or two horses cross it shoulder to shoulder. As English army was busy crossing, Wallace waited in ambush behind the hill overseeing the bridge. When there was no more room for a crossing army to retreat, but it was still not quite ready for a fight, Wallace and his men hailed[7] upon unsuspecting invaders and massacred them. The bulk of English army that was still waiting to cross the bridge, seeing the events unfolding at the other side, decided to destroy the bridge and retreat. Subsequently it was scattered and many supply wagons were captured by Scottish army. What was thought to be a victory march for English turned into a humiliating defeat that left a large swath of territory in the hands of Scottish and encouraged the rebels to fight for many more years.

William Wallace was captured by English knights on August 5, 1305. He was tried by English court, found guilty of high treason and sentenced to be hanged, drawn and quartered. But the First War of Scottish Independence was still fought by many other Scottish patriots throughout the land, and formally ended in 1328 with a treaty that confirmed Scottish independence, almost 25 years after his death.

(7) Magna Carta

Following a revolt by the English nobility against his rule, King John puts his royal seal on Magna Carta, or "the Great Charter," on June 15, 1215. The document, essentially a peace treaty between John and his barons, guaranteed that the king would respect feudal rights and privileges, uphold the freedom of the church, and maintain the nation's laws. Although more a reactionary than a progressive document in its day, Magna Carta was seen as a cornerstone in the development of democratic England by later generations.

John was enthroned as king of England following the death of his brother, King Richard the Lion-Hearted, in 1199. King John's reign was characterized by failure. He lost the duchy of Normandy to the French king and taxed the English nobility heavily to pay for his foreign misadventures. He quarreled with Pope Innocent III and sold church offices to build up the depleted royal coffers. Following the defeat of a campaign to regain Normandy in 1214, Stephen Langton, the archbishop of Canterbury, called on the disgruntled barons to demand a charter of liberties from the king.

In 1215, the barons rose up in rebellion against the king's abuse of feudal law and custom. John, faced with a superior force, had no choice but to give in to their demands. Earlier kings of England had granted concessions to their feudal barons, but these charters were vaguely worded and issued voluntarily. The document drawn up for John in June 1215, however, forced the king to make specific guarantees of the rights and privileges of his barons and the freedom of the church. On June 15, 1215, John met the barons at Runnymede on the Thames and set his seal to the Articles of the Barons, which after minor revision was formally issued as Magna Carta.

The charter consisted of a preamble and 63 clauses and dealt mainly with feudal concerns that had little impact outside 13th century England. However, the document was remarkable in that it implied there were laws the king was bound to observe, thus precluding any future claim to absolutism by the English monarch. Of greatest interest to later generations was clause 39, which stated that "no free man shall be arrested or imprisoned or disseised [dispossessed] or outlawed or exiled or in any way victimised…except by the lawful judgment of his peers or by the law of the land." This clause has been celebrated as an early guarantee of trial by jury and of habeas corpus and inspired England's Petition of Right (1628) and the Habeas Corpus Act (1679).

In immediate terms, Magna Carta was a failure—civil war broke out the same year, and John ignored his obligations under the charter. Upon his death in 1216, however, Magna Carta was reissued with some changes by his son, King Henry III, and then reissued again in 1217. That year, the rebellious barons were defeated by the king's forces. In 1225, Henry III voluntarily reissued Magna Carta a third time, and it formally entered English statute law.

(8) University education in Great Britain

There are more than 60 universities in Britain. But not all universities are equal. They differ from one another in history, tradition, academic organization. Not all British universities have a well-known reputation. Oxford and Cambridge, the oldest universities, are world-known for their academic excellence.

The University of London has the size and breadth to rank among the UK`s top universities. A university usually consists of colleges. The departments of the colleges are organized into faculties.

University teaching in the UK differs greatly at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels from that in many other countries. An undergraduate programme consists of a series of lectures, seminars, tutorials and laboratory classes which in total account for about 15 hours per week.

Following a particular programme students take series of lecture courses which may last one academic term or the whole year. Associated with each lecture course are seminars, tutorials, laboratory classes which illustrate the topics presented in the lectures.

Lectures are given to large groups of students (from 20 to 200). Seminars and tutorials are much smaller than lecture classes and in some departments can be on a one-to-one basis (one member of staff and one student). Students prepare work in advance for seminars and tutorials. And this can take the form of a topic for discussion by writing essays or by solving problems. Lectures, seminars and tutorials are all one hour in length, laboratory classes last two or three hours. Each student has a tutor whom he can consult on any matter whether academic or personal.

The academic year is split into three terms. Formal teaching takes place in the first two terms which last for twenty four weeks in total. The third term is reserved for classes and examinations and lasts for six weeks.

Universities teach in all major subject areas: arts, science, law, engineering, medicine, social sciences.

University staff are chosen for the best knowledge in their subject. The teaching encourages students to learn in the most effective way. University degree courses extend from three to four years. After three years of study at the University graduates will leave with the Degree of Bachelor of Arts or Science. They can continue to take their Master`s Degree and then the Doctor`s Degree.

(9) Environmental protection

Environmental protection refers to any measure that is taken to conserve, maintain or preserve the state of the environment. Protection of the environment can be done through reducing pollutants or anything that leads to its degradation.

Conservation of the environment aims at keeping it safe and healthy. It aims at the reduction of overusing the natural resources. It is the taking care of all the components that make up the environment. Preserving is also used hand in hand with the term conserving. Environmental preservation refers practices that do not alter the environment. It aims at keeping the environment unchanged so as to leave it intact.

When the environment is protected it serves to benefit all those who rely on it. It serves in the maintenance of life for the plants, humans and animals.

The environment has suffered due to the scientific inventions. A lot has been discovered over the years. Many of these inventions tend to be harmful to the environment, though it is a way of the human race trying to make their life better. Factories have been built in so many places around the world. The emission of harmful gases into the air is on the increase. The dredging of oil in the sea is also another case. Trees are being cut down to create space for more land. With all this going on, the environment remains at or mercy for protection.

The first thing everyone with a good amount of money is thinking about is how to get a car. The purchase of cars has grown over the years. The worst part is that there are not many cars that are environment friendly. Most of them use fuel which when burnt, releases carbon into the air. Factories are also playing a role in this. Carbon gases are not in any way friendly to the environment and this is why we need to protect it.

The chemicals that go into making plastics is highly toxic and it poses serious threats to the environment. Burning of plastics during their production and even after use releases toxic fumes into the air. The toxins can also leak into the soil and ground water causing contamination. This makes it difficult to grow plants and even pose a challenge to hormones in many living things. Biodiversity is important.

For the environment to be a better place to live, biodiversity has to be a part of it. In science it is said that during the day, plants use carbon dioxide, while humans breathe in oxygen and breathe out carbon dioxide. This is a form of exchange plan. Plants help to reduce carbon dioxide in the air, which in turn benefits humans. Each living has a role to play in the environment. It makes the world a better place to live in.

(10) Voting system of the Russian Federation

The voting system of the Russian Federation combines several types of electoral systems

In accordance with the Constitution of the Russian Federation, 450 members (deputies) are elected to the State Duma for a term of five years. Deputies are elected by Russian citizens eligible to cast a vote on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

Elections of members of the State Duma are appointed by the President of the Russian Federation. The decision to call elections shall be made no earlier than 110 days and no later than 90 days before voting day. The voting day is the third Sunday of the month when the term of the previous State Duma expires. The term of the new State Duma starts on the voting date. The last elections during which the State Dima of the 7th convocation was elected were held on September 18, 2016.

Nowadays a mixed voting system is applied in Russia. 225 deputies, this is a half of the total number, are elected by majority voting in single-mandate constituencies (one constituency is one deputy), and the second half is elected by a proportional representation with a 5% barrier in a single federal district.

The number of votes cast for a federal list of candidates is defined as the sum of votes cast in each region of the Russian Federation and abroad. The federal constituency covers the entire territory of the Russian Federation.

Single-mandate constituencies are formed by dividing the total number of voters registered in Russia by 225 (the total number of single-mandate constituencies).

The decision to nominate a federal list of candidates, as well as to nominate candidates to single-mandate constituencies is taken by secret ballot at a congress of a political party.

A political party has the right to nominate only one candidate in one single-mandate constituency. A Russian citizen is entitled to participate in elections in a single-member constituency as a self-nominated candidate.

A political party that nominates a federal list of candidates is obliged to create its own electoral fund to finance its election campaign. All candidates have equal rights and equal responsibilities.

(11) Russia's seven wonders

Art, architecture and culture join with virgin wilderness and sun-splashed beaches, making Russia truly an adventurous travellers' wonderland. From the volcanoes and geysers of Kamchatka, through the Siberian taiga to the mineral spas around the Black Sea coast, it cannot be said Russia has nothing to offer the average tourist.

But figures cited by tourism experts showed that 70-80 percent of 3.5 million foreign tourists that came to the country last year rarely ventured farther than Moscow, St. Petersburg and perhaps the Golden Ring.

An alternative Seven Wonders of the World could easily be unearthed on Russia's territory, if only tourists were willing to dig them out.

Untouched, unharmed and largely undiscovered by Western tourists, the so-called golden mountains of Russia's Altai republic are noted for being among the most beautiful and primordial parts of Siberia. The Altai mountain chain is set in a rich and diverse landscape of steppe, taiga and semi-desert, and stretches about 2,000 kilometres from Mongolia's Gobi Desert to the West Siberian Plain, through Chinese, Mongolian, Russian and Kazak territory.

Areas of the Caucasus mountains, which rise dramatically above the Black Sea coast and run down to the Caspian Sea, are also noted for their plant diversity, subalpine pastures grazed by wild animals and lack of human disturbance. Here, one can go skiing, scale Europe's highest peak — the 5,642-meter Mount Elbrus— and relax at the spas of Mineralniye Vody.

Travellers can visit Kamchatka to see its hot springs and view its wildlife and spectacular sunsets. Kamchatka, a more than 1,000-kilometer-long peninsula dividing the Sea of Okhotsk from the Pacific Ocean, is said to be one of the least explored regions on Earth. The most amazing attraction is the Valley of the Geysers in Kronotsky National Park, which was only discovered in the 1940s. Its 180 or more volcanoes, thermal activity, hot springs, heated rivers and geysers should be enough to attract any tourist. Inhabited by less than one person per square kilometre, the peninsula boasts at least 14,000 rivers, 10,000 lakes, thousands of brown bears and sable, and hundreds of bird and plant species indigenous to the area.

Among the best waters to ply are the crystal-clear depths of the pearl of Siberia — Lake Baikal — one of the genuine Seven Natural Wonders of the World. An impressive spectacle near the border of Russia and Mongolia, Lake Baikal is 636 kilometres long and 80 kilometres wide — and is the world's deepest lake. Surrounded by forests and mountain peaks, the waters are transparent to a depth of 40 meters in the summer, and freeze over so thick in the winter that the Trans-Siberian Railroad once ran over its surface. The lake has more than 2,000 recorded plant and animal species — bears, elk, lynx, sables, freshwater seal, trout, salmon and sturgeon. It is fed by 336 rivers, with only one river feeding out.

One of the most famous ways to explore Siberia's vast expanse — and probably the dream of many a foreigner — is the mythical Trans-Siberian Railroad. The Trans-Siberian Railroad is now the longest continuous rail line on earth. Lake Baikal, Ulan Ude in Buryatia and Vladivostok, Far East, are all along the journey.

(12) The historical heart of Moscow - the Kremlin

The cultural life of the capital is very rich. Muscovites are proud of their museums: the Tretyakov Gallery, the Museum of Fine Arts named after A.S.Pushkin, the Kuskovo Museum, Kolomenskoye, Ostankino Serfs Art Museum, museums of Moscow Kremlin, literary museums and many others.

The historical heart of Moscow is the Kremlin. It is a monument of Russian history and culture. In ancient times every large town had its kremlin. The kremlin is the part of a town surrounded by high walls. The word “kremlin” means “fortress”.

The first walls of the Moscow Kremlin were made of wood eight centuries ago. The Kremlin was later reconstructed with stone during the XIV century. The Moscow Kremlin achieved its present appearance by the end of XV century.

The Kremlin was the original center of Moscow while the other parts of the town grew up.

The cathedrals, palaces and monasteries during the centuries have transformed in into a great museum. The buildings of the Kremlin give the best examples of Russian architecture. New buildings have been added for public offices. It is surrounded by a 2 km long wall with 20 towers with an area of 28 hectares and it is situated in the heart of the capital.

Cathedral Square was called Parade Square. But now it isn’t used for military parades. Three finest cathedrals of the Kremlin and the belfry of Ivan the Great stand around it. Blagoveshchensky Sobor is a replica of the cathedral at Vladimir with the iconostasis made by Theophanes the Greek and Andrey Rublev. Arkhangelsky Sobor wasbuilt by the Italian Alevisio Novy. The tombs of the Tsar and Russian princes from Ivan Kalita are in this cathedral. Uspensky Sobor is the largest of the Kremlin.

Ivan the Great’s Belfry is 82 m high. It is a magnificent example of the 16th century architecture, built of white stone, with 3 stories by the Italian Bono Friasin. Beside the belfry (tower) the Emperor Bell (Tsar-Kolokol) stands on a granite pedestal. It was cast by Matorin in 1735. Next to the Bell there is the famous Emperor Cannon (Tsar-Pushka). It was cast in 1586 be Andrey Chokhov, it shows standard of metallurgy. It has never fired.

The Armoury Chamber is now a Museum of Decorative Arts. It was built in 1849-51 years in a pseudo-Russian style after a design by Thon. It is one of the oldest museums in Europe. It was first used for storing models of weapons then a court treasure and museum. In 1920s the treasure of the Patriarchs was added to the collection.

The State Kremlin Palace is the largest theatre in the world. The first theatre and concert season was opened in December 1961 by the Tchaikovsky ballet Swan Lake. Leading companies and orchestras visit Moscow to perform at the Kremlin Palace. The Kremlin Ballet is based here. International conferences are also held at the State Kremlin Palace. The State Kremlin Palace was constructed in less than two years. The State Kremlin Palace is the only modern architectural structure in the Kremlin.

(13) Places of interest in Moscow (1)

The Moscow Kremlin is the best illustration of the history of Russia. The Alexandrovsky Garden is situated along the western Kremlin wall. In the garden there is the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier.

For the 50th anniversary of the end of the Second World War a memorial was erected on the Poklonnaya Hill. Besides the monument to G.K.Zhukov, the outstanding military commander, was set up in front of the History Museum.

The Historical Museum is located in front of Red Square. It was designed by the English architect Sherwood in a pseudo-Russian style. The building of Moscow University stood in that place. The museum keep 4 mln items connected with the Russian history from distant ages to the end of last century. Tools, weapons, ornaments and books give a very clear picture of Russian civilization.

The National Museum of the Fine Arts is known as the Pushkin's Museum since 1937. This great marble building was built in 1812 in neo-Greek style. In 1924 it became the central art gallery of Moscow. The collection was from the Great Kremlin Palace, Hermitage Museum in Leningrad and private collections confiscated from emigres, for example Shchukin and Morosov’s collections of French Impressionists.

There are many interesting galleries in our country. The Tretyakov Gallery is one of the famous and the well-known picture galleries in our country and over the world. The State Tretyakov Gallery is situated in a Russian-looking building in the centre of Moscow. This gallery is named after its founder Peter Tretyakov. He began to collect Russian paintings in 1856. He wanted these paintings to be seen by people. In 1861 he opened his collection to the public. The gallery has got many halls. It has a rich collection of early Russian art, including the icons by Andrey Rublev and Simon Ushakov. One of the halls is devoted to the great Russian paintings of the 18th and 19th centuries. We can see pictures by such painters as Serov, Repin, Ivanov, Levitan and others. The first works in Tretyakov’s collection were the paintings of the “Peredvizhniki”. The collector bought paintings “Morning in a Pine Wood” by Shiskin, “Ivan Tsarevich on the Grey Wolf”, “Alyonushka”, “The Bogatyrs” by Vasnetsov, “March” by Levitan.

The oldest theatre of opera and ballet in our country is the Bolshoy Theatre. The best ballet performances and Russian and foreign operas are performed in this theatre. It was founded in 1776 as the Petrovsky Theatre. The building of this theatre was destroyed by fire in 1805. In 1824 the architect Bove designed a new building called the Bolshoy Petrovsky Theatre. This building was destroyed by fire in 1853. The theatre was rebuilt and opened in 1856.

The Maly Theatre is the oldest drama theatre in the capital of our country. It was named the Maly Theatre in 1824 Alexander Ostrovsky wrote most of the plays specially for the Maly Theatre and sometimes it is named as Ostrovsky House. A monument to the great dramatist A.Ostrovsky was erected in front of the theatre in 1929.

(14) Places of interest in Moscow (2)

Petrovsky Palace was built to commemorate the Russian victory over the Turks. The palace was built by architect Kazak. It was named after the village of Petrovskoye. The Petrovsky Palace was intended as a last resting-place for Catherine the Great on her journeys from St.Petersburg to Moscow. The style is a combination of traditional Russian and gothic architecture. In 1812 Napoleon lived here for several days.

Novodevichy Monastery was founded in 1524. Its domes can be seen from a long way off. It has got its name of “New Monastery of the Virgin” to the icon of Virgin of Smolensk which it guarded in troubled times. The Monastery is rich in historical memories the elections of Boris Godunov, the battles with the Poles in 1610 and etc. Many great Russians were buried at the cemetery of Novodevichy: Gogol, Chekhov, Scriabin, great doctors and politicians.

This ancient estate Kolomenskoye was the residence of Russian princes and tsars. It was first mentioned in documents dating from the first half of the XIVth century. In the XVIth century Kolomenskoye was the favourite country estate of Grand Prince Vasily lll, then of Ivan the Terrible. The Church of the Ascension was built in 1532 for Vasily III. This church is one of the best examples of ancient Russian architecture. There are several other historic buildings on the Kolomenskoye royal estate. There is also an exhibition of ancient Russian wooden architecture including Peter the Great’s House, which was brought here from Arkhangelsk.

To the south of Kolomenskoye village lay land belonging to the Godunovs. The Tsaritsa Irina owned an estate called Chornaya Gryaz. In 1775 it was purchased by Catherine the Great, who wanted an estate in the Gothic style to commemorate the Russian victory over the Turks. The architect Bazhenov designed the buildings. Catherine was not pleased with the result and Kazakov began work on a new project that was never completed. After Catherine the Great's death the building was stopped and the palace became a ruin.

This ancient street was first mentioned as the Arbat (Orbat) in a manuscript dated 1493. It was important for both trade and military strategy. In 1812 the Russian army passed here on their return from the Battle of Borodino. On September 3 a fire began at the Arbat and Smolensky Market. A.S.Pushkin lived at № 53 for a short time in 1831, after his marriage to Natalya Goncharova. Tchikovsky stayed with his brother in the same house. There is now a Pushkin Museum at this address. In September 1879 Tolstoy visited his niece Obolenskaya at № 9.

(15) Sustainable supermarkets

Many of the major supermarket chains have come under fire with accusations of various unethical acts over the past decade. They've wasted tonnes of food, they've underpaid their suppliers and they've contributed to excessive plastic waste in their packaging, which has had its impact on our environment.

But supermarkets and grocers are starting to sit up and take notice. In response to growing consumer backlash against the huge amounts of plastic waste generated by plastic packaging, some of the largest UK supermarkets have signed up to a pact promising to transform packaging and cut plastic wastage. In a pledge to reuse, recycle or compost all plastic wastage by 2025, supermarkets are now beginning to take some responsibility for the part they play in contributing to the damage to our environment, with one major supermarket announcing their plan to eliminate all plastic packaging in their own-brand products by 2023.

In response to criticisms over food waste, some supermarkets are donating some of their food surplus. However, charities estimate that they are only accessing two per cent of supermarkets' total food surplus, so this hardly seems to be solving the problem. Some say that supermarkets are simply not doing enough. Most supermarkets operate under a veil of secrecy when asked for exact figures of food wastage, and without more transparency it is hard to come up with a systematic approach to avoiding waste and to redistributing surplus food.

Some smaller companies are now taking matters into their own hands and offering consumers a greener, more environmentally friendly option. Shops like Berlin's Original Unverpakt and London's

Bulk Market are plastic-free shops that have opened in recent years, encouraging customers to use their own containers or compostable bags. Online grocer Farmdrop eliminates the need for large warehouses and the risk of huge food surplus by delivering fresh produce from local farmers to its customers on a daily basis via electric cars, offering farmers the lion's share of the retail price.

There is no doubt that we still have a long way to go in reducing food waste and plastic waste. But perhaps the major supermarkets might take inspiration from these smaller grocers and gradually move towards a more sustainable future for us all.

(16) Tate Modern – Origin

In December 1992 the Tate Trustees announced their intention to create a separate gallery for international modern and contemporary art in London.

The former Bankside Power Station was selected as the new gallery site in 1994. The following year, Swiss architects Herzog & De Meuron were appointed to convert the building into a gallery. That their proposal retained much of the original character of the building was a key factor in this decision.

The iconic power station, built in two phases between 1947 and 1963, was designed by Sir Giles Gilbert Scott. It consisted of a stunning turbine hall, 35 metres high and 152 metres long, with the boiler house alongside it and a single central chimney. However, apart from a remaining operational London Electricity sub-station the site had been redundant since 1981.

In 1996 the design plans were unveiled and, following a £12 million grant from the English Partnerships regeneration agency, the site was purchased and work began. The huge machinery was removed and the building was stripped back to its original steel structure and brickwork. The turbine hall became a dramatic entrance and display area and the boiler house became the galleries.

Since it opened in May 2000, more than 40 million people have visited Tate Modern. It is one of the UK's top three tourist attractions and generates an estimated £100 million in economic benefits to London annually.

In 2009 Tate embarked on a major project to develop Tate Modern. Working again with Herzog & de Meuron, the transformed Tate Modern makes use of the power station's spectacular redundant oil tanks, increasing gallery space and providing much improved visitor facilities.

(17) Saint Valentine's Day

Hallmark holiday refers to a holiday that is perceived to exist mainly for commercial reasons, rather than to celebrate a traditionally significant religious or secular event. Although many people view these celebrations in a negative way, others have positive views. On the negative side, hallmark holidays don't really celebrate an important event, and only exist for companies to make a lot of money. On the positive side, the term describes the perfect holiday in which family, friends, and fun come first. Everyday problems, worries, and stress can be put aside. Valentine's Day, which is celebrated on February 14, is usually considered to be one of the hallmark holidays.

In Valentine's Day billions of cards are sent. It is also an opportunity for customers to buy chocolates, flowers, engagement rings, romantic dinners, and so on. This commercial aspect can be traced back to the 19th century when printing technology improved to cheaply mass-produce greeting cards. But the origin of the celebration is much more ancient and can be traced back to a Roman festival called "Lupercalia" which was held in mid-February every year. The celebration purified new life in the spring. Around the third century A.D., the holiday became associated with Saint Valentine, although it isn't exactly clear how.

A popular explanation of the link between Saint Valentine and the Holiday says that at the time of the Roman "Lupercalia" Festival marriage was a common tradition, but when Claudius became Emperor he changed all of that. He outlawed all marriages because he was afraid that men would refuse their duty to fight because they would not want to leave their wives behind. Young couples still fell in love though and still wished to marry and they took these desires to the Catholic Bishop Valentine who, understanding love, began to secretly marry couples. When Claudius found out, he arrested Valentine and sentenced him to death. While waiting in prison, Valentine began exchanging letters with the prisoner's daughter and soon had fallen in love with her. The day he was to be beheaded, he wrote her one last note and signed it: "From Your Valentine".

In 496 A.D. Christianity had taken over Rome and Pope Gelasius outlawed the pagan Lupercian Festival. Knowing its popularity, he looked to replace it with something more "appropriate" and set aside a day in February to honor the martyr St. Valentine. Even though in 1969 the church removed St. Valentine's Day from its calendar of "official" holidays, it is still widely celebrated today. And although Valentine's Day has become quite commercial, it still contains an important aspect shared by all of the best holidays – time spent thinking of and being with the one you love.

(18) Reassessing the Impacts of Brain Drain on Developing Countries

Brain drain, which is the action of having highly skilled and educated people leaving their country to work abroad, has become one of the developing countries concern. Brain drain is also referred to as human capital flight. More and more third world science and technology educated people are heading for more prosperous countries seeking higher wages and better working conditions. This has of course serious consequences on the sending countries.

While many people believe that immigration is a personal choice that must be understood and respected, others look at the phenomenon from a different perspective. What makes those educated people leave their countries should be seriously considered and a distinction between push and pull factors must be made. The push factors include low wages and lack of satisfactory working and living conditions. Social unrest, political conflicts and wars may also be determining causes. The pull factors, however, include intellectual freedom and substantial funds for research.

Brain drain has negative impact on the sending countries economic prospects and competitiveness. It reduces the number of dynamic and creative people who can contribute to the development of their country. Likewise, with more entrepreneurs taking their investments abroad, developing countries are missing an opportunity of wealth creation. This has also negative consequences on tax revenue and employment.

Most of the measures taken so far have not had any success in alleviating the effects of brain drain. A more global view must take into consideration the provision of adequate working and living conditions in the sending countries. Another option should involve encouraging the expatriates to contribute their skill to the development of their countries without necessarily physically relocating.

(19) The civilized side of the Vikings

At the end of the AD 700s the Scandinavian people entered in a period of great expansion. The family groups of farmers and traders who comprised a large part of the people of the area began to feel the effects of over-population. With the expansion many other factors came into play: colonization, trade and the individual search for new kingdoms to conquer.

The great period of the Vikings lasted from the 700s to 1050. The Scandinavians held dominance over large areas of northern Europe. Their exploration, trade and settlement reached from the Black Sea to Newfoundland. In this period the Vikings were very influential in Western Europe. The Scandinavians occupied large areas of Britain where they settled as farmers and merchants. They influenced the development of the English language, left many place names and even some surviving marks on the British social and political institutions today. They established a self-supporting community in Iceland which in later years gave posterity the long narrative poems called sagas.

In Europe the Vikings occupied large areas of Northern France and through the Norman invasion had a second impact on Britain. They traded to the Mediterranean from the west and down the great rivers of Russia to the Black Sea in the east.

In all these great movements Vikings were assisted by their development of efficient seagoing vessels. The ship was at the heart of the Viking civilisation — they were superb shipbuilders. But though ship may have represented the peak of Viking technical achievement they excelled in other ways. The Scandinavians developed an art of surface decoration expressed in wood carving, in tapestries, in jewelry and in stone carving.

The Viking contribution to European history, their cultural, aesthetical, commercial effects of their expansion were great. Tapestry, wood carvings, musical instruments, drinking horns, bronze statues, rune stones, and silver dishes convey the religious and cultural life of these remarkable people. The Vikings should be regarded not only as romanticized pirates, but as one of the important historical phenomena in the development of modern Europe.

(20) Education

Education encompasses both the teaching and learning of knowledge, proper conduct, and technical competency. It thus focuses on the cultivation of skills, trades or professions, as well as mental, moral & aesthetic development.

Formal education consists of systematic instruction, teaching and training by professional teachers. This consists of the application of pedagogy and the development of curricula.

The right to education is a fundamental human right. Since 1952, Article 2 of the first Protocol to the European Convention on Human Rights obliges all signatory parties to guarantee the right to education. At world level, the United Nations' International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights of 1966 guarantees this right under its Article 13.

Educational systems are established to provide education and training, often for children and the young. A curriculum defines what students should know, understand and be able to do as the result of education. A system of policies, regulations, examinations, structures and funding enables teachers to teach to the best of their abilities. Sometimes educational systems can be used to promote doctrines or ideals as well as knowledge, which is known as *social engineering*. This can lead to political abuse of the system, particularly in totalitarian states and government.

Primary (or elementary) education consists of the first years of formal, structured education. In general, primary education consists of six or seven years of schooling starting at the age of 5 or 6, although this varies between, and sometimes within, countries. Globally, around 70% of primary-age children are enrolled in primary education, and this proportion is rising.

In most contemporary educational systems of the world, secondary education consists of the second years of formal education that occur during adolescence. It is characterized by transition from the typically compulsory, comprehensive primary education for minors, to the optional, selective tertiary, "post-secondary", or "higher" education (e.g., university, vocational school) for adults.

Higher education, also called tertiary, third stage, or post secondary education, is the non-compulsory educational level that follows the completion of a school providing a secondary education, such as a high school or secondary school. Tertiary education is normally taken to include undergraduate and postgraduate education, as well as vocational education and training. Colleges and universities are the main institutions that provide tertiary education. Collectively, these are sometimes known as tertiary institutions. Tertiary education generally results in the receipt of certificates, diplomas, or academic degrees.

(21) The evolution of boarding schools in the UK

In the UK, boarding schools are mostly private institutions, associated with high society, but some of the first boarding schools were established to support the children of poorer families. Boarding schools first sprung up in the UK as far back as medieval times, when boys were sent to monasteries or noble households to be taught Latin and Theology in order to become religious leaders. Thus, the first boarding schools were strongly associated with Christianity.

The King's School Canterbury brands itself the oldest school in the world, with education taking place in its grounds since 597 AD, when St Augustine arrived in England on crusade and founded a monasterial school. The school was reinstituted in 1541 by Royal Charter. King's Ely is another British boarding school that classes itself amongst the oldest schools in the world, founded in 970 AD. In 1541, it was re-endowed and retitled by Henry VIIII in the course of the Dissolution of the Monasteries.

Founded in 1382, Winchester College markets itself as the English school with the longest continuous history. Established by the Bishop of Winchester and Chancellor of England, William of Wykeham, Winchester College was intended to educate boys from poor families to become clergy. Winchester College was to act as a feeder to New College, Oxford, also founded by Wykeham. The school maintains its legacy of generosity today, offering one of the most comprehensive bursary programmes in the country. In fact, nearly 20 percent of students receive financial support, or 120 pupils.

In 1440, Henry VI founded Eton College, which followed a similar structure to Winchester College. At Eton, 70 poor boys, or 'King's Scholars', were provided with accommodation and education for free. Also for children of limited financial means, Christ's Hospital School was set in motion by the young King Edward VI in 1552, with funds raised by the City of London. The pupils were cared for and prepared for future careers, with girls admitted from the beginning. Westminster School's origins can be traced to a charity school established by the Benedictine monks of Westminster Abbey. Interestingly, Merchant Taylors and Haberdashers borrow their names from merchant guilds, as members of the Merchant Taylors' Company and Haberdashers' Company founded the respective schools.

During the Reformation, schools were separated from the Church, no longer focusing on religion. For the aristocracy, private tuition was usual before the 16th century, but after this time, collective education began to be favoured. Many boarding schools became independent schools when they began to attract fee-paying upper-class and bourgeois students, particularly by the 18th century. This period saw an expansion in boarding schools as the Industrial Revolution led to increased affluence. Noble-born boys were educated at these institutions to become future commanders, politicians and military leaders. Meanwhile, girls were generally educated in a domestic environment up until the mid-19th century, when the first girls' boarding schools opened their doors. Cheltenham Ladies' College was founded in 1853, and Roedean School in 1885. The Education Act of 1880 made education obligatory for all children between the ages of five and ten, regardless of gender.

During the colonial expansion of the British Empire, the traditional British boarding school continued to advance and grow in popularity. In reaction to Britain's developing geographic and economic position in the world, children at boarding school began to be taught modern languages, military strategy, commerce, diplomacy and governance. British colonial governors and administrators and local elite in the colonial territories sent their children to boarding schools back in the UK so they would experience a British education. Locally-run British boarding schools were also set up across the colonial empire to disseminate British values and ideals.

(22) University College London

UCL is the first university to teach engineering, architecture, and language. It founded the first engineering laboratory in the world for the purpose. Its radical spirit is still strong as seen in its commitment to positive climate action. UCL students and researchers are working on complex contemporary issues such as global health, sustainable cities, human well-being, cultural understanding, transformational technology, justice, and equality.

The network of UCL alumni has expanded to more than 350,000 members across 190 countries worldwide. More than half of their 30 Nobel laureates are non-British. UCL's extensive network brings about bright career prospects for its graduates. According to the survey in Graduate Outcomes by the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) in 2019, 62% of UCL graduates found full-time work within 15 months after graduation in a wide range of sectors ranging from financial services and consultancy to health and social care and the creative arts. The median starting salary is £31,000.

UCL alumni are world-class achievers. Since 1901, UCL staff and alumni have won at least one Nobel Prize each decade in various fields from Physics, Chemistry to Physiology and Medicine.

UCL is home to twelve world-leading faculties with top-tier programmes recognised by reputable education rankings internationally. Some of the top programmes are: Psychology and Language Sciences, Education Studies and Medicine MBBS.

Applicants taking A Levels are expected to present at least three full GCE A Levels for entry to undergraduate courses. There are also International Foundation Year courses which are intensive 1.5 or 2-semester programmes designed specifically to provide you with a pathway to undergraduate degree study at the university. In the UK, all university applications (including those submitted by international students) go through the Universities and Colleges Admissions Service, more commonly known as UCAS.

As for accommodation, UCL provides around 7000 beds in 26 halls of both catered and self-catered accommodation for their first-year students. All accommodation options are single rooms due to the COVID-19 pandemic. They are either en-suite or with shared bathrooms, ranging from £156 to £300 per week. At the catered accommodations, the rent includes breakfast and evening dinner on weekdays and brunch on Saturdays and Sundays. Students can also use a small kitchen to prepare meals. For self-catered accommodations, students may use the shared kitchen facilities to cook.

UCL provides Students with multiple Activities and Clubs. There are over 300 active societies at UCL and also cultural societies that welcome anyone with an interest in their group. Career building societies are also available. Over 70 sports clubs are available at UCL; all go under the collective name of TeamUCL. Competitive participants can compete in the TeamUCL leagues for 11 aside football, six aside football, netball, and 3X3 basketball. There is no need to be a member of any club to play these sports. Serious players can also attend the Elite Athlete Programme and High-Performance Programme to train for national and international games.

(23) Cultures and national stereotypes

A nation is a group of people who share common history and usually a language and usually, but not always, live in the same area. Culture can be described as our everyday life: how we communicate, what makes us happy and said. It also includes our language, religion, traditions, behavior, way of life – in other words, what we do each day. People that belong to various nations may differ and they always differ from one another.

For example, the Germans are regarded as scientifically-minded and industrious, they're always considered solid, intelligent and mathematical. And, for instance, the Israeli are believed to be mercenary, industrious, shrewd, loyal to family, religious. There is a big amount of examples we can list about national character of different people. Proving the difference of the national stereotypes I want to compare Russian and English nations. There are a lot of features that vary. The Russians are industrious, tough, brave, progressive and suspicious. They are always considered to be nationalistic, over - patriotic (because of this reason they're good soldiers), we are willing to respect opinion of other people.

Speaking about Englishmen, I may note that they're reserved, tradition-loving, courteous, honest, extremely nationalistic and etc. To my mind, they have a specific sense of humor. They say that they can't understand our jokes and anecdotes not only because of the different meanings of the words, but because of their humor is more delicate. Looking at these features of the Russians and the Englishmen it is not hard to mark out the differences. The Englishmen are reserved, but the Russians are open-hearted and communicative. The Englishmen are tradition-loving and the Russians, to my mind, don't keep their traditions in such a degree. There is a great majority of factors that influence the nations’ stereotype and its people's character. People that live in the southern countries have fewer problems than those who live in the North and because of this they're more cheerful and artistic. The history also has a great influence on the national character. The peoples in Asia are revengeful because their forefathers often were at war with others. In Africa many countries were colonies of Great Britain, Holland, Spain and so on and they (Africans) were the slaves and because of this they're still hard-working and industrious.

The National Character exists. It is not a myth, it's a reality. But the National Character doesn't describe the character of every person, it describes the character of a nation in general. Every person has its own character, but according to the person's belonging to some nation many traits of character are similar and these features may be explained as the national character.

(24) British Stereotypes

The English are one of the nations, for which people all across the world have created countless stereotypes and opinions involving their country, culture and character. This might be due to the wide-spread political power, which Britain used to exercise throughout the previous centuries, when the country boasted numerous colonies and conquests both on land and sea. But what are some of the most popular myths and stereotypes surrounding them to this day? Are these concepts true?

Perhaps the most popular stereotype about the British isles has to do with its notoriously bad weather. All over the world people are convinced that it rains constantly all across the country. The bad weather has turned into the trademark of England, but it’s more a myth than reality. In fact, the climate in the region is soft and humid, because, even though the isles are located in the north, they benefit from the direct influence of the warm ocean current Gulfstream. Despite the weather being fickle and often rainy, it is not nearly as rainy as people seem to claim: the country lists only 46th in the world in rainfall, further back even than countries like New Zealand (29th) and the USA (25th). The belief about the English bad weather is most likely due to the cold winters, much longer than the summer on the isles.

While there is an element of truth in this particular English stereotype, it is not hard to understand why. British weather is not prone to remain unsurprising for any long period of time. In fact, it is often the case that the weather would change twice or thrice within a single day, with weather forecasts informing people by the hour, rather than by the day. That is why it is no strange occurrence to see an Englishman leaving his house on a bright sunny morning, tightly wrapped in a cloak and carrying an umbrella! The constantly changing weather conditions do provide people with a safe and varied source of small talk in order to avoid the much dreaded awkward silence in social encounters.

(25) Eton College – the factory of gentlemen

Eton College is one of the most famous schools in the world. It is a school for boys only. It's located in the small town of Eton, next to Windsor which is famous for Windsor Castle. Prince William and Prince Harry studied in Eton College.

Eton was founded by King Henry VI in 1440. The king was only 18 at that time. His aim was to give education to poor boys so that they could then go to Cambridge University. The chosen boys should "have a good character, be good at reading, Latin grammar and singing". If they "behaved badly, married, or became monks", they had to leave. The life in Eton was hard. Rats ran free about the college, boys had to get up at 5 o'clock in the morning and all lessons were in Latin.

Today, Eton is the largest, most prestigious and very expensive public school in Britain. To get into the college you have to pass entrance exams first. Many famous people studied in Eton: the novelists Henry Fielding, George Orwell, Aldous Huxley, Percy Shelley and Ian Fleming, 18 British prime ministers, Prince William and Prince Harry, David Cameron, Boris Johnson, the Mayor of London.

Eton is a boarding school where boys live and study away from home. Each boy has his own small room with a bed and desk. There are a number of important senior boys with responsibilities in the house. Eton students wear a strange old-fashioned school uniform. It consists of a black tailcoat, black pin-striped trousers, a black waistcoat, well-polished black shoes, a false-collar and a white tie. In the past Eton students also wore a top-hat and a walking-cane.

Teachers also wear a uniform, consisting of a white bow-tie, black jacket and striped trousers. Eton gives a very good education. Every boy takes at least two modern languages chosen from French, German, Japanese, Russian and Spanish. Students also study Latin for at least one year and many choose to study Greek as well. Outside the main timetable they may choose Chinese or Arabic.

At college there are about fifty societies and clubs. Eton is famous for its theatre. Senior boys may take part in military training. Students can do 30 different sports including rugby, football, cricket, rowing, hockey, basketball, swimming and many others. A personal tutor looks after the progress of every boy. After Eton students usually go to top universities, such as Oxford or Cambridge.

3 семестр

Тексты социо-культурной направленности

(1) How Queen Victoria remade the British monarchy

Victoria was the product of a succession crisis in England's royal family that occurred when Princess Charlotte, the presumptive successor to King George, and her infant son died in childbirth. Charlotte's brothers—all of whom were single and had given the monarchy a bad name with their profligate spending and messy personal lives—raced to produce an heir. One of those brothers, Edward, hastily married a widowed German princess and became the first to produce an heir. Born in 1819, Alexandrina Victoria was a direct successor to the crown.

Palace intrigue made for a miserable childhood. Victoria's father died when she was a child, and her ambitious mother allied herself with the scheming Sir John Conroy, a member of the royal household who seized the chance to gain power and influence through the future queen. He created what became known as "the Kensington system," an elaborate set of rules that isolated the young princess at Kensington Palace and put him in control of her education and upbringing. Designed to keep Victoria dependent and loyal to Conroy and her mother, the system resulted in an unhappy childhood—and a growing sense of resentment.

Victoria broke free in 1837, when she turned 18 and rose to the throne. As soon as she became queen, she banned Conroy from her court and marginalized her mother. In 1840, she married her cousin Albert, a German prince. It was a genuine love match—she wrote that her wedding night was "bliss beyond belief"—and they went on to have nine children.

During her early reign, Victoria was heavily influenced by Lord Melbourne, the prime minister, and Albert, who was her closest political advisor and whom some historians believe was "king in all but name." Together, they pursued an agenda of modernization and stability in an era of political upheaval. The monarchy's reputation had been badly damaged by Victoria's predecessors, and the British populace clamored to replace the monarchy with a republic. And in Ireland, the potato famine between 1845 and 1852 fomented outright rebellion.

Together with her husband, Victoria faced those challenges head-on, working to strengthen the position of the monarchy in England and throughout Europe, where there was also a growing distaste for royals who expected the public to foot the bill for their lavish lifestyles. In contrast, Victoria expanded the monarch's public role, supporting charities, the arts, and civic reform to counter the view that British royalty wasn't worth the expense. As a result, the queen and her growing family became beloved celebrities and influenced popular culture, introducing England to everything from white wedding dresses to Christmas trees.

In 1861, tragedy struck when Albert died at 42. Victoria was devastated and went into deep mourning. She wore black for the rest of her life and withdrew from the public eye for years. The republican movement grew during her isolation, and she was criticized for her absence from public life.

Victoria resumed her public duties by the late 1860s. Her later reign was largely devoted to encouraging peace in Europe and expanding and consolidating her massive political empire. She became Empress of

India in 1877 and influenced foreign relations closer to home through her children and grandchildren, many of whom married into European royalty.

At the beginning of her monarchy, Britain was seen largely as a trading power. But under Victoria, it became a mighty empire and the world's most powerful nation. Over the course of the 19th century, it grew by 10 million square miles and 400 million people. Those gains came at a tremendous price: England was almost constantly at war during Victoria's reign, and the colonialism practiced in her name involved brutal subjugation.

Though Victoria was popular, her subjects still pushed to reform the monarchy. Ultimately, this led to an erosion of the monarch's direct political power as ordinary British people gained the vote, the secret ballot, and other political reforms in the mid- to late 1800s.

(2) History of the Internet

From its very beginnings the Internet became a crucial part of each and any infrastructure. Similar to the discoveries of electricity, microorganisms or elementary particles, the creation of the Internet has turned a new page in the history of humanity.

The history of the Internet has begun in the middle of the 20th century as a result of rapid development of computer science. Computers of that age were still relatively underperforming and needed constant maintenance. Some kind of an effective and automated method of time-sharing between users needed to be devised and implemented for them to work reliably.

The first idea that had emerged from that necessity was a concept of multi-tasking. Nowadays we don't pay much attention to the fact that our computers perform many tasks at once, and that with our computers we can, for example, work and listen to music at the same time. But in the 1950s this idea turned out to be revolutionary.

The second idea would be a proposition to merge multiple computers into a single network. Each participant[1] of such a network would be able to exchange data with the others. But the exact mechanism of implementation was still largely a mystery. Roughly for ten years the scientists were developing and discarding all kinds of ideas, one after another, preserving those that could be at least somewhat handy bit by bit. This is how the prototypes of packet exchange protocols (as well as the concept of a data packet itself) came to be.

In 1969 a duo of American engineers, Robert Taylor and Lawrence Roberts, have made a presentation to the U. S. Department of Defence with a project dubbed[2] ARPANET (which stands for Advanced Research Projects Agency Network) founded on the previous research. Even more advanced networks have started to develop based on this one, including what would be later known as 'networks of networks'. These researches have culminated with the emergence[3] of two main network protocols (TCP and IP), which are still used as of today with some modifications.

A modern solution that eventually replaced ARPANET was called NSFNET, which was the National Science Foundation Network. This particular network has adopted the TCP/IP protocol as its main one, and also helped the emergence of the Domain Name System (DNS). And thus when the 1990s have arrived, the Internet architecture as we know it was largely in place.

One should make a distinction between terms 'the Internet' and 'the World Wide Web'. The first one relates to the network architecture in itself. The second one is more of a modern development and constitutes an interface that allows the access to a network for a user. It emerged in 1990 courtesy of CERN scientists, Tim Berners-Lee in particular. He was the inventor of terms such as HTTP, HTML, and also of a web browser.

In 2020 nearly 4,5 billion people are using the Internet both for work and communication. The Internet is a cornerstone of all modern banking, of the vital infrastructure automated systems, and also of many computer science branches. This promising technology still continues its development nowadays, and for now we can't even fathom[5] what new discoveries this further development can bring.

(3) The Bayeux Tapestry

The Bayeux Tapestry (also known in France as a Tapestry of Queen Matilda) is a unique medieval artifact that dates back to the 11th century. Nearly 70 metres of embroidered cloth expand on the events that led up to the Norman conquest of England, culminating with the fateful Battle of Hastings.

Technically not a tapestry (as tapestries are woven, not embroidered), this exquisite piece of cloth shows about 70 historical scenes and is narrated with Latin tituli. It's origins and the history of creation are still hotly debated in scholarly circles, but the two main theories give the credit either to the Queen Matilda of Flanders who was a wife of William the Conqueror, or to a bishop Odo of Bayeux, who was William's half-brother and eventually became a regent of England in his absence.

The tapestry is made largely of plain weave linen and embroidered with wool yarn. The woolen crewelwork4 is made in various shades of brown, blue and green, mainly terracotta, russet, and olive green. Later restorations have also added some brighter colours, such as orange and light yellow. Attempts at restoration of both the beginning and the end of the tapestry were made at some points, adding some missing tituli and numerals, although an ongoing debate disputes the validity of these restorations.

The events unfolding on a tapestry took place in the years 1064 to 1066. Anglo-Saxon earl Harold Godwinson is depicted receiving the English crown from Edward the Confessor, a deathly ill English monarch. An invading Norman force is then shown, which soon engages Saxon forces in a bloody battle. Ultimately king Harold is slain, and English forces flee the battlefield. The last part of the tapestry was supposedly lost and a newer piece was added in its place roughly in 1810.

The tapestry allows for an unique insight into the mind of a medieval craftsman, and, as it was commissioned by victorious Normans, gives us a chance to see how the medieval history was customarily chronicled by the winning side.

Since 1945 the Tapestry rests in Bayeux Museum, although as recently as 2018 the plans were put in motion to move it to an exhibit of the British Museum in London before the end of 2022. If everything proceeds as planned, it will be the first time the Tapestry has left France in over 950 years.

(4) John Reed's biography (by Albert Rhys Williams)

Born in Portland, Oregon, on October 22, 1887, John Reed took after his father, who was a fighter by nature. After leaving school, John Reed went to Harvard, America's most famous university. Having taken his degree, John Reed entered the wide world outside the walls of the university. Soon he was in great demand as a writer of articles, stories, poems and plays, which were published in all the leading journals and magazines. As a journalist he travelled widely over the United States, and the experience he gained during these trips brought him closer to the workers. He got to know their life very well and took an active part in their struggle. In the town of Paterson, a strike of textile workers turned into a revolutionary storm — and John Reed was among the strikers. In the State of Colorado, an agricultural area of the United States, he joined the Negroes who rose against racial discrimination. When World War I broke out, John Reed travelled to the battle fronts in France, Germany, Turkey, Italy and in Russia, too, and everywhere he went, he continued fighting for justice in spite of the danger to himself.

From the battlefields of Europe he returned to the United States not with fine words about the cruelty at the front, but exposing the war as a whole, a war unleashed by the imperialists to increase their profits at the expense of the people. For the anti-war information that he spread he was brought before a New York court. In court he said openly that it was his duty to fight for the revolution. His speech exposing the war impressed everybody. John Reed was found not guilty. In the summer of 1917, John Reed went to Russia, and during his stay there he realized that the victory of the Russian working class was approaching. When the fight began, John Reed was there with the revolutionary workers of Petro-grad in the Smolny, attending meetings at which Lenin spoke. Having returned to the United States in 1918, he organized the Communist Workers' Party, which later became the Communist Party of the USA. He was arrested many times for his revolutionary work. John Reed was a revolutionary long before he saw the events in the Palace Square in Petrograd, but his experiences there made him a scientific revolutionary. He studied the works of Marx, Engels and Lenin, which gave him an understanding of historical events leading to revolution. The Russian Revolution showed him the way forward, to the organization of the Communist Party in the United States, and to his work in the Communist International.

In 1920 he travelled to the Caucasus, where he took part in the Congress of the Workers of the East. There he caught typhus and died on October 17, 1920. He was buried near the Kremlin Wall with other fighters for the revolution.

(5)The White House

For more than 200 years, the White House has been known as the symbol of the President's administration, and of the United States.

The history of the White House began when President George Washington signed an Act of Congress in December of 1790 which declared that the federal government would live in a district "not exceeding ten miles square on the river Potomac." The creation of the new American capital began. Later it was named Washington after the first American President.

George Washington, together with the city planner Pierre L'Enfant, chose the place for the new president’s home. A competition was held to find an architect to design the President's House. Nine proposals were handed in, and architect James Hoban won the competition. He proposed to build an impressive three-storey house.

The construction began in October of 1792. Although President Washington watched over the construction of the house, he never lived in it. Originally the White House was grey and was called the Presidential Palace. In 1800, when it was nearly completed, its first residents, President John Adams and his wife moved in. Ever since, each President of the United States has lived in this residence.

The Presidential Palace was seriously damaged in the great fire of 1814. The British invaded Washington and burned many buildings. After the war James Hoban, the original architect, partially rebuilt the President’s home. To cover the marks of the fire, the building was painted white. At various times in history, the building has been known as the President's Palace, the President's House, and the Executive Mansion. President Theodore Roosevelt officially gave it the name of the White House in 1901.

The White House is the president's private home and each president has made his own changes and additions in it. At first the president's office was located in the living area, on the second floor of the White House. When Theodore Roosevelt brought his large family to the White House in 1901, he felt that his office and his home should be completely separated. Two wings were added to the first floor of the building: the East Wing and the West Wing. The President's Office was moved into the West Wing and was called the Oval Office.

In 1805 President Thomas Jefferson opened the house for public tours. However, since September 11, 2001 the public tours have been prohibited.

There are 132 rooms in the residence now. For recreation, the White House has a variety of facilities available to its residents, including a tennis court, a jogging track, a swimming pool, a movie theatre, and a bowling alley.

The garden around the White House was first planted by John Adams, the first resident of the White house. Later it was redesigned by many presidents and their first ladies. The part of the garden outside the Oval Office is used now as a place for official ceremonies.

(6) Cultures and national stereotypes

A nation is a group of people who share common history and usually a language and usually, but not always, live in the same area. Culture can be described as our everyday life: how we communicate, what makes us happy and said. It also includes our language, religion, traditions, behavior, way of life – in other words, what we do each day. People that belong to various nations may differ and they always differ from one another.

For example, the Germans are regarded as scientifically-minded and industrious, they're always considered solid, intelligent and mathematical. And, for instance, the Israeli are believed to be mercenary, industrious, shrewd, loyal to family, religious. There is a big amount of examples we can list about national character of different people. Proving the difference of the national stereotypes I want to compare Russian and English nations. There are a lot of features that vary. The Russians are industrious, tough, brave, progressive and suspicious. They are always considered to be nationalistic, over - patriotic (because of this reason they're good soldiers), we are willing to respect opinion of other people.

Speaking about Englishmen, I may note that they're reserved, tradition-loving, courteous, honest, extremely nationalistic and etc. To my mind, they have a specific sense of humor. They say that they can't understand our jokes and anecdotes not only because of the different meanings of the words, but because of their humor is more delicate. Looking at these features of the Russians and the Englishmen it is not hard to mark out the differences. The Englishmen are reserved, but the Russians are open-hearted and communicative. The Englishmen are tradition-loving and the Russians, to my mind, don't keep their traditions in such a degree. There is a great majority of factors that influence the nations' stereotype and its people's character. People that live in the southern countries have fewer problems than those who live in the North and because of this they're more cheerful and artistic. The history also has a great influence on the national character. The peoples in Asia are revengeful because their forefathers often were at war with others. In Africa many countries were colonies of Great Britain, Holland, Spain and so on and they (Africans) were the slaves and because of this they're still hard-working and industrious. The National Character exists. It is not a myth, it's a reality. But the National Character doesn't describe the character of every person, it describes the character of a nation in general. Every person has its own character, but according to the person's belonging to some nation many traits of character are similar and these features may be explained as the national character.

(7) The Klondike Gold Rush

In late summer, 1896, a family of weary prospectors[1] was traveling through the inhospitable lands of Yukon, Canada. The region was famous for its harsh climate, poor infrastructure and very little else.

Few rapidly decaying towns dotted the landscape, their inhabitants making a living not from prospecting, but rather from trading skins and furs with indigenous[3] tribes.

The family has stopped to rest on a bank of a small creek, a tributary of Klondike River. As they were setting up a camp, they took a notice of a shiny rock glittering in the water. Exploring up and down the river revealed at least four large veins of gold, which George Carmack, the lead prospector, has claimed to himself and his family.

Next morning he had registered his claims[5] at the police station, and the news spread with locals like a wildfire. The first discovery soon led to another, even larger vein. As it was a dead of winter by then, it went largely unnoticed by authorities and mainland prospectors. Locals, in turn, encouraged by stories about golden rivers and emboldened[6] by the notion that native tribes saw no value in gold, went through extreme hardships to claim the best mining spots.

On July 15, 1897, two ships returned from Yukon to Seattle, bringing Klondike prospectors along with more than a 1,000,000$ (which, accounting for the inflation, roughly equals 1,000,000,000$ in 2020) of worth in gold. The story has caught the attention of the press, and soon almost 100,000 explorers stampeded[7] to Klondike, eager to repeat the successes of the first prospectors. Most of these people had no experience in mining whatsoever, and many of them were unemployed earlier. Even if they didn't want to go, they couldn't just let the others have all the fame and riches. As the competition grew, the would-be-prospectors started to trade in claims instead of mining for actual gold. To accommodate a rush of explorers, Seattle was transformed into a major transport hub, which it still remains nowadays.

Getting to Klondike was an adventure in itself. Richer people could sail all the way to their destination, albeit the ticket price has risen a hundredfold over the course of the 3-year long rush. Travelling by land implied carrying over a ton of supplies to last through the year, bringing pack animals[8], dogs, sleds and hiring various specialists that knew the land and would be able to care about animals.

Of 100,000 prospectors that answered the call of gold, only about 40,000 have actually reached Klondike, and only about 4000 of those became rich. By the time the vast majority of people had arrived into Dawson City, the last outpost of civilization near the mines, all of the major claims were mined out, and the remaining ones required some major investment to explore and gave a little guarantee of success. In 1898 first of the disillusioned (and often ruined) prospectors started to return home, and by 1899 the legend of fabulous Klondike died out as swiftly as it had begun mere three years before that.

(8) Places of Interest in Great Britain

Great Britain is rich in world-famous places. Certainly among them there are famous university cities Oxford and Cambridge, Shakespeare's birthplace — Stratford-upon-Avon, towns of Cardiff, Edinburgh,Glasgow.

(1) Stratford-upon-Avon is a small town with the population about 20 thousand. It is 94 miles northwest of London. Its chief points of interest are associated with the name and life of Shakespeare. In Henley Street stands a one-storeyed wooden house, where the greatest English poet and playwright was born. Now, this house belongs to the British government.

When Shakespeare won the recognition of his contemporaries and became wealthy, he bought New Place, one of the largest houses in Stratford. It was in 1597 but he continued to live and work in London until 1610. Shakespeare died at the age of fifty-two in 1616 at New Place. But in 1759 the house where he died was torn down. Shakespeare was buried in the church at Stratford on the banks of the Avon.

The Royal Shakespeare Theatre was opened in Stratford in 1932. Only Shakespeare's plays are performed here. The plays staged in this theatre attract people from all over the world. Every year on the 23d of April people from all over the world come to Stratford to take part in celebrating Shakespeare's birthday.

(2)Those who come to Oxford certainly are interested in its university most of all. It was founded in the 12th century. But there is no "university" as such in Oxford. The component parts of the University of Oxford are the colleges. Each college is practically autonomous, with its own set of rules of government. But not only this makes Oxford so different from the universities in other countries. Oxford has a "golden heart" — an area of less than half a square mile in which various historic buildings may be found. But they do not stand in isolation; they are mixed together with houses, shops and offices.

(3)Cardiff is the capital of Wales and its chief port. Cardiff is also a tourist centre. There are some places of interest there: the Castle, National Museum of Wales, New Theatre, Welsh Folk Museum. The Welsh people love singing. That's why Wales is sometimes called "the land of song". One of the Welsh traditions is festivals. Song festivals are very popular and usually gather a lot of people.

(4)Edinburgh is a city where the historic past lives side by side with the present. The first thing one can see is a very large hill in the middle of Edinburgh — the Rock. Edinburgh Castle stands on the Rock. It is the most famous building in the city. Edinburgh is famous for many things: its art galleries, museums, libraries. But it is especially famous for its festivals. In summer there is the Edinburgh 54 Festival. This is Britain's biggest arts festival. The city gets thousands of visitors during the festival period and every theatre, church and school hall is used for drama, music, film or opera. Besides the official festival there is also an unofficial festival. Here the artists are amateurs. Now, the unofficial festival is even bigger and more popular than the official one.

The best-known monument in Edinburgh is the Walter Scott Monument. The famous English writer of historic novels lived and worked here. The monument is in the form of a Gothic spire 200 feet high with a statue of Sir Walter Scott inside this beautiful structure. In the niches of the monument there are 64 statuettes of well-known characters from Scott's novels and poems.

(5)'There is a prehistoric monument in Great Britain which is as interesting to the tourists as the Egyptian pyramids. This is Stonehenge. Stones stand here in circles or are arranged into a horseshoe shape. A great many theories have been advanced but exactly why it was built remains a mystery.

(9) Londinium: Ancient Roman Outpost That Became Powerful City Of London

The Romans established Londinium on the current site of the City of London around 43 AD. The first *definite mention* of the city refers to the year 60 AD and occurs in the writings of the Roman historian and senator, Tacitus, who wrote of a celebrated center of commerce filled with traders.

By the reign of Hadrian, Britannia was a fully developed province of the Roman Empire. One of the Roman outposts was Londinium, which eventually transformed into one of the world's most famous modern cities - London.

At the beginning, Londinium was just a small military outpost occupying rather small area of 1.4 km^2 (0.5 sq mi), but the city grew rapidly. By the turn of the century, Londinium had grown to about 60,000 people. Its access to the River Thames and the North Sea, contributed also to the city's importance and turned it to a thriving and influential provincial capital and major port. Londinium was not only the center of commerce but also the seat of government. By the 2nd century AD., Londinium was a large Roman city, with tens of thousands of inhabitants. Richer and noble people's homes had wall paintings and mosaic floors; many lived in villas, palaces. They had to their disposal temples, large forum and baths. Ordinary people lived in small houses with front doors and workshops behind. Soldiers lived in the fort, outside the main part of the town. The city was equipped with massive defenses: several forts were built along with the immense London Wall, remains of which are still recognizable in the city. The

Romans also built heavy defenses for the city, constructing several forts and the massive London Wall, approximately 14.5 feet thick and at least 20 feet high.

Parts of this construction are still visible across the city today. Londinium's well-built roads linked it with several other, smaller cities and continued all the way to the borders of Britannia. The countryside's landscape dotted with well-developed farms, surrounded Londinium.

Around 350, a series of 22 solid, semi-circular towers were additionally constructed and these functioned as bases for *ballistae,* (an ancient form of large crossbow used to propel a spear). During the Roman times, several similar town and city walls were constructed by the Romans in England and Wales and their remains survived until now.

Londinium had been a Roman foundation and for almost four centuries it had its importance; later, the great city began to wither and trade, which was so important for the city, broke down.

According to many researchers, Londinium had always been much more Roman than British and in the 5th century, still many rich Roman families lived in Londinium. Archaeological excavations revealed their remains in form of large hidden hoards of Roman coins and diverse household remains.

The Romans had been troubled by serious barbarian raids since around 360 AD. The Irish, Scottish and Saxons from Germany all came to plunder the wealth of Roman Britain. The Roman legions began to withdraw from Britain in 383 AD to secure the Empire's borders in other places of Europe.

In 410 AD, Emperor Homorius finally had refused to send support to the British Romans and all Roman troops had been withdrawn, leaving the cities of Britain and the remaining Romano-British for themselves.

The Roman Empire's conquest of Britain finally ended and a new period of time known as the Dark Ages began.

(10) Lord Speaker

The office of Lord Speaker was created under the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 when the historical roles of the Lord Chancellor were re-distributed and reformed.

The Lord Speaker chairs daily business in the House of Lords chamber and is an ambassador for the work of the House. To date, there have been two Lord Speakers.

The House of Lords is self-regulating, meaning that it has never delegated its power to regulate its own proceedings to any other authority.

The Lord Speaker has no power to call Members to order, to decide who speaks next, or to select amendments. In practice this means that the preservation of order and the maintenance of the rules of debate are the responsibility of the House itself, that is, of all the Members who are present, and any Member may draw attention to breaches of order or failures to observe customs.

However, the Lord Speaker does 'collect the voices' and calls for votes when necessary. 'Collect the voices' is the term for the process whereby the Lord Speaker puts a motion or amendment to a vote at the end of the debate, and tries to judge by the volume of voices which side has the most support.

At the start of each sitting, the Lord Speaker processes into the Chamber and presides over proceedings from the Woolsack, the large square cushion of wool covered in red cloth at the centre of the Lords' Chamber. It is stuffed with wool brought from around the Commonwealth.

The tradition of the Woolsack dates back to the reign of Edward III when the wool trade was one of the most important parts of the economy, and so the seat is a traditional symbol of the wealth of the country.

The Lord Speaker has many roles including ceremonial, ambassadorial and outreach. In addition to the presiding officer role, the Lord Speaker has ceremonial duties within the House, for example, at the State Opening of Parliament, and when visiting Heads of State address the Houses of Parliament.

She also has an ambassadorial role receiving and visiting speakers of overseas parliaments and participating in speakers' conferences. The incumbent also chairs the House Committee, the main supervisory body for the House of Lords Administration, with responsibility for financial matters.

The Lord Speaker conducts outreach activities to engage the public in the work of the Lords, including the Peers in Schools programme which is aimed at young people.

The Lord Speaker is elected by Members of the House of Lords for a period of five years, renewable once. The first election took place on 4 July 2006 when Baroness Hayman took office. Baroness D'Souza is the current Lord Speaker. She was elected in July 2011.

Upon election, the successful Lord becomes unaffiliated from any party or group within the House and is not expected to vote, even in the event of a tie (as the House of Lords has rules set out for resolving an equality of votes).

Deputy Speakers assist the Lord Speaker and also sit on the Woolsack in the Lord Speaker's absence. They are all Members of the Lords and may continue to engage in party politics while serving as deputies.

(11) The Great Fire of London

The Great Fire of London raged for four days in 1666, destroying much of the city and leaving some 100,000 people homeless. As the Museum of London prepares to mark the 350th anniversary of the inferno, BBC News looks at how it left a lasting impact on the capital.

When a fire began in Thomas Farriner's bakery in London's Pudding Lane in the early hours of 2 September, no-one could have foreseen the damage it would cause.

In a city where open flames were used for heat and light, fires were common. In fact, when Lord Mayor Sir Thomas Bloodworth saw the flames, he was so unconcerned he went back to bed.

But the fire spread quickly - a combination of a strong wind, closely built properties and a warm summer which had dried out the wood and thatch used to construct homes meaning an area mile and a half wide along the River Thames was almost completely destroyed. But with that came the chance to rebuild the city.

A royal proclamation put a stop to construction until new regulations had been ushered in. The 1667 Rebuilding Act aimed to eradicate risks which had helped the fire take hold, including restrictions on upper floors of houses no longer being permitted to jut out over the floor below. Importantly, building materials also changed. The 1667 act stated: "No man whatsoever shall presume to erect any house or building, whether great or small, but of brick or stone." Anyone found to be flouting the new rules would be punished by having their house pulled down. Not only were houses made of wood in 1666, but so were water pipes, and much of the water supply infrastructure was destroyed. There were no access points to get to the water without stopping the flow, and in the panic to try and extinguish the fire the pipes were broken and the water drained away. Steps were taken to rectify this and make the water easier to access - essentially the beginnings of a fire hydrant system.

(12) History of Welsh Love Spoons

Welsh lovespoons are hand-made wooden spoons that are made from one piece of wood and designed and decorated according to the carver's imagination.

Originally made by young men during the long winter nights or by young men on long sea voyages, they were carved to express that young man's intentions towards a particular girl. A love spoon would be given to a girl as an indication that he wished to court her. A girl may have received lovespoons from several suitors and these would be displayed on the wall of her home.

The tradition of carving lovespoons is thought to have been derived from the making of culinary spoons and the giving of a spoon became symbolic with the expression of the wish to "feed" or support the object of the prospective suitor's desire. It was a short step to decorating such a spoon and to investing it with symbols of the suitor's hopes and wishes. Such a spoon would then have had no practical use and would have been regarded as an ornamental gift albeit vested with meaning.

The earliest surviving lovespoon dating from around 1667 is at the National Museum of Wales at St. Fagans near Cardiff but Welsh lovespoons are known to have been made by the menfolk of Wales before this date.

The practice of making and giving lovespoons by prospective suitors was common in Wales throughout the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries but the custom became less popular towards the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th. There has been a revival of the custom over the last 40 or so years and many people today make love spoons on a commercial basis for customers to utilise for the commemoration of special events in their lives or in the lives of their loved ones.

Today Welsh lovespoons may be given as they were originally, to declare a suitor's intent, to commemorate a Wedding Day, an Engagement, the birth of a child, a wedding anniversary, a birthday, a Christening or Baptism, Valentine's Day or the Welsh equivalent, Dydd Santes Dwynwen, a graduation and as "favours" for the guests at a wedding.

Wood carvers have traditionally used a variety of timbers for their work; the timber chosen being most suited to the item being fashioned. Lovespoons have been made from timbers most readily available and from those that are easily worked; softwoods such as sycamore and lime.

(13) Black Friday and Buy Nothing Day

Every year in November, people look for bargains on Black Friday. But did you know that the same day is also Buy Nothing Day?

Black Friday is the day after the American holiday of Thanksgiving, which is celebrated on the fourth Thursday of November. Because it is a holiday in the United States, it has long been a popular day for consumers to start shopping for Christmas. Over the last 20 years big retailers have started to offer discounts and bargains on this day, and it has become more and more popular. Last year, people in the USA spent an estimated $54.7 billion between Black Friday and Cyber Monday (the Monday after Thanksgiving, when people often buy more online). The idea of Black Friday has also spread around the world. For example, in 2017, people in the UK spent the equivalent of $10.3 billion, in Germany $7.6 billion and in France $6.2 billion.

Many of us love to get a bargain, but some feel that events like Black Friday encourage people to buy things that they don’t really need and can’t afford. Many people seem to completely lose control of both their spending and their tempers. It is easy to find video online of customers physically fighting each other over bargains. It is also argued that Black Friday is bad for small shopkeepers, who cannot afford to offer the kinds of price cuts that the big companies can.

Instead of taking the opportunity to buy as much as possible on Black Friday, you could do the opposite and buy absolutely nothing. Since 1997, Buy Nothing Day has been held on the same day as Black Friday. The rules are simple. Just don’t buy anything at all for 24 hours. Many people are surprised how difficult this actually is. The aim is to make people think more about their spending and to make better decisions about what they buy and where they buy it from.

As well as spending less and not buying unnecessary items, Buy Nothing Day aims to raise awareness of how to be a more ethical consumer. For example, you can avoid buying ‘fast fashion’, that is, very cheap clothes that are worn a few times before being thrown away. Or you could decide not to automatically upgrade your mobile at the end of a contract. These kinds of decisions can help to protect the environment as well as saving you money.

Some people carry out protests at shopping centres. Others avoid the shops completely and go for a walk in nature instead. Another alternative, the Buy Nothing Coat Exchange, is an idea which is spreading. People donate winter coats throughout November and anyone who needs one can come and take one on Buy Nothing Day.

(14) Received Pronunciation

Variously referred to as the ‘Queen’s English’, ‘BBC English’ or ‘Oxford English’, Received Pronunciation, or RP for short, is the accent usually described as typically British. Find out more about its origins and its current status in the UK.

Received Pronunciation, or **RP** for short, is the instantly recognisable accent often described as ‘typically British’. Popular terms for this accent, such as ‘the Queen’s English’, ‘Oxford English’ or ‘BBC English’ are all a little misleading. The Queen, for instance, speaks an almost unique form of English, while the English we hear at Oxford University or on the BBC is no longer restricted to one type of accent. RP is an **accent**, not a **dialect**, since all RP speakers speak Standard English. In other words, they avoid non-standard grammatical constructions and localised vocabulary characteristic of regional dialects. RP is also regionally non-specific, that is it does not contain any clues about a speaker’s geographic background. But it does reveal a great deal about their social and/or educational background.

RP is probably the most widely studied and most frequently described variety of spoken English in the world, yet recent estimates suggest only 3% of the UK population speak it. It has a negligible presence in Scotland and Northern Ireland and is arguably losing its prestige status in Wales. It should properly, therefore, be described as an English, rather than a British accent. As well as being a living accent, RP is also a theoretical linguistic concept. It is the accent on which phonemic transcriptions in dictionaries are based, and it is widely used (in competition with **General American**) for teaching English as a foreign language. RP is included here as a useful reference, not to imply it has greater merit than any other English accent, but because it provides us with an extremely familiar model against which comparisons with other accents may be made.

A speaker who uses numerous very localised pronunciations is often described as having a ‘broad’ or ‘strong’ regional accent, while terms such as ‘mild’ or ‘soft’ are applied to speakers whose speech patterns are only subtly different from RP speakers. So, we might describe one speaker as having a broad Glaswegian accent and another as having a mild Scottish accent. Such terms are inadequate when applied to Received Pronunciation, although as with any variety of English, RP encompasses a wide variety of speakers and should not be confused with the notion of 'posh' speech. The various forms of RP can be roughly divided into three categories. **Conservative RP** refers to a very traditional variety particularly associated with older speakers and the aristocracy. **Mainstream RP** describes an accent that we might consider extremely neutral in terms of signals regarding age, occupation or lifestyle of the speaker. **Contemporary RP** refers to speakers using features typical of younger RP speakers. All, however, are united by the fact they do not use any pronunciation patterns that allow us to make assumptions about where they are from in the UK.

(15) The Political System (The UK)

The United Kingdom is a constitutional (or parliamentary) monarchy, without a written constitution. The British constitution is based on Acts of Parliament (also called "laws" or "statutes") and "conventions", which are commonly accepted assumptions about the way things should be done.

The British Constitution provides for three branches of power: Parliament, which makes laws, the government, which 'executes' laws, i.e. puts them into effect, and the law courts, which interpret laws.

The country has a monarch (a king or a queen) as its Head of State. The monarch has very little power and can only reign with the support of Parliament, which consists of ' two chambers known as the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

Parliament and the monarch have different roles in the government of the country, and they only meet together on symbolic occasions such as the coronation of a new monarch or the opening of Parliament.

In reality, the House of Commons is the only one of the three which has true power. It is here that new bills are introduced and debated. If the majority of the members are in favour of a bill, it goes to the House of Lords to be debated and finally to the monarch to be signed. Only then does it become law. Although a bill must be supported by all three bodies, the House of Lords only has limited powers, and the monarch has not refused to sign one since the modern political system began over 200 years ago.

The Monarch. The Queen has a certain role in state affairs, not only through her ceremonial functions, such as opening Parliament, but also because she meets the Prime Minister every week and receives copies of all Cabinet papers.

Functions of the Sovereign are as follows:

- opening and closing Parliament;
- approving of the appointment of the Prime Minister;
- giving her Royal Assent to bills;
- giving honours such as peerages, knighthoods and medals;
- Head of the Commonwealth;
- Head of the Church of England;
- Commander-in-Chief of the armed Forces.

The powers of the monarch are not defined precisely, however. Theoretically every act of government is done in the Queen's name. Every letter sent out by a government department is marked "On Her Majesty's Service" and she appoints all the Ministers, including the Prime Minister. In reality, everything is done on the advice of the elected Government, and the Monarch takes no part in the decision-making process.

(16) The Oxford English Dictionary

The first volume of the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) was published in February of 1884 and covered from “A” to “Ant”. In the first seven years of work, the editors didn't get past the letter "b". The dictionary’s ambitious intention was to record every word used in English since 1150 and trace it back through all its shifting meanings, spellings and uses to its earliest recorded appearance, plus at least one citation for each century of its existence. In the end, it became twenty ponderous volumes long, with 615,000 entries; 2,412,000 supporting quotations, and 60,000,000 words.

The Oxford English Dictionary was the first modern English dictionary ever made and it set a new standard for what dictionaries would be from then on. To this date, it is considered "the ultimate authority on the usage and meaning of English words and phrases, unparalleled in its accuracy and comprehensiveness".

According to the publishers, it would take a single person 120 years to 'key in' the text to convert the 59 million words in the second edition of OED into machine readable format, followed by 60 years of proofreading and requiring 540 megabytes of electornic storage space.

One of the thousands of contributors of the OED was Fritzeward Hall, who spoke nine languages and "wrote every single day ... with sheet after sheet of proofs, corrected, changed, closely read and carefully parsed."

William Chester Minor was also a prolific contributor. He was a retired United States Army surgeon and was, at the time of his contribution, imprisoned in the Broadmoor Criminal Lunatic Asylum. His story was told in book *The Surgeon of Crowthorne: A Tale of Murder, Madness and the Love of Words*, written by Simon Winchester, first published in England in 1998 and then retitled *The Professor and the Madman: A Tale of Murder, Insanity, and the Making of the Oxford English Dictionary* in the United States and Canada (the 'professor' of the American title is James Murray).

Author J.R.R. Tolkien worked on the making OED. He was employed in 1919 and concentrated mostly on letter "W" (warm, wasp, water, wick, wallop, waggle, winter). He said that during the time he worked on the OED, he learned more "than (at) any other equal period of my life."

According to book “The Meaning of Everything - The Story of the Oxford English Dictionary”, also by Simon Winchester, to Murray the hardest word was “set”. “Black” was also a difficult one, taking one assistant three months to work out. The very last word in the 1928 edition was **zyxt**: a Kentish word, past participle of the verb to see.

(17) Constitutional history of the United States

The United States of America consists of fifty states, one federal district and several territories. Forty-eight contiguous states sit between Mexico to the south and Canada to the north. Alaska, the forty-ninth state, is located to the west of Canada, and Hawaii, the fiftieth, is an island located in the Pacific Ocean.

Initially, the country was made up of a loose group of British colonies that had developed along the eastern shore of present day USA. The original thirteen colonies were New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. British rule within the colonies increased following the end of a six year war between Britain and the French in the northern territories. Relations between the colonies and Britain soon soured over lack of representation within the British Parliament and the increased taxation to pay for the war. The American Revolutionary War began in 1775. On July 4, 1776 the colonists adopted a Declaration of Independence from Britain. The short document had many innovations, such as the declaration that all men are created equal and that the people have the right to choose their governments. Needing a framework for a federal government to govern the thirteen independent states, the Second Continental Congress appointed a thirteen member committee to prepare a draft constitution. After a year of debates, the Articles of Confederation were completed on November 15, 1777, with the last state signing on November 20, 1778. However, because they vested almost all power in the states and gave very little authority to the federal government, the Articles soon led to confusion and infighting among the states, especially once the Revolutionary War ended in 1783.

Recognizing the need for a new system, a constitutional convention was organized to revise the Articles in May 1787. It was attended by delegates from the different states, drawn from all sectors of society. Despite its limited mandate to only revise the Articles of the Confederation, delegates decided to adopt a completely new instrument of government. Following further debates, the instrument was finally submitted to the states for ratification as a new Constitution in September 1787. One year later, in September 1788, the new Constitution came into effect.

A very short document consisting of seven articles, the Constitution was designed to set up a federal government of limited power and to protect the rights of the states. Articles I-III focus on the power and authority belonging to the three branches of the federal government: the Legislature, the Executive, and the Judiciary. Article IV addresses the relationship among the several states. Article V establishes the guidelines for amending the Constitution. Article VI declares the Constitution as the supreme law of the land, and Article VII describes the process of ratification. The Constitution, as ratified, did not provide for protection of civil liberties. These were established through the Constitution's first ten Amendments, known as the Bill of Rights, in1789. These amendments limit the federal government's abilities to restrain or dictate the behavior of the individual.

Including the Bill of Rights, the Constitution has been amended twenty-seven times. The 17 additional amendments have addressed several issues, including criminalizing slavery, introducing female suffrage, and ensuring the protection of voting rights. The most recent amendment, in 1992, established that any law changing the compensation of members of Congress would not take effect until after a new Congressional election had been held.

(18) The Three Major Powers (US Constitution)

The Separation of Powers devised by the framers of the Constitution was designed to do one primary thing: to prevent the majority from ruling with an iron fist. Based on their experience, the framers shied away from giving any branch of the new government too much power. The separation of powers provides a system of shared power known as Checks and Balances.

Three branches are created in the Constitution. The Legislative, composed of the House and Senate, is set up in Article 1. The Executive, composed of the President, Vice-President, and the Departments, is set up in Article 2. The Judicial, composed of the federal courts and the Supreme Court, is set up in Article 3. Each of these branches has certain powers, and each of these powers is limited, or checked, by another branch.

The executive power is vested in the President, who serves a four-year term, renewable once. To qualify for the Presidency, an individual must be a natural born US citizen who has been a resident of the United States for at least fourteen years and is at least thirty-five years old. The President is the Head-of -State, Head-of-Government, and Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces. The President receives foreign diplomats and, with the consent of the Senate, makes treaties.

All **legislative power**, both enumerated and implied, granted to the federal government vest in the Congress comprised of the House of Representatives and the Senate. Representatives must be at least twenty-five years old, be a citizen of the United States for seven years, and live in the district they represent. Senators must be at least 30 years old, be a citizen for nine years, and live in the state they represent. Representatives are directly elected for a two-year term, while Senators serve six. The Vice President serves as the President of the Senate. An overturn of a President's veto requires a two-third majority from both Houses. Article I, Section 8 enumerates the legislative powers, which include: To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, to provide for the common welfare, to provide for and maintain the armed forces, to borrow money and to declare war. The Constitution also gives Congress the power to regulate foreign and interstate commerce.

The Constitution vests **the judicial power** of the United States in the Supreme Court and any other inferior courts that may be created. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a state is a party, the Supreme Court has original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make. Because the Court has jurisdiction over issues arising under the Constitution, it has the power of judicial review. The court can decide whether the actions taken by the states, the executive, or the legislature are constitutional. Supreme Court Justices are nominated by the President and confirmed by a majority of the Senate. Justices have a life tenure, unless he or she retires or is impeached.

(19) The reign of Henry VIII - The English Reformation

The English Reformation started in the reign of Henry VIII. The English Reformation was to have far reaching consequences in Tudor England. Henry VIII decided to rid himself of his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, after she had failed to produce a male heir to the throne. He had already decided who his next wife would be – Anne Boleyn. By 1527, Catherine was considered too old to have any more children.

However, a divorce was not a simple issue. In fact, it was a very complicated one. Henry VIII was a Roman Catholic and the head of this church was the pope based in Rome.

The Roman Catholic faith believed in marriage for life. It did not recognise, let alone support, divorce. Those who were widowed were free to re-marry; this was an entirely different issue. But husbands could not simply decide that their marriage was not working, divorce their wife and re-marry. The Roman Catholic Church simply did not allow it.

This put Henry VIII in a difficult position. If he went ahead and announced that as king of England he was allowing himself a divorce, the pope could excommunicate him. This meant that under Catholic Church law, your soul could never get to Heaven. To someone living at the time of Henry, this was a very real fear, and a threat which the Catholic Church used to keep people under its control.

Another approach Henry used was to make a special appeal to the pope so that he might get a special "Papal Dispensation". This meant that the pope would agree to Henry's request for a divorce purely because Henry was king of England but that it would not affect the way the Catholic Church banned divorce for others. The pope refused to grant Henry this and by 1533 his anger was such that he ordered the Archbishop of Canterbury to grant him a divorce so that he could marry Anne Boleyn.

The Archbishop granted Henry his divorce – against the wishes of the pope. But what else could the archbishop do if he wanted to remain on good terms with Henry?

This event effectively lead to England breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church based in Rome. Henry placed himself as head of the church and in that sense, in his eyes, his divorce was perfectly legal. In 1533, few were brave enough to tell him otherwise!

How did the people of England react to this? In fact, the vast bulk of the population were very angry at the way the Roman Catholic Church had used them as a source of money. To get married you had to pay; to get a child baptised (which you needed to be if you were to go to Heaven – so the Catholic Church preached) you had to pay; you even had to pay the Church to bury someone on their land (which you had to do as your soul could only go to Heaven if you were buried on Holy Ground). Therefore, the Catholic Church was very wealthy while many poor remained just that….poor. Their money was going to the Catholic Church. Therefore, there were no great protests throughout the land as many felt that Henry would ease up on taking money from them. Henry knew of the Catholic Church's unpopularity and, therefore, used this to his advantage.

Henry was made Supreme Head of the Church by an Act of Parliament in 1534. The country was still Catholic but the pope's power had been ended.

(20) The Reformation

The most wealthy Catholics in England were the monasteries where monks lived. They were also the most loyal supporters of the pope. This made them a threat to Henry VIII.

By the time of Henry, many monks had grown fat and were lazy. They did not help the community as they were meant to do. All they seemed to do was take money from the poor. Also some monasteries were huge and owned vast areas of land. So here were monks not loyal to Henry who were also very wealthy. Henry decided to shut down the monasteries of England. The monasteries were to disappear like sugar dissolves in hot liquid. This is why Henry's attack on the monasteries is called the 'Dissolution' – they were to be dissolved!

Henry wanted to make the Dissolution appear to be backed by law. He sent round government officials to check up on what the monks were doing. This was organised by his chief minister, Thomas Cromwell. The officials knew what the king wanted in their reports – information that the monks were not working, were not saying their prayers etc. Anything to discredit the monks was considered useful.

Sometimes, the monks were asked trick questions. “Do you keep all of your vows?” If the monks answered “yes”, but had taken a vow of silence, they had not kept all of their vows. If they refused to answer because of their vow of silence, they would be accused of failing to help the king. Or worse, were they trying to hide something?

One report sent to Cromwell commented that the head of the monastery visited, the prior, was a “virtuous man”. However, his monks were “corrupt” and “full of vice”. The report claimed that the monks had eight to ten girl friends each. This was all that Cromwell needed to shut down the monastery.

The allegations against some monks and nuns ‘spoke’ for themselves. At Bradley monastic house, the prior was accused of fathering six children; at Lampley Convent, Mariana Wryte had given birth to three children and Johanna Standen to six; at Lichfield Convent, two nuns were found to be pregnant and at Pershore Monastic House, monks were found to be drunk at Mass.

The smaller monasteries were shut down by 1536 while the larger and more valuable ones were shut by 1540. Few people in England were sorry to see them go. Few monks protested as they were given pensions or jobs where their monastery was. The abbot of Fountains Abbey in Yorkshire, Marmaduke Bradley, was given a £100 pension a year for life – a considerable sum of money then. Some chief monks – abbots – were hanged but this was a rarity.

Some monastery buildings were reduced to ruin as the local population was allowed to take what they wanted as long as the silver and gold in the monastery went to the Crown. This meant that expensive building bricks etc. could be acquired for free. This alone made the Dissolution popular with the majority of the people who tended to dislike lazy monks anyhow.

However, the vast bulk of the wealth of the monasteries went to Henry. Some was spent building defences against France on the south coast around Portsmouth; a small amount went on paying pensions to monks and abbots.

When Henry became king in 1509, the church in England was as follows: Head of the Church: the pope based in Rome Church services: all were held in Latin Prayers: all said in Latin Bible: written in Latin Priests: not allowed to marry. By the death of Henry in 1547, the church in England was as follows: Head of the Church : the king Church services : held in Latin Prayers: most said in Latin. The “Lord’s Prayer” was said in English Bible: written in English Priests: not allowed to marry.

(21) The History of Christmas Pudding

Christmas pudding, also known as plum pudding (because of the abundance of prunes), originated in England. It is traditionally made five weeks before Christmas, on or after the Sunday before Advent. That day was often deemed "Stir-up Sunday," and each family member or child in the household gave the pudding a stir and made a wish.

The rich and heavy pudding is boiled or steamed, made of a heavy mixture of fresh or dried fruit, nuts and sometimes suet, a raw beef or mutton fat. Vegetarian suet may also be used for a lighter taste. The pudding is very dark, almost black, and is saturated with brandy, dark beer, or other alcohols. The puddings used to be boiled in a "pudding cloth," but today they are usually made in basins.

Many households stirred silver coins (for wealth), tiny wishbones (for good luck), a silver thimble (for thrift), a ring (for marriage), or an anchor (for safe harbor) into the mixture, and when served, whoever got the lucky serving, would be able to keep the charm. When silver coins were not as readily available, the practice ended because people feared putting alloy coins in their pudding. Today small token coins and other objects are made just for this use.

After the pudding has been steamed, it is kept in a cool dry place for several weeks or longer. It will need steamed for a few more hours on the day it is served. There are different ways Christmas pudding is served. Some decorate it with a spray of holly, douse it in brandy or set it on fire. Many families present the pudding in the dark or bring it to the table ceremoniously, where it is met with a round of applause.

Christmas pudding is eaten with brandy butter, rum butter, hard sauce, cream, custard or with a caster sugar. Families sometimes save one pudding for another holiday, like Easter, or even the next Christmas. Many argue that this takes away from the flavor, but that a good pudding will keep that long.

While some still prefer home cooked puddings, ready-made and cooked puddings are now available. Higher quality shops do offer Christmas pudding comparable to homemade. Store bought puddings make great gifts for far-away family members and friends without the hours of work and preparation.

(22) Niccolo Machiavelli

FIVE hundred years ago, on Dec. 10, 1513, Niccolò Machiavelli sent a letter to his friend Francesco Vettori, describing his day spent haggling with local farmers and setting bird traps for his evening meal. A typical day for the atypical letter writer, who had changed from his mud-splattered clothes to the robes he once wore as a high official in the Florentine republic.

Toward the end of the letter Machiavelli mentions for the first time a "little work" he was writing on politics. This little work was, of course, "The Prince."

One of the remarkable things about "The Prince" is not just what Machiavelli wrote, but that he was able to write at all. Just 10 months earlier, he endured the "strappado": Hands tied behind his back, he was strung to a prison ceiling and repeatedly plunged to the floor.

Having at the time just been given the task of overseeing the foreign policy and defense of his native city, he was thrown out of his office when the Medici family returned to power. The new rulers suspected him of plotting against them and wanted to hear what he had to say. Machiavelli prided himself on not uttering a word.

He may well have saved his words for "The Prince," dedicated to a member of the family who ordered his torture: Lorenzo de Medici. With the book, Machiavelli sought to persuade Lorenzo that he was a friend whose experience in politics and knowledge of the ancients made him an invaluable adviser.

History does not tell us if Lorenzo bothered to read the book. But if he did, he would have learned from his would-be friend that there are, in fact, no friends in politics.

"The Prince" is a manual for those who wish to win and keep power. The Renaissance was awash in such how-to guides, but Machiavelli's was different. To be sure, he counsels a prince on how to act toward his enemies, using force and fraud in war. But his true novelty resides in how we should think about our friends. It is at the book's heart, in the chapter devoted to this issue, that Machiavelli proclaims his originality.

Set aside what you would like to imagine about politics, Machiavelli writes, and instead go straight to the truth of how things really work, or what he calls the "effectual truth." You will see that allies in politics, whether at home or abroad, are not friends.

Perhaps others had been deluded about the distinction because the same word in Italian — “amici” — is used for both concepts. Whoever imagines allies are friends, Machiavelli warns, ensures his ruin rather than his preservation.

There may be no students more in need of this insight, yet less likely to accept it, than contemporary Americans, both in and outside the government. Like the political moralizers Machiavelli aims to subvert, we still believe a leader should be virtuous: generous and merciful, honest and faithful.

Yet Machiavelli teaches that in a world where so many are not good, you must learn to be able to not be good. The virtues taught in our secular and religious schools are incompatible with the virtues one must practice to safeguard those same institutions. The power of the lion and the cleverness of the fox: These are the qualities a leader must harness to preserve the republic.

(23) Why Machiavelli Still Matters

FIVE hundred years ago, on Dec. 10, 1513, Niccolò Machiavelli sent a letter to his friend Francesco Vettori, describing his day spent haggling with local farmers and setting bird traps for his evening meal. A typical day for the atypical letter writer, who had changed from his mud-splattered clothes to the robes he once wore as a high official in the Florentine republic.

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For such a leader, allies are friends when it is in their interest to be. (We can, with difficulty, accept this lesson when embodied by a Charles de Gaulle; we have even greater difficulty when it is taught by, say, Hamid Karzai.) What’s more, Machiavelli says, leaders must at times inspire fear not only in their foes but even in their allies — and even in their own ministers.

What would Machiavelli have thought when President Obama apologized for the fiasco of his health care rollout? Far from earning respect, he would say, all he received was contempt. As one of Machiavelli’s favorite exemplars, Cesare Borgia, grasped, heads must sometimes roll. (Though in

Borgia's case, he meant it quite literally, though he preferred slicing bodies in half and leaving them in a public square.)

Machiavelli has long been called a teacher of evil. But the author of "The Prince" never urged evil for evil's sake. The proper aim of a leader is to maintain his state (and, not incidentally, his job). Politics is an arena where following virtue often leads to the ruin of a state, whereas pursuing what appears to be vice results in security and well-being. In short, there are never easy choices, and prudence consists of knowing how to recognize the qualities of the hard decisions you face and choosing the less bad as what is the most good.

Those of us who see the world, if not in Manichaean, at least in Hollywoodian terms, will recoil at such claims. Perhaps we are right to do so, but we would be wrong to dismiss them out of hand. If Machiavelli's teaching concerning friends and allies in politics is deeply disconcerting, it is because it goes to the bone of our religious convictions and moral conventions. This explains why he remains as reviled, but also as revered, today as he was in his own age.

(24) **Was Shakespeare as popular in his own time as he is now?**

Nearly 400 years after his death, the best-known of all Shakespeare's lines is 'To be or not to be' from *Hamlet*, his most popular play in modern times. *Hamlet* has been translated into more than 75 languages (even Klingon), and performances are always taking place across the world.

In early modern London, Shakespeare's most sought-after plays were not the tragedies but the histories.

According to the Database of Early English Playbooks, the two most published plays (and likely the most popular) from the 1590s to the 1630s were *Henry IV Part I* – published 11 times – and *Richard III*, which was published ten times.

Shakespeare wrote ten history plays over his lifetime. He began with a tetralogy – a series of four plays that told the story of English Kings Henry VI and Richard III. He then, like Stars Wars creator George Lucas, went back in time to tell the stories leading up to that, with a focus on Richard II, Henry

IV, and Henry V. (The ‘Henriad’, as these plays are known, seems to have been better received than the Star Wars prequels.)

Although we can only guess at why early audiences were so drawn to the histories, it could be that the histories held an importance that is hard to imagine today. England’s ruler at the start of Shakespeare’s career was Queen Elizabeth I. As she grew older, the people of England wondered who would be her heir. They were no doubt mindful of the uprisings and usurpations that preceded her reign – many of which were dramatised in Shakespeare’s plays.

At one point in her reign, the queen allegedly said ‘I am Richard II’, comparing herself to Shakespeare’s most famous deposed king. In a country where power was centred on the throne, the issues of sovereignty and power, dramatised in Shakespeare's history plays, would have been at the centre of society, affecting everyone within it.

Although *Richard III* and *Henry IV* have always been favourites, recent productions have helped rekindle a popular appreciation of these sometimes overlooked history plays. The Royal Shakespeare Company (RSC) is running the whole Henriad, featuring the stories of Richard II, Henry IV and Henry V in a ‘King and Country’ season. The recent BBC television series The Hollow Crown, with Jeremy Irons as King Henry IV and Tom Hiddleston as Prince Hal (who eventually becomes Henry V), has created a new generation of fans. It's unlikely that Henry IV Part I will outpace Hamlet’s popularity anytime soon, though.

(25) Early attitudes to Shakespeare notes and enjoying Shakespeare today

We can tell what Shakespeare’s contemporaries thought about his plays by looking at their manuscripts. These were handwritten documents where they would jot down notes, accounts, poems, and snippets from plays. According to the Catalogue of English Literary Manuscripts, early readers didn't prefer Shakespeare over other popular writers of the time, such as Christopher Marlowe or Ben Jonson. It wasn't until the late 17th century, roughly 80 years after *Hamlet* was first performed and published, that readers copied out the ‘To be or not to be’ speech.

One mid-17th century commentary on *Hamlet* is found in Abraham Wright’s notebook (now held at the British Library). Wright criticised *Hamlet* as 'an indifferent [mediocre] play, the lines but mean [average].' Wright went so far as to claim that the gravedigger scene in *Hamlet* was 'since bettered in The Jealous Lovers', a play by Thomas Randolph that few people today have heard of. Wright did, however, enjoy *Othello*, which he deemed 'a very good play', and particularly liked the parts of 'villainous' Iago and 'jealous' Othello.

One of the earliest commentaries we have on Shakespeare comes from Gabriel Harvey, a scholar and writer, who noted in the margins of one of his books that 'the younger sort take much delight in Shakespeare's Venus and Adonis; but his Lucrece and his tragedy of Hamlet, Prince of Denmark, have it in them to please the wiser sort'.

These notes also show us that Shakespeare originally became popular as a poet, not a playwright. To many early readers, Shakespeare was known not as a distinguished dramatist, but as a poet, whose most important works were *The Rape of Lucrece*, *Venus and Adonis*, and the Sonnets.

There are more opportunities to enjoy Shakespeare's works today than there were in his own time.

In Shakespeare's time, his plays were performed at the Globe Theatre in London (recreated in today's Shakespeare's Globe). Entrance to the Globe cost only a penny for entrance to the 'pit' – an outdoor area in which people would stand to see the play. This cheap price meant that trade workers and merchants could afford to see plays at the Globe, while wealthier audience members paid more to sit in the gallery.

Shakespeare's playing company, The Lord Chamberlain's Men (later the King's Men) also performed at the Blackfriars theatre, an indoor theatre where audience members sat on benches to see performances. At sixpence, admission to the Blackfriars was more expensive than the cheapest entrance to the Globe.

Beyond professional theatres, Shakespeare's works were sometimes played at court before the nobility, or in schools.

Today, people from around the world attend Shakespeare's plays in parks, theatres and cinemas. From free outdoor shows to front-row seats in London's West End, Shakespeare's audiences in the 21st century are even more varied than in Shakespeare's time. His works are also performed globally in many artistic disciplines and languages. In 2012, Shakespeare's 37 plays were performed in 37 languages in London as part of the Globe to Globe festival, with companies from across the world celebrating Shakespeare within their own theatrical traditions.

Тексты профессиональной направленности

(1) **Economy in Ancient Rome**

Ancient Rome commanded a vast area of land, with tremendous natural and human resources. As such, Rome's economy remained focused on farming and trade. Agricultural free trade changed the Italian landscape, and by the 1st century BC, vast grape and olive estates had supplanted the yeoman farmers, who were unable to match the imported grain price. The annexation of Egypt, Sicily and Tunisia in North Africa provided a continuous supply of grains. In turn, olive oil and wine were Italy's main exports. Two-tier crop rotation was practiced, but farm productivity was low, around 1 ton per hectare.

Industrial and manufacturing activities were smaller. The largest of such activities were the mining and quarrying of stones, which provided basic construction materials for the buildings of that period. In manufacturing, production was on a relatively small scale, and generally consisted of workshops and small factories that employed at most dozens of workers. However, some brick factories employed hundreds of workers.

The economy of the early Republic was largely based on smallholding and paid labor. However, foreign wars and conquests made slaves increasingly cheap and plentiful, and by the late Republic, the economy was largely dependent on slave labor for both skilled and unskilled work. Slaves are estimated to have constituted around 20% of the Roman Empire's population at this time and 40% in the city of Rome. Only in the Roman Empire, when the conquests stopped and the prices of slaves increased, did hired labor become more economical than slave ownership.

Although barter was used in ancient Rome, and often used in tax collection, Rome had a very developed coinage system, with brass, bronze, and precious metal coins in circulation throughout the Empire and beyond. Before the 3rd century BC, copper was traded by weight, measured in unmarked lumps, across central Italy. The original copper coins had a face value of one Roman pound of copper, but weighed less. Thus, Roman money's utility as a unit of exchange consistently exceeded its intrinsic value as metal. After Nero began debasing the silver denarius, its legal value was an estimated one-third greater than its intrinsic value.

Horses were too expensive and other pack animals too slow. Mass trade on the Roman roads connected military posts, not markets, and were rarely designed for wheels. As a result, there was little transport of commodities between Roman regions until the rise of Roman maritime trade in the 2nd century BC. During that period, a trading vessel took less than a month to complete a trip from Gades to Alexandria via Ostia, spanning the entire length of the Mediterranean. Transport by sea was around 60 times cheaper than by land, so the volume for such trips was much larger.

(2) Do You Want to be an Entrepreneur?

Have you ever considered starting your own business? Can you imagine making a lot of money or being an entrepreneur? Or maybe it is not worth taking the risk?

If you start your own business, you will maybe borrow money from friends or family, or even from a bank. If you choose to borrow from a bank, you should arrange to see a bank manager to discuss the terms of a loan. But, you can expect to have a lot of work. If you arrange a meeting with the bank, you will have to think over your idea and prepare all your figures.

The bank will certainly want to see a business plan. You will have to prepare a lot of information. You will have to prepare a cash flow forecast, which shows how much money you expect to make in the first three years, plus how many customers you hope to win. You will also have to decide what kind of security you want to offer the bank.

If the bank agrees to give you a loan, your problems don't stop there because the bank will often require you to update them on your progress. The business plan allows them to see if you are meeting your forecasts and, if you fail, they may want to have the money back. Of course, if you agree to borrow the money, you will have to repay the loan plus interest. That can be the hardest part...

You probably would take a loan from the bank. It could be a mortgage for as long as 20 years. It could be a financial product over a shorter period such as one to two years. This could be classed as a long or medium term source of financing depending on how long it is taken for.

Advantages: Interest rates are likely to be lower than those of shorter term sources of finance such as overdrafts. Interest charges can be fixed over the term of
the loan, this means that monthly payments will always be the same and can be planned for.

Disadvantages: Repayments must be made on time every month or the business could be taken to court. The bank is likely to secure this type of finance against the assets of the business such as machinery. If the payments are missed, the business could be forced to hand over these assets.

(3) The idea of open-plan space

The open office concept was devised in Germany in the 1950s, but it has only become popular in the United States within the past decade. The U.S. trend caught on fast: A whopping near-70 percent of American workers now find themselves in open offices. From corporate behemoths like Google to scrappy e-commerce startups like Saatva Mattress Company, companies large and small have made the transition to collaborative workspaces.

For employers, the benefits of open office spaces are obvious. They reduce overhead by minimizing the cost of office space and equipment. There are no cubicle materials to purchase, more people can be squeezed into less square footage, and consequently there are fewer maintenance costs for the company as a whole. Open offices also allow for easy observation of employees and greater assurance that workers are not slacking off on the job.

Beyond their cost-saving benefits, open offices are thought to foster a sense of shared mission, create a less hierarchical, more laid-back atmosphere, and facilitate collaboration between coworkers. This collaboration, in turn, can promote greater productivity and creative thinking amongst coworkers (or so the thinking goes).

There is some evidence that open office spaces achieve exactly what they set out to do. Some studies have found they can indeed cultivate a sense of community and increase the efficiency with which information is distributed throughout a team. When executives and workers share the same workspace, it can break down barriers and increase understanding between employees at all levels of the company. This can increase the likelihood that problems will be solved efficiently and effectively. All of this can have a profound effect on workplace productivity.

However, while open office spaces do promote more interaction between coworkers, this is not always a good thing.

Several studies have found that open offices are noisy places, and this noise is a persistent distraction for workers. From ringing phones to water cooler talk, noisy interruptions can waste employees' time and drain their productivity. In addition to being a distraction, background noise can actually inhibit employees' cognitive performance. It also contributes to a general sense of overstimulation in open offices, which has been linked to heightened stress. Stress, in turn, can be a serious productivity killer.

Another downside of open offices is they are devoid of privacy. This may facilitate collaboration, but it can also increase stress.

Finally, open office spaces can hamper productivity by increasing absenteeism due to sickness. One study found that workers in open office spaces take an average of 62 percent more sick days than those who work in private offices.

(4) Kinds of Businesses

Businesses are structured in different ways to meet different needs. The simplest form of business is called an individual or sole proprietorship. The proprietor owns all of the property of the business and is responsible for everything. For legal purposes, with this kind of business, the owner and the company are the same. This means the proprietor gets to keep all of the profits of the business, but must also pay any debts.

Another kind of business is the partnership. Two or more people go into business together. An agreement is usually needed to decide how much of the partnership each person controls. One kind of partnership is called a limited liability partnership. These have full partners and limited partners. Limited partners may not share as much in the profits, but they also have less responsibility for the business. Doctors, lawyers and accountants often form partnerships to share their risks and profits. A husband and wife can form a business partnership together. Partnerships exist only for as long as the owners remain alive. The same is true of individual proprietorships.

But corporations are designed to have an unlimited lifetime. A corporation is the most complex kind of business organization. Corporations can sell stock as a way to raise money. Stock represents shares of ownership in a company. Investors who buy stock can trade their shares or keep them as long as the company is in business. A company might use some of its earnings to pay dividends as a reward to shareholders. Or, the company might reinvest the money back into the business. If shares lose value, investors can lose all of the money they paid for their stock. But shareholders are not responsible for the debts of the corporation. A corporation is recognized as an entity –its own legal being, separate from its owners. A board of directors controls corporate policies. The directors appoint top company officers. The directors might or might not hold shares in the corporation. Corporations can have a few major shareholders. Or ownership can be spread among the general public. But not all corporations are traditional businesses that sell stock. Some non-profit groups are also organized as corporations.

Adapted VOA Special English Economics Report from a radio program broadcast 10 Feb 2012.

(5) Gold Keeps Shining 40 Years After Nixon Ended Gold Standard

The best example of something is often called the "gold standard." It sets the standard against which other things are measured. In economics, the term describes how major trading nations once used gold to set currency values and exchange rates. Many nations continued to use the gold standard until the last century. In the United States, people could exchange paper money for gold from the eighteen seventies until nineteen thirty-three. President Richard Nixon finally disconnected the dollar from the value of gold in nineteen seventy-one. Some politicians from time to time call for a return to the gold standard. But in nineteen seventy-eight the International Monetary Fund ended an official gold price. The IMF also ended the required use of gold in transactions with its member countries. Since that time, gold prices have grown, but unevenly. Prices – uncorrected for inflation – have hit record highs recently above fourteen hundred dollars an ounce. But people keep buying. Neang Chan Nuon is a gold shop owner in the Cambodian capital, Phnom Penh, and says: "Some of my customers have even bought more as they believe the price will probably go higher. I sell more gold at these higher prices." Some people are "gold bugs." These are investors who say people should buy gold to protect against inflation. People have valued gold for thousands of years. The soft, dense metal polishes to a bright yellow shine and resists most chemical reactions. It makes a good material for money, political power –and, more recently, electrical power. If you own a device like a mobile phone or a computer, you might own a little gold in the wiring. The gold standard was the subject of one of the best –known speeches in American political history. It took place at the eighteen ninety-six Democratic National Convention in Chicago. William Jennings Bryan wanted the country to use both gold and silver as money. The idea was to devalue the dollar and make it easier for farmers to pay their debts. Bryan said: "You shall not press down upon the brow of labor this crown of thorns. You shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold. "The speech made William Jennings Bryan famous. He was a presidential candidate three times. But he never won.

AdaptedbyVOASpecialEnglishEconomicsReportfromaradioprogrambroadcast15April2011

(6) Rebalancing the World Economy

In September, the Group of 20 met in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. It was the third Group of 20 summit in less than a year. Leaders of the major developed and developing economies discussed ways to fix the world financial system.

In April they had agreed to do everything necessary to prevent a collapse. This time they noted their success, but warned that the “process of recovery and repair remains incomplete.

”The presidents and prime ministers launched what they called a Framework for Strong, Sustainable and Balanced Growth. At the same time, they agreed to make the G20 the main group to guide international economic cooperation.

For years that has been a job for the Group of 8: Britain, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia and the United States.

But the world’s economic power structure has changed. The G8 leaves out developing nations with big populations and growing economies like China, India and Brazil.

In Pittsburgh, rich nations agreed to also give up some of their representation in the International Monetary Fund. And they called for more voting power for developing nations in the World Bank.

Ghiyath Nakshbendi is a professor of international business at American University in Washington, D.C. He said the decision to cooperate on economic policy is important, given how much Gross Domestic Product the G20 represents. He said that when you talk about the G20, you are talking about nineteen countries plus the European Union that produce ninety-five percent of the G.D.P. in the world.

Martin Edwards is an assistant professor at Seton Hall University in New Jersey who has written about the I.M.F. He says increasing the influence of developing nations will increase the standing of the fund and the World Bank. But he notes that having more players at the table could also mean more disputes.

In terms of financial reforms, experts say there is widespread support for some proposals to control risks. But others are unpopular in America and Britain. These include linking the pay of bankers to their bank’s long-term performance.

G20 leaders plan to meet next in Canada in June and in South Korea next November. They face many hard choices in the coming months. Professor Nakshbendi says the biggest question is to what extent are they willing to follow their own advice.

(Adapted by VOA Special English Economics Report from a radio program broadcast 09 Oct 2009)

(7) Glimpses of History of Money

At different periods of time and in different parts of the world many different commodities have served as money. These commodities were: cattle, sheep, furs, leather, fish, tobacco, tea, salt, shells etc. The experts underline that to serve effectively as money; a commodity should be fairly durable, easily divisible, and portable. None of the above-mentioned commodities possessed all these qualities, and in time they were superseded by precious metals. First they were superseded by silver and later by gold. When a payment was made, the metal was first weighed out. The next stage was the cutting of the metal into pieces of definite weight and so coins came into use.

Paper money first came into use in the form of receipts given by goldsmiths in exchange for deposits of silver and gold coins. After goldsmiths became bankers their receipts became banknotes. That's how the first banknotes came into existence. At first coins were worth their face value as metal. But later token coins of limited value as legal tender were issued. Now smaller denomination coins are made from bronze and are often referred to as coppers. Bigger denomination coins are made from cupronickel and are usually called silver.

Money is one of the most important inventions of humankind. Without it a complex, modern economy based on the division of labor, and the exchange of goods and services, would be impossible.

When you buy a candy bar, you may pay for it with a coin or paper note. The storekeeper knows that you will eat candy, and that he never will be able to get it back from you. He also knows that he can eat neither the coin nor the note you gave him. Why does he accept the coin or note in trade for candy? It is because the coin is money.

At first sight answering the question what money is seems obvious; the man or woman in the street would agree on coins and bank notes, but would they accept them from any country? What about checks? They would probably be less willing to accept them than their country's coins and notes. What about credit cards and gold? The gold standard belongs to history but even today many rich people in different parts of the world rather keep some of their wealth in the form of gold than in official, inflation-prone currencies. The attractiveness of gold, from aesthetic point of view, and its resistance to corrosion are two of the properties which led to its use for monetary transactions years. In complete contrast, a form of money with virtually no tangible properties –electronic money –seems to gain in popularity

(8)The Bank of Russia

The Bank of Russia has a vertically integrated centralized structure, comprising the central office, territorial institutions, the cash processing centre (CPC), and other organizations. The National Financial Council operates through the Bank of Russia, while the bank’s central office includes a board of directors and a chairperson. The Bank of Russia’s territorial institutions are autonomous and perform some of the functions of the Bank of Russia across Russia’s regions. The regional territorial institutions are based in economic regions and cover several constituent entities of Russia. They comprise the main departments in the regions, territories, and autonomous districts of Russia, in Moscow and St. Petersburg, and national banks in the republics of the Russian Federation.

The main departments take part in the implementation of the state monetary and credit policy, ensuring the banking system’s development and strengthening; the efficiency and continuous operation of the settlements system; the regulation and supervision of activities of credit institutions in the securities market; the foreign exchange control; the analysis of the state of the economy and its development prospects, as well as the analysis of regional financial markets. A territorial institution has no legal status and is empowered with authority in accordance with the Bank of Russia’s regulation and statutory acts.

Cash processing centers (CPCs) are structural units of territorial institutions. The main goal of the CPCs is to ensure the existence of an efficient, reliable and safe payment system in Russia. The CPCs have contractual relationships with credit institutions, representative and executive bodies, local government authorities, federal treasury bodies, and other clients.

(9) Banking products

If you work, you will probably get a savings bank account. You can keep the money you earn in a box under your bed. Or you can keep it in the cupboard. You can lend it to your friend, but don’t lose your friend in this case. Some people hide their money in their refrigerator. But these ways aren’t very clever. On the one hand it isn’t very safe. If your house is robbed, you will lose everything you've saved. On the other hand your money will lose its value.

After some time, the money from the cupboard won’t be able to do a lot of things. However money will earn interest if you make a deposit. The interest will help to compensate for the effect of inflation. But banks are more than just safe places for your money.

The other main service of banks is lending money. Individuals and businesses often need to borrow money, and they need a lender that they can trust. This is exactly what banks are –reliable lenders. In fact, most of the money that people deposit in their bank accounts is immediately lent out to someone else.

Apart from storing and lending money, banks offer other financial services. Most of these are ways of making money more accessible to customers. For example, banks help people transfer money securely. They give customers cheque books and credit cards to use instead of cash. They provide ATM machines so that people can withdraw cash any time of the day or night.

At the most basic level, what banks do is simple. Banks accept deposits from customers, raise capital from investors or lenders, and then use that money to make loans, buy securities and provide other financial services to customers. These loans are then used by people and businesses to buy goods or expand business operations, which in turn leads to more deposited funds that make their way to banks.

(10) Employment

Since individuals typically earn their incomes from working for companies whose requirements are constantly changing, it is quite possible that at any given time not all members of a country's potential work force will be able to find an employer that needs their labor. This would be less problematic in an economy in which such individuals had unlimited access to resources such as land in order to provide for themselves, but when the ownership of the bulk of its productive capacity resides in relatively few hands, most individuals will be dependent on employment for their economic well-being. It is typical for true capitalist economies to have rates of unemployment that fluctuate between 3% and 15%. Some economists have used the term "natural rate of unemployment" to describe this phenomenon.

Depressed or stagnant economies have been known to reach unemployment rates as high as 30%, while events such as military mobilization (a good example is that of World War II) have resulted in just 1-2% unemployment, a level that is often termed "full employment". Typical unemployment rates in Western economies range between 5% and 10%. Some economists consider that a certain level of unemployment is necessary for the proper functioning of capitalist economies. Equally, some politicians have claimed that the "natural rate of unemployment" highlights the inefficiency of a capitalist economy, since not all its resources – in this case human labor – are being allocated efficiently.

Some libertarian economists argue that higher unemployment rates are in part the result of minimum wage laws, as well as in part the result of misguided monetary policy, and are not inevitable in a capitalist economy. They also claim that if the value of the productive capacity of a given employee is worth less to the employer than the minimum wage, that person will become unemployed, and therefore unemployment will exist whenever the legal minimum wage exceeds the true economic value of the least productive members of the labor pool. Likewise, if the amount of money a person can obtain on welfare approaches or equals what they could make by working, that person's incentive to work will be reduced.

Some unemployment is voluntary, such as when a potential job is turned down because the unemployed person is seeking a better job, is voluntarily living on savings, or has a non-wage-earning role, such as in the case of a traditional homemaker. Some measures of employment disregard these categories of unemployment, counting only people who are actively seeking work and have been unable to find any.

(11) Market Economy -1

The notion of a "free market" where all economic decisions regarding transfers of money, goods, and services take place on a voluntary basis, free of coercive influence, is commonly considered to be an essential characteristic of capitalism. Some individuals contend, that in systems where individuals are prevented from owning the means of production (including the profits), or coerced to share them, not all economic decisions are free of coercive influence, and, hence, are not free markets. In an ideal free market system none of these economic decisions involve coercion. Instead, they are determined in a decentralized manner by individuals trading, bargaining, cooperating, and competing with each other. In a free market, government may act in a defensive mode to forbid coercion among market participants but does not engage in proactive interventionist coercion. Nevertheless, some authorities claim that capitalism is perfectly compatible with interventionist authoritarian governments, and/or that a free market can exist without capitalism.

A legal system that grants and protects property rights provides property owners the entitlement to sell their property in accordance with their own valuation of that property; if there are no willing buyers at their offered price they have the freedom to retain it. According to standard capitalist theory, as explained by Adam Smith, when individuals make a trade they value what they are purchasing more than they value what they are giving in exchange for a commodity. If this were not the case, then they would not make the trade but retain ownership of the more valuable commodity. This notion underlies the concept of mutually-beneficial trade where it is held that both sides tend to benefit by an exchange.

In regard to pricing of goods and services in a free market, rather than this being ordained by government it is determined by trades that occur as a result of price agreement between buyers and sellers. The prices buyers are willing to pay for a commodity and the prices at which sellers are willing to part with that commodity are directly influenced by supply and demand (as well as the quantity to be traded). In abstract terms, the price is thus defined as the equilibrium point of the demand and the supply curves, which represent the prices at which buyers would buy (and sellers sell) certain quantities of the good in question. A price above the equilibrium point will lead to oversupply (the buyers will buy less goods at that price than the sellers are willing to produce), while a price below the equilibrium will lead to the opposite situation. When the price a buyer is willing to pay coincides with the price a seller is willing to offer, a trade occurs and price is determined.

12. Market Economy – 2

Not everyone believes that a free or even a relatively-free market is a good thing. One reason proffered by many to justify economic intervention by government into what would otherwise be a free market is market failure. A market failure is a case in which a market fails to efficiently provide or allocate goods and services (for example, a failure to allocate goods in ways some see as socially or morally preferable). Some believe that the lack of "perfect information" or "perfect competition" in a free market is grounds for government intervention. Other situations or activities often perceived as problems with a free market may appear, such monopolies, monopsonies, information inequalities (e.g. insider trading), or price gouging. Wages determined by a free market mechanism are also commonly seen as a problem by those who would claim that some wages are unjustifiably low or unjustifiably high. Another critique is that free markets usually fail to deal with the problem of externalities, where an action by an agent positively or negatively affects another agent without any compensation taking place. The most widely known externality is pollution. More generally, the free market allocation of resources in areas such as health care, unemployment, wealth inequality, and education are considered market failures by some. Also, governments overseeing economies typically labeled as capitalist have been known to set mandatory price floors or price ceilings at times, thereby interfering with the free market mechanism. This usually occurred either in times of crises, or was related to goods and services which were viewed as strategically important. Electricity, for example, is a good that was or is subject to price ceilings in many countries. Many eminent economists have analyzed market failures, and see governments as having a legitimate role to mitigate these failures, for examples through regulation and compensation schemes.

However, some economists, such as Nobel prize-winning economist Milton Friedman as well as those of the Austrian School, oppose intervention into free markets. They argue that government should limit its involvement in economies to protecting freedom rather than diminishing it for the sake of remedying "market failure." These economists believe that government intervention creates more problems than it is supposed to solve. Laissez-faire advocates do not oppose monopolies unless they maintain their existence through coercion to prevent competition, and often assert that monopolies have historically only developed because of government intervention rather than due to a lack of intervention. They may argue that minimum wage laws cause unnecessary unemployment, that laws against insider trading reduce market efficiency and transparency, or that government-enforced price-ceilings cause shortages.

13. Auditing

"In God we trust, all others we audit". This quote sums up a basic viewpoint of some professionals towards auditing. Auditing has existed in one form or another since ancient times. Records show that auditing activity was part of early life in Babylonia, China, Greece, and Rome. One ancient meaning for the word "auditor" was a "hearer or listener". In Rome, auditors heard transactions as they took place. They observed the events as they happened and were able to recount the responsibilities and obligations to which each party was bound.

Modern auditing, as defined by the American Accounting Association, is a systematic process of objectively obtaining and evaluating evidence regarding assertions about economic actions and events to ascertain the degree of correspondence between those assertions and established criteria and communicating the results to interested users.

An examination of the definition of auditing reveals that there are three key aspects of the definition. First, auditing is not an activity which can be performed in a haphazard manner, it is a systematic process based on logic and reasoning.

Second, during an examination of financial statements the auditor objectively obtains and evaluates evidence regarding assertions about economic actions and events embodied in the financial statements to ascertain the degree of correspondence between those assertions and established criteria. In the audit of financial statements prepared by a company, the established criteria are generally accepted accounting principles (GAAP). That is, the financial statements must be prepared in accordance with GAAP. Consequently, the auditor must obtain and evaluate evidence to determine whether the assertions (the elements of the financial statements) meet the established criteria (GAAP).

The third and final key aspect of the definition is that auditing involves communicating the results of the audit to interested users. The auditor communicates the findings of the audit process by issuing an audit report. In the audit report, the auditor gives an opinion as to whether the assertions are reported in accordance with the established criteria. For example, in the audit of financial statements the auditor issues an audit report which describes the scope of the examination in the first paragraph and states in the last paragraph whether in his or her opinion the financial statements are fairly presented in accordance with generally accepted accounting principles applied on a consistent basis.

14. Human Rights Violations, Imperialism, and Democracy

Detractors claim that ills caused by capitalism include imperialism, poverty, oppression exploitation and abuse of human rights. Many of these violations occurred during a time period and in states sometimes considered being more capitalist than today since the government share of the economy was much smaller.

Proponents of capitalism point out that these problems have been widespread through all of human history, including in states characterized as socialist such as in Cambodia under Pol Pot. Some assert that these practices are not consistent with principles of capitalism even though they have existed in nations or in the colonies of nations commonly, or loosely, labeled as capitalist. They deny that many of the colonies had capitalist economic systems and claim that their economies mostly continued to be feudalistic. Instead they emphasize that it was capitalist states that abolished slavery throughout the world and that it was capitalist states who developed the modern democratic system.

The strong economic growth during capitalism may encourage democratization, or vice versa. There is debate about whether liberal democracy, in the sense of electoral rights and civil liberties, is a consequence of economic growth, a cause of it, or completely unrelated to it. These studies tend to indicate that establishing the rule of law in protecting private property and free markets, rather than mere democratization, is what is most instrumental in generating economic growth.

One of the very few studies simultaneously examining the relationship among economic freedom, economic development (measured with GDP/capita), and political freedom found that high economic freedom increases GDP/capita and a high GDP/capita increases economic freedom. A high GDP/capita also increases political freedom but political freedom did not increase GDP/capita. There was no direct relationship either way between economic freedom and political freedom if keeping GDP/capita constant.

One common criticism that Marxists make about Capitalism is that it is only democratic to the Bourgeoisie (the exploitive class that owns the 'means of production') citing examples such as not being able to criticize one's boss out of risk of getting fired and not expressing opinions on TV due to lack of funds to afford a channel.

Marxists also criticize capitalism for needing Imperialism (the exportation of capital to other nations) to survive. Due to Capitalism not being a planned economy it inevitably overproduces commodities and overuse resources. This leads it to expand it markets into and drain the resources out of other nations.

15. Economic growth

One of the primary objectives in a social system in which commerce and property have a central role is to promote the growth of capital. The standard measures of growth are Gross Domestic Product or GDP, capacity utilization, and 'standard of living'.

The ability of capitalist economies to increase and improve their stock of capital was central to the argument which Adam Smith advanced for a free market setting production, price and resource allocation. It has been argued that GDP per capita was essentially flat until the industrial revolution and the emergence of the capitalist economy, and that it has since increased rapidly in capitalist countries. It has also been argued that a higher GDP per capita promotes a higher standard of living, including the adequate or improved availability of food, housing, clothing, health care, reduced working hours and freedom from work for children and the elderly. These are reduced or unavailable if the GDP per capita is too low, so that most people are living a marginal existence.

Economic growth is, however, not universally viewed as an unequivocal good. The downside of such growth is referred to by economists as the 'externalization of costs'. Among other things, these effects include pollution, the disruption of traditional living patterns and cultures, the spread of pathogens, wars over resources or market access, and the creation of underclasses.

No matter how wealthy the richest capitalists are, it does not ensure the well-being of all the citizens. Such examples of this include the Hurricane Katrina crisis in New Orleans where the working class (a majority of them being African-American) were left without aid despite the US being the wealthiest country in the world at that time.

In defense of capitalism, liberal philosopher Isaiah Berlin has claimed that all of these ills are neither unique to capitalism, nor are they its inevitable consequences.

16. Tax

A tax is a compulsory charge or other levy imposed on an individual or a legal entity by a state or a functional equivalent of a state (e.g., tribes, secessionist movements or revolutionary movements). Taxes could also be imposed by a subnational entity.

Taxes may be paid in cash or in kind or as corvee labor. In modern capitalist taxation systems, taxes are designed to encourage the most efficient circulation of goods and services and are levied in cash. In kind and corvee taxation are characteristic of traditional or pre-capitalist states and their functional equivalents. The means of taxation, and the uses to which the funds raised through taxation should be put, are a matter of hot dispute in politics and economics, so discussions of taxation are frequently tendentious.

Public finance is the field of political science and economics that deals with taxation.

HISTORY OF TAXATION

Political authority has been used to raise capital throughout history. In many pre-monetary societies, such as the Incan empire, taxes were owed in labor. Taxation in labor was the basis of the Feudal system in medieval Europe.

In more sophisticated economies such as the Roman Empire, tax farming developed, as the central powers could not practically enforce their tax policy across a wide realm. The tax farmers were obligated to raise large sums for the government, but were allowed to keep whatever else they raised.

Many Christians have understood the New Testament to support the payment of taxes, through Jesus's words "Render unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's".

There were certain times in the Middle Ages where the governments did not explicitly tax, since they were self-supporting, owning their own land and creating their own products. The appearance of doing without taxes was however illusory, since the government's (usually the Crown's) independent income sources depended on labor enforced under the feudal system, which is a tax exacted in kind.

Many taxes were originally introduced to fund wars and are still in place today, such as those raised by the American government during the American Civil War (1861-1865). Income tax was first introduced into Britain in 1798 to pay for weapons and equipment in preparation for the Napoleonic wars and into Canada in 1917 as a "temporary" tax under the Income War Tax Act to cover government expenses resulting from World War I.

The current income tax in America was set up by Theodore Roosevelt in 1913. It was called The Federal Income Tax and was deducted from incomes at rates varying from 1-7%. But, since then, the American Tax Code has been modified and new taxes have been added, especially over the World War I and II periods. Since World War II, the American Tax Code has increased in size four-fold.

17. Taxes and their Types -1

Taxes are sometimes referred to as direct or indirect. The meaning of these terms can vary in different contexts, which can sometimes lead to confusion. In economics, direct taxes refer to those taxes that are collected from the people or organizations on whom they are imposed. For example, income taxes are collected from the person who earns the income. By contrast, indirect taxes are collected from someone other than the person responsible for paying the taxes.

From whom a tax is collected is a matter of law. However, who pays the tax is determined by the market place and is found by comparing the price of the good (including tax) after the tax is imposed to the price of the good before the tax was imposed. For example, suppose the price of gas in the U.S., without taxes, were $2.00 per gallon. Suppose the U.S. government imposes a tax of $0.50 per gallon on the gas. Forces of demand and supply will determine how that $0.50 tax burden is distributed among the buyers and sellers. For example, it is possible that the price of gas, after the tax, might be $2.40. In such a case, buyers would be paying of the tax while the sellers would be paying $0.10 of the tax.

a) INCOME TAX

Income tax is commonly a progressive tax because the tax rate increases with increasing income. For this reason, it is generally advocated by those who think that taxation should be borne more by the rich than by the poor, even to the point of serving as a form of social redistribution. Some critics characterize this tax as a form of punishment for economic productivity. Other critics charge that income taxation is inherently socially intrusive because enforcement requires the government to collect large amounts of information about business and personal affairs, much of which is considered proprietary and confidential.

Income tax fraud is a problem in most, if not all, countries implementing an income tax. Either one fails to declare income, or declares nonexistent expenses. Failure to declare income is especially easy for non-salaried work, especially those paid in cash. Tax enforcement authorities fight tax fraud using various methods, nowadays with the help of computer databases. They may, for instance, look for discrepancies between declared revenue and expenses along time. Tax enforcement authorities then target individuals for a tax audit – a more or less detailed review of the income and tax-deductible expenses of the individual.

Income tax may be collected from legal entities (e.g., companies) as well as natural persons (individuals), although, in some cases, the income tax on legal entities is levied on a slightly different basis than the income tax on individuals and may be called, in the case of income tax on companies, a corporation tax or a corporate income tax.

18. Taxes and their Types - 2

a) POLL TAX

A poll tax, also called a per capita tax, or capitation tax, is a tax that levies a set amount per individual. The earliest tax mentioned in the Bible of a half-shekel per annum from each adult Jew was a form of poll tax. Poll taxes are regressive, since they take the same amount of money (and hence, a higher proportion of income) for poorer individuals as for richer individuals. Poll taxes are difficult to cheat.

b)VALUE ADDED TAX

A value added tax (sometimes called a goods and services tax, as in Australia and Canada) applies the equivalent of a sales tax to every operation that creates value. To give an example, sheet steel is imported by a machine manufacturer. That manufacturer will pay the VAT on the purchase price, that amount to the government. The manufacturer will then transform the steel into a machine, selling the machine for a higher price to a wholesale distributor. The manufacturer will collect the VAT on the higher price, but will remit to the government only the excess related to the "value added" (the price over the cost of the sheet steel). The wholesale distributor will then continue the process, charging the retail distributor the VAT on the entire price to the retailer, but remitting only the amount related to the distribution markup to the government. The last VAT amount is paid by the eventual retail customer who cannot recover any of the previously paid VAT. Economic theorists have argued that this minimizes the market distortion resulting from the tax, compared to a sales tax.

VAT was historically used when a sales tax or excise tax was uncollectible. For example, a 30% sales tax is so often cheated that most of the retail economy will go off the books. By collecting the tax at each production level, and requiring the previous production level to collect the next level tax in order to recover the VAT previously paid by that production level, the theory is that the entire economy helps in the enforcement. In reality, forged invoices and the like demonstrate that tax evaders will always attempt to cheat the system.

19. Accounting theory. Financial Measurements and the Balance Sheet (1)

The basic concepts of accounting as we understand them today were first published in Italy in 1494 by Luca Pacioli (1445 - 1517). He described them in a section of his book on applied mathematics. Pacioli was a Franciscan monk whose life and work was dedicated to the glory of God.

Accounting is the process of measuring and recording the financial value of the assets and liabilities of a business and monitoring these values as they change with the passage of time. When we refer to a business we could be referring to an individual, a company or any other entity for which accounting records are to be kept (for example a church, club or other non-profit organization).

The assets of a business are those things that belong to the business that have a positive financial value i.e. items that could be sold by the business in exchange for money. Examples of assets include land, buildings, vehicles, stock, equipment, rare gold coins, bank accounts with positive balances and money owed to the business by its debtors.

The liabilities of a business are those things that belong to the business but unlike assets have a negative financial value i.e. items that will require the payment of money by the business at some point in the future. Examples of liabilities include unpaid bills, unpaid taxes, unpaid wages, rusty motor vehicles, stock that has passed its use-by date, overdrawn bank accounts and money owed by the business to its creditors.

The equity of a business is defined as the value of the assets minus the value of the liabilities. In other words the equity is the financial value that would be left if all the assets were sold and the money from the sale was used to pay off all the liabilities. Another way of expressing this is to say that the equity is the amount of money that would be released if the business was to be wound up.

The assets, liabilities and equity of a business are all financial measurements that relate to a particular point in time. The financial statement that is used to present this information is known as the balance sheet. The balance sheet is a statement of the assets, liabilities and equity of a business as they exist at a particular point in time.

The relationship between the assets, the liabilities and the equity can be represented algebraically by what is commonly known as the accounting equation. If we use the letter A to represent the assets, the letter L to represent the liabilities and the letter P to represent the equity then the accounting equation is: $P = A – L$

This equation states that the value of the assets is equal to the value of the liabilities plus the equity. This is just another way of saying the same thing. Because the equity is defined as the value of the assets minus the value of the liabilities then this equation is always true by definition. A balance sheet is commonly divided into two sections. One section shows the value of the assets and the other section shows the value of the liabilities and the equity. Each section will be broken down into more or less detail depending on the intended use of the balance sheet. Because the accounting equation is always true the totals of each of the two sections of the balance sheet should always be the same i.e. the balance sheet should always be in balance.

(20) Basic Ingredients of the U.S. Economy

The first ingredient of a nation's economic system is its natural resources. The United States is rich in mineral resources and it is blessed with a moderate climate. It also has extensive coastlines on both the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, as well as on the Gulf of Mexico. Rivers flow from far within the continent, and the Great Lakes – five large, inland lakes along the U.S. border with Canada – provide additional shipping access. These extensive waterways have helped shape the country's economic growth over the years and helped bind America's 50 individual states together in a single economic unit.

The second ingredient is labor, which converts natural resources into goods. The number of available workers and, more importantly, their productivity help determine the health of an economy. Throughout its history, the United States has experienced steady growth in the labor force, and that, in turn, has helped fuel almost constant economic expansion. Until shortly after World War I, most workers were immigrants from Europe, their immediate descendants, or African-Americans whose ancestors were brought to the Americas as slaves. In the early years of the 20th century, large numbers of Asians immigrated to the United States, while many Latin American immigrants came in later years.

The quality of available labor – how hard people are willing to work and how skilled they are – is at least as important to a country's economic success as the number of workers. Labor mobility has likewise been important to the capacity of the American economy to adapt to changing conditions. When immigrants flooded labor markets on the East Coast, many workers moved inland, often to farmland waiting to be tilled. Similarly, economic opportunities in industrial, northern cities attracted black Americans from southern farms in the first half of the 20th century.

Labor-force quality continues to be an important issue. Today, Americans consider "human capital" a key to success in numerous modern, high-technology industries. As a result, government leaders and business officials increasingly stress the importance of education and training to develop workers with the kind of nimble minds and adaptable skills needed in new industries such as computers and telecommunications.

However, natural resources and labor account for only part of an economic system. These resources must be organized and directed as efficiently as possible. In the American economy, managers, responding to signals from markets, perform this function. The traditional managerial structure in America is based on a top-down chain of command; authority flows from the chief executive in the boardroom, who makes sure that the entire business runs smoothly and efficiently, through various lower levels of management responsible for coordinating different parts of the enterprise, down to the foreman on the shop floor. Numerous tasks are divided among different divisions and workers.

(21) America's labour market is perking up

AMERICA'S recovery has not been an easy one for workers. For months, the economy expanded without doing much at all to create jobs and bring down unemployment. And recently, the economy has shown signs of faltering yet again, raising the possibility that in 2011 recovery would once more fail to bring meaningful gains to workers.

The Bureau of Labour Statistics has given American workers a big reason to hope, however. This morning, the BLS released payroll employment numbers that show a labour market growing progressively stronger. American firms added 244,000 jobs in April, and the private sector added 268,000. Payroll figures for February and March were both revised upward. Over the past three months private-sector employment has risen by an average of over 250,000 jobs per month.

Since the employment bottom in February of 2010, the economy has added 1.8m jobs and the private sector has added 2.1m. Most of those jobs were created in the past year, and about a third of them in the last three months. This is not yet the hiring pace one would hope to see after so deep a recession—there are still 13.7m unemployed workers and nonfarm employment remains nearly 7m jobs below the pre-recession peak. But this is better than anything the American economy has seen in years. The last time the private sector added this many jobs in a month was February of 2006—more than five years ago.

There are complicating details, to be sure. The unemployment rate ticked upward from 8.8% to 9.0%, largely because the number of unemployed, according to the household survey, rose by 205,000. This cannot be blamed on new entrants to the labour force. Rather, the household survey reported a drop in employment of 190,000. That is somewhat disconcerting. But the sample size for the establishment survey, from which we get the payroll number, is much larger than that for the household survey, from which we get the employment figures that go into the unemployment rate. When they diverge, it's usually better to place more emphasis on the payroll number.

Encouragingly, retail employment grew strongly in April, by 57,000, suggesting that consumers are hanging in there despite high petrol prices. Rising employment may well boost spending, reinforcing this trend. Manufacturing employment rose yet again. That sector has added 141,000 jobs in 2011 alone. Over the past year, government employment has declined by a stunning 404,000, and 24,000 more government employees were cut loose in April. Whether or not a structural adjustment is needed there, the loss of government employees has been a steady and significant drag on recovery.

With so many unemployed remaining, it's difficult to be too cheerful. But with every month that the economy adds over 200,000 jobs, the sustainability of recovery is less in doubt.

(22) Utility

Utility is a term used by economists to describe the measurement of «usefulness» that a consumer obtains from any good. Utility may measure how much one enjoys a movie, or the sense of security one gets from buying a deadbolt. The utility of any object or circumstance can be considered. Some examples include the utility from eating an apple, from living in a certain house, from voting for a specific candidate, from having a given wireless phone plan. In fact, every decision that an individual makes in their daily life can be viewed as a comparison between the utility gained from pursuing one option or another.

Utility is measured in numbers that are purely cardinal, rather than ordinal. The numbers used to measure utility (often in a unit called the «util») is useful only for comparison. If the utility given by one thing is

100 and the utility given by another is 12,000, we can only say that the utility of the latter is greater. We could not say that the individual gets «120 times more utility» from this option, because utility is not a quantity. Furthermore, the sign of utility may be positive or negative with no effect on its interpretation. If one option gives –15 utility and another gives –12, selecting the second is not, as it might seem, the «lesser of two evils», but can only be interpreted as the better option.

Utility can be seen as a measure of how much one values a particular good. This depends entirely on the preferences of that individual, rather than some external, or universal measure. So while an apple and

an orange may give utility values of 5 and 10 respectively to one individual, they may give 1,250 and –180 to another. These values depend only on how they are valued case. In ordinary uses the term utility is used to denote usefulness but in economics the term utility is used in different meaning and in wider sense.

In economics, we usually say that an individual is «rational» if that individual maximizes utility in their decisions. That is, whenever an individual is to choose between a group of options, they are rational if they choose the option that, all else equal, gives the greatest utility. Recalling that utility includes every element of a decision, this assumption is not particularly difficult to accept. If, when everything is taken into account, one decision provides the greatest utility, which is equivalent to meaning that it is the most preferred, then we would expect the individual to take that most preferred option. This should not necessarily be taken to mean that individuals who fail to quantify and measure every decision they make are behaving irrationally. Rather, this means that a rational individual is one who always selects that option that they prefer the most. The rationality assumption may seem trivial, but it is basic to the study of economics. This assumption gives a basis for modeling human behavior and decision-making. If we could not assume rationality, it would be impossible to say what, when presented with a set of choices, an individual would select. The notion of rationality is therefore central to any understanding of microeconomics.

There are no real methods of measuring utility outside of a purely theoretical framework. An option giving 100 utils has no real interpretation, except that it is preferred to an option giving 50, and is less preferred than an option giving 101. The numbers used to model utility are only determined in the functional form of the model from which they result. It is meaningless, for example, to ask «how much utility does this apple give you?» It could only be meaningful to ask, «Would you prefer an apple or an orange?» in any non-theoretical framework.

In microeconomic theory, we often say that an individual is made «better off» if one circumstance is preferred to another (that is, gives greater utility), and that individual is put into it. A simple example would be giving a child a cookie. Assuming the child enjoys cookies, the child is «better off» with the cookie than without it. Again, in this example we say he is «better off» only in terms of his preferences, rather than in terms of his health, etc.

(23) History of economics

In the 1500s there were few universities. Those that existed taught religion, Latin, Greek, philosophy, history, and mathematics. No economics. Then came the Enlightenment (about 1700) in which reasoning replaced God as the explanation of why things were the way they were. Pre-Enlightenment thinkers would answer the question, «Why am I poor?» with, «Because God wills it.» Enlightenment scholars looked for a different explanation. «Because of the nature of land ownership» is one answer they found. Such reasoned explanations required more knowledge of the way things were, and the amount of information expanded so rapidly that it had to be divided or categorized for an individual to have hope of knowing a subject. Soon philosophy was subdivided into science and philosophy. In the 1700s, the sciences were split into natural sciences and social sciences.

The amount of knowledge kept increasing, and in the late1800s and early 1900s social science itself split into subdivisions: economics, political science, history, geography, sociology, anthropology, and psychology. Many of the insights about how the economic system worked were codified in Adam Smith's The Wealth of Nations, written in 1776. Notice that this is before economics as a subdiscipline developed, and Adam Smith could also be classified as an anthropologist, a sociologist, a political scientist, and a social philosopher.

Throughout the 18th and 19th centuries economists such as Adam Smith, Thomas Malthus, John Stuart Mill, David Ricardo, and Karl Marx were more than economists; they were social philosophers who covered all aspects of social science. These writers were subsequently called Classical economists. Alfred Marshall continued in that classical tradition, and his book, Principles of Economics, published in the late 1800s, was written with the other social sciences in evidence. But Marshall also changed the question economists ask; he focused on the questions that could be asked in a graphical supply-demand framework. In doing so he began what is called neo-classical economics. For a while economics got lost in itself, and economists learned little else. Marshall's analysis was downplayed, and the work of more formal economists of the1800s (such as Leon Walrus, Francis Edge worth, and Antoine Cournot) was seen as the basis of the science of economics. Economic analysis that focuses only on formal interrelationships is called Walrasian economics.

(24) Origins of Money

There are numerous myths about the origins of money. The concept of money is often confused with coinage. Coins are a relatively modern form of money. Their first appearance was probably in Asia in the 7th century BC. And whether these coins were used as money in the modern sense has also been questioned.

To determine the earliest use of money, we need to define what we mean by money. We will return to this issue shortly. But with any reasonable definition the first use of money is as old as human civilization. The early Persians deposited their grain in state or church granaries. The receipts of deposit were then used as methods of payment in the economies. Thus, banks were invented before coins. Ancient Egypt had

a similar system, but instead of receipts they used orders of withdrawal - thus making their system very close to that of modern checks. In fact, during Alexander the Great's period, the granaries were linked together, making checks in the 3rd century BC more convenient than British checks in the 1980s.

However, money is older than written history. Recent anthropological and linguistic research indicates that not only is money very old, but it's origin has little to do with trading, thus contradicting another common myth. Rather, money was first used in a social setting. Probably at first as a method of punishment.

Early Stone Age man began the use of precious metals as money. Until the invention of coins, metals were weighed to determine their value. Counting is of course more practical, the first standardized ingots appeared around 2200 BC. Other commonplace objects were subsequently used in the abstract sense, for example miniature axes, nails, swords, etc.

Full standardization arrived with coins, approximately 700 BC. The first printed money appeared in China, around 800 AD. The first severe inflation was in the 11th century AD. The Mongols adapted the bank note system in the 13th century, which Marco Polo wrote about. The Mongol bank notes were «legal tender», i.e. it was a capital offense to refuse them as payment. By the late 1400s, centuries of inflation eliminated printed bank notes in China. They were reinvented in Europe in the 17th century.

(25) Profit

Profits and losses are indications of whether we're doing the right things to grow our business. The most direct tangible advantage of earning profit is that you have a chance to retain earnings and increase your equity position.

The success of any business depends on its ability to continually earn profits. Profit equals a company's revenues minus expenses. Earning a profit is important to a business because profitability impacts whether a company can secure financing from a bank, attract investors to fund its operations and grow its business. Companies cannot remain in business without turning a profit. A business owner must understand the importance of profitability in business management while developing strategies and tools which give his/her company the best chance at remaining profitable.

When a company increases productivity, it is able to produce more with the same amount work and equipment, which can lead to several important benefits. A business needs to make a profit to keep its doors open in the long run. Increasing productivity lets a firm make more products without increasing costs. Producing more creates the opportunity to make more sales, which in turn offers the potential to increase profits. Higher productivity can increase a company's profit margin in addition to raising total profits. Profit margin is measure of how much profit a company makes for each dollar it spends.

The pursuit and realization of profit is an essential characteristic of capitalism. Profit is derived by selling a product for more than the cost required to produce or acquire it. Some consider the pursuit of profit to be the essence of capitalism. Sociologist and economist, Max Weber, says that «capitalism is identical with the pursuit of profit, and forever renewed profit, by means of conscious, rational, capitalistic enterprise».

However, it is not a unique characteristic for capitalism, some practiced profitable barter and monetary profit has been known since antiquity. Opponents of capitalism often protest that private owners of capital do not remunerate laborers the full value of their production but keep a portion as profit, claiming this to be exploitative.

However, defenders of capitalism argue that when a worker is paid the wage for which he agreed to work, there is no exploitation, especially in a free market where no one else is making an offer more desirable to the worker; that «the full value of a worker's production» is based on his work, not on how much profit is created, something that depends almost entirely on factors that are independent of the worker's performance; that profit is a critical measure of how much value is created by the production process; that the private owners are the ones who should decide how much of the profit is to be used to increase the compensation of the workers (which they often do, as bonuses); and that profit provides the capital for further growth and innovation.

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

Баллы	**Критерии оценивания**
30	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.
22	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.
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	собеседника. Владеет минимальным запасом лексики, но не умеет его использовать

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